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lingua gallica, lingua celtica: Gaulish, Gallo-Latin, or Gallo-Romance?

Alderik H. Blom

1. Introduction

Weisgerber observed that “man weithin geneigt [ist], dort, wo unsere Quellen von Celtae oder lingua Celtica reden, an Kelten und keltische Sprachen in unserem heutigen Sinne zu denken. Das gilt aber bereits vom Beginn unserer Belege an nur in eingeschränktem Sinne und ist seit dem 4. Jahrhundert kaum mehr zutreffend.” (Weisgerber 1969: 152). Indeed, this important observation holds true for the term lingua gallica as well. In fact, Weisgerber suggested that, when referring to language, in late Antiquity the adjective gallica could indicate three distinct phenomena (Weisgerber 1969: 152; Sofer 1941: 110): 1. the Continental Celtic language known to modern scholarship as Gaulish, or 2. the Gallic variety of Latin (Gallo-Latin), or 3. a specific rhetorical style in Latin, the Gallic eloquentia, also called the Gallic cot(h)urnus. Indeed, the writings of early authors such as Pliny and Dioscurides already contain various terms identified as κέλτικος and gallicus which are in fact Latin or Greek (Weisgerber 1969: 152 fn. 4), so that Weisgerber concluded that there was confusion about identifying the language even at an early stage. While we may wonder whether these wrongly identified items simply represent mistakes on the part of these early authors, it is clear that in late antique texts the exact meaning of gallica and celtica had become ambiguous. Considering the vital importance of the meaning of the word gallica for the interpretation of loose

1 See Norden 1958: II 631–642 for a discussion of this style and its reception.
2 For examples, see Dottin 1920: 32.
words indicated as such in many texts, especially in Endlicher’s Glossary and Marcellus Empiricus’ *De Medicamentis*, it is clear that the development of words for ‘Gaulish’ demands our attention. The present discussion mainly concerns Latin sources; the Greek sources have not been culled exhaustively for reasons of time and space. My discussion further develops the seminal work done by Wilmotte and Weisgerber, who attempted to sketch out the chronological development of the usage of these two terms through the analysis of a limited number of examples from different periods. Wilmotte’s tentative contribution mainly concerned the meaning of *celticus* over time, concluding that its perceived meaning ‘Gallo-Latin turning into Gallo-Romance’ had not changed from the fourth to the fifteenth century (Wilmotte 1927: 229–230). Weisgerber, on the other hand, concentrated on the term *gallicus* within the context of his study of the ‘Hieronymuszeugnis’: St Jerome’s claim that the language of the *Galatae* closely resembled that of the *Treveri* (Weisgerber 1969: 151–154). Their comments on individual texts are, where relevant, discussed in sections 2 and 3. By contrast to this somewhat piecemeal approach my account endeavours to be as comprehensive as possible, bringing a considerable number of new texts into the discussion. It analyses the attestations one by one, discussing text, context, and relevant lexical items, thereby presenting the widest-ranging discussion of the material to date. I also include various other matters which Wilmotte and Weisgerber overlooked, such as matters of chronology, matters of register and style, the role of genre, and the sources of the individual texts.

For example, it should be realised that the terms *celtica* and *gallica(na)* occur in combination with various terms for ‘speech’, namely *sermo* and *lingua*. These terms do not necessarily indicate sharply defined languages only, or even dialects. Especially *sermo* tends to be used for more informal speech, a conversational style, sometimes even amounting to ‘chat’, or ‘gossip’. Furthermore, the adverbial use of the terms, for example *gallice*, understood as ‘in a Gallic manner’, could also indicate accent or style. The terms under scrutiny here could therefore indicate ‘Gallic’ peculiarities in accent and dialect, as well as a separate language. They may also indicate peculiar differences in style or register, for example the distinction between ‘high, rhetorical’ versus ‘low, rustic’. Generally the sources do not allow us to recover these nuances, but

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3 I have discussed the (perceived) Gaulish elements in these two texts elsewhere. For Endlicher’s Glossary see Blom forthcoming a; for Marcellus, see Blom forthcoming b and Blom forthcoming c.

4 Many Gaulish words in Greek texts actually derive from Latin, see Sofer 1936: 87–89.
these considerations do show that it cannot be assumed that the terms always necessarily indicate a separate language (‘Gaulish’ or ‘Latin’). Various levels of integration also have to be taken into account; in some cases the term was still regarded as a foreign word, whereas in other cases it had more or less become integrated into (a variety of) Latin (Schmidt 1967: 167; Porzio Gernia 1981: 114–116). Another factor that complicates a straightforward chronological model of development is that authors operating in different genres may use the terms with a different meaning. Thus, a ninth-century compiler of glossaries, extracting rare terms from a late antique grammatical treatise, may use the term lingua gallica or gallice to identify (perhaps unknowingly) an actual Celtic word which could eventually derive from an early Roman author. At the same time, a contemporary chronicler may use the same term lingua gallica to refer to the non-Latin vernacular (‘French’) of his own period. Because the terms celtica and gallic(an)a developed differently, I will discuss them separately in the following sections, starting with celtica.

2. Celtica

The semantic development of celtica is rather difficult to trace because the word is not very frequently attested. In Latin it tends to be used in a geographically restricted sense. Weisgerber and Sofer established that the terms Celtae and celtica refer specifically to central Gaul, and are therefore more geographically specific than Galli and gallica, which tend to refer to the entirety of Gaul (Sofer 1941: 110):5

Denn es ist zu beachten, daß die Römer die Ausdrücke Celtae, Celicus nur in beschränktem Maße verwenden, und daß schon allein dadurch ein Abstand von Galli, Gallicus geschaffen wird. Dieser Abstand zeigt sich bereits darin, daß trotz der Gleichsetzung Caesars (ipsorum lingua Celtae, nostra Galli appellantur) Celtae häufiger (im Gegensatz zu dem geläufigen griech. Κελτοί, aber entsprechend der Umgrenzung bei Caesar) auf die Bewohner des Mittelgebietes Galliens als einer Gallia Celtica im Gegensatz zur Belgica und Aquitania bezogen wird; damit ist Celticus landschaftlich begrenzter als Gallicus, und das wirkt sich auch dort aus, wo von der lingua Celtica die Rede ist.6

5 This in contrast to Wilmotte 1927: 224–225 who held that gallica and celtica were synonymous.
6 Weisgerber 1969: 153
This use of the term (Gallia) Celtica to indicate the central part of Gaul survived into the Middle Ages, where it is frequently attested in the works of, for example, Richer of St. Rémy (late tenth century), Otto of Freising (twelfth century), and many others.\(^7\)

For our purposes, the earliest attestations of the Latin term celtica referring to language are found in the work of Pliny, for example in *Nat. Hist.* XXXIII, 39: *armillae uiriolae celtice dicuntur*.\(^8\) These doubtlessly indicate the Celtic language of Gaul in the modern sense (Weisgerber 1969: 153). We may wonder whether Pliny’s sparing use of the term is influenced by his Greek sources,\(^9\) because he generally preferred a form of gallica to indicate Gaulish lexical items. Furthermore, it is debatable whether the term gained full currency, since there is a gap of several centuries before celt(ic)a is attested once more applied to language. Ausonius (c. A.D. 310–c. 395) uses the term *lingua Celtarum* in his poem *Ordo urbium nobilium*, ll. 160–163 when speaking about a particular fountain in Burdigala (Bordeaux):

> salue, fons ignote ortu, sacer alme perennis
> uitree glauce profunde sonore illimis opace
> salue, urbis genius, medico potabilis haustu
> Diuona Celtarum lingua fons addite diuis.\(^10\)

‘Hail fountain of a source unknown, holy, kindly, unfailing, transparent, azure, deep, murmurous, clear, and shady. Hail, guardian deity of the city, drinkable at a healing draught, Diuona in the language of the Celtae – O fountain given to the gods.’

Here again it seems to indicate the Celtic language of Gaul (although it is impossible to say whether Celtae is used here in a geographically restricted sense), even if we cannot infer anything about the continuous survival of the language on the basis of this passage.\(^11\) Still, we cannot assume that the term

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\(^7\) For antique examples see TLL Onomasticon II 310–311; note that the adjective *celticus* can also pertain to Spain and Galatia. For mediaeval examples, see for example Richer of St. Rémy, *Historia* I, 21; I, 28; II, 1; II, 40; Otto of Freising, *Chronica* VI, 17; VI, 18; VII, 12; that the terminology is taken over from ancient writers is shown in VI, 30.

\(^8\) For a list of all the attestations of celt(ic)a in Pliny, see ACS I 923–924.

\(^9\) For a list of all antique attestations (predominantly Greek) of celt(ic)a, κελτική vel sim., see ACS I 888–956.


\(^11\) Because of this passage and Ausonius’ description of his father in *Epicedion in patrem*, ll. 9–10: *sermone impromptus Latio, uerum Attica lingua suffecit culti uocibus eloqui* ‘For Latin I never had a ready tongue; but the speech of Athens supplied my need with words of choice eloquence’ (in Evelyn White 1967–68: I 42–43), it has been suggested that Ausonius’
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*lingua celtica/Celtarum* was commonly used to indicate Gaulish in the centuries between Pliny and Ausonius. An erudite writer such as Ausonius may have used this phrase as a learned expression, which does not necessarily imply any knowledge about the linguistic affiliation of this *lingua Celtarum*. Furthermore, the passage in *Ordo urbis nobilium* may be explained in terms of a *figura etymologica* explaining a local name by a Latin phrase, as often used by Virgil (Green 1991: 582–583; Bartelink 1965: 35–60). Wilmotte argued that this passage “paraît démontrer que *celtica lingua*, au IVᵉ siècle, peut encore avoir le sens attardé que je lui dénie dans Sulpice Sevère” (Wilmotte 1927: 224).

Wilmotte referred to a passage from Ausonius’ near contemporary Sulpicius Severus’ (c. A.D. 363–c. 420) *Dialogi de uita Martini* I, 27, where the term *celtice* appears to have a different connotation. The dialogue takes place between two men from Aquitaine and a certain Gallus, who is a disciple of St Martin. The Aquitanians implore Gallus to speak of the saint, but he is disinclined to do so because of his ‘bad Latin’ (I have printed in bold the terms relevant for the following discussion):

> ego plane, licet imparsim tanto oneri, tamen relatis superius a Postumiano obedientiae cogor exemplis, ut munus istud, quod imponitis, non recusem. sed dum cogito me hominem Gallum inter Aquitanos uerba facturum, uereor ne offendat uestras nimium urbanas aures sermo rusticior. audietis me tamen ut gurdonicum hominem, nihil cum fuco aut cothurno loquentem. nam si mihi tribuistis Martini me esse discipulum, illud etiam concedite, ut mihi liceat exemplo illius inanes sermonum faleras et uerborum ornamenta contemnere. tu uero, inquit Postumianus, uel celtice aut, si mauis, gallice loquere, dummodo Martinum loquiris. ego autem credo, quia, etiamsi mutus esses, non defutura tibi uerba, quibus Martinum facundo ore loquereris, sicut Zachariae in Iohannis nomine lingua resoluta est. ceterum cum sis scholasticus, hoc ipsum quasi scholasticus artificiose facis, ut excuses in peritiam, quia exuberas eloquentia. sed neque monachum tam astutum neque Gallum decet esse tam callidum.12

“...I certainly, although unequal to such a burden, am compelled by the examples of obedience related above by Postumianus not to refuse that duty which you impose [upon me]. But while I know myself [to be] a man of Gaul about to speak in the presence of Aquitanians, I fear lest my rustic speech should offend your refined ears. You will, then, listen to me as

father spoke Gaulish as his first language, see Sofer 1941: 113. Green 1991: 276 suggests more cautiously that Ausonius’ father had not acquired the degree of eloquence and articulacy in Latin that was required by the protocol and that it is possible that his native language was not Latin. However, on the basis of the passage alone I see no reason why this should be the case – it seems more likely that Ausonius speaks about his father’s lack of proficiency in rhetorical language.

[to] a homo gurdonicus, who says nothing with affectation or artificiality. For if you have conceded to me to be a disciple of Martin, grant this also, that by his example I may despise the empty trappings of speech and the ornaments of words.” “Please,” said Postumianus, “speak either celtice, or if you prefer, gallice, as long as you speak of Martin. However, I believe that, even if you might be dumb, words will not be lacking to you by which you would speak of Martin with eloquent lips, [just] as the tongue of Zacharias was loosed at the mere name of John. Moreover, as you are a rhetorician, this itself you do like an orator, that you apologise for [your] ignorance, because you [really] excel in eloquence. But it is fitting neither for a monk to be so cunning, nor for a Gaul to be so skilful.”

Brunot suggested that this passage cannot refer to a living Gaulish language, which the Aquitanian speakers would not have understood (Brunot 1966: 21 fn. 1). Rather, what is meant is the Gallo-Latin dialect or accent of central Gaul (Gallia Celtica as opposed to Belgica and Aquitania) (Wilmotte 1927: 226), which may have appeared rusticior in comparison to the speech of Aquitaine. Weisgerber concluded that both terms in celtice aut si mauis gallice indicate a specific form of Latin, though not necessarily the same (Weisgerber 1969: 153). Indeed, gallice may have been felt as less geographically confined and slightly more prestigious. In addition to this I take celtice (and gallice) to refer to a specific style of speech, borne out especially by Gallus’ remark that he will speak nihil cum fuco aut cothurno. A closer study of the relevant terms used in this passage to describe the language of Gallus may illustrate this.

