FREEBOOTERS, YACHTS, AND PICKLE-HERRINGS:

DUTCH NAUTICAL, MARITIME, AND NAVAL LOANWORDS IN ENGLISH

A thesis submitted for the degree of Master of Philosophy in English

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Dreams and Dutch Almanacks are to be understood by contraries.

—W. Congreve (*Love for Love*, iv. i. 75)

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ABSTRACT

Det engelske språket er kjent for å ha tatt til seg en stor mengde fremmedord, deriblant mange av nederlandsk opphav. Det er allment antatt at de fleste av disse har med sjøfart å gjøre. Denne tesen tar for seg nederlandske nautiske, maritime og marine låneord. Det undersøkes når låneordene ble tatt opp i engelsk, hvilke ordkategorier dette gjelder, når og hvordan en del av disse ordene forsvant, og hvorfor noen ord har overlevd.

Nettutgaven av det velkjente engelske oppslagsverket *The Oxford English Dictionary* har vært hovedkilden under innsamlingen av låneordene, i tillegg til diverse etymologiske verk. Den nettbaserte tekstsamlingen *The Corpus of Historical American English* har dannet grunnlaget for en diakronisk studie i bruken og forandringen av de låneordene som ble regnet for å ha et utvilsomt nederlandsk opphav. Det ble sett på bokstavelig og figurativ bruk av ordene, samt i hvor stor grad de opptrådte i fiksjon kontra sakprosa. Nettsøketjenesten *Google* ble brukt for å undersøke ordenes nåværende status.

Resultatene viser at det nære forholdet mellom De nederlandske stater og England innen handel, fisking, politikk og krigføring—der nederlenderne ofte har vært den største eller mektigste kraften—har ført til at en stor mengde nautiske fremmedord har funnet veien til engelsk. Mange av låneordene er i dag ikke lenger i bruk, andre brukes hovedsakelig i faste fraser (‘tip of the iceberg’) eller i symbolsk betydning (‘maelstrom’), mens noen fortsatt er fast inventar i dagens engelsk.

Det viser seg at låneordene hovedsaklig ble lånt i Nederlands gullalder, og da spesielt når det gjelder navn på skipstyper. Videre konkluderes det med at fiksjon har spilt en avgjørende rolle i bevaringen av låneordene.

Het is bekend dat er in de Engelse taal een groot aantal leenwoorden is ingevoerd. Veel van deze leenwoorden komen uit het Nederlands en dat zijn merendeels woorden die met zeevaart te maken hebben. Deze scriptie bestudeert Nederlandse nautische-, maritieme- en marine leenwoorden. Er wordt onderzocht wanneer deze leenwoorden in het Engels belandden, om welke woordgroepen het gaat, wanneer en waarom bepaalde woorden weer verdwenen en waarom sommige nog steeds worden gebruikt.

Bij het verzamelenen en verklaren van de leenwoorden zijn verschillende etymologische boeken geraadpleegd. Als hoofdbron is de internetversie van het bekende Engelse naslagwerk *The Oxford English Dictionary* gebruikt. De via internet toegankelijke tekstverzameling *The Corpus of Historical American English* was de basis voor een diachronische studie naar het gebruik en de verandering van woorden die werden beschouwd als ongetwijfeld van Nederlandse afkomst. Er werd gekeken naar het letterlijk en figuurlijk gebruik van de woorden en naar het aantal keren dat ze in fictie contra non-fictie voorkwamen. Met de internet zoekmachine *Google* werd de hedendaagse status van de woorden onderzocht.

De resultaten laten zien dat door de hechte relatie tussen de Lage Landen en Engeland op het gebied van handel, visserij, politiek en oorlogsvoering ter zee (waarin de Nederlanders in perioden de overhand hadden) een grote hoeveelheid nautische leenwoorden in het Engels is beland. Vele hiervan worden niet meer gebruikt, andere komen nog voor in spreekwoorden of gezegden (‘tip of the iceberg’) of in figuurlijk gebruik (‘maelstrom’), terwijl sommige nog steeds een vaste plaats hebben in het hedendaagse Engels.

Het blijkt dat de leenwoorden hoofdzakelijk ten tijde van de Nederlandse Gouden Eeuw zijn geleend en dat het vaak om scheepstermen gaat. Verder kan worden geconcludeerd dat fictie een zeer belangrijke rol heeft gespeeld in het behouden van de leenwoorden.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

a	(in dates) ante
a.	adjective
a.	adaption of, adapted from
abbrev.	abbreviation
acc.	according
ad.	adoption of, adopted from
adj.	adjective
adv.	adverbial
alc.	alcoholic
alt.	alternative
Anglo-Fr.	Anglo-French
Anglo-No.	Anglo-Norman
app.	apparently
arch.	archaic
bev.	beverage
Brit.	British
c	(in dates) circa
C	century (e.g. C13 = 13th century)
COCA	the *Corpus of Contemporary American English*
COHA	the *Corpus of Historical American English*
comb.	combination
corresp.	corresponding, corresponds
Da.	Danish
dat.	dative
dial.	dialectal
dim.	diminutive
Du.	Dutch
EFris.	East Frisian
e.mod.Du.	early modern Dutch
e.mod.Eng.	early modern English
err.	error
esp.	especially
exc.	except
expl.	explanation
f.	from
Far.	Faroese
fem.	feminine
Fl.	Flemish
Fr.	French
freq.	frequently

Fris.	Frisian
gen.	genitive
Ger.	German
Gr.	Greek
hist.	historic
HG	High German
Icel.	Icelandic
immed.	immediately
intr.	intransitive
It.	Italian
L	Latin
lang.	language(s)
LDu.	Low Dutch
LG	Low German
lit.	literally
MDu.	Middle Dutch
ME	Middle English
med.L	medieval Latin
MFr.	Middle French
MG	Middle German
mic.	microphone
mil.	military
MLG	Middle Low German
MHG	Middle High German
mod.Du.	modern Dutch
mod.LG	modern Low German
MSw.	Middle Swedish
n.	noun
N	number (of)
naut.	nautical
neut.	neuter
NFris.	North Frisian
Norw.	Norwegian
obs.	obsolete
OE	Old English
OED	The *Oxford English Dictionary*
OF	Old French
OFris.	Old Frisian
OHG	Old High German
OLFran.	Old Low Frankish
ON	Old Norse
OS	Old Saxon
orig.	originally
pa. pple.	passive participle, past participle

perh.	perhaps
pl.	plural
poet.	poetically
Port.	Portuguese
pple., *ppl. a.*	participle adjective
prec.	preceding
prep.	preposition
prev.	previously
prob.	probably
pronunc.	pronunciation
refl.	reflexive
SA	South African
Sc.	Scotch, Scottish
Scand.	Scandinavian
sg.	singular
Sp.	Spanish
spec.	specifically
Sw.	Swedish
Teut.	Teutonic
transl.	translated from, translation of
transm.	transmission
US	the United States (of America)
v.	verb
var.	variant
vbl.	verbial
WFl.	West Flemish
WFris.	West Frisian

1 | INTRODUCTION

1.1 Thesis topic

The Netherlands has been a powerful seafaring nation for much of its history, and has had close relations with the British Isles and, to a lesser extent, North America in matters concerning trade, fishing, shipbuilding, and naval warfare. The Dutch and the English have met through politics, alliances, wars, natural disasters, persecution, and the arts. But how have these ties and interactions influenced the English adoption of Dutch loanwords for nautical, maritime, and naval terms?

The study of English etymology is a popular field, but the focus is typically on French, Latin, or Norse loans. Dutch influence gets the odd cursory mention, but rarely in any great detail. Where Dutch origins are discussed or examples of (usually Middle English) lexical loans are given, discussion most often revolves around nautical words. The lack of research into Dutch loanwords and unsatisfactory focus on the how and why of the, supposedly, largest category of these borrowings are the main reasons why I have chosen the topic 'Dutch nautical, maritime, and naval loanwords in English.'

Through work on this thesis, I have come across a surprisingly large and varied selection of Dutch loanwords. Some were obvious, many were unknown, and others were delightfully obscure (see e.g. *mallemaroking* in Section 4.1.11).

1.2 Research questions and hypotheses

The aim of this thesis is to identify Dutch nautical loanwords in the English language and to explain the causes leading to, or contexts behind, their adoption. I have drawn up the following research questions to achieve this:

a) When were these loans incorporated into the English language?
b) In which areas of application did they appear?
c) When and why were certain words rendered obsolete?
d) Why have certain words persisted?

For each of these research questions I have formulated a hypothesis. Regarding point a), my hypothesis is that most loanwords were adopted in the 16th and early 17th centuries when thousands of Flemish immigrants fled to England to escape waves of religious and economic turmoil (Esser 2006:238; Murray 1957:837) and, perhaps even more so, in the Golden Age of the Netherlands, i.e. most of the 17th century, when the country was at the height of its power (Arblaster 2006). A hypothesis for point b) is quite simple as this thesis deals with all nautical words and terms derived from Dutch. As such, I expect to find Dutch loanwords for ship types and parts, nautical equipment, manoeuvres, slang words, naval tactics, and titles of naval and maritime personnel. What will be interesting here is seeing how the loans are distributed among these groups. Finally, for points c) and d) I hypothesize that many of these loanwords were rendered obsolete due to the shift in maritime technology, starting in the early 1800s, from sailing vessels to motorized vessels, and thus that words not particularly affected by this technological shift, or that have been popularized through fiction, have largely survived.

For the compilation of a full list of Dutch nautical, maritime, and naval loanwords I will include everything that is directly related to or has originated in these spheres. Words of dubious origin where Dutch is an etymological possibility or words where sources disagree about its derivation from Dutch will also be mentioned and discussed briefly (cf. Appendix A).

1.3 What are *Dutch* loanwords?

In a linguistic study concerning Dutch, one could look at the language in terms of the geographical boundaries of the country that is, or has become, the Netherlands, or concentrate on the language itself, regardless of such boundaries. I will pay attention to both. The difference between Frisian and Dutch, for example, is more than dialectal, but since Frisians are as much a part of the Netherlands (and thus its historical ties with England) as Dutchmen are, I have included references to them where relevant.[1] On the other hand, Flemish is not spoken in the Netherlands, but it is in northern Belgium. It is still highly relevant as it is a Dutch dialect and will therefore be included. The same is true for Low German, which today

[1] Frisians are also found along the German and Danish coasts. The Frisian spoken in the Netherlands is called 'Westlauwerfries' although the variety spoken in Frisian towns, 'Stadfries,' is a Holland (i.e. Dutch) dialect (Van der Sijs 2010a:73). The position of Frisian as a second official language in the Netherlands is currently under discussion (*Onze Taal* 2011).

is primarily spoken in Northern Germany around the mouths of the rivers Rhine, Elbe, Weser and Ems, and was the lingua franca of the Hanseatic League in the Middle Ages (Van der Sijs 2010a:97). For clarity, Figure 1.1 shows the distribution of Low German dialects, Flemish, Dutch, and the Frisian dialect that is spoken in the Netherlands in the latter half of the 20th century (Frisian dialects that are not spoken in the Netherlands have not been included):

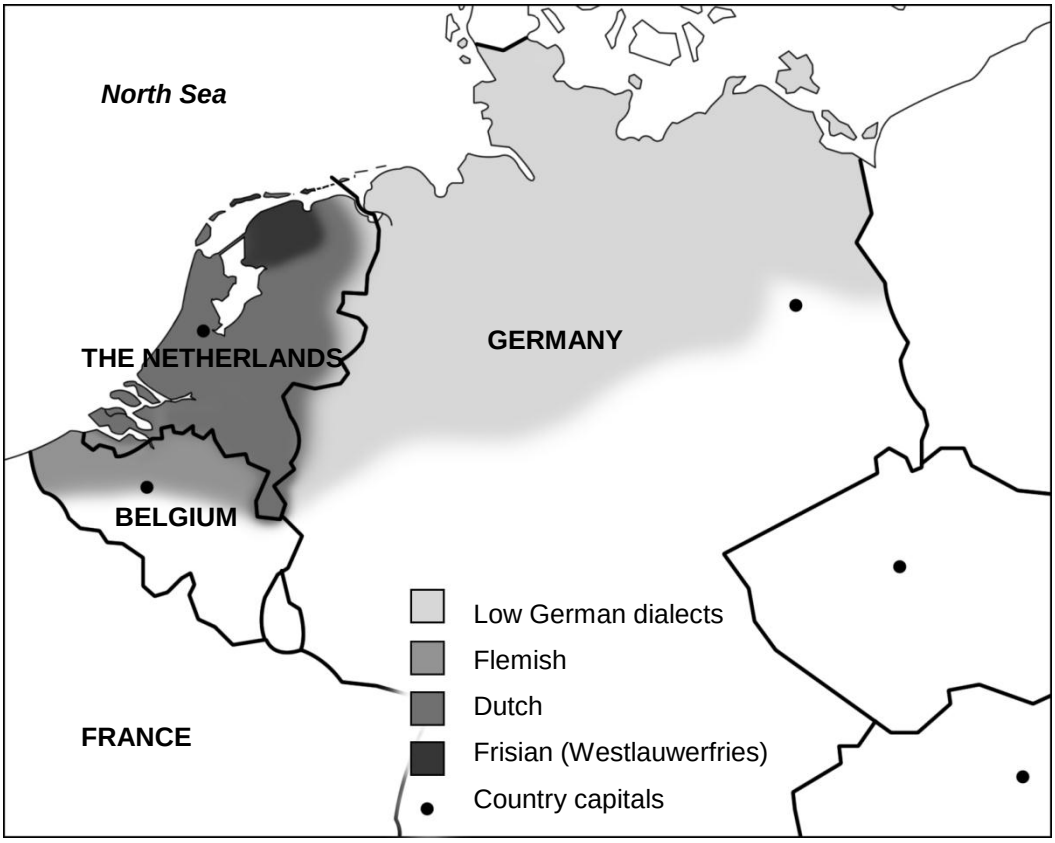

Figure 1.1: Map showing approximate distribution of Low German dialects, Flemish, Dutch, and Frisian (Westlauwerfries) in Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands in latter half of 20th century (after Bense (1925:33) and Stevenson (1984:121, 145))

Van der Sijs argues that since many Hanseatic towns were located in the east of the Netherlands (Zutphen, Deventer, Kampen, Zwolle) a Low German loanword might well have a Dutch origin (2010a:97). In short, I define 'Dutch loanwords' from both a geographical and a linguistic point of view.

1.4 Thesis structure

In order to provide a platform from which to present my findings and discussion thereof, I will first provide the relevant background information and theories on the subject of

borrowing in Chapter 2 along with a presentation of previous research into Dutch loanwords in English. Then, in Chapter 3, the material I have used (predominantly the *Oxford English Dictionary Online* (*OED Online*)) will be described and the methodology used to collect relevant data explained.

In Chapter 4 the results of my study will be presented. This includes a comprehensive list of all Dutch nautical loanwords, divided into sections (e.g. 'types of ships,' 'equipment and tackle,' etc.), along with word class, the meaning of the word, date of first written appearance in English sources and other relevant information. Due to space restrictions, only words that are certain to have been adopted from Dutch will be presented in this chapter; the rest will be found in Appendix A. Further, the results from an examination of a selection of the loanwords through the *Corpus of Historical American English* (*COHA*) and *Google* will be presented to provide a clearer image of the usage of the words from the 1810s to the present day.

In Chapter 5 a historical background of the interaction between the Dutch and the English will be provided so that the causes leading to the borrowing of words might be understood more clearly. After that, the results of Chapter 4 will be discussed. Finally, my conclusions will be presented in Chapter 6.

2 | BACKGROUND AND THEORY

2.1 Background

It is well-known in linguistic circles that French and Norman French have contributed about 11,000 words to English. Latin, partly through French, and Old Norse have also had a great influence, as have Greek and a large range of other languages. Still, the Dutch language is seldom given more than a cursory mention even though the amount of loanwords from Dutch is not insignificant. Figures vary widely: Skeat (1910:763f.) names 320 loanwords, while Bense (1939:viif.) claims he ended up with a list of 7,518 words, which is stunning when compared to the French contribution, although he admits that many of these are uncertain. For both it must be added that Low German words are included in the figures. It must also be mentioned that Bense, who partly built on Skeat's work, spent both more time and had access to more material in his research, the *OED* having been published in the meantime (see Section 2.3). As mentioned in Chapter 3, the *OED Online* suggests 2,667 English words stem from Dutch. Finally, a recently published work on Dutch loanwords in languages from around the world claims 1,692 words in English come from Dutch (Van der Sijs 2010a:135). It is difficult to accurately determine the number of originally Dutch words in the English language, and while it almost certainly comes nowhere near the French and Latin numbers, it has perhaps been at least as significant (on a lexical level) as the influence from Old Norse—although the attention it has been given usually does not show the breadth and extent of this influence.

In most works on the history of the English language or the Germanic languages in general (especially of the introductory sort), one is likely to come across a small section or paragraph on Dutch loanwords. For examples of such, cf. various volumes of *The Cambridge History of the English Language* (Nevalainen 1999:373; Kastovsky 2006:259), *The English Language: A Historical Introduction* (Barber et al 2009:192), or Stevenson (1984:144, 160). These typically start with a selection of nautical words as these are deemed to be in a majority, often including e.g. *buoy*, *deck*, *dock*, *smuggle*, *yacht*, and frequently, but erroneously, *schooner*.[2] Even *The Cambridge History of the English Language* still insists on

[2] Seen from a world-wide point of view, nautical terms are, however, not the most widely borrowed category of words, although this notion exists among Dutch people as well (and is true for West-European languages). According to Van der Sijs (2010a:159; 2010b:231) it is the common-or-garden type of words that have most

this last, Dutch-looking word (see Appendix A, Section A.1.1 for discussion). Other areas usually touched upon are art (*easel*, *landscape*, *sketch*), food and drink (*brandy*, *cookie*, *waffle*) or loanwords via Afrikaans (*apartheid*, *Boer*, *veld*). Some works do not mention Dutch influence at all and focus solely on Latin, Norse, and French loanwords (cf. Fennell 2001 or even popular linguistic works like Bill Bryson's *Mother Tongue* (1990)). Likewise, stating in the introduction to *The Oxford History of English* that 'Latin, Scandinavian, French, and Dutch all, in various ways, played a part in the earlier history of English' (Mugglestone 2006:4), Dutch is not mentioned at all in this context apart from a few sentences on Dutch influence on Scottish in the 15th century (Bailey 2006:338). Only the loanword *golf* is mentioned here (from Middle Dutch *kolf* 'club'). Finally, in *An Introduction to Regional Englishes* a small section is dedicated to Dutch and Low German influence on English dialects. Only a handful of words are mentioned, none of which are nautical in nature (except, perhaps, *haar*, a type of fog which might be used in the sense 'sea-fog') (Beal 2010:58).

With the exception of the Afrikaans words it is hard to tell that some of the aforementioned loanwords are not originally English in nature—and herein lies the difficulty of Anglo-Dutch etymological work. Both English and Dutch belong to the West-Germanic branch of the Germanic languages. This also includes Frisian (of which, according to Trudgill, the western variety is 'known to be more closely related to English than Dutch is' (2010:183)), and High and Low German, further complicating the matter (Barber et al 2009). Bense (1939) is of the opinion that it is thus sometimes quite impossible to know whether an English word was introduced by some early Low German tribe or came down later from Low Dutch, and *if* such Low Dutch words 'passed into Old English … during the 9th and 10th centuries' these might therefore just as well be counted as native (1939:xv). Orton and Wright (see Beal 2010:58) similarly argue that it is sometimes hard to determine whether a word is native or a loan because of Low German's similarity to Old and Middle English. Due to the common ancestry of the two languages they share many similar or near-similar words which do not necessarily convey the same meaning, something that may cause further confusion. English *genial*, for instance, means *amiable*, *friendly*, or *mild* whereas the Dutch *geniaal* means *gifted* or *brilliant*, although it could mean *mild* when pertaining to a person (Hendrickx & Hendrickx 1987:5f.).

Perhaps such uncertainties are the reason why Dutch is only given passing attention in works on English language history. It is certainly the reason why there are such differences in

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frequently found their way into other languages, the top five being *baas* 'boss,' *gas* 'gas,' *kraan* 'crane' or 'water-tap,' *pomp* 'pump' (arguably nautical, and present in this thesis) and *pen* 'pen.'

the reported amount of Dutch in English, and also why I was forced to divide the loanwords into three categories: 'certain,' 'possible,' and 'suggested.' There are, however, a few pointers as to how it may be determined that we are dealing with a Dutch loanword, as described below in Section 2.2.1.

2.2 Theory

The following presents the ideas behind the detective-work involved in determining whether a word originates in Dutch, as well as some of the theories behind borrowing between languages in general. While this will in many cases not be touched upon later in the thesis, it does provide the necessary technical framework through which to better understand some of the mechanics and preliminary etymological groundwork involved.

2.2.1 Determination of Dutch loans

Apart from the close relation between Dutch and English, another reason why identification of Dutch loanwords may be difficult are the great 'mutations' they have undergone, causing such words to differ quite a lot from the original words in many cases. The lack of a standard system of spelling naturally added to the various different forms. Some of the most straightforward examples of this are to be found in English spellings of Dutch place names. Here we find *Berganapsome* and *Barganapsome* for *Bergen-op-Zoom*, *Sedan* for *Schiedam*, *Helversluce* for *Hellevoetsluis* and *Suricksea* for my native *Zierikzee* (Bense 1939:xviiif.). This also applies to many of the nautical words in this thesis, such as *scout* for *schuit*, *orlop* for *overloop* and *euphroe* for *juffrouw* (see Chapter 4). The cause of this is twofold. Firstly, if a foreign word is picked up orally and later written down the 'borrower' will do so using orthographical and phonological rules with which he or she is familiar, as in perhaps *euphroe* from *juffrouw* above. Haugen (1950:215) states that 'the simplest and most common substitution is that which takes place when a native sound sequence is used to imitate a foreign one.' Likewise, in the words of Bense:

> [He] who borrows a word heard, will try to symbolize the sounds in a way which suits his convenience, i.e. he will adapt the sounds to his own speech basis and then write the form

> which would have been used, if it had been a native English word. … As soon as the word has thus been naturalized, it is subject to the same sound-laws that govern native English. (Bense 1939:xxf.)

In this way we know that, following Bense (1939:xxi), Dutch *bruin* [brœ̈n] 'brown,' introduced by Caxton as variously *brune*, *brunne* and *bruyn* in 1481 and today applied to the Common or Brown Bear as *Bruin* [bɹuːɪn], have indeed come down from Low Dutch. After all, OE *brūn* developed (through *broune* and *browne*) into *brown*, while *bruin*, had it been an OE word, would have become *brune*, *brun*, *broyn*, *broin*, or *brine*.

Vice versa, a foreign word picked up through reading, say, a letter sent home from a sailor serving in a Dutch fleet, will be pronounced using English speech sounds, as was perhaps the case with *scout* from *schuit* above. This may later, due to the lack of a written standard, change when the word is taken up by others. Continuing Bense's (1939:xxi) example above: in his 1666 (*OED Online* gives 1663) *Hudibras*, Butler rhymes *Bruin* with *ruine*, which means *Bruin* must have been introduced through written language. After all, the original Dutch pronunciation would not have allowed the rhyme.

It seems clear that internal evidence (i.e. spelling, phonology, etc.) can be quite difficult in determining whether we have to do with a native English word or a Dutch loanword—and it should, as it is easy to fall into traps. In the example mentioned we are, however, lucky enough to have literary evidence as well.[3] In addition to internal and literary evidence, historical evidence can also contribute to correct identification. The historical Anglo-Dutch contexts are examined in Chapter 5. Furthermore, there are some very thorough etymologies (especially on Western European languages) that may be consulted and checked against other etymologies, dictionaries, and historical sources to verify the plausibility of any given loanword (Van der Sijs 2010a:7). In many cases it is a question of determining when and in which language a word first occurs in a written source.

2.2.2 Mechanics of borrowing

It is perhaps useful at this point to look more closely at the mechanics of borrowing. Haspelmath (2003:13) defines a loanword as 'a word that is transferred from a donor language to a recipient language.' Haugen (1950:214f.) distinguishes between three different

[3] Caxton learned the art of printing in Bruges and translated many Dutch texts into English using countless Dutch loans, although the majority of them did not catch on (Llewellyn 1936:150).

types of borrowing: 1) *loanwords*: complete morphemic importation, with or without phonemic substitution; 2) *loanblends*: morphemic substitution *and* importation (i.e. a mix of a foreign and a native part); and 3) *loanshifts*: morphemic substitution *without* importation (i.e. only the meaning is copied, as in *underway* from Du. *onderweg*). Loanshifts are further subdivided into *loan translations* and *semantic loans*. Myers-Scotton (see Haspelmath 2003:13) employs a different arrangement with *cultural borrowings* and *core borrowings*. Cultural borrowings are words for new objects or concepts (e.g. *nachos*), whereas core borrowings are words that are identical in meaning to established native words but come into existence alongside them (e.g. the English *nice* is now found in Norwegian as a synonym of the native *fint* or *kult*, especially among young people). Crucially for this thesis, cultural borrowings 'usually appear abruptly when influential groups use them' while core borrowings are introduced through repeated code-switching by bilinguals (Haspelmath 2003:4).

Haugen's first two types of borrowing, loanwords and loanblends, are in many cases found in the etymologies of words in the *OED Online* as 'a.' (adapted from) and 'ad.' (adopted from), which I have adhered to in the etymologies of the loanwords in Chapter 4 and Appendix A. Strictly speaking, *adoption* is when a loanword is introduced into a language in an unmodified form; *adaption* is when it has conformed in some way to the target language's system (Winter-Froemel 2007). Whether by noting 'a.' or 'ad.,' or by comparing the present English word with the original Dutch word, it should in most cases be easy enough to see if a loanword has been adapted or adopted from Dutch. For simplicity, however, 'adoption' is used in the running text throughout this thesis.

The process or order of borrowing may be clearly explained using a borrowing or 'borrowability' scale. Different types have been devised for different purposes. For example Field (see Haspelmath 2003:5) uses:

[1] Content item > function word > agglutinating affix > fusional affix

Here, the sequence of borrowing is shown. *Content items* are also known as *lexical words* or *open word classes* to which nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs belong. *Function words* are also called *form words* or *closed word classes*, containing e.g. determiners, auxiliaries, pronouns, prepositions, and conjunctions (Bækken 2006:37). Thomason (2001:70f.) makes use of the following scale, combining elements of scale [1] with the intensity of contact leading to borrowing:

[2] Casual contact (non-basic vocabulary borrowed) > slightly more intense contact (function and content words; minor structural borrowing) > more intense contact (basic + non-basic vocabulary borrowed; moderate structural borrowing) > intense contact (heavy lexical and structural borrowing)

The common element in such scales is that they are arranged from little contact/simple borrowing on the left to intense contact/heavy borrowing on the right. It is widely recognized that a target language is always more likely to borrow from the left of the scale than from the right (cf. Haugen 1950; Matras 1998; Thomason 2001; Haspelmath 2003). In other words, lexical items (content items) are taken up before grammatical items (function words). After all, lexical items have a 'reasonably clear meaning' (Bækken 2006:37) and are therefore well-suited for importing novel ideas, knowledge, or technology from other languages, while grammatical items are rarely meaningful in themselves. Also, as Haspelmath (2003:5) points out, 'nouns are borrwed *[sic]* more easily than other parts of speech.'

As shown in Chapter 4, 80 per cent of the Dutch nautical loanwords are nouns, 16 per cent are verbs, and the remainder is more-or-less evenly distributed between adjectives, participles, adverbials, and interjections. Thus, applying the aforementioned scales in light of the English borrowing of Dutch nautical words, we see that only the very left-most item in scale [1] applies as no function words have been borrowed. Likewise, regarding the first element in scale [2], 'casual contact,' Thomason (2001:70) specifies that borrowers do not need to be fluent in the source language and/or that there may be few bilingual speakers among target-language speakers. Furthermore, only content words are borrowed, 'most often nouns, but also verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.' There is no function word or structural borrowing at all.

2.3 Previous research

Among the earliest philologists to make a mention of Dutch loanwords in the English language may have been Dean of Westminster Richard Chenevix Trench in his 1855 book *English Past and Present*. Although his observations perhaps suffer from the lack of a sound etymological tradition on which to build, he was nevertheless paramount for English etymology as his paper 'On some Deficiencies in our English Dictionaries,' rousingly presented to the Philological Society in 1857, was one of the contributing factors leading to

the initiation of the *New English Dictionary on Historical Principles* (also known as the *NED*, and later as the *OED*) (Winchester 1999; Marshall 2006).

The etymologies in the *OED* were supplied by its first official primary Oxford editor James Murray (appointed 1879 and president of the Philological Society at the time), who was found more than capable by Oxford, despite the existence of their own *Etymological Dictionary*, to insert the etymology of the words covered (Winchester 1999:152). This was done most rigorously, with Murray (who was later to remark that 'etymology began in England about 1850') assuming any previous etymology of a word to be wrong (Mugglestone 2002:15).

The establishment of the *OED* as perhaps the highest authority on the English language and its history meant that many authors of works on etymology have based their research in various degrees on the entries in the *OED*. Skeat writes in his 1909 preface (reprinted in the 1910 edition) to *An Etymological Dictionary to the English Language*: 'Above all, I have been much assisted by the admirable articles in the [*OED*]' (1910:vii). Llewellyn (1936) makes a similar statement in *The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary*, as does Bense (1939) in *A Dictionary of the Low-Dutch Element in the English Vocabulary*. More recently, in *Nederlandse woorden wereldwijd* ('Dutch words around the world') Van der Sijs writes regarding Dutch loans in English: 'de meeste informatie is afkomstig uit de [*OED*]' ('most of the information comes from the *OED*') (2010a:66).

There are of course a few philologists whose works, like Trench, predate the *OED*. One such is Wm. H. Carpenter who wrote the paper 'Dutch Contributions to the Vocabulary of English in America: Dutch Remainders in New York State' which contains some pages of loanwords, including a few nautical ones, collected from 'The *Century* and *Standard* dictionaries [which] record a number of words, in more or less common usage, that they recognize as of undoubted Dutch origin' (1908:61). Another philologist, to whom I occasionally refer in the etymologies of some of the loanwords in Chapter 4, is T. de Vries (1916). He gives a ten-page word-for-word quotation from Skeat's 1891 *Principles of English Etymology*—without any original discussion—causing one reviewer to exclaim: 'Is there anything in this book but second-hand information?' (Gillet 1918:175f.). Nevertheless, through Skeat, De Vries shows that already in the beginning of the 20th century, and in the earliest works on Anglo-Dutch etymology, Dutch *nautical* loanwords are given first mention.

Years later, Llewellyn, shortly followed by Bense, publish new works on the subject.[4] Bense firstly, and thoughtfully, writes *Anglo-Dutch Relations from the Earliest Times to the Death of William the Third: Being an Historical Introduction to a Dictionary of the Low-Dutch Element in the English Vocabulary* (1925) to pave the way for his 1936 *A Dictionary of the Low-Dutch Element in the English Vocabulary*. Unlike the dictionaries of Bense and Skeat, the material in Llewellyn's (1939) *The Influence of Low Dutch on the English Vocabulary* is ordered by theme, making it a little harder to find a specific word of interest. Although combined with less information per word than Bense, this does make it more easily digestible and interesting to read. In this thesis I take the same approach, although an index of loanwords (see p. 121) is included to help find a specific word.

In recent years there seems to have been a slight resurgence of the subject of Dutch loanwords in English; at least in popular science. Van der Sijs, a Dutch linguist and etymologist, is responsible for two works that, at least partly, deal with Dutch words in English: *Cookies, Coleslaw, and Stoops: The Influence of Dutch on the North-American Languages* (2009) (published separately in Dutch as *Yankees, cookies en dollars: De invloed van het Nederlands op de Noord-Amerikaanse talen*) and the aforementioned *Nederlandse woorden wereldwijd* (2010a). Another book, *Verholen verwanten: Verwantschap tussen woorden in het Nederlands en het Engels* (2010) by Leo van Huyck, explores the close lexical relationship between the two languages. He devotes a small chapter to loanwords from Dutch in English where many nautical terms are mentioned, and in which he also informs us, rather ironically in the context of this thesis, that the Dutch have borrowed *boot* 'boat' from English (2010:109).

[4] Llewellyn (1936) mentions Bense's work in his introduction even though Bense (1939) published his dictionary three years after Llewellyn's book, the reason being that Parts 1 through 4 of Bense (listed in Llewellyn's bibliography) were published between 1926 and 1935 (the 5th and last part in 1939) (Liberman et al 2009:81).

3 | MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Material

Since the present thesis concerns loans from Dutch to English, the collection of data relies on historical sources and etymologies. The nature of the material will enable me to track the usage and change of Dutch nautical loanwords over time, as described below, and will therefore be very helpful for evaluating my hypotheses: a) most loanwords were adopted in the 16th and 17th centuries; and b) many of these loanwords were rendered obsolete due to a shift in maritime technology, starting in the early 1800s. It will also enable me to compile a comprehensive list of Dutch nautical loanwords.

3.1.1 The *Oxford English Dictionary Online*

As explained in Section 2.3, there was ample incentive to use the *OED Online* for the collection of Dutch nautical, maritime, and naval loanwords. The *OED* is 'generally considered to be the world's most comprehensive dictionary of the English language' (Hoffmann 2004:28), and has notations on more than half a million words spanning 1000 years. It is, according to itself:

> … an unsurpassed guide to the meaning, history, and pronunciation of 600,000 words—past and present—from across the English-speaking world. As a historical dictionary, the *OED* is very different from those of current English, in which the focus is on present-day meanings. You'll still find these in the *OED*, but you'll also find the history of individual words, and of the language—traced through 3 million quotations, from classic literature and specialist periodicals to films scripts and cookery books. (*OED Online*, 'About')

In some cases, especially when the etymology of a word seemed unclear, various other etymological dictionaries or sources on Anglo-Dutch language interaction were consulted. These include mainly the above-mentioned Skeat (1910), Llewellyn (1936), and Bense (1939), and occasionally *Middelnederlandsch Handwoordenboek* (1979), *Etymologisch Woordenboek* (1991), and Van der Sijs (2010a).

