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OLD ENGLISH BEOR

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Four of the Old English words for alcoholic drinks appear to have survived into modern English with only slight changes of pronunciation and orthography. OE beor, ealu, medu and win seem to be immediately recognizable as the etymons of modern English 'beer', 'ale', 'mead' and 'wine'. In English today 'mead' and 'wine' are used of two discrete drinks; 'beer' and 'ale' are used more or less interchangeably of a third drink. A number of writers from the sixteenth century onwards have drawn a technical distinction between 'ale' and 'beer', reserving the word 'beer' for a malt-based liquor to which hops have been added, and using the word 'ale' of the unhopped variety. Andrew Boorde for example distinguished carefully between the two: "Ale is made of malte and water; and they the which do put any other thynge to ale then is rehersed, except yest, barme, or godesgood, doth sofystical theyr ale. Ale for an Englysshe man is a naturall drynke Bere is made of malte, of hoppes and water: it is a naturall drynke for a Dutche man. And now of late dayes it is moche vsed in Englande to the detryment of many Englysshe men". 2 Nevertheless this distinction has never really penetrated common usage, and the words 'beer' and 'ale' are mostly used without technical discrimination of meaning. A difference that lingers in the connotative value is reflected in the way poets use 'ale' as the more evocative of the two terms. Autolycus claimed that "a quart of ale is a dish for a king", Milton (L'Allegro) savoured "the spicy nut-brown ale" and Chesterton (The Rolling English Road) remembered "When you and I went down the lane with ale-mugs in our hands / The night we went to Glastonbury by way of Goodwin Sands". A survey of the word 'ale' and its compounds in The English Dialect Dictionary, The Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue and in drinking songs indicates that in regional speech it has always been the more popular word of the two. More recently we might note that The Campaign for the Preservation of Real Ale did not choose to call itself The Campaign for the Preservation of Real Beer.

But, emotive distinctions apart, 'beer' and 'ale' in modern English both mean a malt-based alcoholic drink, and it is therefore commonly assumed that they had the same meaning in OE. In Bosworth-Toller's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary we find the word beor translated as 'beer' with the comment: "Beer, made from malted barley, was the favourite drink of the Anglo-Saxons". This is not corrected in Toller's Supplement or Campbell's Addenda. After a twenty-line entry in the Dictionary where almost all known references to beor are used to support the translation 'beer', there is a further five-line entry

pointing out that beor carried as a secondary meaning "a beverage made of honey and water". The evidence here is restricted to the glosses where OE beor translates Latin ydromellum. This usage obviously did not seem sufficiently significant to Bosworth, Toller, or Campbell for them to probe it further. A fairly recent publication with a section on the drink of the Anglo-Saxons is by Wilfrid Bonser. His opening sentence on the subject of beor is virtually a paraphrase of Bosworth-Toller: "But the favourite drink then was beer (beor) which occurs in written records from Beowulf onwards". The evidence for this statement is neither offered nor investigated.

When translating OE into modern English we are normally wary of the etymological fallacy, avoiding the translation of wif as 'wife' or of eorl as 'earl'. But there are undoubtedly very many occasions where we have not been wary enough, where an OE word is still regularly translated by its modern form rather than by a word that accurately reflects its semantic change. At present I am concerned with only one instance of this. If we examine the evidence for the Bosworth-Toller primary definition, it becomes obvious that when been occurs in OE we have no data whatever in support of the translation 'beer'.

The origin of the word bear is obscure. It has cognates in all the West Germanic languages, but not in Gothic, not even Crimean Gothic. The one Biblical reference where we might have expected it in Gothic, where for example the Anglo-Saxon gospel (Luke i. 15) tells us that John the Baptist drank neither win ne bear, the Gothic word used is leipu. There has been some dispute about the word $bj\acute{o}rr$ in North Germanic. F. Kluge thought it a loan word into Norse from OE, but offers no firm evidence for this theory, and though the opinion that ON bjórr may be of foreign origin is found in Cleasby-Vigfusson's Icelandic Dictionary, and Kluge's theory is mentioned by Jan de Vries, 5 the word is fully established by itself and in compounds early in Norse poetry, both scaldic and Eddic. Basically two different etymologies have been put forward, though with varying refinements. One links the words 'beer' and 'barley': "Das wort kann aus *beura- oder *beuza- entstanden sein, und in beiden fällen zu *bewwu 'gerste' (vgl. bygg) gehören". 6 The other links 'beer' with monastic Latin biber 'a drink', 7 an etymology which would satisfactorily explain the absence of a cognate in Gothic. The uncertainty about the origin of the word 'beer' must prompt the question whether an automatic assumption that the meaning of 'beer' and all its coqnates is and was 'a drink made from barley' has not affected the conclusion of those philologists who pursue an etymological link.

In order to establish the meaning and connotations of OE beor it is necessary to compare the references to beor, ealu, medu and win, to look at the type of compounds formed on them, and to see if distinctions can be drawn between the kinds of written material in which they are used. An analysis of the various compounds in Bosworth-Toller (including Supplement and Addenda) provides the following statistics. There are only ten compounds based on the word beor, seventeen on ealu and seventeen on medu. In contrast there are fifty on win. These numbers are necessarily approximations excluding

additions provided by orthographic variants and emendations. The compounds can be roughly divided into two types, functional and emotive. The functional compounds include such examples as wingeard and winbelg, where any emotional overtones are imperceptible. The emotive compounds of much more frequent occurrence, familiar to all readers of OE poetry, are used less to define the referent with precision than to recall a mood, usually a mood of nostalgia. When the poet of Beowulf calls Heorot a medoheal this appears to be partially functional in that the word does describe a hall where mead may well be provided. When on the other hand he calls the path leading to Heorot a medostiq, he is describing, not a function of the path, but the anticipations of the people travelling on it. isolated instances it may be impracticable to draw distinctions between the two types of usage. A word like ealuwæge could obviously be included under either heading. But from a general survey of these compounds it emerges that they noticeably fall into distinct groups, and this grouping is informative as the accompanying table (p. 79) shows. Almost all the compounds on medu fall into the group that I distinguish as emotive, and the contexts in which medu compounds occur are almost all the heightened contexts of poetry, not the practical ones of law or charter. The poet of The Wanderer expresses the sense of loss and longing in the search for "bone be in meoduhealle . . . mec freondleas[n]e frefran wolde" 8 (27-8). Beowulf is full of examples, from Scyld's triumph over his enemies summarised as meodosetla ofteah (5) to Beowulf's equally triumphant return from Grendel's mere:

modig on gemonge meodowongas træd (1643).