Apart from being described as gallice and celtice, Gallus’ language is also contrasted with that of his Aquitanian friends: sed dum cogito me hominem Gallum inter Aquitanos uerba facturum (Augello 1969: 132 fn. 52). A perceived difference in prestige is evident in Gallus’ suggestion that offendat uestras nimium urbanas aures sermo rusticior. The phrase audietis me tamen ut gurdonicem hominem may echo the phrase sermo rusticior, even if the term gurdonicus remains problematic. Bradley, preferring the reading gorthonicum which occurs in some manuscripts, drew attention to a similar word from the Hodoeporicon Sancti Willibaldi (c. A.D. 785) as well as the form chorthonicum from a Latin-Old High German vocabulary of names, where it denotes a synonym of Gallia: Gallia uualho lant and chorthonicum aut uualho lant (Bradley 1904: 281–282). He suggested to read gorthonicum hominem as ‘a (person from) Gaul’. Babut suggested therefore that the word gorthonicum constituted an equivalent or near-equivalent of the personal name Gallus (Babut 1910: 291–292). By contrast Grosjean read turonicum ‘of Tours’, claiming that the form was corroborated by various glossary forms (Grosjean 1954: 116–126). Antin, on the other hand, preferred the reading gortonicus or gurdonicus and thought of it as a proper name meaning ‘of Gortona, *Gordona (modern Sancerre)’. He suggested an association with gurdus ‘stolidus; a blockhead,
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dolt’ so that the form might be understood as “Sancerrois sans cervelle” (Antin 1959: 111–112). However, the most convincing interpretation to date has been provided by Evans, who argued that the preferred reading supported by the manuscript evidence is gurdonicus. Furthermore, he listed possible Middle Welsh derivatives of gurdonicus ((g)w(y)rrddonig, etc.), which he interpreted as ‘unrefined, rough, rustic, boorish’, which fits the context of Sulpicius’ dialogue particularly well. He argued that ‘the etymology of gurdonicus is dubious although there seems to be no valid objection to treating it as a derivative of Latin gurdus.’ (Evans 1966: 27–31). The speech of a gurdonicus homo ‘a rustic’ thus appears to be essentially the same as the sermo rusticior mentioned in the same passage.

However, the main reason for taking gallice and celtice to indicate a particular style of speech rather than an altogether different language is the use of the word cothurnus in Gallus’ remark that he will speak nihil cum fuco aut cothurno. Lat cothurnus ‘solemnity of expression’ < Grk κόθυρνος, is a term often used to describe the tragedy-like pathos and mannerism of a specifically Gallic style of rhetoric.13 For example in St Jerome (c. A.D. 345–420), Epistolae XXXVII, 3, commenting unfavourably on the style of Rheticius, bishop of Autun: innumerabilia sunt, quae in illius mihi commentariis sordere uisa sunt. est sermo quidem conpositus et Gallicano coturno fluens14 ‘Innumerable are the things, which seem to me to be of no account in the commentaries of this man. Indeed, the language is artificial, and fluent with the coturnus gallicus [Gallic pathos]’. Similarly in St Jerome, Epistolae LVIII, 10, discussing the style of various patristic writers: sanctus Hilarius Gallicano coturno attollitur et, cum Graeciae floribus adornetur, longis interdum periodis inuoluitur et a lectione simpliciorum fratrum procul est (Hilberg 1996: I 539). ‘That reverend man Hilary gains in height from his Gallic buskin; yet, adorned as he is with the flowers of Greek rhetoric, he sometimes entangles himself in long periods and offers by no means easy reading to the less learned brethren’ (Fremantle et al. 1893: 122).

Similarly, Ennodius (from Provence, a.D. 473–521), Epistolae I, 15 mentions coturnus in eloquentia (Hartel 1882: 26). This specific Gallic style (cothurnus) of Latin is thought by Norden to be visible in later writers also, such as Sidonius and Gregory of Tours, whose prose is “oft zur völligen Unver-

ständlichkeit verzerrt” (Norden 1958: II 639). Other terms in Sulpicius’ dialogue, such as *artificiosae, eloquentiae*, etc., also refer to a specific style or register in Latin. Instead, Gallus intends to speak in the manner of St Martin himself: *nam si mihi tribuistis Martini me esse discipulum, illud etiam concedite, ut mihi liceat exemplo illius inanes sermonum faleras et uerborum ornamenta contemnere* (Halm 1866: 179). In fact, Sulpicius comments specifically on St Martin’s manner of speaking in *Vita Sancti Martini* XXV, 6: *iam uero in uerbis et confabulatione eius quanta grauitas, quanta dignitas erat! quam acer, quam efficax erat, quam […] promptus et facilis* ‘what seriousness, what dignity there was in his words and conversation! How vigorous, how effective he was, how […] clear and easy’ (Halm 1866: 135).

All of the terms discussed above refer to the style or register of language which Gallus employs. Nothing in these suggests that they indicate any other language than Latin. If we surmise that *gallice* and *celtice* refer to the same use of language (namely, that of Gallus) then it seems justifiable to interpret these terms as indicating a ‘rustic, provincial, unpolished, simple’ use of Latin.

This is further corroborated by a passage in *Dialogi* II, 1, 4, where Sulpicius Severus, in the words of Gallus, contrasts a word *tripetias* (*sic*) supposedly used by *nos rustici Galli*, with its learned counterpart *tripodas*:

> nam in ecclesia nemo umquam illum sedere conspexit, sicut quendam nuper, testor Deum, non sine pudore uidi sublimi solio et quasi regio tribunalvi celsa sede residentem, sedentem uero Martinum in sellula rusticana, ut sunt istae in usibus servulorum, quas nos rustici Galli tripodias, vos scholastici aut certe tu, qui de Graecia uenis, tripodas nuncupatis.17

> ‘For example nobody ever observed him sitting in church like a certain person I saw lately (God is my witness), not without a sense of shame, sitting on a high seat and as if on a royal tribunal in a lofty place; but Martin [was seen] sitting on a simple stool, like those in use among lowly servants, which we Gallic country-people call *tripetias*, [but which] you rhetoricians, and certainly you, who comes from Greece, call *tripodas.*’

In this case Sulpicius Severus clearly means the (vulgar) Latin word *tripedia* or *tripetia* ‘three-legged stool’ (Niemeyer 2002: 1346; GMIL VIII 85). Gallus here shows the same awareness of his uneducated speech as in *Dialogi* I, and this passage hints at the same difference between educated and uneducated style. It is tempting to equate the terms *sermo rusticior, gallice*, and *celtice*

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15 Gregory of Tours also uses the word himself, for example in *Historia Francorum* IV, 6.
16 Note that Sulpicius Severus also uses the word *rusticus* in the sense of ‘pagan’, for example in *Vita Sancti Martini* XIII and XV, alternating with *gentiles*. However, it is clear from the context that it does not have that meaning here.
17 *Halm* 1866: 180–181.
with the language of the *rustici Galli* and the *homo gurdonicus*. The term *celticus* also occurs, with similar connotations, in the letters of Sidonius Apollinaris (*c.* a.D. 430–after 480), a leading political and literary figure in fifth-century Gaul (Stevens 1933: 211). In his *Epistolae* III, 3 (the first seven books were collected around a.D. 477) he addressed his brother-in-law Ecdicius as follows:

mitto istic ob gratiam pueritiae tuae undique gentium fluxisse studia litterarum tuaeque personae quondam debitum, quod sermonis celtici squamam depositura nobilitas nunc oratorio stilo, nunc etiam Camenalibus modis imbuetur. illud in te adfectum principaliter uniuersitatis accendit, quod, quos olim Latinos fieri exegeras, barbaros deinceps esse uetuisti.

‘I make no mention of the congregation of learning assembled from all parts of the world for the benefit of your youthful years, and that at one time it was due to you personally that the leading families, in their efforts to throw the scurf of Celtic speech, were initiated now into oratorical style and now again into the measures of the muses. What chiefly kindles the devotion of the whole community to you is that after first requiring them to become Latins you next prevented them from becoming barbarians.’

Again *sermo celticus* appears to mean ‘(Gallo-Latin) of the central region, *Gallia Celtica*’. Wilmotte commented on the word *celta*: “il continue à désigner, dans la sphère érudite, l’habitant de la Gaule centrale, par opposition à l’Aquitain et au Belge, pour autant que celui-ci parle un dialecte germanique et celui-là un dialecte distinct du roman septentrional” (Wilmotte 1927: 226). Thus, Sidonius is congratulating Ecdicius for introducing a ‘purer’ Latin among the nobles of Auvergne.19 This interpretation is corroborated by another of Sidonius’ letters (*Epistolae* II, 10), where he is deploiring the standards of Latin:

illud appone, quod tantum increbruit multitudo desidiosorum ut, nisi uel paucissimi quique meram linguae Latiaris proprietatem de triuialium barbarismorum robigine uindicaueritis, eam breui abolitam defleamus interemptamque: sic omnes nobilium sermonum purpurae per incuriam uulgi decolorabantur.

‘Consider too, that the mob of the sluggards has so grown in numbers that unless there are at least a modest few like yourself to defend the exact use of the language of Latium from the rust of vulgar barbarisms, we shall in a short time be lamenting its extinction and annihilation, so sadly will all the bright ornaments of noble expression be dulled by the slovenliness of the mob.’

19 Also suggested by Stevens 1933: 82 and Fournier 1955: 449.
20 Anderson 1936: I 462–463.
According to Wilmotte “c’est bien la même préoccupation qui a, chez ce puriste attardé, inspiré les deux passages, également élogieux pour ses correspondants; l’expression imagée a seule varié” (Wilmotte 1927: 226 fn. 18). Indeed, many of Sidonius’ letters betray this concern for the survival of erudition, for the standards of classical Latin, in fact for a specific style and register. He complains how the town councillors of Clermont are for the most part men of exceeding illiteracy (Epistolae IV, 3.10: turba numerosior illitteratissimis litteris uacant) if not to speak about the language of the lower classes, as in Epistolae IV, 7, 2 and IV, 17, 2:

quocirca sermonis pompa Romani, si qua adhuc uspiam est, Belgicis olim siue Rhenanis abolita terris in te resedit, quo uel incolumni uel perorante, etsi apud limitem [ipsum] Latina iura ceciderunt, uestera non titubant. quapropter alternem suae rependens granditer laetor saltim in inlustri pectore tuo uanescentium litterarum re man sisse uestigia, quae si frequenti lectione continuas, experiere per dies, quanto antecellunt beluis homines, tanto anteferri rustics institutos.

‘Thus the splendour of the Roman speech, if it still exists anywhere, has survived in you, though it has long been wiped out from the Belgian and Rhenic lands: with you and your eloquence surviving, even though Roman law has ceased at our border, the Roman speech does not falter. For this reason I reciprocate your greeting, I rejoice greatly that at any rate in your illustrious breast there have remained traces of our vanishing culture. If you extend these by constant reading you will discover for yourself as each day passes, that the educated are no less superior to the unlettered than men are to beasts.’

A similar preoccupation with the standards of Latin is visible in various other letters. Therefore it is unlikely that Sidonius used the term sermo celticus for anything other than uneducated and unpolished Latin.

The next attestation of the term lingua celtica occurs in the works of the ninth-century writer Heiric of Auxerre (A.D. 841–877), who used it in his poem on the life of St Germanus:

urbs quoque prouectum meritisque et nomine sumpsit
Augustidunum demum concepta uocari
Augusti montem quod transfert celtica lingua.

‘The city also, took [the name] Augustodunum elevated in merit and in name, having finally undertaken to be called the mountain of Augustus, which the lingua celtica translates.’

Vendryes argued that Heiric was merely speculating about the origin of the name Augustodunum (Autun) (Vendryes 1955: 644). However, I discussed

22 Cf. Epistolae III, 14, 2; VIII, 2.1; V, 10, 4; IX, 11, 7.
23 Traube 1896: 448.
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the etymology of dūnum elsewhere (Blom forth. a), and notwithstanding the difficulties surrounding this word it seems unlikely that Heiric is referring to anything else but the indigenous language of Gaul. This probably does not mean that he knew anything specific about the nature of this language; indeed his etymology may reflect Germanic-influenced mediaeval Latin dūnum ‘hill’ rather than latinised Gaulish dūnum ‘fortress’. Even so, knowledge of the (perceived) meaning of certain non-Latin place-names may still have been around. While Heiric’s usage may refer to the pre-Latin language of Gaul, the tenth-century poem Waltharius appears to use the term lingua celtica in a different manner. Here it is used to describe the language of Ekiurid, one of the heroes’ opponents:

celtica lingua probat te ex illa gente creatum
cui natura dedit reliquis ludendo praecir
at si te propius uenientem dextera nostrad
atingat, post Saxonibus memorare ualebis,
te nunc in Vosago fauni fantasma uidere.24

‘[Your/the] celtica lingua shows that you are born from that race
to which nature granted to excel the others in deceiving.
But if our right hand would attack you when you come nearer
you would be able to relate to the Saxons
that you at this moment saw the apparition of a forest god in the Vosges.’

