ELSA MELIN

Kønugarðr, the Name given to Kiev in the Icelandic Sagas, with an Excursus on Kind in Place-Names

In the Icelandic sagas we find the following forms of the name Kønu-garðr:

Singulars: Kénugarðr, in Landafrædi (c. 1150); til Kœnvgarðz, Kristni Saga, Hauksbók (1190–1200); Kænugarðr, Heimslysing, Hauksbók (c. 1200); ór Kænugarði, Gautrek's Saga (c. 1200); òr Kænagarði, Sögubrot (13th–14th c.); Kænugarð, Eymundar þáttr (14th c.).

Plurals: fyri Kænugörðum, Orvar Odd's Saga (1250); Kænugarðar, Göngu-Hrólfr's Saga (1300); moti Kænv gordum, Bæring's Saga (14th c.); Kiænugarðar, Skálhólt's Bók (14th c.); Kiænugarður, Hauksbók (17th c.), Addenda.

Kønugarðr has been dealt with by Nordic as well as Slavonic scholars. Thomsen 1877: 81 writes: "The Old Norse name of Kiev was Kœnugarðr." In note 1 ibid.: "Accommodated to the Old Norse kæna, a kind of boat?" Mikkola 1907: 280 interprets Kiænugarðar as 'Kijánov górod': "In the bylinas we find Kijánov górod, originally Kiján górod, OR kyjánů, as a name for Kiev." This interpretation is proposed also by Rožniecki, in Izvestija 16, p. 28, and once more in the chapter "Kijangorod og Nepr" in Varægiske minder i den russiske heltedigtning, 1914: 283. Here he adduces an instance from the bylinas, where 'po gorodu po Kievu' when repeated was changed into 'po gorodu po Kijanovu'. "This is the only time in the bylinas, indeed in the whole of Russian literature, that Kiev is called Kijanov (or Kijanov gorod)." Strangely, Rožniecki regards the preservation of the expression as due to the popular etymology of Kijanov gorod as Okianov gorod. He suggests, moreover, that Kijanov might derive from an older Kijan < Kijanu, but has not found Kijan gorod in the bylinas. Despite this, Rožniecki states (p. 284): "It is immediately apparent that Kijangorod is identical with ON Kænugarðr. In my view this name is formed on Kœnir n.pl. = Russian *Kijane* 'inhabitants of Kiev'." *Kœnir* is a word Rožniecki found in Gautrek's Saga. In a footnote on p. 285 he cites *Kijanhorod*, *Kijany* from Słownik geograficzny.

Bugge 1918:97 is cautious on the connection between Kiev and Kænugarðr: "In the sagas Kijev is called Kænugarðr, a name supposedly identical with the Kijangorod of the bylinas." Thomsen 1919:314, n. 1 supported the derivation of *Kønugarðr* from *Kyjan(ov) gorod*, adding, however, in accordance with his hypothesis of 1877, "connected by popular etymology to the Nordic *kæna* 'boat'."

Thomsen's interpretation was supported by Hesselman 1925. He states his reasons on p. 109 f.: "No doubt it was our word kóna 'boat' that the Northmen understood as the first element of the old name for Kiev, Kónugarðr, which is likely to have been originally a transformation, prompted by popular etymology, of a Russian or Vendic name." Hesselman reproduces Schück's account (from the ninth chapter of Constantine Porphyrogenitus' *De Administrando Imperio*) of the Viking naval expeditions to Kiev, where the ships they had sailed in from Scandinavia were exchanged for new boats. According to Hesselman the oldest spelling is kæna < kóna, related to kani 'boat' as hóna to hani.

Metzenthin 1941: 61 agreed with Mikkola. Stender-Petersen 1953 § 19 took exception to Rožniecki's derivation of *Kønugarðr*, whether from *Kænir* or 'Kijan gorod': "Kiev provient directement de la forme *Kyjane*." Vasmer, too, 1967, s.v. Kiev, derives Kønugarðr from kyjane, as does Trunte 1988: 13. S.v. Kænugarðr de Vries 1977 states: "Vielleicht nicht unmittelbar aus Kijangorod, sondern Neubildung aus Kænir < russ. Kijane — und dann volkstümlich umgebildet nach kæna."

Schramm 1984: 78 wishes to reconstruct "die urrussische Vorform" for Kiev from *Kønugardher. He suggests that ø represents an older Nordic $\bar{u}\bar{w}$, as in $bu\bar{w}$ nder 'farmers', which according to him was equivalent to $K\bar{u}_1\check{e}n\bar{v}$, "eine plausible urrussische Lautung", where \bar{u} , before 838, had not yet become \bar{y} . Kiænugarðr, on the other hand, would represent a later phase, when \bar{u} had developed into y or i. Schramm 1984: 79 objects to Thomsen's hypothesized boat. If the Northmen had wanted to describe a city where they switched boats they would have called it "die Stadt der Boote", but not "die Stadt des Bootes".

