The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary

E.C. Llewellyn

bron


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Let op: boeken en tijdschriftjaargangen die korter dan 140 jaar geleden verschenen zijn, kunnen auteursrechtelijk beschermd zijn. Welke vormen van gebruik zijn toegestaan voor dit werk of delen ervan, lees je in de gebruiksvoorwaarden.
Introduction

The words treated in this book have been collected from the pages of the Oxford English Dictionary and the Supplement to that work. I have not used the English Dialect Dictionary, as words in dialectal use only do not fall within the scope of my work.

I have been as inclusive as possible. Borrowings from Low Dutch that found a place in the English vocabulary for a short time only, and then became obsolete, have been included; words which were never really naturalized, and those recorded but once, have not been excluded. I have found a place for the numerous Low Dutch words which have been borrowed into English in South Africa, North America, the East and West Indies, and Guiana. I have included a few Dutch words, such as ridder and marten, which have passed into English indirectly through French, and conversely many French words, e.g. such verbs as domineer, cashier, and fineer, which have passed into English through Low Dutch. A class of words similar to this last is that of words of Portuguese and Spanish or of native Malay and South African origin borrowed into Dutch, thence passing into English in their Dutch form.

I have taken the explanations of the meanings of the words as given by the Oxford English Dictionary. The form of the word given is always the Main Form, as used by the Oxford English Dictionary to head its article, but when necessary I have added variant spellings. The date of the earliest record is placed in brackets after each word, and where the history of the sense-development is of importance, each sense is preceded by the date of its earliest record. After the date of earliest record I have sometimes added the name of the text or of the author in whose work the word is first found. This I have done only when a knowledge of the place of origin or of the author has a bearing on the Low Dutch influence. Thus, if a word occurs first in the Promptorium Parvulorum, I have always mentioned it, because that work was composed at Lynn in a region where Low Dutch influence was especially strong. Again, it is of importance that we should know if a word occurs first in the books of Caxton, who lived half his life in the Low Countries, or of Evelyn or Fynes Morison, who travelled there, or of Ben Jonson or Gascoigne, who fought there. When the
date of a text is really uncertain, I have usually added the name of the text after the presumed date or mere indication of century; at other times I have inserted the first authenticated date from which the word is found. The abbreviations, signs, and phonetic symbols which I have employed are chiefly those used by the *Oxford English Dictionary*; ad., adoption of, adaptation of, in the etymologies, has been especially useful because of the great saving of space effected by its employment.

I had hoped that a considerable number of words, especially from the earlier volumes, given in the *Oxford English Dictionary* as of unknown or obscure origin, could have been proved to be of Low Dutch origin. I have found but few words capable of such proof, and at times I have been almost discouraged at being forced so often to agree with the etymologies of the *Oxford English Dictionary*. Most of my etymologies, then, are practically identical with those proposed by the *Oxford English Dictionary*, but even when I have had nothing to add, I have always verified and investigated for myself.

I have used the term ‘Low Dutch’ to include all the continental Low German dialects, i.e. the various dialects of Flemish, Dutch, Frisian, and Low German. The close affinity between English and Low Dutch is often a great difficulty in determining the question of origin. If a word is recorded first in the Middle English period, and if there are suitable forms in one or all of the Middle Low Dutch dialects, which would account for it as a borrowing from Low Dutch, it is even then not safe to jump to conclusions; the word may have originated in an unrecorded Old English form and be therefore only the cognate of the Low Dutch forms. Very interesting in this respect is *polder*. On the other hand, even if a word is recorded in Old English, the native form may have died out, and then later in Middle English its Low Dutch cognate may have been borrowed; an example of this is *walker*.

I do not wish to give in this introduction even a brief survey of the historical and economic relations between England and the Low Dutch countries, as that has been done at length in the separate chapters. Nevertheless, certain points arise which are worthy of note. As is to be expected, the number of military and nautical terms borrowed is great. Even more numerous are the terms of commerce, which include interesting groups of words introduced through the timber and Baltic trades and an
astonishing number of names for imported cloths. The number of fishing terms adopted from Low Dutch is surprisingly large, and the fact is brought out that the Yarmouth Banks were to the Dutch in the Middle Ages what the Newfoundland Banks were to English fishermen in later centuries. In the whale fishery, too, the Dutch were at times supreme, and Low Dutch words were freely taken into the English vocabulary of the industry.

The crafts and industries introduced or improved by Low Dutch people are many, and the technical terms of these arts and crafts were borrowed in large numbers. There is often difficulty here, however, in ascribing a term to any particular craft or industry, when it may have been introduced through several channels. A rather contradictory result is obtained for woollen weaving. Economic historians, like Cunningham and Ashley, have insisted that the English weaving industry was practically established by Flemish immigrants. That there were such immigrants we know, but they could not have had such an important influence on the industry as the economists suggest, for the number of weaving terms which they introduced is comparatively slight. In the preparation and weaving of flax and hemp, on the other hand, where practically no Flemish contact can be shown, such influence must have existed, for the terms borrowed from Low Dutch are important. Dutch activities in the draining and reclaiming of land are responsible for some sixteen words. Though most of the German miners of whom we have record in England seem to bear South German names, some of those who are styled ‘Almaygnes’ must have come from the Flemish and Hartz mining districts, for they have left a number of Low Dutch mining terms in the English vocabulary. The modern brewing industry seems to have been established by Low Countrymen, who introduced the practice of brewing with hops.

Among the purely literary borrowings two contributions are especially noteworthy: that of the bilingual Caxton, though most of his introductions from Flemish did not make good their footing in the English vocabulary; and that of the early school of botanists known as the Herbalists, who freely adopted or adapted Low Dutch names of plants. During the 16th and 17th centuries English painting and engraving were dominated by artists of the Flemish and Dutch Schools, and some common
terms of painting and engraving were borrowed, e.g. *sketch, etch, easel,* and *landscape*.

The number of words taken into English from Afrikaans, the dialect of Dutch spoken in South Africa, is very great, and this is not to be wondered at, for there the two vigorous languages exist side by side. Most of these words are literary in English, and very few indeed have become popular, though many, such as *kopje* and *laager,* had a popular vogue during the years of the Boer war; the last war, however, has made *commandeer* a word known to every one. New York was originally a Dutch colony, and New England speech has been enriched by a number of words from the speech of the Dutch settlers. These are essentially popular words in American English, terms of cooking, housekeeping, farming, and the like, while there is a most interesting group of words from children’s dialect, one of which, Santa Claus, has passed into general English speech.

Many words remain for which I can find no specific channel of entry. They may have come into English by any one of half a dozen different ways. These words I have set down in a final chapter in alphabetical order; no purpose would be served by any attempt to group them in chronological order, as I have done with the words in the other chapters.

My chief aim has been to indicate the possible channels of entry of Low Dutch words into English. There has been no space for the exhaustive treatment of each individual word to be found in Bense’s *Dictionary of the Low-Dutch Element in the English Vocabulary.* Many words treated by Bense I have not been able to include. For some the evidence for Low Dutch origin is not sufficiently convincing to warrant it. Many again in English are only dialectal and so outside my plan.

This book is substantially my dissertation as presented and accepted for the degree of Bachelor of Letters at Oxford.

I have to express my especial indebtedness to Dr. C.T. Onions, who suggested the subject of this treatise, acted as my supervisor for the B.Litt. degree under the Board of the Faculty of English at Oxford, and has made a number of suggestions while the book was passing through the press. To my examiners also, Professor J.R.R. Tolkien and Mr. C.L. Wrenn, I am grateful for criticisms made during the viva voce examination for the degree. My thanks are due to Professor Cyril Brett for his constant interest and advice; to Professor Morgan Watkin for

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help on points of French and Afrikaans philology; and to Mr. J. Hubert Morgan for help on economic and historical sources. But for all errors and imperfections in the book I must, of course, be held solely responsible.

Finally, I wish to record my gratitude to the Philological Society for consenting to include my work among their Publications and for having defrayed the cost of producing it.

E.C. LI.
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**List of abbreviations and signs**

- **a.** ante, before.
- **ad.** adoption of, adaptation of.
- **adj.** adjective.
- **adv.** adverb.
- **AF.** Anglo-French.
- **Afrik.** Afrikaans.
- **AL.** Anglo-Latin.
- **attrib.** attributive, -ly.
- **c.** circa, about.
- **cf.** confer, compare.
- **comb.** combination.
- **Da.** Danish.
- **dial.** dialectal.
- **Du.** Dutch.
- **e.** early.
- **E.** East(ern).
- **Eng.** English.
- **esp.** especially.
- **f.** feminine.
- **fig.** figurative, -ly.
- **Flem.** Flemish.
- **F.** French.
- **Fris.** Frisian.
- **G.** German.
- **Gmc.** Germanic.
- **HG.** High German.
- **Icel.** Icelandic.
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<td>lit.</td>
<td>literal, -ly</td>
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<td>trans.</td>
<td>translation of, translated by</td>
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U.S. United States.
var. variant of.
vb. verb.
W. Western.
* a theoretical form.

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Chapter I
The Settlement of Low Dutch in England, and General Intercourse

1. 1.57.

In the Middle English period the Low Dutch people which had the most intercourse with English was naturally enough the Flemish. Most of the Flemings who came over with William I were soldiers, and these did not all return to the Continent when the Conquest was completed. Some were planted out at special points as military colonies, as, for example, that under Gherbord at Chester. This policy was continued by William II, who established a military colony at Carlisle.

William I replaced the higher native English clergy by foreigners, and Flemings had their share in the appointments, e.g. Hereman, Bishop of Salisbury, Giso of St. Trudo, Bishop of Wells, Walter, Bishop of Hereford, and Geoffrey of Louvain, Bishop of Bath.

Thierry states that not only soldiers, ecclesiastics, and traders, but whole families came over. Matilda, William's queen, was the daughter of Count Baldwin V of Flanders, and doubtless she had many Flemings in her train.

The immigration of Flemings went on steadily after the Conquest and in such numbers that Henry I did not know what to do with them. There is a tradition that in his reign an incursion of the sea made thousands homeless in the Low Countries and that the refugees came to England. They were settled first on the Tweed, but four years later were transferred to Wales. These settlements were reinforced in 1105 and 1106, and according to Florence of Worcester Henry sent another large body to South Wales in 1111. The colonies at Haverfordwest, Tenby, Gower, and Ross may have been intended to keep the Welsh in check; at any rate that was the result, for the districts settled lost entirely their Welsh character, and the dialects spoken in them to-day retain in vocabulary a pronounced Flemish element. Some of the Flemish mercenaries who came in Stephen's time were deported to Wales.

The Flemish immigration into Scotland also was considerable. The shores of the Clyde received a large settlement at the time.

1. 1. A.I. 22, 25-6, 29, 39-40; I.C. i. 187, 649; Th. i. 328-9, 349, ii. 154; Ram.D.C. 278, 369.

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of the expulsion of the Flemings from England by Henry II. A colony at Berwick held
the Redhall there by the tenure of defending it against the English. Many Scottish
armies had a Flemish element, whether mercenaries or a levy of the settlers it is
impossible to state. At the Battle of the Standard in 1138 there was a Flemish
contingent under a son of Gilbert of Ghent; and they were present also in the
expedition of William the Lion in 1173-4. The Flemish element in the early Scottish
towns was so large that a writ was actually addressed, ‘Francis et Anglis et Flamingis
et Scotis’. Berwick appears to have had a separate gild of Flemish merchants, and
when Bishop Robert was desirous of creating a burgh at his new see of St. Andrews,
one Mainerd, a Flemish burgess of Berwick, was transferred as its new provost.
There is evidence of Flemish colonies at St. Andrews, Edinburgh, and Perth. The
Low Dutch immigrants in Aberdeen and Moray were associated with the Hanse
which existed in northern Scotland in the 13th century.

There does not seem to have been any single, large influx of Flemings in the 13th
century comparable to those of the previous century; but a constant stream of traders
and artisans from Flanders maintained the intercourse. In 1272, however, England
and Flanders, usually so friendly, severed commercial relations; all Flemings not
engaged in weaving were ordered to leave the country.

All the chivalry of England was assembled at London in 1296 for the wedding of
Marguerite, daughter of Edward I, and John of Brabant. The Duke had a train of
over eighty knights and sixty ladies. Crowds of foreign minstrels, harpers, acrobats,
and buffoons appeared at the festivities, and this is a fact of some importance as
throwing light on one of the means of entry of Low Dutch words into cant and slang.

1. 2.1,2

A closer connexion between England and the Low Countries was brought about by
the marriage of Edward III and Philippa, daughter of William II, Count of Holland,
Zeeland, and Hainault. Edward's mother, Isabella, had received substantial help
from the Count in her struggle against her husband, and the engagement had been
the outcome of this. This Dutch marriage was favourable to English interests, the
Dutch being friendly allies united by commercial interests.

1. 2. Ram.G.L. i. 154, 195, 245, 252-64, 269-72, 276-83, 313; ii. 19-20, 156-69, 277; R. 41-2;
A.D.R. 89-90.

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In the sparring preliminary to the Hundred Years War, England was in the closest diplomatic relations with many of the Low Dutch states and especially with Flanders.

In order to consolidate his Low Dutch alliances Edward made, in 1338, a continental tour. He sailed to Antwerp with a numerous fleet, set up his court in that city, entertained the Flemish and Brabanter lords with the most lavish hospitality, made commercial treaties with the towns of Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges, Louvain, Diest, Brussels, Mechlin, and Cologne. Then he travelled by way of Breda and Juliers to Cologne and on into the Rhineland, spending such huge sums of money that when he returned to Antwerp he was forced to borrow 54,000 florins from three citizens of Mechlin. His allies took some part in his fruitless invasion of France in 1339. After more conferences, one of which restored the wool staple to Flanders, Edward returned to England.

Queen Philippa had been left behind with her court at Ghent, and there she gave birth to a son, the famous John of Gaunt. The Flemings remained in the closest alliance with England. The French continued to try to detach them and at last were successful, for in 1371 the Flemings committed outrages on English shipping, and as a result all Flemings resident in England were arrested. But Flanders could never afford to be on bad terms with England for long.

The Peasants' Rising of 1381 proved disastrous to foreigners resident in England. The Flemings were especially unpopular through their number and through their competition in work and trade, which tended to lower wages. In London all suspected of Flemish blood were made to pronounce the phrase ‘bread and cheese’, and if the words sounded anything like ‘brod and case’, off went their heads. Thirty to forty Flemings who had sought refuge in the church of St. Martin's in the Vintry were dragged out and beheaded. In Norwich, too, when Lytster and his mob invaded the city, six unfortunate Flemings were done to death.

Knights from the Low Countries were sometimes present in the 14th century at tournaments in England. At a great jousting held for three days at Smithfield in 1390 there were present men of rank from Holland and Germany, among them the Count of Ostrevant, son of the Duke of Holland. He was afterwards admitted to the Order of the Garter.
Throughout the 15th century diplomatic relations were continuous between England and the Low Countries. There were some important marriage alliances; in 1424 Jacqueline of Holland was married to the Duke of Gloucester, and in 1467-8 Charles the Bold married Margaret of York, and many English people went in her train to attend the festivities and jousts. Sir John Paston, we know, was present. Margaret retained some English at her court in Bruges; Caxton was with her in 1470.

During the Wars of the Roses many Englishmen took refuge in the Low Countries. The princes George and Richard of York were sent for safety to Utrecht. Other prominent refugees were Lord Ross, the Earl of Wiltshire, and Bishop Morton, while Edward IV fled in 1470 to Flanders to gather strength for his successful return to Ravenspur.

1. 3. 1-3.

The religious differences of the Reformation divided Europe into two camps. Owing to continuous persecution migration became a necessity for a large part of the industrial population of Germany and the Low Countries. Their prime object was not to discover a country that offered special advantages to their particular callings, but to secure an asylum where they could live according to their own convictions. That they exercised an enormous economic and industrial influence the other chapters of this book prove, but this result was incidental; the motive that brought them here was not industrial but religious.

This religious immigration must have begun early. Among the lists of those who were proceeded against for heresy in 1521, in the times when ecclesiastical authorities were still concerned with preserving England from the contagion of the new doctrines which were being widely spread on the Continent, are names which are suggestive of Flemish extraction. The numbers of the immigrants must have been considerable. Froude states that there were 15,000 Flemings in London as early as 1527. In 1536 the strangers in London were called to take part in repressing the rebellion of that year; the French tailors and the Flemish shoemakers are specifically mentioned. The congregations of the refugees were dispersed at the accession of Mary, but liberty of worship came to them again from Elizabeth. As the aspect of affairs in the Low Countries became more threatening, the numbers of the refugees increased; it is said that in 1560 more

1. 3. A.I. 137-57; I.C. ii. 37, 79-81.
than 10,000 came over, mainly from Antwerp, and in the following year 30,000. In 1567 the advent of Alva and the triumph of the policy of persecution increased the immigration, and another impetus was given to it by Parma's suppression of the rebellion in Flanders in 1581.

The reception of the refugees was on the whole extremely friendly. We find the corporation of Norwich petitioning to have families settled in their town, and thirty families of Dutch weavers were sent to them. It was inevitable, however, that the industrial question should be raised in many places and in many trades. The fresh trade which the immigrants brought tended to remove much of this jealousy, and they were gradually absorbed into the life of the towns. The Government did not look upon all the sects with favour; the political views of the Anabaptists made them obnoxious, and in 1575 thirteen Dutch and Flemish Anabaptists were burnt as heretics. There were Low Dutch communities in many towns; the largest was in London (in 1618 it had 10,000, mostly Flemings and Walloons), and there were settlements in Norwich, Sandwich (where 406 persons settled in 1561 to engage in weaving and fishing), Canterbury, Maidstone, Southampton, Lynn, Rye, Colchester, Ipswich, Thetford, Stamford, and Dover.

1. 4. 1. 4.

Intercourse with Holland in the 17th century was of two kinds. Englishmen visited Holland and became familiarized with Dutch political, industrial, and commercial practice. During the Civil War and the Commonwealth many Royalists found a refuge in Holland; when the Commonwealth envoy Doreslaat was murdered at The Hague by some of these refugees, the assassins remained unpunished under the pretext that they could not be discovered among the many English there. Of the last half of the century it would be true to say that there was hardly a leading man, from Charles II downwards, who had not had some experience of Dutch conditions. But beside the visitors to Holland there were also immigrants from Holland. It is not easy to assess how much each of these classes had to do with the conscious imitation of the Dutch which went on during this period. It is at least true to say that the immigrants took a leading part in suggesting and carrying out the changes by which many English activities were brought into close accord with the Dutch model. There was a long preparation in

1. 4. A.I. 193-4; I.C. ii. 208; Bl. iv. 157.

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the deliberate imitation of Dutch methods, or the nation would not have been ready to welcome William III.

The following were the main lines of approach: (1) through commerce - Dutch business men came to a country where commerce was developing rapidly, and they entered into keen competition with the London merchants both in trade and finance, even assisting in the financial affairs of state; (2) through artisans who came in the wake of the Dutch capitalists; (3) through the military element, which was comparatively unimportant, though William brought a few regiments from Holland which did not return there, but were garrisoned permanently in England and Ireland. It is evident that the United Provinces were for England a more apposite model than was France at this time.

1. 5.

The proper names of Low Dutch countries, nations, and districts were borrowed from the various Low Dutch dialects. It is impossible to specify the particular channel of introduction; they could have come in by way of trade, travel, or war, or through political intercourse. Very interesting are the names of Northern, Baltic, and South German countries and peoples which came into English through the medium of Low Dutch.

**Dutch** (c. 1460), of or pertaining to the people of Germany; (1568), of the Low Dutch people of the Netherlands and Holland; (1592), of or belonging to the Dutch: as a sb. (o. 1380, Wyclif), the German language in any of its forms; (1647), the language of Holland or the Netherlands; (1577), the Dutch; ad. M.Du. dutsch, duutsch, dutsc (e.mod.Du. duytsch, Du. duitsch). The senses of the word have changed in English to correspond to political changes on the Continent: in the 15th and 16th centuries it was applied to all divisions of the German people and to all dialects of the German language; after the United Provinces became an independent State, the term was restricted to the people and the Nederduytsche dialect of the Netherlands, as being the branch of the Dutch with whom the English came most into contact in the 17th century. In Holland itself, duitsch is generally restricted to the language of Germany proper.

The terms for Flemish and Fleming are recorded surprisingly late, if the early and intimate intercourse with Flanders is borne in mind. **Flandrish** (c. 1386, Ch.), Flemish. **Fleming** (c. 1430, Lydg.), a native of Flanders; (1595), a Flemish vessel; ad. M.Du. Vlâming, from Flâm, Flanders, and the suffix -ing. **Flanders**
(1460), used attributively; (1690), short for (a) Flanders lace, (b) Flanders horse; 
ad. Du. Vlaanderen, plur., the name of the ancient countship. Flemish (1488), of or 
belonging to Flanders or its inhabitants; ad. M.Du. Vlaemisch (Du. Vlaamsche).
Flanderkin (1694), a Fleming; from Flanders and -kin.

Holland (a. 1400, Morte Arth.), the name of a province of the northern Netherlands; 
from Du. Holland, originally Holtant, from holt, wood, and lant, land, i.e. the district 
around Dordrecht, the nucleus of the original county of Holland. Hollander (1547), 
a native of Holland, a Dutchman; also a Dutch ship; from Holland and the suffix -er.
Hollandish (1611, Coryat), of or belonging to Holland, Dutch; from Holland and the 
suffix -ish.

Friese (1481, Cax.), Frisian; ad. M.Du. Vriese. Frisian (1598), of or pertaining to 
the people of Friesland, an inhabitant of Friesland, the language of Friesland; from 
L. Frīsī, plur., ad. the native name, O.Fris. Frese, Frese (Du. Vries, M.Du. Vriese), a 
Frisian, and the suffix -an. An exactly similar formation is Batavian (1598), of or 
pertaining to the ancient Batavi, of or pertaining to Holland or the Dutch, a Dutchman 
or Netherlander; this is from L. Batavia, the name given by the Romans to the people 
who lived in the part of Holland between the Rhine and the Waal, now known as 
Betuwe, and the suffix -an.

Zealander (1573), a native of Zealand, a province of the Netherlands; from Zealand 
(Du. Zeeland) and the suffix -er. Netherlandish (1600), of or pertaining to the 
Netherlands; ad. Du. Nederlandsch, or from Netherland and the suffix -ish.
Netherlander (1610), an inhabitant of the Netherlands or Holland, formerly including 
Flanders or Belgium; ad. Du. Nederlander. Flushinger (1689), a Flushing sailor or 
vessel; from Flushing (Du. Vlissingen), the name of a Dutch port, and the suffix -er.
Walcheren (1810), the Walcheren fever; from the name of a Dutch island in Zealand; 
the name came into English during the Napoleonic wars, when an English army in 
Walcheren was decimated by this fever.

Lubecker (1627), a Lubeck merchant vessel; from Lübeck and the suffix -er.
Rhineland (1675), the country around the River Rhine; ad. Du. Rijnland or G. 
Rheinland.

The following are Northern, Baltic, and South German names which have passed 
into English through the medium of Low Dutch. Sweden (1503), the country; (1650), 
a Swede; ad. MLG.,
M.Du. *Sweden* (Du. *Zweden*), probably the dative plur. of the national name *Swede*; the OE. forms *Swēōland, Swēōrīce, Swearīce*, did not survive; in early 17th-century usage, *Sweden* appears as the name of the people and *Swedeland* as the name of the country. *Swede* (1614), an inhabitant of Sweden; ad. MLG., M.Du. *Swede* (Du. *Zweed*); here also the OE. plur. form *Swēōn* did not survive; ON. has *Svíar*, Sw. *Svear*, and it has been conjectured that the forms with -*d-, Swede* and *Sweden*, arose out of ON. *Svíþjóð*, lit. ‘Swede people’. *Swedish* (1632), from *Sweden* or *Swede* and the suffix -*ish*, perhaps after G. *schwedisch*, M.Du. *swedesch*, *sweets(ch)*, Du. *zewedsch*.

*Easterling* (1534), a native of eastern Germany or the Baltic coasts, chiefly applied to the citizens of the Hanse towns; apparently from *easter* and -*ling*, probably after Du. *oosterling*; the word is not found in English before the 16th century, but occurs as AF. and AL. *sterling(us)*, *esterling(us)*, but only in the sense of ‘sterling penny’.

*Overlander* (a. 1548), a dweller in the uplands of a country, a highlander, spec. one dwelling in the highlands of Germany, as opposed to a Netherlander or Low German; apparently ad. Du. *Overlander* (G. *Oberländer*), a dweller in the Oberland or upper country. *Switzer* (1577), a native of Switzerland; ad. M.Du. *Switzer*, *Swytzer* (Du. *Zwitser*), or MHG. *Switzer*, *Schwytzer*.

*Norse* (1598), a Norwegian, the language; probably ad. Du. *noorsch*, a variant of *noordsch* (M.Du. *no(o)rdsch, no(o)rtsch*), from *noord*, north, and -*sch*, -*ish*; MLG. had *norrisch*.

1. 6.

It is impossible to specify the channel of introduction for the names of rulers, officials, and dignitaries. The most probable is by way of political intercourse, but they could have come in equally well by way of trade or travel.

Schepen (c. 1481), a Dutch alderman or petty magistrate; ad. Du. *schepen*. Schout (c. 1481), a municipal or administrative officer in the Low Countries and the Dutch colonies; originally the schout was the lord’s bailiff in a subject town or village; ad. Du. *schout*, M.Du. *schout, schoutet, schoutheet*. The variants *schoutet*, *schoutheet* have given the English *Scoutette, Scouttet* (1534). Scult (1548) is from the corresponding LG. *schulte* (MLG. *schulte* and *schultête*).

Boroughmaster (1494), a Dutch or Flemish burgomaster; similar functionaries in other countries; probably formed in imitation of the M.Flem. *burgemeester*. The usual form is
Burgomaster (1592), from Du. burgemeester; Northern F. had bourguemaistre, ad. M.Flem. burchmeester, and it is possible that the F. is the immediate source of the English word. Burghermaster (1676) is from burgher and master, but the combination may have existed already in Du. as burger and meester.

Other combinations in -master are: Scaffmaster (1555), a steward; ad. Du. schaf-, scaffmeester, from schaffen, to provide, and meester, master. Wardmaster (1855), in Dutch history, an alderman, an administrator of a city ward; this is a rendering of Du. wijkmeester.

Various combinations of Grave appear before Grave itself. Palsgrave (1548), a count Palatine; ad. 16th-century Du. paltsgraaf. Rhinegrave (1548), a count whose domain borders on the Rhine; ad. M.Du. Rijngrave. Margrave (1551), a German title originally given to the military governor of a border province; ad. M.Du. markgrave (Du. markgraaf). The wife of a margrave is a Markgravine (1692), ad. Du. markgravin, the feminine of markgraaf. Dikegrave (1563), in Holland, an officer in charge of the dikes or sea-walls; ad. M.Du. dijgemaistre (Du. dijgraaf), from dijk, dike, and grave. Grave (1605), a count, chiefly used of the Counts of Nassau; ad. M.Du. grave (Du. graaf).

Portery, Portary (1565, from Sc.), citizenship or burghership in a Flemish or Dutch city; the body of citizens collectively; the rights and privileges of a burgher; in the quotation of 1565, Reg. Privy Council Scot., the reference is to Scottish merchants or factors resident in Flanders; ad. M.Flem. porterie, porterije, from porter, citizen, from port, town, city. Burgher (1568), a citizen; in this sense it is now somewhat archaic; in the 16th century, burgher, ad. Du. or e.mod.G. burger, citizen of a burg or fortified town; the origin of the Du. word is HG.

Amtman (1587), ‘one in charge’, a bailiff, steward, magistrate, officer; the term is used in Germany, the Netherlands, and Scandinavia; ad. M.Du. ambtman, amtmann, amman, or MLG. amtmann, amptman. Stadholder, Stadtholder (1591), the governor of a fortress; (1668), in Netherlands history; ad. Du. stadhouders, one who occupies another's place, a lieutenant, from stad, place, and houder, holder.

Hogen Mogen (c. 1645, Howell), their High Mightinesses, the States General; (1672), hence the Dutch, a Dutchman, contemptuous; a popular corruption or perversion of the Du.
Hoogmogendheden, High Mightinesses, the title of the States General. Mynheer (1652), the courteous form of address or title of courtesy, corresponding in Du. to ‘sir’ or ‘Mr.’, hence a Dutchman; Du. mijnheer, from mijn, my, and heer, lord, master.

Drossard (1678), a steward, high bailiff, prefect; ad. Du. drossaard, a transformation through drossaet, drossaert (Kilian, 1599) of M.Du. drossăte, court functionary, steward. Postholder (1812), in Dutch colonial administration, a civil official in charge of a trading post; ad. Du. posthouder, from post, post, and houder, holder.

1. 7.

In the Middle English period a number of words appear which seem to have been introduced by vagrants, beggars, and strolling minstrels from the Low Countries. Such people would mix with the corresponding English class along the roads and in the inns, and words from their speech would pass into our vagrants’ cant and slang, to appear later, perhaps, in more respectable dialects.

Bouse, Bowse (a. 1325, E.E.P., 1567, Harman, Caveat), to drink; to drink to excess, or for enjoyment or good fellowship, to swill, guzzle, tipple; ME. bousen is apparently from M.Du. bûsen (e.mod.Du. buizen), to drink to excess; the Du. word is probably related to buise, a large drinking-vessel; both vb. and sb. occur once in ME. and then appear as common words in thieves’ and beggars' cant in the 16th century, and are then probably reborrowings from Du.; they then passed into colloquial use. The vbl. sb. Bousing (a. 1529, Skelton) occurs earlier in the 16th century than the sb. or vb. Since the 18th century both sb. and vb. are often written as Booze (sb. 1732, vb. 1768).

Loiter (13..., E.E.Allit.P. as loltrande, c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), in early use, to idle, to waste one's time in idleness, to linger indolently on the way when sent on an errand or when making a journey; ad. M.Du. loteren, to wag about, Du. leuteren, to shake, totter, also to dawdle, loiter over one's work (Kilian, loteren j leuteren 'morari'); the sense which the vb. has in English has not been found in Du. earlier than the 16th century, but may be much older in slang use; O.E.D. states that the word was probably introduced into English by foreign 'loiterers' or vagrants; the diphthong -oi- is probably a substitution for the unfamiliar vowel of the Du. word, which was
probably (?). **Loiterer** (1530), one who loiters; in early use, a vagabond, ‘sturdy beggar’; this sb. is so much later than the vb. loiter that it is perhaps best to consider it a fresh borrowing and directly ad. Du. leuteraar. **Lounderer** (c. 1425, Wyntoun), a skulker; ad. Du. lunderaar (Kilian has lunderer), from lunderen, to idle.

Two terms of abuse probably entered by this channel. **Scabbard** (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), a scabbed person; this may be from scab and the suffix -ard, but compare Du. schobberd. **Smaik** (c. 1450, from Sc.), a low, mean, or contemptible fellow, a rascal, rogue; perhaps ad. M.Du. or MLG. smēker, smeiker, from smēken, smeiken, to flatter.

A term for one of the wandering performers is **Speeler** (1496, from Sc.), a performer, acrobat; probably this is ad. older Flem. or LG. speler, player, actor; a formation on the vb. speel is less likely.

In the 16th century there is a great influx of words of Low Dutch origin into the cant and slang of thieves, vagrants, and prostitutes. Not all of these came in through Low Dutch people in this country; doubtless many were picked up by the English soldiery, who throughout the period were serving in the Low Country wars. The facility of soldiers in acquiring words of this kind is considerable. Many of the prostitutes of London were Dutch or Flemish; as early as 1381, during the troubles of Wat Tyler, we hear of these ‘Flemish froes’, and the mob cleaned out the stewhouses of Southwark which they inhabited.

**Landloper, -louper** (15.., trans. of *Bull Pope Martin*, 1580), one who runs up and down the land, a vagabond, adventurer; ad. Du. landlooper, from land, land, and loopen, to run. **Swinger** (1500-20, Dunbar), a rogue, rascal, scoundrel; this is probably a cant term and perhaps a derivative of e.Flem. swentsen, which Kilian glosses vagari (O.E.D.). **Scaff** (1508, from Sc.), to beg or ask for food in a mean or contemptible manner; perhaps an adoption of the Du. and G. schaffen (also borrowed into M.Sw. as skaffa), to provide or procure food; this word may have been introduced by soldiers who served in the Low Country wars, and the bad sense of the word in Sc. is then easily understood if for ‘to procure food’ is read ‘to live on the country’, or in modern soldiers' slang ‘to scrounge’.

A term of prostitution is **Dant** (a. 1529), a profligate woman;

**Monkey** (1530), the simian animal; the MLG. version of ‘Reynard the Fox’ (1498) has once Moneke as the name of the son of Martin the Ape, but as it does not occur in any other version of ‘Reynard’, it is hardly the source of the English word; nevertheless, the proper name may reproduce an otherwise unrecorded MLG. *moneke, M.Du. *monnekijn, a colloquial word for monkey, and this may well have been brought to this country by travelling showmen from the Low Countries or Germany.

Two words are from colloquial Dutch. **Segging** (1546, J. Heywood) is used in echoes of the Dutch saying ‘zeggen is goed koop’, saying is cheap. **Nose-wise** (1566), conceited, clever in one’s own opinion; from *nose* and *wise*, but probably after Du. *neuswijs* (LG. *nasewis*).

**Pad**, vb. (1553), to tread, tramp on foot; it is undoubtedly related to the sb. below and is perhaps formed from it, even though it appears a little earlier; if so, it must be compared with LG. and E.Fris. *padden*, to tread, go along a path. The sb. **Pad** (1567) appears first in Harman’s *Caveat*, which is a treasury of the canting speech; it means a path, road, track, way; ad. Du, or LG. *pad*, cognate with English *path*; the sense of ‘highway robber’ appears first in 1673.

**Crank** (1567, Harman, *Caveat*), an obsolete word of beggars’ cant, in full ‘counterfeit crank’, a rogue who feigned sickness in order to move compassion and obtain money; apparently ad. Du. or G. *krank*, sick, ill.

A slang word for a German or Dutchman is **Hans** (1569); this is the familiar abbreviated form in G. and Du. of *Johannes*, John.

A term of rogues’ cant which has gained general currency is **Dock** (1586), the enclosure in a criminal court in which the prisoner is placed at his trial; it was formerly filled with all the prisoners whose trial was put down for the day; it is the same word as the Flem. *dok*, rabbit-hutch, fowl-pen, cage, in Kilian, *docke*; for the sense-development compare the modern equivalent in thieves’ slang, *pen*, the dock.

**Drawl** (1597), to prolong the sounds of speech in an indolent or affected manner; (1652), to move along with slow and loitering pace; O.E.D. states that the word was introduced in vagabonds’ cant from LG. or Du.; Du. has a verb *dralen*, to loiter,

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linger, delay (in Kilian, *draelen*, ‘cunctari, morari, trahere moram’), LG. *drālen*.

In the 17th century the following cant and slang terms appear. **Skellum** (1611), a rascal, scamp, scoundrel, villain; ad. Du. *schelm*, ad. G. *schelm*, rascal, devil, pestilence; the word passed from LG. into Scand. as ON. *skelmir*, Da. *skelm*, Sw. *skäl*.*m*. Another term of abuse is **Skitterbrook** (1632), one who befouls his breeches, a coward; ad. Du. *schijte-broek*, with the first element assimilated to *skitter*.

**Kelder** (1646), the womb; ad. Du. *kelder*, cellar. The word occurs a little earlier in the phrase, **Hans-in-Kelder** (1635), the slang term for an unborn child; from the Du. phrase which means literally ‘Jack in cellar’.

**Mump** (1651), to overreach, cheat; (1673), to beg, play the parasite; probably ad. Du. *mompen*, to cheat. **Mumper** (1673), a beggar, is from *mump* and the suffix -*er*.

**Ogle** (1682), to cast amorous, coquettish glances; it appeared first as a cant word apparently from Du. or LG.; compare LG. *oegeln*, frequentative of *oegen*, to look at, also e.mod.Du. *oogheler*, flatterer (Kilian), and for the sense Du. *oogen*, to direct or cast the eyes.

Most of the cant and slang terms recorded first in the 18th and 19th centuries were probably introduced into the language long before. We owe our knowledge of many of them to the interest in the canting speech which found expression in such compilations as Tuft’s *Glossary of Thieves’ Jargon* (1798), and J.H. Vaux’s *Flash Dictionary* (1812).

**Smouse** (1705), a Jew; ad. Du. *smous*, a Jew usurer, supposed to be the same word as the G. dialectal *schmus*, talk, patter, ad. Jewish *schmuoss*, tales, news, the reference being to the persuasive eloquence of the Jew pedlar. **Houndsfoot** (1710), scoundrel, rascal, worthless fellow; ad. Du. *hondsvot* (G. *hundsfoot*), scoundrel, rascal, lit. *cunnus canis*, an appellation which is extremely coarse, but whose exact equivalent I have heard in the modern slang of Rotherhithe: Scott revived the term in *Waverley*, probably with no inkling of its real meaning. **Funk**, vb. and sb. (1737-9), vb. to flinch through fear; sb. cowering fear; the word is first mentioned in Oxford slang, and is perhaps, as Lye suggests, ad. Flem. *fonck* (Kilian). **Nix** (1789), nothing, nobody; ad. colloquial Du. and G. *nix* for *nichts*; the word has been revived in modern slang under the influence of the American
film caption, and in American it is probably from the New York dialect and so probably Du.

Prad (1798), a horse; by metathesis from Du. paard, horse; this metathesis may have been made deliberately under one of the many systems of alteration of word-form in order to mystify the uninitiated; this is by no means impossible, but alteration to darp or drap would be more likely.

Spellken (c. 1800), a theatre; from spell and ken. Spell (1812), a playhouse or theatre; ad. Du. or Flem. spel, play, booth, show.

Crap (1812), the gallows; the vb. with the sense ‘to hang’ is earlier (1781); ad. Du. krap, cramp, clamp, clasp; Bense suggests that the origin may be the Du. phrase de krappe toedraaien, to close the clasps (of a book), and so ‘to close the book’ (of life), but this seems far too refined an origin; the clasp intended was a neck-clasp.

Slang (1812), a watch-chain, chain of any kind; fetters, leg-irons; apparently ad. Du. slang, snake. Prop (1859, Dickens), in the thieves’ slang sense of scarf-pin; ad. M.Du. proppe, prop, broach, skewer, plug.

Closely allied to the words of cant and slang are the terms of gaming and dicing, introduced mostly in the 16th century.

Mumchance (1528), a dicing game resembling hazard; (1550), to play mumchance, to preserve a dogged silence; (1555-75), a masquerade; ad. MLG. mummenschanze, -kanze, a certain game of dice, also a masked serenade (Du. mommecanse), from mummen, mum, and schanz, ad. F. chance. Gleek (1533), a game at cards played by three persons; ad. OF. glic, in 1464 written gheldique, perhaps ad. M.Du. ghelec (Du. gelijk), like, the possession of three cards of one kind being one of the points of the game; but the word has not been found in Du. as the name of a game. Foist (1545), to palm a false die, so as to be able to introduce it when required; probably ad. dialectal Du. vuisten, to take in the hand, from vuist, fist; the Du. word now means to play at a game in which one player holds some coins in his hand and the others guess at their number. Rifle (1590), to play at dice, gamble, raffle; ad. Du. rjefelen, related to F. rafler, to raffle. The vbl. sb. is found somewhat earlier as in Du.; Rifling (1569), the action of raffling or dicing; compare Du. rijfling.

Deuce, colloquial or slang (1651), bad luck, plague, mischief; (1694), the personification of mischief, the devil; probably from LG., where it is used in phrases, de duus, wat de duus, corre-

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sponding to the usual English phrases, ‘the deuce!’, ‘what the deuce!’; the corresponding G. word is *daus*, probably the same word as *das daus*, the deuce at dice, and so the phrases would be the gambler’s exclamation at bad luck. **Spill-house** (1778), a gaming-house; ad. Du. *speelhuis* or G. *spielhaus*.
Chapter II
Intercourse through War and Mercenary Service

2. 1. Military intercourse between English and Low Dutch people falls under three heads. (1) Low Dutch mercenaries served in England or in English armies, and this is especially common in the period between the Norman Conquest and the Hundred Years War. (2) English armies campaigned in the Low Countries, either against the natives or with the natives as their allies. (3) Englishmen served in the armies of the Low Dutch states as mercenaries, especially in the Elizabethan period when they helped the Dutch in their war of independence against Spain.

The army of William the Conqueror was not purely Norman, but included adventurers of many nationalities. Flemings were well represented, for William was married to Matilda of Flanders, and the Count of Flanders lent his son-in-law much assistance. The men of Flanders and Brabant had taken late to horsemanship, and the growth of an indigenous feudal cavalry did not supplant the foot-soldiers as in other lands. As early as 1100 we have record of Netherlandish infantry armed with the pike, which enjoyed a reputation far above that of foot levies of other countries. Oman assumes that the mailed, mercenary infantry armed with the pike, which the Conqueror employed at Hastings, were largely Flemish.

William granted lands to some of these Flemings, others he appointed to military posts. Gherbord became the first Earl of Chester; Gilbert of Ghent was one of the two commissioners at York when the city was taken by the Danes and English in 1069; Walcher of Lorraine, already Bishop of Durham, became Earl of Northumberland, and many of his retainers were Flemings; Dreux de Beveren, a captain of Flemish mercenaries, obtained the grant of Holderness in 1070.

The immigration of soldiers from abroad did not cease with the Conquest. The wars of the next hundred years were waged, to a considerable extent, with the help of Flemish mercenaries.

2. 1. Oman, 358, 366-8, 374-5, 397; Ram.F.E. II. 392; Ram.A.E. 35, 165, 177-81, 451, 456; Gr. 113-14; 130, 158-9; A.I. 21, 24-9; I.C. i. 186, 544-6, 646.

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Among the mercenaries who shared the spoils of Fitzhamon’s conquest of Glamorgan was one John the Fleming, while Henry I had mercenaries sent him by Robert of Flanders. It is not till the reign of Stephen, however, that we find them appearing in great force and forming a prominent element in the armies. Stephen, deserted by the greater part of his barons, supplied the place of the feudal levies by great bodies of Flemings and Brabanters under leaders such as William of Ypres and Alan of Dinan. His opponents followed the same policy. Many of these mercenaries were spread up and down the land as garrisons in the numerous castles which were springing up everywhere.

The first task of Henry II was to get rid of these mercenaries. The Flemings gave him little trouble; William of Ypres retired without a struggle, and most of his countrymen went with him. Some were allowed to settle in Pembrokeshire to strengthen the colony there, while Ralph de Diceto states that the Flemings were driven from the castle to the plough, from the camp to the workshop. But Henry, too, was a great employer of mercenaries; he used Flemings against the Welsh in 1165, and there were Brabanters in his force for the defence of Rouen in 1173. The value he placed upon them can be gauged from the terms of his Assize of Arms of 1181, which tries to assimilate the armament of wealthier men liable to service in the fyrd to that of the Brabanter pikemen. Henry usually kept his mercenaries for service in France. The only time that they appeared in force in England was during the feudal rebellion of 1173-4, and then they met a great body of Flemish routiers serving on the other side. Count Philip of Flanders had sent over a column of 400 picked men to Earl Bigod. They were unsuccessful in an attack on Dunwich, but captured Norwich, and at the end of the rebellion the Earl obtained permission to send off his auxiliaries in peace. The 3,000 Flemings who served with the Earl of Leicester were not so fortunate, for while marching from Suffolk to Leicester they were intercepted and beaten. They had roused the country-side by their ravages, and the peasantry gave them no quarter, so that only a few survived. One of their marching songs has come down to us:

Hop, hop, Willeken, hop!
England is mine and thine.

Succeeding kings continued to employ mercenaries. Richard I had the assistance of Flemings against France. John used them
against the barons; indeed, it is said in the *Scalacronica* that he brought in so many Flemings that the land had difficulty in feeding them. In fact, they served in all the troubles of the time; when William the Lion invaded England and took Appleby he had many with him, and there was a large contingent in the Scottish army at the Battle of the Standard. One of the conditions of Magna Charta was that John should dismiss all his mercenaries, but immediately afterwards he engaged a great body of Brabanters under Walter Buc, and of Flemings under Gerard de Sotingham and marched them through the midland counties, where they ate up the land. After the fall of Hubert de Burgh, Henry III again called in Flemish mercenaries, and they remained until Simon de Montfort managed to rid the country of them.

2. 2. 2.

A new phase in this military intercourse opens with the reign of Edward I. It is no longer so much a question of Low Dutch mercenaries in England as of English troops serving in Low Dutch territory. The Flemings' first experience of English soldiery was most unfortunate; when Edward I visited Bruges in 1297 his men aroused such hostile feeling that they had to move on to Ghent, and there they got quite out of hand, looted freely, and in 1298 actually plundered Damme. They just escaped a general massacre, and in order to raise money to compensate these outrages Edward granted Flemish merchants permission to manufacture spurious coin for circulation in England.

In the troubles between Edward II and his Queen, Isabella raised mercenaries in the Low Countries, and William of Holland lent her a fleet of 140 herring-busses to transport them from Dordrecht to England. Their leader was John de Beaumont, who later brought over 500 men-at-arms to serve against Bruce; Froissart speaks of violent affrays between these men and the English archers.

The relations between England and the Low Countries were peculiarly close in the first period of the Hundred Years War, when for seven years there was constant bickering in Flanders between the English and French. The first clash came in 1337, when the English, under the Earl of Derby, forced their way ashore at Cadzand Haven, their archers completely beating the Flemish crossbowmen. Through the many alliances with Low
Country princes the English armies were swelled to enormous proportions. There were huge contingents of Flemish and Brabanter foot at the sieges of Cambrai and Tournay.

Even after the first period of the war military intercourse was frequent enough. When in 1348 the Count of Flanders invaded his own land with French help, his rebellious subjects were aided in their resistance by an English force. In 1359 Lancaster had many Low Country mercenaries in his army before St. Omer. Many of Edward III's well-known captains, who contracted with him to bring a free company into the field, were Low Dutch, e.g. Sir Walter Manny and Wolfhard of Ghistelles. The Black Prince used them too; companies under Daniel Pasele and Denis of Morbeke fought at Poitiers.

In 1382 there was proclaimed in England an infamous crusade against Flanders, just because the Flemings held allegiance to a Clementine Count. It was headed by Bishop Despenser of Norwich. Every servant and apprentice who could give his master the slip took the Cross, for free passage was provided for every one. Ultimately the French came to the aid of the Count and the English were beaten out of Flanders. In 1390 the Earl of Derby made a famous crusading expedition to the Baltic to assist the Teutonic Knights against the heathen Letts. He landed at Danzig with 50 lances and 60 archers, and was present at the storming of Vilna.

There was a strong English contingent of many knights and squires and over 200 archers under the Lords Cornwall and Colville in the expedition which the Count of Ostrevant, son of the Duke of Holland, made against the Frisians.

Very few Low Country mercenaries were hired for the Wars of the Roses. Lambert Simnel had 2,000 ‘Almaines’ under Martin Swart, and there were a few with Perkin Warbeck. On the other hand, English contingents took part in several Low Country wars. The Duke of Gloucester sent 1,000 men to help his wife, Jacqueline of Holland, against the Duke of Burgundy. Sir John Paston tells us that there were 3,000 English present at the siege of Neuss by Charles the Bold. Henry VIII sent 1,500 archers to help Margaret of Savoy, the Regent of Flanders, against the Duke of Guelders.

2. 3.

The period of closest military intercourse was the reigns

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of Elizabeth and James I, when England was the ally of the Netherlands in their struggle for independence against Spain. Throughout this time English contingents were serving in the Netherlands, as troops supplied by Elizabeth, as mercenaries in the employ of the States, and as volunteers serving for religion or glory.

Elizabeth was cold or vacillating in her support of the Dutch. However, in 1578 she so far answered the appeals of the States as to send them, after long delays, 4,000 Scottish troops. Sir Peter Norris became Field-Marshal of the States in 1580, defeated the army of Don John near Ghent, and surprised Malines. When his army, English included, mutinied, the trouble was quelled by the aid of Sir Francis Vere.

After the fall of Antwerp in 1585 the States begged for further help. Elizabeth was slow to respond, but the City of London and private people fitted out contingents, and these went to Holland and Zeeland under Norris. Later in the year Elizabeth sent aid under the hard terms of the pledge of Flushing, Rammekens, and Briel. Leicester was appointed Governor, and English troops under Thomas Cecil and Philip Sidney garrisoned Flushing and Briel. Leicester went over with 8,000 men and the flower of England's nobility. He was not reinforced from England owing to the overhanging threat of the Armada, but he succeeded in taking Doesburg, and laid siege to Zutphen, where Sir Philip Sidney was killed. When Leicester returned to England, Norris took over the command of the English troops. Men of the lower classes were now regularly pressed and drafted for service in the Low Countries.

In 1600, when a number of tried troops were recalled and sent to Ireland, the numbers were made good by pressing in London and Essex, and in the two years following large drafts of pressed men were raised by London and other towns.

Maurice of Nassau had a remarkable military genius, and the recognition of this made his camp a military school whither the young English nobles came to learn to be professional soldiers. The wonderful army he got together consisted of rough elements, often the very sweepings of society, English, French, Walloon, German, and Dutch. In 1599, in face of Mendoza's threat to Holland, troops were levied in Scotland.

In 1616 the three garrison towns held in pledge by the English were redeemed by the States, and their garrisons passed over
into the Dutch service. For Prince Frederick Henry's operations in 1629 against the Spaniards new English and Scottish battalions were recruited. James I was at first favourable to Spain, and it was not till 1624 that he was persuaded to break with her. English mercenaries and gentlemen, however, continued to serve the Dutch: thus Wriothesley and Southampton died at Rosendaal while in charge of English troops. James at last sent 600 men. In 1632 the Earl of Oxford was killed before Maastricht. In 1642, while preparations were on foot for the Civil War in England, some of the English and Scottish officers who were serving under Goring in the Low Countries were recalled. Great discontent was now being felt in Holland at the great number of mercenary troops kept by Frederick Henry, and so universal was the wish for economy that in 1650 he sacrificed the foreign troops so dear to him. Thirty-two English and three Scottish companies, with twelve companies of cavalry, were designated for discharge.

In 1657 a detachment of 6,000 Ironsides joined the French in an attack on Flanders. The English took part in the storming of Mardyke and the Battle of the Dunes. The Flemish town of Dunkirk remained in English hands until Charles II sold it.

2. 4. After the breaking of the alliance with France, Charles II and William of Orange came to an agreement by which England was now on the side of the Dutch. The Earl of Ossory went to Holland in 1678 to take command of English troops. Charles had now six English and Scottish regiments in the service of the United Provinces, and these occupied Ostend and Bruges. These six regiments were sent by William to help in the suppression of Monmouth's rebellion; they encamped on Blackheath, but as their services were not required they were sent back to Holland. They returned to England with William on his accession, and he was also accompanied by some of his best Dutch troops and by regiments which Bentinck had hired from some of the princes of north Germany. Some of these foreign troops were used in the campaign in Ireland, under the Dutchman Ginkell and the Huguenot exile Schomberg.

After William's accession, the English and Dutch were closely united against the French, and English troops were at once sent

2. 4. Blok, iv. 438, 465, 481-3; v. 5, 158; Gr. 633, 663-5, 684-5, 693-4, 702.

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to join his armies in the Netherlands. In 1692 William himself crossed over with a large body of English. The Peace of Ryswick in 1697 put an end to operations on the Continent.

There is no doubt that, in the meantime, William employed Dutch troops in England for garrison purposes; Zuylestein's regiment was retained in the north of England, and was at Durham in 1691. In 1698, however, William was forced by Parliament to send his Dutch troops out of the country; his partiality for the Dutch had made him very unpopular, and matters came to a head when he preferred his young favourite the Earl of Albemarle to be first Commander of the Guards over the Duke of Ormonde's head.

For ten years after William's death, English and Dutch soldiers fought together in Flanders in the War of the Spanish Succession. Marlborough was appointed leader of the united armies of England and the States. Since the end of the 16th century, the Scottish brigade had been in the Dutch service, and had been recruited mainly in Scotland and commanded by Scottish officers. In her great need for men for the war in America, England in 1775 requested the republic to lend this brigade, but the request was refused.

2. 5.

A large number of terms for arms and armour was borrowed. The single term of defensive armour which appears in ME. is Splint (13., Coer de L., 1374), a plate of overlapping metal of which certain portions of medieval armour were sometimes composed; (c. 1325), a long strip or splint of wood; ad. M.Du. splinte (Du. splint) or MLG. splinte, splente (LG. splinte, splente, or splint, also borrowed into Da., Sw., and Norw. as splint), a metal plate or pin.

This is perhaps the best place to insert the single term of jousting or the tournament. Reynne (c. 1440), plur., the lists; perhaps ad. M.Du. reen, reyn, shooting-range.

The following are the names of striking weapons. Hanger (1481-90), a kind of short sword, originally hung from the belt; O.E.D. says that it is apparently the same word as hanger from hang, vb., though possibly not of English origin, and compares e.mod.Du. hangher, 'stootdeghen', rapier. Slaughmess (a. 1548, once), a large knife used as a weapon, a dagger; ad. older Flem. sclachmes, from slach (slag), blow, stroke, and mes, knife. A similar formation is Slaughsword (a. 1548), a large two-handed sword; ad. older Flem. sclachsweerd (Du. slagzwaard) or G.
schlachtschwert. Sable (1617), sabre; probably ad. Du. or e.mod.G. sabel, (later G. säbel); sabre is the unexplained French alteration of sabel.

There is one term for a part of the crossbow, which may have been introduced by the Brabanter mercenary crossbowmen, though it does not appear until the end of the 15th century and is found then in the Nav. Acc. Hen. VII. Gaffle (1497), a steel lever for bending the crossbow; probably ad. Du. gaffel, fork; in Du. the word also has the sense of a rest for a musket.

Terms for hand fire-arms are: Hackbush, Hagbush (1484), an early form of fire-arm; from M.Flem. haec-, haegbusse, hakebus, but perhaps immediately from the rare OF. forms borrowed from Flem., haquebusche (1475) and harquebusche (1478); the corresponding MLG. forms are hake-, hakelbusse, from haken, hook, and bühse, busse, bus, gun, fire-arm, literally hook-gun, so called from the hook, originally attached to a point of support. The derivatives, Hack-, Hagbushier, Hagbusser (1524), are by the addition of the suffixes -ier or -er. Variants are Hackbut, Hagbut (1541-2), an early kind of portable fire-arm; ad. 15th-and 16th-century F. haquebut, -bute, ad. M.Du. hakebus or MLG. hakebusse; later in the 16th century this F. form passed, under the influence of It. archibuso, through the intermediate harquebute, to harquebuse, arquebuse. The derivatives, Hackbutter, Hagbuter (1544-8), are by the addition of the suffix -er. Hackbuteer, -ier (c. 1610) are ad. 16th-century F. hacquebutier. Hake (1548), a short fire-arm used in the 16th century; apparently an abbreviation of haquebut, hagbut, originally in half-hake or demi-hake, i.e. half-hackbut, applied to a fire-arm of shorter length than the hackbut; it would appear that for this the simple hake, haque was soon substituted. Half-hake (1538) and Demi-hake (1541) are earlier.

Bus (1549), harquebus; ad. e.mod.Du. bus, gun, in Kilian busse. Another form is Bowse (1556), ad. Du. buis (M.Du. busse, LG. büsse). Blunderbuss (1654), a short gun with a large bore, is the Du. donderbus, with the same meaning, but perverted in form after blunder, perhaps with some allusion to its blind or random firing; it may be a playful perversion of the Du. word; compare blunderhead, an alteration of the earlier dunderhead, a blundering, muddleheaded fellow.

There are two terms for the fire apparatus by means of
which the old firelocks were discharged. **Lunt** (1550, from Sc.), a slow-match, also a torch; ad. Du. *lont*, a match. **Linstock** (1575), a staff about 3 feet long, having a pointed foot to stick in the ground or deck, and a forked head to hold the lighted match; in the 16th century *lint-, linestocke*, ad. (with assimilation to *lint* and *line*), Du. *lontstok*, from *lont*, match, and *stok*, stick.

There are two names for cannon. **Slang** (1521), a species of cannon, a serpentine or culverin; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *slange* (Du. *slang*, G. *schlange*), serpent, cannon. **Cartow** (1650), a kind of cannon, also called a quarter cannon, which threw a ball of a quarter of a hundredweight; apparently ad. 16th-century Flem. *kartouwe* (G. *cartaun*, lt. *courtaun*), a quarter cannon, carthoun, 25-pounder, as compared with the largest siege-gun, a 100-pounder.

Some names for soldiers' accoutrements and equipment were borrowed. **Brabantic** (1591), a garment worn by soldiers in the 16th century; probably from the name *Brabant*; Bense points out that the Sp. *brabante*, a sort of linen, has the same origin. **Knapsack** (1603), a bag or case of stout canvas or leather, worn by soldiers strapped to the back; ad. LG. *knapsack* (Du. *knapzak*, G. *knappsack*), first recorded in the 16th century; the first element is generally taken to be LG. and Du. *knappen*, knap, vb. ‘to bite’, G. *knapp*, eating food. **Snapsack** (1633), a knapsack; common from about 1650 to 1700; ad. LG. *snappsack*, from *snappen*, snap. **Holster** (1663), a leather case for a pistol; it is possibly from Du. *holster* in the same sense, although the Du. word is not recorded until 1678, that is, later than the English word; OE. had *heolster*, hiding-place, concealment, and there are corresponding forms in Scand., Icel. *hulstr*, case, sheath, Sw. *hölster*, Da. *hylster*, sheath, holster.