According to Wilmotte and Weisgerber, celtica lingua should be interpreted as ‘Gallo-Romance’ (Wilmotte 1918: 28–29; Wilmotte 1927: 228–229; Weisgerber 1969: 154). By contrast, Dumville suggests that, if Saxonica ore (the term employed to describe the homeland of Ekiurid: a Saxonis […] oris generatus) is identified as the old litus Saxonicus (the coastline of Brittany and Normandy) instead of ‘Saxony’, the lingua celtica spoken by its inhabitants may be seen as either Gaulish (presuming that the language survived in this area up to this time) or Breton – in which case lingua celtica would be used specifically for what modern scholarship understands as a ‘Celtic’ language (Dumville 1983: 87–93). The latter option seems most unlikely, since the Insular Celtic languages were never referred to as linguae celticae (vel sim.) before well into the Early Modern period (Sims-Williams 1998: 347).25 The former option suggested by Dumville would imply that at least a memory of

24 Strecker 1951: 55.
Gaulish had survived up to the ninth or even tenth century. We saw that Heiric of Auxerre may have used the term with this meaning, so this would not be impossible. However, an awareness of the existence of a pre-Latin language in Gaul (probably derived from study of the classical authors) and some erudite place-name etymologies in Heiric’s work should not be confused with a knowledge of that language or its classification in the modern sense. In fact, I will suggest below that the modern separation of the two concepts ‘Celtic language of Gaul’ and ‘Romance vernacular of Gaul’ is very unlikely to have been valid for early mediaeval scholars. They probably regarded them as one and the same, which continued to be a respectable idea well into the Early Modern period (see Tourneur 1905: 191–192). In my opinion, therefore, the most likely scenario is that the passage in Waltharius refers to Gallo-Romance. This interpretation may be corroborated by a much later text written by the chronicler Sigebert of Gembloux (c. A.D. 1030–1112), who notes in his Vita Deoderici (George 1995: 1879–1880):

nece sine quodam presagio tibi accesisse credas, quod praeter haec usitata uocabula
Diuidunum tradit uocitatam antiquitas. gallica lingua montem uocari duname, studiosus non
est incognitum.
[…]
Celtica Roma dehinc uoluit cepitque uocari
Augustidunum demum concepta uocari
Augusti montem quod transfert celtica lingua.26

‘You may believe without a certain presentiment to have happened to you, that beside these
familiar words ancient times relate that it was called Diuidunum. It is not unknown to the
learned that a mountain is called duname in the gallica lingua.
[…]
(Gallia) Celtica from then on wished to be and began to be called Rome;
Augustidunum finally came to be called
the mountain of Augustus which the celtica lingua translates.’

The lines of verse are obviously derived from Heiric of Auxerre’s poem on the
life of St Germanus, which uses the term celtica lingua in ll. 349 and 352–353
(Wilmotte 1927: 228). According to Wilmotte and Weisgerber the word lingua celtica at this stage meant the ‘(Gallo-Romance) vernacular’, so that the
word lingua gallica was here inserted to mean the ‘Celtic language of Gaul’ (Wilmotte 1918: 28–29 fn. 1). This is unacceptable, since obviously the two
terms are both used to explain the meaning of dūnum; it is clear that the terms are used as synonyms. As we will see, by the twelfth century lingua gallica had

26 MGHSS IV 477.
certainly come to mean ‘Gallo-Romance, Old French’, so Sigibert’s equation of the two terms indicates that he did not see lingua celtica as any different from lingua gallica. The confusion and ignorance about the meaning of celtica is further borne out by some mediaeval glossaries, where uel celtice is erroneously rendered as ueleltice, for example in CGL V 518.15: ueleltice gentis cuiusdam loquella. Finally, the term celtice also occurs in the thirteenth-century Translatio Dionysii Areopagitae. However, since it is used in combination with gallice, I will discuss this text in more detail in section 3.

The development of the meaning of lingua celtica is thus rather difficult to trace. Its infrequent attestation furthermore suggests that the term never gained common currency, and after Pliny (who may have derived his sparing use of the term from his Greek sources) only enjoyed a rather peripheral existence in Antiquity as an erudite derivation from Gallia Celtica, possibly indicating the indigenous language of the area (Ausonius) as well as the local, rustic style of Latin (Sulpicius Severus and Sidonius Apollinaris). In mediaeval usage, perhaps by the time of the Waltharius, it seems to have fallen together with lingua gallica to indicate ‘Gallo-Romance, French’. It is also in this erudite sense that the humanist Jean Dorat (1508–1588) congratulated his pupil, the poet Joachim Du Bellay (1522–1560), in Greek distichs on his pamphlet La defence et illustration de la langue françoysse (1549), through which he had honoured his maternal language – κελτικὴ γλῶσσα.28

27 Weisgerber 1969: 153–154. Further attested in CGL V 582.33: ueleltiga genus cuiusdam loquella; CGL V 488.45: ueleltire gentis cuiusdam loquella. The original gloss may have been retained in CGL V 527.16: uel celtice genus cuiusdam loquella. Landgraf 1894: 368–369 suggested that this gloss had been taken from Sulpicius Severus, Dialogi I, 27, 4, discussed above. One other gloss mentions celticus: CGL III 541.7 [Glossae Cassinenses]: nardoceltice idest fascesgallicos. Also in CGL III 563.12 [Vat reg. 1260]: nardoceltica id est fasce gallicus; CGL III 539.21 [Glossae Cassinenses]: fasseas callicos id est nardo celtici; CGL III 570.2 [Vat reg. 1260]: nardoceltica id est fudegallius siue celtica. See furthermore CGL III 593.13; CGL III 544.35; CGL III 556.59; CGL III 621.25, etc. Perhaps derived from Isidore, Etym. XVII, 9, 3 (about the plant ‘nard’): quod si multum in ore tardauerit, linguam siccat, nardum celticum a regione Galliae nomen traxit, which may in turn go back to Pliny, Nat. Hist. XII, 26, 46: cum Gallico nardo semper nascitur herba quae hirculus uocatur a gravitate odoris.

28 Wilmotte 1927: 223.
The term *gallica* is much more frequently attested referring to language and I will discuss the attestations in chronological order. These include combinations of *gallica* with the nouns *lingua* and *sermo*, but also with *uox*, *uerbum* vel sim. My survey commences at a time when it without doubt indicated the Celtic language of Gaul in the modern sense – with the work of the Roman biographer C. Suétionius Tranquillus (*c.* a.D. 70–after 130). He is the author of *De uita Caesarum*, a set of twelve imperial biographies from Caesar to Domitian, composed in the early second century. In his book on *Diuus Iulius* XXIV, 2 we read:

> qua fiducia ad legiones, quas a re publica acceperat, alias priuato sumptu addidit, unum etiam ex transalpinis conscriptam, uocabulo quoque gallico, alauda enim appellabatur, quam disciplina cultuque romano institutam et ornatam postea uniuersam ciuitate donauit.

‘Encouraged by this, he added to the legions which he had received from the state others at his own cost, one actually composed of men of Transalpine Gaul and bearing a Gaulish name too, for it was called *alauda*, which he trained in the Roman tactics and equipped with Roman arms; and later on he gave every man of it citizenship.’

The noun *alauda* ‘lark’ is a well-known Gaulish word and is used by various other ancient writers, for example Cicero, *Ad Atticum* XVI, 8, 2, and Pliny, *Nat. Hist.* XI, 121 from which the passage in Suétionius is likely to have been derived. It further occurs in the works of much later authors such as Marcellus Empiricus, *De Medicamentis* XXVIII, 50: *auis galerita, quae gallice alauda dicitur*; XXIX, 30: *corydalus auis id est quae alauda uocatur* (Niedermann & Liechtenhan 1968: II 67 and 84). Furthermore in Gregory of Tours, *Historia Francorum* IV, 31: *aues coredalus quam alaudam uocamus*, where the word is used to explain a learned Greek word and seems to be regarded as Latin (Bonnet 1890: 25). This could well be the case, as it was certainly borrowed into Gallo-Latin, and is attested as OFr *aloue* and Fr *alouette*. More material occurs in *De uerborum significatu* by Sextus Pompeius Festus, a grammatical scholar from the late second century A.D. His work constitutes an abridgement of Verrius Flaccus’ (*c.* 55 B.C.–c. a.D. 20) work of the same title...
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(KASTER 2003: 1589). Only the first half of Festus’ abridgement now survives, and the work was itself epitomised by Paulus Diaconus in the eighth century (MATTHEWS 2003: 1215). It contains the following references relevant for our purposes: ambactus apud Ennium lingua gallica seruus appellatur.32 The text suggests that the term stems from Ennius (a Latin poet and chronicler, 239–169 B.C.), but this cannot be verified on the basis of the remaining fragments of Ennius’ work. The noun ambactus has a convincing Celtic etymology and can be analysed as a compound *ambi-aktos with prefix *ambi- ‘around’ and *ak-to, a participle of the verb *ag- (< PIE *h₂e-g-) ‘to drive’.33 Secondly, benna lingua gallica genus uheculi appellatur, unde uocantur con-bennones in eadem benna sedentes (LINDSAY 1913a: 29). The word benna is of unclear derivation and is a hapax.34 In fact it may only be a learned back-formation from con-bennones ‘fellow travellers in a *benna’ (cf. SCHMIDT 1967: 164). The text further mentions bardus gallice cantor appellatur, qui uirorum fortium laudes canit, a gente Bardorum, de quibus Lucanus ‘plurima securi fudistis carmina Bardi’ (LINDSAY 1913a: 31). This passage clearly refers to Marcus Annaeus Lucanus’ (A.D. 39–65) Pharsalia I, 449–451:

uos quoque, qui fortes animas belloque peremptas
laudibus in longum uates dimittitis aeum,
plurima securi fudistis carmina, Bardi.

‘The Bards also, who by the praise of their verse 
in battle, poured forth at ease their lays in abundance.’35

32 LINDSAY 1913a: 4. Not present in any extant passage from Ennius’ Annales. The word ambactus occurs further only in Caesar, Bellum Gallicum VI, 15, 2 describing the social structure of Gaul. We may guess that Ennius used the word in a similar context, see SKUTSCH 1985: 739. SCHMIDT 1957: 122 notes that the word also occurs as a personal name on coins. For a full list of attestations (also in mediaeval glossaries) see TLL I 1833.

33 DLG 35 mentions similar compounds in OW amaeth ‘servus arans, serf’ and OB ambaith; cf. also Lat anculus ‘man-servant’, Grk ἀμφίπολος ‘attendant’, Skr abhicaraḥ ‘servant’ < *ambi-k-o-lo- from PIE *k₂elh- ‘to turn, circulate’, see LEW I 36–37; DELL 26; LIV2 386–387.


The word *bardos* (Latinised from *bardus*) is attested by earlier and later authors (TLL II 1751; Porzio Gernia 1981: 104), and has various cognates in Insular Celtic, such as OI bard ‘poet’, W bardd ‘poet’, OC barth ‘mime, jester’, MB barz ‘fiddler’ < *bardos < *gêr-do- from PIE *gêrH- + dêh₁- ‘to put praise’; cf. Lat grātus ‘deserving thanks’, Skr ṣrṇāti ‘he praises’, etc. (IEW 478; Schrijver 1995: 143–144; LIV 2 210–211; DLG 57–58). Furthermore, cimbri lingua gallica latrones dicuntur (Lindsay 1913a: 37). Note that Plutarch, Caius Marius XI attributes the same meaning ‘robber, bandit’ to this word, but regards it as Germanic. When speculating about the origins of the Cimbri, he notes:

καὶ μάλιστα μὲν εἰκάζοντο Γερμανικά γένη τῶν καθηκόντων ἐπὶ τὸν βόρειον ὠκεανὸν εἶναι τοῖς μεγέθεις τῶν σωμάτων καὶ τῇ χαροπότητι τῶν ὄμματον, καὶ ὅτι Κίμβρους ἐπονομάζουσι Γερμανοὶ τοὺς λῃστάς.

‘The most prevalent conjecture was that they were some of the German peoples which extended as far as the northern ocean, a conjecture based on their great stature, their light-blue eyes, and the fact that the Germans call robbers Cimbri.’

The word is not otherwise attested as Celtic. A further term discussed by Festus is:

petoritum et gallicum uelicia esse, et nomen eius dictum [esse] existimant a numero quattuor rotarum. alii osce, quod i quoque pitora quattuor uocent, alii graece, sed ἀιολικῶς dictum.

‘A petoritum is a Gallic vehicle, and they think its name is called after the number of four wheels. Others [think] it is Oscan, because these also call ‘four’ pitora; others [think it is] Greek, and even Aeolic’.

It is given another explanation elsewhere in the text:

petoritum uelicia gallicum. Alii osce putant dictum, quod hi pitora quattuor appellant; quattuor enim habent rotas.

‘petoritum; a Gallic vehicle. Others consider it Oscan, because these call ‘four’ pitora, since they have four wheels.’