Also Džakson 1988–89: 152 f. starts out from *Kyjane*. According to her, *Kænugarðr* is the original form. While *Kænugarðr* is the result of a labial umlaut in front of a retained <u>u</u>, *Kiænugarðr* originates from a *u*-breaking. In her opinion *kænir* denotes the inhabitants of Kiev, æ being an open *e*, unaffected by either breaking or umlaut. A popular etymology, inspired

by this labial umlaut, interpreted the toponym as 'city of boats'. We cannot, however, with certainty expect a strictly consistent development of this toponym; Džakson points at the possibility that the variants are due to scribal attempts to render a local pronunciation.

Strumiński 1996: 130 rejects Schramm's chain of reconstruction as "wrong on both ends", but concurs fully (p. 127) in Hesselman's interpretation of Kænugarðr as 'city of boats'. He also (p. 130 f.) rejects Rožniecki's hypothesis that kænir represents the name for the inhabitants of Kiev, kviane. Kænir, which in the Icelandic sagas appears in several variants, is the name for the finnish inhabitants of the lowland along the Baltic shores, from finnish kainu 'lowland'. He summarizes: "And, of course, linguistically Kænir is just as far removed from kyjane as Kænugarðr is from Kvievъ."

It is my intention to demonstrate that none of the appellatives adduced — kyjane, kænir, kóna — nor a combination of these three words, is the source of *Kønugarðr*. My starting-point is the root *genu- f. in Pokorny 1989: 381,2, Greek yévuc, Latin gena 'Kinnbacke, Kinn', Old Norse kinn f. 'Backe, Bergabhang', Gothic kinnus f. 'Wange'. A few scholars, i.a. de Vries, regard the root *genw- as a consonant stem. Frisk states s.v. yévvc that the original u-stem is retained in the Celtic, Germanic and Tocharian languages. Latin gena 'cheek' was attracted to the feminine gender by $m\bar{a}la$, but the u is retained in *dentes genuini* 'molars'.

On kinn f. Rygh 1898: 60 comments: "Kinn is now, as it must have been in the past, also used metaphorically of the steep slope of a mountain or ridge.". Such names are also adduced by Fritzner. From Sweden Hellquist 1970 cites e.g. Kinna, sub 1. kind. Svenskt Ortnamnslexikon (2003) gives Kinnared and other examples.

Ekwall 1960: 105 gives instances from England that are contemporary with the Viking expeditions. S.v. Chinnok he discusses the sense of this name, the oldest instances of which are Cinnuc (c. 950, c. 1100) and Cinioch (1086). "Possibly a derivative of OE cinu 'fissure, ravine'. But the consistent *nn*-spelling is remarkable. Formally, OE *cinn* 'chin' (Goth. kinnus 'cheek') would be preferable as the base. This word may have been used in a transferred sense of a hill of a certain shape. The ending -uc, -ock is diminutive, as in hillock." The Northmen brought Kinn to their western settlements as well, to Iceland, the Shetlands and the Faeroes. Jacobsen 1921 writes on kinn on the Shetlands: "In place-names the word is fairly frequent in the sense of steep shore, steep coast", and according to Färöysk-Donsk Orðabók 1961 kinn² means: "sloping side of a mountain projection".

As shown by Pokorny's etymology *i* in *kinn* derives from an IE *e*. Hesselman 1913: 25 has explained the development of *e* into *i* in this word, as well as the appearance of *ia* in certain cases. He deals extensively with *kianni* in his "Om brytningen". *Kinn*, the nominative, is formed on the instrumental case *kenuo*. *n* before another consonant was reduplicated, and before *nn e* turned into *i* (Streitberg 1896: 140). This original instrumentalis gave rise to a new paradigm. From Snorri's *Edda* Hesselman (*ibid*. p. 25) adduces *kiann*, *kiannr*, whence he deduces the old paradigm "nom. *keni, acc. *kiana, gen. plur. (and other cases) *kiann*-". Although he writes that "kianni might be a survival of case inflections in this old paradigm" he is inclined to believe that *kianni* is an independent formation without a *u*-suffix (cp. Latin *gena* f.), formed on an *an*-stem *kenan with reduplication of *n* in certain oblique cases.

