Norwegian grammar and reader

by
Julius Emil Olson

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List Price: $20.99 USA

Title ID: 1485 - Edition ID: 1480 - Request ID: 1672
This title was processed on: 2009-09-30T12:45:19-04:00
Esther A. Smith,
Ann Arbor, Mich.
NORWEGIAN

GRAMMAR AND READER

WITH NOTES AND VOCABULARY

BY

JULIUS E. OLSON

PROFESSOR OF SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE IN THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

CHICAGO
SCOTT, FORESMAN & COMPANY
1907
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PREFACE.

This book is an attempt to produce a practical manual for students that desire to gain access to Norwegian literature. It is designed not only for the class-room, but also to meet the demands of Americans endeavoring by means of self-instruction to acquire a knowledge of the language, and, furthermore, to serve as a guide to that increasingly large number of persons of Norwegian parentage, who, having some knowledge of spoken Norwegian, desire to know something of Norwegian literature. The wants of these various classes are somewhat different, it is true, and the effort to satisfy them within the limits of one moderate-sized volume has presented many difficulties. Omissions and eliminations have been necessary. No doubt some will feel that the book should have contained a series of exercises for translation into Norwegian. The space devoted to the Reader, Notes and Vocabulary has prohibited this, in conformity with the essential idea of the book, that of being an introduction to the literature of Norway. But the Grammar does contain a large number of carefully translated illustrative sentences, which, to the skillful instructor, and even to the eager student, may serve the purpose of the more formal exercises; for they have been chosen with the double view of laying something of a foundation for a speaking knowledge of the language, and of giving the beginner some familiarity with the essentials of the language before attempting the Reader, especially if he does not have the assistance of an instructor.
The selections in the Reader have been made on the basis of literary excellence and historical interest. The aim has been to make them of such a nature as to engage the heart as well as the head of the learner, that he may be led to peruse them as literature, and not merely as reading exercises. The first selections will be found to be comparatively easy; the last are of sufficient difficulty so that the student who has mastered them may feel that he is prepared to read any modern Norwegian or Danish author. After the beginner has gained some knowledge of the pronunciation and a general familiarity with the principal grammatical forms, he should spend considerable time on some of the first selections—the second and fifth, for instance. These are easy and interesting, and contain constantly recurring words and phrases that are an encouragement in the first efforts at translation.

The Notes are intended to give adequate explanations of the more difficult passages in the text, and the necessary literary and historical information for a due appreciation of the selections in the Reader. It is also hoped that they may incite the student to seek beyond the limits of this book for a further acquaintance with the authors represented.

The Vocabulary does not aim to give complete definitions, but only such meanings as occur in the Reader. In connection with the list of verbs and the cross-references to the Grammar, the Vocabulary will be found sufficiently full and complete so that the laborious and perplexing task of using an independent dictionary may be obviated. When such a work is needed for supplementary reading, Larsen's "Dansk-Norsk-Engelsk Ordbog," Copenhagen, 1897, is recommended.

In the preparation of the Grammar I have been under special obligations to Hofgaard's "Norsk Grammatik" and Poestion's "Lehrbuch der norwegischen Sprache." In the matter of orthography, except in regard to the use of capital
letters, I have followed Aars's "Norske Retskrivningsregler," eleventh edition; but the selections from Ibsen have not been normalized. (See Notes, p. 257.)

I have seen fit to call this work "A Norwegian Grammar and Reader," instead of using the cumbersome and awkward term "Dano-Norwegian." (See Notes, p. 280.) Although the common literary language of Norway is Danish in its general structure, it nevertheless presents numerous differences in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammatical details. The literary activity that Norway has experienced, especially during the last forty years, has developed many peculiarities of language quite foreign to Danish. Norway has numerous vigorous dialects from which modern authors have drawn pithy words and happy turns of phrase. The language, like its literature, is instinct with modernness.

THE AUTHOR.

MADISON, WIS., December 31, 1897.
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1. In Norwegian both the German and the Roman characters are used. The former, however, are gradually yielding to the latter. The letters of the alphabet are as follows:

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<tr>
<th>Roman</th>
<th>German</th>
<th>Name</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A, a</td>
<td>A, a</td>
<td>ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B, b</td>
<td>B, b</td>
<td>bay*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C, c</td>
<td>C, c</td>
<td>say*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D, d</td>
<td>D, b</td>
<td>day*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E, e</td>
<td>E, e</td>
<td>ay*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F, f</td>
<td>F, f</td>
<td>eff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G, g</td>
<td>G, g</td>
<td>gay*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H, h</td>
<td>H, h</td>
<td>haw (see 13, a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I, i</td>
<td>I, i</td>
<td>ee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J, j</td>
<td>J, j</td>
<td>yod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K, k</td>
<td>K, f</td>
<td>caw (see 13, a).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L, l</td>
<td>L, l</td>
<td>ell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M, m</td>
<td>M, m</td>
<td>em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N, n</td>
<td>N, n</td>
<td>en</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O, o</td>
<td>O, o</td>
<td>oo (see 8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P, p</td>
<td>P, p</td>
<td>pay*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q, q</td>
<td>Q, q</td>
<td>coo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R, r</td>
<td>R, r</td>
<td>air (short, with rolled r).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S, s</td>
<td>S, s</td>
<td>ess</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See note on page 2.
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ROMAN.  GERMAN.  NAME.
T, t      T, t      tay *
U, u      U, u      ou (in 'you,' see 9).
V, v      V, v      vay *
W, w      W, w      dobbelt vay
X, x      X, x      ex
Y, y      Й, ё      ee† (with pouting lips).
Z, z      З, Ѳ      set
Æ, æ (Æ)  Æ, æ      a† (in 'am').
Ø, ø, (ō)  Ø, ø      u† (in 'urn').
Aa, aa (Å, å)  Aa, aa      awe (see 13, a).

* Care must be taken in pronouncing these equivalents not to introduce the "vanish." The vowel sounds in Norwegian (except diphthongs) are all simple, whereas, in English, long vowels have almost always a compound or partially diphthongal quality, called vanish. If these English sounds be graphically represented by curves, the Norwegian sounds will be represented by straight lines.

† As these vowels (y, æ, ø) have no corresponding sounds in English, it is impossible to represent them exactly with English letters. They take their names from their simplest value.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

2. Formerly capital letters, besides being used, as in English, at the beginning of a sentence, etc., were also used for all nouns and words used as nouns, and for some pronouns (see 70); but not for proper adjectives; as, en amerikansk Stat, an American state. The official orthography of Norway and Denmark, as at present taught in the public schools, uses capital letters only at the beginning of a sentence, in the second personal pronouns I, De, Dem, you, and the possessive adjective Deres, yours, and in proper names; but not in titles, nor in the names of the months or days of the week. But many writers, especially in newspapers, do not follow the official orthography.
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ACCENT.

3. In native Scandinavian words, and words derived from native German words, the accent is usually on the root syllable, as Barn, child, Bårndom, childhood. In compound words the first part (unless it is a prefix) has the primary and the other the secondary accent, as Ís-hus, ice-house. Words with the prefixes be-, er- or ge- never have the accent on the first syllable, while those with for- and u- often do. Nouns of Latin origin are usually accented on the last syllable; as, Studént, Kul-túr, Sol-dát. Verbs of foreign origin are accented on the penult; as, stu-dé-re, to study; re-for-mé-re, to reform.

On account of the numerous variations, rules relating to accent, except those of the most general kind, are of but little assistance to the beginner.