The word petoritum occurs elsewhere (see TLL X.13 1976–1977), but this etymology occurs in Varro’s Antiquitates rerum diuinum only, namely in Book XIV, 203. It is unclear, however, whether Festus derived his passage directly

37 Lindsay 1913a: 226. Festus’ allusion to Aeolic possibly refers to the treatment of /k/ > /p/ in Aeolic dialects (in other Greek dialects > /t/), for example in πέμπε instead of πέντε and πέτταρες instead of τέσσαρες; see Buck 1976: 129.
38 Lindsay 1913a: 227.
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from Varro (as Aulus Gellius certainly did, see below), who wrote: petoritum non est ex Graecia dimidiatum, sed totum <ortum> trans Alpes; nam est vox gallica ‘the petoritum is not in part from Greece, but completely sprung from across the Alps; for it is a Gallic word’ (Cardauns 1978: 86). The word petoritum seems to have been etymologised correctly here despite the Latin sound changes (metathesis of petor < *petru- and vocal weakening of rito < *roto-) (TLLX.13 1976; Schmidt 1967: 169; Porzio Gernia 1981: 112), because a Gaulish form *petru-roton or *petuor-roton, with petru- ‘four’ and roto- ‘wheel’ could well be envisaged (DLG 211). Festus’ suggestion (not present in Varro) that the word could also be Oscan has to be taken seriously, as Oscan pettiur-< *kêtur- could also explain the first element (Untermann 2000: 550), even if it leaves the second element unaccounted for.

The word petorritum is also etymologised in the Noctes Atticae (composed c. A.D. 180) of Aulus Gellius (born c. A.D. 130), a collection of short chapters, based on notes and excerpts Gellius had made in reading on a great variety of topics in philosophy, history, law, but above all grammar in the ancient sense, including literary and textual criticism (Holford-Strevens 2003a: 627–628). His information comes mostly from Varro (as in case of the example below) (Holford-Strevens 2003b: 322), and Gellius’ interest in languages other than Latin and Greek is slight and purely etymological.39 The relevant passage occurs in Noctes Atticae XV, 30, 5–7 entitled ‘vehiculum quod petorritum appellatur, cuiatis linguae vocabulum sit, Graecae an Gallicae’:40

ego, cum Probi multos admodum commentationum libros adquisierim, neque scriptum in his inueni nec usquam alioqui Probam scripsisse credo. ‘petoritum’ enim non ex Graecia dimidiatum, sed totum transalpibus; nam est uox gallica. id scriptum est in libro Varronis quarto decimo ‘rerum diuinarum’, quo in loco Varro, cum de petorrito dixisset esse id uerbum gallicum.

‘When I had got together many copies of the Commentaries of Probus, I did not find that spelling in them, and I do not believe that Probus used it anywhere else. For petorritum is not a hybrid word derived in part from the Greek, but the entire word belongs to the people across the Alps; for it is a Gallic word. It is found in the fourteenth book of Marcus Varro’s Divine Antiquities, where Varro, speaking of petorritum, says that it is a Gallic term.’41

40 ACS I 1936.
Another interesting (possible) reference to Gaulish occurs in *Noctes Atticae* XI, 7, 3–4, in which Gellius implores the reader not to use uncommon words, arguing that these generally betray ‘lately acquired learning’, illustrating this point with the following anecdote:

>ueluti Romae nobis praesentibus uetus celebratusque homo in causis, sed repentina et quasi tumultuaria doctrina praeditus, cum apud praefectum urbi uerba faceret et dicere uellet inopi quendam miseroque uictu uiuere et furfureum panem esitare uinumque eructum et feditum potare. hic, inquit, eques romanus apludam edit et flocces bibit. aspexerunt omnes, qui aderant, alius alium, primo tristiores turbato et requirente uoltu, quidnam illud utriusque uerbi foret: post deinde, quasi nescio quid tusce aut gallice dixisset, uniuersi riserunt.42

‘For instance in Rome in our presence, a man experienced and celebrated as a pleader, but furnished with a sudden and, as it were, hasty education, was speaking to the Prefect of the City, and wished to say that a certain man with a poor and wretched way of life ate bread from bran and drank bad and spoiled wine. “This Roman knight”, he said, “eats *apluda* and drinks *flocces*.” All who were present looked at each other, first seriously and with an inquiring expression, wondering what the two words meant; thereupon, as if he might have said something in, I don’t know, *gallice* or *tusce*, all of them burst out laughing.’

Sofer thought that this remark indicated that Gaulish was still a known spoken language at this time (Sofer 1941: 102), which could be the case, but Brunot argued that this type of anecdote used by Gellius need not pertain to his own period (Brunot 1966: 33 fn. 1). A second difficulty is whether *gallice* should be understood as ‘in a Gallic manner, with a Gallic accent’ or ‘in Gaulish’. Still, the notion that we could at Gellius’ time still interpret *gallice* or *lingua gallica* to denote the Celtic language of Gaul is supported by a passage from the *Digesta* of Domitius Ulpianus (a.D. 170–223 or 224). This scholar of the law was instrumental in the codification of the Roman legal code, and his *Digesta* contain extracts of legal texts with the aim of providing a revised law syllabus to be used in law schools. Book XXXII discusses *fideicomissa*, charges in a will imposed on an heir or legatee to transfer property to someone else (Mommsen et al. 1985: IV xv), and in *Digesta* XXXII, 11 (dated around c. a.D. 215) it is stated:

>ULPIANUS libro secundo fideicommissoe rum. fideicomissa quocumque sermone relinqui possunt, non solum latina uel graeca, sed etiam punica uel gallicana uel alterius cuiuscumque gentis.43

‘Ulpian, *Fideicommissa*, Book 2: *Fideicommissa* can be left in any language, not only the Latin or Greek but also the Punic, *gallica*, or the language of any other nation.’

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42 Rolfe 1948: II 316.  
43 Mommsen et al. 1985: III 73.
We only know Ulpian’s extracts through the later codification of the Digesta under Emperor Justinian (A.D. 527–565), but there are no reasons to assume that this passage does not date from Ulpian’s period.\textsuperscript{44} Note that, to the best of my knowledge, this is the only occasion where the adjective *gallicana* is used with reference to language instead of *gallica*.\textsuperscript{45} It seems more than plausible in the context that Ulpian refers to the Celtic language of Gaul.

The next attestation of *lingua gallica* occurs in the work of the fourth-century grammarian (Maurus or Marius) Servius,\textsuperscript{46} namely in his celebrated commentary on Virgil’s *Aeneid*, which explains a passage from Book VIII, 660, *uirgatis lucent sagulis* ‘they glittered in their striped cloaks’, as follows:

\begin{quote}
\textit{quae habebant in uirgarum modum deductas uias, et bene adlusit ad gallicam linguam per quam uirga purpura dicitur, ‘uirgatis’ ergo, ac si diceret ‘uirga tinctis’, id est purpuratis.}\textsuperscript{57}
\end{quote}

‘These have a style [of clothing] spun out in stripes, and it plays well with the *lingua gallica* in which purple cloth is called *uirgatis*; therefore, [so] when it said *uirga tinctis* it means ‘clad in purple’.’

Weisgerber took this to indicate that already at an early stage many Roman authors confused the different meanings (that is ‘Celtic’ or ‘Gallo-Latin’) of *gallica* (*lingua*). Weisgerber thought that Servius’ erroneous commentary is the sole reason why *uirga* has hitherto been interpreted as a Gaulish word,\textsuperscript{48} and suggested:

\begin{quote}
da es aber keine Anknüpfung anderwärts hat, wird man eher an provinziell-gallische Verwendung von lat. *uirga* ‘Rute, Streifen’ als ‘Purpurstreifen’ denken; der Gebrauch ist in den Belegen, die wir für lat. *uirga* und *uirgatus* haben, deutlich angelegt, und die Verbreitung der romanischen Fortsetzer von lat. *uirgatus* würde nicht gegen eine speziellere Verwendung des Wortes in Gallien sprechen (Meyer-Lübke 1935: 782). Hier gehen also noch die beiden Verwendungen 1) und 2) durcheinander; es ist die Ansatz der Entwicklung, die später gelegentlich dazu zwingt, das wirklich keltische Gallisch mit *priscus* herauszuheben.\textsuperscript{49}
\end{quote}

Servius also attributes the name of the Alps to the ‘language of the Gauls’ in his commentary on Virgil’s *Georgica* III, 474: *nam Gallorum lingua alti montes Alpes uocantur* (Thilo & Hagen 1923–1927: I 313), and in his commentary on *Aeneid* IV, 442: *flantes de Alpibus, quae Gallorum lingua alti montes uocantur*

\textsuperscript{44} Macmullen 1966: 14–17 claimed a third-century revival of Gaulish on the basis of this passage.

\textsuperscript{45} Note that *gallicana* is often used with *eloquentia* and *cothurnus*.

\textsuperscript{46} Matthews et al. 2003: 1395; see also Kaster 1988: 169–197.

\textsuperscript{47} Thilo & Hagen 1923–1927: II 295.

\textsuperscript{48} For example in Dottin 1920: 299; not in DLG.

\textsuperscript{49} Weisgerber 1969: 152 fn. 4; also Porzio Gernia 1981: 102.
(Thilo & Hagen 1923–1927: I 543). However, the name of the Alps is almost certainly pre-Indo-European (LEW I 32; Messing 1954: 496). Elsewhere in the commentary Servius gives a ‘Gaulish’ etymology which Weisgerber seems to have overlooked, namely uol(a)ema, in the commentary on Georgica II, 88: uolema autem gallica lingua bona et grandia dicuntur (Thilo & Hagen 1923–1927: III 226). This element *yoli- ‘modest, honest’ or ‘better’ has been related to OI fêle ‘modesty’ < *yēli- (Dottin 1920: 296; Terracini 1921: 412; LEW II 826), or perhaps more likely to W gelio- ‘better’ < *yeljo-.50 However, this does not explain the different vocalism. It is therefore more likely to be identified as Oscan valaemon ‘optimum’, valaimas ‘optimus’ (Untermann 2000: 821–822).51 Generally, then, Servius’ use of lingua gallica is confused and includes non-Celtic terms.

An equally problematic use of the term occurs in Aelius Lampridius’ biography of Severus Alexander (Roman Emperor a.D. 222–235) in Historia Augusta LX, 6, which relates how, as Severus Alexander went to war, a mulier dryas calls out at Severus gallico sermone:

mulier dryas eunti exclamauit gallico sermone: uadas nec uictoriam speres nec te militi tuo credas.52

‘A prophetess cried out in the sermo gallicus to him as he was marching out: “May you go, but not hope for victory nor put your trust in your soldiers.”’

Historia Augusta is the modern name of a collection of thirty biographies of Roman emperors from Hadrian (a.D. 117–138) to Numerianus and Carinus (a.D. 284–285). Aelius Lampridius is named as one of its six otherwise unknown authors. The authorship of this collection is therefore somewhat problematic, but it is now generally accepted that it was written entirely by one person. Most scholars agree on a date of around a.D. 400 (Johne 2005: 406–409). As the text does not include any lexical items or phrases, this passage is of little assistance in establishing what is meant exactly by sermo gallicus.53 Theoretically it could even mean that the words were exclaimed with a Gallic accent.

50 DLG 261; in which case it may be attested in names such as Uelio-casses, Ceno-uelii, Uelenius, see Evans 1967: 273–277.
51 Also suggested by André 1981: 132–133 fn. 326. Likewise not Celtic according to Porzio Gernia 1981: 101. It also occurs in Cato, De agri cultura VII and Columella V, 10, 18 as (pira) uolaema ‘large pear’.
53 Note that recently Hofeneder 2008: 63–87 argued that the term sermo gallicus in this passage denotes Gaulish.
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Unfortunately, the same problems of ambiguity occur with the interpretation of the *uerba gallica* mentioned in Claudian’s (born c. A.D. 370) poem *De mulabus gallicis* (ll. 19–20), where it could mean ‘Gallic words’ as well as ‘the words of a Gaul’:

\[ \text{miraris, si uoce feras pacauerit Orpheus} \]
\[ \text{cum pronas pecudes gallica uerba regant.}^{54} \]

‘Are you surprised that Orpheus had tamed the wild beasts with his voice when *gallica uerba* can control swift cattle?’

Easier to account for are the terms which occur in the *Passio Agaunensium martyrum* written by Eucherius, bishop of Lyon (A.D. 380–449). This is the oldest known account of the martyrdom of the legendary Theban legion (Heinzelmann 1989: 70–71), which refused to do homage to Emperor Maximian at *Agaunum* (now St. Maurice d’Agaune in the South-Western Swiss canton of Valais) and was slaughtered to the last man for that reason (Krüger 1997: 611). Book I, 3 of the *Passio* gives the etymology of the place-name *Agaunum*: *accolae, interpretatione gallici sermonis, saxum dicunt* (AS Septembris VI 345). This interpretation seems to be correct. It is further attested in a Gaulish word cited in Pliny, *Nat. Hist.* XVII, 44, namely *acaunomarga* ‘stone marl’ (TLL I 250; LEW I 5), and in various place- and personal names, *Acuamus, Acaunissa*, etc. The form with *-c-* is older and allows for the reconstruction of Gaulish *acau non < *akamnon* ‘stone’, with suffix *-auno-* < *-amno-* added to a root for ‘stone’ well known from other IE languages, compare Skr *āśman-*-, Lithuanian *akmuõ* ‘stone’, and Grk *ἀκμων* ‘anvil < meteoric stone’ (DLG 26–27). There are no Insular Celtic cognates.