**Fanikin** (1539) occurs once only as the name of a small flag or banner; ad. M.Du. *vaneken* (Flem. *vaenken*, in Kilian), diminutive of *vane*, now *vaan*, flag, compare Eng. *fane*.

There are a few terms connected with the drums of the troops. **Drumslake**, **Dromsdale** (1527), a drum, or some form of drum; (1527), a drummer; apparently a corruption of Du. or LG. *trommelslag* (G. *trommelschlag*), drum-beat, though it is not apparent how this name of the action became applied to the instrument. **Drumslager** (1586), a drummer; apparently like the above a corruption of Du. *trommelslager*, or perhaps ad. G. *drummeschläger*, an earlier variant of *trommelschläger*. **Snare**
1688), in the sense of one of the strings of gut or rawhide which are stretched across
the lower head of a side-drum; it is probably from one of the Low Dutch forms, Du.
snaar, M.Du. snaer, snaer, LG. snare, snar, MLG. snare, snar, string.

2. 6.

One term of siege appears from the ME. period. Slap (1375, from Sc.), a breach,
opening, or gap in a wall; ad. M.Du. or MLG. slop (Du. and LG. siop, LG. slup),
opening, gap, narrow passage; the change of o to a before p is normal in Sc., cf.
drap for drop.

Most of the terms of fortification, however, appear in the 16th and 17th centuries.
The Low Country wars of that period were often little more than the assault of strong
places, and the science of fortification and siege was much cultivated and highly
developed. English soldiers serving in the Low Countries must of necessity have
become acquainted with these (technical) terms.

Blockhouse (1512), according to O.E.D. the sense was not originally a house
composed of blocks of wood, but one which obstructs or blocks a passage; the Eng.
word appears earlier than either the Du. or Flem. blockhuys, blockhuus (1599 in
Kilian) or G. blockhaus (1557), yet it is probably of Du. or G. origin; the M.Du.
blockhuus is thought to have passed into LG. and thence into HG.; Sewel renders
Du. blockhuys by ‘blockhouse, sconce, wooden fort’.

Wagonborough (1548), a defensive enclosure or barricade, formed of
baggage-wagons placed close together; ad. Du. or G. wagenburg. Sconce (1571),
a small fort or earthwork, a protective screen or shelter; ad. Du. schans, with
assimilation of form to the Eng. nouns, meaning lantern and head respectively; in
the 16th century it had in Du. the senses brushwood, bundles of sticks, screen of
brushwood for soldiers, earthworks made with gabions. Of later borrowing is the
compound Lopesconce (1624), an entrenchment; ad. Du. lopeschans, from loopen,
to run, and schans. Slot (1578), a castle; ad. Du. or LG. slot, castle. Bint, Binte
(1629), O.E.D. says that the meaning and derivation of this word are doubtful, but
compares Du. bindte, joint, cross-beam; Bense has thrown light on this word, referring
it to a passage quoted in Ndl. Wdb., relating to a siege, in which bint means a kind
of sheltering roof made of sandbags; the passages quoted by O.E.D. refer to the
building of a
sconce, and bint is undoubtedly the Du. bint, M.Du. bindt, a bundle.

Graff (1637), a trench serving as a fortification, a dry or wet ditch, a foss or moat, rarely, a canal (in Holland); probably ad. Du. graf. Graff (1641), a ditch, moat, also (in Holland) a street on either side of a canal; ad. Du. graft (M.Du. and Du. gracht, from graven, to dig). Slaught-boom (1637), a beam used as a barrier; ad. Du. or LG. slagboom (which also gave Da. and Sw. slagbom), from slagen, to strike, and boom, tree, beam. Stacket (1637, from Sc.), a palisade; ad. Du. staket, of F. origin. Skite gate (1677), an opening or loophole in a wall for a cannon or other piece of artillery; ad. Du. schietgat, from schieten, to shoot, and gat, hole. Berm (1729), a narrow space or ledge; esp. in fortifications, a space of ground, from 3 to 8 feet wide, sometimes left between the ditch and the base of the parapet; according to O.E.D. ad. F. berme, ad. Du. or G. berme; the M.Du. forms were barm, baerm, barem, Du. berm and barm, but berm and berme are very common in Flanders, so there is no reason why not directly from Dutch.

2. 7.

A single term of the practice of warfare appears in the ME. period. Reise (c. 1386, Chaucer), to go on a military expedition, to make inroads, to travel; ad. M.Du., MLG., or MHG. reisen, reysen, in the same sense. The sb. is later: Reise (1390, in the non-Eng. context of E. Derby’s Exped., c. 1440), ad. M.Du., MLG., or MHG. reise, a military expedition, raid, also in OF. from Germanic as reise.

In the modern period appear the following terms of general military operations. Waylay (1513), to lie in wait for, with evil or hostile intent, to seize or attack on the way; from way, sb., and lay, vb., but after MLG., M.Du., wegellägen, from wegelage, besetting of ways. Forlorn hope (1579), in early use, a picked body of men detached to the front to begin the attack; (1539), the men composing such a body, hence reckless bravoes; ad. Du. verloren hoop (in Kilian, 1598), literally, lost troop. Onslaught (1625), onset, attack, esp. a vigorous or destructive one; the word appears first early in the 17th century, when it also has the forms anslaight, anslacht, and is termed by Phillips ‘Dutch’; the nearest Du. word aanslag, striking at, attempt, does not yield quite the requisite form, while the ME. words slaht, slaught, sleight, slaughter appear to have become obsolete about 1400; it probably represents the Du. aanslag or G.
anschlag, modified after Eng. words of action such as draught. Scamper (1687), to run away, decamp, bolt; very common in this sense from 1687 to 1700; at first probably military slang, from obs. Du. schampen, which Hexham (1660) glosses ‘to escape or flie, to be gone’, and which is OF. escamper, to decamp.

There are a few specific terms for the conduct of a siege. Leaguer (1577), a military camp, esp. one engaged on a siege; (1598), a siege; ad. Du. leger, camp. Leaguerer (1635) was the term applied to a (Dutch) trooper; this gives us an indication of the principal occupation of a trooper in the Low Country wars. The vb. Beleaguer (1589), to besiege; ad. Du. belegeren; the first instance of the word, in Nashe, is in a transferred sense, so the word was borrowed probably some time before 1589. Outlope (1603), a run-out, sally, excursion; apparently ad. Du. uitloop (in Kilian uutloop), a run-out, excursion. Slight (1640-4), in the sense, to level with the ground, to raze a fortification; ad. Du. slechten, LG. slichten or G. schichten, to level.

It is perhaps best to include words dealing with plunder and plundering among the terms of the operations of war; at any rate that side of warfare was more developed and legitimate in the periods under question than it is with the armies of to-day. Booty (1474), plunder; it is hard to say whether directly from MLG. bute, buite, where it was already used in the required sense (e.mod.Du. buyt, buet), or indirectly through the F. butin; butin from F. is used side by side with boty, booty, during the 16th century, but on the whole the contact between the two forms appears to be slight; Caxton used both forms before any one else, in his Chess, a translation from the French, but this does not signify much, as Caxton was bilingual, English and Flemish. Boot, sb. (1593), booty; O.E.D. says that it is apparently an application of boot, ‘good, advantage, profit, use’, influenced by the already existing booty. It was especially used in the phrase, ‘to make boot’, and Du. had the identical phrase, buit maken, and, as Bense suggests, this was perhaps the origin of the English phrase, which was later confused with the phrase, ‘to make boot of’, ‘to make profit of, gain by’. The vb. was much earlier (1494), and was used in the sense to share as booty; it was probably directly ad. MLG. buten or M.Du. buten, buyten, in the same sense. Boot-hale (1598), to plunder; probably formed from the Du. comb. buithaler. Booting (1600-51), booty, plunder; the taking
of booty, plundering; from boot and -ing, though some of its examples are undoubtedly a confusion of the F. butin with the Eng. vbl. sb.

**Plunder** (1632), to rob of goods or valuables; ad. G. plündern, LG. plünder(e)n, or early Du. and Du. plunderen (in Kilian plondern), to pillage, sack, from obs. Du. plunder, plonder, household stuff; O.E.D. states that this word was borrowed at the time of the Thirty Years War, and became familiar in our Civil Wars through Rupert's men. **Branskate** (1721), to put (a place) to ransom, or subject to a payment in order to avoid pillage or destruction; ad. Du. brandschatten (G. brandschatzen), from brand, burning, and schat, treasure, originally tribute.

2. 8.

A number of words were borrowed dealing with supply and the military department of the train. In ME. appears **Provand** (c. 1341), food, provisions, esp. for an army; probably from Low Dutch, MLG., and e.mod.Du. provande (Kilian, Plantin), apparently ad. F. provende; in Caxton (1481), the word is immediately from Flem., but some of the earlier examples may be directly from French: **Provant** (c. 1450), of the same meaning, is apparently ad. MLG. provant, the later form of provande. The comb. **Provant-master** (1607) does not appear until the 17th century; it is from provant and master, probably after the e.mod.Du. provandmeester or the G. proviantmeister, the officer in charge of the commissariat.

**Wagon, Waggon** (1523, Berners's *Froissart*), ad. Du. wagen, e.mod.Du. waghen, in Du. always the most general term for a wheeled vehicle; it was adopted into Eng. in this wide sense (1542), but appears to have come in first in the specific military application, learnt in the continental wars, for the heavy vehicles of the train; the word has an earlier appearance in Eng., in the *First Eng. Bk. Amer.* (c. 1511), in the transferred sense of the constellation, Charles's Wain, but this work was translated into Eng. by a Fleming and contains many Flemish words, so the quotation does not prove the existence of the word in Eng. at the date of the book. A little later is **Wagoner, Waggoner** (1544), the driver of a wagon; ad. Du. wagenaar, waghenaar, as the early Eng. spelling wagenaar proves.

The activities of the camp-follower are responsible for the group: **Sutler** (1590), one who follows an army or lives in a garrison town and sells provisions to the soldiers; ad. e.mod.Du. soeteler (Du. zoetelaar), a small vendor, petty tradesman, victual-
ler, soldier’s servant, drudge, from *soetelen*, to befoul, perform mean duties, follow a mean trade. **Sutlery** (1606), from *sutler* and -y; compare e.mod.Du. *soetelerije*, ‘vile opus, sordidum artificium’ (Kilian). **Suttle** (1648, Hexham), to carry on the business of a sutler; ad. e.mod.Du. *soetelen*, or a back formation from *sutler*.

2. 9.

There is a group of names for the cavalry soldier. **Rutter** (1506), a cavalry soldier, esp. a German one, of the kind employed in the wars of the 16th and 17th centuries; ad. M.Du. *rutter*, variant of *ruter, ruyter* (Du. *ruiter*), ad. OF. *routier, routeur*. The diminutive, **Rutterkin** (1526), has the sense a swaggering gallant or bully; from rutter and -kin. **Swartrutter** (1557), one of the class of irregular troopers, with black dress and armour and blackened faces, who infested the Netherlands in the 16th and 17th centuries; ad. e.mod.Du. *swartrutter* (in Kilian *swerte ruyters*, plur.), from *swart*, black, and rutter. Variants of *rutter* are **Ruiter** (1579) and **Roiter** (1583), both ad. Du. *ruiter, ruyter*. **Ridder** (1694), rider; ad. obs. F. *ridde, riddre*, rider, ad. Flem. *rijder, riddre*, knight.

The next two words represent the extremes in the scale of soldiery. **Snaphaunce**, **Snaphance** (1538), an armed marauder or robber; also (1588) an early form of flintlock used in muskets and pistols; of Low Dutch origin, representing Du. and Flem. *snaphaan* (in Kilian *snaphaen*, MLG. *snaphân*, LG. *snapphân*, G. *schnapphahn*), from *snappen*, to snap, and *haan*, cock; the sense is probably ‘one who snaps the cock of his flintlock at you’; the final -s sound of the Eng. word may be due to confusion with the personal name *Hans*. **Life-guard** (1648), a bodyguard of soldiers, now plur.; from *life* and *guard*, but probably suggested by Du. *lijfgarde*, in which, however, the first element has the sense ‘body’.

The following are the names of officers and petty officers of military ranks. With one exception they are compounds, having as their second element *master*. **Rote-master** (1523), one in command of a company of gunners; ad. Du. *rotmeester* (G. *rottmeister*), from *rot*, a file of soldiers, and *meester*. **Gill-master** (1598, Barret, *Theor. Warres*), the title of a military officer; perhaps ad. Du. *gildemeester*, guildmaster, i.e. head of one of the ‘guilds’ or companies of bowmen, gunners, &c. **Quartermaster** (1600), an officer, ranking as lieutenant, who provides quarters for the soldiers; this military sense of ‘quartermaster’ is apparently

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the original meaning of F. *quartier-maître*, Du. *kwartiermeester*, G. *quartiermeister*, and may have been adopted from any one of those languages. **Matross** (1639), a soldier next below the rank of gunner in a train of artillery, who acted as a kind of assistant or mate; ad. Du. *matroos*, sailor (whence G. *matrose*, Da., Sw. *matros*), apparently a corruption of F. *matelot*, sailor; in the U.S. the term was synonymous with a private of artillery. **Rittmaster** (1648), the captain of a troop of horse; ad. G. *rittmeister* or Du. *ritmeester*, from *ritt*, riding, and *meister*.

2. 10.

Terms dealing with such matters as pay, leave, and guard duties are not numerous enough to admit of separate classification, and are included here in a section on miscellaneous terms of military life.

**Gelt** (a. 1529), money, often, in early use, with reference to the pay of a (German) army; now only dialectal (Whitby, Mid-Yks.); in the phrase ‘Bare gelt’, ready money, there is translation of the Du. *baar geld*, or the G. *bares geld*, and in ‘Passage gelt’ of the G. *fahrgeld*.

**Cashier** (1580), in the obsolete military sense, to disband troops; (1599), to dismiss from a position of command; ad. Flem. or Du. *casseren*, in the same sense; Kilian has *kasseren de kriegslieden*, ‘exaactorare milites’, to disband troops, and *kasseren een testament*, ‘rescindere testamentum’, to rescind a will; French verbs adopted in Du. and G. frequently retain the infinitive endings -er and -ir as part of the stem, and when adopted from Du. into Eng. this takes the form of -ier, -eer; *cashier* probably dates to the campaign in the Netherlands in 1578-80.

**Furlough** (1625), leave of absence, esp. for a soldier; in the 17th century also *vorloffe*, *fore loofe*, ad. Du. *verlof*, apparently formed in imitation of G. *verlaub*, from ver-, for-, and root laub-; the Eng. word having from the beginning been stressed on the first syllable seems to show the influence of the synonymous Du. *oorlof*.

**Rot** (1635, Barriffe, *Mil. Discipl.*), a file of soldiers; ad. Du. *rot* or G. *rotte*, ad. OF. *rotte*, *route*, rout. The Sc. substitution of *a* for *o* is found in **Rat** (1646).

**Tattoo** (1644), a signal made by drum or bugle in the evening for soldiers to repair to quarters; a military entertainment; in the 17th century, *tap-too*, ad. Du. *tap-toe*, in the same sense, from tap, the tap (of a cask), and toe, for *doe toe*, ‘shut’. The
tattoo was thus the signal for closing the taps of the public-houses. Sw. *tapto* and Sp. *tatu* are apparently also from Du.; compare G. *zapfenstreich*, LG. *tappenslag*, Da. *tappenstreg*, with the first element the same, and the second element meaning stroke, blow, beat; although Du. *taptoe* was in military use in our sense in the 17th century, this was probably not its original use, as *tap toe*, for *doe den tap toe*, ‘turn off the tap’, was apparently in colloquial use for ‘shut up’, cease.

**Roster** (1727, H. Bland, *Mil. Discipl.*) in the military sense of a list or plan exhibiting the order of rotation of turns of duty of officers, men, or bodies of troops; ad. Du. *rooster*, table, list, a transferred sense of *rooster*, gridiron, from *roosten*, to roast, in allusion to the parallel lines drawn on the paper.

**Overslaugh** (1768, Simes, *Mil. Dict.*), to pass over, omit, skip; in military use, to pass over an ordinary turn of duty for a duty that takes precedence; ad. Du. *overslaan*, to pass over, omit, from *over*, and *slaan*, to strike. The sb. **Overslaugh** (1772) is later; ad. Du. *overslag*, from *overslaan*, or from the Eng. vb.
Chapter III
Intercourse through Trade between Britain and the Low Dutch Countries

3. 1.  
FROM very early times there has been trade between England and the Low Dutch lands directly opposite the greatest ports on the east coast. The Low Dutch merchants, who were trading to England in the 11th and 12th centuries, came only from Liége, Westphalia, and the districts of the Lower Rhine. Liége assembled goods from the centre of Germany and brought them to England. The emporia of Utrecht and Keulen assembled goods from the Lower Rhine and the hinterland of Westphalia. Owing to the rivalry of the merchant gilds the position of foreigners trading here was much restricted; yet one of these restrictions at least brought them into closer relationship with the natives. It was true that they could only stay in the country for thirty days, but they must stay with burghers. A statute of Edward I imposed that none but citizens were to have hostelries for the reception of foreigners, and this condition was strictly enforced for London, while we hear of hostelers and hostmen at Yarmouth and Newcastle. Again in 1439 it was decreed that all merchants should be under the surveillance of hosts assigned to them by mayors of the towns they visited, and these hosts were to be Englishmen born. This ensured that until the formation of the foreign trading Hanses every foreign merchant was brought into close contact with Englishmen. By the Carta Mercatoria (1303) foreigners gained the right to stay anywhere and for an unspecified time, on condition that they paid the extraordinary tolls; they were now admitted into the retail trade in spices and mercery. There were bad times for them under Edward II, when for eleven years the Carta was not in operation, and also during the weak minority of Edward III; but when Edward's rule became stronger, they regained and kept these extensive privileges.

3. 2.
In the 13th century England still had no mercantile class. English traders lacked capital and organization to compete with Flemish, Brabanter, French, and Italian traders. In the course of the 14th century a class of English traders did develop, despite constant interference from their rulers, who

3. 2.  R. 70-84; A.I. 87.
tried to turn exports into specified paths, under considerations of politics and revenue. Already under Henry III there was a staple for wool in the Netherlands, but compulsion to use it failed. Edward I compelled export from certain ports only, and out of these the organization of the staple grew; there is some probability that he recognized certain ports in Flanders, Holland, and Zeeland as 'foreign staples', but again there is no satisfactory evidence of their compulsory use. There was indeed a company of merchants under a mayor at Antwerp, but the name staple does not occur so early. The enforced staple was introduced by Edward II in 1313; English and foreign merchants must now ship staple goods to trade places abroad recognized by the organization of the staple merchants controlled by its mayor. This arrangement did not prove satisfactory, for it was too easily evaded. In the last years of Edward II the staple was brought home, and a number of places in England, Wales, and Ireland became staple ports for wool. Before 1340 the staple was again in the Netherlands, but in 1353 it returned to England. There grew up now an organization of non-staple merchants in the Netherlands, holding privileges from the Flemish Count, and also governed by a self-chosen mayor, beside the organization of the staple merchants in England.

Special privileges for purchasing wool were accorded to the Flemish towns by Edward III; the staple was held at Bruges, to the advantage of that town, but to the inconvenience of the country purchasers and of Italian merchants, and therefore to the loss of the English grower. This was not a lasting evil. The organization of the staple at Calais and the development of the English cloth manufacture changed the conditions of trade, and the special privileges of the Flemings were discontinued. In 1363 Calais was the only staple, but only temporarily, for the staple was taken outside English territory to Middelburg. In 1388 it was removed back to Calais, and but for a short interruption in 1390, this town remained the recognized staple for English export.

The staple never remained long in Dordrecht or Middelburg. Though Holland did use some of the wool, yet by far the greater users were Flanders and Brabant, and so the staple was more naturally placed at Bruges or Antwerp. In 1348 and 1349, when the English merchants were in trouble in Flanders,
probably owing to the exclusion of Flemish merchants from the trade, the staple was shifted to Middelburg, but this again was only a temporary arrangement through force of circumstances. In 1350 it was again in Bruges. There were further attempts in the last quarter of the 14th century to bring the staple to Zeeland, and with some success, for in 1383 Duke Albrecht granted a charter and great privileges of trade and protection to English merchants. The cause was the risings of the Flemings against their Count, and with the cessation of the troubles the staple was removed in 1388 from Middelburg to Calais.

The privileges which English merchants sought and obtained in Zeeland in 1389 and 1392 seem to be staple privileges, but refer probably to cloth and not to wool. The banding of this body of merchants is the first sign of the split which separated the Merchant Adventurers, dealing in other commodities, from the Merchants of the Staple, dealing in wool. In 1407 this new body obtained the right to organize themselves, and in 1408 and 1413 more privileges from Willem VI. It is known that the foundations of the trade of the Merchant Adventurers was cloth, so they were not welcome in Flanders, itself a cloth-exporting country. These merchants in Zeeland were Londoners, and we know that the Merchant Adventurers had their origin in London.

3. 3.3.

A large share of English trade was in the hands of Flemish merchants. The trade of the Flemish cities was more closely connected with the English wool production than was that of any other country. Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, Courtrai, Arras, and a number of other cities in Flanders and the adjacent provinces of the Netherlands and France had become populous and rich, principally from their weaving industry. For the manufacture of fine fabrics they needed the English wool, and in turn their fine woven goods were in constant demand for the use of the wealthier classes in England. The fine cloths, linens, cambrics, cloth of gold and silver, tapestries, and hangings were the product of the looms of the Flemish cities. Other fine manufactured goods, such as armour and weapons, glass and furniture, and articles which had been brought in the way of trade to the Netherlands were all exported thence and sold in England.

The Flemish merchants who habitually engaged in the English trade were organized amongst themselves in a company

3. 3. Ch. 87; A.I. 77, 80, 87, 129.

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known as the ‘Flemish Hanse of London’. A considerable number of towns held such membership in the organization that the citizens could take part in the trade and share the benefits and privileges of the society, and no citizen of these towns could trade in England without paying the dues and submitting himself to the rules of the Hanse.

Henry III and Edward I had given special protection to Flemings who visited England to buy wool. Flemish merchants seem to have visited Scotland for the same purpose, for we find Edward II attempting to stop the traffic. In 1347 a staple was established at Middelburg, of which Scotsmen appointed the mayor, and after this date the trade was probably chiefly in the hands of Scotsmen, and Scottish wool passed either to Middelburg or to the neighbouring port of Vere. Edward III, in his anxiety to conciliate his Flemish allies, gave them special permission in 1337 to visit England and purchase the wool which was necessary for the manufactures in each town and district. When the staple for wool was held in England, the actual export trade would be generally in the hands of alien merchants.

3. 4.

The great trade in wool with Flanders was carefully organized and its importance is obvious; the trade with Holland and Zeeland, not so great and hardly organized at all, tends to have its importance ignored. The intercourse must have been considerable. Ruinen has compiled statistics for part of the 14th century and shows that about 1319 no less than 162 ships from Holland and Zeeland came to Yarmouth, Lynn, Boston, and other ports in Norfolk and Suffolk. Between 1310 and 1370 he has details of the visit of another 144 ships, all except four to east coast ports. There is much less evidence for the presence of English traders in Holland and Zeeland during the same period.

The actual trade with the two Dutch counties was small. The great English export commodity was wool and very little of this was taken by Holland and Zeeland for their own use, even though they had a very flourishing weaving industry. In the 14th century the export of cloth begins to assume important proportions; in some years England had a surplus of wheat for export, and other articles mentioned are ale, beans, mustard, woad, tin, and lead. There is a certain amount of re-export.
trade, especially in wine from the south of France and Spain and in honey. Holland and Zeeland had few goods to send to England. In some years there was butter and cheese, in others a little oats; but the main trade was in herrings, red herrings, eels, salt fish, and salt. There was a transit trade in Rhenish wine from Dordrecht, but the German Hanse was an early competitor in this.

All the evidence points to the greater importance of Holland and Zeeland in freighting than in actual trade. As early as the 13th century the Zeelanders were freighting wool between England and Flanders, and in the next century much of the carrying trade of the northern seas is in their hands. They carry wool and corn from England to Flanders, wool to St. Omer, grain and malt to Calais for the English king and wool for merchants, wool to Brabant, fish from Schonen and Copenhagen to England, various wares from Prussia. There are examples of chartering from Aquitaine to Hull and from Boulogne to Sluis for English merchants. One constant proof for freighting is that when a ship from Holland or Zeeland is arrested, the cargo goes free as the property of another man.

A great increase in this freighting trade was brought about when Edward III converted the English merchant fleet to purposes of war and thus destroyed its effectiveness in commerce. Recourse had then to be had to foreign ships, and the effect on the English cargo fleet was so serious that in the reign of Richard II a law similar to the later Navigation Act was passed in the interests of English shipping. It is important to note that export licences were sometimes granted to Englishmen and Zeelanders in partnership. There is evidence that Hollanders and Zeelanders were taking part in the export coal trade as early as 1352.

3. 5. The 13th century witnesses the growing importance of the Low German traders in Flanders, England, and Norway. In the North Sea trade their ships compete ever more successfully with the English, Flemings, Danes, and Norwegians, and towards the middle of the century we get the first foundation of the later Hansa trading system.

The settlement of the German traders in London was very old and very important. The corporation of the Merchants of

3. 5. M. 4-5, 132-7; I.C. I, 195-6, 422, 497; II, 237; Ch. 89, 93; M.A. 35, 59; Ram.D.C. 301; Colvin, 32-44, 63-71, 155-74.

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the Steelyard dates from the reign of Henry III. In 1194 Richard I had granted a charter to the men of Cologne; Hamburg, Bremen, and Brunswick long struggled for equal recognition, but it came first to Lübeck, which had declared for Richard. Little by little the merchants had purchased property surrounding the original grants until they had a great body of buildings all enclosed by a wall and fences. The settlement was immediately on the Thames above London Bridge, so that the Hansa vessels unloaded at their own wharf. This London ‘kontor’ maintained its independence longer than any other Hansa settlement abroad, and only applied for the assistance of the League when it found itself helpless before the great movement of the English commons against foreign interference in trade, which came at the end of the reign of Edward III. The privileges of the Gildhall in participation in the retail trade in certain wares, in the right of forming a union for mutual support, in advantages of residence and the possession of property, were all most valuable for a factory in a foreign land. It is probable that there were Hansas of Germans in other towns, such as Boston and Lynn, for we know that Germans in those towns had some sort of an organization as early as 1271.

At first the German merchants in England were from Saxony, Westphalia, the Lower Rhine and Friesland, and the Waalsch-Lotharingisch district; these probably formed in the 12th century a close ring of Germans in England, out of which the last group soon separated. Then in the beginning of the 13th century new groups of Germans appeared in England, and the incorporation of these into the old group seems to have been attended with some difficulty. Merchants who were not received in the Baltic as German merchants were not accepted into the ring. In the later years of the 13th century merchants from the Prussian and Livonian towns were accepted as Germans; so also were men from the Netherland Hanse towns; but Hollanders and Zeelanders never qualified as merchants from Germany.

The Hansa brought to England the products of the Baltic lands, timber, tar, salt, iron, silver, salted and smoked fish, furs, amber, and potash; and manufactured goods obtained by the Hansa through their more distant trade connexions, such as fine woven goods, armour and other metal goods, even spices and other Eastern products which came by way of the great Russian

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fairs. They took in return mainly fine wool, lead and tin, cattle, jet, and in some years corn.

The highest point in the fortunes of the Hansa in England comes in the reign of Edward IV. They had helped him to his throne because they were afraid that French trading interests might become dominant in England with the success of Margaret and Warwick, and in return they obtained very favourable terms for themselves, absolute possession of their factories at London, Boston, and Lynn, £10,000 for injuries done to them, this sum not to be paid down, but to be deducted from the customs as they accrued, and the right of selling Rhenish wines by retail. Nevertheless, though apparently more prosperous than ever, their monopoly of the Baltic trade was already broken, and their decline and fall was rapid.

The Merchant Adventurers urged the Privy Council in 1551 that the Hansards had abused their privileges and that they ought to forfeit them; their special privileges were resumed and they were put on the same footing as other alien merchants. Though they never regained their old position, their trade with England did not succumb to the blow; through the first half of Elizabeth's reign they continued to carry on a good trade in English cloth, and the extra channel of exportation provided by them was of the utmost value in the stoppages of trade with the Netherlands. Moreover, the Germans, in spite of the strenuous efforts of the Adventurers to dislodge them, continued to retain their right to buy cloth direct from the country clothier in Blackwell Hall, the London cloth hall. This privilege also they lost in 1576, and all their remaining privileges were resumed in 1580. In the year of the Armada English privateers were preying on Hanseatic commerce on the pretext that the League was aiding Spain. In pursuance of the English policy of cutting off the sources of the Spanish food supply, the Hanseatic corn fleet of many ships destined for Spain was captured by English cruisers. This was a blow from which the Hansa never recovered, as the merchants were unable to replace the vessels which they had lost.

3. 6.

Part of the Netherlands was a Hansa district. Towns in Gelderland, Overijssel, and Friesland belonged to the League, but none from Limburg, Brabant, Holland, or Zeeland. Merchants from this district appeared in England at a very early
date. Tiel was driving a flourishing trade with England in the 11th century, and when
the town began to decline at the end of the 12th century, its place was taken by
Utrecht. Utrecht in its turn lost its trade, and at the end of the 13th century gave
place to Deventer, Zutphen, Harderwijk, and Kampen. The principal Frisian ports
trading to England were Stavoren and Groningen. England treated these towns
exactly as she treated the other members of the League; there was no separate
policy towards them.

The exports of this district were river and sea fish, some cattle, and a little oats;
the imports for its own consumption were iron, lead, copper, coal, and cloth. The
principal trade, however, was a transit trade; the Waal towns were the intermediaries
for the trade with middle Germany, the Friesland and Groningen towns for the Baltic
and Northern trade, particularly from Bergen to the north country ports of England.
The rise of Lübeck destroyed their Baltic trade. In this transit trade they took from
England grain, malt, salt, and cloth, and brought in exchange wine from the
Rhineland, herrings from Schonen, pitch, tar, and ship-timber from Prussia, and
probably the industrial products of the Rhineland and Westphalia.

3. 7. 3. 7.

The English merchants trading to the Netherlands in articles other than those
controlled by the Staplers received privileges from the Duke of Brabant as early as
the 13th century, and the right of settling their disputes before their own ‘consul’ in
the 14th century. The earlier charters, whether of English or foreign princes, down
to the middle of the 15th century, were not granted to a company as such, but to
the merchants of England trading beyond the seas in general, and the privileges
thus gained were shared by the merchants of other ports as well as of London. It is
probable, however, that the body which took the initiative in procuring the charters
was a body of London merchants trading at Bruges and Antwerp, and who were
bound together in a fraternity dedicated to St. Thomas à Becket. In early days they
admitted other English merchants to the fraternity, or at any rate to the exercise of
trade under the charter, on fairly easy terms, but as the expenses of the
establishment grew and the trade became more important, they raised their fees.
This gild of Londoners managed to acquire such control of the Netherlands trade
that no Englishman, though

3. 7. I.C. i. 494; ii. 224, 227-9, 246, 249; Ch. 165; M.A. 36; Colvin, 82-94.

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according to law and the treaties perfectly free to buy and sell in the Netherlands, could share in it until he had paid the entrance fee imposed on him. This was eventually made so high that the merchants from the provincial ports were shut out from direct trade with the Netherlands and were obliged to deal through the agency of members of the gild, with the result that the market for English cloth was restricted. In 1497, however, the gild was forced to admit these provincial merchants to a recognized position in its organization, and separate Courts of the Company were set up at Hull and York, while Lynn, Norwich, Ipswich, Exeter, and Southampton are also specified in 1603 as ports from which the Merchant Adventurers traded. The governing body was the Court at Antwerp, a town which had come to be the centre of the commercial world and with which Henry VII had established close commercial relationships in 1496.

In 1494 the Merchant Adventurers had moved their factory from Bruges, whose trade had decayed, to Antwerp, and the trade which they attracted to the port contributed not a little to its rapid rise. They carried there very large quantities of cloth and much of this was undyed and undressed, so that a considerable industrial population was employed in finishing the goods. The Englishmen were also large purchasers of hardware manufactured in Germany and passed down the Rhine to Antwerp. The Adventurers appear to have been affected to some extent by the habits of such a cosmopolitan city as Antwerp, and it seems to have been felt advisable to take special precautions against the marriage of English merchants into Flemish families. Political changes soon led to the entire detachment of the English colony and eventually to its removal elsewhere.

In 1564 the Company obtained their Charter, which for the first time gave a legal basis to their monopoly of the Netherlands trade. Numerous interlopers denied the right of the Company and opened out new markets in defiance of them. The Newcastle Adventurers claimed that they were an older and independent body, and though they had decisions in their favour in 1630 and 1637, they were hard hit by the prohibition of the export of wool to the Low Countries in 1618, and some years later, when they had built up an export trade in coarse cloth to Holland, the passing of the Navigation Act of 1651 ruined it.

Persistent English privateering and the Navigation Act of
1563 caused a stoppage of trade in the next year, and the breach was never really healed. The Adventurers were driven from Antwerp, but were invited to settle in Hamburg and Emden. They chose Emden, but found a very inadequate sale for their cloth; so they changed their quarters, first to Cologne and then to Frankfort, where they came into touch with the merchants whom they used to meet in Antwerp. A second stoppage followed in 1568, and the goods of the Adventurers and Staplers in the Low Countries were arrested. This trade was never recovered in Elizabeth's reign, and Antwerp was finally closed to the Adventurers in 1575; but by that time many English merchants as well as the Adventurers had made their way to south Germany. The opening of new markets to free enterprise was the last thing the Company wanted. They tried to control the German trade from their station at Hamburg and, when the breach with the Hanseatic League drove them from that town, from Stade on the other side of the Elbe. The main stream of trade never afterwards reverted to the old Netherlands channel, and when the Hansa had withdrawn from active trade with England, the whole of the intercourse between England and the valleys of the Rhine and Elbe came under the control of the Adventurers. The Company remained prominent and active until the 18th century.

3. 8.

English merchants in Prussia and the Hansa towns found themselves exposed to loss and at a disadvantage because there was no proper authority to regulate their affairs and to settle disputes among them. They elected a governor whose authority was confirmed by Richard II in 1391; later Henry IV empowered the merchants trading in those parts to meet together and elect governors who should not only have authority in quarrels but should have power to arrange disputes between English and foreign merchants, and to secure redress for any injury that might be done them in foreign parts. This was in 1404, and similar privileges were afterwards granted to the English merchants of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

In the north Englishmen were now pushing their trade to such an extent that they were brought into difficulties with more than one power. At the beginning of the 15th century, the Hansards found their monopoly of the Baltic trade threatened

by the dominance of the Danes in the Scandinavian peninsula. On the whole, the English gained in this struggle between the Danes and the Hansards, for they were enabled to open up communications with Prussia. Even amid the concessions to the Hansa granted by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1474, the right of the English to trade in the Baltic was not given up; indeed, the position of the Eastland merchants who traded to Prussia was on paper made more secure, though it does not appear that they gained much in practice.

In the 16th century a movement was set on foot by the London merchants to establish the Baltic trade after the manner of organization of the Merchant Adventurers. This trade had been open to all Englishmen and had been as great a resource to the free traders of the east coast as the Spanish trade had been to those of the west and south. It was henceforth to be restricted to the members of a new corporation, the Eastland Company, and the justification of this arbitrary restriction was sought in the prevalence of privateering. The provincial ports on the east coast were to participate in this new company, but those merchants alone were to be admitted who had traded to the Baltic ten years before the foundation of the Company, that is before 1568.

The Eastland Company competed in one of the two great branches of Hansa trade, that with Scandinavia, Poland, and the German ports on the Baltic. The Company exported English cloth, but their voyages were important to the country not so much because they kept open a market for our commodities as because they secured a supply of tar, hemp, cordage, and other naval stores, and what is of even more importance, in view of the increasing impoverishment of the English forests, a supply of masts, spars, and shipbuilding timber. The Company seems to have carried on a vigorous trade in the early part of the 17th century and was resuscitated at the Restoration, but there is some difficulty in tracing its later history. Eventually England looked to her plantations in North America for timber, and a decrease in the demand for English cloth contributed to the decline of the Baltic trade. England failed, owing to her lack of proper shipping, to secure the lion's share of the commerce formerly carried on by the Hanseatic League. The great Baltic corn trade to Spain and the Mediterranean fell into the hands of the Dutch and was the mainspring and foundation of their maritime power.
The rise of the United Provinces and the success of the Dutch against Spain compelled the notice of Englishmen. The Dutch were ever present in the minds of English statesmen of the 17th century as an example of economic development. That the Dutch had developed a great trading and maritime power marked them out for the imitation of men who were striving to excel on those very lines.

The trade between England and the Netherlands was largely in the hands of the Dutch, while much of England’s trade with other countries was carried on in Dutch vessels. The rivalry became keen, and one of the measures taken against Dutch trade was the celebrated Navigation Act of 1651, which was aimed directly at the maritime power of Holland. This Act can scarcely have affected Dutch commerce severely so long as the Dutch kept their hold on New Amsterdam and used it as a depot for clandestine trade with the English colonies in North America. In one branch of trade the measure even recoiled upon England. The English had not sufficient ships of such burden as could be employed in the Scandinavian and Baltic trade, and the restrictions imposed on them compelled English merchants to abandon this line of trade altogether; the Dutch obtained a more complete monopoly of the Baltic trade which was the very foundation of their maritime power, and so could afford to relinquish the plantation trade, which was at that time a somewhat small affair. The hostile measures taken against the Dutch proved detrimental to the Scots, who had little shipping but a considerable market in the American colonies for their cloth, which was transported in Dutch ships. On the whole it seems that the Dutch did not suffer perceptibly in the 17th century. The zenith of her commercial greatness was attained in the early years of the 18th century, and at that time she was still far ahead of England in her maritime and shipping resources. Although England had not overtaken her rival, yet she was gaining in the race, for her shipping had developed enormously during the later part of the 17th century.

3. 9.

The following words were probably introduced directly through the Flanders wool trade. **Pack** (a. 1225), a bundle of things enclosed in a wrapping; the 13th-century forms are *packe* and *pakke*, apparently from e.M.Flem. *pac* (12th century), (M.Du. and MLG. *pak*); the earliest instance of the word yet recorded is at Ghent (1199), and it occurs at Utrecht in 1244;
the Flem. vb. *pakken*, however, appears at an earlier date in connexion with the wool trade. The vb. *Pack* (1280) is later in English, and is either from the sb. or directly from M.Du., MLG. *pakken*. Three derivatives of *pack* are to be noticed: *Pack-needle* (1327) is from *pack* and *needle*, but perhaps after a Low Dutch form (Kilian has *packnaelde*); *Packer* (1353), an officer charged with the packing or supervision of the packing of exported goods liable to custum; from, *pack* and -er, but perhaps after the Low Dutch (Kilian has *packer*); *Packcloth* (14 .., 1565-73), a stout, coarse kind of cloth used in packing; from *pack* and *cloth*, but perhaps after Low Dutch forms (Kilian has *pack-kleed*).

Another term used in the packing of goods is *Bale* (c. 1325), a large bundle or package of merchandise, originally of a more or less rounded shape; from OF. *bale*, *balle*, which possibly came directly into ME., but Flem. also borrowed the word from OF. as *bale*, and the ME. is perhaps from this.

*Staple* (1423), the town or place appointed by royal authority, in which was a body of merchants having the exclusive right of purchase of certain classes of goods destined for export; the English word has not been found earlier than 1423, but the AF. *estaple* and the AL. *stapula* occur in official documents from the reign of Edward II onwards; ad. OF. *estapel*, emporium, mart, ad. MLG. *stapel*, *stapel*, pillar, platform, stocks for shipbuilding, &c. (whence also med.L. *stapula* and *staplus*); the MLG. and M.Du. *stapel* have the sense emporium, mart, in addition to the above senses, but it is uncertain whether this sense was developed in MLG. or whether it originated in OF. and was thence adopted into MLG.; at any rate it is possible that the AF. and AL. forms were reinforced by the Low Dutch forms, though themselves from OF. ad. MLG.

*Tod* (1425), a weight used in the wool trade, usually 28 pounds, but varying locally; of Low Dutch origin, but no M.Du. or MLG. form can be postulated; apparently the same word as E.Fris. *todde*, bundle, pack, small load; *tod*, load, is also found in the modern dialects of Groningen, Guelderland, and Overijssel.

3. 10.

The words borrowed from the MLG. of the Hansa traders of north Germany fall into four sections: (1) terms of general trade; (2) terms of the fur trade; (3) specific terms of the trade in Baltic products; (4) terms of the timber trade.
The following are the terms of general trade. **Trade** (c. 1375, *Sc. Leg. Saints*), ad. MLG. *trade* (*trâ*), LG. *trade*, a track; was perhaps introduced originally in nautical language for the course or track of a ship, and was afterwards extended to the other senses of ME. *trede*, as course, way, path, track of beast or man. **Westvale** (1385), a variety of cloth of Westphalian origin, one of the articles brought in by the Hansa from Westphalia; ad. MLG. *Westvale*, *Westval*, Westphalian.

A term for a measure used in the Hansa trade is **Shock** (1391 in the non-Eng. context of *E. Derby’s Exped.;* 1583 in an Eng. context), a lot of 60 pieces, used in relation to certain articles of merchandise originally imported from abroad; ad. MLG. *shock* (Du. *schok*).

**Tear**, adj. and sb. (c. 1400), is a traders’ term descriptive of their wares, fine, delicate, of the best quality, especially used in connexion with hemp or flour; apparently from Low Dutch, which has the following forms, M.Du., M.Flem., MLG., and LG. *teer, têr*, contracted from *teeder, têder*, fine, thin, delicate, tender.

Terms of the northern fur trade are: **Timber** (in L. context as early as a. 1150 in Scotland and 1290 in England, and in Eng. context first in 1473-4), a definite quantity of furs, a package containing 40 skins of ermine, sable, marten, and the like; found in MLG. as *timber* (13th century), *timmer*, and occurring earlier in med.L. as *timbrum*, *timbria* (1207, Du Cange, at Rouen); it is supposed to be ultimately a special use of timber, wood, perhaps because the furs were packed with a stiffening of thin boards, and to have originated in LG. as a term of the fur trade, whence it spread into other languages; O.E.D. says that the immediate source of ME. *timbre* appears to have been F. (OF. *timbre*, 1350 in Godefroy). **Wildware** (1393), fur of wild animals; ad. MLG. *wildware*, from *wild*, wild, and *ware*, ware, goods.

Some words for fur-bearing beasts are of Low Dutch origin and come into English either directly or through French. **Fitchew** (1394), the fur of the polecat, the animal itself; ad. OF. *fissel*, later *fissau*, a diminutive formation of the word which appears in Du. of the 16th and 17th centuries as *fisse, visse, vitsche* (Kilian and Hexham). **Marten** (14 ..., 1422), in ME. *martren*; the skins and fur of the animal now called marten; ad. OF. *martrine*, marten fur, ad. Du. and M.Du. *martren*. **Fitch** (1550),
the fitchew; (1502), the fur of the polecat; ad. M.Du. visse, fisse, but perhaps through an unrecorded French form.

There are three terms of specific Baltic products in which the Hansa dealt. Osmund (1280), a superior quality of iron imported from the Baltic in very small bars and rods for the manufacture of arrow-heads, fish-hooks, &c.; the earliest form in ME., osemund, has the MLG. ose- form, MLG. osemunt, Westph. dialect ösemund, and was probably borrowed from Hansa traders; osmund, the form from c. 1400, appears to be from Sw., O.Sw. osmunder, in compounds osmunds-iaern, Sw. osmund; it is noteworthy that iron and copper were brought to England by Gotlanders before 1300. Tallow (a. 1300), in ME. tal2, talgh; the word corresponds to MLG. talg, talch; the words occur in Du. and G. and the Scand. languages in forms which indicate a common origin, but nowhere yet has the word been found before the 13th century; in the Scand. languages a great diversity of gender suggests that the word is borrowed from MLG.; the ME. word may have had a similar origin, as the commodity was one much dealt in by the Baltic traders; there is, of course, the possibility of an unrecorded OE. *tealh, *taelh. Train (1497 in a non-Eng. context, 1515 in an Eng. context), the earlier name for what is now called train oil; in the 15th and 16th centuries the form was trane, ad. MLG. and LG. trân, M.Du. traen, Du. traan, oil extracted; the word passed from LG. into Da. and Sw.

A number of words were brought in by the Baltic timber trade. Spar (13 .., Cursor M.), one of the common rafters of a roof; (1388, in Nicholas, Hist. Roy. Navy), a pole or piece of timber, esp. an undressed stem under 6 inches in diameter; (1640), a general term for all masts, yards, booms, &c.; probably of Low Dutch origin, compare M.Du. sparre, spar, spare, also M.Du. and Flem. sperre, spar; but ON. had sperri and sperra, and the quotation of 13 .. may be of ON. origin.

Shotboard (1310), of uncertain meaning, but probably a board of wainscot; shot may be from M.Du. schot, a partition, with substitution of sh- for sk- on the analogy of the numerous English words with initial sh-, or it may represent a similar alteration of the second element in wainscot. Wainscot (1352-3, Ely Sacr. Rolls), a superior quality of foreign oak imported from Russia, Germany, and Holland, chiefly used for fine panel work; ad. MLG. wagenschot (1389), apparently from wagen, carriage, and

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schot (of doubtful meaning, cf. MLG. bokenschot, LG. bökenschot, beechwood of superior quality); 16th-century Flem. has a form waeghescot, waeghenschot (Kilian); the synonymous Du. or Flem. wandschot (Kilian) may be the source of the Eng. forms as wandschoth (14th century), and is either an etymologizing perversion of wagenschot or an independent formation on wand, wall of a room; the English examples of the word are earlier than those given in the MLG. and M.Du. dictionaries, and the first element appears already in the earliest instances assimilated to the English Wain.

Rigald (1338 in Nicholas, Hist. Roy. Navy), timber for light spars; the ME. forms are righolt (1399), richolt (15th century), and these appear to represent MLG. regel-, rigelholt (M.Du. righelhout), from regel, rail, spar, and holt, wood. Spire (1392), a spar or pole of timber; chiefly of Northern or Sc. location; perhaps from ON. spira, but a Low Dutch origin is more likely (M.Du. spier, LG. spiere, spier, N.Fris. spir, W.Fris. spier).

Deal (1402, in C. Frost, Early Hist. Hull), a slice sawn from a log of timber, a plank of pine or firwood; ad. MLG. dele, plank, floor. Knag (c. 1440), a short spur or stiff projection from the trunk or branch of a tree; ME. knag or knagge are probably from MLG. knagge, a knot; Da. knag, Sw. knagge were probably borrowed from LG.; Knag, vb. and Knagged are regarded as derivatives, but are evidenced before it. Raff (c. 1440, Pr. Parv. as raafman, 1459, Relig. Ord. Norwich as rafman), foreign timber usually in the form of deals; perhaps ad. G. raf, raff(e), obs. or dial., from rafe, rafer, beam. Rafter is of course from OE. rafter, but the Sc. forms with -ch- (rach-, rauch-, rawch-, raychter) are probably from the MLG. rachter (also rafter); it is probable that even in English this form of the word was reinforced from LG., as e.g. rauchter, 1592, in Lyly's Galathea.

Clapboard (c. 1520, Mem. Ripon), originally a small size of split oak imported from north Germany, and used by coopers for making barrel-staves, &c.; a partially Englished form of MLG. klapholt, with board for holt. Clapholt (1477) is earlier, and may be ad. MLG. klapholt or M.Du. clapholt, -hout. Scabbard (1635), a thin board used in making splints, the scabbards of swords, veneer, &c., and by printers in making register; apparently ad. MLG. schalbort, thin board sawn off a length of timber in squaring it, from schale, shell, rind, and bort, board.

3. 11.

Very many names were borrowed from Low Dutch for
the various commodities which were handled in the course of trade. The most numerous are names for kinds of cloth.

In Middle English the following appear. **Lewyn** (1360), a kind of linen cloth which takes its name from its place of origin, Louvain, in Flem. **Leuven. Lampas** (1390), a kind of glossy crape; it occurs in Hall's *Chron. Hen. VIII* (a. 1548), in the compound *lampas douck* (Du. *doek*, cloth), and this suggests that the word may have been adopted from M.Du.; the recorded form in M.Du. and e.mod.Du. is *lampers*, and compare with this 16th-century English *lampors*. **Lyre** (1390-1 in the non-Eng. context of *E. Derby's Exped.*, 1421 in an Eng. context), the name, med.L. *Lyra*, of a town in Brabant, now Lire or Liere, occurring in the designation of certain kinds of cloth, as black of Lyre, green of Lyre, &c. **Puke** (1466), a superior kind of woollen cloth of which gowns were made; (1530), a colour, formerly used for woollen goods, bluish-black or inky; l. ME. *pewke, puke*, ad. M.Du. *puuc, puyck*, the name of the best sort of woollen cloth; its use to designate a colour is only found in English. **Brunswick** (1480), the LG. name of the town; it was formerly used as the name of a textile fabric, and is still used attributively in Brunswick black, green. **Mechlin** (1483), in Mechlin black, a black cloth made at Mechlin in Brabant; (1699), Mechlin lace; Mechlin is the Flem. name for Malines. **Russel** (1488), a kind of woollen fabric formerly used for articles of attire, especially in the 16th century; possibly for *Rijssel*, the Flem. name for Lille; the early forms and the fact that black and other colours occur more frequently than red are against connexion with OF. *russel*, reddish. **Dornick** (1489), a silk, worsted woollen or partly woollen fabric used for hangings; also a kind of linen cloth used in Scotland for the table; the name of a Flemish town (in French, Tournai), applied to certain fabrics originally manufactured there.

In the modern period there is a large group of words which are the names of cloths made abroad and imported into England under their foreign names. As in Middle English many of them are named after their place of manufacture.

**Bruges** (1517), the French name for the Flemish city of Brugge, used attributively in Bruges satin, the name of a kind of satin manufactured at this town. **Cambric** (1530), a kind of fine, white linen made originally at Cambrai; in the 16th century the forms were *camerick(e) or camerick*, from Kameryk or
Kamerijk, the Flemish name of Cambrai. **Stammet** (1531), a woollen fabric; ad. OF. *estamet*, from *estame* and -*et*, diminutive suffix, but Du. has *stamet*, woollen yarn, and this may be the immediate source of the English word. **Calamanco** (1592), a woollen stuff of Flanders, glossy on the surface and woven with a satin twill and chequered in the warp so that the checks are seen on one side only, much used in the 18th century; the origin of the name is unknown, but Du. has *kalamink*, *kalmink*, and the Eng. word is probably from this with the -*co* ending possibly by analogy with *Calico* (recorded first in 1540). **Salempore** (1598, W. Phillips, trans. Linschoten), a blue cotton cloth formerly made at Nellore in India, and largely exported to the West Indies, where it was the usual slave cloth; the Du. name for it was *salamporij* (17th century), and the first English occurrence is in the translation of a Dutch book; Mr. C.L. Wrenn’s suggestion that the origin of the word is *Salem*, the name of a south Indian town, and *pore*, city, town, is probably correct.

**Slyre** (1621, from Sc.), a fine kind of linen or lawn; ad. LG. *sleier*, *slijer*, fine linen, veil. **Duck** (1640), a strong, untwilled, linen fabric, lighter and finer than canvas; apparently ad. 17th-century Du. *doeck*, linen or linen cloth (Hexham, 1678). **Barras** (1640), the name of a coarse linen fabric imported from Holland; Dutch *barras* is mentioned in a charter of 1640 granted by Charles II to the City of London, and Bense supposes it to be a Dutch borrowing, though there seems to be no word corresponding in either form or meaning in Du., Flem., or LG. **Gimp, Gymp** (1664), silk, worsted, or cotton twist with a cord of wire running through it; Du. *gimp* in the same sense appears in Jacob Cats (died 1660) earlier than the first example of the English word, and so it may have been borrowed from Du. **Duffel, Duffle** (1677), a coarse woollen cloth having a thick nap or frieze; it is named after the place of manufacture, Duffel, a town of Brabant, between Antwerp and Mechlin. **Burlap** (1695), originally perhaps a sort of holland, now a coarse canvas made of jute or hemp and used for bagging; Bense suggests that it is from an unrecorded Du. *boerenlap*, in which *boeren* is meant to express the same notion that it has in *boerenkost*, ‘coarse fare’; *boeren* in this sense is often used in Holland to express coarseness in appearance, manners, language, &c.; lap, a piece of cloth, clout, so *boerenlap*, a coarse piece of cloth, hence coarse cloth, and this would suit the form as well as the

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sense. **Gulix** (1696), a kind of fine linen; from Du. **Gulik**, the town of Juliers.

**Ticklenburgs** (1696), a kind of coarse linen cloth; from Tecklenburg, a town and district in Westphalia, noted for its manufacture of linen.

**Ghenting** (a. 1700), a kind of linen; from Ghent, where it was originally made.

**Sail-duck** (1795), see **Duck** (p. 49); from Du. **zeildoek**. **Flushing** (1883), a kind of rough, thick woollen cloth; from Flushing, the English name for the Zeeland town of Vlissingen, where it was first manufactured. **Brussels** (1845), used attributively for Brussels carpet and Brussels lace; from the place of manufacture.

The following are the names of commodities other than cloth imported from the Low Countries. In Middle English appear: **Walshnut** (1368-9), walnut; the word was probably adopted from M.Du. or MLG., though documentary evidence of its existence in those languages is wanting (Kilian has *walsche not*, cf. also MHG. *wälhischnuz*, 'Welsh', i.e. Italian or Gaulish nut). **Lukes** (1472, as Lukys iron), made at Liége, said especially of velvet and hardware; ad. Du. **Luiksch**, from Luik, a town and province of Belgium. **Skaillie** (1496, from Sc.), blue roofing slate; ad. M.Du. **schaelie** or ad. OF. *escaillie*.

Words of this kind are more numerous in the modern period. Two are the names of dye-stuffs: **Safflower** (1583), the dried petals of the *Carthumus tinctorius*, also the red dye which they produce; ad. Du. *saffloer(s)*; the form has been influenced by association with saffron, although safflower is a wholly different flower. **Mull** (1640), the lowest of the four qualities of Dutch madder; also as a compound, **Mull-madder**; ad. Du. *mul*, mull.

The trade in Baltic honey is responsible for **Werke** (1598), honeycomb; ad. MLG. *werk* (LG. *wark*); the quotation, from Hakluyt’s Voyages, refers to Hanseatic traders of 1395-8.


The habit of taking snuff brought in the word **Snuff** (1683), a preparation of powdered tobacco; probably ad. Du. and Flem. *snuf, or snuif*, an abbreviation of *snuif-tabac*; the practice of taking snuff appears to have become fashionable in England about 1680, but prevailed earlier in Ireland and Scotland. The vb. **Snuff** (1527, Andrew Brunswyke’s *Distilled Waters*) is over a century and a half earlier, and appears first in a medical
treatise; it has the sense to draw up or through the nostrils by the action of inhalation; probably ad. M.Du. snoffen, snuffen.

The large trade in Dutch earthenware gives the name for the commonest ware, Delf, Delft (1714), a kind of glazed earthenware originally called Delf ware; from Delf, now Delft, a town in Holland; when the paragogic -t was added to the Dutch Delf, it was also extended to the English word.

A Rhineland commodity was Rhinehurst (1724), Burgundy pitch; ad. Du. rhynseharst, ad. G. rheinharz, from Rhein, Rhine, and harz, resin. A term of the Rhenish wine trade was Muzzle (1853), Moselle wine; ad. Du. Moezel or G. Mosel.

One word came in from the important Dutch monopoly trade in East Indian spices. Rump (1602), refuse of nutmegs; ad. Du. romp, pieces of cloves and nutmegs (in Kilian rompe, MLG. rompe).

The Dutch were pioneers in the manufacture and trade in artificial butter or margarine, and the name of one variety has been borrowed; Bosch, Bosh (1879), short for Bosch butter, the artificial butter manufactured at ‘s Hertogenbosch or den Bosch in Holland (Bense).

A number of words have come in through the trade in spirits; they are mainly the names of Dutch gin products. Brandy (a. 1622), in the 17th century also brandwine, brandewine, brandywine, the abbreviation of which, brandy, was in familiar use as early as 1657; this is the Du. brandewijn (brandende wijn, ‘aqua ardens, vinum ardens’, Kilian). Geneva (1706), a spirit distilled from grain and flavoured with the juice of juniper berries; it is made in Holland and is hence called also Hollands; ad. Du. genever, jenever (the ending being assimilated to that of Geneva, the town), ad. F. genevra, juniper. The shortened form of this word is Gin (1714), which has now practically superseded the full form geneva. Hollands (1714, in Hollands gin, 1788), another name for geneva because manufactured in Holland; ad. Du. hollandsch (pronounced hollands), Hollandish, Dutch, in hollandsche genever, Hollands gin. Schiedam (1821), a variety of gin, so called from the town in Holland where it was manufactured. A name for a measure of spirits which probably came in through this trade is Sopie (1696), a drink of spirits, a dram; ad. Du. zoope, dram, sip, diminutive of zope, sup; this word was borrowed independently in S. Africa.
One term of the English export trade in hides is probably of Dutch origin. **Kip** (c. 1525), a set or bundle of small hides containing a definite number; this corresponds to and is probably from M.Du. *kip, kijp*, a pack or bundle, especially of hides; the difficulty of the word is that it also has the sense (1530) the hide of a young or small beast, and there is no evidence that this sense was developed out of that of pack or bundle of hides.

