A Mythology for England

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Abstract
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Additional Keywords
Ælfwine; Anglo-Saxon; Aryaman; Askr; Eärendel; Eärendil; Elmir; Elvish; Embla; England; Eremon; Ermon; Germanic; Gnomish; Hengest; Ing; Ingwë; language; mythology; Öthhere; Old English; philology; Quenya
A Mythology for England

Carl F. Hostetter and Arden R. Smith

Abstract: As J.R.R. Tolkien developed a mythology for his invented languages to dwell and grow in, he found himself increasingly drawn to satisfy for himself his desire for a true English epic. Tolkien thus encompassed elements of English geography, language, and mythology within his geography, languages, and mythology, as demonstrated through an examination of five figures of Tolkien’s mythology, Eärendil, Ermon and Elmir, Ælfwine, and Ingwê.

Keywords: Ælfwine, Anglo-Saxon, Aryaman, Askrl Eärendel, Eärendil, Elmir, Elvish, Embla, England, Ermon, Ermon, Germanic, Gnomish, Hengest, Ing, Ingwê, language, mythology, Øthhere, Old English, philology, Quenya

Sometime late in 1951 J.R.R. Tolkien wrote a letter to Milton Waldman, an editor with the London publisher Collins, whom Tolkien hoped would publish The Silmarillion in conjunction with The Lord of the Rings. In the course of this remarkable letter, the full text of which is said to be some ten thousand words long, Tolkien wrote:

I was from early days grieved by the poverty of my own beloved country: it had no stories of its own (bound up with its tongue and soil), not of the quality that I sought, and found (as an ingredient) in legends of other lands. There was Greek, and Celtic, and Romance, Germanic, Scandinavian, and Finnish (which greatly affected me); but nothing English, save impoverished chap-book stuff. Of course there was and is all the Arthurian world, but powerful as it is, it is imperfectly naturalized, associated with the soil of Britain but not with English; and does not replace what I felt to be missing.


The distinction that Tolkien draws between things British and things English is important. While there is a considerable body of legend concerning Britain, the Land of the Britons, there is virtually nothing of the proper quality that expresses the genius of England, Engalond of the Anglo-Saxons, “the Land of the people of the Angle”. There is no English epic associated with both the soil and the tongue of England, no Anglo-Saxon Mabinogion, no Iliad or Táin or Aeneid, no Nibelungenlied or Edda or Kalevala.

It may be surprising at first that Tolkien excludes from this discussion the Anglo-Saxon poem Beowulf, whose study he had revolutionized some fifteen years earlier with his essay Beowulf: The Monsters and the Critics¹. To be sure, Beowulf comes very close to the sort of epic that Tolkien desired for England. Tolkien notes at the conclusion of Monsters and the Critics that the English poet of Beowulf achieves an individual character for the poem by using the materials (then still plentiful) preserved from a day already changing and passing, a time that has now for ever vanished, swallowed in oblivion; using them for a new purpose, with a wider sweep of imagination, if with a less bitter and concentrated force.

(Tolkien, 1984c, p. 33).

Thus the Beowulf-poet took the “materials” of an inherited Germanic mythology and used “for a new purpose, with a wider sweep of imagination”, the mythology of the mysterious Scæaf and his son Scyld, the god cyning; of Eormenríc, king of the Goths; and of Fróda and his fortunate son Ingeld. And certainly Tolkien finds the poem’s individual character to be unmistakably English, for:

it is in fact written in a language that after many centuries has still essential kinship with our own, it was made in this land, and moves in our northern world beneath our northern sky, and for those who are native to that tongue and land, it must ever call with a profound appeal — until the dragon comes.

(Tolkien, 1984c, pp. 33-4)

Yet even Beowulf fails to meet Tolkien’s criteria for a truly English epic, for though it was composed in Old English, and makes a new and characteristically English use of Germanic mythological elements, nevertheless no part of it is set in England; and so though the poem moves beneath northern skies, those skies are nevertheless not English. But while Beowulf is thus not a true English epic, English in both “tongue and soil”, it does demonstrate that the Anglo-Saxons had a mythology from which such an epic could be formed. If anything, this hint of what might have been, this tantalizing near-satisfaction that Beowulf provides, must have served only to make Tolkien’s longing more intense.