3.1.2 The *Corpus of Historical American English*

After the loanwords were identified, *COHA* (beta version) was used to track these words through time and check the manner and frequency with which they were used.[5] *COHA* is the only publically available corpus both large enough (400 million words) and extending far enough back in time (1810-2009) for the purposes of this thesis. It comprises fiction and non-fiction books, film and play scripts, magazines and newspapers collected from sources such as the *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (*COCA*), the *Making of America*, *Project Gutenberg*, and the *Internet Archive*. *COHA*, as explained on the website, is well balanced so as not to skew data:

> The corpus is balanced by genre across the decades. For example, fiction accounts for 48-55% of the total in each decade (1810s-2000s), and the corpus is balanced across decades for sub-genres and domains as well (e.g. by Library of Congress classification for non-fiction; and by sub-genre for fiction -- prose, poetry, drama, etc.). This balance across genres and sub-genres allows researchers to examine changes and be reasonably certain that the data reflects actual changes in the "real world," rather than just being artifacts *[sic]* of a changing genre balance. (*COHA*, 'Composition of the corpus')

The only drawback to using *COHA* in a diachronic study for this thesis might be that it only takes into account American texts. This, it was concluded, does not matter much because: a) most Dutch loanwords entered the English language just before and during the time when Dutch settlers started colonizing America (1500-1800 (Van der Sijs, 2010a:143)); b) there was a significant amount of nautical contact between Britain and America during that time; and c) American English makes up a vast, if not the largest, proportion of the English spoken and written today—and that probably has been so for the last 150 years.

3.1.3 *Google*

In addition to checking the loanwords diachronically, a series of searches through the World Wide Web search engine *Google* was carried out to get an idea of the frequency of the words on the internet during the past year. While using a commercial internet search engine has its advantages (the Web is considerably larger than any corpus database; searching takes mere

[5] Davies, Mark. (2010-) The *Corpus of Historical American English* (*COHA*): 400+ million words, 1810-2009. Funded by the US National Endowment for the Humanities.

split seconds; it is widely available; etc.), there are a number of complications one must be aware of. As stated by Lindquist (2009:188), the Web is constantly growing and evolving, making it is impossible to exactly replicate a search on a later date. Also, it is often difficult to say whether a new search that returns more results is the consequence of increased popularity of a given word or phrase or of the internet as a whole having simply grown larger. Geographical location and the ranking of websites by popularity further affect a search, while the absence of information about the authors (age, gender, social class) and the 'informal, unedited nature' of much of the material complicates the use of search engines for linguistic purposes (Lindquist 2009:189f.).[6] In addition, the same text is often given as many separate hits (Wray & Bloomer 2006:201). The results from *Google* searches made for this sort of linguistic research are therefore to be taken with several grains of salt. Nevertheless, the search engine was used to at least give a cursory idea of the present knowledge, popularity, and usage of some of the Dutch nautical loanwords in present-day English.

3.2 Methodology

Below, the methods used to search for and catalogue Dutch nautical loanwords in the *OED Online*, *COHA*, and *Google* will be described in detail, supplemented by screen shots of the program interfaces to more clearly show the processes involved.

3.2.1 Collecting the words

The *OED Online*'s search functions were the main *modi operandi* for collecting the relevant Dutch loanwords. The 'Advanced search' function was used (see Figure 3.1), giving access to a wider range of possibilities in navigating the dictionary. In order to find all words derived from Dutch, the search word *dutch* was inserted in the search box while 'etymologies' was selected from the drop-down box for specifying where the word should occur. This returned 2,667 hits. The list was then carefully scanned through, noting down any word derived from

[6] *Google* uses software programs called 'crawlers' or 'Googlebots' to continually search the Web for new content, copying what it finds and following the links that branch off the HTML pages, adding new content seconds after it has been posted. Its index contains 'billions of billions of webpages' and is about 100 million GB. Websites are ranked using, amongst other things, 'PageRank technology' which determines a site's importance. This is based not only on the webpages linking to the website, but also on personal Web history and geographical location. (*Google*, 'Technology overview')

Dutch to do with the nautical, maritime, or naval sphere as well as the degree of certainty of it having been adopted from Dutch.

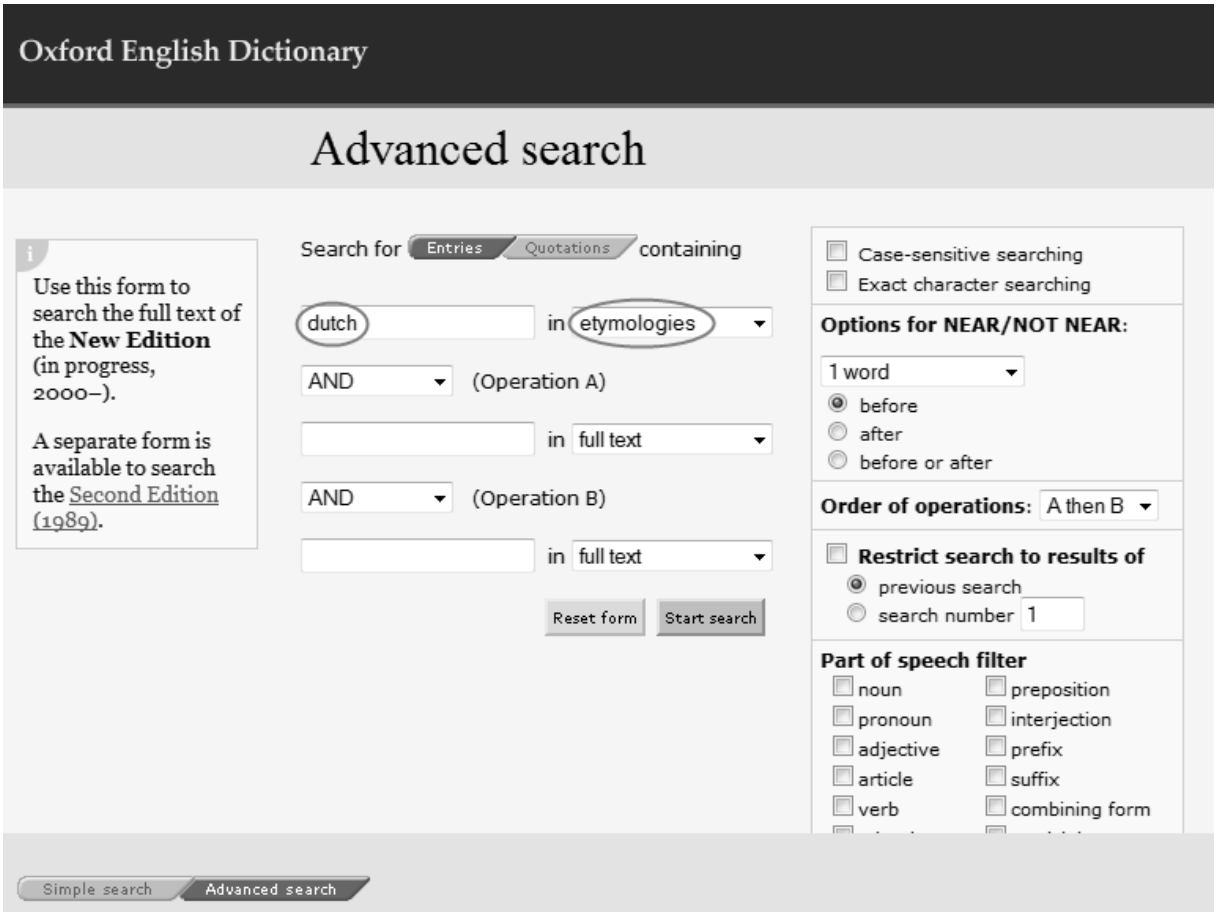

Figure 3.1: *OED Online* 'Advanced search' for *dutch* in 'etymologies'

During this process it was realized (e.g. by the absence of *yacht* and the discovery of certain abbreviations for languages used in the etymologies) that there should be *more* relevant words, and the searches were repeated with the search words *du.* 'Dutch' (5,244 hits) or *mdu.* 'Middle Dutch' (2,404 hits) in 'etymologies,' and also, while selecting 'full text' in the drop-down box, *naut.* 'nautical' (2,445 hits). After going through these results and compiling an extensive list of all items, a few words found in other sources than the *OED Online* (e.g. *pitchyard*) were added, resulting in a final list of 256 Dutch nautical loanwords.

The interface of the *OED Online* has since changed (as of November 2010) and now has new search functions, including the options 'Language of Origin' and 'Subject.' Nevertheless, a blank search (i.e. no search term was entered) using these new functions for the topics *Dutch* and *Nautical* (see Figure 3.2) returned 113 hits—less than half of my own

ultimate results. The older *OED Online* site was still available until the end of March 2011 at [http://dictionary.oed.com].

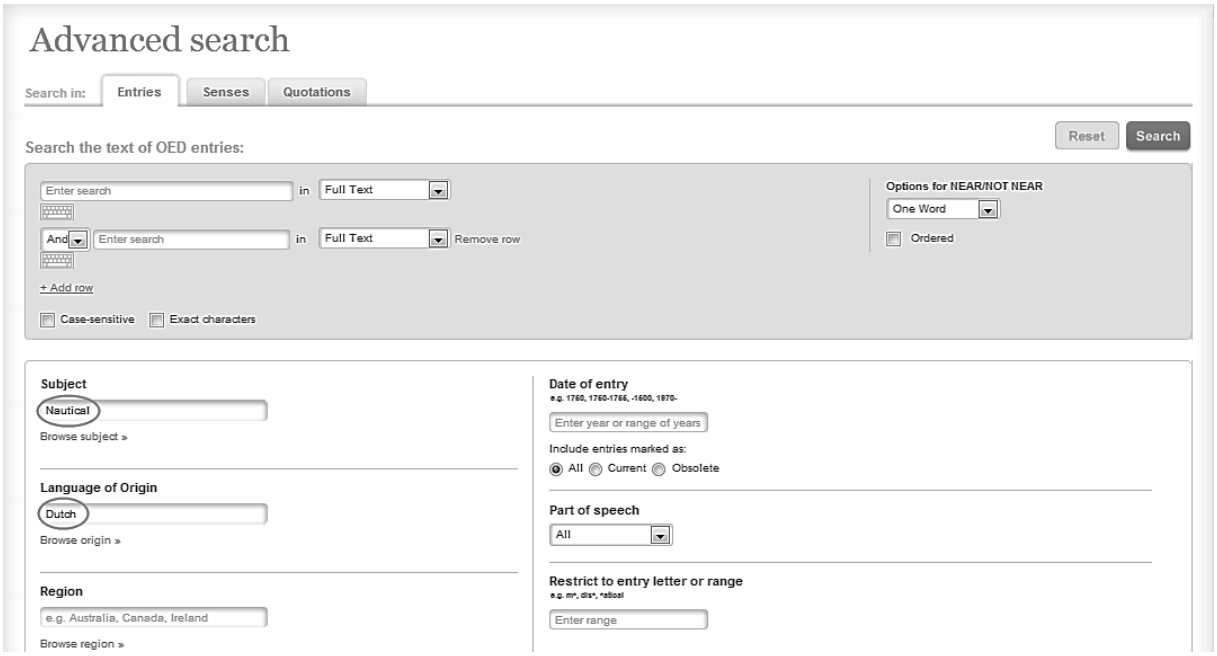

Figure 3.2: The new *OED Online* website with updated search functions such as 'Subject' and 'Language of Origin'

3.2.2 Diachronic corpus study

In order to find out to what extent and in which ways these words have been used over time, *COHA* was used. This gave a picture of usage, and change in usage, of a particular word during the last 200 years in American English texts. Due to time and space limitations it was decided to examine only those words which had been labelled as 'certain,' i.e. those deemed to have come undeniably into English from Dutch. A further selection was made, disregarding those words labelled by the *OED Online* as 'obs.,' i.e. obsolete (no evidence for the term in modern English). This resulted in a list of 83 words to be run through the corpus.

First, a spelling check was carried out to see if some or all of the known spellings of the words, as listed in the *OED Online*, were found in the corpus or if they had been standardized (see Table 3.1 below).[7] If the corpus retained all original spellings it would make the collection of data somewhat more time-consuming. Eight words, *bottomry*, *boyer*,

[7] The *OED Online* lists all the different spellings used in the sources of the words defined. For example, *scout*, a type of boat, from Dutch *schuit* 'boat,' is listed with the following alternative spellings: *scowte*, *skowt*, *scowt*, *scut*, *skut*, *scute*, *scaut*, *schut*, *skeut*, *skute*, *schout*, *scoot*, and *scout*.

euphroe, *gybe*, *handspike*, *maelstrom*, and *mattie* (see Chapter 4 for definitions), with a varying number of alternative spellings, were selected and checked via *COHA*.

Table 3.1: *COHA* spelling check

Headword	**N *OED Online* alt. spellings**	**N *COHA* hits**	**Alternative spellings**
bottomry	5	0	0
boyer	1	261	0
euphroe	3	0	0
gybe	2	0	1
handspike	4	69	0
maelstrom	5	370	0
mattie	13	1967	0
scout	13	5034	0

Three of the words, *bottomry*, *euphroe*, and *gybe*, were not found in *COHA*. For *gybe* however, the alternative spelling *jibe* occurred 19 times. Other alternative spellings for *gybe* were also found but conveyed other meanings: *gibe*: African American dialect 'to give' (2), personal name (1), pejorative (172); *jibe*: pejorative (99), 'to agree' (87), other (3).[8] *Mattie* and *scout* occurred in *COHA* only as a personal name and as 'pathfinder' or 'to guide,' respectively, but alternative spellings with other meanings were found for these also: *matie*: personal name (1), form of address (1), other (2); *maty*: personal name (9), form of address (4); and *scut*: 'tail' (6), pejorative (24), 'meaningless job' (7), 'to shoot' (past tense) (1), other (10); *scute*: other (2); *schut*: other (1); *scoot*: 'to speed' (198), pejorative (1), personal name (3), other (6). *Boyer* occurred 261 times, but only as a personal name. To sum up, the only instance of alternative spelling was *jibe* for *gybe*, which is likely due to American English spelling (even though *gybe* is the usual spelling found in dictionaries today), but which would not be a problem for any of the other 82 words. Three of the words did not occur in *COHA* at all, but the other spelling checks provided sufficient data to conclude that spelling had been standardized. This meant that only the spelling of the headword (or, as in e.g. '*coper*, *cooper*,' headwords) as given in the *OED Online* would be used for the diachronic corpus study.

The initial idea was to note down every manner in which the words occurred, including forms that had nothing to do with the nautical area of interest. However, after going through *beer* (14,480 hits), *boom* (*n.*), and *boom* (*v.*) (5,716 hits combined) it was found that there were far too many hits considering the vast majority had either nothing to do with or were not derived from the relevant Dutch headword (see Figure 3.3 below).

[8] 'Other' is used for e.g. transmission error, unclear context, etc.

Head-word	Alt. meaning/sense	Decade										Total N	Grand total N	Total COHA N
		1820	1840	1860	1880	1900	1920	1940	1960	1980	2000			
Beer		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1462	14480
	(Alc.) bev.	11	28	37	75	61	131	209	240	264	382	1438		
	Transm. err.	0	1	0	0	2	3	0	0	2	1	9		
	v. "To bear"	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1		
	"Brother"	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1		
	Name	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	1	5	0	13		
	Unknown	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1		
Boom, n.		0	2	7	1	2	3	1				16	225	
	"Loud, deep sound"	0	6	8	7	2	21	8				52		
	"Obstruction of floating timber"	0	0	4	0	0	4	0				8		
	Unknown	0	0	0	3	0	2	1				6		
	"Sudden growth"	0	0	0	9	13	36	72				130		
	"Vigorously worked movement"	0	0	0	2	0	3	3				8		
	"Sails filling"	0	0	0	0	0	1	0				1		
	"Liftable arm"	0	0	0	0	0	1	1				2		
	Transm. err.	0	0	0	0	0	0	1				1		
	"Mic. holder"	0	0	0	0	0	0	1				1		
Boom, v.	"Loud, deep sound"	0	0	0	1	0	0	0				1		
	Unknown	0	0	0	1	2	1	0				4		
	"Sudden growth"	0	0	0	0	1	0	0				1		
	"Vigorously worked movement"	0	0	0	0	0	1	0				1		

Figure 3.3: Screenshot from *COHA* initial word check

As seen in Figure 3.3, work on *boom* was stopped after the 1940s when enough data had been gathered to conclude that registering every usage of the headwords was not very productive and led to too many irrelevant hits. Consequently, only the relevant nautical usage of the words was noted.

There were even more hits if, by using a wildcard (e.g. *boom**, 10,644 hits), all forms of a noun or verb were taken into account. Thus, a new strategy was decided upon: a) only search for the uninflected headword; b) only note whether the word was used in a literal or a figurative meaning (see Appendix B); and c) systematically sample words with more than 2,000 hits.

The 83 headwords were then searched using *COHA*, noting down the total amount of hits for the word in question, the amount of relevant nautical hits, and how many of these were used in a literal or a figurative sense; all divided by decade from the 1810s to the 2000s. On a second run through it was noted whether a word had been used in fiction (both verse and

prose, and labelled *FIC*) or non-fiction (*NF*, as well as *NEWS*, and *MAG* 'magazine'). While a magazine might contain pieces of fiction as well, this was often hard to make out from the short context provided. Hence, words labelled *MAG* were counted as non-fiction. For words with more than 2,000 hits, every other decade starting with the 1820s was examined, counting every fifth word. An example of a search in *COHA* is shown in Figure 3.4 below, for the word *smuggle*:

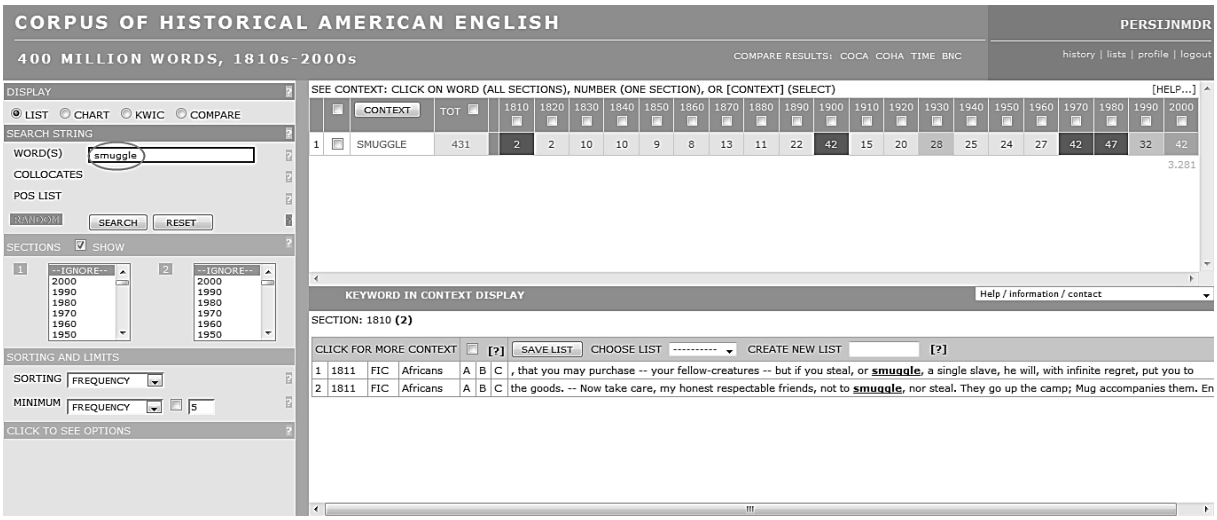

Figure 3.4: *COHA* search results for *smuggle*, showing hits for the 1810s

In Figure 3.4 we see that the word *smuggle* occurs 431 times in *COHA*. Selecting a year will show all results for that decade. In the bottom window titled 'Keyword in context display' the two results for the 1810s are shown in concordance lines to provide a context for the hit word. By selecting the title of the work, in this case *Africans*, a larger piece of the text is shown, providing even more context.

As mentioned above, only the headwords that corresponded to the list of nautical loanwords were counted. In other words, searching for e.g. *dock* in *COHA*, verbs and nouns to do with a place where ships are received or the action of bringing a ship into port were noted, but also their figurative counterparts such as the action of a spaceship docking or a connection for an electronic device such as an iPod. On the other hand, the edible weed, the withholding of payment, the trimming of an animal's ears and tail, or a criminal put in a courtroom dock were not counted as these have different origins (Old English *docce*, figurative and literal use of ear and tail trimming, and Flemish *dok* 'cage,' respectively). Also, any word where the context failed to clarify its usage was not counted. But there were also instances of a more relevant word being disregarded. Whenever a nautical loanword was part of a name, such as

Wolf Creek, it was omitted as 'Creek' did not necessarily denote an actual creek in every case. In addition, it had changed from representing a creek to being a place name. This was done for the sake of uniformity and clarity with all place names, brand names and personal names (even though in some cases the nautical connection was clear), so that e.g. the London Docks, Freebooter's Fate (a table-top miniatures game) and the surname Cooper were disregarded as well. It was judged that this decision would not interfere with the results, as enough other tokens would be found.

COHA is still a beta version and is not without the occasional technical hiccup. Sometimes, as text occurs twice, 101 results are shown instead of the correct 100, or arrows for navigation change place slightly. A larger problem was that while going through the word *school* (which had the greatest amount of hits by far) in texts from the 1980s, the corpus refused to show further pages after 7,299 hits. It claimed I had exceeded my total number of *KWIC* ('Keyword in Context') entries per day, although returning another day or trying to access the hits for the years 2000-2009 resulted in a similar error. In addition, as this occurred before the second run through *COHA* to look for the usage of loanwords in fiction, I was unable to check the usage of *school* in fiction versus non-fiction. Unfortunately, correspondence with the creator did not resolve the issue. Therefore, the results from the 2000s are missing, as is the last part of the results from the 1980s, and *school* will not be included in the tables, graphs, and discussion of the results in Chapters 4 and 5. As far as one can see however, the trend with *school* seemed rather straightforward in that the number of tokens increased exponentially with the number of sources for every decade, although it was vastly outnumbered by the other, more frequently used sense of *school*: a place for instruction.

3.2.3 *Google* searches

To complement the diachronic *COHA* study, the internet search engine *Google* was used to get an idea of the usage of the 83 words on the World Wide Web during the past year. As shown in Figure 3.5, on the *Google* website the 'Advanced Search' option was selected.

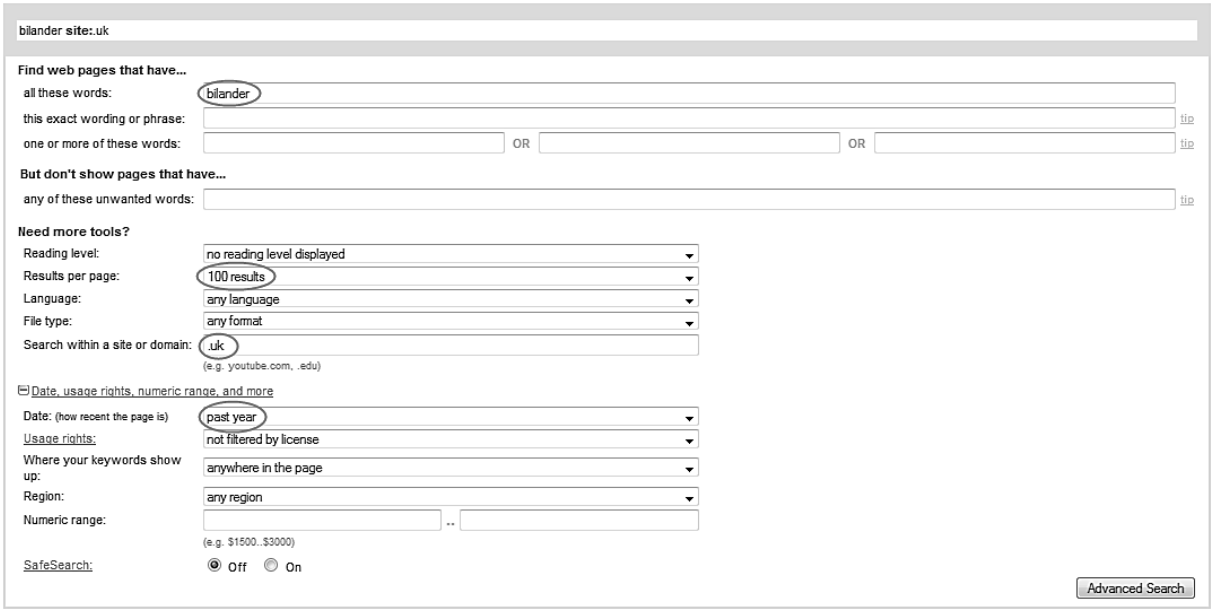

Figure 3.5: *Google* 'Advanced search' for *bilander* with '100 results' selected for the domain *.uk* for the past year

Under the search option 'Search within a site or domain' one of the domain names *.com*, *.us*, *.uk*, *.ie*, *.au*, *.nz*, or *.za* was typed in for each search, making it possible to check the usage of any word in world-wide (although *.com* often results in American sites), US, UK, Irish, Australian, New Zealand, or South African websites. 'Results per page' was set to '100' to more conveniently check the first 100 hits (for this, 'Google Instant' under 'Settings' > 'Search Settings' must be switched off). In addition, under 'Date,' further down the site, 'Past year' was selected from the drop-down box to limit the hits to results from the past year only.

Google sometimes ignores hits that are very similar to each other in order to avoid listing a range of near-similar results. It informs about this by stating: 'In order to show you the most relevant results, we have omitted some entries very similar to the [number of hits] already displayed. If you like, you can repeat the search with the omitted results included.' This prompt was not reacted to, i.e. the search was not repeated 'with the omitted results included.' Images listed in the search were ignored. If the title or concordance lines of a hit did not include the search word, the hit was disregarded. Also, if the hit was part of a randomly generated word list without additional context, it was ignored. Further, the same practice for disregarding words as stated under Section 3.2.2 was used.

3.2.4 Treatment of data

The 256 words found through the *OED Online* were put in alphabetical order, divided by topic, and sub-divided by certainty of borrowing. For every headword the year of appearance in a written English source, one or several definitions, and an etymology are given. For the obsolete headwords in Chapter 4, the date of last quotation is also given. These come mainly from the *OED Online*, but are supplemented where interesting or necessary by other sources. Loanwords categorized as 'certain' are to be found in Chapter 4, the remaining words (categorized as 'possible' and 'suggested') in Appendix A due to space restrictions and are therefore not included in the tables and figures in the discussion of the results. The 'certain' category comprises loanwords for which there is absolute proof or agreement that they have been borrowed from, or via, Dutch (be it Low, Middle, or Modern Dutch) or Flemish. 'Possible' means the loanword comes from either Dutch or another language (usually Low German). Often, but by no means always, an etymology containing the word 'probably' influenced the decision to classify the word as 'possible.' Finally, 'suggested' covers all loanwords for which: a) Dutch is only one of many possible sources suggested; b) there is great disagreement among scholars; or c) contrary to popular opinion there is no proof of Dutch ancestry. The uncertainty of the loanwords in the last two categories is further reason for why it may not be relevant to include them in the analyses of the results.

The results from *COHA* were plotted on a *Microsoft Office Excel* (2010) document, allowing for easy conversion into graphs to show usage over time in a visually clearer manner. For every word the numbers of literal and figurative occurrences were given, along with the number of occurrences in fiction.

For the *Google* searches, the 100 hits for every word in every domain were looked through and all entries where the search word was used in the relevant nautical sense were registered. Any observations of unusual usage (e.g. figurative use or frequent occurrence in a particular domain) were noted, as well as the date of the search and the total number of hits.

4 | WORDLIST AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of my study of Dutch nautical loanwords in English. Firstly, the words themselves are presented in dictionary-form. Secondly, the results from the diachronic *COHA* study are given. Lastly, the *Google* results are presented.

4.1 List of Dutch nautical, maritime, and naval loanwords

The Dutch nautical loanwords are ordered, alphabetically, by theme. The lemma, or headword, and references to other headwords appear in **bold**, words of origin or relation in *italics*. The current status of usage (e.g. *obs.* 'obsolete') as given by the *OED Online*, if other than 'still in use,' is included. In the case of obsolete headwords, the year of latest occurrence is included. The descriptions are largely adapted more-or-less directly from the *OED Online* although they have been supplemented by other sources where needed or appropriate. Unless useful, only descriptions to do with nautical themes have been included.

For clarity, words are divided into subsections according to the certainty of their being adopted from Dutch ('certain' – 'possible' – 'suggested') (see Section 3.2.4). However, due to space restrictions only those termed 'certain' are found in this chapter. For loanwords found to belong to the categories 'possible' and 'suggested,' see Appendix A.

4.1.1 Types of ships

General

Bezan, *n.* (1662), a small sailing vessel with mizzen sail; ad. Du. *bezaan* 'mizzen sail.' Obs., rare (1662).

Crumster, Cromster, *n.* (1596), a kind of galley or hoy; f. Du. *krom* 'crooked.' Obs. (1600).

Drumbler, Drumler, *n.* (1598), C17 name for a small fast vessel, used as a transport, also as a piratical ship of war; ad. early mod.Du. *drommeler*, a kind of ship. Obs. (1627).

Fly-boat, *n*. (1577), a fast-sailing vessel used chiefly in C16 and 17 for rapid transport of goods, etc., esp. in the coasting trade (obs. exc. spec. a Du. flat-bottomed boat) and warlike purposes, voyages of discovery, etc.; a kind of frigate (obs. exc. hist.); app. ad. Du. *vlieboot*, orig. denoting one of the small boats used on the *Vlie* or channel leading out of the Zuiderzee, afterwards applied in ridicule to the small vessels used against the Spaniards by the *Gueux de mer*. Associated very early on in Eng. with 'fly,' *v*.

Hoy, *n*. (1495), a small vessel, usually rigged as a sloop, and employed in carrying passengers and goods, particularly in short distances on the sea-coast; app. ad. MDu. *hoei*, pl. *hoeyen*, variant of *hoede*, *heude*, *huede*, mod.Du. *heude* (obs.), *heu*.

Flushinger, *n*. (1689), a vessel (also a sailor) from Flushing; f. the Dutch port Flushing (Du. *Vlissingen*) + *-er*.

Keel, *n*. (1421) (keeler, *n*. 1322. Rare), a flat-bottomed vessel, esp. of the kind used on the Tyne and Wear for the loading of colliers; a lighter; app. a. MDu. *kiel* 'ship,' 'boat.'

Koff, *n*. (1794), a clumsy sailing-vessel with two masts, used by the Dutch, Germans, Danes, etc.; f. Du. *kof*. Rare.

Pink, *n*. (1471), a small sailing vessel, usually having a narrow stern; spec. a flat-bottomed boat with bulging sides, used for coasting and fishing; a small warship in which the stern broadens out at the level of the upper deck to accommodate quarter guns, used esp. in the Danish navy; app. ad. MDu. *pincke* 'small sea-going ship,' 'fishing-boat.' A compound is *sword-pink*, *n*. (1614), a pink with lee-boards; f. Du. *zwaard* 'lee-board' (Llewellyn 1936:70).

Pont, *n*. (1631), a large flat-bottomed boat or float; in SA: a large flat-bottomed ferry boat operating on a rope or cable; ad. Du. *pont* 'ferryboat.' Rare.

Pram, *n*. (1531), an open, flat-bottomed boat or lighter, used esp. in the Baltic and the Netherlands for shipping cargo; a large, flat-bottomed boat mounted with guns and used as a floating battery (hist.); a ship's boat (rare); US: a very small, flat-bottomed, square-bowed boat, used with sails or oars, esp. as a fishing boat; f. MDu. *praem*, *prame* (mod.Du. *pram*) or MLG *prâm*, *prame*.

Schuit, *n*. (1666), a Du. flat-bottomed river-boat; f. MDu. *schûte* 'ship,' 'boat.' See also **Scout**, **Shout**.

Scout, *n*. (1419), a flat-bottomed boat; a Du. vessel, galliot rigged, used in the river trade of Holland; a vessel more or less similar used in warfare; a. MDu. *schûte* (mod.Du. *schuit*). See also **Schuit**, **Shout**.

Sloop, *n*. (1629), a small, one-masted, fore-and-aft rigged vessel, differing from a cutter in having a jib-stay and standing bowsprit; a relatively small ship-of-war, carrying guns

on the upper deck only (in full *sloop-of-war*); a large open boat; a long-boat (obs.); ad. Du. *sloep* (Fris. and LG *slûp*, e.mod.Du. *sloepe*, LG *slupe*); the history of the Du. and LG word is obscure, but it appears more probable that it is an ad. of Fr. *chaloupe* or Sp. *chalupa*, than that it is the source of these.

Tjalk, *n*. (1861), a kind of Du. ship or sailing boat; ad. Du. and LG. *tjalk*, a kind of ship, a. WFris. *tsjalk*.

Track-boat, *n*. (1632), a boat which is tracked or towed; a tow-boat. Orig. Sc., rendering of Du. *trek-schuit*. See also **treckschuit**, **treck-**.

Trekschuit, **Treck-**, *n*. (1696), a canal- or river-boat drawn by horses, carrying passengers and goods, as in common use in Holland; a track-boat; f. Du. *trekschuit*, formerly -*schuyt*, f. *trek*, *n*. or *trek-*, *v*.-stem of *trekken* 'to draw,' 'pull,' 'tug' + *schuit*. See also **Track-boat**.

Yacht, *n*. (1557), a light fast-sailing ship, in early use esp. for the conveyance of royal or other important persons; later, a vessel, usually light and comparatively small, propelled by motive power other than oars, and used for pleasure excursions, cruising, etc., and now esp. one built and rigged for racing; light sailing vessel, fast piratical ship; ad. e.mod.Du. *jaght(e)* (mod.Du. *jacht*), f. *jaghtschip* (lit. 'hunting,' 'chasing ship').

Fishing boats

Cag, *n*. (1666), a small fishing-vessel; f. Du. *kaag* (e.mod.Du. *kaghe*, LG *kag*). Llewellyn (1936:95) gives 1596 as the first recorded instance, although this seems to refer to the use of 'cag' as a container: '1596 *Wills & Inv. N.C.* (1860) II. 263 Iij cagges of strudg~shon..ij cagges of eaylles' (OED online), i.e. '3 cags of sturgeon … 2 cags of eels.' Obs. (1667).

Corver, *n*. (c1491), a kind of Du. herring-fisher and fishing-boat; a. MDu. *corver* 'a fisherman,' and 'fishing ship' (of some kind): cf. the phrase *te corve varen* 'to go a fishing in a *korfscip*;' *korfharinck* 'a herring' (of some kind), *korfmarct* 'the market where the fish were sold.' Of uncertain origin: possibly from *corf*, *korf* 'basket.' Obs. (c1491).

Crab-skuit, *n*. (1614), a small open fishing-boat with sails; ad. Du. *krab-schuyte*, f. *krabbe* 'crab' + *schuit* 'boat.' Obs. (1614).

Herring-buss, *n*. (1615), a two- or three-masted vessel used in the herring-fishery; a. Du. *haring-buis*. Cf. **Buss**. Obs. exc. hist. (1831).

Hooker, *n* (1641), a two-masted Du. coasting or fishing vessel; a one-masted fishing smack on the Irish coast and south-west of England, similar to a hoy in build; also applied depreciatively or fondly to a ship; app. orig. a. Du. *hoeker*, *hoecker-schip* 'a dogger-boat,' *hoeck-boot* 'a fishing-boat,' f. *hoeck* 'hook.'