Two sound-laws, breaking and umlaut, could affect an e-sound. In the Icelandic forms of Kønugarðr the u of the stem is retained (for the single exception see below). In Primitive or Common North Germanic e was changed, through breaking or umlaut, before a u in the next syllable. The result of the earlier breaking of u was io, as in ON biorg < *bergu (see Kock 1916: 276), as was the later breaking of u, before a retained u, as in iotunn 'giant'. According to Kock, p. 282, the spelling of this diphthong is io in the earliest Icelandic manuscripts. Since there is no io in Kønugarðr, no breaking had taken place.

Umlaut of closed e to closed θ before u was first proved, with a number of instances, by Bugge in 1885. His opinion has since been accepted by the Nordic philologists — Hesselman 1913: 64, Jónsson 1919: 314–20, Noreen 1970 § 77,3, and Kock 1916: 168. u-umlaut of a short root syllable before a retained u is most frequent in West Norwegian and Icelandic, and unlikely to occur before the 10th century. Seip 1955: 46 states: "since u apparently remained until after A.D. 800".

 ment, but cannot positively state that this was always the case: "Es ist unsicher, ob es ausserdem eine Bedingung für die Entwicklung $e > \emptyset$ war, dass der e-Laut in Semifortissilbe stand. Falls der isl. Pl.N, $r\emptyset k$ 'Zusammenhang' durch kombinierten älteren u-Umlaut aus *reku entstanden ist, so ist es wenigstens im Isländischen keine Bedingung für diese Lautentwicklung, dass die fragliche Silbe nur Semifortis und nicht Fortis hatte." It is unlikely that the main stress in $K\emptyset nugarðr$ fell on garðr. No word with a syllabic e and a retained u is mentioned by these scholars.

In the Icelandic forms of Kønugarðr we find the following graphemes: /e/,/ee/,/ee/,/iee/,/iee/, and /ø/. The pronunciation developed from [ø] to [e], a development that Jónsson, Noreen and others believe was completed by the 1250s. However, Jónsson 1919: 314 warns that the spellings of these sounds are confused. The varying graphemes are due to the different scribes, and follow the Icelandic sound changes.

Umlaut of a vowel in the first element of a compound is dealt with by Kock 1916: 165. None of his examples contains an *e* before a *u*. The sound laws, he writes, allow umlaut, but a non-umlauted vowel — as in *barklauss — may be explained by the overwhelming number of compounds containing *a*-stems in the first element. Replacement of *u* by *a* could have occurred in our only example, *ôr Kønagarði*, only after *e* had become ø.

Have any derivations of *ken-, with various vowels resulting from umlaut or breaking, been found in place-names, thus having the senses 'mountain' and 'hill', instead of merely 'skull', 'cheek' and 'jaw'? I feel certain that Rygh's Norske Gaardnavne lists such instances of the sense 'mountain'. In the introduction to the first volume Rygh comments on the word kinn twice. On p. 60 he says: "kinn was confused with tjorn, tiern, to the extent that it can be difficult to determine which word is used", and on p. 81: "As early as the Middle Ages there was a neutral parallel tjarn, which is the first element in the modern names Kjensli, Kjensmo, Kjønsøen, etc. Among the several pronunciations we might note Kjinn, which occurs now and then." In my opinion two prerequisites were needed for this confusion between kinn and tjorn. firstly, that in Old Icelandic and in several Norwegian dialects rn in tjorn is assimilated to nn before 1300, see Noreen 1970 § 272. From the 15th century this nn could develop into ddn (see Noreen ibid. § 305). Secondly, that the vowels in tjörn, tjarn and kinn coincided. Rygh derives place-names containing Kinn- and Tjørn- almost exclusively from tjørn. In a few cases he indicates a twofold probability: "Kinnlien: either from kinn f. 'mountainside', or from tjørn 'Tjern' (tarn)" (4:214); "Kjønnaas, Kiøenaas 1626,

Kiønaas 1668. From tjorn f. 'Tjern'. Also, and originally, name for a ridge in the neighbourhood" (5:455). "Kjernaas vestre. Pronounced kjænnås. Westre Kinaas 1723. Strictly speaking the name of the ridge" (5:196). The same sense of 'ridge' is likely in Tjønnasen (9:100) and Kjønnaasen (13:72). The sense of 'hill', 'mountain' is manifest in 14:154, no. 72: "Backen, called kønnbakken"; 16:145 no. 47: "Langfjeld øvre, called kjønnen". Here, however, Rygh comments, "derives from tjørn, f. 'tarn'." Compare ibid. no. 48: "Langfjeld nedre. Called bærg." A name Rygh 6:259 records sub Lost names is "I Tiannom". It denotes a deserted farm, and is likely to contain the same breaking of a as do the forms of kianni cited by Hesselman. I Tiannom would then be synonymous with "I Berge" ibid., also recorded as a deserted farm. The equally unexplained Tjen, among Hellquist's Swedish lake-names (1903–06), might derive from the same root.