The poet of *The Seafarer* expressing isolation in terms of the company of birds replacing that of men, says that entertainment consisted of:

huilpan sweg fore hleahtor wera mæw singende fore medodrince (21-2).

The comparison works on a strictly aural basis with the sound of the birds contrasting with the sounds of conviviality, but *medodrince* breaks the pattern, unless we hear it as the sound of revelry by night, rather than read it as a word for drink.

There is only one <code>medu</code> compound that can be singled out as not of this type and not occurring in poetic contexts. This is <code>meddrosna</code> 'dregs of mead', found once only in a medical text (see below p. 85). <code>Win</code>, on the other hand, which among these four words has by far the greatest number of compounds, is found more often in functional than in emotive contexts. The great range of compounds must stem partly from the exigencies of translation, for there is a fair amount of vineyard terminology in the Bible, and of Biblical translation and commentary in OE. But we also know of vine-cultivation in Anglo—Saxon England, and thirty-five of the fifty compounds are functional and descriptive, such as <code>winrepan</code>, <code>wingetred</code>, <code>wingeardseax</code>, and so

$\label{lem:compounds} \hbox{Compounds on $bear, ealu, medu and win} \\ \hbox{(Compounds that are unmistakeably functional are in italics)}$

beor by den	æfterealu	meddrosna	æppelwin	winhate
beordræste	brydealu	meduærn	mæssewin	winhorn
beorhyrde	ealobenc	medubenc	winærn	winhus
beorscealc	ealuclyfe	meduburh	winbeam	winian
beorscipe/ gebeorscipe	<i>ealof</i> æt	medudream	winbelg	winland
	ealahus	medudrenc	winbeger	winleaf
beorsele	ealugafol	medudrinc	winberige	winlic
beorsetl	ealugal	medufull	winboh	winreced
beortun	ealugalness	medugal	winbrytta	winreafetian
beorpegu	ealogeweorc	meduheall	winburh	winrepan
gebeor	ealumalt	medurædenn	winbyrele	winsæd
	ealuscop	meduscenc	winclyster	winsæl/sele
	ealuscerwen	meduscerwen	wincolc	winsester
	ealeþetun	meduseld	wincynn	wintæppere
	ealowæge	medusetl	windrenc	wintiber
	ealowosa	medustig	windruncen	wintreow
	ealaðwyrt	meduwang	windrync	wintreowig
		meduwerig	winfæt	wintrog
			wingal	wintunne
			wingeard	wintwig
			wingeardboh	winþegu
			wingeardho c gas	winwringe
			wingeardhring	winwyrcend
			wingeardseax	
			wingeardwealh	
			wingemang	
			wingetred	

on. When we examine the fifteen that might be classed as emotive, such as winærn or winbrytta, compounds that look on the surface exactly analogous to meduheall or sincbrytta, we find in fact that these words, unlike the compounds on medu, are just as likely to turn up in practical as in poetic material, Winærn glosses taberna in the Corpus glossary and in the related Epinal and Erfurt glossaries. Winbrytta occurs as a gloss on tabernarius. 10

This preliminary analysis should elucidate the types of compound on the remaining two words, beor and ealu. Ealu and its earlier form ealao, are found regularly in practical and functional compounds. It is noteworthy too, that though ealu does occur in compounds indicating festivity, it clearly does not carry the emotional load that medu does. This is one instance where the etymological derivatives can point to the semantic contrast of the original. An ealahus is an 'ale-house', whereas a meduheall is a 'mead-hall'. That the translation 'ale-house' correctly conveys the tone of ealahus is borne out by the number and kind of references to these places in the laws. Athelred's third code of laws, for example, specifies the fine to be paid for a brawl in an ealahus. 11 From words such as ealugeweerc, ealugafol and ealumalt it is clear that we have a range of terms indicating the practical aspects of brewing, similar to those for wine-making given us by the win compounds. There are no compounds on medu that serve such a purpose. It is tempting to suppose that the ubiquity of poetic mead like that of poetic gold is largely a nostalgic fiction of the Anglo-Saxons, since prevalence of the one receives as little support from linguistic evidence as prevalence of the other does from archæology. It is particularly noticeable in the elegies that only compounds on medu and win are found, none at all on ealu or beor. Poets of The Seafarer, The Wanderer, The Ruin and The Husband's Message recall meduburh, meduheall, medudream and winsæl, not to mention wlonc and wingal inhabitants, but never a beorsele or ealuwæge. Similarly in the heroic poetry, it is unthinkable that the men at Maldon should have been urged on to their duty by a reference to what they said over the ale-cups rather than what they æt meodo spræcon (212); and Hnæf's men who at Finnsburg so well repaid the bright mead would have lost in stature had their payment been only for ealu. I suspect that the strongly emotive terminology of medu is very closely linked with the loyalties and patterns of the heroic code, a code which looks much more to an ideal past than an actual present, and in which the relationship between loyalty and the provision of drink is neatly underlined by Wealhoeow:

It is also significant in this connection to note two prose uses of the word medu. In the Anglo-Saxon charters there are frequent references to the payment of food-rents, and to the nature of the goods in which rent was paid. Thus ale, honey and malt are specified for this purpose in various documents. But the references to medu are

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of a quite different kind. No-one is required actually to deliver medu, but money is provided to mede (ad medonem) 12 for drinking on a specific feast day. This is much more like a formulaic than an accurately descriptive statement, the money being provided for the supply of festive drink stronger than the customary ealu, rather than specifically for 'mead'.

In the well-known description of the Este which Wulfstan gave to King Alfred incorporated into Alfred's translation of Orosius, Wulfstan reports that their kings and lords drink myran meolc, the poor and the slaves drink medo. He then moves on to the unrelated subject of the frequent fighting among them. He returns to the subject of drink, as if in answer to a horrified question about the absence of ale, and emphasises with a double negative that "ne bio bær nænig ealo gebrowen mid Estum, ac bær bio medo genoh". In a previous statement Wulfstan commented on the quantity of honey available among the Este, swyōe mycel hunig, and it is likely that the availability of honey and consequently mead, is mentioned because it is surprising and unlike the English situation. Otherwise there would be no point in drawing attention to it.

Finally I deal with the fourth word beor and with much less material to work from than for any of the other three. Of the nine compounds two, beorbyden and beordræste are clearly functional, the others are all rather vague terms indicating conviviality in general. Beorscipe, beorpegu and beorsele are found in poetry and prose in general descriptions of feasting and drinking. On the one hand there is no brewing terminology linked with beor as it is with ealu and on the other no parallel emerges with the emotional range of the medu compounds. Compared with the fairly clear implications of the ealu, medu and win lists of compounds, beor emerges as colourless and unsatisfactory.