3. 12.

An important group of words is that dealing with the method and conduct of trade. The following three words, which were introduced into Middle English, may have been borrowed by English merchants in their trading journeys and residence in the Low Countries. Two of them refer to the manner of transport of goods. **Trail**, vb. (1302, Robert of Brunne), the senses in ME. are to draw behind one, to drag along the ground, to hang down so as to drag along the ground; the word agrees in form with OE. *traegelian* (only in Prudentius Glosses, glossing L. *carpere*, to pluck, snatch, tear off), but not in sense; it is apparently the same word as ONF. *trailier* (14th century in Godefroy), M.Flem. *treylen, treilen, treelen*, MLG. *treilen, tröilen*, all meaning to haul or tow a boat; it is possible that though the form existed in OE., this is a fresh borrowing in ME. from Low Dutch. **Sled** (1388), a drag used for the transport of heavy goods; (1586), a sledge or sleigh used as a vehicle in travelling; ad. M.Flem. or MLG. *sledde*, related to *sled, slead*. **Mart** (1437), a periodical gathering of people for the purpose of buying and selling, in early use chiefly with reference to the Low Countries; later used with special reference to the German booksellers' fair held at Easter, originally at Frankfurt and afterwards at Leipzig; ad. Du. *markt*, M.Du. *marct* (formerly also written *mart*, and still commonly so pronounced). The vb. **Mart** (1553) is much later; to do business at a fair; from the sb., though Du. has the vb. *markt*.

Three other Middle English words must be classed as general trade terms. **Weigh-scale** (13.., c. 1440), the pan of a balance, in the plur. a pair of scales; this word was originally borrowed in northern English; ad. Du. *waagschaal*, or MLG. *wagescale*. **Cope** (c. 1430, Lydgate), to buy, barter, exchange; of Low Dutch origin, originally used by Lydgate as Flemish; ad. M.Du. *côpen* (LG. *kôpen*), to buy, traffic. **Scavage** (1474, Caxton), a toll levied by the Corporation of London and other towns on
merchant strangers, on goods offered for sale within the precincts; this word is from Low Dutch through AF.; ad. AF. scawage, schawage, north-eastern OF. escauwage, from escauwer, to inspect, ad. Flem. sceuwen, to inspect, look at. Derivatives of scavage are Scavage, vb. (1851), Scavager (1307), Scavenge, vb. (a. 1644), and Scavenger (1530).

There is an interesting group of words all borrowed in Scotland; they show how frequent was the presence of the Low Dutch merchant and pedlar in the Scottish towns and countryside. Coff (1425), to buy, purchase; M.Du. copen had past pple. and past tense cotte, gecotte; when the word was borrowed only these past tense and past pple. forms seem to have been used, and a new present coff was formed on the analogy of the past tenses. Related to coff is Cofe (1471), a bargain; (1555), a hawker or pedlar; the mode of formation is uncertain and the two meanings may be distinct derivations from coff; M.Du. has coop, trade, and perhaps confusion of coff and coop became cofe with the vowel from coop and the -f from coff.

Wrack (1472-5), that which is of an inferior, poor, or worthless quality, waste material, rubbish; ad. (M)LG. or Du. wrak (whence also Da. vrag, Sw. vråk, refuse). Wrak, vb. (1609), wrake; ad. MLG. wracken, to reject, refuse, a variant of wraken, wrake. Wracker (1584), from wrack and -er, or ad. MLG. wraker (whence Da. vrager, sorter). Wrake (a. 1350), refuse, rubbish, something worthless, is a variant of wrack, sb. Wrake, vb. (1584), to examine goods with a view to rejecting or destroying the unsound, faulty, or damaged; ad. (M)LG. wråken (whence Sw. vråka, Da. vrange), older Du. wraaken, Du. wraken, older Flem. wraecken (Kalian), to reject. Wraker (1584), one who inspects goods and rejects and destroys the faulty; from wrake, vb. and -er, or ad. (M)LG. wraker.

Crame (1477), a booth or stall where goods are sold in market or fair; (1560), a pack or bundle of goods carried about for sale, a pedlar's stock of wares; ad. M.Du., M.Flem., or MLG. krâme, kraeme, krâm, tent, booth, stall, stock of wares; German traders and pedlars introduced this word into the Scand. languages also (Icel., Da., Sw., Norw. kram), and into Slavonic and Lithuanian. Cramer (1491), one who sells goods at a stall or booth, also hawker, pedlar; ad. MLG. krêmer, kraemer, krâmer, or M.Du. and M.Flem. kramer, kraemer, petty trader, hawker, properly the keeper of a 'crame'; this word was also introduced.

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into Icel., Da., and Polish by Low German traders. Cramery (15.., Aberd. Reg.), merchandise, such goods as are usually sold by a pedlar; ad. MLG. krêmerie, crâmerie, M.Du. cremerie, cramerie (Kalian has kraemerije), the trade or merchandise of a cramer.

Weighgilt (1497), a payment for weighing; formed after Du. waaggeld (M.Du. waechgelt).

In the modern period we get two terms for commercial buildings. Pawn (1575, Sir T. Gresham), a gallery or colonnade, a covered walk or passage, especially one in a bazaar, exchange, or arcade, alongside of which wares are exposed for sale; perhaps from e.mod.Du. pand (Plantijn), pandt (Kilian, 1599, Hexham, 1678), a gallery where things are sold; pand is a Du. development of F. pan. Packhouse (1601), a building in which packs of goods are stored; from pack and house (see Pack), but perhaps after Du. packhuis (Kalian has packhuys).

There are three terms for selling by auction. Outroop (1598), an auction; ad. Du. uitroep (in Kilian wtroep), an auction sale, from uit, out, and roepen, to call. Outrooper, -roper (1612), an auctioneer, at one time the specific title of the Common Crier of the City of London; from outroop, but compare Du. uitroeper. Lyth-coop (1681), an auction of household goods; perhaps adopted with change of sense from Du. lijfkoop, in M.Du. also litcoo, liefcoo, a luckpenny on the conclusion of a bargain; the Dutch forms were probably affected by popular etymology.

English traders in the Low Countries became familiar with transport of goods by canal and river barge, and the following terms of such transport were borrowed. Track-boat (1632), a boat which is trailed or towed, a tow-boat; originally a Sc. borrowing; this is a rendering of Du. trek-schuit. Schuit (1660), a Dutch flat-bottomed river boat; ad. Du. schuit, earlier schuyt (M.Du. schûte) (see Scout and Shout, p. 69). Trekschuit, Treckschuit (1696, as draggescutte, 1696), a canal or river boat drawn by horses, carrying passengers and goods, as in common use in Holland, a tow-boat; ad. Du. trekschuit, formerly -schuyt, from trek, sb. or trek-, vb. stem of trekken, to draw, pull.

A term of the itinerant trade is Hawker (1510), a man who goes from place to place selling his goods or who cries them in the street; apparently ad. MLG. hoker, LG. hâker (Du. heuker), higgler, hawk, huckster.

Galyor (c. 1515) occurs once in Cock Lorell’s Book; possibly
this is Du. *gleyer, a dealer in earthenware brought in galleys, a galleyman.

Very general terms of trade are: Cope (1562), a bargain, in the phrase good cope; also in the phrase God's cope (1520), a very large sum; from cope, vb. (see Cope, vb., p. 52). Copeman (1566), originally copesman; a chapman, merchant, dealer; the later copeman may have been influenced by Du. koopman. Fardel (1523), profit; ad. Du. voordeel, advantage.

3. 13.

There is an interesting group of words borrowed from Low Dutch for the names of measures and weights used in trade; by far the larger number of these in Middle English are for liquid measures, and this may be due in part to the right which the Hansa acquired to participate in the retail trade in Rhenish wines.

Kilderkin (1391, in the non-Eng. context of E. Derby’s Exped., 1410, in Eng. context), a cask for liquids, fish, &c., of a definite capacity, a cask of this size filled with some commodity; the original form was kin-, as ME. kynerkin, kynderkin, ad. M.Du. kinderkin, more commonly kindeken, kinneken, also kyntken, kijn-, kimmekijn (see Kempkin, Kinkin, p. 56), the fourth part of a tun; the change of kin- to kij- is apparently peculiar to English, and is found already in 1392.

Cruse (c. 1440, Pallad. on Husb., c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), a small earthen vessel for liquids, a pot; ME. has cruse, crowse, crewse, probably ad. MLG. krûs, krôs, M.Du. cruysse; in modern Eng. we have beside ME. -u- modern Eng. -u-, where we should expect -ou-, and beside that a variant spelling in -ui-, -uy-, from the 16th century; this makes it very probable that the word was reborrowed from Du. in the modern period. The diminutive of cruse, Cruskyn, Cruisken (1378, Inventory in Pr. Parv.), is recorded nearly half a century earlier; a small vessel for holding liquids, hence a liquid measure; ad. M.Flem. kruyseken, kroesken, diminutive of kruyse, kroes, cruse; the word was also borrowed into OF. as creusequin, crousequin.

Similar Dutch diminutives for small measures are Firkin (1423), a small cask for liquids, fish, or butter, originally containing a quarter of a ‘barrel’ or half a kilderkin, and used later as a measure of capacity; the 15th-century form was ferdekyn, ad. M.Du. *vierdekijn, the diminutive of vierde, fourth, fourth part. Mutchkin (1425), a measure of capacity used in Scotland, the fourth part of an old Scotch pint; ad. e.mod.Du. mudseken
(now mutsje), apparently an irregular diminutive of mud(de). Dutch mudde or mud was itself borrowed as Mud (1477, Extracts Aberd. Reg.), the name for a Dutch measure of capacity.

The only measure of weight borrowed in Middle English is Waw (1316, Durh. Acc. Rolls), a measure equal to 12 stone; ad. MLG. and M.Du. wage, weight.

Two words came in as measures of the fruit trade. Top (1440-1), a basket as a measure of grapes or figs; ad. MLG. and M.Flem. toppe, top, basket (as a measure of raisins, figs, &c.) (Kilian has top van vijghen, basket of figs). There was a diminutive of this, Toppet (1481-90), with the same sense, a basket of fruit; it is analogous to the M.Flem. diminutive topkin, M.Du. topkine. Tapnet, Topnet (1524), is apparently altered from toppet.

Most of the names of measures borrowed in the modern period are again liquid measures for wines and spirits, from cask measures down to small glass measures. Perhaps some of this great variety was due to the smuggling trade in Hollands spirits. Kinkin (c. 1500, from Sc.), a small barrel or keg, kilderkin; ad. M.Du. kintken, kinneken, variant of kindekijn. Aam (1526), a Dutch or German liquid measure, formerly used in England for Rhenish wines, a cask; it varied from 37 to 41 gallons in various continental cities; ad. Du. aam; aam is the modern Du. spelling, the Eng. forms alm(e), awme, aume, ame being only historical. An English variant form of aam is Aum (1502).

Rood (1502), a measure of wine; ad. M.Du. roede. Tonekin (1546), a rare word of doubtful meaning, perhaps a small cask or barrel; if so, then perhaps ad. Flem. toneken. Kempkin (1580, once, from Sc.), a small barrel or keg; ad. M.Du. kimmekijn, a variant of kindekijn, kilderkin. Anker (1597), first found in the sense of a dry measure of capacity; the more common sense of a measure of wine or spirits used in Holland, north Germany, and the Baltic occurs first in the Pennsyl. Arch. (1673), and not till c. 1750 in England; the measure varied in different countries, that of Rotterdam, formerly also used in England, contained 10 old wine gallons or 8 and a third imperial gallons; ad. Du. anker.

Two names of drinking-vessels are perhaps best included here, as most drinking-vessels serve also as measures. Rumkin (1636), apparently of LG. origin, and Rummer (1654), a large kind of drinking-glass; of Low Dutch origin, compare W.Flem. rummer, rommer, Du. romer, roemer, Fris. romer, LG. römer.
Leaguer (1683), a certain measure of arrack, a cask of wine or oil, and with the specifically nautical sense of the largest water casks; perhaps ad. Du. ligger, a tun, from liggen, to lie. Nipperkin (1671), a measure or vessel of small capacity used for liquors, about half a pint; the form points to a Low Dutch origin, but the source is not known; M.Du. has nypelkin, the name of some game.

Measures of weight are Lispound (1545), a unit of weight used in the Baltic trade, varying at different times and in different localities from 12 to 30 pounds; ad. LG. and Du. lispund, contracted from livsch pund, Livonian pound; it is also found in the Shetlands and Orkneys (1693). Shippound (1545), a unit of weight in the Baltic trade varying from 300 to 400 pounds, that is 20 lispounds; ad. MLG. schippunt or M.Du. schippond (whence ON. skippund). Skippound (1622), another form of shippound, at Antwerp 300 pounds; ad. Du. schippond or LG. schippund.

Quantity measures are Terling (a. 1502, Arnolde's Chron.), the name of a pack (apparently of cloth), of a definite size or quantity; ad. MLG. terlink, diminutive of tere, the name of a pack or bale twice the size; it is not clear whether the Du. teerling, cube, die, is connected; the quotation in Arnolde refers to rates at Amsterdam. Skoke (1545), a certain quantity; ad. M.Du. or MLG. schok. Scote (1633-4), a measure; perhaps ad. M.Du. schote, a definite quantity of small articles.

In a general sense is Slump (1718, from Sc.), a large quantity or number; chiefly in the phrases, by or in the slump, as a whole, collectively, in the lump; ad. LG. slump, heap, mass, quantity (im slump köpen, to buy in the lump) (Du. slomp, Fris. slompe); the LG. word is also the source of Da., Sw., and Norw. slump.

As might be expected many names of foreign coins were taken into English in the Middle English period. The constant measures taken by the Government against the circulation of foreign coins, often of very inferior quality and weight, prove that their circulation in England was very great. In 1299 Edward I attempted to rectify the debasement of the currency of the realm; the Mint was reorganized and coinage of an excellent standard was issued. He also endeavoured to prevent the mischief from recurring; it had been due chiefly to the introduction of money from abroad in payment for English wool.
The extensive trade in England by Flemish and other alien merchants in the 14th century seems to have led to the export of the better coins of England, and the import of light and debased coins, among them those known by the names of Brabant and Lushburg. These coins appear to have been made of a white metal which resembled silver. A pound weight of Lushburgs was worth only eight shillings. In 1343 a gold coin for currency in England as well as Flanders was struck in conjunction with the people of Flanders, but bad foreign money continued to find its way into England. Edward III and his queen kept their court at Louvain in the winter of 1338 and caused a large quantity of gold and silver coin to be struck at Antwerp.

The minting of money was one of the royal prerogatives, and the officers of the Exchange were empowered to see that no foreign coinage got into circulation in this country, but that it was sent to the Mint for recoinage; their efforts, however, must have been easily circumvented. For the variety of coins circulating at Calais in the 15th century see Malden, Cely Papers, xlix.

**Lushburg** (1346), a base coin made in imitation of the silver or sterling penny and imported from Luxemburg in the reign of Edward III; it is the anglicized form of Luxemburg. **Brabant** (c. 1350), a base coin of Flemish manufacture circulated in England in the 13th century; from the name of the Duchy of Brabant.

**Mite** (c. 1350), originally a Flemish coin of very small value, a third of a penny; its first occurrence in English is in a proverbial expression 'not worth a mite', so it must have been known a long time previously before it would pass into the proverbial language; ad. M.Du. *mite* (MLG. *mite, meite, meute*), something very small. **Groat** (1351), though the first mention refers to the English groat coined in 1351-2 and worth fourpence, and the word is used for the Flemish groat first in 1387, the adoption of the Dutch or Flemish form of the word shows that the groat of the Low Countries had circulated here before a coin of that denomination was issued by the English sovereigns; ad. M.Du. *groot*, properly an elliptical use of the adjective 'great' in the sense 'thick'.

**Seskyn** (1413), a Dutch coin of the value of six mites; ad. M.Du. *seskijn*, from *ses*, six, and *kijn*, the diminutive suffix. **Dodkin** (1415), an early name for the doit, a small Dutch coin; in the 15th century *doydekyn, doykin*, ad. M.Du. *duytken*, diminu-
tive of duyt, doyt. Plack (1473), a coin of the Netherlands of the 15th century; ad. M.Du. placke, plecke, a small coin of Brabant and Flanders, of varying value. Guilder (c. 1481), originally applied to a gold coin current in the Netherlands and parts of Germany, and later to a Dutch silver coin worth 1s. 8d.; an English corrupted pronunciation of Du. gulden (see Gulden, below). Rider (1479, Cely Papers), a gold coin having the figure of a horseman on its obverse, formerly current in Flanders and Holland; also a gold coin struck by James V of Scotland, and current also in Scotland in the 15th and 16th centuries; ad. Du. and Flem. rijder, horseman.

In the modern period the following names of Low Country coins appear. Gulden (15., Aberd. Reg., 1528), a gold coin, one of the various obsolete gold coins of Germany and the Netherlands; also a silver coin of Holland, the guilder; ad. Du. and LG. gulden, strictly an adjective, of gold, golden. Lubish (15., Aberd. Reg., 1563), in the phrases mark Lubish, schilling Lubish, a denomination belonging to a money of account formerly in extensive commercial use in north Germany; ad. LG. lübsch, Du. lubecksch, from Lübeck, of or belonging to Lübeck, one of the most famous of the Hansa towns of Germany.

Stiver (1502), a small coin, originally silver, of the Low Countries; ad. Du. stuiver, (M)LG. stüver, (whence Da. styver, Sw. styfver). Silverling (1526), a shekel; ad. G. silberling or Du. zilverling; this is probably a literary borrowing as it is found first in Tindale. Schelling (1535), a silver coin, formerly current in the Low Countries, of the value of six stivers; ad. Du. schelling. This word appears also as Skilling (1700, S.L. trans. Fryke's Voy. E. Indies), ad. Du. schelling.

Yokindale (1536), a silver coin of the 16th century varying in value from 15 to 20 shillings Scots; ad. e.LG. jochimdaier, variant joachimsdaler (G. Joachimstaler), 'the coin of Joachimstal' in Bohemia, the original name of the thaler; they were coined there in 1519 from a silver mine opened in 1516. The modification of this, Dollar (1553), appears in English in the 16th century in the forms daler, daller; ad. LG. and e.mod.Du. daler (Du. daalden), alongside the full term. A particular kind of dollar is the Rix-dollar (1598), a silver coin current from the later part of the 16th century to the middle of the 19th century in Holland, Germany, Sweden, and Austria, in their commerce with the East; ad. older Du. rijcksdaler (Kilian), Du. rjksdaalder.
Orkyn (1542, once) and Orkey (1660, Hexham), the fourth part of a stiver; a corruption of Du. *oortken*, diminutive of *oort*, a small coin. Morkin (1547), a German coin of small value; ad. M.Du. *moorkijn*, diminutive of *moor*. Doit (1594), a small Dutch coin formerly in use, one-eighth of a stiver; ad. e.mod.Du. *duit* (in M.Du. also *duyt, deuyt, doyt, deyt*).

3. 15. 3. 15.

Finance and money-lending are closely connected with the general practice of trade, and Low Dutch merchants and traders in England seem to have engaged largely in this profitable sideline. Edward III had large dealings with Netherland money-lenders, especially those of Louvain, in order to raise the enormous sums needed for the payment of subsidies to his Low Country allies. After the failure of the great Italian bankers much of their business fell into the hands of the Hansa merchants, who made considerable loans to the English Government, either directly or as agents for their fellow-countrymen in Germany. In 1343, when the King had been granted a tax of 40 shillings a sack on all wool exported, he immediately borrowed the value of it from Tiedemann van Limburg and Johann van Walde, Easterlings. Similarly in 1346 the Hansa merchants lent the King money for three years, holding as security his second crown; they also took the Cornish tin mines at farm. Several Flemings also came to London after the Italian collapse and established themselves as bankers. They were prepared to make a loan to the Government on the security of the taxes, which were about to be levied at an unusual rate; they were not able to prosecute their business for long, as they fell victims to the popular hatred of foreigners which culminated in the reign of Richard II in savage riots against the Flemings in London.

When Elizabeth borrowed to avoid summoning Parliament, she borrowed not only from native merchants, but from the numerous and wealthy Dutch merchants living in London, whose enjoyment both of the ‘Intercourse’, or favourable conditions of trade established by an old treaty with the Netherlands, and of freedom of conscience, seemed to give the Queen a right to demand loans of substantial amount and without interest. This she declared to be the more justifiable, since the produce of these loans would go in good part to the expenses of

3. 15. A.I. 77, 205-6, 208; I.C. ii. 130, 148, 159, 324-5; Ch. 93; Ch. Eliz. ii. 218.
her troops in the Netherlands. In 1600 a list of 114 Dutch merchants was drawn up from whom the loan of sums from £2,000 downward could be expected. The Goldsmiths also lent her money. Some of them were English, while others were resident aliens who were getting ever more and more control of this business. In 1622 the Goldsmiths’ Company complained that there were no fewer than 184 aliens engaged in their business of banking. One of these merchant strangers, Gerard Malynes, who wrote many pamphlets on financial subjects, has given us a full description of the methods of continental bankers before 1600, and even if the system was not so fully developed in London at the time, there is reason to believe that it did not lag far behind. After the failure of Alva’s administration Antwerp declined rapidly and London came to be more and more an important monetary and trading centre. At this time Erasmus Vanderpere brought out a proposal for the establishment of a bank of money in London.

During the early years of Elizabeth’s reign there was a great recoinage of the debased silver, and the chief refiner employed was Daniel Wolstat of Antwerp, who was engaged by Sir Thomas Gresham on the understanding that he would receive five per cent. of the value of the reissued coinage.

Under the Stuarts London was a growing commercial centre which was becoming once more a resort for merchants from continental towns. There were considerable opportunities for the remunerative employment of capital, and large sums belonging to moneyed men in Amsterdam and other Netherland towns were transmitted to England for investment. It was stated before the Commission on Trade in 1669 that a great part of the money employed in rebuilding London after the Great Fire was Dutch. A large part of the capital of the Bank of England came from the same source. These wealthy Netherlanders not only sent their money, but frequently came to settle themselves and, judging by the number of applications for naturalization, continued to flourish in the reigns of James I and Charles I.

The traditional system of taxation had proved inadequate under Charles I, and so the Parliamentary army and the government of the Commonwealth were financed on new principles and on methods borrowed from the practice of the Dutch. It was in national finance that the policy of imitating the
Dutch was most observable, and it is at least tempting to connect this important fact with the existence of a class of wealthy men of alien extraction who were in close business relations with persons in authority.

**Pawn** (for the Sc. form *pand*, first recorded in a non-Eng. context in a Charter of David I, c. 1145), a pledge, surety; *pawn* is ad. OF. *pan*, rarely *pand*, *pant*, pledge, security, apparently the same word as M.Du. *pant*, *pand* (Du. *pand*); O.E.D. says that the Sc. form *pand* came in probably from Du., LG., or Flem.

**Makrelty** (1495), brokerage; a metathetic alteration of M.Du. *makelardie*, from *makelare*, broker. **Mackelar** (1682, once), a broker; a later and independent borrowing, ad. Du. *makelaar*, from *mackelen*, to negotiate. **Mackeleredge** (1682, once), brokerage; ad. Du. *makelarij*, from *makelaar*. **Mackle** (1724, Bailey), ad. Du. *makeien*, to offer for sale; it is doubtful whether this word had currency, as there is no quotation except in Bailey, where it is glossed, ‘to sell weavers' goods to shopkeepers’. Bailey has also **Mackler**, a seller of such goods; from the preceding.

**Ledger** (1481), a book that lies permanently in some place; the sense represents Du. *ligger* and *legger*, from *leggen*, to lie; the Eng. forms *ledger*, *lidger* cannot be direct adoptions of the Du. word, but may be formations on Eng. *liggen*, *leggen*, dialect forms of the verbs, *lie* and *lay*, and -*er* in imitation of these; the word was restricted later to commercial books.

**Wissel** (1482, *Cely Papers*), exchange; (1721), change for an amount of money; esp. in the phrase, ‘to get the wissel of one's groat’, fig. to be paid out; ad. MLG. *wissele*, *wessele*, (M.)Du. *wissel*. The vb. is earlier, **Wissel** (1375, Barbour), to exchange for something else; (1483), to change money; ad. MLG. (M.Du.) *wisselen*, *wesselen*, *weslen*, to change. **Wisseler** (1481, *Cely Papers*), a money-changer, also a retailer; from the vb. *wissel* and -*er*, ad. or after MLG., M.Du. *wisselere*, *wesselere*, *weslere*. **Wisseling** vbl. sb. (c. 1375, from Sc.), exchange; is from the vb., but compare M.Du. *wisselinghe*.

**Lombard** (1609), in the sense, shop, or place of business of a ‘Lombard’ or banker, a bank, money-lender's or money-changer's office, a pawnshop; OF. *lombard*, in the sense banker, money-lender, passed into Low Dutch as MLG. *lombard*, M.Du. *lombaert*, and the sense bank, pawnbroker's shop was probably
developed in Low Dutch, and seems to have been adopted thence into English.

**Bottomry** (sb. 1622, vb. 1755), to pledge a ship as security for money lent; in the 17th century *bottomarie, bodomery* after Du. *bodemerij*, in the same sense. Derivatives are **Bottomage** (1678) and **Bottomrer** (1682). A variant is **Bummery** (1663), ad. Du. *bommerije* (Hexham), *bodmerij*; *bommerije* is given by Plantijn in the sense ‘finance’.

**Cantore** (1673), office, banking-house; ad. Du. *kantoor*, ad. F. *comptoir*. **Burse** (1553), name for an ‘Exchange’; it arose in Bruges, and in the 16th century was used in London for what is now called the ‘Royal Exchange’ (built in 1566), and in Britain’s Burse for the New Exchange in the Strand (built in 1609); one of the variants of M.Du. *burse* was *burse* (Bense).

A few terms of commercial dishonesty and swindling were borrowed in the 18th century, and they are perhaps best included among the terms of finance. **Fineer** (1758-65, once), a method of running into debt by getting goods made up so that they will be of no use to other customers, and then threatening to leave them on the seller’s hands, when made up: apparently ad. Du. *finieren, fijneren*, to collect money or riches, ad. OF. *finer*. **Swindler** (1775), originally a cant word said to have been introduced into London by German Jews about 1762, and to have been used in literature first by Lord Mansfield; ad. G. *schwindler* or Du. *zwendelaar*, an extravagant projector, esp. in money matters, a cheat, from *schwindeln*, to be giddy, swindle. The vb. is later, **Swindle** (1797), and is from the sb. *swindler*. 
Chapter IV
Intercourse between English and Low Dutch on the Sea

4. 1.

ENGLISH and Low Dutch intercourse on the sea has been continuous since the beginning of the Middle English period, and so important and influential has it been that many nautical terms have been borrowed from Low Dutch into the English vocabulary.

This intercourse can be best considered under three heads: (1) The meeting of the two races through trade; this embraces the visits of English ships to Low Dutch ports, the visits of Low Dutch ships to English ports, the meeting of the sailors of both nationalities in other ports to which they both traded, and the freighting trade or the carrying of English merchandise in Low Dutch vessels. The evidence for this is given fully in Chapter III and only a little needs to be added concerning Dutch shipping in the 17th and 18th centuries. (2) The intercourse on the various fishing grounds and in the whale fisheries; the evidence for this will be found in Chapters V and VI. (3) The naval intercourse in the numerous wars and naval fights between the two peoples.

In Chapter III it has been shown how close and continuous was the mercantile contact at sea between English and Low Dutch up to the end of the 16th century, and this contact was maintained during the 17th and 18th centuries. The cause of Dutch prosperity in the 17th century was their great carrying trade. In 1609 they possessed 12,000 ships, more than three times as many as England had at that time; at the time of the First Dutch War England was still dependent upon Dutch commerce, which had made itself master of nearly all the carrying trade of northern and western Europe, so that even the trade between England and France went on largely in Dutch bottoms. The Navigation Act was aimed at this Dutch supremacy in the carrying trade, but though it hindered in certain ways, it by no means ruined the trade, and after the Second Dutch War the Act had to be modified by the stipulation that goods from Germany and the southern Netherlands might henceforth be imported in Dutch vessels. Nevertheless, by the


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end of the 17th century the working of the Act had put practically all the native English import and export trade into English hands, while England had gained a monopoly of trade with its American colonies; spices alone, being a Dutch monopoly, were imported through connivance in Dutch ships. The English maintained their cloth and wool staple at Dordrecht, and also exported to Amsterdam much lead, tin, and corn, beside English colonial goods; the Scots retained their staple at Veere and brought there coal, wool, and hides. The Dutch could not change this, for their situation compelled them to keep on friendly terms with the English who dominated the Channel. Their exports to England in those years were three times less than their imports from England, but considerable smuggling must be taken into account. The Dutch shared the Spanish and Levant trades with England alone.

From the beginning of the 18th century there was a general rise in England's economic and commercial life which could only redound to the disadvantage of the Dutch. Everywhere the Dutch merchant encountered the English merchant, and slowly but surely saw him obtain the upper hand. A powerful navy, greater than that of any other nation, protected English interests all over the world. Nevertheless, about 1740, after the Treaty of Utrecht, Holland still ranked with England as a commercial power, and for at least half a century longer Amsterdam was a world warehouse. Dutch commerce, however, had passed its highest point, and soon we actually find English architects and engineers called in to help in the building of a Dutch warship.

4. 2.

Though there were few naval battles between English and Low Dutch in the Middle Ages, conflicts at sea were numerous enough, but consisted almost entirely of isolated but persistent acts of piracy and privateering. Two naval battles with Flemings in the Hundred Years War, however, deserve some mention. The English, under Sir Guy Brian, met the Flemings under John Peterson at the Island of Bar off the coast of Brittany, and gained a complete victory. Then in 1386 the Flemish captain, Pieter van den Bossche, who had entered the English service, intercepted the Flemish fleet from La Rochelle to Sluys, drove it into Cadzand and captured many ships. The English

4. 2. Blok, iii. 50, 61-3, 245, 259; iv. 157, 187, 190-208, 317-37, 378-418, 481-5; v. 15-17, 196-200; Ch. Eliz. ii. 54, 428; Bense, A.D.R. 82, 86.

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remained at Sluys and burned Terneuzen and other places on the coast.

The next period of naval contact was during the Dutch struggle for independence against Spain. The insurgents had a naval force, the Beggars of the Sea, and under Alva's administration they made the North Sea insecure for the Spaniards, and occasionally raided the sea-side villages, churches, and cloisters, selling their booty in England, East Friesland, Bremen, and Hamburg. Spanish protests to England were unavailing, for the English ports reaped too much profit out of the Beggars to drive them away. When the Beggars were defeated by Admiral Boshuizen, their thinned ranks were soon reinforced from England, and the raids and piracies began anew. A fleet of fifty sail took Briel in 1572, and when Flushing opened its gates to the Beggars in the same year, English companies helped to garrison it. Holland was greatly alarmed at the Armada and collected craft to help England. Twenty ships were to be placed under Cornelis Loncq as an adjunct to the English fleet at Dover, and after the engagement at Gravelines the Dutch under Van der Does sank a few galleons which had drifted on to the Flemish coast and compelled a few more to surrender. Later the English and Dutch navies combined to attack Spain. There was a Dutch contingent of 18 ships under Van Duivenvoorde in the Cadiz Expedition of 1595, and one of 10 ships under the same admiral in the Islands' Voyage of 1598.

The second half of the 17th century was the period of the great trial of strength at sea between the English and the Dutch, and three naval wars were fought out, all characterized by the most desperate fighting and sharp fluctuations of fortune.

In the Civil War the Royalist fleet took shelter from the Parliamentarian fleet in the harbours of the Maas and from there preyed on English commerce in the Channel; in retaliation English warships began about 1650 to annoy Dutch merchantmen with search of their cargo on the pretext of acting against Royalist piracy. A greater cause of hostility, however, was the harbouring of Royalist refugees in Holland. It was obvious that the English wanted war. Their fleet had been greatly improved under excellent commanders such as Blake and Penn, while the English ships were larger and better manned than the Dutch.
Hostilities commenced with an irregular fight off Dover between Blake and Van Tromp. In 1652 open war was declared, and the year was marked by a number of severe actions. Ayscue destroyed a fleet of Dutch merchantmen off Calais; Blake fell upon the fishing fleet off the Orkneys and captured the Dutch warships protecting it; Van Tromp blockaded Ayscue in the Downs, but had his fleet shattered by a storm; De Ruyter repulsed Ayscue's attack on a convoy near Plymouth; De Witt was beaten by Blake in the Downs, who in turn was severely defeated by Van Tromp off Dungeness.

In 1653 Blake attacked Van Tromp whilst he was convoying merchantmen up the Channel, and after a three days' running fight the Dutch were worsted, but Van Tromp's magnificent tactics saved the fleet. Another battle was fought off Nieuwpoort, when Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt were driven to take cover behind the shoals with heavy losses. The English now blockaded the whole Dutch coast, and Van Tromp was killed in a fight off Ter Herde; but the Dutch so damaged the English fleet that the blockade had to be given up. Peace was made in 1654.

Immediately after Cromwell's death the fleet had been much neglected, but it was notably improved after the Restoration under the direction of the Duke of York and the administration of such men as Pepys. There was still much hostility to the Dutch, and a certain amount of desultory fighting, directed mostly against enemy commerce, had taken place before the actual declaration of war in March 1665. The first notable engagement of the war was the bloody battle off Lowestoft, in which the Dutch were beaten. In the next year a great Dutch fleet under De Ruyter and Cornelis attacked Monk off the North Foreland, and in the murderous four days' fight which followed Monk's fleet was reduced to 28 vessels, but he executed a masterly retreat. Prince Rupert reinforced Monk up to 60 ships and a fresh attack was made; the English fleet would have been annihilated but that a dense fog came down, stopping the pursuit, so that only 6 ships were captured. Two months later, however, De Ruyter was beaten, and the English gained command of the sea. Holmes pushed into the Vlie and burned 2 convoy ships and 140 merchantmen; next day he landed at Terschelling and a large part of the island was pillaged and laid waste.
In 1667 an expedition against the Thames was prepared in deep secrecy, and a fleet of 80 ships under De Ruyter pushed into the Medway and landed troops under the English mercenary, Colonel Dolman, who captured Sheerness and destroyed the fort and naval stores. The chain guarding the Medway was broken, the English batteries silenced, and the *Royal Charles* and other ships captured and destroyed, but Chatham was too strongly fortified to be taken. Progress up the Thames was barred and the vigorous English defence forced the Dutch back after four days of fighting. These last hostilities really took place after peace had been concluded.

The Third Dutch War was declared in 1670, and it arose out of the secret treaty by which Charles II supported France against the States. The first battle was the indecisive action of Solebay, in which both sides suffered severely, but the main honours went to the Dutch. In 1673 an Anglo-French fleet of 150 sail were beaten by De Ruyter at Schooneveld, and in the same year the Anglo-French were again beaten off Kijkduin, largely through the treachery of the French. Disgust with the French brought about peace in 1674.

The Dutch navy acted in co-operation with the English in William III's struggle against France, and always under the command of an English admiral. When Tourville defeated the Anglo-Dutch fleet under Torrington off Beachy Head, the Dutch were especially damaged and complained that the English had left them in the lurch, and subsequent investigation proved that Torrington was guilty and he was disgraced. In 1692 a powerful Anglo-Dutch fleet under Russel defeated Tourville off La Hogue, and half the French fleet was destroyed. Tourville had his revenge when he inflicted very heavy losses on an Anglo-Dutch convoy off Lagos.

In the War of the Spanish Succession the Dutch and English fleets again co-operated. A Dutch fleet of 40 sail under Van Almonde and an English fleet of like strength under Rooke and Ormonde unsuccessfully attacked Cadiz, but had a splendid victory in Vigo Bay over the French and Spanish fleets, and part of the West Indian silver fleet fell into their hands. In 1704 the combined English and Dutch under Rooke and Callenburgh captured Gibraltar, but an English garrison only was left in the fortress.

In the Fourth Dutch War there was an indecisive action at
the Dogger Bank between Parker, convoying 200 merchantmen with 7 ships, and
Zoutman with a like number, convoying 70 ships. Dutch commerce suffered most
severely in this war from English privateers; in the first month of the war alone 200
Dutch merchantmen were captured.

4. 3. 4. 3.

A certain amount of intercourse can be proved in shipbuilding, and a few nautical
terms perhaps entered the English vocabulary through this channel. It does not
seem that the large ships of the time of Henry V were all English built, for it is stated
as a grievance in 1442 that Englishmen were prevented from buying or building
ships in Prussia and the Hanse towns. During the 15th century endeavours to improve
ship-building were being made in many countries, and it is at this time that the large
herring-busses were built by the Dutch and that they first appeared in English waters.
They were an example for English builders, and we soon find large ships capable
of holding 200 passengers being built here.

In one subsidiary branch of ship-building help was obtained from Holland in the
17th century. Among the reforms which the Duke of Buckingham instituted while
Lord High Admiral was the encouragement of the Dutch to settle here and establish
the manufacture of great cables and other sorts of cordage for the navy; for this
purpose he provided hemp and other materials, and put up houses and yards at
Chatham and elsewhere.

4. 4.

A number of names of various kinds of ships and boats entered Middle English from
Low Dutch. Shout (13.., Coer de Lion), a flat-bottomed boat; ME. schoute, shute is
probably from M.Du. schûte, with the initial sk- sound assimilated to sh-. A later form
of the same word but preserving the original initial sound of M.Du. is Scout (1419),
a flat-bottomed boat, 'a Dutch vessel', galliot rigged, used in the river trade of Holland
(Smyth, Sailor’s Wordbook); ad. M.Du. schûte; a 'boat called skoute', apparently
Flemish, is mentioned in the Close Rolls, 20 Edw. II.

Keel (1421, keeler, however, as early as 1322), a flat-bottomed vessel, especially
of the kind used on the Tyne and Wear for the loading of colliers, a lighter; the name
is or has been in local use on the east coast of England from the Tyne to the Norfolk
Broads; apparently ad. M.Du. kiel (MLG. kêl), ship, boat. Pram, Praam (1390-1 in
the L. context of E. Derby’s Exped., in an

4. 3.  I.C. l. 413; A.I. 216.

E.C. Llewellyn, The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary
Eng. context not till 1634), a flat-bottomed boat, a lighter used especially in the Baltic and Netherlands for shipping cargo; ad. M.Du. praem, prame (Du. pråm), or MLG. and LG. prâm, prame.

**Pink** (1471), a sailing-vessel, originally one of small size used for coasting and fishing; apparently ad. M.Du. pincke, pinke, the name of a small sea-going ship, also a fishing-boat (in Kilian pinck, Du. pink, MLG. and LG. pinke). A compound is **Sword-pink** (1616), a pink provided with lee-boards; from Du. zwaard (Kilian, sweera), a lee-board.

**Lighter** (1487), a boat, usually a flat-bottomed barge used in unloading ships; ad. Du. lichter, of equivalent formation to the possible Eng. origin from vb. light and -er.

**Hoy** (1495, Paston Letters), a small vessel, usually rigged as a sloop and employed in carrying passengers and goods, especially short distances on the sea-coast; apparently ad. M.Du. hoei, plural hoeyen, variant of hoede, heude (Du. heu, older Du. heude).

Many names of ships and boats are borrowed in the 16th and 17th centuries. **Yacht** (1557), a light fast-sailing ship; ad. e.mod.Du. jaght(e) (now jacht), used for jaght-schip, lit. ship for chasing, light sailing-vessel, fast, piratical ship, from jag(h)t, hunting, chase; owing to the presence in the Du. word of the unfamiliar spirant denoted by g(h), the English spellings have been various and erratic, and how far they represent differences of pronunciation it is difficult to say. **Fly-boat** (1577), a fast-sailing vessel used chiefly in the 16th and 17th centuries; 16th-century flieboate, flibote, ad. Du. vieboot, originally denoting one of the small boats used on the Vlie or channel leading out of the Zuyder Zee, afterwards applied in ridicule to the small vessels used against the Spaniards by the Beggars of the Sea; in English the word was very early associated with the vb. to fly.

**Crumster, Cromster** (1596), a kind of galley or hoy; from Du. krom, crooked (cf. Du. kromsteve, 'genus navis', Kilian, from krom and steve, prow). **Drumbler, Drumler** (1598), a name in the 17th century for a small, fast ship used as a transport, also a piratical ship of war; ad. e.mod.Du. drommeler, a kind of ship (Kilian), perhaps a perversion of the foreign term dromon, dromond, after a native word.

**Smack** (1611), a single-masted sailing-vessel, fore and aft rigged like a sloop or cutter and usually of light burden, used chiefly for coasting or fishing, and formerly as a tender to a ship.
of war; probably ad. Du. *smak*, e.mod.Du. *smacke* (Kilian) (LG. *smakke, smak*).

**Boyer** (a. 1618), a sloop of Flemish construction with a raised work at each end; from Du. *boeijer* (LG. *bojer*). **Sloop** (1629), a small one-masted fore and aft rigged vessel, differing from a cutter in having a jibstay and standing bowsprit; ad. Du. *sloep* (Fris. and LG. *slûp*, e.mod.Du. *sloepe*, LG. *slupe*); the history of the Du. and LG. word is obscure, but it appears more probable that it is an adoption of F. *chaloupe* or Sp. *chalupa*, than that it is the source of these.

**Pont** (1631), a large, flat boat or transport, pontoon; ad. Du. *pont(e)*. **Bilander** (1656), a two-masted merchant vessel, used in the Low Countries for coast, river, and canal traffic; the name is probably a corruption of *binlander*, from *binnenlander*, short for *binnenlandsvaarder*, a vessel used for inland navigation; in west Flanders *billander* was sometimes considered to stand for *blander*, hence the notion that it should mean *bijlander*, a vessel which sails near the land; the form *belander* also occurs in the Netherlands (Bense). **Bezan** (1662, once in *Pepys's Diary*), a small yacht, apparently one fitted with a mizen-sail; ad. Du. *bezaan*, mizen-sail.

**Bumboat** (1671), a scavenger's boat used to remove filth from ships lying in the Thames; a boat employed to carry provisions, vegetables, and small merchandise for sale to ships in port; O.E.D. gives an Eng. origin from *bum*, the posters, these dirt boats being also used to bring vegetables for sale; Bense, however, finds a Low Dutch origin, from LG. *bumboot*, 'ein breites Schifferboot, womit im Hafen Lebensmittel an die Schiffe gerudert werden' (Bergh.) (LG. *boomschip*, 'ein Trog oder Schifflein, so aus dem Stamme eines Baums gehauhen ist', Kilian has *boomschip*, Du. *bomschuit*); according to this derivation provision boat would be the original and proper sense, and dirt boat a name given in mistake and contempt.

**Yawl** (1670), a ship's boat resembling a pinnace; (1684), a small sailing-boat of the cutter class; apparently ad. MLG. *jolle* (LG. *jolle, jölle, jelle*) or Du. *jol* (17th century), explained by Sewel (1708) as a 'Jutland boat', whence diminutive *jolleken* (Hexham, 1660). **Snow** (1676), a small sailing-vessel resembling a brig, carrying a main and fore mast and a supplementary trysail mast, formerly employed as a warship; in the 17th century *snaw*; ad. Du. *snaauw, snaauw*, or LG. *snau* (whence Da. and Sw. *snau*).
Schooner (1716), the word seems to have originated in Massachusetts about 1713, and despite the spelling, which may have been due to association with Dutch words having initial *sch-* , the word is English, and passed from English into most European languages, as Du. *schooner, schooer*, F. *schooner*, &c.

Yanky (1760-1, Smollett; 1904, P. Fountain, *Gt. Nth. West*, ‘a Yanki is a small kind of galiot, and the Dutch fur-traders used craft of this kind to ascend the rivers in search of their Indian customers’), a word of doubtful status, origin, and meaning; perhaps Du. *Janke* applied originally to a particular ship and so possibly identical with *Yankee*.

Kof (1794), a clumsy sailing-vessel with two masts used by the Dutch, Germans, and Danes; ad. Du. *kof*. **Billy-boy** (1855, Smyth, *Sailor’s Wordbook*), explained by Smyth as ‘a Humber or sea-coast boat of river-barge build and a trysail, a bluff-bowed North Country trader or large one-masted vessel of burden’; he derives *boy* from Du. *boeier*, a sloop of Flemish construction (see Boyer). **Tjalk** (1889), a kind of Dutch ship or sailing-boat; from Du. and LG. *tjalk*, a kind of ship, ad. West Fris. *tsjalk*.

4. 5.

There is a large group of terms for the rigging, spars, and tackle of a ship. In Middle English the following appeared: **Tackle** (c. 1250), apparatus, equipment in general; (a. 1300), the rigging of a ship, also gear; apparently of Low Dutch origin, and probably ad. MLG. *takel*, equipment generally, esp. of a horseman, specially of a ship, hoisting apparatus (LG. *takel*, e.mod.Du. *takel*, strong rope, hawser, pulley). The vb. **Tackle** (c. 1400), to furnish a ship with tackle, and **Tackling** (c. 1422), the furnishing, rigging, gear, are both from the sb. **Mike** (13.., *E.E. Allit. P.*), probably a ‘crutch’ or forked support on which a boom rests when lowered; perhaps ad. M.Du. *micke* (Du. *mik*).

**Bowline** (c. 13..), a rope passing from about the middle of the perpendicular edge of the weather side of the square sails to the larboard or starboard bow for the purpose of keeping the edge of the sail steady when sailing on a wind; it is improbable that this is a comb. of Eng. *bow* and *line*, for *bow* is of much later appearance in Eng. (see Bow); Bense suggests MLG. *bôchline* as its origin. **Bowsprit** (c. 1330), a large boom or spar which projects over the stem of a ship to carry sail forward; the numerous forms *bowsprit* takes in Eng. and the late

E.C. Llewellyn, *The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary*
appearance of bow in Eng. make a comb. of bow and sprit (OE. sprēōt), very unlikely, if not impossible, and ‘the origin seems to lie between LG., Du., and English’ (O.E.D.); it is perhaps from MLG. bôchsprêt (LG. boogspreet, -sprit, e.mod. Du. boechspreit, Du. boegspreit).

**Trice** (1357-8), a pulley or windlass; ad. M.Du. trîse, trijs (Du. trijs), windlass, pulley, hoisting-block (MLG. trîsse, trîse, tackle, hoisting-rope). The vb. appears some thirty years later, **Trice** (c. 1386), to pull, pluck, snatch, and specially, to pull or haul with a rope; ad. M.Du. trîsen (Du. trijsen), to hoist (MLG. trîssen, trîtsen).

**Wind** (1399), an apparatus for winding, a winch or windlass; this is partly ad. M.Du. and MLG. winde, windlass, partly a direct formation on the vb. to wind.

**Marline** (1485, *Naval Acc. Hen. VII*), a small line of two strands used for seizings; perhaps two synonymous words have been confused, marline, ad. Du. marlijn (from *marren*, to bind, and *lijn*, line) and marling, perhaps ad. Du. marling, vbl. sb. from marlen, to marl; the two words seem to have been confused already in Du.; compare MLG. merlink, marlink, which have given Sw. and Da. merling.

**Mers** (1494, from Sc.), a round-top surrounding the lower masthead; also attrib. in *mers clothes*, streamers and hangings suspended from the mers; ad. M.Du. merse, ‘top’ of a mast, literally, a basket. **Ra** (1494, from Sc.), a sailyard; ON. rá, Du. ra (Kilian, ræ, ræh, rha), MLG. râ; in Sc. the word can be from any one of these three, but a Low Dutch origin is the more probable, as the late appearance of the word counts against an ON. origin. **Smite** (1494), a rope attached to one of the lower corners of a sail; ad. M.Du. smiête or MLG. smête (Du. smijt, LG. smite).

The following words appear in the modern period. **Nock** (1513, from Sc.), the tip or extremity of a yard-arm; (1794), in sails, the foremost upper corner; ad. the synonymous Du. and Flem. and Fris. nok or LG. nokk (whence also G. and Sw. nock, Da. nok); these words also occur in other special senses denoting a projecting tip or point of some kind.

**Boom**, sb. (1662), a long spar run out from different places in a ship to extend or boom out the foot of a particular sail; (c. 1645), a bar or barrier consisting of a strong chain or line of connected spars, &c., stretched across a river or the mouth of a harbour to obstruct navigation; ad. Du. boom, tree, beam, pole.
Boom, vb. (1627), in the sense, ‘to boom out’, to extend the foot of a sail with a boom, is from the sb.; in the sense, ‘to boom off’, to push a vessel off with a pole, it is apparently directly from Du. boomen, ‘to push off with a pole’, as the sb. appears not to be used in this sense. Bomespar (1660), a spar of a larger kind; ad. Du. boomspar. Bumkin, Bumpkin (1632), a short boom projecting from each bow of a ship; probably an Eng. adaptation of the Flem. diminutiveboomken; in Holland the diminutive isboompje. Bolm (1513, from Sc.), is a Sc. variant of boom, from Du. and Flem. boom.

Cringle (1627), a ring or eye of rope containing a thimble worked into the bolt-rope of a sail for the attachment of a rope; apparently of LG. origin; cf. G. (mostly LG.) and Mid.G. kringel, MLG. and LG. krengel, diminutive of kring, circle, ring. Slabline (1647), a small cord passing up behind a ship’s foresail or mainsail, used for trussing the sail; probably ad. Du. slaplijn, from slap, slack.

Kink, sb. (1678), a small twist or curl in a rope at which it is bent upon itself; probably ad. Du. kink, twist, twirl. The vb. is later, Kink (1697), and is probably ad. Du. kinken (Hexham), from kink. Span (1769), one or other of various ropes or chains used as fastenings or means of connexion; ad. Du. or LG. span (also M.Du. and MLG.) from spannen, to unite, fasten. Crance (1846), a kind of iron cup on the outer end of a bowsprit; perhaps from Du. krans, wreath, garland. Hamber-line (1853), a small line used for seizures, lashings, &c.; a corruption of Hamburg.

There is a group of terms for the various parts and timbers of a ship's hull and decks. Deck (1513), in the nautical sense of a platform extending from side to side of a ship; the primary notion was ‘covering’ or ‘roof’ rather than ‘floor’; the word is earlier (1466) in the general sense of a covering; apparently of Low Dutch origin; probably ad. M.Du. dec, roof, covering, cloak, but in the nautical sense it is not known in Du. before 1675-81, when deck appears as a synonym of verdek, quoted in the nautical sense in 1640, but recorded by Kilian (1599) in the general sense only; thus deck in the nautical sense appears in English over a century and a half earlier than in Du.; it may be simply a specific application of the general sense, covering, or it may come more immediately from the M.Du. sense ‘roof’. Orlop (1467), originally the single floor or deck with which the
hull of a ship was covered, and then the lowest deck of a ship; ad. Du. *overloop*, covering, 'ouerloop vant schip' (Kilian, 1599), from *overloopen*, to run over.

**Gripe** (1580), the piece of timber terminating the keel at the former extremity; originally *greepe*, ad. Du. *greek*, but afterwards assimilated to the sb. *gripe.* **Skeg** (1625), in ship-building, a knee which braces and unites the sternpost, the keel of a boat; perhaps directly from the Du. *scheg, schegge*, which reproduce the Scand. *skegg*, a beard.

**Bow** (1626), the rounded forepart of a ship; the cognate OE. *bög, bóh*, shoulder, upper arm, and bough of a tree, has survived only in the latter sense and form, while Eng. *bow* (of a ship) corresponds in form and sense to LG. *büg*, Du. *boeg*, Da. *boug*, *bov*, Sw. *bog*, all in the senses: shoulder of a man or beast, and bow of a ship; O.E.D. says that the word must have been adopted from LG., Du., or Da.; unless it is the Da. *bov*, it must have been adopted from Low Dutch at a much earlier date than the 17th century, and may be from M.Du. *boech, boegh*, bow of a ship, and shoulder of an animal.

**Garboard** (1626), the first range of planks laid upon a ship's bottom next to the keel; apparently ad. Du. *gaarboord*, explained by Winschooten (1681) as from *garen*, short for *gaderen*, to gather, and *boord*, board.

**Caboose** (1769), the cook-room of merchantmen on deck, a diminutive substitute for the galley of a man-of-war; identical with Du. *kabuis, kombuis*, e.mod.Du. *combûse, cabûse*, MLG. *kabhûse*, also F. *cambuse*; the original language was perhaps LG., but the history and etymology of the word are quite obscure.

**Taffrail** (1814), the aftermost portion of the poop-rail of a ship: a 19th-century alteration of *tafferel* due to false etymology, the termination *-rel* being taken as *rail.* **Tafferel** (1704), the upper part of the flat portion of a ship's stem above the transom, usually ornamented with carvings, in later times including, and now applied to, the aftermost portion of the poop-rail; ad. Du. (also M.Du.) *tafereel*, panel, picture, diminutive of *tafel*, the same word as Tafferel, a panel.

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4. 7.

The following are the names of articles of gear or apparatus used on board ship. **Shaltree** (1307-8), a pole, perhaps a pole used for propelling vessels; a partial translation of MLG. *schaldböm*, a pole used as an oar or rudder, from schalden, to
push, and bôm. This word was also adopted as Sheltbeam (1336, in Nicholas, Hist. Roy. Navy), again a partial translation with Eng. beam substituted for bôm.

Names for both types, primitive and mechanical, of apparatus for clearing a boat or ship of water were borrowed from Low Dutch. Scoop (c. 1330), baler; (1487, Naval Acc. Hen. VII), a kind of shovel for dipping out and carrying loose material; the word is apparently of twofold origin, from MLG. schôpe or M.Du. schôpe, schoep, a vessel for drawing or baling out water, bucket of water-wheel, and from M.Du. schoppe (MLG. schupppe), shovel; the two words, etymologically quite distinct, have through this close resemblance in form and sense been to some extent confused in Low Dutch; F. borrowed écope in both senses, but the word is recorded a century earlier in Eng. than in French. Pump (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), a mechanical device to raise water by suction, from early times used on board ship to remove bilge water; the 15th-century form is pumpe, pompe, and corresponds to e.mod.Du. pomp, LG. pumpe, pump; the word is as yet first known in England in the sense of ship's pump, in which use it is quite common from 1450 to 1500, but in Low Dutch it is not recorded in this sense before the 16th century (in Du. c. 1556, in LG. c. 1550; Plantijn, 1573, has it only in the sense bilge; but Kilian, 1599, has it for ship's pump and pump generally); in Du. dialects pompe is found before 1463 in the sense of a pipe or tube of wood or metal, or a stone conduit for the conveyance of water underground, a sense also found in Fris. and some LG. dialects; in view of these dates and the various senses it is not easy to come to a conclusion as to the language in which the word arose; if the primary sense was that of 'tube, pipe', the probability is that the word is of Low Dutch origin; if, however, it is an echoic formation from the sound of the plunger striking the water, then it can have arisen equally in Eng. or Low Dutch; in either case it was probably in nautical use first.

Speke (1366), a handspike; (a. 1400), a wheel-spoke; ad. M.Du. or MLG. spêke, spoke. Scote (1394, from Devon), perhaps a kind of cable; perhaps from M.Du. schoot, 'sheet', rope, whence OF. escoute. Another form of the same word is Shoot (1495, Naval Acc. Hen. VII), ad. MLG. schote or M.Du. schoot (whence also West Fris. skoat, Sw. skot). Wrakling (1494, from Sc.), a large make of nail, esp. used in ship-building, ad. MLG. wrakelinge,

**Plicht-anker** (1508, from Sc.), the main anchor of a ship; ad. LG. *plichtanker* or Du. *plechtanker*, the Du. and LG. word is usually referred to MLG. *plicht*, M.Du. *plecht*, a small fore- or after-deck of an open boat, but Doornk.-Koolm. prefers derivation from *plicht*, responsibility (O.E.D.).

**Dale** (1611), a wooden tube or trough for carrying off water, as from a ship's pump; the word corresponds in this sense to Du. and LG. *daal*, also to F. *dalle*, and may be from Low Dutch.

**Handspike** (1615, E.S., *Britain's Buss*), a wooden bar used as a lever or crow especially on board ship and in artillery service; ad. e.mod.Du. *handspaecke*, Du. *handspaaak*, in the same sense, from *spaak*, M.Du. *spake*, pole, rod; in Eng. apparently assimilated to the sb. *spike*. **Marline-spike, Marlinspike** (1626), an iron tool tapering to a point used to separate the strands of rope in splicing, as a lever in marling, &c.; originally apparently marling-spike, from the vbl. sb. *marling* and *spike* (see *Marp* and *Marling*); the first element was subsequently interpreted as marline.

**Plug** (1627), a piece of wood, &c., to stop up a hole; apparently ad. M.Du. and e.mod.Du. *plugge*, plug, bung (MLG., LG. *plugge*, plügge, LG. *plüg*, Sw. *plugg*, Da. *plög*). The vb. **Plug** (1630) is from the sb. or immediately ad. e.mod.Du. *pluggen*, from *plugge* (MLG. *pluggen*, LG. *plüggen*).

**Wince** (1688), winch; is a variant of winch, but perhaps influenced by LG. *win(n)s*, a small capstan, Du. *wins*, winch.

4. 8.

A few names for sailors have been borrowed. **Keeler** (1322, once in *Tynemouth Chartulary*), a keelman; from *keel*, which, however, is much later, and -er (see *Keel*).