Jagger, *n*. (1615), a sailing-vessel which followed a fishing fleet in order to bring the fish from the busses (see **Buss** below) and to supply these with stores and provisions; a. Du. *jager*, abbrev. of *haringjager*, f. *haring* 'herring' + *jagen* 'to chase,' 'dog,' 'pursue.' Obs. (1808).

Trading and merchant vessels

Coper, **Cooper**, *n*. (1881), a vessel fitted out to supply ardent spirits, etc. usually in exchange for fish, to the deep-sea fishers in the North Sea; a floating grog-shop; a. Fl. and Du. *kooper*, Fris. and LG *kôper*, 'purchaser,' 'trader,' 'dealer,' f. *koopen* 'to buy,' 'deal,' 'trade.' Usually spelled *cooper* in the newspapers 1881-84, but pronounced *coper* by the fishermen, and so spelled in the publications of the Mission to Deep Sea Fishermen.

Bilander, *n*. (1656), a two-masted merchant vessel, a kind of hoy, distinguished by the trapezoidal shape of the mainsail; used in Holland for coast and canal traffic; ad. Du. *bijlander* 'a vessel with one large mast, sailing on the coast,' 'a lighter,' f. Du. *bij* 'by' + *land* 'land.' Llewellyn (1936:71), however, states that 'the name is probably a corruption of *binlander*, from *binnenlander*, short for *binnenlandsvaarder*, a vessel used for inland navigation; in west Flanders *billander* was sometimes considered to stand for *blander*, hence the notion that it should mean *bijlander*, a vessel which sails near the land; the form *belander* also occurs in the Netherlands.'

Boyart, *n*. (1545), f. Du. *boeier* or its equivalent MLG *bojer*, *bojert*, 'a kind of small cargo ship.' See also **Boyer**. Orig. Sc. Obs. exc. hist. (1895).

Boyer, *n*. (1570), a type of Du. sloop or smack, typically used to carry cargo; ad. Du. *boeier*, 'a kind of small cargo ship,' MDu. *boyerscip*, 'a kind of small sailing ship;' 'a kind of small pleasure boat' (late C18); app. f. MDu. *boeyen* 'to raise a ship's side with planks' (Du. *boeien*), perhaps spec. use of *boeyen* 'to put in irons' (with reference to the way the planks were fastened) f. *bōie* 'fetter,' 'shackle,' 'chain.' Rare exc., hist. See also **Boyart**, **Billy-boy**.

Drogher, *n.* (1873), a West Indian coasting vessel; hence transferred to other slow clumsy coasting craft; a. obs. Fr. *drogueur*, 'a ship which fished and dried herring and mackerel,' f. C16 Du. *drogher*, *droogher*, Du. *drooger*, 'a dryer,' f. *droogen* 'to dry.'

4.1.2 Ship parts and shipbuilding

Blind, *n.* (1535), a spritsail; a. Du. *blinde*. Obs. (1535).

Bolm, *n.* (1513), a pole (for punting, etc.[9]); Sc. spelling of *bōm*, a. Flem. or Du. *boom* (used in same sense); independent of the later Eng. ad. **Boom** in other senses. Obs., Sc., rare (1513).

Bomespar, *n.* (1660), a spar of a larger kind; f. Du. *boom* 'tree,' 'pole' + *spar* 'spar.'

Boom, *n.* (1662), a long spar run out from different places in the ship, to extend or boom out the foot of a particular sail; as jib-boom, flying jib-boom, studding-sail booms; that part of a ship's deck where the spare spars are stowed; a pole set up to mark the course of the channel or deep water (obs.); a bar or barrier consisting of a strong chain or line of connected spars, pieces of timber bound together, etc., stretched across a river or the mouth of a harbour to obstruct navigation; a. Du. *boom* 'tree,' 'beam,' 'pole,' taken from Du. in senses in which the Eng. 'beam' was not used. See also **Bolm**.

Boom, *v.* (1627), 'to boom out:' to extend (the foot of a sail) with a boom, f. **Boom**, *n.*; 'to boom off:' to push (a vessel) off with a pole, directly from Du. *boomen* 'to push with a pole,' as the *n.* appears not to be used in this sense. See also **Bolm**.

Garboard, *n.* (1626), the first range of planks laid upon a ship's bottom, next the keel; the corresponding range of plates in an iron vessel; app. a. Du. *gaarboord* (obs.), f. *garen* short for *gaderen* 'to gather' + *boord* 'board.'

Gripe, *n.* (1580), the piece of timber terminating the keel at the forward extremity; orig. *greepe*, ad. Du. *greep* 'grip,' but afterwards assimilated to *gripe*, *n.*

Mers, *n.* (1494), a round-top surrounding the lower masthead on a ship; f. MDu. *merse* (Du. *mars*) 'crow's nest,' 'basket,' 'merchandise.' Also as in the compound *mers clothes* 'streamers and hangings suspended from a round-top.' Sc., obs. (a1600).

Orlop, *n.* (1420-21), a platform covering the hold of a ship and forming the lowest deck, esp. in a ship of more than three decks; also *orlop deck*; ad. MDu. *ouerloop*, *overloop*

[9] To propel by pushing against the bed of a river.

(also as *averloop*; Du. *overloop*) ‘passage,’ ‘walkway,’ ‘ship’s deck’ f. *overloopen* ‘to walk across.’ Acc. to Sandahl a gangway from fore- to after castle (1951:198).

Stoke-hole, *n*. (1840), a hole in the deck through which the fuel is passed for storage; partly ad, partly transl. f. Du. *stookgat*, f. *stoken* ‘to stoke’ + *gat* ‘hole.’

Tafferel, *n*. (1704), the upper part of the flat portion of a ship’s stern above the transom, usually ornamented with carvings, etc., in later use including, and now applied to, the aftermost portion of the poop-rail, and spelled *taffrail*; a. Du. *tafereel* ‘panel,’ ‘picture,’ dim. of *tafel* ‘table.’ The C19 corruption to *taffrail*, with accompanying change of sense, shows confusion of the ending *-rel* with *rail*. See also **Taffrail**.

Taffrail, *n*. (1814), the aftermost portion of the poop-rail of a ship; a C19 alteration of *tafferel*, due to false etymology, the termination *-rel* being taken as *rail*. See also **Tafferel**.

4.1.3 Equipment and tackle

General

Duck, *n*. (1640), a strong untwilled linen (or later, cotton) fabric, lighter and finer than canvas; used for small sails and men’s (esp. sailors’) outer clothing; known only from C17; app. a. C17 Du. *doeck* ‘linen,’ ‘linen cloth.’ Exists as compound *sail-duck*[10] (1776)**,** a. Du. *zeildoek*.

Euphroe, *n*. (1815), a crow-foot dead-eye (long cylindrical blocks with a number of small holes in them, to receive the legs or lines composing the crowfoot); a. Du. *juffrouw* /ˈjʏfrau/, *juffer* ‘dead-eye’ (lit. ‘maiden’).

Handspike, *n*. (1615), a wooden bar, used as a lever or crow, chiefly on ship-board and in artillery-service, rounded at the one end by which it is held and square at the other, and usually shod with iron; ad. e.mod.Du. *handspaecke*, mod.Du. *handspaak*, in same sense (f. *spaak*, MDu. *spake* ‘pole,’ ‘rod’). In Eng. app. assimilated to *spike*. De Vries (1916:123) uses *hankspike* in same sense. See also **Speke**.

Handspike, *v*. (1776), to move or strike with a handspike; f. prec. *n*.

Mass, *n*. (1641), a mesh; ad. Du. *maas* ‘mesh.’ Obs. rare. (1641). App. adopted into Eng. at three different points in time: *mask*, *mass*, *mesh*. See also **Mesh**.

[10] Also as *duck-tape*, now, perhaps due to false etymology, more commonly called *duct-tape*.

Pee, *n*. (1483), a man's coat or jacket of coarse fabric, worn esp. in C16; f. MDu. *pie*, *pij*, article of clothing made of coarse woollen material, esp. as worn by sailors (Du. *pij* 'monk's habit'). Obs. (c1670). See also **Pea-jacket**.

Cordage and rope-work

Span, *n*. (1769), one or other of various ropes or chains used as fastenings or means of connexion on a ship; a. Du. and LG *span* (also MDu. and MLG), f. *spannen* 'to unite,' fasten,' etc.

Splice, *n*. (1627), a joining or union of two portions of rope, cable, cord, etc., effected by untwisting and interweaving the strands at the point of junction (chiefly naut.); f. following *v*.

Splice, *v*. (1524-5), to join (ropes, cables, lines, etc.) by untwisting and interweaving the strands of the ends so as to form one continuous length; to unite (two parts of the same rope) by interweaving the strands of one end into those of another part so as to form an eye or loop; to repair (rigging) in this way; to form (an eye or knot) in a rope by splicing; ad. MDu. *splissen*, of doubtful origin, but perh. related to *split*, *v*.; in the Continental lang. now represented by Du. dial., LG and Ger. *splissen*, WFris. *splisse*, NFris. *splesse*, *splasse*, Sw. *splissa*; also Ger. *spleissen*, *splitsen*, Du. *splitsen*, Sw. *splitsa*, Da. *splidse*. The Du. word is also the source of Fr. *épisser*, whence *épissoir* 'splicing-iron,' and *épissure* 'a splice.'

Trice, *v*. (a1400?), to pull or haul with a rope; spec. naut.; usually with 'up,' to haul or hoist up and secure with a rope or lashing, to lash up; a. MDu. *trîsen*, Du. *trijsen* 'to hoist.'

The fishing industry

Dobber, *n*. (1809), US locally: the float of an angler's fishing-line; a. Du. *dobber* 'float,' 'cork.'

Lask, *n*. (1864), a hook baited with a slice (termed a 'lask') from the side of a mackerel; prob. a. MDu. *lasche*, (prob. pronunc. /ˈlasxə/); mod.Du. *lasch*, pronunc. /las/ 'piece cut out,' 'flap.' Orig. meaning 'scarfed piece,' 'strengthening piece' (Sandahl 1951:73).

Whaling

Cardel, *n*. (1694), a hogshead containing in C17 64 gallons, used in the Du. whaling trade; ad. Du. *kardeel*, *quardeel*; according to Llewellyn properly *quartel*, 'fourth part' (1936:100).

Meck, *n*. (1820), a harpoon rest in a whaleboat; f. Du. *mik* 'forked stick,' 'supporting pole or prop.' App. borrowed into Eng. at three different points in time (see also **Mitch**, **Mike**). Obs. (1867).

Speck, *n*. (1633), fat meat, esp. bacon or pork; the fat or blubber of a whale; the fat of a hippopotamus; now: US and SA; a. Du. *spek* (*speck* (obs.), MDu. *spec*) or Ger. *speck* (MHG *spec*, OHG *spec, speech*, MLG *speck*.

4.1.4 Cargo and freighting

Loss, *v*. (1482), to unload (a vessel), discharge (goods from a vessel); a. Du. *lossen*, f. *los* 'loose' (Llewellyn 1936: 77). Sc., obs. (1609).

Overschippen, *n*. (1759), the transferral of goods from one ship to another; trans-shipment; ad. Du. *overschepen* (MDu. *overscepen*) 'to load into another ship' f. *over-* 'over-' (prefix) + *schepen* 'ship' (*v*.)). The spelling of the headword form is perh. reinforced by Du. *schepen*, pl. of *schip* 'ship' or perh. by Eng. *ship*. Obs., rare (1759).

4.1.5 Manoeuvres, orders, and tactics

General

Gybe, *n*. (1880), the act of bringing over the sail from one side of the vessel to the other; f. following *v*.

Gybe, *v*. (1693), of a fore-and-aft sail or its boom: to swing from one side of the vessel to the other; to cause (a fore-and-aft sail) to swing from one side of the vessel to the other; to alter the course of a boat when the wind is aft so that her boom-sails gybe; said also of the boat itself; also 'to gybe over;' also, to sail round (any object) by gybing; app. a. Du. *gijben* (now *gijpen*); but the initial /ʤ/ is unexplained. Llewellyn suggests that perh. the initial sound was affected by that of *jib*, a type of sail, a word only found in Eng. (1936:80), while Bense

adds that the Eng. word was prob. borrowed in written form rather than by word of mouth; hence the initial /ʤ/ is the result of a 'bad guess' (1939:135).

Laveer, *v*. (1598), to beat to windward; to tack; ad. Du. *laveeren*, in C17 also *loevéren*, MDu. *laeveren*, *loveren*, ad. Fr. (C16) *loveer*, now *louvoyer*, f. *lof* 'windward' (of Du. or LG origin). The Du. word has been adopted in other lang. as Ger. *lavieren*, Sw. *lofvera*, Da. *lavere*. Obs. exc. in literary use (1885).

Under way, *adv*. (1743), of a vessel: having begun to move through the water; often spelt *under weigh*; now freq. as one word: **Underway** (1934); ad. Du. *onderweg* (also -*wegen*) 'on the way,' 'under way,' f. *onder* 'under,' 'in the course of,' etc. + *weg* (dat. pl. *wegen*) 'way.'

Veer, *v* (c1460), to allow (a sheet or other sail-line) to run out to some extent; to let out by releasing; also with 'out' (obs.); to let out (any line or rope); to allow to run out gradually to a desired length; to allow (a boat, buoy, etc.) to drift further off by letting out a line attached to it; usually with 'away' or 'out;' a. MDu. *vieren* 'to let out,' 'slacken.'

Fishing

Balk, *v*. (1603), to signify to fishing-boats the direction taken by the shoals of herrings or pilchards, as seen from heights overlooking the sea; done at first by bawling or shouting, subsequently by signals; prob. a. Du. *balken* 'to bray,' 'bawl,' 'shout,' cognate with OE *bælcan* 'to shout,' 'vociferate' (which would itself have given *balch*). Obs.? (1603).

4.1.6 Piracy and smuggling

Piracy

Caper, *n*. (1657), a privateer (also *caper-vessel*); the captain of a privateer; a corsair; a captor, seizer (Sc. Obs.); a. mod.Du. *kaper* 'privateer,' 'corsair,' f. *kapen*, EFris. *kapen* 'to take away,' 'steal,' 'rob,' 'plunder.' Obs exc. hist. (1759).

Cape, *v*. (1721), (but 1676 acc. to Llewellyn) to take or seize as a privateer; also: to go privateering; a. mod.Du. *kapen* 'to take,' 'pilfer,' 'plunder;' *te kaap varen* 'to go a-privateering.' Obs. (1721).

Free-boot, *n*. (1598), plunder, robbery; either f. *free* + *boot*, after **Freebooter**, or perhaps directly f. Du. *vrijbuit*. Obs. (1663).

Freeboot, *v*. (1592), to act as a freebooter, to plunder; later (C17): *to freebooter* (obs., rare); app. back-formation f. **Freebooter**, *n*.

Freebooter, *n*. (1570), originally: a privateer; later more generally: a piratical adventurer, a pirate; any person who goes about in search of plunder; f. Du. *vrijbuiter* 'privateer,' 'pirate,' 'robber' f. *vrijbuit* 'prize,' 'spoils,' 'plunder' (1575: chiefly in the phr. *op vrijbuit varen, op vrijbuit gaan* 'to go capturing ships or plundering,' and variants; f. *vrij* 'free' + *buit* 'booty.'

Free-booty, *n*. (1623), plunder or spoil (to be) taken by or with the threat of force; f. *free* + *booty*, after **Freebooter**. Rare.

Smuggling

Lorendriver, *n*. (1649), a smuggler; ad. Du. *lorrendraaier* 'smuggler'. Only recorded once in the Eng. lang. Obs., rare (1649).

4.1.7 Naval forces, ships, and warfare

Matross, *n*. (1639), an artillery soldier next in rank below a gunner; in the US artillery: a private; ad. Du. *matroos* 'sailor of the lowest rank', this again f. Fr. *matelots*, pl. of *matelot* 'sailor.' Mil., now hist.

Quartermaster, *n*. (1415), a petty or warrant officer aboard a warship responsible to the captain for stowing provisions and ensuring the correct trim of the ship, for care of navigational instruments and for steering, and (subsequently) for general discipline; if female: *quartermistress*; in extended use: steering gear (obs.); f. *quarter* + *master*, ad. MDu. *quartiermeester*, Du. *kwartiermeester* 'naval officer responsible for organizing the watches' (also 'official responsible for the superintendence of a district').

Quartermaster, *v*. (1862), to perform the duties of a quartermaster (for); also with 'it;' f. prec.*n*.

4.1.8 Maritime crew and related persons

Dikegrave, *n*. (1563), in Holland, an officer whose function it is to take charge of the dikes or sea-walls; in England (esp. Lincolnshire) (as *dike-reeve*), an officer who has charge of the drains, sluices, and sea-banks of a district under the Court of Sewers; a. MDu. *dijcgrave*, mod.Du. *dijkgraaf*, f. *dijk* 'dike' + *graaf* 'count,' 'earl.' Now only dial. (*di*'*grave*).

Outloper, *n*. (1566), an unauthorized trader trespassing on the rights of a trade monopoly; replaced by *interloper* in late C16; prob. f. *outlope* + *-er* (suffix), after MDu. *uteloper*[11]. Prev. thought to have been in the sense of 'one who makes a run out,' e.g. on a voyage of adventure (1583), though still regarded as ad. Du. (Llewellyn 1936:78; Bense 1939:254). Obs. (1583).

Sea-fardinger, *n*. (a1550), a seafarer; perh. alteration of Du. *zeevaarder* 'seafarer,' after passenger. Arch.

Skeeman, *n*. (1820), the officer who has the direction of operations conducted in the hold; ad. Du. *schieman* (1549, f. MDu. *scimman*, *scipman* (J. de Vries & de Tollenaere 1991:322)) (hence Ger. *schiemann*, Fr. *esquiman*) 'boatswain's mate,' formerly also *schimman* (so in LG of 1557), possibly f. *schipman* 'shipman.' Bense (1939:380) is 'greatly surprised' at this very late Eng. borrowing of the Du. word as it was already obsolete in Du. in C19; in a C15 Eng. transl. of a Du. description of the payment received by mariners *schimman* is translated with **Quartermaster**.

Stoker, *n*. (1660), one who feeds and tends a furnace; a person employed to feed and trim the fires for the boilers of marine steam-engines; a. Du. *stoker* f. *stoken* 'to feed' (a fire), 'to stoke.'

Swabber, *n*. (1592), one of a ship's crew whose business it was to swab the decks, etc.; a petty officer who had charge of the cleaning of the decks; one who behaves like a sailor of low rank; a low or unmannerly fellow; a term of contempt; a. e.mod.Du. *zwabber*, f. *zwabben*.

[11] Verdam (1979:631) defines MDu. *uteloper* as *hij die iets (een gild) verlaat* 'he who leaves something (a guild),' which corresp. better with the first sense under **Outloper**.

4.1.9 Types of fish and whale, and related terms

Fish and related terms

Brassem, *n*. (1731), a kind of fish, perh. a sea-bream; a. Du. (and MDu.) *brasem* 'bream.' Obs. (1790).

Butt, *n*. (a1300), a name applied variously in different places to kinds of flat fish, as sole, fluke, plaice, turbot, etc.; OED finds its origin obscure and finds cognates with Sw. *butta* 'turbot,' mod.Ger. *butte*, Du. *bot* 'flounder;' it suggests a possible ad. f. the blunt shape of the head (cf. Da. *but* 'stumpy'). Llewellyn (1936:92) and Bense (1939:32) agree, however, in that it is improbable that the Eng. word comes f. Scand. as Da. *bøtte*, Sw. *butta* are from MLG *but* (LG *butte*) or MDu. *botte, butte*. In addition, the source of the first recorded instance of **Butt** in Eng. is *Havelok*, a poem of Lincolnshire origin, which mentions **Butt** alongside **Schulle**. This region was often frequented by Du. and Flem. fishermen in C13 and C14. As such, Eng. **Butt** is most likely ad. MDu.

Butkin, *n*. (1526), a small fish; a dim. of the prec. *n*., possibly f. *butt* + *-kin*, or 'a direct borrowing from the Flem. dim. of *botte, butte*' (Llewellyn 1936:92). Obs. (1526).

Garnel, **Gernel**, *n*. (1694), a species of shrimp; a. Du. *garnaal*, dial. *garneel*. Obs. (1694).

Haye, *n*. (1613), a shark, or a particular species of shark (also hay-fish); a. Du. *haai*, pl. *-en*, WFlem. *haaie, haeye*, whence also Sw. *haj*, mod.Ger. *hai*. Obs. (1867).

Mattie, *n*. (1721), a young herring in which the roe or milt is not fully developed, esp. one which has been salted or pickled at this stage; also more generally: any salted or pickled (filleted) herring; more fully *mattie herring*; partly ad. Du. *maatjes*, short for *maatjesharing*, alteration of e.mod.Du. *maetgens haringh* (1604), *maeghdekens haerinck* (1599), MDu. *medykens hering, meeckens hering* (1466-7) f. MDu. *māgedekijn* 'girl' (f. *māghet* 'maiden' + *-kijn*, dim. suffix+ *harinc* 'herring;' and partly ad. the similarly formed Ger. regional (LG) *Madikes-hering* (MLG *mādikes hērink*). The *-s* of the Du. and LG forms was prob. orig. interpreted as the pl. suffix, whence Eng. sg. forms without *-s*. The wide variation in forms (*matkie, matkiss, matje, matie* (E. Anglian), *madgie* (north-east.), *matchie* (Shetland)) suggests that independent borrowing may have occurred over a long period.

Pickle-herring, *n*. (1463-4), a pickled herring; ad. MDu. or e.mod.Du *peeckel-harinck*, MLG. *pekel-herink*, both in the same sense (Llewellyn 1936:92; Bense 1939:279); acc. to OED f. *pickle* (f. MDu.) + *herring* (f. OE).

Rope-sick, *adj*. (1614), of herring: infested with parasitic worms; ad. Du. *ropziek*. Obs. (1642).

Scaffling, *n*. (1589), a kind of eel. a. MDu. *sc(h)afteling(h)*, *scaflingh*. Obs., rare (1611).

School, *n*. (c1400), a shoal or large number of fish, porpoises, whales, etc. swimming together whilst feeding or migrating; a. Du. *school* 'troop,' 'multitude,' '"school" of whales.'

Snook, *n*. (1697), a name given to various fishes, esp. the sergeant-fish, *Elacate canada*, and the robalo, *Centropomus undecimalis*; ad. Du. *snoek* 'pike.'

Spirling, **Spurling**, *n*. (c1425), a smelt; a. MLG *spirling* or MDu. *spierling*, a variant is *spurling* (a1471) (obs.), while *sparling* is ad. OF *esperlinge*, of Teutonic origin (1307-8) (north., Sc.). Now chiefly Sc.

Whiting, *n*. (14..), a gadoid fish of the genus *Merlangus*, esp. *M. vulgaris*, a small fish with pearly white flesh, abundant off the coast of Great Britain, and highly esteemed as food; locally applied to fishes of other genera; ad. (M)Du. *wijting*.

Whales and related terms

Clapmatch, *n*. (1743), a kind of seal; app. a. Du. *klapmuts* 'sailor's cap:' so called from the animal's cartilaginous hood.

Hovel, *n*. (1694), the bump on the top of a whale's head; ad. Du. *heuvel*, MDu. *hövel*, *hovel* 'hill,' also 'hump,' 'boss,' 'knob.'

Kreng, **Crang**, *n*. (1821), the carcass of a whale after the blubber has been removed; the flesh of a dead whale; a. Du. *kreng*, MDu. *crenge* 'carrion,' 'carcass;' of uncertain origin.

Lull, *n*. (1836), a tube to convey blubber into the hold; also *lull-bag*; a. Du. *lul* 'tube.'

Potfish, *n*. (1744),the sperm whale, *Physeter macrocephalus*; f. Du. *potvis*; prob. f. *pot* 'pot' (on account of the shape of its head) + *vis* 'fish;' cf. slightly earlier *potvis* (**Potfish**). Obs (1867).

Potwalfish, *n*. (1694), the sperm whale, *Physeter macrocephalus*; ad. Du. *pots-wal-visch* (obs.); prob. f. *pot* 'pot' + *walvisch* 'whalefish,' with unexplained *-s*, perh. simply representing the gen. sg. ending. Obs (1763).

Specksioner, **Specksioneer**, *n*. (1820), a harpooner, usually the chief harpooner, of a whaler, who directs the operation of flensing the whale or cutting up the blubber; ad. Du. *speksnijer*, colloquial form of *speksnijder*, f. **Speck** + *snijden* 'to cut' 'with dropping of

intervocalic *d*' (Llewellyn 1936:101). The Du. *ij* was formerly, and is still locally, pronounced as /i:/.

Sea-birds

Rotge, *n*. (1694), the little auk, *Alle alle*. app. f. Du. *rotge*, of uncertain origin; perh. f. a first element imitative of the call of the bird + a variant of *-tje*, dim. suffix. With later use cf. *rotche, rotchie*. Rare.

4.1.10 Natural and man-made marine and coastal features

Beer, *n*. (1629), a mole or pier; f. Du. *beer* 'brick bank,' 'mole,' 'pier' (Bense 1939:8). Obs., rare (1629).

Brack, *n*., *adj*. (1522), as *adj*.: salt, briny, brackish; as *n*. (1591): salt water, brine, the sea; prob. (as a naut. word) a. Du. *brak* 'brackish.' Derivatives include *brackish, brackishness*, and *bracky*. Obs. (1827).

Creek, *n*. (c1250), a narrow recess or inlet in the coast-line of the sea, or the tidal estuary of a river; an armlet of the sea which runs inland in a comparatively narrow channel and offers facilities for harbouring and unloading smaller ships; ME *crike, cryke* (*ī*), corresponds to Fr. *crique* (C14); *creke*, (rare in ME but common in C16) corresponds to earlier Du. *krēke*, mod.Du. *kreek* 'creek,' 'bay,' and to med. (Anglo) L *creca* (sometimes *crecca*) 'creek;' and *crick*, resembles Sw. dial. *krik* 'bend,' 'nook,' 'corner,' 'creek,' 'cove,' and Icel. *kriki* 'crack,' 'nook' (*handarkriki* 'armpit'), but is prob. an Eng. shortening of Fr. *crique, crike*. Acc. to Llewellyn (1936:82) the word may have been ad. f. both Fr. and LDu. into Eng., although the Du. form eventually replaced the Fr.

Dock, *n*. (1486), the bed (in the sand or ooze) in which a ship lies dry at low water; the hollow made by a vessel lying in the sand (obs.); (app.) a creek or haven in which ships may lie on the ooze or ride at anchor, according to the tide (obs.); a trench, canal, or artificial inlet, to admit a boat, etc. (obs.); an artificial basin excavated, built round with masonry, and fitted with flood-gates, into which ships are received for purposes of loading and unloading or for repair; usually in sg.: a wharf or pier; a quay. (orig. US); as *docke, doc, dock* (now *dok*) occur

in the same sense in MDu. Skeat (1910:178), Llewellyn (1936:82f) and Bense (1939:77) agree that the word must be of Du. origin. From Du. and Eng. it has passed into other lang.

Dock, *v*. (1518), to bring or put (a ship) into station or anchorage in a roadstead, etc. (obs.); to bring or put (a vessel) ashore where it may rest in the ooze, or in some trench, or creek; to take, bring, or receive (a ship) into a dock (in the modern sense); to furnish or lay out with docks; now also: to join (a space vehicle) to another in space; f. prec. *n*.

Iceberg, *n*. (1774), a detached portion of a glacier carried out to sea; a huge floating mass of ice, often rising to a great height above the water; formerly also called *ice-island*, also *island* or *shoal of ice*; freq. shortened to *berg*; ad. form of the term employed in several of the cognate lang., MDu., Du. *ijsberg*, Ger. *eisberg*, Da. *isbjerg*, Sw. *isberg* (f. *is* 'ice' + *berg* 'hill,' 'mountain'); prob. taken immediately from Du.

Maelstrom, *n*. (1589), a powerful whirlpool, orig. (attested first as *Malestrand*, prob. confused with the name Malestrand (now Marstrand) in southern Sweden) one in the Arctic Ocean off the west coast of Norway, which was formerly supposed to suck in and destroy all vessels within a wide radius; f. e.mod.Du. *maelstrom* (now *maalstroom*) 'whirlpool,' f. *malen* 'to grind,' 'to whirl round' + *stroom* 'stream.' The use of *maelstrom* as a proper name (also in Fr.) seems to come from Du. maps, e.g. that in Mercator's *Atlas* (1595). There is little doubt that the word is native to Du. (compare synonymous LG *Maling*). It is true that it is found in all the modern Scand. lang. as a common *n*., but in them it is purely literary, and likely to have been adopted from Du.

Reef (2), *n*.[12] (1579), a ridge or bank of rock, sand, shingle, etc., lying just above or just below the surface of the sea or another body of water, usu. in such a way as to pose a hazard to shipping; in later use freq. spec.: a ridge of this kind formed of coral; ad. e.mod.Du. *riffe*, *riff* (Du. *rif*) and the related MLG *rif*, *ref* (Ger. regional (LG) *Reff*, *Riff* (Ger. *Riff*)), both app. f. early Scand. (cf. Old Icel. *rif*, Far. *riv*, Norw. *rev*, (Nynorsk) *riv*, Sw. *rev*, early modern Da. *reff*, *riff* (Danish *rev*)).

4.1.11 Miscellaneous

Bottomry, *n*. (1622), a species of contract of the nature of a mortgage, whereby the owner of a ship, or the master as his agent, borrows money to enable him to carry on or complete a

[12] There are two instances of *reef* imported from Dutch, hence the label '(2).' *Reef* (1) is found in Appendix A.

voyage, and pledges the ship as security for repayment of the money. If the ship is lost, the lender loses his money; but if it arrives safe, he receives the principal together with the interest or premium stipulated, however it may exceed the usual or legal rate of interest; f. *bottom* + *-ry*, after Du. *bodmerij*.

Bottomry, *v*. (1755), to pledge (a ship) as security for money lent; f. prec. *n*.

Keelhaul, *v*. (1666), to haul (a person) under the keel of a ship, either by lowering him on one side and hauling him across to the other side, or, in the case of smaller vessels, lowering him at the bows and drawing him along under the keel to the stern; f. Du. *kielhalen* (with the elements anglicised as *keel*, *haul*); cf. also Ger. *kielholen*, Da. *kjølhale*, Sw. *kölhala*, app. all from Du.

Mallemaroking, *n*. (1812), the boisterous and drunken exchange of hospitality between sailors in extreme northern waters; f. Du *mallemerok* 'silly woman,' 'fool' (f. *mal* 'foolish,' 'silly,' 'mad' + *merok*, *marok*, *marot* 'fool,' f. Fr. *marotte* 'pet subject,' 'dummy head' + *-ing* (suffix)). Rare.

Split, *v*. (1590), of storms, rocks, etc.: to break up (a ship); to cause to part asunder; of persons: to suffer shipwreck; to have (one's vessel) wrecked; of wind: to rend or tear (a sail); also of persons or a vessel: to have (a sail) rent or torn by the wind; 'splitting the books,' the making of a new complete book after payment, in which the dead, run, or discharged men are omitted (naut.); ad. MDu. *splitten* (Du. *splitten*, WFris. *splitte*).

Wagoner, **Waggoner**, *n*. (1687), origin. the atlas of charts published by Lucas Janssen Waghenaer in 1584 under the title *Spieghel der Zeevaerdt* (Eng. transl. *The Mariners Mirror*, by Sir A. Ashley, 1588). Hence generally a book of charts for naut. use; f. anglicized form of the Du. surname *Waghenaer*. Obs. exc. hist. (1916).

4.2 Summarizing the *OED Online* results

As seen amongst the 115 words above, some lemmas include different spellings of a word. While the loanwords have been used in English with a variety of spellings, I have included an optional spelling there where this is used under the heading in the *OED Online*. It may be noted that even words that are not deemed obsolete sometimes retain archaic-looking spellings (e.g. *schuit*). Perhaps the *OED* is not fully up-to-date when it comes to which words are truly no longer in use. In any case, it says this regarding their 'obsolete'-policies:

> If an entry, sense, or lemma is no longer in use in the English language, it may be considered obsolete. This usually means that no evidence for the term can be found in modern English. The latest quotation indicates the period when the term was last in use. (*OED Online*, 'Glossary')

However, it also admits that some entries may need to be revised or updated, and that if they can find no evidence for the usage of a word after 1900 they may need to add the label 'obs.' (*OED Online*, 'Frequently asked questions').

The following table juxtaposes the obsolete and non-obsolete loanwords:

Table 4.1: Distribution of non-obsolete vs. obsolete loanwords

Non-obsolete	**Non-obsolete**	**Obsolete**
bilander	maelstrom	balk
bomespar	mallemaroking	beer
boom, *n*.	matross	bezan
boom, *v*.	mattie	blind
bottomry, *n*.	orlop	bolm
bottomry, *v*.	pickle-herring	boyart
boyer	pink	brack
butt	pont	brassem
cardel	pram	butkin
clapmatch	quartermaster, *n*.	cag
coper, cooper	quartermaster, *v*.	cape
creek	reef (2)	caper
dikegrave	rotge	corver
dobber	school	crab-skuit
dock, *n*.	schuit	crumster, cromster
dock, *v*.	scout	drumbler, drumler
drogher	sea-fardinger	free-boot, *n*.
duck	skeeman	garnel, gernel
euphroe	sloop	haye
flushinger	snook	herring-buss
fly-boat	span	jagger
freeboot, *v*.	speck	laveer
freebooter	specksioner, specksioneer	lorendriver
free-booty	spirling, spurling	loss
garboard	splice, *n*.	mass
gripe	splice, *v*.	meck
gybe, *n*.	split	mers
gybe, *v*.	stokehole	outloper
handspike, *n*.	stoker	overschippen
handspike, *v*.	swabber	pee
hooker	tafferel	potfish
hovel	taffrail	potwalfish
hoy	tjalk	rope-sick
iceberg	track-boat	scaffling
keel	trekschuit, treck-	wagoner, waggoner
keelhaul	trice	
koff	under way	
kreng, crang	veer	
lask	whiting	
lull	yacht	

Note that grammatical labels (i.e. *n.* or *v.*) are only given there where a distinction between a noun form and a verb form is necessary due to the root forms of the word being the same.

There are thus (according to the *OED Online*) more than twice as many words still in use (80) than words that are obsolete (35). When, then, have these words been adopted into English?

