A DANISH

AND

DANO-NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

BY

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PREFA E.

A S a teacher of the Danish or Norwegian language to English speaking students I had very often felt the lack of a reliable grammar of the language, and finally I made up my mind to try to supply the want. Special conditions of which I have not been master have caused the time intervening between the writing of this book and its appearance in print to be a good deal longer than it ought to have been, i.e. about two years, and meanwhile there have appeared a couple of Danish or Norwegian grammars that may deserve this name.

The reason why I have given my book the somewhat cumbersome title of a "Danish and Dano-Norwegian Grammar" will be apparent from the "Introduction." As regards the use of the book I would advise the student first to make up his mind, whether he wants to study the pure Danish language or the Dano-Norwegian language. This must to a large extent depend upon personal and practical considerations. The tourist, the commercial traveller, the merchant may need to study one branch of the language or the other; the literary student may wish to acquaint himself with genuine Danish, or he may wish to study the vernacular of Bjørnson and Ibsen. As a general rule I would say that the Danish pronunciation offers, with its "glottal catch" and other peculiarities, more difficulties to the English speaking student than the Norwegian pronunciation.
The student who wants to study Danish must pass by §§ 81 to 146, while those who want to study Norwegian must pass directly from §§ 8 to 81. Besides, in the "Etymology," attention is often called to certain rules as being peculiar to Danish, others to Norwegian. The student must select those he needs, and pass by those that refer to the language that he is not studying.

I have added some "Exercises" at the end of the book in order to help the student fix in his memory those rules and paradigms which he must know before he can, with any degree of success, commence reading the language. For those who wish more exercises I can recommend Mr. K. BREKKE’s excellent Læreboeg i Engelsk which is intended for Norwegian students of English, but may also to a certain extent be used the other way. The student may find an abundance of good readers prepared for use in the Danish and Norwegian schools. I mention only Otto Borchsenius and F. Winkel Horn’s Dansk Læsebog, Eriksen and Paulsen’s Norsk Læsebog, Pauss and Lassen’s Læsebog i Modersmaalet, each of them in several volumes. As Dictionaries can be thoroughly recommended: A. Larsen’s Dansk-Norsk Engelsk Ordbog and Rosing’s Engelsk-Dansk Ordbog. To those who want to study the Norwegian form of the language I would recommend: I. Brynildsen’s Norsk-engelsk ordbog and the same author’s edition of Geelmuyden’s Engelsk-norsk ordbog. The tourist will find Bennett’s Phrasebook, Olsvig’s Words and Phrases and the same author’s Yes and No valuable guides to familiarity with the peculiarities of the language.

This Grammar, besides being based upon my own studies and knowledge of the language, rests, as far as Danish is concerned, chiefly upon the works of Sweet, Dahlerup and Jespersen, Jessen, Bojesen, Lefolii and B. T. Dahl, and for
the Norwegian upon the grammars of Lökke and Hofgaard and the treatises of Storm, Western, Brekke and J. Aars. To those who desire a more detailed knowledge of the language than can be had from this book I would recommend Poëstion’s Dänische Sprache and the same author’s Lehrbuch der Norwegischen Sprache; both these books are excellent, and especially the Danish Grammar has often been of use to me in writing this book.

The several species of types that are peculiar to the Scandinavian languages compelled me to have this book set in a Danish Newspaper printing office in New York City, not properly equipped for a work of this kind. On that account the typographical appearance of the book is not in every respect as good as I would like it to have been. Deserving of special mention is the fact that the types æ and ø are everywhere in the book used promiscuously to represent the latter character except in §92 where the sign ø is used a couple of times to denote and explain a variety of the sound of ö.

Finally I must acknowledge my debt of gratitude to Professor Dr. JOH. STORM of the University of Christiania for kindly sending me those advance sheets of the 2d edition of his “Englische Philologie” that were of use to me in preparing this grammar, to my honored friend Professor A. H. PALMER of Yale University for kindly reading through the larger part of the book in manuscript and making valuable suggestions, and, last but not least, to MR. CHR. BØRS, late Consul of Norway and Sweden at New York, without whose munificence, proverbial among Norwegians in New York, this book would never have seen the light of day.

Brooklyn, N. Y., August 25th, 1894.

THE AUTHOR.
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INTRODUCTION.

SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES. HISTORY OF THE DANO-NORWEGIAN LANGUAGE.

1. The Danish and Dano-Norwegian language belongs to the Scandinavian group of the Teutonic languages. This group comprises, in modern times, besides the language already mentioned, the Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic and Faroish languages.

2. The earliest specimens of Scandinavian language are found in the Runic inscriptions, written in the earlier Runic characters and dating as far back as the 4th century A. D. In these inscriptions the similarity with the other earlier specimens of Teutonic languages (especially Gothic) is more prominent than the peculiar Scandinavian characteristics.

3. During the Viking Age (750—1000 A. D.) the language of the Scandinavian nations underwent a very decided change. The Scandinavian peculiarities distinguishing the language from the other Teutonic idioms appear fully developed, and by and by dialectic differences between the languages of the several Scandinavian nations commence to assert themselves.

4. In the Middle Ages the Danish and Swedish languages form one group that may be designated as the Eastern group of the Scandinavian languages, having in common the monophthongification of original diphthongs, while the Danish language had a development of its own in the direction of substituting voiced stops (mediae) or even open consonants (spirants) for voiceless stops (tenues, hard consonants) after
a long vowel at the end of a word or syllable. The Norwegian language and its offspring the Icelandic tongue, on the other hand, form the Western group of the Scandinavian languages, having in common the retention of the old diphthongs as diphthongs, but with some changes peculiar to each of the two languages. These two languages have, in common with the Swedish, retained the old voiceless stops.

5. In the Middle Ages we have the most valuable literature in the Norwegian-Icelandic language, consisting chiefly of the Eddic songs, the Scaldic art poetry, the Sagas and the Laws, while the chief products of the earliest Danish literature are the provincial laws and popular songs (folk lore), the latter not being reduced to writing until later.

6. When Norway in the latter part of the 14th century was united with Denmark, Norwegian literature fell into decay and Danish grew more and more to be the official language used in Court Documents, Royal Ordinances etc. In the latter part of the 17th century Norwegian authors again began to take an active part in the literature; but their language was Danish, this language having come to be adopted by the educated classes of the Norwegian people and chiefly by the inhabitants of the towns and cities, while the Norwegian language still remained the spoken idiom of most of the rural population. Still the language spoken and written by the educated classes in Norway was never pure Danish. Norwegian authors have always used some native words, taken from the rural dialects, in their writings, and while the official and professional people during the union with Denmark affected as far as possible a correct Danish pronunciation, the tendency in Norway now, even though it be unconscious, is to nationalize the language more and more. This tendency is chiefly noticeable in the pronunciation (retaining the voiceless stops, tenues), but it also appears in the grammar, especially the syntax, and in the vocabulary.

7. Thus it is that we have at the present time two kinds of Danish language, the pure Danish used in Denmark and by Danish authors, and the Dano-Norwegian used in Norway by most of the educated classes, especially in the cities, and by most of the Norwegian authors. Still it should be noted that the language spoken in Norway even by educated people is far more national in its character than the one used in writing.
8. The alphabet used in Danish and Dano-Norwegian literature has the same letters as the English alphabet and besides these the signs Æ (æ) and Ö (Ø, ø, ö). As for the sounds indicated by these letters see §§ 12, 13, 25, 26, 82, 91.

The names of the vowels are represented by their sounds.

The names of the consonants b, c, d, etc. are be, ce, de etc. (pronounce e like a in name.) h and k are called håa and kaa (aa pron. with a sound between o in hole and a in call), j is called jod (yod), g ge (pronounced like g in give), w is called "dobbelt ve" (double v), z zet pr. set.

The Gothic characters are still in very common use, especially in newspapers and popular books. These letters have the following forms:

\[
\begin{align*}
A & B b C c D d E e F f G g H h I i J j K k L l M m N n O o P p Q q R r S s T t U u V v W w X x Y y Z z & A æ Ø ø \hline
a & b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z æ ö
\end{align*}
\]

Some authors also employ the sign å, borrowed from the Swedish language, to express the same sound as is usually in Danish and Dano-Norwegian literature denoted by a a (see above).

Note.—Capital letters are still according to official Danish rules of spelling used at the beginning of substantives and adjectives employed as substantives, while the official Norwegian orthography only acknowledges capital letters in proper nouns. A great many Danish authors also have done away with capital letters in common nouns.

The sounds of the Danish and the Dano-Norwegian branches of the language are so widely different, that it has been found practical to treat of them in separate chapters.
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For the benefit of those not familiar with the phonetic terms as established by Mssrs. Bell, Sweet and others it is here remarked, that the terms "Back", "Mixed" and "Front" refer to the horizontal articulation of the tongue, indicating what part of the tongue has to be raised from its normal position in order to form such an articulation as to produce the vowel in question. Intermediate positions between those mentioned are designated by the names "advanced" or "outer" and "retracted" or "inner".

The words "High", "Mid" and "Low" refer to the vertical position of the tongue. An intermediate position between two of these positions may be described as a lowering of the position immediately above or a raising of the one below.
The terms "Narrow" and "Wide" refer to the shape of the tongue. "In forming "narrow" sounds there is a feeling of tenseness in that part of the tongue where the sound is formed, the surface of the tongue being made more convex than in its natural "wide" shape in which it is relaxed and flattened". (Sweet).

"Rounding is a contraction of the mouth cavity by lateral compression of the cheek passage and narrowing of the lip aperture" (Sweet).

In Danish pronunciation of rounded vowels the rounding is accompanied by a projection of the lips so as to increase the length of the mouth cavity.

Note 1.—The articulation of Danish a is really advanced back, that of e raised mid. The vowels aa (å) and o are both pronounced with the same rounding as o and u, respectively, in common European pronunciation.

Note 2.—It should at once be noticed that in Danish pronunciation the lips play a more prominent part than in English, that the upper lip is never drawn so close to the teeth as in English pronunciation, and that the tongue normally has a more advanced and flattened position than with English speaking people.

SOUND VALUE OF DANISH VOWELS AND THEIR GRAPHIC REPRESENTATION IN COMMON ORTHOGRAPHY.

11. A has a sound very near that of English a in father, although not quite as deep (somewhat palatalized). Ex. long: Gade street, Abe monkey; short: Hat hat, Tak thanks.

Note. The long a has in the vulgar Copenhagen pronunciation a sound very near English a in fat prolonged. The foreigner must avoid imitating this pronunciation.

12. ø (long) has the same sound as English ai in air; Ex.: Hær army, vøre to be, sveve to hover.

This sound is in orthography represented by e in: bedre better, der there, her here, deres their, ere are, regjere to rule, Regjering government
and upond the whole before —r), Legeme body, sjette (pr. sjæte) sixth, tjene to serve, fjerd(e) fourth, Stedet the place, udstede to issue, tilstede to permit and other derivatives of Sted; Chef chief.

13. ø (short) has the same sound as English e in men; Ex.: hæslig ugly, lægge to lay.

This sound is in orthography as a rule represented by the sign e which is pronounced in this way in most cases when it is short and at the same time stressed; Ex.: denne this, Ven friend, elsko to love, Ende end, svensk Swedish. It is written e when derived from a word with long sound of ø, written æ, or from word with a, aa or ø in the root; Ex.: hærlig affectionate (from hør dear), følde to fell (from Fald fall), nægte to deny (from nej no); Haender hands (from Haand hand); furthermore in Priest priest and some other words.

14. e represents the sound of French é in été or of English a in name, but without the diphthongic element of the latter (more like the common American pronunciation of a). This is the common sound of e when it is long (except before r, see § 12); Ex.: se to see, Reb rope, Snøs score.

When a word in one form has a long e, then it, as a rule, retains the same quality of the sound, even if the vowel in other forms of the word is shortened: hødt hot (neuter of hød), lekt searched (partcp. of lede). The short variety of the same sound is also found in the unstressed prefixes be— and ge—: bestemme to decide; Gemal consort; furthermore in some monosyllables ending in —d or —v: Bed bed (in garden), Fjed step, Drev pinion (but Sted see § 12).

15. This sound (e) is represented by the orthographical sign of i in a great many cases where the vowel is short; especially is i pronounced this way before mm, mp, nt, ng, nk, besides some other cases; Ex.: Fisk fish (pron. fesk), fiske to fish, ridse to scratch, Pligt duty, vil will, Spil play, Pille pill, digte to make poetry, lidt a little (pron. let, but lidt suffered [partcp. of lide] pron. lit), midt middle (pron. met, but mit mine pron. mit), Skin appearance, Tin tin, in the prefix mis, misbruge to misuse: Misdøder malefactor; unstressed in the derivative endings—ing, —ning: Yniling favorite, Slegtning relative. Some words may be spelt with either i or e: tusinde and tusende thousand,
Danish sounds.

Ærinde and Ærende errand (these two words may also be pronounced with i).

16. ø has a sound approaching that of French e in que, English i in bird. This sound only occurs in unaccented syllables, and its orthographic sign is e. Ex.: Gave gift, Gade street.

Some words may be pronounced and spelt with or without ø (e); Ex.: tusind and tusinde thousand, hundred and hundrede hundred, Ærind or Ærinde errand, Billed(e) picture, Embed(e) office, Arbeid(e) work, Legem(e) body, Madam(e), Himmerig(e) kingdom of heaven, Tind(e) peak; in the words Herre Master, Frue Mistress, Madame, Konge king, Fyrste prince, Greve count the final e is omitted before a name or another title; Herre is then spelt Hr.: Hr. Petersen Mr. P.

17. Immediately after another stressed vowel ø is often slurred in the pronunciation, so as almost to disappear: troode believed. In some cases it is written but not pronounced at all; it can never be pronounced immediately after a single vowel with glottal catch (see § 76) nor after a short stressed vowel. In some cases there may be a choice between a long stressed vowel with pronounced ø and a short vowel without ø. The former is then used in more select language, and especially is the retaining of ø common in the passive form; Ex.: slaaes to be beaten, but slaas to fight, slaaset and slaas't beaten, gaaet and gaa't gone. After i and u e is commonly retained (but befri liberate, forny renew, without e because of glottal catch).

An ø is sometimes written without being pronounced, either to indicate length of the preceding vowel or to distinguish between different words of the same sound or words that although differing in sound would according to common rules have to be written in the same way. This ø is called mute; Ex.: saa(e) saw, to distinguish it from saa so; fok(e)r (long o) went to distinguish from for, prp. for (short open å).

18. i has, when long (i•), about the same sound as English ee in see; Ex.: Mine mien, Pibe pipe, smile to smile.

When short it has the same sound as English i in fill; this sound occurs a) when the same word in another form or
when the root word, from which the word in question is formed, has long i: mít my (neut. of min), stri(d)te fought, prtcp. of stride, hvi(d)te to whitewash, derived from hvid white; b) before ld or lt: Sild hering, Milt milt; c) in some other words; Ex.: Kridt chalk, hvid here (hither), Pisk whip, grisk greedy; d) in unstressed syllables; Ex.: Rival rival, imod against.

The orthographic sign of this vowel is i, except in de they, De you, where it is e.

19. aa (å) has a sound similar to English a in call, but closer. The long sound is as a rule written aa: blaa blue, Naade grace; but it is in some words denoted by o before v (except in diphthongs, see § 28) and g; Ex.: Bog book; Brog breeching, broget variegated, klog prudent, koge to cook, Krog hook, kroget crooked, love to promise, Scoger brother-in-law, Droog a good-for-nothing, Fjog booby, Sprog language, Tog expedition; unstressed in Orlog (naval) warfare, Orlov leave of absence (in the six last named words the vowel may be pronounced long and short); furthermore in hvor where, Torsdag Thursday, borte away, Vorte wart, vor e ours, otte eight, (pron. å-te, but the ordinal ottende the eighth with short vowel), and unstressed Alvor earnest.

20. The short å-sound is as a rule denoted by the letter o; Ex.: Lod ½ ounce; Boble bubble, Borg castle, hoppe to jump, Krop body, lokke to allure, vor our.

The short sound of å is denoted by aa in some words formed by derivation or inflection of words with a long aa, and besides in some other words; Ex.: blaat blue (neut. of blaa), vaadt wet (neut. of vaad), Skaansel mercy (from skaane to treat with leniency), Aadsel corpse, Aand spirit, Aande breath, Baand ribbon, Flaad flux, Haand hand, Laad fleece, laadden fleecy, en Maatte a mat, Raad pus (but Raad council, long aa), saa so (when unstressed), Saald sieve (also written Sold), Vaand wand, Vaande jeopardy; and with secondary accent Undersaat a subject, usaattes on bad terms.

21. O is a sound peculiar to the Scandinavian languages, midway between English o in toe and oo in too, but nearer the latter; and it is spoken with the same rounding of the lips.
as the English oo. The sound of o when long is in orthography represented by o, which letter when representing a long vowel generally denotes this sound; Ex.: stor large, Blod blood, god good, Sko shoe, Bro bridge (as for o with sound of long å see § 19).

22. The short sound of o is represented in orthography by o in the following cases: 1) in words formed by inflection, derivation or composition from a root word or form with long o; Ex.: nordisk Northern (from nor(d), Gods goods (from god good), (but godt neuter of god, pron. gat); 2) in unstressed first syllables before a single consonant: Hotel, Koloni, broder to embroider (also in Hospital, Osteri); 3) in the following words: Kost broom, ond bad, Onsdag Wednesday, Ost cheese, sort black, Torden thunder.

23. Otherwise the short sound of o is represented in common orthography by u, which sign when representing a short vowel usually indicates this sound (except in the cases stated in § 24); Ex.: Dug dew (but Dug table cloth with u'); smuk nice, Buk he-goat, lukke close, slukke extinguish, Hul hole, dum foolish, stum mute, Hummer lobster; unstressed in fordum formerly. Some words may be spelt with either u or o, the pronunciation in both cases being o; Ex.: Kunst and Konst art, Kummen and Kommen caraway, Kuffert and Koffert traveller's trunk.

24. u represents a sound similar to the English oo, but closer; Ex.: Hus house, bruge to use, ud out. A short sound of u, similar to English u in full, occurs in some cases: 1) in words derived from words or forms with long u or y; Ex.: brugt partic. of bruge to use, skudt partic. of skyde to shoot; 2) in unstressed syllables; Ex.: uggjorlig impossible, Musik, Uniform; 3) when u is followed by ld, lt or sk; Ex.: fuld full, Guld gold, sulte to starve, fuske to bungle; 4) in the words: Krudt gunpowder, Lut lute, lurvet shabby, and some others (about u in other cases representing the sound of o see § 23).

25. ø has a sound like French eu in peu; the English
language has no corresponding sound (to produce the sound one should say a as in English fate and at the same time hold the lips in almost the whistling position); Ex.: Fødsel birth, Bønder peasants, Søster sister, Stød blow, høre to hear, lød sounded (impf. of lyde), Sølv silver, løs loose, Prove trial, Bøger books. The sound of ø is represented by the letter ø (ø) always when it is long, and sometimes when short. But the short sound of ø is as a rule in writing represented by the sign of y; Ex.: Tryk pressure, Stykke piece, dryppe to drip, dyrke to cultivate, Fyrste a prince, kysse to kiss, Lygte lantern, Lykke fortune, Nytte utility, skylle to rinse, synke to sink.

26. ð has a more open sound, like French eu in people, German ö. (Pronounce English a in fat with the lips in a whistling position); Ex.: første first, Berømmelse fame, større larger, Björn bear, Bönner prayers, Sön son, forsømme to neglect.

Note. In Danish spelling there is not as a rule made a consistent distinction between the signs ö and ø, most writers using both signs promiscuously or either one exclusively.*) ð is as a rule used before m, n ending a word, nn, rr, rn. (As for the sound and use of ð as first part of a diphthong see § 28).

27. y has the sound of French u, German ü; the English language has no corresponding sound (to produce it the tongue takes the position for i, the lips that for u). The letter y represents this sound 1) when it is long; Ex.: flyde to flow, adlyde to obey, sy to sew, Öjenbryn eyebrow, Tyv thief, Sky cloud; 2) when short, a) in case the root word or form has long y; Ex.: dybt neuter af dyb deep, nyt neuter af ny new; b) in unstressed syllables; Ex.: Hypothék mortgage, Hyperbol,

*) As for consistency in pronunciation the Danish grammarian Dr. Jessen says, that it is not easy to find two persons who agree on this point.
Fysik; c) when y is followed by the combinations ld or lt; Ex.: fylde to fill, Stylte stilt; d) in some other words; Ex.: Frygt fright, styg ugly, tyk thick. (As for the letter y representing the sound of ə see § 25.)

**DANISH DIPHTHONGS.**

28. Danish spelling has the following Diphthongs:

\[ av, ov, æv, øv \text{ and } aj, ej, øj, øj. \]

The consonant part of these diphthongs has in spite of the peculiar Danish spelling with \( v \) and \( j \) the sounds of \( w \) and \( i^* \). In the diphthongs of the \( w \)-series the vowel part retains its peculiar sound \( (a, o, æ, ø) \); Ex.: Havn harbor, hævne to revenge, navne to name, hovne to swell, Hövl plane, Støvle boot, Vrövl nonsense; but in the \( i \)-series \( a \) and \( e \) are pronounced as \( a, o \) and \( ö \) as a sound approaching å; \( aj \) and \( ej \) are pronounced like English \( y \) in \( m y \), \( øj \) and \( öj \) like English \( oy \) in \( b o y \); vaje to wave and veje to weigh pronounced in the same manner; böje to bend and Boje a buoy, both pronounced alike. Another sign for the diphthong \( ej \) is \( eg \); Ex.: jeg pr. jaj; Vegne in allevegne, everywhere (pron. vainæ, e. g. rhyme: Vegne, Hygiaje). 16 is now spelt sejsten, formerly sexten. Nögle (pr. nåīle) key; Vindbeutel (pron. venbàitl) braggart; but in Zeus, Europa etc. eu is pronounced \( öv \).

**DANISH CONSONANTS.**

29. The difference between tenues (p, t, k) and mediae (b, d, g) is not so much dependent upon the circumstance of

*) Some Danish grammarians think that the Danish diphthongs really have the consonants \( v \) and \( j \) for their second part.
the former being voiceless, the latter voiced, as is the case in English. But the Danish tenues are followed by a voiceless breath, thereby becoming aspirates. Thus the energy of expiration becomes the chief distinguishing feature between Danish tenues and mediae.

In some cases the tenues are written where the sound is really nearer to that of the mediae; thus Nordens Skuder (the ships of the North) and Nordens Guder (the gods of the North) are both pronounced in almost the same manner (sguder), i.e. the aspiration of tenues does not take place after s and thus the chief characteristic of the hard sound disappears. The same rule applies to shut consonants written double in the middle of words, pp, tt, kk representing about the same sound as bb, dd, gg; Ex.: tykke thick, plur., and tygge to chew, Bække rivulets, and begge both, Lapper patches, and Labber paws, have the same sound, something between tenues and mediae.

30. p has the hard aspirated sound of p-h (not ph=f) in the beginning of syllables: Pære pear, Penge money, Parade.

The sound of p is written b before s and terminative t (te), the long root vowel at the same time being shortened; Ex.: Ribs currants, Stribs flogging, dybt deep (neut. of dyb), dræbe killed, impf. of dræbe, tabt lost, partcp. of tabe to lose.

31. 1) After s, 2) when written double (pp) and 3) at the end of words the sign p represents the sound midway between p and b, or a hard b; Ex.: spare to save (sb), pippe to peep up (pron. p-hibbe), op up, pron. obb (bb in these cases indicating the hard sound of b).

32. In some foreign words ph indicates the sound of f (see § 36). Phariseer, Philosophi (more commonly now spelt with f). In Ps in Greek words p is mute: Psalme psalm (also written Salme); in others like Psykologi psychology, Psalter, Pseudonym, Ptolemæus it is sounded by some people, omitted by others.
33. *b* is pronounced as the voiced labial stop (Engl. *b*) 1) in the beginning of a word or a syllable; Ex.: *bade* to bathe, *Brok* hernia, *Blæk* ink, *Tuabe* fool; 2) at the end of a word or a syllable after a long vowel; Ex.: *Gab* gap, *Stab* stuff, *Daab* baptism.

34. The sound midway between *b* and *p* is represented by the sign of *b*, 1) at the end of a word or syllable after a short vowel; Ex.: *Lab* paw, *Grib* vulture; 2) when written double between two vowels: *Labber* paws, *Ribbe* rib.

35. *m* like English *m*: *Mad* food, *ham* him; double *m* (*mm*) pronounced short: *kom(m)e* to come.

36. *f* is a labiodental voiceless open consonant and has a sound similar to English *f*: *fau* few, *Skuffe* drawer, *Ruf* deckhouse.

In some words the sound of *f* is represented in writing by *v*: thus in the beginning of the foreign words: *Vernis* varnish, *Viol* violet, *Violin*, and also sometimes before *t* as in *groft* rough (neut. of *grow*), *haft* had (prtcp. of *havc*) pron. *groft, haft*, which now also is the official way of spelling.

Note. *Stifuder*, stepfather, pronounced *stefur*, so also other compounds with *stif-* step- pronounced ste.

37. *v* is a labiodental open voiced consonant similar in pronunciation to English *v*; it occurs in the beginning of words and after a consonant, after a long vowel and in foreign words; Ex.: *Van(d)* water, *Sværd* sword, *evig* eternal, *lavt* low (neuter), *Avis* newspaper.

In the pronunciation of the Copenhagen dialect *v* often takes the place of *b* after a vowel; *lobe* pron. *love*, *København* pron. *Køvenhavn*; in some words both forms are written promiscuously: *Knebel* and *Knevel*, *knevele* and *knebl_; *gag* and to *gag*.

The sound of *v* is written *f* in *af* præp. of, pron. *av, aw* (see § 28), *a.*
38. For \( v \) being the sign of the \( w \)-sound in diphthongs, see § 28. Some words may be pronounced both with diphthong (the vowel preceding \( v \) then being short) and with a long vowel and \( v \); Ex.: Hav sea pron. Ha\-v or Haw, Skove forests pron. Skå\-ve or Skå\-we, over over, pron. å\-ver or å\-wer. The vowels \( a \) and \( o \) are mostly short before \( v \) (implying the diphthongic pronunciation), but there are some exceptions: bræ\-v brave, Gra\-v grave, Kræ\-v claim, la\-v low, ga\-v gave (impf. of give), gro\-v dug (impf. of grave).

39. Colloquially \( v \) is often dropped after 1: hal\( (v) \) half, tol\( (v) \) 12, sol\( (v) \) silver; after a long vowel: bra\( (v) \) brave, ga\( (v) \) gave, gi\( (v) \) give, bli\( (v) \) become, ble\( (v) \) became. Between two vowels, the second of which is \( e \), \( v \) is often dropped together with the following \( e \); Ex.: ha\( (ve) \) to have, gi\( (ve) \) to give, gi\( (ve) r \) gives, bli\( (ve) r \) becomes, Hoved head, pron. Hođe in its original meaning, but Hoved in compound words used figuratively: Hovedsag matter of chief importance, Hovedstuds capital, ha\( (ve) \) to have, imperf. pron. hađe written havde.

40. \( t \) an aspirated English \( t \) (t\-h, but not an open (spirantic) sound like English th); Ex.: Tag roof, ti ten. After \( s \) the aspiration does not take place, so \( st \) sounds almost like \( sd \): Sted place, pron. Sdeď. Also \( tt \) sounds almost like a \( d \), but without voice: møtte satisfied (plur.), pron. måđe (see § 29).

41. The sound of \( t \) is in Danish spelling in some words rendered by \( th \) in conformity with the old pronunciation; Ex.: thi (conjunction) for; Thing diet (to distinguish it in writing from Ting thing). Also in words of Greek origin: Theater, Throne, Theorë.

42. \( t \) is at the end of the unstressed syllable in words of two syllables or more pronounced as a soft \( ð \) (see § 46); especially in participles and words with the definite article; Ex.: böjet bent (bojđ), Huset (ð) the house. But in foreign words with the stress upon the second syllable \( t \) is pronounced as \( t \): Serviet napkin.
43. *t* is written but not pronounced in adverbs ending in *igt*; Ex.: *tydeli(gt)* plainly; in the article and pronoun *de(t)*.

44. In foreign words *ti* before a vowel as a rule is pronounced as *tsi*; Ex.: *partiel, Kvotient, Differentiering* differentiation; but the ending *tion* is pronounced as *sjon*: *Nation* pron. *Nasjon, Motion* exercise, pron. *Mosjon*.

45. *d* has a sound like English *d*, but less voiced, 1) in the beginning of words: *Dal* valley, *Dok* dock, *din* thine; 2) in the middle and at the end of words after a consonant (if not mute) (see § 47); Ex.: *Olding* old man, *Forældre* parents, *Byrd* birth, *lærđ* learned; 3) between two vowels, when the word is of foreign origin or a proper noun: *Soda, Adam, Edda*.

46. The sign *d* also represents an open consonant with a sound similar to that of English soft *th* in *father*; in pronouncing this "soft" *d* (phonetic sign ơ) the tip of the tongue is allowed to remain in the lower part of the mouth, while the front of the tongue is raised towards the gums and the breath is gently squeezed between the tongue and the gums. This sound occurs:

1) in the middle of words between two vowels (also when written double: *Pudde* toad, *Klaadde* rough-draught; but *Breaddde* breadth and *Viddde* width, have closed *d*); Ex.: *bede* to beg, *greæde* to cry, *weep, Naade* grace, *Maade* manner; 2) in the middle of words after a vowel before *j, l, m, n, r* and the genitive *s*; Ex.: *dadle* to reproach, *Sadler* bills, *rødme* to blush, *krydre* to spice; 3) at the end of a word after a vowel; Ex.: *Gud* God, *Stud* bullock, *Vid* wit. Also when ending the first part of a compound word, even if the second part begins with a hard consonant; Ex.: *Blodtub* loss of blood, *udsat* exposed.