Another *uox gallica* occurs in the work of Macrobius Ambrosius Theodosius’ *Saturnalia*. These are set in the form of dialogues on the evening before the feast of Saturnalia (16th December) of A.D. 383 and during the holiday proper (Holford-Strevens 2003c: 906–907). They include legal and grammatical discussions, but the following passage in Book VI, 4, 23 is part of a long discussion of Virgil’s language. Macrobius notes that Virgil had been sparing in his use of Greek words, even though old writers had indulged in them rather freely. Furthermore,

\[ \text{nec non et punicis oscisque uerbis usi sunt ueteres, quorum imitatione Vergilius peregrina uerba non respuit ut in illo, siluestres uri absidue, […]/ uri enim gallica uox est, qua feri boues significantur.}^{55} \]

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54 Platnauer 1972: II 192.  
‘They [i.e. the old writers] also made use of Punic and Oscan words, and it was in imitation of them that Virgil did not reject words of foreign origin in such lines as:
Buffaloes (urus) of the forest ever make sport therein [Georgics II, 374]
(for urus is a Gallic word meaning wild ox).\(^{56}\)

Macrobius’ (and Virgil’s) urus could well reflect a Gaulish noun *uros ‘aurochs’, which is attested as a name-element only, for example in the personal names Uro-genius ‘son of Urogenus, descendant of the Aurochs’, Uro-genonertus ‘who has the force of a young aurochs’, etc. Absence of reflexes of this word in Insular Celtic prompted Delamarre to suggest that it may have been borrowed from Germanic, compare ON úrr, OHG úr > Ger Auer(ochs), Du oer(os) (DLG 276; Sofer 1936: 74). The word also occurs (without being explicitly identified as a foreign word) in Caesar, Bellum Gallicum VI, 28, 1 describing the various animal species that inhabit the Hercynian forest; similarly in Pliny, Nat. Hist. VIII, 15 and Tacitus, Annales IV, 72.

A further possible ‘Gallic term’ (λέξις Γαλλική) occurs in the work of Lydus, that is, John the Lydian (A.D. 490–c. 560), a civil servant and author at Constantinople. His three extant works all have antiquarian leanings, one of which, Περὶ ἀρχῶν τῆς Ῥωμαίων πολιτείας, or De magistratibus ‘charts the history of Roman administrative offices with particular attention to the praetorian prefecture.’ (Whitby 2003: 899; Tinnefeld 1999: 550–551). In Book II, 13, treating the insignia of the prefecture of the praetoria, he describes the pin which is part of the uniform, and elaborates as follows:

φίβουλαν αὐτὴν πατρίως οἱ Ῥωμαῖοι καὶ βάλτεον τὸν ζωστῆρα λέγουσιν, τὴν δὲ ὅλην κατασκευὴν τοῦ περιζώματος οἱ Γάλλοι καρταμέραν, ἣν τὸ πλῆθος καρτάλαμον ἐξ ἰδιοτείας ὀνομάζει. ὅτι δὲ οὐ Ῥωμαϊκὸν τοῦτο τὸ ῥημάτος, μάρτυς οἱ Ῥωμαῖοι Βάρρων ἐν βιβλίῳ πέμτῳ Περὶ Ῥωμαϊκῆς Διαλέκτου, ἐν ὧ διαρθροῦται ποία μέν τις λέξις ἐστὶν Αἰολική, ποία δὲ Γαλλική.

‘The Romans call the pin fibula in their native language and the belt balteus, but the Gauls call the entire girdle outfit cartamera, which the common people call cartalamum out of ignorance. That this particular word is not Roman, the Roman Varro attests in his work On the Roman Language, in which it is precisely defined what sort of word is Aeolic and what sort is Gallic.’\(^{57}\)

However, Varro’s De lingua latina V, 116 does not mention the words cartamera and cartalamum, and discusses balteum only. Furthermore, the word cartamera is not otherwise attested and has also been left out of Delamarre’s


\(^{57}\) Bandy 1983: 104–105.
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*Dictionnaire*. Thus, further information cannot be extracted from this passage.

Another possible, but rather vague, reference to Gaulish occurs in the work of the politician, writer, and monk Cassiodorus (c. A.D. 490–c. 585). In his *Variae* he collected twelve books of state papers (edited around A.D. 537), and in *Variae* VIII, 12, 7, citing a letter (dated A.D. 526) he drafted for king Athalaric, he remarks:

Romanum denique eloquium non suis regionibus invenisti et ibi te Tulliana lectio disertum reddidit, ubi quondam gallica lingua resonauit.\(^{58}\)

‘Finally you discovered Roman eloquence in the regions not its own; and there the reading of Cicero rendered you eloquent, where once the *gallica lingua* resounded.’

This passage does not seem to reflect more than erudite knowledge, a learned reference to the former vernacular of Gaul, note especially the words *quondam* ‘once’ and *resonauit* ‘resounded’. Again, further information cannot be extracted from this passage.

More can be gained from the poetry of Venantius Honorius Clementianus Fortunatus (c. A.D. 540–c. 600), who gives a plausible Celtic etymology of the word *nemetum* in *Carmina* I, 9, 9:

\[
\text{nomine Vernemetis uoluit uocitare uetustas}
\text{quod quasi fanum ingens gallica lingua refert.}\(^{59}\)
\]

‘By the name *Vernemetis* ancient times wished to call [that place] which [in] the *gallica lingua* translates “mighty temple”.’

This is the latinised version of *nemeton* ‘sanctuary < sacred wood’, which is also known from Gaulish inscriptions, personal and place-names; it is comparable to OI *nemed* ‘sanctuary, holy place’ (DLG 197–198). The prefix *uer(o)-* ‘on, above’ is also genuinely Celtic, often occurring in nominal compounds and corresponding to OI *for-*, OW *guor*, etc. (DLG 264). While Fleuriot suggested that the present tense in *refert* implies that the poet speaks of the Gaulish language as if surviving into his own time (FLEURIOT 1980: 56), I agree with Weisgerber, who thought that *gallica lingua* certainly indicated Celtic here, but suggested that this passage could not be used as evidence for the survival of Gaulish – rather more likely it represents the erudite learning of the author (WEISGERBER 1969: 153; BIRKHAN 1997: 304).

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\(^{58}\) FRIDH & HALPORN 973: 314–315.

\(^{59}\) LEO 1881: 12.
As with Ausonius, this passage rather represents a *figura etymologica* in the Virgilian mode. Gregory of Tours (A.D. 539–594) presents a similar erudite etymology in *Historia Francorum* I, 32: *ueniens uero Aruernos, delybrium illud, quod gallica lingua Uasso Galatae uocant, incendit, diruit atque subuertit* ‘When he [i.e. Chroc, king of the Alamanni] came to Auvergne, he set fire to the sanctuary which they call *Vasso Galatae* in the *lingua gallica*, [and] he demolished and destroyed it’ (*Arndt & Krusch* 1884: 49). Gregory does not explain the meaning of the name, which does however have a plausible Celtic etymology. The first element *uasso-* ‘servant, submissive’ (whence mediaeval Latin *uassus* > *uasallus*) is supported by onomastic evidence, namely (Mercurio) *Vasso-caleti* ‘severe on the subdued’ or ‘hard vassal’, furthermore personal names such as *Vasso-rix, Vasso*, etc. It corresponds to OI *foxx* ‘servant’, W *gwas* ‘servant, lad’, OB -*uwas, -guas* ‘vassal, servant’ > B *gwaz* ‘man, husband’ (DLG 258–259; *Polomé* 1983: 530 fn. 65). The second element can be identified as *kaleto-* ‘hard’, attested in onomastic evidence and cognate with OI *calad* ‘hard, cruel’, W *caled, B kale* ‘hard’ (DLG 83). Again, Fleuriot regarded this passage as evidence for the continued existence of Gaulish (*Fleuriot* 1980: 56–57), but as in the case of Venantius Fortunatus this does not necessarily follow. Gregory of Tours makes another reference to *lingua gallica* in *In gloriam confessorum* 72, a collection of miracles stories of (especially Gallic) saints: *Cimiterium igitur apud Augustidunensim urbem gallica lingua [lacuna] uocitauit, eo quod ibi fuerint multorum hominum cadauera funerata* ‘A graveyard near the city of Augustodunum, then, was called […] in the *gallica lingua*, because there the corpses of many men were buried’ (*Arndt & Krusch* 1884: 790). Unfortunately the name that Gregory meant to explain has been lost in the process of transmission. Still, the two examples from Gregory’s writings are clearly meant to clarify place-name etymologies (cf. *Fournier* 1955: 448–453). Thus, while we saw that in Sulpicius Severus, *Dialogi* I, 27 *gallice* is similar in meaning to *sermo rusticior*, indicating a style or register within Latin, this does not seem to be the case with Gregory’s use of *lingua gallica*. Although Gregory often mentions the language of the *rustici* (in the sense of the ‘ignorant, rude, illiterate’), for example in *Historia Francorum* IV, 5 (*Arndt & Krusch* 1884: 145),60 it seems that Gregory used the term *lingua gallica* exclusively for learned etymologies. The two examples do not allow us to draw any firmer

60 See *Bonnet* 1890: 26–27 for more examples. See also *Heinzelmann* 2001: 98–99.
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conclusions, but they do show that Gregory meant ‘the ancient language of Gaul’.

Isidore of Seville’s (c. A.D. 600–636) Etymologiae also contain various terms which are identified as gallica lingua. I will list each of these with a discussion of their etymology and possible derivation.61 Etym. XI, 1, 57: toles gallica lingua dicuntur, quas uulgo per diminutionem tusi(l)as uocant, quae in faucibus turgescere solent ‘In the gallica lingua toles, commonly called tusilas in the diminutive, are called [the things] which usually swell up in the throat’. Isidore’s toles is unlikely to be Celtic and most likely to be identified with Lat toles ‘goiter’ (BARNEY 2006: 234; LEW II 688). The passage is almost certainly derived from Festus: toles tumor in faucibus, quae per diminutionem tonsillae dicuntur, even if there it is not identified as lingua gallica vel sim. (LINDSAY 1913a: 490). Note that tusila is a vulgar form of Lat tonsila (SOFER 1930: 70; LEW II 688).

Etym. XVII, 7, 67: quidam autem uolemum gallica lingua bonum et magnum intellegunt. The passage is close to Servius’ uolema autem gallica lingua bona et grandia dicuntur discussed previously, which is likely to be its source.62

Etym. XIX, 24, 13: sagum autem gallicum nomen est; dictum autem sagum quadrum eo, quod apud eos primum quadratus uel quadruplex erat ‘Sagum is a Gallic term. It is called the sagum quadrum because first among the Gauls it used to be square or fourfold’ (BARNEY 2006: 387). This word sagum or sagus ‘a coarse woollen cloak or mantle’, borrowed via Latin into Greek as σάγος ‘idem’, is generally thought to derive from Gaulish *sagon, in which case Isidore’s interpretation nomen gallicum should be understood in the modern

61 I do not discuss the words of (probable) Gaulish/Celtic origin which Isidore does not identify as such, namely Etym. XIX, 31, 16 uiriolae (SOFER 1930: 81); Etym. XV, 15, 4 arepennis (SOFER 1930: 118; BOLELLI 1942: 141; PORZIO GERNIA 1981: 103; DLG 46), plausibly Etym. XX 5, 4 baccea (SOFER 1930: 165 fn. 1), and Etym. XX 12, 3 caracutium (SOFER 1930: 165 fn. 2). Nor have I included references of the type Galli ... appellant vel sim., namely linna (supposedly derived from Plautus, cf. SOFER 1930: 75–76; DLG 171), candetum (derived from Columella V, 1, 6; cf. SOFER 1930: 165 fn. 3; SCHMIDT 1967: 158–159; PORZIO GERNIA 1981: 107; DLG 88), leuga (derived from St Jerome, Comm. in Ioel. III, 18; cf. SOFER 1930: 165 fn. 3; BOLELLI 1942: 50; PORZIO GERNIA 1981: 111; DLG 168–169), and dusius (derived from St Augustine, Civ. Dei XV, 23; cf. DLG 133).