From theses instances of *Kjønn*- in the sense of 'hill', 'mountain' I find it possible to make parallels to synonymous names in the *Jordebog* of Bishop Eystein: *Kønastadir* (Kønø–Køøna–Kønastadir) and *Kiønestad* in NRJ, *Norske Regnskaber of Jordebøger fra det 16 Arh*. The adjective *kønn* 'skilful' is regarded by Lind 1920–21 col. 232, *s.v. Kóni*, as a possible element in the names adduced here.

Hesselman 1925: 108 also discusses *køna* as a by-name to Frirekr, Fridekr. Fritzner (1886–96) gives the spelling *kæna* 'a kind of vessel'. Lind comments, ibid. *s.v. Kóna*, col. 232 *kona*, *kæna*, *kǫna*, *kęna*: "Presumably the word is related to the adjective *könn* 'skilful' in the same way as *syra* to surr, etc." Hesselman, though, regards 'boat' as an equally valid interpretation, *Bátr* being a common by-name.

On the by-name (nickname) Kiannauk there is agreement among the scholars. Proceeding from kiannr 'cheek', 'jaw' + auk 'addition' Lidén 1910: 25 interprets the name as 'loudmouth', 'braggart'. Among several other examples containing -kinn Lind (col. 96) cites, from the late 10th century, Galdrakinn: "The suffix kinn 'cheek' refers, as is common, to the whole person (pars pro toto). This part of her body has had some sort of distinctive mark."

I find it possible that the senses 'cheek' and 'jaw' are present in *Frirekr køna* as well. In personal names the final vowel -a is used also about men (Lidén 1910: 27), as in *brosa*, *gapa*, etc. In addition, I question Hesselman's view that *Bátr* supports the sense of 'boat' for *køna*. Fritzner 1886–96: 117 comments *s.v. bátr* that, to be sure, the expression 'ausa bát sinn' means "to bail one's boat dry", but it is also used in the sense of "passing water", as evidenced in Icelandic sources. Fritzner adds: "as a nickname

in Arni bátr." "Many old nicknames had a rather less flattering significance" (Lidén, op.cit. p. 23). Physical defects are a frequent source of nicknames, and bátr might be a metaphor for a bladder problem.

Four instances of *Kønugarðr* in the plural are attested in the sagas. Plural forms for a single object occur in several languages. In my opinion these forms should be considered according to Icelandic usage. In his dissertation from 1975, Plurala ortnamn på Island, Nilsson establishes (p. 50) that about a fourth of the Icelandic settlement names are plural. On p. 70 he explains certain names as "natural plurals", i.e. referring to plural phenomena; *Holar* is a comprehensive name for a rolling landscape. A corresponding interpretation of the plural Feðjar is given by Olsen in Arkiv för nordisk filologi N.F. 19:97: "... on account of the individual islands that make up the archipelago."

Nilsson also distinguished a group of 'enclosure names', among them Flóðgarðar. These names were later to designate the settlements that grew up there.

Correspondingly, Kønugarðar, etc., can denote a city built on several hills, as is Kiev. Alternatively, it might be an enclosure name. The name was subsequently extended to the whole area, and to the principality. Gardr does not have the Icelandic sense of 'yard', it designates a city, or a proto-urban settlement. With Thomsen 1919: 332 I believe that a change of meaning took place, suggested by the Russian word *gord, gorod.

According to Mel'nikova 2001: 71 Garðar denoted the fortified settlements that the Scandinavians came across in the Ladoga-Ilmen region. The plural signified a territory, gardr an actual settlement. This pattern for the choice of singular or plural does not obtain in other contexts. Džakson 1984: 227 points out that in the Nordic names for Suzdal' the plural Surdalar denotes the city, the singular Súrsdalr the state.

Who was the Viking that brought back the name Kønugarðr to Iceland and to the sagas? The Saga of Göngu-Hrólfr tells the tale of the Norwegian Rolf Sturlögsson, who was so heavy that no horse could carry him. (This Göngu-Hrólfr is not identical with his namesake, also called Rollo, who received Normandy in fief for protecting France against other Vikings, although Liljegren attached a biography of Rollo to his translation of the saga.) Chapter 17 describes how Hrólfr journeyed through Svithiod and reached Garðaríki.