For an explanation of musical accent or inflection (Tó-nelág) see first page of Notes.

VOWELS.

4. The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, y, æ, ò and aa (or á*).

For convenience a, o, u, and aa are called hard vowels, e, i, y, æ and ò, soft.

The distinction between long and short vowels must be learned chiefly by practice, but the following observations will be found useful.

In pronouncing the Norwegian vowels the lips are brought into more prominent play than in English, for in the production of the rounded vowels, o, u, y, ò and aa, a considerable pouting of the lips is necessary, and in the unrounded vowels, i, e, and æ, a decided “chinking” or spreading out of the corners of the mouth must be practiced.

In accented syllables a vowel is usually long when it precedes a single consonant, as Dag, day; Kultúr, culture. It is short when it precedes two consonants.

* The character á is originally Swedish, but is now gradually displacing the Norwegian and Danish aa.
especially a double consonant, as in *Hell*, hero; *Bakke*, hill. The long sound of a vowel is not, however, affected by the combination of different consonants resulting from the addition of inflectional or tense endings, unless the combination be -dt; as, *spare*, to save, and *sparte*, saved, in both of which cases the vowel is long. Before -dt the vowel is always short; thus, in the adjective *god*, good, the vowel is long, but in *godt*, the neuter form of the same adjective, the vowel is short on account of the combination dt.

a. In words with the same spelling but different length of vowel and different signification, where ambiguity may easily arise, the long sound of the vowel is often indicated by the sign of accent; thus *før* is the past tense of *fare*, to fare, go, while *for* is the preposition *for,* and has a short vowel.

b. In some words the short sound of the vowel is, by some writers, shown by a doubling of the final consonant; thus, *viss*, certain; *Dugg*, dew; *Egg*, egg. (In *vis*, wise; *Dug*, cloth; *Eg*, oak, the vowel is long.)


5. A has the sound of a in *father*: the difference between long and short a is only quantitative. Ex.: long, *Fader*, father; *Mad*, food; short (i.e. pronounced with the same position of the vocal organs, but more quickly), *Fad-der*, sponsor; *gam- mel*, old; *Mand*, man.

6. E and æ are treated together, because their values exactly correspond. These are: 1) The closed sound, long, which is like English a in *day* without its vanishing or diphthongal quality. Ex.: *le*, laugh; *Sne*, snow; *Sten*, stone; *leve*, live; *Træ*, tree; *Bræ*, glacier; *Kna*, knee: and the same sound short, as in *et*, a or an; *Bredde*, breadth; *fedt*, (neuter of *fed*, fat).

2) The open sound, long, which is equal to English e in *ell.* Ex.: *Fædre*, fathers; *Glæde*, joy; *dræbe*, kill;
ALPHABET

Sted, place; Kjedel, kettle; and the same sound short, which is like e in 'ebb.' Ex.: Mænd, men; hange, hang; Fjeld, mountain; let, light; Seng, bed.

a. Unaccented e, when final, is very short, and before liquids (l, m, n, r) in final syllables is practically suppressed. Ex.: Heste, horses; begge, both; vakker, (pr. vak-k'r), pretty; Handel (pr. han-d'I), trade; li-den (pr. li-d'n), little.

3) The broad sound before r in the accented syllable of native root-words. This sound is like the English ai in ‘air’ (pronounced with a spreading of the lips). Ex.: long in er, am, is, are; her, here; Hær, army; ware, to be; short (like a in ‘at’) in sterk, strong; værd, worth.

b. In words where r is an inflectional or tense ending, and in foreign words, e and æ do not have this broad sound, but follow the general rule; that is, are long or short, according to their position. Ex.: ser (from at se), sees; mer (the comparative of meget, much), more; Mandr (a foreign word), manner; Europa-er, European.

c. There are exceptions to the general rules in regard to the pronunciation of e and æ. In fact, the pronunciation of them not only is different in Denmark and Norway, but varies in different parts of Norway. The following irregularity is important: de, they, and De, you, are pronounced like the English combination ‘dee’; and jeg, I, may be approximated by the English ‘yea,’ quickly pronounced, with a slight suggestion of an ae sound at the close.

7. I long is like e in ‘he,’ or i in ‘pique,’ as Mil, mile; Is, ice; Tid, time; ri-de, to ride. When short it is like i in ‘it,’ as Fisk, fish; Lin-ned, linen; Ild, fire; spil-le, to play.

a. In the following pronouns the vowel i has a very irregular pronunciation: mig, me, dig, thee, sig (the reflexive), himself, etc.; they are pronounced nearly like the English words ‘may,’ ‘day,’ ‘say.’ To be exact, the -ig of these words has the same phonetic value as the -eg of jeg, explained above in 6, c.

8. O has a closed and an open sound, each of which may be long or short. The closed o, long, has the
sound of our oo in 'food,' uttered with a more decided projecting of the lips than is usual. Ex.: Fod, foot; Mod, courage; god, good; stor, large; moden, ripe. The short sound is different only in quantity, like oo in 'foot.' Ex.: Ost, cheese; Bonde, peasant; bort, away.

1) The open o is the same as aa (ə). It may be approximated by pronouncing the English 'awe' with a rounding of the lips. It is between the sound of 'awe' and 'oh.'

2) Open o, long, occurs principally before v and g, also in the possessive adjective vor, our. Ex.: Bog, book; Lov, law; do-ven, lazy; og, and.

3) Open o, short, is the same as the long except in quantity. It occurs much more frequently than the short o closed, and should be carefully practiced. It is like the German o in Gott. That is, the Norwegian godt (the neuter of god, good) is like the English 'got' pronounced quickly with a projecting and rounding of the lips. Ex.: Fos, waterfall; at holde, to hold.

9. U, long, is like ou in 'you': it is the closed o long, thrown further forward in the mouth; as in Gud, God; Jul (pronounced like the English 'yule'), Christmas; du, thou. The short sound is nearly like oo in 'foot.' Ex.: Gut, boy; Hund, dog. Care should be exercised not to give initial u its English sound as in 'union.'

10. Y, long, is the English ee pronounced with a projecting and rounding of the lips. It is the equivalent of the German ü and the French u. Ex.: By, city; Lyd, sound; ty-ve, twenty; Dyr, animal; kry-be, to creep. Short y differs from the long only in quantity. Ex.: Byg-ge, to build; Lyst, pleasure; Styk-ke, piece; Styr-ke, strength.

a. In the numerals fyrre-ve, forty; sytet, seventeen; sytti, seventy, the y of the first syllable has the sound of ø (see 12.)
11. 

æ (sometimes written ā, ā) has the same sound as e (see 6.)

(a) The use of æ instead of e, and vice versa, is somewhat perplexing. Many words formerly written with æ now have the simpler letter e; in others the æ is retained for etymological and other reasons. The following general rule is observed in the official orthography of Norway: æ is always used to represent the e sound in words which have a related or derivative word in a or aa. Ex.: Fa-dræ (from Fa-der, father), fathers; Fær (from fare, to go), expedition; Sæd (from saa, to sow), seed.

(b) In consulting a lexicon for a word that has one of these letters (e or æ), the above irregularity should be kept in mind. Thus, the word for 'priest' in most lexicons will be spelled Præst, whereas in modern literature the more common form is Prest.

12. 