It is certainly no surprise then that as Tolkien developed a mythology for his invented languages to dwell and grow in,²

¹ Reprinted in Tolkien, 1984c, pp. 5-48.
² As Tolkienian linguists, we are compelled to point out that Tolkien’s invention of languages did indeed precede his invention of a
he found himself increasingly drawn to satisfy for himself his desire for a true English epic. After explaining this desire to Milton Waldman, Tolkien continues:

Do not laugh! But once upon a time (my crest has long since fallen) I had a mind to make a body of more or less connected legend, ranging from the large and cosmogonic, to the level of romantic fairy-story – the larger founded on the lesser in contact with the earth, the lesser drawing splendour from the vast backcloths – which I could dedicate simply to: to England; to my country.

(Tolkien, 1981, p. 144)

By his own criteria, Tolkien could create a mythology for England only by setting it on English soil, writing it in Old English, and featuring figures from English or at least Germanic mythology; or at any rate by encompassing elements of English geography, language, and mythology within his own. And that is exactly what he did. Through an examination of five figures of Tolkien's mythology, Eärendil, Ermon and Elmir, Ælfwine, and Ingwë, we will see that English geography, language, and mythology are all incorporated into Tolkien's creation. Thus even as Tolkien developed a mythology for his Elvish languages, he encompassed in it a mythology for England.

Eärendil

We will begin with Eärendil, who was in fact the first figure of English mythology that Tolkien incorporated into his own. It has long been recognized that Tolkien's mariner and messenger is derived from English and Germanic mythology, in particular from the Anglo-Saxon poem Crist:

\[
\text{Eärendil engla beorhtast,}\non\text{middangeard monnum sended,}\non\text{sóðfæsta sunnan lēoma,}\non\text{torht ofer tunglas.}\non\text{Hail Earendel, brightest of angels, over middle-earth sent unto men,}\non\text{and true gleam of the sun, radiant above the stars!}\non\text{.} \]

In fact, in a letter from 1967, Tolkien describes how, upon encountering the Anglo-Saxon Eärendil in 1913, he was “struck by the great beauty of this word (or name), entirely coherent with the normal style of [Anglo-Saxon], but euphonic to a peculiar degree in that pleasing but not ‘delectable’ language,” and that he “adopted” him into his mythology, which he had already been forming for some years (Tolkien, 1981, p. 385). So taken was Tolkien with this figure of English mythology, in fact, that by the end of 1915 he had written no less than fourteen versions of four different poems concerning Eärendel, each of which contains explicit references to his mythology (Tolkien, 1984b, pp. 267-76).

One of the authors of this paper has elsewhere examined at some length the philological puzzle that the Anglo-Saxon Eärendel presents (Hostetter, 1991), and shown that the major aspects of Tolkien's Eärendil, the Star, the Messenger, the Eagle, the Mariner, and the Herald, were all suggested to Tolkien either by the role of the remarkably wide-spread mythological “cognates” of Eärendel in the various Germanic traditions, or by an exploration of the linguistic cognates of Eärendel in the various Germanic languages. Thus for example the aspects of Star, Messenger, and Herald are found in the Crist, among other sources, while those of Eagle and Mariner were perhaps suggested by Old English earn “eagle” and ear “sea, ocean” respectively.

In adopting Eärendel into his mythology, the Anglo-Saxon word exerted an influence on Tolkien's own languages, since as he points out:

the name [Eärendel] could not be adopted just like that: it had to be accommodated to the Elvish linguistic situation, at the same time as a place for this person was made in legend. From this, far back in the history of “Elvish”, which was beginning, after many tentative starts in boyhood, to take definite shape at the time of the name's adoption, arose eventually (a) the [Common Eldarin] stem *AYAR “Sea”... and (b) the element, or verbal base (N)IDL, “to love, be devoted to”... (Tolkien, 1981, pp. 385-6)

Thus Tolkien's own languages were shaped by an Old English word, in order to provide a fictional origin and explanation for the name of a figure taken from the mythology of England. In the same way, Tolkien's mythology was shaped by the aspects of Eärendel that he found in his philological inquiries, in order to recover for England something of the great Story of Eärendel that must once have been told, a story that already by the time of the Crist was, in the words of Tolkien's minstrel

. . . but shreds one remembers

Of golden imaginings fashioned in sleep,
\[\text{A whispered tale told by the withering embers}\]

Of old things far off that but few hearts keep.