62 ANDRÉ 1981: 132–133 suggests that Isidore’s text is even closer to the scholia of Berne: uolemis ‘uolemae’ uel ‘uolemi’, ‘uolemae’ ab eo quod uolam implent dictae, id est median manum, in which case ‘Isidore a pris pour un nom. sing. l’abl. uolemis de la glosse’. It is not evident to me why this should be preferred to Servius, who was a well known source for Isidore.
sense (‘Celtic’), although it could simply mean ‘a word from Gaul’. It was borrowed into Latin, and also appears as *sagulum* and later *saga > Fr saie*, and is comparable to Lithuanian *sagis* ‘mantle for women’, etc. (LEW II 464; DELL 589; DLG 224–225; SCHMIDT 1967: 172; PORZIO GERNIA 1981: 112). Even if the word appears in the work of numerous authors (Ennius, Lucilius, Varro, Nonius, etc.) I have not been able to trace this particular passage.63

*Etym.* XX, 2, 24: *taxea lardus est gallice dictum. Vnde et Afranius in Rosa: gallum sagatum pingui pastum taxea* ‘The Gaul in his mantle, fed with fat lard’ (BARNEY 2006: 396). For the origins of the word *taxea* ‘lard, the fat of bacon’, Isidore is here referring to the work of Lucius Afranius, an early Roman playwright whose work is generally dated to the second half of the second century B.C. (STÄRK 2002: 290).64 Since the play in question has not survived, the line given by Isidore cannot be verified. The word is unlikely to be Celtic and has been related to late Lat *taxus* ‘badger’, which is itself a loan from Germanic (LEW II 652–653).

*Etym.* XIV, 8, 18: *nam Gallorum lingua Alpes montes alti uocantur*. Almost certainly derived from Servius’ commentary on Virgil’s *Georgica* III, 474, or his commentaries on the *Aeneid* IV, 442 discussed above. So far as can be ascertained, therefore, most lexical items identified by Isidore as *lingua gallica* are derived from (much) earlier sources. Isidore’s use of the term partly reflects these sources and also includes several non-Celtic terms. Indeed, Isidore’s material suggests that he used *lingua gallica* to indicate ‘the speech of the Gauls’ in general, rather than ‘Gaulish’ in specific.

Older sources also reflect the use of the term in the *Ars grammatica poetica rhetorica* or *Grammatica* by Julian, archbishop of Toledo (c. A.D. 642–690), who is regarded as the greatest scholar of Visigothic Spain after Isidore (ALONSO-NÚÑEZ 1999: 802–803). In Book I, 1, 80 of this work, based on various predecessors (MAESTRE YENES 1973: xxix–xxlx), the author asks: *quid intelligitur ‘ritus’? consuetudo; unde et dicit quidam: ‘teutonico ritu soliti torquere cateias’* and he continues: *quid sunt cateias? astas lancearum lingua gallica* (MAESTRE YENES 1973: 23). This passage can be traced back, perhaps via Isi-

63 Attested in various other authors as well, for example Cato, Caesar, Horace, Livy, Pliny, etc. Tacitus, *Germania* XVII, 1 used it of the Germans. In Greek it is always used in a Gaulish context, for example Polybius II, 28, 7, see TGL VII 7.

64 A word *taxia* occurs as one of the variant readings in Arnobius, *Adversus Nationes* VI, 24, 13, see BERKOWITZ 1967: 694. If so, could Isidore have confused the names of Afranius and Arnobius Afer?
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dore, Etym. XVIII, 7, 7, to Servius' commentary on the Aeneid VII, 741 and thus back to Virgil. Similarly, in Book II, 14, 3 Julian explains:

barabarolexis autem dicitur, quando peregrina et barbara uerba latinis eloquiis inseruntur; ut siquis dicat mastruca, cateia, magalia. mastruca enim barbarum nomen est latinis eloquiis insertum, cateiae astae dicuntur in lingua gallica, magalia uero lingua punica casae pastorales dicuntur.65

‘It is called barbarolexis when foreign and strange words are inserted into Latin declarations; as if anyone would say mastruca, cateia, magalia. For mastruca is a foreign word inserted into Latin speech, in the lingua gallica spears are called cateiae, while in the Punic language shepherds’ houses are called magalia.’

This passage may spring from Isidore, Etym. I, 32, 2, but the examples could also derive from Donatus, Pompeius, and Servius.66 Again the material stems from much older sources.

However, whereas the previous authors used lingua gallica to (whether knowingly or not) sometimes identify words that can be classified as Celtic, the following passage from Bede’s (c. A.D. 673–735) Historia ecclesiastica is the first where lingua gallica clearly does not denote the Celtic language of Gaul. In Historia ecclesiastica V, 11, relating the career of St Willibrord, Bede notes:

donauit autem ei Pippin locum cathedrae episcopalis in castello suo inlustri, quod antiquo gentium illarum uerbo Viltaburg, id est oppidum Viltorum, lingua autem gallica Traiectum uocatur.67

‘Pippin gave him [i.e. St Willibrord] a place for his episcopal see in his famous fortress, which with an ancient word of those peoples is called Wiltaburg, that is the town of the Wilti, but in the lingua gallica is called Traiectum [Utrecht].’

Here (Gallo-)Latin is meant, and we may wonder at Bede’s surprising use of the term lingua gallica.68 It may be that outside Gaul the term was used more indiscriminately.

The next text to be discussed is the Vita sanctorum patrum Iurensium, which contains three short lives of St Romanus, St Lupicinus, and St Eugendus. Although set in the fifth century and pretending to be a near eye-witness account, it cannot have been written before A.D. 800 (Krusch 1896: 127–128). Speaking of the birth-place of St Eugendus, the Vita Sancti Eugendi III, 2 notes:

66 For mastruca, see TLL VIII 433–434; for magalia, see TLL VIII 50.
68 It is not commented on in the relevant pages of Wallace-Hadrill 1988: 184–185.
sanctus namque famulus Christi Eugendus, sicut beatorum patrum Romani ac Lupicini in religione discipulus, ita etiam natalibus hac prouincia extitit indigena atque conciuis. ortus nempe est haud longe a uico, cui uetusta paganitas, ob celebritatem clausuramque fortissimam superstitosissimi templi, gallica lingua Isarnodori, id est ferrei ostii, indidit nomen.69

‘For indeed, Eugendus, the servant of Christ, as a disciple in religion of the blessed fathers Romanus and Lupicinus, thus sprang from that native province at birth as a native and fellow-citizen. He was surely born not far from the village, on which paganism in ancient times, for the sake of renown and the massive fort of a very superstitious temple, had put the name Isarnodori in the lingua gallica, which means ‘iron doors’.’

Krusch suggested that this was an ill-informed etymology of a Germanic compound (‘eisernes Thor’) (KRUSCH 1896: 127). He further demonstrated the author’s ignorance about Gaulish by pointing to misinterpretations elsewhere in the text; in Vita Sancti Romani I, 1 the author derives the Gaulish placename Condadisco (modern Saint-Claude, Jura) from Lat *condere instead of Gaulish *condate- ‘confluence’ (KRUSCH 1896: 127; DLG 103). However, the name isarnodori has a good Gaulish etymology; the place-name Isarnore (Ain) is supposedly derived from exactly the same Isarno-dori, and the Gaulish element *isarno- ‘iron’ is attested in other place-names (e.g. Isarno-dunum) as well as supported by the cognates OI *íarnn, W haearn, B houarn ‘iron’, etc. (EVANS 1981: 250; DLG 162). The second element is the common Gaulish place-name element *duro(n). For the change u > o compare the form doro in Endlicher’s Glossary (LAMBERT 1995: 203). This need not indicate, of course, that the author had any knowledge of Gaulish other than some place-name etymologies. In the Prologus to the same Vita we find another reference to sermo gallicus:

quamuis ergo Agaunus uester gallico priscoque sermone tam primitus per naturam quam nunc quoque per ecclesiam ueridica prefiguratione Petri petra esse dıg nostrit.70

‘However, then, your Agaunus is known in the gallico priscoque sermone, originally for the sake of natural qualities, as now also for the sake of the church, to be a true rock through the prefigurement of Peter.’

Again a place-name is explained; it was mentioned earlier that agaunus ‘rock’ is a genuine Gaulish word (and place-name), and again this seems to refute Krusch’s claim concerning the author’s ignorance of Gaulish.

69 KRUSCH 1896: 154.
70 KRUSCH 1896: 131.
Weisgerber suggested that at this stage the use of the adjective *priscus* was introduced in order to avoid confusion with *sermo gallicus*, which by this time could mean Celtic as well as Gallo-Latin (Weisgerber 1969: 152 fn. 4). This may well be the case, but the usage is unique in the *Vita* as well as in our corpus in general. It is dangerous to specify the chronology of the semantic development of *gallica* (*lingua*) on the basis of this passage alone. Note also that the phrase *gallico priscoque sermone* is ambiguous; it could in fact indicate two different *sermones*: ‘old Gallic speech’ or ‘old speech and Gallic speech’.

I will go on to discuss the material gleaned from the early mediaeval glossaries. These remain largely uncharted terrain, and my discussion is as exhaustive as the indices of CGL allow it to be. The history of individual glosses is still difficult to trace with exactitude, but I will discuss the relevant lemmata with reference to the work of Goetz and Dionisotti, which has clarified the general picture (CGL I; Dionisotti 1996). The date of the various glossaries has been a matter of debate since the days of Goetz and Lindsay: were they compiled in Antiquity and copied and recopied like any other ancient text, or were they constantly combined, abridged, expanded and reshaped to serve different needs, and therefore even more difficult to date (Dionisotti 1996: 205 and 242–247)? More difficulties arise with regards to tracing the sources of the various glossaries. Even though Goetz remarked that the sources of the glossaries are manifold, it can be said that most material relevant for our purposes was generally culled directly from the works of antique writers such as Varro, Donatus, Servius, and Nonius, or else derived through such intermediary works as the *Etymologiae* of Isidore (Holtz 1996: 16). I will list the relevant glosses below, indicating the glossaries in which they occur, and discussing their possible sources.

CGL IV 597.13 [Abavus maior]: 72 *gessum hasta uel iaculum gallicae*. A very frequent gloss, which appears in various guises, for example CGL IV 595.37 [Abavus maior]: *ganeo golosus popinator tabernio hasta uel iaculum lingua gallica* with omission of *gaesum*; CGL V 297.55 [Amplonian II (Erfurt)]: *gesum hasta uel iaculum gallice*; CGL V 362, 49 [Amplonian II]: *gesa hasta Gallorum*; CGL V 297.55 [Amplonian II]: *gesum asta uel iaculum gallice*;

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71 As an example of glosses not included by Goetz I cite from the northern Spanish *Vocabulario latino* the lemma *ganeo · golosus, popinator, taberno, asta uel Íaculum, lingua gallica* in García Turza & García Turza 1997: 358, which is clearly related to (or taken from) CGL IV 595.37 [Abavus] discussed below.

72 On Abavus and Abavus maior, see Dionisotti 1996: 236.
CGL IV 604.28 [Abactor]: *giesum hasta uel iacula*. This gloss was probably derived from Nonius, *De compendiosa doctrina* XIX, 555, 9,73 or from Servius’ commentary on *Aeneid* VIII, 660: *gaesa hastas uiriles: nam etiam uiros fortes Galli gaesos uocant* (THILO & HAGEN 1923–1927: II 295), or VII, 664: *pilum proprie est hasta Romana, ut gaesa Gallorum, sarissae Macedonum* (THILO & HAGEN 1923–1927: II 179). From there it is traceable to Virgil and Varro. Note that Caesar already made use of this word (*Bellum Gallicum* III, 4, 1), which is further attested in various Greek authors as γαῖσος or γαῖσον ‘javelin’.74 Still, Nonius’ (and Servius’) gloss is probably derived from Virgil. While here the spear itself is identified as Gallic and not the word as such, it reflects a genuine Gaulish word reconstructed as *gaiso-*, compare OI *gae*, MW *gwaew*, OB *guugoiou* ‘lance’ < *yo-gaiso-*; it is also attested in Germanic, compare ON *geirr*, OHG *gêr* ‘spear’, etc. (DLG 146; LEW I 575–576; DELL 256; PORZIO GERNIA 1981: 109–110; IEW 410).75

CGL IV 598.4 [Abavus maior]: *gnatus natus generatus filius creatus uel enixus lingua galica* (sic). This possibly Gaulish word is glossed frequently (DLG 153), see for example CGL V 635.3 [Leiden BPL 67E]: *gnatus filius lingua gallica*; CGL V 600.35: *gnabat natus generatus filius creatus uel enixus lingua gallica*; CGL V 298.54 [Ampolian II]: *gnatus filius lingua gallica uel natus*; CGL IV 521.34 [Affatim]: *gratus filius galliciae lingae* (sic).76 We may compare Isidore, *Etym.* I, 26, 9: *gnatus quod est filius, per G scribendum, quia fecit generatus*, as well as *Etym.* IX, 5, 13: *gnatus dicitur quia generatus*. Note, however, that there the word is not identified as *lingua gallica* vel sim.

CGL V 214.26 [Liber Glossarum]:77 *kateias gallica lingua dicimus lancias. unde et uirgiliius teutonico ritu soliti torquere kategas (sic) et oratius acinaces posuit pro cladios Mediorum* (GL I 325), and also CGL V 214.27 [Liber Glossarum]: *katerua (sic) gallorum lingua dicitur quod apud nos legio uocatur*. Probably traceable via Isidore, *Etym.* XVIII, 7, 7: *claua haec et cateia, quam Horatius caiam dicit; est enim genus gallici teli*, or more likely via Servius’

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74 For example in the Septuagint: *Job* 8:18, *Judith* 9:7; also in Polybius VI, 39, 3; XVIII, 18, 4, etc., see TGL II 491–492 and DLG 146–147.
75 For a list of all attestations see TLL VI.2 1667–1668. Note that SCHRIVER 1995: 384 reconstructs the Insular Celtic word as a *u*-stem.
77 On the *Liber glossarum*, see GOETZ 1891 and CGL I 104–117.
commentary on *Aeneid* VII, 741: *cateias id est hastas, cateiae lingua theotisca hastae dicuntur* and especially *cateias tela gallica unde et teutonicum ritum dixit*, explaining Virgil’s line *Campani Teutonico rito soliti torquere cateias* (*THILO & HAGEN 1923–1927: II 191*). Even when the lance itself is here identified as Gallic (*tela gallica*) and the language identified as *theotisca*, the word *cateia* may be Gaulish and has been related to OI *caithid* ‘to cast, hurl’ (*DLG 94*).