**Skipper** (1390, in the non-Eng. context of E. Derby's *Exped.*, 1496 in Eng. context), the captain or master of a ship, esp. of a small trading, fishing, or merchant vessel; in the 15th and 16th centuries chiefly in Sc. use; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *schipper*, from *schip*, ship. **Shipper** (1496), now obsolete in the sense of skipper; represents MLG. and M.Du. *schipper*, with the initial *sk*- sound assimilated to Eng. *sh*-.

**Swabber** (1592), one of a crew whose business it was to swab the decks, a petty officer who had charge of the cleaning of the decks; ad. e.mod.Du. *zwabber*, from *zwabben*, to swab, clean (cf. LG. *swabber*, a mop). **Skeeman** (1820), the officer who has direction.
of the operations conducted in the hold; ad. Du. *schieman*, boatswain's mate, formerly also *schimman*, possibly for *shipman*.

A very general term, perhaps best included here, is **Outloper** (1583, once in Hakluyt), one who makes a run out, e.g. on a voyage of adventure; apparently ad. Du. *uit-looper* (Kilian, *uut-looper*, ‘excursor’).

4. 9.

There are a number of terms for the handling and sailing of ships and for various operations on board ship.

An interesting group has to do with the loading and cargo of ships and probably came in in Middle English with the important Dutch freighting trade. **Fraught** (13.., *Coer de Lion*), the pa. pple. of the vb. *fraught*. **Fraught**, sb. (1375, *Sc. Leg. Saints*), the hire of a boat for the transportation of freight or cargo; (1330, *Rob. of Brunne*), the cargo of a ship; probably ad. M.Du. or MLG. *vracht* (also *vrecht*), freight, cargo, charge for transport; the irregular vocalism of the Du. word is supposed to point to adoption from Frisian; from Du. or Fris. the word has passed into all the Teutonic languages. The vb. **Fraught** (c. 1400) is from the sb.; but compare M.Du. *vrachten*. **Freight** (1463), the hire of a vessel for the transport of goods; (1502), the cargo or lading of a ship; probably ad. M.Du. or MLG. *vrecht*, variant of *vracht*. **Loss** (1482, from Sc.), to unload a vessel, to discharge goods from a vessel; ad. M.Du. *lossen*, from *los*, loose.

**Reef** (1390), one of the horizontal portions of a sail which may be successively rolled or folded up; ME. *riff, refe*, corresponds to (M.)Du. *reef, rif*, LG. *reef, reff*, and the ultimate source for both Eng. and Low Dutch is ON. *rif*, in the same sense; it is possible that the word has passed through Low Dutch into English. **Marl** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), to tie, noose; (1704), to fasten with marline, small line, to secure together by a succession of half-hitches; ad. Du. or LG. *marlen* (whence Sw. *märle*, Da. *merle*), apparently a frequentative from M.Du. *merren*, to tie. **Marling**, vbl. sb. (1485, *Naval Acc. Hen. VII*), the action of marl; first as ‘merlyng irenes’.

**Woolding** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), the action of binding an object tightly with cord, esp. nautical, the action of winding rope or chain round a mast or yard, to support it where it is fished or broken; (c. 1425), a wrapping, swathing, esp. nautical, the rope or chain used in woolding; late ME. *wol(h)ing*, probably ad. MLG. *wolingen*, M.Du. *woeling* (Du. *woeling*, whence Da. *vuling*), from the MLG. vb. *wolen*, to woold. **Woolder** (1548), a woold.
rope, in rope-making, a stick used as a lever in woolding, also a workman operating this; from *woold*, vb. and -er. **Woold** (1616), the late appearance of this word suggests that it is a back-formation from *woolding*, but it was probably a late ME. adoption of MLG. *wolen, wölen* (LG. *wölen*, pa. pple. *wöld*) or M.Du. *woelen*, ‘premere, constringere, torquere’ (Kilian) (Du. *woelen*), to woold. **Woold** (1628), woolding, binding cord or rope; from the vb.

**Swift** (1485), to tighten or make fast by means of a rope or ropes drawn taut, e.g. the rigging or masts, the capstan bars, or a boat or ship, by passing a rope round the gunwale or round the bottom and upper works to prevent strain; owing to the scantiness and chronological discrepancy of the early evidence the immediate source of this word is difficult to ascertain; presumably it is of Low Dutch or Scand. origin; compare ON. *svipta* to reef, *sviptingar* reefing ropes, Du. *zwichten*, to take in sails, to roll up ropes, *zwichtings, zwichtlijnen*, cat-harpings, W.Fris. *swicht*, a partly or completely folded sail, Da. *svigte*, to take in sail.

**Aloof** (1549), an obsolete phrase, the order to the steersman to turn the head of the ship towards the wind, or to make her sail nearer the wind, now *luff* (1532), adv., away to the windward; (c. 1540), away, at some distance apart; from a, preposition, and *loof*, luff, weather gauge, windward direction, perhaps immediately from Du. *loef*, in ‘te loef’, to windward, ‘loef houden’, to keep the luff; cf. Da. *luv*, Sw. *lof*, perhaps also from Dutch. **Laveer** (1598), to beat to windward, to tack; ad. Du. *laveeren*, in the 17th century also *loeveren*, M.Du. *laeveren, loveren*, ad. F. *loveer*, now *louvoyer*, from *lof*, windward, of Low Dutch origin; the Du. word has been adopted into Scand. as Sw. *lofvera*, Da. *laver*.

**Sheer** (1626), to turn aside, alter course; perhaps a use of the vb. *shear*, but the development of sense is obscure; in MLG. and LG., Du. (but not M.Du.) *scheren* (etymologically identical with shear) is often intransitive and reflexive, with the sense of withdraw, depart, be off; but as it seems never to have been used as a nautical term, the common view that the word is from Low Dutch lacks proof.

**Trade-wind** (1663), apparently originally in the phrase, ‘to blow trade’ (1591-1600), to blow in a regular or habitual course, afterwards often shortened in nautical use to trade, in
the plural ‘the trades’; the word has nothing to do with trade in the sense of commerce or passage for the purpose of trading, though the importance of these winds to navigation led 18th-century etymologists, and perhaps even navigators, so to understand the term (see Trade, p. 45).

**Avast** (1681), both Skeat and O.E.D. look upon this word as probably a worn-down form of Du. *hou vast, houd vast*, hold fast; it is the nautical order to stop or pause in any exercise, as ‘avast heaving’. **Gybe** (1693), of a fore and aft sail or its boom, to swing from one side of the vessel to the other; apparently ad. Du. *giijpen*, now *giijpen*, but the phonetic change of the initial *g* sound to a *d* sound is unexplained; perhaps the initial sound was affected by that of *jib* (1661), the name of a sail, a word which is found only in English, and possibly an abbreviation of gibbet. **Way** in the phrase **Under way** (1743), of a vessel having begun to move through the water; often spelled *weigh*; ad. Du. *onderweg* (also -*wegen*), on the way, under way, from *onder*, under, and *weg*, way.

There are a number of terms dealing with the treatment of ropes and cordage. **Splice** (a. 1625), to join by untwisting and interweaving the strands so as to form one continuous length; ad. M.Du. *splissen*, now represented in Low Dutch by dial. Du., LG., and G. *splissen*, W.Fris. *splisse*, N.Fris. *splesse*, *splesse*. The sb. is **Splice** (1627). The earliest record is of the vbl. sb. **Splicing** (1524-5). **Belay** (1549), as a representative of OE. *bi*, *belecgan*, is obsolete; Skeat and O.E.D. suggest a Dutch origin, from Du. *beleggen*, for the verb in the nautical sense, the only current one, ‘to coil a running rope round a cleat, belaying-pin, or keval so as to fasten or secure it’. **Feaze** (1568), to unravel a rope, to unravel at the end; possibly from M.Du. *vese*, *veze*, fringe, frayed end; the word is in some way related to Eng. sb. *fas*, fringe.

A few words deal with the damage or wrecking of a ship. **Wrack** (c. 1386), a wrecked ship, a vessel ruined or crippled by wreck; (1428), remnants of, or goods from, a wrecked vessel, esp. as driven or cast ashore; (1579), the total or partial disablement or destruction of a vessel by any accident of navigation or disaster; (1513), marine vegetation cast ashore by the waves or growing on the tidal foreshore; ad. M.Du. (also Du.) *wrack* (Kilian, *wrack*), or MLG. *wrak*, *wrack*, wreck, wrecked vessel. The vb. **Wrack** (1470-85) is from the sb. A variant is **Wrake** (sb. 1513, vb. 1570).
Leak (c. 1440, Palladius on husbondrie), to pass by a leak; probably much older than the first recorded date; corresponds to M.Du. leken, to let water through) drip, and ON. leka, to drip, leak, and may be from either, though the date and place (Essex) of its first appearance favour a Low Dutch rather than a Scand. origin; it is very likely that in later use the vb. was formed afresh from leak, sb. or adj. Leak, sb. (1487, Naval Acc. Hen. VII), a hole in a vessel by which a fluid enters or escapes; the proximate source is doubtful, but perhaps adopted from Low Dutch; cf. M.Du. and LG. lek (inflected lēk, whence G. leck, Da. laek), Du. lek; it is possible that the Eng. word, notwithstanding its late appearance, may represent an adoption from the ON. leke, or even an OE. cognate. Leak, adj. (a. 1530), leaky; in OE. hlec (c. 897, AElfred); after OE. the word does not appear until the 16th century, when it may have been adopted from M.Du. and LG. lēk (inflected lēk), cognate with ON. lekr; the exact relation between the adj. and the sb. and the vb. is undetermined.

Split (1590), of storms, rocks, &c., to break up a ship; (1602), to suffer shipwreck; (1593), to divide longitudinally by a sharp stroke; ad. M.Du. splitten, related to spetten and splien (Du. spliten, MLG. and LG. spitten).

Crank-sided (1626), from crank, which appears first in this combination. Crank (1696), liable to lean over and capsize; said of a ship when she is built too deep or narrow or has not sufficient ballast; Du. and Fris. have krengd, of a ship, laid or lying over on its side, pa. pple. of krengen, originally to apply pressure to, to push over, spec. to lay or cause a ship to fall upon her side, e.g. in careening, also intrans., to lie on one side, as a ship does when her cargo shifts in the hold; possibly this foreign word was caught up and confused with the native crank.

Fother (1789), to cover a sail thickly with oakum, &c., with a view to getting some of it sucked into a hole over which the sail is to be drawn; probably ad. Du. voederen, now voeren, or LG. fodern, to line, used also nautically as above.

A word which is not a term of loss or damage, but rather of the prevention of loss, is Ballast (1530), gravel, stones, iron, &c., placed in the hold of a ship in order to sink her to such a depth as to prevent her from capsizing when under sail; the oldest form is possibly O.Da. and O.Sw. barlast (a. 1400 and regularly in the 15th century), from bar, bare, and last, load, i.e. mere lading or weight, whence ballast with -rl- for -ll- by assimilation;
the later Da. *baglast*, backload, and 17th-century Du. *balglast*, bellyload, were corrupted by popular etymology; the form *ballast* also occurs in MLG. before 1400, and is taken as the original by Sch. and Lü., who explain it from *bal*, bad, as bad lading; if this is well founded, *barlast* would rank with *balglast* and *baglast* as a popular perversion; the final -*t* is lost in the 16th- and 17th-century form *ballace*, first in the vb. where *ballast* was plausibly analysed as the pret. *ballass-*ed, and a new infinitive formed.

4. 10.

There are a few words connected with the shore, harbour, and tidal water. **Creek** (c. 1250), a narrow recess or inlet in the coastline of the sea; (1478), a small port or harbour; the ME. forms *krike* and *cryke* correspond to F. *crique* (14th century), and *creke* and *creeke* to e.mod.Du. *kreek* (Kilian), creek, bay; the earlier history of the word is not known, but F. *crique* is generally supposed to be of Germanic origin; it is possible that the word was borrowed into Eng. both from French and Low Dutch and that the Dutch form finally supplanted the French.

**Tide** (c. 1436), in the secondary sense, tide of the sea; this sense corresponds exactly to MLG. *getîde* (n.), *tide*, *tie* (n. and f.), LG. *tide*, M.Du. *getide* (n.), e.mod.Du. *tijde*, Du. *tij* (n.), ‘tide of the sea’, a particular application of MLG. *getîde*, a fixed time, proper time, space of time; OE. had no form corresponding to *getîde* (using for tide of the sea *flōd* and *ebba*), and *tid* or *tide* in this sense is unknown before 1340; it may then have been introduced from or used after the MLG. word, but as in ME. *tide* had neither the difference of form or of gender seen in *de tît* and *dat tîde*, actual formal evidence of borrowing is wanting; of course, there is always the possibility of a transference of sense in ME., as in MLG.; two examples, both earlier than c. 1435, seem to mean the time of high water rather than the flood tide itself or the phenomenon of the tides (1340, Hampole, c. 1386, Chaucer).

A term of harbour equipment is **Buoy** (1466), a floating object moored over a shoal, rock, or sunken object to mark its position; it is not clear whether the Eng. word was originally from OF. *boie*, *buie* or from M.Du. *boje*, *boye*, *boei*.

**Slip** (1467), an artificial slope of stone built or made beside a navigable water to serve as a landing place; probably from *slip*, vb. (see p. 202). **Dock** (1513), the bed in which a ship lies at low water, the hollow made by a vessel lying in the sand;
(1538), a creek or haven in which vessels may lie on the ooze or ride at anchor; (1634-5), a trench, canal, or artificial inlet to admit a boat; (1552), an artificial basin excavated; first recorded in the 16th century in Du. and Eng. and perhaps in Eng. from Du. *docke*, now *dock*; from Du. and Eng. it has passed into other languages, Da. *docke*, Sw. *docka*, G. *dock*, docke, F. *dock*.

**Brack** (1513), as adj., salt, briny, brackish; (1591), as sb., salt water, brine, the sea; ad. Du. *brak*, brackish. Derivatives are **Brackish** (1637), **Brackishness** (1571), and **Bracky** (1593).

**Reef** (1584), a narrow ridge or chain of rocks, shingle, or sand, lying at or near the surface of the water; the ultimate source is ON. *rif*, in the same sense, but the immediate source of the word was probably Low Dutch, from Du. *rif* (Kilian also *riffe*), MLG. *rif*, ref. **Beer** (1629), a mole or pier; ad. Du. *beer*.

**4. 11.**

A few words are of more specifically naval application. **Keelhaul** (1626), to haul a person under the keel of a ship; ad. Du. *kielhalen* (with the elements Anglicized as keel and haul); Du. *kielhalen* occurs in an ordinance of 1629, the punishment itself is mentioned in an ordinance of 1590 as ‘onder den kiele deurstricken’; the quotation of 1626 (Capt. Smith, *Accid. Yng. Seamen*), is an explanation of the procedure, the first real occurrence being in 1666 (*Lond. Gaz.*).

**Cruise** (1651), to sail to and fro over some part of the sea without making for any particular port; the word corresponds alike to Du. *kruisen*, to cross, also, since the 17th century, to cruise, sail crossing to and fro, ‘kryussen op de Zee’, to traverse and cross the sea (1678, Hexham), from *kruis*, cross, and to Sp. and Pg. *cruzar*, to cross, cruise, F. *croiser*, to cross, cruise up and down; the current spelling with *ui* seems to be after Du., but the vowel-sound is as in Sp. and Pg. **Cruiser** (1679), a person or a ship that cruises; in the 18th century commonly applied to privateers; from the vb. *cruise* and -er, or immediately ad. Du. *kruiser* (cf. also F. *croiseur*, ship and captain).

**Commodore** (1695), naval, an officer in command ranking above captain and below rear-admiral; (1697), an officer of like rank in the navies of other countries; apparently originally applied to Dutch commanders; in the 17th century, under William III, *commandore*, possibly ad. Du. *kommandeur*; some have conjectured a corruption of Sp. *commendador*, but no contact with Spain appears in the early instances.
In the Middle Ages there was no sharp division between the pirate and the lawful trader. When opportunity offered, the trader often turned pirate, and even the small fishing-boats, when in sufficient numbers, were likely to attack a merchant ship which they found in difficulties. In addition to this sporadic piracy there was organized piracy, sometimes on the largest scale, and with the countenance and even the support of the pirates' rulers.

In the 13th and 14th centuries constant piracy was carried on by the Zeelanders, with reprisals by the English; this was so bad from 1272 to 1281 that something like a sea war was going on between England and Zeeland. The same cause made relations between the two countries difficult in the reign of Edward II. Retaliation for piracy often took the form of legitimized piracy; thus when a Sandwich ship was seized and taken into Flushing in the reign of Edward II, two Dordrecht ships were in revenge seized at London. Different nationalities sometimes combined to retaliate; when in the reign of Edward I Flemish sailors attacked men from Bayonne, the Gascons retaliated with the help of the men of Yarmouth and the Cinque Ports; in 1292, in retaliation for the hanging of an English sailor in Brittany, English seamen made an organized attack on French and Flemish shipping at Sluys, the Flemings having generally sided with the French, and as a result the seaboard from Holland to the Bay of Biscay was plunged into confusion and alarm. It was the merest piracy on both sides. In 1293 there was a regular action in which English, Dutch, Flemings, Gascons, and Genoese are said to have taken part. A flagrant outrage by men from Blankney upon Dutch ships at Sniterleye provoked at last royal intervention, and thirteen men were hanged for the murder of Dutchmen.

During the 14th and 15th centuries a sort of licensed private warfare was waged between English merchants and men of Norway, Prussia, Flanders, Scotland, Spain, and Genoa. In addition there were the regular pirates and freebooters. No unguarded place on the coast was safe, and petitions to the Parliament of 1382 show that the policing of the seas was so utterly wanting that on the north coasts alone 60 ships and 'crayers', beside minor craft, had been destroyed by hostile
cruisers. Lincolnshire and Norfolk must have been especially open to attack. A pitiful complaint in 1383 from the men of Scarborough shows us the nature of the perils to which they were exposed; as their town lay open to the sea, it was day after day assailed by Scots, Flemings, and French, and though they had provided a barge and a ballinger for their own defence, they were unable to put up an effective resistance without aid in manning their ships.

The Channel was infested with pirates, and the mouth of the Rhine, Calais, and St. Malo are mentioned at different times as being their chief haunts. A very powerful association of pirates was allowed to ravage the North Sea and the Baltic. The Hanseatic League had availed themselves of the dangerous aid of these freebooters during their struggle with the king of Denmark, which was closed by the Treaty of Stralsund in 1370. They were not immediately able to put down the evil which they had allowed to spread, though the great organization of pirates known as the 'Victual Brothers' was broken up after their defeat off Heligoland in 1402. These pirates had burnt Bergen in 1392, and under their leaders Stortebeker and Michelson had devoted themselves especially to preying on merchants who frequented English ports. When the Victual Brothers had been crushed the evil scarcely abated, for several small nests of pirates were formed out of the survivors of the great association, and their ravages by sea and land were so bold that at length the men of Amsterdam were moved to take the matter in hand, and in 1408 entered into a league with Hamburg, Lübeck, and other towns for the extirpation of the evil. They were successful in destroying nine of the haunts of the pirates at the mouth of the Ems, but little permanent good was done. A celebrated pirate named Voet, who was acting in the interest and possibly with the connivance of the Hanseatic League, sacked Bergen in 1428, and this was a serious blow to English trade in the North Sea.

Similar evils occurred nearer home, and there were pitiful complaints of the attacks of bands of outlaws known as the 'Rovers of the Sea', who pillaged the coasts in the time of Henry VI. It is only by an examination of the separate histories of different localities that we get any real idea of the frightful extent of the evil along the coasts. Agnes Paston writes in 1450, as of an everyday event, of a neighbour 'who was taken
with enemies, walking by the sea-coast’. The marauders seem to have kidnapped old and young; and we can well believe that rural districts like the neighbourhood of Paston had cause for alarm, when towns like Sandwich and Southampton were burnt, and London and Norwich were forced to plan means of defence with booms and chains. Englishmen on their part were not innocent; the people of Westeigi and Esteigi in Friesland petitioned the English king to restrain the Captain of Calais from sending the pirates he kept in his pay against their ships.

As in the earlier period, the simplest means of granting some redress was to allow the aggrieved party to seize the goods in England or on the seas of men who hailed from the same town or district as the pirates, in the hope that the penalty would at last fall upon the right shoulders. When piracy was carried on on an extensive scale, however, this was useless. The task of getting redress then passed into the hands of the Crown; thus protracted negotiations began with the Hanse in 1403 over the matter of privateering; the Livonians put in a claim for the loss of three ships and 250 men drowned, while claims were also entered by Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, Stralsund, Greifswald, and Kampen; counter-claims against Wismar and Rostock came from London, Newcastle, Hull, York, Colchester, Norwich, Yarmouth, Clee, Wiveton, and Lynn; Lynn claimed also restitution for goods and houses lost and for ransoms extorted at the sack of Bergen by corsairs from Wismar and Rostock.

In the modern period we get the separation of the peaceful trader from the pirate and buccaneer. The pirate becomes an outlaw with the hands of all traders and governments against him. At times, however, the dividing line between the privateer or private warship and the mere pirate is very difficult to draw, and this is never more so than in West Indian waters in the 16th and 17th centuries.

In the Parliament of 1601 there was a discussion concerning the losses suffered by the burgesses of Yarmouth, Sandwich, and other ports at the hands of the half-piratical, half-hostile ports of Nieuwport and Dunkirk. Among the explanations given was that they could so readily arm their ships with cannon cast in England, and though the export was prohibited, it was an active industry; it was stated that even during the progress of the debate there was a ship in the Thames ready to sail with thirty-six pieces of ordnance aboard. The queen’s annual in-
come from the export duty on ordnance was no less than £3,000, and the result was that English ordnance sold as familiarly in France and Flanders as in England, and these privateers readily bought it.

During the Dutch wars English shipping suffered severely from Dutch privateers. At the same period, too, there was frequent intercourse between English and Dutch pirates and buccaneers in the West Indies and on the Spanish Main.

The earliest term of piracy introduced was **Rover** (1390), a sea-robber, pirate; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *rover*, from *roven*, to rob. The corresponding verb is very much later, **Rove** (a. 1548), to practise piracy, to sail as pirates; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *roven*, to rob; but perhaps not clearly distinguished from the vb. *rove*, to wander. **Rovery** (1600), piracy; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *roverie*, robbery.

The measures taken against piracy in the 15th century have introduced **Wafter** (1484), an armed vessel employed as a convoy; (1482), the commander of a convoying vessel; apparently ad. Du. or LG. *wachter*, lit. guard, from *wachten*, to guard, but the specific use has not been found in Low Dutch. A back-formation from *wafter* is the vb. **Waft** (1513), to convoy ships; (1593), to convoy safely by water; (a. 1707), of the wind, to propel safely.

**Freebooter** (1570), one who goes about in search of plunder, esp. a pirate; ad. Du. *vrijbuiter* (Kilian, *vrijbueter*), from *vrij*, free, and *buit*, boot, booty, and -er. **Filibuster** (1587), freebooter, a piratical adventurer who pillaged the Spanish colonies in the West Indies during the 17th century; the ultimate source is certainly the Du. *vrijbuiter*; it is not clear whether the earliest Eng. form *filibutor*, of which there is only one example, was taken from Du. directly or through some foreign language; late in the 18th century the F. form *filibustier* was adopted into English and was the usual form until the middle of the 19th century, when *filibuster*, after Sp. *filibustero*, began to be employed as the designation of certain adventurers, who at that time were active in the West Indies and Central America, and this has now superseded *filibustier* even with reference to the history of the 17th century; it is possible that the corrupted form of the Du. word, with *fli-* for *fri-*, may be of Eng. origin, and may have been taken into F. from its use in the Eng. colonies in the West Indies, or that the F. form arose in the European wars of the
16th century, and is the immediate source of Eng. *flibutor*; in any case the insertion of the -s- probably originated in F. as a mere sign of vowel-length, though already pronounced in F. in 1704.

**Caper** (1657), a privateer, the captain of a privateer; ad. Du. *kaper*, privateer, corsair, from *kapen*, to take away, steal, rob, plunder (E.Fris. *kapen*). The vb. is later, **Cape** (1676), to take or seize as a privateer, to go a-privateering; ad. Du. *kapen*, *te kaap varen*, to go a-privateering.

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4. 13. 4. 13.

The financial policy by which heavy or prohibitive import duties were imposed, in order to encourage the national industry or to raise revenue by the taxation of imported luxuries, led at once to the smuggling of the articles, as soon as the tax was heavy enough to make the attempt worth while. Such duties were very heavy in the 17th and 18th centuries, and smuggling in and out of the country was done on a large scale. The Dutch and Flemish, being so favourably situated opposite our coasts, were large participators in this illicit trade. The smuggling of wool to the Continent during the period when the export was absolutely forbidden attained enormous proportions; it was estimated in 1788 at 11,000 packs annually. In many articles of import, such as tea and spirits, the illicit trade was probably of larger dimensions than the legitimate; Sir Matthew Decker alleges the case of one man in Zeeland who exported to England half a million pounds of tea; he had started life as a common sailor, but prospered so that he had come to own four sloops which he employed in running tea.

**Lorendriver** (1649, once), a smuggler; ad. Du. *lorendraaier*, smuggler. **Smuggler** (1661), one who smuggles; ad. LG. *smukkeler*, Du. *smokkelaar*, or LG. *smugg(e)ler*. **Smuggle** (1687), to convey goods in or out of a country so as to avoid paying duty; apparently of Low Dutch origin; the earlier form *smuckle* corresponds to LG. *smukkeln* or Du. *smokkelen*, while the slightly later *smuggle* corresponds to LG. *smuggeln* (whence also Da. *smugle*, Norw. *smugla*, Sw. *smuggla*).
Chapter V
Intercourse between English and Low Dutch Fishermen

5. 1.

The oldest mention of the fishing trade of the Hollanders and Zeelanders in England dates from the end of the 13th century; three ships were fitted out in 1295 by the king, then at war with France, in order to protect the ships of Englishmen, Hollanders, and Zeelanders, who were fishing on the coast off Yarmouth, and a proclamation was to be read twice a week warning men not to hinder, injure, or oppress these men, since they were friendly to the king. Two years later Edward I took fresh measures to protect English and foreign fishers from vagabonds. Flemings were now named as well as the Hollanders and Zeelanders. These measures for their protection presuppose that the fisheries had attained considerable importance in the economic life of England and merited thoroughgoing attention, and we can with safety assume that the fisheries date from many years before, though their early history is only surmise. More particulars are available for the next century. There were complaints by the Dutch in 1309 of the actions of the innkeepers, and these complaints keep cropping up during the whole century. The importance of the fishery to the Dutch appears when we find the Count of Holland taking up these complaints with the English Crown.

Ruinen has examined the evidence of the arrest of ships for debt at Yarmouth. Some ships were seized with their rigging and nets; the cargo of others was arrested and sold; sometimes also ready money was paid down, probably to redeem the cargo. The ships that were seized entire had probably come in in ballast, while the others had their catches aboard. He deduces what the method of operation of the fishermen was: they came empty from Zeeland or south Holland and went from Yarmouth to the fishing-grounds, bringing back their catch to this centre of the English herring trade, where ‘hosts’ bought the fish from them, and, as it appears, not seldom swindled them; then, having disposed of their catch, they set off to the grounds for another. The fishermen did not always bring back the catch themselves, for fish-buyers already went out to sea to fetch their
supplies. In 1319 this was perhaps to escape the levy of the extra tolls. This way of trading had more advantage for the buyer, as with less competition he could buy at a lower price; it suited the fisherman also, as he could sell his catch at sea without the loss of time in running into Yarmouth. It was not so good for the buying public, as the middleman often abused his favourable position.

Some indication of the importance of these foreign fishermen to the town is given by a petition of 1316 from certain great persons of the realm and from the towns of Great and Little Yarmouth to take off certain tolls, because the fishers of the Count keep away, to the great harm of the town and interference with the market for coming years. Evidence of the size of the fishing fleet is Count Willem III’s provision of 140 herring-busses for Queen Isabella.

Ruinen finds evidence that the fishing season was probably from the beginning of August to St. Martin’s Day. The fishers came from various towns and villages of Zeeland and south Holland, especially from Westkapelle, Zoutelande, Campoere, Flushing, Arnemuiden, Kortgene, Cats, Brouwershaven, Zierikzee, Brill, and Maarland.

5. 2. 5. 2.

In the 16th and 17th centuries the Dutch herring fishery was very important; the number of those in Holland and Zeeland subsisting on fishing in 1609 was reckoned at from 50,000 to 60,000, of whom 40,000 were actually fishermen; in 1601, 1,500 doggers sailed from Holland and Zeeland to the herring fishery, four times as many as half a century earlier. This Dutch fishery was an object of jealousy to the competing English. Dutch fishing-rights on the English coast, however, were guaranteed by old treaties dating back to the 13th and 14th centuries, and confirmed by the Great Intercourse of 1496, which regulated the commercial relations of the Netherlands with England. Fishing along the Scottish coast did not rest upon similar agreements; but the very silence about the fishing rights can be adduced as an agreement for the freedom of the industry. When at the end of the 16th century the English fishing industry began to develop, quarrels ensued between English and foreign fishermen, especially as the more numerous Hollanders gained from time to time the upper hand, and as a result progress was hindered.

5. 2. I.C. ii. 67, 71, 208, 483; Blok, iii. 337-40; iv. 534.
The English Government recognized that the fisheries were an admirable school for the training of seamen, and so took steps to prevent the usurpation of the trade by foreign fishermen. There seemed to be little opportunity for increasing the sale of fish in foreign countries, since Norway and the Netherlands not only supplied their home demands but had a large surplus for export. Cecil therefore concentrated on the home market, and in a statute of 1563 a prohibition was inserted against buying herrings from foreigners unless they were shipwrecked, while Englishmen were allowed to export fish without paying any tax. In 1609 James I issued a placard forbidding foreigners to fish along the coasts and in his waters, unless they paid a tax for the privilege. This caused a great commotion in Holland, and the fishermen refused to pay the tax. In 1616 the royal officers charged with collecting it were attacked and carried off to Holland; violent quarrels, destruction of nets, and finally actual outbreaks between fishermen of the Netherlands and those of English and Scottish nationality resulted, and an open breach between England and the States was with difficulty avoided.

The Elizabethan measures to protect the fisheries could hardly have been very successful, for we find patriotic Englishmen in the 17th century just as concerned about the state of the fishing industry. John Smith in *England's Improvement Revived* (1673) pointed out that a flourishing fishing industry was the very foundation of Dutch prosperity; Misselden in his *Free Trade* (1662) complained of the encroachment of the Dutch on our herring fishery; Tobias Gentleman in *England's Way to Win Wealth* (1614) gave various suggestions on the subject, while in *Britain's Buss* (1615) Englishmen were urged to build their fishing-busses on the Dutch model. In this century, too, there were attempts to develop fishing by the formation of companies wealthy enough to undertake the business on a large scale. The Company of the Royal Fishery of England was never very prosperous; it soon expended its original capital, and the subscribers of a second stock in 1683 were equally unfortunate. An attempt to found a similar company was made in 1750, the special object being to gain the white herring fishery from the Dutch, while the cod fishery was also to be attempted; this company, too, never answered the expectations of its promoters.

It required war to equalize matters between English and Dutch.
fishers. The Dutch herring-fleet suffered grievously in the second half of the 17th century, as very many busses were captured by English, French, and Swedish privateers, and whole fleets were frequently destroyed, especially during the English wars. By the end of this century the Dutch fishery had greatly fallen off, and Scottish fishermen were beginning to drive the Dutch from the world’s markets. Nevertheless intercourse has continued ever since, especially in the North Sea grounds and on the Dogger Bank.

5. 3.

A few names of kinds of fish were introduced from Low Dutch into Middle English. Schulle (a. 1300, Havelok), a plaice; probably ad. M.Du. or MLG. schulle, scholle. Butt (a. 1300, Havelok), a name applied variously in different places to kinds of flatfish as sole, fluke, turbot, &c.; as Da. bøtte, Sw. butta are from Low Dutch, it is improbable that the Eng. word is from Scand.; the more probable origin is MLG. but (LG. butte) or M.Du. botte, butte; Havelok is a poem of Lincolnshire origin, and we know that intercourse with Low Dutch fishermen was especially strong in this region in the 13th and 14th centuries. Butkin (1526), a small fish, is a diminutive of the above, and may be from butt and -kin, or a direct borrowing from the Flem. diminutive of botte, butte.

Spirling (c. 1425), the smelt; ad. MLG. spirling or M.Du. spierling. A variant is Spurling (a. 1471, from Suffolk). Sparling (1307-8), however, is ad. OF. esperlinge, of Teutonic origin.

Whiting (14., Nom. in Wr.-Wü., c. 1425), a small fish with pearly-white flesh abundant off the coast of Great Britain and highly esteemed as food; ad. M.Du. wijting, also wittingh (MLG. wîtink).

Names of fish from Low Dutch are more numerous in the modern period. Lump (1545), a spiny-finned fish of a leaden blue colour and uncouth appearance, the sea-owl; found also as M.Du. lompe, MHG. lumpen, G. lump, lumpfisch, F. lompe; by foreign etymologists it has been commonly supposed to be of English origin, a use of the sb. lump with reference to the bulky figure of the fish; the Du. forms are, however, known from earlier examples than the Eng., and the word in Eng. may be a borrowing from Low Dutch.

Pickle-herring (c. 1570), a pickled herring; appears first as pickled herring, later pickle-herring, after M.Du. or e.mod.Du. peeckel-harinck, MLG. pekel-herink, both in the same sense.

**Cabilliau, Cabeliau** (1696, W. Montague, *Delights of Holland*), codfish, codfish which has been salted and hung for a few days, but not thoroughly dried; ad. F. *cabillaud*, *cabiliau*, or Du. *kabeljauw*, a name used, according to Franck, by all the coast Germans since the 14th century (MLG. *kabelaw*, G. *kabliau*, *kabeljau*, Sw. *kabeljo*, Da. *kabeljau*); it has generally been regarded as a transposed form of *bakeljauw*, *bakkeljau*, *bacalao*, which is, however, not compatible with the history of the word.

**Snook** (1697, Dampier), a name given to various fishes, esp. to the sergeant fish and the robalo; ad. Du. *snoek*, pike.

**Brassy** (1710), the Sc. form of *brasse*. **Brassem** (1731), a kind of fish, perhaps a sea-bream; ad. Du. *brasem* (M.Du. *brasem*, *braessem* in Kilian *braessem*; the form corresponds to MLG. *brassem*). **Brasse** (1847), a name of a fish of the perch family; probably from MLG. *brasse*, *eyn brasse*, *salmo*.

**Crucian, Crusian** (1763), a species of fish, a native of central Europe, of a deep yellow colour; formed with the suffix *-an* and accommodated spelling from earlier or dial. LG. *karusse*, *karuse*, *karutze*.

**Crape-fish** (1856), codfish, salted and hardened by pressure; perhaps from LG. *krapp*, hard, twisted (rope), hardbaked. **Matie** (1858), a herring in what is considered the best condition for food, when the roe is perfectly but not largely developed; ad. Du. *maatjes(haring)*, earlier *maetgens-*, *maeghdekens-* from *maagd*, maid, and *ken*, kin (cf. MLG. *madikesherink*, LG. *maid-kenshering*).

There are a few terms applied to fish. **Roe** (a. 14.., Voc. in Wr.-Wü., c. 1430), the mass of eggs contained in the ovarian membrane of a fish; the ME. type *ro(e)*, *row(e)*, corresponds to M.Du. *roch*, *roge* (Kilian, *roghe*), Flem. *rog*, MLG. *roge*, *rogge*; it is not clear whether this is a native Eng. word, unrecorded in OE., or, perhaps more probably, a later adoption from Low
Dutch. **Milt** (1483, Caxton), the roe or spawn of the male fish, the ‘soft roe’; the spleen in mammals; OE. *milt*, spleen, corresponds to OF. *milte*, spleen, M.Du. *milte*, Du. *milt*, spleen, also the milt of fish, ON. *miliki*, spleen; the sense ‘spawn of fish’ may have been adopted from Du.; as the milt of fish is of a soft substance like the spleen, the transferred use was not unnatural; but it was no doubt helped to gain currency by the resemblance in sound between *milt* and *milk* (Du. *milch*), the older name for the soft roe of a fish. **Milter** (1601), a male fish, esp. in spawning time; from *milt* and -*er*, but perhaps adopted from the equivalent Du. *milter*.

**School** (c. 1400), a shoal or large number of fish, porpoises, whales, &c., swimming together whilst feeding or migrating; (1555), a troop, crowd (of persons), a large number; ad. Du. *school*, troop, multitude, ‘school’ of whales, M.Du. *schole*. **Shoal** (1573), a large number of fish, &c. (in Spenser, 1573, applied to persons; in North, 1579-80, to birds; in Nashe, 1593, to fish); the earlier history of the word is uncertain; etymologically it is identical with OE. *scola*, troop, which corresponds to OS. *scola*, multitude, MLG. *schole*, M.Du. *schole*, multitude, flock, shoal of fishes, Du. *school*; it is possible that in OE. the word had the unrecorded sense of a shoal of fishes, and in this sense continued in nautical use, but it is simpler to suppose that the 16th-century *shole* was a readoption of the Du. form, which in the 14th century had been taken into Eng. as *scole*; the initial (*ʃ*) may be an Eng. sound-substitution for the Du. (ʃχ), or it may have come in from one of the Flem. dialects in which *sch* was pronounced (*ʃ*).

**Rope-sick** (1614, T. Gentleman, *Eng. Way to Win Wealth*), of herring, having the back infested with parasitical worms; ad. Du. dial. *ropziek*; the pamphlet of 1614 is the source of the later quotations.

### 5. 4.

An important group of words consists of the names of kinds of fishing-boats and of the tackle and equipment used in fishing.

**Buss** (1471), a vessel of burden; also a kind of boat which was and is used in the Dutch herring fishery; in the sense of vessel of burden probably from OF. *busse*, in the sense of fishing-boat it is generally supposed to be ad. M.Du. *bûse*, *buusse*, *buysse*, vase, cup, small vessel, spec. as used in the herring fishery (Kilian has *buyse*, ‘navis piscatoria’); the Du. word is ad. OF. *busse*, and was perhaps imported on the coast near Dun-
kirk; if the Eng. word is from M.Du., then it has been approximated in sound to busse from OF. busse.

Corver (1491), a kind of Dutch herring fisher and fishing-boat; ad. M.Du. corver, a fisherman and fishing-boat of some kind. Compare te corve varen, to go fishing in a korfscip, korfarinck, a herring of some kind, korfmarct, the market where the fish is sold.

Cag (1596), a small fishing-vessel; from Du. kaag, in the same sense, e.mod.Du. kaghe (LG. kag); the Du. word has also given F. caque, a fishing-boat. Tode (1600, J. Keymer, Dutch Fishing), more fully tode-boat, a small Dutch fishing-vessel; the origin of the word is obscure, no similar term being known in Du.; Groningen dial, has todden, to drag, tow, tug, todden, tod, as much as one can carry, burden, load; and Guelderland and Overijssel dials. have todden, to drag, and perhaps the origin of the Eng. word lies in a combination of one of these words with boat. Crab-skuit (1614, Markham, Way to Wealth), a small open fishing-boat with sails; ad. Du. krab-schuyte, from krabbe, crab, and schuit, boat.

Herring-buss (1615, E.S., Brit. Buss), a two- or three-masted vessel used in the herring fishery; ad. Du. haringbuis. Jagger (1615, E.S., Brit. Buss), a sailing-boat which followed a fishing-fleet in order to bring the fish from the busses, and to supply them with stores and provisions; ad. Du. jager, abbreviation of haringjager, from haring, herring, and jagen, to chase, pursue.

Hooker (1641, S. Smith, Royal Fishings), a two-masted Dutch coasting- or fishing-vessel; (1801), a one-masted fishing-smack similar to a hoy in build; apparently originally ad. Du. hoeker (in Hexham, hoecker-schip, 'a dogger-boat', in Kilian, hoeck-boot, a fishing-boat, so called from hoeck, hook). Pinkie, Pinky (1874), a narrow-sterned fishing-boat; from pink (see p. 70) and -ie, -y, diminutives, or perhaps ad. M.Du. pinke.

Coper, Cooper (1881), a vessel fitted out to supply ardent spirits, &c., usually in exchange for fish, to the deep-sea fishers of the North Sea, a floating grog-shop; ad. Flem. and Du. kooper, Fris. and LG. koper, purchaser, dealer, trader, from koopen, to buy, trade, deal; O.E.D. states that in the memory of Grimsby smacksmen the name goes back to 1854, when Flemish and Dutch koopers first began to frequent the fleets.

The following are the terms for fishing-tackle. Elger (c. 1440,
Pr. Parv.), an eel-spear; perhaps from Flem. *aalgeer, elger, though it may represent OE. *ǽl, eel, and *gár, spear. **Mesh** (1558-9), one of the open spaces or interstices of a net; the 16th-century forms are meishe, meash, mash, mesh; the form mash would regularly reproduce an O.E. *maesc, which occurs only once in the metathetic form max; net; the forms meishe, meash indicate a pronunciation with a long vowel (*mēʃ*), and mesh the shortening of the original vowel, probably in ME. (cf. flesh); on the whole, on account of the absence of the word in ME., its form-history in the 16th century, and the frequency with which fishing terms were adopted from Du., it is probable that meash (shortened to mesh) and mash represent adoptions respectively of the M.Du. forms maesche and masche. **Mass** (1641, S. Smith, Herring Buss Trade), a mesh; ad. Du. maas. **Lask** (1864), a hook baited with a slice from the side of a mackerel; perhaps ad. M.Du. lasche (Du. lasch), piece cut out, flap.

5. 5.

A few miscellaneous terms of fishing and the fish trade remain. Two of them refer to the curing of fish. **Corved**, ppl. adj. (1641, S. Smith, Herring Buss Trade), herrings in salt pickle for a few days before they are to be made into red herrings; apparently the same as the M.Du. korfarinck, mentioned under Corver (see p. 95), of which the exact sense is equally obscure; a suggestion is that as tonharing is barrelled herring, korfharing may be herring not barrelled, but brought ashore in baskets; corved would then be ‘put in a corf or corves’. **Roweback** (1641, S. Smith, Herring Buss Trade), a trough in which herrings are stirred amid salt; ad. Du. roerbak.

A term for an operation in catching fish is **Balk** (1603), to signify to fishing-boats the direction taken by shoals of herring or pilchards as seen from heights overlooking the sea, done at first by bawling or shouting, subsequently by signals; probably ad. Du. balken, to bray, bawl, shout, cognate with OE. bælcian, to shout, which would itself have given balch. The sb. **Balker** (1602) occurs a year earlier; a man who gives such signals; from balk and -er.

A term which comes in from the large Dutch trade in the Middle Ages from the Rhine, Holland, and Zeeland in dried and smoked eels is **Palingman** (1482), a man who deals in eels; ad. Du. palingman, from paling, eel, and man.

A term of the fish trade is **Bummaree** (1707), a middleman in the fish trade at Billingsgate; Bense says that this is
probably a corruption of the earlier \textit{bummer} (see. p. 63), which according to the \textit{English Dialect Dictionary} is London slang, and has also the sense of usurer, while it occurs as a verb meaning ‘to buy up large quantities of fish to sell retail’, and ‘to run up a score at a newly opened public house’.
Chapter VI
English and Low Dutch Intercourse through Whaling

6. 1. The first of the northern whale fisheries was off the coast of Greenland. As early as 1552 there is record of clashing there between the English and the Dutch, for in that year the Dutch whalers were driven away by the English and some part of their cargoes confiscated; but the Dutch returned under the protection of ships of war and succeeded in re-establishing themselves.

The voyage of Richard Chancellor in 1553 through the White Sea to Archangel was the first step in the opening up of the Spitzbergen Seas. The Dutch navigator Berents discovered Spitzbergen in 1596, and he was followed in 1607 by Hudson in the Hopewell. They found the sea swarming with whales which showed no fear of ships. The first whaling expedition was fitted out by the Muscovy Company under the command of Jonas Poole, and four voyages, made from 1609 to 1612, were so successful as soon to attract the competition of other nations. Hot quarrels between the Muscovy Company and Dutch ship-owners drove the latter in self-preservation to form a Northern and Greenland Company, which obtained its charter in 1614, and this Company soon had a score of well-armed ships, each with two sloops, and proceeded to exploit the fisheries. They were so successful that for a time they drove the English altogether from the Greenland fishery. The Dutch maintained a fishery at Jan Mayen until 1640, but this was not of such importance as the Spitzbergen fishery. In the latter 10,019 whales were taken by them in the ten years from 1679 to 1688; about 1680, when the fishery was at the height of its prosperity, they had 260 ships and 14,000 seamen engaged in it. They built at Spitzbergen their own huts for the blubber boiling, and there the whalers pitched their tents, so that a regular village, Smeerenburg, sprang up, which was deserted at their departure.

The Dutch Northern Company had lost its charter in 1642, and the whale fishery from the Netherlands was henceforth...

free. In 1660 the Greenland fishery was mainly prosecuted from the Friesland ports, though by the end of the 17th century Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Vlaardingen, Delfshaven, and the Zaan villages had gained most of this trade. There sailed annually then about 200 ships, though in good years about 250. The fishery was prosecuted on an extensive scale till 1770 and then began to decline, until at the end of the 18th century no more ships were being sent out. New ground for whaling had been opened out by the Dutch when they started the fishery in the Davis Strait in 1719, and for a time this was some compensation for the increasing English, French, and Low German competition. At first they killed large numbers of whales, but English ships soon came in to compete.

The German ports also engaged extensively in whaling. In 1721, 79 ships sailed from Hamburg and Bremen, while an average of 45 ships sailed every year from Hamburg alone during the period from 1670 to 1719. The Germans continued to take part in the industry until 1873.

The English Government made many attempts to recover the supremacy in whaling which the English had lost in the reign of James I. In 1660 double alien customs were imposed on whalebone and blubber imported as a merchant's speculation, and not by the owners of the ship which had prepared the cargo. A joint-stock company was formed in 1692, which was subsequently allowed to import whale oil free of duty; the company, however, soon ran through its capital, and the fishery was then left to private enterprise, supported, however, by government bounties. The trade was so stimulated that in 1755 no less than £55,000 was paid out in bounty.

In the first quarter of the 19th century there was scarcely a port of any importance on the east coast of England that was not represented in the whale fisheries, and most of the Scottish east coast ports and Greenock on the west coast were also taking part. One by one they fell away until only Dundee and Peterhead were left in 1893, and then the latter dropped out also.

6. 2.

Many of the words borrowed from Low Dutch on the whaling voyages are the names of northern beasts and birds, the various species of whale and seal which the whalers hunted, and the sea-birds they met in the northern seas. Whalefish (c. 1511), a whale; ad. Du. or MLG. walvisch. Walrus (1655), a
large amphibious and carnivorous mammal of the northern seas, the mors or sea-horse; probably from Du. *walrus, walros*; the OE. word was *horshwael*. *Narwhal* (1658), the name of this whale of the northern seas was borrowed by the Dutch, from Scandinavian seamen (cf. Da. *narhval*); the Eng. word is from the Du. *narwal*. *Rubb* (1694), a seal, is from the LG. *rubbe* (Du. *rob*). *Potwalfish* (1694), potfish or cachalot; probably ad. e.mod.Du. *potswalvisch*, which Kilian glosses as 'cete'. A later name for the same whale is *Potfish* (1743), ad. Du. *potvisch*; O.E.D. suggests that in this word *pot* is the same as in early Du. *potshoofd*, thickhead, Flem. *potshoofd*, eelpout, in reference to the huge head. *Clapmatch* (1743), a kind of seal; apparently ad. Du. *klapmuts*, a sailor's cap; so called from the hood of the animal. *Nordcaper* (1822), a North Atlantic species of whale; ad. Du. *noordkaper* or G. *nordkaper*, from Du. *noordkaap* or G. *nordkap*, the North Cape, from the regions where the beast is found.

The names of northern sea-birds are *Rotge* (1694), the little auk; Martens in his *Voyage to Spitzbergen* (trans. 1694) gives this as the name current among Dutch and Frisian seamen, with the statement that it is derived from the bird's cry, *rottet tet*, but it is more likely a misunderstanding of Fris. *rotgies*, plural of *rotgoes*, brent goose; we know that at this period the Dutch whaling trade was mainly in the hands of Frisians. *Mallemuck* (1694), the fulmar or similar bird; ad. Du. *mallemok*, from *mal*, foolish, and *mok*, gull; compare *mallemaroking*, which has the first element the same.

6. 3.

A group of words deals with the practice of whaling, the treatment of the whale's carcass, and the products obtained from the whale. *Train oil* (c. 1553), oil obtained by boiling the blubber of whales, and formerly also seals, &c.; the later name for *train* (see *Train*, p. 46). *Greaves, Graves*, sb. plur. (1614), the fibrous matter found in animal fat, originally a term of the whale fishery and a by-product of the production of train oil; it was used in agriculture in cake form as a food for hogs, dogs, &c., and the first reference in English, in Markham's *Cheape and Good Husbandry*, is to this; ad. LG. *greven*, plur. (also borrowed into Scand. as Sw. dial, *grevar*, Da. *grever*).

*Cardel* (1694), a hogshead containing, in the 17th century, 64 gallons; used in the Dutch whaling trade; ad. Du. *kardeel*, properly *quartel*, fourth part.
Hovel (1694), the whalers' term for the bump on top of a whale's head; ad. Du. heuvel (M.Du. hœvel, in Kilian hovel), hill, bump, boss. Specksonianer (1820), a harpooner, usually the chief harpooner who directs the operation of flensing a whale; ad. Du. speksnijer, colloquial form of speksnijder (with dropping of intervocalic d), from spek, speck, blubber, and snijden, to cut. Crang (1821), a carcass of a whale after the blubber has been removed; ad. Du. kreng (M.Du. creng), carrion. The word is also found in the form Kreng (1835); ad. Du. kreng. Lull (1836), a tube to convey blubber into the hold; also as a compound, lull-bag; ad. Du. lül, tube.

A curious word which is evidence of the intermingling and carousing together of the crews of English and Dutch whalers is Mallemaroking (1867), the visiting and carousing of seamen in the Greenland ships; from Du. mallemarok, a foolish woman, tomboy, from mal, foolish, and meroc, marot, woman, from F. marotte, object of foolish affection.

There are a few words which illustrate the conditions of navigation in northern waters. Shoal (1648), a mass of floating ice, an iceberg or floe; ad. Du. schol, in the same sense; O.E.D. points out that this is certainly a term of the northern voyages and not of the Baltic, for we should expect MLG. scholle, a clod, to have developed the same meaning of a mass of ice. Iceberg (1774), an Arctic glacier, which comes close to the coast and is seen from the sea as a hill or ‘hummock’; (1820), a detached portion of a glacier carried out to sea, a huge floating mass of ice, often rising to a great height above the water; an adapted form of the Du. (and M.Du.) ijsberg. The shortened form of iceberg is Berg (1823), only used when ice is mentioned or understood in the context.
Chapter VII
Low Dutch Influence through Agriculture

7. 1.

There is practically no direct evidence for the Middle English period of Low Dutch influence on the vocabulary of agriculture. Many terms of agriculture were nevertheless borrowed, and these have to be accounted for. Certain large assumptions have to be made, and despite the lack of supporting evidence they are fairly safe. It must be assumed that many of the Flemings who settled in England during the period settled eventually on the land, either in definitely placed colonies like those on the Scottish border and in Pembroke, Gower, and Ross, or in small groups and single families of which no record was ever made. Ralph de Diceto, in describing the effects of Henry II's disbanding of Flemish mercenaries, speaks of the Flemings as driven from the castle to the plough and from camps to workshops. Those who had been drawn from agriculture to the life of a soldier returned to farming when their other occupation was lost, and this probably happened to some extent at every disbandment of Low Country mercenaries. It seems, too, that there must have been a considerable immigration into the eastern counties from the Low Dutch lands opposite across the sea, and many of these immigrants doubtless engaged in agriculture. Again, some of the Low Dutch people who came to England to engage in other trades and crafts might also devote part of their time to farming.

7. 2.

During the 17th century there was a very decided increase of knowledge as to the best methods of turning land to good account. New suggestions appear in the numerous agricultural treatises and pamphlets and, as on so many other sides of economic life, Dutch methods were held up as an example. Gabriel Plattes, the first theorist of modern agricultural science in England, whose chief work appeared in 1638, was undoubtedly Dutch in origin, while Simon Hartlib, the friend of Milton and one of the most active publicists of the new movement, was a naturalized Dutchman. The people of Holland


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were not much given to the growing of cereals, but they were skilled in cattle-breeding and dairy-farming, and Englishmen were impressed with the desirability of imitating them, by growing root crops and artificial grasses, so as to have better means of feeding stock during the winter. Root crops appear to have been introduced to some extent as a course of husbandry; Weston refers to them in his *Discourse of Husbandrie Used in Brabant* (1652). In Elizabeth's time the only new field crop was buckwheat or ‘brank’, which Heresbach observed was brought from North Germany and Russia ‘not long since’; Tusser advocated it as ‘comforting to the land’ and useful for fattening all kinds of stock. The growing of hops was introduced from the Low Countries and had become popular towards the middle of the 16th century.

In the 17th century land was taken up by men who meant to make farming pay as a business proposition, and the result was a flood of experiments and brilliant suggestions foreshadowing the real and practical advance of the following century. The first experiments were not very successful, and though the 17th century had the ideas and the new words which came with them, the practice was mainly left to the 18th century, when there was real progress in filling up the unproductive gap caused by the fallow year. The turnip did not become really important in English farming until after the publication of Jethro Tull's description of the new methods of cultivation in 1731, which made it possible to grow much bigger roots, and until Lord Townshend had proved its value. These men still drew their inspiration from the example of Dutch farmers. Artificial grasses, even clover, just as the roots, at first failed to make headway, though Plattes did indeed recommend sainfoin, and clover seed appeared in price-lists at the end of the 17th century; nothing was known, however, about the selection of seeds and the use of the aftermath. From the middle of the 17th century onward the Dutch ‘trefoil or clover-grass’ was much recommended. Speed in 1659 first mentions cattle-cake made from turnips, and this very advanced idea was borrowed from the Dutch, who bought up English rape-seed, after the oil had been extracted, to make cake for their beasts. Two other field crops were now introduced; the cabbage-turnip or kohl-rabi was brought in by Reynolds of Addisham in Kent in 1767 and the mangel-wurzel later.
Low Country stock was imported to improve the native English breeds. The short-horned cattle of the east coast seem to have been a breed new to England and were probably introduced from the Netherlands in the 17th century; they are described by Mortimer in 1707 as the 'long-legged, short-horned Dutch breed of Lincolnshire and Kent'. In Charles I's reign the breed of draught horses was improved by the importation of strong grey Flanders mares. The old black English horses of what was known as the 'Fen breed' were much improved early in the 18th century by the importation of six mares sent over from Zeeland by Lord Chesterfield, and Derbyshire took the lead in their successful breeding and other midland counties followed. In dairy-farming the Dutch taught us the arts of fine butter- and cheese-making.

The main improvements in implements came in the 18th century, though Plattes is the first to mention the drill. A much more modern and scientific form of plough was the short, light, Dutch or Yorkshire plough, which was doubtless a development of the 'Dutch bastard' of the preceding century and was also a swing plough, but constructed on principles brought from Holland. A machine for winnowing was introduced from Holland about the middle of the century and improved by the father of William Marshall the agriculturist.

In the 17th century the Dutch were noted for their horticulture, and there is every reason to believe that under the guidance of the 17th-century writers who were familiar with Dutch practice a great improvement took place in English gardening. Gardening, both ornamental and kitchen, was scarcely known or, at any rate, systematically practised in England before the time of Elizabeth. The formal fashion which was then introduced from Holland flourished exceedingly and has not yet quite died out. A further impetus to horticulture was given by the religious refugees from the Netherlands; for many of them who came over to practise industrial callings were also skilled gardeners. A great craze for growing and speculating in bulbs sprang up in Holland in the 17th century and reached its climax in 1636; English practice in the growing of bulbs was then dictated by that of Holland, and this has been the position ever since. As an addition to the fruit-garden the modern, large red strawberry was evolved from large varieties introduced from Chile and Carolina by way of Holland in the early 18th century;
about the same time the Dutch red currant came to be esteemed above the English sort.

7. 3.

A considerable group of words are terms for agricultural implements, tools, and gear of various kinds. **Hack** (13... **Cursor M.**), a tool for breaking and chopping up, variously applied to agricultural tools of the mattock, hoe, and pickaxe type; the word is not found in OE. or ON.; perhaps ad. M.Du. **hacke** (in Kilian **hacke**, Du. **hak**), hoe, mattock, pickaxe, chop. **Hepe** (1390, Gower), a curved pruning-knife; appears first in Gower in a proverbial expression, ‘so what with hepe and what with crok’, and so is probably much earlier in Eng. than the first recorded date; probably from Low Dutch, which has M.Du. and MLG. **hepe**, e.mod.Du. **heepe**, Du. **heep**, sickle-shaped pruning knife or bill.

**Sye** (1468), a sieve, strainer; this sb. may be from the vb. sye (OE. **sēōn**), to sift, or ad. M.Du. sye, sie, or ON. sía. **Sift** (1490, **Pr. Parv.**) in the sense, a sieve; perhaps ad. M.Du. sítfe, zífte (Du. zift, M.Du. and MLG. sichte). **Sight** (1559), a sieve or strainer; perhaps ad. LG. sichte. It is possible that sift and sight are the same word with divergent pronunciations. **Sighting** (1559), the result of straining, strained matter; perhaps ad. LG. sichting, vbl. sb. from sichten, to sift.