(Tolkien, 1984b, p. 271)

Ermon and Elmir

Like most mythologies, Tolkien's mythology gives accounts of the creation of the universe and the creatures living therein. A most interesting, albeit subtle, link between Tolkien's mythology and that of the English and Germanic peoples, indeed of all the Indo-Europeans, can be seen in an early version of the tale of the awakening of Men appearing in the outlines to “Gilfanon's Tale” in The Book of Lost Tales:

The wizard Túvo told Nuin that the sleepers he had found were the new Children of Ilúvatar, and that they were waiting for light. He forbade any of the Elves to wake them or to visit those places, being frightened of the wrath of Ilúvatar; but despite this Nuin went there often and watched, sitting on a rock. Once he stumbled against a sleeper, who stirred but did not wake. At last,
overcome by curiosity, he awakened two, named Ermon and Elmir; they were dumb and very much afraid, but he taught them much of the Ilkorin tongue, for which reason he is called Nuin Father of Speech. Then came the First Dawn; and Ermon and Elmir alone of Men saw the first Sun rise in the West and come over to the Eastward Haven.


The most striking aspect of this version of the tale is the inclusion of the names of the first Men, which appear nowhere else. The only further textual information we have concerning Ermon and Elmir is that the people of Ermon alone of Men fought beside the fairies in the Battle of Palisor (Tolkien, 1984a, pp. 236-7), that an embassy was sent by Melko to Túvo, Tinwelint, and Ermon before the Battle of Unnumbered Tears (Tolkien, 1984a, pp. 238-9), and that Ermon (or both Ermon and Elmir) was the ancestor of Inq, King of Luthany (Tolkien, 1984b, p. 305).

Although Christopher Tolkien does not give etymologies for the names, he does give a very informative note:

Above Ermon is written, to all appearance, the Old English word Æsc (“ash”). It seems conceivable that this is an anglicizing of Old Norse Ask (“ash”), in the northern mythology the name of the first man, who with the first woman (Embla) were made by the Gods out of two trees that they found on the seashore (Tolkien, 1984a, p. 245, n. 9).

The story of Askr and Embla is told in strophes 17 and 18 of Völuspá:

Unz prî(a)r kvâmu őr ðvi lîði
ôfgîr ok âstgîr Æsrît at ësåi;
fundu a la rdu litt megandi
Ask ok Emblu, vërglussa.

Qnd ðau né âttu, őð ðau né hofðu,
la né laütî, né lutî goða;
ond gaf Òðtan, őð gaf Hænir,
la gaf Lóðurr ok liht gøða.

To the coast then came, kind and mighty, from the gathered gods three great Æsir; on the land they found, of little strength, Ask and Embla, unfated yet.

Sense they possessed not, soul they had not, being nor bearing, nor blooming hue; soul gave Òthin, sense gave Hænir, being, Lóthur, and blooming hue.


Askr and Embla are apparently names of trees. Askr at any rate denotes the ash tree (Fraxinus excelsior) or something made from its wood, such as a spear, a small ship, or a small wooden vessel (Loewenthal, 1922, p. 275, Jóhanesson, 1956, pp. 90-1, Cleasby/Vigfusson, 1957, p. 25, de Vries, 1962, p. 15), and furthermore has the poetic meanings “leader, man” and also “horse” (Holthausen, 1948, p. 3). OE æsc and its Germanic cognates are derived from the Indo-European root *ós-s “ash”. All scholars appear to agree on the connection between the name of the first man in Völuspá and this root.