CGL V 560.32 [Cassinensis 90]: *alpes gallice alti montes*, also CGL V 560.41 [Cassinensis 90]: *alpes niues lingua gallica alti montes*. Either derived directly from Servius’ commentary on *Georgica* III, 474 or his commentary on *Aeneid* IV, 442 or via Isidore, *Etym.* XIV, 8, 18 (for which see above).

CGL V 569.39 [Cassinensis 90]: *gessatus mercennarius exercitus gallica lingua*. Known also from CGL V 502.28 [Vatican 1468]: *gaesatus mercennarius uel exercitus*. Perhaps taken from Orosius, *Historiae* IV, 13, 5: *ex ulteriore Gallia ingens adventare exercitus […] maxime gaesatorum, quod nomen non gentis sed mercennariorum Gallorum est* ‘from distant Gaul a vast army arrived […] especially of gaesati (spearmen), which is not the name of a people, but that of the Gallic mercenaries’ (*TLL VI.2 1667*).

CGL V 582.57 [Cassinensis 90]: *uir iur soror gallice sororia dicitur, sororis uir a quibusdam sororius dicitur, mariti frater leuir dicitur*. The gloss is of unknown derivation. The term *sororia* is very unlikely to be Gaulish, where *suior- < *syesor- would be expected.79

CGL V 634.58 [Leiden BPL 67E]: *gennades mulieres lucedemonice lingua galica*. Further corrupted in CGL V 600.64 [Glossae Scaligeri]: *gennades .i. mulieres lueae dominicæ lingua gallica*. This clearly refers to Grk γυμνάδες ‘trained, naked [ones]’ so its attribution to *lingua gallica* is erroneous. Perhaps *graeca* was here miscopied as *gallica*. The gloss is of unknown derivation. Most of this glossary-material derives from (much) earlier sources, and this is reflected by the use of the term *lingua gallica* even if the attribution is often erroneous. However, in the *Gesta Karoli Magni*, a series of moral tales about Charlemagne probably written by Notker Balbulus (c. A.D. 840–912) (*HAEELE & GSCHWIND 1993: 1289–1290*), we find the first unambiguous example of the

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78 Aulus Gellius, *Noctes Atticae* X, 25, 2 mentions the word but does not comment on its origin. Pompeius, *Grammatica* V, 284, 23 assigns it to *lingua Persarum*. The word is also mentioned in Donatus, *Grammatica* IV, 392, 7 as an example of a ‘barbarism’, see *TLL III 602*.

term *gallica lingua* in the sense of ‘the contemporary Gallo-Romance vernacular’. *Gesta* I, 20 reads:

> cum ergo de domeo sua ad episcopum uenire disponeret, assumpsit duas caniculas in manu sua, quas gallica lingua ueltres nuncupant.\(^80\)

‘Moreover, when he would set out from his house to go to the bishop, he took two little dogs in his hand, which in the *lingua gallica* are called *veltres*.’

Doubtless the author is here referring to OFr *veltre* ‘sorte de chien employé surtout pour la chasse’, cf. Fr *veutre, veautre* (GODEFROY 1964: 528). In this case *lingua gallica* certainly refers to Gallo-Romance; the Latin form is *uertragus* (or *uertrahas*; the Gallo-Romance showing dissimilation of *uertr*- > *ueltr-*) ‘greyhound’ (NIEMEYER 2002: 1394; GMIL VIII 289; EWFS 880; DÍEZ 1887: 339; MEYER-LÖBKE 1935: 772).

This is very likely also the meaning of *lingua gallica* in the following passage from Widukind of Corvey’s (died after A.D. 973) *Rerum gestarum Saxonica-rum*, composed around A.D. 967–968 (ALTHOFF 1998: 76–78). In Book II, 17, in a passage describing the battle of Birken (A.D. 939) between Otto I and his brother Henry, it is said that:

> sed cum a fronte pariter et a tergo urgerentur, qua parte potissimum cauere debuissent, in promptu non erat. ex nostris etiam fuere qui gallica lingua ex parte loqui sciebant, qui clamore in altum gallice leuato exhortati sunt adversarios ad fugam. illi socios huiusmodi clamasse arbitrati, fugam, ut clamatum est, inierunt.\(^81\)

‘But when they were simultaneously pressed in the front and at the back, it was not clear on which side they might have had to guard themselves specifically. Also, among us there were some who knew how to speak some *gallica lingua*, who, having raised a loud cry [in] *gallice*, encouraged the enemies to flight. These, thinking that [their] comrades had called such, turned to flight, as had been shouted.’

This passage almost certainly refers to French, as in all likelihood does the use of *lingua gallica* in the *Acta concilii Mosomensis auctore Gerberto archiepiscopo*, documenting the proceedings of the Council of Mouzon which took place near Sedan on 2 June A.D. 995. During this council one bishop got up and delivered an address in what must be the Gallo-Romance vernacular.\(^82\)

\(^{80}\) HAEFLE 1959: 26.

\(^{81}\) HIRSCH & LOHMANN 1935: 82.

\(^{82}\) Also suggested by WILMOTTE 1927: 225 fn. 14.
facto itaque silentio, cunctis residentibus qui aderant, Aymo episcopus surrexit et gallice concionatus est, domnum Iohannem papam episcopos Galliarum causa synodi ad Aquasgrani palatii inuitasse, et eos illo uenire noluisse.\(^83\)

‘After silence was called accordingly, bishop Aymo arose from all the rest who were present and proclaimed \([in]\) gallice that the Lord Pope John had invited the Gallic bishops to the palace of Aachen for the sake of the synod, and that they had not wanted to come.’

The late tenth-century historian Richer of St. Rémy (Reims) based his account of the Council of Mouzon in \textit{Historiarum libri} IV, 100 on these \textit{Acta}, and related the following \citep[Bur 1995: 830–831]{84}:

> quibus circumquaque silentibus, episcopus Virunensis eo quod linguam gallicam norat, causam sinodi prolaturus surrexit.\(^84\)

‘When they were silent all around the bishop of Verdun arose, because he knew the \textit{gallica lingua}, to explain the reason for the synod.’

Again, the term almost certainly refers to Gallo-Romance, as is also likely to be the case in the \textit{Chronicon S. Michaelis monasterii in pago Virdunensi}, that is, the chronicle of Saint-Mihiel (Meuse) which was written by an anonymous author between A.D. 1021–1044. Under the year A.D. 984 it notes \citep[Potthast 1970: 438]{85}:

> denique dux Theodoricus, cuius ditione abbatia subdita erat, eum iam bene cognitum ad quoscumque regni principes derigebat legatum, et maxime ad consobrinum suum regem Francorum, quoniam nouerat eum in responsis acutissimum et linguae gallicae peritia facundissimum.\(^85\)

‘At last duke Theodoric, in whose power the abbey was placed, directed the delegate; \[because\] he was already well known to all princes of the kingdom and especially to his cousin the king of the Franks, because he had known him most keen in replies and most eloquent in knowledge of the \textit{lingua gallica}.’

Ademar of Chabannes’ (A.D. 989–1034) use of \textit{antiquus sermo Gallorum} in his \textit{libri historiarum} III, 40 demonstrably denotes Gallo-Romance also:

> locus autem antiquo sermone Gallorum Carrofus uocitabatur propter carrorum confinia, id est uieolorum publicorum, et deinceps pro reuerentia crucis Sanctum Carrofum appellari placuit.\(^86\)

‘The place, then, which in the ancient language of the Gauls is called Carrofus, because of the nearness of the vehicles, that is of the public vehicles, and it is then that it was decided on account of a reverence for the Cross to be called Holy Carrofus.’

\(^{83}\) MGHSS III 690. 
\(^{84}\) \textit{Waitz} 1877: 175. 
\(^{85}\) MGHSS IV 82. 
\(^{86}\) MGHSS IV 134.
Most likely the word indicated here is a corrupted version of OFr quarefor, carrefour ‘crossroads’, compare OProv caiereforc ‘idem’ < Lat *quadrifürcum (EWFS 189; MeyeR-LÜBKE 1935: 571; Diez 1887: 540), a meaning which is also borne out by the text (carrorum confinia).

Doubtless the lingua gallica referred to by Walther of St Victor (died after A.D. 1180) in his Sermo de Purificatione VI, 1, 5 also indicates Gallo-Romance/French:

sint lumbi uestri praecincti, et lucernae ardentes, et uos similes hominibus expectantibus dominum suum, etc. (Luc. 12: 35–36). festiuia sollemnitas praesentis diei in tribus linguis nuncupatur uocabulis. latina enim lingua dicitur Purificatio, lingua gallica nomen habet a candelis, graece enim dicitur Ypapanti Domini, id est obuiatio Domini. 87

“May your loins be girt, and your lamps burning, and you [be] like people expecting their lord, etc.” The gay solemnity of the present day is called with names in three languages; for in the Latin language it is called ‘Purificatio’, the lingua gallica has a word [derived] from candles, while in Greek it is called ‘Ypapanti Domini’, that is the Encounter of the Lord.’

This passage is based on Johannes Belethus’ (end of twelfth century) Rationale diuinorum officiorum LXXXI (‘de festis quae sunt in principio Septuagesimae, et primo de Purificatione B. Mariae’):

festum autem B. Mariae tribus nuncupatur nominibus. dicitur enim uel Purificatio B. Mariae, uel Candelaria, uel ὑπαντή Domini […] quare autem Candelaria uocatur aliam auctoritatem non habet, sed potius fluxum est ab antiqua consuetudine ethnicorum siue gentilium […] uel etiam appellata est Candelaria, propter multituidinem candelarum et significacionem quae in eis est. 88

‘Now the Feast of the Blessed Mary is called by three names, for it is called either the Purification of the Blessed Mary, or Candelaria, or the ὑπαντή (Encounter) of the Lord […] why however it is called Candelaria has no other authority, but rather it has sprung from an ancient custom of heathens and foreigners […] or it is even called Candelaria because of the large number of candles and the token which is in them.’

The name of the feast is therefore derived from Lat candela, and thus of solid Latin/Roman origin. Finally, in Gerald of Wales’ (A.D. 1146–1220) Descrip-tio Cambriae I, 12 the term lingua gallica also means ‘French’ (BonFANTE 1956: 19 fn. 2; Putter forthc.).

These final examples show that from the late ninth century onward lingua gal-lica had come to mean ‘Gallo-Romance, French’, that is, a term denoting the contemporary vernacular. 89 It would retain this meaning until the sixteenth century.

87 Châtillon 1975: 47.
88 PL CCII 86.
89 A rather puzzling example of the contrastive use of gallica and celtica occurs in book I, 4 of the thirteenth-century Translatio Dionysii Areopagitae which is set during the siege of Paris.
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By the Vikings. It relates how Count Odo organises the defence and surprises a number of Viking scouts (see MGHSS XI 357):

[…] exploratores hostium incurrit, quos et agnitos secum in castra usque perduxit. Tum uero callide secretius exploratores conuenit, et non parua pecunia commissa, uti exercitum sibi proderent, persuasit. Demum celtice, ne hostibus consilium pateret, uotum suum innuit, palam gallice edicens nuntios e castris dirigit, duci suo imperans ut ad se in castra cum copiis Gallorum ipsa die maturaret.

‘He ran into scouts of the enemy, whom he recognised and brought with him to the camp. Then he cleverly assembled the scouts in secret, and bribed them with no small amount of money to betray the army to him. At last, he signalled his wish in celtice, so as not to reveal his plan to the enemies. He directed the scouts from the camp, announcing [it] openly in gallice, commanding his leader to make haste that same day with the supply of Franks to him in the camp.’

Here the two terms (celtice and gallice) are clearly distinguished. In this passage gallice seems to be understandable to the Vikings, whereas celtice is not. Wilmotte 1927: 229 admitted that the meaning of the terms is difficult to explain here. For lack of a satisfying explanation it could be suggested that the contrastive use of gallice and celtice may amount to no more than the erroneous use of language terms taken from classical writers – the anonymous author of this text ostentatiously shows his classical learning, copiously citing Virgil, Sallust, and Horace. His use of the terms gallice and celtice (he consistently refers to the Franks as Galli) may be an ill-informed attempt at using classical terminology.