47. *d* is written but not pronounced (mute) 1) in most cases after *l* and *n*; Ex.: *Gul(d)* gold, *Il(d)* fire, *smæl(d)e* to crack (a whip), *Skul(d)er* shoulder, *hol(d)e* to hold, *Haan(d)* hand, *Venin(d)e* lady friend.
Note. 

- **DANISH SOUNDS.**

- **Note.** *d* is pronounced after *l* and *n* a) in derivative adjectives ending in —ig and —elig; Ex.: *mandig* manful, *sandelig* truthfully; b) when followed by *r*; Ex.: *forandre* to change, *hindre* to prohibit, *Forældre* parents; c) in the ending —ende; Ex.: *lesende* reading, *Tidende* news; d) in some specific words: *Olding* old man, *Ældre* age, *Vælde* power, *Bande* gang, *Blonde* lace, *Grande* neighbor, *Kunde* customer; and in foreign words: *Indien* East India, *Cyliner* Cylinder, *Gelænder* bannisters. (*Ynde* grace, charm, pron. *Ønde*, but *ynde* to favor; pron. *önne*).

2) After *r* when the preceding vowel is long; Ex.: *Bord* table (pron. *Bor*), *Or(å)* word, *Jor(å)* earth (sometimes on the pulpit and in similar style pronounced *Jord* with short *o* and audible *d*); *jor(å)et* earthy, without *d*, *jordet* buried, with *d*. But when the preceding vowel is short *d* is pronounced after *r*: *Før* voyage, and *førdes* to travel, (but *paafør(å)e* abroad, afoot), *Byr* birth, *Byrde* burden.

- **Note.** In *nordisk* northern, the *d* is pronounced but in *Norden* it is not unless when signifying the three Scandinavian countries; *nor(d)en-* for to the north of, *nor(d)enfra* from the north etc.

3) Before an —s (not being the genitive ending) *d* as a rule is not pronounced (and it is never pronounced before *sk* or between *n* and *s*); *be(å)st* best, *Lo(å)*s pilot, *en Stads* of a city (gen.), but *Sta(å)*s state, show. In compound words the —s as a rule originally is the genitive ending and therefore the *d* is pronounced; Ex.: *Duadskraft* energy, but *Bau(å)smænd* boatswain, *Bau(å)s- hage* boat-hook; in adverbs which originally are genitive forms *d* is pronounced: *allesteds* etc., everywhere; in *tilfreds* satisfied *d* may be pronounced or not.

4) Before *t*: *go(å)t* neuter of *god* good, *spa(å)t* neuter of *spæd* tender, *et Ri(å)t* a ride.

5) Before *k* in the words *Bø(å)ker* cooper, *Sne(å)ker* joiner.

- **48.** In many words of frequent occurrence *d* between two vowels is dropped together with the following vowel when the latter is *o*; such words are *Fader*, *Moder*, *Broder* pron. *Far*, *Mor*, *Bror* father, mother, brother; in compounds also written
in the short form: *Farfader* father's father, but *Fadermorder* parricide, *Mormor* mother's mother, *Fjeder* or *Fjer* feather, *Foder* or *Foer* pron. for, fodder or lining (generally spelt with d in the former meaning without it in the latter); *Spar* or *Spa(de)r* spades (in cards) but *Spader* (spæðør) spades (as a tool); *han la(de)r* he lets (præs. of la(de) to let), *Klæ(de)r* clothes, but *Klæder* cloths (generally called *Sorier* Klæde kinds of cloth), *Læ(de)r* leather. *d* is also in common conversation dropped at the end of many words of common occurrence: *go(d)* good, *han lo(d)* he lets, *sto(d)* stood, *ve(d)* with, *jeg ve(d)* I know, *(h)va(d)* what; also *Kjedel* kettle, pron. *Kele*.

This dropping of the *d* may be used as a means of distinguishing two meanings of one word; thus *vid* wide is pronounced *vi* when signifying wide in opposition to narrow: *et Par vi(d)ø Buxer* a pair of wide trousers; but *uden videre* without further (ado), *og suвидere* etc., *den vide Verden* the wide, wide world.

49. *n* has the same sound as in English; *ng* has the same sound as English *ng* in *singer*; Ex.: *Finger* finger, *Sanger* singer; the same sound is before *k* represented by *n* alone; so also in some foreign words before *g*; Ex.: *sanke* (pron. sangke) to gather, *Enke* (ngk) widow, *Evangelium* (ngg) gospel, *Ungarn* (ngg) Hungary.

50. *l* has the same sound as in English.

51. *s* never has the soft (voiced) sound of English *s* between vowels. Ex.: *Hus* house, *sy* to sew (s in both cases pronounced alike). *sj* represents one single sound, that of a palatalized *s*, similar in sound to English *sh*; Ex.: *sjelden* seldom, *Sjæl* soul.

German *sch*, English *sh*, French *ch*, *g*, *j* are by the Danes pronounced with this same sound in words borrowed from those languages: *Schak* chess, *Shavel* shawl, *Choc* onset, *Chocolade, jaloux* (sj.) *genere* (sj.) to worry.

52. *j* is a palatal open voiced (except after *k*, *p*, *t*) con-
sonant corresponding in sound to English y before vowels; Ex.: *,ja* yes, *jeg* (pron. jai) I.

For j representing the sound of i in the second part of diphthongs see § 28.

j is often written without being pronounced after k and g before ø, ø and open e. K(j)tør dear, g(j)erne willingly. (According to the latest official rules of spelling this j is not to be written except in Danish names such as Kjøge, Kjøbenhavn, where the use of j is optional). Before other vowels than those mentioned j is pronounced (except in the Copenhagen dialect); Kjole dress coat, woman's gown; gjor(d)e did.

53. k is an aspirated tenuis; kalde pron. k-hal.ø; the aspiration does not take place after s and when written double in the middle of words, see § 29. Ikke not, forming rhyme with ligge, Sukke sighs (plur.) forming rhyme with Vugge cradle, skal shall, pron. sgal.

54. g is not so distinctly voiced as the corresponding English sound, to which it otherwise corresponds. g occurs 1) in the beginning of words; Ex.: Gave gift, grave to dig, glide to slide, give to give; 2) in the middle of words a) when written double: ligge to lie, begge both; b) between two vowels in foreign words: Agurk cucumber, Cigar; 3) in the end of words after a short vowel: styg ugly, Byg barley, Hug cut, blow; sometimes after a long vowel: Æg egg, definite form Ægget, where the double g (gg) is the sign of this sound and does not indicate the shortness of the preceding vowel.

55. The sign of g also represents an open (spirantic) guttural voiced sound, similar to German g in legen, Ta ge. This sound never occurs in the beginning of words, but 1) in the middle of words between two vowels (but not after a short
DANISH SOUNDS.

æ or ò), or between a vowel and a voice consonant or two voice consonants; 2) at the end of words after a long vowel or a voice consonant; Ex.: bage to bake, vige to yield, sluge to devour, kogle to charm, vaagne to awaken, Møngde quantity.

Note 1. For g serving as orthographical sign of the sound i in diphthongs see § 28.

g represents this sound 1) after the vowels open e or ö before l or n or before a termination commencing with unstressed æ; 2) in the end of words after a short open e, æ or ö; Ex.: Nogle (øj) key, Egn (aj) region, jeg (aj) I, Leg (aj) play, meget (ajot) much, legede (aja) played; 3) in the pronouns mig me, dig thee, you, sig him (her) self (pron. maj etc.). (Colloquially these pronouns are when unstressed pronounced ja, ma, da, sa, and in church oratory and recitations the three last mentioned may be pronounced as written mig, dig, sig, but that is never the case with jeg). In stead of deøj dough, feig cowardly, seig tough the official orthography now is dej, fej, sej.

Note 2. g serves as the sign of the sound u in diphthongs (see § 28) after the sound å written o) in: Rogn spawn, Sogn parish, Vogn wagon. (In stead of the former spelling, Laos guild, Saus saw, taug was silent, Ploug plough, Tong rope, there is now generally written Lav, Sav, tav, Plov, Tor. Wholly antiquated is the spelling Hauge for Have garden).

56. In common every day pronunciation g is often dropped: 1) after long u in slu(g)æ to devour, su(g)æ to suck, Ku(g)æle bullet, Fu(g)æl fowl, (the g was in these cases first assimilated to æ and then dropped); 2) after long i in: li(g)æ straight, direct, Pi(g)æ girl, si(g)æ to say, Skri(g)æ cry etc. (g in these cases was assimilated to j and then dropped); 3) after l and r: sæl(g)æ to sell; spør(g)æ to ask; impf. sol(g)æ sold, spur(g)æ te (sporte) asked, dul(g)æ te concealed; 4) In ta(ge)r takes, ta(ge) æ to take, to(ɡ)æ took, slo(ɡ)æ struck, la(ɡde) æ laid.

57. The r commonly used by educated Danes is the untrilled back or throat r, produced by raising the back of the tongue towards the roof of the pharynx; this r is as a rule voiced, but it is voiceless after aspirated stops; it is never vo-
calic like English final r; Ex.: Raaβ cry, irløt tireed, (han) løber he runs.

Note. In Jutland and in some other local dialects the r is pronounced with a strong trill, either front or uvular; the latter pronunciation is especially employed in the stage and pulpit language.

R is dropped in the pronunciation of the appellative noun: Ka(r)l a man, laborer (in the derivative Kælling, an old woman, r is not even retained in writing), but in the proper noun Karl Charles, r retains its sound.

58. h has the same sound as English h; it is pronounced before vowels in the beginning of a word or a syllable; Ex.: han he, udholde to endure, Mæhæe ninny.

Note 1. In some words h is written before j and v without influencing the pronunciation: (H)vile rest, (H)jul wheel.

Note 2. A vowel ending a sentence is in Danish pronounced with a peculiar breath that may be compared with an h. This is not indicated in spelling; vi we, pron. (in the position mentioned) vih, nu now, pron. huh.

59. ø only occurs in foreign words and is pronounced as s and k according to the same rules as in English; Ex.: Centrum, Scene, Accent.

According to the latest official orthography c is only to be used indicating the sound of k before an other c that represents the sound of e; in all other cases it is to be replaced by k: Vokal, Konsonant.

60. ch is in words of Greek origin pronounced as k and now also officially written that way; it indicates the same sound in the proper names Tycho and Munch, but in words of French origin ch is usually pronounced as sj: Chaussé highway. sch in words of German origin is pronounced like Danish sj. Instead of a former sch (ch) there is now in many words regularly written sk: Droske cab, Mansket cuff, Marskal, Marskandiser fripper, Skak chess, Skatol cabinet, Skakshaft, Skallotteløg eschalot.

61. Q only occurs before v in foreign words, but it is now mostly in those of such words as are in popular use replaced
by k. *Kvinde* woman is now only by very oldfashioned people spelt *Quinde*; *Kvartét*, *Kvint*.

62. *W* only occurs in foreign words and has the sound of v. *Wien* Vienna.

63. *X* according to the latest rules is to be replaced by *ks* in words of common use: *seks* six, *Okse* ox.

64. *Z* represents the sound of s and is only used in foreign words. In words of German origin it is to be replaced by *s:s*itre to tremble, *sire* to adorn; in other foreign words it is to be retained: *Zone*, *Zenit*, *Zelot*.

### COLLOQUIAL FORMS.

65. In colloquial language words of frequent occurrence and of no particular logical importance undergo some abbreviations and changes besides those already spoken of. Some of the most important of them may here be mentioned.

*at*, to, before infinitives pronounced å.

den is enclitically pronounced ’n: *gi me’n* for *giv mig den* give it me.

det (which proclitically is pronounced *de:* *de(t) store Hüs* the big house) is enclitically pronounced ’ô: *si me’ô* for *sig mig det* tell it me.

endnu yet, pron. inu.

*ide* when, pron. ide‘ (see § 43).

*nej* no, pron. næ.

*og* and, pron. å (thus taking the same form as the infinitive particle *at*, with which it is often confounded).

*ogsaa* also, pron. o’så.

*skal* shall pron. sga.

*til* to, pron. t-he.

*tredive* 30, pron. treðvø.

*vil* will, pron. ve.

### DANISH ACCENT.

66. The accent stress in Danish as a rule rests on the root-syllable, which in most cases is the first syllable. The
accent stress is not in common writing indicated by any orthographic sign.

67. Some derivative suffixes take the accent: —ads, —inde, —i; Ex.: Mora'ds morass, Veni'nde lady friend, Vær'di' value.

68. Foreign words as a rule have the accent on the same syllable as in the language from which they have been adopted: Stude'nt, Kor-pora'l, Universite't, Fam'i'lie, Ame'rika.

Note 1. In a few foreign words the accent is on another syllable than in the language from which they were taken; Ex.: Talle'rken dish plate, from Low G. Te'llerken; Bersær'k from O. N. be'rserkr; Valky'rie from O. N. val'kyria.

Note 2. In words ending in —or (adopted from the Latin) the accent in plural moves according to the Latin rule: Profe's'sor, Professo'rer (but with the definite article Profe's'soren the professor).

69. Adjectives derived in —agtig and —haftig (German endings) have the accent on the termination: barna'gtig childish, dea'gtig partaking, mandha'ftig mannish; the same is also the case with most adjectives ending in —isk: parti'sk partial; poli'sk sly (but kri'gerisk warlike).

The ending —lig often has the power of moving the accent towards the ending of the word: sædva'nlig customary (but Sæ'dvane custom), eventy'rlig marvellous (but E'ventyr adventure).

70. In com-pound words the first part as a rule takes the chief accent ('), the first syllable of the second part a secondary accent ('); Ex.: Hu'sler'r private tutor, Prø'vearår trial year; Blo'msterpo'tte flower pot.

71. The chief accent is on the second part of compound words. a) in substantives; 1) in some Scandinavian local names: Kø'benha'vn Copenhagen, Ko'rsø'r; 2) in some compounds, where the second part qualifies the first part: Aar-hu'ndrede century, Aartu'sinde millennium, Aarti' decen-nium (but Fe'maar lustrum); 3) in some titles: Borgme'ster
burgomaster, Generalløjtnant lieutenant general; 4) in the words: nordøst northeast, nordvest northwest etc., and in Skjærso'mmer month of June, Pebermy'nte peppermint, Skarnty'de hemlock, Fastela'vn shrovetide, Skjærtorsdag Maundy Thursday, Langfredag Good Friday; 5) in words, the second part of which is lille: Barnli'le little child, Morli'le dear mother; 6) in some words the first part of which is a verbal stem, the second an adverb: Pasop (dog's name), Farvel farewell; b) in adjectives:

1) in some adjective derivatives in -ig or -lig: agtvær'lig estimable, tilbø'rlig proper, hængje'rrig vindictive, frimo'dig frank, taalmo'dig patient (but hø'vmodig haughty), neder'dragtig mean. But most compound adjectives formed in this manner have the accent on the first part of the composition: ski'nhellig hypocritical, ma'ngesidig manysided, e'nsformig uniform; no strict rules can be given, because the language of different persons differs even in the same words, and sometimes similar words differ without any apparent reason (Ex.: ko'rtvarig of short duration; but: langva'rigrig of long duration) and in some cases difference in accent serves to indicate difference of meaning; Ex.: enfo'ldig simple minded, e'nfoldig yielding a return equal to the seed sown; 2) in adjectives derived in -som and -bar: opfivndsom inventive, udfo'rbar practicable; 3) in compound adjectives the first part of which is al: alvi'dende omniscient, almæ'gtig almighty, ale'ne alone; 4) in some other compound adjectives: höjvelbaar'ren nobel, höjær'del highly noble, höjstær'ret highly honored, medli'dende sympathetic, tilfre'ds satisfied;

c) compound adverbs the first part of which is der or her and the second part a preposition, are accentuated on the first part, if they commence the sentence; if not, they are accented according to the logical importance of the component
parts (see § 75): de'rei har De Ret there you are right, han gik derfra* med tunqt Hjerte he left (literally: went thence) with a heavy heart; e'ngang once (but no more), enga'ng once upon a time; desvæ'rre alass, desu'den besides (but de'sforuden besides), desli'ge in the same manner, de'suagtet never the less, de'sangaaende thereabout; also adverbs compound with saa- and hvor- change accent according to the logical importance of the component parts: saasna'rt (som) as soon as (but saa'snart so soon), saa'meget so much, saaamæ'nd indeed, saavi'dt as far as (but saa'ledes thus, saa'som because), hvon-naa'r when, hvorle'edes how (but hvo'rledes in what manner), hvorda'n how, hvorve'l albeit, hvorvi'dt whether. Compound adverbs consisting of a preposition with a following substantive or adjective used as substantive as a rule have the accent on the second part; Ex: igce're going on, afste'd off, overa'lt everywhere, itu' a sunder, efterhaa'nden by and by, oversty'r to naught, (komme) overe'ns (to come) to terms, foru'den outside of, foro'ven above, forne'den below, tilsa'mmen together. (But o'verhaands, o'vervættes exceedingly, a'fsides apart, fo'rlds in advance). Furthermore may be noted: al-de'les wholly, fremde'les further, særdev'l'es especially, allere'de already, alli'gevel though, maaske', kanske' perhaps, monstro' I wonder.

72. In words compound with the (originally German) prefixes be-, er-, for-, ge- the accent as a rule is on the syllable following next to the prefix; Ex.: begri'be to understand, erf'a're to learn, Forsta'nd sense, Gehø'r (musical) ear. The originally German prefix for (Ger. ver) is to be distinguished from the originally Danish prefix of the same sound corresponding to English for e in such words as Fo'rmiddag forenoon, Fo'r-løber forerunner.

73. The Danish prefix u-, Eng un-, takes the accent ex-
cept in adjectives derived (chiefly from verbs) with the terminations -lig, -elig, -bar, -som. *U*ro disquiet, *U*aar bad year, uska'delig harmless, uanse'lig insignificant (but u'adelig not of nobility), utri'vlsom indubitable. Note further the adjectives uvi'dende ignorant, ume'lende speechless, uc'nig of a different opinion, ukri'stelig un-Christian, the conjunction ua'gtet although, and the verbs uma'ge (or u'mage) and ulei'-lige to trouble.

74. The prefixes mis-, sam-, und-, van-, veder- as a rule have the accent; Ex.: Mi'sdmler evildoer, Sa'marhrjde co-operation, u'ndsige to defy, Va'n-art wickedness, Ve'derlag compensation, but adjectives derived in -elig and -som takes the accent on the second part of the composition: miste'nsom suspicious (but Mi'stanke suspicion), undgau'elig avoidable, vedersty'ggelig abominable; and so do the following words: Misu'nelse envy, Undta'gelse exception, Undvi'gelse or U'ndveigelse escape, undta'gen except (but with inverted position of the words: e'n alene v'ndtagen one only excepted), undde'rlig dispensable, samdre'glig unanimous, vana'rtig wicked, vanku'ndlig ignorant.

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**SEN TENCE ACCENT.**

75. Different from the syllabic accent is the sentence or rhetoric accent, whereby a different stress is given to the different words of the sentence according to their logical importance.

Pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and other particles as well as auxiliary verbs are as a rule unaccented. When a word is used in the sentence without stress it is subject to different changes, such as abbreviation of long sounds, loss of glottal stop (see § 76) and even loss of a part of their substance (see §§ 65 and 16).
Sometimes the whole meaning of a sentence is changed by a change of accent: Min Ven gi'k igen my friend left again, min Ven gi'k ige'n my friend reappeared (as a ghost, haunted the house).

GLOTTAL STOP.

76. The accent stress (including in some cases the secondary accent) takes in Danish in a great many (originally) monosyllabic words the peculiar form of a glottal stop or catch (Sweet), by the Danish grammarians called Stødtone or Tonehold. This glottal stop is produced by a temporary closure of the glottis and a corresponding interruption of the voice, the result being a sound very similar to the one produced by cough or hiccough. Those Danish dialects, therefore, which are especially given to the use of the glottal stop are said to "hiccough the words forth". As the glottal stop consists in an interruption of the voice, it results that it can only occur in sounds that are produced or accompanied by an emission of voice (vowels and voiced consonants).

The accent stress of originally polysyllabic words is characterized by the absence of the glottal stop.

[The glottal stop is here indicated by (*).]

77. The glottal stop chiefly occurs in the following cases (although there is some difference between the various dialects and also individually as to its use):

1) a great many monosyllables: Ma*nd man, Hu*s house, faa* few (always in monosyllables consisting of long vowel sound followed by consonant (excepting Fa'r, Mo'r, Bro'r, Pe'r, Pov'l which are originally dissyllabic) or short vowel
sound followed by two voiced consonants; as a rule in those ending in a long vowel or diphthong; those consisting of short vowels followed by $h$, $m$, $n$, $ng$ with following voiceless consonant take the glottal stop in the dialect of Sealand, but not in that of Jutland, while $r$ in this position is incompatible with glottal stop; sometimes it occurs in words having a short vowel before one single voiced consonant).

2) many dissyllables in -el, -en and -er; Ex.: $Æ$sel donkey, $Vint$er winter, $A$sen donkey.

3) the radical syllable of many compound verbs, adjectives, adverbs and nouns derived from verbs, where the glottal stop is lacking in the non-compound words: Ex.: $(h)$jemsø*ge to visit, $Me'dskyl$*di$g$ accomplice, $Ankla$*ger accused.

4) in some foreign words: $Kano*n$, $Stude*nt$, $Amо*rika$.

78. The glottal stop serves to distinguish pairs of words which otherwise would have the same sound:

1) the definite form of monosyllables from that of disyllables ending in -e, the former with, the latter without glottal stop.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With glottal stop</th>
<th>Without glottal stop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$Aan^den$ the spirit ($Aand$)</td>
<td>$Aand^en$ the breath ($Aande$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Skø^det$ the lap ($Skød$)</td>
<td>$Skø^det$ the deed (of conveyance, $Skøde$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Bun^den$ the bottom ($Bund$)</td>
<td>$Bond^en$ the peasant ($Bonde$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) the plural form of monosyllables, ending in -er (with stop) and of disyllables, ending in -r (without stop).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With stop</th>
<th>Without stop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$Æn^der$ ducks ($And$)</td>
<td>$End^er$ ends ($Ende$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$Stæn^ger$ sticks ($Stang$)</td>
<td>$Stæng^er$ hay-lofts ($Stænge$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3) the definite form of monosyllabic substantives (with stop) and corresponding adjectives or participles (without stop).

with stop:  
\textit{Sej\'let} the sail  
\textit{Stø\'vet} the dust

without stop:  
\textit{sej\'et} sailed  
\textit{stø\'et} dusty

4) past participle plural of some weak verbs (with stop) and the corresponding imperfect tense (without stop): Ex.:  
(de bleve) \textit{pi\'nte} they were tortured; (de) \textit{pi\'nte} they tortured;

5) some proper nouns (with stop) and corresponding appellatives (without stop).

with stop:  
\textit{En\'gel}  
\textit{Jæ\'ger}  
\textit{Kri\textsc{e}}\textsc{ger}  
\textit{Møl\textsc{e}}\textsc{ler}

without stop:  
\textit{Eng\textsc{e}}\textsc{l} angel  
\textit{Jæ\textsc{e}}\textsc{ger} hunter  
\textit{Kri\textsc{e}}\textsc{ger} warrior  
\textit{Møl\textsc{e}}\textsc{ler} miller

6) present tense of some verbs (with stop) and the corresponding nouns (without stop):

with stop:  
(han) \textit{mal\textsc{e}}\textsc{r} he paints  
" \textit{lo\textsc{e}}\textsc{r} he runs

without stop:  
\textit{Mal\textsc{e}}\textsc{r} painter  
\textit{Lo\textsc{e}}\textsc{r} runner

7) the definite form of some monosyllabic substantives (with stop) and verbal nouns ending in \textit{-en} (without stop):

\textit{Tvir\textsc{i}}\textsc{en} the doubt  
\textit{Sme\textsc{d}}\textsc{en} the smith

\textit{Tvir\textsc{e}}\textsc{den} doubting  
\textit{Sme\textsc{d}}\textsc{den} forging.

\textbf{QUANTITY OF DANISH SOUNDS.}

\textbf{79.} Vowels and open consonants can be long or short; shut consonants (stops) are always short.
Long sounds can only occur in accentuated syllables. A consonant written double between two vowels indicates that the preceding vowel is short, but final consonants are not written double to indicate shortness of preceding vowel except in a few cases where it may be done, when it is thought desirable to distinguish between two words that otherwise would look alike; Ex.: *Brud(d)* rupture, *Brud* bride, *Dug(g)* dew, *Dug* table cloth.

**Note.** In the following words consonants are written double after a long vowel to indicate the hard (non-spirantic) sound: *Drægge* grapnels, *døgge* to coddle, *Høggen* the bird cherry, *Løggen* the calf, *Løgget* the fold, tuck, *Plaggen* the colt, *Skøgget* the beard, *Vøggen* the wall, *Æggen* the edge, *Ægget* the egg, *Næbbet* the beak *Bredde* breadth, *Vidde* width. The vowel is also long before double consonant in the following words: *otte* eight, *sjette* sixth, *Sotten* the sickness, *Ætten* the family, and in words derived by the termination -mæssig: *forholds-mæssig* proportionate, etc.

80. The quantity of consonants is not indicated in spelling. Long is the first of two soft consonants (*l, m, n, r, d, g*) in intermediate position between two vowels, the preceding vowel then being short, accentuated and pronounced without glottal stop: *hamre* to hammer, *hornet* horned, *Almagt* omnipotence, *Stenbord* stone table. (But short consonant in *ramse* to say by rote, *Skjorte* shirt, *Hor*net the horn).
## NORWEGIAN SOUNDS.

### 81. Table of the Norwegian vowels classified according to their place of articulation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>BACK.</th>
<th></th>
<th>MIXED</th>
<th></th>
<th>FRONT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not rounded</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Not rounded</td>
<td>Rounded</td>
<td>Not rounded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrow</td>
<td></td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
<td>u</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid.</td>
<td></td>
<td>å'</td>
<td></td>
<td>e</td>
<td>ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrow</td>
<td></td>
<td>å</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ã</td>
<td>ö</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>æ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wide</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>æ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the explanation of the technical terms: Back, Mixed, Front, High, Mid, Low, see § 10.

Note. a is a little advanced, but not so much so as in Danish. Vulgarly and dialectically the long a may be pronounced further back and with a slight rounding, approaching the English aw in law.

o is midway between high and mid and å midway between mid and low, but both are pronounced with the rounding corresponding to the higher stage.

### ACOUSTIC VALUE OF THE NORWEGIAN VOWELS.

### 82. a has the sound of English a in father, short or long. Ex. short: *Hat* hat, *Man(d)* man; long: *Dag* day, *Sal* hall.
83. $a$ has the sound of English $a$ in *care*; it occurs long or short before $r$; Ex. long: *bære* to bear, *lære* to teach, *nær* near; short: *Færder* conduct, voyage, *Smerte* pain, *Verk* work.

Note. The orthographic sign of this sound may be, as seen from the above examples, $a$ or $e$; the former is used when the same word in another form or another kindred word has $a$ or $aa$ where the word in question has $æ$; Ex.: *Færder* derived from *fare* to travel, *bære* to carry, impf. *bar*; *færre* fewer, comp. of *fua*; *Kæring* old (or married) woman derived from *Kar(l)* man. Where this rule does not apply, i. e. where there is no such $a$ or $aa$ to judge by, then the long $a$-sound as a rule is written $a$, the short $e$. But there are some exceptions. Ex. long sound written $e$: *der* there, *er* is, *Erende* message, *fjærde* fourth, *her* here, *igjør(đ)e* (or *igjære*) going on, *Jern* iron, *Jørtegn* sign, miracle. Short sound written $a$: *fordære* to spoil, *forfærde* to frighten; *særdeles* especially, *værde* (colloquially pronounced *vært*) worth, *værre* worse.

Obs. *Veir* weather, pron. *vær*

84. $æ$ long or short, like English $e$ in "men"; Ex. short: *ret* right, *slet* even, bad, *træt* tired; long: *Glæde* joy, *Fædre* fathers, *Stæder* cities.


Note. In the dialect of Christiania and the southern part of Norway the long sound of $æ$ has been replaced by the long $e$, and the short sound of $ä$ is only half wide.
85. *e* like French *é* in “*éte*”, English *a* in “*name*” as usually pronounced in America, i. e. without the diphthongic element. Short *e* only occurs in words formed by inflection or derivation from words with long *e*; Ex.: *bre(d)t* neuter form of *bre(d)* broad, *Bredde* breadth, derived from the same word; Ex. long: *Te* tea, *Ve(d)* wood, *hed* (pron. *het*) hot.

Orthographic sign of this sound is *e*.

Note. In the dialect of Christiania and the southern part of Norway the long sound of *e* has been substituted for that of *ã*, see § 84 note. On the other hand the short sound of *e* is in the speech of many, even educated, people in the course of being replaced by a half wide short *ã*. As yet, however, the pronunciation of *brät* instead of *bre(d)t* may be considered as bordering on the vulgar.

86. *i* short or long; it has the narrow sound of English *ee* in “*sec*”; Ex. long: *Vin* wine, *ti* ten, *i* in; short: *Vin(d)* wind, *li(d)t* (neut.) little. Orthographic sign *i*, except in the word *de* (*De*) they, the, you.

Note. For the pronunciation of *mig*, *dig*, *sig* see § 94. Before vowels *i* as a rule is pronounced so very short as to make it almost or wholly consonantic in character: *Kastanie* (pron. *Kastarje*) chestnut, *Familie* (*j*) family, *Kristiania* (*j*, or as a very short *i*); as a short *i* also in *Kariol* carriole, *Million*; *tredie* the third is pronounced *tredde* or *tredje*.

87. *ø* has the sound of German unaccented *e* in “*Gabe,*” approaching French *e* in “*que*”; but often its articulation is more advanced and then it sounds almost like a short *e*. This is especially often the case in unaccented prefixes. *ø* only occurs in unaccented syllables; orthographic sign *e*; Ex.: *Gave* gift, *være* to be, *befale* (*ø-a-ø*) to order.