The meaning of the name Embla, however, has been the topic of much debate. Jacob Grimm states that embla denotes a “busy woman”, and thus does not connect it to a plant name of any kind. Sophus Bugge notes, however, that “The man’s name, ‘ash,’ shows that the woman’s must also be that of a tree. I believe Embla to have arisen from Danish Elmbla, a diminutive of almr, ‘elm.’” (1899, pp. xxviii). Hans Sperber disagrees with Bugge on the basis of the loss of ì in stressed position and his inadequate explanation of the etymological b, and suggests instead that it comes from a Germanic *amiblôn related to Gk. ἁμίμος “vine” and perhaps also to Gallic amella “honeysuckle” (Sperber, 1910, pp. 219-22). He gives as supporting evidence the manner in which the Indo-Europeans made fire, namely by boring a stick of a hardwood such as ash into a piece of softer wood, preferably that of some sort of climbing plant (pp. 220-1). The sexual connotations of this are clear, and the name “vine” for the first woman is thus appropriate. Loewenthal variously derives it from IE *amîlîa, which he interprets as denoting some species of rowan (mountain-ash, genus Sorbus) (1922, pp. 275-8), or from IE *amêla “yellow-wood” via Gmc. *amîlôn “alder” (1924, pp. 80-1). The various etymological dictionaries tend to be noncommittal (e.g. Holthausen, 1948, p. 3; Jóhanesson, 1956, pp. 22, 88; de Vries, 1962, pp. 101-2), whereas translators of the Eddas tend to prefer “elm” (e.g. Bray, 1908, p. 283, Auden/Taylor, 1981, p. 247) or “vine” (e.g. Hollander, 1962, p. 3).

Now that we have examined the etymologies of Askr and Embla, what can we say about the etymologies of Ermon and Elmir? No derivations are given in The Book of Lost Tales, but the name Elmir is remarkably similar to elm, one of the candidates for the meaning of Embla. It should also be noted that when Tolkien was writing this version of the creation myth, Bugge’s hypothesis that Embla means “elm” had been around for about a decade and a half in a book published in England in an English translation, whereas the other theories mentioned above, if in existence by that time at all, appeared in German in German journals. We might assume, therefore, that “elm” was the prevailing interpretation of Embla in England at that time and thus the meaning that Tolkien intended for Elmir. Not only does the name resemble the English word elm, but also Elvish words with that meaning: Qenya alaimê (whence Alaiminorë “Land of Elms”), Gnoshim lalm or larn, and lalmir (Tolkien, 1984a, p. 249).

On the other hand, while Ermon, as indicated by Tolkien’s gloss, is clearly equivalent to Æsc, the first man of English
mythology, his name bears no similarity to ash or its cognates. Furthermore, there do not appear to be any tree names in the Elvish languages with a form similar to this name. How then does Ermon fit into this schema and correspond to Askr? In strophe 19 of Voluspá, immediately following the Askr and Embla story, we have another occurrence of the word askr:

Ask veit ek standa, heitir Yggdrasil,

hár baðm, ausinn hvita aur;

þaðan koma doggyvar, þars í dala falla,
stendi æ yfir græn Úrsliebrunn.

"An ash I know, hight Yggdrasil,

the mighty tree moist with white dews;

thence come the floods that fall adown;

evergreen o’ertops Urth’s well this tree."

(Nordal, 1980, p. 36; translation Hollander, 1962, p.4)

This ash, Yggdrasil, is the World Tree of Norse mythology, the center of the universe, linking the nine worlds (Davidson, 1964, pp. 190-6). This notion of a World Tree was widespread among the Indo-European and Finno-Ugric peoples, by whom such a tree was revered. Sacred trees and (simply) sacred posts and pillars were not uncommon among these peoples (Meringer, 1904, pp. 165-6 and 1907, pp. 296-306, de Vries, 1952, pp. 19-20, Turville-Petre, 1962, p. 242, Davidson, 1964, pp. 190-1). In fact, Old Norse dss, ðss means both “beam, girder” and “god, one of the Æsir”, and Meringer gives numerous examples of the widespread worship of wooden blocks, stakes, and pillars among the various branches of the Indo-European family (Meringer, 1907, pp. 296-306). Among the revered posts that he mentions is the Greek Herme (anglicized as herm) (Fox, 1916), which he derives from ἕρμα “Balken” (“beam, girder”) and regards as something of an intermediate stage between a bare pole and an anthropomorphic idol (Meringer, 1904, pp. 165-6 and 1907, p. 299). The herm, according to Fox, is a “developed fetish-form of Hermes” which consists of a tall square column with stumps of arms and a phallos, and is surmounted by a bearded head . . .” (Fox, 1916, p. 195) Is Ermon then connected with Hermes? We will return to this question shortly.