The comparative evidence from ON is instructive here. has only a few compounds on bjórr which is used with comparative rarity except in verse. There are innumerable compounds on ON $\ddot{o}l$ and vin as there are on OE ealu and win, and these include a whole range of the practical type, with terminology for the skills and implements of brewing and wine-making. There are comparatively few compounds on mjöðr, one of them, mjöðrann from Atlaqviða, noticeably of the emotive type, the others less interesting such as $mj\ddot{o}\delta drykkja$. They occur largely either in the poems of the Edda or in the Fornmanna soqur, and my suggestion that mead for both Anglo-Saxon and Viking was an archaic and rare drink, replaced, on the whole, in their own times by malt-based liquor, is borne out by the fact that it is the drink most commonly associated with revelries in Valhalla. Dictionaries regularly quote Alvissmál, as if it were evidence, to show that $\ddot{o}l$ and $bj\acute{o}rr$ were regarded as synonyms in ON. The actual statement of the poem is:

> Öl heitir með mönnom, enn með ásom biórr, kalla veig vanir, hreinalög iðtnar, enn í helio miöð, kalla sumbl Suttungs synir.¹⁴

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It is absurd to assume that the poet of Alvissmál is offering us a scholarly piece of semantic exposition. This verse is one of a series in which the poet explores as many different ways of naming an object as there are peoples naming it. Since the peoples in question, men, gods, giants etc. are naturally speakers of Old Norse, the poet is restricted to exploring varieties of usage in his own language. Certainly all the words he offers are words for drink, some more far-fetched than others, but unless we are prepared to believe that öl, biórr and miöð are all equally synonymous, we cannot pretend that the first two must be. If we are entitled to draw any conclusions from the link between people and word, it would be that in each stanza the word in common usage is attributed to the speech of 'men', and that $\ddot{o}l$ therefore is the most usual word and drink of the three. One might tentatively suggest further that bidrr being attributed to the gods was somewhat more rare, and that miöð, being drunk i helio was recognisably a drink of the past. But such conclusions are necessarily tenuous.

OE poetry which uses so many compounds on the four words might be expected to add to our understanding of what beor actually signified for its audience. Unfortunately the evidence supplied by the poets does not suggest that they took care to distinguish one drink from another. Like the poet of Alvissmál they were more concerned with the formal demands of their poems than with accuracy. Perhaps, given an Anglo-Saxon poet's need to use both alliteration and the technique of variation, it is inevitable that he should sometimes seem to equate all four beverages. In ${\it Beowulf}$ Unferd's aggression to the hero provokes the reply that Unfero has said a great deal beore druncen (531). In lines 1466-7 when Beowulf and Unferð are established on reasonably friendly terms, Unfero cannot remember "bæt he ær gespræc / wine druncen". There are other instances in the poem where medu, ealu, beor and win are used in a bewildering variety of compounds in rapid succession. Lines 480-84 of Beowulf are fairly typical:

Ful oft gebeotedon beore druncne ofer ealowæge oretmecgas bæt hie in beorsele bidan woldon Grendles gupe mid gryrum ecga.

Donne wæs beos medoheal on morgentid

Heorot is both a medoærn and a winærn, the benches are medobenc and ealobenc. Wealhpeow æt bære beorpege pours out many a medoful.

The poet of Beowulf is not the only one who fails to make fine distinctions. The poet of The Fates of Men (Exeter Book) warns us against the fate of the drunkard, a man who is both ealuwosa and winsæd. He is moreover sitting on a meodubenc. The warning is followed by another. In the inspired version of Mackie (see n. 8),

Sum sceal on beore purh byreles hond meodugal mæcga (51-2)

becomes "Another shall, while at beer, become a man drunk with mead". In $Judith^{15}$ the Assyrian leader Holofernes, himself medugal (26), drenched his followers mid wine (29). It was Holofernes however who collapsed wine swa druncen (67) and his followers who were struck down medowerige (229). I am not sure how far a similar situation exists in Norse poetry. Scaldic verse obviously utilises any word for drink as an interchangeable lexical item in kennings, Eddic verse does not have the need for variation to the same extent that OE poetry does. But certainly in $Prymsqvi\delta a$ we are told in one stanza that $\ddot{o}l$ was served and in the next that \ddot{b} for consumed $s\ddot{a}ld$ $pri\dot{u}$ $mia\delta ar$. The highly domesticated valkyries of $Eiriksm\dot{a}l$ are instructed to wash the $bi\acute{o}rker$ and to serve vin. It is possible that the poet is making two disparate statements here, but it seems more likely that he is using the words $bj\acute{o}rr$ and vin of the same drink, and switching the terminology to suit the alliteration.

In moving from the poetry to the prose where alliteration and the use of formulae make fewer demands, we can reasonably expect the claims of accuracy to reassert themselves. In the OE gloss on $\textit{Elfric's Colloquy}^{17}$ a clear distinction is made between win and ealu, following Elfric's distinction between uinum and ceruisa.

Hwæt drincst þu?
Ealu gif ic hæbbe, opþe wæter gif ic næbbe ealu.
Ne drincst þu win?
Ic ne eom swa spedig þæt ic mæge bicgean me win; &
win nys drenc cilda ne dysgra, ac ealdra & wisra.

In his homily *De Populo Israhel* ¹⁸ Ælfric points out that when Moses struck the rock in the wilderness and caused a stream of water to gush from it, God, had he been so minded, could just as easily have caused a flow of win or what is more of *ealu*:

for þan ðe se ælmihtiga God, þeah ðe he eaðe mihte, nolde him win sendan on þam westene þa, ne furðan ealu, flowende of ðam stane.

One of the most explicit documents on the subject of drink is the early eleventh-century English translation of the ${\it Rule}^{1\,9}$ of Chrodegang who was Bishop of Metz 742-766.

7 gif se eard sy wynes wæstmbære, sylle man dæghwamlice ælcum breðer fif punda gewihte wines, gif þa unwedru his ne forwyrnað. Gif þonne se eard full win næbbe, sylle ma ælcum þreo pund wines 7 þreo pund ealað, 7 warnien hi wyð druncen. Þær þonne þær win ne byð, wyte se bisceop oððe se þe under him ealdor byð, þæt hi hæbbon ealswa micel ealoð, swa hi wines sceoldon, þæt hi on þam frofar habban. 7 gif hwa on þam (win)landum for Godes lufon win wylle forgan, wite se ealdor þæt he hæbbe ealoð his rihtgemet. Gif þonne for folces synnum gesceote, swa hit oft gescyt, þæt unwæstmbernys

on eard becymó, bæt ma ne mæge bæt drincgemett bringan forð, ne on wine, ne on beore, ne on mede, ne on ealoð, bonne smeage se ealdor hit georne on manifealde þing bæt hi drinc hæbbon; 7 nane ne murchion, ac mid þancgunge 7 mid glædnysse underfon bæt man him þonne don mage, 7 gebenceon bæt Sanctus Iohannes Baptista ne dranc win ne medu, ne nan wiht þe him druncennys of come. Þær þær druncen byð, þær byð leahter 7 syn. Þæs we [g]eornlice biddað 7 myngyað þæt ure preostas syferlice lybbon. 7 for þam þe we ne magon on þisum dagum gelæran þæt hi win 7 beor ne drincon, we huru lærað 7 biddað þæt hi druncen forbugon, for þan ealle þa druncengeornan se apostol Paulus ascyrað of Godes rice, buton hi mid rihtlicere dædbote gecyrran.