Note. the orthographic sign for *ø* is *i* or *e* in *tusin(d)* or *tusen(d)* thousand.

88. *å* has a sound approaching English *a* in call (but it is pronounced with a somewhat higher articulation; raised low
or lowered mid; the rounding is the same as corresponds to the mid sound (o) in the European languages generally. It may be long or short, the short sound being somewhat wider than the long one.

Note 1. Orthographic sign of the long sound is as a rule aa (å); Ex: Aal eel, graa grey, Vaar spring.

Exceptions: before g and v the sound of å is usually written o: over over, doven lazy, love to promise, Skov forest, og and, Sprog language; but if g represents the sound of k (see § 122), then the sound of å is written aa (å): Maage mew, pron. måke (or måge), Taage(k) fog, taage(k) to wake, vaagen awake; also in Ang (g) bay, Ang (g) yoke. Observe also Fole (å) colt, Torsdag (å) Thursday, vor (å) our, fore a prefix (forebygge to prevent, Foremers foretop).

Note 2. The orthographic sign of the short sound as a rule is o; Ex.: Lod half an ounce, holde to hold, Konge king. Exceptions: aa is as a rule written before nd, representing the sound nn: Baan(d) ribbon, Haan(d) hand; in the words Aadsel carcass, fraadse gourmandize, and others; furthermore in forms or words derived from corresponding words with a long aa; Ex.: graat neut. of graa grey, haar(d)t neut. of haar(d) hard, etc.

89. o has no exact equivalent outside of the Scandinavian languages, although it comes very near to the sound of English oo in “poor.” Its place of articulation is midway between “high” and “mid,” and the rounding corresponds to high (oo). It may be short or long. Orthographic sign for the long sound is o, for the short o or u; Ex. long: (jeg) lo (I) laughed, Horn horn, Hob multitude; Ex. short: Bonde peasant, op up (in Christiania pronounced åp), Buk (o) he-goat, tung (o) heavy. u serves to represent this sound before ng, nk and as a rule before m ending a syllable or followed by another consonant, f, k and g, gt. Furthermore in the following words: Kunst art, Spuns bung. Kul, coal, is sometimes pronounced kol.

90. Also the Scandinavian u is a peculiar sound without
any exact equivalent in English. It comes nearest to the English u in “full” or “put.” In pronouncing the Norwegian u the back of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate and the point remains behind the lower incisors, while the lips are considerably protruding. Ex. long: Gud God, Ur watch, hul (adj.) hollow, Brud bride; short: Brud breach, Gut boy, Hul hole (also pronounced Hol).

Note. For u being the orthographic sign of o see § 89.

91. y has the tongue position of i, the lip rounding of u. It sounds like German ü, French u in “lune,” only still thinner, nearer to i. It may be short or long. Phonetic sign y. Ex. long: By town, syv seven, yde yield; short: yppe to raise, yste to make cheese, bygge to build.

Note. For y being sometimes pronounced as ö see § 92 note.

92. ø ö.

ø is a rounded e and has a sound like French eu in “peu”; it only occurs long, but is never found before radical r; Ex.: Ø island, dø die, (Hunden) gjør (the dog) barks. ö is a rounded œ and has a sound like French eu in “peuple,” German ö in “Götter.” It occurs both short and long, long only before radical r. In this latter position, however, the dialect of Christiania has a still lower (more open) sound œ. Ex. ö: sö(d)t sweet (neut.), grön green; ø or œ: Börn or Børn children, gjör or gjør does, hörlig or hærlig audible.

Note. The orthographic sign of all three sounds, ø, ö and œ is in print as a rule ø, in writing ö.

In a few words the sign y represents the sound of ö: sytt- ten (ø) 17, sytti (ö) 70, fyrti (ø, œ) 40. Also in some other words y may be pronounced as ö: Lykke luck, Stykke piece, Bryst breast, flytte to move. But the pronunciation as y is regularly heard among educated people.
NORWEGIAN DIPHTHONGS.

93. The diphthongic sounds occurring in the Norwegian language are: ai, ei, oi, øi, œu. ai has a sound like English i in “mile.” Ex.: Hai shark, Kai quay, vaie wave, float. In the word Mai May, a as a rule is pronounced long.

94. ai has the orthographic sign ei, which sign always represents the sound here indicated (not as in Danish: ai); Ex.: lei tedious, disagreeable; Vei road.

In some words eg, ek, ig serve as signs for this diphthongic sound: jeg I (pron. jœi), mig me, dig you, sig himself etc. (pron. møi etc.). seks- ten 16 (pron. søxisten).

egl, egn are in the greater part of Norway pronounced øil, øen; but in the northern part egn is pronounced engn; Ex.: Negl (œi) nail, Tegl (œi) tile, Regn (œen or engn) rain. In mathematics distinction is made between Keyle cone and Kile wedge, lat. cuneus. But in everyday speech both words are pronounced alike; slaa kjiler (i. e Kegler) play at ninepins, slaa ind en kjile (i. e. Kile) drive in a wedge.

95. oi only occurs in some foreign words; it has the same sound as English oy in “boy,” but has a tendency to become assimilated with øi: holloï halloo, Konsoi convoy.

96. In øi the first element of the diphthong is the wide ø, the second a wide y; Ex.: höi high, Tøi cloth, fœite to gad. òg in Løgn lie, Døgn day and night, as a rule represents the same sound, but in the northern part of the country those words are pronounced løngn, døngn. Nøgel key is by some people pronounced nøiel, commonly nøkkel.

The word Bygdl country township is sometimes pronounced bœid, but usually as it is spelt. The former pronunciation is still considered somewhat vulgar, although I b s e n uses it in “Brand” in the following rhyme:

Tusen fulgte mig af Bygden (øi),
ika til råndt op til Høiden.
The sound of öi is in some foreign words represented by eu: *Farmaceut* (pron. söoit) pharmacist, *Lieutenant* (pron. and now regularly spelt lötntant), *neutral* (öi) neuter, *Eugen* (pron. öisjén).

97. *eu* has a sound that comes very near the Cockney pronunciation of *ou* in “house.” Orthographical sign *au*. Ex.: *taus* silent, *August*, *Taug* rope.

This diphthong is written *eu* in *Europa*. (But in Greek names *Zeus* etc. *eu* is pronounced *ev*).

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**NORWEGIAN CONSONANTS.**

98. *p* as in English; Ex.: *Pave* pope, *Penge* money, *Pil* arrow, *op* up.

Note 1. Vulgar is a tendency to pronounce *p* before *t* as *f*; Ex.: *kaftein* for *Kaptein* Captain, *skafort* for *skapt* (written *skabt*) shaped.

Note 2. The sound of *p* is written *b* in the following cases:


2) after a long vowel when *p* either ends a word or is followed by *ø* (see § 6 in fine); Ex.: *Gab* (*p*) yawn, *gabe* (*po*) to yawn, *Skrab* (*p*) trash, *skrabe* (*p*) to scrape, *Skab* (*p*) wardrobe, *Tab* (*p*) loss, *tabe* (*p*) to lose, *Kaabe* (*p*) cloak, *taabelig* (*b* or *p*) foolish, *krybe* (*p*) to creep. Among the younger generation of authors it is getting always more common to spell these words in accordance with the Norwegian pronunciation. It is only in a small part of the coast districts in the southernmost part of Norway that *b* in these words is pronounced as written, similarly to the pronunciation in Danish (see § 4).
99. *b* sounds like English *b*; this sound occurs in the beginning, middle (chiefly in foreign words) and end of words; Ex.: *By* town, *Bly* lead, *Hybel* garret, *Lab* (pr. *labb*) paw.

Note. Sometimes *b* interchanges with *p* after a long vowel (see §98 Note 2), *b* being reserved for a more elevated style or a figurative meaning; Ex.:

**p.**

*døbe*, *p*, to baptize.

gribe, *p*, to catch.

raabe (pr. rope) to call aloud, cry.

Raab (raap, rop) cry, call.

skróbelig, *p*, fragile, frail.

tabe, *p*, to lose.

sleben, *p*, ground, cut (*slepet* Glas, cut glass).

skabe, *p*, sig to act in an affected manner.

Svøbe (pr. *Svepe*) driving whip.


**b.**

Daab, *b*, baptism; *Johannes den Døber* John the Baptist.

figuratively: *en gribende Scene* an impressive scene.

raabe in some sentences figuratively: *hans Forbrydelse raaber om Hævn* his crime cries for vengeance.


figuratively: *Kjødet er skróbeligt*, *b*, the flesh is weak.

fortabes, *b* (theol.) to be damned; *et Fortabelsens Barn* a child of perdition.

et slebent, *b*, *Væsen* a polished address.

skabe, *b*, to create; *Skabelse* creation.

Svøbe, *øb*, scourge.

—skab, *b*, in *Kundskab* (also *p*) knowledge, *Videnskab, b*, science.

100. *m* bilabial nasal, like the English *m*; Ex.: *maa* must, *om* about, *komme* to come. Before *f* *m* assumes a labiodental character, more rarely before *v*; Ex.: *Jomfru* young woman, stewardess.
101. f is a labiodental open sound like English f; Ex.: faa get, puffe to push.

Note 1. In the word af of f is a sign for the sound of v, see § 102, Note 1.

Note 2. In inflective forms of words, the stems of which end in “v” the sound of f is sometimes written “v”; havt (partcp.) pron. haft had (colloquially pron. hat); see § 102 Note 2.

102. v is a labiodental open voiced sound, not quite so sharply articulated as English v. Occurs both in the beginning, middle and at the end of words; Ex.: vi we, love to promise, Skov forest.

Note 1. In the word af of this sound has the orthographic sign f.

Note 2. v is the orthographic sign of the sound f 1) before s and t in inflective forms of words, the stems of which end in v, when the vowel preceding v is short; if the preceding vowel is long, then v retains its sound; in some words both pronunciations (long vowel & v and short vowel & f) are admissible; Ex.: sffe tillivs (f) to dispatch (food); Liesens (f) of life, grovt (v or f) rough (neuter form), paaskrävs (v or f) astride, tilhavs (v or f) at sea. Also revse (f) to castigate. Colloquially the imperfect lovede promised is pronounced lofte. 2) In the words: Viol (flower) violet, Violin, Violoncel.

Note 3. v is written but not pronounced after l in hal(v) half, sel(v) self, Sél(v) silver, tol(v) twelve, tolvte twelfth, Tyl(v)t dozen; furthermore in Pro(v)st dean, Tvi(v)l doubt (now regularly written Tvil), ha(v)t had, bra(v) or brav, plural pronounced brave or bra.

For bli(ve)r gil(ve)r see § 140 c.

103. t is a voiceless dental stop, slightly aspirated, especially in the beginning of words, but much less so than in Danish. The aspiration is omitted after s, t in this position thus representing a sound between t and d; Ex.: Tal number, Hat hat, Potet potato, stor big.

th does not represent any other sound than t; it is used in some words of Greek origin and as a rule in the conjunction thi for, to distinguish it from the numeral ti ten, both words being pronounced alike. Sometimes also in Thing Session of court, Storthing name of Norwegian
parliament, to distinguish these words from *Ting* thing; furthermore in *Thronhjem, Thorsdag* Thursday; but these words are now generally spelt without *h*.

**Note 1.** *t* is written but not pronounced 1) in *de(t)* that, the (pron. art.) and in the enclitic definite article neuter; Ex.: *Huse(t)* the house. In elevated speech, however, the *t* in this latter case usually retains its sound.

2) in the words *Gjes(t)* giver country innkeeper, *Vær(t)*shus inn.

3) in the infinitive particle *at* to, colloquially pronounced å, thus distinguished from the conjunction *at* that, pronounced as written. In stead of *Disputats* disputation, *Notits* notice, etc., it is now the rule to write *Disputas*, *Notis*, etc.

**Note 2.** For *ti* in some words representing the sound of *kj* see § 119 Note.

104. The sound of *t* is represented by the sign *d* in many words finally and before *a* after a long vowel; Ex.: *blød (t)* soft, *bide (t)* to bite, *Baad (t)* boat, *kaad (t)* jolly, *vaad (t)* wet, *Flaade (t)* raft, *Maade (t)* manner, (but *Suate* hay-cock also spelt with *t*, because it is a distinctly Norwegian word), *Fad (t)* dish, *flad (t)* flat, *Gade (t)* street, *lad (t)* lazy, *Mad (t)* food, *fed (t)* fat, *Gjed (t)* goat, *hed (t)* hot, *hede (t)* to be called, *lede (t)* to search, *Hvede (t)* wheat, *Søde (t)* seat (but *gjøte* to guard (grazing animals) spelt with *t* cfr. *Suate*), *did (t)* thither, *hvid (t)* white, *hid (t)* hither, *liden (t)* little, *Fod (t)* foot, *mod (t)* against, *Bod (t)* amende, *Rod (t)* root, *rode (t)* to rummage, *Sød (t)* soot, *Grud (t)* grounds, *lude (t)* to stoop, *Knude (t)* knot, *Lud (t)* lye, *Pude (t)* pillow, *Stud (t)* oxe, *tude (t)* to toot, *Tud (t)* spout, *ud (t)* cut, *ude (t)* out, *bryde (t)* break, *Gryde (t)* pot, *Lyde (t)* blemish, *skryde (t)* to boast, *skye (t)* to shoot, *snyde (t)* to blow (the nose), *bøde (t)* to pay a fine, *Bøder (t)* fines, *Flore (t)* cream, *Grød (t)* porridge, *møde (t)* meeting, *Stød (t)* push, *støde (t)* to push, *Skjøde (t)* deed of conveyance.

Note. For some of these words in specific meanings being pronounced with d, see § 106.

105. d like English d; Ex.: da then, blodi(g) bloody, ræd (dd) afraid.

Note. Where the Danish and the common Norwegian orthography have d in the end or middle of words after a long vowel, the common Norwegian pronunciation as a rule either has t or drops the d. In the former case d corresponds to ON. t (see §§ 4 & 6), in the latter to ON. ð.

106. Some words written with d are pronounced with d or t according to the meaning. The voiced explosive as a rule occurs in learned words and those chiefly occurring in higher style.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>d</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fîyde, t,</td>
<td>fîyden d,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to float,</td>
<td>liquid.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to flow.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gråede, t (gråte) to cry, to weep.</td>
<td>begråede, d, to cry over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kjød, tt,</td>
<td>Kjød, vø,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meat.</td>
<td>flesh.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lide, t,</td>
<td>Tillid, d,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to trust.</td>
<td>trust, paalidelig, d, trustworthy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maade, t, manner.

Nyde, t, to take (food), nyde, t, godt

af noget to draw profit of something.

raadden, tt, rotten, putrid.

Mod, t, courage.

Flade, d or t, plane.

Skjød, t, lap (Frakkesjød coatlap),

Skjødskind (shoemaker’s) apron.

Vide, t, to know.

Videnskab science, Viden knowledge.
### NORWEGIAN SOUNDS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>t.</strong></td>
<td>ydre, tt, outer; Yderfrak, tt, overcoat; yderst, tt, outermost.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bide t, to bite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>blød, t, soft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flaade t, raft.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>forbryde, t, sig to offend, trespass.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lade, t, let; lade som om to make it appear that. (See also § 140).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overlade, t, to leave; tillade, t, to allow.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**107.** *d* is often written at the end or in the middle of words after a long vowel without being pronounced (see § 105 Note). In rhetoric language the *d* may be retained in pronunciation, and in some words there are duplicate forms with or without *d* according to the meaning.

#### Without *d.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bla(d)</td>
<td>leaf, sheet, newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bli(d)</td>
<td>gentle, bland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blo(d)</td>
<td>blood, at spytte Blo(d) to spit blood, blo(d)rød, red as blood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bre(d)</td>
<td>broad: der skal en bre(d) Ryg til at bære gode Dage it takes a broad back to carry god fortune.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brö(d)</td>
<td>bread.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### With *d.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nordiske Blåd</td>
<td>(name of newspaper), talge Blådet fra Munden to speak one’s mind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dit blide Åasyn</td>
<td>your sweet face.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kjød og Blod</td>
<td>flesh and blood, Blodets Baand the ties of blood; in many compounds: Blodbad carnage, Blodhevn revenge for murder, Blodskam incest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de brede Bygder</td>
<td>the broad parishes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vort daglige Bröd</td>
<td>our daily bread; den enes Død, den andens Bröd one man’s death, the other man’s breath (literally: bread).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Without d.

dō(d) dead;
(colloquially may be used the genuine Norwegian form *dau* in the meaning of sluggish).

Flo(d) high tide.
gla(d) joyous.

go(d) good.

Raa(d) means, expedient: *der er ingen Raa'å med ham* there is no outcome with him, *det er ikke Raa(d)* it is not possible, *jeg har ikke Raa(d)* I cannot afford, *raa'd,løs* without an expedient.

rō(d) red, *en rō(å) Næse* a red nose.

stri(d), adj. headstrong.

Ti(d) time, in *go(d)/ Ti, å* plenty of time, *alti(d)* always.

vi(d) wide, *en vi(å) Frakke* a wide coat.

With d.

Dōd death;

dōd og magtesløs nulland void; *d* is always pronounced when the adjective is used as a noun: *en dōd* a dead man, *staa op fra de dōde* to rise from the dead.

Flod river.

et glad Budskab glad tidings, *en glad* Aften a merry night.

den gode the good man, *et Gode* a blessing.

Raud advice, *en Statsraad* (king's) minister, *Kongens Raud* the king's council, *raadfore sig med* *en* to seek somebody's advice.

*han er rød* he is red (i.e. radical in politics), *de røde Hunde* the red dogs (i.e. roseola).

Strīd, subst. strife.

*Ti* time, usual form.

en *vid* Horisont a wide horizon (i.e. scope of ideas), *uden videre* without further ado.


*d* also as a rule is pronounced in derivatives; Ex.: *fredelig* peaceful, *Glæde* joy, *raadelig* advisable.
109. **nd** and **ld** are as a rule pronounced **nn** and **ll**: **Mund** (**nn**) man, **Mund** (**nn**) mouth, **kold** (**ll**) cold, **Kulde** (**ll**) subst. cold, **holde** (**ll**) to hold, **volde** (**ll**) to cause.

**d** is pronounced as **d** after **l** before **r**: **Alder** age, **Bulder** noice, **Hulder** wood nymph, **Skulder** shoulder; and in the following words: **Gilde** company, **hilde** to snare, **Kilde** fountain, **Olding** old man, **Ælde** age, **Völde** power; furthermore in derivative words when the ending commences in a vowel: **gylden** golden, **heldig** fortunate (but **Hel(d)** fortune).

**d** is pronounced after **n** before **r** and **l**: **andre** others, **handle** to deal, **Handel** (pr. **handl**) a deal; **d** is also pronounced in derivatives: **sandelig** verily, **sandig** sandy; also as a rule in **Kvinde** woman, **Minde** reminiscence; **jeg har i Sinde** I have in mind (but **jeg gjorde det i Sinne** I did it in anger), **Kunde** customer.

110. **d** is mute 1) before **s** a) after a short vowel, in which case **ds** is pronounced **ss**: **be(d)st** best, **Bi(d)sel** bridle, **bi(d)sk** snappish, **Pla(d)s** place, **Kry(d)s** cross, hind quarter, **pu(d)sig** funny, and many others; b) in some words after a long vowel: **Lo(d)s** pilot, **lo(d)se** to pilot, **Seila(d)s** sailing, **Straba(d)s** (or **ts**) exertion; c) between **n** and **s**: **Bra(d)sel** fuel, **min(d)ske** to decrease (the orthographic rule is to write **d** between **n** and **s** in the words derived from primitives with **d**: Ex.: **Han(d)ske** glove, from **Haand** hand; but **danse** to dance, **Grænse** limit, etc.); 2) before **t** when a **d** belonging to the stem comes before an inflective **t**: Ex.: **god—yo(d)t** good, **blöd—blö(d)t** soft **lide—li(d)t** (part.) suffer; [before **t** of a derivative ending **d** is retained in writing when the ending consists of **t** alone; Ex.: **et Skri(d)t** a step, **et Ri(d)t** a ride; but changed into **t** when the ending consists of **t** with a following vowel: **god—gotte sig** to regal one’s self.]

111. **d** is mute in some words after **r**; the preceding
vowel is usually long; Ex.: Jor(d) earth, Fjor(d) fjord, Gjær(d)e fence, Or(d) word, Nor(d)mand (short o) Norwegian.

In the following words a is pronounced after r (the preceding vowel in that case is short): Bord border, Byrd birth, Færð voyage (but paa-fær(d)e astir), Hjord herd, hærde to harden, lærd learned, Mord murder: Verden the world, jorde to inter, Norden the North, (but nor(d)enfra from the North, nor(d)enfields north of the mountains).

112. s is a voiceless open blade sound; the voiced (soft) s (z) of English and other languages does not exist in Norwegian; Ex.: se to see, læse to read, Hus house.

113. sj or skj have about the same sound as English sh; Ex.: Sjø sea, sjelden seldom, Skjorte shirt, Skjørt skirt. Before i and y this sound is written sk. Ex.: Ski Norwegian snowshoe, Sky cloud; also before e in the following words: Ske spoon, (at) ske to happen, maaske, kanske (also pronounced k) perhaps, Besked information, beskeden modest, skele to squint, Skelét skeleton, (at) skeie (ud) to lead a dissolute life; before øi in: Skoite smack, Sköiter skates (but Sköi fun, Sköier mischiefmaker, with k).

The same sound may in foreign words be rendered by sch, sh, g, ch, j, s, according to the spelling of the language from which the word is borrowed: Chef, Geni, Bagage, jaloux, Journal, Kulesche. Brosche brooch, Punch, Schak chess, March, Revision, Mission, Addition, Direktion, (but Kvetient pr. kvotsient in 3 syllables and Konsortium partnership, pr. konsortsiun in 4 syllables).

114. l has about the same sound as in English; Ex.: lidé to suffer, Laar thigh, Pil arrow, spille to play; for ll is in some words written ld (see § 109).

l is written but not pronounced before j in the words Lja or Ljaa scythe, Ljore opening in the roof for the smoke to pass out, Ljom echo, Ljan place near Christiania; furthermore in: Karl man, and its compounds (pronounced and often written Kar; Stakkar a wretch, Dan. Stakkel; but in
KORWEGIAN SOUNDS.

Husharlene the housecarles pr. l); and in ska\ shall, often pron. ska; and til to often pron. te.

Note. After point r, l in the eastern part of Norway assumes a supradental character, being formed against the gums, and r is reduced to a gliding sound; Ex: Karl (name), furlig dangerous, Perle pearl.

115. In eastern Norway the Old Norse combination rø has developed into a peculiar sound of inverted r or l, being pronounced by inverting the tongue and raising the point up towards the hard palate and then bringing it forward with a smack. The inverted or "cacuminal" sound produced in this manner makes upon the foreigner the impression of being an r, while to the Norwegians it appears to be an l; it is called the thick l; Ex: Svelvik (O. N. Sverðvik), name of a place. This sound is considered vulgar, but it is often used colloquially in Eastern Norway, even instead of common l; Ex: Klasse class, Aal eel, Ola (name).

116. n like English n: nu now, Bön prayer, vânne to accustom.

The sound of nn is written nd in a great many words (see § 109). Of words spelt with nn or n (if final) may be noted: Bönne bean, Bön prayer (plur. of both: Bönner, but Bönder peasants, with the same n-sound); en Finne a pimple, but at finde to find, at kunne to be able [but jeg kunde (nu) I could], Skin light, appearance (at skinne to shine), but Skind (nn) skin, Skinne rail, Vantro disbelief (but Vandfarve water color).

Note. When n is preceded by an r, then it in the eastern part of Norway assumes a supradental character, the r being reduced to a mere gliding sound. Other dental sounds are affected in the same way by a preceding r, and these combined sounds of r & following dental represent the same sounds that in the Sanskrit Grammar are called cerebral (murdhanja).

117. ng represent a single sound, the guttural nasal consonant, like English ng in singer; Ex: synge to sing, tung heavy.
Before *k* the same sound is represented by *n* alone; Ex.: *Tanke (ngk)* thought, *Boenk* bench.

The same is also sometimes the case before *g* in foreign words, *ng* thus representing the sound of *ngg*: *Kongo, Ungarn* Hungary; and in words of French origin also in other cases; Ex.: *balance (ngs)* to balance. Sometimes also in compound words a *k* or *g* may affect a preceding dental *n* so as to make it guttural: *Haan(d)kla*(d:e (ngk) towel; but as a rule both sounds remain the same as in the separate words; *Angiver (n-j)* informer, *angaa (n-g)* to concern. In some words of French origin *ng* is pronounced *ngsj* (*sj* representing the sound of Engl. *s7i*, see § 113); Ex.: *rangere* pron. *rangsjere*, to rank, but *tangere (ngg)* to touch.

118. *r* in Norway as a rule is a trilled point consonant. Before a voice consonant or vowel it is voiced, before a voiceless consonant it is generally voiceless. It is formed by allowing the point of the tongue to vibrate against the gums while the breath of air passes trough. It is always distinctly pronounced, never modified like final *r* in English; Ex.: *Ry* fame, *Ror* rudder, *höre* to hear.

Note 1. In the south-western part of Norway is used an uvular *r*.

Note 2. The alveolar *r* exerts a peculiar influence on a following dental sound *t, d, l, n, s* (see §§ 114 note, 116 note). In polished language these supradental varieties of the front sounds as a rule are avoided after a short vowel as vulgar, except *rs*; Ex.: *Vers verse* (pron. almost *versh*), *Person* (pron. almost *pershon*).

119. *kj* is a medio-palatal fricative sound corresponding to German *ch* in *ich*. The English language has no corresponding sound although the middle sound produced in English between *t* and *y* in such combinations as *not yet, don't you* has a certain resemblance to it. The sound is produced by raising the middle of the tongue towards the palate without touching it, while at the same time the point of the tongue is lowered behind the lower teeth and the side edges of the tongue touch the second molars. The orthographic sign is *kj* except before *i* and *y* when it is *k*; Ex.: *kjöre* to
drive, kjær dear, Kirke church, Kys kiss. The sign of k represents this sound also before e in the words Kegle cone, Kemi chemistry, Kerub. (But Keiser emperor with k).

Note. The sound of kj is written tj in Tjeld oyster catcher (a bird), and Tjern a small lake, Tjør tether, Tjørre tar.

120. j is the voiced sound corresponding to the voiceless kj, pronounced like English y in yawn.

This sound is represented 1) by j, usually; Ex.: ja yes, jeg (jei) I, Jul Christmas, Mjø(d) mead, Linje line, tredje (also pron. tredde) third, Jode jew. 2) by g before i (except Jib jib, jibbe gybe) and sometimes before y; Ex.: gift married, gik went, gylden golden. (But Jyde Jutlander, Jylland Jutland. And in foreign words g may retain its proper sound before these vowels: Gigant, Ægypten, Religion; so also in Gyda woman’s name) and sometimes in give (see § 140 c). 3) by gj sometimes before other vowels than the two above mentioned: gjalde to resound, Gjed (pron. je*t) goat, jeg gjor(d)e I did, Gjæld debt. 4) by hj in a few words; Hjalte hilt, ihjel to death, Hjelm helmet, Hjem Home, Hjemmel warrant, Hjerne brain, Hjalmar, Hjerte heart, Hjord herd, Hjort hart, Hjul wheel, Hjælp help, Hjørne corner. 5) by lj in Ljaa, Ljøre, Ljan (see § 114).

(For skj, sj and kj see §§ 113 & 119).

121. k has the sound of English k but more aspirated; not so much so, however, as in Danish. The letter l represents this sound before consonants (except j; see § 119), back vowels (a, o, n) and unstressed front and mid vowels (a, i) and at the end of words; Ex.: kaste to throw, Klo claw, Kne knee (take care not to make the k mute as in English!), Laks salmon, like to like, Viking, Raak lane of water (cut in the ice), Tak (kk) thanks.

Note. When a word is spelt with k after a long vowel it is a sign
that the word is originally Norwegian and does not occur in the Danish language. (See § 122).

122. The sound of k is in many words represented in writing by the letter g; 1) after a short vowel before s or t; 2) after a long vowel at the end of words or before a; Ex.: 1) Slags (aks) kind (but Slags of a battle), Krigsflaade (ks) navy, Rigs(ks)-advokat attorney general, bugser (ks) to tow, Jagt (kt) chase, laigt (kt) laid, Digt (kt) poem, sïigt (kt) (neut.) such, slygt (kt) ugly, stegt (kt) ptc. fried, Vægt (kt) weight; 2) Ager (k) field, bag (k) behind, Bager (k) baker, bruge (k) to use, Bøg (k) beech, Dug (k) table cloth, Hage (k) chin, Høg (k) hawk, Lage (k) brine, Lagen (k) (bed)-sheet (but Lager (g) stock in store), Leg (k) play, lege (k) to play, myg (k) pliable [but Myg (gg) mosquito], syyg (k) sick, ryge (k) to smoke (intr.), røge (k) to smoke (trans.), Spiger (k) nail, Tag (k) roof, grasp, rig (k) rich, lig (k) adj. like, Forlig (k or g) agreement, forlige (k or g) to reconcile [but Forligel-seskommission (g) commissioners of arbitration], Taage (k) fog.

Note. Often in these words the pronunciations as g and k interchange with each other, the former being considered more polite and appropriate for elevated style.

In the following words there are double forms (with k and g) partly with a different meaning.

with k

Bøg book pr. bo'k.
Flag sometimes pron. flak in Isflag flake of Ice, Skjorte-
flag (k or g) shirtlap.
klog (pr. klo'k) sagacious; han er ikke rigtig klog
(k) he is not quite in his right senses, jeg er lige (k)
klog (k) I am just as wise as I used to be.

with g

Bøg pr. Båg more polite.
Flag (a'g or agg) national ensign.

en klog (åg) Kone a wise woman
(i.e. on supernatural things);
det er meget klogt gjort that
is a very clever move, af Ska-
de bliver man klog' damage makes wise.
NORWEGIAN SOUNDS.