One of the advantages of the *OED Online* is that it gives the year a word was first used in print. This presents a rather clear picture of when the Dutch nautical loanwords were adopted in English (while bearing in mind that the progress from oral to printed usage, and *vice versa*, may take some time). Figure 4.1 shows the rate of the adoption of the loanwords, distinguishing between obsolete and non-obsolete words:

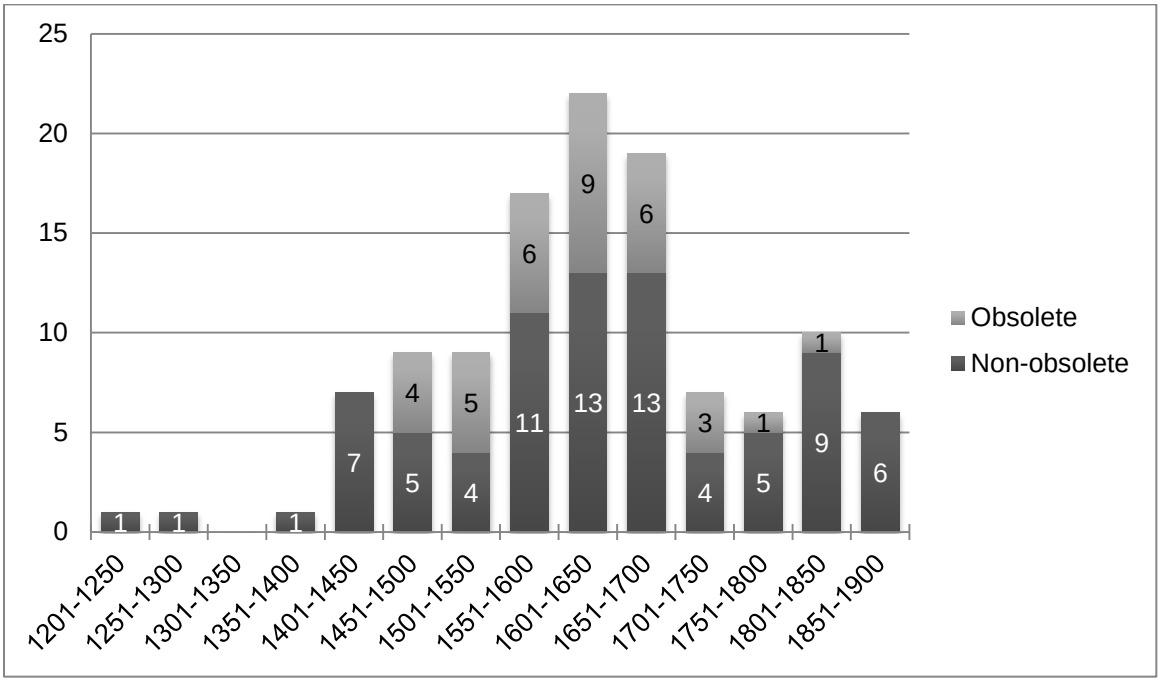

Figure 4.1: Dutch nautical loanwords, obsolete and non-obsolete, adopted into English per 50 years

Note, as specified in Section 3.2.4, that these only include the loanwords discussed in Section 4.1.1-4.1.11 above, and not those found in Appendix A.

4.2.1 When did some of the words become obsolete?

One of the more interesting questions is when the words discussed in this chapter became, at least according to the *OED Online*, obsolete. This information is presented in Table 4.2:

Table 4.2: Date of last quotation for obsolete loanwords

Headword	Adopted	Obsolete	Headword	Adopted	Obsolete
balk	1603	1603	haye	1613	1867
beer	1629	1629	herring-buss	1615	1831
bezan	1662	1662	jagger	1615	1808
blind	1535	1535	laveer	1598	1885
bolm	1513	1513	lorendriver	1649	1649
boyart	1545	1895	loss	1482	1609
brack	1522	1827	mass	1641	1641
brassem	1731	1790	meck	1820	1867
butkin	1526	1526	mers	1494	1600
cag	1666	1667	outloper	1566	1583
cape	1676	1721	overschippen	1759	1759
caper	1657	1759	pee	1483	1670
corver	1491	1491	potfish	1744	1867
crab-skuit	1614	1614	potwalfish	1694	1763
crumster, cromster	1596	1600	rope-sick	1614	1642
drumbler, drumler	1598	1627	scaffling	1589	1611
free-boot, *n*.	1598	1663	wagoner, waggoner	1687	1916
garnel, gernel	1694	1694			

In about a third of the cases the similar dates of adoption and of becoming obsolete show that many of the loanwords are only found in a single quotation. These words are: *balk*, *beer*, *bezan*, *blind*, *bolm*, *butkin*, *corver*, *crab-skuit*, *garnel*/*gernel*, *lorendriver*, *mass*, and *overschippen*. An almost similar amount of words fell into disuse within 50-60 years of their first quotations: *brassem*, *cape*, *crumster*/*cromster*, *drumbler*/*drumler*, *free-boot* (*n*.), *meck*, *outloper*, *potwalfish*, *rope-sick*, and *scaffling*. Another, *cag*, seemingly only lasted one year.

4.2.2 Loanwords originating from the same sources

When comparing the dates of the first quotations for the loanwords listed in Section 4.1, it transpires that some of them have the same date. For many of these, but not all, this is because they stem from the same work. So we see that *crabskuit* and *rope-sick* both come from T. Gentleman's 1614 book *England's Way to Win Wealth*, while E.S.'s *Britaines Busse* from the following year mentions *herring-buss*, *jagger*, and *handspike* (*n*.). In 1627 Captain John Smith's *A Sea Grammar* brought *boom* (*v*.) and *splice* (*n*.). Another Smith published two works in 1641, *True Narr*. *Royall Fishings* and *Herring-buss Trade*, giving the first evidence for *hooker* and *mass*. *The London Gazette*, 'the 25th most frequently quoted source in the

OED' (*OED Online*), has provided quotes for three loanwords from 1666: *schuit*, *cag*, and *keelhaul*. The work with the highest number of first quotations of words relevant for this thesis is John Narborough's 1694 book *An Account of several late Voyages and Discoveries to the South and North*, where we find *cardel*, *garnel* and *gernel* (both forms), *hovel*, *potwalfish*, and *rotge*. Finally, W. Scoresby provides us with the first mention of *meck*, *skeeman*, and *specksioneer* in *An Account of the Arctic Regions* from 1820.

About half of these words are now obsolete as stated by the *OED Online*. Usually, some words from the same work have become obsolete while others are still in use. No apparent pattern is readily discernable.

4.2.3 Grammatical distribution

I briefly touched upon how the loanwords were distributed grammatically in Section 2.2. Figure 4.2 below shows this distribution for the 115 loanwords discussed here:

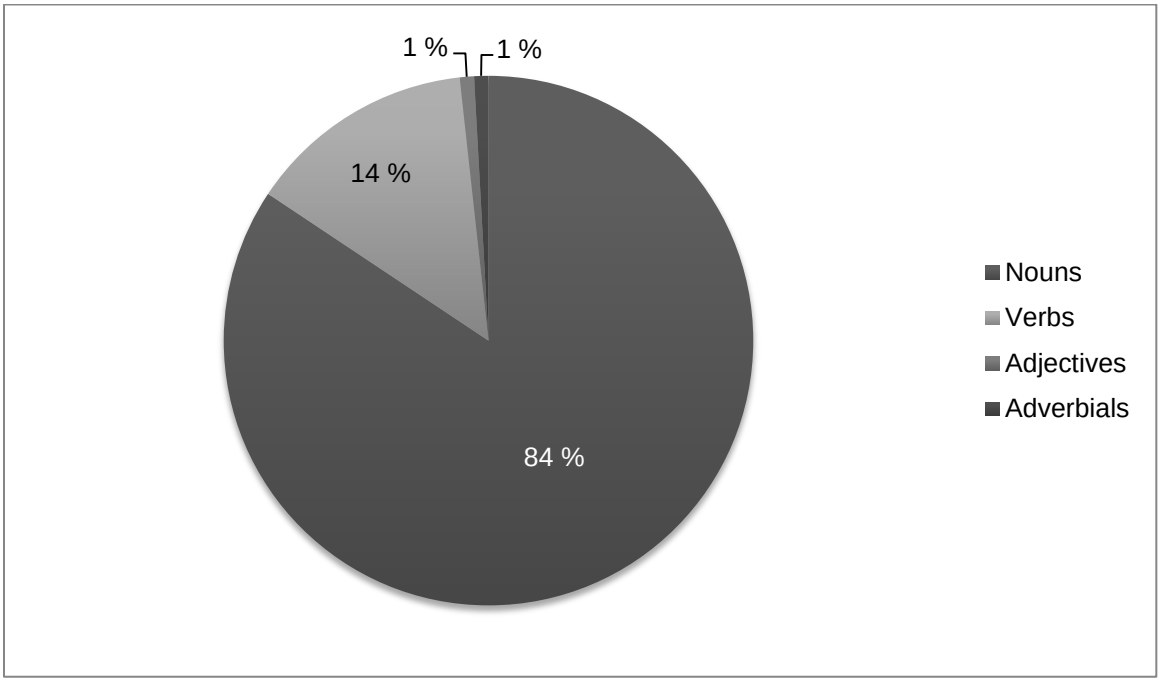

Figure 4.2: Grammatical distribution among loanwords from 'certain' category

As mentioned before, only the results from the category 'certain' will be studied in depth here. It may still be interesting to see the grammatical distribution for the grand total of the 256 Dutch nautical loanwords, i.e. from all three categories—thus combining the words

presented in this chapter as well as those in Appendix A. These numbers are presented in Figure 4.3:

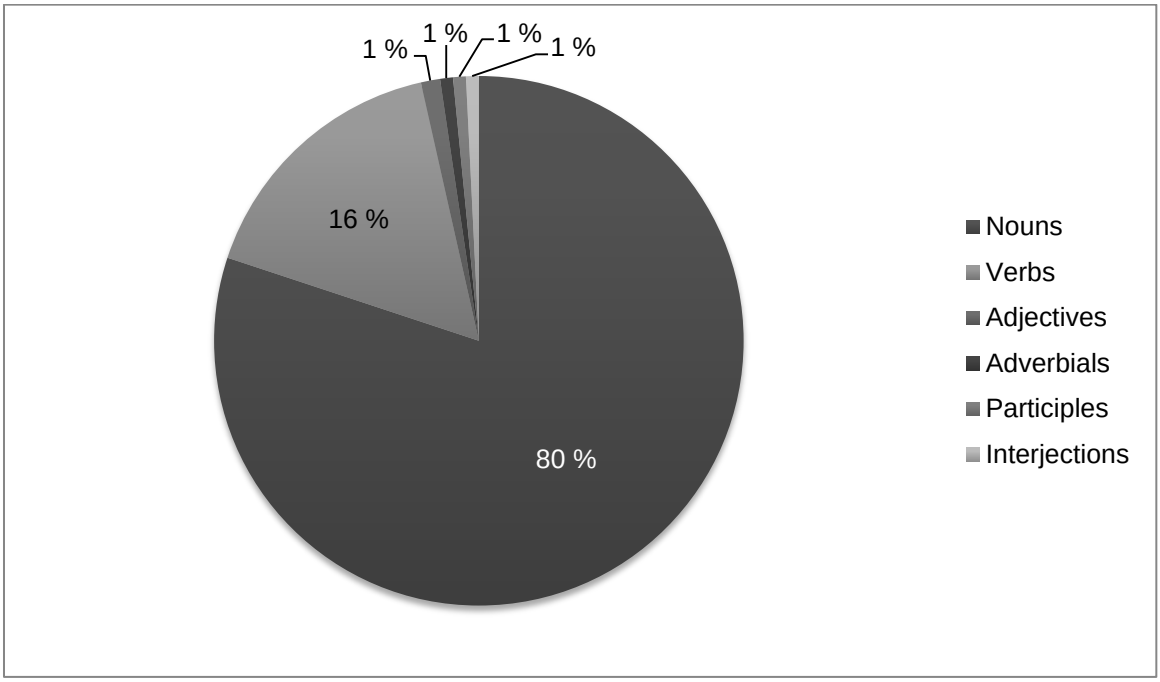

Figure 4.3: Grammatical distribution of loanwords from 'certain,' 'possible,' and 'suggested' categories

As expected, the numbers from Figures 4.2 and 4.3 distribute themselves along the same lines.

4.3 *COHA* results

Here, the most important and relevant results from the diachronic *COHA* study will be presented and discussed. Due to its size and complexity, it is not beneficial to show the full table of results from the study here, although the most important information can be found in Appendix B.

4.3.1 The distribution of hits

In the *OED Online*, if a word is deemed to be obsolete the last quotation in the entry is the last occurrence of that word in written English texts. For this reason, and in the interest of time, only the headwords without the label 'obs.' were searched in *COHA*.

Of the 82 non-obsolete loanwords from the 'certain' category looked up in *COHA*, 31 resulted in no hits at all. Another 19 *did* result in hits, but not in the relevant nautical sense (e.g. *mattie* was found as a personal noun, but not as a 'young herring' (see Section 4.1.9)). The number of relevant nautical loanwords found was 35, but since *school* had to be disregarded (see Section 3.2.2) we end up with 34. The headwords without hits are presented in Table 4.3, below:

Table 4.3: Non-obsolete loanwords with no hits or no relevant nautical hits in *COHA*

No hits	**No relevant hits**
bilander	boom, *v*.
bomespar	boyer
bottomry, *n*.	butt
bottomry, *v*.	coper
cardel	cooper
clapmatch	gripe
dikegrave	handspike, *v*.
dobber	hovel
drogher	keel
euphroe	koff
flushinger	lask
fly-boat	lull
free-boot, *v*.	mattie
free-bootery	pink
free-booty	pont
gybe, *n*.	quartermaster, *v*.
gybe, *v*.	scout
kreng, crang	span
mallemaroking	spurling
pickle-herring	
rotge	
schuit	
sea-fardinger	
skeeman	
specksioner, specksioneer	
spirling	
stoke-hole	
tafferel	
tjalk	
track-boat	
trekschuit, treck-	

Three of the headwords, *coper*/*cooper*, *spirling*/*spurling*, and *under way*/*underway*, were found to have alternative spellings. These are found under the same lemma in the wordlist (see Sections 4.1.1, 4.1.9, and 4.1.5, respectively), but were counted separately during the *COHA* research because they could potentially yield different results. This explains why the

numbers in the preceding paragraph add up to 85 instead of 82. In the second of these pairs, *spirling* belongs to the 31 words with no hits, while *spurling* is one of the 19 irrelevant hits. A further three pairs, *kreng*/*crang*, *specksioner*/*specksioneer*, and *trekschuit*/*treckschuit*, were not found in *COHA* at all and there was thus no need to count these separately.

While it is interesting to see which words have not been used at all in the material of *COHA*, it is at least as significant to examine the words that do occur. Table 4.4, below, shows the loanwords' distribution among literal and figurative usage, as well as their occurrence in fiction and non-fiction:

Table 4.4: Distribution of literal, figurative, fictional, and non-fictional usage of loanwords in *COHA*

Relevant nautical hits	**Literal usage**		**Figurative usage**		**Occurrence in fiction**		**Occurrence in non-fiction**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
boom, *n*.	31	97	1	3	24	75	8	25
brack	2	100	0	0	2	100	0	0
creek	522	100	0	0	404	77	118	23
dock, *n*.	421	98	8	2	293	68	136	32
dock, *v*.	6	67	3	33	3	33	6	67
duck	21	100	0	0	14	67	7	33
freebooter	99	91	10	9	70	64	39	36
garboard	13	100	0	0	10	77	3	23
handspike, *n*.	66	96	3	4	49	71	20	29
hooker	2	100	0	0	1	50	1	50
hoy	9	100	0	0	7	78	2	22
iceberg	324	52	296	48	340	45	280	55
keelhaul	1	25	3	75	1	25	3	75
maelstrom	60	17	303	83	234	64	129	36
matross	1	100	0	0	1	100	0	0
orlop	24	100	0	0	20	83	4	17
pram	8	100	0	0	4	50	4	50
quartermaster, *n*.	276	100	0	0	223	81	53	19
reef (2)	1338	98	25	2	789	58	574	42
sloop	1351	100	0	0	776	57	575	43
snook	51	100	0	0	15	29	36	71
speck	1	100	0	0	0	0	1	100
splice, *n*.	6	46	7	54	9	69	4	31
splice, *v*.	17	39	27	61	34	77	10	23
split	3	37	5	63	5	63	3	37
stoker	50	100	0	0	25	50	25	50
swabber	3	100	0	0	3	100	0	0
taffrail	175	100	0	0	148	85	27	15
trice	6	100	0	0	6	100	0	0
under way	34	100	0	0	19	56	15	44
underway	53	100	0	0	44	83	9	17
veer	6	100	0	0	2	33	4	67
whiting	33	100	0	0	3	9	30	91
yacht	374	100	0	0	197	53	177	47

The first column shows the loanwords that were found in *COHA* in the relevant nautical usage. The next two columns show the distribution of these words for their usage in a literal and figurative sense. Finally, the last two columns show how the words are divided among fictional and non-fictional works. As explained in Section 3.2.2, I was unable to collect the relevant data for 'school,' causing it to be excluded from Table 4.4.

4.4 Google results

Similar to the *COHA* results, some words were not found in the relevant nautical meaning at all when using *Google* to examine their usage on the Web for the past year, as seen in Table 4.5 below. As the content of the Web changes continually, the dates of the searches have been included in the tables for the *Google* results.

Table 4.5: Non-obsolete loanwords with no hits or no relevant nautical hits in *Google*

Headword	**Search date**	**Headword**	**Search date**
bomespar	23/01/2011	koff	14/02/2011
boom, *v*.	25/01/2011	lask	14/02/2011
bottomry, *v*.	25/01/2011	lull	14/02/2011
boyer	26/01/2011	mattie	15/02/2011
brack	26/01/2011	pink	15/02/2011
butt	28/01/2011	pont	15/02/2011
cardel	28/01/2011	quartermaster, *v*.	16/02/2011
coper	28/01/2011	school	17/02/2011
cooper	28/01/2011	scout	17/02/2011
duck	30/01/2011	sea-fardinger	17/02/2011
flushinger	30/01/2011	span	17/02/2011
freeboot, *v*.	30/01/2011	specksioner	18/02/2011
gripe	03/02/2011	split	18/02/2011
handspike, *v*.	04/02/2011	spurling	18/02/2011
hooker	11/02/2011	treckschuit	21/02/2011
hovel	11/02/2011	trice	21/02/2011
hoy	11/02/2011	veer	22/02/2011

Unlike Table 4.3 where words with 'no hits' and 'no relevant hits' in *COHA* were shown in separate columns, only two of the loanwords searched for with *Google* (*bomespar* and *specksioner*) resulted in 'no hits' at all. For this reason, all words in Table 4.5 are presented in one column. The successful hits are listed below in Table 4.6. Every domain searched is presented in its own column. A stroke ('/') seperates the number of words used in a literal sense from the number used in a figurative sense. No stroke means literal usage only.

Table 4.6: Distribution of literal/figurative hits per domain (out of 1st 100 hits) in *Google*

Headword	.com	.us	.uk	.ie	.au	.nz	.za	Search date
bilander	34	8	3	0	1	0	0	23/01/2011
boom, *n*.	0	1	0	4	0	2	0	25/01/2011
bottomry, *n*.	76	10	7	1	6	7	1	25/01/2011
clapmatch	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	28/01/2011
creek	0	0	2	3	3	9	0	28/01/2011
dikegrave	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	28/01/2011
dobber	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	28/01/2011
dock, *n*.	18/45	46/32	8/28	6/26	8/26	8/68	8/55	30/01/2011
dock, *v*.	0	0	1	0	0/3	5	0/2	30/01/2011
drogher	31	0	0	0	7	5	0	30/01/2011
euphroe	31	2	0	0	2	0	0	30/01/2011
fly-boat	8	0	20	2	1	0	0	30/01/2011
freebooter	7	10	14	0	7	3	7	30/01/2011
free-booty	0	0/1	0/3	0	0/2	0	0	03/02/2011
garboard	96	9	66	1	25	8	0	03/02/2011
gybe, *n*.	9	4	40	11	38	19	12	04/02/2011
gybe, *v*.	11	5	29	6	23	20	3	04/02/2011
handspike, *n*	19/1	1	0	0	4	4	1	04/02/2011
iceberg	38/33	32/14	39/27	26/31	27/25	38/22	26/25	11/02/2011
keel	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	14/02/2011
keelhaul	3/4	1	11/12	1	1/8	0/5	0/1	14/02/2011
kreng	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	14/02/2011
crang	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	14/02/2011
maelstrom	6/21	4/21	0/13	2/64	4/17	10/54	1/60	15/02/2011
mallemaroking	9	0	2	0	0	0	0	15/02/2011
matross	8	1	3	0	0	0	0	15/02/2011
orlop	37	5	32	0	0	0	0	15/02/2011
pickle-herring	25	0	2	0	0	0	0	15/02/2011
pram	4	6	0	0	0	0	1	15/02/2011
quartermaster, *n*.	14	39	63	54	67	60	33	16/02/2011
reef (2)	29	57	37	36	28	23	11	16/02/2011
rotge	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	16/02/2011
schuit	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	17/02/2011
skeeman	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	17/02/2011
sloop	27	42	47	33	63	77	31	17/02/2011
snook	25	12	2	3	25	2	8	17/02/2011
speck	1	2	1	15	9	12	2	18/02/2011
specksioneer	4	0	3	0	0	0	0	18/02/2011
spirling	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	18/02/2011
splice, *n*.	0/1	0/1	4	2/1	2	4	2	18/02/2011
splice, *v*.	0	0	0	2/2	0	2	2	18/02/2011
stoke-hole	13	0	6	0	1	4	0	18/02/2011
stoker	0	4	2	1	5	14	0	18/02/2011
swabber	12	1	6	1	0	0	0	18/02/2011
tafferel	18	0	4	0	0	1	0	18/02/2011
taffrail	12	2	34	0	10	4	4	18/02/2011
tjalk	41	6	54	6	4	1	7	21/02/2011
track-boat	4	0	0	0	3	0	0	21/02/2011
trekschuit	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	21/02/2011
under way	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	21/02/2011
underway	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	21/02/2011
whiting	6	0	10	57	59	7	13	22/02/2011
yacht	94	94	92/1	90/1	93/1	97	99	23/02/2011

It is clear from Table 4.6 that any one word may have very different results depending on the domain searched. This is mainly due to two reasons: Firstly, the .com domain is the largest domain on the Web by far with over 90 million .com name registrations as of the fourth quarter of 2010 (*VeriSign, Inc*. 2011). By comparison, the .uk domain has about 10 million registrations. Consequently, the likelihood of a relevant loanword being present in a .com registered site is all the more probable. However, the .com domain was not always the domain that yielded the most relevant hits. This is because, secondly, many of the pages among the first 100 hits in the .com domain are intended for commercial and advertising purposes, which sometimes causes irrelevant brand names (yet with names or acronyms similar to the loanwords) to take up much of the space. Also, as this domain is so popular, many websites are set up solely to generate profit from internet users following links on those sites. This is attained by the site by automatically setting up lists of words that are being searched for through search engines. These cropped up quite frequently while searching in the .com domain, but, as explained in Section 3.2.4, were ignored. This is why the .us or .uk domain sometimes resulted in more relevant hits.

As shown here, the exploration of these three different spheres, the *OED Online*, *COHA*, and *Google*, has yielded a variety of results which in the next chapter will be used to illuminate different areas of the questions raised in this thesis.

5 | ANGLO-DUTCH HISTORY AND DISCUSSION

In the previous chapter I presented my findings of Dutch nautical loanwords using, predominantly, the *OED Online*. I also attempted to show through the use of *COHA* and the World Wide Web search engine *Google*, how they are used, and how frequently they are used. The second part of this chapter will delve more deeply into the meaning of these results. However, the first part will lay down a historical context through which to better interpret the results.

5.1 Historical contexts

Due to the topic of this dissertation it is important to focus a great deal of attention on nautical Anglo-Dutch history—trade, fishing, naval warfare, etc.—to understand the nature of Dutch influence on the English language concerning maritime words and expressions. This cannot be done, however, without also paying attention to other respects of Anglo-Dutch intercourse throughout history, although this will be kept as brief as possible.

5.1.1 Early Anglo-Dutch relations

The relationship between the British Isles and the Low Countries has certainly been both long and varied. Evidence of contact exists from long before the Norman Conquest of England. Bense (1925:1f.) notes for example that the Roman general Agricola fought the Caledonians at the Battle of Grampius in 83/84 AD with 8,000 men from the Low Countries by his side. Even before this Flemish people fleeing floods had come over in ‘sailless vessels’ and more or less invaded the Isle of Wight and its surroundings (Bense 1925:1).

The Low Country people who were possibly most involved with Englishmen in these early days were the Frisians, who, already long before Anglo-Saxons invaded England, were importing and exporting goods across the Channel, and became the main maritime trading force after the Anglo-Saxons settled in England (Lewis & Runyan 1985:89). Even the Old English poem *Beowulf*, written down in a 10th century manuscript, makes mention of the Frisians as well as having a very small part of the narrative taking place in various Dutch

localities around the year 520 when Beowulf's king Hygelac is killed in battle by the Hetware, a tribe from the area between the Zuiderzee and the Rhine allied with the Franks and Frisians (Bense 1925:4; Clarke 1911:268; Weller 1992:52).

There is also ample evidence of Frisian settlers to be found in English place names, such as East/West Firsby, Friesthorpe, Frizinghall, and Freston to name but a few (Bense 1925:2). Likewise, numerous armed conflicts saw many Frisians making their way to England. So it was in 867 when Ubbo dux Fresonum (or Ubbe dux Fresciorum) laid siege to York with a Scaldingi army, Scaldingi being people from the Scheldt area or the country between the rivers Lek and Ijssel, i.e. Frisians (Bense 19265:3). Another army made up of Frisians were employed as mercenaries by the Anglo Saxons in their fight against the Danes in 896, when King Alfred 'the Great' significantly improved the defences bordering the newly formed Danelaw (Bense 1925:3; Black 2003:26). Fighting with or against Frisians was in fact so common, it seems, that leaders who distinguished themselves in battle (where Frisians were involved) were often rewarded with the honorary name 'Frisian' (perhaps like Ubbo, mentioned above).

There must have been strong religious ties between the Anglo Saxons and the Low Countrymen. Irish missionaries travelled to the Northern Sea Frisians in the 7th century, and a century later, the Northumbrian missionary Willibrord with an entourage of eleven friars was active in Frisia and eventually became Bishop of Utrecht.[13] Bense suggests that early literary connections must have been forged through these Englishmen familiarizing themselves with continental learning in the Low Countries, especially as the centres of learning shifted to the Low Countries in the 9th and 10th centuries (first and foremost to Liège and Utrecht) due to the continued presence of the havoc-wreaking Danes in England (1925:3f.). While Charlemagne welcomed these scholars enthusiastically to his courts in, among other places, Nijmegen, the aforementioned King Alfred lamented: '… *ond hu man útanbordes wísdóm ond láre hieder ón lond sohte; ond hú wé híe nú sceoldon úte begietan*, *gif wé híe habban sceoldon*' (Bense 1925:4).[14] Consequently, these centres of knowledge remained ahead of England for many centuries.

[13] *Frisia* is the coastal area stretching from the south-western Netherlands to southern Denmark and is the traditional homeland of the Frisians. *Friesland* (or *Fryslân*) is a northern province in the Netherlands.

[14] '… and how people from abroad sought wisdom and instruction in this country; and how nowadays, if we wished to acquire these things, we would have to seek them outside.' (From preface to *Cura Pastoralis* (*Pastoral Care*), p. 124 (*Wikiquote*).

5.1.2 Flemish immigrants and mercenaries

During the reign of Edward the Confessor (1042-66), Flanders proved to be an important source of import yet again as sheep husbandry and wool production reached new heights there (Black 2003:33). Edward never produced an heir to his throne and when he died in early 1066 Harold, son of Edward's father-in-law Godwin, who had already governed the realm for fourteen years, was elected king (Bense 1925:6; Black 2003:34). This pleased Duke William of Normandy who claimed that Edward had promised him the throne on several occasions. While William was hampered by the strong North Sea winds, thus delaying his planned invasion of England, Harold was forced to march north-east where another army was making its way to York (Bense 1925:6; Black 2003:34). This force was led by the Norwegian king Harald Hardrada along with Harold's own banished brother Tostig with his following of 'Frisian, Dutch and Flemish adventurers' (Bense 1925:6). The invading forces were defeated at the battle of Stamford Bridge where both Harald and Tostig lost their lives. The fate of the surviving 'adventurers' from the Low Countries is unknown (Bense 1925:6).

Meanwhile, the Norman forces had finally arrived on the south coast of England. Even though Harold hurried back, the casualties sustained at Stamford Bridge coupled with the tiresome long and hard march south resulted in an eventual defeat at the hands of William of Normandy's forces at Hastings. Harold and many other leaders were killed, and as William finally crossed the Thames the English forces surrendered (Black 2003:34).

William the Conqueror was crowned before the end of 1066. Again, Flemings played an important part during these events. The Norman army did not consist solely of Normans, but also of Bretons, Picards, and Flemings, and William even brought a Flemish lady, Matilda, daughter of Count Baldwin V of Flanders (Llewellyn 1936:1), to 'share the English throne with him' (Bense 1925:6). The new king ruthlessly subjugated the whole country, thereby spreading his soldiers everywhere. In this way Flemish men ended up as earls, commanders, bishops, and landowners throughout the realm, and as word of this spread back to the continent, the initial wave of militant Flemings was followed by a great number of opportunistic traders, artisans and craftsmen along with their families (Bense 1925:9, 12; Van der Sijs 2010a:65). In addition, another series of floods around the turn of the century made thousands of men, women, and children from the Low Countries homeless, causing them to settle in England (and later also Scotland) in such large numbers that Henry I scarcely knew what to do with them (Llewellyn 1936:1). It should come as no surprise then that both art and trade were heavily influenced by Flemish customs and techniques, resulting, among many

other things, in the establishment of guilds (Bense 1925:12). By the 12th century there were more than 50 small Flemish settlements in England and Ireland (Bense 1925:22; van der Sijs 2010:65).

During this century Flemish, Frisian, and Dutch merchants, amongst others, had their own '"private wharfs and keys" from the east to the west of London before and in the reign of Henry II' (Bense 1925:23). The result of Henry's son John's hardnosed misuse of governmental power led to the Magna Carta of 1215 which listed everything that was wrong with John's regime (Black 2003:57). In this charter we find some more evidence of the activities of Flemings in England as a part of the document deals with King John's unpopular 'imported' foreigners.[15] This meant that for a while all aliens, apart from merchants, were banished from the kingdom (Bense 1925:25f.). While Frisians and merchants from Utrecht did some trade with England in these days, they are scarcely mentioned at all for some time after 1300 (Bense 1925:30f.).

5.1.3 Piracy and increased maritime contact

It is in the 13th century that perhaps the earliest mention of Low Country piracy surfaces. The Fleming Eustacius 'the Black Monk' roamed the English Channel raiding ships for the English king, at least until he was offered a better deal by the French monarch in 1212 (Korteweg 2006:33). Hollanders and Zealanders (and also Englishmen) did their share of pirating as well, resulting in something of a naval war between Zealand and England from 1272 to 1281 (Bense 1925:52).

Towards the end of this century we hear of Hollanders and Zealanders being not only involved with England as merchants and carriers, but also as fishermen fishing mostly off the coast at Yarmouth under the protection of Edward I (Bense 1925:54). This continued well into the 16th century, with English vessels setting out to meet the fishing boats so that Dutch fishermen could evade payment of tolls (Bense 1925:55). As the English Channel and the mouth of the Rhine were 'infested with pirates' and Edward III was the husband of Philippa, daughter of William II, Count of Holland, Zealand, and Hainault, he offered protection and privileges to Holland and Zealand sailors, making sure to punish pirates, but not the lands where they were from (Bense 1925:57; Llewellyn 1936:2).

[15] '… and we will remove all foreign-born from the lands ... and all the Flemish disruptors who are to the detriment of the kingdom' (Bense 1925:25).

Piracy, as Korteweg (2006) explains, was a very opportunistic business. She stresses that the boundary between what the Dutch call *kaapvaart* ('privateering,' lit. 'seize sailing') and *zeeroof* ('piracy,' lit. 'sea robbery') was quite fuzzy.[16] In times of peace there were plenty of merchant vessels crossing the Channel to make a comfortable living as pirates, but if war broke out it was easy enough to continue the job as a privateer—a business that was even practised by merchants and fishermen who had fallen on hard times due to war (Korteweg 2006:34).

There are countless episodes in which English ships were raided by pirates from the Low Countries (but also by for instance Frenchmen and Scots), although there were also instances of cooperation between the Dutch and the English, such as when Hollanders and Englishmen together wiped out a band of Frisian pirates in the 15th century (Bense 1925:64). At this time, privateering was rapidly becoming more and more common and the distinction between it and piracy, due to the many conflicts and laws, was ever less clear (Korteweg 2006:38).

5.1.4 Interaction through war

The end of the Middle Ages was followed by some 400 years rife with armed conflicts of varying magnitudes involving the English and the Dutch—either as enemies or as allies.

The Hundred Years War began in 1338 when Edward III started gathering his troops in Flanders along with reinforcements from the Low Countries where he had many allies (even though the count of Flanders remained loyal to Philip of France) in order to attack France (Arblaster 2006:91). Still, political relations had never been better between the two nations than at this time, and, seeing as the Flemish cloth towns favoured England in international matters due to the importance of the wool trade, a republican regime was established in Flanders in response to the count's Francophile attitude (Bense 1925:73; Arblaster 2006:91). A series of skirmishes, sieges and truces followed, introducing thousands of English, Flemish, Zealand, and Holland mercenaries and soldiers to one another. The conflict was not only directed against France, however. In 1364 England attacked Flanders and Flemish ships for a brief time at every opportunity after lengthy marriage negotiations

[16] Privateering differs from piracy only in principle in that the former is carried out by legalized robbers who are part of a navy (though not under its command) to harm the enemy while providing funding for their own country. A privateer would be issued with a 'letter of marque and reprisal' (Korteweg 2006:34).

between Edward's youngest son and the count's daughter broke down (Bense 1925:82). There were to be quite a few such occurrences throughout the rest of the war. Around this time, the waning power of the Northern European economic trading alliance known as the Hanseatic League enabled a new fleet of Dutch merchants to access the Baltic countries, while English vessels were quite effectively banned from the region by the league's *Hansetag*. In short, this led to a rapid rise in 'commercial and maritime prosperity' for the Dutch who, to make matters worse for the English, started importing fine wool from Spain rather than Britain, further strengthening their maritime enterprises (Lewis & Runyan 1985:153).