In comparing the OE and Latin texts of this document we find that as we might expect OE win always translates Latin uinum. Ealu translates ceruisa with equal regularity, as it did in Elfric's Colloquy. Where the Latin has three words uinum, sicera and ceruisa OE has four, win, beor, medu and ealoo, indicating that beor and ealu are different drinks. In the passage about John the Baptist's abstinence from uinum and sicera these are translated by win and medu. In the final lament that one cannot in these degenerate days insist on abstinence from wine, the Latin only has uinum, the English translator adds beor: "Pæt hi win & beor ne drincon".

The implication that beor and ealu are distinct and separate drinks is borne out by a curious passage in the tenth-century BL MS Royal 12 D 17 which O. Cockayne 20 prints, with absolute fidelity to the original, in his Leechdoms. This passage gives us the startling information that "pund ealoo gewiho vi penegum mare bonne pund wætres. & 1 pund wines gewihð xv penegum mare bonne 1 pund wætres . . . ond pund beores gewiho xxii penegum læsse bonne pund wætres". Cockayne evades some of the difficulties of this passage by treating, no doubt rightly, the word pund as a measure of capacity not weight, and translating: "a pint of ale weigheth six pennies more than a pint of water" etc. The translation of pund as 'pint' is supported by the English text of Chrodegang's Rule quoted above, where punda is used to translate Latin libras, a word which could refer either to weight or capacity. Nevertheless this translation does not resolve all the problems. Given the same measure of water and a sweet alcoholic drink, the alcohol could not weigh less than the water - and I adduce evidence below to show that beor was sweet. One way in which the passage as it stands might make sense is if it were treated as a kind of seller's chart or guide, rather than a descriptively accurate statement. Thus if asked for a pund beores one might measure out a quantity that weighed twenty two pennies less than an established weight or quantity of water. This would mean that whereas one would obtain a generous quantity of ealu or win by this method, one obtained only a minimal quantity of beor. This would imply that the potency of beor was so great that it was regarded as a short rather than a long drink. An alternative explanation would be that the scribe, who is copying a fairly long list of commodities weighing læsse or mare, wrote læsse in the wrong

place, and that beor in fact weighed twenty-two pennies more not less than the same quantity of water. This would make it the heaviest of the drinks cited, since ale weighed only six pennies more, and wine fifteen. The passage is undoubtedly obscure, yet whether it is accurate in its own terms, and misunderstood, or whether it is full of errors, it is quite clear that whoever wrote it down considered ealu and beor as separate drinks to be tabled and described separately. Medu is not mentioned here.

The manuscript in which this material is found is a medical miscellany, which Ker places mid-tenth century. 21 It is full of references to the alcoholic drinks used in various remedies. The compilation is not directly translated from any known Greek or Latin source, though some of the cures listed are influenced by material in these languages known to the compiler. I have not analysed or listed the references to win in this manuscript, though they are very frequent. Since Greeks and Romans were wine-drinkers rather than ale-drinkers, the recommendation of wine in any remedy may stem from their prescriptions, whereas the recommendation of ealu, beor and medu is less likely to do so. The remedies in this manuscript contain two references only to medu and one to meddrosna. They contain ten references to beor, one to beordræste, and a contrasting ninety-three references to ealu. A later manuscript (BL MS Harley 585), containing similar material is assigned by Ker to the beginning of the eleventh century. 22 It contains no references to medu, two to beor, one to beordræste and twenty-three to ealu. prescriptions which include ealu contain instructions to wyl in ealaő, ofgeot mid ealo, do in eala, gnid on ealaő, cnua on ealaő and dryp ealo on various combinations of herbs. The types of ealu singled out for mention are wilisc eala6, 23 hluttor eala, god hluttor eala, strang hluttor eala, god ealu, god wilisc eala, hluttor eala wel gesweted, sur ealao, niwe ealao, eald ealao, sur hluttor ealu, awylled ealao, twibrowen ealao and niwe ealo ar bon hit asiwen sie.

The remedies are for diseases ranging from affliction by deofle . . . & ungemynde to wio pære geolwan adle. Careful distinctions are sometimes drawn between the types of ealu to be used. In a cure for lung disease - wio lungen adle - the patient has to restrain himself from drinking sweet ale: "Healde hine georne wio geswet eala, drince hluttor eala". Not all cures are so discriminating, some offering a choice between ale and wine, some between god hluttor eala and god wilisc eala. The emphasis on god is frequent, and there are two references to strang ealu. One remedy observes that the better the quality of ale, the better the medicine: "Se drenc bip swa selra swa pæt ealu selre bio".

It is evident from the frequency with which <code>ealu</code> in all its infinite variety is recommended, that ale was envisaged as being everywhere available. By contrast both <code>medu</code> and <code>beor</code> are recommended with the proviso "use if obtainable". One of the two references to <code>medu</code> is a recommendation to <code>wylle swa swipre medo gif hebbe</code>. Further on, the same qualification is made with reference to <code>beor</code> and <code>win:</code> "do on beor swa on win swa on peorfe meoluc gif bu para operra nawber næbbe. gif bu on wine wyrce oppe on meolce geswet mid

hunige". This tells us two things about beor: that it was not necessarily easily obtainable, and that it was sweet. Since both wine and milk require a sweetening agent for this prescription but beor does not, the implication is that it was sweet enough already. Another prescription supports this: it recommends a bowl full of leoht beor or of hluttor eala wel gesweted or gesweted win. Again win and ealu require added sweetening but not beor.