Rige (k) empire, et stort Rige (k) a great empire.

Naturrige (g) the kingdoms of nature, Guds Rige (g) the kingdom of God, det tyske Rige the German empire, Frankrige (g) France (but Sverige pron. Sverie or Sverje, Sweden).

Sagen the matter, saglig pertinent (strictly to the point), Sagarer lawyer.

Sagen the matter, saglig pertinent (strictly to the point), Sagarer lawyer.

Sag (k) matter, en furli(g) Sag (k) a dangerous thing, det er ingen Sag (k) it is a very easy matter, say-soge (k, k) to sue.

Sagen the matter, saglig pertinent (strictly to the point), Sagarer lawyer.

Note: always Sag (g) saw.

Smag (k) taste, en ubehage-li(g) Smag (k) i Munden (nn) a disagreeable taste in the mouth; det har Mersmug (k) it has a morish taste.

Smag (g) taste, god Smag good taste, smagfuld(g, ll)tasteful, elegant, Smagen er forskjellig taste differs.

vaage (k) to watch; vaage (k) over en syng to watch a sick person; Vaage(k)kone a sick-nurse.

vaager (g) og beder watch and pray.

Aag (sometimes pron. åk) yoke, oxbow.

gaa under Aaget (g) to walk under the yoke; mit Aag (g) er gavnli(gt), my yoke is useful.

123. k is written but not pronounced in the words: Au(k)tion, Mul(k)et fine, mul(k)tere to fine, Engels(k)mand Englishman; sometimes k is also dropped in pronouncing Frans(k)mand Frenchman, and always in Frans(k)brø(d) French rolls.

Note 1. For k being the orthographic sign of kj see § 119.

Note 2 There are still many people who instead of ks write æ; Ex.: sexten or seksen pron. seisten see § 94.

Note 3. The sound of k is still sometimes written q before u. pron. kv: Quadrat square, as a rule now written Kvadrat, Aquavit (pron. akkevit) Norwegian gin, now as a rule written Akevit.
124. *g* has the sound of English *g* in "give", "go"; Ex.: gaa to go, gli(de) to slide, Gnier miser, grave to dig, jage to hunt, Norge Norway, Dag day, Sprog (åg) language, Tog (åg) train, Svælg gullet, Sorg grief, Helg holidays, Elg elk, Talg tallow.

**Note 1.** In some of these words, after *l* and *r*, *g* is sometimes pronounced as *j*, but this pronunciation is considered vulgar.

**Note 2.** For *g* as the sign of *k* see §122 note; for the pronunciation varying between *g* and *k* see §122 note; for *g* and *gj* being signs of *j* see §120, 2 and 3; *gid* would, *o* that, *gide* to prevail upon one's self to, are pronounced with *g* before *i*.

For *g* representing *i* as second part of diphthongs see §§94 and 96. For *g* representing the sound of *sj* in foreign words see §113.

**Note 3.** *g* sometimes before *n* represents the sound of *ng*: Agn pron. angn, bait, Magnus pron. Mangnus or Magnus, Vogn pron. vogn. So also in the western and northern part of Norway in Egn, Lögn etc. (see §94 and 96).

125. *g* is written but not pronounced:

1) in adjectives and adverbs ending in—*g* (lig): storag-ti(*g*) haughty, færdi(*g*) ready, aldri(*g*) never: also when the plural ending *e* is added *g* remains mute; Ex.: mærkelii(*g*)e Ting strange things; and if the neutral ending *t* is added that also is mute: Huse(t) er færdi(*gt*) the house is ready.

2) after the diphthongs *ei* and *au*: sei(*g*) tough, Dei(*g*) dough, Bau(*g*) bow.

2) in the word o(*g*) and, and in some compounds of Dag: godda(*g*) good day (how do you do), Manda(*g*) Monday, Tirs-da(*g*) Tuesday etc.; sometimes in Ru(*g*) (or rugg).

4) after a long vowel before *l*: Fu(*g*)l bird, Ku(*g*)le ball, Pry(*g*)l thrashing (but *g* always pronounced before *l* after a short vowel: Ex.: Hagl hail).

5) sometimes after *l* and *r* before an unstressed vowel:
imorges (rr) this morning, imor(g)en to-morrow. Sometimes the meaning changes according as g is pronounced or not:

$g$ not pronounced:  
folge (ll) to follow;  
et Følge (ll) a company.

$g$ pronounced:  
en Følge (g) a consequence,  
folgende following, Følgesætning consequent (sentence),  
føligeværdig worth following.

sælge (ll) to sell, sol(g)te sold.  
Sælger (lg) a salesman.

spørge (rr) to ask, Spør(g)smaal question.  
spørgende inquiring, Spørge-sætning interrogative sentence.

126. $h$ has before vowels the sound of English $h$; Ex.: han he, Haab hope, holde to hold, hilse to greet.

Note. A mute $h$ is written before $j$ and $v$ in the following words: Hjerne brain, Hjelm helmet, ihjel to death, Hjerte heart, Hjort hart, Hjord herd, Hjem home, Hjul wheel, Hjælp help, Hjørne corner, hva(d) what, hvem, hvø who, hvís whose, if, hvilken which, hvor where (and compounds thereof hvorfor why etc.), Hval whale, Hvalp whelp, hvas sharp, hvæsse to whet, Hvede wheat, Hvæps wasp, hver each, Hværdal(g) week day, hverken neither, Hverv task, hvørve to enlist, hvit white, hvølte to whiten, Hvæl rest, hvine to shriek, Hvirvel whirlpool, hviske to whisper, hvisle to hiss, Hvitting whiting, Hvælv vault, hvøese to hiss.

Note. In the western and northern part of Norway the pronominal words spelt with hv are regularly pronounced with k: kem, ka etc., while some others are pronounced with kv: kvass, kvit, kvalp etc.

This pronunciation is not used by polite society, but the traveller may come across it.

127. $x$ in some foreign words represents the sound of ks (many people still use this sign to express the same combination of sounds also in domestic words, see § 123 note 2); Ex.: orthodox, Oxyd, extraordinær, Examen. At the beginning of words of Greek origin it is usually pronounced s: Xerxes (pr. surses), Xylograf.
128. *z* is also used in some foreign words to represent the sound of *s*: *Zebra, Zelot.*

129. *e* is used in foreign words representing the sound of *s*; Ex.: *Ceder* cedar, *Centaur, Ceremoni, Cigar, musicere* to make music. In foreign words where it formerly was used to express the sound of *k* it is now the rule to write *k*. Greek proper nouns are now usually written and pronounced with *k*: *Kimon, Kyros.*

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**NORWEGIAN ACCENT.**

130. In Norwegian speech a distinction must be made between the accent-stress and the musical accent.

131. The accent stress as a rule rests upon the first syllable, which at the same time generally is the radical syllable. A secondary stress is sometimes, especially in compound words, laid on the following syllable, i.e. in most cases on the first syllable of the second part of the compound; Ex.: *Bo'rd'ta'ppe* table cover, *La'mpeskjæ'rnm* lampshade, *Gla'sme'ster* glazier. (*'* denotes primary accent, *'* secondary accent).

132. The accent stress is on another syllable than the first.

1) in some foreign words; Ex.: *Genera'l, Cogna'c Apo-stro'f, Apothe'k.*

2) in words (of German origin) with the prefixes *be-, ge-, er-*, which never have the stress on the first syllable; Ex.: *begri'be* to understand, *Gewær* shot-gun, *Gemal* consort, *er-fa're* to learn, *bekje'nde* to acknowledge, etc.

**Note.** In vulgar speech these words are accented on the first syllable; *bearbei'de* to adapt has usually the stress on the first syllable when meaning to belabor.
3) in some words with the prefix for representing the German ver; Ex.: Forfatter author, forgaa' sig to offend, forføre to seduce, Fornuft reason; but: foranstalte to cause to be done, forrarbeide to manufacture, Forbud prohibition (but forbyde to prohibit), Forbund alliance (but forbi'nde sig to agree), Forhold relation (but forholde sig to behave), Forlag publishing, Forlægger publisher (but forlægge to publish), Forrnue competency, Forrsøg attempt (but forsøge to try), Forsvare defence (but forsvare to defend, Forsværer defender). When for represents the preposition for (Germ. für, vor, Eng. fore) then it has the stress: Forbøn intervention, Forbjerg promontory, Forgaard fore court, Forhæng curtain, For tand foretooth, Fornavn Christian name, Forfald impediment (but forfa'lden decayed).

4) words with the negative prefix un (Eng. un-, in-) as a rule have the stress on the first syllable; Ex.: Unnaade disgrace; but adjectives ending in -elig and those ending in -lig which are derived from verbs and denote a feasibility have the stress on that syllable of the second part of the compound, which had the accent before the composition took place; Ex.: ubeha'gelig disagreeable, umu'lig impossible, usaa'rlig invulnerable, uggjø'rlig not feasible. Also a great many other adjectives in -lig and -ig have the stress on the second part of the compound: uanstå'ndig indecent, usædva'nlig unusual, uhe'ldig unfortunate, uag'iet although, but u'farlig not dangerous, u'personlig impersonal, u'naturalig unnatural or unatu'rlig.

5) The suffixes -inde and -ri generally have the stress: Læreri'nde (lady) teacher, Generali'nde general's wife, Hykleri' hypocrisy, Tyveri' theft, (but Svi'neri and Griseri piggery, filthiness take the stress on the first syllable). The suffixes -else and -ning usually when added to compound words
cause the accent to be moved forward to the second part of the compound; Ex.: mis′unde to envy, but Misu′ndelse envy, Tilvæ′relse existence, Tilskik′kelse dispensation (by providence) but til′skikke to dispense, Indle′dning introduction but i′ndlede to introduce); in A′fseau′ttelse removal, U′dførelse execution, O′versau′ttelse translation, A′fledning derivation, U′dtapning draining and some others the accent is on the first syllable. Some derivative adjectives with -li′g, -ig (cfr. No. 4) and -som have the stress on another syllable than the first (most of these words are of German origin); Ex.: op′ri′gig sincere, ørvæ′rdig reverend, forsau′ttlig intentional (but Fo′rsau′t intention), veldw′dig charitable, alvo′rlig serious (but A′lvor earnest).

6) note the following words: Taller′ken plate, Vidun′der miracle, undta′gen except, Hense′ende regard, vedkom′mende in for mit Vedkom′mende as far as I am concerned (but ved′kommende pertaining to).

133. Compound words as a rule have the principal stress on their first part (see § 131); Ex.: Ho′vedpine (pron. Ho′depine) headache, Hus′hovme′ster major domus. But in some words the stress is on the second part of the composition:

1) in some titles and geographical names; Ex.: Oberstlø′i′t- nant lieutenant colonel, Stifta′mtmand high civil official, Kristianssa′nd, Fredriksha′ld (but Fre′drikstad), Osti′dien East India; furthermore Syd′o′st southeast, Nordve′st north west etc. Velbaa′renked lordship (and other words composed with vel−: Velgje′rning deed of charity, Velanstw′ndighed propriety, velsma′gende savory, velsi′gne to bless, Velsi′gnelse blessing (but Vel′levnet luxurious living, Vel′magt vigor, vel′skabt well shaped etc.), Skoma′ger shoemaker, Budei′e milkmaid, Smaagut′ter little boys, Smaapi′ger little girls (but Smaa′jenter little girls, has the stress on the first part); some
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words composed with halv half: halvanden one and a half, halvsjette five and a half; Aa'rhundrede century and Aa'rtusinde millennium as a rule have the accent on their first part (aar) but may also have it on the second.

2) compounds the first part of which are prepositions have the stress on the first part when the word as a whole belongs to the same class of words as its second part, but on the second part when this is governed by the preposition; Ex: O'verhouved (pron. O'verhode) chief, headman, but overho'vded (pr. overho'de) upon the whole, tiltsjø' on sea, tilla'nds on land, igaar yesterday, imor'gen to-morrow, For'sommer spring, Fortid past tense, but fortiden for the time being. Obs. Efterre'tning news, but Underre'tning or Underre'tning information, forbi' by, but fo'rbigaa to pass by.

des is unstressed when indicating a comparison: desva'erre the worse, alass, desme're the more etc.; but when it represents the old gen. of demonstrative pronoun ruled by the second part of the composition it has the stress: des'aarsag on that account, des'angaaende thereabout, des'foruden moreover besides that (but desu'den besides, desformedelst for that reason). i in adverbial compounds never has the stress: imo'd against, igje'n again, ibla'ndt among; saa is stressed when indicating manner: saa'lydende reading as follows, saa'kaldet so called; but unstressed when indicating degree: saasna'rt as soon, saafre'mt provided, saavi'dt as far as.

Kanha'nde perhaps, maaske' (pr. maasje' or maaske') perhaps; but ka'nske (pr. ka'nske or ka'nsja) perhaps.

134. Different from the stress accent is the musical accent. There are two kinds of musical accent employed in single words, the monosyllabic and the dissyllabic. The former is used in (original) monosyllables and in so far corresponds with the Danish "Stødtone" (Glottal catch), while the dissyllabic accent belongs to (originally) dissyllabic or polysyllabic words.
135. The monosyllabic accent begins in a very low tone and ascends to a somewhat higher pitch, about a third or a fourth. This somewhat higher pitch is the regular base of the voice.

136. The dissyllabic accent begins in a strong medium tone, descends about a third and ascends in the weak final syllable again about a fourth.

[137. From professor Johan Storm's "Englische Philologie" are taken the following "tunes" of words with monosyllabic and dissyllabic accent. As many originally monosyllabic words in the present language have two syllables, there will among the words with monosyllabic accent be found many dissyllables.

Eastern Norway (Christiania).
I. Monosyllabic accent.

II. Dissyllabic (compound) accent.

Western Norway (Bergen).
I. Monosyllabic accent. II. Dissyllabic (compound) accent.

(ja yes, Solen the sun, Bøgerne the books, Maanen the moon, Menneskene the human beings).
138. By their different musical accent are distinguished many pairs of otherwise consonous words. Monosyllabic words with the affixed definite article are, as far as the accent is concerned, considered as monosyllables.

Simple or monosyllabic accent (‘)

Amen (pron. am’men), amen.

Bonder (pr. Bounær) plasants.

Bund-en (‘nn) the bottom.

Dyr-et (‘) the animal.

Haar-et (haa’ret or haar’et) the hair.

Kok’ken the cook (male, indefinite: Kok).

Lom’men the loon (Colymbus arcticus, ind. Lom).

Sval’en the balcony.

Ul(d)en the wool.

Jæger (name).

Møller (name).

(jeg) bærer (I) carry, (jeg) drager (I) draw.

(jeg) lægger (I) lay.

(jeg) løber (p) (I) run.

(jeg) læser (I) read.

(jeg) piber (piper) (I) pipe.

(jeg) skriver (I) write.

(jeg) sætter (I) set.

(jeg) sæl(g)er (I) sell.

Compound or dissyllabic accent (‘)

Ammen (pron. am’men) the wet nurse.


bunden (‘nn) tied.

dyre expensive (plur.).

haar’et hairy.

Kok’ke-n the cook (woman).

Lomm-en (‘) the pocket.

Svale-n the swallow.

ul(d)en woolly.

Jæger hunter.

Møller miller.

Bærer carrier, (en) Drager (a) porter.

Legger (pr. lægger) calves (of the legs).

Löber (p) runner.

Læser a reader.

Piber (piper) pipes.

Skriver penman.

Sætter typesetter.

Sælger (g sounded) a seller.
The present tense of the strong verbs have the simple tone, that of the weak verbs the compound tone. The plural form of a great many nouns which in the old language formed their plural in —r still retains the simple tone, while those words which in the old language formed their plural in —ar and —ir have the compound tone.

139. The musical accent of the words may be modified by the sentence or the tonic accent. Thus e.g. a gradual raising of the pitch of the voice through the whole sentence indicates a question or something unfinished, where a continuation of the sentence may be looked for.

ABBREVIATIONS.

140. In colloquial language there are used a great many abbreviations which do not occur in the more solemn language used on the pulpit, in recitals etc.

These abbreviations chiefly consist in the dropping of the syllables de, ge(ke), ve, especially in verbs; most of the words affected by these abbreviations are in some figurative or not very frequent meanings exempt therefrom. Especially may be noticed that the abbreviation as a rule does not take place in pres. partcp. (ending in -en_de), and before suffixes commencing with -e, -er, -en, -else etc.) and in pres. and inf. pass. (ending in -es).

a) abbreviations consisting in the omission of de:

    de dropped.                      de retained.

be(de) to ask, pray, also be(de) Bededag day of prayer, Tilbe-
til Gud pray to God.              delse adoration.
**NORWEGIAN SOUNDS.**

- **de dropped.**
  - **blø(de) to bleed.**
  - **bry(de) (in past tense brydde) to trouble, bry sit Hode med (spelt: bryde sit Hoved) to trouble one's head about something.**
  - **bry(de) sig om to mind.**
  - **bry(de) en Gut med en Jente to tease a boy about a girl.**
  - **by(de) to offer, by(de) paa no-get to give a bid for something or to invite to partake of something.**
  - **fø(de) to bear (give birth) and to feed (especially is the abbreviation the rule in this latter meaning), sultefø sine Kreaturer to starve one's cattle.**
  - **gli(de) to glide.**
  - **giø(de) to gladden jeg giø(de)r mig til de(t) I anticipate it with pleasure.**
  - **klø(de) to dress, at klø(de) paa en to dress somebody, det klø(de)r Dem godt it fits you well, Klø(de)r clothes, Haandklø(de) towel, Klø(de)sbørste clothes brush.**
  - **la(de) et Gevær to load a gun.**
  - **la(d) det være let that be, i. e. don't do that (see § 106).**

- **de retained.**
  - **mit Hjærte bløder my heart bleeds.**
  - **bryde to break (a wholly different word, pres. tense pron. bryte, past tense brød (pron. brøt).**
  - **byde command, Loven byder the law commands, sælge til høiestbydende to sell to the highest bidder.**
  - **du skal føde en Sön thou shallt bear a son, Fødeland country of birth. Fødemid-del aliment.**
  - **Glidebane a slide.**
  - **Glæde joy, de(t) glæder mig at høre I am glad to hear it.**
  - **bekløede et Embede to fill an office, Kløede cloth, sort Kløede black broadcloth, Ligkløede pall.**
  - **Ladested small town (without a city charter).**
  - **lade to leave undone.**
de dropped.

li(de) to suffer, jeg li(de)r ondt
I suffer hardships.

det li(de)r langt paa Dag it is
passing late into the day.

ri(de) or ri(d)e to ride on
horseback, en Ri(de)tur a
horseback ride.

raa(de) to advise, Mennesket
spaar, Gud raar man pro-
poses, God disposes.

ska(de) to injure, de(t) kan
ikke ska(de) it can do no
harm.

smede, pron. smi, to forge, at
smi Jern to forge iron.

spre(de) to spread, Epidemien
spre(de)r sig over hele Byen
the epidemie spreads all over
the town.

stri(de) to strive, at stri(de)
med noget to strive with so-
mething, at stri(de) imod to
be opposed to.

de retained.

lide af en Sygdom to suffer
from a disease, Lidesformen
the passive voice, lide Skib-
brud paa sin Tro to make
shipwreck concerning one's
faith.

Tiden lider time is passing.

Berider a horse trainer, Ride-
kunst the art of riding.

forraade to betray, tilraade to
counsel, Omraade to
territory, Raaderum free
scope.

skade is the more common
form in polite language; det
skader ikke at forsøge there
is no harm done in trying.

af Skade bli(ve)r man klog
injury makes wise.

man maa smede, mens Jernet
er varmt you must strike
while the iron is hot.

jeg skal sprede mine Fiender
I shall scatter my enemies,
du maa sørge for at ad-
sprede ham you must take
care to divert his thoughts.

det strider mod Fornuften it
is against all reason, at stri-
de den sidste Strid to fight
the last battle, to die.
de dropped.

træ(de) to step, **at træ(de)** en paa Foden to step on somebody’s toes, træ(d) af retire!

bety(de) to signify, **hvad bety-(de)r dette?** what is the meaning of this?

va(de) to wade.

Bro(de)r brother, Fa(de)r fa-
ther, Mo(de)r mother when
signifying the degree of relationship; also in com-
ounds: Farbror father’s brother, Farfar father’s fa-
ther, Farmor, Morfar, Mor-
mor and Morbror, Brorskab
(p): **der er intet Brorskab i Kortspil** relationship (bro-
therhood) is of no avail in cards.

Sadèl saddle, pron. Sal in Sa-
(de)lmager a saddler, uphol-
sterer, in other cases usually
pronounced Sale: **sæde fast i Salen** to have a firm seat.

de retained.

træde i ens Fodspor to follow one’s example, **det optræder i Form af** it appears in the shape of; **at tiltræde et Em-
bede** to enter upon an office.

at betyde en noget to give some-
body something to un-
derstand, **at tyde en Ind-
skrift** to decipher an in-
scription, **antyde to inti-
mate, hentyde to allude.**

**Vædefu(g)l** wading bird, **Vad-
ested ford.**

Broder, Fader, Moder figu-
atively: **en Broder i Aanden a** brother in the spirit, **Em-
bedsbroder a** brother officer, **Fostbroder** sworn brother, **Brodermord fratricide, Bro-
derkys brotherly kiss, bro-
derlig fraternal, den hellige Fader the holy father, Fa-
dermord parricide, Fader-
mordere sideboards, Fader-
hjæltere paternal heart, hun er allerede Moder she is al-
ready a mother, **Moderglæde** maternal joy.
b) abbreviations by dropping ge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ge dropped.</th>
<th>ge retained.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dra(ge) to draw, dra(ge) Pusten to draw the breath, dra(ge) Kjensel paa to recognize, dra(ge) en Slutning to draw a conclusion, be-dra(ge) to defraud, jeg har draget (pr. drad) ham hele Vejen I have been dragging him all the way.</td>
<td>drage intr. to depart, med draget Sværd with drawn sword, jeg andrager om Udsættelse I apply for a respite, Tildragelse happening (and other derivatives).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>si(ge) or si(g)e to say, pres. tense always si(ge)r, past. sa(gde), imp. si(g), passiv si(g)es.</td>
<td>sige: 120, siger og skriver et hundrede og tyve 120—say one hundred and twenty—, efter sigende according to report, Frasigelse resignation (and other derivatives).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ta(ge) to take, past tense tog pron. tok or to, imper. ta, ptpc. tagen, taget pron. coloquially tatt.</td>
<td>tage sometimes in religious diction and always in some derivatives: Antagelse supposition, Fritagelse exemption, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morgen pron. mår’n morning, imår’n to-morrow, imorges pron. imårres early this morning.</td>
<td>Morgenstund har Guld i Mund early to rise makes a man wealthy, Morgenstjerne (a name).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no(ge)n, no(g)en no(g)e(t) anybody, anything.</td>
<td>nogenlunde fairly, nogensinde at any time (sometimes pron. någen—).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c) abbreviations by dropping ve.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ve dropped.</th>
<th>ve retained.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bli(ve) to become, remain, past tense ble(v), ptpc. ble-vet (pron. blit).</td>
<td>blive in pres. ptpc. and some derivatives.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ve dropped.

fly(ve) or fly(v)e to flie, i fly-(v)ende Fart in a flying hurry, paa flyvende Flækken (somewh. vulg.) right here on the spot.

gi(ve) to give, gi(v) mig det give it me, prtcp. givet pr. git (in these abbreviated colloquial forms g is pronounced as j (see § 118, 2).

ha(ve) to have, pres. written and pronounced jeg har, past tense spelt havde pron. hatte, prtc. havt pron hatt.

Hoved pron. hode head: et godt Hode a clever person, ondt i Hode(t) pains in the head, Hodepine, Hodeverk headache (always spelt Hovedpine etc.)

ve retained.

med flyvende Faner with banners flying, den flyvende Hollænder the flying Dutchman, en Flyvemaskine a flying machine, et Flyveblad a pamphlet.

der gives Folk som there are people who, anse noget for givet consider something as given, en given Størrelse a given quantity (in the unabridged forms g usually is pronounced as g).

havende having, passive haves or ha(v)es.

Hoved chief: Hovedmanden the head, the leader, Hovedværk principal work.

QUANTITY.

141. Vowels are long 1) in monosyllables when ending the word; Ex.: gaa to go, Ko cow. (Nu now has long or short vowel according as it has the sentence stress or not: nu' kommer jeg here I am, nu kom'mer jeg I am coming now). 2) in the accented syllable of dissyllables and polysyllables when followed by a single consonant with following vowel:
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loέse to read, Prο've test, Nuα'de grace. Exceptions: Abor perch (pron. abbor), Furu fir tree (pron. furru), Lever (vv) liver, Moro (rr) fun, Niding (dd) villain, traitor.

142. Vowels are short when followed by two or more consonants or a double consonant; Ex.: hoppe to jump, mοrk dark, mange many.

Note 1. Before st a vowel may be short or long; Ex.: loνg: Bαst wild beast, mεst most; sροrt: Hest horse, Vest waistcoat. If the t belongs to an ending of inflection, then a preceding long vowel as a rule retains its length: haρs't hoarse (neut. of hæs), biα'st prtcp. of bλεse to blow (but Bλεst, wind), leρ'st prrtc. of lεse to read; in the same manner a vowel is treated before l, n, r, with following inflective t: fοr'te past tense of fοle to feel, guρlt yellow, neut. of guл, mε'nte past tense of mene to mean, hο'ρt prtcp. of hορ to hear.

Note 2. Before r(d) the vowel is long (see § 109); Ex.: Jο'r(d) earth etc.; but Sερd sword, Hfoρd herd with short vowel and pronounced d.

Note 3. Before dl, dr, gr, pr and tr the preceding vowel as a rule is long, but may also be short; Ex.: loνg: adle to ennoble, bedre better, magre lean (plur.), kαρpre to capture, (make a prize of). Tεαtret the theater; sροrt: snαdre to cackle, plυdre to jabber.

143. In monosyllables ending in a single consonant the vowel may be long or short. It is as a rule long before b, g, d, whether they be pronounced as written or as ρ, k, t (or mute d); Ex.: Haαb hope, Toг (ά) expedition, Bad bath, Gab (p) gap, Tag (k) roof, bag (k) behind, lad (t) lazy.

Note. Short is the vowel in some words ending in one of the above mentioned consonants (the consonant in that case being pronounced long); Ex.: Laαg cover, pron. lαkk (but Øjenlaαg eyelid as written), Leg, gg, leg, Vαг, gg, wall, Ryg, gg, back, тιг, gg, imper. of тιγге to beg, тιг, gg, imper. of лιгге to lie, Lab, bb, paw, Flαb, bb, chaps.

144. A vowel followed by a single l, n, r, s, may be long or short, the consonant in the latter case being pronounced long; Ex.: Hul, ll, hole, but hу'l hollow, for, rr, for, but fo'r
travelled, vis, ss, certain, but vi's wise, Me'n injury, but men, nn, but; a vowel followed by a single m is short except in E'm vapor.

145. A vowel before a single final k, p, t as a rule is short, the consonant then being pronounced long; Ex.: Tak, kk, thanks, Hop, pp, jump, Hat, tt, hat.

Exceptions are some specific Norwegian words which have never been accepted into the Danish literature and therefore never have been spelled in accordance with Danish pronunciation: Aat food of fishes, Laat sound (=Danish Lyd), laak (being) in poor healt, Raak a lane of water through the ice, Løp a kind of wooden box.

Note. In compound words the component parts retain their original quantity; Ex.: Tog-tabel a Railroad time table, Mod-stand (pr. Mot-stand) opposition.

146. A consonant is always long after a stressed short vowel; when an unstressed vowel follows then the consonant is written double; Hul hole, plur. Huller, Suppe soup, Smør butter (Smørret the butter).

Note 1. It will be seen from the above examples that if during the inflection of words ending in a single consonant with a preceding short vowel the consonant comes before a termination commencing in a vowel then the consonant is written double.

Note 2. Some foreign words retain their original spelling but are pronounced in accordance with the above rule; Ex.: Artikel (pr. artikkel) article, Amen (pr. Ammen), Titel (pr. Tittel) title. A consonant written double after an unstressed vowel is pronounced short; Ex.: Tallerken (pr. Tale'rken) plate, Parallel (pr. Parale'll).

Note 3. A consonant is not written double before another consonant even if it be long; Ex.: gammel old, plur. gamle (pr. gammle); except in compound words: Ex.: Manddrab homicide (Mand-drab). A long consonant is not as a rule written double at the end of words, except in a few cases to avoid ambiguity; Ex.: viss certain, to distinguish it from vi's wise.
VOWEL CHANGES IN INFLECTION AND WORD FORMATION.

147. The Dano-Norwegian language employs two most important kinds of vowel changes, which the Danish and Norwegian grammarians call "Aflyd" and "Omlyd", in English generally called "gradation" and "mutation".

148. Bygradation (Aflyd, ablaut) we understand that system of the language enabling it out of the same root to form several stems by using different vowels; this principle is of great importance in the inflection of the verbs, but it also plays an important part in word formation; Ex.: bare to bear, bar bore, baarene borne, binte to bind, bandte bound, Baand ribbon, Bundt bunch, tage take, toeg took.

149. By mutation (Omlyd, umlaut) is understood the change of a vowel caused by assimilation to a following vowel (i, u) or consonant (j). The sound causing the change has in the present language as a rule disappeared, but it is shown by a comparison with the earlier stages of the language. The principle of mutation is active both in inflection and in word formation. The u-umlaut is now in inflection found only in the word Barn child, plur. Börn.