The following century would again see large groups of immigrants from both sides of the Channel settling in each other's territory. In 1455, a few years after the end of the Hundred Years War, the Wars of the Roses caused many Englishmen to flee to the Low Countries (Bense 2025:89). This trend was reversed a decade later when the Eighty Years War broke out in 1568. The causes of the war are to be found in the fracturing of the Catholic Church, leading to the Protestant Reformation in the early 1500s. Soon, Lutherans, Anabaptists and Calvinists were numerous in the Low Countries and were initially heavily persecuted (Arblaster 2006:113-118). After the struggles of the Hundred Years War the Low Countries found themselves under the rule of Charles V (heir of Burgundy, Habsburg, Castile, and Aragon with possessions in the Americas and southern Italy, and also Friesland, Tournai, Utrecht, and Guelders, acquired during his reign) who 'made the Netherlands independent of imperial jurisdiction' in 1548 and ensured its inheritance by a single heir, namely his son Philip II who, based in Madrid, was a devout Catholic bent on eradicating Protestantism (Arblaster 2006:112f.; Trudgill 2010:47). Philip wanted to reorganize administration, renew taxation and retain religious unity, all of which led to protests and the Iconoclastic Fury of 1566 by discontented Calvinist Low Countrymen (Korteweg 2006:56). In consequence, Philip sent the Duke of Alva with an army of Spaniards and Italians who, though order was more or less restored, set up the Council of Troubles through which thousands of rebels and heretics were condemned to death (Arblaster 2006:121). William of Orange fled to Germany where he amassed his troops, known as the *Gueux*, and invaded the Low Countries in 1568. While at first reluctant to assist the Protestant Dutch rebels (she banned the Water Gueux from English ports in 1572), Elizabeth I of England later made a formal declaration of support and alliance and dispatched troops to help, which led to war between England and Spain from 1585 (Black 2003:119; Arblaster 2006:122, 127). These tumultuous times caused thousands of refugees to flee to England and, as Bense points out, '[the] numbers of intermarriages between these refugees and the English people … must have had some influence on the vocabulary of a

people who counted only [five or six million] at the time (Bense 1925:101). In Norwich alone, the population in 1579 was 16,236, of which 6,000 were Dutch- and French-speaking refugees (Trudgill 2010:48). Decades of war and a gradual decline in the flow of British mercenaries left the armies of the Low Countries weakened. However, Spanish naval misfortune (in part due to Dutch commanders such as Piet Hein and Maarten Tromp) and military priorities in other parts of Europe, loosened the Spanish Monarchy's grip on the Dutch (Arblaster 2006:154f.). The war ended officially in 1648 and the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands was internationally recognized (Korteweg 2006:120).

Barely out of their Second Civil War, England, under the command of Oliver Cromwell, triggered the First Anglo-Dutch War in 1652. Cromwell instituted the Navigation Act (1651), which dictated that only English ships could import goods to England, after the Dutch rejected an offer to unite the Protestant republics of England and the Netherlands. Part of the reason behind the Navigation Act must have been the large-scale, and very successful, Dutch sugar trade in the Caribbean which England failed to take advantage of due to insufficient carrying capacity (Alofs 2009:23). The ousted Charles II, whose father King Charles I had been beheaded by Cromwell, sought refuge in Holland where he was recognized as King and brought with him many English royalists (Bense 1925:170). Three more Anglo-Dutch wars followed; the second for similar reasons as the first, the third as part of a larger-scale conflict involving France, and the fourth and last a century later in response to 'British treatment of neutral shipping during the American Revolutionary War' (Arblaster 2006:156f., 160, 167). While perhaps few loanwords were imported from Dutch while the two countries battled each other, it did lead to the coinage of such colourful expressions as *double Dutch* ('nonsense'), *Dutch widow* ('a prostitute') and *Dutch courage* ('courage due to intoxication') (Van der Sijs 2010a:65; *OED Online*).

Towards the end of the 17th century Charles II was succeeded by his brother James II who, in what is known as 'the Stuart disaster' managed to mishandle his reign by proroguing Parliament and actively promoting Catholicism (Black 2003:150f.). William III of Orange—hereditary *stadhouder* ('steward') of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Gelderland, and Overijssel, hereditary captain-general of the Republic, and husband of Mary Stuart, daughter of James II from his first marriage—wasted no time in invading England in 1688 by invitation from seven English politicians in an effort to preserve Protestantism and 'traditional liberties' (Black 2003:152; Arblaster 2006:160f.). James fled the country and William and Mary were crowned King William III and Queen Mary II of England, Scotland, and Ireland 'for the length of their lives only' (Morrissey 2008:220), finally uniting the two Protestant countries against France.

This resulted in hundreds of Dutchmen moving to England as well as a long period of Dutch and English soldiers and sailors fighting and sailing side by side (Bense 1925:190).

5.1.5 The Golden Age

According to Arblaster 'the wealth of the 17th-century Netherlands, and of Amsterdam in particular, was the wonder of the world' (2006:133). Here were found some of the choicest cloth, pottery, cheese, butter, cod, herring, beef, and grain, acquired either through superiority of manufacture or lucrative trade connections. In addition, the relatively novel Dutch banking system and better marine insurance policies provided ample business opportunities for entrepreneurs. Dutchmen launched expeditions to the far corners of the world in search of exotic spices and other goods, new trading routes and, eventually, slaves. They sailed to the Arctic Ocean, the East Indies, Indonesia, Jakarta, Ceylon, Australia, Mocha, Java, Japan, etc., sometimes ousting established Portuguese and English trading posts. In short, Amsterdam was the 'commercial and financial centre of Northern Europe' with ties to the rest of the world (Arblaster 2006:133-135).

An important contributing factor to this Dutch dominance was their ships. According to Barbour (1930:272f.) the Dutch built a thousand ships a year, a demand which—while acknowledging such favourable conditions as the central location of the Dutch Provinces, its great river highways, the wealth of Amsterdam, and the Dutch colonial empire—she attributes to the superiority of Dutch vessels. The quality of these ships led to their being imported by most European naval powers, from the smallest fishing boat to the most heavily-armed man-of-war (Barbour 1930:286f.). The names of these vessels (e.g. *pink*, *hoy*) and of new Dutch maritime engineering inventions (e.g. *boom*, *harpoon*) were therefore taken up by the Englishmen who used these new acquisitions (Murray 1957:841). Apparently, the general European notion at the time was that 'Dutch seamen were the best in the world' although they readily brought in sailors from both England and Scotland to serve on their ships (Barbour 1930:283f.), another explanation for the borrowing of Dutch maritime terms. In fact, the small country was dependent on migrant workforce in many sectors in order to meet the demand for labour. Lucassen (1994:167) claims 500,000 foreigners were employed as sailors for the Dutch navy and merchant fleets, although nothing is said of how much of this comprises British migrant workers.

At this time there were also quite strong literary relations between England and the Dutch Provinces. Already in the 15th century, Caxton learned the art of printing in Bruges which he later introduced to England (Bense 1925:94). In the 16th and 17th centuries countless books were translated from Dutch into English. Also, while some Dutch scholars lived in England for a time (among the most famous of these was Erasmus), more importantly, numerous English scholars and students travelled to the Low Countries and its universities (e.g. Christopher Marlowe, Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Francis Drake, Ben Jonson, and John Donne), which likewise might have contributed to the borrowing of Dutch words (Bense 1925:198f.; Murray 1957:840). But not only Dutch literary traditions were held in great esteem in England; the Dutch Provinces prospered to such an extent that English economists imported for instance Dutch financial theories, insurance, banking, and stock exchange (Murray 1957:840).

The Netherlands has long been known for its religious tolerance. Even in 17th-century Amsterdam English Catholics and Nonconformists could live in relative safety, including the puritan Pilgrim Fathers who later set out for Massachusetts (Murray 1957:838). A fair share of the new settlers in the Americas were Dutch-speaking and they certainly left their mark on the New World (as we know, New York was first known as 'New Amsterdam'), also linguistically: *cookie*, *dope*, *stoop*, and *coleslaw* (Van der Sijs 2010a) are all Dutch loanwords. As recent as the 19th century Dutch was still spoken in some parts in the east of the United States (Noordegraaf 2008:1). There is, however, little indication that any Dutch *nautical* loanwords entered the English language through Dutch-American contact, other than those resulting from Dutch and English shipping in American waters (see Section 3.1.2). I will therefore not spend any more time exploring the influence of Dutchmen in the Americas.

5.1.6 British growth and Dutch stagnation

From the mid-17th century, Britain's colonial possessions and naval power never ceased to expand, and during the 18th and 19th centuries the kingdom increasingly became a role model for economic and technological development (Black 2003:166f.). The British encroached on Dutch territory in several cases. They took over many of their colonies and old shipping connections, leaving the old Republic economically poorer, with a severely weakened navy and army, and, because of the Fourth Anglo-Dutch War, in need of (short-lived) French

protection (Ashton & Hellema 2001:17f.).[17] Britain's increased naval power coupled with 'economic development and the rise of nationalism was a fertile breeding ground for the Industrial Revolution with its numerous technological advances in the fields of energy, transport and industry and socio-economic growth which slowly but inexorably transformed Britain to a global power (Black 2003:198-205).

Even though a combination of factors in the Netherlands in the 1880s led to a 'Second Golden Age' centring on science and technology, it never regained its former glory in comparison to Britain (Arblaster 2006:199). In light of the topic of this thesis, it may be beneficial to draw the line here—in part because the most recent Dutch nautical loanword in my results is the noun *gybe* (attested first in 1880, according to the *OED Online*), and in part because of the aforementioned shift in power and importance from the Netherlands to the British Isles.

In conclusion, I refer to the words of Bense (1925:206): '… British influence on the Netherlands has been so much greater than Dutch influence on Great Britain since the early years of the 18th century, when the United Provinces gradually declined …' This was written well before the Second World War, but I think we can agree that, although we may want to exchange 'British' for 'American,' the same holds true today in terms of language influence.

5.2 Discussion of results

As I have attempted to outline above, it is clear that the many instances of Anglo-Dutch contact have provided enough opportunities for Dutch influence on the English language. And although it is impossible to know exactly how nautical words and terms were borrowed into English, we can make some well-informed assumptions, to which I will devote the rest of this chapter, as well as the next. As before, the words under discussion here are the 115 loanwords deemed to be 'certain' Dutch loans.

[17] Shortly before the Fourth Anglo-Dutch War the ratio between the Dutch and English navies was one to ten (Ashton & Hellema 2001:20).

5.2.1 Comparing results with timeline

Figure 4.1 from the previous chapter allows us to compare the occurrence of Dutch nautical loanwords over time with the Anglo-Dutch history compiled above. The table is shown again here (as Figure 5.1) for convenience—this time without paying attention to the obsolete status of some of the words:

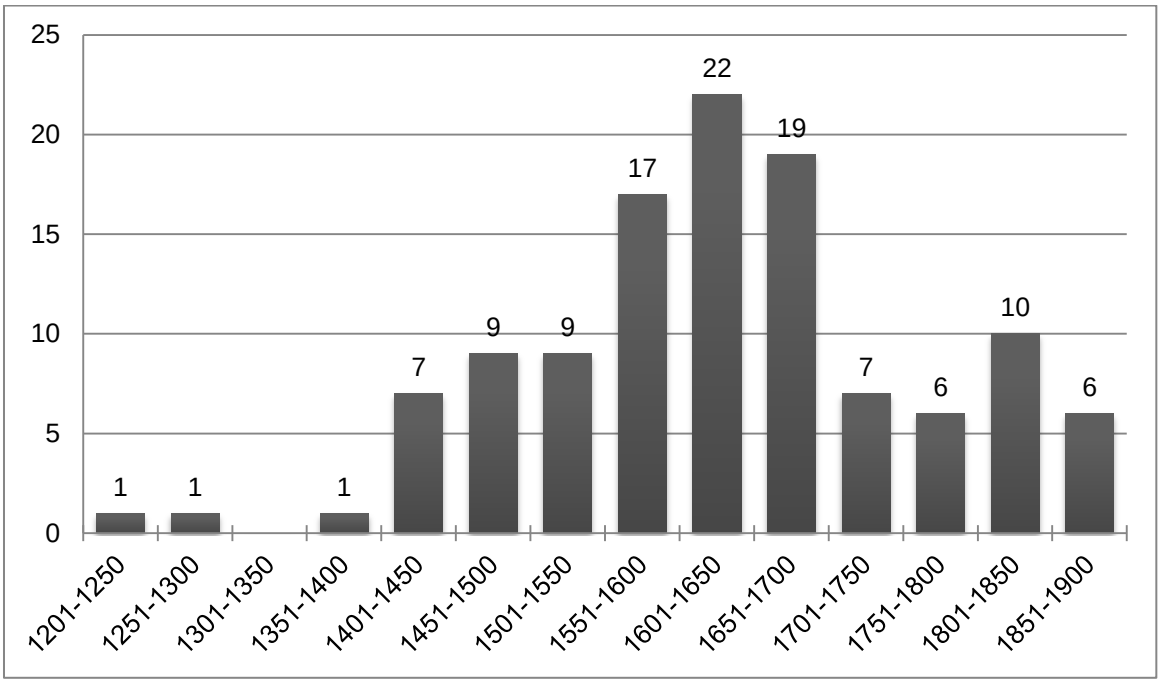

Figure 5.1: Dutch nautical loanwords adopted into English per 50 years

The bar chart shows very little activity prior to the 15th century, after which there is a gradual increase in the adoption of Dutch nautical loanwords. The 17th century peak is followed by a steep drop, although another small peak is seen in the first half of the 19th century.

The first two bars in Figure 5.1 show *creek* and *butt*, respectively. After some time without borrowing from Dutch we find *trice* in the second half of the 14th century.[18] As more words were imported from Dutch in the run-up to the Golden Age of the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands, it is tempting to attribute these loans to the growing influence and power of the Dutch. The type of words borrowed varies. In the first half of the 15th century we find three words relating to fishing, namely *school*, *spirling*/*spurling*, and *whiting*, two ship types, *keel* and *scout*, one loanword for the deck of a ship known as *orlop*, and one for the

[18] *Trice* was adopted 'ante 1400' (*a1400*), i.e. *before* 1400, and therefore counts as being from the latter half of the 14th century.

seaman's rank of *quartermaster*. During the latter half of the same century only one loanword to do with fish, *pickle-herring*, entered English, while three names for ship types were adopted: *corver*, *hoy*, and *pink*. Additionally, we find *dock* (*n*,), the ship part *mers*, the sailor's jacket known as a *pee*, and two verbs describing an action (*loss* and *veer*).

The half decade just before the 17th-century Golden Age introduced 17 Dutch nautical loans into English, as seen in Figure 5.1. Six of these are ship types: *boyer*, *crumster*/*cromster*, *drumbler*/*drumler*, *fly-boat*, *outloper*, and *yacht*. Three loans have to do with piracy: *freebooter*, as well as the noun form *free-boot* and the verb form *freeboot*. Two of the words are professions or roles that have to do with the maritime sphere: *dikegrave* and *swabber*. Another two, *maelstrom* and *reef*, are natural marine features. The remaining loanwords include the verbs *laveer* and *split*, the ship part *gripe*, and a type of eel called *scaffling*.

The amount of loans greatly increases in the 17th century. The first half sees 22 new words: *balk*, *beer*, *boom* (*v*.), *bottomry* (*n*.), *crab-skuit*, *duck*, *free-booty*, *garboard*, *handspike* (*n*.), *haye*, *herring-buss*, *hooker*, *jagger*, *lorendriver*, *mass*, *matross*, *pont*, *rope-sick*, *sloop*, *speck*, *splice* (*n*.), and *track-boat*. About a quarter of these are ships. The second half has 19 loanwords: *bilander*, *caper*, *bomespar*, *stoker*, *bezan*, *boom* (*n*.), *schuit*, *cag*, *keelhaul*, *cape*, *wagoner*/*waggoner*, *flushinger*, *gybe* (*v*.), *cardel*, *garnel*/*gernel*, *hovel*, *potwalfish*, *rotge*, *trekschuit*/*treckschuit*, and *snook*. Again, most are ships, although there are a few kinds of fish and whale present as well.

The 18th century shows a rapid decline in borrowed nautical terms with only seven (*brassem*, *clapmatch*, *mattie*, *potfish*, *tafferel*, and *under way*) and six (*bottomry* (*v*.), *handspike* (*v*.), *iceberg*, *koff*, *overschippen*, and *span*) for the first and second half of the century. Not until the following century is there an increase again. The early 1800s adopt *dobber*, *euphroe*, *lull*, *mallemaroking*, *meck*, *skeeman*, *specksioner*/*specksioneer*, *stokehole*, and *taffrail*. Half of these are words for equipment or parts of a ship. The last half of the 19th century sees only six loans: *coper*/*cooper*, *drogher*, *gybe* (*n*.), *lask*, *quartermaster* (*v*.), and *tjalk*. This time, half of the words are types of ships.

It should be clear by now that on the surface there does not seem to be a particular class of words that has been imported during any specific period. They are seemingly more-or-less randomly distributed from the 13th to the 19th centuries and any reasoning behind their adoption may appear fairly arbitrary. After some nit-picking, however, there do seem to be some patterns. These are more easily spotted if one concentrates on when words of certain kinds were borrowed. Figures 5.2 and 5.3 below present this information:

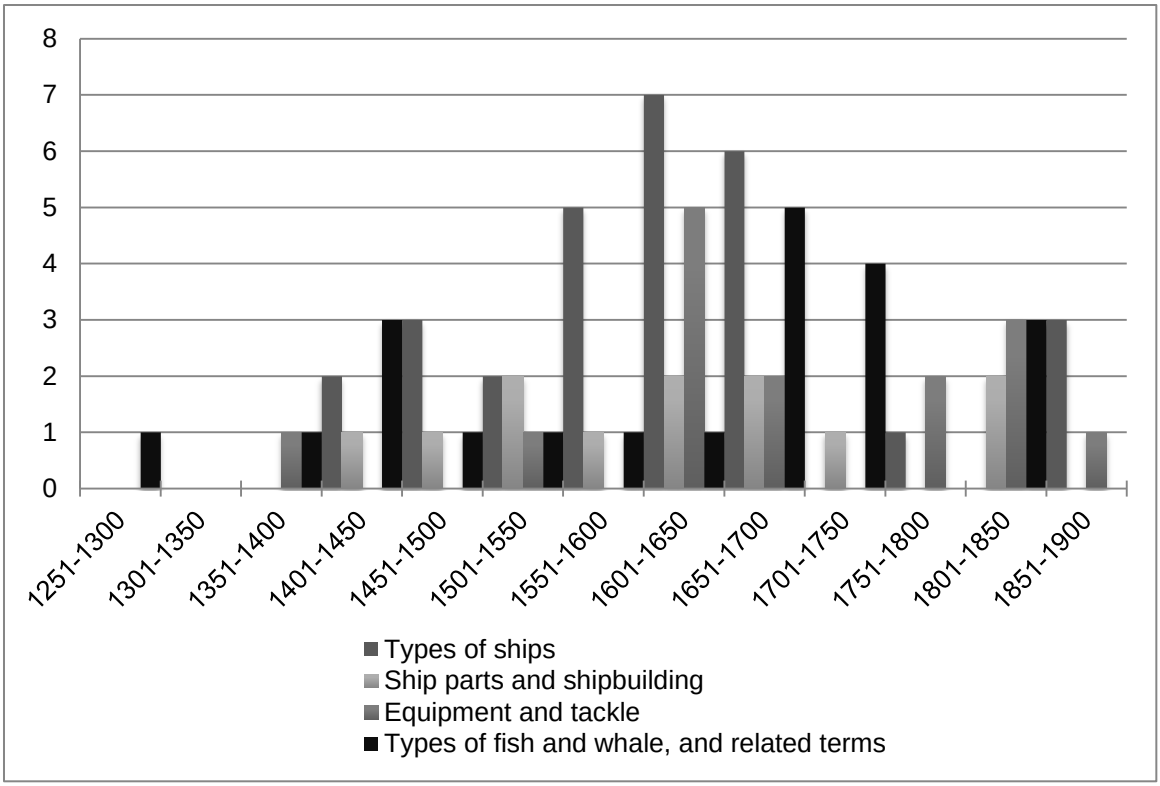

Figure 5.2: Number of loanwords per 50 years from the four largest categories

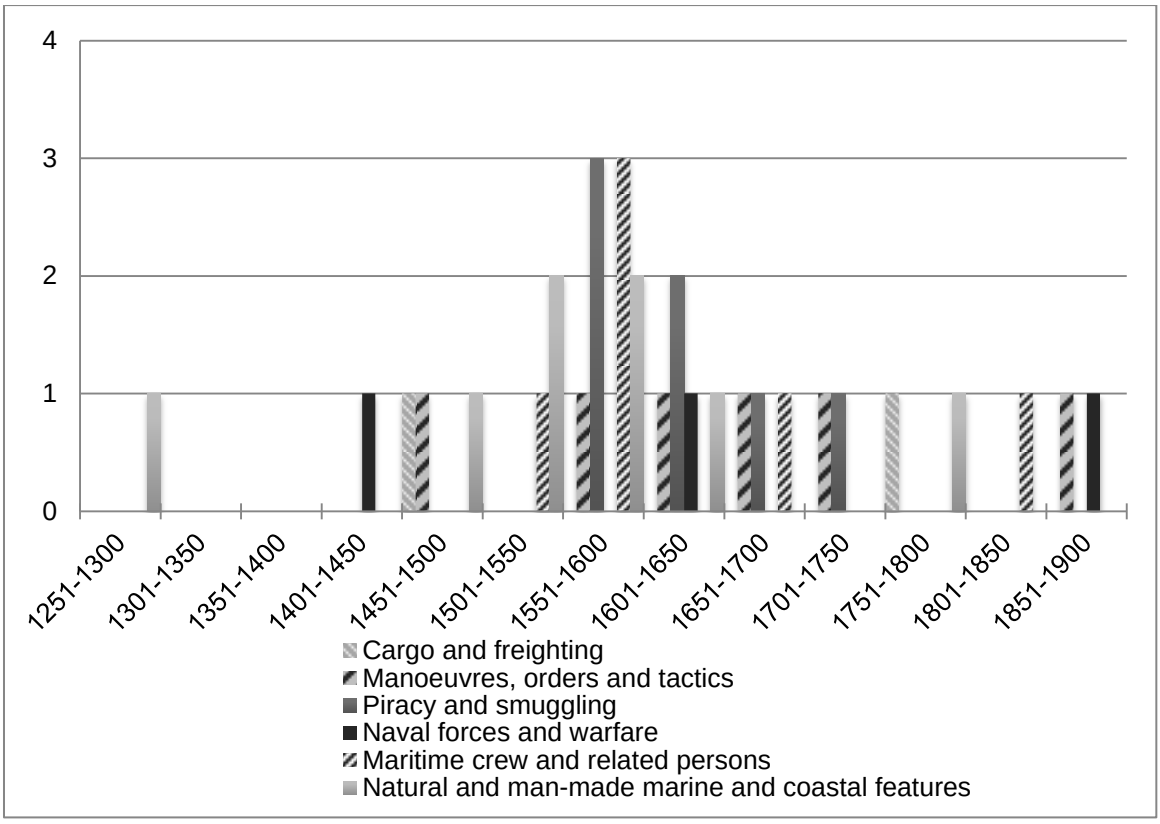

Figure 5.3: Number of loanwords per 50 years from the six remaining categories (excluding 'miscellaneous')

In Figure 5.2, we see that the largest category of loanwords is 'types of ships.' These are also the type of loanwords that 'stick out' most on the chart. It has a clear peak around the 17th century, but is also clearly seen in the second half of the 15th century, as well as in the 19th century. As discussed in Section 5.1 and onwards, maritime activity between the Low Countries and England caused the two countries to meet at sea and along the shore through fishing, trade, and piracy—both while raiding each other and as allies against other pirates. It is perhaps not surprising then, that the most frequently borrowed words are names for different types of ships. Especially when considering that the Dutch were usually the stronger or more enterprising party concerning fishing and trade—or at least the Dutch seemed to have come to England more often in this respect than the other way round. The 17th century peak is even better explained seeing as Dutch shipbuilders were the best in Europe at the time, and their vessels were in high demand all over the continent, probably causing (amongst others) the English to take up the native Dutch names for these ships (see Section 5.1.5). This goes for the 'equipment and tackle' category as well, as these vessels may have come with some new inventions or improvements in this respect; hence the corresponding peak for this group in the first half of the 17th century—although when it comes to loans belonging to 'ship parts and shipbuilding,' these are quite evenly distributed along the whole continuum. For 'types of fish and whale, and related terms,' the combining factors of increased Dutch fisheries and whaling along with Englishmen and Scotsmen serving on Dutch vessels may explain the extensive borrowing in this category towards the end of the Golden Age.

It is furthermore interesting to note that there is a slight rise in borrowing again in the 19th century, perhaps in keeping with the so-called 'Second Golden Age' of that time (see Section 5.1.6). Considering the focus on industrialization, technology, and science, of which the Dutch were also part, the presence of words to do with equipment, fishing, ships, and ship parts is perhaps more expected than other categories.

Figure 5.3 shows the remaining categories (barring 'miscellaneous'). A single loanword from these categories crops up here and there, and consequently little constructive is to be said about it other than that the expected peak occurs slightly before the time of the Dutch Golden Age. Here we find words to do with 'piracy and smuggling;' perhaps not surprising considering the privateering business during the times of the Anglo-Dutch Wars. The other two categories slightly more present are 'natural and man-made marine and coastal features' and 'maritime crew and related persons.' On the whole, however, the difference between the numbers in Figure 5.3 is so slight (all between 1 and 3 occurrences), especially when also compared with Figure 5.2, that the results might well be coincidental.

5.2.2 The death of loanwords

Section 4.2, and in particular Table 4.1, dealt with the amount of obsolete words (35) among the Dutch nautical loans. These comprise 30 per cent of the 115 loanwords. However, these are just the numbers according to the *OED Online*. As shown in table 4.3, a further 48 are obsolete as per *COHA*, bringing the percentage of obsolete words to 72.[19] On the other hand, the *Google* searches showed 33 obsolete words in addition to the *OED Online*'s 35, giving 59 per cent (see Table 4.5).[20] The amount of obsolete words depends then on whether one looks at the *COHA* or the *Google* results. At any rate, they agree on 26 additional obsolete words, as shown in Table 5.1:

Table 5.1: Additional obsolete words shared by the *COHA* and *Google* results

Headword	**Headword**
bomespar	lask
boom, *v*.	lull
bottomry, *v*.	mattie
boyer	pink
butt	pont
cardel	quartermaster, *v*.
coper, cooper	scout
flushinger	sea-fardinger
free-boot, *v*.	span
gripe	specksioner, specksioneer
handspike, *v*.	spurling (*but not* spirling)
hovel	trekschuit, treck-
koff	

It is not easy to decide which of the numbers is correct, but neither is it perhaps fruitful. After all, many of the obsolete *OED* words have only one single quotation, suggesting something like the following scenario: A literate traveller, sailor, soldier, or scholar spends time in the Low Countries or with Low Countrymen—or even translates a Dutch book—and finds it natural to use a native Dutch word which perhaps more adequately describes an item or action, or which is familiar to his target audience at the time. It nevertheless sees no wider use due to a lack of understanding by a wider audience or due to an alternative English coinage which describes the same thing. The word is therefore used in one or only a handful of written texts and nothing more happens until a scribe hunting for words to be used in the *OED* (in this

[19] Table 4.3 shows 50 words, but this includes two pairs that in *COHA* were checked individually due to different spellings. Thus, in reality the number is 48.
[20] Table 4.5 shows 34 words, but for similar reasons as footnote 19 above, the actual number is 33.

case) happens across it, and makes a note of it. As the *OED* is updated from time to time, some words for which there is no evidence of current usage are marked 'obs.' But it would of course not be surprising if not all words were given this attention due to the sheer amount of headwords. The obsolete loanwords in the *OED* can thus be seen as interesting artefacts of language contact between the English and the Dutch, and do not necessarily reflect all obsolete loanwords. The following chart (Figure 5.4) illustrates the points in time when the loanwords listed in Table 4.2 became obsolete:

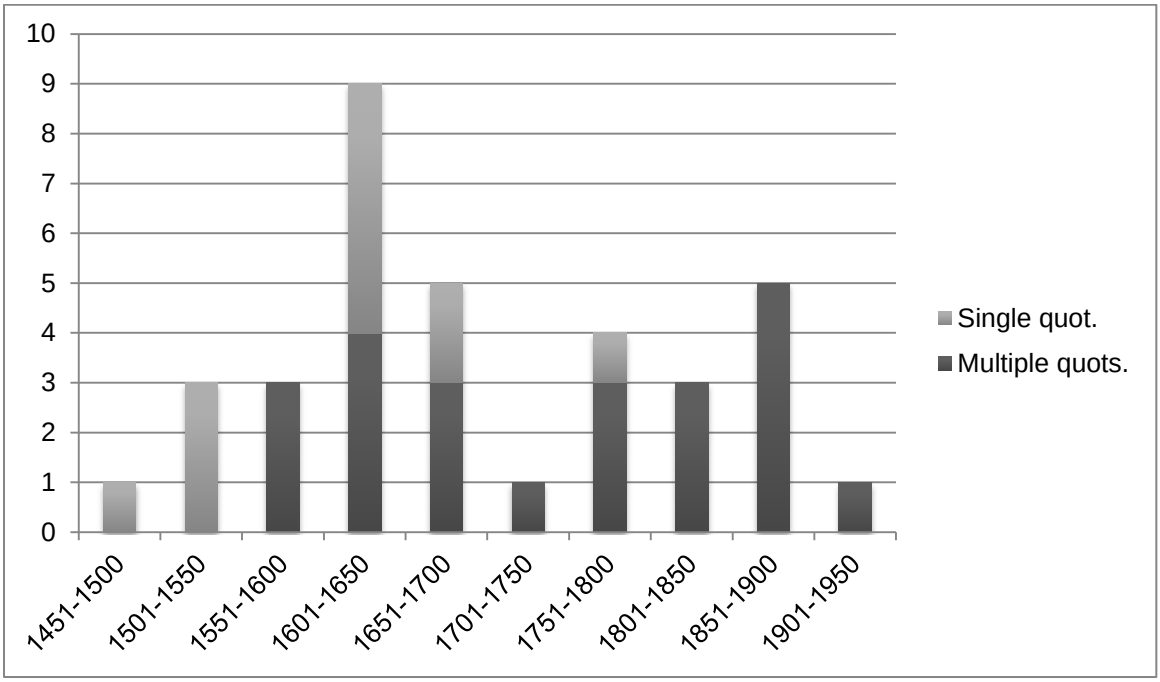

Figure 5.4: Date of loanwords becoming obsolete

There is no apparent pattern behind the longevity of these words. From Table 4.2 we see that the obsolete words have been in written use from anywhere between one year (*cag*, 1666-1667), a few decades (*outloper*, 1566-1583), and several centuries (*boyart*, 1545-1895), as well as having been used only once. It must be noted, however, that in the case of those words (like *outloper*) with quotations spanning only a few decades or 50-60 years, this is mainly due to them only having two, three, or four different citations. While it must be remembered that the *OED Online* does not give evidence for every single citation, it must be true that for some of the dates of adoption and of falling out of use in Table 4.2, the former date may be the first instance of written usage, and the latter date simply the last instance, even though these may be decades apart. This occurred at different times, and there are no patterns or historical reasons to help explain these cases.

Still, looking at Figure 5.4 it seems that there is *something* to say about when words fell out of use and why there are in some cases only single quotations of them. The chart shows that single quotations occur more frequently for the earlier decades. This might be because there were fewer literate people who could pick up a new loanword from a written source and reuse it in another written source. This is especially likely if the word was introduced in writing and not orally (which it in these cases probably was). Another, more straightforward explanation is that it is simply less likely that older texts have survived long enough to allow us to find the words in question. Hence, there may have been many more texts containing e.g. *butkin*, but they have simply never been found. Furthermore, instead of assuming that many words went out of fashion during the latter part of the 17th century (as one might think while looking at Figure 5.4), it is probably rather the case that so many Dutch nautical words were adopted by the English at this time that a proportionally high number of these must never have made it into wider usage—to which the large number of single quotations testify.

According to Figure 5.4, a significant amount of loanwords became obsolete between 1751 and 1900. During this time, and reaching a climax in the 1850s, steam-powered iron ships started to replace the traditional wooden sailing vessels—the market was tough, however, and sailing vessels continued to be in use for a long time (Graham 1956:75-77). So much so that the great sailing ships are said to have been at their zenith in the 1880s and 90s (Schäuffelen 2005:xiii). Thus, arguing that the decline of Dutch nautical loans between 1751 and 1900 was due to technological maritime innovations becomes problematic. Even more so when we take a closer look at which words are behind the last four bars in Figure 5.4. Only three of the words are ships (*boyart*, *herring-buss*, and *jagger*) and one denotes a sailing manoeuvre (*laveer*). There is one word that has to do with on-board equipment, *meck*, which is a harpoon-rest and thus not restricted to a sailing vessel. The other words have even less to do with maritime technology in general or sailing in particular—in fact, four of them are fish. The reason behind their disappearance might be as simple as the fact that as Great Britain was, in terms of global power and influence, rapidly outdoing the Netherlands at this point, the English language became more important. Combined with ever more efficient communication (including faster means of travel and a larger market for printed works), this may have caused words used in certain communities (with, historically, Dutch influence) to be substituted by more widely known and used English equivalents. A *boyart* is for example now called a ‘hoy,’ a *potfish* or *potwalfish* is a ‘sperm whale,’ a *caper* is today known as a

'pirate' or even (in historical usage) 'buccaneer,' and there is no need to use *overschippen* when English words can easily be used to describe the same thing.

When it comes to the obsolete words according to *COHA*, one could argue that since it only contains American English texts from the 1810s and onwards, it is no more accurate than the *OED* in giving a clear picture of the dying out of certain words. Many of the loanwords could still have been in use in other English-speaking parts of the world, or as part of technical jargon not covered by the corpus. As for *Google*, considering that some of the obsolete words (i.e. those not found through the search engine in the relevant nautical sense) are homonyms of other, more 'popular,' words (e.g. *hovel* or *pink*), it is not surprising that no results for these words were found when only looking at the first 100 hits. Consequently, the results of these two studies are not very interesting in a discussion revolving around the obsolete status of some of the loanwords. Nevertheless, they are quite helpful for the discussion of the survival of these.

5.2.3 The survival of loanwords through figurative usage and occurrence in fiction

Based on the *OED Online*, plenty of the Dutch nautical loanwords still survive. But what about words such as *schuit*, *trekschuit*, and *sea-fardinger*, or *clapmatch* and *crang*, or even the remarkable *mallemaroking*? With the exception of *sea-fardinger* perhaps, it might be quite a challenge for a native speaker of English to explain what these words mean. And yet, according to the *OED Online*, they are not obsolete. As explained earlier (see Section 4.2), the *OED* might simply not be up-to-date concerning the current status of some of the half a million words. Another possible answer is that some words are used historically. This was encountered frequently while using *Google* to check the present-day status of some of the words. Online dictionaries, thesauri and encyclopaedias (e.g. *Wikipedia*) contain a surprising number of the words discussed in this thesis.[21] Half of the loanwords above can be found online in such ways. But for them to be present on the Web they must have survived from their adoption several centuries ago to, at the very least, the initiation of works like the *OED*. The last part of this chapter will look at how figurative speech and works of fiction have contributed to this.