Another venerated pillar mentioned by Meringer is the Irminsúl (Meringer, 1907, p. 300). In his Translatio S. Alexandri (A.D. 851) (Pertz, 1976ff., p. II.676), Ruudolf of Fulda writes that the Saxons worshipped a wooden pillar which they called Irminsul, meaning “column of the universe, supporting all things”. A pillar with this name, a center of the religion of the Saxons, was located near Heresburg (modern-day Stadtbergen) in Westphalia. As noted by Grimm, the idea of such a World Pillar is very closely related to the Yggdrasill of the Scandinavian myths (Grimm, 1875, p. II.667). For example, Yggdrasill’s roots stretched out in three directions, whereas the Irminsúl was the hub from which three or four roads emanated. There is also the obvious parallel in their common function of supporting the universe.

The element irmin- in Irminsúl is certainly nearer in form to Tolkien’s Ermon than is Hermes, since it shares all three consonants. That the vowels do not show an exact correspondence is not surprising, since the vocalism of this element within the Germanic cognates is rather variable; the word Irminsúl alone has a number of variant spellings in the old documents, including irmansul, yrmensul, ermansul, and hirmensul (Grimm, 1875, pp. I.95-8). The first element irmin and its cognates in other Germanic dialects display an even wider variety of vowels. (Voltaire is said to have observed that etymology is a science in which the consonants count for very little, and the vowels for nothing at all.) But what does Irminsúl mean? The element sül is the predecessor of modern German Säule “pillar” and irmansul is rendered as colossus or altissima columna “very high column” in various Old High German glosses (Grimm, 1875, pp. I.95-6). The element irmin is therefore taken by Grimm to have an augmentative effect on the nouns with which it is compounded (Grimm, 1875, p. I.97); thus irmingot (the highest god, the god of all), irminman (an elevated term for “man”), irminthiod (the human race), and so on.

This element is present in all the old Germanic languages. Holthausen gives the reconstructed Gothic forms *airmán-s, *airmin-s = “great, mighty” for the element, present in such personal names Ermanaricus (Erminaricus) and Ermanagildus (Erminagildus), and relates this vocable to Old Icelandic jœrman-, seen in such forms as Jœrmunrekr, the cognate form of Ermanaricus, king of the Goths, jœrmungrund “the wide earth”, and Jœrmungaðr, the name of the serpent that surrounds the world (Holthausen, 1934, p. 4, 1963, p. 92). He also relates it to Anglo-Saxon eormen-, seen in such forms as eormencyn(n) “mankind”, which occurs in Beowulf; and to Old Saxon irmin-, seen in such forms as irminthiod “the people of the earth”, which occurs in the Hëliand.8 Cleasby

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7 According to numerous chronicle entries for the year 772, Charlemagne, in the course of converting the Saxons to Christianity, destroyed this symbol of heathendom (Grimm, 1875, p. I.96, Davidson, 1964, p. 196). Thus we have in the Annals written by Einhard of Fulda in the early ninth century (Pertz, 1976ff., p. I.348), for example: “Karolus Saxoniam bello aggressus, Eresburgum castrum cepit, et idolum Irminsul destruit” (see Grimm, 1875, pp. I.96-7; cf. Pertz, 1976ff., pp. I.16, I.30, I.88, I.117, I.150-1, I.228, I.295, I.557, II.376, III.37, etc.).