By the i-umlaut the following changes are caused:

\[ \begin{align*}
  a - \omega : & \text{ Fader father, plur. Fædre, falde to fall, fulde to fell.} \\
  aa - \omega : & \text{ Haand hand, plur. Haender.} \\
  o - \phi : & \text{ Moder mother, plur. Mødre, Blod blood, blode to bleed.} \\
  u - \gamma : & \text{ tung heavy, comp. tynge, huld gracious, hylde to swear allegiance to.}
\end{align*} \]

Note. In the i-umlaut it is a following front sound that influences (palatalizes) a preceding back sound.
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ARTICLES.—GENDERS.

150. The Dano-Norwegian language has a definite and an indefinite article. The definite article has two forms, one employed in connection with a noun alone, the other used with a noun qualified by an adjective or with an adjective alone. The former is called the post-positive article (also the definite article of the substantives). The latter is called the præ-positive article (also the definite article of the adjectives).

151. The Dano-Norwegian language has two genders, common gender and neuter. The former comprises both the masculine and feminine of the old language.

Note. In colloquial Norwegian speech there is still sometimes made a distinction between the masculine and feminine genders. The cases where such distinction is made will be mentioned in their proper places.

152. The post-positive article is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>common</td>
<td>-en (-n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neuter</td>
<td>-ens</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ex.: Hest-en the horse, Hus-et the house, Huse-ne the houses, Møngeb-n the quantity, Værelse-t the room, Mænd-ene the men. Thus it appears that the forms -n, -t are used in connection with nouns ending in -e and the form ene in connection with words forming their plural without an ending.

Note 1. This article was originally a demonstrative pronoun which in the old language has the form of hinn, hitt, hinir and by being used enclitically with nouns gradually lost its independent character and a part of its substance. This enclitic definite article is one of
the chief characteristics distinguishing the Scandinavian languages from the other Teutonic tongues.

Note 2. The enclitic (post-positive) article, besides being used with substantives standing alone, is employed with substantives qualified by the following adjectives: al all, begge both, selv self; Ex.: al Mæden all the food, selve Kongen or Kongen selv the king himself, begge Brødrene both the brothers.

153. The præ-positive definite article is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>comm. gender</th>
<th>neuter</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>den</td>
<td>de(t)</td>
<td>de</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

den store Man(d) the great man, de(t) nye Hus the new house;
plur.: de store Mænd the great men. This article may also be employed with an adjective alone when used substantively: den gode the good (man), de(t) skjonne the beautiful, beauty.

Note 1. With the following adjectives the postpositive and the præpositive article may be used promiscuously: hel whole, halv half; Ex.: hele Dagen or den hele Dag the whole day, halve Riget or det halve Rige half the kingdom, største, mindste Delen the greater, smaller part. Sometimes, mostly in poetry, the postpositive article may be used where the præpositive is regularly employed: et Skud af gamle Heltestammmen a scion of the old stock of heroes, Svenske Kysten or den svenske Kyst the Swedish coast.

Note 2 Colloquially it is common in Norway to use both the post-positive and the præpositive article at the same time with nouns qualified by an adjective; Ex.: den store Manden the big man. In the same manner the postpositive article is in Norwegian often added to nouns determined by demonstrative pronouns: i denne Villaen in this villa here; den Manden der that man there. This is not used in Danish.

Note 3. The præpositive article is sometimes in poetry and religious style used with nouns not qualified by adjectives; Ex: Brevet til de Romere the Epistle to the Romans, de Vover saa sagtelig trille the waves roll leisurely along.

Note 4. The præpositive article is originally the same word as the demonstrative pronoun den, det, de which has lost its logical stress and consequently its accent stress and has come to be considered as a mere prefix.
Some words are in Danish used without an article, while the English language requires the article with the same words; Ex.: **Verden** the world, **Verden er stor** the world is great (but *i Kunstverdenen* in the world of art), **Højesteret** the Supreme Court, **Rektor** the Principal (of the School).

Furthermore may be noted that the article is never affixed to a noun that is qualified by a genitive: **Kongens Slot** the palace of the king, **Naboens Hus** the house of the neighbor. But if a complement (*af of, with a noun*) is used instead of genitive, then the article is used: **Ejeren af Huset** or **Husets Ejer** the owner of the house.

Sometimes the præpositive article may be omitted with superlatives: **første Gang** the first time, **överste Stokvaerk** the top floor, **med störste Fornøjelse** with the greatest pleasure. But in all these cases the article may also be used.

**155.** The indefinite article has the form:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>common gender</th>
<th>neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>en</strong></td>
<td><strong>et</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ex.: **en Man(d)** a man, **et Hus** a house.

**Note 1.** The indefinite article was originally the numeral **en** one.

**Note 2.** The indefinite article always has its place before the noun and also before a qualifying adjective: **en Mand, en stor Mand.** But when the noun is connected with an interrogative word or an adjective qualified by the adverb *saa so*, and *for too*, then the article is placed after the interrogative word, or adjective; Ex.: **hvilken en Mand** what a man? **hvordan et Hus** what a big house! **saa ungt et Menneske** such a youth! *for tyk en Hals** too thick a neck. In connection with *mangen* the article has its place after that word but before another adjective: **mangen en Mand** many a man, **mangen en tapper Mand** many a brave man. In connection with *saadan* such, the article may be placed before or after that word: **saadan en Mand** or **en saadan Mand.** In connection with a comparative and *jo—desto* the article is placed between the comparative and the noun; Ex.: **jo tykkere en Hals han har, desto snarere skal den**
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hugges over the thicker a neck he has, the quicker he shall be decapitated. (In this case the article is more commonly omitted).

Note 3. The indefinite article is used in connection with numerals to indicate an approximate number; Ex.: Hr. Sørensen var her i fjorten Dage Mr. S. stayed here about two weeks.

NOUNS.

GENDER OF THE NOUNS.

156. The genders of the nouns are only of importance syntactically, in so far as the adjective or the article assume different forms in conformity with the gender of the noun qualified by them. No generally binding rules can be given for the genders of the nouns in Danish-Norwegian, but the following intimations may be of some help:


Note 1. Some nouns comprising the natural masculine and feminine genders are neuter: *Kvoget*, the cattle; *Folket* the people (also the compounds: *et Mundfolk*, *et Kvindfolk* a male, female individual), *Mennesket* man (generally), *et Dyr* an animal, *et Svìn* a hog, *et Fluar* a sheep, *et Æscl* a donkey. Also several words indicating the young ones of animals: *et Lam* a lamb, *et Föl* a colt, *et Kid* a kid.

2) Names of trees, plants and stones are as a rule of common gender: *Bøgen* the beech, *en Eg* an oak, *Rugen* the rye, *Graniten* the granite, *Flinten* the flint.

Note 2. Neuter are: *et Blad* a leaf, *et Bær* a berry; (but in compounds common gender in Norwegian when used collectively; Ex.:
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Multebærer staar rød over hele Myren the cloudberry stands red all over the bog), et Græs a grass, et Straa a straw, et Træ a tree.

3) Names of seasons, months, days and other divisions of time are mostly common gender. Hösten the fall, Vinteren the winter, Dagen the day.

Note 3. Aaret the year, et Døgn day & night, et Minut a minute (but paa Minuten this very minute).

4) Names of wind and weather: Østenvinden the East wind, Sneen the snow, Stormen the storm. (But Hagl hail, may be c. and n. and Regn rain is in Norway usually n., Vejret the weather).

5) Names of rivers and lakes: den blaa Donau the blue D., Rhinen the Rhine, den grönne Gjendin the green G.

6) Names of sciences: Filologi, Medicinen, Mathematik.

157. 1) Most collective nouns and names of substances are of neuter gender: Træet the wood, Blyet the lead, Jernet the iron, Staalet the steel. But Malmen the ore, Ulden the wool, Melken the milk, Vinen the wine, and others.

2) Names of countries and cities: det lille Danmark the little Denmark, det mægtige Rom the mighty R.

3) Names of mountains: det höje Mont Blanc the high M. B., det ildsprudende Ætna the fire spouting Æ.

Note. Names of letters are in Denmark usually of neuter, in Norway of common gender: et stort (Nor. en stor) A a capital A. Also in Denmark et Bogstav a letter, i: Norway en Bogstav. Names of languages are of common gender when combined with the post-positive article; Fransken the French language, Græskenn Greek; but paa godt Norsk in good Norwegian.

158. The following nominal suffixes form words of common gender: 1) -hed, -inde, -ing, (-ling, -ning) -er (nomina agentis), -en (nomina actionis), -ske, -dom; Ex.: Storhed
greatness, Lærerinde (lady) teacher, Stilling position, Virknings effect, Gjæsling gosling, Beiler suitor, Vaklen vacillation, Barndom childhood.

2) as a rule -sel, -else, -e (in derivatives of adjectives), -d, -t, -st; Færsel traffic (but et Fængsel prison, et Stængsel bar, et Bid sel a bit, bridle), Førelse guidance (but et Spøgelse a ghost, et Værelse a room), Styrkestrength, Højde height, (but Mørket the darkness), Byrd birth, Færd behavior, Kunst art, Magt power (but et Skridt a step).

3) Foreign words ending in -ion, -isme, -tet, -ur, -us: Kommunionen, Radikalismen, en Kalamitet (but Universitetet), en Kultus, en Habitus, Kulturen (but et Kreatur); Diktatur may be used both as c. and n.

159. 1) Nouns having the same form as the stem of verbs are usually neuter; Ex.: Badet the bath (bade to bathe), Kaldet the call (kalde to call), Raabet the cry (raabe to cry).

Note. This rule does not apply in cases where the verb is derived from the corresponding noun (although, of course, also in that case the noun may be neuter); thus we have en Dröm a dream (at drömmen to dream), en Leg a play (at lege to play), Tröstet the comfort (at tröste to comfort). Also Drik drink, Grav grave, Hjælp help, Straf punishment, Strid strife, Törst thirst are common gender, and so are words ending in -gt as Frygten the fright (at frygte to fear), and those in -ang, to which correspond verbs in -inge (ynge), Sangen the song (at synge to sing), Klangen the sound (at klinge to sound).

2) The following suffixes as a rule form words of neuter gender: -dømme, -ende, -maal, -ri, -skab; med mit Vidende with my knowledge, (but i en Henseende in one respect, denne Tidende this news, en Tiende a tithe), Kongedømmet the kingdom, et Spørgsmaal a question, Tyveriet the theft, Bagteriet baker’s shop, mit Kjendskab my knowledge, Ægteskabet marriage (but derivatives of adjectives are of common gender: Troskaben the faithfulness, Ondskaben the wickedness).
3) Foreign words ending in -iv, -ment, -om, -um are
neuter; et Komplement (but en Kompliment); et Ultimatum,
et Arkiv, et Axiom.

160. Compound words have the gender of the last com-
ponent part: en Bordplade a table slab, et Hesteben a horse’s
leg.

Exceptions: En Ødeland a spendthrift, en Graaskjæg a greybeard,
et Folkefær a race, et Gjenfær a ghost, et Vidnesbyrd a testimony, dette
Perlemøde(r) this mother-of-pearl, Brændevinet the brandy, Forskjellen the
difference (but Grønnseskløet the border line).

161. Some words imply a different meaning according as
they are used in common gender or neuter. In other cases
originally different words have the same sound, but disagree
in gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>common gender</th>
<th>neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arken the ark.</td>
<td>et Ark a sheet (of paper).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Bud (Norw. Bit, Bete) a bit, piece.</td>
<td>et Bid (dd) a bite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Bo (in compounds Nabø etc. a neighbor).</td>
<td>et Bo an estate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Brug a custom.</td>
<td>et Brug (Norw.) establishment, concern.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Buk a he-goat.</td>
<td>et Buk a bow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Felten the campaign.</td>
<td>Fellet the field, sphere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Frø a frog.</td>
<td>et Frø a seed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Fyr a fellow, chap.</td>
<td>et Fyr a light-house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Følge a consequence.</td>
<td>et Følge a retinue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lejen the rent.</td>
<td>Lejet the couch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Lem a trap.</td>
<td>et Lem a member.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Lod share, lot.</td>
<td>et Lod a weight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en Nøgle a key.</td>
<td>et Nøgle (D.) a ball (of yarn)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| en Raad (in compounds: Stats-
raad, etc.) a councillor. | et Raad a council, advice. |
common gender
Rimen the hoar frost.
Risen the rice.
en Segl (D.) a sickle.
en Skrif a (hand) writing.
en Spand (D., et Spand N.) a pail.
en Stift a tack.
en Söm a seam.
en Ting a thing.
en Tryk a print.
en Træk a draught (of air).

neuter
Rimet the rhyme.
Riset the fagots, rod.
et Segl a seal (also et Sejl a sail).
et Skrif a writing, a book.
et Spand a span, a team.
et Stift a diocese.
et Söm (D., en Söm N.) a nail.
et Thing (Ting) assembly.
et Tryk (N. also et T.) a pressure.
et Træk a feature.
et Vaar (D., N. et Var) a cover.
et Værge a weapon.

eget Væv nonsense.

Vælde power (i al sin Vælde in all his might).

Vælde (N. in compounds Enevældet the absolute monarchy; D. Enevælden).

en Æsel (D., et Æ. N.) an ass. et Æsel a donkey.

In some words the gender is not quite fixed, so they sometimes appear as neuter, at other times as of common gender. Ex.: Fond (D. en and et, N. always et) fund, Helbred (D., always c. N.) health, Katalog (D., always c. N.) catalogue, Lak (D. c. and n., No. always n.) sealing wax, Lög (D. always c. N.) onion; Tarv requirements. Sometimes the gender differs in Danish and Norwegian, as can be seen from some of the examples given above; Kontingent is in D. n., in N. c. Kind cheek, D. c., N. mostly n.

162. Something different from the question of grammatical gender is the circumstance that the language in some
cases has different words to denote the natural genders. Thus the genders can be distinguished:

1) by adding the feminine ending -inde to the masculine word: Greve count—Grevinde countess; Lærer teacher—Lærerinde female teacher; Löve lion—Lövinde lioness;

2) by adding the feminine ending -ske to the masculine word: Opvarter waiter—Opvarterske waitress (usually Opvartningsjomfruen); Beridr riding-master, circus-rider—Beriderske female rider.

Note. The ending -ske is usually applied to denote persons of lower position than -inde, but sometimes both may be used: Sangerinde and Sangerske (less common) songstress.

3) by adding the words -kone woman, -pige girl, -jomfru miss to the masculine words or to the corresponding verbs: Vaskerkonen, Vaskerpigen the laundress, Badekonen, Badejomfruen the woman attendant (at the bath), but Badetjeneren the man attendant.

4) in some foreign words the foreign feminine endings are retained: Baronesse, Comtesse, Prinsesse, Restauratrice woman restaurant keeper.

5) The two natural genders of animals are usually denoted by Han he and Hun she placed before the name: Hanbjørn, Hunbjørn (N. Bingse, Binne) he-bear, she-bear Hankat, Hankat (N. Kjætte) tom-cat, tib-cat. But in some cases there are different words for the two genders Ex.: Buk—Gjed he-goat, she-goat, Væder—Faar (N. Sau) ram—sheep, ewe.

INFL ECTION OF NOUNS.

162b. The nouns of the Danish and Dano-Norwegian language have two cases and two numbers. The cases are: nominative and possessive (genitive).
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163. The formation of the possessive. The possessive is formed by adding -s to the nominative (but without apostrophe).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>Pl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. Mand</td>
<td>Mænd. Mænds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poss. Mands</td>
<td>Mændene Huset Husene.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the noun has the postpositive definite article, the -s is added to the latter:

| Nom. Manden Mændene Huset Husene. |
| Pos. Mandens Mændenes Husets Husenes. |

Note 1. Nouns ending in s (z, x) form their possessive by adding es; Ex.: den lille Gaases Mening the opinion of that little goos. Paradisens rindende Kilde the running fountain of Paradise; paa et forgyldt Paradises flade Tag on the flat roof of a guilt palace. But as a rule the possessive form of these words, except in the definite form, is avoided. Proper nouns ending in -s may have their possessive of same form as the nominative, only adding an apostrophe, or an s with preceding apostrophe may be added. Ex.: Sokrates' of Socrates, Valders' Fjelddale the mountain valleys of Valders. Biblical nouns are sometimes used with the Latin gen. form: Moses' law, Pauli Breve St. Paul's epistles.

Note 2. A prepositional complement following the noun which it determines is considered as one word with it and the possessive s is added to the complement: Kongen af Danmarks Brytsukker the king of Denmark's barley sugar (a kind of congh drops), Keiseren over alle Russeres Rige the realm of the Emperor of all Russians.

When several nouns are used to denote one person or thing only the last word gets the s: Kong Olavs Hær the army of king O.

Note 3. Some names of cities, especially those ending in a vowel, have their possessive (when employed as definitive genitive) like the nominative: Kristiania By, Kristiania Universitet etc. the city of Ch., the university of Ch., but Kristianias Indbyggere the inhabitants of Ch. In the same manner: Hamar Stift the diocese of H., Kallundborg By, Sorø Academi, Aalborg Skole the school of Aa., Kongsberg Sølvvaerk the silver mines of K. (but Bergens By, Trondhjems Domkirke the Cathedral of T. Kjøbenhavns Universitet the university of Copenhagen).
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Note 4. In the old language the possessive s was added both to the article and the noun; Ex: land, gen. landsins. A rest of this mode of inflection is found in such expressions as: Landsens Kost a country bill of fare, Livsens Træ the tree of life, du er Dødsens you are a dead man. Also such forms as: Hjærtens Lyst the desire of the heart, Alterens Sakramente the Lord's supper, find their explanation in the old language where the genitive of the definite article neuter had the form of ins (or n s ), not ets (t s) as now. A rest of an old genitive plur. is found in such expressions as: tilhaande (gan en tilhannde to assist one); tilgrunde to the bottom, tilgode due, tilfulde fully, tilbage back, (O. N. til handa to the hands etc).

164. Syntactical remarks about the use of the possessive. The possessive is employed to convey the meaning of possessive, subjective, objective and definitive genitive. In stead of the possessive may in some meanings be used a complement with af (or colloquially til). Han er Sön af sin Fader and han er sin Faders Sön he is a son of his father, Hunden til Pedersen and Pedersens Hund P's dog. The possessive meaning i.e. the pure relation of property can, different from English, never be expressed by af. If two kinds of genitive (poss. and obj. or subj. and obj.) occur in connection with one word, then the objective genitive must be expressed by af. Thus it is wrong to say: Hr. Pedersens Afstraffelse af Hr. Kristensen to indicate the punishment of Mr P. by Mr. K.; it means Mr. P's punishment of Mr. K.

A peculiar use of the possessive form is to express a past time in such expressions as: igaaraftes last night, iaftes last night (but iaften this night); iforgaars the day before yesterday, ihöstes last fall,ivaares last spring.

The possessive form is very common as the first part of compound words: Landsmand countryman, Krigsskib warship, skadeslós indemnified (probably analogously with this latter word are formed the following with irregular genitive in -es: frugtes-
lós fruitless, magteslös, krafteslös powerless, stundeslös fidgety, trösteslös disconsolate). The genitive is especially frequently used when the first part of the composition is itself a compound word: Kirketaarnsur a church steeple clock (but Taarnur a tower clock): Sandstensmur a sand stone wall (but Stenmur a stone wall) Such possessives may sometimes be found as first part of a composition even if there is no corresponding nominative; Ex.: Fralandsvind a land breeze (Vinden staar fra Land the breeze sets from land).

Note: Neither possessive nor af is used to connect a name of material to a name of measure: et Glas Öl a glass of beer, en Flaske Vin a bottle of wine, en Tønde Poteter a barrel of potatoes etc.

165. Remains of an old gen. plur. are found in a great many compound words the first part of which ends in e (O. N. a). Sengested bedstead, Stoleben chair’s leg, Barneaar years of childhood (Børnebal childrens ball, Børnehave kindergarten are exclusively Danish, in N. they say — or are taught to say — Barnebal, Barnehave).

166. Remains of an old dative is found in the adverbial phrases: ad Aare next year, itide in due time, ilive alive, paafærde abroad, at work, igjære in progress, etc.

THE FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

167. The plural is formed in the following manners:
I) by adding r or er to the singular, with or without “mutation” (see § 149).
II) by adding e to the singular, in a few cases with “mutation.”
III) the plural has the same form as the singular, except that in a few cases the vowel is changed by “mutation”.
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168. First Declension.

Paradigms: Flaade fleet, Rige empire, Tand tooth, Kon-
sul, Kjedel kettle:

N.  Flaade  Flaaden  Flaader  Flaaderne.
Poss. Flaades  Flaadens  Flaaders  Flaadernes.
N.  Rige  Riget  Riger  Rigerne.
N.  Tand  Tanden  Tænder  Tænderne.
Poss. Tands  Tandens  Tænders  Tændernes.
N.  Konsul  Konsulen  Konsuler  Konsulerne.
N.  Kjedel  Kjedlen  Kjedler  Kjedlerne.

Remarks. 1) Words ending in an unaccented -e add -r. Exceptions: Øie eye, has plural Øine; Tilfælde case, and Øre a coin have plural the same as singular. Antiquated is Øren plur. of Øre ear, and Øksne (Øxne) plur. of Okse (Oxe); Menneske man (generally) has plur. Mennesker but def. form Menneskene, Bonde peasant forms it plural with "mutation": Bønder.

2). Words ending in stressed vowel (or an unaccented vowel that is not e) add -er: Toga -Togær; Mo heath Moer. Except.: Sko shoe plur. same as sing.

3) The following monosyllables form their plural with -er and "mutation".

And duck; Mark a weight (½ lb. also unchanged in plural); Rand border, Stand state, (condition of life), Stang pole, Tang thongs, Haand hand, Stad city, Kraft power. (Plural: Ænder (N.) Mærker, Rønder, Stænder, Stønger, Tænger, Hænder, Stæder, Kræfter). N. Skaak shaft (of a sleigh)

Most of these words, in spite of consisting in plural of two syllables, have the monosyllabic accent (see §§ D. 76, N. 134).

4) A great many monosyllables of common gender form their plural in -er without mutation: Ex.: Aander spirits, Sager cases, Floder rivers, and with doubling of final consonant: Sønner sons, Knapper buttons; and N. Gutter boys.

In some words the Danish and the Norwegian forms of the language disagree: Plads place, D. Pladser, N. Pladse.

Also the following neuter monosyllables form their plural in -er: Bryst breast, Gods estate, Hul hole, Lem member, Loft ceiling, Punkt point, Skjørt skirt, Syn sight, Værk work; so also the polysyllables: Bryllup wedding, Hoved head, Herred township, Hundred, Tusind thousand, Lærred linen, Linned linen, Marked fair.

5) Words ending in -el, e n, -ing, -ed, -skab and derivative -st (t) and d: Gjæster guests, Kunster arts, Togter expeditions, Bygder settlements. Words ending in -el and some ending in -en drop their e before the ending: Kjedel kettle, Kjedler, Lagen (bed)sheet, Lagner or Lagener.

In the same manner: Foged sheriff, plur. Fogder.

Note: Olding old man, Siætning kinsman, Ingling young man as a rule form their plural in -e, but may also take -er: Engel angel, Djævel devil, Himmel heaven form their plural by adding -e and dropping the e of their second syllable:Engle, Djævre, Himle (see § 169).

Also proper nouns used in plural to denote several persons of same name. Ex.: Hedviger, Ørstederne but Öhlenschlägere. Furthermore other classes of words (not adjectives) used substantively: Jaerne og Neierne the yea and noes.

169. Second Declension.

Paradigms: Stol chair, Hat hat, Fader father.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Stol</td>
<td>Stolen</td>
<td>Stole</td>
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<td>P.</td>
<td>Stols</td>
<td>Stolens</td>
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<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Hat</td>
<td>Hatten</td>
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<tr>
<td>P.</td>
<td>Hats</td>
<td>Hattens</td>
<td>Hattes</td>
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<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Fa(de)r</td>
<td>Fa(de)ren</td>
<td>Fædre</td>
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<tr>
<td>P.</td>
<td>Fa(de)rs</td>
<td>Fa(de)rens</td>
<td>Fædres</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most monosyllables of common gender ending in a consonant follow this declension. Also words ending in -er irrespective of gender; some of these drop the e of their last syllable before the e of the ending: Ager field, plural Agre; Fingre fingers, Skuldre shoulders.

But most words ending in -er retain the e of the second syllable in plural: Ankere anchors, Bægere cups, Undere wonders. Especially all nouns denoting persons belonging to a trade or nationality or engaged in an occupation, ending in -er: Bagere bakers, Sangere singers, Tyskere Germans. Words ending in plural in -ere drop their last e before the article: Bægere—Bægerne.

Note. In Denmark they say: en Dansker, pl. Danskere, a Dane, and en Svensker, pl. Svenskerne, a Swede.

The following words form their plural in -e with "mutation": Bro(d)er brother, Brødre; Moder mother, Mødre; Fader father, Fædre; Datter daughter, Døtre.

Note 2. Colloquially it is common in Norway to give those words of common gender, which in the literary language take plural -e, the ending -er: Hester, Hunder, Hutter etc. Also the neuters Huser, Gulver etc., but most neuters are unchanged in plural; Ex.: Bord table, Tag roof. Before the article -ne the r is dropped in the pronunciation, so they say: Hestene, Hattene, Gutene etc. Broder etc. never add -er.

170. Third Declension.

Paradigm: Ord word.

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<th></th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Ord</th>
<th>Ordet</th>
<th>Ord</th>
<th>Ordene.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P.</td>
<td>Ords</td>
<td>Ordets</td>
<td>Ords</td>
<td>Ordenes.</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Most neuters ending in a consonant follow this declension. Exceptions: Bord table, Brev letter, Gulv floor, Hus house, Navn name, Skib ship, Sogn parish, Tag roof, Toug (N. Taug) rope and some others take -e: Borde etc.; others take -er (see § 165, 4 and 5, and § 169 note 2.) "Mutation" without any ending have: Mand man, plur. Mænd; Gaas goose, plur. Gjes (D. also Gæs) Barn child has plural Börn and Barnebarn grandchild pl. Börnebörn. These are the only remains of the U-mutation of the old language. In Norway they say (and have commenced to write): pl. Barn and Barnebarn (the same as singular).

171. Some nouns have regularly no plural on account of their signification. Such are proper and collective nouns, names of substances, and abstract nouns indicating a quality. Ex.: Björnson, Jern iron, Godhed goodness. So also words, which otherwise take a plural, when they are used collectively. Ex.: Har du faaet meget Fisk (or mange Fisk) idag have you caught many fish to-day. Words indicating measures or values when ending in a consonant have, as a rule, in that meaning and

Other nouns only occur in plural; Ex.: *Forældre* parents, *Forfædre* ancestors, *Søskende* brothers and sisters (at least one of each), *Penge* money, *Indvolde* entrails, *Briller* eyeglasses, *Tyvekoster* (also *Koster* alone) stolen property, *Høns* chickens.

Others have singular but in a different meaning from the plural: *Klæder* clothes, but *Klæde* cloth (see also § 140), *Kopper* (*Smaakopper*) smallpox, but *Kop—Kopper* cup, *Midler* means (money), *Middel* means (instrument).

Note: Colloquially it is common to say: *Jeg er gode Venner med ham* I am on friendly terms with him.

THE ADJECTIVES.

I. Declension of Adjectives.

172. The adjectives have a strong or indefinite and a weak or definite form.

173. The indefinite form has its neuter ending in *t*, its plural in *-e*. The definite form has the ending *-e* all through
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Paradigm: *lang* long.

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<th></th>
<th>c. g.</th>
<th>neut.</th>
<th>plur.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite</td>
<td>lang</td>
<td>langt</td>
<td>lange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definite</td>
<td>lange</td>
<td>lange</td>
<td>lange</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. The definite form of the adjective may be used as a substantive and may then take the possessive ending -s; Ex.: *De fattiges Gjeder er(e) af en anden Art end de riges* the pleasures of the poor are of another kind than those of the rich.

Note 2. A remnant of an old accusative singular m is found in poetical language: *paa Høienlofts sal* in the highvaulted hall; *i dyben Dal* in the deep valley.

174. The following adjectives do not add any *t* in the neuter:


2) Adjectives ending in a vowel; except *aa*: *et sanddru Menneske* a truthful person; *et stille Vand* a quiet lake; *et öde Sted* a desolate place. But *et blaat Baand* a blue ribbon. Exceptions are further: *ny* new, *fri* free, *N. stö* steady; neut. *nyt, frit, stöt*.

3) Adjectives ending in *t*; Ex.: *let* easy; and some adjectives ending in *-d*: *glad* joyful, *lad* lazy, *led* loathsome, *kaad* wanton, *ræd* frightened, *lærd* learned, *fremmed* strange and foreign words such as *absurd, nitid, solid, splendid*.

4) Furthermore those ending in *-es* or *-s* with preceding consonant: *fælles* common, *afsides* out of the way; and *ny-modens* newfangled, *stakkels* poor, *gjøngs* current.

Note. With adjectives ending in *-ig* or *-lig* a *t* is added in neuter in writing, but neither *g* nor *t* is pronounced; see §§ (D.) 43 and (N.) 125.

175. A long vowel with or without a following *d* (Danish pron. ø, Norw. mute or pron. *t*) is shortened before the *t* of
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the neuter; Ex.: blaat of blaa blue, bli(d)t of blid (D. pr. blið, N. bli·) mild; blö(d)t of blöd (D. pr. bløð, N. bløt).

176. The following pronominal adjectives ending in -en drop their n before the t of the neuter: megen—meget much, mangen—mangt many, nogen some, ingen—innet none; anden—andet other, hvilken—hvilket which, en—et one, din—dit your, min—mit my, sin—sit his, her; N. liden—lidet.

So also past participles ending in -en: skreven—skrevet written, egen—eget in the meaning of own; but in the meaning of peculiar egent: et egent Menneske a peculiar person; særegen, særeget and særegent peculiar, voxen—voxent adult, and in the same manner other adjectives which were originally past prtcpls. but are now used as pure adjectives: et voxent Menneske a grown-up person; but han er voxet he has grown.