[21] '*Wikipedia* is a multilingual, web-based, free-content encyclopedia *[sic]* project based on an openly editable model … [and] is written collaboratively by largely anonymous Internet volunteers' (*Wikipedia*, 'About').

Just as the archaic sense of 'to prove' as 'to test' is preserved in the proverb 'the exception proves the rule,' so are some of the Dutch loanwords better preserved in figurative than in literal speech. Naturally, the 'fixed' position of the word in such a meaning allows it to remain in the language for longer than if it were simply an isolated part of a person's vocabulary. For a few of the words under discussion here, this is the case. Referring to Table 4.4 for the *COHA* results, we see that the words *keelhaul*, *maelstrom*, *splice* (both *n.* and *v.*), and *split* occur more frequently in figurative sense than in literal. *Dock* (*v.*) and *iceberg* are not far behind. The results from the *Google* searches in Table 4.6 show similar tendencies for *dock* (although only as *n.*), *iceberg*, *maelstrom*, and *splice* (again, both *n.* and *v.*). As it is safe to assume that modern navies and shipping companies employ other means of punishment for their crew members than dragging them, under water, from one side of the boat to the other, it is interesting to note that *keelhaul* is still used so extensively in figurative speech where it means 'a scolding' or is used as an amusing 'threat.' *Maelstrom* originally referred to a mythical place at sea in northern waters where a giant vortex sucked ships under. As such a place does not exist, it is not surprising that *maelstrom* has survived as a synonym for e.g. a 'chaotic situation.' For *splice*, it is a given that the action of fastening one piece of rope or cord to another by twining them together lends itself very well as a metaphor for 'marriage.' There were only eight instances of the relevant nautical sense of *split* (of a ship: 'breaking apart on the rocks'), but most of these were nevertheless figurative in meaning as in the phrase 'the rock which will split us.' The word *dock* saw some usage in figurative speech for the docking of a spaceship in the second half of the 20th century, but even more so nowadays in connexion to computers, as in 'iPod docking device' (i.e. a device which allows you to connect an MP3 player to your computer). Finally, while icebergs are very real and frequently encountered in arctic waters, *iceberg* is also used extensively in the phrase 'the tip of the iceberg' throughout the entire corpus. The *Google* hits show very much the same types of usage, especially regarding *dock*, which occurs frequently related to computers as the most popular hits for this word are from online stores or from websites dedicated to reviewing new electronic devices. To sum up: while some words survive in both literal as well as figurative senses, others have been preserved largely due to their being 'fixed' in figurative expressions or phrases.

Apart from figurative versus literal usage, the occurrence of loanwords in fiction versus non-fiction in *COHA* was also documented (see Appendix B). Four loanwords were found exclusively in fiction (*brack*, *matross*, *swabber*, and *trice*), but as only a few tokens of these were found, this may not mean a great deal. Additionally, *hooker*, *pram*, and *stoker*

occurred in equal measure in both fictional and non-fictional sources. Still, only six of the 34 words were used more in non-fiction than in fiction. These are: *dock* (*v.*), *iceberg*, *keelhaul*, *snook*, *speck*, *veer*, and *whiting*. *Iceberg* and *keelhaul* are often used in established phrases as explained above, *speck* only occurs once, and *whiting* was mainly found in cookery books. From this, one could conclude that the nautical sphere as a whole is simply more represented in fiction. Of course, given the popularity of the adventure, sea voyage, and piracy genres, this is not wholly unexpected.

Most of the words have either too few tokens or are too evenly distributed to provide satisfactory explanations for their usage, but a few may be examined here. Figure 5.5 shows the occurrence of *freebooter*, *handspike* (*n.*), and *taffrail* in fiction:

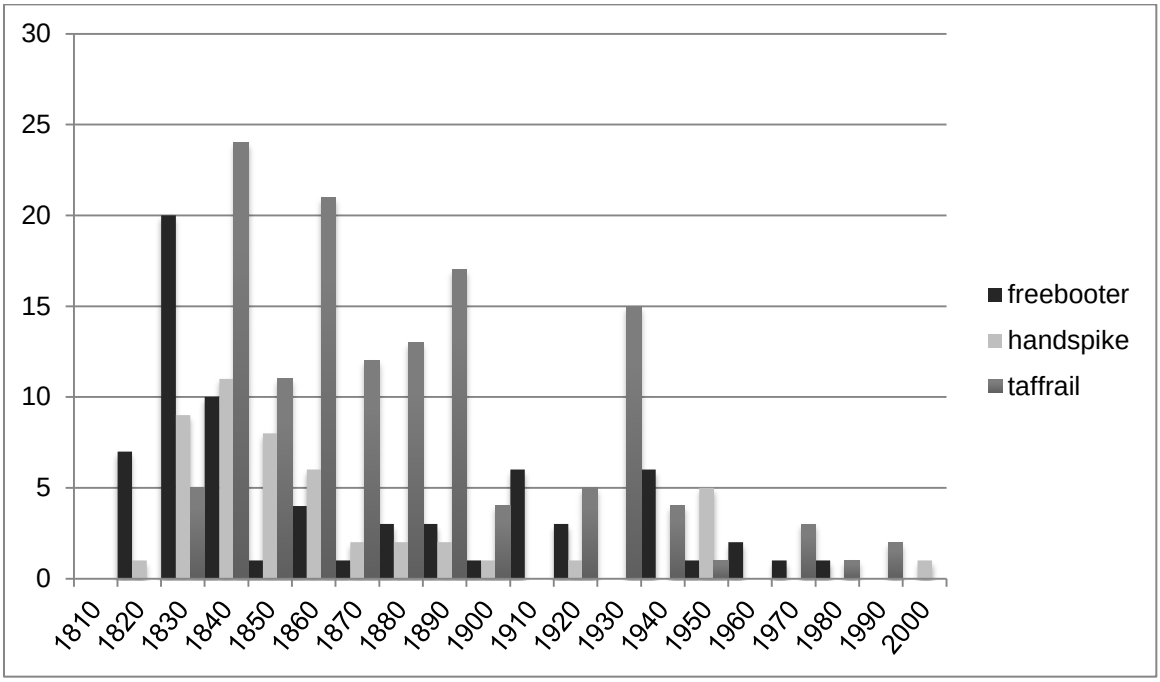

Figure 5.5: *Freebooter*, *handspike*, and *taffrail* in fiction

Sloop is presented on its own for clarity in Figure 5.6 because the number of tokens is much higher and would dwarf those in the previous chart:

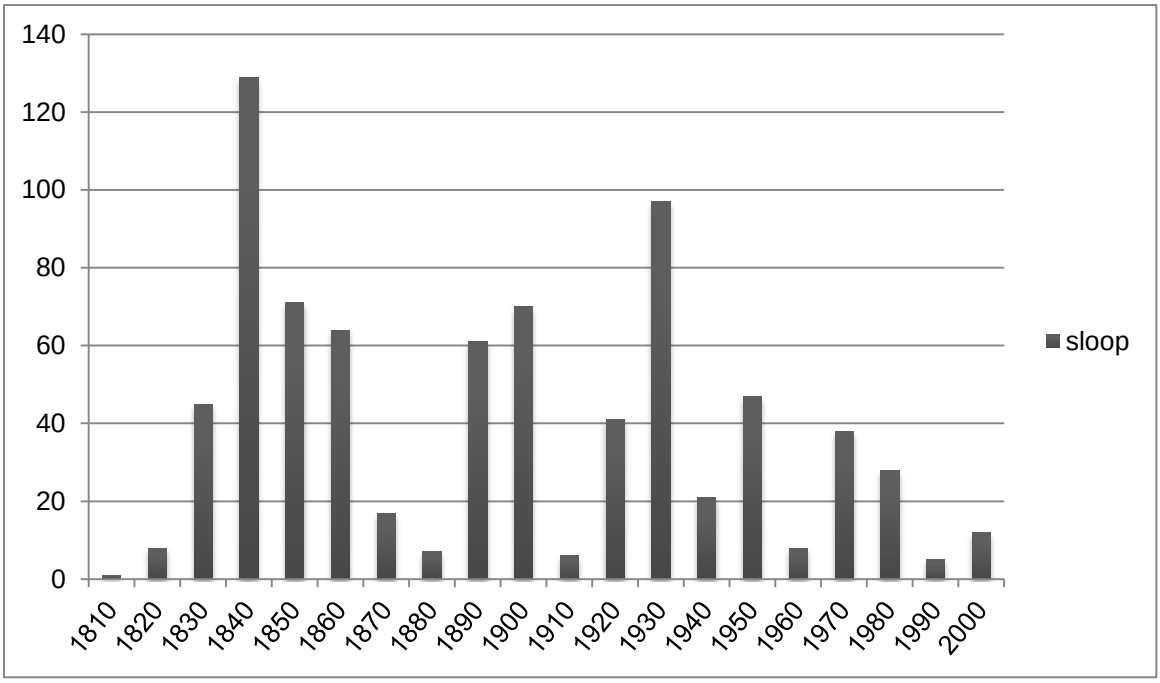

Figure 5.6: *Sloop* in fiction

The bar charts suggest that the words were most popular around the 1840s, at the turn of the 20th century, and shortly before the Second World War. It would seem that the relevant genres were at their most popular around these times.

Another loanword's occurrence in fiction is interesting for a different reason, as shown in Figure 5.7:

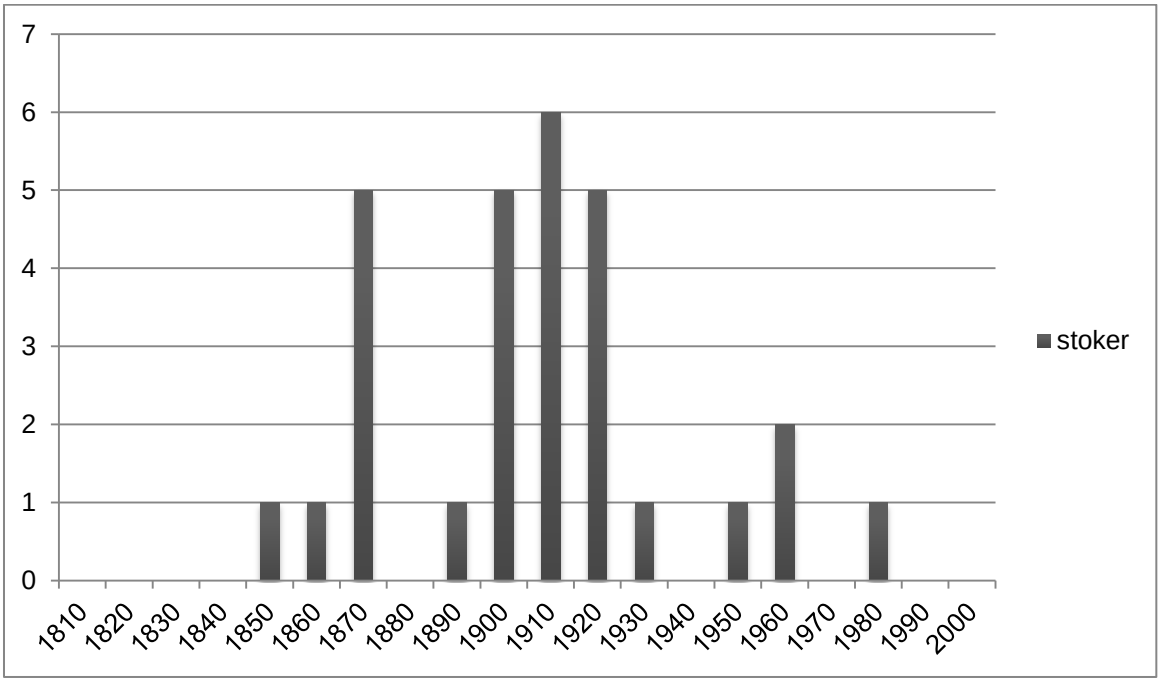

Figure 5.7: *Stoker* in fiction

As steam powered ships became more and more normal, so did the man responsible for their propulsion: the *stoker*. The other results for fiction have been included in Appendix B due to space restrictions.

Unfortunately, *Google* is unsuitable for a study of fictional versus non-fictional usage as the informal character of the Web and the lack of convenient genre tags make it very hard to determine if a text is meant as fiction or not. This, combined with the rather random distribution of *COHA* tokens makes it difficult to give specific answers to the question of loanword survival due to fiction. But since the nautical sphere is heavily represented in fiction—more so than in non-fiction—it must be concluded that fiction on the whole has made an important contribution to the continued existence of Dutch nautical loans in the English vocabulary.

6 | CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Thesis summary

In this thesis I have examined the existence and status of Dutch nautical, maritime, and naval loanwords in the English language by means of the research questions and hypotheses outlined in Chapter 1. The conclusions of this will be presented below. In Chapter 2 I presented the relevant academic background for the topic, along with some of the theoretical frameworks associated with the mechanics of borrowing. The advances of previous research were also outlined. Chapter 3 was devoted to presenting the material used to identify, collect, and interpret the loanwords (*OED Online*, *COHA*, and *Google*), as well as to explaining the methodology applied to the material. The results of this were presented in Chapter 4 and constituted a selection of the most relevant part of the compiled wordlist (i.e. loanwords from the category 'certain'), as well as the outcomes of the diachronic *COHA* and present-day *Google* studies. Finally, in Chapter 5 I outlined the historical Anglo-Dutch relationship to provide a context for the following discussion of the results.

6.2 Conclusions

The identification and collection of the loanwords, along with their subsequent categorization as 'certain,' 'possible,' or 'suggested,' was made possible by a selection of sources of which the *OED Online* formed the basis. This allowed me to create a clear and comprehensive list of Dutch nautical, maritime, and naval loanwords in English. By examining the centuries-long relationship between the Netherlands and England, I was able to set these loanwords in a historical perspective, aided by the first quotations of the words in the *OED Online*, which allowed me to answer research question a) *When were these loans incorporated into the English language?* It appeared that the Dutch 17th-century Golden Age indeed caused, as hypothesized, the greatest influx of loanwords. This is reinforced by the borrowing scales discussed in Section 2.2.2, which show that influential groups can cause cultural borrowings to be taken up 'abruptly' by the recipient language. This is in turn supported by the fact that the loanwords consist of only content words (overwhelmingly nouns)—further proof of the

Netherlands being the influential party, but that this influence only went as far as introducing new ideas and technology. However, the assumption in the second part of the hypothesis for research question a), namely that many loanwords were adopted in the 16th and early 17th century due to massive waves of Flemish immigrants, was not convincingly verified—at least not when it comes to the words of a nautical nature that are discussed here. Areas that they did contribute to are probably found in the cloth industry, economics, etc., but these are unfortunately not part of this thesis.

Naturally, the definitions of the loanwords made categorization by theme possible (see Sections 4.1.1-4.1.11), so that the expected 'ship types and parts, nautical equipment, manoeuvres, slang words, naval tactics, and titles of naval and maritime personnel' were confirmed, as per research question b) *In which areas of application did they* [the loanwords] *appear?* To this we may add types of fish and whale, marine features, piracy, and smuggling, while perhaps slang words (although, without claiming similarity, a few dialectal words were found) may have to be removed from the hypothesized list. *Mallemaroking* is possibly the only one of the loanwords that might be called a slang word. Most of the words, especially in the 17th century, belong to the category 'ship types.' This is explained in Chapter 5 by the fact that Dutch shipbuilders were superior in Europe at the time, leading to much export of these vessels. The next largest category has to do with fish, especially names for such. Dutch fishermen often sold their fish in English markets while Englishmen served in Dutch fleets, which would explain this observation.

Addressing research question c) *When and why were certain words rendered obsolete?*, a variety of reasons for the dying out of some of the loanwords were found. They may simply not have caught on, either because there was no one to reuse the foreign term due to e.g. illiteracy or they found the wrong audience. Another explanation is that the 'opening up' of England because of technological innovation, along with the country's prosperity as a whole, caused old or traditional loanwords to be substituted by new or more widely-used English coinages. The first of these arguments is especially likely in that only a single quotation exists for quite a lot of the obsolete words. In addition, the sheer amount of Dutch loanwords adopted in the 17th century along with the simultaneous dying out of a large number of them might simply be natural in the sense that many adoptions equals a proportionally high number of words that never saw further use. It is similarly often suggested that even though Shakespeare coined a large number of new words and expressions, nevertheless a lot of these never caught on. Finally, many of the sources that could have made

further mention of these words may have been destroyed or never been found, which naturally means that the loans could never have been noted.

It proved difficult to say anything conclusive about the onset of steam-powered and motorized sailing causing some of the words to become obsolete, as was hypothesized. On the contrary, it was found that sailing experienced a slight Golden Age of its own in the latter half of the 19th century. In addition, not many of the words that became obsolete around this time had much to do with ship types or maritime technology. It is safe to assume that similar reasons as those outlined above were behind the gradual dying out of some of the Dutch nautical loanwords. As a final point, it must be noted here that the results from *COHA* and *Google* were not very useful as regards the loanwords becoming obsolete. The tokens found in *COHA*'s 20 decades of corpus material were often too randomly or sparingly distributed to say much conclusive about words dying out between 1810 and the present, although naturally it did show which words were not in use in any of the corpus texts. *Google* showed different results as to which words are now obsolete, although *Google* and *COHA* agreed on 26 obsolete loanwords in addition to the *OED Online*'s obsolete words.

At the opposite end of the spectrum, and as raised in research question d) *Why have certain words persisted?*, we have those loanwords which did survive and are still used in English today. Most of the loanwords from the 'certain' category belong here, but questions were raised about whether all entries in the *OED Online* were fully up-to-date in this respect, to which it is admitted that they are perhaps not. It is unlikely that some of the words not marked 'obs.,' such as *schuit*, have been in use later than 1900. Still, some words that one might not expect to be used anymore, e.g. *bilander*, were found in online dictionaries such as *Wikipedia*, suggesting perhaps that usage in historical works to describe a time-specific vessel, occupation, piece of equipment, etc. preserves at least the knowledge of such words.

Through *COHA* it was found that many of the loanwords had perhaps survived in part due to fiction. Words of a nautical nature may occur more often in fiction than non-fiction in general, but especially the Dutch loanwords were in this case found to be used more often in fictional works. As the novel gained popularity during the 18th century first and foremost as 'histories' (both in the sense 'narrative from the past' and in the more general sense 'story,' as adopted from French *histoire*), it would not be amiss to conclude that stories of travel and exploration, such as the 'adventure novels' *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), *Gulliver's Travels* (1726), and *Treasure Island* (1883), must have contributed to the continued—or even increased—usage of nautical terms (Abrams 2005:200; Morrissey 2008:257-259). The texts in *COHA* do not cover the years before 1810, but several peaks in the occurrence of some of the

loanwords are seen during the two centuries involved. Despite these vague trends, the data was not very conclusive beyond the general observance that the nautical loanwords are used to a larger extent in fiction.

Another preserving factor that was discovered was figurative speech or the symbolic usage of some of the loanwords. The *COHA* and *Google* studies both showed that a few of the words that may perhaps not see much literal usage, may nevertheless have survived due to their being 'fixed' in common expressions and figurative speech. Prime examples of these were *maelstrom* for 'chaos,' *splicing* for 'marrying,' as well as loanwords used in phrases such as '*docking* an iPod,' and 'the tip of the *iceberg*,' although *iceberg* is of course the normal English word for a large, floating piece of ice too.

To conclude, through the material and methods at my disposal I was able to adequately address and answer the research questions outlined in Chapter 1, thereby verifying most of the hypotheses. No evidence was found to support the hypotheses concerning 16th and 17th century Flemish immigrants causing the adoption of Dutch nautical loanwords, and the age of steam and steel contributing to the loanwords becoming obsolete. However, firm evidence was found to support the idea that fiction and figurative speech have played a part in preserving some of the loanwords.

6.3 Limitations encountered

It has been mentioned here and there that time and space restrictions caused methods to be changed or results to be left out of studies. In Section 3.2.2 I explained how the original plan was to make a note of every manner in which a loanword had been used in *COHA*, in Section 3.2.4 that 'possible' and 'suggested' loanwords did not fit in Chapter 4, and in Section 4.3.2 that only non-obsolete loanwords would be examined using *COHA*. This is regrettable, but the allotted time and format of a Master's thesis proved too limited to incorporate all potential, or desirable, material. This does not mean, however, that the end result is in some way diminished. The research questions were answered and notable trends were explored. The inclusion of 'suggested' loanwords in some of the research would in fact have been disadvantageous considering that many of those words are known not to be from Dutch (hence the title 'suggested'), while including 'possible' loanwords might have skewed the data, as many of these words might not be Dutch in origin either. In the case of these

'possible' and 'suggested' loanwords, they have nevertheless been included as Appendix A for the sake of interest.

Some limitations arose in connection with the material used, although this was largely to do with the *OED Online* which was found not to be up-to-date concerning the obsolete status of some of the loanwords, which may have influenced the results in some way. No problems were encountered using *Google*, although it was perhaps the least useful part of the material used. *COHA* worked well enough for the purposes of this thesis apart from some minor technical difficulties, although a corpus that went back in time even further would have been very interesting to use, as would a similar historical corpus for other varieties of English, particularly British English.

6.4 Further study

Given the results of this thesis, language historical works with little space to devote to an in-depth discussion of Dutch influence on English perhaps rightly focus first-and-foremost on nautical loans. As mentioned in Chapter 2, Van der Sijs has done research into Dutch loans in America, but other than this, there seems to be little activity in the field today, and the most thorough investigation of Dutch influence on English remains perhaps Bense (1939), if taken together with Bense (1925).

It would therefore be interesting to perform an exhaustive study into other categories of Dutch loanwords as well. Some themes that come to mind are agriculture, horticulture, and botany, the cloth and weaving industry, medicine, economics, or painting. Other areas with heavy Dutch influence might yet be undiscovered or at least little researched. Thus, further etymological study of English focussing on Dutch loanwords might, I would suggest, very much be in order, because nautical loanwords are undoubtedly just the tip of the iceberg.

APPENDIX A
DUTCH NAUTICAL LOANWORDS: 'POSSIBLE' AND 'SUGGESTED'

Here are presented the Dutch nautical loanwords belonging to the categories 'possible' and 'suggested' that were excluded from Chapter 4 due to space restrictions.

A.1 List of Dutch nautical loanwords

The Dutch nautical loanwords are ordered, alphabetically, by theme. The lemma, or headword, and references to other headwords appear in **bold**, words of origin or relation in *cursive*. The current status of usage (e.g. *obs.* 'obsolete') as given by the *OED Online*, if other than 'still in use,' is included. The descriptions are largely adapted more or less directly from the *OED Online* although they have been supplemented by other sources where needed or appropriate. Unless useful, only descriptions to do with nautical themes have been included.

A.1.1 Types of ships

General ships, 'possible'

Bumboat, *n.* (1671) a scavenger's boat, employed to remove 'filth' from ships lying in the Thames, as prescribed by the Trinity House Bye Laws of 1685; a boat employed to carry provisions, vegetables, and small merchandise for sale to ships, either in port or lying at a distance from the shore; acc. to *OED* and Skeat (1910) the origin comes f. from Eng. *bum* 'the posteriors.' Bense (1939:28), however, finds LDu. origins: 'most probably the Du. *bom* (*schuit*) (f. MDu. *bon*, *bonne* "box," "chest," "cask," "the hatch of a ship") must be looked upon as the original both of mod.LG *bumboot* and of the Eng. *bumboat*, which may have been adapted from the LG with which it has form as well as sense in common.' Llewellyn (1936:71) adds that the original and proper sense is 'provision boat' while the obsolete sense 1, 'dirt boat,' is name given in mistake and contempt for Holland.

Cruiser, *n.* (1679), a ship (also a person) that cruises; spec. a war-ship commissioned to cruise for protection of commerce, pursuit of an enemy's ships, capture of slavers, etc. In

C18 commonly applied to privateers. Now, in the British Navy, a class of war-ships specially constructed for cruising; a yacht constructed or adapted for cruising, as distinguished from a 'racer;' also, a motor-vessel designed for pleasure cruises on the sea, or on rivers, canals, etc.; either f. **Cruise**, *v.* + *-er* or directly ad. Du. *kruisen* 'to cross (over).'

Plat, *n.* (1533), a small flat-bottomed boat; ultimately f. MFr. *plete*, *plecte*, *plat* 'flat-bottomed boat;' prob. partly via MDu. *pleite*, *plaite*, *pleit* or MLG *pleyte*, *pleyt* 'seagoing cargo boat.' Hist.

Shout, *n.* (13..), a flat-bottomed boat; ME. *schoute*, *shute*, prob. a. MDu. *schûte*. See also **Schuit**, **Scout**.

Smack, *n.* (1611), a single-masted sailing-vessel, fore-and-aft rigged like a sloop or cutter, and usually of light burden, chiefly employed as a coaster or for fishing, and formerly as a tender to a ship of war; US: a fishing-vessel having a well in which fish may be kept alive; probably ad. Du. *smak*, e.mod.Du. *smacke*.

Yanky, *n.* (1760-1), of doubtful status, origin, and meaning. Perh. f. Du. *Janke*, applied orig. to a particular ship, and so identical with *Yankee*, *n.* and *adj.* (1765), a nickname for a native or inhabitant of New England. Perh. the most plausible conjecture is that it comes from Du. *Janke*, dim. of 'Jan,' 'John,' applied as a derisive nickname by either Du. or Eng. in the New England states. Obs., rare.

Yawl, *n.* (1670), a ship's boat resembling a pinnace, but somewhat smaller, usually with four or six oars; a small sailing-boat of the cutter class, with a jigger; a small kind of fishing-boat; app. ad. MLG *jolle* (LG *jolle*, *jölle*, *jelle*), or Du. *jol* (C17).

'Suggested'

Schooner, *n.* (1716), a small sea-going fore-and-aft rigged vessel, orig. with only two masts, but now often with three or four masts and carrying one or more topsails. App. the name (mistakenly thought to be f. Du. prob. due to the *sch-* spelling) originated in Massachusetts f. Eng. *scoon*, *v.* 'to skim along on the water' (Skeat, 1910:540; Llewellyn, 1936:72). The ship is frequently suggested as being adopted from Du. (see e.g. Nevalainen, 1999:374).

Fishing boats, 'possible'

Buss, *n*. (1330), a vessel of burden; spec. a two- or three-masted vessel of various sizes, used esp. in the Du. herring-fishery; in 1794 identified with a 'fly-boat;' in the sense of vessel of burden probably from OF *busse*, in the sense of fishing-boat it is generally supposed to be ad. MDu. *bûse*, *buusse*, *buysse*, 'vase,' 'cup,' 'small vessel,' spec. as used in the herring fishery; the Du. word is ad. OF. *busse*, and was perh. imported on the coast near Dunkirk; if the Eng. word is from MDu., then it has been approximated in sound to *busse* f. OF *busse* (Llewellyn 1936:94-95). Obs. exc. hist.

Dogger, *n*. (1356), a two-masted fishing vessel with bluff bows, somewhat resembling a ketch, used in the North Sea deep sea fisheries; formerly applied to Eng. craft as well as those of other nations, but now practically restricted to Du. fishing vessels (though out of use in Holland itself); acted frequently as privateers in C17-18; one of the crew of a *dogger* (*dogger-man*) (obs.); cf. Anglo-Fr. and ME *doggere*; also in Du. and LG from C15. Origin uncertain. The Du. word is evidently related to the obscure MDu. *dogge*, in phr. *ten dogge varen* 'to go to the cod-fishing;' The *Dogger-bank* is generally supposed to be named either from this word or MDu. *dogger* 'trawler.'

Tode, *n*. (c1600), more fully *tode-boat*: a small Du. fishing-vessel; origin obscure: no similar term is known in Du.; but cf. Groningsche dialect *todden* 'to drag,' 'tug,' 'tow,' *todde*, *tod*, 'as much as one can carry,' 'burden,' 'load;' also Gelderland and Overijssel dial. *todden* 'to drag.' Obs.

Trading and merchant vessels, 'possible'

Lighter, *n*. (1487), a boat or vessel, usually a flat-bottomed barge, used in lightening or unloading (sometimes loading) ships that cannot be discharged (or loaded) at a wharf, etc., and for transporting goods of any kind, usually in a harbour; f. *light*, *v*. + *-er*, or ad. Du. *lichter* 'lightener,' 'lifter' of equivalent formation.

'Suggested'

Billy-boy, *n*. (1855), a Humber or east-coast boat, of river-barge build, and a try-sail; a bluff-bowed north-country trader, or large one-masted vessel of burden; derivation unknown: it has been conjecturally compared with the much earlier **Bilander**; also, interestingly, with *bully-boy*, orig. a term of endearment. Llewellyn (1936:72) quotes Smyth (1855, *Sailor's Wordbook*) who 'derives boy from Du. *boeier*, a sloop of Flemish construction.' See also **Boyer**.

A.1.2 Ship parts and shipbuilding

'Possible'

Bow, *n*. (1626), the fore-end of a ship or boat; being the rounding part of a vessel forward, beginning on both sides where the planks arch inwards, and terminating where they close, at the rabbet of the stem or prow, being larboard or starboard from that division; in pl. 'bows,' i.e. the 'shoulders' of a boat; corresp. in form and sense to LG *bûg*, Du. *boeg*, Da. *boug*, *bov*, Sw. *bog*, all with senses 'shoulder of man or beast,' and 'bow of a ship.' **Bow** is thus in origin the same word as *bough*, but while the latter has come down direct from OE in one of the OE senses, **Bow** has been ad. at a later time from LG, Du., or Da., in the special sense of the 'shoulders' of a boat or ship, developed in the maritime speech of one or other of these, but not known to OE or ME. See also **Bowline**, **Bowsprit**.

Bowsprit, *n*. (c1330), a large spar or boom running out from the stem of a vessel, to which (and the jib-boom and flying jib-boom, which extend beyond it) the foremast stays are fastened; the origin seems to lie between LG, Du., and Eng.: in the latter *spréot* was itself used in a naut. sense in OE and ME. But against the compound *bow-sprit* being of Eng. origin, are the late appearance of **Bow** in the language, and the numerous perverted forms with *bore, boar, bolt, bold, bole, bowle*, which seem to show that the connexion with **Bow** was not evident to Eng. sailors, either in sense or pronunc. Llewellyn (1936:73) suggests it being perh. from MLG *bôchsprêt* (LG *boogspreet, -spriit*, e.mod.Du. *boechspriet*, Du. *boegspriet*). See also **Bow**.

Bumkin, **Bumpkin**, *n*. (1632), a short boom projecting from each bow of a ship, to extend the lower edge of the foresail to windward; also applied to similar booms for extending

the mainsail and the mizzen; f. *boom* + *-kin*; possibly the Du. *boomken* may formerly have been used in this special sense. The spelling *bumpkin* is now more usual. Llewellyn (1936:74) accurately notes the likelihood of an Eng. ad. of the Flem. dim. *boomken* as in Holland the dim. is *boompje*.

Crance, *n*. (1846), a kind of iron cap on the outer end of the bowsprit, through which the jib-boom traverses; a name sometimes given to any boom-iron; possibly ad. Du. *krans* 'wreath,' 'garland.'

Nock, *n* (1420-1), the tip or extremity of a yardarm (Sc. Obs); the foremost upper corner of a four-sided fore-and-aft sail; origin uncertain. Analogous nautical senses appear in several Germanic languages, but the order of borrowing among them is unknown; Cf. WFris. *nok* 'tip of a yardarm,' 'top corner of a sail,' MDu. *nocke* 'peak,' 'top beam of a roof' (C15) Du. *nok* 'extremity of a spar that does not stand vertically on a ship' (mid C17), 'each of the two corners of a four-sided sail between the yard and one of the standing spars' (C19), LG *Nock* 'topmost part of a gaff,' 'part of a sail,' Germ. *Nock* 'end of a yard' (C16: 'end of a sail'), Icel. *hnokki* 'end of a yard,' 'tip of a sail on a yard,' Norw. *nokke* 'yardarm,' Sw. *nock* 'end of a yard, boom, or gaff,' 'upper corner on a sail.' Llewellyn seems certain that the word is ad. the synonymous Du., Flem. and Fris. *nok* or LG. *nokk* (1936:73).

Reef (1), *n*.[22] (1336-7), a section of a sail, freq. each of three or four bands or strips, which can be taken in or rolled up to reduce the area exposed to the wind; freq. in 'to take in a reef' (similarly 'to let out a reef,' etc.); the action or an act of reefing a sail; a particular method of reefing (rare); app. orig. f. early Scand. (cf. Old Icel. *rif*, Norw. *rev*, (Nynorsk) *riv*, Sw. *rev*, Da. *reb*, *rev*); these forms are prob. (orig. denoting a strip of fabric) f. the Scand. base of Old Icel. *rífa* 'to tear off;' cf. (with different ablaut grade) OE *arāfian* 'to roll up.' In later use app. reborrowed f. Du. *reef*, *rif* and the related MLG *ref*, both ultimately either cognate with or f. the early Scand. word.

Skeg, *n*. (a1625), in ship-building, a knee which braces and unites the sternpost, the keel of a boat; perh. directly ad. Du. *scheg*, *schegge*, which reproduce the Scand. *skegg*, 'a beard' (Llewellyn 1936:75).

[22] Not to be confused with *reef* (2) in Section 4.1.10.

'Suggested'

Bowline, *n*. (c1325), a rope passing from about the middle of the perpendicular edge on the weather side of the square sails (to which it is fastened by three or four subdivisions, called 'bridles') to the larboard or starboard bow, for the purpose of keeping the edge of the sail steady when sailing on a wind; 'on a bowline:' said of a ship when close-hauled, (i.e. with the bow-line) so as to sail close to the wind; found in most modern Teut. lang.: Sw. *boglina*, Da. *bovline*, Du. *boeglijn*, Ger. *bulien*; whence also Fr. *bouline*, It., Sp., Pg. *bolina*. In all the Teut. lang. it is connected in form with the ship's bow, which seems to be the derivation; though, as it is found in Eng. several centuries before **Bow**, it does not appear whence we received it, nor why the pronunciation does not agree with that of *bow*. Bense states that since **Bowline** appeared in Eng. at about the same time as **Bowsprit** he suggests MLG *bôchlîne as its origin, which would also account for its pronunc. (1939:21) (/ˈbəʊlaɪn/, not */ˈbaʊlaɪn/). See also **Bow**, **Bowsprit**

Caboose, *n*. (1769), the cook-room or kitchen of merchantmen on deck; a diminutive substitute for the galley of a man-of-war; generally furnished with cast-iron apparatus for cooking; identical with Du. *kabuis*, *kombuis*, earlier Du. *combûse*, *cabûse*, MLG *kabhûse* (whence mod.Ger. *Kabuse*), also Fr. *cambuse*. App. introduced into the navy about the middle of C18. The original lang. was perh. LG, but the history and etymology are altogether obscure.

Cuddy, *n*. (1660), a room or cabin in a large ship abaft and under the round-house, in which the officers and cabin-passengers take their meals; spec. the captain's cabin; of uncertain origin. *OED* compares C16 Du. *kaiûte*, mod.Du. *kajuit*, used in same sense.