Ø, ø (ø), has no equivalent sound in English. Long ø is like the German ö in Göthe, or the French eu in peur. It closely resembles the vowel sound in the provincial American pronunciation of 'burn;' only the learner must be careful not to introduce an r sound after ø where there is no r. To produce it the lips must be well rounded and projected. Ex.: Ø, island; Ær, ear; hö-re, hear; fö-de, feed; röd, red. Short ø is different only in quantity. It is equivalent to the French eu in peur, or the German ö in Göttter, and resembles the u in 'hurry.' Ex.: Høst, autumn; Løfte, promise; Søster, sister.

(a) Before gn, ø has the sound of the diphthong øl (14, 2), the g becoming silent. Thus, the word Løgn is pronounced as though written Løin.

13. 

Aa (å), long, has the same sound as open o (see 8, r). Ex.: Aal, eel; Daad, deed; aaben, open; gaa, go. The short sound differs only in quantity. Ex.: Haand, hand; maat-te, must.

(a) The names of the letters h and k have this sound; namely, haa and kaa.
DIPHTHONGS.

14. The diphthongs are ei, øi, au (sometimes ou), and in words of foreign origin, ai, oi and eu. Ie is not a diphthong; thus, bi-e, to wait; Pi-e-tét, piety; Fa-mi-li-e, family. Some modern authors write j instead of i in these diphthongs, a substitution not recognized in official orthography.

1) EI is a compound sound made up of the a in ‘age’ and the e in ‘eat’ pronounced rapidly together. It has its exact equivalent in the Scotch ey in ‘gey.’ Ex.: Seil, sail; Veil, way; rei-se, travel.

   a. In the words Veir, weather, and its derivative Uveir, storm, ei has the sound of a before r, that is, like e in ‘there.’
   b. E before gn and gl, when these consonants belong together in the root of a word, has (with few exceptions) the same sound as the diphthong ei, the g being silent or rather fused in the e. Ex.: Tegn, sign; Egn, region; Tegl, tile. But in egne (the plural of egen, own) the e has its ordinary long sound, because the g and n do not belong together in the root.

2) ØI is a very common diphthong. It has the sound of ö followed quickly by a short i, both sounds being run together into one syllable. Ex.: høi, high; Støi, noise.

3) AU is much like the English ou in ‘house,’ but somewhat closer. Ex.: Au-güst, August; Haug, hill.

C. EU in Eu-ro-pe has the same sound as au, but in other words it has the sound of the Norwegian diphthong øi, as in neutral; fa-rma-ceút, pharmacist.

4) OI is found only in a few foreign words. It is like oi in ‘oil.’ Ex.: Kon-voi, convoy.

CONSONANTS.

15. B has the same sound as in English: Bad, bath; Bi-bel, bible.

   a. Before s or t in accented syllables b has the sound of ð: dræbt, killed; döbt, baptised.
CONSONANTS

b. B, d, g are called soft, and p, t, k hard consonants. In many Norwegian words where a long vowel is followed by a soft consonant, the latter has the sound of its corresponding hard consonant. Thus, Pi-be, pipe, is in modern usage pronounced Pi-ge; Baad, boat, is pronounced Baat, and syg, sick, becomes syk. Some authors, especially Björnson, now use this phonetic spelling.

16. C is now found only in foreign words, where it has the sound of s; as Cén-trum, center; Of-si-cér, officer; Disci-pé-l, disciple. Words of foreign origin, formerly written with c, where the c was hard, are now written with k; as Kritik, Kandidát.

17. D is usually like the English d; as Daad, deed; bi-de, to bite.

a. For the t sound of d after long vowels, see 15, b.
b. Before st, d is always silent; as bedst, best. Before s in a short syllable d has the sound of t, although here, too, especially in colloquial language, it is silent, the vowel remaining short; as in Spids, point; Trods, defiance; plúde-se-lí (pr. plús-se-lí), suddenly.
c. In many words d is silent after the liquids l, n and r; thus Mand, man; Land, land; Fald, fall; haard, hard. There are so many exceptions to this rule, however, that the beginner had better not apply it except in poetry, where the rhyme may require it. Thus Jord and Mor, han and Land make perfect rhymes.

18. F is like English f except in the preposition and prefix of, of, where, as in English, it has the sound of v; as áf-bryde, to break off.

19. G in all unaccented syllables and before the hard vowels is like g in ‘good’; as Gå-de, street; god, good; gul, yellow; drá-ge, to draw; Når-ge, Norway. Before the soft vowels in accented syllables it has the sound of English y in ‘yield’; as gi-ve, give; gy-se, shudder; göre (for gjöre); gerne (for gjerne).
a. Before t, g has the sound of k: Digt, poem; Plicht, duty; neg-te, to deny.
In the adjective and adverbial endings -ilg and -ilg the g is silent, the i retaining its short sound: al-drig, never; fær-dig, ready; mer-ke-ilig, remarkable, as also in mer-ke-ige (the plural form). When t is added to these endings (to form the neuter), the g has a k sound: merheligt; nødd-ven-dig, necessary.

In naturalized French words with a g before a soft vowel, the g is sounded, not as in French, but like English sh; as ge-ni (pr. she-ned), genius; etage (pr. e-tá-she), story (of a house).

In the combination gj the g is silent. Many writers drop the j of this combination in places where the pronunciation is not affected; that is, before the soft vowels, where g has the sound of Norwegian j, English y. Thus gjøre and göre, to do, are identical in sound and signification; similarly Gjest, or Gest (pr. yest), guest; gjennem, or gennem, through.

H is sounded as in English. It is silent before j and v and in the combination th; as Hus, house; Fri-hed, freedom; but, Hjem (pr. yemm), home; Hjul (pr. yule), wheel; hvaad, what; hvid, white; hvis-le, rest.

J has the sound of English y; as ja, yes; jord, earth; ja-ge, chase.

K has the same sound as in English, except before the soft vowels in accented syllables, where it approximately has the sound of ch in ‘church.’ Ex.: As k in English: kal-de, to call; Klok-ke, bell; Kui-tur, culture. As ch: Kir-ke (only in the accented syllable), church; Kist-c, chest; kys-se, to kiss.

The exact sound of this soft k may be produced by pronouncing ‘chest’ without allowing the point of the tongue altogether to touch the palate. For k in consonantal digraphs and trigraphs, see 31.

L, m, n and p have practically the same sounds as in English; as Lam-pe, lamp; Peng-e, money; Sang, song; lum-pen, paltry.

Q has the sound of k and is usually so written. In modern orthography qu becomes kv, in which combination
CONSONANTAL DIGRAPHS

both letters are sounded. *Kvinde* (pr. K’vin-de), woman; *Kvad*, a song; *Kvarto*, quarto.

25. *R* is rolled and always distinctly heard: as, *Ravn*, raven; *rig*, rich; *mere*, more; *var-re*, worse; *Slyrke*, strength.

26. *S* is always sharp like English *ss*: *So-len*, the sun; *le-se*, to read; *Ro-se*, rose.

27. *T* is sounded as in English; as, *Stat*, state; *Ting*, thing; *stölt-te*, to support. In the monosyllabic ending -tion it has an *sh* sound; as in *Na-tion* (pr. na-shoén); *Konversation*. Sometimes this ending is written *sjon*.

28. *V*, in native words, is like English *v*; as, *Vin-du*, window; *Vand*, water; *va-de*, wade.

*W* appears only in foreign names, and has the sound of *v*.

a. *V* has the sound of *f*: 1) before *t* after a short vowel in inflectional forms of words whose roots have *v*; as, *havt* (from *have*); *stolv* (from *stöv*); 2) before *g* after a short vowel when the root has *v*; as, *Havsens, Livs-glađe*; 3) in *Vi-sl*, violet, *Violín*.

b. *V* is usually silent after *l*: as, *Sölv*, silver; *halv*, half; *tolv*, twelve; *selv*, self, (but not in *selve*). It is also silent in *Prosvt*, dean.