In these two medical miscellanies bear has nothing like the range of adjectives qualifying ealu. It is characterised only as leoht or strang and swide. But we do learn one more thing about beor from this source. For a disease which Cockayne identifies as shingles, we are told that the patient "nane binga beor ne drince, & gemetlice win & eala". Similarly a pregnant woman is warned that she must not beor drince nor drink anything else to excess: ne druncen gedrince. There are a number of references in the ecclesiastical laws to the penalties imposed on a woman who contrived an abortion mid drynce obče mid očrum mislicum þingum24 and this warning in BL MS Royal indicates quite clearly that the drink to avoid in pregnancy was beor. This supports my earlier suggestion that beor was considered a more potent drink than ale or wine. Though Cockayne regularly translates ealu as 'ale' and beor as 'beer', to the compilers of these manuscripts they were two quite different drinks, bear being more sweet, more potent and more rare than ealu.

Charters sometimes include drinks among the food rents or tribute to be paid. Ealu, wilisc ealu and hluttor ealu are among the ones specified. Under the duties of the gebur in the Rectitudines it is said that: "On suman landa gebur sceal syllan huniggafol, on suman metegafol, on suman ealugafol". I know, however, of only one reference to tribute paid in beor, in a charter of 909 concerning land leased to Denewulf, bishop of Winchester: "pæt mon geselle twelf seoxtres beoras & twelf geswettes wilisc ealoó & twentig ambra hluttor ealoó". It is hard to be certain about the Anglo-Saxon measures, but there is no doubt that an amber was a considerably larger quantity than a sester. Both Welsh ale and beor therefore were being supplied in very much smaller quantities than ordinary ealu.

The Icelandic dictionaries of Cleasby-Vigfusson and Fritzner offer the translation 'beer' or $\emptyset 1$ for $bj\acute{o}rr$, though with some reservations. Yet the Norse evidence does not really point in this direction. ON has two common words for 'ale'; $\~ol$ and $\~ol$ mungát. The second of these is used for the stronger brews, as a number of references make clear: "var $\~ol$ inn borit ok var \verbol at it sterkasta mungát." A choice of drinks, $\~ol$ mungát or $\~ol$ $\~ol$ $\~ol$ \iol \iol

supernatural power, and the list of ingredients might have served as a recipe for the witches in <code>Macbeth</code>, but it seems to me significant that for a drink of power the word chosen is <code>bjórr</code>. Similarly in <code>Sigrdrifomál</code> the opening lines of stanza 5 link the noun <code>bjórr</code>, the <code>verb blanda</code> and the idea of supernatural power:

Biór færi ec þér brynþings apaldr, magni blandinn oc megintíri.

The compound bjórveig is also of interest. Veig on its own means strong drink, and that the emphasis is on strength is indicated by the metaphorical use of veig to mean strength as such. In Hymisqviða Tyr's mother offers her son biórveig, and the same compound has been suggested for a corrupt reading in Guðrúnarqviða önnor. In Atlaqviða in Grænlenzca messengers who reach Gunnar's hall reach also a place where biórr is sváss. 'Precious' is perhaps the nearest translation, and the word certainly suggests something other than common öl. Snorri similarly implies a fairly exotic context in his definition of bjórsalr: "Sa salr hin agæti er æsir kallvþv Brimis sal eþa biorsal, þat var hall Priamvs konvngs". 30

Two references offer us something more precise by way of definition. A set of Latin-Old Norse glosses in Cod. 1812 4to Gml. Kgl. Samling, a manuscript of Icelandic provenance from circa 1200 or earlier, equates Latin mulsum and ON biorr. 31 We know mulsum to have been a drink made of honey and water of a type similar to mead. In OE glosses it sometimes is translated by medu (see n. 42). 1812 glosses Latin medo rightly by ON miöbr, reserving biorr for another sweet drink. Ceruisia for which the proper gloss would be $\ddot{o}l$ is unglossed, though whether because the scribe did not know the word, or because he thought it too obvious to bother with must remain uncertain. The point is that he equated biorr with a honeybased drink, not a malt-based drink. The second reference is in Elis saga ok Rosamundu. 32 Elis in his travels comes upon some men having a magnificent feast which includes a couple of peacocks and a swan and mikinn pott fullan af biorblandoðu vini.(A). This phrase is regularly and absurdly translated as "beer mixed with wine" 33 though it is hard to imagine the mentality that could contemplate such a drink with such a feast. A second manuscript (B) offers us the alternative bior ok blaundodo vini and a third (D) mide blondudum med vyne.

The saga was translated from a French Chanson de Geste by an abbot Robert who was almost certainly the same <code>bróðir Roðbert</code> who in 1226 translated <code>Tristrams saga</code> for the Norwegian king Håkon Håkonsson. He is a competent translator not given to absurdities, and the earliest manuscript of <code>Elis saga</code>, A, is from circa 1250 and therefore close to the author's copy. The French source <code>Elie de Saint Gille reads</code>, after the mention of peacock and swan:

Et II boucieus tous plains de vin et de claré. 34

Fortunately it is fairly easy to find out what claret meant at this period. Bartholomeus known as anglicus finished his work de proprietatibus rerum in the decade 1240-1250. He tells us: "Claretum ex vino et melle et speciebus aromaticis est confectum". He then describes the method of making it, concluding "unde a vino contrahit fortitudinem et acumen". 35 The translator of Elis saga evidently thought bjórr or bjórblandat vin an acceptable description of a highly spiced, sweetened and pungent wine. It would argue a remarkable degree of ignorance on his part if we insist that he thought of claré as a mixture of fermented grain and grape. We can perhaps conclude that the word bjórr was less common at a later period since the Icelandic scribe of the fifteenth century manuscript D substitutes mead for bjórr. But unlike modern scholars he does not substitute öl. It is also clear from a list of drinks in Sigurðar saga þögla³⁶ that öl and bjórr were regarded as different drinks, since they both appear on the list. Such lists are quite common in the sagas deriving from French romance and frequently the native words exist side by side with exotic loan words. In Göngu-Hrólfs saga, for example, hinn dýrasta drykk includes alongside the native öl "enskan mjöö með vildasta víni, píment ok klaret". 37