Deck, *n*. (1513), a platform extending from side to side of a ship or part of a ship, covering in the space below, and also itself serving as a floor, formed of planks, or (in iron ships) of iron plating usually covered with planks; the primary notion was 'covering' or 'roof' rather than 'floor;' in the general sense of a covering app. of LDu. origin, prob. ad. MDu. *dec*, 'roof,' 'covering,' 'cloak' (Llewellyn 1936:74); in a naut. sense the word is not known in Du. before 1675-81, when *dek* (neut.) appears as a synonym of *verdek* 'covering,' quoted in the naut. sense in 1640. Thus, *deck* in the naut. sense, appears to be known in Eng. 160 years earlier than in Du. It may be simply a spec. application of the general sense 'covering,' or it may come more immediately from the MDu. sense 'roof.'

Hull, *n*. (1571), the body or frame of a ship, apart from the masts, sails, and rigging (also of an airship, flying boat, etc.); a dismantled vessel (obs.); While de Vries (1916:125)

suggests it being f. Du. *hol* ‘hold’ (of a ship), *OED* is undecided and finds the origin obscure: the word is not known before c1550; possibly the same word as *hull* (in sense ‘shell,’ ‘pod,’ ‘husk’) but decisive evidence is wanting. It has been conjectured by some to be identical with the C15-16 *holl* corrupted as early as 1591 to *hold*; but, beside the phonetic difficulty, this appears nearly always to mean the internal cavity of the ship (cf. Du. *scheepshol*), and not to be applied like **Hull** to the external framework. There is an equivalent sense of *hulk*, which, however, is not known before c1630, and thus does not help the explanation of **Hull**.

Keelson, **Kelson**, *n*. (c1611), a line of timber placed inside a ship along the floor-timbers and parallel with the keel, to which it is bolted, so as to fasten the floor-timbers and the keel together; a similar bar or combination of iron plates in iron vessels; de Vries (1916:127) gives a MDu. origin: *colswÿn*. *OED* finds no Du. derivation, however, although it shows it corresp. to Du. *kolzwijn*, *kolsem*, but also LG *kielswîn*, Ger. *kielschwein*, Da. *kølsvin*, Sw. *kölsvin*. The first element is app. *keel*, but of the second the orig. form and meaning are obscure. In all the equivalents cited, except Du. *kolsem*, the second element is identical with the word corresp. to Eng. *swine*, and it appears that in C18 LG *swîn* was used by itself in the sense of ‘*keelson*.’ The Eng. forms may therefore represent a ME **kelswīn*. The original may have been an unrecorded ON **kjǫlsvín* or **kjalsvín*, independently adopted in Eng. and LG. The corruptions *keelstone*, *kelston*, *kelsom*, *keelsale*, originate mainly in the lack of stress on the second element.

Plight-anchor, *n*. (1508), the largest of a ship's anchors; Llewellyn (1936) uses **Plicht-anker**, *OED* uses **Plicht** as short for **Plight-anchor**; prob. f. MLG *plichtanker* (Ger. regional (LG) *plicht-anker*), prob. f. *plicht* ‘small fore- (or after-) deck of an open boat’ (OS *pleht*) + *anker* ‘anchor.’ Cf. Du. *plechtanker*, Du. regional *plichtanker*, and also Sw. *plikt-ankare*, Da. *pligtanker*; an alt. expl. of MLG *plichtanker* derives the first element f. MLG *plicht*, ‘duty,’ ‘responsibility’ perh. with reference to the anchor being the largest one of the ship; Llewellyn (1936:77) prefers ad. LG *plichtanker* or Du. *plechtanker*. Sc. Obs.

Ra, *n*. (1494), a sailyard; ON *rá*, Du. *ra*, MLG *râ*; in Sc. the word can be from any one of these three, but a LDu. origin is the more probable, as the late appearance of the word counts against an ON origin (Llewellyn 1936:73); *OED* contains no **Ra** in this sense at all. Sc.

Rail, *n*. (1313-14), a horizontal bar, usually of wood or metal, fixed on upright supports as part of a fence or barrier; a piece of wood, metal, etc., used for this purpose. De Vries gives an Old Low German (Old Saxon) origin, *OED* finds no evidence for this, favouring ad. Anglo-No. *raille*, Anglo-No. and OF, MFr. (chiefly northern) *reille* ‘bar,’ ‘rail,’ ‘board.’

Scuttle, *n*. (1497), a square or rectangular hole or opening in a ship's deck smaller than a hatchway, furnished with a movable cover or lid, used as a means of communication between deck and deck; a similar hole in the deck or side of a ship for purposes of lighting, ventilation, etc.; a hole cut or bored through any part of a ship, esp. for salving the cargo; the lid of a scuttle-hole or hatchway; of obscure origin. The Eng. word is commonly believed to be adopted from the Fr. *escoutille, écoutille* 'hatchway,' and this from the Sp. *escotilla*; but the relation between the three, and the ultimate etymology, remain uncertain. App. the Fr. word formerly meant the hatch or trap-door covering the hatchway; if this was the original sense, the word might be a derivative of Du. or LG *schutten* 'to shut;' cf. Eng. shuttle (of a dam).

A.1.3 Equipment and tackle

General equipment, 'possible'

Ballast, *n*. (1486), any heavy material, such as gravel, sand, metal, water, etc., placed in the hold of a ship to weigh it down in the water and prevent it from capsizing when under sail or in motion; prob. f. either MLG *ballast* (2nd half of C14), Du. *ballast* (1399), or MFr. *ballast* (1375), all perh. ultimately of Scand. origin. The priority among these words and the relationships between many of them are unclear. Although many are close in date, the earliest attested appears to be the participial form corresponding to Old Swe. *barlast* (prob. f. *bar* 'mere' + *last* 'load,' 'cargo,' with *-rl-* becoming *-ll-* by assimilation, and this is often interpreted as the ultimate etymon. However, it has conversely been suggested that the original coinage was MLG *ballast* (see above), etymologized f. *bal* 'bad' + *last* 'load,' 'cargo,' the Scand. forms in *bar-* being interpreted as folk-etymological, although this does not appear to be supported by the recorded chronology. Old Da. *baglast*, lit. 'back load' (1622) and Du. *balglast*, lit. 'belly load' (C17) prob. represent later remodelling by folk etymology.

Buoy, *n*. (1466), a floating object fastened in a particular place to point out the position of things under the water (as anchors, shoals, rocks), or the course which ships have to take; to float a cable in a rocky anchorage to prevent its chafing against the rocks; as compound *bell-buoy*, a buoy fitted with a bell, to ring with the agitation of the water, and so give warning of danger; something adapted to buoy up or keep afloat a person in the water; it

is not clear whether the Eng. word was originally from OF *boie*, *buie* or from MDu. *boje*, *boye*, *boei* (Llewellyn 1936:82).

Buoy, *v*. (1596), to rise to, or float on, the surface of a liquid; to rise, swell (as the sea) (obs.); to keep from sinking (in a fluid), to keep afloat; to keep up, support, sustain (usually with 'up'); to raise to the surface of a liquid; to bring afloat (e.g. a sunken ship); to keep up, keep from sinking, support, sustain, (persons, courage, hope, heart, spirits, etc.) (usually with 'up'); to raise, lift, cause to rise (the heart, spirits, etc.) (usually with 'up'); to furnish or mark with a buoy or buoys; to mark as with a buoy (rarely with 'out'); f. prec. *n*.

Cringle, *n*. (1627), a ring or eye of rope, containing a thimble, worked into the bolt-rope of a sail, for the attachment of a rope; app. of LG origin: cf. Ger. (mostly LG and MG) *kringel*, MLG and mod.LG *krengel*, Du. *kringel* dim. of *kring* 'circle,' 'ring.'

Fother, *v*. (1789), to cover (a sail) thickly with oakum, rope yarn, or other loose material fastened on it, with the view of getting some of it sucked into a leak, over which the sail is to be drawn; to stop a leak by this method; prob. ad. Du. *vOEDeren* (now *voeren*) 'to feed,' 'to line,' or LG *fodern* (Ger. *füttern* 'to line').

Mesh, *n*. (a1425), any of the open spaces or interstices between the threads or cords of a net; later also: a similar space in any network, as a sieve, a piece of knitting, etc.; the thread, link, or stitch surrounding a single hole in a net or net fabric; the threads or cords of a net collectively; netting, hence: a material formed of a network of threads, wires, etc., or containing a pattern of holes; either f. MDu. *masche*, *maesche*, *maessce*, *maersche* (Du. regional *massche*, *maersche*, Du. *maas*: compare **Mass**) f. the Germanic base of *mask* (same sense), or perh. the reflex of an unattested OE noun f. the same Germanic base. It has been suggested that *mesh* with a short vowel represents an early ME shortening of an unattested OE **mǣsc*, (Anglian) **mēsc*; the forms *meash*, *measshe*, *meish*, *meishe*, which suggest at least some currency for a pronunc. with reflexes of ME long open and close *ē*, would thus represent survivals of a variant without shortening. The form *mash* has similarly been taken to show the survival of unattested OE **mæsc*, corresp. to the attested plural form *max*. However, it is far more likely that the word is simply a borrowing f. MDu. Even if a continuation of a native OE form were to be proved, the frequency with which fishing terms were borrowed f. Du. in ME and e.mod.Eng. argues strongly that the currency of the word in Eng. from C15 onwards owes a good deal to Du. influence.

Plug, *n*. (1618), a piece of solid material used as a stopper or wedge, or to fill a hole, and related senses; a wooden cylinder attached to a line to allow it to be fired from a gun during sea rescues; either f. e.mod.Du. *plugge* 'wooden nail,' 'plug,' 'bung,' 'stopper' (early

C16; Du. *plug*, (now regional: Flanders) *plugge*, or f. its cognate MLG *plugge* ‘peg,’ ‘pin,’ ‘(wooden) nail,’ ‘plug,’ ‘bung’ (Ger. regional (LG) *plugg*, *plugge*, *plügg*, *plügge*, *plüggen* ‘(wooden) peg,’ ‘pin,’ ‘nail’). Obs.

Plug, *v*. (1630), to stop or fill (a hole, aperture, etc.) with or as with a plug; to drive a plug into (usually with ‘up’); either f. prec. *n*., or perh. orig. either f. e.mod.Du. *pluggen* (Du. *pluggen*) ‘to fasten with a plug,’ ‘to provide with a plug’ or f. MLG *pluggen* (Ger. regional (LG) *plüggen*.

Pump, *n*. (1420), a mechanical device for raising water, and related senses; origin uncertain. App. related to the following, although the direction of any borrowing is unclear: WFris. *pomp* ‘pump,’ ‘water pipe,’ ‘sewer,’ MDu. *pompe* ‘culvert,’ ‘pipe’ (1463; Du. regional (chiefly north.) *pomp*), e.mod.Du. *pompe*, *pomp* ‘ship’s pump,’ in later use also any kind of pump (1530; Du. *pomp* ‘pump’), ‘pump well’ or ‘sink of a ship’ (1573), MLG *pumpe*, *pompe* ‘ship’s pump,’ ‘pump,’ ‘wooden water pipe’ (C15; Ger. regional (LG) *Pumpe* ‘pump,’ (East Friesland) ‘pipe of wood or metal.’ Perh. ultimately of imitative origin. The semantic development of the word is unclear. It has been suggested that the sense ‘water pipe’ is the original sense. This matches the chronology of attestation in Du. but does not explain the early attestation of the sense ‘mechanical device for raising water’ in Eng. and Fr. It has also been suggested that the sense ‘mechanical device for raising water’ first arose in naut. lang., and furthermore that in this sense the word is borrowed from or influenced by Catalan *bomba* (1653), Sp. *bomba* (1495), Port. *bomba* (a1532), all app. partly of imitative origin, and partly f. classical L *bombus*. All of these are, however, app. first attested later.

Redship, *n*. (1553), the equipment or tackle of a ship; f. either MLG *rēdeschap*, *rēdeschop*, *rētschop* ‘equipment,’ ‘accoutrements,’ (spec.) ‘tackle of a ship’ (f. *rēde*, *rēt* ‘ready’ + *-schap*, *-schop* ‘-ship’ (suffix)), or Du. *reedschap* (obs.) ‘equipment,’ ‘accoutrements’ (MDu. *reetscap* f. MDu. *reet* ‘ready’ + *-scap* ‘-ship’ (suffix)). Sc., Obs.

Reek, *v*. (1562-3), to prepare (a ship) for going to sea; to fit or rig out; to equip (usually with *forth*, *out*; ‘to reek to the sea:’ to prepare (a ship, crew, etc.) to go to sea; origin uncertain. Perh. f. either Du. *reken* (obs.) (MDu. *rēken*) or MLG *rēken* (OS *rekōn*), both in sense ‘to put in order,’ although neither of these Germanic *v*. appears to be attested spec. with reference to ships. Alternatively the word may be a variant (with devoicing of the final *g*) of **Rig**, but although that *v*. is a close semantic parallel, this seems less convincing on formal grounds. Obs.

Scoop, *n*. (c1330), a utensil for bailing out, ladling or skimming liquids; usually in the form of a ladle or a concave shovel with a straight handle (chiefly naut. and dial.); the bucket

of a water-wheel or of a dredging or draining machine; App. of twofold origin (which is reflected in the diversity of pronunc.): either a. MLG *schôpe* fem. (whence prob. MSw. *skôpa*) or MDu. *schôpe*, *schoepe* (mod.Du. *schoep*) ‘vessel for drawing or bailing out water,’ ‘bucket of a water-wheel,’ ‘corn-scoop;’ or MDu. *schoppe* fem. (mod.Du. *schop*). It is possible that the word may have come into Eng. through Fr. (*escope* (c1413), mod. dial. *escope*, *escoupe*, *écoupe*) ‘vessel or ladle for bailing out water,’ ‘large shovel,’ ‘skimming-dish,’ but the Fr. word is first found nearly a century later than the Eng., and as the term was in naut. use immediate ad. Du. or LG is not improbable.

Scote, *n*. (1394), perh. a kind of cable; prob. f. Du. *schoot* ‘sheet’ (i.e. rope). Obs. See also **Shoot**.

Shoot, *n*. (1495), a rope (or chain) attached to either of the lower corners of a square sail (or the after lower corner of a fore-and-aft sail), and used to extend the sail or to alter its direction; a. (M)LG. *schôte* or (M)Du. *schoot* (whence C14 Eng. *scote*, mod.Eng. *sheet*). Obs. See also **Scote**.

Shot-prop, *n*. (1875), prob. after Du. *geschutprop*; f. *geschut* ‘shot’ + *prop* ‘a plug,’ ‘wedge,’ ‘stopper,’ ‘cork.’ Obs.

Speke, *n*. (1366), a handspike; a. MDu. or MLG *spēke* ‘spoke.’ Obs. See also **Handspike**.

Tackle, *n*. (a1300), freq. with pronunc. /ˈteɪk(ə)l/; the rigging of a ship: in early use (c1250) often in wider sense of ‘equipment’ or ‘gear;’ in later use spec. the running rigging or ropes used in working the sails, etc., with their pulleys; ground tackle, anchors, cables, etc., by which a ship is made fast to the ground; apparatus for fishing, fishing-gear, fishing-tackle; app. of LG origin: cf. MLG *takel* ‘equipment’ (generally), e.g. of a horseman, spec. of a ship, ‘hoisting apparatus,’ LG *takel*, also e.mod.Du. *takel* ‘strong rope,’ ‘hawser,’ ‘pulley,’ mod.Ger. *takel*, Sw. *tackel*, Da. *takkel* ‘tackle;’ f. MLG *taken*, MDu. *tacken* ‘to lay hold of,’ ‘grasp,’ ‘seize,’ with instrumental suffix *-el*.

Tackle, *v*. (c1400), to furnish (a ship) with tackle; to equip with the necessary furnishings (obs.); to handle or work the tackle of a ship; to tack, or sail across the wind (obs.); to raise or hoist with tackle (obs., rare); f. prec. *n*.

Tackling, *vbl*., *n*. (1486), the furnishing of a vessel with tackle (obs.); the rigging of a ship; the tackle; fishing tackle (obs.); f. *tackle*, *v* + *-ing*.

Wrakling, *n*. (1494), a large make of nail, esp. used in shipbuilding; ad. MLG *wrakelinge*, MDu. *wrakelinc*. Sc., Obs.

'Suggested'

Becket, *n*. (1769), a simple contrivance, usually a loop of rope with a knot on one end and eye at the other, but also a large hook, or a wooden bracket, used for confining loose ropes, tackle, ropes, oars, spars, etc. in a convenient place, and also for holding or securing the tacks and sheets of sails, and for similar purposes; etymology unknown; Du. *bogt*, *bocht* 'bend' (of rope) has been suggested.

Dale, *n*. (1611), a wooden tube or trough for carrying off water, as from a ship's pump; a pump-dale; corresp. to LG and Du. *daal*.

Dredge, *n*. (1471), an instrument for collecting and bringing up objects from the bed of a river, the sea, etc., by dragging along the bottom; usually consisting of an iron frame with a net, bag, bucket, or other receptacle attached; orig. a drag-net for taking oysters, used also in pearl-fishing, etc.; more recently, an apparatus for collecting marine objects for scientific investigation; a dredger for clearing the beds of rivers and navigable waters; acc. to de Vries ad. Du. through OF (1916:114). *OED* is less certain and finds this, and the associated *v*., in the Sc. form *dreg* (c1500), and in the comb. *dreg-boat* (1471); the Eng. form *dredge* appears (in the *v*.) in 1576 (cf. Sc. *seg* = *sedge*, etc.). The *n*. corresponds to mod.Du. *dreg*, in C16 *dregghe*, *dregge*, LG *dregge* 'a dredge,' Fr. *dreige*, *drège* (for oysters), 1584. These continental words are perh. from Eng. and **Dredge** a derivative of the stem of *drag*, *v*. The forms *dreg*, *dredge*, suggest an OE type **drȩcg* or **drȩcge* from **dragjo-*, *-jôn*. The variants *dradge*, *drudge*, *dridge* appear to be perversions under the influence of other words.

Dredge, *v*. (1508), to collect and bring up (oysters, etc.) by means of a dredge; to bring up, fish up, or clear away or out (any object) from the bottom of a river, etc.; to make use of a dredge; to fish for (oysters, etc.), or to remove silt, etc. from the bottom of a river, etc., by means of a dredge; to clean out the bed or bottom of (a river, channel, harbour, etc.) by removing silt with a dredging apparatus; f. prec. *n*.

Pea-jacket, *n*. (1717), a short, double-breasted, woollen overcoat, formerly commonly worn by sailors; origin uncertain; app. f. **Pee** (although this apparently did not survive after C17) + *jacket*. It has been suggested that this word may be ad. Du. *pijjakker*, *pijjekker* (f. *pij* (see **Pee**) + *jakker*, *jekker*, dim. of *jak* (MDu. *jacke*; f. Fr. *jacque*), with the second element assimilated to *jacket*, but this is app. only attested much later (1843), as are corresponding formations in other Germanic lang.

Rig, *v*. (1513), to prepare or make (an army or navy) ready for active service; to prepare (a sailing ship or boat) for going to sea; spec. to set up the sails and rigging of (a

sailing vessel); of a vessel: to be prepared in this way (obs.); with complement specifying a particular type or configuration of masts, sails, spars, etc.; to set up (masts, sails, etc.); spec. to fix in place or make ready for use, esp. by adjusting ropes, also with 'out, up;' to cause (a boom) to run out; to draw (a boom) in; to assemble and adjust (equipment, a machine, etc.) in readiness for use; to prepare for working; to put in order, also with 'up;' to fix or fasten to (also on to) something, esp. by means of rope or wire; origin unknown. Many suggestions have been made for the origin for this word, including derivation f. MDu. *rigen* 'to lace,' 'to baste,' 'sew together with large stitches' (earlier *riën*, *rijen*; Du. *rijgen*; cf. esp. in naut. senses 'to latch together two pieces of sailcloth,' 'to latch a bonnet to a sail with a lasket' (C17)) or its cognate MLG *rīgen*, *rīen* 'to separate off a strip,' 'to draw a line,' 'to thread onto a cord' (C15 or earlier; ultimately f. the Germanic base of *row*). It. *rigano*, a sort of cordage (1321 or earlier), of uncertain origin, has also been proposed as an etymon, but confirmatory evidence is lacking. A Scand. origin has been widely suggested but is difficult to support: Norw. *rigga*, Sw. *rigga*, Da. *rigge* are all attested in the naut. senses covered here, although it is generally accepted that these verbs are ultimately f. Eng.; the same does not appear to be true of Norw. *rigga* 'to bind or wrap up,' Sw. regional *rigga på* 'to harness a horse,' although these present problems of chronology as well as semantics.

Trinket, *n.* (1555), a kind of sail; esp. the triangular sail before the mast, in a lateen-rigged vessel; Acc. to de Vries (1916) f. Fr. *trinquet*; Sp. *trinquete* and ultimately f. Du. *strikken* 'to lace,' 'bind,' 'tie up' with loss of *s*-. *OED* finds no connection with Du. but finds it to be identical with (and prob. ad.) either Fr. *trinquet* 'a foremast' (also its sail), or ad. It. *trinchetto* 'a small sail,' 'the fore-sail.' Obs.

Cordage and rope-work, 'possible'

Belay, **Belage**, *v.* (1549), to coil a running rope round a cleat, belaying pin, or kevel, so as to fasten or secure it; to fasten by so putting it round; said especially of one of the small ropes, used for working the sails; existed in OE (*bi-*, *belęcgan*), but acc. to Skeat (1910:55) the naut. use may have been taken from Du. *beleggen* f. *be-* (prefix) + *leggen* 'to lay,' 'place.' Also found as **Belage** (1678, obs.).

Feaze, *v.* (1568), to unravel (a rope), etc.; of a rope or thread: to unravel at the end; in some way related to OE *fæs* 'fringe;' possibly as a naut. term f. MDu. *vese*, *veze* 'fringe,' 'frayed edge,' which is related by ablaut to the OE word. Obs. exc. naut.

Kink, *n*. (1678), a short twist or curl in a rope, thread, hair, wire, or the like, at which it is bent upon itself; esp. when stiff so as to catch or cause obstruction (orig. naut.); prob. a. Du. *kink* 'twist,' twirl;' corresp. to Ger. *kink*, *kinke*, Da., Sw. *kink*.

Kink, *v*. (1697), to form a kink; to twist or curl stiffly, esp. at one point, so as to catch or get entangled: said of a rope or the like; prob. a. Du. *kinken*, f. prec. *n*.

Shoot, *n*. (1495), sail-rope; a. (M)LG *schôte* or (M)Du. *schoot* 'sail-rope'. Obs. See also **Scote**.

Slabline, *n*. (1647), a small cord passing up behind a ship's main-sail or fore-sail used to truss up the sail; a rope used to haul up the slack of a course, in order to prevent it from shaking, or being split in the act of hauling up the sail; prob. ad. Du. *slaplijn*, f. *slap* 'slack' + *lijn* 'cable,' 'cord,' 'rope.'

Smite, *n*. (1494), a rope attached to one of the lower corners of a sail; ad. MDu. *smiete* or MLG *smîte* (Du. *smijt*, LG *smîte*, Norw. *smīt*, *smitt*, Ger. *schmeite*, *schmiete*), of obscure origin. Sc., obs.

Swift, *v*. (1485), to tighten or make fast by means of a rope or ropes drawn taut; e.g. the rigging or masts, the capstan-bars, or a boat or ship by passing a rope round the gunwale, or round the bottom and upperworks, to prevent strain; owing to the scantiness and the chronological discrepancy of the early evidence, the mutual relation and immediate source of this word and **Swifter**, cannot be clearly ascertained. They are presumably of Scand., LG or LDu. origin: cf. ON *svipta* ('svɪfta) 'to reef', *sviptingar*, *-ingr*, *-ungr* 'reefing-ropes,' Du. *zwichten* 'to take in' (sails), 'roll up' (ropes), *zwichtings*, *zwichtlijnen* 'cat-harpings,' WFris. *swicht* 'partly or completely furled sail,' Ger. *schwigten* 'to snake two ropes together,' *schwigting*, *schwigtleine* 'snake-line,' Da. *svigte* 'to take in' (sail).

Swifter, *n*. (a1625), a rope used for 'swifting'; one of a pair of shrouds, fixed above the other shrouds, for swifting or stiffening a mast; a rope passed through holes or notches in the outer ends of the capstan-bars and drawn taut; a rope passed around a boat or ship as a protection against strain or collision; f. prec. *v*.

Woold, *v*. (1616), to wind rope or chain round (a mast or the like) to strengthen it where it is broken or where (being made of two or more pieces) it is fished or scarfed; also said of the rope; the late appearance of this word suggests that it is a back-formation from **Woolding**, but it was prob. a late ME ad. MLG *wolen*, *wölen* (LG *wölen*, *pa. pple. wöld*), MDu. *woelen*, Du. *woelen* 'to woold,' also Du. *bewoelen* (Ger. *bewuhlen*), Flem. *woeln*, *oelin* 'to bind round with cord or rope,' WFris. *woelje* 'to wind.'

Woolder, *n*. (1548), a woold rope; f. prec. *v*. + *-er* (suffix). Obs.

Woolding, *vbl*., *n*. (c1440), the action of binding an object tightly with cord; esp. naut.: the action of winding rope or chain round a mast or yard, to support it where it is fished or broken; f. late ME *wol(l)ing*, prob. ad. MLG **woling*, MDu. **woeling* (Du. *woeling*, whence Ger. *wuhling*, *wuling*, Da. *vuling*, cf. Sw. *vulning*), f. MLG *wolen*, etc.

'Suggested'

Marl, *v*. (1617), to fasten with marline or small line; to secure together by a succession of half hitches; to wind a line or cord around (a parcelled rope), typically securing it with a hitch at each turn; back-formation f. *marling*, variant of **Marline**, *n*.; cf. Du. *marlen*, *marrelen* 'to fasten with marline' and later attested Ger. regional (LG) *marlen*, Ger. *marlen*, Sw. *märla*, Da. *mærle*, *merle*, all in the same sense. Alternatively, Du. *marlen*, *marrelen* is perh. a frequentative formation f. MDu. *merren* 'to tie;' it is not attested in MDu., although the existence of such a frequentative in MLG is perhaps implied by MLG *marlinc*. Du. regional (WFl.) *marlen*, *maarlen*, *merlen* 'to yoke the horses of two different farmers together in the same wagon, plough, or harrow,' either represents an extension of the nautical sense, or perh. an earlier independent development from a frequentative *v*. as posited above. Obs.

Marline, *n*. (1417), light rope of two strands, used esp. for binding larger ropes; also more generally: strong cord or waxed twine; f. MLG *marlinc*, *merlinc* 'rope of two strands,' perh. origin. a *vbl*. *n*. f. a frequentative *v*. formation parallel to **Marl**. The *vbl*. *n*. ending *-ing* is preserved in forms in several lang.: EFris. *marling*, Du. *marling* (1593), Old Sw. *märling* (1460; Sw. *märling*), Da. *mærling*, *merling*. The second syllable was altered by folk etymology in several lang., including Eng., to *line* or a cognate: cf. WFris. *merlijnne*, Du. *marlijn* (C17), Ger. *Marlleine*.

Marline, *v*. (1706), to 'marline' a sail, to wind marline round a rope; prob. f. prec. *n*. Obs., rare.

Marlinspike, *n*. (1539), a pointed iron or wooden tool used to lift the strands of rope in splicing, etc.; in modern use also: a similar tool as an attachment on a pocket knife; f. *marling* (variant of **Marline**) + *spike*; cf. Du. *marlspijker* (more usually *marlpriem*), Ger. *Marlspieker*, Sw. *märlspik*, Da. *mærlespiger*, *merlespig*; cf. earlier *marling iron*. Obs.

Reeve, *v*. (1600), to pass (a rope or cable) through a hole, ring, or block. Also with 'through'; of a rope: to pass through a block, etc.; of a ship: to thread a course through (shoals or pack ice) (obs.); origin uncertain. Perh. ultimately related to *reef*, *n*., although the nature of

any relationship is unclear. It has been suggested that this *v*. is a borrowing of Du. *reven* 'to take in a reef,' but this is not attested until later.

Wince, *n*. (1688), winch; a variant of *winch*, but perh. influenced by LG *win(n)s*, 'a small capstan', Du. *wins*, 'winch' (Llewellyn 1936:77).

The fishing industry, 'possible'

Elger, *n*. (c1440), an eel-spear; prob. f. OE *ǽl* 'eel' + *gár* 'spear;' perh. f. Flem. *aalgeer, elger* 'eel-spear,' of which the Eng. word may possibly be ad. Obs.

Nostelling, *n*. (1614), a rope running around the top and sides of a fishing net; either f. *norsel*, each of numerous short pieces of cord by which a rope is attached to the sides of a fishing net, + *-ing*, or ad. Du. *nasteling* (obs.), *nesteling* (obs.) (MDu. *nastelinc*, *nestelinc* f. *nastel, nestel* 'norsel' + *-inc* '-ing.' Obs., rare.

Whaling, 'possible'

Mike, *n*. (c1400), a forked support on which a mast rests when lowered; more fully *mike-hook*; a forked support for a gun or small cannon (Sc.); prob. f. MDu. *micke, mik, mic* (Du. *mik*) 'forked stick,' 'supporting pole or prop,' cognate with WFris. *mik, mikke* 'branch,' 'forked prop' (spec. one on which a boat's mast can rest), MLG *micke* (Ger. regional (LG) *Micke*) 'forked support,' 'gun carriage;' further etymology uncertain. In late ME the synonymous **Mitch** was app. borrowed from the same MDu. word, while in C19 **Meck** was borrowed f. Du. *mik* in the context of a harpoon rest for a whale boat. Obs. See also **Meck**, **Mitch**.

Mitch, *n* (1481), (a part of) a mounting for a piece of machinery or equipment, esp. a support for a gun (on a ship etc.); app. ad. MDu. *mic, mik, micke*, although this leaves the final consonant cluster in Eng. unexplained. Sc. regional. See also **Meck**, **Mike**.

A.1.4 Cargo and freighting

'Possible'

Bale, *n*. (c1325), a large bundle or package of merchandise, originally of more or less rounded shape; now, spec. a package closely pressed, done up in canvas or other wrapping, and tightly corded or hooped with copper or iron, for transportation; also: used with more or less precision as a measure of quantity; ME *bale*, perh. a. OF *bale*, *balle*, = Port. and Sp. *bala*, It. *balla*, *palla*, med.L *bala*, *balla*, 'ball, rounded package,' generally taken to be ad. OHG *balla*, *palla*, *ball*; though some refer it to Gr. *πάλλα* 'ball.' However, the Eng. may be immediately from Flem. *bale* (mod.Du. *baal*) 'bale,' itself ad. Fr. or other Romanic lang.

Fraught, *n*. (c1375), the hire of a boat for the transportation of a freight or cargo; the money paid for this; the carriage or transportation of goods, usually by water; the cargo or lading of a ship; prob. a. MDu. or MLG *vracht* (also *vrecht*: see **Freight**) 'freight,' 'cargo,' 'charge for transport;' commonly identified with OHG. frêht str. fem., earnings. The irregular vocalism of the Du. word is supposed to point to ad. Fris. F. Du. or Fris. the word has passed into all Teut. langs. Obs.

Fraught, *v*. (c1400), to load (a ship) with cargo; to hire (a vessel) for the carriage of goods or passengers (Sc. Obs.); f. prec. *n*. Obs. exc. in *pa*. *pple*.

Fraught, *pple*., *ppl*. *a*. (13..), of a vessel: laden; *pa*. *pple*. of prec. *v*.

Freight, *n*. (1463), hire of a vessel for the transport of goods; the service of transporting goods (originally, by water; now extended, esp. in US, to land-transit); the sum of money paid for this; in early use also: passage-money;' to take freight:' to take passage for oneself and goods (obs.); the cargo or lading (of a ship), a ship-load; hence, anything carried by sea or land; 'goods' in transit or being transported by rail (chiefly US), road, or sea; a journey of a laden vessel (obs.); prob. a. MDu. or MLG *vrecht*, var. of *vracht*. See also **Fraught**.

Freight, *v*. (1485), to furnish or load (a vessel) with a cargo; to hire or let out (a vessel) for the carriage of goods and passengers; Also with 'out' and 'to' or 'for' (a place); f. prec. *n*.

Freight, *pple*., *ppl*. *a*. (1494), freighted, laden; *pa*. *pple*. of prec. *v*. Obs.

'Suggested'

Bulk, *n*. (c1440), a heap; spec. the pile in which fish are laid for salting; the cargo of a ship; a cargo as a whole; in bulk (of fish, etc.): lying loose in heaps, without package; in large quantities; to load (a ship) in bulk: to put the cargo in loose, when it consists of wheat, salt, or the like; to sell in bulk: to sell the cargo as it is in the hold; of complicated etymology. While de Vries ascribes the word to Old Low German (Old Saxon) *bulcke* 'the trunk of the body,' 'heap,' 'cargo' (1916:105), *OED* finds no evidence for this, apart from the Flem. *bulck* 'thorax' and suggests that the word may (in the senses 'heap,' 'cargo') be of Scand. origin. Within a few years of its first appearance, **Bulk** occurs in the senses 'belly,' 'trunk of the body,' app. due to confusion with *bouk* 'belly,' 'paunch,' 'abdomen' (obs.), 'trunk of the body' (Sc., dial.); f. OE *búc* 'belly.'

A.1.5 Manoeuvres, orders and tactics

'Possible'

Aloof, *adv*. (1549), (orig. *phr*., *a*. and *prep*.); the order to the steersman to turn the head of the ship towards the wind, or to make her sail nearer the wind (obs.); now *luff*; as *adv*.: 'to spring aloof,' away to the windward; f. *a* (*prep*.) + *loof*, 'luff,' 'weather-gage,' windward direction;' perh. immed. from Du. *loef*, in *te loef* 'to windward,' *loef houden* 'to keep the luff,' etc.; cf. Dan. *luv*, Sw. *lof*, perh. also from Du. The orig. meaning of Du. *loef*, and connexion with ME *lof*, *loof*, 'some kind of rudder' or 'apparatus for steering' are not clear. Skeat infers that perh. 'a paddle (and later a large piece of timber) to keep the ship's head right' was the orig. sense, which may have been Eng. or reborrowed from the cognate Du. *loef* in C16 (1910:350f, under *Luff*).

Avast, *int*. (1681), the nautical order to stop or pause in any exercise (Llewellyn 1936:80), 'Hold!,' 'stop!,' 'stay!,' 'cease!;' prob. a worn-down form of Du. *hou'vast*, *houd vast* 'hold fast:' cf. Du. *hou* 'stop!,' 'stay!' and *houvast* 'cramp-iron.'