8 Which we may note here is remarkably similar to the Adënaic word sulum “mast” (Tolkien, 1992, p. 419).

9 Grimm (1875, pp. I.98, II.667, III.45) in fact uses the modernized forms Irmanseul and Irmanseule.

10 Holthausen (1934, p. 4, 1963, p. 92) further lists as cognates Greek ἑρμα-ς “hoch” [=“high”]; Old Slavic ræmâ “stark, gewaltig” [=“strong, mighty”]; Lithuanian erma-s “Unterheuer” [=“monster”], erna-s “übergroß” [=“overlarge”], erminga-s “ungemächlich” [=“informal”]; Albanian jerm “rasend” [=“raving”]; Armenian arman “Wunder” [=“wonder”]. He later (1948, p. 146) relates these to the copulative stem seen in Old English eart “art” (2. sg. pres.) and earon “are” (pl. pres.) and to the stem seen in Latin orior “I rise”, and in this connection it is interesting to note the Eldarin base ORO- “up; rise; high”, whence Old Noldorin orie, Noldorin erio “rise”, and the related base ÔR–NI- “high tree”. Walde (1927-32, pp. I.136-9) gives Germanic *erma-, *irmino- = “great” as a derivative of an Indo-European
and Vigfusson define Old Icelandic *Irmin- as “a prefix in a few old mythical words, implying something huge, vast, superhuman” (Cleasby/Vigfusson, 1957, p. 328). Bosworth defines the Old English forms *eorman, eorman as “Universal, immense, whole, general” and *Irmen as “A word occurring mostly as a prefix with the idea of greatness, universality” (Bosworth, 1882, pp. 254, 599). Bearing this aspect of universality in mind, it is quite interesting to note that a word *Irmin with a similar sense appears in Tolkien’s *Qenya Lexicon, which is contemporary with the Lost Tales and thus with the story of Ermion and Elmir. *Irmin is listed in the *Qenya Lexicon under the root IRI “dwell ?” and is glossed “the inhabited world – the whole of the created world not only earth.”

This explains how the Germanic element *Irmin links with the Elvish word *irmin, but how do these connect with our primordial man, *Erman? We have already seen how Germanic *irmin- could be used as an augmentative prefix. But *Irmin also appears in a proper name in its own right.

In chapter 12 of his Res Gestae Saxonicae (c.968), the monk Widukind wrote that the Saxons, after having triumphed over the Thuringians in the year 830, erected an altar at the eastern gateway of the town they had captured. This altar, according to Widukind, was in the form of a column imitating Hercules, positioned with respect to the sun (Apollo) and bearing the name of the god Mars, which appeared as Hirmin, a form of the Greek name Hermes (Hermes): “quia Hirmin vel Hermes Graece Mars dicitur” (Pertz, 1976ff, p. III.423, de Vries, 1952, p. 18, Grimm, 1875, pp. I.292-3). The column is thus clearly an Irminisul, but Widukind has the Greco-Roman gods confused: Mars corresponds to Ares, and Mercury corresponds to Hermes. Grimm believes that this is an indication that the Saxon Hirmin was a mixture of both Mars and Mercury, who is equated with the Germanic god *Wōdana (Old Saxon Wōdan, Old Norse Ōðinn; cf. Old English Wōnesdæg for Dies Mercuriæ) (Grimm, 1875, pp. I.293 and Dumézil, 1973, p. 19).

Further evidence of a correlation between (H)irmin and Mercury/Wōdan can be seen in a twelfth-century chronicle: “if einer yrmsisile stuont ein abgot ungehiure, den hienen sie ir koufman” (“upon an irminisul stood a monstrous idol, whom they called their merchant”), since Mercury/Wōdan was the patron god of merchants (Fox, 1916, pp. 194-5, Davidson, 1964, pp. 56, 140-1). Perhaps the most telling evidence can be seen in the name Jormunr, which is a sobriquet of the Norse god Óðinn (Jóhannesson, 1956, p. 64, Cleasby/Vigfusson, 1957, p. 328, de Vries, 1962, p. 295), whom many Germanic tribes claimed as their progenitor.