Jónson 1907: 341 finds no historical evidence that the hero of the Saga of Göngu-Hrólfr ever existed. But, as he says on p. 5, even though the saga is fiction recollections of Viking expeditions may well be reflected in it: "Undoubtedly it contains a historical core, a good old 'tradition'. How can we otherwise explain why in these particular late sagas the expeditions do not set out westwards?" It seems to me that alone among the Icelandic sagas the Saga of Göngu-Hrólfr gives an eyewitness account of the position of Kønugarðr, and thus a reason for the name. Antiquités Russes I, p. 233, quotes from this saga: "Pridjungr Garðaríkis er kalladr Kænugarðar, þat liggr med fjallgarði þeim, er skildr Jotunheima ok Hólmgarðaríki." ("A third part of Garðaríki is called Kænugarðar; it is situated by the range of the hills that separates Jotunheim from Hólmgarðaríki.") It was not the memory of the boats at Kiev but that of its hills that prompted this description. What characterizes Kiev is its hills. Callmer 1981:30 states: "The most important elements of the topography of Kiev are these hills", which he describes as promontories. And further *ibid*.: "Kiev is situated on the border between two important ecological zones of the Dnieper Basin, the northern woodland zone [...] and the steppe zone." It would seem that in the words "the range of the hills that separates Jotunheim from Hólmgarðaríki" the anonymous writer of the saga has given an accurate description of this site on the border hills.

In my article "What was the original meaning of the name Kiev?" I have suggested that the Russian name of Kiev, from *kij 'hill', was motivated by what is now called Starokievskaja gora. Further senses of *kij — which in place-names translated into German appears as Keule, Kolben (which may mean 'head'), are 'head', 'headland' and 'promontory'. For Haupt Bach (§ 289) gives 'Vorgebirge', "z.B. auf Rügen". De Vries gives kinn the sense of 'vorgebirge' in Finnmark, which was colonised by Norwegians, see Seip 1955: 31. A promontory juts out into water, in the case of Kønugarðr the waters of the Dnieper.

The place-name Kiev was formed from *kij* 'hill' and the suffix *-ev*, possibly around A.D. 900. *Kønugarðr* contains *kinn* 'hill'. It is a translation, a calque. If Seip's (1955: 46) dating of the umlaut is correct the name cannot pre-date the 10th century. The translation indicates that the Northmen understood the significance of the name *Kiev*, and were thus not ignorant of the Russian language.

Kind in Place-Names

In Swedish names for places and hundreds Kakynd is attested in 1225. Kind in Östergötland in 1250, in Västergötland 1270, Kindculle in 1325, Skierkind 1309, Hindsekind 1272, Frekindzhered 1275. The element kind is present also in such names as Brokind, Kindsjön and Kindstorp, for which I have been unable to find dates.

It has been customary to link names containing the place-name element kind to OWN kind 'kin, tribe, nation'. Sahlgren 1953 wanted to give kinn, kind (this d an influence from the plural form of kinn) the novel sense of 'slope'. In his dissertation from 1965, Svenska häradsnamn, and in his article from 2000 "Kind som ortnamnselement" (Kind as a Place-Name Element) Andersson deals comprehensively with names containing kind. In these he rejects the sense of 'hill' and recognizes that of 'kin' — as in Svia kind 'the Svia nation'. According to him (2000: 45 f.) Hindsekind is a crucial proof of his view. It is situated on the western bank of Lake Hindsen, in remarkably flat country. "As is evident from the topography Hindsekind cannot be interpreted as containing a hypothetical *kind. signifying 'hill'. It follows that this interpretation should not be considered for the rest of the names containing -kind either. Nor is there a topographical Nordic appellative *kind." Andersson gives an account of the various opinions and compromises that have been proposed over the years, and includes comprehensive lists of references. The interpretation 'hill' is discussed in the SOL s.v. kind. "It can be substantiated in Kinda or Kinds härad (hundred), and in the hundreds of Kåkind and Kinne." But in the SOL it is, in individual names, generally the sense of 'kin' that is indicated.

In the following I shall give my reasons for regarding the place-name elements kinn and kind as one and the same word, with the basic sense of 'hill', as well as a number of additional observations on the senses of these words.

In Hesselman's treatment of kinn there is no mention of kind. According to Noreen 1904 § 326 n. 1 kind is a secondary development first attested in the nominative plural kinder. In § 326 he writes: "d wird vorliterarisch in die gruppen llr, nnr (vor der entstehung des svarabhaktivokals) eingeschoben. Der vorgang dürfte der späteren rschw. zeit c. 1100 gehören, denn rschw. beisp. sind sehr selten." Noreen states (1970 \S 416) that the inflection of *kinn* is the same as that of the feminine word rong in §412, which deals with masculine and feminine monosyllabic stems. "Die endungen beider geschlechter wären eigentlich: Sg.N. -r..."