29. *X* is now used principally in foreign words. For the sake of brevity, however, it is used by many writers, even in native words, instead of its equivalent *ks*; as, *Text* or *Tekst*, text; *strax* or *starks*, immediately.

a. Initial *x* in foreign words has the sound of sharp *s*: *Xantippe*.

30. *Z* has the sharp sound of *s*: *Zigeuner*, gipsy.

CONSONANTAL DIGRAPHS AND TRIGRAPHS.

31. The following are to be noted:

1) *Bj*, where both consonants are distinctly sounded, *j* having its usual (*y*) sound; as *Björn*, bear.
2) **Gj**, which has the value of simple *j*; as, *gjöre*, do; *Gjest*, guest (19, d).

3) **Kj**, which has the sound of *k* before a soft vowel (22, a.); as, *kjö-re*, drive; *Kjöb-mand*, merchant.

4) **Skj**, which has the sound of *sh*; as *Skjeg* (pr. shegg), beard; *for-skjél-lig*, different. **Sk** before a soft vowel in an accented syllable has the same sound.

   a. In the combinations *gj*, *kj* and *skj* before a soft vowel in accented syllables, the *j* is dropped by many writers both in Norway and Denmark. The official orthography of Norway has not adopted this elimination. Both Ibsen and Bjørnson regularly discard this *j*. In these authors one will find *göre* for *gjöre*; *Gast* for *Gjest*; *sære* for *skjære*.

5) **Th**, where the *h* is always silent; as *Thor*, Thor; *Throne*, throne; *The-a-ter*, theater.

   b. The *k* in *th* is now usually dropped in all words except *thi*, for (because), to distinguish it from *ti*, ten, and *iti*, the imperative of *ti-e*, to be silent.

**VOWEL CHANGE.**

32. In the formation of derivatives, the plural of nouns, and the comparison of some adjectives, a somewhat regular change of vowels takes place. This is called Mutation or Umlaut. Thus,

   *a* to *a*, as  
   **Mand**, man; **Mænd**, men.  
   **Navn**, name; **navne**, to name.  
   **gåd**, glad; **Glæde**, joy.

   *aa* (*a*) to *a*, as  
   **Haand**, hand; **Hænder**, hands.  
   **saa**, to sow; **Sæd**, seed.

   *o* to *ø* (*ø*), as  
   **Klo**, claw; **Kløer**, claws.  
   **love**, to promise; **Løfte**, a promise.  
   **stor**, large; **større**, larger.

   *u* to *y*, as  
   **ung**, young; **yngre**, younger.  
   **tung**, heavy; **Tyngde**, weight.
VOWEL CHANGE

a. It will be observed that these vowel-changes are always from hard vowels (a, aa, o, and u) to the corresponding soft ones (æ, ø, y). These changes were originally produced by a process of assimilation effected by the appearance of certain letters (or sounds) in the inflectional endings of words. In Old Norse i (j) and u (w) are "the two themes which hlt back in this way, assimilating the root vowel half way to themselves, and thus producing a delicate harmony." (Vigfusson and Powell, Icelandic Reader.)

EXERCISE IN PRONUNCIATION.

Jeg har et Hjem, det er saa godt,
I have a home it is so good

Skjønt kun en liden Hytte;
although only a little hut

Men et for noget Kønge-slot
but not for any royal-castle

Jeg vilde det bort-bytte.
I would it (away) exchange

Der har jeg baade Far og Mor
there have I both father and mother

Og mine Søskend kjære;
and my brothers-and-sisters dear

Der dækkes dagligen mit Bord,
there is-decked daily my table

Hvad kan jeg mer begjære?
what can I more desire

1) jeg like 'yea.' 2) å before å is silent; ã like ã; the vowel short. 3) õ is silent. 4) åt like åt; vowel short. 5) sky like sk. 6) vowel short. 7) øt like ø in 'age.' 8) æg like æg in 'singer.' 9) primary accent on byt-. 10) å has a hard sound. 11) kj like ch. 12) ø like ø. 13) å is silent (after r); vowel long; rhymes with Mor, like 'moor' and 'boor' with rolled r. 14) å before ò is silent. 15) æg like y, i., g before å is silent, and å is like English y.
ARTICLES.

33. The gender of nouns in Norwegian is grammatical. It is either common or neuter, and is indicated by the articles. There are two articles, the definite and the indefinite, both of which are inflected.

34. The indefinite article in the common gender is en, a or an; in the neuter, et. Thus, en Mand, a man; en Kvinde, a woman; en Bog, a book; et Hus, a house; et Rige, a kingdom.

a. Nouns denoting profession and occupation usually omit the indefinite article where in English it would be used: Han er Læge, he is a doctor. Det er vanskeligt at blive Forfatter, it is difficult to become an author.

35. The definite article has two forms:—1) A noun without an adjective is made definite by adding the indefinite article to it as a suffix, -en (or -n) for the common gender, -et (or -t) for the neuter. Thus, Manden, the man; Kvinde, the woman; Bogen, the book; Huset, the house; Riget, the kingdom. This is called the post-positive article; its plural form is -ene or -ne for both genders. Thus, Mandene, the men; Kvinderne, the women; Husene, the houses.

36. 2) When the noun is preceded by an adjective, the post-positive article is not used. In such a case the form den, the, for the common gender, det for the neuter, and de for the plural (of both genders) precedes the adjective as in English. Thus, den gode Mand, the good man; den gode Kvinde, the good woman; det gode Hus, the good house; de gode Mand, the good men; de gode Huse, the good houses; de gode Kvinder, the good women.

a. The definite article is used with abstract nouns and those taken in a universal sense. Thus, Livet er langt, life is long; Fjernet er sterk, iron is strong.
ARTICLES

b. It is often used where English uses a possessive adjective; as, *Gutten satte Hatten paa Hovedet*, the boy placed his hat upon his head.

c. In colloquial language both definite articles are frequently used at the same time; thus, *den gode Manden*, the good man; *det store Huset*, the large house; *de brune Hestene*, the bay horses.

EXERCISE ON ARTICLES.

en Hest, a horse;    Heste, horses.
Hesten, the horse;   Hestene, the horses.
en By, a city;       Byer, cities.
Byen, the city;      Byerne, the cities.
en Kone, a woman;    Koner, women.
Konen, the woman;    Konerne, the women.
et Hus, a house;     Huse, houses.
Huset, the house;    Husene, the houses.
et Aar, a year;      Aar, years.
Aaret, the year;     Aarene, the years.
et Barn, a child;    Börn, children.
Barnet, the child;   Börnene, the children.

NOUNS.

GENDER.

37. Nouns have two genders, common and neuter. This is indicated in the singular by the articles (34) and also by adjectives and pronouns.

a. In Old Norse, the language of the Sagas, still spoken in Iceland in an almost unchanged form, nouns are masculine, feminine or neuter; in the Norwegian dialects these genders are still preserved in the three forms of the article; as,

   *ein Mann*, a man; *el Kona*, a woman; *elt Barn*, a child.
   *ein Stol*, a chair; *el Dør*, a door; *elt Hus*, a house.

38. The grammatical gender of a noun is often determined by the natural gender, but usually by its ending.
There are, however, so many exceptions that, as in German, the gender of nouns must be learned by practice. The following general rules may be given.