**Hame** (1303, R. Brunne), each of the two curved pieces of wood or metal placed over, fastened to, or forming the collar of a draught horse; it corresponds to and is perhaps ad. M.Du. hame, haem (Du. haam). **Slead** (1374), sled, sledge; ad. M.Du. or MLG. slede (Du. slede, slee, LG. slede, slâde, slee). **Brake** (1412-20, Lydgate), a bridle or curb; O.E.D. states that it is perhaps identical with brake, a lever or handle for working a machine, or an extended use of break (see **Brake**, p. 121), or more probably ad. M.Du. braeke, in the sense of ‘a nose-ring for a draught ox’; **Mnl. Wdb.** has M.Du. brake, chain, curb, and the word may be directly from this. **Slípe** (c. 1470), a sledge or drag; apparently ad. LG. slípe, a variant of the usual slêpe, sledge, train. **Spancel** (1610), sb. and vb., a rope or fetter for hobbling cattle, horses, &c., esp. a short, noosed rope for fettering the hind legs of a cow when milking; ad. Flem., Du., or LG. spansel (Kilian spanssel), from spannen, to span, clasp.

**Wan** (1615), a winnowing fan; (1825, Brockett, **N.C. Gloss.**), the sail of a windmill, van; commonly spelt ‘wand’, the word being wrongly supposed to be a corruption of **wand**, a rod; perhaps ad. Du. wanne, now wan.
Beguel (1737), O.E.D. says that this word is ad. Du. *beugel*, iron hoop or ring, bow, cramp iron; this is quite possible, but Bense has failed to find it as a Du. or Flem. term ‘in connection with hops’, in which sense it is used in the only quotation in O.E.D., from Miller's *Gard. Dict.*; the only senses in which it appears to be used in connexion with agriculture in Du. and Flem. are ‘part of plough’ and ‘a hoop used in making hayricks’.

Cavie (1756, from Sc.), a hencoop, house for fowls; apparently ad. M.Du. *kevie* (Du. and Flem. *kevie*, Plantijn has also *kavie*), cage, coop.

Scaife (1793), a thin iron wheel, sharp at the edge, used in some ploughs in place of or in front of the coulter; perhaps ad. Du. *schiif*, disk, wheel. Scuffle (1798), scuffler; (1841), a gardener's thrust hoe; ad. Du. *schoffel*, weeding hoe.

Dannocks (a. 1825, from E. Anglia), the forms are *darnocks* and *dannocks*; hedge gloves made of untanned leather; Forby prefers the form *darnocks* and says that it is a corruption of *Dorneck, Dormick*, the Flem. name for Tournai.

7. 4.

The following group is of terms dealing with farm crops and weeds. Finkle (c. 1265), fennel; ME. *fenecel*, ultimately from L. *faeniculum*, but the immediate source is probably Low Dutch, from M.Du. *venekel*, also *veenkel, vinkel, veneco(o)* (Du. *vinkel*).

Crap (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), the husk of grain, chaff, &c.; (c. 1425), the name of some plant, buckwheat, and various weeds among corn, as darnel, charlock; (1490–9, *Pr. Parv.*), the residue formed in rendering, boiling or melting, fat; O.E.D. states that the word is identical with e.mod.Du. *krappe*, ‘carptus, carptura, res decerpta, frustum decertum sive abscissum, pars abrasa sive abscessa, pars carnis abscissa, crustum, ofella, offula, placenta, pulpamentum’ (Kilian), and connected with *krappen*, to pluck off, cut off, separate, and compares E. *crape*, OF. *crappe*, siftings, also the grain trodden under foot in the barn and mingled with the straw and dust; O.E.D. observes that it is doubtful whether all the senses belong to one word, though a common notion of ‘rejected or left matter, residue, dregs, dust’ runs through them; M.Du. *krappe*, *crap* meant in general ‘roast meat’, but Du. *krap* has also the senses a part broken or torn off a larger whole, residue formed in rendering fat, grains which remain among the chaff, coal cinders; it is probable that M.Du. had some of these senses, though not
recorded, and if this is so, it is likely that the ME. word was borrowed from M.Du.;
the only sense difficult to account for is that of 'the name of some plant and of various
weeds', and this may be a different word.

**Fimble** (1484, from Wigtoft, Boston), the male plant of hemp, producing a weaker,
this name being popularly applied to what modern botanists call the male plant.

**Succory** (1533), the plant found wild in England; its leaves and roots are used
medicinally and for food; an alteration of *cicoree, sycory, sichorie*, old forms of
*chicory*, after MLG. *sukerie*, or M.Du. *sükerie* (Du. *suikerei*, older Flem. *suykerei*),
succory. **Rape** (1548), a plant name used for rape and for cole-seed; ad. L. *rāpum,
råpa*, a turnip, but in the obsolete sense of turnip perhaps partly from Du. *raap,
turnip, rape. Spurrey, Spurry** (1577, B. Googe, *Heresbach's Husb.*), one or other
of a species of herbaceous plants or weeds belonging to the genus *Spergula*, esp.
the common species, corn spurrey, occasionally used as fodder for sheep and cattle;
ad. Du. *spurrie* (M.Du. *sporie*, older Flem. *speurie, spurie*). **Amelcorn** (1578, Lyte,
*Dodoens*), an inferior variety of wheat, the larger spelt, called also French rice; ad.
Du. *amelkorn*, from L. *amyl-um and corn.*

A term of hop cultivation is **Bell** (sb. 1594, vb. 1574), the strobile, cone, or catkin
containing the female flowers of the hop; hops are said to be or begin to be in bell;
the fact that in England these words are used of hops, which are chiefly grown in
Kent, makes it very probable that the word was introduced there by Flemish
labourers; in Flanders the word *bel*, in the same sense, is used not only of hops but
also of oats, at least in Brabant (Bense).

**Cabbage-cole** (1579), cabbage; it is possible that the Eng. *cabbage-cole* was
really ad. Du. *kabuis-kool* (from F. *cabus*, from *choux cabus*, from L. *capitceum*,
from *caput*, head), influenced by F. *caboche*, a derivative of *caput*. **Gherkin** (1661,
Pepys), a young, green cucumber used for pickling; ad. e.mod.Du. *gurkkijn,*
*agurkkijn*, now *gurkje, agurkje*, diminutives of *agurk, augurk*, also *gurk*, cucumber.

**Abele** (1681), the white poplar-tree; ad. Du. *abeel, abeel-boom*, ad. OF. *abel,*
earlier *aubal, albel*, Nth. F. *aubiel*, from late L. *albellus*, diminutive of *albus*, white;
'a finer sort of white poplar which
the Dutch call abele was transported here from Holland’ (Bradley, *Farm Dict.*); the form ‘able-tree’ in Worlidge, *Syst. Agric.* (1681), probably translates Du. *abeel-boom*; the name ‘Dutch beech’ was formerly used in England for the *abele*.

**Borecole** (1712), a variety of cabbage; probably ad. Du. *boerenkool*; there can be little doubt as to its Du. origin, for it is first used by Arbuthnot in his *Hist. John Bull* in reference to what the children of Nic. Frog, i.e. Holland, live upon.

**Crap** (1721), madder, esp. the commercial product obtained by grinding the inner part of the root; ad. Du. *krap* (M.Du. *crappe*).

One term which reflects the great Dutch mania of bulb cultivation is **Bybloemen** (1764), one of the main varieties of the garden tulip; *bijbloemen* is not recorded in any Du. dictionary, but Mr. E.H. Kuelage of Haarlem informed Bense that tulips called *violetten* or *bijbloemen* are white shaded with violet and are in England sometimes called *bybloemens*, with a double plural in ignorance of the Dutch; these were the tulips which were the subject of a speculation in Holland till 1636, and had another temporary vogue towards the end of the 18th century; the first quotation in the O.E.D. is in 1843, but ‘Bybloomen tulips’ is found in J. Justice’s *British Gardener’s Director*, p. 316, and ‘Byblomen’ in J. Maddock’s *The Florist’s Directory*, 1764 and 1810 respectively (Bense).

**Pulls** (1788, W. Marshall), the chaff or husks of rape-seed, pulse or grain; apparently ad. Du. *peul* (M.Du. *pole, peule, puele*), husk, shell, pod. **Noll-kholl** (1812), the turnip-cabbage, kohl-rabi; ad. Du. *knolkool* or G. *knollenkohl*. **Witloof** (1885), chicory, succory; ad. Du. *witloof*, from *wit*, white, and *loof*, leaf.

7. 5.

There remains a large group of miscellaneous terms of farming, dealing chiefly with various farming and gardening operations and with the raising of stock.

The terms of farming operations are: **Sod**, sb. (c. 1420), a piece or slice of earth with the grass growing on it, cut out or pared off from the surface of grass land; apparently ad. M.Du. *sode, soode* (Du. *zode*) or MLG. *sode* (LG. *sode, sudde*). The vb. **Sod** (1653) is from the sb.; to cover or build up with sods or turfs; of. M.Du. *soden, zoden*, LG. *soden, söden*, to make sods, lay with sods. Perhaps a term in the manuring of land is **Cauk** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), chalk, lime; it is not clear whether *calk*,
cauk is simply the northern form of chalk, OE. cealc, or adopted independently from Low Dutch (M.Du. calc, Du. kalk).

The terms of stock-raising are: **Spane** (13., *Cursor M.*), to wean; (1828), to take root and cast off the seed; ad. OF. espanir or M.Du. and MLG. *spanen* (MLG. also sponen), apparently related to OE. spana, spona, teat; for the secondary sense compare W.Flem. *spanen, spenen, spennen*, to set (of fruit). **Spean** (1595), to wean; this may be a later form of *spane* or independently ad. M.Du. or MLG. *spenen* (Du. and Flem. spenen, LG. spenen, spånen). **Clyre, Clyer, Clier** (1794, from Sc.), a glandular swelling, usually in the plural, as a name of a disease of cattle; corresponds to and may be ad. M.Du. clier, Du. klier, gland, glandular swelling. **Sprue** (1825, Jamieson), thrush; (1888), a disease occurring esp. in tropical countries, psilosis; ad. Du. spruw, sprouw (older Flem. sprouwe, W.Flem. sproe, LG. and MLG. sprüwe).

There is one term of poultry-raising: **Pip** (c. 1440), a disease of poultry; apparently ad. M.Du. pippe (Du. pip, MLG. and E.Fris. pip, LG. pipp).

A few names were borrowed for breeds of pigeons and rabbits. **Antwerp** (1839), a variety of homing or carrier pigeon; from the name of the Belgian city. **Smerle** (1869), a variety of the domestic pigeon; ad. Flem. smerle, probably a special application of older smerle, now smerlijn, merlin. **Beveren** (1919), a breed of rabbit; from the name of the town in Belgium.

There are two gardening terms. **Slip** (1495), a twig for grafting or planting; (1582), a young person, esp. of slender build; (1440, *Pr. Parv.*) edge, skirt, or flap of garment; apparently ad. M.Du. or MLG. slippe (Du. and Flem. slip, LG. slippe), cut, slit, strip, lappet, skirt; the first sense of the English word, however, is not recorded in any of these languages. **Spit** (1507-8, from Suffolk), such a depth of earth as is pierced by the full length of a spade-blade; ad. M.Du. or MLG. spit (Du., LG., and W.Fris. spit).

The following are agricultural terms which admit of no further classification. **Bower** (c. 1430, Lydgate), a peasant, husbandman; ad. M.Du. bouwer. A later form is **Boor** (1551); in its literary use the modern Eng. boor is probably from LG. bûr, or Du. boer, and not from OE. gebûr, which survives only in neighbour; the original sense ‘peasant, countryman’ is now obsolete except in the sense ‘a peasant, rustic with lack of refinement”

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implied, a country clown'; the word was also used for a Dutch colonist in South Africa and Guiana, but *Boer* is the form now employed. The feminine of *boor* is **Boorinn** (1649, once), from Du. *boerin*, a peasant woman.
Chapter VIII
The Work of the Low Dutch in Reclaiming and Draining Land, and its Influence on English Vocabulary

8. 1.

The pioneers in marsh reclamation in northern Europe were the men of Flanders and Holland, and in Flanders there appeared, about 1150, the first polders, that is, diked land reclaimed from the sea. The Flemings and Hollanders did not confine their activities to their own countries; bands of peasants were setting out, by the beginning of the 12th century, to drain the Mooren on the banks of the Elbe. It is extremely probable that the Flemings who settled in England in such numbers undertook the draining and clearing of the lands allotted to them, and although such drainage could not have been on an extensive scale, it was nevertheless likely to introduce new words.

By the 15th century the Dutch had become the leading drainage and harbour engineers in Europe, and for the next two centuries there is record of their being called to England for consultation and to undertake schemes of reclamation and harbour construction. In 1410 a Hollander was employed to work on the sluice at Romney, and Flemish masons constructed a sluice and dam at Boston in 1500. In the reign of Henry VIII a Brabanter, Cornelius Vanderdelft, was employed to drain the Stepney Marshes outside London. By reason of the expansion of the English fleet and merchant shipping in the reign of Elizabeth considerable works were carried out in the harbour at Dover; Flemish workmen were employed upon them, and the Brabant engineer Humphrey Bradley was consulted. This man afterwards interested himself in the drainage of the Norfolk Fens and brought forward his suggestions in a pamphlet entitled A Discourse of Humphrey Bradley, a Brabanter, concerning the Fens of Norfolk. Foreigners were again consulted about the reclamation of parts of Holland in Lincolnshire, but a practical attempt to drain a part of the Fens in the reign of James I failed.

No attempt at reclamation on a really big scale had yet been made; for the draining of land is a most costly process and needs

8. 1.  A.I. 181, 208-11; Pirenne, 81-2; D.N.B. art. ‘Vermuyden, Sir Cornelius’.

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the backing of large funds. These were at length forthcoming from the powerful body of alien financiers who had made a position for themselves in the city of London. These Dutch capitalists financed the schemes, and the great Dutch engineer Cornelius Vermuyden, a native of the island of Tholen in Zeeland, was called in to direct the work. He had been employed in 1621 to repair the breaches which the Thames had made in its banks at Havering and Dagenham in Essex and to drain the marshes. In 1626 he entered into agreement with Charles I for his first big undertaking, the draining of Hatfield Chase in the isle of Axholme, a district of about 70,000 acres of fen, subject to inundation from the Don, Ouse, and Trent. Additional financial backing was obtained from Amsterdam and Dordrecht, and Vermuyden brought over Dutch workmen for the execution of his plans.

The drainage schemes met with bitter opposition from the fenmen, whose common rights were taken away, and whose occupations of fishing and fowling were destroyed, and the feeling was aggravated by the general English dislike for foreign workmen. The Dutch were attacked from the outset, and their embankments were cut as soon as they were built. Vermuyden became discouraged and sold his interest to the French engineer Gibbon, who brought in Picards and Normans to work alongside the Dutch. The attacks of the fenmen culminated in the great riot of 1650-1, when 82 houses and the church at the Dutch settlement in the isle of Axholme were destroyed, and quiet was not completely restored for several years.

Many of the Dutchmen now removed to the Great Fens in Cambridgeshire and settled first at Whittlesea and then at Thorney Abbey, where they founded a church in 1652. Vermuyden used these workmen on his schemes for draining the 'Great Fens', afterwards the Bedford Level, which he described as 'a great continent of 400,000 acres' lying within Lincolnshire, Northants., Huntingdonshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire. The first scheme was under the patronage of the Earl of Bedford and others and was not very successful, largely because the funds ran out and because interruption came through the outbreak of civil war. The undertaking was resumed after the war, and Vermuyden was again appointed engineer after competition with another Dutch engineer Westerdyke. Here also the workmen had to contend with the violent opposition of the
fenmen, who destroyed drains and sluices. The final effort upon Vermuyden’s plans was made in 1649, and the work was completed in 1652.

A smaller scheme for the reclamation of Canvey Island in Essex was carried out by Dutch workmen under the direction of Croppenbergh, and the settlers built a church for themselves in 1641.

8. 2.

In the Middle English period a number of words appear which deal with the drainage of land and the construction of ditches. **Groop** (c. 1330, R. Brunne), to dig a trench; (1412-20, Lydgate), to groove, hollow out, incise. The sb. is later, **Groop** (c. 1440, **Pr. Parv.**), the drain or gutter in a stable or cowshed, a small trench, ditch; (c. 1440, **Pr. Parv.**), a groove, mortice; ad. M.Du. **grope** (Du. **groep**, LG. **grôpe**).

**Spay** (1415), a sluice; ad. M.Flem. **speye** (Kilian **spije**, W.Flem. **speie**, **spei**, related to M.Flem, **spoye**, Flem. and Du. **spui**), in the same sense. **Spayer** (1450), a sluice; from the above and -er.

**Wilkin** (1495), a ram, a pile-driving engine; perhaps originally a proper name, probably of Du. or LG. origin, **Willekin**, diminutive of **Willem**.

In the modern period we get the following terms. A most difficult word is **Suds**, sb. plur. (1548), dregs, leavings, filth, muck; (1599), flood-water, the water of the fens, water mixed with drift-sand and mud, drift-sand left by a flood; (1581), water impregnated with soap for washing; (1592), foam, froth; O.E.D. states that with the existing evidence it is difficult to establish the chronology of the senses and suggests that perhaps the sense ‘flood-water’ is the original, in which case the immediate source may be MLG. and M.Du. **sudde** or M.Du. **sudse** (Kilian **zudse**), marsh, bog.

**Scut** (1561), of doubtful meaning, but probably an embankment; perhaps ad. e.mod.Du. **schut**, **schutte**, an embankment.

There are two terms for drainage officials. **Dike-grave** (1563), in Holland, an officer whose function it is to take charge of the dikes or sea-walls; in England (esp. in Lincs.), an officer who has charge of the drains, sluices, and sea-banks of a district under the Court of Sewers; ad. M.Du. **dijcgrave** (Du. **dijkgraaf**), from **dijk**, dike, and grave, count. **Dike-reeve**, **Dyke-reeve** (1665), of similar meaning; from dike and reeve, but perhaps an alteration of **dike-grave**, **-greave** by identifying its final part with Eng. reeve as in **port-reeve**.
**Put-gally** (1584-5), a bascule or lever fixed on a high fulcrum and having a counterpoise on the handle, by means of which water is lifted from a pit or well; ad. Du. and Flem. *putgalg*, a bascule to raise water from a well; in Hexham *put-galge*, ‘a swipe to drawe up water out of a well’, in Kilian *put-galghe*, from *put*, well, pit, and *galge*, gallows, post of a draw-well.


**Camp-shot** (1691), the facing of poles and boarding along the bank of a river to protect it from the action of the current; O.E.D. states that the term has been plausibly conjectured to be Du. or Flem. with the second element *schot*, boarding; *kant-schot* would be side-boarding, but no trace of this or any similar compound is found in those languages, although the thing is well known there and is called *schoeiing*, i.e. shoeing; Bense would derive it from M.Du. *camp*, *campe*, field, and *schot*, boarding, influenced by *schut*, embankment, and so ‘the fence or boarding’ which protects the field extending along the river from the influence of the water; it is noteworthy that Dutch workmen were employed in the 17th century in improving the banks of the Thames.

**Risbank** (1731), an artificial bank, properly one faced and strengthened with brushwood; ad. Du. *rijfsbank*, from *rij*, rice, brushwood, and *bank*.

**Dale** (1851), an outlet drain in the Fen country; probably from Du. *daal*, a tube or trough for carrying off water; the same word as **Dale**, p. 77. **Grift** (1851), a channel shaped out by water for itself; perhaps ad. Du. *grift*, channel.

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Chapter IX
The Low Dutch and the Manufacture of Cloth

9.1. It is curious that most modern writers on economics, such as Ashley and Cunningham, have assumed that the English cloth trade practically started with the introduction of Flemish weavers by Edward III. It is constantly asserted that before this the cloth made in England was of very poor quality and entirely for home consumption, and that the industry had but little organization. Salzman has shown, however, that the cloth trade was highly organized much earlier, and that, while a large proportion of the cloths were certainly coarse, fine cloths such as the Lincoln and Stamford scarlets had early attained fame. An examination of the vocabulary of clothworking certainly supports the conclusions of Salzman, for the Low Dutch element in it is surprisingly small, whereas if the Flemish influence had been as great as is commonly assumed, we should expect a larger proportion of Low Dutch words.

Flemish influence, however, can be postulated from an early date. Flemish weavers seem to have settled in the towns which grew up around the new Norman castles after the Conquest. Drogo of Bruere, a Fleming, obtained a large grant of land at Beverley from the Conqueror, and there was soon a settlement of Flemish weavers in that town, where they have given their name to the Flemingate. 'Gilbert the Weaver and Baldwin the Tailor' are names figuring in the list of settlers around the new abbey of Battle, and the names and trades seem to mark them down as Flemings. The evidence as to the gilds of weavers in London, Winchester, Marlborough, Beverley, and Lincoln, and the special disabilities of the weavers and dyers seem to show that they were aliens organized as a separate community under the protection of the crown. When in 1270 the wool trade to Flanders was interrupted, Henry III sought to induce Flemish weavers to settle in England, and with some success; for when a little later he issued orders to all Flemings to leave the country, he excepted 'those workmen, who with our leave shall come into our land to make cloths'. The Norfolk worsted industry

9. 1. A.I. 37-8, 102, 105-7, 116, 128, 132; I.C. i. 304-9, 341, 431; Salz. 197-205, 239; Green, 88.

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was founded at some date prior to 1315, probably with some settlement of Flemish weavers at the village of Worstead.

In the reign of Edward III it was evident that there was something wrong with the English cloth trade, and it was fortunate that the king’s foreign policy gave the key to the solution of the industrial difficulties. Edward wished to damage the trade of Flanders and to that end did his best to hinder the export of wool and to revivify the English cloth trade so as to be independent of Flanders. Either in order to remedy the defects of the native cloth or with the deliberate intention of building up a cloth-making industry to compete with Flanders, he now adopted the policy of encouraging foreign experts to settle in the country. The conditions of the time were exceedingly favourable, for conditions in the Low Countries were very disturbed; the craftsmen in the Flemish towns were oppressed by the merchant companies, and, moreover, there was hostility between the weavers of the towns and those of the country districts, so that the latter were frequently deprived of their wool supply. Emigration to England would entirely solve this difficulty.

As early as 1331 special protection was granted to John Kemp of Flanders and any other clothworkers who wished to come over. In 1337 the king sent Thomas de Kenelyngworth to bring John Belle and other clothworkers to England, and later in the same year protection was granted to Nicholas Appelman, dyer, and to other dyers and fullers who had come over with him and were exercising their trades at Winchester. Similar protection was granted in 1343 to John de Bruyn, ‘burgess of Ghent’, who was making cloth at Abingdon, while in 1352 a general proclamation was made that foreign clothmakers were not to be interfered with or compelled to join any gild. Such protection was necessary, as it was only natural that the weavers already established in the country should resent the introduction of so many skilled craftsmen into their own trades. Eventually the Flemings and Brabanters in London formed for their protection a weavers’ gild of their own. This jealousy sprang up afresh with every new batch of entrants, and the murder of Flemings at Snettisham and Yarmouth was perhaps due to industrial rivalry. Thomas Blanket, who had set up looms and brought over workmen for manufacture on a large scale at Bristol, was seriously interfered with in 1340. Alien workmen continued to
come in during the 15th century (no less than 1,738 were naturalized in 1436), and the ill feeling steadily grew till it culminated in an organized attack on their foreign rivals by the apprentices and journeymen of London on Evil May Day, 1517.

Very little appears to be ascertainable about the history of linen weaving in England in the Middle Ages. That it was carried on fairly extensively is evident from casual references, and important centres seem to have been Wilton, Hereford, and Norwich. The vocabulary shows that the Low Dutch had some influence on this manufacture, and we know that Flemish linen weavers were introduced in 1253 and again in the reign of Edward III.

It seems probable that it is to the 15th century, and especially to the time of James I, that we are to attribute the large immigration of weavers into Scotland, which undoubtedly took place at some time or other. They bear the name Brabanters in not a few towns, and they appear to have migrated before the religious struggles of the 16th century. The walkers and litsters may be survivals of a previous immigration, though their incorporation in the year 1500 would point to their increasing importance.

9. 2. 9.2.

The next great immigration of foreign clothworkers comes in the 16th and 17th centuries as the result of the religious persecutions of the Spaniards in the Netherlands. The industrial arts improved or introduced by these refugees are numerous. They attempted to introduce a linen manufacture, e.g. at Stamford; but for some reason this industry has never been properly acclimatized in England. Their chief influence, however, was on the manufacture of woollens, worsted, serges, and bays, and the impetus which they gave to the industry caused it to develop very rapidly, so that an export trade soon sprang up and the manufacture was widely diffused. A beginning can be traced to the immigration of 406 persons, driven out of Flanders in 1561, some of whom settled at Sandwich and Canterbury, while 30 families settled at Norwich, a town which was still suffering from the consequences of Kett's rebellion. The most important centre, however, was Colchester; for this was an industrially organized colony manufacturing the fine cloth known as bays, sackcloth, needles, and parchment. This Flemish

9. 2.  A.I. 143, 171, 177-80, 183-4, 212; I.C. ii. 82-3, 330.

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colony appears to have flourished on the whole; James I continued their privileges and they were protected in the exercise and the regulation of their trades, so that the manufacture of bays continued to be important and the cloth which they produced an important article of export. Their trade began to decline in the 18th century under the competition of imported cotton fabrics.

It is highly probable that cotton weaving was also started by these refugees. This had been a flourishing industry at Antwerp, a port where the necessary materials were easily procurable from Egypt. The beginnings in England are very obscure; but it is significant that it began to attract attention as an important trade in Manchester in the early part of the 17th century and that the rise of the manufacture in Lancashire appears to follow very closely on its decline at Antwerp. There is at least the considerable possibility of ascribing the development to the immigration of refugees. After the sack of Antwerp in 1585 we know that many of the inhabitants fled to England, and the same period marks a great growth in the population of Manchester.

Low Dutch influence is apparent also in minor branches of the weaving trade. Under Henry VIII Dutch tapestry weavers settled in London, and there were others of the same trade at the Court. The introduction of lace-making is also attributed to refugees from the Low Countries. Flemish names figure in the church registers of Honiton at the end of the 17th century, and many others of the same extraction are to be found in Bedfordshire; tradition assigns a Flemish origin to the manufacture at Newport Pagnell, Stony Stratford, Aylesbury, and Northampton, and indeed these laces are of old Flemish design. The trade was flourishing in Northamptonshire, Buckinghamshire, and Devon in 1650, and in 1626 a school for teaching the art had been established at Great Marlow. There were many attempts in the 17th century to improve the art of dyeing in England; in 1643 a dyehouse was started at Bow by a Dutchman, Kepler, whose scarlet dye soon had a high reputation; in 1667 it was further improved by Bauer, a man of Flemish origin, and thenceforward there was no real necessity to export undyed cloth. There was still room for improvement in West Country weaving, and Paul Methuen and Willem Brewer brought over Dutch families to Dutch Barton, near Bradford-on-Avon, Wiltshire.
In Scotland at this period James VI was desirous of encouraging the cloth trade, and in 1587 an Act was passed in favour of three Flemish weavers who sought leave to set up their looms. A sum of money was granted for the furtherance of the scheme, and the settlers were to be exempted from taxation and town dues; naturalization was to be granted them and permission to establish a church. In 1588 other Flemings seem to have come over, and in 1600 liberty was granted for the settlement of a hundred clothworkers. In the following summer Bischof, a refugee, agreed to come from Norwich to work in Edinburgh, and twelve weavers were received from Leyden at Edinburgh, Perth, Dundee, and Ayr. Attention has been called to the fact that many names at Muthill and Perth are of Flemish origin, and also that many manorial flour mills were utilized for fulling at this period.

9. 3.

The following terms used in the spinning, weaving, and preparation of woollen cloth appear in Middle English. Rock (c. 1310, Northern Poem), a distaff; in the 14th and 15th centuries rokke; the word corresponds to M.Du. rocke (Du. rok) and MLG. rocken, but it is not clear whether the word is native English or a later adoption from Low Dutch. Clack (1429), to remove the dirty parts, esp. the tarry mark or ‘buist’ from a fleece of wool; O.E.D. states that it was originally a Flemish word of the wool trade; Kilian has klacken, ‘detergere lutum’, used in Flanders for kladden, afkladden, and also a sb. klacke, ‘macula luti’; according to Mnl. Wdb. the sb. clacke, ‘klad, vlek’, was not known in M.Du.

Nap (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), originally the rough layer of projecting threads on the surface of a woollen or other textile fabric; in the 15th and 16th centuries noppe; ad. M.Du. or MLG. noppe, related to the vb. nappen, to nap; there is no evidence for the OE. hnoppa given by Somner. Nopster (c. 1481, Caxton), a woman who puts a nap on cloth; ad. M.Du. nopster, from the vb. nappen. The vb. itself is later, Nap (c. 1483, Caxton, 1483, Cath. Angl.), to trim cloth by shearing the nap; in the 15th and 16th centuries noppe; ad. M.Du. or MLG. nappen. Nappy (1499, Pr. Parv.), having a nap, downy, shaggy; ad. M.Du. noppigh (Du. noppig) or MLG. noppich, from noppe, nap.

Selvage, Selvedge (c. 1460), the edge of a piece of woven material finished in such a manner as to prevent the ravelling out of the wool; apparently from self and edge, after the
equivalent e.mod.Du. *selfegghe* (Kilian), now *zelfeggge*, LG. *sulfeggge*; compare the Du. synonyms cited by Kilian, *selfkant*, now *zelfkant*, *selfende*, now *zelfende*.

Fulling terms are: **Walker** (c. 1290, *Beket*), one who fulls cloth, a fuller; OE. *wealcere* occurs once as a gloss for *fullo* (c. 1050, in Voc. in Wr.-Wü.), but it is probable that the word was reintroduced from Low Dutch in the 13th century from M.Du. or MLG. *walker*. **Walk-mill** (1359, *Mem. Ripon*), a fulling mill; from *walk* and *mill*. **Walk** (14.., 1437), to subject woollen cloth to the operation of beating or pressing in order to cause felting of the fibres and consequent thickening and shrinking; originally identical with the vb. *walk*, to walk, step, but the sense ‘to full cloth’ is not recorded in English before the 14th century, though prominent in other Teutonic languages; OE. had the agent noun *wealcere*, but it is possible that the corresponding sense of the Teutonic verb had not survived into OE. and that the late ME. *walke* is either a back formation from the agent noun or an adoption from M.Du. or MLG. *walken*.

Some terms of woollen weaving and the preparation of cloth were introduced in the modern period. **Buckety** (1548), according to Jamieson a corruption of ‘buckwheat’ and the name of a paste used by weavers in Scotland in dressing their webs (see *Buckwheat*). **Bay** (1581), baize, originally a fabric of a finer and lighter texture than now, the manufacture of which was introduced into England in the 16th century by fugitives from the Netherlands and France; usually in the plural, whence the corruption **Baize** (1578); ad. F. *baie* or its Du. representative *baai*, from F. *bai*, *baie*, the colour bay; also in many combs., as Bayhall (1684), a hall in Colchester, used as an exchange by traders in this commodity.

**Spill** (1594), a small cylinder upon which yarn is wound, a spool; (1594), a rod or stalk of wood, metal, &c.; apparently ad. Du. *spil* (M.Du. *spille*) or LG. (and MLG.) *spille*, spindle, axis, pin, stalk. **Scraw** (c. 1563, from Canterbury), a frame on which textile fabrics are hung to dry; perhaps ad. Du. *schraag*, trestle.

**Scribble** (1687), to card or tease wool coarsely, to pass through a scribbler; probably from LG.; compare the synonymous G. *schrubbeln*, *schrobbeln*, *schruppeln*, Sw. *skrabbla*; the verb is a frequentative from LG. and G. *schrubben*, *schrobben* (see *Scrub*). Derivatives which, however, appear earlier are
Scribbler (1682), a person who scribbles wool, and Scribbling (1682), the first process in the operation of carding wool.

A term of dyeing is Slip (1667), the powder found in the trough of cutlers' grindstones and used in dyeing; apparently ad. older Flem. *slip* (Kilian) or MLG. *slip*, related to Flem. and Du. *slijpen*, to polish, sharpen; this word may equally well have come in as a term of the cutler's trade.

9. 4.

The terms of the preparation of flax and hemp and of the weaving of linen are surprisingly numerous in view of the scarcity of evidence of Low Dutch influence on this industry. **Swingle** (c. 1325), a wooden instrument resembling a sword used for beating and scraping flax and hemp so as to cleanse it of woody or coarse particles; ad. M.Du. *swinghel*, swingle for flax (corresponding in form to OE. *swingell*, swingle, stroke or stripe with a rod, whipping, scourge, whip; also once, swingle or distaff) or partly ad. MLG. *swengel*, bell-clapper, pump-handle, swipe (M.Du. *swenghel*, swipe, Du. *zwengel*, swingle), which would account for the secondary senses (c. 1440), the striking part or swipple of a flail, and (14., Voc., Wr.-Wü.), the clapper of a bell. **Swingle**, vb. (c. 1325), to beat or scrape with a swingle, to scutch; ad. M.Du. *swinghelen*, from *swinghel*, swingle.

**Rib** (c. 1340), a flat iron tool used for cleaning flax after the breaking process; in the 14th century *ribbe*, perhaps ad. MLG. *ribbe-* (LG. *ribbe-isen, -îsder*). The vb. is half a century later, **Rib** (1393), to rub or scrape flax or hemp with a flat iron tool; from the sb., but cf. Du. and LG. *ribben*.

**Ret** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), to soak, esp. flax or hemp, in water in order to soften or season; the East Anglian form *ret* (earlier *retten, reten*), is perhaps from M.Du. *retten, reten*, but the Northern forms *rayt, rait, rate*, seem to indicate an ON. *reyta* (Norw. *røya*, Sw. *röta*, Da. *råde*).

**Brake** (c. 1450), a toothed instrument for braking flax or hemp; (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), a baker's kneading-machine; (1534), in brewing and similar processes, a wooden mill to crush green fruits, hops, &c.; ad. MLG. *brake* or M.Du. *breke* (Du. *braak*), a flax-brake (whence F. *braquer*, to brake flax), from Du. *breken*, to break; the form *brakene* in *Pr. Parv.* may represent the plural of the M.Du. or MLG. word; the resemblance of the sb. to the cognate Eng. vb. apparently gave rise to the extension of sense by which 'brake' became a generic term of implements.

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used for breaking or crushing. The vb. is half a century earlier, Brake (1398, Trevisa), but is from the sb.

A term for the finished linen article is Lake (c. 1386, Chaucer), fine linen; probably ad. Du. taken (M.Du. taken, lakene, lake), linen.

Knock, Knok (1573, once), a bundle of heckled flax; apparently ad. LG. knocke, in the same sense.
Chapter X
The Low Dutch in the Brewing Industry

10. 1. FROM Old English times the brewing of malt liquor was universally practised, every village supplying its own wants. The ale of the Middle Ages, however, differed from our modern ales and beers in that it had no other ingredients than malt, water, yeast, and barm; it was rather a sweet wort of the consistency of barley-water.

A new variety of malt liquor was introduced from Flanders at the end of the 14th century, and in the brewing of this new beer hops were used. It seems to have been imported into Winchelsea as early as 1400. At first it was brewed entirely by foreigners and seems to have been consumed mainly by them. The term ‘beer’ seems to have been applied to this new liquor and the term ‘ale’ restricted to the older-fashioned brew. This beer was at first very unfavourably regarded, on the grounds that it was not fit to drink and that it caused drunkenness, and so bitter were the attacks made on it that in 1436 a writ had to be addressed to the sheriffs of London to proclaim that all brewers of beer shall continue to brew in spite of the malevolent attacks made to prevent natives of Holland and Zeeland and others from doing so. The consumption of beer soon became considerable and was due in all likelihood to the large foreign colony in London. When provisions were sent to Henry V at the siege of Rouen in 1418, 300 tuns of ‘ber’ were sent from London as against 200 tuns of ale.

The brewing of beer was introduced into the Sussex ports by Low Countrymen. In the church of the village of Playder near Winchelsea may still be seen the tomb of Cornelius Zoetmann, with its curious ornamentation of two beer barrels and a crossed mash-stick and fork. By the middle of the 15th century large quantities of hops were being imported into Winchelsea and Rye, and a little later beer was being exported from the Sussex ports and also from the Dorset port of Poole. By 1441 the brewing of beer had become of sufficient importance to demand inspection and control, and inquiries were made as to the regulations in force abroad.

The beer brewers we hear of in the 15th century have almost


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all Low Dutch, names; e.g. John Doys of St. Botolphs-outside-Aldgate and Gerard Sconeburgh of Southwark were proceeded against in 1473 for theft; their sureties were Godfrey Speryng and Edward Dewysse, also beer brewers; Henry VII granted letters of denization to Hilary Warner, ‘bere-bruer’, a native of Germany.

The prejudice against beer was slower in disappearing in the country towns than in London. At Norwich in 1471 the use of hops and ‘gawle’ in brewing was forbidden; in 1519 the use of the ‘wicked and pernicious weed hops’ was also prohibited at Shrewsbury; as late as 1531 the royal brewer was forbidden to use hops and ‘brimstones’.

In 1531, however, an Act was passed exempting alien brewers from the penal statutes against foreigners practising their trades in England; it also allowed beer brewers to employ two coopers while restricting the ale brewers to one. From this time on the industry grew in importance, and alien brewers, such as the Leakes of Southwark, amassed great wealth. Englishmen now entered the industry, but we still hear of Dutch brewers in the reign of James I. Improvements in the art continued to be brought from the Low Countries; Sebastian Brygonne, a German, set up a new kind of furnace for brewing in the reign of Elizabeth, and a patent for a similar invention was applied for by Stowghberghen.

10. 2.

A few brewing terms of Low Dutch origin appear previous to the introduction of beer brewing at the end of the 14th century. Scum (a. 1250, Prov. of Alfred, but in this text the word is of doubtful meaning and identity; the first certain occurrence is 1340, Ayenbite, foam, froth, bubbles; not from an OE. *scūm, or else the Eng. would have had initial sh-, nor is it recorded in ON.; the word was probably taken from Low Dutch as a term of brewing; the Low Dutch forms are MLG. schûm (whence M.Sw., Sw., Norw., Da. skum), M.Du. schuim, schûme (Du. sguim); for the shortening of the vowel in Eng. compare thumb and plum.

Gyle-house, Gylhous (1334-5, Durh. Acc. Rolls), a brewhouse. Gyle-fat (1341, Test. Ebor.), the vat in which wort is left to ferment; the comb. of gyle with fat, of OE. origin, points to an introduction of gyle considerably earlier than its first recorded occurrence. Gyling (1411) is used only attributively in gyling-house, -ker, -tub, -fat. Gyle (1594, Plat, Jewel Ho.),
'a brewing', the quantity brewed at one time; (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*, 'gylde or newe ale'), wort in process of fermentation; ad. Du. *gijl* (earlier in Kilian *ghiil* is defined as 'chylus, cremor cereuisiae'); appears a century earlier in combs. than as a separate word. **Gyle-ker** (1573, *Lanc. and Chesh. Wills*), a tub or other vessel for holding wort; a comb. of *gyle* and *kier*, from ON. *ker*, a tub.

**Kit** (1375, Barbour), a circular wooden vessel made of hooped staves; apparently ad. M.Du. *kitte*, of the same meaning (Du. *kit*, a tankard).

Two words appear in the 15th century. **Bung** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), a stopper for the hole in a barrel; O.E.D. compares with M.Du. *bonghe*, a stopper, esp. a large stopper for the mouth of a cask; *bung* is probably from M.Du., and its earliest instance, in the *Pr. Parv.*, is all in favour of this origin. **Keel** (1485, *Naval Acc. Hen. VII*), a tub or vat for holding liquor; probably ad. MLG. *kelle*, a ladle, tub, or M.Du. *kele, keel*; this word may have entered English as a sea term of the provisioning of ships.

**Brewery** (1658, Hexham), a house for the purpose of brewing; this word seems to have been a creation of Hexham's after Du. *brouwerije*, which he translates by it; it afterwards found such acceptance as ultimately to supersede the original English *Brewhouse*. **Back** (1682), a large, shallow vessel, chiefly for liquids, a tub, trough, vat, cistern, esp. those used by brewers, dyers, and picklers; ad. Du. *bak* (M.Du. *bac(k)*), ad. F. *bac*, ferryboat, punt, also a trough, basin, mash-tub. **Beck** (1828) is probably a variant of **Back**, though perhaps influenced by Du. *bekken*, basin, bowl.

10. 3.

It is curious how many of the terms of brewing are names of vessels used in the industry. These may equally well have come in as terms of the cooper's craft. It is impossible, however, to separate cooping from brewing, of which it was an auxiliary trade. The alien brewers certainly brought over their own cooperers with them; in 1523 the cooperers were specially mentioned in a statute by which 'no stranger was to have an alien apprentice or to have more than two alien journeymen', and 'they were not to work apart from Englishmen, but in such a fashion that natives might learn all the secrets of their trades'.

**Cooper** (c. 1415), a craftsman who makes and repairs wooden vessels formed of staves and hoops, as casks, buckets, tubs, &c.;
it is not an English derivative of coop, which, so far as appears, has never had the
sense ‘cask’; the word is apparently of Low Dutch origin and may be ad. M.Du. cuper
or MLG. kuper.

Clapholt (1477), small pieces of split oak as used by coopers for cask staves;
this word probably came in as a term of the timber trade and is there included (see
Clapholt and Clapboard, p. 47).

Howel (1846), a plane with a convex sole used by coopers for smoothing the
insides of casks; probably of LG. origin (M)LG. hövel (G. hobel). The vb. is from the
sb., Howel (1864), to smooth with a howel.

10. 4.

Three words have entered with the hop trade, Hop, East, variant of oast, and Cockle.
As hops were imported from abroad for use in brewing before they were cultivated
in this country, ‘hop’ itself is probably a term of brewing, while the other two are
terms of the cultivation and preparation of hops.

Hop (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), the ripened cones of the female hop plant; usually found
in the plural; ad. M.Du. hoppe (Du. hop). East (1491), a kiln, later a kiln for drying
malt or hops; the forms are: 15th-century est, 17th-century east and eest, and they
exist as a dial. form beside oast from OE. āst; of Low Dutch origin, probably
introduced from Flanders; Du. has eest, formerly also eist, MLG. eist; in the first
instance the word may have been a term of malting only, and perhaps must be
considered as a term of brewing and not of the hop trade. Cockle (1688), the fire
chamber or furnace of a hop or malt kiln, also called ‘cockle-oast’; (1774), a kind of
stove for heating apartments; possibly ad. 16th-century Du. kakel, kaeckel, kachel
(Du. kachel), a stove, and O.E.D. quotes Kilian and Plantijn in support; the word is
probably of much earlier borrowing than the first record suggests; it is possible that
the word was borrowed independently in the two different senses.
Chapter XI
Low Dutch Miners in England

11. 1.  

The German miners were for many centuries the most skilled in Europe, and from the end of the 13th century on we find them called in to take part in English mining enterprises. It is often difficult, in some cases impossible, to decide whether the Germans in question were from High or Low Germany, and the title of German or Almaine was frequently given even to Flemings and other Netherlanders.

The most extensive English mining industry in the Middle Ages was for lead and silver. As early as 1314 Herman de Alemannia and other adventurers were mining at Brushford near Dulverton. An interesting instance of the greater skill of the Germans is the case of Thomas de Alemaigne, a silver finer, who petitioned the king to grant him the slag from the Devon mines out of which the native refiners had extracted all the metal they could; this same Thomas was employed by the king in 1324 to dig, cleanse, and examine his mines in Cumberland and Westmorland. In 1359 Tilman de Cologne was working the Alston mines in Cumberland.

In 1475 a company, consisting of the Duke of Gloucester, the Earl of Northumberland, William Goderswyk, and John Marchall, obtained a grant for fifteen years of the mines of Blaunchlond in Northumberland, Fletchers-in-Alston, and Keswick, and also of the copper mines near Richmond. The company could not have lasted long, for only three years later William Goderswyk, Henry Van Orel, Arnold Van Anne, Albert Millyng of Cologne, and Dederic Van Riswyk of England received a grant for ten years of all mines of gold, silver, copper, and lead in Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmorland, and for this they had to pay one-fifteenth of their profits.

In 1528 Joachim Hochstetter, probably a High German, was appointed chief surveyor and master of the mines of England and Ireland. He brought over six German experts and advised that a foundry should be erected at Combe Martin in North Devon. It was not until the latter part of the reign of Elizabeth, however, that mining with English money and German skill was undertaken on a large scale.
The alien miner was active in Scotland also. In 1511 a Dutchman was employed as smelter in the mine on Crawford Muir. In 1562 James V of Scotland gave mining concessions to some Germans. A series of mining rights in Scotland were granted to Flemings in the 16th century: to Cornelius de Vos in 1567, to Gray Petierson in 1575, to Arnold Bronckhurst in 1580, and to Eustatius Roche in 1583; this last also had a patent granted him for the manufacture of salt. The Keswick Company, too, entered into negotiations for the mining of gold on Crawford Muir. Soon after the Restoration men were introduced from Holland to work in the Keswick mines. It is said that the use of gunpowder for blasting in mines was first introduced by German miners brought over by Prince Rupert to work in the mines at Ecton in Staffordshire.

The mining of tin and copper was confined mainly to Cornwall and Devon. At the end of the 13th century Richard of Cornwall brought in Germans to work in his Cornish mines. In the reign of Queen Mary a melting-house for refining tin was built by Burcord Crangs, a German. In the reign of Elizabeth one Humphrey, a paymaster of the Mint, seems to have interested himself in mining speculations; he had as his partner a German miner, Christopher Shatz, and the field of their operations was chiefly Ireland. By the end of the 16th century copper was being mined extensively in Cornwall, at Treworthy, Perran Sands, St. Just, and Logan, and these mines were worked by Dutchmen. These men seem to have been paid high wages, and there is an interesting remonstrance from Sir T. Smith which urges that Cornishmen should be employed instead of Dutchmen, as they are willing to work for less wages.

The Cornelius de Vos who was interested in Scottish mining in 1567 obtained permission to work the alum mines in the Isle of Wight. Alum was a commodity necessary to the cloth trade, and it had been practically a papal monopoly; a native supply was extremely welcome, and since de Vos had discovered the beds, he obtained the right to work them.

11. 2.

There are a few terms of mining operations. **Groove** (1400-50, 1483, *Mendip Laws*), a mining shaft, mine pit; ad. e.mod.Du. *groeve*, 'sulcus, fosse, scrobs' (Kilian). The vb. is from the sb., **Groove** (1483), to sink a mining shaft; but compare *groeven* in Kilian. **Groover** (1610), a miner; from the sb. *groove* and -er, but Kilian has *groever*.
Buck (1683), to break ore very small with a bucker; probably ad. LG. böken or Du. beuken, to beat, strike (cf. also Du. boken, booken, with the same senses). Bucker (1653), a hammer used in bucking ore; O.E.D. says that this word is from the vb. buck and -er, but as it is recorded thirty years earlier than the vb., it is quite possible that it is immediately ad. LG. böker, hammer (MLG. boker, hammer, sledge), and that the vb. is a back-formation on bucker.

Stack (1832), a term of coal-mining, chiefly used in the phrase ‘to stack out’, to dam up or shut up the entrance to a goaf by building a wall in front of it; perhaps ad. LG. stack, a dam.

The following are terms for mining apparatus and constructions. Tram (1500-20, Dunbar), the shaft of a barrow or cart; (1516-17, Durh. Acc. Rolls), in coal-mining, a tram; (a. 1734), tramway, a track of wood, stone, or iron; probably of Low Dutch origin and apparently the same word as LG. traam, balk, beam, e.g. of a wheelbarrow or dung-sledge, tram, handle of a barrow or sledge, also rung or step of a ladder, bar of a chair, E.Fris. trame, trâm, with the same senses, MLG. trame, treme, M.Du. trame; balk or beam, rung of a ladder, W.Flem. traam, trame. The specific sense first found in Sc. is that of ‘tram of a barrow’, and the further sense development presents many difficulties, chiefly from the scarcity of early examples and the fact that the various senses are from different localities, so that they cannot be taken as showing any general development. The secondary sense, in which tram is a miner’s term for the vehicle for carrying coal or ore, may, on the principle of part for whole, have arisen out of ‘barrow-tram’. The sense of ‘tramway’ is more difficult; if it was short for something like ‘tram-track’, it might have arisen out of the sense ‘miner’s tram’; if it was primarily applied to the wooden beams or rails as tram-tracks, it might possibly go back to the LG. sense of balk or beam; evidence for this is wanting, but there is a case for considering the sense ‘tramway’ as a term borrowed in mining, and then the sense ‘tram’ as having arisen out of it as first ‘tram-wagon, tram-barrow’, and then simply tram.

Coe (1653, Manlove, Lead Mines), a little hut built over a mine-shaft as a protection to the shaft; the Sc. form cow is more etymological and is probably from Du. kouw (M.Du. and MLG. couwe, côje), in the same sense, ad. L. cavea, hollow, stall, cage, coop. Kyle (1747, Hooson, Miner’s Dict.), a small iron wedge
used to fasten the head of a pick, hammer, &c.; perhaps ad. LG. *kîl, kile*, wedge.

There are a few terms for minerals. **Glance-ore** (1457-8), a kind of lead ore; this is a half- adoption, half-translation of Du. *glanserts* (ad. G. *glanzertz*), from *glans*, lustre, and *erts*, ore. **Spar** (1581), a general term for a number of crystalline minerals more or less lustrous in appearance and admitting of easy cleavage; ad. MLG. *spar*, *sper*, also in combs, as *sparglas*, *sparkalk*. **Lead-glance** (1810), galena; perhaps a translation of Du. *lood-glans*.

11. 3.

Terms of the treatment and smelting of ores are perhaps best included under mining.

**Smelter** (1455), one who smelts; from *smelt*, vb., but cf. Du. *smelter*. **Smelt** (1543), to fuse or melt ore in order to extract the metal; probably ad. M.Du. or MLG. *smelten* (*smilten*), to smelt, whence also M.Sw. and Sw. *smälta*, Norw. *smelta*, Da. *smelte*. The pa. pple. of this verb is found as the Scottish ppl. adj. **Smout** (1595), smelted; ad. M.Du. *ghesmouten*, pa. pple. of *smelten*, to smelt. **Smelthouse** (1684), a place where smelting is carried on; from *smelt* and *house* or ad. Du. *smelthuis*. **Smeltery** (1814) is from the vb. *smelt*, but cf. Du. *smelterij*. **Slag** (1552), a piece of refuse matter, separated from metal in the process of smelting; ad. MLG. *slagge* (whence Sw. *slagg*).
Chapter XII
The Influence of Low Dutch on the Technical Vocabulary of Various Crafts and Manufactures

12. 1.

A CONSIDERABLE number of words from Low Dutch are technical terms of handicrafts and minor manufactures not important enough to demand separate treatment. Often it is evident at a glance what craft or industry is responsible for a particular word, at other times there is doubt as to the exact channel of introduction, as several separate crafts could equally well have brought in the word. It is impossible in such cases to go beyond the statement that it is a technical term. Such technical terms would be introduced with every fresh industry started or improved in this country by Low Dutch workers, and Low Dutch craftsmen seem to have been prominent in every advance of English material culture. In the reign of Elizabeth particularly, the best hope of bringing about a considerable improvement in English industry at a small cost lay in granting patents to men who had enterprise enough to plant a new art or introduce a new manufacture, and in many of these new industries Low Dutch people were concerned. It is not enough to give details only of those crafts by which it is certain that words were introduced, but it is necessary to give details of all crafts and industries in which Low Dutch people had a share, as for some words the precise mode of entry is uncertain.

12. 2. 12. 2.

The men of the Low Countries had a high reputation as builders in the 13th century, and they were brought over to England to do work, even though by that time the art of building in stone had had every chance of taking root in England. Flemish masons worked at Leicester and they were also employed by Bishop Poor at Salisbury, while there is evidence to prove that they had a hand in the building of Llandaff Cathedral and Caerphilly Castle. In other cases, where Flemish fonts are found in churches, it seems possible that the fabric was also due in part to Flemish hands. The continued reliance on foreign skill in this century raises the presumption that the best work of the preceding age had been done by foreign craftsmen. Indeed, skill in any manual art can only be transferred from one land to

12. 2. A.I. 57; I.C. i. 650; Salz. 180; Abram, 7.
another by transferring the men who practise that art. Again, when we find the
presence of Flemish masons, it is perhaps safe to assume the presence of Flemish
workers in the other building crafts of carpentry, wood-carving, decorating, and tiling.

From the middle of the 14th century onwards we find with increasing frequency
mention of ‘wartyles’ or bricks. For building a new chamber at Ely in 1335 some
18,000 wall-tiles were made at a cost of 12d. the thousand. These bricks seem to
have been introduced or reintroduced from Flanders and are frequently called
‘Flaundrestiell’, as for instance in 1357, when 1,000 were bought for a fireplace at
Westminster for 3s. 2d. When they were made in this country Flemish tile-makers
were probably imported for the purpose, and at first at any rate Flemish bricklayers
laid them. In the 15th century men from the Low Countries started the manufacture
of bricks in England or, as it is perhaps truer to state, revived an industry which had
been practised only sporadically before. They made these bricks very cheaply, so
that we find one William Elys supplying 200,000 for the repair of Dover Castle at
the rate of 250 for a penny.

Most of the building and construction terms from Low Dutch which appear in
Middle English are specifically of carpentry. Spiking (1261), a spike nail; probably
ad. M.Du. spiking, synonymous with spiker (see Spiker, below), or denoting some
variety of this. Wimble (1295, in non-Eng. context, c. 1325, in Eng. context), a gimlet;
ad. AF. wimble, variant of *guimble, represented by the rare 13th-century gymble
and the diminutive gimlet, ad. MLG. wiemel (also Flem.), wemel (whence O.Sw.
wimla, Da. vimmel), M.Du. wimpel.

Shore (1340, Ayenbite), to prop, support with prop; from the sb. shore, but cf.
MLG. and M.Du. schoren. The sb. is a century later, Shore (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), a
prop, strut; late ME. schore is probably ad. MLG. and M.Du. schöre, schäre (Du.
schoor), prop, stay. Shelf (c. 1386, Chaucer), a slab of wood fixed in a horizontal
position; apparently ad. (M)LG. schelf, shelf, set of shelves (whence also Northern
skelf), cognate with OE. scylfe. The Sc. and Nthn. form is Skelf (1396-7), also ad.
MLG. schelf. Peg (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), a pin or bolt made originally of wood; of
obscure history, but apparently of Low Dutch origin; the Low Dutch forms are M.Du.
pegge, dial. Du. peg, plug, peg, small wooden pin, LG. pigge, peg, also M.Du. pegel,
little knob, used as a mark.
Slip (1498, *Test. Ebor.*), to cut (a spoon handle) obliquely at the end; (1530), to part from a stock, esp. for the purpose of propagation; ad. M.Flem. or MLG. *slippen*, to cut, incise, cleave.

Cramp (1503), an iron bar with the end bent to a hook, a grappling iron; (1594), a small bar of metal with the ends bent for holding together two pieces of masonry, timber, &c.; apparently from Low Dutch, which has forms M.Du. *krampe* (in Kilian and Plantijn also *krampe*), in Du. replaced by *kram*. Need-nail (1563), to secure firmly by means of clinched nails; probably ad. LG. *need-nagelen*. The sb. is much later, Need-nail (a. 1732), a clinched nail; ad. LG. *neednagel* (whence Sw. *nitenagel*, Da. *netnagel*), from MLG. *neden*, to clinch (M.Du. *nieden*). Spiker (1574), a spike-nail; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *spiker*.

Two terms of carpentry are Crame, sb. and vb. (1614-15, *Vestry Bks. Surt.*), cramps for coffins, to fasten or mend with cramps; probably from Low Dutch, which has M.Du. *crame*, Du. *kram*, cramp, cramp-iron, hook, and Du. *krammen*, to fasten with cramps. Tafferel (1622-3), a panel, esp. a carved panel; ad. Du. (and M.Du.) *tafereel*, panel, picture, diminutive of *tafel*, table, for *tafeleel*, with dissimilation of *Ito r.. l*; as a term of ship-building this is probably a distinct borrowing (see Tafferel, p. 75).

A term of the wheelwright’s craft is Bush (1566), the metal lining for the axle-hole of a wheel; Skeat says it is ad. Du. *bus*, in the same sense, O.E.D. ad. M.Du. *busse*, though the word does not appear to have this particular sense in M.Du.; the form is not easy to account for, and O.E.D. refers to a similar change in the final consonant in the early forms of blunderbuss and harquebus. The vb. is from the sb., Bush (1566), to furnish with a bush; O.E.D. says that it appears to have been erroneously associated with F. *bouche*, mouth, *boucher*, to stop up, or *bouchon*, cork, plug, whence the frequent later form *bouche*; the association with these F. words may in part account for the final consonant of the sb.

Brick-making has brought in two words. Clamp (1596-7), a large quadrangular stack of bricks built for burning in the open air; probably ad. M.Du. and Du. *klamp*, a heap; the sense in farming, a heap of earth lined with straw, in which potatoes are kept during the winter, is possibly an independent borrowing from Dutch. Clinker (1641, Evelyn, *Diary*), a very hard kind
of brick of a pale colour made in Holland and used for paving; (1659), a brick whose surface has been vitrified; in the 17th century the form was *clincard*, ad. e.mod.Du. *klinckaerd* (Kilian), Du. and LG. *klinker*, from *klinken*, to sound, ring; the suffix *-ard* has been weakened to *-er* both in Eng. and Du.