Accordingly, the consonant group nnr should have been present in the nominative singular, creating the prerequisites for a d-epenthesis. No r is present in the nominative singular of the feminine rong in § 413, but r appears in the nominative and accusative plural. In masculine nouns r was retained, which according to Noreen 1904 § 383 resulted in forms such as brunder 'well' and munder 'mouth'. The nominative singular kind would then be a pre-literary formation from a period when r was still present. It is the singular form that is represented in the early instances of names on kind. The genitive singular of kinn is kinnar. The nominative and accusative plurals, originally kinnr, developed into kinder. The genitive plural is kinna, the dative kinnom or kinnum. Kynnum 1314 is a regular dative plural, see s.v. Kinna in SOL, while Kynnariuth 1298 contains the genitive singular kinnar and ryd.

Frökinds härad (Frekindzhered 1275, Frøkinshæræþ late 13th c.), does not contain the expected genitive on -ar, but an -s that has puzzled scholars considerably. However, according to Noreen 1970 § 390,2 -s might occur in compounds: "gen. sg. endet als erstes zusammensetzungsglied selt. auf -s, z.B. (zu hiolp) hialpsmaþr heiland". Thus it seems likely that, like most of the Old Icelandic and Old Norwegian feminine nouns, kinn was inflected as an i-stem (ibid. § 390). The plural nominatives and accusatives ended in -er. Epenthesis of d was thus prevented in these forms, but not in the nominative singular *kinnr. According to § 390,1 the original ending -r was retained into the age of early Norse literature in certain nouns, e.g. brúþr 'bride'.

Kind in the nominative is recorded by Rygh as well, but he does not seem to comment on these forms. Thus 1:170 Kinn: Kinnen, Kindt, Kind; 6:2 Kinn: Kindt, Kind.

My view of the significance and form of the element kind is supported also by a number of names outside Scandinavia. Pfälzisches Wörterbuch gives s.v. Kindsfels, FLN, "Kinnsfels, ein steil nach der Nahe und einem kleinem Nebental abfallender Felsen". The name is thus not exclusively Nordic. Ekwall 1960 comments s.v. Kinder, "Kynder Scout, 1285, the highest peak in the Peak district. The probability is that Kinder is an old hill-name ... Scout is the north country scout 'a high rock or hill', from ON skuti 'overhanging rock'." Ekwall explains Kinder as a British (Celtic) name, but I have found no word in the relevant literature that might correspond to a British Kynder. Nd is a combination that contradicts a British origin; according to Jackson 1953: 508 "British nd normally became assimilated to nn". Fritzner 1886–96 explains skuti m. as "sloping mountain with an overhang". This would correspond to the Swedish

Areskutan. On the Shetland Islands the word is found with both a long and a short vowel. Rygh 1:75 comments on Skot, as in Skotsberg 1:184: "something that juts out or crops up, particularly elevated land". In my opinion this Kinder could be a Norwegian name. According to Ekwall 1924: 56 it was chiefly Norwegians who from about 900 onwards came over to the west coast of England from older colonies in Ireland, "preferably (p. 79) settling in hilly districts which we may suppose to have been waste land before the Viking age". The link with the Norwegian Scout strengthens the assumption that Kinder is a Norwegian name. A depenthesis was thus present in this hill-name about 900 A.D., i.e. in preliterary times.

Pace Andersson, Hindsekind is, according to the map published by Lantmäteriverket, situated on a small ridge, a minor elevation that reaches into Lake Hindsen to end in Näsudden. In the same province, Småland, there is another *Hinsekind*, on a clearly noticeable elevation on Lake Lädja. Like skuti, kind denoted a mountain with a slight overhang. Kindsjön, Kinnanäs, Brokind, Kindstorp on Lake Tisnaren, as well as other names, bear witness to this type of location. But it also denoted a 'high hill'. This seems a good description of Fjälkinge (Fialkinn 1135), which rises a good hundred metres above the flat Kristianstad plain, as of Kinnekulle, which can be seen rising above Kinneviken.

According to the SOL the prefix in Kåkinds härad, attested in 1225 as (de) provincia Kakynd, is obscure; it might correspond to Danish kå 'jackdaw'.Lidén 1931 derives kå- in place-names from *kwādu- 'resin', rejecting all previously proposed interpretations, such as kaa 'turn hay', ká-beinn 'crooked', káð 'dissolute living, filth', and ka 'jackdaw'. There is no mention of Kåkind.

Linde 1982: 24 deals with Kåkind, Kåhög (2×), Kåberg/et/ (2×), and Kåabergshagen. The mounds of earth that Kåhög and other names refer to are unlikely to have yielded resin, he says. Like Sahlgren 1953: 8 Linde interprets kå as OSw *ka 'jackdaw', and Kåkind as 'the slope of Billingen with jackdaws'.