39. Of the common gender are:—

1) The names of living beings, trees and plants, divisions of land and water, the heavenly bodies, the seasons and other divisions of time; as, en Kvinde, a woman; en Hund, a dog; en Birk, a birch; Rug·en, the rye; en Ø, an island; en Elv, a river; en Stjerne, a star; Sol·en, the sun; Höst·en, the autumn; en Uge, a week.

2) Derivatives in -e, -d, -de, -et and in -else, -sel, -ing, -ske, -dom and -hed; as, en Gave, a gift; en Færø, an expedition; en Höide, a height; Skabelse·n, creation; en Advarel, a warning; Barndom, childhood; Blindhed, blindness.

40. Of the neuter gender are:—

1) Nouns denoting substances, names of cities and places, letters and languages, and other parts of speech used as nouns; as, Papir·et, the paper; Kjød·et, the meat; Guld·et, gold; Vand·et, water; det sydlige Europa, southern Europe; det gamle Norge, old Norway; det norske Sprog, the Norwegian language; det stumme e, silent e; mit ja er saa godt som dit Nei, my yes is as good as your no.

2) Nouns with the endings -ri (-i), -ende,-dömme, -maal, and -skab; as, Slaveri, slavery; et Foretagende, an enterprise; Herredömme, dominion; et Spørgsmaal, a question; Venskab, friendship.

Also nouns derived from verbs without the addition of an ending; as, et Spring, a leap; et Slag, a blow.

41. In some nouns the gender changes with the signification; as,

en Ark, an ark; et Ark, a sheet (of paper).

en Bid, a morsel; et Bid, a bite.
NOUNS

en Brud, a bride; et Brud, a breach.
en Verk, a pain; et Verk, a work.
en Raad, a counsellor; et Raad, advice.

42. Compound nouns usually take the gender of their final member; as, et Is-hus, an ice-house; et Arm-baand, a bracelet; en Hus-fugl, a domestic bird.

43. The natural gender in some words is indicated by the ending; as, Grevinde, countess, from Grev, count; Løvinde, lioness, from Løve, lion; Veninde, lady friend, from Ven, friend; Baronésse, baroness, from Barón, baron; Kassérerske, from Kassérer, treasurer; Direktrice, directress, from Direktór, director.

THE PLURAL OF NOUNS.

44. The plural of nouns is usually formed by adding r, er, or e. Some, however, form the plural by a change (umlaut) of the root vowel, and others change the vowel and take an ending as well. Many nouns have the same form for both numbers.

45. Nouns may be classified according to the manner in which they form their plurals.

CLASS I.

46. Nouns ending in an unaccented e add r to form the plural; as en Ape, an ape, Aber; et Æble, an apple, Æbler; en Begravelse, a burial, Begravelser; Veninde, lady friend, Veninder; en Krone, a crown (a coin, about 27 cents), Kroner; en Óre (a coin, the hundredth part of a Krone), Örer.

a. Note the following exceptions: en Bonde, a peasant, Bönder; et Öie, an eye, Öine; et Óre, an ear, Ören (or Örer).

CLASS II.

47. The following classes of nouns form their plurals by adding er:
1) Those that end with the root vowel; as,

en Aa, a rivulet, Aaer.
en By, a city, Byer.
en Li, a slope, Lier.
en Sjö, a sea, Sjöer.
en Bro, a bridge, Broer.
en Ske, a spoon, Skeer.
en Hei, a ridge, Heier.
et Træ, a tree, Træer (or Trær).
en Mo, a heath, Moer.

a. The important exceptions are: en Höi, a hill, height, Höie;
en Flöi, a vane, Flöie; en Vei, a road, way, Veie; en Sko, a shoe, Sko.

2) Those ending in -en, -el, -sel, -ing (also -ning and -ling), -hed, -skab, and -ri; as,

en Aften, an evening, Aften.
en Kjedel, a kettle, Kjedler.
et Æsel, en ass, Æsler.
et Kjökken, a kitchen, Kjökken.
en Lidenskab, a passion, Lidenskaber.
en Långsel, a longing, Långsler.
en Arving, an heir, Arvinger.
en Bygning, a building, Bygninger.
en Læring, a learner, Lærlinger.
en Dumhed, stupidity, Dumheder.
et Maleri, a painting, Malerier.

b. Some personal nouns like Olding, old man, and Skagtning, relative, usually add e instead of er to form the plural.

3) Derivatives in d and t; as,

en Bygd, a district, Bygder.
en Dyd, a virtue, Dyder.
en Drift, an impulse, Drifter.
en Kunst, an art, Kunster.
en Slegt, a race, family, Slegtter.
en Magt, a power, Magter.
en Udsigt, a prospect, Udsigter.
en Vekst, a growth, Vekster.

* Words ending in -et drop the e before the t when a syllable is added.
THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

4) Most foreign nouns, especially those having the accent on the final syllable; as,

en Studént, a student, Studénter.
en Kandidát, a candidate, Kandidater.
en Figúr, a figure, Figúrer.
en Grad, a degree, Grader.
en Generál, a general, Generaler.
et Hof, a court, Höffer*.
en Nación, a nation, Nacióner.
en Melodi, a melody, Melodier.
en Prest, a priest, Prester.
en Part, a part, Parter.

C. Foreign words ending in -um, drop this termination when they receive the plural or the definite ending; as, et Stádium, a study; Studier, studies; Studiet, the study.

5) Other parts of speech used as nouns; as ingen Mennér*, no buts (men, but); mange Neier, many noes, (nei, no).

CLASS III.

48. Many monosyllabic nouns that add er in the plural also modify the root-vowel; as,

en And, a duck, Andér.
en Bog, a book, Böger.
en Fod, a foot, Födder.
en Haand, a hand, Händér.
en Rod, a root, Rödder.
en Tand, a tooth, Tändér.
en Taa, a toe, Tæer.
en Nat, a night, Næeter.

CLASS IV.

49. The following classes of nouns form their plural by adding e:

1) Most monosyllabic nouns of the common gender (and many of the neuter) that end in a consonant; as,
en Arm, an arm, Arme.
en Björn, a bear, Björne.
en Bank, a bench, Banke.
en Birk, a birch, Birke.
en Dörg, a dwarf, Dörgge.
en Dör, a door, Döre.

* All monosyllabic words (and other words with the accent on the last syllable) with a short vowel, ending in a single consonant, double this consonant when a syllable is added.
NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

en Hat, a hat, Hatte.  |  en Havn, a harbor, Havne.
en Elv, a river, Elve.  |  en Hest, a horse, Heste.
en Fjord, a fjord, Fjorde.  |  en Kniv, a knife, Knive.
en Gaard, a farm, Gaarde.  |  en Våg, a wall, Vågge.

a. There are many exceptions to this class; as,
en Aand, a spirit, Aander.  |  en Gjest, a guest, Gjester.
en Bred, a border, Bredder.  |  en Mast, a mast, Master.
en Bøn, a prayer, Bønner.  |  en Ven, a friend, Venner*.

In some words of this class usage varies in Norway and Denmark, the Norwegians inclining to the -er ending. Especially in colloquial language in Norway many words of this class have an -er ending in the plural; as Hester, horses, for Heste, as it is usually written. These forms are gradually finding their way into literature.

2) Nouns ending in -er. In most of these words the e before the r is dropped when the e of the plural is added; as,
en Ager, a field, Agre.  |  en Sistre, a sister, Sistre.
en Finger, a finger, Fingre.  |  et Kloster, a cloister, Klostre.
et Theater, a theater, Theatre.  |  en Vinter, a winter, Vintre.