90 For a detailed discussion see Poppe 1986: 22–46.
91 For the subsequent identification of the languages now known as Celtic, see Sims-Williams 1998: 12–16.

century, when scholars like Gessner started to make the distinction between French (gallica lingua recentior, regarded by Gessner as a mixture of Latin and German) and gallica uetus, which he used synonymously with celtica to denote the language “qua Helvetij & Galli Julij Caesaris tempore usi sunt” (Gessner 1555: 17v; Colombat 2005: 210).90 The terms celtica and gallica are used by Gessner for the ancient language of central Europe (regarded as the predecessor of German), and this usage would remain current in (especially German) scholarship until the eighteenth century, even if various scholars used the term with different meanings (Dottin 1920: 3–11; Bonfante 1956: 23–34; Poppe 1992: 246–247).91 Even so, the term Celtic came to be preferred to Gallic as the term for the newly identified language family ‘because the term Gallic was too closely associated with French by Lhuyd’s day.’ (Sims-Williams 1998: 16).
4. General comments

4.1. Chronology

I will now consider the chronological development of the two terms in general, commencing with *gallica*. Weisgerber suggested that from the start there had been some confusion about attributing certain lexical items to Gaulish by Latin authors, and that by the fourth century at the latest *lingua gallica* could indicate Gallo-Latin as well as Gaulish (as well as a specific style of rhetoric) (Weisgerber 1969: 152). Nonetheless, most authors writing before the third century (Suetonius, Festus, Aulus Gellius, Ulpianus, and Nonius Marcellus) seem, as far as can be ascertained, to use the term to indicate the indigenous Celtic language of Gaul. However, Servius’ commentary on Virgil may serve as an example of the early puzzling use of the term (*lingua* *gallica*) (Weisgerber 1969: 152 fn. 4). While this text may contain a Gaulish etymology, Servius’ usage is undoubtedly confused and includes non-Celtic terms. It may be that here it has a more geographic than generic linguistic meaning. This could of course also be the case with the earlier sources, but this is difficult to establish as the few lexical items mentioned there are at least plausibly Celtic. It is uncertain, therefore, whether Servius’ use of the term reflects the poor quality of his sources, or, as Weisgerber suspected, a more general shift in the meaning of *lingua gallica*.

Particularly interesting is the terminology in Sulpicius Severus’ *Dialogi* I, 27. Here the adverbs *gallice* and *celtice* seem to refer to a specific (rustic, unpolished) style in Latin. By contrast, contemporary authors such as Eucherius, Macrobius (the cases of Claudian and Cassiodorus are ambiguous), and Lydus generally use the term, consciously or not, to identify Gaulish. So do Gregory of Tours and Julian of Toledo. Still, Isidore’s use of the term appears confused and includes non-Celtic terms. Finally, Bede clearly does *not* use the term to refer to Gaulish.

From the later ninth century on several (Frankish) authors (both from West and East Francia) used the term for Gallo-Romance/French, for example Notker Balbulus of St. Gall, Widukind of Corvey, Richer of St. Rémy, Ademar of Chabannes, etc. Weisgerber suggested that after A.D. 800 (the approximate date of the *Vita sanctorum patrum Iurensium*) the use of the adjective *priscus* was introduced in order to avoid confusion with *lingua gallica* or *sermo gallicus*, which, as we have seen, tended to indicate Gallo-Latin/Gallo-Romance at that stage (Weisgerber 1969: 152 fn. 4). This would fit into the scenario that I have
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suggested above, but admittedly I only know of one instance of priscus used in this manner. Nonetheless, from the ninth century on lingua gallica tends to indicate Gallo-Romance/French, even if Sigibert of Gembloux could still use the term in the twelfth century to refer to a Gaulish place-name (Augustodunum) because he copied this information from Heiric of Auxerre. Generally, however, the term was used in the sense of ‘French’ well into the Early Modern period.

As for celtica, Weisgerber thought that the early attestations of lingua celtica (vel sim.) doubtless indicate the Celtic language of Gaul in the modern sense (Weisgerber 1969: 153). However, to the best of my knowledge the only early attestations in Latin occur in the work of Pliny (and gallica is much better represented there). Moreover, this author’s (sparing) use of celtica could well have been influenced by his Greek examples. The term is only used again by Ausonius writing several centuries later, where it may also indicate Gaulish, even if it could just mean ‘the speech of the inhabitants of (central) Gaul’. This would perhaps explain its use by Sulpicius Severus and Sidonius Apollinaris, who seem to use it to indicate a regional, rustic style of Latin.

I have discussed the specific geographical connotations (central Gaul) of celtica. It is unclear whether this connotation is already present in Pliny’s use of the term, or whether he uses the term in the Greek fashion, where it tends to indicate Gaul in its entirety. A further complicating factor is that from about the fourth century onward, for example in the Historia Augusta, Ammianus Marcellinus, and the Notitia Dignitatum, various copiae auxiliares located in northern Gaul are also indicated as Celtae (usually in combination with other groups (for example Herulos et Batauos cumque Petulantibus Celtas), especially the Franci (Weisgerber 1969: 154). Weisgerber, therefore, suggested that by the eighth or ninth century the original sense of celticus as ‘Gaulish’ was forgotten completely and the term had come to indicate the Gallo-Romance vernacular: “die überhaupt vorkommenden Belege sind so stark auf die leb-

92 The terms do not seem to be used differently by Pliny, compare for example Nat. Hist. XX-XIII, 39: habeant in lacertis quidem et uiri, quod ex Dardanis venit – itaque et Dardanium vocabatur: viroiae celtice dicuntur, viariae celitibercie ‘Let even men nowadays wear gold bracelets – called Dardania because the fashion came from the Dardani – the Celtic name for them is viroiae and the Celtiberian viriae’ with Nat. Hist. III, 122: Metrodorus tamen Scepsius dicit, quoniam circa fontem arbor multa sit picea, quales gallice uocentur padi […] ‘Metrodorus of Scepsis says that the river has received the name of Padus because in the neighbourhood of its source there are a quantity of pine-trees of the kind called in the Gallic dialect padi’.
ende Volkssprache bezogen, daß es dort, wo wirklich die alte keltische Sprache gemeint ist, durch *gallicus* ersetzt wird” (*Weisgerber* 1969: 154), as in Sigebert of Gembloux’ *Vita Deoderici*. Thus I have argued that in *Waltharius* the term *lingua celtica* indicates Gallo-Romance (also in *Wilmotte* 1918: 28–29 fn. 1). However, Weisgerber’s suggestion that *gallica* replaces *celtica* to indicate the Celtic language is incorrect. I have shown that in the ninth-century sources *lingua gallica* indicates Gallo-Romance. Sigebert’s cavalier use of the two terms rather indicates that by this time the words had become synonymous. For both terms, then, the evidence is somewhat confusing and contradictory, and a clear picture of their semantic development does not emerge. In the following I will demonstrate that various other layers of interpretation have to be taken into account in order to clarify this confused picture.

4.2. Genre, Sources, and Provenance

One complicating factor is that authors operating in different genres used the terminology in different ways through the use of different sources. This is most evident in the works of the grammatical authors. They use the term to identify the origins of separate lexical items. As far as I can surmise, these authors generally derived their material from (much) earlier sources (note also that they never use the term *lingua celtica*). It is therefore a mistake to attach too much value to their testimony in a chronological sense. Thus, Festus derives his Gaulish terms from Ennius, Lucanus, and Varro, all writing at a time when there was certainly a Celtic language spoken in Gaul, if not in Northern Italy. Aulus Gellius similarly derives his example from Varro, as did Lydus. Nonius, Servius, and Macrobius extracted their items from Virgil’s poetry. Isidore derived his Gaulish lexical items from Plautus, Varro, Virgil, Columella, Servius, St Jerome, and St Augustine. Julian of Toledo, finally, also derived his examples from Virgil, and possibly Donatus and Servius. Still, my analysis shows that the lexical items assigned by these authors to *gallica lingua* frequently also include non-Celtic terms. Especially in the cases of Servius and Isidore, who provide more extensive evidence, the term may indicate ‘the language of Gaul’ in general rather than ‘Gaulish’ in specific. In the other cases this is difficult to establish because of the paucity of the evidence. In narrative texts, be it hagiographical or historical, the terms are employed in a different context. In these cases the term is used by authors who are themselves of Gallic origin. There are but few examples, and one author, namely
Gregory of Tours, unfortunately does not explain the Gaulish place-names he mentions. Unlike the grammatical writers, these writers use the term to explain local (place-)names: Ausonius’ *Diuona* in Bordeaux, Venantius Fortunatus’ *Vernemetis*, Eucherius’ *Agaunum, Isarno dori* in the ninth-century *Vita sanctorum patrum Iurensium*, and Heiric of Auxerre’s *Augustodunum* and *Lugdunum*. Here modern etymology established that the explanations provided by these authors are generally correct. It can, however, not be inferred from this information (as Fleuriot did) that Gaulish was still a spoken language by this time. Erudite antiquarian knowledge of local names could have lingered on long after the language itself had disappeared. Furthermore, in Ausonius’, Venantius Fortunatus’, and Heiric’s verse it may be regarded as a *figura etymologica* in the tradition of Virgil (the passage from Claudian cited above is far too general to fall within this category). Nonetheless, we saw that partly overlapping with this ‘backward-looking’, historicising use, other mediaeval writers such as Notker Balbulus, Widukind of Corvey, Richer of St. Rémy, and Ademar of Chabannes used the term to indicate Gallo-Romance. This simultaneous use of the same term with different meanings may not be as contradictory as it seems. In fact, our confusion about the simultaneous use of the two meanings ‘Celtic language of Gaul’ and ‘Gallo-Latin’ or ‘Gallo-Romance’ stems from the modern separation of the two concepts. The ambiguous use of the term *lingua gallica* probably indicates that they were not regarded as two different languages. In fact, the (Celtic) placenames *Augustodunum* or *Agaunum* (Heiric, *Vita sanctorum Iurensium*) may have been regarded as springing from the same ‘indigenous language of Gaul’ as the (Old French) noun *veltre* (Notker). This need not be surprising – in fact, the idea that French sprang from Gaulish was still common enough in the Renaissance (TOURNEUR 1905: 191–192).

5. Conclusion

I have analysed the available evidence for the semantic development of the two Latin terms *gallica* and *celtica* as referring to language, both as adjectives and as adverbs. I have not been able to establish a clear difference between the adverbial (*gallice, celtice*) and adjectival (*lingua vel sim. gallic(an)a, celtica*) use of the terms. The adjective is always used to refer to either the language itself or a specific word in the language. The adverb is mostly used in the same vein (in Festus, Isidore, and the glossaries). However, in Aulus Gellius, *Noctes*
Atticae XI, 7 and Sulpicius Severus, Dialogi I, 27 (and possibly in Historia Augusta LX, 6) it may refer to a style or specific ‘Gallic’ register, or accent in Latin.

For the chronological development of celtica I established that, considering its sparse attestation, the word probably never gained wide currency. While it certainly indicated Gaulish in the works of Pliny, in late antique works it may refer either to the ‘language of central Gaul’, or to a rustic, geographically defined dialect, accent, or rustic style of Latin. However, the connotations of the term seem to be geographic rather than linguistic. Its meaning remains ambiguous in the early Middle Ages, but seems to have developed into a synonym for gallica (indicating Gallo-Romance) by the ninth-century even if Heiric of Auxerre (ninth-century) and Sigibert of Gembloux (eleventh century) still use it to refer to a genuine Gaulish place-name element. This may be explained by the fact that they may not have differentiated between the two modern concepts of Gaulish (the pre-Roman Celtic vernacular) and Gallo-Romance (the contemporary vernacular).

For the chronological development of gallica, for which there is much more evidence, I established that most authors writing before the third century used the term to indicate the indigenous language of Gaul, even if this may not always mean ‘Gaulish’. This also seems to be the case for late antique and early mediaeval authors up to c. A.D. 800, even though it has to be taken into account that these were generally recycling material from (much) earlier sources, and their usage probably reflects an earlier meaning of the term. From the ninth century the term demonstrably indicates the contemporary Romance vernacular of Gaul. This meaning was retained until well into the Early Modern period.

I have shown that this somewhat confused picture can be further clarified by taking into account various other layers of interpretation. First, different genres and different authors (from different places) used the terminology in different ways and derived their information from (very) different sources. Thus, a ninth-century epitomator extracting rare terms from a late antique grammatical treatise may have used the term lingua gallica (perhaps unknowingly) to identify a Celtic word which eventually could derive from an early Roman author. Simultaneously, a ninth-century chronicler may have used the same terminology to describe the Gallo-Romance speech of his own period (Notker). A second complicating factor is that this ambiguous use of the one term for what we conceive as two different concepts indicates that for many of the early mediaeval authors discussed above the ancient vernacular of Gaul was
not generically different from the contemporary vernacular of Gaul. Indeed, while the modern reader tends to interpret ancient language-names as generic linguistic terms, we often find that the terms may originally only have been used in a broad geographical sense: ‘the speech of Gaul, of the Gauls, etc.’. Thus, whether this be Gaulish, Gallo-Latin, or Gallo-Romance is difficult to establish if the source does not mention any lexical items. My analysis, then, shows that the terms gallica and celtica should never be uncritically translated as ‘Gaulish’ and ‘Celtic’ – which has too often been done in the past. In fact, the interpretation of the terminology is very complex and cannot be undertaken without taking into account the genre, date, and provenance of the text, a close reading of its context, and the linguistic analysis of the available lexis.

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