I find it significant that Rygh does not associate the farm-names with the sense of 'jackdaw', neither in Kaafell 1:85, Kaholmen 1:84, Kaaberg 15:206, Kabrecken 15:218, nor in other similar names, but describes them as uncertain. I find the association of jackdaws with these treeless earth mounds quite as improbable as that of Kåhög with the bends in the Säve River, adduced in the SOL, and prefer to derive kå from the root geu-, gau-, gū- in Pokorny 1989: 393, with the senses of 'biegen, krümmen, wölben' "... unerweitert wohl in norw. ka-beinn < *gouo-,

'krummbeinig'". Kaa-, kābeinn is found as a nickname for several persons in Lind's Norsk-isländska personbinamn, 1920–21:182, e.g. Olafr, A.D. 1239. The adequate translations are likely to be 'knock-kneed', 'bow-legged', implying a rounded shape of the leg.

Kå- thus defines kind 'the hill, mound' as a rounded topographical feature, a knoll, and Kåkind would denote the modern Billingssluttningen, "slope of the Billingen hill", a slope that is manifest in the map published by Lantmäteriverket. The major part of the hundred of Kåkind, including its centre, Skövde, is situated on this slope.

Kågeröd in Skåne, as in all probability Kåge, Kågedalen in Västerbotten, are likely to derive from the same root and share the sense of 'rounded hill, knoll'. According to Ejder 1979: 152 the first element is the "stem of a word deriving from kāgh-". Among the recorded instances of Kågeröd we find variants with no consonant in the first element (Kaaryth, Karydh 1351), with a g (Kagryth 1390) and with a v (Kovred 1558). The same variation seems likely to result from Pokorny's root *gouo, in this case, according to Noreen 1970 §256, with w as a base; examples of analogous formations are Rógar, Rówar, Róarr.

Andersson calls for a topographical appellative *kind*. Metaphorical names, however, do not always have a corresponding appellative. As Rygh pointed out in his comment on *Skot* above, 1:75: "In place-names *Skot* n seems to be used in senses not otherwise known for this word."

References

Andersson, T. 1965. Svenska häradsnamn, Nomina Germanica 14. Lund.

Andersson, T. 2000. "Kind som ortnamnselement." Namn och Bygd 88, 43-51.

A.R. = Antiquités russes d'après les monuments historiques des Islandais et des anciens Scandinaves, édités par la Société royale des antiquaires du Nord. 1-2. 1850-52. Copenhague.

Bach, A. 1953. Die deutschen Ortsnamen, 2:1. Heidelberg

Bugge, S. 1885. "Ø ved u-Omlyd af e." Arkiv för nordisk filologi 2, 250–53. Christiania

Bugge, A. 1918. "En Björkö i Sydryssland." Namn och Bygd 6, 77–103.

Baerings saga. Fornsögur Sudrlanda. 1884. Ed. G. Cederschiöld. Lund.

Callmer, J. 1981. "The archaeology of Kiev ca. A.D. 500–1000. A survey." Les pays du Nord et Byzance. 29–52. Uppsala.

Džakson, T. N. 1985. "Suzdal' v drevneskandinavskoj pis'mennosti". *Drevnejšie gosudarstva na territorii SSSR 1984*. Moskva. 212–28.

Džakson, T. N. 1991. 'Islandskie korolevskie sagi kak istočnik po istorii drevnej

Rusi i jejo sosedej x-xIII vv. Drevnejšie gosudarstva na territorii SSSR 1988-89, 5-169. Moskva.

Ejder, B. 1979. Ryd och Rud. Lund

Ekwall, E. 1960. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of English Place-Names. 4 Oxford.

Ekwall, E. 1924. "The Scandinavian Element". Introduction to the survey of English Place-Names. Part 1. Edited by A. Mawer and F.M. Stenton. Cambridge, 55-92.

Eymundar báttr. 1860-68. Flateyarbók. 1-3. Christiania.

Frisk, Hj. 1960. Griechisches etymologisches Wörterbuch. 1. Heidelberg.

Fritzner, J. 1886–96. Ordbog over det gamle norske Sprog. 1–3. Kristiania.

Gautreks saga. 1900. Die Gautreks saga, herausgegeben von W. Ranisch. Berlin.

Hauksbók. 1892–96. Udgiven efter de arnamagnæanske håndskrifter No 371, 544 og 675, København.

Hellquist, E. 1903-06. Studier över de svenska sjönamnen, deras härledning och historia. (Svenska landsmål 20) Stockholm.