But derivatives usually retain the e; as,
en Borger, a citizen, Borgere.  |  en Fisker, a fisherman, Fiskere.
en Sanger, a singer, Sanger.  |  et Bager, a goblet, Bagere.
en Bager, a baker, Bagere.  |  en Kunstner, an artist, Kunsthete.

b. The following nouns of this class modify the vowel as well:
en Fader, a father, Fadre.  |  en Brødre, a brother, Brødre.
en Moder, a mother, Mødre.  |  en Datter, a daughter, Døtre†.

3) Nouns ending in -dom which double the final consonant; as Rigdom, wealth, Rigdomme‡, riches; Fordom, prejudice, Fordomme.

* Thus also Venner, the friend. See note p. 21.  † The singular was formerly Datter.  ‡ Thus also: Rigdommen, the wealth.
THE PLURAL OF NOUNS

CLASS V.

50. A few nouns form their plural by merely modifying the vowel; as,

*et Barn*, a child, *Börn.*  
*en Gaas*, a goose *Gås* (or *Gjæs*).

CLASS VI.

51. Most neuters ending in a consonant do not change in the plural.

*et Aar*, a year.  
*et Bud*, a commandment.  
“*Baal*, a funeral pyre.  
“*Spring*, a leap.  
“*Brød*, (a loaf of) bread.  
“*Slaug*, a blow.  
“*Lam*, a lamb.  
“*Svar*, an answer.  
“*Lys*, a light.  
“*Forsøg*, an attempt.

a. There are many exceptions in this class, some adding *e* and others *er*; as,

*et Bjerg*, a mountain, *Bjerger.*  
*et Blad*, a leaf, *Blade.*  
*et Tag*, a root, *Tage.*  
*et Bord*, a table, *Borde.*  
*et Naam*, a name, *Naume.*  
*et Bryllup*, a wedding, *Bryllupper.*  
*et Hoved*, a head, *Hoveder.*  
*et Båd*, a bridle, *Båder.*

b. In colloquial language many of the words of this class which by exception take *e* to form the plural, follow the rule, that is, are the same in both plural and singular; as, *Bord, Hus, Navn, Skib.*

c. Some nouns are used only in the plural; as, *Forældre*, parents; *Søskende*, brothers and sisters; *Forældre*, ancestors; *Penge*, money.

Note.—The numerous exceptions to the general rules for the formation of the plural will indicate that this branch of the Norwegian language can be mastered only after long and careful practice. This fact, however, need not be discouraging to one who desires to acquire an accurate reading knowledge of the language, as the articles, adjectives and the context generally aid in detecting whether a noun is singular or plural.
### NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

#### DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

#### CASE.

**52.** Nouns have three cases, the nominative, the genitive or possessive, and the accusative or objective. The genitive case, both singular and plural, is formed by adding *s*. The accusative of nouns is always like the nominative. Thus,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SING.</th>
<th>PLU.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>en Mands, a man’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>en Kvinde, a woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>en Kvindes, a woman’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>en Kvinde, a woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>et Brevis, a letter’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>et Aar, a year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>et Aars, a year’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>et Aar, a year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**53.** When the noun has a post-positive article, the *s* of the genitive is added to the article. Thus,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SING.</th>
<th>PLU.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Manden, the man.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Mandens, the man’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>Manden, the man.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Kvinde, the woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Kvindens, the woman’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>Kvinde, the woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Brevet, the letter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Brevets, the letter’s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>Brevet, the letter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DECLENSION OF NOUNS

N. Aare, the year. Aarene, the years.
G. Aarets, the year's. Aarenes, the years'.
A. Aaret, the year. Aarene, the years.

a. Proper names that end in s form the genitive by adding an apostrophe and s; as Hans's Bog, Hans's book. This may be obviated by saying Bogen til Hans.

b. Foreign names often retain the foreign genitive form; as Kristi Død, the death of Christ; Petri Breve, the epistles of Peter.

c. In Old Norse the s is added to both the noun and the postpositive article. Remnants of this are found in Norwegian in such forms as Livsens for Livets, and Dödsens for Dödens.

ADJECTIVES.

54. Adjectives agree with substantives in gender and number (not in case), not only when they precede them, but also when used predicatively.

55. When the noun in the singular is used indefinitely (that is, without any preceding limiting word), or with the indefinite article en or et, the simple form of the adjective is used, if the substantive is of the common gender, and t is added, if it is of the neuter gender. This is sometimes called the Strong Declension.

Ex.: god Mad, good food; godt Vand, good water.
en god Mand, a good man; et godt Barn, a good child.
Manden er god, the man is good; Barnet er godt, the child is good.
Bogen er stor, the book is large; Bordet er stort, the table is large.

Den er stor, it is large; det er stort, it is large.

a. Final t of the neuter is omitted in: 1) adjectives that end in t; as, et let Sind, a light mind; et sort Lam, a black lamb; 2) some adjectives having a vowel before final d; as, glad, happy; fremmed, strange; lad, lazy; kaud, frisky; 3) derivative adjectives in sk; as, et krigersk Folk, a warlike people; norsk Språk, Norwegian speech; but radicals in sk follow the gen-
eral rule; as, ferskt Kjød, fresh meat; falskt Vidnesbyrd, false witness; 4) adjectives ending in a vowel; as, et vantro Menneske, an incredulous person; but ny, new; fri, free; stø, steady, and those in -aa follow the general rule; as, et frit Folk, a free people; et nyt Høv, a new house; et graat Hoved, a gray head.

56. When the noun is plural, the adjective agreeing adds e, no matter what the gender may be, or what words precede.

Ex.: gode Mænd, good men; gode Børn, good children; disse store Byer, these large cities; mine gamle Forældre, my old parents; Hestene er kaade, the horses are frisky; vi er unge, we are young.

57. When the adjective is preceded by the definite article, a demonstrative, a possessive adjective, or a noun in the genitive case, it has the ending e in both genders and numbers. This is sometimes called the Weak Declension.

Ex.: den store Bog, the large book; det store Bord, the large table.
denne store Hest, this large horse; dette store Dyr, this large animal.
min sterke Arm, my strong arm; mit sterke Barn, my strong child.
hans klare Øie, his clear eye; hans klare Øine, his clear eyes.
Haralds store Tanke, Harold’s great thought; Guds hellige Ord, God’s holy word.

a. Adjectives ending in aa (a) do not take the e ending (either in the plural or the definite); as, graa Katte, gray cats; smaa Børn, little children; de blaa Øine, the blue eyes.

b. Monosyllabic adjectives having a short root vowel and ending in a single consonant, and other adjectives ending in a single consonant with the accent on the last syllable, double the consonant before adding e in both the definite and the plural.
ADJECTIVES

forms; as, den lette Vej, the easy way; det smukke Barn, the pretty child; smukke Blomster, pretty flowers; en violette Farve, a violet color; but violette Farver, violet colors. Adjectives ending in som also double the final consonant; as, en virksom Lærer, an active teacher; virksomme Lærere, active teachers; betænksomme Mennesker, discreet people.

c. Participial adjectives and other native words ending in et change this ending to ede instead of simply adding e; as, en elsket Moder, a dear (beloved) mother; but min elskede Moder, my dear mother; elskede Brødre, beloved brethren; en kroget Vej, a crooked road; but den krogede Vej, the crooked road; krogede Veie, crooked roads.

d. Adjectives of two or more syllables ending in ei, en, or er drop this e before the final consonant when e is added; thus, en edet Daad, a noble deed; den edle Daad, the noble deed; en kristen Prest, a Christian minister; kristne Mennesker, Christian people; en mager Hest, a lean horse; de magre Heste, the lean horses.

e. In elliptical expressions where the limiting word is omitted, and also in exclamations and in address, the adjective retains the e ending; as, (min) kære Ven, my dear friend; rige Knud, du lover godt! rich Knud, you promise well! jeg arme Mand, I, poor man!