Note. The adjective liden is now obsolete in Danish, only occasionally used in poetry, while it still continues to be the regular form in Norwegian. In Danish they use the originally definite form lille both as definite and indefinite, both as neuter and common gender. As plural of D. lille N. liden is employed smaa.

177. Adjectives ending in -el, -en and -er drop the e of their last syllable before e of the plural or definite form: gammel—gamle old, mager—magre lean, hoven—hovne swollen.

Adjectives ending in an unstressed -et form their plural and definite form in -ede; Ex.: stribet—stribede stripet, but let—lette light, violet—violette.

Note. In Norwegian colloquial language the adjectives ending in -et are often given the form of -ete, even in the indefinite form; Ex.: stripete stripæd, Veien er stenete the road is stony.

178. The following adjectives do not add any -e in plural or in the definite form:

1) Those ending in -e: stille quiet, ægte genuine, øde desolate.
2) Those ending in -es or -s with preceding consonant.
   Exception: tilfreds satisfied always takes the -e, and aflaggs
   obsolete, dagligdags commonplace, and gammeldags old-
   fashioned may take it; Ex.: det altid tilfredse Barn the al-
   ways satisfied child.

3) Most adjectives ending in a stressed vowel; Ex.: blaa
   blue, tro faithful, ædru sober, bly bashful; fri and ny may in
   D. be written and pronounced with or without -e, frie and
   nye or fri and ny; in Norwegian always with -e: nye, frie;
   so also N. støe.

179. The following adjectives lack the definite form in
   -e: megen much, anden other, egen own (but egen peculiar,
   egne). N. lidén has the definite form lille.

   The -e adjectives also have irregular plurals: megen—
   mange, anden—andre; lidén uses as plural smaa small; faa
   few occurs only in plural; smaa, however, may also occur in
   singular, mostly neuter with collective words: smaat Kvæg
   small cattle, den smaa the little one.

   Note. In Norwegian colloquial language anden may take the defi-
   nite form den andre in stead of den anden the other.

180. Indeclinable are, besides those adjectives ending in
   -e, -es or -s with preceding consonant mentioned in §§ 174,
   4 and 178, 1 and 2, the following: idel sheer, lutter mere, nok
   sufficient, kvit rid of, alene alone (only used predicatively),
   var in the expression blive var to become aware of (but N.
   adj. var cautious, is declinable). Also lig like, equal may in
   mathematics and elsewhere be used unchanged: et Tal lig
   Summen af to andre a number equal to the sum of two others.

181. Use of the definite form of the adjectives:
   The definite form of the adjective is used 1) after the definite
   article: det store Hus the big house; 2) after a possessive pro-
n noun or a genitive; Ex.: min nye Hat my new hat; min Ku-
sines lyse Parasol my cousin’s light parasol; 3) after a de-
monstrative pronoun and after the relative pronoun hvilken
which; Ex.: dette høie Træ this high tree, hin sorte Kat that
black cat. Han reddede med personlig Livsfare ti Menneske-
liv, hvilken tapre Handling skaffede ham en Medalje he saved
with danger for his own life ten human lives, which brave
deed procured him a medal; 4) in expressions of address and
in apposition to a personal pronoun: Kjære Ven Dear friend,
jen elendige Mand I miserable man.

Note. For examples of the definite form of the adjective used with
the postpositive article see § 153, Note 1.

182. Agreement of the adjective with its noun. The adjective must agree with its noun in gender
and number both as attribute, apposition and pre-
dicate. Et stort Hus a big house, store Huse big houses;
Huset, et stort rødhalet the house, a big red one, Huset er
stort the house is big. Vore Ansigter er(e) solbrændte our
faces are sunburnt. (As for the superlative forming an ex-
ception as predicate see § 189.)

II. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

183. The adjectives form their comparatives in -ere
(-re), superlative in -est (-st).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>glad</td>
<td>gladere</td>
<td>gladest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rig</td>
<td>rigere</td>
<td>rigest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ringe</td>
<td>ringere</td>
<td>ringest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjectives ending in -e add only -re and -st.
Adjectives ending in an unaccented -ig (-lig) -som add in superlative only -st:

- fattig—poor  
  *fattigere  
  *fattigst.

- nöisom—easily contented  
  *nöisommere  
  *nöisomst.

Adjectives ending in a single consonant with preceding short vowel double their final consonant before the comparative and superlative terminations:

- smuk—nice  
  *smukkere  
  *smukkest.

Adjectives ending in an unstressed -el, -en (see § 187, 1) -er drop the -e before the comp. and superl. endings:

- ædel—noble  
  *ædlere  
  *ædlest.

- fager—fair  
  *fagrere  
  *fagrest.

- fuldkommen—perfect  
  *fuldkommere  
  *fuldkomnest.

184. The following adjectives form their comparative and superlative by adding -re (-ere) and -s t and at the same time modifying the radical vowel by mutation:

- ung—young  
  *yngre  
  *yngst.

- stor—great  
  *större  
  *störst.

- tung—heavy  
  or  
  *tungere  
  *tungest.

- lang—long  
  *længere  
  *længst.

and irregularly:

- faa—few  
  *færre  
  *færest.

185. The following adjectives form their comparatives and superlatives of a different stem from the positive:

- gammel—old  
  *ældre  
  *ældst.

- god—good  
  *bedre  
  *bedst.

- lille (liden)—little  
  *mindre  
  *mindst.

- mange—many  
  *flere  
  *flest.

- meget—much  
  *mere  
  *mest.

- ond—bad  
  *værre  
  *værst.
The adjective (and adv.) nær near forms its comparative and superlative by adding -mere, -mest: nærmere nærmest. In the same manner the adj. fjern far in Danish forms the comp. fjaermer, but only in the meaning of the off (horse).

186. The following comparatives and superlatives have no corresponding adjectives as positive (but there are corresponding adverbs):

(nede—down) nedre—lower nederst.
(oven—above) øvre—upper överst.
(ude—without) ydre—outer yderst (N. also pr. ytterst).
(bag—behind) N. bagre—hind bagerst—hindmost.
(inde—within indre—inner inderst.
(midt—middle) midtre midterst.
(frem—forward) fremmere (or fremre) fremmest (or fremst).

The following adjectives occur only in the comparative: nordre northern, söndre southern, östre eastern, vestre western.

In the superlative alone occur: næst next, først first, forrest foremost, sidst last, ypperst supreme, mellemst middle.

187. The following adjectives do not form any comparative and superlative. To denote the comparative and superlative meaning mere more and mest most are placed before the positive:

1) Most adjectives derived in -sk (-isk) -en and -et: mere krigersk more warlike, mest morderisk most murderous. (But friskere fresher, raskere quicker, hæskere more rancorous, glubskere more ferocious, harskere more rancid.) Vaagen—awake, mere vaagen, mest vaagen. (But modnere more mature.) 2) Adjectives ending in -es or -s with preceding consonant: mere, mest afsides, more, most out-of-the way; mere, mest gjængs, more, most current; also mere fremmed most strange. 3) Participles: mere forslaaet more beaten, et
mere vindende Væsen a more prepossessing manner. (But a few participles which have come to be used completely as adjectives may form comparative and superlative: lædere more learned; fuldkomnere more perfect).

Some adjectives do not form any comparative and superlative on account of their signification; such are evig eternal, udødelig immortal etc.

INFLECTION AND USE OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.

188. The comparative has only the form ending in -e: den bedre Del the better part; et større Hus a larger house. When used as a substantive it may take the genitive -s: det gode er det bedres Fiende the good [is] the enemy of the better.

Note. Observe the use of the comparative to denote a pretty high degree. En ældre Herre an elderly gentleman; et større Forretningshus quite a large business house; mindre less is used as a less emphatic negative than ikke not, or a negative prefix. Det var en mindre smuk Fremgangsmaade that was not a very nice way of doing.

189. The superlative has as a rule the definite form when connected with a noun: Den bedste Mand the best man. Det smukkeste Tøi the nicest cloth. But it occurs also in the indefinite form: jeg har störst Lyst til ikke at gjøre det I feel most inclined not to do it [but: jeg har den største Lyst (af Verden) til ikke at gjøre det I have the greatest mind not to do it]. When used as a predicate the superlative as a rule is indeclinable, but may also take the definite article, and accordingly the definite form. Dette Hus er störst this house is largest. Disse Bær er bedst these berries are the best. But also: dette Hus er det störste this house is the largest.
Note. The superlative may be emphasized by aller placed before the superlative: allerbedst best of all; allerstørst largest of all. This aller is an old gen. plur. (O. N. altra of allr all).

The Pronouns.

1. THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

190. The personal pronouns have a nominative and an oblique case, and some of them also have a possessive case. The personal pronoun for the 3d person has separate forms for masculine and feminine.

1st person. 2d person. 3d person. Masc. Fem.
Sing. Nom. jeg du han hun
Poss. — — hans hendes
Obl. mig dig ham hende
Plur. Nom. vi — de
Poss. — (vores) eders, (jers) deres
Obl. os eder, jer dem

(jeg pron. Dan. jai, jæ, Nor. jei; mig, dig pron. Dan. mai, dai, mæ, dæ, Nor. mei, dei.)

Note 1. jeg and du have no corresponding possessive forms; in their stead are used the possessive pronouns (see § 192). Instead of poss. vores (which is mostly colloquial Danish) the poss. pron. vor is usually employed, while eders is more common than the corresponding poss. pron. jer. An antiquated form is hannem for ham him. de they is originally a demonstrative pronoun corresponding to the singular den, det. Analogously with hannem is formed dennem for dem.

Note 2. Du and dig thou, you is only used between members of the same family or near relatives (1st or 2d cousins) or between intimate friends (schoolmates or people acquainted since childhood, or those who have drunk ‘‘dus’’), thus entering into a kind of fraternity that places
them upon a footing of intimacy. The act of drinking "dus" is performed with certain ceremonies.

Note 3. Colloquially han and hun are often used referring to animals according to their natural gender, and in N. colloquially or rather vulgarly even to things according to the gender (masculine or feminine) which the noun in question has in colloquial Norwegian language.

II. THE REFLEXIVE AND RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

191a. The reflexive pronoun is sig (pronounce D. sai, N. sei), which can only be used in dependent functions, corresponding to a subject of 3d person, when the direct or indirect object is the same person or thing as the subject; Ex. han slog sig he hurt himself; N. de satte sig paa Bænkene they sat down upon the benches (but D. as a rule de satte dem, because in modern Danish sig is very rarely used referring to a subject of plural).

Sig is n e v e r used reflexively to De you: slog De Dem? did you hurt yourself?

Observe: hver for sig each for himself, separately.

191b. Reciprocal pronouns are hinanden and hverandre, one another each other. Hinanden should, according to the grammarians, be used referring to a subject consisting of two parties, hverandre to three or more. Ex.: Han og hun saa hinanden for første Gang he and she saw each other for the first time. Alle faldt om Halsen paa hverandre they all threw themselves upon one another's necks.

But this rule of the grammarians is rarely observed in the spoken language.
III. THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

192. The possessive pronouns are:

1st person sing. 2d person sing. 3d pers. refl. (sing. & pl.)
com. neut. com. neut. com. neut.
Sing. min mit din dit sin sit
Plur. mine dine sine

1st person plur. 2d person plur.
Sing. vor vort jør jert
Plur. vore jere

In stead of jør, jert, jere the gen. of the pers. pronoun eders
is usually employed.

193. sin, sit, sine is only in Norway used referring to a
subject of plur. In Denmark it is a rule to say: Herrerne tog(e)
deres Hatte the gentlemen took their hats; in Norway they
say: Herrerne tog sine Hatte.

Sin may refer to another word than the subject in such
combinations as: Giv hver sit give each one his due.

When there besides the predicate verb is another verb (infinitive
or participle) in the sentence sin may refer to the subject
of either of these verbal forms, thus causing some ambiguity: Hr.
Pedersen bad Pigen hente sin Hat: Mr. P. asked the servant
girl to fetch his hat. But Hr. Pedersen bad sin Ventænde
sin Cigar Mr. P. asked his friend to light his (whose?) cigar.
Han fandt ham liggende i sin Seng he found him lying in his
bed (whose?). Sin may also refer to the logical subject of a
noun indicating action: hendes Kamp for sin Kongemagt her
fight for her royal power.

194. The possessive pronouns replace the missing genitive
forms of the personal pronouns and are used in the same mean-
ings and ways as the genitive of the nouns (see § 164). Observe
the idiomatic expressions: *din Dumrian* you fool! *dit Fæ* you ass! etc.

The possessive pronouns cannot be combined with the pre-positive definite article. But in Norwegian they can colloquially be combined with nouns that have the postpositive definite article, in which case the pronoun is placed behind; Ex.: *Vennen min* my friend.

### IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

195. Demonstrative pronouns are: *den* that, *denne* this, *hin* that, yonder.

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<th>C. G.</th>
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<th>C. G.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>C. G.</th>
<th>N.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing.</td>
<td><em>den</em></td>
<td><em>det</em></td>
<td><em>denne</em></td>
<td><em>dette</em></td>
<td><em>hin</em></td>
<td><em>hint</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td><em>dens</em></td>
<td><em>dets</em></td>
<td><em>dennes</em></td>
<td><em>dettes</em></td>
<td><em>hints</em></td>
<td><em>hints</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Plur.</td>
<td><em>de</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>disse</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>hine</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td><em>deres</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>disses</em></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>hines</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>Obl.</td>
<td><em>dem</em></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

When these pronouns are used adjectively, they are only subject to inflection as to numbers; Ex.: *Han valgte de Mænd* he chose those men; *disse Menneskers Øine er forblindede* the eyes of those people are blinded. *Hin* that, yonder is mostly a literary word; colloquially it is as a rule replaced by *den der* that there. *det* is often used where the English language requires the adv. so: *troer De det?* do you think so.

**Note.** *det* is used without stress like the English it as subj. of impersonal verbs, or as an "indicator" if the real subject is another sentence: *det regner* it rains; *det fortælles, at Kongen er død* it is said that the king is dead; *se efter, hvad det er, som staar paa* look what it is, that is the matter.
196. Among the demonstrative pronouns are as a rule, counted the pronominal adjectives *slig* such; *saadan* such; *begge* both; *samme* same; *selv* self. *Slig* has n. *sligt*, pl. *slige*, *saadan*, n. *saadant*, plur. *saadanne*. All these forms can take the gen. –s if the word is used substantively. *begge* and *samme* can take the genitive –s when used alone, but are otherwise indeclinable. *selv* is indeclinable, except that when used before a noun with the postpositive def. article it may add an –e: *selve Manden* the man himself. Observe that *selv* in Dano-Norwegian is used alone: *jeg skal gjøre det selv* I shall do it myself. The adv. *saa* may in some cases be used as a pronoun: *i saa Tilfælde* in such a case, *i saa Maade* in that respect, *i saa Henseende* in that respect.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

197. Interrogative pronouns are: *hvo*, *hvem* which, *hvad* what, *hvilken* which. (The initial –h is mute in all these pronouns, see §§ D. 58, N. 126). *Hvo* and *hvem* refers to persons and are only used substantively. They have the genitive *hvis* whose; *hvo* is becoming obsolete and is chiefly used in poetry and elevated style. *Hvad* when used substantively only refers to things; when used as an adjective it may qualify names of living beings as well as of things and irrespective of gender. *Hvilken* is used adjectively and has the neuter *hvilket* pl. *hvilke*. When the interrogative pronouns are ruled by a preposition, the latter can be placed before the pronoun or at the end of the sentence. Ex. *Hvem er der* who is there? *Hvo ved*, *hvor nær mig er min Ende?* who knows how near my end might be? *Hvis Böger er det?* whose books is it? *Hvad siger De* what do you say? *Hvad Tjeneste kan jeg gjøre Dem*
what service can I do you? *Hvilke Lande er(e) de rigeste?* what countries are the richest? *Hvilken Kjole har hun paa?* what dress does she wear? *Af hvem har De faaet Bogen?* from whom did you get the book? or *Hvem har De faaet Bogen af?* *Til hvem har han sagt det?* To whom has he told it? or *Hvem har han sagt det til?*

*Hvad for en* what, neut. *hvad for et,* plur. *hvad for is used adjectively. *Hvad for en Mand er dette?* what man is this? *Hvad for et Hus er dette?* or *hvad er dette for et Hus?* what house is this? *Hvad for Kjør er dette?* what cows are these? (Obs. the use of the neuter *dette* in all these queries.) Note: *Hvilken* may be used in exclamations: *Hvilken Udsigt!* what a view! *Hvilken Skjönhed* what a beauty. The same meaning may in Danish be expressed by: *sikken,* contraction for *se hvilken* see what a; Ex. *sikken en nydelig Dame* what a beautiful lady, and in Norwegian by *for en:* *For en Sorg,* what a grief! *For en Dumrian du er!* what a fool you are!

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VI. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

198. Relative pronouns are: *som, der, hvilken, hvem.* *Som* and *der* are used substantively and are not inflected. As genitive is used *hvis* whose. *Hvilken* is used both adjectively and substantively and is inflected as the interrogative pronoun of the same form. *Som* is the general relative pronoun, which is used when there is no special reason to employ one of the others. It must always have the first place in the sentence and therefore when it should follow after a preposition this latter must be placed adverbially at the end of the sentence. *der* can only be used as subject and is chiefly employed when there is another *som* near by so as to avoid confusion and ca-
cophony; Ex. : den Mand som var her the man who was here. Det saa ud, som om den Mand, der var her, var syg it looked as if the man who was here was sick. Det Synspunkt, som han saa Sagen fra, var ikke det rigtige the point of view from which he looked at the matter was not the right one.

hvem only refers to persons and can never be used as subject; Ex.: en Gjæst hvem fyristelig Æresbevisning tilkommer a guest to whom princely honor is due.

hvilken refers to persons and things. The neuter hvilket sometimes refers not to any single word in the preceding sentence, but to the whole sentence; Ex.: der blev en skarp Frost med haardt Veir, hvilket Hedningerne tilskrev Gudernes Vrede a piercing cold set in with rough weather, something that the heathen attributed to the wrath of the gods. With the same meaning may be used hvad what, a pronoun that otherwise only refers to the word alt all, everything; Ex.: alt, hvad jeg har, er dit everything I have is yours.

Note. The relative pronoun may be omitted except as subject; Ex.: den eneste Ko, han eiede, blev funden død the only cow he owned was found dead. In antiquated language and sometimes in poetry the relative may be omitted also as subject, but then the verb must be preceded by another word; Ex.: allesmaa Fugle, i Skoren var all the little birds that were in the wood; den Mand, her staar the man, who stands here.

199. hvo, hvem, hvad, may sometimes perform functions at the same time in the principal and in the subordinate proposition. They are then called indefinite relative pronouns. After these pronouns may sometimes be added som or der, in which case these indefinite relative pronouns to a certain extent act as demonstratives. Hvo som staar, se til, at han ikke falder whoever stands, see that he does not fall. Hvem der gjør det, skal miste sit Liv whoever does that, shall lose his life. Hvad du har gjort, er tilstrækkeligt what you
have done, is sufficient. The indefinite meaning is emphasized in: hvem som helst som whoever, hvad som helst som whatever, hvilken som helst som whichever.

VII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

200. Indefinite pronouns are: man, en, hver, enhver, enhversom helst, hvilkensom helst, hvem som helst, hvad som helst. 

man corresponds to the French on, German man. English has no exact equivalent. It can only be used as subject; Ex.: man siger they say, it is said.

en is originally the numeral one; it has the same meaning as man, but is not in its use limited to being subject of the sentence; Ex.: det gjør en ondt at se saadanne Kræfter gaa tilspilde it pains a man to see such abilities wasted.

hver or enhver each, every; gen. hvers, enhvers; neut. hvert, ethvert; alle og enhver each and everyone; hver eneste every single one; enhversom helst, hvem som helst everybody; hvilkensom helst, neut. hvilketsom helst, plur. hvilkesom helst which(so)ever, any; hvad som helst what(so)ever, anything. These pronouns together with the relative som form indefinite relative pronouns (see § 199).

201. Among the indefinite pronouns are as a rule counted the indefinite numerals: nogen some one, mange many a, ingen none, alle all, somme some, anden other.

nogen some one, neut. noget, gen. nogens, nogets, plur. nogle, gen. nogles. nogen also means any; then it has plur. nogen (like singular). Har De nogen Penge? Have you any money? Ja, jeg har nogle Kroner. Yes, I have a few
crowns. Instead of noget used substantively may be said nogenting something, anything.

Note. Colloquially the plur. is always nogen, in eastern Norway pron. non, noen.

mangen many a, neut. mangt; usually occurring in plur mange many, gen. mangens, mangts, manges. Jeg har mange Penge I have much money. Mangen en many a, neut. mangt et. ingen none, neut. inet, plur. ingen, gen. ingens, intets. Ingen may be connected with a noun in plur. or in singular; plural is used whenever in affirmative case a plural would have been expected; Ex.: der var ingen Mennesker der there were no people there; intet Menneske har set ham nobody has seen him. Emphasized ingensomhelst none whatever. Instead of intet used substantively may be said ingenting nothing.

anden other, neut. andet, plur. andre, gen. andres etc. nogle—andre some—others, en—en anden one—another.

al all, neut. alt, plur. alle, gen. alts, alles; the common gender sing. can not be used as a substantive and accordingly cannot take the gen. s; subst. alting everything, altsammen, allesammen all and every one.

somme some is a somewhat antiquated word; somme Kjær-ringer ere slige some women are that way.

THE NUMERALS.

202. The following is a list of the numerals:

A. Cardinals. B. Ordinals.

1 en (een), neut. et (ét, D. eet, N. ett) förste
2 to
3 tre
ETYMOLOGY.

A. Cardinals.

4 fire
5 fem
6 seks (sex)
7 syv
8 otte
9 ni
10 ti
11 elleve
12 tolv
13 trettén
14 fjorten
15 femten
16 N. seksten (sexten),
D. sejsten
17 sytten
18 atten
19 nitten
20 tyve
21 en og tyve
22 to og tyve
30 tredive, N. also tretti
35 fem og tredive
40 D. fyrrestyve, fyrré,
N. fitti, jôrti, fôr
50 D. halvtredsindstyve, halv-
trêds, N. femti
60 D. tresind styve, tres,
N. seksti
70 D. halvfjerdsindstyve, halv-
fjerds, N. sytti
80 D. firsind styve, firs,
N.otti, ottiti

B. Ordinals.

fjerde
femte
sjette
syvende
ottende
niende
tiende
ellevte
tolvte
trettende
fjortende
femtende
sextende
syttende
attende
nittende
tyvende
enogtyvende
toogtyvende
tredivte, N. also trettiende
femogtredivte
D. fyrrestyvende,
N. firtiende, førtiende
D. halvtredsind styvende,
N. femtiende
D. tresind styvende,
N. sekstien
d. halvfjerdsind styvende,
N. syttiende
D. firsind styvende,
N. ottiende
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A. Cardinals.

90 D. halvfemindstyve, halvfems, N. niti, nitti

100 hundrede

101 hundrede og en, neut. Hundrede og et

129 hundrede og ni og tyve

1000 tusind(e), N. tusend(e)

B. Ordinals.

D. halvfemindstylvende, N. nittienende

hundrede og første

hundrede og ni og tyvende

The cardinals are all uninflected save en, neut. et, which, to distinguish it from the indefinite article, is often written (D.) een, (N.) én; neut. (D.) eet, (N.) ét, ett. But with the definite article always den ene.

203. The ordinals are used only in the weak or definite form, excepting anden second; den anden the second or the other (N. colloquially den andre), plur. andre others.

hundred(e) and tusind(e) have no corresponding ordinals. In arithmetics the cardinals are also used as ordinals, but otherwise the use of the ordinals of these words is avoided as much as possible. En Hundrederedel one hundredth part; en Tusindedel one thousandth part. (D.) Jeg siger dig det for ni og halvfemindstylvende Gang; (N.) Jeg siger dig det for ni og nittienende Gang I tell you so for the hundredth time.

204. The cardinals halvtredsindstylv 50 etc. are exclusively used in Denmark and by the older generation in southern Norway. Femti, seksti etc. are used in most parts of Norway by all ages and classes of the people and by the younger generation all over the country. The abbreviated form halvtreds etc. are only used when the numerals occur alone, the full forms are used in connection with a noun. For halvtredsindstylv Aar siden fifty years ago. I Aaret femti in the year fifty.
Note. The forms tresindstylene etc. are to be explained in the following manner: tresindstylene—three times twenty. sinds is a form of an old noun occurring in denne sinde this time, nogensinde anytime etc. For explanation of the forms halvtred-sindstylene etc. see § 205.

205. One and a half is called halvanden, \(2\frac{1}{2}\) halvtredje, \(3\frac{1}{2}\) halvfjerde etc. (hence halvtredsindstylene etc. see § 204).

At 3 o’cl. is: Klokken tre; half past two: Klokken halv tre; halv fire, halv fem etc. Ten minutes past five: ti Minuter over fem; ten minutes off three: ti Minuter i tre (or til tre); fifteen minutes past six: et Kvarter over seks; it is twenty minutes past five: Klokken mangler ti Minuter paa (or i) halv-seks; at 7.40: tiMinuter over halv otte; at 9.45: tre Kvarter til ti. It is 9.45: Klokken mangler et Kvarter paa ti.

selvanden, selvtredje etc. with one, two etc. others; jeg var her igaar selvstredje I was here yesterday with two others.

en Trediedel one third; en Fjerdedel one fourth etc.; ni Tyvendedele nine twentieth parts.

Obs. en Procent one percent. pro anno per annum.

For det første in the first place, for det andet in the second place, for det tredje etc. in the third place etc.

Note. et Snes a score (the unity always used by the sale of eggs) en Tydet a dozen (boards etc.) et Dusin a dozen (buttons etc.) et Gros 12 dozen

THE VERBS.

206. The verbs in the Danish and Dano-Norwegian language have separate forms for voices, tenses and to a certain extent modes and numbers.

The forms of the verbs are either simple or compound (formed by means of an auxiliary verb).
The verbs are divided into two classes—the weak (also called regular) and the strong (or irregular) according to the formation of the imperfect and past participle.

207. The present tense of all verbs is formed alike, namely by adding -er (in a few cases -r) to the theme of the verb (or -r to the infinitive form); Ex.: jeg elsk-er I love; han bring-er he brings; du læs-er you read; han tru-er he threatens. Present plural is in written language, when used, formed by dropping the final -r of the singular.

The infinitive is formed by adding -e to the theme of the verb: elsk-e, bring-e, tru-e.

Some verbs the root of which ends in a stressed vowel form their present by adding only -r and use their root unchanged as infinitive; Ex.: staa stand, pres. staa; gaa go, pres. gaar; at bo to reside; at dö to die; at sy to sew; at se to see.

Some verbs have double forms in infinitive, with or without -e: du or due to be fit; di or die to suck; fri or frie, befri or befrie to liberate; vi or vie to wed, to consecrate; forny or fornye to renew; all these verbs in Danish form their present in -e: duer, dier etc.

Note: In Norwegian the infinitive of these verbs is with the exception of fri and befri formed in -e.

-e is written and pronounced in the following verbs: bie to wait; tie to be silent; grue to dread; kue to cow; true to threaten; skrue to screw; lue to blaze; bejæ to answer in the affirmative.

The present participle of all verbs is formed by adding -ende to the theme of the verb: løb-ende running, gaaende walking.

The passive or medial voice is formed in -es and in a few cases in -s.
ETYMOLOGY.

A. WEAK VERBS.

208. The weak verbs are divided into three classes; those belonging to the first class form their imperfect in -ede, their past participle in -et.

I. PARADIGM OF VERBS OF THE 1ST CLASS.

elske to love.

A. Active.

1) Simple forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.:</td>
<td>els-k-e</td>
<td>els-k-e</td>
<td>els-k-e</td>
<td>at els-k-e</td>
<td>els-k-ende</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plur.</td>
<td>els-k-e</td>
<td></td>
<td>els-k-e</td>
<td></td>
<td>els-k-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf. (jeg etc., vi etc.)</td>
<td>els-k-ede</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2) Forms compound with past participle:

Perfect.: Sing. har els-ket at have els-ket

Plur. have els-ket

Pluperf.: (sing. and plur.) havde els-ket

3) Forms compound with pres. infinitive:

Future: Sing. skal or vil elske at skulde or ville elske

Plur. skulde or ville elske

Conditional (sing. and plur.) skulde or ville elske

4. Doubly compound forms:

Compound future:

Sing. skal or vil have els-ket at skulde or ville have els-ket

Plur. skulde or ville have els-ket

B. Passive.

1) Simple forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Infinitive.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present:</td>
<td>els-kes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>els-kedes</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

elsk
2) Compound forms:

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ind.</th>
<th>Inf.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pres. Sing. bliver elsket</td>
<td>at blive elsket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plur. blive elskede</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3) Doubly compound forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perfect Sing. er blevet elsket or har været elsket</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plur. ere blevne elskede or have været elskede</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pluperf. Sing. var blevet elsket or havde været elsket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plur. vare blevne elskede or havde været elskede</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fut. Sing. skal or vil blive elsket or skal elskes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plur. skulle or ville blive elskede or skulle elskes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conditional: skulle or vilde blive elsket or skulde elskes

209. In this manner are inflected almost all derivative verbs ending in a vowel or in a combination of consonants with which the ending -e does not readily agree.

In poetry verbs ending in a vowel often drop -e before the ending -de, and an apostrophe is written in its place, befri’de. In Norway verbs ending in a vowel colloquially form their imperf. in -d de and this form is now often used also in literature. naadde reached; trodde believed; etc. in stead of naaede, troede.

In forms such as elskede the final -e is often dropped colloquially and in poetry: elsked' for elskede. In Norway it takes the form elsket, a form that also is commencing to appear in the literature.