Hellquist, E. 1970. *Svensk etymologisk ordbok* 1–2.³ Lund.

Hesselman, B. 1913. "Västnordiska studier I. Om brytningen." Skrifter utgivna av K. Humanistiska Vetenskapssamfundet i Uppsala. 14:2, 1-87. Uppsala, Leipzig.

Hesselman, B. 1925. "Kritiska småbidrag till fornisländsk ordhistoria." Göteborgs Högskolas Årsskrift 32:3, 108–10, Göteborg.

Jackson, K. 1953. Language and History in Early Britain. Edinburgh.

Jacobsen, J. 1921. Etymologisk ordbog over det norrøne sprog på Shetland. København.

Jacobsen, M. A. og Matras, Chr. 1961. Føroysk-Donsk Ordabok. Tórshavn.

Jónsson, F. 1907. Den islandske litteraturs historie tilligmed den oldnorske. København.

Jónsson, F. 1919. "Overgangen o-ö (ø) i islandsk." Arkiv för nordisk filologi, N.F. 31, 314-20.

Kock, A. 1916. "Umlaut und Brechung im Altschwedischen." Lunds Universitets Arsskrift, N.F. 12. 1-391. Lund, Leipzig.

Landafraedi. 1908. Alfraedi izlenzk. Utgiven av Kr. Kålund. København.

Lidén, E. 1910. "Äldre nordiska tillnamn." Skrifter utgivna av Svenska litteratursällskapet. 92. 1-48. Helsingfors.

Lidén, E. 1931. "Ortnamn sammansatta med Kå- och motsvarande norska namn." Namn och Bygd 19. 113-24.

Liljegren, J. G. 1818–19. Skandinaviska Fornålderns Hjeltesagor. Stockholm.

Lind, E. H. 1920–21. Norsk-isländska personbinamn från medeltiden. Uppsala.

Linde. G. 1982. Ortnamn i Västergötland. Stockholm.

Mel'nikova, E. A. 2001. Skandinavskie runičeskie nadpisi. Moskva.

Metzenthin, E. M. 1941. Die Länder- und Völkernamen im Altisländischen Schrifttum. Bryn Mawr.

Mikkola, J. J. 1907. "Om några ortnamn i Garðaríke." Arkiv för nordisk filologi, N.F. 19. 279-81.

Nilsson, J. 1975. Plurala ortnamn på Island. Umeå.

Noreen, A. 1904. Altnordische Grammatik. 2. Altschwedische Grammatik. Halle.

Noreen, A. 1970. Altnordische Grammatik. 1.5 Tübingen.

Olsen, M. 1907. "Elvenavnene Fod, *Fed og önavnet Fedjar." Arkiv för nordisk filologi, N.F. 19. 90-97.

Orvar Odds saga. 1888. Herausgegeben von R.C. Boer. Leiden.

Pfälzisches Wörterbuch. 1981–86. Wiesbaden & Stuttgart. Band 4.

Pokorny, J. 1989. Indogermanisches etymologisches Wörterbuch. 21. Bern und Stuttgart.

Rožniecki, S. 1914. "Kijangorod og Nepr." Varægiske minder i den russiske heltedigtning. 282-95. København.

Rygh, O. 1897-1924. Norske Gaardnavne. 1-18. Kristiania.

Sahlgren, J. 1953. "Västergötlands häradsnamn". Ortnamnssällskapets i Uppsala Årsskrift. 3–10.

Schramm, G. 1984. "Die normannischen Namen für Kiev und Novgorod. Russia Mediævalis 5:1. 76-102. München.

Seip, D. A. 1955. Norsk språkhistorie til omkring 1370.² Oslo.

SOL. Svenskt Ortnamnslexikon. 2003. Språk- och folkminnesinstitutet. Uppsala.

Stender-Petersen, A. 1953. Varangica: 217-40. Aarhus.

Streitberg, W. 1896. Urgermanische Grammatik. Heidelberg.

Strumiński , B. 1996. Linguistic Interrelations in Early Rus'. Edmonton & Toronto.

Thomsen, V. 1877. The relations between Ancient Russia and Scandinavia and the origin of the Russian state. Oxford & London.

Thomsen, V. 1919. Samlede afhandlinger. København og Kristiania.

Trunte, H. "Kyj — ein altrussischer Städtegründer?" Die Welt der Slaven, N.F. 12:1-25.

Vasmer, M. 1967. Étimologičeskij slovar' russkogo jazyka. 2. Moskva.

de Vries, J. 1977. Altnordisches etymologisches Wörterbuch.² Leiden.

Translated by B. Ellenberger.