An earlier statement in Göngu-Hrólfs saga makes it clear that the mead was thought of as being brought from England, not as an English type of mead. This again suggests the comparative rarity of the drink. In the same way as the OE material indicated that though one could always get ealu it might be more difficult to get medu or beor, so the Scandinavian evidence demonstrates that whereas every farmhouse might brew its own mungát, there were fewer possibilities of obtaining bjórr. Both references to bjórr in Sturlunga saga 38 concern getting it home from the ships so obviously Iceland was importing it. A letter of 1298 printed in the Diplomatarium Norvegicum³⁹ specifies that Ragndid huspræyia Knuzdotter is to receive daily an allowance "biors eda af bæztu mungate er hæitiz j biscupsgarde ef bior er eighi till". Fritzner says that bjórr "i den sildigere Tid", by which he must mean the fourteenth century, means "udenlandsk indført Øl, forskjelligt fra öl, mungát". It is certainly clearly distinguished from mungát in a whole range of references in fourteenth century letters, but that it was an imported foreign beer is arguable. 40 It was not, for example, used to distinguish hopped beer from a brew without hops, as happened at a later date in England, for a document of 1355 (DN IV, 374) specifically contrasts bjórr and hopped ale. The requirements are: "tunnu biors eor tunnu med humla mungaat en bioren er ei til". Other letters include one from King Magnus in 1342 (DN I, 277) instructing the provost and canons of St Mary's church, Oslo, to celebrate the feast of Eirik, King and Martyr, with full honours. As an inducement he arranges for them to be supplied with "Priar tunnur með qooom bior" annually on that day. In the regulations regarding provisions for the entertainment of the bishop of Bergen (DN VII, 98), c. 1322-3, the frequent references to bjórr and mungát show that where direct comparison of quantity is possible bjórr was supplied in smaller quantities than mungat though in larger quantities than vin: "Svarar þa hvar þæirra Thorer oc Arne þrimer tunnum biors, fiorom tunnum munngatz en sira Erlender tvæimer tunnum biors,

halftunnu viins . . .".

The ON evidence fully supports the OE evidence. Bjórr is not synonymous with öl or mungát any more than beor is with ealu. Bjórr in both the gloss and in Elis saga is linked with a honey drink not a malt drink. In the Edda the emphasis is on its potency and exotic flavour. In the DN material it is distinguished from both mungát and humla mungát; it is not always obtainable, but when it is it may be preferred to best quality mungát and is obviously a valued commodity.

In turning finally to the OE gloss material we find these conclusions substantiated. There are a variety of Latin words for alcoholic drinks, and to some extent a pattern of Latin-OE equations establishes itself. The Romans borrowed the word sicera from Hebrew via Greek, and when it appears in medieval Latin it normally carries the meaning of strong drink in general rather than any one particular variety. The regular OE gloss is "ælces kinnes gewring butan wine and wætere" which clearly derives from Isidore's "Sicera est omnis potio quæ extra vinum inebriare potest". "Since it carries this comprehensive meaning, the fact that OE words for individual drinks sometimes translate sicera merely indicates that it covered this range of drink, not that it was equated with any one in particular. It clearly had a meaning almost as general as 'alcohol'.

The Latin loan-words celea and ceruisa, the first reputedly from Celtic and the second from Gallic, both mean a drink produced from grain. Isidore defines both of them in these terms, and the Anglo-Saxons, accepting what they read in Isidore, regularly gloss both words by ealu, apart from two translations of ceruisa by swatan (see n. 1). Significantly neither word is ever glossed by beor. Medu usually glosses its own Latinised form medus, sometimes mulsum. 42 Beor also sometimes glosses mulsum as bjórr does in ON, but it is chiefly found as the regular gloss on Latin ydromellum. Repeated occurrences of the same gloss are not unduly significant since glosses tend to be copied one from another, and there is no point therefore in counting the frequency of usage. Variation from the regular pattern is more important. The tenth-century gloss 43 which links beor and ofetes wos as alternative glosses for ydromellum is especially significant, as is the one in BL MS Cotton Cleopatra A III (assigned by Ker to the mid-tenth century) which offers for ydromellum the pair of glosses beor and appelwin. 44 It is clear that æppelwin and probably ofetes wos go back to Isidore's etymology: "Hydromelum, quod fiat ex aqua et malis Matianis". 45 Eppelwin translates this etymology. The use of bear in addition indicates that this word already existed to describe the same drink.

Here the contrasting evidence of the OHG glosses is important. These invariably follow Isidore's etymology in translating ydromellum by apfeltranc. They do not, however, make the further link with bior. It is clear that in OHG any cognate to ealu had virtually died out (though its early existence is demonstrated by Old Saxon alofat 'ale-cup') and in OHG therefore the word bior is reserved for ceruisa.

In Germany therefore the word bior was used of the malt-based drink that was elsewhere called ealu or öl/mungát. In neither Scandinavia nor England did this apply. The OE gloss evidence makes it clear that though there may be confusion between beor and medu (since both translate mulsum), there is never confusion between these two and ealu. Similarly the scribe of MS D of Elis saga substituted mead for bior. Since honey was the only form of sweetening available it is not improbable that the distinctions between a honeybased alcohol (medu/mjöör) and a honey-sweetened alcohol (beor/ bjórr) might become blurred. OE medu and beor might in certain circumstances or contexts become interchangeable words, but they are never, except poetically, interchangeable with ealu. clear that whereas the definitions of OE ealu, medu and win are much the same as the definitions of their derivatives, ealu being a malt-based alcohol, medu fermented honey and water, and win fermented grape-juice, OE beor was a drink made from honey and the juice of a fruit other than grapes, as the glosses ofetes wos and æppelwin suggest. That it was both sweet and potent has already been demonstrated. Since the potency of any wine is increased by increasing the proportions of the sweetening agent, and since it is possible to make wines based on certain fruits with a higher alcoholic percentage than wine based on grapes, it may well be that to Anglo-Saxon and Viking beor/bjorr was the strongest drink available. Modern ale or beer is not normally more than six percent alcohol, table wines are around twelve percent, but a sweet fruit-juice based alcohol can readily reach eighteen percent. In the absence of any knowledge of distillation in western Europe at this period, a drink of this strength would, I think, have seemed fairly impressive.

If the potency of bear was noticeably more than that of win or ealu, so much so that it was consumed as a short rather than a long drink, this might explain the tiny drinking cups found in Anglo-Saxon England and Viking Scandinavia side by side with large beakers and drinking horns. In England the best known examples are those found at Sutton Hoo, made of burrwood and not much more than an inch in height. Others have been found at Broomfield, Taplow, Dover, Faversham and Farthingdown. Similar sized vessels are found in glass. These are mostly late sixth to early seventh century, but from eighth - tenth century Denmark there are a number of silver cups similarly small. The finest is the highly ornate Jelling cup, found in splendid isolation in one of the royal mounds, but other finds include small silver cups in groups of four, five or six accompanied by one larger one. $^{4\,8}$ In the absence of distillation none of these can accurately be described as spirit cups, and it is unlikely that ordinary wine could have been drunk from them, when we remember Chrodegang's ruling that monks were entitled to quinque libras uini a day. The fact that similar vessels are found across the Channel rules out any suggestion that what continentals drank in libras Anglo-Saxon and Viking sipped delicately as an aperitif or liqueur. If beor/bjórr were the sweet, precious, highly alcoholic liquid that the evidence indicates, it could have been drunk in the small quantities for which these cups were designed.