12. 3. **12.3.**

Low Dutch people were influential in the various branches of metal working. In the art of the gold- and silversmith we find Edward II shortly after his accession employing a foreigner, as four pounds were paid to Reynold de Berewic, a German goldsmith, for making his privy seal. Aliens were engaged at the Mint from time to time, there being from 200 to 300 employed there under Edward I. The question of the relative skill of German and English craftsmen arose in 1464 as the result of a dispute between Oliver Davy, a citizen of London, and White Johnson, a German, for the cutting of four steel puncheons or dies, and the Englishman was successful.

In the manufacture of guns the Germans and Dutch were particularly expert, and Richard II had Matthew de Vlenk, ‘gonnemaker’, in his service. Godfrey Goykin, one of four ‘gunne meysters’ from Germany who were serving Henry V during the last years of his reign, was employed in 1433 to finish off three great iron cannon, which Walter Thomasson had begun to make. These cannon threw balls of 14, 16, and 18 inches diameter, and so were probably bombards or mortars. In 1497 Cornelys Arnoldson was paid for mending five great serpentines, and for making two new chambers for them. At the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII large purchases of cannon were made abroad, among others from Hans Popenreuter and Lewis de la Fava of Mechlin. Henry VIII instituted a new officer, ‘the provider of the King’s instruments of war’, and the post was filled by an alien in his and the succeeding reign. Sundry gun-makers from the Low Countries and Germany settled in Southwark and Blackfriars.

In copper and brass working the town of Dinant was early pre-eminent. In 1453 the town complained that three coppersmiths had secretly left and had emigrated to England, and it was feared that the industry which they had established there would flourish, to the consequent hurt of the trade which had hitherto been carried on between England and Dinant in copper goods. In the 18th century men were brought from

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12. 3. Salz. 132-3, 163; A.I. 116, 120, 142, 179; I.C. ii. 84.

E.C. Llewellyn, *The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary*
Holland to establish the brass manufacture at Bristol. There is great probability that the rise of Birmingham as an industrial centre was due to the immigration of religious refugees from the Low Countries. It is surely significant that its brass manufacture, along with glass-making and engraving, and the making of needles and cutlery should be arts for which we are by common tradition indebted to these refugees.

Godfrey Box of Liége is credited with the introduction of wire-drawing in 1590. Wire-making was started at Esher in Surrey by Mommer and Demetrius, and a Dutchman opened a wire-mill at Richmond in 1662.

Cutlery had long been made at Sheffield, but the improvement in the manufacture of knives in the 16th century was in all probability due to the settlement of Flemish cutlers under the patronage of the Earl of Shrewsbury. Flemings are said to have begun the manufacture of steel at Shotley Bridge near Newcastle. The making of Spanish needles was introduced into England by a German in 1566.

Three terms for the polishing of metals were introduced into Middle English. **Scour** (a. 1366, Chaucer, *Rom. Rose*), to cleanse or polish by hard rubbing with some detergent substance; the word is used figuratively in the *Cursor Mundi*, 13.; probably ad. M.Du. *schüren* (Du. *schuren*, LG. *schüren*, whence M.Sw. and Sw. *skura*, Da. *skure*); Du. has also a vb. *schuieren*, to brush, probably a dial. variant; the Low Dutch word is probably ad. F. *escurer*, but direct adoption from F. for the Eng. word is unlikely, as the Eng. form would have been *scure*. **Shore** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), to scour or cleanse by rubbing; this is apparently a variant of the above; if the source of *scour* be M.Du. *schüren* or MLG. *schüren*, the variation in the initial of *shore* may be due to dialectal difference in the pronunciation of the Low Dutch word; for the pronunciation of the vowel compare the form *score* of *scour*. **Slipe** (1390, Gower), to make smooth, polish, whet, sharpen; ad. M.Du. *slipen* (Du. *slijpen*) or MLG. *slipen* (LG. *slîpen*), to whet.

There are a few words of the goldsmith's and jeweller's craft. Two of them are names for the products of the gold-beater. **Rattle-gold** (1508, *Acc. Ld. H. Treas. Scotl.*), gold leaf or tinsel; ad. e.mod.Du. *ratelgoud* (Kilian), from *ratelen*, to rattle; cf. Du. *klatergoud*. **Clinquant** (1591), glittering with gold or silver, tinselled; (1691), as sb., imitation of gold leaf, Dutch
gold; ad. F. *clinquant*, clinking, tinkling, present pple. of *clinquer*, ad. Du. *klinken*, to clink, ring, found in the 15th century in F. as or *clinquant*, gold in thin plates, gold leaf. A name for a jeweller's tool is *Spit-sticker* (1837), a jeweller's graver or sculper with a convex face; ad. Flem. *spitsteker*.

12. 4.

There is abundant circumstantial evidence for the making of glass in England in the medieval period, but direct records are extremely scarce and are practically confined to one district, Chiddingfold and the neighbouring villages on the borders of Sussex and Surrey, which from the early years of the 13th century were turning out large quantities of glass. It is probable in the case of glass-making, as in so many other industries, that improvements were introduced from abroad. In 1352 we find John de Alemaygne of Chiddingfold supplying large quantities of glass for St. Stephen's Chapel, Westminster, and in January 1355-6 four ‘hundreds’ of glass were bought from the same maker for the windows of St. George's Chapel, Windsor. The modern period of glass-making, however, begins with the coming of the ‘gentilhommes verriers’ from France early in the reign of Elizabeth.

The making of stained glass was not flourishing in England in the 15th century. In 1449 Henry VI brought over from Flanders John Utyman to make glass of all colours for Eton College and the College of St. Mary and St. Nicholas at Cambridge. He was empowered to obtain workmen and materials at the king’s cost, and full protection was granted to him and his family. He was allowed to sell such glass as he made at his own expense, and ‘because the said art had never been used in England, and the said John is to instruct divers in many other arts never used in this realm’, the king granted him a monopoly, no one else being allowed to use such arts for twenty years without his licence under a penalty of £200. A certain amount, especially of coloured glass, was imported. In 1447 the executors of the Earl of Warwick stipulated that no English glass should be used in the windows of his chapel at Warwick. The York accounts show ‘glass of various colours’ bought in 1457 from Peter Faudkent, ‘Dochman’, at Hull. ‘Rennysshe’ glass was bought in 1530. In 1540 the glaziers’ craft complained that Peter Nicholson, a foreign glazier, imported glass ready made, ‘whereby our English men cannot be set to work’.

12. 4. Salz. 183-8; A.I. 143, 177.

E.C. Llewellyn, *The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary*
The glorious windows in King’s College Chapel, Cambridge, were made between 1515 and 1530 by four English and two Flemish glaziers, all of whom were resident in London. There were several glaziers from the Low Countries and France serving Henry VIII and Edward VI. In 1567 Becker and Carré, Low Countrymen, obtained a royal licence for glazing.

There are only two terms of glazing. Grozier (1404, Durh. Acc. Rolls), grozing-iron; in the 14th and 15th centuries the form is groser, and the Eng. word may be formed on a vb. *groze adapted from the Du. vb. gruizen, whence also the F. gruger, to trim glass, break with the teeth, gräsor, grugeoir. Grozing-iron (1688), a tool in the form of nippers formerly used by glaziers in cutting glass; formed after Du. gruisijzer, from gruis, the stem of the vb. gruizen, to trim glass, crush, from gruis, fragments, and ijzer, iron.

12. 5.

The Dutch were pioneers in various refining industries. In the 15th century salt could not be produced in sufficient quantities in England to supply all that was needed for agricultural and domestic consumption, and 60 persons were brought from Holland and Zeeland by John de Schiedame to manufacture salt in England; they were settled at Winchelsea. Later, under Elizabeth, we find Cecil writing in 1563 to Gaspar Seelar, a German, saying that he had obtained for him the queen's licence to manufacture salt and inviting him to come over. There were, however, numerous competing proposals from Francis Bertie of Antwerp, Mount, Back, Backholt, Van Trere and others, Franchard and Baronally; the names of some of these men are obviously Low Dutch.

Proposals for the manufacture of saltpetre were made during the reign of Elizabeth by the Low Countrymen, Stephensson, Leonard Engelbright, and Bovyat.

New processes in the refining of sugar were also brought in from abroad. In 1622 Martin Higger, a German, applied for patent and monopoly for the making of double refined sugar; the art had been introduced twenty-four years earlier by another German, Gaspar Tielm. In 1667 a master boiler came from Holland, and in 1669 Zachariah Zebbs from Germany to the Western Sugar Works at Glasgow. This venture was successful and a sugar refinery, combined with a distillery, was started in 1701, and skilled foreign workmen were brought over.
Potash (1648, Hexham), an alkaline substance obtained originally by leaching the ashes of terrestrial vegetables and evaporating the solution, a crude form of potassium bicarbonate; in the 17th century the form was pot-ashes, plural, apparently ad. e.mod.Du. pot-asschen (Kilian), Du. potasch.

A term of the refining of alum is Slam (1650-1), refuse matter separated from alum in the preparation of this; ad. LG. slam, slime, mud (whence Sw. slam).

A term of salt refining is Loot (1669), a name applied in the Cheshire and Staffordshire salt works to the ladle used to remove the scum from the brine-pan; ad. Du. loet.

There are two terms of sugar refining. Skipper (1688), a sugar-ladle; ad. Du. schepper, scoop, ladle. Skip (a. 1818), to transfer sugar from one vessel to another in the process of manufacture; ad. Du. scheppen, to ladle, dip, bale, draw.

12. 6.12-6.

A number of other industries were started or improved by Low Dutch people.

Their influence is apparent in the making of pottery and earthenware. Jaspar Andreas and Jacob Janssen of Antwerp petitioned in 1570 for a monopoly of the manufacture of galley, i.e. glazed tiles and apothecaries’ vessels. Two brothers, the Elers, came from Amsterdam in 1688 to the Staffordshire pottery district and began the method of salt glazing, making their red ware at Dimsdale and Bradwell, near Burslem, in imitation of the Saxony ware of the period. About twenty years later they removed to one of the suburbs of London, where there were potteries already at Chelsea, Vauxhall, Fulham, Battersea, and Lambeth. All the early stonewares of these potteries were similar to those of Delft and some of the potters at least were probably Dutch. In 1676 John Ariens van Hamme obtained a patent for the art of making tiles, porcelain, and other earthenware after the way practised in Holland. Delft ware was made at this period in Bristol and Liverpool, but there is no evidence of foreign potters. The frequent intercourse between the Eastern Counties and Holland makes it probable that the Delft ware of Lowestoft and Gunton is due originally to the skill of Dutch workmen. In 1703 foreigners came to Edinburgh to establish the art of making earthenware.

We hear of clock-makers from Delft in the reign of Edward III. In the early modern period the clocks made in England were
of French design; but the term ‘Dutch clock’ suggests that clocks of this type were first made in Holland. They were first constructed in England soon after the Restoration by a Dutchman, Fromantil.

Printing had been introduced by Caxton from Flanders in the 15th century, but in the reign of Henry VIII many printers still came from abroad. Bookbinding, too, was largely done by foreigners. In 1590 a German, Peter Groot Heare, and several associates were licensed by the Privy Council of Scotland to make paper for nine years, and in 1687 Peter de Brus, a Fleming, brought over workmen to Scotland to make playing-cards, but his enterprise failed.

Stow says that the making of felt hats was begun in the reign of Henry VIII, and he attributes the first introduction of the art to Spaniards and Dutch. Straw hats were introduced in the same reign by a man of Gueldres. The art of starching linen was unknown in England until Mme Dingham van der Plasse introduced the art in the reign of Elizabeth. For the fee of £5 she was prepared to instruct English gentlewomen in the approved methods of getting up linen, and so greatly was her teaching prized that she soon amassed a considerable estate. Local tradition speaks of Flemings settled in south-east Lancashire in the reign of Edward III and attributes the introduction of clogs to them.

A Fleming, William Boonen, is credited with introducing the use of coaches into England; he is said to have acted as coachman to Queen Elizabeth, who availed herself occasionally of this method of progression.

The making of needles and parchment were subsidiary industries at the Flemish colony at Colchester in the 16th century.

A term of clock-making is **Clock** (1371), in ME. generally an instrument for measurement of time in which hours, &c., are sounded by bells; OE. had *clucge* (once, c. 900), but this word has no historical connexion with the extant word, which goes back apparently only to the 13th or 14th century; ME. *clocke, clok*(ke), was either ad. M.Du. *clocke* (Du. *klok*), bell, clock, or ad. ONF. *cloke, cloque*, corresponding to Central F. *cloche*, bell; it is probable that *clock* was introduced with striking clocks or at least with bells on which the hours were mechanically struck.
One term of watch-making is apparently of Dutch origin. **Stackfreed** (1819), an eccentric wheel or cam attached to the barrels of watches before the invention of the fusee, in order to equalize the force transmitted; the word is of obscure origin but is presumably corrupt Du. or G.; it appears in 18th-century F. in the forms *stockfred, stackfreed, and staakfreed*.

Terms of milling are **Rind** (c. 1343, *Durh. Acc. Rolls*), an iron fitting serving to support an upper millstone on the spindle; corresponds to and perhaps ad. M.Du. *rijn, rîne*, or MLG. *rîn, ryn*, still in use in both languages; the final *-d* of the Eng. word is excrescent. **Stive** (1793), dust, esp. the floating dust or flour during the operation of grinding; ad. Du. *stuive* (given by Kilian as obsolete), related to *stuiven*, to rise as dust; the word seems to have belonged originally to Pembrokeshire, where there was a Flemish colony, and to E. Anglia, where words from Low Dutch are frequent.

A term for a tool in leather-working is **Elsin** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), an awl; ad. M.Du. *elsene*, later *elzen(e)*, Du. *els*, an awl, bradawl; the word was also borrowed into the Romance languages as Sp. *lesna, alesna*, It. *lesina*, F. *alêne*.

There is only one term of printing. **Rounce** (1683), the handle of the winch by which the spit and wheel are turned so as to run the carriage of a hand-press in and out; ad. Du. *ronds(e), ronse*, in the same sense.

A term of rope-making was introduced in the 18th century. **Loper** (1794), a swivel upon which yarns are hooked at one end while being twisted into cordage; O.E.D. says from *lope*, to run and *-er*, but in this sense perhaps another word immediately ad. Du. *looper*, runner.

A term of basket-making is **Skein** (1837), a split of osier after being dressed for use in fine basket-work; ad. Du. *scheen* (M.Du. *scheene*).

In the 18th and 19th centuries were introduced a number of terms for the cutting and polishing of diamonds. The largest centre for this trade was and is at Amsterdam. **Dop** (1764), a small copper cup with a handle, into which a diamond is cemented to be held while being cut; ad. Du. *dop*, shell, husk, cover; the same word as **Dop**, p. 148. **Skive** (1843), a revolving iron disk or wheel used with diamond powder in grinding, polishing, or finishing diamonds or other gems, a lap, a diamond wheel; ad. Du. *schijf* (M.Du. *schîve*). **Trap-cut** (1853), a mode
of cutting gems, mostly used with emeralds, sapphires, and rubies; apparently from Du. *trap*, step, stair, and *cut*. **Trap-brilliant** (1877), in diamond cutting, a form of brilliant in which each of the foundation squares is divided horizontally into two triangular facets cut at an obtuse angle; apparently from Du. *trap* and *brilliant*. **Scaife** (1887), a revolving wheel for polishing diamonds; perhaps ad. Du. *schijf*, disk, wheel; the same word as **Scaife**, p. 106.

In the manufacture of quill pens the term **Dutch** (1763) is used for the process of clarifying and hardening quills by plunging them in heated sand and rapidly passing them through a fire; from **Dutch**, adj.; the process must have been of Dutch invention and borrowed from them.

Another Dutch invention was the mangling of clothing in laundering and bleaching. **Mangle** (1774), a machine for rolling and pressing linen and cotton clothing; ad. Du. *mangel*, apparently short for the synonymous *mangel-stok*, from the stem of *mangelen*, to mangle, from M.Du. *mange*, a mangle, in early use also a mangonel. The vb. **Mangle** (1775) is from the sb. or perhaps immediately ad. Du. *mangelen*.

Two words are the names of parts of machines. **Trigger** (1621), a movable catch or lever which releases a detent or spring and sets some force or mechanism in motion; in the 17th and 18th centuries also **tricker**, ad. Du. *trekker*, a trigger, from *trekken*, to pull; the form **trigger** occurs in 1660, but **tricker** remained the usual form down to c. 1750, and is still in dial. use from Scotland to the Midlands. **Cam** (1777), a projecting part of a wheel adapted to impart a variable or alternating motion to another piece pressed against it; probably ad. Du. *kam* (M.Du. *cam*), the same word as Eng. comb., but also applied to ‘a toothed rim or part of a wheel, teeth of a wheel’, as in Du. *kamrad*, toothed wheel, cog-wheel; the Du. word was borrowed into F. as **came**, cog, tooth, catch of a wheel, and the Eng. word may be partly from French.

There are a few words which are undoubtedly technical terms, but are difficult to assign to any particular craft or trade. **Furison** (1536, from Sc.), the steel used for striking fire from flint; ad. M.Du. *vuurijzen* (in Kilian, *vierijzen*), from *vuur*, fire, and *ijzen*, *ijzer*, iron. **Drill** (1611), an instrument for drilling or boring; in this sense probably immediately from Du. *dril*, *drille*, in the same sense (in Kilian, 1599) from the vb. *drillen*; in the
military sense the word is probably from the vb. in English. The verb is later, Drill (1649), to pierce or bore a hole; ad. Du. drillen, to drill, bore; (1681), to turn round and round; the Du. word had also this meaning, M.Du. drillen, to bore, turn in a circle, brandish (MLG. drillen, to roll, turn). Shot-prop (1875), a shot-plug; perhaps after Du. geschut-prop.
Chapter XIII
The influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary of Science, Literature, and Art

13. 1. It is extremely difficult to delimit the influence of Low Dutch upon the literary vocabulary. Every Englishman who could read a book in a Low Dutch language or who studied in the Low Countries was liable to it. It is, then, the least sharply defined channel through which Low Dutch influence entered, but nevertheless certain definite facts emerge.

A greatly increased desire for knowledge of foreign languages and ways in the 15th century was due to the growth of foreign trade, and skill in languages seems to have been highly valued. When John Paston recommended a Clerk of the Kitchen to Lord Hastings, he said of him: 'He is well spoken in Inglyshe, metly well in Frenshe and verry perfite in Flemyshe, he can wryght and reed.'

At the Renaissance Low Country scholars appeared at our universities to lecture and teach. In the Elizabethan period troops of English actors toured the Continent and visited many Low Country and Low German towns; the English plays which they performed came in the nature of a revelation.

From about 1590 intellectual life began to revive in the two commercial provinces of the Netherlands, and art, letters, and science made Holland a focus of intellectual development. Leyden university attracted the best elements and was the centre of learned studies. The famous teachers were Lipsius (till 1590), Scaliger, Heinsius, and Dousa. Under their leadership was educated a throng of young students of the classics, who introduced scientific methods into the municipal Latin schools of Holland and the neighbouring provinces and into other universities and schools in Europe. There were other universities at Groningen (from 1614) and at Harderwijk, the Frisian university. Many Protestant foreigners, Englishmen, Frenchmen, Danes, Swiss, and Germans, thronged the Dutch schools at this period, and the foreign students numbered almost as many as the native ones. The Low German universities also attracted English students. It was quite a common practice for English gentle-

13. 1. Blok, iii. 342-8; iv. 63; Abram, 177.
men making the Grand Tour in the 17th century to matriculate at one of these universities, as, for example, did Evelyn at Leyden.

The Court at the Hague about 1640 was one of the most brilliant in Europe and a school for young courtiers and princes. German, French, English, Swedish, and Danish noblemen sent their sons there to learn what a nobleman ought to know.

13. 2.

In the 16th century the foundations of modern botany were laid by Low Dutch scholars, whose works were translated and adapted into English and inspired the studies and the achievement of the school of English botanists known as the Herbalists, many of whose terms were taken directly or adapted from Dutch.

William Turner published in 1538 his *Libellus de Re Herbaria*, a book which practically initiated the study of botany at Cambridge. He travelled in Holland, Germany, and Italy after 1540, and at Zurich became intimate with Conrad Gesner, the famous naturalist. Turner collected plants in many parts of the Rhine country and in Holland and East Friesland, where he became physician to the 'Erle of Emden', and made botanical expeditions to the islands lying off the Frisian coast. During this time he wrote his famous *Herbal*, but delayed its publication until he returned to England. Turner was the first Englishman who studied plants scientifically.

Henry Lyte's first and most important work was his translation of the *Cruydeboeck* (publ. Antwerp, 1554) by the great Flemish botanist Rembert Dodoens of Mechlin, which he made from the French translation of De l'Escluse. The first edition of the translation was printed at Antwerp in order to secure the woodcuts of the original. It bears the title: 'A nieue Herball or Historie of Plantes ... first set forth in the Doutche or Almaigne tongue by that learned D. Rembert Dodoens, Physitian to the Emperour, and now first translated out of French into English by Henry Lyte, Esquyer.' This was a work of far-reaching influence on English botanical studies.

John Gerard published his *Herball* in 1597. This is in the main a translation, begun by Dr. Priest, of Dodoens's *Pemptades*, with more than 1,800 woodcuts, mostly by Bergzabern of Frankfurt.

In his *Names of Herbes* (1548) Turner is responsible for the following. **Buckwheat**, a species of edible grain, with three-cornered seeds like beechnuts; probably a translation of Du. *boekweit*; Lyte says of it in his *Dodoens*, *very common in the lands of Brabant called Kempene, in base Almaigne, Boekweydt, after which name it may be Englished Bockwheat*; Googe, *Heresbach's Husb.* (1577), used the form *beechwheat*, thinking no doubt of the shape of the grains, and also *buck*, short for *buckwheat*. **Crane's-bill, Cranesbill**, a name for various species of the genus *Geranium*; a translation of Du. *craenhals* (G. *kranichhals*, MLG. *kraneshals*). **Neeze-wort**, a former name of *Hellebore*; ad. Du. *nies-wortel* (also *nieskruid*) or G. *nies(e)-wurz(el)*. **Soapwort**, one or other of herbaceous plants which yield a saponaceous principle; an Anglicizing of Du. *zeepkruid* or G. *seifenkraut*. **Wintercress**, any of the cruciferous herbs of the genus *Barbarea*, the leaves of which were formerly used for a winter salad; after Du. *winterkers*. **Wintergreen**, the name for various plants of low growth and creeping habit whose leaves remain green in winter; after Du. *wintergreen*. **Woundwort**, a popular name given to various plants from their use in healing wounds; from *wound* and *wort*, after Du. *wondkruid* or G. *wundkraut*.


Lyte introduced many new words in his *Dodoens* (1578). **Brantcorn**, blight or smut; ad. M.Du. *brant koren*, lit. burnt corn. **Buck-bean**, bogbean; in Lyte *Buckes beanes*, which translates the Flm. *boxxboonen*; later transformed to *buck-bean*; O.E.D. translates *bovx-boonen* by 'goats' beans, but *Ndl. Wdb.* states that the sense of *bocx, boks*, in this combination does not

**Henbit**, ‘called of the base Almaignes Hoenderbeet’, the name given to two common weeds, the Ivy-leaved Speedwell and a species of Deadnettle; from *hen* and *bit*, after the Du. name. **Rhein-berry**, the buckthorn berry; ad. M.Du. *rijnbesie*, from *Rijn*, Rhine, and *besie*, berry. **Rosewort**, roseroof; from *rose* and *wort*, probably after Du. *roosenwortel* (Kilian) or G. *rosenwurz*. **Standelwort**, stand-grass; ad. MLG. *standel-, stendelwort*, from *standel*, *stendel*, from the root of the vb. to stand and *wort*, wort. **Sundew**, any plant of the genus *Drosera*, which comprises small herbs growing in bogs, with leaves covered with glandular hairs secreting viscid drops which glitter in the sun like dew; ad. e.mod.Du. *son-, sundauw* (G. *sonnentau*), a translation of L. *rōs sōlis*. **Weedwind**, black bindweed, also wild convolvulus; ad. M.Du. *wedewinde*, with assimilation of the first element to Eng. *weed*. **Whitewort**, a name for several plants with white flowers or roots, as Feverfew, Solomon's seal; from *white* and *wort*, after Du. *witwortel* (G. *weisswurz*).


Two words appear first in the *Herball* of Gerard (1597). **Dewgrass**, a name given by Gerard and other early herbalists to an esculent grass of Central Europe; from *dew* and *grass*, suggested by LG. *himmeldau* (med.L. *rōs caeli*), ‘dew of heaven’, manna. **Guelder rose**, the snowball tree, named from Guelders, a town in Germany, on the border of Holland, or from Guelderland, a province of Holland, formerly a German duchy of which Guelders was the capital; so Du. *Geldersche roos*, G. *Gelderische rose*, F. *rose de Gueldres*.

Much later comes a word introduced by Parkinson in his *Theat. Bot.* (1640). **Glidewort**, an old name for a species of *Sideritis*; a half-adoption, half-translation of M.Du. *glidcruyt*, Du. *glidkruit*, or G. *glidkraut*; the first element seems to mean limb, in reference to the use of the herb as a remedy for gout.

One word, **Boor’s Mustard**, has altered its form since its first introduction by the Herbalists; Turner, in 1548, translated the G. *Baurenseufe* by *Boures Mustard*, and the 1578 and 1579 quotations in O.E.D. have the forms *bowers* and *bowiers* or...
bowyers mustard, which must be from the G. Bauren; but the last quotation, from Britten and Holland, Plant Names (1878), is spelled Boor's Mustard, so that the original Du. word has supplanted the G.; Du. has the same name, Boeren mosterd (Bense).

One plant name comes in at a period far anterior to that of the Herbalists. Buschborne (1513, Douglas, Aeneis), boxwood or box; ad. M.Du. buschboom, variant of bosboom; the curious form buschboun in Douglas is derived by O.E.D. from the Flem. busboom.

13. 3.

In the 16th and 17th centuries English scholars were much influenced in medicine and surgery by the practice of the Dutch. Dutch and Low German books were translated and Low Dutch medical and surgical terms transferred into the English vocabulary.

The following appear first in Andrew Brunswyke's Distilled Waters (1527). Droppell, in dropell-piss, -pysse, strangury; ad. MLG. or M.Du. droppel, small drop. Spean, a swelling of the uvula; ad. M.Du. or MLG. spene (Du. and Flem. speen, LG. spene, spâne); this word appears later in Twyne, Aeneid (1573), in the sense 'a teat or nipple, esp. of a cow', and is perhaps a popular borrowing of agriculture. Spole-worm, a tape-worm infesting the human body; ad. older Flem. spoel-worm (Kilian). Wrat, wart; ad. MLG. wratte (LG. wrat, Du. wrat), or a metathetic variant of wart.

From Hollybush's Hom. Apoth. (1561) comes Skalfering, scurfiness or scurvy; from LG. schalter or Du. schelcer, variant of schilfer (see Skilfer, below). 'A.M.' in his translations of medical works is responsible for some Low Dutch borrowings. In the translation of Guillemeau's Fr. Chirurg. (1597) appears Skilfer, a small piece, splinter; ad. Du. schilfer, earlier schelcer, scale, fragment; he uses it in the same sense in his translation of Gäbelhouer's Bk. Physicke (1599), and also in the sense 'scurf, dandruff'. In this same work appear Kneeshive, the kneecap, from G. kneischeibe or Du. knieschijf, and Sliss, to slake or slack lime; ad. Du. or Flem. slissen, to slake.

Later is Slenker (1658, A. Fox, Würzt' Surg.), to dangle, swing; ad. LG. slenckern or G. schlenkern.

13. 4.

In the 16th and 17th centuries English scholars were much influenced also by Dutch and Low German work in the various branches of natural history and science. The close
The relation between the learned men of all nations, which is characteristic of later times, ensured that any advance in studies in Low Dutch lands almost immediately influenced English studies.

The following are terms of Ornithology. **Wing-thrush** (1544, Turner, *Avium Praecip.*), the redwing thrush; O.E.D. suggests that this word perhaps arose from a misunderstanding of LG. *winggaardsvogel, weingardtrossel*, from *winggaard*, vineyard, and *vogel*, bird, and *drossel*, thrush; also that perhaps the word never had any currency. **Siskin** (1562, Turner, *Herbal*), a small songbird, in some respects closely allied to the goldfinch; ad. G. dial. *sisschen or zeischen* or older Flem. *sijsken, cijsken* (Kilian, Du. and Flem. *sijsje, Du. sijsen*), a diminutive form based on the MHG. *zîsec*, MLG. *ziseke, sisek*, which are apparently of Slavonic origin. **Miskin** (1585, Higins, *Junius' Nomenclator*), a titmouse; probably a diminutive of M.Du. *meese*, Du. *mees*, titmouse. **Nine-killer** (1678, Ray, *Willughby's Ornith.*), the butcher-bird or shrike; a translation of Du. *negendooder* or G. *neuntödter*.

There are a few terms of Zoology. **Flewen** (1494), a polecat; ad. M.Du. *fluwijn*, probably a corruption of F. *fouine*. **Roddikin** (1599), the fourth stomach of a ruminant animal; perhaps ad. Du. or Flem. *roodekin*, diminutive of *roode* (Kilian); this was perhaps a popular borrowing as a farming term. **Rell-mouse** (1752), the dormouse; ad. Du. *relmuis* or G. *rellmaus*.

A term of Entomology is **Dop** (1700, Leuwenhoeck), the pupa case or cocoon of an insect; ad. Du. *dop*, shell, husk, cover; this is the same word as **Dop**, p. 140.


Two terms of Physics were introduced in the 17th century. **Blas** (1662), a name for a supposed ‘flatus’ or influence of the stars producing changes of weather coined by the Fleming, J.B. van Helmont (1577-1644), in his *Oriatrike or Physics Refined* (trans. by J. C(handler)), most probably after the M.Du. *blaes*, which as late as the 17th century had the sense ‘wind’, or else he took over the MLG. *blas*, ‘der Hauch’; van Helmont also coined *Gas*, but it has not been included here because it did not have a Low Dutch basis. **Weather-wiser** (1667, Sprat,
Hist. Roy. Soc.), an instrument serving to foretell the weather; ad. Du. *wederwijzer, weerwijzer*, from *weder, weer*, weather, and *wijzer*, agent noun from *wijzen*, to show.

The few terms of Archaeology and Antiquarianism are late and mostly refer to remains peculiar to the Low Dutch region. Gilbert White, however, in his *Selborne* (1778), introduced *Sproutcale*, which he thought was the Anglo-Saxon name for the month of February, ‘our Saxon ancestors certainly had some sort of cabbage because they call the month of February sprout-cale’; it seems to be an erroneous rendering of older Flem. *sprock-kelle* (Du. *sprokkelmaand*). *Terp* (plural *terpen*, 1838), an artificial mound or hillock, the site of a prehistoric village and still in many cases occupied by a village or church, in parts of Friesland below sea-level or liable to inundation; these terpen, like the Italian *terramares*, have in modern times been excavated for the sake of the fertilizing soil which they yield and more recently for the prehistoric remains found in them; the name has thus passed into archaeological use; W.Fris. *terp*, village, mound, E.Fris. *terp*, N.Fris. *têrp*, *sarp*, village, O.Fris. *therp*, umlaut variant of O.Fris. *thorp*, village.

There are a few terms of Mineralogy. *Tarras* (1612, Sturtevant, *Metallica*), a kind of rock consisting largely of comminuted pumice, found along the Rhine between Cologne and Mainz, and formerly imported into Holland for making hydraulic cement, hence the mortar or cement made of this; ad. e.mod.Du. *terras, tiras* (Kilian), Du. *tras*, G. *trasz*, terrasz; of Romance origin, cf. OF. *terrace*, It. *terraccia*, rubble or rubbish. Also found as an independent borrowing in the form *Trass* (1796), ad. Du. *tras* or G. *trasz*. *Willemite* (1850), native silicate of zinc found in masses of crystals; ad. Du. *Willem* (A. Levy, 1829), from Willem, William I of the Netherlands.

The channel of entry of the following word is hard to determine. *Lacmus* (1794, Sullivan, *View Nature*), litmus; ad. Du. *lakmoes*, from *lak*, of doubtful origin, and *moes*, pulp. Litmus itself comes in as a dyeing term; perhaps lacmus is a term of Botany; its second appearance in 1812, J. Smyth, *Pract. of Customs*, favours dyeing or trade.

One term of Bibliography has been formed in imitation of the Dutch or German. *Offprint* (1885, Skeat in *Academy*), a separately printed copy of an article; from *off* and *print*, in imitation of the Du. *afdruk*.
The intimate relations between England and the Low Countries in matters of religion and theology is reflected in a few words. **Arminian** (1618), from the proper name Arminius, the latinized surname of the Dutch Protestant theologian, Jacob Harmensen; as his doctrines were embraced in whole or part by large sections of the Reformed Churches, his name became well known in England from the year of the Synod of Dort (1618-19) and has been used as an adj. and sb. ever since; it has become so thoroughly English as to have the following derivatives: Arminianish, Arminianism, to Arminianize, Arminianizer (Bense). **Waterlander** (1860), the section of the Mennonites who held the least strict doctrine of excommunication; from Waterland, a district in north Holland, and -er.

A name for members of a school of hagiology is **Bollandist** (1751), the name given to the Jesuit writers who continued the work called *Acta Sanctorum*, begun by the Flemish Jesuit, John Bolland, who lived in the 17th century.

William Caxton used a great number of Flemish words in his writings, and his contribution to the vocabulary is so large as to require a separate section with some account of his life and residences in the Low Countries. Caxton’s great influence as the first English printer gave sufficient authority to some of these new words to maintain them in the English vocabulary; the majority, however, did not catch on and are to be found only in Caxton’s writings.

Caxton, according to his own statement in the Prologue to *The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*, ‘was born ... in Kente in the Weeld’. He was apprenticed to a London draper named Large; after his master’s death, but still under the terms of his apprenticeship, he left England for Bruges, where there was a large colony of English merchants. For the next thirty years he lived in the Low Countries. In 1446 Caxton came out of his apprenticeship and set up business for himself at Bruges, and in 1453 he entered the livery of the Mercers’ Company in London.

Edward IV had granted in 1462 a charter to the Merchant Adventurers for the better government of their members living in the Low Countries, and permission was given them to appoint a governor for themselves at Bruges. Caxton fulfilled the duties

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of the office until the appointment was ratified and before 1465 was definitely appointed governor. This points to Caxton's high standing in the English colony, for the duties of the office were most responsible; with the help of a small jury of fellow merchants he decided all disputes between English merchants in the Low Countries, he regulated and supervised the importation and exportation of merchandise, and he corresponded with the English Government on commercial matters.

Caxton frequently acted as envoy and ambassador for the English king. In 1464 a commercial treaty between England and the Low Countries was about to lapse, and Caxton and Sir Richard Whitehill were commissioned to negotiate for its renewal. The treaty, however, was not renewed, and Philip the Good of Burgundy excluded all English cloth from his dominions. The English Government in retaliation prohibited the import of all Flemish goods. The English merchants were driven to smuggling, and in 1466 the Earl of Warwick ordered Caxton to enforce penalties against them. The accession of Charles the Bold improved relations between the two countries, especially when the new Duke married Margaret, the sister of Edward IV. Caxton and two other English envoys were able to restore the trading relationships to their old footing. Caxton's official business sometimes took him far afield; there are records of several visits to Utrecht to treat with the Hanse, to the Hague, Middelburg, Gouda, and Cologne.

In spite of the press of business in these official years, Caxton seems to have found time to begin that long series of translations which engaged him up to the end of his life. In 1469 he started the translation of the *Recueil des Histoires de Troye*. He was greatly in favour with the Duchess of Burgundy from her first arrival in the Low Countries, and more and more tended to withdraw himself from commerce for the household service of the Duchess.

Caxton became acquainted with the newly discovered art of printing at the early press at Cologne, when he visited that city on official business in 1471. The *Recuyell* was probably printed in 1474, but the date and the exact circumstances of printing are not certain. There is doubt where Caxton learned the art. The opinion usually received is that Caxton and the Bruges printer, Colard Mansion, learned it together at Cologne, and that when Mansion set up a press in Bruges about 1473,
Caxton supplied him with the money. The absence from the *Recuyell* of many of the technical points met with in the Cologne books of this time and the presence of many, though not all, of those found in the early books of the Mansion press at Bruges point to the conclusion that Caxton printed this book at Bruges.

In 1476 Caxton left Bruges to set up the first printing-press in England, and on the 18th of November, 1477, printed at Westminster *The Dictes or Sayenges of the Philosophres*, the first book printed in England. From 1477 to the end of his life Caxton was wholly employed in printing and translating. His industry in those years was immense. He printed nearly eighty separate books, some of them going to two and three editions, and translated twenty-one books from the French and one from the Dutch. He printed in most cases on paper made in the Low Countries and imported; very rarely he used vellum.

Caxton from his thirty years' residence in the Netherlands must have been perfectly bilingual. It is obvious that he thought as easily in Flemish as in English, and when he needed a word, the Flemish sometimes sprang to his mind instead of its English equivalent. It is therefore not surprising to find that, even when he is translating from French into English, the occasional Flemish word intrudes into the English text, sometimes for the commonest words for which the English term must have been perfectly familiar to him. Flemish words are most frequent, as is only to be expected, in the one translation which he made out of the Flemish. These words seemed so natural to Caxton that he simply transferred them to his English page, the corresponding English word never having entered his head.

In the *Recuyell*, translated 1471, appears **Winbrow**, an eyebrow; ad. MLG. *winbrâ*. 

*The Game and Playe of the Chesse*, 1474, has **Butter**, used by Caxton in the sense 'one who cheats at cards'; apparently ad. M.Du. or Flem. *botter*, in the same sense. **Spincop**, a spider; ad. older Flem. *spinnekoppe* (Kilian, Du., and Flem. *spinnekop*, from *spinne*, spider, or *spinnen*, to spin).

In the *Metamorphoses of Ovyde*, translated 1480, appears **Bedwynge**, to constrain, restrain; probably ad. Flem. *bedwingen*; Caxton used the pa. pple. of this verb in *Reynart*, 1481.

In the *Dialogues* of c. 1481 appear **Mecop**, the poppy; ad. Flem. *mêkop*, from *mên* (corresponding to Du. *maan*), poppy,
and *kop*, head. **Meese**, a tom-tit; ad. M.Du. *mese*, corresponding to ME. *mose*, whence corruptly *mouse* in *titmouse*.

One Flemish word comes in the *Godeffroy of Bolyne*, translated 1481. **Pote**, a paw; ad. M.Du. *pote* (Du. *poot*).

The great bulk of Caxton's Flemish words are to be found in *The Historye of Reynart the Foxe*, 1481. This is to be expected, as he had before him a Flemish original; he said himself in the Epilogue to that work: 'For I haue not added ne mynusshed but haue followed as nyghe as I can my copye which was in dutche, and by me willm Caxton translated in to this rude and simple englysshe.'

**After-deal**, the hind parts, posteriors; probably ad. M.Du. *achterdēl* (Du. and W.Flem. *achterdeel*), in the same sense; but it is possible that this was an English word of native formation.

**Bedrive**, to commit, perpetrate, do; ad. older Flem. *bedrijven* (Kilian), in the same senses, and also intrans. 'to have to do with'. **Boussing**, only in Caxton; fitchew, polecat; ad. M.Du. *bûsinc* (also *bunzinc*, Du. *bunsing*), polecat. **Bruin**, in Caxton *brune, brunne, bruyn*; the name of the brown bear in *Reynart the Foxe*; M.Du. *bruun, bruyn, brun*, brown; one of the few of Caxton's Flemish borrowings that have held their ground in the English vocabulary; it has even advanced so far in the direction of a common noun as to be often written without the capital B; the modern pronunciation of Bruin with two syllables points to a borrowing of the spoken from the written word Bruin or Bruyn, as in Flemish the word was of one syllable. **Berisp**, to censure, reproach; ad. Flem. *berispen*, in the same sense. **Boil**, an inflamed tumour; O.E.D. states that it is not clear whether this form of OE. *bȳl* is due to association with the verb *boil* (ad. OF. *boillir*) or influenced by Dutch or other forms; it is clear, however, that the plural form *bules*, used by Caxton in the sense 'swelling', is the M.Du. *bûle, buul* or the LG. *bule*; this form and sense are peculiar to Caxton.


verslinger en, from ver, for-, and slinger en, to twist, throw. Forwitting, reproach; from for-, prefix, and wite, vb., and -ing, after Du. verwijten. Glim, to shine, gleam; ad. M.Du. glim men, to glow. Grate, the backbone of a fish; ad. Flem. graet, Du. graat. Growl, used impersonally, it grows me, ‘I have a feeling of terror or horror’; ad. M.Du. grouwelen, grouwelen, used impersonally in the same sense.

Lock, to allure, entice; ad. M.Du. locken. Loss, a lynx; ad. M.Du. los (corresponding to OE. lox, OHG. luhs); Caxton's lossem represents the unexplained variant lossen of the Dutch original.

Meerkat, a monkey; ad. Du. meerkat, monkey, apparently from meer, sea, and kat, cat. Mermoyse, marmoset; ad. M.Du. mermoyse, marmoeyse, believed to be a shortening of F. marmouset. Mis-deal, to distribute unfairly; from mis- and deal, but here in this sense after Du. misdeelen. Mis-sake, to deny, renounce; ad. M.Du. missaecken (Du. miszaken). Mouse-hunt, a weasel, and generally an animal that hunts mice; ad. M.Du. muushont, weasel (Du. muishond), from muus, mouse, and hont, dog; there may also have been an English word from mouse and hunt.

Palster, a pilgrim's staff; ad. M.Du. and Du. palster, stick with iron spike, pilgrim's staff; cf. OE. palstr, palester, spike. Plaghe, to afflict with plague; Caxton's spelling plaghe was from M.Du. plaghen. Plump, blunt (in manners), dull; (1545, Ascham), of an arrowhead, blunt; (1545, as Plumpness), of full and rounded form; the primary and secondary senses correspond to M.Du. plomp, blunt in both senses, not pointed and not sharp, Du. plomp, plump, blunt, thick, coarse, clownish, dull, MLG. plump, plomp, massive, unshapen, blunt, stumpy, LG. plump, coarse, clumsy; the English word is probably from Low Dutch, and the later English senses appear to belong to the same word passing through the sense ‘blunt, rounded, not sharp’ into a eulogistic sense, perhaps through some association with plum, adj. and vb.

Rat, the wheel which was formerly used in one way of executing criminals and on which the dead bodies were afterwards exposed; ad. M.Du. and MLG. rat, rad or Da. rat (itself from LG.). Rutsel, to slide; ad. M.Du. rutselen, frequentative of rutsen, rotsen, to slide.

Scat, treasure; ad. M.Du. schat (MLG. schat, OE. sceat, ON.)

Tattle, to speak hesitatingly, stammer, falter; in Caxton reproduces M.Flem. tatelen, a parallel form to the more usual M.Flem., M.Du., and MLG. tateren, with change of frequentative suffixes -er and -el. Tibert, the name of the cat in the apologue of Reynard the Fox, thence used as a quasi-proper name for any cat, and as a proper noun, a cat; ad. Flem. and Du. Tybert, Tibeert, OF. Tiber.

Wapper, sb. and vb., perhaps a leaden ball attached to a strap used as a striking weapon; ad. M.Du. wapper, cognate with wapperen, to swing. Warren, a piece of land enclosed and used for breeding game; ad. OF. warenne, but the form in Reynard is warande, adapted from the form in the Dutch original. Wentle, to roll or tumble about; ad. M.Du. wentelen (Du., MLG., and LG. wentelen). Wraw, to mewl, as a cat, to mew; ad. M.Du. wrauwen, of imitative origin. Wyke, to give way, withdraw; ad. M.Du. wijcken (Du. wijken), to give way, depart.

In the Boke for Travelers (c. 1483) appears Corf, a basket; the word has not been found in English before the 15th century and is probably from Low Dutch, which has the following forms, M.Du. corf, and korf, Du. and LG. korf.

One word appears in the Dialogues (c. 1483). Morberies, mulberry; after M.Du. moerbesie.

Spin-rock (1483, G. de la Tour), a distaff; ad. M.Du. spin-rooke, -roc, -rocken (Du. rokken); the word had some currency in the 17th century, probably as a fresh borrowing. Biseten (1483, Golden Legend); this is the only ME. instance of biseten for beset; Caxton must have used the M.Du. beseten, 'possessed with devils, mad', which suits the sense exactly. Okselle (1489, Fayettes of Armes), the armpit; apparently ad. M.Du. oeksele (Du. oksel, Flem. oksele). Mow (1489, Sonnes of Aymon), fleshy part, muscle; ad. M.Du. mouwe.
The current spelling of Ghost (OE. gāst, ME. gōst), has been influenced by the practice of Caxton; the spelling with gh-, so far as the material of the O.E.D. shows, appears first in Caxton, who was probably influenced by the gh- spelling common in M.Du. and M.Flem. gheest beside geest; this gh- spelling in English remained rare until the middle of the 16th century and was not completely established before c. 1590.

13. 7. 13. 7.

The Low Dutch peoples, who produced the great Flemish and Dutch Schools of painting, had a great influence on painting and the fine arts in England, and this influence is reflected in the English vocabulary of art.

The flourishing medieval school of native English art decayed, and during the 16th and 17th centuries England was content to import art and artists. It did not seem to occur to the English that England required painters born of the country. Foreign artists were attracted to England and among them a few great masters, who were covered with honours, even to the extent of receiving titles. By far the greater number of these artists came from the Low Countries and were representatives of the flourishing Dutch and Flemish Schools.

The first great Dutch master to come over was ANTHONIS MOR of Utrecht, who had been Court painter in Spain and was in the train of Philip when he came to this country to marry Mary. Mor only remained here for a few years, but long enough to paint some glorious portraits.

In the reign of James I quite a colony of Dutch and Flemish artists settled in London. The most prominent were PAUL VAN SOMER of Antwerp, who was the favourite painter of James's queen, Anne of Denmark, DANIEL MYTENS of the Hague, who afterwards became King's painter to Charles I, GEORGE GELDORP of Amsterdam, the great friend of Van Dyck, and JANSEN VAN CEULEN, born in London in the Dutch colony there and for twenty years the most fashionable painter of the nobility and gentry.

ANTHONIS VAN DYCK of Antwerp, a member of the school of the great Rubens, came to England in 1620, but stayed for only a year. When he returned in 1632, Charles I treated him with unusual honour; he was knighted as Sir Anthony Van Dyck and married a granddaughter of the Earl of Gowrie. His working period in England was six and a half years, and then he returned

13. 7.  D.N.B. articles on the artists whose names are cited in the text.
to Antwerp at Rubens's death to take over his school. By his supreme elegance and the aristocratic poetry of his style he is considered the father of the English School, which in its finest moments was, beyond everything, a school of portrait painters. Van Dyck had a few English pupils, including Dobson, Jameson, and the miniaturist Cooper; but his principal followers were, like himself, Low Countrymen.

Some of the members of this school returned home during the Civil War, as did Mytens and Van Ceulen, but others stayed on. Sir Peter Lely of Haarlem, whose real name was Pieter van der Faes, had a considerable private practice during the Commonwealth and even painted Cromwell. At the Restoration he was taken into high favour by Charles II, who kept him continually employed. So enormous was his practice that he was forced to keep a number of assistants to paint draperies and backgrounds. They were mostly Low Countrymen, some of them, like Gaspars of Antwerp, Lankrink of Antwerp, Roestaten of Amsterdam, a pupil of Franz Hals, Adriaen van Diest of the Hague, being considerable painters themselves. Lely had English pupils too, such as Greenhill and Mary Beale. Lely's only rivals in portrait painting until the arrival of Kneller were Jacob Huysmans of Antwerp and Simon Verelst of the Hague.

Sir Godfrey Kneller was born at Lübeck, but all his training was at Amsterdam. He came over to London at the invitation of a wealthy Hamburg merchant and succeeded Lely as the most fashionable portrait painter; he was especially favoured by William III, who knighted him. Kneller, too, kept a great number of assistants, mostly Low Countrymen. He amassed great wealth by his painting.

Not all the Low Country artists settled in London. Some of the lesser men went to the provinces, where they escaped the competition of Lely and Kneller. Thus van der Eyden of Brussels settled at Northampton and Van Rymsdyck at Bristol.

Not all the painters were portrait painters. The two Van de Veldes of Leyden were 'painters of sea-fights to their Majesties, King Charles II and King James II'; Lankrink and Jan Looten of Amsterdam were landscape painters; Van Huysum of Amsterdam and Verelst were painters of flowers, and Roestaten and Jan van Son of Antwerp were painters of still life.
Even when great native English painters appeared, Low Countrymen frequently assisted them in the painting of draperies and accessories; thus VAN HAECKEN of Antwerp helped Hudson, and Alan Ramsay and PETER VANDYKE of Holland helped Reynolds.

Some Dutch engravers also came to England to practise their art. JAN VAN DER VAART of Haarlem was a mezzotint engraver and instructed the great English engraver John Smith. Other engravers were VAN DER GUCHT of Antwerp and ROBERT VAN VOERST of Arnhem.

Masterpiece (1579, Aberd. Reg.), a production of art and skill surpassing in excellence all others by the same hand; from master and piece, probably after Du. meesterstuk or G. meisterstück, which occurs much earlier and primarily denoted the piece of work by which a craftsman gained from his guild the recognized title of ‘master’; this word should perhaps be included among technical terms of industries and crafts and not among terms of art.

Manikin (1570), a little man, dwarf, pigmy; ad. Du. mannekin, diminutive of man, man; in the 1570 quotation, from Dee, the word has the sense of ‘an artist's lay-figure’ and was apparently borrowed from Du. in that sense. Sap-green (1578), a green pigment prepared from the juice of Buckthorn berries; from sap and green, probably after Du. sapgroen.

Lief-hebber (1564, Bramhall, Answ. to Militiere: ‘Put a Lief-hebber or Virtuoso among a company of rare pictures, and he will pick out the best pieces for their proper value’); an amateur; ad. Du. liefhebber, agent noun from liefhebben, to hold dear, from lief, dear, and hebben, to have. Maulstick (1658), a light stick used by painters as a support for the right hand and held in the left; ad. Du. maalstok, from malen, to paint, and stok, stick. Sketch (1668), a rough drawing of something; ad. Du. schets or G. skizze, earlier skitze, skize (neither of which is recorded before the 17th century), ad. It. schizzo; the foreign origin of the word in English is indicated in the uncertain spellings, as schytz (1691) and schetse (1697).

Easel (1634), a wooden frame used to support a picture while the painter is at work upon it; ad. Du. ezel (G. esel), ass; compare the similar use of horse. Etch (1634), to engrave by ‘eating away’ the surface with acids or other corrosives; ad. Du. etsen, ad. G. ätzen, to etch, from MHG. etzen, atzen, to cause to eat.

The verb Sketch (1694) is later than the sb.; to draw the
outline, to make a rough drawing; from sketch, sb. or ad. Du. schetsen. Lay-man (1688), lay figure; ad. Du. leeman, for ledenman, from led, ‘membrum, articulus’ (Kilian), now lid, limb, joint, and man, man. Lay-figure (1795), a jointed wooden figure of the human body, used by artists for the arrangement of draperies, posing, &c.; lay in this combination is from the obsolete lay-man. Landscape (1598), a picture representing natural inland scenery as distinguished from a sea-picture, portrait, &c.; ad. Du. landschap, from land, land, and schap, ship; the corrupt form in -skip was, according to the quotations in O.E.D., a few years earlier than the usual form; the forms landtschap, -skap are also found. Skape (1773) is a back-formation from landscape; it is also found as the second element of combs., as seascape, cloudscape.
Chapter XIV
The Influence of South African Dutch or Afrikaans on the English Vocabulary

14. 1. 1

Some fifty years after its foundation the Dutch East India Company found the need for a halfway halt for its ships on the long voyage to the Indies. In 1652 one of its servants, Van Riebeek, arrived at the Cape of Good Hope to form a refreshment station in Table Bay. The policy of the Company was to keep the new settlement entirely for their own uses, and most of the settlers were discharged soldiers of their own. So slow was the development of the Cape that by 1792 there was a white population of only about 15,000. There was no intercourse with any nation except the Dutch, for the Company kept a strict monopoly of trade.

English influence in South Africa dates from the end of the 18th century. In 1794-5 the Netherlands declared themselves a republic under the title of the Batavian Republic and entered into close alliance with France. The British Government immediately fitted out an expedition to seize the Cape Colony, and obtained a mandate from the stadholder William V, who had taken refuge in England, requiring the authorities in Capetown to admit the English troops. In June 1795 the English occupied Simonstown and by September the feeble Dutch resistance had ended, Capetown surrendered, and the rule of the East India Company ended in South Africa after over a hundred and forty-three years. An attempt to regain the colony failed when a Dutch fleet was trapped and forced to surrender in Saldanha Bay (1796).

The first English occupation lasted until 1803, when under the terms of the Treaty of Amiens the Cape was restored to the Dutch. It was noted that, owing to the similarity of race, intermarriage between English and Dutch began to take place as soon as the two peoples were brought together.

Cape Colony was again seized by the English in 1806. The Dutch colonists were not reconciled to English rule, but gradually became accustomed to it. Their language was still used in the courts of law and in the public offices, and inter-


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marriage made for the extinction of racial antipathies. Up to 1820 the colonists outside of Capetown were almost entirely Dutch-speaking. They were few in number, only about 42,000 whites; so the country invited settlers. South Africa was included in the scope of the emigration policy which was undertaken in England after the close of the Napoleonic Wars to relieve the distress prevailing among the labouring classes. In 1820 and 1821 nearly 5,000 colonists of British birth settled in the colony, with very few exceptions in the east between the Bushmans and Fish Rivers. The artisans in the new colony did not stay there, but dispersed over the whole colony. By 1825 an eighth of the colonists were English-speaking, and in that year English was forced on the Dutch as the official language of the colony.

Growing dissatisfaction with English rule led to the abandonment of their homes by thousands of the Dutch colonists after 1836, and the Great Trek began, beyond the Orange River and into the Transvaal, and down to Natal. Settlement in Natal was prevented by British occupation in 1842. To fill the place of some of those who had left, four or five thousand English, Scottish, and Irish labourers were brought into the colony by a system of state-aided immigration.

Trouble with the emigrant farmers continued, and in 1848 they were defeated in a battle at Boomplaats. This led to the withdrawal across the Vaal River of all who were inveterately opposed to British rule, and their places were filled by fresh emigrants from the Cape Colony, many of whom were Englishmen, so that the Orange Territory now contained a good percentage of English speakers. In 1852 the independence of the South African Republic was granted by the Sand River Convention.

Although Dutch was habitually spoken by three-fifths of the white population of the Cape Colony and by a still larger proportion of the coloured inhabitants exclusive of the Bantu tribes, the English language only could be used in debate in Parliament, in the proceedings of the courts of justice, and in transactions in the public offices. In 1882, however, the same rights were secured for Dutch as for English.

A new chapter in Dutch and English relations in South Africa opened with the discovery of the great mineral wealth. Diamonds were discovered in 1867. In 1877 the South African

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Republic was annexed without opposition; the villages inhabited by English and Germans had appealed for it as the only remedy against anarchy. In 1880, however, the flag of the Republic was again hoisted and, after a short war disastrous to the British arms, independence was again restored.

The opening up of the immense goldfields of the Transvaal began in 1886. The city of Johannesburg arose as if by magic. The thousands of immigrants who were brought into the country by the attraction of gold were almost all English-speaking. There was a great difference between their interests and those of the Dutch farmers, and friction was soon engendered between the Boers and the Uitlanders. One of its main causes was the question of language in public schools frequented by the English children; the Republic, quite forgetting the resentment which this question had caused among the Dutch colonists when an attempt had been made to force the use of English upon them, made Dutch the principal medium of instruction.

The grievances of the Uitlanders caused a declaration of war in October 1899 against the two Republics, and the struggle did not end till 1902. England employed considerably over 300,000 fighting men, and a knowledge of South African conditions and affairs and of Afrikander words and phrases was widely disseminated in Great Britain. It must be remembered that the English soldiers mixed with the Dutch civilians and became acquainted with the Boers as prisoners of war; moreover, some Boers actually fought on the British side. The English newspapers, too, made Dutch terms quite familiar to the Englishman at home.

14. 2.

One of the largest groups of words borrowed from Afrikaans is that for the names of members of the South African fauna. Most of the beasts, birds, and reptiles of South Africa were new to the English and had no English names. The Dutch, however, had named them before the English arrived, and the latter were usually content to borrow the Dutch name. The word was generally taken over in its purely Dutch form, but sometimes, when the English language had words which almost coincided in form, the Dutch word was adapted to the corresponding English form, e.g. Dutch water-bok became English water-buck; Dutch sand-moll became English sand-mole.

Perhaps the most characteristic genus of the South African
fauna, both in numbers and variety, is that of the antelopes. The numerous species were unknown to European zoology, and the Dutch named them, sometimes after the European animals which they resembled, but mostly with a compound name, the second element of which was Dutch bok, buck, and the first descriptive of some peculiarity of appearance or habitat.