The name of Irmin also appears in the name of specific Germanic peoples. Tacitus tells us in his Germania that the three main branches of the Germanic people, the Ingaeones, Herminones, and Istaevones, were named after the three sons of Mannus “man” (Much, 1967, pp. 44, 51-60, also Much, 1900, pp. 72-3 and Grimm, 1875, pp. I.285-94, III.398-401). Grimm connects Herminones with a progenitor Irmin, saying: “The ancestor of the Herminones was without a doubt named Hermin, i.e. Irmin, whom later legend knows as a divine hero” (Grimm, 1875, pp. I.291-5, III.399). Grimm further claims that Istaevones should be read as Iscaevones (Grimm, 1875, pp. I.289-90, III.399), with its eponymous founder, Isciuo or Isco, corresponding to the Old Norse Askr and Old English Æsc, whom as we have seen Tolkien equates with Ermon. Irmin may even be present in the name Germani itself. According to one of the several etymologies for this name listed by Elston, it is a compound of a prefix *ga- and the Germanic stem *ermina-, and thus the name Germani may indicate some such idea as “the members of a great people” (Elston, 1934, p. 24).

It is clear then that English and Germanic mythology maintained a tradition of a progenitor whose name was a cognate of Irmin, which was also used adjectivally to mean “great, large” or “universal”. But in fact this tradition is far older than the common Germanic period, extending in all likelihood back to the proto-Indo-Europeans. There is, for instance, an Indo-Iranian god Aryaman whom Georges Dumézil, in Le Troisième Souverain (1949), interprets as a god of the “third function”, i.e. of the agricultural class, as opposed to priests and warriors, and thus connected with the well-being of the common people, their crops, and their livestock. Dumézil also demonstrates the correspondences in name, function, and mythical deeds between the Indic Aryaman and a figure of Irish mythology, Eremon, who became the first king of Ireland after its conquest by the sons of Mile (Dumézil, 1949, pp. 163-85 and d’Arbois de Jubainville, 1903, p. 147). According to Dumézil:

[Eremon] is king with the same title as those of Mitra and Varuna; he joins them functionally since he plays the same role, that of introducing a new peopling . . . Finally, jointly and separately without doubt from the word aire (*aryak-), this Eremon is the chief of the
ancestors of the present-day airig, of the present-day Irish masses and not of those prehistoric Irish, which were the gods, the Tuatha dé Danann.

(Dumézil, 1949, pp. 170-1)\(^\text{14}\)

The Irish Eremon’s connection with Tolkien’s Ermon is thus clear: both mark the beginning of a new race, the race of Men\(^\text{15}\).

We are not claiming that all of these figures and concepts were in Tolkien’s mind when he decided to name his first human Ermon. Nevertheless, it can hardly be a mere coincidence that Tolkien’s name for the first human should resemble so many names of founders of dynasties and eponymous gods and heroes. It is clear that Tolkien consciously chose the names Ermon and Elmir for the first Men in order to connect his mythology with English and Germanic tradition.

\(\text{Æ}lfwine\)

No discussion of Tolkien’s creation of a mythology for England would be complete without at least a cursory discussion of the story of \(\text{Æ}lfwine\), which is without a doubt its fullest, most complex, and most remarkable expression. Though the details of the role and significance of \(\text{Æ}lfwine\) varied considerably as Tolkien developed and refined his mythology (in fact, in the earliest version, he was not even named \(\text{Æ}lfwine\)), he serves throughout as an ambassador between Tolkien’s mythology and English legend, the agent through whom the English receive, in Anglo-Saxon, what Tolkien calls “the true tradition of the fairies”, a tradition “more true than anything to be found in Celtic lands” (Tolkien, 1984b, p. 290). \(\text{Æ}lfwine\)’s ambassadorship spans the whole History of Middle-earth series to date, from the earliest workings in The Book of Lost Tales of c.1916 through The Lost Road of 1937 to the Notion Club Papers of c.1945 in the most recent volume, Sauron Defeated.

Unfortunately, for us to fully explore the significance of \(\text{Æ}lfwine\) to Tolkien’s creation of a mythology for England would require an examination many times the length of the present discussion. In any event, the significance is so manifest and so thoroughly discussed by Christopher Tolkien that it would require an examination many times the length of the whole History of Middle-earth, in particular in The History of Eriol or \(\text{Æ}lfwine\) in The Book of Lost Tales Part II (pp. 278-334), that it would be pointless here to do more than merely summarize the most important features of the story of \(\text{Æ}lfwine\), and add a few observations of our own along the way.