58. The following adjectives drop the n of the simple form when the t of the neuter is added. Some of the plurals are irregular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMON</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>en, a or an</td>
<td>et</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>den, the</td>
<td>det</td>
<td>de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>liden, small</td>
<td>lidet</td>
<td>smaa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nogen, some, any</td>
<td>noget</td>
<td>nogen (nogle)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>megen, much</td>
<td>meget</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anden, other</td>
<td>andet</td>
<td>andre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hvilken, which</td>
<td>hvilket</td>
<td>hvilke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min, my (mine)</td>
<td>mit</td>
<td>mine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>din, thy</td>
<td>dit</td>
<td>dine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sin, his own</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>sine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egen, own</td>
<td>eget</td>
<td>egne</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

Ex.: en lidet Gut, a little boy; et lidet Barn, a little child. nogen Mand, any man; noget Menneske, any person. nogen Æbler, any apples; nogle Æbler, some apples. mogen Godhed, much kindness; meget Vand, much water.

en anden Ting, another thing; et andet Sted, another place; andre Steder, other places.

hvilken Bog, which book; hvilket Papir, which paper; hvilke Bøger, which books.

min egen Fader, my own father; mit eget Barn, my own child; mine egne Børn, my own children.

a. The past participles of strong verbs when used in an adjective sense, undergo a similar change; as,

skrevet, written, skrevet, skrevne.

59. The following demonstrative and indefinite adjectives are irregular:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMON</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>den, that,</td>
<td>det</td>
<td>de</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>denne, this,</td>
<td>dette</td>
<td>disse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mangen, many a,</td>
<td>mangt</td>
<td>mange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ingen, no,</td>
<td>intet</td>
<td>ingen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ex.: Jeg liker ikke den Herre, I do not like that gentleman.

Denne Bog og dette Papir er mine, this book and this paper are mine.

Disse Bøger er ikke dine, these books are not yours.

Jeg saa ingen Mand, intet Barn og ingen Heste, I saw no man, no child and no horses.

a. In colloquial language a noun preceded by a demonstrative frequently has the post-positive article also.

Ex.: Jeg glemmer aldrig den Dagen, I shall never forget that day.
ADJECTIVES AS SUBSTANTIVES

60. The following words are also used both adjectively and substantively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMMON</th>
<th>NEUTER</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hin, that</td>
<td>hint</td>
<td>hine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hver, each, every</td>
<td>hvært</td>
<td>samme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>samme, same</td>
<td>saadant</td>
<td>saadanne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saadan, such</td>
<td>sligt</td>
<td>slige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slig, such</td>
<td>(somt)</td>
<td>(somme, some.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ex.: *I hine gamle Tider var der en Konge*, in those olden times there was a king.

*Hvært eneste Barn var smukt*, every single child was pretty.

*Den samme Skurk var her igaar*, the same villain was here yesterday.

*Saadanne Ting interessérer mig*, such things interest me.

*Det er ikke hyggelig at bo i slige Huse*, it is not pleasant to live in such houses.

*Begge disse Mænd har været mine Venner*, both (of) these men have been my friends.

*Somme Folk liker ikke at arbeide*, some people do not like to work.

ADJECTIVES AS SUBSTANTIVES.

61. Qualifying adjectives may be used substantively, and when so used take the adjective endings.

Ex.: *For meget af det gode*, too much of a good thing.

*En blind*, a blind man (or woman); *den blinde*, the blind man (or woman); *de blinde*, the blind.
Salige er(e) de fattige i Aanden, blessed are the poor in spirit.

Den fattige sulsted, de rige led Savn, the poor man starved, the rich suffered want.

Vi fik hverken vaadt eller tört, we got nothing to eat or drink (literally: 'neither wet nor dry').

a. Adjectives, including comparatives and superlatives, used substantively may also be used in the genitive.

Ex.: De fattiges Børn lider, the children of the poor suffer.

At sove den retsfærdiges Søvn, to sleep the sleep of the just.

INDECLINABLE ADJECTIVES.

62. Adjectives that end in e, es, and in s with a preceding consonant are indeclinable; as, et ringe Beløb, a small amount; et afsides Sted, an out-of-the-way place; vor fælles Ven, our mutual friend.

a. Tilfreds, contented, and gammeldags, old-fashioned, take the regular e ending when definite or plural, but they cannot take the t of the neuter; as den tilfredse Dronning, the contented queen; but et tilfreds Sind, a contented mind; gammeldags Folk, old-fashioned people.

b. Indeclinable are also idel, mere, lutter, sheer; as lutter Tøv, sheer nonsense; idel Armod, abject poverty.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES.

63. The possessives might properly be treated under adjectives, but being derived from pronouns they are more readily understood after these have been studied, and for that reason they will be given under Pronouns. See 76.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

64. Adjectives form the comparative and superlative by suffixing ere or re and est or st, and in certain cases (as in English) by the use of mere, more, and mest, most.

Most monosyllabic adjectives form the comparative by adding ere, and the superlative by adding est.
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

Ex.: rig, rich, rigere, rigidest.
glad, glad, gladere, gladest.
høi, high, höiere, höiest.
sterk, strong, sterkere, sterkest.
let, light, lettere, lettest*.

Adjectives ending in -ig, -lig and -som have ere in the comparative and st in the superlative.

Ex.: flittig, diligent, flittigere, flittigst.
lykkelig, happy, lykkeligere, lykkeligst.
virksom, active, virksommere, virksomst.

a. The same elision of e in adjectives ending in er, el, and en takes place in the comparison of adjectives as in their declension. See 57, d.
Ex.: doven, lazy, dovnere, dovnest.
aedel, noble, advere, adlest.
mager, lean, magrere, magrest.

65. The comparative and superlative may also be expressed by mere (mer), more, and mest, most, preceding the adjective. This must be done in the comparison of derivative adjectives ending in en, el, sk (isk), and other adjectives ending in ed, es (and s with a preceding consonant), and also all participial adjectives. The last usually end in ende for the present, and et for the past, participle.
Ex.: sortladen, darkish, mere sortladen, mest sortladen.

Similarly: bakket, hilly, krigersk, warlike, fremmed, strange, udvortes, external, gjangs, prevalent, and elskendt, loving, elsket, loved, and many others.

a. Mere is used to express the comparative in a phrase like the following: Han er mere doven end syg, he is more lazy than sick.
b. Comparatives and superlatives do not take the ending t to indicate the neuter.
Ex.: Amerika er et rigere Land end Norge, America is a richer land than Norway.

Det sterkeste Bord er det bedste, the strongest table is the best.

* For the doubling of the consonant see foot-note, p. 21.
c. Superlatives take the inflectional ending e like the simple adjective, except when used predicatively.

Ex.: Han er den rigeste Mand i Byen, he is the richest man in the city.

Min hjørnest Ven var her idag, my dearest friend was here today.

Johans første Tanke var at løbe, John's first thought was to run.

but, Dette Ur er bedst, this watch is best.