Reebok (1775) is the Du. reebok, roebuck, so named from its resemblance to the European deer so called. Springbok (1775) is from Du. springen, to spring, and bok, from the animal's characteristic of springing almost directly upward when excited or disturbed. Duiker, Duyker (1777), or as it is more fully named duikerbok, is from Du. duiker, ducker or diver. Gemsbok (1777) is another antelope named from its resemblance to a European animal; from Du. gemsbok, ad. G. gemsbock, chamois buck, from G. gemse, chamois. Klipspringer (1785) is named from its habitat, from Du. klip, rock, and springer, springer. Reitbuck (1785) is named from its habitat, Du. reitbok, from reit, reed, and bok. Blauwbok (1786) is named from its colour, blue, an effect produced by its black hide showing through its ashy-grey hair; from Du. blauw, blue, and bok. The word is also found in the English translation Bluebuck (1834). Bontebok (1786) is named from its pied colour; from Du. bont, pied, and bok. Boschbok (1786) is named from its habitat; from Du. bosch, bush, and bok. It is also found in the Anglicized form Bushbuck (1852). Eland (1786), the largest of the South African antelopes; it is very naturally named after the largest of the European deer, the elk; ad. Du. eland, elk, ad. G. elend. Grysbok (1786) is ad. Du. grijzbok, so named from its colour, Du. grijs, grey, and bok. Hartbeest, Hartbeest (1786) from Du. hert, hart, from its resemblance to the European hart, and beest, beast. Oribi, Orebi (1795) is from the Afrik. word of the same forms, apparently a borrowing from Hottentot. Kleenebok (1834) is named from its size, from Du. kleene, little, and bok. Redbuck (1834) is a translation of the Du. rietbok. Wildebeest (1838) another name for the gnu; it means ‘the wild beast', from Du. wilde, wild, and beest, beast. Waterbuck (1850) is named from its habitat, from Du. water, water, and bok. It is also found in the Anglicized form Waterbuck (1850). Blesbok (1824) is named from the white blaze on the animal's face; Du. bles, blaze, and bok. Buck (1879), the generic term for any male of the antelope kind, is a natural use of the English word for the male.
of any ‘deer’, but O.E.D. suggests that in South Africa it is after Du. bok, buck, he-goat.

The Dutch names for other animals peculiar to South Africa were adopted. Ratel (1777), a carnivorous animal, the honey-badger; Afrik. ratel is of uncertain origin and seems to have no connexion with Du. ratel, rattle. Das (1786), the droman or rock-badger; the Dutch named the beast from its resemblance to the European badger; Du. das, a badger. Dauw (1802), a species of zebra; dauw is the Afrik. form of the native name. Aard-vark (1833), a quadruped about the size of a badger; the Dutch colonists saw in this beast some resemblance to a pig, and so named it from the Du. aarde, earth, and vark, pig. Aard-wolf (1833), a carnivore about the size of a fox; so named by the Dutch colonists from its burrowing habits and wolfish appearance; from aarde, earth, and wolf, wolf. Sand-mole (1850), a South African mole; Anglicized form of the Du. zand-moll, from zand, sand, and moll, mole. Bosch-vark (1854), a species of wild pig; so named from its habitat, from Du. bosch, bush, and vark, pig.

A few names for South African birds were borrowed. Knorhan (1731), a species of bustard; the bird was named from its cry; Du. knor, from knorren, to growl, and haan, cock. The bird is also called Koran (1775), the first element of which has been sought in Du. korren, to coo; but it is probably an adaptation of korhaan, the name in Holland for the woodcock, because of the similarity in sound between korhaan and knorhaan. Paauw (1850), the name of another species of bustard; this is the Du. paauw, a peacock. Aasvogel (1887), a South African vulture; ad. Afrik. aasvogel, from aas, carrion, and vogel, bird. Berghaan (1867), a South African eagle, esp. the black eagle; ad. Afrik. berghaan, from berg, mountain, and haan, cock. Sprew (1897), a bird belonging to the genus Spreo, a glossy starling; ad. Du. spreeuw, starling.

There are three names of South African reptiles. Geitje (1786), a venomous lizard; ad. Du. geijje, the diminutive of geit, goat, perhaps from the horned appearance of the reptile; O.E.D., however, suggests that it is an etymologizing perversion of a native word. Puff-adder (1824), a very venomous viper; it is the Anglicized form of Du. pof-adder, from pof, from poffen, to puff, from the snake's habit of puffing out its neck when disturbed, and adder, adder, viper. Berg-adder (1867), an
adder found on high ground and on hill-sides; from Du. berg, mountain, and adder, adder.

Two names of South African fish were borrowed from Afrikaans. Sand-creeper (1731) is the Anglicized form of Du. zandkruiper, from zand, sand, and kruiper, creeper. Snoek (1853), so named from its resemblance to the European pike, Du. snoek, pike.

14. 3.

In the names of members of the South African flora borrowed from Dutch several principles of nomenclature can be observed. Most of the words are descriptive of the properties of the plant, as pyp-grass and hack-thorn, or of the uses to which it may be put, as wagenboom. A few are adaptations of the name in the native Hottentot or Bantu, as karree. One or two of the scientific generic terms are from Dutch sources, as babiana.

The following are descriptive names. Wait-a-bit (1785), the name given to various plants, esp. to various species of mimosa, in humorous reference to their hooked thorns; it is the Eng. translation of the Du. wacht-een-beetje, from wachten, to wait, and beetje, a little bit, the diminutive of beet, bit; the word is further Anglicized as wait-a-while. Wagenboom (1822), a tree so called because its wood was found suitable for making the fellies of wagon wheels; from Du. wagon, wagon, and boom, tree. Sneezewood (1834), a timber tree; the word is a translation of the Du. nieshout, from nies, from niezen, to sneeze, and hout, wood; there existed already in Du. the parallel combs. nieskruid, nieswortel, hellebore. Spekboom (1823), the South African purslane tree; from Du. spek, bacon, fat, and boom, tree. Pyp-grass (1854), a tall-growing species of grass; apparently from Du. pyp, pipe, an earlier form of Du. pijp, and grass. Hackthorn (1863), a thorny shrub, so called from the hooked thorns; this is the Anglicized form of the Du. haakedorn, from haake, hook, and dorn, thorn.

The following are adapted from the native names, or named after the native locality in which they grow. Karree (1822), a tree resembling the willow and used by the natives for making bows; Afrik. karree is from the Hottentot name; sometimes found in the extended forms karree-hout or karree-boom. Tambouki-grass and Tambouki-wood (1858), so named because they grow in Tembu-land; Afrik., from the tribal name Tembu and the diminutive ending -kje; another form of the word...
Tambootie shows the use of the diminutive -tje. Kaffir-boom (1880), a leguminous tree; from Kaffir, the common name for the South African coloured people, and Du. boom, tree.

Scientific terms of Dutch basis are Stapelia (1785), a genus of plants remarkable for the fetid smell of the flowers; named by Linnaeus after Jan Bode van Stapel, a 17th-century Dutch botanist; this word should properly come under scientific words of Dutch origin. Babiana (1835), a genus of bulbous Iridaceae with handsome purple, yellow, or scarlet flowers; the modern Latin name is an adaptation of the Afrik. babianer, i.e. baboon plants, so named because their tubers are eaten by baboons.

One plant name was borrowed by the Dutch from the Portuguese, who were their predecessors in some parts of South Africa. Mealie (1853), a name for maize, chiefly found in the plural mealies; from Afrik. milje, ad. Pg. milho, millet, in milho grande or milho da India, maize; this word probably came into Afrik. through Bantu.

14. 4.

The Dutch colonists found in South Africa a country markedly different in geographical features from their native land. They found names for the characteristic features of karroo and veldt landscape, and these names were largely borrowed by the later English settlers. Klooif (1731), a deep, narrow valley, a ravine or gorge between mountains; ad. Du. kloof, a cleft. Saltpan (1785), the peculiar salt lakes or marshes which dry up to beds of salt; the Dutch name was zoutpan, from zout, salt, and pan, pan; this was Anglicized as saltpan. Sweet-veld (1785), land of good quality for food plants suitable for pasturing; the Afrik. name was zoetveld, from zoet, sweet, and veld, field; in sweet-veld the first element has been Anglicized, while the form sweetfield shows both elements Anglicized. Krantz or Kranz (1834), a wall of rock encircling a mountain or summit, then more widely applied to any precipitous or overhanging wall of rocks; this geographical feature was aptly named in Afrik. krantz, coronet, chapelet (Du. krans, older Du. krants, in Kilian); this is an example of Afrik. preserving an older form of Du.

Nek (1834), a neck or saddle between hills; ad. Du. nek, neck. Poort (1834), a mountain pass; ad. Du. poort, gate. Zuurveldt (1834), a district covered with sour pasturage; from Du. zuur, sour, and veld, field. Drift (1849), a passage of a river, a ford;

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ad. Afrik. *drift*, Du. *drift*, passage for cattle, drove (M.Du. *drift*). **Sluit** (1863), a channel, ditch, or gulley, usually one formed by heavy rain, and dry during the greater part of the year; ad. Du. *sloot*, a ditch; it is hard to explain the form *sluit*, for *sloot*, perhaps it is by analogy with the common vb. *sluiten*, to shut, or more probably by analogy with *spruit* of the same meaning. **Spruit** (1863), a small stream or watercourse usually almost or altogether dry except in the wet season; from Du. *spruit*, sprout, perhaps from its sudden gushing into activity after rain. **Overberg**, adj. (1879), over a mountain or mountains, that passes over the mountains; ad. Afrik. *overberg*, from *over*, over, and *berg*, mountain.

**Kopje** (1881), a small hill; ad. Afrik. *kopje*, the diminutive of *kop*, head; the form *koppie* represents the colloquial pronunciation, the diminutive ending *-je* having sunk to *-i*. **Bush** (1780), woodland, country more or less covered with natural wood, applied to the untilled and uncleared districts; in South Africa probably directly ad. Du. *bosch*, wood, bush; the word was also borrowed in Guiana. **Berg** (1902), a mountain or hill; ad. Du. *berg*, mountain.

14. 5.

South Africa is a country of vast spaces and scattered isolated communities. Before the coming of the railway - and indeed it is even now the case in the less developed districts - the only means of transport was by the slow and primitive wagon drawn by many yoke of oxen. For long journeys the wagons are fitted up as caravans for sleeping and living in. Many terms of wagon transport were borrowed into English, and most of them entered at or after the time of the Great Trek, which was carried out almost entirely by means of the ox-wagon.

**Pont** (1775), a large ferry-boat attached to an iron or steel cable; this is the Du. *pont*, ferry-boat, pontoon (M.Du. *ponte*). **Span** (1812), a team of oxen or other draught animals consisting of two or more yokes; ad. Du. *span*, from *spannen*, to span, bend, put horses to. **Outspan** (1824), to unyoke or unhitch oxen from a wagon; ad. Du. *uitspannen*, from *uit*, out, and *spannen*. **Inspan** (1852), to yoke oxen in a team to a vehicle, to harness (a wagon); ad. Du. *inspannen*, from *in*, in, and *spannen*.

**Sjambok** (1830), a strong and heavy whip made of rhinoceros or hippopotamus hide and used for driving cattle and sometimes
for administering punishment; the Afrik. forms are sambok, tjambok, sjambok, and this is one of the few words brought into Afrik. from the East Indies; it is the Malay samboq, chamboq, a whip, and was perhaps introduced by the Malay slaves brought to Capetown, whose descendants are the Cape Malays of to-day.

**Trek-tow** (1834), the central chain or cable of twisted hide attached to a wagon-pole to which the yokes of the oxen are fastened; ad. Afrik. trek-tow, from Du. trek, draw, tug, pull, and touw, rope, cord. **Trek**, sb. and vb. (1849), a stage of a journey in travelling by ox-wagon, also all the journey or expedition; as vb. to make such a stage or journey; ad. Du. trek, draw, pull, tug, march, from trekken, to draw, pull. **Riem** (1849), a long strip or thong of undressed leather; ad. Du. riem, strap. **Rheim** (1850), a long strip of prepared hide with a noose at the end, also used attrib., as in rheim-chain; also as vb., to secure with a rheim; ad. Du. riem (M.Du. rie(n)). For the spelling with -h- compare rheaboc, rheebok, variants of reebok.

**Off-load** (1850), to unload; Anglicized from the Du. afladen, from af, off, and laden, to load. **Skey** (1850), one of a pair of wooden bars passing through each end of an ox-yoke, to which the neck-straps are fixed; ad. Afrik. skey, from Du. schei, transom. **Forelooper** (1863), a boy who walks with the foremost pair of a team of oxen to guide them; ad. Du. voorlooper, from voor, fore, in front, and looper, runner, from loopen, to run. **Offsaddle** (1863), to take the saddle off horses for a rest and feeding, to unsaddle; Anglicized from Afrik. afzadelen, from af, off, and zadelen, to saddle; compose the comb. above, off-load, of similar formation.

**Reim** (1865), a strip of oxhide, thong, strap; it must be considered as a spelling variant only of riem; the pronunciation of the two words would be the same. **Kartel** (1880), the wooden bed or hammock in an ox-wagon; ad. Afrik. kartel, one of the few words brought in by the East Indian trade and apparently ad. Pg. catel, catle, catre, little bed; according to Schuchardt a ‘South Indian word, Tamil kaṭṭil, bedstead, adopted and diffused by the Portuguese’.

14. 6.

On their arrival at the Cape the Dutch found two native races in possession, the Hottentots and the Bushmen. Later they encountered the various Bantu tribes which were pressing down from the North. The Dutch gave names to the two former races, and the English borrowed those names; but
the Dutch simply took over the Bantu tribal names. English also borrowed from Afrikaans several words descriptive of native dress, weapons, and manner of life. It is noticeable that two of these are of Portuguese origin.

**Hottentot** (1677), a member of a native South African race, the first met by the Dutch; Du. *Hottentot* is supposed to mean 'stutterer or stammerer', and was applied to them because of the frequency of clicks in their speech. **Bushman** (1785), a member of a very primitive race of South African aborigines; the Du. name is *boschjesman*, and the Eng. seems to be a translation of this. The later form **Boschman** (1854) is nearer the original Dutch. The early equivalent **Buschie** (1731), applied to a sort of Hottentot bandit, still shows the form of the Du. *boschjesman* in having preserved the -schje-.

**Karoo** (1731), a mantle or sleeveless jacket made of the skins of animals with the hair on, used by the Hottentots and other natives; it is not a Bantu word and is apparently not Hottentot; it has been suggested that *kaross* represents Du. *karas* or Pg. *couraça*, cuirass; a Pg. origin is far from improbable, as Afrik. has a group of words borrowed from Pg. **Kraal** (1731), a Hottentot or Kaffir village of huts surrounded by a stockade; Afrik. *kraal* is from Pg. *curral* or *corral* and was borrowed from the Pg. either in South Africa or in the East Indies. **Knobkerrie** (1849), a short, thick stick with a knobbed head used as a weapon or missile by South African tribes; from Afrik. *knopkie* or *knopkierie*, from Du. *knop*, knob, and *kirie*; *kerrie*, *kirie*, short club, is a Hottentot or Bushman word.

14. 7.

South Africa was a paradise for the big-game hunter, and hunting was practically the only amusement of the Boers. English professional hunters appeared in South Africa in the 19th century, and a few terms of hunting were borrowed from Afrikaans.

**Roer** (1834), a long-barrelled gun used by the Boers in hunting big game; ad. Du. *roer*, itself ad. G. *rohr*, a gun, barrel, reed. **Skellum** (1850), a rascal, applied to rogue animals; ad. Afrik. *schelm*, rascal, devil, from Du. *schelm*, ad. G. *schelm*. **Looper** (1889), a kind of large buckshot, called in Du. *looper*, runner. because of its greater range than the smaller shot. **Brill** (1863) was used by W. Baldwin in *African Hunting* for the roaring of wild beasts; it is ad. Du. *brullen*, to roar.

14. 8.

The Dutch in South Africa came early into conflict with
the native races, and the Boer system of warfare was worked out in numerous native wars. The Boers were always outnumbered and had to resort to war based on fortified camps of interlocked ox-wagons and extended by mounted sharp-shooters. It was this system which they used with such effect against the British in the First and Second Boer Wars.

**Commando** (1834), a party commanded or called out for military purposes, an expedition or raid, a word applied to quasi-military expeditions of the Portuguese or Boers (esp. the latter) against the natives; in the Second Boer War the word was used by the English for a Boer regiment of the burghers of one district; ad. Afrik. *commando*, ad. Pg. *commando*, command, party commanded, from the stem of *commandar*, to command. **Laager** (1850), a camp, the typical Boer temporary camp in the open, marked out by an encircling line of wagons; ad. Afrik. *lager*, corresponding to Du. *leger*, a camp, which has given the English *leaguer*. The vb. is **Laager** (1879), to form such a camp. **Scherm** (1861), a screen of brushwood to serve as a protection for troops or as an ambuscade from which to shoot game; ad. Du. *schem*, screen, protection. **Schanse** (1880), pronounced (skans); a heap or breastwork of stones used as a protection against rifle fire; ad. Afrik. *skans*, corresponding to Du. *schans*, entrenchment, redoubt. **Commandeer** (1881), to command or force into military service, to seize for military use; ad. Afrik. *kommanderen*, ad. F. *commander*, to command.

**14. 9.**

A number of terms of government and administration were borrowed from Dutch. Two of them refer to the old system of Company administration before the English rule. The rest are those of the independent Boer rule in the two Republics. The words **Outlander** and **Zarp** reflect British interest in the conflict between the Boers and the alien gold-miners of the Rand which immediately preceded the Boer War.

**Landrost** (1731), a kind of magistrate; ad. Afrik. *landrost*, from Du. *land*, land, and *drost*, bailiff. The official residence of a landrost was the **Drosty** (1812), ad. Afrik. *drostij*.

The word **Boer** (1834) came in about the time of the Great Trek; the primary sense is farmer, and it was applied by the English to the Dutch colonists engaged in agriculture and stock-raising; O.E.D. states that since the last quarter of the 19th century the name has been applied, in newspaper language, esp. to the Dutch of the Transvaal and other districts which
were then beyond the British dominions; it is now the accepted popular term for South African Dutch. **Africander** (1834), a white native of South Africa, esp. one of Dutch descent; ad. Afrik. **Afrikander**, from **Afrikaansch**, African, with termination modelled on **Hollander**, Dutchman.

Three terms were introduced at the time when the Boer Republics were again granted their independence after the First Boer War. **Bond** (1884), the Afrikander bond; this is the Du. **bond**, alliance, union. The adherents or members of the Afrikander bond were known as **Bondsmen** (1884). **Bestuur** (1885) is from Du. **bestuur**, government, and was a term borrowed to describe the government or administration in the Dutch-speaking parts of South Africa as distinct from the English. **Outlander** (1892) is the Anglicized form of Du. **uitlander**, an alien, foreigner, applied by the Boers of the Transvaal to the alien population attracted to the country by the goldfields of the Rand. **Zarp** (1895) is a made-up word which can be regarded as only indirectly of Dutch origin; the police force of the South African Republic was known as the Zuid Afrikaansch Republikeinsch Politie, and the Outlanders applied the word Zarp, made up of the initials of these four words, to a member of this force, hence a term for a Boer constable.

14. 10.

A number of words borrowed from Afrikaans cannot be included in the eight categories above.

A few are terms descriptive of Dutch farming and village life. **Baas** (1785), a master, employer of labour; often as a form of address; ad. Du. **baas**. **Werf** (1818) is the Afrik. name for a homestead or the space surrounding it; from older and dial. Du. **werf** or **werft**, in the same sense; mod. Du. **werf** has the sense of yard or ship-yard, but originally it meant the raised plot on which a house is built. **Bijwoner**, **Bywoner** (1889), an authorized squatter on another man's farm; ad. Afrik. **bijwoner**, from Du. **bijwonen**, to be present at. **Stad** (1896), a town or village; ad. Du. **stad**.

There are a few shopkeeping terms. **Winkel** (1839), a store or general shop; ad. Du. **winkel**. **Winkler** (1839), a storekeeper; either a separate formation on **winkel** and **-er** or ad. Du. **winkelier**. **Smouse** (1850), an itinerant trader; ad. Du. **smous**, a Jewish usurer, this trade being until recently monopolized by the Jewish pedlar. Another term for the travelling trader is
Kurveyor (1885), Anglicized from Du. karweier, from karwei, job (M.Du. corweie, ad. F. corvée).

Biltong (1815), strips of lean meat dried in the sun; ad. Afrik. biltong, from bil, buttock, and tong, tongue, because it is mostly cut from the buttock and in appearance resembles a smoked tongue. Bamboos (1822), a wooden vessel for milk, water, &c.; ad. Du. bamboes, bamboo. Sopie (1834), a drink of spirits, dram; ad. Afrik. sopie, dram, sip (Du. zoopje); the same word as Sopie, p. 51. Scoff (1879), food, also a meal; ad. Afrik. scoff, representing Du. scoft, quarter of a day, hence each of the four meals of the day; during the Boer War scoff was taken into army slang as a term for food and still persists there, whence it has made its way into workmen's slang.

Taal (1896), the Dutch word for language, speech; in English specially applied to Afrikaans. Afrikaans (1908), South African or Cape Dutch; ad. Du. Afrikaansch, African. Yah (1889), used by Rider Haggard in his Boer novels for ja, yes, when representing Afrikaans speech.

Banket (1886), a gold-bearing conglomerate found in the Witwatersrand district of the Transvaal; ad. Du. banket, banquet, also a confection resembling almond hardbake; the rock is so called because of its resemblance to the sweetmeat in appearance.

Slim (1899), crafty, artful; in recent use slim in this sense is a borrowing from Afrik.; it appears as early as 1674 in this sense, but seems to have gone out of use and was re-adopted; cf. Slim, p. 202.
Chapter XV

English and Dutch Intercourse in North America

15. 1. In North America the Dutch laid the foundations of New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania. The great navigator Hudson carried out his voyages of American discovery in the employ of the Dutch. Dutch settlers occupied Manhattan Island and despite prior claims alleged by Argall, Governor of Virginia, in 1613, held their own there. The Dutch settlement on the Hudson River was taken over from some merchants of the Dutch West India Company, and in 1626 Manhattan Island was purchased. The new colony began to yield considerable profits, especially by its trade in timber and furs. The Dutch, too, were the introducers of the slave trade into New England; in 1620 they brought the first cargo of slaves to Virginia.

The colony on the Hudson was named New Netherland, and the number of settlers gradually increased, partly, it is important to note, by immigration from neighbouring English colonies, partly by the patroon system. Privileges were conferred upon ‘patroons’, that is, such persons as should introduce fifty colonists within four years. Although the area of such grants was afterwards restricted, many of the old patroon estates long remained undivided, and the heirs of the founders claimed semi-feudal privileges well into the 19th century.

A greater measure of prosperity was brought to the colony by the opening of free trade with the home country in 1639, while the succession of a vigorous governor in Peter Stuyvesant in 1648 was of great value. His firm and wise rule brought security in the occupied territory and friendly relations with the neighbouring English colonies of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Virginia. The population slowly increased till by 1660 it had risen to about 10,000, chiefly in Manhattan Island and along the banks of the Hudson River; the capital, New Amsterdam, had then 1,600 people.

The colony, however, was not firmly established. A great danger was that the English Government had never recognized the legality of the settlement, claiming, as they did, the whole coastline from Virginia to the St. Lawrence. It was to be foreseen

15. 1. Blok, i, 37, 81, 271-2, 307-8, 418; I.C. ii. 146, 150; Egerton, 54.

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that the weak colony, virtually left to itself, and enclosed on the north and south by English possessions, would be unable to withstand a serious attack by the English. Such an attack came in the Second Dutch War. Charles II granted the Duke of York an extensive territory in North America. All New Netherland was included in it, and in 1663 the colony was seized by a small fleet under Colonel Nicholls in the interest of English commerce. Stuyvesant wanted to resist to the utmost, but the colonists refused to engage in the unequal struggle and surrendered without opposition. New Amsterdam was rechristened New York. Ten years later New York was recaptured by a squadron under the younger Evertsen, but was restored to England by the peace signed at Westminster in 1674.

The colony long preserved much of its Dutch language and institutions. Dutch, it is true, was driven out of most of the schools soon after the English conquest; but down to 1764 the service of the Dutch Reformed Church was held in Dutch. In Flatbush, Long Island, Petrus van Steenburgh, appointed in 1762, was the first who taught English in the school founded there in 1659, and his successor, Anthony Welp, appointed in 1773, was the last schoolmaster who was required to teach Dutch.

The original Dutch element was gradually swamped by waves of English immigration, but nevertheless left many traces of its presence in New England speech. The influence of the numerous Dutch and Low German immigrants, who came in a steady stream into the United States after the Declaration of Independence, in reinforcing the Dutch element in the vocabulary and perhaps in introducing later borrowings must not be forgotten; for example, Low German settlers as early as 1672 seem to be responsible for the word 'cranberry'.

15. 2.

The essentially popular nature of the borrowings from Dutch in New England is most noticeable, and the fusion between the two nations must have been early and complete. Many of the borrowed words are terms of everyday household life and especially of cooking. A most interesting group is of words used mostly by children. As would be expected of a settlement lying along the tideway, there is a group of words dealing with fishing and the sea. As in South Africa, some names for geographical features typical of the new country were borrowed. The earlier terms of industry are mainly of lumbering and farming, with

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one trade word; the later group of technical craft terms are perhaps not part of the original New Amsterdam heritage, but were introduced by later Low Dutch settlers.

The number of terms of cooking and housekeeping are a tribute to the Dutch housewife's excellence in those arts. **Olycook** (1809), a cake of dough, sweetened and fried in lard, originally a Dutch delicacy; ad. Du. oliekoek, from olie, oil, and koek, cake. **Waffle** (1808), a kind of battercake baked on a waffle-iron and eaten hot with butter and molasses, and identical with the popular Dutch 'waffle' cake of to-day; ad. Du. wafel, wafer. **Cruller** (1818), a cake cut from dough, containing eggs, butter, sugar, &c., and twisted into various shapes and fried to crispness; apparently ad. Du. kruller, from krullen, to curl, in reference to the twisted shapes of the cakes; waffle-cakes are called in LG. kroll-koken, i.e. 'curl-cakes'. **Cole-slaw** (1862), sliced cabbage dressed with salt, pepper, and vinegar, and either eaten raw or slightly cooked; ad. Du. koolsla, from kool, cabbage, and sla, salad, sla being the contracted form of salade, the d having dropped between vowels and the vowel of the first syllable syncopated. The form **Slaw** (1864), without the defining cole is also found.

**Mush** (1890), fish ground up; it is probably not an alteration of English mash, but ad. Du. moes, mash, pulp, stewed greens or fruit, and used in the above sense specifically.

The two following words are probably cooking terms, but may equally well be terms of gardening. **Cranberry** (1672, Josselyn, *New, Engl. Rarities*), the fruit of a dwarf shrub; O.E.D. points out that the fruit is of comparatively recent appearance in England and was entirely unknown to the 16th- and 17th-century herbalists, and that the name was brought to England with the American berry; the name seems to have been adopted by the colonists from some LG. source; cf. LG. krônbere, kronesbere, krônsbere, krônsbär, kranebere, G. kranichbeere, kranbeere. **Pit** (1841), the stone of a stone fruit; this is apparently ad. Du. pit, pip, kernel, pith, from e.mod.Du. and late M.Du. pitte (MLG. and LG. pit).

Other household words are **File** (1851), a cloth used for wiping after scrubbing; apparently ad. Du. feil, a variant of dweil, floor-cloth; and **Skipple** (1685, in *Pennsylv. Arch.*), a measure of three pecks; ad. Du. schepel, bushel.

There are a few terms for clothing. **Pea-jacket** (1725, *N. Jersey Arch.*), a short, stout overcoat of coarse woollen cloth,
now commonly worn by sailors; though this is now a common word in England, the earliest instances are all American; formed after Du. *pij-jakker*. **Wamus** (1805), given in Thornton's *Amer. Gloss.* as the name in southern and western U.S. for a warm knitted jacket resembling a cardigan; ad. Du. *wammes*, contracted from Du. *wambuis*, ad. OF. *wambois*, *wambeis*, **Barraclade** (1848), a home-made, woollen blanket without nap; the word is peculiar to New York City and those parts of the State settled by the Dutch; O.E.D. gives a derivation from Du. *baar*, bare, napless, and *kleed*, cloth, but Bense points out that there is no record of *baar* or *bar* in the sense 'napless' in any Low Dutch dictionary, and suggests that the word is an Eng. or Amer. spelling of the common Du. and Flem. word *baarkleed*, pall, the cloth covering a bier (*baar*).

The terms connected with the sea are mostly the names of fish. **Mossbunker** (1792), the menhaden, a fish of the herring family common on the east coasts of the U.S. and much used for manure; it also produces a valuable oil; ad. Du. *marsbanker*, formerly also *masbank*. **Spearing** (1838), the anchovy, also the American fish called the ground spearing; this is possibly ad. Du. and G. *spiering*, smelt. **Weakfish** (c. 1838), a marine food-fish, the sea-trout or squeteague of the Atlantic; ad. obs. Du. *weekvisch*, from *week*, soft, and *visch*, fish; the Du. name in the form *weekvis* occurs in a poem in praise of the New Netherland by Jacob Steendam (1661). **Scrod** (1873), a young cod weighing less than three pounds, esp. one that is split and boiled and fried; possibly ad. obs. Du. *schrood*, M.Du. *schrode*, a piece cut off.

A term for fishing apparatus is **Fyke** (1860), a bag-net used for catching fish, esp. shad; ad. Du. *fuik*, a bow-net.

There are two terms of river navigation. **Overslaugh** (1776), a bar or sand-bank which impedes the navigation of a river, esp. that on the Hudson, below Albany; ad. Du. *overslag*, from *overslaan*, to pass over, pass by; this is the same word as **Overslaugh**, p. 31. **Scow** (1775), a large, flat-bottomed lighter or punt; ad. Du. *schouw*, punt, lighter.

The name for a material used in boat-building is **Pot-lead** (1890), graphite, esp. as used for coating the hulls of racing vessels and yachts; ad. Du. *potlood*, black-lead, from *pot*, pot, and *lood*, lead.

A more purely nautical term is **Malafiges**, sb. plur. (1890), a sailor's name for a small sea-bird supposed to appear before
a storm, apparently the stormy petrel; ad. Du. *malefijtje, malefietje*, diminutive of *malefijt*, of obscure origin, though the O.E.D. suggests a connexion with F. *maléfique*, malefic.

The terms of lumbering are: **Boom** (1702), a line of floating timber stretched across a river or round an area of water to retain floating logs; ad. Du. *boom*, tree, beam, pole. The vb. **Boom** (1879) is from the sb. **Boomage** (1862), the toll levied by the owner of a boom for its use for storing logs; from *boom* and -*age*. **Tode** (1895), a rude sledge used in hauling logs, consisting of a treefork with a crosspiece on which the balk rests; possibly from the LG. *todden*, to drag.

There are two terms of agriculture. **Morgen** (1674, *N. Jersey Arch.*), a measure of land in Holland and the Dutch colonies, and hence in parts of U.S., of about two acres; ad. Du. *morgen*, believed to be the same word as *morgen*, morn, morning, with the sense ‘area of land that can be ploughed in one morning’. **Bowery** (1809), farm; ad. Du. *bouwerij*, husbandry, farm; now obsolete in New York State, but the origin of the place-name, ‘the Bowery’, in New York City.

A term of transport is **Sleigh** (1703), a sledge constructed or used as a vehicle for passengers, usually drawn by one or more horses; ad. Du. *slee*, the contracted form with loss of intervocalic -*d* of *slede*, sled; originally a New England word, but it has now spread to all parts of the U.S. and Canada.

A group of industrial terms appears in the second half of the 19th century. It is possible that most of them were introduced by later Low Dutch immigrants, and that they do not form part of the first stock of Dutch words. The trades represented are saw-milling, brick-making, and bookbinding. **Bindery** (1828), a bookbinder’s workshop or establishment; ad. Du. *binderij*, a binder’s shop. The comb. **Book-bindery** (1787) is found before *bindery*. **Sawbuck** (1869), a buck; ad. Du. *zaagbok*, trestle, sawhorse, from *zaag*, saw, and *bok*, originally buck, later a rest, fitting. The form **Buck** (1860) without the qualifying *saw* is also used. The vb. **Buck** (1865), to lay across a buck, is from the sb.

**Lute** (1875) is a term of brick-making; a tool used for scraping off and levelling a moulding floor; ad. Du. *loet*. **Dope** (18.., *Scient. Amer. Suppl.*), originally any thick liquid or semifluid used as an article of food or as a lubricant; (1880), an absorbent liquid used to hold a lubricant; this secondary
sense has been widely diffused through the use of the term in the preparation of the wings of aeroplanes; apparently ad. Du. *doop*, dipping, sauce, &c., from *doopen*, to dip. *Glance* (1894), to planish metals; possibly ad. Du. *glanzen*, to polish, planish, from *glans*, lustre.

The following are terms for geographical features. **Swamp** (1624), a tract of low-lying land in which water collects, a marsh; perhaps this word is in rather a different category from other words in this chapter, as though it is recorded as a term originally peculiar to Virginia, it was probably in local use previously in England, and was taken thence to America; its original denotation in America was a tract of rich soil having a growth of trees, but too moist for cultivation; the word was probably borrowed in England from Low Dutch, where, however, the sense of ‘marsh’ is not recorded; LG. *swampe*, used of the quaking of boggy land, MLG. *swamp*, LG. *swamp*, sponge, fungus, e.mod.Du. *swamme*, but note OE. *swamm*, fungus, mushroom. **Kill** (1669, *Pennsylv. Arch.*), a stream, creek, or tributary river; found in the parts of the U.S. originally settled by the Dutch, esp. in place-names, as Schuylkill; ad. Du. *kil* (M.Du. *kille*), river-bed, channel. **Clove** (1779), a rocky cleft or fissure, a gap, ravine; found principally in place-names; ad. Du. *klove*, also *kloof* (M.Du. *clove*, MLG. *klove*), split, cleft.

Most interesting are the borrowings from the children's dialect of Dutch into English children's dialect. Such borrowings were inevitable when Dutch and English children played together. **Scup**, sb. and vb. (1848), a swing, and to swing; the sb. is ad. Du. *schop*, a swing, and the vb. ad. Du. *schoppen*, to swing. **Snoop** (1848), to misappropriate or consume dainties in a clandestine manner; ad. Du. *snoopen*, to eat sweets on the sly. **Hunk** (1856), in children's games, the goal, home, den; a term local to New York; ad. Du. *honk*, goal, home in a game, of Fris. origin, W.Fris. *honcke*, *honck*, house, place of refuge, E.Fris. *hunk*. **Knicker** (1860), a boy's marble of baked clay; local to New York; ad. Du. *knikker*, marble, apparently an agent-noun from *knikken*, to crack, snap. Perhaps **Santa Claus** (1828, Longfellow) should come into this category; in nursery language it is the name of an imaginary personage who is supposed in the night before Christmas Day to bring presents for children; ad. dial. Du. **Sante Klaas**, Du. **Sint Klaas**, St. Nicholas; the use of the word has become general in English.
The following words do not fall into any of the above classifications. **Boodle** (1625), used in two senses; crowd, pack, lot, as in the contemptuous ‘the whole boodle’; stock-in-trade, capital; the latter sense suggests Du. *boedel*, estate, possession, inheritance, stock, which the O.E.D. finds difficulty in connecting with the former sense; Bense, however, thinks that both senses represent Du. *boedel*, though in mod.Du. there is a difference between *boedel* ‘stock-in-trade’ and *boel* (*de heele boel*, applied to things as well as to persons), the *Ndl. Wdb.* points out that there was not such a sharp difference in former times, and *boel* is not always used in those dialects which retain *d* between vowels; seeing that the word is recorded from the early 17th century, there is nothing against taking both senses to have been introduced from Dutch.

**Patroon** (1758), a possessor of a landed estate and certain manorial privileges, granted under the old Dutch governments of New York and New Jersey to members of the Dutch West India Company; ad. Du. *patroon*, a retention of the Du. spelling with the Eng. pronunciation of *oo*. **Yankee**, sb. and adj. (1765), a nickname for a native or inhabitant of New England; perhaps the most plausible conjecture is that it comes from Du. *Janke*, diminutive of *Jan*, John, applied as a derisive nickname by either Dutch or English in the New England states; the existence of Yank(e)y, Yankee as a surname or nickname (often with Dutch associations) is recorded in the following references in O.E.D. (1688, *Cal. St. Papers Col. Ser.*., 1698, Yanky Dutch as surname, 1687, Yankey as nickname, 1684, Captain Yank).

**Spook** (1801), a spectre, apparition, ghost; first in American usage, ad. Du. *spook*; the word appears in Standard English only in 1893. The vb. **Spook** (1890, Lowell), to haunt a person or place, is from the sb. or ad. Du. *spoken*; it appears a little earlier in South African English (1883, O. Schreiner), and is there ad. Du. *spoken*.

**Pace** (1809), Easter; ad. Du. *paasch*, pronounced (*pas*). **Pinkster** (1821), Whitsuntide; local to New York; ad. Du. **Pinkster**, now also in mod.Du. in the dative form **Pinksteren**.

**Boss** (1822), master, foreman; ad. Du. *baas*, in the same senses; the word is now general in English in workman’s slang or humorously for ‘leading man, swell, top sawyer’. The vb. **Boss** (1856) is from the sb.
DUTCH sailors had been employed in Portuguese ships in the 16th century and had learned the way to the East. Information of great value on the course of navigation and the commercial relations of the Portuguese in the East was given by the seaman Van Linschoten in his *Reys geschrift van de Navigatien des Portugaloysers in Orienten* (1595). A year after the publication of this book a company fitted out four ships for Bantam and cargoes were brought home, and only two years later no less than twenty-two vessels sailed for the East Indies. In 1602 all the little companies were united into one, and the United East India Company received a charter for twenty-one years.

This was the beginning of a long struggle with the Portuguese, who were continually harried by the Dutch. Up to 1609 the position of the Company remained very precarious, but its condition was then improved by the ability and determination of Jan Pieterszoon Coen, who in 1614 fixed the head-quarters of the Dutch in West Java. A bitter contest was maintained with the English, who were now the most dangerous rivals of the Dutch in the eastern seas. Coen was resolved to drive the English from the Archipelago and establish a monopoly for his Company. He also continued to make war on the Portuguese and Spaniards whether there was formal peace between the countries or not, and at last only Malacca and the Philippines remained to them.

The English East India Company, which had been established in 1609, had built one of their many factories at Macassar, in order to force their way into the Moluccas. Friction between the two nations was unceasing. The Dutch factory at Bantam had to be protected against English onslaughts by a considerable force. In 1618 Coen was appointed director-general and redoubled his opposition to the English, but immediate action was frustrated by the arrival of an English fleet before
Bantam. In 1619, however, Coen took Jacatra, and the Dutch became masters of Java; a new city was founded there and named Batavia. Coen now concentrated his attack on English shipping.

In 1619 a league was formed between the Dutch and English Companies; but there was so much friction between the two races that co-operation had to come to an end. A conspiracy of the English settlers in Amboyna to take the fort was discovered in 1623. Some of the English were tortured into confessions which appeared to place the affair beyond doubt, and the conspirators, who included the English agent at Amboyna and several merchants and officials of the English Company, were at once executed. The trial aroused the most violent indignation in England, and remonstrances to the States inflamed the bad feeling on both sides. The English now settled in Bantam on their own account, and there they remained, a source of serious competition to Batavia, until the Dutch drove them out in 1682. Dutch trade in Sumatra also suffered severely through the competition of the English station at Bencoolen. The English lost their last footing in the Moluccas, at Pularoon, which had been occupied by them in 1665. In 1641 the Dutch, after a siege, had taken Malacca, the centre of East Asiatic commerce and the principal remaining station of the Portuguese.

The Dutch also made good their footing in India itself. In 1638 Westerwolt, in alliance with the ruler of Kandy, after a struggle of two years gained possession of the principal settlements of the Portuguese in Ceylon. By the end of the 17th century the Dutch had factories at Surat, Cochin, Hugli, and on the Coromandel coast, and had worked up a great trade. All the Ceylon trade was now in their hands, though they only held the coast, the interior being independent.

English and Dutch relations in the East were peaceful in the 18th century, the English dominating India and the Dutch the Indies. The Fourth Dutch War, however, was disastrous to the Dutch in the East. Nagapatam, the factories in Bengal, the west coast of Sumatra, and Trincomalee all fell in the summer of 1781. The conquest of Ceylon and Java was only prevented by the arrival of a French fleet under De Suffren.

In 1795 Pichegru reduced the Netherlands to the condition of a French dependency, and England at once attacked the
Dutch colonies; in the East Ceylon was captured. The English had in 1786 obtained a footing in the Malay Peninsula at Penang, and in 1824 the Dutch colony of Malacca, which had fallen into English hands in 1795, but had been restored to the Netherlands, was finally transferred to England in exchange for Bencoolen in Sumatra. This exchange was the final recognition of English supremacy on the coast of the mainland of Malaysia and of Dutch supremacy in the Islands.

Most of the words borrowed from Dutch in the East Indies are the names of eastern products previously unknown to Europe and introduced by Dutch trade. Some are originally Malay or from the Portuguese lingua franca of the Islands and are only transmitted to English through Dutch.

**Bamboo** (1598), a genus of giant grasses: the early forms in English are *bambus*, *bambous*, *bamboe*, ad. Du. *bamboes*; Du. is the first European language in which the word appeared with initial *b*; the final -s of the Du. word is not explained; the name in Malay, Sundanese, and Javanese is now *bambo*, but the original source is unknown. **Sapan, Sappan** (1598), a dyewood yielding a red dye obtained from trees indigenous to tropical Asia and the East Indies; from Du. *sapan(hout)*, ad. Malay *sapān*.

The names of two beautiful birds of the parrot kind, frequently brought home by sailors, are Dutch borrowings. **Cockatoo** (1616), immediately ad. Du. *kaketo*, from Malay *kakatúa*; the first syllable has been Anglicized to *cock*. **Cockatiel** (1880), the bird-fancier's name for the Cockatoo Parrakeet; ad. Du. *kaketielje*; O.E.D. suggests that this is an adaptation from the Pg. diminutive of *cacatú*, perhaps *cacatilho* or *cacatelho*.

Three words are the names for Eastern foods, a sauce, a fish, and a fruit. **Soya** (1679), a sauce prepared in China and Japan from soya beans and eaten with fish; ad. Du. *soya*, *soja*, ad. Jap. *soy* (ad. Chinese *shi*, salted beans, and *yu*, oil). **Weakfish** (1686), an East Indian fish esteemed a delicacy; ad. Du. *weekvisch*, from *week*, soft, and *visch*, fish. **Pompelmoose** (1696), a large citrus fruit, the shaddock; the name arose in the Dutch Indies in the 17th century and is given by early writers as the Du. name of the fruit; Du. *pompelmoes* is recorded from 1676, but no native name in Malaysia resembles it; O.E.D., quoting Dr. Kern, states that the word is composed of *limoes*, Malay from Pg. *limoes*, plural of *limão*, lemon, and perhaps Du. *pompoen*, pumpkin.
There is one term of navigation. **Monsoon** (1584), a seasonal wind prevailing in South Asia; ad. e.mod.Du. *monssoen, monssonynn* (Linschoten, 1596), ad. Pg. *moncão*, in the 16th century also *moucão*, believed to be ad. Arab. *mausim*, lit. season.

Two obsolete names for East Indian languages are probably of Dutch origin. **Moors** (1767), a name for the Urdu or Hindustānī language; ad. Du. *Moorsch*, Moorish; Yule refers to the parallel forms *Bengals* for Bengāli, *Indostans* for Hindustānī, and *Turks* for Turkish. **Malays** (1779), the Malay language; ad. Du. *Maleisch*.

16. 2.16. 2.

Dutch ships made their appearance in the Antilles and Guiana before 1609 to obtain tobacco, sugar, and timber in return for negro slaves and manufactured articles. Enterprising merchants tried to establish colonies on the Guiana coast in Essequibo and Berbice. The Dutch West India Company, formed in 1621, carried on these settlements as small trading posts. In 1666 the Virgin Islands were seized by English adventurers, who drove out the Dutch buccaneers who had held them previously. The Dutch secured a firm footing in the West Indies when they captured Curaçao in 1634. The Dutch were the first in the slave trade; indeed, for years they were without serious competitors. Guinea and Angola furnished thousands of slaves for American plantations, mainly in Spanish possessions, and the island of Curaçao might be called the Staple for the trade. After very slow beginnings the Dutch colonies in Guiana began to flourish in the last quarter of the 17th century through careful attention to sugar-growing. The Dutch had captured a rival English colony founded by Lord Willoughby in Surinam.

The Dutch suffered severely in the West Indies in the Fourth Dutch War. In 1781 Rodney took the island of St. Eustatius with immense booty in captured warehouses and a fleet of 130 merchantmen. Demerara was surrendered by its governor Schuylenburg, who favoured the English, and later Essequibo and Berbice suffered the same fate; Curaçao, however, being properly defended, was saved. In 1803, during the time of the Batavian Republic, Demerara finally became British.

Of the four words borrowed in the West Indies only one comes from the West Indian Islands; the other three are from Guiana, where contact between the two peoples was more close, for the English occupied a colony originally Dutch.
Crawl (1660, from Jamaica), an enclosure, pen, or buildings for keeping hogs; (1769), a pen or enclosure of stakes or hurdles in shallow water on the sea-coast to contain fish, turtles, &c.; ad. colonial Du. kraal, from Sp. corral, an enclosure; the word was probably borrowed in Jamaica from the Dutch engaged in the slave trade, and Du. kraal here was originally a pen for keeping slaves; cf. Afrik. kraal, a native village.

Not one of the three words from Guiana is originally Dutch, but of Carib, Negro, and Spanish origin. They have, however, passed through Dutch into English. Powese (1769), the pauxi or pheasant peacock; ad. Surinam colonial Du. pouwies, a corruption of Sp. pauxi. Tonka (1796, Stedman, Surinam, as tonquin, 1830, Lindley, Nat. Syst. Bot., as tonka), a bean used in scenting snuff; according to Focke, Neger-Engelsch Wdb. (1855), quoted in O.E.D., this is the negro name in Guiana for the bean; in Du. tonquin-boontje and tonka-boon, which give the two Eng. forms. Pegall (1796), a basket of native make used by the Indians of Guiana; ad. Du. pagaal, ad. Carib pagāla.

16. 3.

The Dutch were the rivals of the English on the West Coast of Africa, though Portuguese, French, and Danes were present also. As early as 1618 an English Company had been formed to open up trade on the Gambia River, but it was not until 1631 that an English settlement was made there. The Dutch West India Company was founded in 1621, and it established some small trading posts on the Guinea Coast and in Sierra Leone. In 1637 the Dutch captured the great settlement of St. George del Mina from the Portuguese, but in 1661 lost Cape Coast Castle to the English.

The importance of the Guinea Coast to the European nations in the 17th century was that it was the head-quarters of the trade in slaves to the West Indies. As long as the slave trade lasted, West Africa and the West Indies were economically parts of a single whole. A great trade was carried on in West Africa, too, by the East India Company, whose ships exported English cloth to Africa and got in exchange the gold which enabled the Company to drive a trade with India.

At the Restoration, when there seemed a chance of securing a large share of the commerce with Brazil, the development of the African trade was taken up by the Duke of York and Prince Rupert, and an attempt was made to form a company. This
new scheme had hardly a fair chance, as the constant conflicts with the Dutch involved the merchants in serious losses both of shipping and stations.

**Paan** (1705), a loin-cloth; ad. Du. *paan*; the form usually found in English is *pagne*, from F. *pagne*, itself from Sp. *pañó*, or Pg. *panno*, cloth; this is undoubtedly a word for an article of trade introduced by the first traders on the Coast, the Portuguese, and borrowed by all the various nationalities trading there. **Craw-Craw** (1863), a malignant species of pustulent itch prevalent on the African coast, esp. about Sierra Leone; apparently borrowed from the Negro-Dutch name *craw-craw*, from the Du. *krauwe*, scratch, *krauwen*, to scratch, claw.
Chapter XVII
Unclassified Borrowings from Low Dutch

A very great number of words have been borrowed from Low Dutch which cannot be included in the chapters above. They are words of general introduction for which no particular channel of entry can be specified. As no system of sub-division has been found profitable, they are here arranged in alphabetical order.

Baff (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), to bark or yelp, as a dog; possibly ad. M.Du. baffen, in the same sense; the locality of the earliest record favours a Dutch origin; nevertheless, an onomatopoeic origin cannot be ruled out.

Begeck (vb. a. 1513, sb. c. 1600), to befool, gull, jilt; a cheating disappointment; from be- and geck (see Geck, p. 192), but cf. M.Du. and MLG. begecken, in Kilian beghecken, ‘bespotted’.

Betall (1630), to pay; ad. Du. betalen, to pay.

Bonspiel (c. 1565, Lindsay, Chron. Scotl.), in Lindsay in the sense ‘a set match at a game’; now in Sc. a grand curling-match between two clubs or districts; O.E.D. supposes it to be a Du. word *bondspel, from bond, i.e. verbond, covenant, alliance, compact, and spel, play.

Bool (1513), the various senses of this word all express something bent into a curve, as the curved handle of a pail, the holes in scissors for the thumb and finger; in the plural bouls, bools, the movable handle of two parts for a pot, called also clips; perhaps ad. M.Du. boghel or MLG. bogel (Kilian has boghel, beughel, ‘hemi-ciclus, semi-circulus’); if the word is from Low Dutch, it must have been borrowed in ME. before (ə?) was diphthongized to (ou).

Bouerie (1577), ad. Du. bouwerij, from bouwer, as in landbouwer, peasant; used by Holinshed in the sense ‘boorishness’; there is no other record of the word.

Bought (1519), a bend or curve, esp. a hollow angle or bend in the animal body; (1480), a bending in a coastline, mountainchain, &c.; (c. 1460), the bend or loop of a rope, chain, or string; (c. 1435), a coil, fold, or knot formed by the body of a serpent, the tail of a horse, &c.; a comparatively late word (certain only from the 15th century), parallel in its senses to bight from OE. byht; it corresponds in form and sense
to MLG. *bucht* (whence Du. *bocht*, M.Du. *bocht*, G. *bucht*, Da. and Sw. *bugt*); the Eng. word may be from MLG., but O.E.D. says that it more probably arose out of an assimilation of *byght* to *bow*, vb., or was itself formed from *bow* on the pattern of *byght*; if the word is from MLG., it probably entered as a nautical term, and then the association with *byght* and *bow* helped to stabilize, extend, and also confuse the word.

**Bully** (1538), a term of endearment and familiarity originally applied to either sex, later to men only; (1688), a blustering gallant, a bravo, swashbuckler; (1706), the protector of a prostitute; (1730), a ruffian hired for purposes of violence; possibly ad. Du. *boel*, lover (of either sex), also brother; there does not seem to be sufficient reason for supposing that the secondary senses are of distinct etymology; the sense of ‘hired ruffian’ may be a development of that of ‘bravo’, and the notion of ‘lover’ may have given rise to that of ‘protector of a prostitute’.

**Bumpkin** (1697, Dampier), a vessel for carrying water; perhaps ad. M.Du. *bommekijn*, diminutive of *bomme*, ‘vaatje’.

**Bundle** (1382, Wyclif), that which binds, a bandage; (1388, Wyclif), a collection of things bound or otherwise fastened together; O.E.D. states that OE. *byndele* would have yielded Eng. *bindle*, so that the form of the existing word seems to point to adoption from Low Dutch, or else to analogy with the pple. *bund*, bound; the Low Dutch forms are M.Du. *bondel*, *bundel*, Du. *bundel*.

**Bunting-crow** (1658, Hexham), the hooded crow; from Du. *bonte-kraai*, from *bont*, parti-coloured, and *kraai*, crow; perhaps influenced by *bunting*; Bense points out that at Antwerp the name *bonting* is given to ‘de bonte kraai’, so the word is possibly directly from Flem.

**Butterbouzy** (1719, D’Urfey, *Pills*), used by D’Urfey in a contemptuous collocation to indicate the Dutch States, ‘the butterbouzy Hogen Mogen’; ad. Du. *boterbus*, butterbox, a compound probably coined by D’Urfey himself after the Du. *boterdoos* and *boterpot*.

**Butterham** (1716), perhaps a partial lining to a cloak; apparently ad. Du. *boterham*, ‘slice of bread and butter’, used in a slang or humorous sense.

**Cachespell, -pule** (1568, from Sc.), the game of tennis; (1526), a tennis-court; apparently a corrupt form of M.Flem. *caetse*.
speel, from caetse (corresponding to F. chasse, Eng. chase), Du. kaats, the
place where the ball falls, and speel, play; the Flem. caetse is ad. N.F. cache,
cf. Picard cachier, to chase.
Callant (1716, from Sc.), a lad, youth, stripling, boy of any age; ad. Flem. or
Du. kalant, customer, chap, blade, ad. N.F. caland (F. chaland), customer; this
is a modern word in Sc. taken from the Du. or Flem. by the fisherfolk of the
East Coast.
Cant (c. 1375), edge, border; (1481-90), a nook, corner in a building; (1611),
a corner or angle of a polygon; (1611), one of the side-pieces in the head of a
cask; the word is rare before 1600; there is no trace of it in the older stages of
Teutonic, and the word in English is either ad. OF. cant, side, or M.Du. cant
(Du. kant), border, side, edge, brink, corner, and MLG. kant, point, creek, border;
in different senses the word may be from both.
Closh (1477), an obsolete game with a ball or bowl something like croquet and
prohibited in many successive statutes in the 15th and 16th centuries; ad.
M.Du. closse, a ball (Flem. and Du. klos, bowl); Kilian has klos and the combs.
klos-betyl, klos-poorte, klos-bane and the vb. klossen; the game appears to be
obsolete in Holland.
Closh-bane (1500), a green or ground for playing closh; ad. M.Du. klos-bane
(Du. klos-baan), bowling-green, from klos and baan, way, road, alley.
Clump (a. 1586), sb. and vb., a compact mass or piece, heap, lump; (c. 1690),
a cluster of trees; possibly ad. LG. klump (MLG. klumpe) or Du. klomp (M.Du.
clompe), lump, mass; in the secondary sense perhaps introduced through
vagrant's cant, as the first reference is from B.E., Dict. Cant. Crew.
Coot (1508), the ankle-joint; (1681), the fetlock of a horse; (1550), a thing of
small value, perhaps originally a knucklebone used by children in playing, as
in M.Du. cote; the word is probably from Low Dutch, which has the forms, M.Du.
côte, côte, Flem. keute, Du. koot, knucklebone, MLG. kote, LG. kote, köte,
hoof, fetlock, knucklebone, E.Fris. kote, köt, ankle-joint, ankle.
Coot-bane (1648-60), is a comb. of the above; anklebone, knucklebone, esp.
as used to play with; the quotation is from Hexham, Du. Dict., Pickelen, 'to play
at Coot-bane as boyes doe'.
Courtepy (1362), a short coat, cloak, or tabard of coarse

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material, worn in the 14th and 15th centuries; apparently ad. M.Du. korte pîe, i.e. korte, short, and pîe, coat of coarse woollen stuff, now pij.

Coy (1621), a place constructed for entrapping ducks, a decoy; (1629), coy-duck; ad. Du. kooi, formerly cuye, in the same sense, a parallel form to M.Du. couwe.

Coy-duck (1621), from coy and duck; cf. Du. kooeiend.

Crag (c. 1375, Barbour), the neck; no OE. *craga is recorded, and if it existed it would have given *craw; Icel. krâgi, Norw. and Sw. krage, Da. krave are in the secondary sense of collar, and Fr. van Wely says that late ON. krâgi is from MLG.; the word in Eng., therefore, is probably from Low Dutch, from MLG., M.Du., or M.Flem. krâge, neck, throat.

Cratch (1225), to scratch; (1377), to grab, scrape up greedily; O.E.D. says that the word may possibly have been adopted from Low Dutch in the 12th or 13th century; the Low Dutch forms are MLG. kraitsen (LG. k不受), M.Du. and M.Flem. cratsen, but more usually cretsen, to scratch; the earliest ME. form is crechen, which points to a borrowing from M.Du. or M.Flem.

Creek (1567), the break of day, the dawn, usually in the phrase ‘creek of day’; it is probable that this phrase was formed after the corresponding Low Dutch phrase; Plantijn has ‘den kriec van den dag’, M.Du. dat krieken van den dage, Du. het krieken van den dag, LG. de krik van dage, from the vb. e.mod.Du. kriekken, kriekellen, Du. krieken, to break or burst through, as the daylight; perhaps this phrase was first introduced by seamen.

Cremp (a. 1250, Owl and Night), to contract, restrain; the word is only known in early ME.; probably ad. M.Du. crempen, the causal of crimen.

Crimp (1398, Trevisa), to be compressed, pinched; (1698), to curl; (1712), to compress into minute parallel plaits or folds; (1698), to cause the flesh of fish to contract and become firm by gashing it before rigor mortis sets in; the vb. is unknown in OE.; there is one instance of the first meaning in late ME., and then the word is not met with till the end of the 17th century; it would seem that the word was introduced from a Low Dutch dialect in the 14th century and then died out, to be reintroduced from Du. in the modern period; the Low Dutch forms are M.Du. crimen, to contract, draw oneself

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together, to become wrinkled, with a weak causal krempen, krimpen, to draw
together, shrivel up, wrinkle, Du. krimpen, E.Fris. krimpen, to crook, wind,
shrink, MLG. krimpen.

Croon (c. 1460), to utter a low murmuring sound; (1513), to utter a continued
low, deep sound; the word was originally Sc. and Nthn., but has gained general
currency in Eng. in the 19th century, mainly since Burns; there is no trace of
the word in OE., and O.E.D. says that it appears to be one of the words from
Low Dutch which came into Sc. early in the ME. period; the Low Dutch forms
are M.Du. cronen, to lament, groan, murmur, Du. kreunen, MLG. kronen, to
growl, grumble, scold; MLG. has also kroenen, to chatter, prattle.