The poetry of the Anglo-Saxons with its technique of variation must have blurred the distinctions between many words, and is perhaps responsible for the decline in precision of meaning which we can trace in the ME use of beor. It survives in poetry, sometimes with the general meaning of 'drink' sometimes in contrast with wine. In the Middle English Dictionary (s.v. $\bar{a}le$ and $b\bar{e}r$) the references under ale and its compounds are legion, but beor/bere is rare. A new development is signalled by the entries in the Promptorium Parvulorum (dated 1440) which show that a shift of meaning is taking or has taken place, since beere now glosses hummulina and ceruisia hummuluna "hopped beer".

Whether hops had previously been used in brewing in England is a separate and complicated subject, but in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries hopped beer became one of the major exports of Flanders, and England one of the major importing countries. The extent and impact of this new imported product completely obliterated the knowledge of beor/bere in English with a meaning different from that describing the new import. What the Germans called beer in future the English were to call beer, regardless of the fact that in neither OE nor early ME had the word meant any kind of grain drink, hopped or not. The OE word ealu stayed on, at first to distinguish native unhopped beer from the foreign imports, later losing even that degree of precision. In Scandinavia the word δl has never been superseded.

H.A. Monckton in his otherwise excellent history 50 is baffled by the OE evidence and resorts to quoting the rambling compilation of J. Bickerdyke: ⁵¹ "The Old English word beer had become so weakened and specialised, even as early as the tenth century, that it is to be found in a vocabulary of that date as an equivalent for idromellum, a word properly signifying an inferior sort of mead". This is to hold the evidence upside down. The word beor had not "become . . . weakened". On the contrary, until we began a largescale importing of hopped beer from the continent the English word had never meant 'beer'. The corresponding evidence from Scandinavia suggests that the OHG usage was the unusual one and that German had developed differently from its cognate languages in this respect. It lost, as other Germanic languages did not, any word derived from *alub-, and consequently brought in bior to fill the gap. It is only in continental west Germanic and in post medieval borrowings from German that the word is connected with malted barley. Modern English 'beer' is a loan word, though the form it takes may have been influenced by the presence of an obsolescent English cognate. The etymological fallacy has been overworked in the translation of ON bjórr and OE beor as 'beer', and probably also in the philologists' insistence on linking early forms of 'beer' and 'barley'. Neither OE nor ON usage (between them covering a good deal of the Germanic speaking world) offers much evidence for either the translation or the etymology.

NOTES

- Other words include OE swatan found infrequently in prose, and OE weorod/wered 'a sweet drink', Beowulf 496. Swatan also glosses Latin ceruisa and must have been a kind of ale. Kluge, Englische Studien 8, (1885), 479 points out its survival in Scottish and links it with swete. A whole range of specialised terminology for wine, some of which I hope to deal with in a later article, occurs in the OE gloss material.
- Andrew Boorde's Introduction and Dyetary, ed. F.J. Furnivall, EETS, ES 10, (1870, reprint 1973), p. 256.
- 3 The Medical Background of Anglo-Saxon England, (London, 1963), p. 358.
- "Zur Deutschen Etymologie", Beiträge Zur Geschichte Der Deutschen Sprache Und Literatur, 35, (1909), 570.
- Altnordisches Etymologisches Wörterbuch, (Leiden, 1962), p. 40.
- de Vries, p. 40. See also J. Pokorny, Indogermanisches Etymologisches Wörterbuch, (Bern and München 1948-59), I, p. 101.
- de Vries, p. 40, and The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, ed. C.T. Onions, G.W.S. Friedrichsen and R.W. Burchfield, (Oxford, 1966), p. 85.
- All quotations from the poems in *The Exeter Book* are from the 2 volume EETS edition; I, ed. I. Gollancz, EETS, OS 104 (1895, reprint 1973) and II, ed. W.S. Mackie, EETS, OS 194 (1934, reprint 1973).
- Beowulf and the Fight at Finnsburg ed. F. Klaeber, 3rd. ed. (Boston, 1950). All quotations from Beowulf are from this edition.
- On winærn see T. Wright, Anglo-Saxon and Old English Vocabularies, 2nd. ed., ed. and collated by R.P. Wülcker, 2 vols. (Darmstadt, 1884, reprint 1968), I, col. 50, 6, and I, col. 281, 18; also Old English Glosses in the Epinal-Erfurt Glossary, ed. J.D. Pheifer, (Oxford, 1974), p. 54 (no. 1040), and note and glossary ref. On winbrytta see Wright-Wülcker I, col. 129, 9.
- 11 A.J. Robertson, The Laws of the Kings of England from Edmund to Henry I, (Cambridge, 1925), p. 64: "and pæt man sylle on éalahuse, bete man pæt æt deadum menn mid vi healfmarce 7 æt cwicon mid xii óran".
- A.J. Robertson, Anglo-Saxon Charters, (Cambridge, 1956), pp. 196, 198.
- Sweet's Anglo-Saxon Reader, rev. D. Whitelock, (Oxford, 1967), p. 21.
- 14 Edda: Die Lieder des Codex Regius . . . ed. G. Neckel, rev. H. Kuhn (Heidelberg, 1962), p. 129. All subsequent references to poems of the Edda are to this edition.
- 15 Ed. B.J. Timmer, (London, 1952, 2nd ed. 1961).
- Skjaldevers, ed. Jón Helgason, (Copenhagen, 1968), p. 22.