Verbs ending in -le and -re with a preceding consonant have their imperative of the same form as their infinitive: handle! act; logre, wag your tail! But imperative of such
words is in writing as much as possible avoided and colloquially handle logr! are the common forms. Verbs in -ne with preceding consonant form their imperative regularly: vaagn op, wake up; sygn hen! languish.

210. Verbs belonging to the second class form their imperfect by adding -te, past participle by adding -t without change of the radical vowel.

Inf. ai rose to praise, pres. roser, impf. roste, past partic. rost.

(The other forms can easily be formed by comparison with the paradigm given of the first class).

In this manner are conjugated a great number of verbs ending in a single consonant (-b, -d, -g, -l, -r, -n, -s) with a preceding long vowel, or in the double consonant -mm or the combinations -ld and -ng; Ex.: raabe to cry, raabte (but haabe to hope, haabede); koge to cook, kogte (but toge to march in procession, togede); tömme to empty, tömte (but svömme swim, svömmede coll. svömte).

Obs. have to have, pres. har, pl. have, impf. havde; dö to die, impf. döde, ptp. död; ske happen, imp. skete or ske-ede, ptp. skeet.

211. Verbs of the third class add in impf. -te (-de), partcp. -t and at the same time change the radical vowel from -æ or -ø in infinitive to resp. -a and -u (-o) in impf.

Note: This change of vowel is explained by the fact that the infinitive of these verbs which in the old language ended in -ja, has the form with mutation, while in imperf. there was no reason for mutation, so the original radical vowel again appeared there (retro-mutation, G. Rückumlaut, D. Gjenomlyd).

To this class belong:

- kvæle to stifle, kvalte kvalt.
- lægge to lay, lagde lagt.
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sætte to set, \hspace{1cm} satte \hspace{1cm} sat

tælle to count, \hspace{1cm} talte \hspace{1cm} talte \hspace{1cm} talt

række*) to stretch, \hspace{1cm} rakte \hspace{1cm} rakt

strække**) to stretch, \hspace{1cm} strakte \hspace{1cm} strakt

tække to roof, \hspace{1cm} takte \hspace{1cm} takt

vække to arouse, \hspace{1cm} vakte \hspace{1cm} vakt

vænne to accustom, \hspace{1cm} vante \hspace{1cm} vant

træde to tread, to step \hspace{1cm} traadte \hspace{1cm} traadt

dølge conceal \hspace{1cm} dulgte \hspace{1cm} dulgt

følge follow \hspace{1cm} fulgte \hspace{1cm} furgt

spørge ask \hspace{1cm} spurgte \hspace{1cm} spurtg

smøre smear \hspace{1cm} smurte \hspace{1cm} smurt

Irregular:
selge sell \hspace{1cm} solgte \hspace{1cm} solgt

gie say \hspace{1cm} sagde \hspace{1cm} sagt

bringe bring \hspace{1cm} bragte \hspace{1cm} bragt

Note 1: vænne, tække, strække, vække as a rule follow the first class: vænnetede, vænnet etc.; this is in N. always the case wi h tække.

Note 2: bønne is an originally German word and has retained its German inflexion. The Old Norse form of sige was segja which explains the modern imperf. sagde. Of eie to own sometimes in poetry occurs the antiqu. imperf. aaiete

Note 3: Present of gjøre is gjør and of spørge colloquially and in antiquated style spør, a form that is commencing to be introduced again into Norw. literature.

B. STRONG VERBS.

212. The strong verbs form their imperfect by changing the vowel (gradation, ablaut, Aflyd) without any termi-

*) But N. række to reach is strong: rak, rukket.

**) But N. strække til to be sufficient: strak, strukket.
nal addition. Past. ptcp. in these verbs regularly has the ending -en for common gender and -et for neuter, but of many verbs only the latter form can be used, and others while forming a strong imperf. form their ptcp. according to the weak conjugation. The vowel of the participle is sometimes that of the present, sometimes that of the imperf.

The strong verbs are divided into 6 classes depending upon the vowels occurring in the different forms (gradation series):

1. \(i (æ, e)\) — \(a\) — \(u\)
2. \(i (e)\) — \(a\) — \(i (e)\) or \(aa\)
3. \(i\) — \(e\) — \(e (i)\)
4. \(y\) — \(ö\) — \(u (ö, y)\)
5. \(a\) — \(o\) — \(a\)
6. No apparent gradation, in historical grammars called the reduplicating class.

213. Class I.

\(i (æ, e)\) — \(a\) — \(u\). Ex.: binde to bind, bandt, bunden; sprække to crack, sprak, sprukken; finde to find; rinde to run (of running water); spinde to spin; stinke to stink (ptcp. stinket); svinde to vanish; tvinde to twist; vinde to win; klinge to sound (ptcp. klinget); springe to spring; svinge to swing; tvinge to force; synge to sing (sang, sungen, poet. and ant. sjunge); synke to sink (sank, sunket); slippe to let go; briste to burst (inf.); drikke to drink (drak, drukket; drukken adj. drunk); stikke to stab (poet. and ant. stinge, stak, stungen); brække to break; N. række to reach; N. strække til to suffice; trække to draw; fornemme to perceive (ptcpl. fornemmet or fornummet); hjælpe to help; N. brænde to burn, (intr. brandt, ptcpl. brændt; D. impf. brændte); hænge to hang, hang or hængte, hængt; N. slænge to loiter (slang, slængt; but

*) N. rende, rendte, rendt to run.
ETYMOLOGY.

D. N. slænge to fling, slængte); gjælde* to be worth, to refer to (gjaldt, gjældt); N. smælde to make a noise (smaldt or smældede, smældte, ptc. smældt); skjælve to shiver, (skjalv or skjælvede, N. skalv, skjælvet); knække to crack, knækkede or knak, knækket; sprætte to sprawl, imperf. N. sprat, D. sprættede, sprættet; kvætte to get a start, N. kvat, kvættede, kvøttet.

Note 1. When there is a double set of forms in imperf., a strong one and a weak one, the strong form has originally represented the intransitive meaning, the weak form the transitive; Ex.: han strakte sin Haand ud he stretched his hand forth; Pengene strak ikke til the money was not sufficient; Huset brandt op the house burned down; jeg brandte mine Skibe I burned my ships; jeg skvat tilside I jumped aside; Pigen skvættede Vand paa mig the girl splashed water on me; jeg hængte min Hat paa Knagen I hung my hat on the rack; Manden hang i Galgen the man was hanging in the gallows.

Note 2. Antiquated and poet. Danish are the imperf. plurals: funde, runde, svunde, sprunge, stunget, sungte, drukke, hjulpe.

214. Class II.

i (e)—a—i (e) or aa. Ex.: give to give, gav, givet; lede to pray, bød, bedt (bedet). To this class belong: give to give; gide to prevail upon one’s self to, gad, gidet; sidde to sit, sad, siddet; kvæde to sing, kvad, kvædet; være to be, var, været; bære to wear, bar, baaren; skjære to cut, skar, skaa ren; stjæle to steal, stjal, stjaalen; se to see, saa, seet; ligge to lie, laa, ligget; øde to eat, aad, ødt.

Note 1. drebe to kill, although regularly following the weak conjugation (drebte, dreb) occurs in N. poetry in the strang impf. drap: han drap far he killed my father (Björnson).

Note 2. To the infinitive være, to be, corresponds the pres. (jeg) er I am (pl. ere), but overvære, to be present at, has pres. overværer, imp. overvar,, and undvære to be without, undværer, undværede.

*) always weak: undgjælde to pay the penalty of, gjengjælde to requite.
Note 3. Some of these verbs may in Danish form their impf. plural in -e: bare, aade etc.

215. Class III.

\( i-e-e \) (i). Ex.\( g r i b e \) to catch, \( g r e b, g r e b e n; \) \( b i d e \) to bite, \( b e d, b i d t; \) \( h v i n e \) to shriek, \( h v e n \) or \( h v i n e d e, h v i n t e, h v i n e t);\)
\( g r i n e \) to grin (N. \( g r e n, D. \) grinede or grinte, grinet); \( t r i n e \) to step (\( t r e n, t r i n e t); \) \( g r i b e \) to catch; \( k n i b e \) to pinch; \( p i b e \) to pipe (\( p e b, p e b e t); \) \( s l i b e \) to grind (\( s l e b, s l e b e t, N. \) pron. \( s l i p t; \) sleben adj. polished); \( b l i v e \) to become (\( b l e v, b l e v e n); \) \( d r i v e \) to drive;
\( h i v e \) to heave (impf. D. hivede, N. hev, hevet); \( r i v e \) to tear;
\( s k r i v e \) to write (all these as \( b l i v e); \) \( b i d e ; \) \( g l i d e \) to slide (\( g l e d, g l e-\)
\( d e n, N. \) pron. \( q l i d d); \) \( l i d e \) to wear on (\( l e d, l e d e n); \) \( l i d e \) to suf-
fer (\( l e d, l i d t); \) \( r i d e \) to ride (\( r e d, r e d e t, N. \) pron. \( r i d d); \) \( s k r i d e \) to proceed (\( s k r e d, s k r e d e t); \) \( s l i d e \) to wear (\( s l e d, s l i d t); \) \( s m i d e \) to
fling (\( s m e d, s m i d t); \) \( s t r i d e \) to fight (\( s t r e d, s t r i d t); \) \( s v i d e \) to
singe (\( s v e d, s v e d e n, N. \) pron. \( s v i d d); \) \( v r i d e \) to wringe (\( v r e d, v r e d e n, N. \) pron. \( v r i d d); \) \( k i g e \) (pron. Nor. \( kj i k k e) \) to peep
\( k e g \) or \( k i g e d e, k e g e t \) or \( k i g e t); \) \( s n i g e \) to sneak (\( s n e g, s n e g e t); \) \( s v i g e \) to
deceive (\( s v e g, s v e g e n); \) \( v i g e \) to yield (\( v e g, v e g e t).\)

Note. These verbs may in Danish form their ipf. pl. in -e: \( b l i v e, v e g e \) etc. (but not \( b e d e, \) because that would be liable to be confounded with \( b e d e \) plur. pres. of \( a t \) \( b e d e \) to pray).

216. Class IV.

\( y-\ddot{o}-u (\ddot{o}, y). \) Ex.: \( k r y b e \) to crawl, \( k r \ddot{\text{o}}b, k r \ddot{\text{o}}b e n; \) \( b r y d e \) to break, \( b r \ddot{\text{o}}d, b r \ddot{\text{o}}d t; \) \( f y g e \) to drift (ptcp. \( f \ddot{\text{o}}g e t); \) \( r y g e *) \) to smoke (\( d e t r y g e r \) it smokes), \( r \ddot{\text{o}}g, r \ddot{\text{o}}g e t; \) \( s t r y g e \) to stroke (ptcp. \( s t r \ddot{\text{o}} g e n); \) \( k l y v e \) to climb (N. imperfect. \( k l \ddot{\text{o}}v, D. k l y v e d e, \)
ptc. \( N. k l \ddot{\text{o}} v e t, D. k l y v e t); \) \( N. s k y v e \) to push (\( s k j \ddot{\text{o}} v, s k j \ddot{\text{o}} v e t); \)
\( f l y v e \) to fly (\( f l \ddot{o}i, f l \ddot{o} i e t); \) \( l y v e \) to lie (\( l \ddot{o} i, l \ddot{o} i e t); \) \( b y d e \) to bid

*) Usually intr.; in transitive meaning is in Norway used \( r \ddot{\text{o}}g e: a t\)
\( r \ddot{\text{o}}g e \) Tobak to smoke tobacco (impf. \( r \ddot{\text{o}} g e t, \) ptcp. \( r \ddot{\text{o}} g t). \)
(ptc. buden, budt); bryde *) to break; flyde to flow (ptc. flydt); gyde to pour (gjöd or D. göd, gydt); lyde to obey (ptc. lydt); nyde to enjoy (nydt); skryde to boast (skrydt); snyde to cheat)—ptc. snydt; skyde to shoot (skjöd, ptc. skudi); fortryde to regret (ptc. fortrudt); betyde to signify (D. betöd or betydede, N. betydde**) or betöd, ptc. betydet); syde to boil (generally sydede, ptc. sydet); fnyse to fret (fnös or fnyste, ptc. fnystet, fnyst); fryse to be cold (frös—frosset); gyse to shudder (gjös, gös, gyste—gyst); nyse to sneeze (ptc. nyst).

Note. The imperfect frös, fnös, nös, gjös do not regularly form any plural in —e in Danish. töd is in Danish an antiquated imperf. of tude to howl, while in Norway töt is impf. of tyte to ooze out.

217. Class V.

a—0—a.

befale to command (befalede or ant. befol, befalet); gale to crow (galede or gol, galet); fare to travel (for, faret); lade to let (lod, ladet); grave to dig (gravede or grov, gravet); drage to draw (drog, dragen); jage to hunt (jagede or jog, jagen); tage to take (tog, tagen).

Irregular are:

slaa to strike (slog, slaaret or slagen); staa to stand (stod, staaet); svørge to swear (svor, svoren); le to laugh (lo, leet);

Note: befalede is now exclusively used in common speech: so is galede; jagede is more common than its corresponding strong form. jage is always weak when it indicates to go hunting. Han blev slagen he was conquered: han blev slaaret he was struck.

*) Not to be confounded with bryde to trouble, in Danish regularly conjugated: impf. bröd—ptc. brydt (or brudt), N. brydde (or brød), ptc. brydd. That these two words are originally different is seen from the fact that bryde to troubl'e in Norway is pronounced bry, while bryde to break is pronounced bryte.

**) Always betydede when signifying: gave to understand.
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An antiquated inf. and present for staa and staar is stande, stander; imperative stat, plur. stander, partic. standet.

Antiquated is vov for vævede of væve to weave; also vog impf. of veie in the meaning: to kill; in the meaning: to weigh, in which it is now exclusively used in common speech veie has impf. veiede.

218. Class VI.

Apparently no gradation in the different tenses. The following verbs belong to this class:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inf.</th>
<th>Impf.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>löbe</td>
<td>löbe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sove</td>
<td>sovet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>græde*</td>
<td>grædt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. hedde (N. hede) to be called, hed (D. also hedte), hedt. hugge to cut, N. hug (D. commonly huggede), hugget.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inf.</th>
<th>Impf.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>komme</td>
<td>kommen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>falde</td>
<td>faldt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>holde</td>
<td>holdt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To this class are also counted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inf.</th>
<th>Impf.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>faa</td>
<td>faaet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gaa</td>
<td>gaaet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Wholly irregular is: tie to be silent, taug (N. tide, pron. tidde,) ptcp. tiet.

Note: None of these verbs form an impf. plural in -e.

219. When there are two sets of verbs, one strong and one weak, the former originally was intransitive the latter transitive. But this difference, to a great extent, has been wiped out, both forms now being largely used promiscuously;

*)N. also graate. **falden usually refers to a moral downfall; falden fra Himmel (himmelfalden) fallen from the skies, struck with amazement. † Holden is an adj. well-to-do.
see remarks to hængte and hang, brændte and brandt (213 Note 1) It is very common in Norway to say: jeg har lagt i min Seng I have laid in my bed, (ptcp. of lægge to lay) instead of: jeg har ligget i min Seng I have been lying in my bed, (ptcp. of ligge to lie); in the same manner: jeg har nu sat her en Time I have now set here an hour (ptc. of sætte to set) instead of: jeg har nu siddet her en Time I have now been sitting here for an hour. But in the following pairs of verbs the distinction is complete: springe—sprænge to spring and to burst, falde—fælde to fall and to fell; synke, sænke to sink (intr. and trans.)

IRREGULAR VERBS.

220. The following verbs have an irregular inflection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing.</td>
<td>Plur.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kan</td>
<td>can</td>
<td>kunne</td>
<td>kunnet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skal</td>
<td>shall</td>
<td>skulde</td>
<td>skalde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bør</td>
<td>ought to bør</td>
<td>burde</td>
<td>burdet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tør</td>
<td>dare tør</td>
<td>turde</td>
<td>turdet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maa</td>
<td>must maa</td>
<td>maatte</td>
<td>maattet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vil</td>
<td>will</td>
<td>ville</td>
<td>villet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ved</td>
<td>know</td>
<td>vide</td>
<td>vidst</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These verbs are in historical grammars generally called preteritopresents, because the forms now used as their present tenses are original imperfects. Hence the change of vowel between pres. sing. and plural (ved—vide, skal—skulde).
To this class also belongs the antiquated imperf. *aatte* ptc. *aatte* owned corresponding to the present inf. *eie*, regular impf. and ptc. *eiede, eiet*; also *mon* and *monne* used in antiquated style promiscuously as pres. or imperf. periphrastically with infinitives like English *doth* and *did*.

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THE USE OF THE NUMBERS.

**221.** In colloquial language there is no distinction between singular and plural, the singular form being used with plural as well as with singular subjects. In written language the plural form in the present tense is still retained by most Danish authors and according to official Danish rules of spelling, while most Norwegian authors and the official Norwegian rules of spelling have dropped the distinction between singular and plural. In the imperf. of the weak verbs there can be no distinction. In the imperf. of the strong verbs the rule is about the same as in the present, although the plural form of some verbs is avoided even by Danish authors as stated in §§ 216 note, 218 note. As a general rule it can be said that the imperf. plural is not formed whenever it would have the same form as the present plural. In poetry plural or singular forms are used promiscuously with a subject in the plural according to the necessities of prosody. Ex.: *Kvinder selv stod op og strede* (Bjørnson) even women arose and fought (arose to fight).

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THE USE OF THE TENSES.

**222.** The present tense is often employed with future meaning, Ex.: *jeg reiser imorgen* I shall depart to-morrow;
naar jeg ser ham, skal jeg hilse ham fra dig when I see him I shall bring him your greeting.

The present tense may also be employed to signify the past. Igaar medens jeg gaar paa Gaden ser jeg pludselig en Mand komme løbende imod mig yesterday while walking in the street I suddenly see a man coming running towards me.

223. The imperfect is used in conditional sentences referring to the present as in English; Ex. hvis jeg vidste hans Navn, saa vilde jeg fortælle dig det if I knew his name I should tell it to you. In the same manner the pluperfect is used in conditional sentences referring to the past: om jeg havde set ham, skulde jeg nok ikke have ladet ham løbe if I had seen him I should certainly not have let him skip.

224. In the future tense skal and vil as a rule have retained some of their original signification of duty and necessity or will and desire and they are used accordingly. There is no distinction as to the use in the different persons as in English. Skal is used in promises: jeg skal sikkert have Klæderne færdig i rette Tid I shall surely have the suit ready in time. For the use of skal and vil in the passive voice see §233.

The compound future more commonly takes the form of faar elsket (faar with past ptc.) instead of skal have elsket. Ex. naar jeg faa gjort det, skal jeg lade Dem det vide when I shall have done it (or when I get it done) I shall give you word.

In Norwegian faa with infinitive is used to express necessity: jeg faar nok gjøre det, enten jeg vil eller ikke I guess I shall have to do it whether I want to or not, (cfr. Engl. I’ve got to do it.)

225. Some intransitive verbs indicating a change form their perfect by means of være instead of have, when it is intended to express only that something has taken place with-
out emphasizing the notion of action. Han er gaaet he is gone. Min Fader er reist for en Time siden my father left (has left) an hour ago; Blomsten var visnet, før jeg fik den the flower had faded before I got it. But: jeg har gaaet fem Mil idag I have walked five miles to-day. Min Ven har reist fem Gange over Atlanterhavet my friend has crossed the Atlantic five times.

THE USE OF THE MODES.

226. The subjunctive which only occurs in the present tense and has the same form as the infinitive is used in an optative or concessive meaning: Leve Fædrelandet! Long live our native land! det koste hvad det vil i. e. at all hazards.

227. The infinitive is as a rule used together with the particle at to. Jeg ønsker at tale med Dem I wish to speak to you. The infinitive is used without at after the so called modal auxiliaries burde, gide, kunne, måtte, synne, skulle, turde, ville; Ex. jeg tør paastaa, at han er en stor Slyngel I dare assert that he is a great scoundrel. Du bør gjøre det you ought to do it. If bør (in antiquated style) is used impersonally in the meaning of "behoves to," then the following infinitive takes at: eder bør at give efter it behoves you to yield. The infinitive is also after some verbs used without at when it is a predicate to the object of the sentence, the same as in English: jeg kan høre Hjertet hørte I can hear the heart beat. Han lod de andre få et langt Forspring (N. Forspring) he allowed the others to get a good lead. After other verbs the infinitive with at is used: jeg fandt ham at være en brav Mand I found him to be an honest man (more common:}
ETYMOLOGY.

jeg fandt, at han var etc.) Jeg bad ham komme, at komme or om at komme I asked him to come.

After lade to let, in the meaning of “to have” with a participle, “to cause to be done,” the Dano-Norwegian language uses infinitive with an object of its own, placed before the infinitive: jeg lod Huset bygge I had the house built; Generalen lod Forræderen skyde the general ordered the traitor to be shot.

228. The infinitive is used after prepositions, where in English the gerund is employed—the Dano-Norwegian language having no gerund; any preposition may govern the infinitive; Ex. De gjorde ret i at sige det til ham you did right in telling it to him; jeg er kommen hid for at tale med Dem I came here to speak to you; jeg reiste til Markedet for at kjøbe en Hest I went to the fair to buy a horse; efter at have sagt Farvel gik han sin Vej (after) having bidden farewell he went away; det gaar langsomt med at fá samlet Pengene there is tardy progress in collecting the money; for at tjene Penge offredes han sit gode Navn og Rygter in order to make money he sacrificed his good name and reputation.

229. The present participle cannot be used periphrastically with the verb at være, to be, as in English. I was just thinking about what to do must be rendered: jeg tænkte netop paa, hvad der var at gjøre. “The widow was mending the clothes of her youngest son,” must be rendered: Enken holdt paa at gjøre istand sin yngste Søns Klæder. Note the use of the participle in the following sentences: han kom løbende he came running; han blev staaende he remained standing or: he came to a stand still. A second verb connected with such a participle by og, and, is not put in participial form but in the infinitive: han blev staaende
midt paa Gulvet og glo he remained standing in the middle of the floor, staring.

Colloquially and vulgarly a present participle in-s is sometimes formed without any passive signification. *Han kom gaaendes* he came walking. Or with signification of what is to be done (cfr. lat. gerundive). *Kongen er ventendes* the king is to be expected. Sometimes, especially in advertisements, the active participle is used with signification of passive: *mit iboende Hus* the house I live in; *et byggende Skib* a ship that is being built (cfr. the Engl. expression: efforts are making.)

Note. Expressions like the following: “Having made the necessary preparations Mr. Jones at once started on his voyage” can not in Dano-Norwegian be rendered by means of a participle: *efter at have fuldendt sine Forberedelser tiltraadte han straks sin Reise.*

230. The past participle in compound tenses formed by means of the auxiliary *have* is indeclinable; the past participle in compound tenses formed by means of the auxiliary *være* follows the gender and number of the subject in so far as it is susceptible to the corresponding inflection: *Han er gaaet* he is gone; *de er (e) gaaede* they are gone; *jeg erkommen* I have come; *vi er(e) komne* we have come; *jeg er bleven* (colloquially N. *blit*) meget syg I have grown very ill; *vi er(e) blevne forviste fra vort Fædreland* we have been expelled from our native country (colloquially in Norway: *vi er blit* (or *ble*) *forvist.*)

The past participle is often used as an adjective and may in that capacity also be employed as a substantive; the participle of intransitive verbs may then have an active signification: *en bortreist Mand* a man who has departed; *et fortabt Faar* a lost sheep.
THE PASSIVE VOICE.

231. As is seen from the paradigm § 208 the passive may be formed through all its tenses by means of the auxiliary *blive*; but in the present, imperfect and infinitive (accordingly also in the future) there also occurs another form ending in—*es*.

Note 1. The passive in-*es* is a formation peculiar to the Scandinavian group of the Teutonic languages. It was originally a medial or reflexive formation, the terminal *s* being derived from original-*sk* (representing the reflexive pronoun O. N. *sik*.) This original reflexive signification is retained in many words; *ängstes—ängste sig* to be alarmed; *harmes, vredes* to get angry; *undres—undre sig* to wonder, etc.

Note 2. The form in-*s* is sometimes used in a reciprocal signification: *vi ses igjen* we are going to see each other (i. e. to meet) again; *mödes* to meet; *træffes* to meet; *sluas* to fight; *kappes* to vie with each other; *kives* to quarrel; *strides* to dispute; *næbbes* to bill; *mundhugges* to quarrel; *enes* to agree, etc.

Sometimes the verb is used this way in connection with a preposition where the pronoun contained in the reflexive verb must be taken to be governed by the preposition; Ex. *at tales ved* to speak with each other (in Norway they still say dialectically *tale ved en*; generally *tale med en*); the preposition is used adverbially in *skilles ad* to separate, *fölges ad* to go together; *hjælpes ad* to assist each other.

232. Some verbs which only occur in passive form and some others, that have both an active and a passive form, but with an entirely different meaning, are called *deponent verbs*; Ex. *lykkes* to succeed; *blues* to be ashamed; *længes* to long; *øldes* to grow old; *mindes* to remember (but *minde* to remind), *findes* to exist (but *finde* to find), *gives* to exist (G. *es giebt* from *give* to give). These deponent verbs, and to this
class are also counted many of the above mentioned reciprocal verbs, form a deponent participle; Ex. *det har lykkedes* (also *lykkets*, *lyktes*) mig I have succeeded in—; jeg *har længtes* I have been longing. But this form is not very much in use and is generally avoided, whenever possible.

233. The two passive forms may in some instances be used promiscuously. But the form in-s is much more common than the other one, especially in the present tense and the infinitive (after the verbs *skal*, *maa*, *bør* etc.) The imperfect of the compound form occurs much more frequently than the present.

The compound form (*blive rost* to be praised) signifies the complete passivity, where all action on the part of the subject is wholly excluded, hence it is used to denote the single recorded fact, while the form in-s is used to denote a common condition or general rule.

The imperfect in-s is not used of strong verbs with radical vowel *a* in imperf. followed by two or more consonants: (not *sanges* but) *blev sungen* was sung; (not *tanges* but) *blev tvungen* was forced; (not *drakkes* but) *blev drukket* was drunk; (not *stjales* but) *blev stjaalen* was stolen; note: *fandtes* existed, but *blev funden* was found; *gaves* existed, but *blev given* was given.

In the future passive the form *jeg vil roses* cannot be used except to denote: I wish to be praised. The simple future is either: *jeg skal roses* or *jeg skal* or *vill blive rost*; Ex. *vilde hun inviteres?* did she wish to be invited (E. Brandes: En Politiker.) The reason is that the verb *vil* and the ending in-s both imply so much activity, that they combined cannot possibly convey a passive meaning.
REFLEXIVE AND IMPERSONAL VERBS.

234. Reflexive verbs are those that always have as their object a pronoun denoting the same person as the subject; Ex. at skamme sig to feel ashamed; jeg skammer mig I feel ashamed, han skammer sig, vi skamme(r) os, I skamme(r) eder, de skamme(r) sig.

Transitive verbs may be used reflexively; Ex. at slaa sig to hurt one's self (at slaa to beat); at vise sig to appear (at vise to show).

Note. At hænde, at hænde sig, at hændes all indicate: to happen; da hændte det, at—, da hændtes det, at—, da hændte det sig, at—then it happened that.

235. Impersonal verbs are those that have only the demonstrative pronoun neut. det as subject; Ex. det regner it rains; det snør it snows, etc.; det dages it dawns; det vaaes spring comes; or there may be a definite subject of the 3d person; Ex. Forsøget mislykkedes the attempt was unsuccessful. En Ulykke hændte a misfortune happened (only the active hænde can be used in this manner, not hændes or hænde sig.)

Any passive form may be used impersonally; intransitive verbs cannot be used in passive, except impersonally. Such intransitive verbs used impersonally do not take the subject det, but in its stead the demonstrative adverb der is used; Ex. der reises meget i Norge i Sommer there is much travel going on in Norway this summer. In poetry der may be omitted: nu tales jo lydt om, at Folket er vakt now they talk so much about the people being aroused.
THE ADVERBS.

236. The neuter form of most adjectives can be used as an adverb: snart soon; höit high or highly; smukt nicely; godt well etc.

Note. Of adjectives ending in -ig, -ilig in Norway the common gender form is used as adverbs but in Denmark the neuter: D. oprigtigt, N. opriglig candidly; D. ærligt, N. ærlig honestly (in both cases pronounced oprigti, ærli).

Adverbs may furthermore be formed of adjectives (and partly of nouns) by the following endings:

1. —lig: snarlig soon; nylig recently; storlig greatly (of nouns: öieblickelig instantly; hovedsagelig chiefly; fængslig only in connection with the verb anholde: fængslig anholde to arrest, derived from fængsel prison).

2. —vis, heldigvis happily; lykkeligvis happily; tydeligvis plainly (of nouns delvis partly; parvis in pairs; skevis by one spoonful).

3. —e: bare only; ilde ill; vide widely; gjerne willingly; D. grumme highly.

Note. To the adjective god good correspond the adverbs godt and vel. Sometimes both may be used promiscuously: jeg ved det godt and jeg ved det vel I know it well. In other cases one of them alone can be employed: lev vel live well (i.e. good bye); sov godt sleep well (but sov vel og drøm behageligt sleep well and have agreeable dreams); vel is also used by adjectives and adverbs in the meaning of rather: det er vel meget af det gode it is rather much of a good thing (not quite as strong as: det er for meget).
237. Adverbs which have the same form as the neuter (or in Norwegian in some cases the common) gender of the adjectives are susceptible of comparison:

\begin{align*}
\text{snart} & \quad \text{soon} & \text{snarere} & \quad \text{snarest} \\
\text{høit} & \quad \text{highly} & \text{høiere} & \quad \text{høiest} \quad \text{(or høist)}
\end{align*}

Ex. jeg sidder høiest oppe i Træet I am highest up in the tree; jeg er høist ulykkelig I am most unhappy.