Mine æbler er bedst, my apples are best.

66. The following adjectives modify the vowel besides taking the regular endings to form the comparative and superlative:

stor, large,  större,  störst.
lang, long,  længere,  længst.
tung*, heavy,  tyngre,  tyngst.
faa, few,  færre,  færrest.

67. The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

gammel, old,  ældre,  ældst.
god, good,  bedre,  bedst.
ond (vond), bad,  værre,  varst.
iden, small,  mindre,  mindst.
mange, many,  flere,  flest.
megel, much,  mere,  mest.
nær, near,  nærmere,  nærmest.

68. Some adjectives are found only in the comparative and superlative, being in reality formed from adverbs; as,

(nede), down,  nedre, lower,  nederst, lowest.
(ude), out,  ydre, outer,  yderst, outermost.
(oven), above,  övre, upper,  överst, uppermost.
(midt), middle,  midtre, middle,  midterst, middlemost.
(dag), back,  bagre, back,  bagerst, hindmost.
(frem), forth,  fremre, further,  fremst, furthermost.

a. The comparatives bagre and midtre are used as positives; as, Den midtre Dør, the middle door.

Det bagre Vindu, the back window.

* This adjective has also the regular forms tyngere and tyngest.
PERSONAL PRONOUNS

b. The following indeclinable forms are to be noted: höire, the right (hand or side); venstre, the left; nordre, northern; söndre, southern; östre, eastern; vestre*, western.
Ex.: Min höire Haand, my right hand.
Det venstre Parti, the party of the Left.
c. The following superlatives occur: først, first; førre, foremost; sidst, last; ypperst, uppermost; agterst (cf. agter, astern, aback), rearmost; eneste (cf. en, one), only, single.
d. All comparatives and superlatives when used substantively, take s to form the genitive.

PRONOUNS.

69. Pronouns, like nouns, have three cases, but in reality the genitive forms of the personal pronouns are used mainly as possessive adjectives. To aid the beginner, however, these forms will be given in parentheses so as to indicate the corresponding possessive adjectives.

a. There are no prepositions, verbs or adjectives in Norwegian that govern the genitive. In this connection it is to be noted that the preposition til in Old Norse governs the genitive, and some phrases (now usually treated as adverbs) in the modern Scandinavian languages still retain the genitive ending; as tilfjelds (til, to; Fjeld, mountain), to the mountains; tilvands (Vand, water), by water; til Lands og Vands, on land and sea; tilbunds, to the bottom; tilsengs, abed, to bed; til Alters, to sacrament.
There are also some sporadic remains of a dative after a preposition in phrases like: tiljede (til, to; Død, death), to death; tilve (till, in; Liv, life), alive.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

70. The personal pronouns are:

FIRST PERSON.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. jeg†, I.</td>
<td>vi, we.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. (min, my or mine).</td>
<td>(vor, our).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mig, me.</td>
<td>os, us.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The synonyms nordlig, sydlig, esteig and vestig are regular. † For the irregular pronunciation of some personal pronouns see 7, a.
NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

SECOND PERSON.

N. du, thou. I*, you.
G. (din, thy or thine). (ders, jers, yours).
A. dig, thee. eder (jør), you.

THIRD PERSON.

N. han, he. hun, she. den or det†, it. de, they.
G. (hans, his). (hendes, hers). (dens or dets, its). (ders, theirs).
A. ham, him. hende, her. den or det, it. dem, them.

POLITE FORM OF THE SECOND PERSON.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

N. De, you. De, you.
G. (Deres, your). (Deres, your).

Polite address requires the use of the forms De, Deres, Dem, which are in reality the plurals of the third personal pronoun capitalized. The forms du, din, dig and I, eders (jers), eder (jør), the pronouns of the second person, familiar form, are used in addressing relatives and intimate friends; but in colloquial language an irregular form dere is commonly used instead of I and eder. The common people often use dere instead of the regular polite form De, (Deres), Dem, which should always be used in addressing strangers and others with whom one is not on familiar terms.

Ex.: Hvor har du været, mit Barn? where have you been, my child?
Børn, har I (dere) set min Stok? children, have you seen my cane?
Kjære Far og Mor, det er hyggelig at være hjemme hos eder (dere) igjen, dear father and mother, it is pleasant to be at home with you again.
Hr. N., kan De huske, hvor jeg traf Dem først? Mr. N., can you remember where I met you first?

* Written with a capital letter to distinguish it from the preposition i, in.
† Den or det, depending upon the grammatical gender of the antecedent.
REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

a. Jers and jer are sometimes used instead of eder and eders. In poetry they are often used interchangeably to accommodate the meter.
Ex.: "Men eder var han mere god;
Han dryssed Ræsd i jert Blod." (Ibsen).
In the last line consistency would require eders instead of jert.

b. Den and det as simple personal pronouns usually refer to animals and things.
Ex.: Manden holdt meget af Hunden og ville ikke dræbe den, the man thought a great deal of the dog and would not kill it.
Jeg hjæbte en ny Bog, men liker den ikke, I bought a new book, but do not like it.
Hvor er Uret? Det ligger på Bordet, where is the watch? It is lying on the table.

As in German the polite form of the second personal pronoun is the plural of the third personal pronoun capitalized.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

71. The reflexive of the first and second personal pronouns is, in both numbers, the accusative.
Ex.: Jeg slog mig, I hurt myself.
   Lad dig ikke bedrage, do not let yourself be deceived.
   Nu maa vi skynde os, now we must hurry (ourselves).
   Har I anstrengt eder? have you exerted yourselves?

The reflexive of the third personal pronouns, both singular and plural, is sig (Germ. sich). It refers to the logical subject of the verb with which it is used. The recasting of a sentence, however, is often necessary to avoid ambiguity.
Ex.: Han læste sig blind, he read himself blind.
   De trangte sig igjennem, they forced themselves through.
   Hun negter sig intet, she denies herself nothing.
   Han bad ham kjøbe sig en Bog, he asked him to buy himself a book.
NORWEGIAN GRAMMAR

The reflexive of the polite form De, you, is not sig, as we might expect, but the accusative Dem.

Ex.: Sat Dem, be seated (litt. seat yourself).
    Har De mort Dem taften? have you amused yourself this evening?

a. The reflexives are more commonly used in Norwegian than in English. See Reflexive Verbs, 176.
    Ex.: Stormen lagde sig, the storm abated (litt. laid itself).
    Lykken vender sig ofte, fortune often changes.

    They are also used in a dative sense; as, Han ventede sig ikke et saadant Udfald, he did not expect (for himself) such a result.

b. The use of the reflexive in the third person plural differs in Norway and Denmark. Danish may have: De slog dem selv, they hurt themselves. In Norwegian this sentence must read: De slog sig selv. For a similar difference in the reflexive possessive see 76, a.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

72. The reciprocal pronouns are hinanden (hinn, the, anden, other), and hverandre (hver, each). Strictly, hinanden should be used of two, and hverandre of more than two, but they are often used interchangeably, hverandre being much more common in ordinary language, even when only two are referred to.

Ex.: Disse to Brødre ligner hinanden som to Draaber Vand, these two brothers resemble each other as two drops of water.
    Fættérer sig er ikke De, men du til hverandre, cousins do not say 'you,' but 'thou' to each other.
    Vi skal bare hinendens Byrder, we should bear each other’s burdens.
    De elske hverandres Börn, they loved each other’s children.

* Hinn, hin, hit are the Old Norse forms of the definite article.