'Suggested'

Ahoy, *int*. (1751), a nautical call used in hailing; acc. to de Vries f. Du. *hui!*; *OED* gives no etymological information; Bence does not include it in his *Dictionary of the Low-Dutch Element in the English Vocabulary* (1939); Skeat proposes the prefix a- to be 'an interjectional addition, to give the word more force,' calls *hoy!* a natural exclamation and compares it to mod.Eng. *hi!* (1910:11); it is neither included in J. de Vries & de Tollenaere's (1991) *Etymologisch Woordenboek* or Verdam's (1979) *Middelnederlandsch Handwoordenboek.*

Hoise, *v*. (c1450), to raise aloft by means of a rope or pulley and tackle, or by other mechanical appliance; chiefly: 'to hoise sail;' often with 'up;' 'to hoise out' (forth): to launch, lower (a boat) (obs.); it is not yet known in which lang. this naut. word arose; the Eng. examples are earlier than any cited elsewhere. The forms *hoighce, hoisse, hoise*, appear to arise from a broad pronunc. of *hyce, hysse, hyse* (the mod. representation of which appears to be the northern *heeze*); they are earlier than the interchange of *oi, ī*, in *oil, īle, boil, bīle*, etc.; otherwise, Eng. *oi, oy*, is usually of foreign origin, Fr. or Du.: cf. *rejoice, boil, toy*, etc. It is to be noticed that the word appears early as an interjection, being the actual cry of sailors in hauling: Eng. *hissa* (c1450), Sc. *heisau*, Sp. *hiza*, now *iza*, Port. *içа*, Fr. *inse! inse!*. These Romanic forms have the appearance of the imperative of the *v. hizar, içar, inser*; but whether this is historically so, or whether the *v*. was subsequently formed from the cry, is not clear. Obs. exc. dial.

Sheer, *n*. (1670), an abrupt divergence or deviation of a vessel from the line of her course; a swerve; an oblique position given to or taken by a vessel when under way or when riding at single anchor; f. next *v*.

Sheer, *v*. (1626), of a ship: to turn aside, alter its direction, swerve to either side of its course, in obedience to the helm; chiefly with *adv*., as 'off,' 'out,' 'away;' to swerve to either side irregularly or unsteadily, not in obedience to the helm; also with 'round;' acc. to T. de Vries ad. Du. *scheren, wegscheren* 'sheer,' 'sheer off;' however, acc. to *OED* an adoption f. Du. seems unlikely: Perh. a use of *shear, v*.; but the development of the sense is obscure. In MLG and mod.LG, MHG and mod.Ger., mod.Du. (but not MDu.) the *v. scheren* (etymologically identical with *shear, v*.) often occurs intr. and refl. with the sense 'to withdraw,' 'depart,' '"be off."' This sense is commonly regarded by lexicographers as developed from the sense 'to divide.' The word in continental Teut. does not seem ever to have been in use as a naut. term, so that the common view that the Eng. *v*. is of LG or Du.

origin is not convincing. The correspondence between the senses below and the Ger. and Du. senses above-mentioned is not sufficiently exact to warrant the assumption that the course of development has been parallel.

A.1.6 Piracy and smuggling

Piracy, 'possible'

Filibuster, *n*. (a1587), a freebooter; one of a class of piratical adventurers who pillaged the Spanish colonies in the West Indies during C17; the ultimate source is certainly the Du. *vrijbuiter* (see **Freebooter**). It is not clear whether the C16 Eng. form *flibutor*, of which we have only one example (a1587), was taken from Du. directly or through some foreign lang. Late in C18 the Fr. form *flibustier* was adopted into Eng., and continued to be used, with occasional variations of spelling, until after the middle of C19. About 1850-54, the form *filibuster*, ad. Sp. *filibuster* (presumably ad. Fr. *flibustier*), began to be employed as the designation of certain adventurers who at that time were active in the W. Indies and Central America; and this has now superseded the earlier *flibustier* even with reference to the history of C17. The mutual relation of the forms is involved in obscurity. It is possible that the corruption of *fri-* into *fli-* may be due to the influence of the word **Flyboat** (Du. *vlieboot*, whence Fr. *flibot*, Sp. *flibote*); but against this it may be urged that in the quotation f. a1587 the word seems to be applied to marauders on land. It is possible on the one hand that the corrupt form of the Du. word may be of Eng. origin, and may have been taken into Fr. from its use in the Eng. colonies in the W. Indies; or, on the other hand, that the Fr. form arose in the European wars of C16. In any case the insertion of the *s* probably originated in Fr. as a mere sign of vowel-length, though the *Dictionnaire de Trévoux* (in *OED*) states that the *s* was already pronounced in 1704.

Rove, *v*. (a1548), to practise piracy; to sail as pirates; ad. MDu. or MLG *roven* 'to rob.' Obs.

Rover, *n*. (1390), a sea-robber, pirate; a. MDu. or MLG *rover*, f. *roven* 'to rob.'

Rovery, *n*. (1600), piracy; a. MDu. or MLG *roverie*. Obs., rare.

Smuggling, 'possible)'

Smuggler, *n*. (1661), one who smuggles commodities; esp. one who makes a trade or practice of smuggling; a vessel employed in smuggling; ad. LG *smukkeler*, Du. *smokkelaar*, or LG *smugg(e)ler*. Due to the reasons given in the discussion of the *n*. **Smuggle**, Bense (1939:421) concludes that both Du. *smokkelaar* and LG *smuggeler* are the source of the Eng. word.

Smuggle, *v*. (a1687), to convey (goods) clandestinely into (or out of) a country or district, in order to avoid payment of legal duties, or in contravention of some enactment; to bring in, over, etc., in this way; app. of LG or Du. origin. The earlier form *smuckle* corresponds to LG *smukkeln* (Ger. dial. *schmuckeln, schmucheln*) or Du. *smokkelen*, while the slightly later *smuggle* agrees with LG *smuggeln* (Ger. *schmuggeln*, Da. *smugle*, Norw. *smugle, smugla*, Sw. *smuggla*). While Skeat (1910:575) seems certain that it is not ad. Du., Bense (1939:421) argues that as the earliest source quoted in *OED* is Petty, who studied in Leiden in C17, he may have borrowed *smokkelen* there, and, influenced by earlier *smuckellor*, spelled it with *-u-*. Further, LG *smuggeln* may have influenced the *-gg-* in Eng. spelling.

A.1.7 Naval forces, ships and warfare

'Possible'

Commodore, *n*. (1695), an officer in command, ranking above captain and below rear-admiral; app. originally applied to Du. commanders; Brit. navy: a temporary rank, given to senior officers in command of detached squadrons. It is of two classes, in the first of which the commodore (with the pay and allowances of a rear-admiral) has a captain under him, while in the second he has not; US navy (since 1862) the commodore may command a naval division or station, or a first-class war-ship; an officer of like rank (temporary or permanent) in the navies of other countries; as a courtesy-title, applied to: a) the senior captain, when three or more ships of war are cruising in company; b) a like officer in a fleet of merchantmen; c) a captain of pilots; the president of a yacht-club; also: his vessel at club-regattas; the commodore's ship; in C17 (under William III) *commandore*, possibly ad. Du. *kommandeur*; some have conjectured a corruption of Sp. *comendador*, but no contact with Spain appears in the early instances.

Snow, *n*. (1676), a small sailing-vessel resembling a brig, carrying a main and fore mast and a supplementary trysail mast close behind the mainmast; formerly employed as a warship; ad. Du. *snauw*, *snaauw*, or LG *snau* 'snout' (prob. f. the pointed shape of the vessel's prow (Bense 1939:428) (hence Da. and Sw. *snau*, Ger. *schnau*, *schnaue*, and Fr. *senau*). Acc. to *OED* of doubtful origin. Bense (ibid.) provides a quotation from van Wijk's *Franck's Etymologisch Woordenboek der Nederlandsche Taal* under *Snauw* I (1681): 'A kind of Zealand or Flemish ship,' while the earliest notation of LG *Snau* stems from 1697. Bense reinforces this by giving a passage from Witsen's *Scheepsb*. (1671) in de Vries & te Winkel's *Woordenboek der Nederlandsche Taal*: 'De Vlaemsche Pleiten en Snauwen schoon Binnenlantsvaerders … begeuen zich dickmael … ouer zee.' Hence, he concludes, the word may be of LG origin but passed into Eng. through Flem. or Du.

Waft, *v*. (1513), to convoy (a ship or fleet of ships, persons sailing) (obs.); to guide or direct the course of (a vessel, a swimmer, a floating object, etc.) (obs.); to convey safely by water; to carry over or across a river, sea, etc. (obs. exc. poet.); f. next *n*. Skeat (1910:696f), however, is of the opinion that *waft* is 'nothing but a variant of Eng. *wave*, used as a verb' due to rapid pronunc. of *waved*. Bense (1939:558) discovered the *v*. forms *wafter*, *waghter* and *waughted* in a source f. 1524, the latter of which, he claims, is almost certainly ad. MDu. or Flem. *wachten* 'to guard,' which, acc. to J. de Vries & de Tollenaere (1991:416) dates f. 1265-70. This would strongly suggest **Waft** to be of Du. origin.

Wafter, *n*. (1484), an armed vessel employed as a convoy; the commander of a convoying vessel; app. a. Du. or LG *wachter*, lit. 'guard,' f. *wachten* 'to guard;' *OED* claims that the specific use has not been found in Du. or LG, but see discussion under **Waft**. Obs.

A.1.8 Maritime crew and related persons

'Possible'

Shipper, *n*. (c1100), a seaman (obs.); 1496: a skipper (obs.); now: one who ships goods for transportation; f. late OE *scipere* (cf. MLG, MDu. *schipper*, MHG, Ger. *schiffer*, ON *skipari*), f. *ship* + *-er* (suffix). In sense 2, representing MLG, MDu. *schipper* (see **Skipper**).

Skipper, *n*. (1390), the captain or master of ship, esp. of a small trading, merchant, or fishing vessel; a shipman, seaman (obs.); in compounds: *skipper's daughters* 'high white-

crested waves,' *skippership* 'the office of skipper,' 'the management or handling of a ship;' ad. MDu. or MLG *schipper*; f. *schip* 'ship.' Sc (chiefly C15-C16).

A.1.9 Types of fish and whale, and related terms

Fish and related terms, 'possible'

Brasse, *n*. (1847), a fish of the perch family; cf. LG *brasse*, Ger. *brassen* 'a bream.' Corresponds to **Brassem**.

Brassy, *n*. (1710), acc. to Llewellyn (1936:93) the Sc. form of **Brasse**.

Cabilliau, **Cabeliau**, *n*. (1696), cod-fish; also: codfish which has been salted and hung for a few days, but not thoroughly dried; a dish of mashed cod; a. Fr. *cabillaud*, *cabliau* or Du. *kabeljauw*. It has been generally regarded as a transposed form of *bakeljauw*, *bakkeljau*, cf. *bacalao*, which is however not compatible with the history of that word.

Crucian, **Crusian**, *n*. (1763), a species of fish of a deep yellow colour, a native of Central Europe, now naturalized in England; also called *crucian carp*, and (when lean) *German* or *Prussian carp*; it is closely allied to the carp; formed with suffix *-an*, and accommodated spelling, from earlier or dial. LG *karusse*, *karuse*, *karutze*.

Dorse, *n*. (1610), a young cod; ad. LG *dorsch*.

Lump, *n*. (1545), a spiny-finned fish of a leaden-blue colour and uncouth appearance, *Cyclopterus lumpus*, characterized by a suctorial disk on its belly with which it adheres to objects with great force (whence its name of *lump sucker*); the sea-owl; found also as MLG *lumpen*, MDu. *lompe*, Ger. *lump*, *lumpfisch*, Fr. *lompe*; hence mod.L (specific name) *lumpus*, It., Sp. *lumpo*. By foreign etymologists it has commonly been supposed to be of Eng. origin, a use of *lump* with reference to the bulky figure of the fish; but the Du. and LG forms are known from earlier examples than the Eng. Cf. Du. *lomp* 'heavy.'

Milt, *n*. (1483), cognate with OFris. *milte* (fem.) 'spleen,' MDu. *milte*, *melte*, *milt* (fem.) 'spleen,' 'milt of fish' (Du. *milt* 'spleen,' (regional) 'milt of fish'), Old Saxon *milti* (of uncertain gender) 'spleen' (MLG *milte*, fem.) f. a Germanic base prob. either f. the Indo-European base of *melt* (app. with reference to the supposed digestive function of the spleen), or f. an extended form of the Indo-European base of *milk* (app. with reference to the milky-white colour of the lymphoid follicles of the spleen). The sense 'soft roe of fish, semen or testes of a male fish' may have been ad. Du. (although the sense in question is first attested in

Du. later than in Eng., we must bear in mind that the source for this is Caxton, who set up his printing press in Bruges), but as the milt of a fish is of soft substance like the spleen, the extended use was not unnatural, and was no doubt helped to gain currency by the resemblance in sound between *milt* and *milk*.

Milter, *n*. (1601), a male fish, esp. at spawning time; perh. f. *milt* + *-er* (suffix), although Bense (1936:222) finds an ad. e.mod.Du. *milter* 'male fish' 'far more likely' due to the significant Du. and Flem. influence on Eng. in C16.

Quab, *n*. (1598), a freshwater fish; a sea cucumber (obs., rare); f. either e.mod.Du. *quabbe* 'toad,' 'frog,' 'any of certain kinds of fish,' also 'dewlap' (MDu. *quappe*; Du. *kwab*, *kwabbe*) or MLG *quappe*, *quabbe* 'burbot' (Ger. regional (LG) *quabb*).

Roe, *n*. (c1450), the mass of eggs contained in the ovaries of a female fish or shellfish, esp. when ripe; the full ovaries themselves; an individual egg; more fully: *hard roe*, the milt or sperm of a male fish; the mature testes containing this; more fully: *soft roe*; in general sense without distinction of sex; either cognate with, or borrowed f., MDu. (chiefly Flanders) *rōch*, *rōge* (Du. (now regional: Flanders) *roge*, *rog*, *roghe* (obs.)).

Schulle, *n*. (a1300), a plaice; ad. MDu. or MLG *schulle*, *scholle* (mod.Du. *schol*). Obs., rare.

Shoal, *n*. (1579), a large number of fish, porpoises, seals, whales, etc. swimming together; hence occas. used of a number of aquatic animals or floating objects; early history uncertain. The word is etymologically identical with OE *scolu* str. fem., 'troop, division of an army' cognate with OS *scola* 'multitude' (MLG *schole*), MDu. *schole* 'multitude,' 'flock,' 'shoal of fishes' (Du. *school*, WFris. *skoal*, NFris. *sköl* 'shoal of fishes'). It is possible that the OE word may have had the sense of 'shoal of fishes,' and in this sense may have continued in naut. use ever since, though unrecorded in ME and e.mod.Eng. The simpler hypothesis is that the C16 *shole* was a re-adoption of the Du. form (see above) which in the C14-15 had been taken into Eng. as *scole* (see **School**). The initial /ʃ/ may be an Eng. sound-substitution for the Du. /sx/, or it may come from one of the Flem. dialects in which *sch* is pronounced /ʃ/.

Suggested

Crape-fish, *n*. (1856), cod-fish salted and hardened by pressure; perh. f. LG *krapp* 'hard-twisted' (rope), 'hard-baked,' but cf. Norse *krappr* 'compressed.'

Whales and related terms, 'possible'

Narwhal, *n*. (1650), a small Arctic whale, *Monodon monoceros* (family Monodontidae), which has only two teeth, located in the upper jaw, one (or sometimes both) of which in the male develops into a straight spirally twisted tusk; also called *sea-unicorn*; acc. to *OED* prob. f. Da. *narhval*. Llewellyn (1936:100) claims the name was borrowed by the Du. f. Scand. seamen and that the Eng. word is from the Du. *narwal*. *OED* does add that MFr. *nahual*, Sp. *narval*, It. *narvalo*, Du. *narwal* and Ger. *Narwal*, all are ultimately borrowings from Scand.

Nordcaper, *n*. (1762), a North Atlantic right whale (genus *Balaena*); spec. the black right whale, *B. glacialis* (formerly known as *B. nordcaper*); either f. Ger. *Nord-Caper* (1719) (obs.) *Nordkaper*, or f. Du. *noordkaper*, or f. Norw. *nordkaper*, all f. the name of the North Cape (Ger. *Nordkap*, Du. *Noordkaap*, Norw. *Nordkapp*), the name of a promontory on the north coast of Magerøya, an island off the north coast of Norway + *-er* (suffix).

Rubb, *n*. (1694), a seal; f. LG *rubbe*, (Du. *rob*). Obs.

Train-oil, *n*. (c1553), oil obtained by boiling from the blubber of whales, esp. of the right whale (Balaenidae family); formerly also applied to that obtained from seals, and from various fishes; f. **Train** + *oil*.

Train, *n*. (1497), the earlier name of what is now called **Train-oil**; in C15-16 *trane*, a. MLG and LG *trân*, MDu. *traen*, Du. *traan*, whence mod.Ger. *tran*, and Da., Sw. *tran*; all meaning 'oil extracted or made to exude,' spec. 'train-oil;' app. the same word as MLG *trân*, *trâne*, MDu. *traen*, *trâne*, OHG *trahan*, OS. **trahan*, pl. *trahni*, OLFrank. pl. *trâni* (Ger. *träne*) 'tear,' 'drop,' also 'gum or resin that exudes from trees.' Obs.

Whalefish, *n*. (c1511), a whale; ad. MLG or MDu. *walvisch* (mod.Du. *walvis*), f. *wal* 'whale' + *visch* 'fish.' Obs.

'Suggested'

Greaves, **Graves**, *n. pl*. (1614), the fibrous matter or skin found in animal fat, which forms a sediment on melting and is pressed into cakes to serve as meat for dogs or hogs, fish-bait, etc.; the refuse of tallow; cracklings; app. orig. a term of the whale fisheries; ad. LG *greven* pl. (whence Sw. dial. *grevar*, Da. *grever*), corresp. to OHG *griubo*, *griobo* (MHG, Ger. *griebe*).

Sea-birds, 'possible'

Mollymawk, *n*. (1694),the fulmar, *Fulmarus glacialis*; also: any of several similar or related sea birds, esp. (chiefly Austral. and N.Z.) any of the smaller albatrosses of the genus *Diomedea*; ultimately f. Du. *mallemok, malmok, mallemug, mallemuk*; f. *mal* 'foolish' + *mok* 'seagull' (of uncertain origin; perh. compare Ger. *Mocke* 'lump'), prob. so called because the birds were easily caught or killed and hence thought to be foolish; prob. partly via Ger. *Mallemucke*.

A.1.10 Natural and man-made marine and coastal features

'Possible'

Reid. *n*. (1561), a roadstead or anchorage for ships; either a variant of *raid* or directly f. MDu. *rēde, reede* or its cognate MLG *rēde, reide, reyde*. Sc., obs.

'Suggested'

Tide, *n*. (c1435), the flowing or swelling of the sea, or its alternate rising and falling, twice in each lunar day, due to the attraction of the moon and, in a less degree, of the sun; the alternate inflow and outflow produced by this on a coast, the flood and ebb; this sense corresp. exactly to MLG *getîde* neut., *tîde tie*, neut. and fem., LG tīde, MDu. *ghetîde* neut., e.mod.Du. *tijde*, Du. *tij* neut., 'tide of the sea,' a particular application of MLG *getîde*, 'fixed time,' 'time of prayer,' 'proper time,' 'opportunity,' 'space of time.' OE had no form corresp. to *getîde* (using for 'tide' (of the sea) *flód* or *flód and ebba*); and *tíd* or *tide* in this sense is not known before 1340; it may have been then introduced f. or used after the MLG word; but as ME *tide* had neither the difference of form nor of gender seen in *de tît* and *dat tîde*, actual formal evidence of the borrowing is wanting. There may have been a transference of sense in Eng. itself, as well as in LG.

A.1.11 Miscellaneous

'Possible'

Crank, *adj*. (1696), liable to lean over or capsize: said of a ship when she is built too deep or narrow, or has not sufficient ballast to carry full sail; of obscure origin, appearing first in the comb. *crank-sided* (1626). The early explanations suggest association with the Du. and Fris. *krengd* (of a ship) 'laid or lying over on its side', *pa*. *pple*. of *krengen*, orig. 'to apply pressure to,' 'push over,' spec. 'to lay or cause (a ship) to fall upon her side,' e.g. in careening, also 'to incline or lie on one side,' as a ship does when her cargo shifts in the hold. Possibly this foreign word was caught up, and confused with the native *crank*.

Cruise, *n*. (1706), the action of cruising; a voyage in which the ship sails to and fro over a particular region; spec. a voyage taken by tourists; f. next. *v*.

Cruise, *v*. (1651), to sail to and fro over some part of the sea without making for a particular port or landing-place, on the lookout for ships, for the protection of commerce in time of war, for plunder, or (in modern times) for pleasure; corresponding alike to Du. *kruisen* 'to cross,' f. *kruis* 'cross,' and to Sp. and Port. *cruzar* 'to cross,' to cruise,' Fr. *croiser* 'to cross.' The word is thus ultimately identical with *croise v*. and *cross v*.; the current spelling with *ui* seems to be after Du., but the vowel sound is as in Sp. and Port.

Leak, *n*. (1487), a hole or fissure in a vessel containing or immersed in a fluid, by which the latter enters or escapes from the vessel, so as to cause loss or injury: said orig. and esp. of ships; perh., like many other naut. terms, adopted from LG or Du.; cf. LG, MDu. *lek*, inflected *lēk-*, Du. *lek*. It is possible that the Eng. word, notwithstanding its late appearance, may represent an adoption of the ON form *leke* str. masc., or even an OE cognate.

Moor, *n*. (1750), an act of mooring a boat; a particular method of doing this; freq. with modifying word, as 'flying moor,' 'running moor,' etc.; f. next *v*.

Moor, *v*. (1378-81), to secure (a ship, boat, or other floating object) in a particular place by means of one or more chains, ropes, or cables fastened to the shore or to anchors; either the reflex of an unattested OE *v*. cognate with MDu. (coastal) *māren* (with vowel perh. reflecting an unattested Fris. form) 'to moor a vessel,' 'tie up an animal' (f. the Germanic base of the first element of OE *mǣrels-rāp*, *mārels* 'mooring-rope,' cf. MDu. *mēren* (Du. *meren*) 'to tie up,' 'moor'), or directly f. MDu. (although such a loan must have taken place before the change of *ā* to *ō* in early ME).

Pitchyard, *n*. (unknown), a signal, flag, kind of commando flag, used as signal to get on board; f. Du. *pitsjaar*, derived from Malay *bitjara* ‘counsel;’ first used as the signal of an admiral's ship, when the admiral wanted to hold a council (de Vries 1916:134). Neither *OED*, Skeat (1910), Llewellyn (1936), or Bense (1939) verify, or even include, this word, although it is mentioned by Ginneken (1914:512) in his *Handboek der Nederlandsche taal* where the Eng. form **Pitchyard** (along with HG *Pisjahr*) is also given. Acc. to Watuseke (1992:326) *pitsjaar* entered the Du. lang. in C17, but its date of adoption into Eng. is unknown.

Prime gilt, *n*. (1576), (now as *primage*) orig.: a customary payment to the master and crew of a ship for loading and taking care of the cargo; in later use also: a percentage added to a freight charge to cover the cost of loading or unloading a ship (hist.); a duty paid to the local Trinity House society on goods brought into a particular port, esp. Newcastle-upon-Tyne (hist.); app. either f. *prime* (*v*.) + *gilt*, or f. either MLG *prīmegelt*, *prīmgelt* (1468), or Du. *priemgelt* (obs.) (MDu. *priemgelt* (1460)), both in sense ‘money paid to the captain or crew of a ship for taking care of the cargo,’ also ‘bonus or gratuity paid to the captain or crew of a ship,’ and both f. a first element of uncertain origin (cf. earlier *primage* (1476), *prime* (*v*.)) + respectively MLG *gelt* and MDu. *gelt* ‘money.’ Sc., hist.

Scrub, *v*. (c1595), to clean (esp. a floor, wood, etc.) by rubbing with a hard brush and water; of obscure history: ad.or corresp. to MLG, MDu. *schrobben*, *schrubben* (whence Ger. *schrubben*, *schruppen*, Sw. *skrubba*, Da. *skrubbe*), perh. related to *scrape*. In the sense given here the word may perh. have been re-imported from Du. as a naut. term (cf. *swab*).

Trade, *n*. (c1375), a course, way, path; with possessive or ‘of,’ the course trodden by a person, or followed by a ship, etc. (cf. *tread*); a. MLG *trade* (*trâ*) fem. ‘track,’ LG *trade* ‘track;’ also WFlem. *tra* (*trade*) ‘walk,’ ‘march,’ ‘course.’ App. introduced into Eng. in C14 f. Hanseatic MLG, perh. orig. in naut. lang. for the ‘course’ or ‘track’ of a ship; afterwards used in other senses of ME *trede* ‘tread.’ Obs.

Wrack, *n*. (c1386), a wrecked ship or other vessel; a vessel ruined or crippled by wreck (now dial.); remnants of, or goods from, a wrecked vessel, esp. as driven or cast ashore; shipwrecked effects or property, wreckage; also in earlier use, the right to have such (arch.); pl.: fragments of wreckage (obs.); marine vegetation, seaweed or the like, cast ashore by the waves or growing on the tidal seashore; a. MDu. (also mod.Du.) *wrak* neut. (older Flem. *wracke*), or MLG *wrak*, *wrack* (whence Ger. *wrack*). Except for its freq. use by southern writers between 1508 and 1690, the form is predominantly northern and Sc.

Wrack, *v*. (1470-85), to suffer or undergo shipwreck (obs.); to wreck (a vessel, mariners, etc.); to ruin or cast ashore by shipwreck; f. prec. *n*. Arch., dial.

'Suggested'

Scorbut(e), *n*. (1597), 1598 as *scorbuch*, *-buick* (obs.); scurvy: a disease characterized by general debility of the body, extreme tenderness of the gums, foul breath, subcutaneous eruptions and pains in the limbs, induced by exposure and by a too liberal diet of salted foods. Now recognized as due to insufficient ascorbic acid (vitamin C) in the diet; origin obscure; acc. to de Vries (1916:136) f. L. *scorbutus*, in turn ad. LG *schorbock*. Skeat (1910:541) says of *scorbūtus* that it is a Latinized form thought by some to come f. MDu. *scheuren* 'to break' + *bot* 'bone', but that this is 'very unlikely,' judging a formation of Swe. *skorf* (Da. *skurv*, ME *scurf*) + L *-ūtus* (suffix), i.e. *scurvy*, more likely. This has in turn given LG *schorbock*. Following *OED* a. Fr. *scorbut*, whence (amongst others) mod.L. *scorbūtus* (whence Ger. *scorbut*). The Fr. word is app. ad. MLG *schorbûk*, e.mod.Du. *schorbuyck*, *scheurbuik* (now *scheurbuik*), whence Ger. *scharbock*, Da. *skørbug*, MSw. *skörbiug* (Sw. *skörbjugg*), Old Icel. (C14) *skyrbjúg-r*. If the word be orig. LG or Du., and not ad. some foreign source, the etymological sense must be 'disease that ruptures or lacerates the belly' (MLG, MDu. *schoren*, Du. *scheuren* 'to break,' 'lacerate' + MLG *bûk*, Du. *buik* 'belly'). Cf. e.mod.Du. *scheurmond* (*mond* 'mouth') 'scurvy of the gums,' *scheurbeen* (*been* 'bone') 'scorbutic affection of the bones.' J. de Vries & de Tollenaere (1991:322) mention ON *skyrbjûgr* (f. *skyr* 'cultured milk' (the food used on sea voyages) + *bjûgr* 'oedema,' 'swelling') as a possible ultimate source. They regard *-buik* (in mod.Du. *scheurbuik*) as a 'Dutchification' of MLG *schorbuck* which itself is ad. the ON word mentioned above. Obs.

APPENDIX B
OCCURRENCE IN FICTION OF 'CERTAIN' DUTCH NAUTICAL LOANWORDS

The following tables (B1-B35) show the occurrence in fiction of Dutch nautical loanwords from the category 'certain' in *COHA* from the 1810s to the 2000s. The first two rows ('Lit.' and 'Fig.') show the distribution of the relevant headword as used in a literal or figurative sense, while the third row ('Fic') shows how many of the literal and figurative instances occurred in fictional works.

Table B1: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *boom*, n.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.				2		7		1		2
Fig.										
Fic.				2		7				1
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		3		1		6		2		7
Fig.								1		
Fic.		1		1		4		1		7

Table B2: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *brack*.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.						1				1
Fig.										
Fic.						1				1

Table B3: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *creek*.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.		12		25		40		51		60
Fig.										
Fic.		6		16		24		30		52
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		91		63		71		44		65
Fig.										
Fic.		76		48		64		36		52

Table B4: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *dock*, n.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		2		15		9		14		46
Fig.										
Fic.		1		12		5		13		33
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		52		73		63		67		80
Fig.								2		6
Fic.		36		39		40		57		57

Table B5: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *dock*, v.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.				1						
Fig.										
Fic.				1						
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.				2		1				2
Fig.						1		1		1
Fic.				1		1				

Table B6: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *duck*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.				6		3				3
Fig.										
Fic.				6						2
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.				5		3				1
Fig.										
Fic.				3		3				

Table B7: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *freebooter*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		9	20	13	4	6	3	5	5	7
Fig.					1			3		1
Fic.		7	20	10	1	4	1	3	3	1
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	11	4	1	6	1	1	1	1		1
Fig.	2				1	1		1		
Fic.	6	3		6	1	2	1	1		

Table B8: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *garboard*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.									10	
Fig.										
Fic.									1	
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.			1							2
Fig.										
Fic.			1							1

Table B9: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *handspike*, n.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		1	8	12	8	14	3	5	2	2
Fig.			1	1	1					
Fic.		1	9	11	8	6	2	2	2	1
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	3	1	1		5					1
Fig.										
Fic.		1			5					1

Table B10: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *hooker*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		2								
Fig.										
Fic.		1								

Table B11: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *hoy*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		2							1	
Fig.										
Fic.		2								
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.				5			1			
Fig.										
Fic.				5						

Table B12: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *iceberg*.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.			7	1	42	9	39	14	52	39
Fig.		2	2	11	7	15	22	12	7	8
Fic.		1	6	12	17	21	65	14	42	33
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	27	7	14	5	4	4	18	2	15	25
Fig.	6	5	11	8	16	21	23	44	44	32
Fic.	13	6	13	6	12	7	5	22	22	23

Table B13: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *keelhaul*.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.								1		
Fig.				2						1
Fic.								1		

Table B14: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *maelstrom*.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.			2	5	6	4	2	5	3	5
Fig.				8	8	9	16	8	13	17
Fic.				12	11	10	12	8	14	16
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	5	5	2	5	1	3		1	5	1
Fig.	18	25	34	18	14	13	21	26	26	29
Fic.	16	15	22	13	10	11	14	12	17	21

Table B15: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *matross*.

	1810	**1820**	**1830**	**1840**	**1850**	**1860**	**1870**	**1880**	**1890**	**1900**
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.				1						
Fig.										
Fic.				1						

Table B16: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *orlop*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.			6	1	2	1				2
Fig.										
Fic.			6	1	2	1				
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		1	5	1	3					2
Fig.										
Fic.			5	1	2					2

Table B27: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *pram*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.									1	
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	4					3				
Fig.										
Fic.	4									

Table B38: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *quartermaster*, n.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.						29	2	17	77	5
Fig.										
Fic.						27		11	72	
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	18	12	3	56	18	7		25	1	6
Fig.										
Fic.	7	9		48	17	3		25		4

Table B49: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *reef* (2).

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		7	23	79	43	38	52	45	68	76
Fig.			2	2			2	4	1	3
Fic.		2	14	75	12	29	37	46	38	17
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	81	140	100	72	79	113	107	72	58	85
Fig.			3		3		1	1	1	2
Fic.	65	61	63	38	59	70	90	39	21	13

Table B20: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *school*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.								1		
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		1		4		2		2		
Fig.										
Fic.										

Table B25: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *sloop*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.	2	15	62	168	92	71	27	57	261	129
Fig.										
Fic.	1	8	45	129	71	64	17	7	61	70
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	25	63	112	43	66	21	56	45	13	23
Fig.										
Fic.	6	41	97	21	47	8	38	28	5	12

Table B22: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *snook*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.							15		35	1
Fig.										
Fic.							15			

Table B23: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *speck*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.										1
Fig.										
Fic.										

Table B24: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *splice*, n.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.									2	
Fig.			1			3	1			1
Fic.			1			2	1		1	1
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.			1		1	2				
Fig.			1							
Fic.			1			2				

Table B25: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *splice*, v.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.					2			1	4	
Fig.		1	5	2	5	2		1	3	1
Fic.		1	5	2	7	2		2	5	1
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	1	3	1	1	1	1		1		1
Fig.	1	1					1		4	
Fic.	1	2	1	1	1	1		1	1	

Table B26: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *split*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.				1		1				
Fig.		1				1		1		
Fic.				1		1		1		
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		1								
Fig.		1		1						
Fic.		2								

Table B27: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *stoker*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.					1	1	5		1	5
Fig.										
Fic.						1	2		1	5
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	6	9	7	3	1	4		1	5	1
Fig.										
Fic.	6	5	1		1	2		1		

Table B28: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *swabber*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		2					1			
Fig.										
Fic.		2					1			
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.										
Fig.										
Fic.										

Table B29: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *taffrail*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.			7	24	12	22	16	13	19	5
Fig.										
Fic.			5	24	11	21	12	13	17	4
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	10	7	21	9	2		5	1	2	
Fig.										
Fic.		5	15	4	1		3	1	2	

Table B30: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *trice*, v.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.						1				
Fig.										
Fic.						1				
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.				1				4		
Fig.										
Fic.				1				4		

Table B31: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *under way*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		1		2		2		2		5
Fig.										
Fic.				1		2		2		3
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		7		4		2		3		6
Fig.										
Fic.		2		3		1		2		3

Table B32: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *underway*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.			2	1		1			1	
Fig.										
Fic.			2	1		1				
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.	1		3		10	5	2	4	7	16
Fig.										
Fic.	1		3		10	5	1	4	4	12

Table B33: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *veer*, v.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.			1			2	2			
Fig.										
Fic.			1			1				
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.						1				
Fig.										
Fic.										

Table B34: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *whiting*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.						9	3			
Fig.										
Fic.										
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		1	3	2	3	2	8	2		
Fig.										
Fic.			2				1			

Table B35: Distribution of literate/figurative usage and occurrence in fiction by decade for *yacht*.

	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900
Lit.		1		7		20		38		57
Fig.										
Fic.				7		18		24		34
	1910	**1920**	**1930**	**1940**	**1950**	**1960**	**1970**	**1980**	**1990**	**2000**
Lit.		66		50		55		35		45
Fig.										
Fic.		23		28		26		15		22

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