- Ed. G.N. Garmonsway, (London, 1939, 2nd ed. 1947, reprint 1965), p. 47.
- Homilies of Elfric: A Supplementary Collection, II, ed. J.C. Pope, EETS, OS 260, (1968), p. 642.
- The Old English version of the enlarged Rule of Chrodegang together with the Latin original, ed. A.S. Napier, EETS, OS 150, (1916, reprint 1971), p. 15.
- 20 Ed., Leechdoms, Wortcunning and Starcraft of Early England, Rolls Series, 3 vols. (1864-66), II, p. 298.
- For a description see N.R. Ker, Catalogue of Manuscripts containing Anglo-Saxon, (Oxford, 1957), no. 264; printed by Cockayne, Leechdoms II, pp. 2-278, 288-358.
- Ker, Catalogue, no. 231; printed by Cockayne, Leechdoms, III, pp. 2-80.
- Cockayne translates wilisc as "foreign". It can however only mean "foreign" in the sense of "British/Celtic". That it records a type of ale originally brewed by the Britons, but not necessarily any longer imported from British territory, is made clear by the charter referred to in n. 26, where wilisc ale in the tenth century is being brewed in the Winchester area.
- Ancient Laws and Statutes of England, ed. B. Thorpe, (London, 1840). I quote the Poenitentiale Ecgberti, II, 2, p. 368. See also the Poenitentiale IV, 21, p. 380. See Canons enacted under King Edgar: Modus Imponendi Poenitentiam, 10, p. 406, and, Latin text only, Theodore's Liber Poenitentialis, 21, 6, p. 288, for further references.
- Die Gesetze der Angelsachsen, ed. F. Liebermann, 3 vols. (Halle, 1903-1916), I, p. 448. Robertson, Anglo-Saxon Charters p. 454 refers to this text in the note on vi seastres mealtes, mentioning that the food rent due at Martinmas from the gebur is given in the Rectitudines as 23 sesters of beer. She has confused OE beor and bere (barley). The OE reading is XXIII systra beres, and the parallel Latin text has ordei.
- Robertson, Anglo-Saxon Charters, p. 38; described by P.H. Sawyer in Anglo-Saxon Charters (London, 1968), no. 385, p. 165 as "authentic".
- Select English Historical Documents of the Ninth and Tenth Centuries, ed. F.E. Harmer, (Cambridge, 1914), pp. 73 ff., 79 ff.; also R.E. Zupko, A Dictionary of English Weights and Measures from Anglo-Saxon Times to the Nineteenth Century, (Madison, Milwaukee and London, 1968), pp. 5, 155 ff.
- Egils saga Skalla-Grimssonar, ed. Sigurður Nordal, Íslenzk Fornrit II, (Reykjavík, 1933), p. 225.
- Sturlunga Saga . . . ed. Gudbrand Vigfusson, 2 vols. (Oxford, 1878), I,
 p. 396.
- 30 Edda Snorra Sturlusonar, ed. Finnur Jónsson, (Copenhagen, 1931), p. 87.
- Aldsta delen af Cod. 1812 4^{to} Gml. Kgl. Samling, ed. Ludvig Larsson, (Copenhagen, 1883), p. 44. I am most grateful to Dr Ole Widding for letting me check these references in the files of the Arnamagnæan dictionary, Copenhagen.

- Ed. Eugen Kölbing, (Heilbronn, 1881), pp. 60-61. MS A is Cod. Delagard. 4-7 folio, a vellum MS in the University library of Uppsala, B is Holm. 6 4^{to} a vellum MS of the late-14th or early-15th century, D is Holm. 7 folio, a 15th-century vellum MS of Icelandic provenance.
- Fritzner, "blandet med Øl"; Kölbing, "bier vermengtem weine"; Kölbing again in an appendix to the French text (see below n. 34) "de vin et de bière mêlés".
- Ed. Gaston Raynaud, (Paris, 1879), p. 36, line 1060. If the Norse translator worked from a MS in which the number was omitted or indecipherable his mixture of *bjórr* and *vin* would be a perfectly proper translation.
- Bartholomeus, Anglicus, de proprietatibus rerum, (Cologne, n.d.), book 19, ch. De clareto. See also Du Cange under claretum.
- Late Medieval Icelandic Romances II, ed. Agnete Loth, Editiones Arnamagnæanæ Series B, XXI, (Copenhagen, 1963), p. 175.
- Fornaldarsögur Norörlanda, ed. Valdimar Ásmundarson, (Reykjavík, 1885-9), p. 236 (wrongly numbered 136). I am also indebted to Dr Gillian Fellows Jensen for advance access to the text and notes of her forthcoming edition of Göngu-Hrólfs saga.
- 38 Sturlunga saga I, p. 392; II, p. 67.

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- Diplomatarium Norvegicum, ed. C.C.A. Lange and C.R. Unger, (Christiania, 1849-), II, no. 44. The series is subsequently referred to throughout as DN followed by volume and document number.
- If Fritzner is right, then bjórr in Norse must have undergone the same semantic shift as beor in English, but about a century earlier. In this case the Sturlunga and DN references would be examples of the new meaning. The parallel French situation is of interest here, see F. Eyer, "La cervoise et le bière au Moyen Age et à la Renaissance", Bulletin philologique et historique (jusqu'à 1610) du comité des travaux historiques et scientifiques, 1968 (Paris, 1971), 1, 352. "Chose curieuse, 1' aromatisation par le houblon, devenue peu à peu exclusive, coîncide approximativement avec l'introduction du terme "bière" qui va se substituer à celui de cervoise. C'est donc à partir du commencement du xve siècle que nous pouvons véritablement parler de bières de France". The date thus links with the English situation, not the Norse.
- Isidore of Seville, Etymologiarum sive Originum, ed. W.M. Lindsay, 2 vols. (Oxford, 1911), II, book XX, iii, 16.
- 42 E.g. Wright-Wülcker, I, col. 281, 25.
- Wright-Wülcker, I, col. 128, 11. The MS is described by Ker, no. 2, Antwerp, Plantin-Moretus Musuem 47 + BL Add. 32246.
- Wright-Wülcker, I, col. 430, 9; Ker, no. 143.
- Isidore, XX, iii, ll. This material has been dealt with by H.E. Kylstra in "Ale and Beer in Germanic", Iceland and the Mediaeval World: Studies in Honour of Ian Maxwell, ed. Gabriel Turville-Petre and J.S. Martin, (Clayton, Victoria, Australia, 1974), pp. 7-16. Kylstra's use of the gloss evidence depends on taking two separate sentences of Isidore, running them together,

and treating them as if they were two halves of the same statement. His conclusions therefore depend on a link between hydromelum and medus for which the original offers no justification.

- See Elisabeth Karg-Gasterstädt and Theodor Frings, Althochdeutsches Wörterbuch, (Berlin, 1968), s.v. apfeltranc, and Elias Steinmeyer and Eduard Sievers, Die Althochdeutschen Glossen, (Frankfurt, 1895, reprint 1969), III, p. 155, 55-8; p. 214, 49.
- See Karg-Gasterstädt s.v. bior, and Steinmeyer III, p. 156, 3-5; p. 697, 59; p. 232, 75; IV, p. 198, 51. The link between mulsum and claré provided by the ON translations is confirmed by the OHG glosses where both mulsum and claratum are glossed by lutirtranc III, p. 155, 51-4 and p. 697, 57.
- D.M. Wilson, "The Fejø Cup", Acta Archaeologica 31 (1960), 147-173. On the glass see D.B. Harden "Glass vessels in Britain AD 400-1000", Studies presented to E.T. Leeds . . . ed. D.B. Harden (1956), pp. 132-167. I am indebted to Mrs Leslie Webster of the British Museum and Mrs Else Roesdahl of Århus University for discussing this material with me.
- 49 Ed. A.L. Mayhew, EETS, ES 102 (1908, reprint 1973), p. 30.
- A History of English Ale and Beer, (London, 1966), p. 36.
- The Curiosities of Ale and Beer, (London, 1886), p. 152.