Crouse (13.., Cursor M.), angry, irate, cross, crabbed; (13..), bold, audacious,
daring; (a. 1400), in somewhat high or lively spirits; the word is not found in
OE., and in Eng. only Nthn. and almost exclusively Sc.; as only the figurative
senses are found in Eng., O.E.D. supposes it to be one of the Low Dutch words
which appeared in the Nthn. dial. early in the ME. period; the Low Dutch forms
are MLG. and LG. krûs, crisp, M.Du. kruys, crisp, curly, Du. kroes (from LG.),
cross, out of humour, E.Fris. krûs, curly, entangled, luxurious.

Dapper (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), of persons, neat, trim, smart; the word is not in
OE., and O.E.D. says that it was apparently adopted at the end of the ME.
period from one of the Low Dutch dials. with modification of sense perhaps
ironical or humorous; the Low Dutch forms are M.Du. dapper, powerful, strong,
stout (in Du. valiant, bold), MLG. dapper, heavy, weighty, steady, stout,
persevering.

Deck (1466), a covering; in the first quotation apparently some material used
for covering; probably ad. M.Du. dec, roof, covering, cloak, pretext (in Kilian,
decke, Du. dek); this is the same word as Deck, p. 74.

Decoy (1625), a pond or pool with contrivances to allure ducks to be caught;
(1661), a bird or other animal trained to lure others into a trap; decoy was
preceded in Eng. by the simple form Coy (see p. 189), ad. Du. kooi, of the
same meaning; the origin of the prefix de- is undetermined; the following

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suggestions have been made: (1) that it is the Du. article in de kooi; (2) that it is the second half of Du. eende in eende kooi, decoy-duck; (3) that it is an obscuration of duck itself in duck-coy; (4) that the form has been influenced by the earlier word decoy (a. 1550), a game of cards, and swindler, sharper; this last view is the one to which O.E.D. inclines.

**Domineer** (1588 as Domineering, 1591), to rule or govern arbitrarily or despotically; ad. e.mod.Du. domineren, to rule, have dominion, ad. F. dominer; the word was perhaps introduced by the mercenary soldiers, who might have given it its harsh sense when speaking of the arbitrary and severe rule of the Dutch city functionaries, or it may have been brought in by the religious refugees who fled from the Spanish tyranny in the Netherlands.

**Dopper** (1620), a Dutch Baptist or Anabaptist; ad. Du. dooper, dipper, baptist, from doopen, to dip, erroneously shortened after the vb. dop.

**Dorp** (1570-6), a Dutch village; formerly more or less naturalized in sense; ad. Du. dorp, village.

**Drivel** (a. 1225, a drudge, kitchen knave; (1478), an imbecile; apparently ad. M.Du. drevel, scullion, turnspit, lit. ‘driver, tool for driving’, from M.Du. driven, to drive.

**Easter** (1387, Trevisa), nearest the east, eastern, also in comb., as easter-board; perhaps comparative of east, adj., but possibly suggested by Du. ooster- in compounds.

**Ees** (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), ‘fysch mete on a hoke, esca, escarium’; probably ad. M.Du. aes, food, bait (Flem. ees), though OE. had Æs, food, meat, carrion.

**Fala** (1721), a sort of kerchief worn in Holland; the word only occurs in Ramsay (Tartana, 340); ad. Du. faalie.

**Feague** (1589-98, implied in Bum-feague, 1668), to beat, whip; (1668), to ‘do for’; probably as suggested in Bailey (1721) ad. G. fegen, lit. to polish, furbish, sweep, and used in a jocular sense, or the equivalent Du. vegen; but there may be mixture of a native word.

**Flake** (1598, trans. Linschoten), a shallow pool, salt marsh; perhaps ad. Du. vlacke.

**Flitter-mouse** (1547, Boorde), a bat; from flitter and mouse in imitation of Du. vledermuis or G. fladermaus.

**Foy** (1496-7), a parting entertainment, present, cup of liquor, &c., given by or to one setting out on a journey, in different
parts of Scotland applied variously to a party given in honour of a woman on the eve of her marriage, to a feast at the end of the harvest or fishing season, &c.; ad. Du. *fooi* (in Kilian, foye, voye), probably as Kilian suggests ad. F. *voie*, way, journey.

**Frister** (1640, once), a sweetheart; ad. Du. *vrijster* (Kilian, vrijdster, ‘arasia, virgo nubilis’), from *vrij(en)*, to woo, court.

**Frokin** (1603, Dekker), a little Dutch woman, a Dutch child; ad. Du. *vrouwken* (Kilian), diminutive of *vrouw*.

**Frolic** (1538), in early use, joyous, merry, mirthful; ad. Du. *vroolijk* (Kilian, vrolick), from M.Du. *vrô*, glad, joyous.

**Froligozene, -one** (1599), probably from the Du. phrase *vroolijk zijn*, to be jolly.

**Frow** (1390), a Dutchwoman; (1587), a woman, lady, wife, child, chiefly of Dutch or German women; ad. M.Du. *vrouwe*.

**Frumple** (1398, Trevisa), to wrinkle, crumple; sb. (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), a wrinkle; perhaps ad. M.Du. *verrompelen*, of the same meaning, from *ver* and *rompelen*, to rumple.

**Funk** (c. 1330, R. Brunne), a spark; (1673), touchwood; perhaps ad. M.Du. *vonke*, Du. *vonk*; there is a possibility, however, that it represents an unrecorded OE. *funca*.

**Geck** (1515), a fool, simpleton, dupe; apparently ad. LG. *geck* (M.Du. *gec(k)*, ghec(k), Du. *gek*, adj. and sb.), related either as source or derivative to the vb. *geck*, below.

**Geck** (1500-20), a gesture of derision, an expression of scorn or contempt; apparently ad. Du. or LG. *geck*, vbl. sb. corresponding to *gecken*, as in Du. *in geck sagen*, to say in jest (in Kilian, *in gheck segghen*).

**Geck**, vb. (1583), to mock, deceive, cheat; (1603), to scoff at; apparently ad. LG. *gecken* (M.Du. *gechecken*, Du. *gekken*).

**Geir** (1565), a vulture; ad. Du. *gier*.

**Glib** (1599), smooth and slippery in surface or consistency, easy; (1598), of an action, easy.

**Glibber** (1599), to slip, slide.


**Glimster** (1565), to glimmer feebly; apparently from *glim* after Du. *glinsteren*, to glimmer.
Grim (a. 1400-50, Alexander), to be angry, look fierce; ad. M.Du. grimmen, in the same senses; in the other sense in Eng., ‘to make grim or fierce’, the vb. is from the adj. grim.

Groll (1637), a foolish or superficial person; ad. Du. grol, ‘inconditus sermocinatōr, auctor sordidus, proletarius’ (Kilian).

Gruff (1533), coarse, coarse-grained; apparently ad. Du. or LG. grof, coarse, gruff, rough, crude; O.E.D. suggests that the word may have been introduced from Low Dutch in commercial use.

Grundy (1570, Foxe, A. and M., where the quotation refers to a ‘John Vander Wurfe of Antwerp’), a designation applied to a short person; perhaps ad. Du. grundje, gruntje, groundling.

Guess (c. 1330, R. Brunne), to form an approximate judgement; ME. gessen cannot well descend from an OE. form corresponding to LG. gissen, as the initial sound would then have been ⟨y⟩; O.E.D. would derive the word from Scand. forms, M.Sw. gissa, gitza, Sw. gissa, M.Da. gidze, gitse, Da. gisse, but according to Tamm, Svenkst Etym. Ordb., these rest on LG. gissen, gessen; O.E.D. hesitates to suggest a Low Dutch origin as there is nothing in the nature of the meaning to account for its having come from that source in or before the early 14th century; the word, however, could well have been adopted as a nautical term from LG. with the sense ‘to judge distance at sea’; the Low Dutch forms are MLG. and M.Du. gissen, M.Du. gessen (Du. and Fris. gissen).

Hove-dance (1390, Gower), a court-dance, apparently a particular dance of a lively character; ad. M.Du. hof-dans, lit. court-dance, a dance usual at the court, the dance that is in fashion.

Hustle (1684), to shake to and fro (money in a hat or cap); ad. Du. husselen, hutselen, to shake, toss (M.Du. hutselen), to shake the money in the game of hustlecap, a frequentative of Du. hutsen, of similar meaning.

Kakkerlak (1813), cockroach; (1777), an albino; ad. Du. kakkerlak, cockroach, albino, believed to be of S. American origin.

Kayles (c. 1325), the set of pins of wood or bone used in a kind of ninepins or skittles, more frequently the game played with these; probably ad. M.Du. kegheil, kegel, also keyl in keyl-bane, skittle-alley (Du. kegel, plur. kegels, kegelen), tapering stick, cone, ninepin; Da. kegle and Sw. kegla, kägla are from LG., though the word is not found in MLG.
Keest (1802, from Sc.), marrow, sap, substance, vigour; ad. Du. *keest*, marrow, kernel, the best part of anything.

Kermis (1577), in the Low Countries, parts of Germany, &c., a periodical fair or carnival characterized by much noisy merrymaking; ad. Du. *kermis*, earlier *ker-*, *kirmisse*, originally *kerk-*, *kirkmisse*, from *kirk*, church, and *mis*, mass; originally the mass or service on the anniversary of the dedication of the church, on which was also held a yearly fair or festival.

Killcrop (1652), an insatiate brat, popularly supposed to be a fairy changeling, substituted for the genuine child; ad. LG. *kîlcrop*.

Kneppel (c. 1500), the clapper of a bell; ad. LG. *knäpel, knepel*, or M.Du. *knepel, kneppel*, variant of *kleppel*.

Land-good (1591), a landed estate; ad. LG. *landgoed*.

Land-wine (1573), wine of native or home growth; probably after Du. *landwijn* or G. *landwein*.

Leefkyn (1540), darling; ad. obs. Du. *liefken*.


Lollard (1390, implied in Lollardy, 1415), a name of contempt given in the 14th century to certain heretics, who were either followers of Wyclif or held opinions similar to his; ad. M.Du. *jollaerd*, lit. ‘mumbler, mutterer’, from *lollen*, to mutter, mumble, and -*ard*; the name was originally applied (c. 1300) to members of a branch of the Cellite or Alexian fraternity, who devoted themselves esp. to the care of the sick and the providing of funeral rites for the poor; in the course of the 14th century it was often used of other semi-monastic orders, and sometimes, by opponents, of the Franciscans; usually it was taken to denote pretensions to piety and humility, combined with views more or less heretical (O.E.D.).

Lollardy (1390, Gower), the tenets of the Lollards; from Lollard and -*y*.

Loller (c. 1386, Chaucer), Lollard; variant of the above, with substitution of the suffix -*er* for -*ard*.

Lopeholt (1616), a place of refuge; apparently formed after *Lopeskonce*, but the second part may be Du. *holte*, hollow, hole.

Lopeman (a. 1625), a runner; ad. Du. *loopman*, now obs., from *loopen*, to run, and man, man.

Luck (14..., *Pol., Rel. and L. Poems*, 1481), fortune, good or ill,
the fortuitous happening of events favourable or unfavourable to the interests of a person; ad. MLG. 

\textbf{Luck}, vb. (14.., 1481), to chance, happen; perhaps ad. M.Du. \textit{lücken}, from \textit{luk}, but possibly an Eng. formation from the sb.

\textbf{Lusthouse} (1590), a country-house, villa, also a tavern with a beer-garden; used occasionally to render the Du. and G. equivalents, which occur more frequently in their foreign form; ad. Du. \textit{lusthuis} or G. \textit{lusthaus}, from \textit{lust}, pleasure.

\textbf{Lustick} (1601), adj., merry, jolly, chiefly with reference to drinking; adv. merrily, jovially; ad. Du. \textit{lustig}.

\textbf{Lyfkie} (1579), a bodice; ad. Du. \textit{lijfken}, 'corpusculum, subucula exomis' (Kilian), diminutive of \textit{lijk}, body.

\textbf{Maelstrom} (c. 1560, as Malestrand, 1682), a famous whirlpool in the Arctic Ocean on the west coast of Norway, also any great whirlpool; ad. e.mod.Du. \textit{maelstrom}, now \textit{maalstroom}, whirlpool, from \textit{malen}, to grind, to whirl round and round, and \textit{stroom}, stream; the use as a proper noun seems to have come from Du. maps, e.g. that in Mercator's \textit{Atlas} (1595); Dutch philologists are of the opinion that the word is native; it is true that it is found in all the modern Scand. languages as a common noun, but it is purely literary and Danish scholars regard it as adopted from Low Dutch.

\textbf{Mate} (c. 1380), an habitual companion; (c. 1450), used as a term of address by sailors and labourers; (1496), in nautical use; apparently ad. MLG. \textit{mâte} or M.Du. *\textit{mate} (Du. \textit{maat}), shortened form of *\textit{gemate} (Flem. \textit{gemaat}), lit. messmate.

\textbf{May-drink} (1850), white wine medicated with woodruff, drunk in Belgium and north Germany; from \textit{May} and \textit{drink}, after Du. \textit{meidrank} or G. \textit{maitrank}.

\textbf{Measle} (c. 1325), a specific infectious disease of man; in ME. \textit{maseles}, plur.; there is no evidence for its occurrence in OE. except \textit{maesle-sceafe} in a 12th-century manuscript as a spelling of \textit{maelsceafa}, malshave; O.E.D. says that the word may have come into Eng. from Low Dutch, which has the forms MLG. \textit{masele}, \textit{massele}, M.Du. \textit{masel}, blood-blist er, pustule, spot, also in the plur. \textit{measles}, Du. \textit{mazelen}, measles; the phonetic development in Eng. is irregular, and the modern form should have been *\textit{mazel}, that Standard English has the
dial. form ‘measle’ may be due to a mistaken association of this word with mesel, leper.

**Measlings** (c. 1300), the measles; early ME. maselinges, from the above and -ing; Da. maeslingr, plur., Sw. messling, mäsling, Icel. mislingar; the formation has not been found except in Eng. and Scand., and it is unlikely to have arisen separately; it may have belonged to early MLG. and was taken thence into Eng. and Da.

**Minikin** (a. 1550), a playful or endearing term for a female; (1541), a thin string of gut for treble string of viol; ad. e.mod.Du. minneken (M.Du. minnekijn), from minne, love, and -kijn, -kin.

**Miskin** (1593), a little bagpipe; perhaps a diminutive of M.Du. muse, ad. OF. muse, a bagpipe.

**Miskin-fro** (1632), a maidservant; from M.Du. mesken, meiskijn (Du. meisje), diminutive of meis, young woman, and fro, woman, ad. Du. vrouw.

**Mome** (c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), an aunt; perhaps ad. MLG. môme, aunt (M.Du. mône, aunt).

**Morass** (1655), a wet, swampy tract, marsh, bog; ad. Du. moeras, earlier moerasch, an altered form, influenced by moer, moor, of M.Du. marasch, maras, ad. OF. maresc, marais, which has given Eng. marish; MLG. had moras, which was borrowed into Sw. as moras, Da. morads; the word is now confined to literary use except in some parts of the West Indies as Barbados.

**Mow** (c. 1325), a grimace, esp. a derisive grimace; this word may be ad. OF. moe, moue, lip, pout, or ad. M.Du. mouwe, of the same meaning; the M.Du. word may be from OF., or it may be the source of the OF. word as a special use of mouwe, thick flesh, from which sense ‘thick lips’ has been assumed to be developed.

**Muff** (1590), a depreciative term for a German or Swiss, sometimes loosely applied to other foreigners; ad. Du. mof, a contemptuous appellation for a Westphalian.

**Muff** (1597), a covering into which both hands are thrust to keep them warm; probably ad. Du. mof (not found earlier than the 17th century), ad. F. moufle (Walloon mofe, mouffe), muffle.

**Mutch** (1473, from Sc.), a night covering for the head; (1634-5), a cap or coif usually of linen worn by women and young

**Nipe** (1430, Lydgate; c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*; 1481, Caxton; 1597, A.M. trans. *Guillemeau's Fr. Chirurg.*), to nip; the quotation of 1597 is directly ad. Du. *nijpen*, to nip; the two early quotations are from texts in which Low Dutch influence is pronounced, and are perhaps from M.Du. or MLG. *nipen*.

**Outlander** (1605), a man of foreign nationality, foreigner, alien, stranger; (1892), in reference to South African politics, a rendering of Du. *uitlander*; in the 17th century perhaps of English formation, but probably suggested by Du. *uitlander* (in Kilian, *uitlander*) or G. *ausländer*, and often virtually representing these words.

**Overmorrow** (1535, Coverdale), the day after to-morrow; from *over* and *morrow*, but probably after Du. *overmorgen* or G. *übermorgen*.

**Pee** (1483), a coat of coarse cloth worn by men esp. in the 16th century; in the 15th century *pee*, *pe*, but found from the 14th century in the comb. *courtepy* (see *Courtepy*, p. 188); probably ad. late M.Du. *piê*, now *pij*, *pije*, coat of coarse woollen stuff.

**Pickle** (a. 1440), a salt or acid liquor in which flesh, &c., is preserved; (1770), article preserved in pickle; (1562), fig. a condition or situation usually disagreeable; ad. M.Du. *pekel(e)*, *peeckel* or MLG. *pēkel* (LG. and Du. *pekel*); for the figurative sense compare Du. *in de pekel zitten*, *iemand in de pekel laten zitten*.

**Pine-bank** (1534), an old name for the rack; probably ad. M.Du. *pijnbanck*.

**Ploat, Plote** (1825, from Sc. and Nthn.), to pluck, strip off feathers, wool, fig. to rob; ad. Flem. and Du. *ploten*, to pluck the wool off.

**Polder** (1604), a piece of low-lying land reclaimed from the sea, from which it is protected by dikes, so called in the Netherlands; ad. Du. *polder*, M.Du. *polre*, *polder*, A. Mawer, *Problems of Place-name Study* (1929), disputes, on place-name evidence, the correctness of the O.E.D. derivation: `it is not a loan word from the Dutch, but a native English one, as can be seen from, the evidence of place-names. It is the same as...`
Polders in Wodnesborough in Kent, Poldre in 1232 and Polre in 1246, and is used in "werkland vocata Polre" in Fleet in Lincolnshire in 1316, and in "le Newpolder" the polder in Playden in Sussex, in 1404. All these are in marshland, and the term is clearly only the cognate of the Dutch word, and not derived from it.' Mawer's argument, however, is not decisive; the word could have been introduced by Flemish immigrants in the 12th century, and it is noticeable that all his instances are from counties (Kent, Lincoln, and Sussex) where Low Dutch influence was strong.

**Post-wagon** (1677-94), a mail or stage coach (in the Netherlands, Germany, &c.); from *post* and *wagon*, but reproducing Du. and G. *postwagen*.

**Prop** (a. 1568), to cram, stuff, load; apparently ad. M.Du. or MLG. *proppen*, to cram, stuff full.

**Pup-barn** (1483), a doll; apparently from MLG. *puppe, pup*, M.Du. and M.Fris. *poppe* (Du. and Fris. *pop*), doll, and *barn*, bairn, child.

**Quacksalver** (1579), an ignorant person who pretends to a knowledge of medicine; ad. e.mod.Du. *quacksalver* (Du. *kwakzalver*, whence G. *quacksalber*); the second element is from *salf, zalf*, salve, and the first is commonly regarded as the stem of *quacken*, Du. *kwakken*, to quack.

**Quass** (1549), to drink copiously or in excess, to quaff; ad. MLG. *quassen* (*quasen, quatzen*), to eat or drink immoderately.

**Rack** (c. 1305), a frame on which articles are arranged or hung; in the earliest instances *rekke*, apparently ad. M.Du. *rec, reck* (Du. *rek, rekke*) or MLG. *rek, rekke* (LG. *reck, recke*, whence Da. *raekke*, Sw. *räck*, *räcke*), applied to various contrivances (as a horizontal pole or bar, a framework, shelf) on which, things are hung or placed, a hen-roost, rail; the usual vowel of the Eng. word appears also in Du. *rak*, LG. *rack*, variants of *rek, reck*.

**Rack**, vb. (1433), to stretch, draw out; probably ad. M.Du. *recken* (Du. *rekken*) or MLG. *recken*, of the same meaning; MLG. *racken* is also recorded and Kilian has *racken* ‘torquere, tendere, tormentis exprimere’.

**Rand** (1601), to rant, rave; (1609), to utter in a furious manner; ad. obs. Flem. *randen*, variant of *ranten*, to rant.

**Rant** (1598, as Ranting, 1602), to talk or declaim in an extra-
gant, high-flown manner; ad. obs. Du. *randen*, *ranten*, to talk foolishly; to rave.

**Rasp-house** (1641, Evelyn, *Diary*), a house of correction formerly in use in Holland, Germany, &c., where prisoners were employed in rasping wood; ad. Du. *rasphuis*, from *raspen*, to rasp.


**Ravel** (1634), sb. is from the vb.; but cf. Du. *rafel*, a fraying-out.

**Ray** (c. 1384, Chaucer), a kind of round dance; ad. MLG. *rei(e)* (Du. *rei*) or MHG. *reie*, *rei*, rê.

**Redship** (1565, from Sc.), equipment, tackle; ad. obs. Du. *reedschap* (Kilian), from *reeden*, to set in order, fit out.

**Rewish** (1617), vehement in copulation, spoken of the pigeon; ad. e.mod.Du. *reeuwsch*.

**Roar** (c. 1374, Chaucer), confusion, tumult, disturbance; only in the phrases *in, on, upon a roar*, which compare with the Du. *in roere zijn, bringen, stellen*; ad. M.Du. *roer*, the rime of *rore* and *pore* (poor) in Chaucer proves that the word is different from the sb. *roar*, a loud, continuous sound.

**Rore** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv.*), to turn over, stir about or up, to trouble; (c. 1440, Ibid.), to exchange, barter; (1481, Caxton), to affect with some feeling; ad. M.Du. *roeren* or MLG. *rôren*, to move, stir.

**Rorer** (1311), a disturber of the peace; ad. M.Du. *roerer* or MLG. *rôrer*.

**Rove** (a. 1400), a scabby, scaly condition of the skin; (1590), a scab; ad. M.Du. *rove* (Du. *roof*), or MLG. *rove*, *roffe* (LG. *rove*, rave), or ON. *hrufa*.

**Rumple** (1500-20, Dunbar), a wrinkle, fold, crease; ad. M.Du. (and Du.) *rompel* or MLG. *rumpel(e)*, derivatives of M.Du. *rompe*, MLG. *rumpe*, wrinkle.

**Rumple**, vb. (1603), is from the sb. or ad. M.Du. *rompelen*, or MLG. *rumpelen*, from MLG. *rumpen*, to wrinkle.

**Samoreus** (1622), a kind of boat used on the Rhine; Du. *samoreus*.

**Schimmel** (1849), a roan horse; ad. G. or Du. *schimmet*; also in South Africa (1899), from Afrik.

**Schinkel** (a. 1634), a ham, gammon; ad. Du. *schinkel*, knuckle, shinbone, *schink*, gammon.
Schipperke (1887), a kind of lap-dog: ad. Du. dial. schipperke, lit. ‘little boatman’.

Scoffing (1514), a term of contempt for a person; perhaps from Du. schoft, a blackguard, and -ing.

Scone (1513, Douglas), a sort of cake; perhaps a shortened adoption of M.Du. schoonbrot or MLG. schonbrot, fine bread.

Scow (1534-5, from Sc.), plur., strips of wood for wattle work, barrel staves, fixing thatch, &c.; possibly ad. Du. schouw, in an unrecorded sense; the HG. etymological equivalent schalte has in Bavarian dialects the sense ‘wood for coopers, thin laths’.

Scrabble (1537), to make marks at random, scribble; (1600), of animals, to scratch with claws, so of a person, to scrape about; ad. M.Du. schrabbelen, to scratch, frequentative of schrabben; cf. Du. schrabbelaar, bad writer.

Scrae (1822, from Sc.), thin, lean; perhaps ad. LG. schrae, schra, schrade, lean, dried up, shrivelled.

Scrick-shoe (1659), a skate; ad. M.Du. schric-schoe, from the stem of schricken, to stride, and schoe, shoe.

Scrub (a. 1300), to curry-comb a horse; (1596, Nash), to scratch, rub; (1595), to clean by rubbing with a hard brush: perhaps ad. MLG. or M.Du. schrubbren, schrubben, (whence Sw. skrubba, Da. skrubbe); but the existence of a variant, Shrub, suggests an OE. *scrybban, corresponding to the Low Dutch words; in the sense ‘to clean by rubbing with a hard brush’ the word may have been imported from Du. as a nautical term.

Sea-herr (1615), one who has dominion over the seas; ad. Du. zeeheer, from zee, sea, and heer, lord.

Semel (1643), a cake of fine wheat flour; ad. LG. semel (M.Du. semele), fine wheat flour, fine wheaten bread.

Sett (1683, from Sc.), the constitution or form of government of a burgh, fixed by charter; ad. MLG. sett, sette, also gesette, ordinance, law, from setten, to set.

Sheld (1507), particoloured, pied, piebald; perhaps ad. M.Du. schillede, variegated, more often in comb., as rootschillede (W.Flem. schilde), from schillen, to make different; the initial sh- sound is difficult, but there were Low Dutch dialects in which this had approximately the Eng. pronunciation, or it may be by analogy in Eng.; the existence of the Eng. word at an earlier date is probably implied in the two following words.
Shelden (a. 1672), the golden-eye duck; apparently from *sheld* and perhaps *ende*, duck.

Sheldrake (c. 1325), a species of wild duck.

Shell-pad (1562), a tortoise; from *shell* and *pad*, after LG. (and MLG.) *schildpadde* or M.Du. *schiltpadde* (Du. *schildpad*), lit. ‘shield toad’.

Shuffle (1532), to move the feet along the ground without lifting them; (1570), to manipulate cards; e.mod.Eng. *shoofle*, *shoffle*, *shufle*, probably ad. LG. *schüffeln*, *schuffeln*, to walk clumsily or with dragging feet, shuffle cards, mix corn, deal dishonestly; first in Eng. as a term of card-playing, and in the primary sense perhaps introduced by soldiers who had served in the Low Countries.

Skate (1648, Hexham), a device of a steel blade mounted in a wooden sole for gliding over ice; chiefly used in the plur.; originally in plur. *schates*, *scates*, ad. Du. *schaats*, plur. *schaatsen* (M.Du. *schaetse*), ad. ONF. *escache*, stilt; the alteration of sense in Du. from ‘stilt’ to ‘skate’ has not been clearly traced; in Eng. from the first the final -s was apprehended as a plur. ending.

Skink, vb. (c. 1386, Chaucer), to pour out or draw liquor; ad. MLG. or M.Du. *schenken*, corresponding to OE. *scencan*, which gave *schench*.

Skink (1603), a skinker, tapster, waiter; ad. e.mod.Du. or LG. *schenke*, from MLG. and M.Du. *schenke*, rarely *schinke*.

Skink (c. 1575, from Sc.), a kind of soup made from shin of beef; probably ad. MLG. *schinke*, see Skink, below, either with ellipse of some word for broth or with simple transference from the meat to the liquid.

Skink (1630), ham; ad. LG. *schenke*.

Skinker (1586), one who draws, a tapster; (1594), a jug or similar vessel used for skinking with; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *schencker*, *schincker*, or from *skink*, vb., and -er.

Skite (1449, *Paston Ls.*), to void excrement; in the *Paston Ls.* certainly ad. MLG. *schîten* or M.Du. *schijten*, where it is the reply of a Low Dutch pirate when asked to heave to: ‘Skite on the Kings Majestie of England’; elsewhere it may be from ON. *skîta*.

Slab (1553), to eat or drink in a hasty or untidy manner: probably from Low Dutch, which has the forms M.Du., Du., and LG. *slabben* in the same sense.
**Slabber** (1573), to wet or befoul with saliva, to wet in a dirty manner; probably of Low Dutch origin, Du. *slabberen*, LG. *slabbern*, Fris. *slabberje*, frequentatives of *slabben*, above.

**Slank** (1668), of persons, parts of the body, hair, lank, thin; probably ad. Du. or LG. *slank* (M.Du. *slanc*), thin, slender.

**Slap** (1648, Hexham), a smart blow, esp. one given with the open hand; ad. LG. *slapp*, also *slappe* (whence older Da. *slap*).

**Slap**, vb. (1603), to lap; (1608), to lap or gobble up; ad. LG. *slappen*, in the same sense.

**Slap**, adv. (1672), with or as with a slap or sudden quick blow, quickly, suddenly; ad. LG. *slapp*, of imitative origin.

**Slaught** (1535, Coverdale; 1648, Hexham), to kill, slaughter; considering the texts in which it occurs, undoubtedly ad. Du. and LG. *slachten*.

**Sledge** (1617), a carriage mounted upon runners instead of wheels and generally used for travelling over snow or ice; ad. M.Du. *sleedse* (mod.Du. dial, *sleeds*), related to *slede*, sled; the Du. forms are peculiar to Friesland and north Holland, and may be of Frisian origin.

**Sleepery** (1513), inducing sleep, soporiferous; (1535), of persons, sleepy; probably ad. MLG. *sleperich*, slaperich, or M.Du. *slaperich* (Du. *slaperig*)

**Sleir** (1362), a veil; ad. MLG. *sleier*, sleiger; the forms *scleire*, *sklayre* can hardly be from LG.

**Slibber-sauce** (1527), a compound of a messy, repulsive or nauseous character, used esp. for medicinal purposes; perhaps from older Flem. *slibber* (Kilian), slime, ooze, M.Du. *slibbe* (Du. *slib*, LG. *slibbe(e)*).


**Slim** (1657), slender, thin, sly; ad. Du. and LG. *slim*, representing M.Du. *slim(p)*, *slem(p)*, MLG. *slim(m)*, *slym(m)*, *slem*.

**Slinger** (1767), to swing, roll; ad. Du. *slingeren* (Fris. *slingerje*) or LG. *slingern* (whence Da. *slingre*), frequentative of *slingen*, to throw.

**Slip** (13., *Cursor M.*), to escape, get away; probably ad. MLG. *slippen* (LG., Du., and Flem. *slippen*).

**Slipper** (1585), to slip or slide; ad. M.Du. *slipperen*, from *slippen*, to slip.

**Slorp** (1802 from Sc.), to drink, sup, or eat greedily, noisily, or
coarsely; perhaps ad. MLG. or Du. *slorpen* in the same sense.

**Slot** (a. 1325, *E.E.Ps*.), a bar or bolt used to secure a door when closed; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *slot* (Du. and LG. *slot*), a door-bolt.

**Slub** (1577-87), thick, sludgy mud, mire, ooze; perhaps ad. M.Du. *slubbe* in the same sense.

**Slubber** (1530), to stain, smear, daub, sully; probably from Low Dutch, which has the following forms: M.Du. *overslubberen*, to wade through mud, LG. *slubbern* (whence Da. *slubre*).

**Slurp** (1648, Hexham), to drink greedily or noisily; perhaps ad. Du. *slurpen*; cf. **Slorp**, above.

**Smeke** (c. 1440, *Pr. Parv*.), to flatter, fawn; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *smêken*.

**Smook** (1500-20, from Sc.), smoke, reek, vapour; probably ad. older Flem. *smûik* (Kilian *smuyk*).

**Smook**, vb. (1500-20), to smoke (in various senses); probably ad. Flem. *smuiken*, *smuken* (older Flem. *smuucken*, Kilian *smuycken*).

**Smoor** (c. 1470, from Sc.), to smother; probably ad. M.Du. or MLG. *smôren* (Du. *smoren*, LG. *smoren*, *smören*, corresponding to OE. *smorian*, to smother); the vowel is not a normal native variant of the *o* of *smore*.

**Snap** (1530), to make a quick bite at something; apparently ad. M.Du. or MLG. *snappen* (also Du. and LG. *snappen*); Da. *snappe* and Sw. *snappa* are from LG.

**Snatter** (1647, Hexham), to chatter; ad. Du. *snateren* (M.Du. and MLG. *snateren*), or LG. *snatt(t)ern*.

**Snick** (1700), to cut, snip, click; probably suggested by *snick* or *snee*, below.

**Snick or Snee** (1613), to thrust or cut in fighting with a knife; originally ad. Du. *steken*, to thrust, stick, and *snijen*, *snijden*, to cut, with subsequent assimilation of the *st*- of the first word to the *sn*- of the second; the form *snye* indicates a pronunciation of *snijen* similar to that in modern Standard Dutch, the later *snee* a variant pronunciation still widely current in Du. and Flem. dialects; later *snickersnee*.

**Snip**, vb. (1586), to take quickly or suddenly; (1593), to cut; (1611), to cut off with scissors; probably of Low Dutch origin; the Low Dutch forms are Du., Flem., and LG. *snippen*, to snip, snatch.
Snip (1558), the sb. is recorded before the vb. and it is probable that in some of its senses it is directly from Low Dutch (LG. *snip* and *snippe*, a small piece, Du. and Fris. *snip*, a snappish girl or woman); in other senses it is perhaps from the verb.

Snip-snap-snorum (1755), a round game of cards played in various ways, in which the players, on turning up the requisite cards, respectively cry ‘snip’, ‘snap’, ‘snorum’; ad. LG. *snipp-snapp-snorum* (also *snurr*); the name of this innocent game can hardly be included among terms of Gaming in Chapter I.

Snork (1531, Tyndale), to snore; probably ad. M.Du. or MLG. *snorken* (Du. and LG. *snorken*).

Snuffle (1583), to show dislike by sniffing; (1600), to draw air in through the nose; (1600), to speak through the nose; probably ad. Du. and Flem. *snuffelen* (LG. *snüßeln*, Fris. *snuffelje*) in similar senses.

Snur (1523), to snort; perhaps ad. MLG. *snurren* (whence Da. *snurre*, Sw. and Norw. *snurra*); it may, however, be of imitative origin in English.

Sooterkin (1530), sweetheart, mistress; apparently ad. older Du. and Flem. *soetekijn* (Kilian, *soetkin*), from *soet*, sweet, and -*kijn*.

Spaked (1438), moulded, blemished, decayed, rotten; ad. LG. *spaket*, pa. pple. of *spaken*, also *verspaken*, to mould, decay.

Spaky (1589), mizzly; ad. LG. *spakig*.

Spald (a. 1400, from Sc. and Ntn.), to splinter, split, break up, lay open or flat; ad. MLG. *spalden*, to split (M.Du. *spouden*); English dialects have also the sb. *spald*, *spaud*, corresponding to MLG. *spalde* and *spald*, and the derivative vb. *spalder*, *spauder*, corresponding to MLG. *spalderen*.

Spalding-knife (1354), this English formation from the above is recorded earlier than it.

Spalt (1733), to split, tear, splinter; probably ad. Du. and Flem. *spalten*.

Span (1550, Coverdale), to harness or yoke, to attach to a vehicle; (1597), to stretch, extend, make taut, tight; ad. Flem., Du., or LG. (also M.Du. and MLG.) *spannen*, to fix or fasten, join, draw tight; in the military sense; (1639), to wind up the wheel-lock of a musket by means of a spanner, and in the nautical sense (1781), to fix, attach, fasten, probably a direct adoption from Low Dutch.
Spang (1423), a small, glittering ornament, a spangle; probably ad. M.Du. *spange, spaenge* (Du. *spang*), clasp, buckle, brooch, spangle.

Spar (c. 1200, Orm), to fasten with a bar or bolt, to shut firmly or securely; in ME. *sperren, sperre, sper*, and *sparre, sparr*; the e-forms are apparently ad. M.Du. *sperren* (Du. *sperren*); the a-forms may be due to the influence of the sb. *spar*, which also had e-forms beside a-forms in ME.

Spare-rib (1596), a cut of meat, esp. of pork, consisting of part of the ribs somewhat closely trimmed; probably ad. MLG. *ribbespêr*, with transposition of the two elements and subsequent association with *spare*, adj.

Spat (1876), a small splash of something; apparently ad. Du. *spat*, in the same sense.

Spear (a. 1225, Ancren R.), to shut or close firmly or securely; ad. MLG. *speren* (LG. *speren, speeren, speiren*), related to M.Du. *sperren*; see Spar, above.

Speck (1633), fat meat, esp. bacon or pork; (1743), the fat or blubber of a whale; (1863), S. Africa, the fat of a hippopotamus; ad. Du. *spek* (older *speck*, M.Du. *spek*, MLG. *speck*, whence M.Sw. *spâk*, Sw. *spâck*, Da. *spaek*).

Speer (1379, from Durh.), a fixed screen for warding off an air draught, a wooden partition near the door or by the fireplace, a chimney-post; perhaps ad. MLG. *speer, sper*, sparwork.

Sperel (13.., St. Erkenwalde, c. 1440, Pr. Parv.), a means of closing or fastening, a bar or bolt; probably of Flem. origin; cf. W.Flem. *sperel, sperrel*, door-bar, from *sperren*; see Spar, above.

Spi (a. 1225, Ancren R.), fie; ad. M.Du. *spi*, also *tspi*, a natural exclamation of disgust.

Spile (1513), a splinter, chip, narrow strip of wood; a spill, later a spigot; ad. M.Du. or MLG. *spile* (Du. dial., W.Fris., and LG. *spile, Du. spijl*), splinter, wooden pin or peg, skewer.

Spin-house (1700, Evelyn, Diary), a house or building in which persons are employed for spinning, house of correction; (1702), a workhouse; ad. Du. *spinhuys* (M.Du. *spinhuys*).

Spleet (1609), a small strip of split wood or willow; ad. M.Du. *spleet, spleet* (W.Flem. *splete, Du. spleet* or MLG. (and LG.) *splete*, related to *spleit*.

Splet (1530), to split; ad. Flem. or LG. *spletten*, obscurely related to *split* and *spleet*. 

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**Splinter** (1398, Trevisa), a rough piece of wood, bone, stone, &c.; ad. M.Du. *splinter* (Du. and W.Fris. *splinter*), *splenter* (W.Flem. *splenter*).

**Splitter** (1546), a splitter; ad. LG. *splitter*, related to *spliten*, to split.

**Sprunk** (c. 1753), a display of wealth or grandeur; apparently ad. Du. *pronk* or G. *prunk*.

**Sprunking** (1690, Evelyn), personal adornment or beauty, also attrib. in sprunking-glass; from Du. *pronken* or G. *prunken*.

**Spruttle** (1513), a small spot, speckle; ad. MLG. *sprut(e)le, sprotele, sprottel* (older Flem. *sproetel*), freckle.

**Sprutted**, adj. (1513), spotted, speckled.

**Stadthouse** (1646), a town-hall, esp. one in a Dutch town or Dutch colony; ad. Du. *stadhuis* or G. *stadthaus*, from Du. *stad*, G. *stadt*, town, and Du. *huis*, G. *haus*, house.

**Start** (1673, Dryden), a supposed Dutch term of contempt for an Englishman; perhaps ad. Du. *staart*, tail, in allusion to the old accusation that Englishmen had tails; but cf. W.Flem. *driesteert, plaagsteert*, a bore, *vraagsteert*, a prying person.

**Statehouse** (1593), a house of state; (1627), a town-hall: from *state* and *house*, but probably suggested by Du. *stathuis*, now *stadhuis*; see **Stadthouse**, above.

**States General** (1585), a legislative assembly representing the three estates of a whole realm; used (a) of France before the Revolution, (b) in the Netherlands from the 15th century to 1796; the English word was suggested respectively by the F. *états généraux* and the Du. *staaten generaal*.

**Stead** (15., 1533), the Steads, ‘the cities’ of the Hanseatic League, also the corporation of the Hanse merchants in London; from the MLG. *de Steden*, ‘the Towns’.

**Sump** (c. 1425), a marsh, swamp, morass (now dial.); (1680), a pit or well for collecting water or other fluid; (1653), this as a term of mining; ad. (M)LG. *sump* (sumpt) or M.Du. *somp*, *sump* (Flem. *zompe*); in the mining sense perhaps ad. the related MHG. and G. *sumpf*, marsh, water-level, or lodge, *sump* in metal-working.

**Swack** (1768, from Sc.), supple, lithe, and nimble, smart; apparently ad. Flem. *zwak*, nimble, smart, corresponding to Du. *zwak*, weak, pliant.

**Swall** (a. 1340, Hampole), an agitated mass of water; perhaps ad. MLG. (and LG.) *swal(l)*, whirlpool, swollen mass of water.

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(whence also Sw. svaill, surge, swell of the sea); this word was perhaps introduced as a nautical term.

**Swank** (1786, from Sc.), agile, active, nimble; apparently ad. MLG. swank or M.Du. swanc, flexible, supple, slender; the root appears in OE. swancer.

**Swarmer** (1765), in pyrotechny, a cracker or serpent; ad. Du. zwermer or G. schwärmer, from zwermen or schwärmen, to rove, stray.

**Sway** (c. 1500), the modern vb. sway dates only from c. 1500 and agrees in form and sense with, and appears to be ad. LG. swâjen, to be moved hither and thither by the wind (whence Sw. svaja, to swing, Da. svaje, to move to and fro), or Du. zwaaien, to swing, wave, walk totteringly, slant; the ME. vb. sweþe (14th century), also swye, to go, to move, is properly a distinct vb., and may have been a native word, originally of the OE. type *swegan, parallel to OE. wegan, to move.

**Swindle** (1559), giddiness, vertigo; ad. e.mod.Du. swindel (Du. zwendel).

**Switch** (1592), a slender, tapering riding-whip; the early forms are swits, switz, probably ad. Flem. or LG. word, now represented by Hanoverian zwutsche, variant of LG. zwuksen, to bend up and down, to make a swishing sound like a lash.

**Taffel, taffil** (1633, from Sc.), a table; probably ad. Du. tafel (M.Du. and MLG. tafele, taffele); OE. tæfel gives tavel.

**Tannakin** (1557), a diminutive pet form of the name Ann or Anna specially used for a Dutch or German girl.

**Torne** (1637), a tower; ad. LG. (and MLG.) torn.

**Track** (1727), to tow a vessel, esp. from the bank or towpath; apparently ad. Du. trekken, to pull, draw, tug, tow, assimilated in form to the vb. track.

**Wagoner, Waggoner** (1687), originally the atlas of charts published by Lucas Janssen Waghenaer in 1584 under the title Spieghel der Zeevaerdt (English translation, *The Mariner's Mirror*, by Sir A. Ashley, 1588); hence generally, a book of charts for nautical use; the word is then the Anglicized form of the Dutch surname Waghenaer.

**Wanhope** (1297), hopelessness, despair; from wan and hope, but the English may have been suggested by the corresponding Low Dutch forms, M.Du. wanhope (Du. wanhoopt), MLG. wanhope (whence M.Sw. vanhop, M.Da. vanhob).
Want-louse (1655), a bed-bug, bug; ad. Du. wandluis or LG. wandlaus (MLG. wantlaus), a wall-louse, bug.

Wantrust (c. 1374, Chaucer), mistrust, lack of confidence; ME. from wan and trust, but may have been suggested by the M.Du. wantroost.

Warble (1486), in falconry, of a hawk, to cross the wings over the back after 'rousing' and 'mantling'; perhaps ad. Du. wervelen, to turn round; for the change of consonant O.E.D. compares nable, a dial, variant of navel.

Wardin (1493), a landlady, hostess; this is Du. waardin, the feminine of waard, landlord.

Water-souchy (1731), fish boiled and served in its own liquor; ad. Du. waterzootje, from water and zootje, zoodje, a boiling (of fish), diminutive of zode, boiling.

Wederdoper (1647), an Anabaptist, esp. a foreign one; ad. Du. wederdoper, from weder, again, and dooper, baptizer.

Welter (13.., Cursor M.), to roll or twist the body, to turn or tumble about, to lie and roll about; ad. M.Du. welteren or MLG. weltern (whence Sw. välttra).

Wig (1376), a kind of bun or small cake made of fine flour; ad. MLG. and M.Du. wigge (Du. wig), wedge, wedge-shaped cake, by-form of MLG. wegge.

Winder (1542), a widgeon; ad. early Flem. winder, wender, ‘anas mas’ (Kilian).

Winnard (1698), a local name for the Redwing; apparently ad. LG. weingartdrossel, -vogel (see Wing-thrush, p. 148), with the second element dropped.

Wintle (1786), to roll or swing from side to side; ad. early Flem. windtelen, wend(t)elen, ‘voluere, volutare’ (Kilian), from wenden, to wind.

Winze (1785, from Sc.), an imprecation, curse; ad. early Flem. wensch, ‘imprecatio’ (Kilian).

Wirrock (1500-20, Dunbar), a corn on the foot; ad. early Flem. weerooghe, ‘chalaza, clalazion’ (Kilian), from weer, callosity, and ooghe, eye.

Wiseacre (1595), one who thinks himself, or wishes to be thought, wise: a pretender to wisdom, a foolish person with an air or affectation of wisdom; ad. (with unexplained assimilation to acre) M.Du. wijsseggher, soothsayer.

Withershins, Widdershins (1513, Douglas), in a direction opposite to the usual, the wrong way; (1545), in a direction
contrary to the apparent course of the sun (considered as unlucky or causing disaster); ad. MLG. \textit{weddersin} (ne) s (cf. Kilian, \textit{wundersins}, 'contrario modo'), ad. MHG. \textit{widersinnes}, from \textit{wider}, wither, and the genitive of \textit{sin}, i.e. \textit{sind}, \textit{sint}, way, direction.

\textbf{Wrack}, adj. (c. 1375), of persons, worthless, base, evil; (1487, \textit{Cely Papers}), damaged, impaired, injured, unsound; in the \textit{Cely Papers} this is a term of trade; ad. MLG. \textit{wrak}, \textit{wrack} (LG. \textit{wark}, whence Sw. \textit{vraig-}, Da. \textit{vrag}), or M.Du. \textit{wrac}, \textit{wrak} (Kilian, \textit{wrack}, \textit{wraek}, Du. \textit{wrak}), worthless, unsound.

\textbf{Wrick} (c. 1305), to move (jerkily or unsteadily) from side to side; ad. MLG. \textit{wriken} (in \textit{vorwriken}, -\textit{wrijcken}, LG. \textit{wrikken}), to move here and there, to sprain, or Du. \textit{wrikken}, to move jerkily, to skull (whence G. \textit{wriken}, Da. \textit{vrikke}, Sw. \textit{vricka}).

\textbf{Wrig} (a. 1529, Skelton), to twist or bend (some flexible object) about, to cause to writhe or wriggle; (1582), to turn aside, divert; (1599), to move sinuously or writhingly; perhaps ad. LG. \textit{wriggen}, to twist or turn, an imitative vb. of the same type as \textit{wrikken}, above.

\textbf{Wriggle} (1495), to twist or turn the body about with short, writhing movements, to move sinuously; ad. MLG. \textit{wriggeln} (LG. \textit{wriggeln}, dial, also \textit{friggeln}, \textit{vriggeln}, Du. \textit{wriggelen}), frequentative of \textit{wriggen}; see Wrig, above.

\textbf{Wrimpled} (c. 1430, Lydgate), wrinkled, rimpled, or puckered, creased; from M.Du. or MLG. \textit{wrimpelen} (older Flem. \textit{wrempelen}, 'to drawe the mouth awry', Hexham), frequentative of MLG. \textit{wrempen}, \textit{wrimpen}, to wrinkle, bend.

\textbf{Wroke} (a. 1500, from Sc.), active ill will or hatred, spite, malice; ad. MLG. \textit{wrok}, \textit{wruk} (LG. and Du. \textit{wrok}), enmity, spite, hatred.

\textbf{Yammer} (c. 1400, \textit{Anters Arth.}, \textit{amurt}; 1481, Caxton), to lament, mourn, wail; an alteration of ME. \textit{amur}, after M.Du. and MLG. \textit{jammeren}.

\textbf{Yaw} (1667), yes; used in representations of Dutch and German speech to reproduce \textit{ja}, yes.

\textbf{Younker} (1505), a young nobleman or gentleman, a youth of high rank, originally Dutch or German; (1513), a young man generally, esp. a gay or fashionable young man; ad. M.Du. \textit{jonckher}, \textit{jonghheer}, \textit{jonchere} (Du. \textit{jonker}, \textit{jonkheer}), from \textit{jonc}, young, and \textit{hêre}, lord, master.

\textbf{Yuffrouw} (1589), a young lady, girl; (1494), in a nautical sense
of doubtful meaning, but perhaps a dead-eye; ad. e.mod.Du. *jongvrouw(e)*, now *juffrouw*, young lady, miss, and in shortened form *juffer*, young lady, beam in ship-building, rammer. 

**Yuke** (c. 1425, from Sc. and Nthn.), to itch; apparently an alteration of Nthn. ME. *zieke*, *zieke*, to itch, probably under the influence of M.Du. *jeuken*. 

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Supplement

THE following words are added to their respective sections: -

1. 6. Pensionary (1587), formerly the chief municipal magistrate of a Dutch city, with the function of a legal adviser or speaker (properly Grand Pensionary), the first minister and magistrate of the state of Holland and Zeeland in the Seven United Provinces of the Netherlands (1619-1794): English translations of the Dutch titles Pensionaris and Groot Pensionaris.

1. 7. Dell (1567, Harman, Caveat), a young girl of the vagrant class, a wench; ad. Du. del, slut, trollop. A variant is Dill (1627), but perhaps directly ad. e.mod.Du. dille (Hexham).

2. 6. Hornwork (1641, Evelyn, Diary) as a term of fortification is probably a translation of Du. hoornwerk.

2. 7. Pickeer (c. 1645), to maraud, pillage, plunder; to skirmish, reconnoitre; possibly ad. Du. pikéeren (1574), ad. F. picorer, to forage, pillage.

3. 11. Colza (1712), a French name for coleseed; ad. F. colza (earlier colsat), ad. LG, kôlsât (M.Du. coolsaet, Du. koolzaad. Gamene (1703), the common sort of Dutch or Zeeland madder; a corrupted form of Du. gemeen, common.

Genappe (1858), the name of a worsted yarn or cord used in the manufacture of braids, fringes, &c.; from Genappe, the name of the town in Belgium where it was originally made. Isinglass (1545, also Isonglas), a substance obtained from the sounds or air-bladders of some fresh-water fishes, esp. the sturgeon; apparently a corruption of obs. Du. huizenblas (Kil. huysenblase), sturgeon's bladder. Messing (1371), a kind of brass; probably borrowed as a term of the Flemish trade; ad. M.Du. messinc, messinge. Mum (1640), a kind of beer originally brewed in Brunswick, and largely imported into England in the 17th and 18th centuries; ad. LG. mumme or Du. mom (older momme). Osnaburg (1545), a kind of coarse linen originally made in the North German town of Osnabrück.

3. 14. Doublejee (1707, also -key, -see, Dubbeltie), a coin worth ten cents or about 2d. English; the various forms are adaptations or corruptions of Du. dubbeltje. Mark marklike (1480), mark for mark, in the same proportion; from M.Du. mark markgelike or LG. mark marklik.

3. 15. Excise (1494), any toll or tax; (1596) spec. ‘a duty
charged on home goods, either in the process of their manufacture or before their sale to the home consumers' (Encycl. Brit.); apparently ad. M.Du. excijs, exchij(n)s.

4. **Drogher** (1756), a West Indian coasting vessel, hence transferred to other slow, clumsy coasting craft; ad. obs. F. drogueur, a ship which fished and dried herring and mackerel (ad. e.mod.Du. drogher, drogher, from droogen, to dry), or directly from Du.

4. **Euphroe** (1815), a crowfoot dead-eye; ad. Du. juffrouw, juffer, dead-eye, lit. ‘maiden’. **Juffer** (1677), a piece of timber four or five inches square; ad. Du. juffer in the sense ‘spar, beam, joint’. **Ufer** (1754), a fir pole or piece of timber from four to seven inches thick and from twenty to forty feet long; ad. Du. juffer, spar.

4. **Sea-fardinger** (a. 1650), a seafarer; perhaps an alteration of Du. zeevaarder, seafarer, after Eng. passenger or seafaring.

4. **Overschippen** (1759, once), to transfer goods from one ship to another; ad. Du. overschepen, in the same sense; the form has perhaps been influenced by Eng. ship.

5. **Gull** (1495), a fish not fully grown, also a kind of gudgeon; probably ad. M.Du. gulle (Du. gul), small codfish.

5. **Flue, Flew** (1388-9), a drag-net; a fixed net; probably ad. M.Du. vlouwe, vluwe, net.

6. **Flench, Flinch, Flense** (1814), to cut up or slice the fat from a whale or seal; ad. Du. flensen, to cut into pieces. **Flench-gut, Flens-gut** (1808), the place on board where the blubber of a whale, cut up in long slices, is stored before barrelling; an adaptation of Du. flensgat, of similar meaning. **Meck** (1867), a notched staff in a whaleboat on which the harpoon rests; ad. Du. mik, forked stick (M.Du. and MLG. mîcke).

7. **Knoll** (1669), a turnip; probably ad. Du. knol (earlier knolle), clod, ball, turnip. **Poppering** (1592), a variety of pear; named after the Flemish town of Poperinghe.

9. **Litmus** (1502), a blue colouring matter obtained from various lichens, esp. archil; ad. M.Du. le(e)cmoes, lijcmoes; the c of the Du. word has probably been altered to t from association with the verb lit, to colour, dye, stain. Dr. C.T. Onions has supplied the following reference, which was pointed out to him by Professor G.N. Clark: **Skey** (Journal of the House of Commons, xi. 487, 494), a cloth-stretching implement; probably ad. Du. schei, transom, tie-piece, in a transferred sense.

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10. **Cool-back** (1707), a vessel used for cooling the wort in brewing; ad. Du. *koelbak*, from *koel*, cool and *bak*, trough.

13. 3. **Scorbut(e)** (1597), scurvy; ad. F. *scorbut*, apparently ad. MLG. *schorbuck*. **Scorbuch**, -buicke (1551), scurvy; ad. e.mod.Du. *schorbuyck, scheuerbuyck*.

13. 5. **Mennonite** (1565), **Mennonist** (1645), a member of a sect of Christians which was founded in Friesland by Menno Simons (1492-1559); formed from the name Menno. **Predicant** (1590), a preacher; spec. a member of a predicant religious order; predikant; ad. F. *prédicant* or e.mod.Du. *predicant*. **Predikant** (1634), a minister of the Dutch Protestant Church, esp. in South Africa; ad. Du. *predikant*.

13. 6. **Glat** (1481), smooth; ad. M.Du. *glad* (*glat*), smooth. **Nicker** (1481), a demon or devil; ad. M.Du. *nicker*, necker. **Noker-tree** (c. 1481), a walnut tree; adapted from M.Du. or M.Flem. *nökerboom*. **Copspin** (1483), a spider; ad. M.Du. *coppespinne*, or altered from *spincop*, which Caxton also uses.


14. 5. **Disselboom** (1858), the pole of a wagon; Du. *disselboom*. **Rheimpy** (1850), rheim; ad. Du. *riempje*, dim. of *reim*.

14. 10. **Erf** (1887), ‘a garden plot, usually containing about half an acre’ (Webster); ad. Du. *erf, erve*, premises. **Schlenter** sb. and adj. (1891), of doubtful value, not genuine; a counterfeit; ad. Du. *slenter*, a trick. **Rooinek** (1897), a term applied by Boers to Englishmen in South Africa; ad. Afrik. *rooie nek*, from Du. *roode nek*, red neck. **Sassatje** (1833), veal or mutton cutlets curried slightly and cooked on a skewer over the fire; from Malay *sisate*, minced meat, and Du. dim. suffix *-je*; the term was, perhaps, introduced by the Malay slaves, whose descendants are the Cape Malays of to-day.

15. 2. **Cookie** (c. 1730), a small plain bun or cake; ad. Du. *koekje*, dim. of *koek*, cake.
16. Kiezer (1812), a member of the Electoral College in British Guiana which
nominates members for the legislative body; ad. Du. kiezer, from kiezen, to
choose.
17. Maund (1459), a wicker or other woven basket having a handle or handles;
a measure of capacity varying with the locality; OE. mand, mond does not
appear to have survived; according to O.E.D., 15th-century maund(e), mand(e)
is ad. OF. mande (ad. M.Du. mande); possibly, however, the word is immediately
from M.Du. or MLG. mande. Plaque (1875), an ornamental plate or tablet of
metal or porcelain; ad. F. plaque, ad. M.Du. plack(e). Pletter (1597) to trim,
crush; ad. e.mod.Du. pletteren (Kil. ‘obterere, exculcare’). Ribspare (1654), a
cut of meat, esp. of pork, consisting of part of the ribs somewhat closely
trimmed; ad. LG. ribbspeir (MLG. ribbespêr). Silvercooper (1796), a kidnapper;
ad. Du. zielvercooper, ‘soul seller’, the name given to a crimp. Slampamp
(1593), a gallimaufry, a hodge-podge; probably from LG.; cf. MLG. slampamp,
‘ein ekelhaftes Gemenge in Speisen’ (Sch-Lü). Slobbery (1398), characterized
by slobber or slobbering; disagreeably wet, slimy, or dirty; probably ad. M.Du.
slobberich, slobbrich, sticky, dirty, mixed with dirt. Slobber (14.., Wright, Songs
& Carols (Percy Soc.)), to feed in a slabbering or slovenly manner; to wet in a
dirty or disagreeable manner; probably from Low Dutch, which has the following
forms: M.Du. slobberen, to walk through mud, e.mod.Du. slobberen, ‘ligurire
ius tepidum’ (Kil.), Du. slobberen, to eat or work in a slovenly manner; cf.
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