Also some ending in —e:

\begin{align*}
\text{lønge} & \quad \text{long (time)} & \text{løngere or længer} & \quad \text{løngst} \\
\text{(also: langt} & \quad \text{løngere or længer} & \text{løngst)} \\
\text{oftere} & \quad \text{often} & \text{oftere} & \quad \text{oftest}
\end{align*}

The following adverbs have a different stem in comparative and superlative from that of the positive:

\begin{align*}
\text{vel} & \quad \text{well} & \text{bedre} & \quad \text{bedst} \\
\text{ilde} & \quad \text{badly} & \text{værre} & \quad \text{værst} \\
\text{gjerne} & \quad \text{willingly} & \text{hellere or heller} & \quad \text{helst}
\end{align*}

Jeg vil heller danse end synge I will rather dance than sing (but it is rather a large house—det er et temmelig stort Hus.)

238. The adverbs are generally by grammarians divided according to their use in the sentence into demonstrative, relative, interrogative and indefinite, or according to their signification into adverbs of time, place, mode, degree etc. We shall here only mention some peculiarities in the formation and use of some adverbs:

\begin{align*}
\text{bort} & \quad \text{away (to a place)} & \text{borte} & \quad \text{away (in a place)} \\
\text{derhen} & \quad \text{thither} & \text{derhenne} & \quad \text{there} \\
\text{hvorhen} & \quad \text{whither} & \text{hvorhenne} & \quad \text{where} \\
\text{frem} & \quad \text{forth} & \text{fremme} & \quad \text{in front} \\
\text{ind} & \quad \text{in (to a place)} & \text{inde} & \quad \text{in (in a place)).}
\end{align*}
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hjem home
ned down (to a place)
op up (to a place)
ud out (to a place)
siden since
saaledes { thus
saadan { thus

hjemme at home
nede down (in a place)
oppe up (in a place)
ude out (in a place)
for lang Tid siden long ago
hvorldes { how.

saadan and hvordan may also be used as adjectives; saaledes and hvorldes only as adverbs.

The affirmative adverb ja is used in answer to a positive query, jo to a negative. Har Hr. Persen været her idag? Ja. Has Mr. P. been here to-day? Yes. Har ikke Hr. Persen været her idag? Has not Mr. P. been here to-day? Jo Yes.

Note. The more the better is in D.-N. jo mere desto (or des) bedre; jo mere vi gik, desto længere syntes vi at være borte fra vort Maal the more we walked along the farther we seemed to be from our destination; colloquially there may also be said jo mere jo bedre in the same meaning.

239. About the demonstrative local adverb der and the interrog.-rel. local adv. hvor can be noticed that they are used in many compounds without any local signification representing the dem. pronoun neuter det and the relative-interr. hvilket; derpaa thereupon; derefter thereafter; derfor therefore; hvorefter after which; hvorfor why.

THE PREPOSITIONS.

240. The prepositions do not in the language as it is today govern any case, except that in the pronouns which have separate forms for the subjective and objective case, the latter always follows the preposition: hos mig with me; til ham to
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him; der er intet ondt i ham there is nothing bad about him; i Huset in the house; paa Gaden in the street.

Note. In some phrases the ancient cases have been retained as governed by prepositions; the nouns either end in -e or -s, the latter being the genitive singular, the former representing an original genitive plural (in the ancient language ending in -a) or dative singular (in the ancient language ending in -i); in some cases the preposition and the noun governed by it are written together in one word, so as to show that the whole expression now is considered as an adverb; Ex.: ihænde (dat sing) at hand; ilive alive; itide in due, good time, igjære in progress; isinde in mind; (paa en) tilhaande to assist somebody (literally go him to the hands; gen. pl.); tillands on shore; tilsvøs (N. tilebjøs) at sea; tilvands at sea; tilskibs on a ship; tilbords at table (but tilhest on horseback); have en tilbedste to make fun of one; have noget tilgode to have something coming due; til Thinge at the court session.

241. In relative sentences introduced by som the preposition comes at the end of the sentence; Ex. min Ven, som jeg ikke paa længe har hørt fra, er død my friend, from whom I have not had any news for a long time, has died; sometimes a preposition may be used adverbially at the end of the sentence: en Hat med et sort Baand omkring a hat with a black ribbon around it; Karl har faaet en stor Tavle at skrive paa Charles has got a big slate to write on; nu har han faaet sig en Vogn, han kan kjøre rundt i now he has got a carriage in which to ride around.

242. As to the distinction between i in and paa on may be noticed that paa is always used in connection with the name of islands and in Norway with the names of certain (especially minor) towns; Ex. paa Sjælland in Zealand; paa Bornholm in B.; paa Island in Iceland (but i England, i Irland); paa Moss at Moss; paa Kongsberg at K.; paa Fredrikshald at F.; (but i Fredriksstad, i Kristiania, i Drammen, i Skien, i Bergen, i Stavanger, i Trondhjem). The
use varies also with the names of different districts; *paa Hedemarke* in H.; *i Østredal* in Ø.

*Af of; fra from: En af os one of our number; en Mand fra Byen a man from the city; Johnsen er fra Aarhus J. is from A.; Jeg reiste fra Kristiania til Bergen I went from Chr. to B. A rich merchant of Copenhagen (is in D.-N.) en rig Kjøbmand i Köbenhavn, but a r. m. of this city en rig Kjøbmand her af Byen; Hekla af Kjøbenhavn H. of Copenhagen.*

*Note. The following prepositional phrases are used as prepositions: istedenfor (also written i Steden for, i Stedet for) instead of; *paa Grund af* on account of; *i Anledning af* on the occasion of; *i Kraft af* in virtue of; *ved Hjælp af* by means of.*

**CONJUNCTIONS.**

243. The conjunctions are divided into co-ordinating and sub-ordinating; both these classes are again divided according to their signification into several subdivisions.

The grammarians mostly enumerate the conjunctions belonging to the several classes, but we shall here only mention those of special importance or about the use of which there is anything to remark.

A. Co-ordinating:

*og and; baade—og both —and; in the same meaning: saa vel—som as well—as: jeg saavel som du or saavel jeg som du I as well as you; dels—dels partly—partly; snart—snart now—now; han er snart kold, (og) snart varm now he feels cold, now warm; eller or; enten—eller either—or; hverken—eller neither—nor; thi for; men but.*
B. Subordinating:

da when, as; indicates both time and cause; da han kom, var jeg allerede gaaet when he came I was already gone; da han har forbrudt sig, maa han straffes as he has offended, he must be punished; siden since (temp. and causal); forsaaavidt (som) in so far as; hvis, dersom, om if; hvis ikke, medmindre if not, unless; skjønt, endskjønt, omendskjønt although, admit something actually existing; om end, selv om though, even if, admit something supposed; at that: jeg ved at De har været her I know that you have been here; at may also be omitted: jeg ved De har været her I know you have been here; forat in order that. Ex.: Kjøbmanden sendte sin Søn til Udlandet, forat han skulde lære Sprog the merchant sent his son abroad in order that he should learn languages (also forat lære Sprog to study languages, see §228;) jeg lægger op Penge, forat jeg kan nyde en sorgfri Alderdom I lay money by in order to be able to enjoy a comfortable old age (or for at kunne nyde en sorgfri Alderdom); jeg gav ham en Krone, forat han skulde give den til Tiggeren I gave him a Crown to give to the beggar. The infinitive construction is regularly employed when the infinitive and the predicate verb have the same subject, and often when the subject of the infinitive is the object of the predicate verb; in other cases forat must be used with a sentence. (Obs. for with an infinitive at written separately: for at, while the conjunction is written as one word: forat); forat ikke (or after a verb signifying fear forat) lest; Ex. Borgerne brennte Byen, forat den ikke skulde falde i Fiendens Hænder the citizens burned the town, lest it should fall into the hands of the enemies; Borgerne var bange for, at Byen skulde falde i Fiendernes Hænder the citizens were afraid, lest the town should fall into the hands of the enemies; saa at so as to; Ex. mine Reisefæller har forrådt mig, saa at (or
only: saa) jeg er nu ganske alene my traveling companions have left me, so I am now perfectly alone; Stedet er saa öde, at det er formeligt uhyggeligt the place is so desolate that it is (or: as to be) dismal; end than; han er större end jeg he is larger than I (colloquially is said: han er större end mig he is larger than me—but only: Hr. Persen har et större Hus end jeg Mr. P. has a larger house than I); dette er noget ganske andet, end hvad vi saa igaaar this is something quite different from what we saw yesterday.

INTERJECTIONS.

244. The interjections proper are natural sounds, hardly to be counted among the forms of articulate speech, consequently they are beyond the domain of grammar. We shall here only mention that the D.-N. equivalents of hallo o hallo, halloj, hei are not used as a salute; as regards interjectional phrases may be mentioned that the equivalents of how do you do hvorledes har De det, hvorledes staar det til med Dem are only used when it is really intended to ask about somebody's health. As a simple greeting is employed: god Dag good day! (god Morgen, god Aften, good morning, good evening, and when leaving god Nat good night). Om Forladelse! beg your pardon! undskyld! excuse me; tör jeg spörge? if I may ask? Tak! thanks, thank you. Mange Tak, Tusind Tak many thanks, a thousand thanks! ingen Aarsag! don't mention it, not at all; værsgo! (i. e. vær saa god, in which form it is written) if you please, please (when fetching or offering somebody something); vær saa venlig (N. vær saa snil) at gjøre det for mig please do it for me; strax paa Øie- blikket at once, right away.
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The English Sir in yes, sir; no, sir is not translated unless when speaking to a superior or a person of rank in which case the title is added: ja, Hr. Kaptain (N. Kaptein) yes, Captain; nei, Hr. General no, General. But ma’m, madam, is translated Frue (Mrs.) or Fröken (Miss) according to circumstances: Nei, Fröken, det tror jeg ikke no ma’m, I don’t think so; Nei, Frue, det har jeg aldrig sagt no, ma’m; that I have never said.

THE ORDER OF THE WORDS IN THE SENTENCE.

245. In a sentence consisting only of subject and predicate the former is placed before the latter; Manden kommer the man comes; if the position is inverted, then the sentence assumes an interrogative meaning: Kommer Manden? does the man come? If the predicate has an object the order of the words is as follows: subj.—pred.—obj.; Hesten bar Rytteren the horse carried the rider. The indirect object is placed before the direct object: Fader gav Johan Bogen father gave John the book; in interrogative sentences only the position of subj. and predicate is inverted: Gav Fader Johan Bogen? did father give J. the book. An adjective as attribute is placed before the noun: en stor Hund, den store Hund a big dog, the big dog; so also a genitive before the noun governing it: Mandens Hus the man’s house; Ciceros Taler the speeches of Cicero. An adverb determining an adjective or other adverb is placed before the word which it determines, but an adverb determining a verb is placed after it: en meget smuk Mand a very handsome man; Karl gik meget hurtigt Charles walked very fast.
Note. The personal pronouns and the demonstrative plural *de* having retained their objective form (*mig, dig, etc.*) may in dependent function exchange position with the subject without causing ambiguity: *Han saa jeg him I saw; hende gav jeg mine bedste Tanker to her I gave my best thoughts.* When it is desired to emphasize any certain part of the sentence it may be given the first place in the sentence; in that case the subject always follows after the predicate: *Johan gav han en Bog og Marie en nydelig Dukke he gave Johnny a book, but Mary a beautiful doll.*

246. Interrogative and relative words (pronouns, adverbs and particles) and all conjunctions always take the first place. In interrogative sentences the predicate always precedes the subject, if the latter is not itself the interrogative word: *hvad har du der? What have you got there?* if the predicate is a compound form of the verb the subject is placed immediately after the auxiliary: *hvor har du været? Where have you been.*

In relative sentences the subject follows immediately after the relative word, if this latter is not itself subject: *det Hus, som du har kjøbt er meget daarligt the house, which you have bought is very poor.* *Overall, hvor han har været, har han gjort sig forhadt wherever he has been he has made himself disliked.*

After conjunctions the words as a rule follow in the ordinary succession: *naar jeg kommer til Byen skal jeg kjøbe mig nye Klæder when I go to town I shall buy myself a new suit of clothes.*

Note 1. The inverted position of interrogative sentences is sometimes used in conditional propositions when the conjunction is omitted: *kommer jeg til Byen, skal jeg hilse din Moder fra dig or hvis jeg kommer til Byen, skal etc. if I come to town I shall bring your mother your greetings.*

Note 2. Antiquated and chiefly used in official and commercial correspondence is the custom of inverting the subject and predicate after *og and; Ex. denne Feiltagelse var meget uheldig, og formener Departementet, at den burde have været undgaaet this error was very unpleasant and the Department believes that it ought to have been avoided.*
247. As to punctuation the D. N. language follows about the same rules as the English, excepting that comma is always used between the principal and the subordinate proposition. Comma is also used before independent propositions introduced by og and, and before single words connected by men but. Before complete sentences introduced by men but, semicolon is used. Sig mig, hvad du har gjort! Tell me what you have done! Den Ring, som jeg havde paa Fingeren, er kommet bort the ring I had on the finger has been lost. Min Søster fortalte, at hendes Bog, som hun havde lagt fra sig paa Bordet for en Time siden, var forsvunden, da hun kom tilbage til Værelset: My sister told me that her book which she had left on the table an hour ago had disappeared, when she returned to the room.
EXERCISES.

at være to be
Jeg, du, (De), han er I am etc.
vi, I, de er(e) we are etc.
(see § 221).
Jeg, du, (De), han var I was etc.
vi, I, de var(e) we were etc.

at have to have.
Jeg, de, (De), han har I have etc.
vi, I, de have we have etc.
Jeg, du, (De), han havde I had etc.
vi, I, de havde I had etc.

Kat cat; Horn (n.) horn; Røv fox;
Hus (n.) house; Maane moon; Hale tail;
Hest horse; Ko cow; stor big;
Næse nose; Haar (n.) hair; Mand man;
Bonde farmer; long lang Mark field.

Manden har, forskjønner (beautifies) ham (him) ikke. Maanen skinnede (shone) paa det store Hus. I Huset var der en Kat med (with) lang Hale.

The horse and the cow were in the house, but the man was in the field. He was looking at (saa paa) the moon. The man has a long nose, but no (ikke noget) hair on his (use def. art.) head (Hoved, pron. hode). The house is large. The moon shines on the large house and on the field, on the horse, on the cow and on the cat.

(§ 161.) I Arken var ikke et Ark Papir (paper) at faa (to be had). Men der var en Buk, som gjorde (made) et dybt (low) Buk for Noa, da (when) han (he) med (his) Følge forlod (left) Arken. Fyren havde fundet (found) sig et Leie i Fyret, men han betalte (paid) ingen (no) Leie. Barnet (child) har en Værge, men Soldaten (soldier) har et Værge.

This (denne) draught is a special (eiendommeligt) feature of this (dette) house. The fellow had the choice (Valget) between (mellem) the rice and the rod. A soldier without (uden) weapon is a miserable (elendig) fellow. The father (fader) is [the] guardian of (for) his child.

(§ 163.) Form the possessive of the following words, with and without the article:


The roof of the castle. The color of the roof of the castle is red.
Be not the friend of your enemy’s friend. My friend’s enemy is my (min) enemy.

(§ 168.) Form the plural of the following words with and without the article:

*Have garden. Lampe lamp. Stue parlor.*
*Kirke church. Skuffe drawer. Værelse room.*
*Muffe muff. By city. Sø (N. Sjø) sea.*
*Mark field. Skaal bowl. Søn son.*
*Ven. Blomst flower.*

Min Vens Sønner er(e) min Søns Venner. Min Ven har ingen (no) Fiender. Mit Hus har to (two) Stuer og fire (four) smaa (small) Værelser. Paa Markerne rundt (around) Byen er der mange (many) Blomster. Brooklyn har mange Kirker. Kirkernes Tal (number) er stort (large).

The friends of my son are sons of my friend. The enemies of my (mine) friends are not my friends. My house has two (to) gardens. In (i) the gardens are (er der) many flowers.

(§ 169.) Form the plural of the following words:

*Dör door Sten stone Kniv knife.*
*Dag day Dal valley Elv river.*
*Fjeld mountain Bæk brook Fjord.*
*Kat cat Snedker joiner Amerikander American.*
*Skomager shoemaker Skrædder tailor.*

These (disse) mountains and valleys with (med) their (D. deres, N. sine) rivers and brooks are rather (temmelig) monotonous (ensformige). Shoemakers and tailors are useful (nyttige) members (Medlemmer) of society (Samfundet).

(§§ 170—171). Decline the following neuter words: Flag flag; Ben bone, leg; pl. also feet; Aar year; Dæk deck. Væddeløb horse race.

Udstillingsbygningen (the exposition building) var dekoreret (decorated) med alle Nationers Flag. Mine Ben er(e) ømme (sore), Mine Forældre og Søskende have (N. har) mange Penge, men jeg har ingen. Min Vens Kleder er(e) af Klaede (broadcloth); men mine er(e) af Vadmel (russet). For mange Aar siden (for siden ago) havde jeg ogsaa mange Penge. Denne Mand er seks (six) Fod høi (tall).

The ship has two decks. The distance (Afstand) between (mellem) the decks is eight (otte) feet. Have you money, then you have (saa har du) food (Mad) and clothes.

(§§ 172—177.) Decline the following adjectives: stor big; smuk nice; tam tame, domesticated; kostbar expensive; billig cheap; engelsk English; fransk French; glat smooth; øm tender, sore; barsk severe, stern; haard hard; varm warm; sund healthy; vanskelig difficult; simpel simple; kjølig cool; lydig obedient.—

følges ad go together.

Hesten, Hunden, Koen og Katten er tamme Dyr (animals). Smukke Kleder er(e) i Regelen (as a rule) kostbare; det billige (what is cheap) er sjelden (seldom) smukt. Et barskt Væsen (manner) og et ømt Hjerte følges ofte (often) ad, og det gjør ogsaa (and so do) et glat Ansigt og et haardt Hjerte.
The big city has many nice and expensive houses. A tame lion (Løve) is like (som) a big cat. Cheap and healthy residences (Boliger) are difficult to get (skaffe) in a big city. The cool night is very refreshing (forfriskende) after (efter) the warm day. A nice child (Barn, n.) ought always to (burde altid) be obedient.

(§§ 178—182). Decline the following adjectives:
sagte soft; blaa, tro, fri, egen, megen, afsides, nymodens.

Den frie Mand og den frie Kvinde (woman) blev proklameret (were proclaimed) for alle Vinde (winds). Min egen Stue. Kongens eget Slot. Det ham (him) egne Væsen.

New-fangled ideas. Out-of-the-way towns. This man’s eyes (Øine) are blue. A nice suit (Sæt) of clothes made (syet) of blue cloth.

(§§ 183—189). Compare the following adjectives:
kold cold; sød sweet; blød soft; venlig friendly; from pious; ung; ond; gammel.


My father has the largest house in the block (Kvartalet) It has more windows (Vinduer) than (end) the other houses. The younger girl (Pige) is the handsomer. [N.B. Use the superlative in D N. in this case!]

(§§ 190—194). Har du min Bog? Nei, men jeg saa (saw) den (it) nu nylig (just now). Hvor (where) var den?
Den var paa Bordet i mit Værelse. Jeg har ikke lagt (placed) den der (there). Nei, din Moder lagde (placed) den der. Saa du hende gjøre (do) det (it)! Nei, men hun har selv (§196) fortalt (told) mig det. Min Broder fortalte (told) mig ogsaa (also), at (that) han havde seet (seen) den der. Den Den unge Mand har nylig mistet (lost) his Søn.

I have a nice little horse; have you seen it? My father gave (gav) it ’o me, and I thanked (takkede) him. Does (kan) your brother ride? No, he does not ride; but my sister does. She rides better than I do myself (§ 196). Once (engang) she lost (mistede) (§ 245 note) her hat while riding horseback (mens hun var ude og red). My parents (Forældre) have lost five (fem) of their [N B. different in Danish and in Norwegian] children.


(§§ 200, 201). Man siger (say), at nogen har været (been) her og ringet (rung the bell). Men da (as) ingen lukkede op (opened the door), gik (went away) de. Det kan ikke have været nogen af vore Venner. Nei, det var nogle fremmede (strange) Mennesker (people). Mangen Mand gaar (goes) hungrig (hungry) tilsengs (to bed), som man ikke vilde (would) tro (believe) det om (about).
They think that everybody can do this thing, but they are mistaken (tage feil). Nobody can learn (lære) a foreign (fremmed) language (Sprog n.) without persistent (ihærdig) work (Arbeide n.). Some called (kaldte) him a hero (Helt), others a humbug (Humbugmager). Many a heart is aching (bløder).


Some months (Maaneder) have 30 days and others have 31. One month, February, has only 28 days. The war (Krigen) lasted (varede) seven years. Seven times seven is 49. 20 years ago this big town was nothing but (ikke andet end) a little village (Landsby). My friend rises (staar op) at 6 in the morning (om Morgenen) and goes to bed (gaar til sengs) at 10 in the evening (om Aftenen).

(§ 208). Conjugate the following verbs:

bie to wait, hoppe to jump, plante to plant, 
önske to wish, ofre to sacrifice, spend, salve to anoint, 
raade to advise, vente to wait, hakke to peck.

Jeg har nu (now) ventet paa ham i en halv Time (hour), men nu kan jeg ikke bie længer. Jeg vil raade Dem til at vente en Stund (while) til (more). Nei, jeg har allerede (already) ofret for (too) megen Tid (time) paa ham. Jeg skulde have ventet en Stund til, hvis jeg ikke havde havt det saa travlt (been so busy). Se den lille Spurv (sparrow), som hopper udenfor Vinduet (window) og hakker i Vin dueskarmen (window frame). Den venter paa at faa (to get) sin Frokost (breakfast).
Whom do you wish to see (at tale med)? I wish to see your father? Please (vær saa god at) wait a while, he is not in (hjemme) just now (netop i Øieblikket) I can only (bare) wait 5 minutes. Cannot you spend any more time on him, he will be in (kommer tilbage) at 5 sharp (paa Slaget fem). What do you advise me to do?

§§ 210—211. Conjugate the following verbs:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{tabe} & \text{ to lose,} \quad \text{sluge} \text{ to devour,} \quad \text{lede} \text{ to seek,} \\
\text{tale} & \text{ to speak,} \quad \text{betale} \text{ to pay,} \quad \text{laane} \text{ to borrow, to lend,} \\
\text{loše} & \text{ to loosen,} \quad \text{sætte} \text{ to set,} \quad \text{sætte sig} \text{ to sit down (§234),} \\
\text{fölge} & \text{ to follow.}
\end{align*}
\]

Fienderne tabte det første Slag (battle). Paa Slagmarken (battlefield) var mange Folk (people), som ledte efter deres (N. sine) Venner. Min Ven talte ikke til mig hele Aftenen. Det var, fordi (because) jeg har laant ham Penge, som han ikke kan betale tilbage (back). Han havde sat sig, dog (yet) stod han op (got up) og fulgte mig til Døren.

He spoke slowly (langsomm), as if (som om) he did not wish his audience (Tilhørere) to lose a single (eneste) syllable (Stavelse). An honest (ærlig) man pays back with interest (Rente) what he borrows. Sit down and wait a little while, then I shall follow you to church (Kirke).

§§ 213 and 214.) Skibet begyndte (commenced) at synke ti Minuter efter Sammenstødet (collision). Alle Passagererne (passengers) sprang til Baadene (boats), som var(e) bundne saa fast, at man maatte hugge dem løs (loose). Matroserne (sailors) havde drukket adskilligt (considerably) og vilde ikke slippe Passagerne ned i Baadene først. Tiggeren (tramp) bad først om Penge, men da de ingen gav ham, kom (came) han igjen (again) om Aftenen og stjal, hvad de ikke vilde (would) give ham. Han havde seet Penge ligge i en aaben Komodeskuffe (bureau drawer).
I found a dog, tied to the fence (Gjærde); it ran to-wards (imod) me as far (langt) as the chain (Lænke) would allow (tillade) it [to] It was very thirsty (tørst), it had not drunk water (Vand) the whole day. I helped it to get out (komme ud af) the chain and gave it something to eat. While (medens) I was sitting (§ 229) by the roadside, I saw a man cutting (skjære, use inf.) grass in the field. Another man was helping him.

(§§ 215—217). Da Musen (mouse) krøb frem (forth) af af sit Hul (hole), greb Katten den og vilde æde den. Men først vilde den lege (play) lidt men den. Den slap den, lige- som (as) om (if) den vilde lade (allow) den løbe (run), men saa (then) greb den den igjen og bed den ihjæl (to death). Det ryger fra Skorstenen (chimney), mens jeg røger min Cigar og nyder den. Medens du jagede Harer (hares) og skjød Ræve, jog (chased) jeg Fienden ud af Landet. Fienderne blev(e) slagne i tre Slag (battles), og mange af dem blev(e) tagne tilfangne (made prisoners).

I only (kun) obeyed [see § 245 in fine] your order (Befaling) when I chased the pigs (Svinene) out (ud) of the garden (Have) They had dug themselves an entrance (Veи) under the fence. They took the same way back again, and they pushed (skjøv til) each others in their efforts (translate i. th. e.: idet de anstrængte sig for) to get (komme) først ud.

I know I ought to do it, but I dare not do it now. Yes, you must do it. What is your name, my friend? John is my Christian name (Fornavn) and Johnson is my family name (Efternavn). Did you sleep well last night (inat), Mr. Johnson? Yes, thank you. I slept very well and did not get up (get up: staa op) till (for) it (Klokken) was after (over) 8. Did you really (virkelig) stay in bed (ligge) as long as that. Yes, I have often stayed in bed longer than (end) that.

(§§ 234 to 235). Jeg skammer mig over at se, hvor (how) lidet jeg virkelig ved. Det hænder undertiden, (sometimes), at man ikke ved, hvad man skal gjøre. Det siges, at Kongen kommer (§ 222) hid (here) i Sommer (this summer). Det er blevet mig fortalt (I have been told*), at ti Skibe forliste (were lost) i den frygtelige Orkan (hurricane), som blæste (blew) ifredags (last Friday).

I was told that I could come whenever I wanted to (saa ofte jeg havde Lyst). Don't you feel ashamed that you did not know this? No, I do not feel ashamed. You ought to do (gjøre det), at least (i det mindste). How did this thing happen?

(§§ 237—237.) Hr. Jones har besøgt (visited) os oftere i den senere Tid (of late), end han gjorde før (formerly). Ja, og han har været længere hver Gang. Hvor længe er det, siden du saa ham sidst (the last time)? Jeg saa ham for en Time siden. Vil De helst danse eller synge? Jeg vil gjerne begge Dele (do both). Hvor reiser De hen? Jeg reiser til Norge og tænker, jeg bliver to Maaneder borte (tænker, jeg bliver borte—expect to be gone). Har De ikke seet mine Handsker (gloves)? Jo, jeg har.

*) What is in the active the indirect object should not in D.-N. be made subject in passive. Some authors follow the English rule in that respect, but it is not considered good language.
EXERCISES.

How long do you expect to be gone? Four months. I would like to stay (blive der) longer, because (foråi) it is so long since I was there the last time. Why do you like better to dance than to sing? Because there is more fun (Moro) in it. Have you seen your father's hat? Yes, I have. Have not you seen your father's hat? Yes, I have.

(§§ 240—242). Hvem har han hørt (heard) det af? Af mig kan han ikke have hørt det. Paa Island er der ingen Kjøreveie (carriage roads), saa der maa man overalt reise tilhest; men i Irland er der gode Veie. Min Broder Karl har været tilsøs i 25 Aar, saa det er nu paatide (about time), at han slaar sig ned (settles) tillands. Paa Grund af den tætte (thick) Taage (fog), kunde vort Skib ikke komme ind til Bryggen (pier).

Where do you come from? From Iceland. Have you been a long time in Iceland? Yes, I have been there quite (temmelig) long, and everywhere we had to travel around on horsback, because they had no roads there. By (med) which ship did you come from America? By the "Island" of Copenhagen. Have you been in any of the cities of Norway? Yes, I have been in Christiania and Bergen, and at Kongsberg and Fredriksstad.

(§ 243). "Dine Penge eller dit Liv" (life) er et haardt Valg (choice); men værre er det at miste baade Pengene og Livet. I Byens Udkant (outskirts) bor der mange fattige (poor), som hverken har Mad eller Klæder. Naar (when) du ikke vil høre, maa du føle (must be made to feel). Jeg maa straffe (punish) dig, forat du kan blive en brav (good) Mand. Min Søster har en smukkere Hat en du. Jeg har ingen bedre Ven end dig. Han er saa glad (happy), at han næsten ikke (hardly) kan lade være at (l. v. a.—abstain from) hoppe (jump) høit op i Veiret (air).
I give you this punishment (Straf) in order to improve (forbedre) your morals (Søder). I make (lader) you study in order that you may be a useful (nyttigt) member (Medlem) of society (Samfundet). When (naar) I come here, I wish (onsker) to see everybody happy. When (da*) I came home I saw many sad (bedrøvede) faces (Ansigtet). Neither my mother, nor my s'ister had such a nice hat as you had. A judgment (Dom) must either be right (rigtig) or wrong (gal), and it cannot be both right and wrong at the same time.

(§§ 245 –246). Hvem har De talt med (seen)? Jeg har talt med Deres Broder. Er det min ældste Broder, De har talt med? Hvor er min Hat? Deres Hat er her. Han gav en Tigger (beggar) sin nye Hat. Hvem gav han sin gamle Frak (coat)? Træffer (meet) jeg dig her igjen, skal jeg lade (have) dig kaste (throw) ud af Vinduet.

Whom did you see? Where did you get (faa) that hat? I got it at the hatter's (hos Hattemageren), and I gave my old hat to a beggar. If I ever (nogensinde) see you again, I shall certainly (visseligh) be most (særdeles) happy.

*) "When" referring to a single occurrence of the past is da, when referring to the future is naar. Da, besides time, indicates cause, naar, besides time, indicates condition.
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