In the earliest version of what would become the story of \(\text{Æ}lfwine\) (esp. Tolkien, 1984a, pp. 23-4, Tolkien, 1984b, pp. 289-94), the mortal mariner who comes to Tol Eressea, the Lonely Isle of the Elves in the middle of the Great Sea, is named Ottor Wáfre “Ottor the Restless”. Ottor, whom the Gnomes name Ernol “One who dreams alone”, is the compiler of the Parma Kuilienen, the “Golden Book”, whose tales he records in the Eressean village of Tavrobel, the “Great Haywood”, after hearing them recited by the Gnomes in Mar Vanwa Tyaliëva, the “Cottage of Lost Play” in Kortirion, the chief town of Alalminóre, the “Land of Elms”.

The most remarkable fact of this stage of the mythology is that Tol Eressea is Britain; that is, Tol Eressea is drawn east by the Vala Ulmo and the great whale Uín into the geographical position of England, and Ireland is formed when the god Óssé attempts to thwart Ulmo’s efforts and breaks off the western half of the island. Thus Kortirion is not simply modelled on Tolkien’s beloved Warwick, it is Warwick, both geographically and etymologically; and Tavrobel is the village of Great Haywood in Staffordshire (Tolkien, 1984b, pp. 291-2).

Of course, since Ottor Wáfre is thus in effect the first mortal “discoverer” of England, he could not himself be English. This is indeed the case, as we learn from the fact that Ottor took the name Angol “after the regions of his home” which, as Christopher Tolkien notes, “certainly refers to the ancient homeland of the ‘English’ before their migration across the North Sea to Britain: Old English Angel . . . the region of the Danish peninsula between the Flensburg fjord and the river Schlei, south of the modern Danish frontier” (Tolkien, 1984a, p. 24). We learn more about the pre-Eressean life of Ottor in jottings by Tolkien titled “Story of Eriol’s Life” (1984b, pp. 289-90), where it is told that “Ottor Wáfre settled on the island of Heligoland in the North Sea, and wedded a woman named Cwén; they had two sons named Hengest and Horsa . . .”

We see here the forging of an explicit link between Tolkien’s legends and English history, for Hengest and Horsa are of course the first Saxon chieftains to wrest a solid foothold in England from the Britons. According to Gildas’ De Excidio Britanniae (“On the Ruin of Britain”) about the year 450 the British king Vortigern invited Saxons, led by

\(^\text{14}\) My translation – ARS. Jan de Vries, in his 1952 article “La valeur religieuse du mot germanique Irmin”, extends Dumézil’s hypothesis into the Germanic realm, arguing against the meaning “large” normally assigned to the element irmin and drawing instead on an idea that it implied a sense of affinity, similar to that in the Sanskrit ary- “The prefix erna-, ermin- . . . corresponds to a completely different idea than that of ‘great, universal’, it circumscribes in a very special manner the community of one people” (de Vries, 1952, p. 24, my translation – ARS). Thus, according to de Vries (1952, pp. 24-5), irmin/heid does not merely designate “people of the world”, but rather “our people”, Emranarik is not only “the mighty king” but also “our own king”. Similarly, “the idea of affinity can be condensed into that of a divinity, a guarantor of the order of life, into which we find ourselves placed. A god *Erminaz seems to be the quasi-necessary complement of the word ermenaz that we just defined” (de Vries, 1952, p. 26).

\(^\text{15}\) The analogues of irmin among various Indo-European peoples may be even more widespread. This element may even be present in the name of the Armenian people. Ananikian (1964, p. 66) says of the legendary hero Armenak, the son of Hayk, that he is undoubtedly an eponymous hero of the Armenians and adds, “It is quite possible that Armenak is the same as the Teutonic Irmin and the Vedic Aryaman.” He notes further (1964, p. 389) that “Patrubani explains Armenuz [a Latinized form of the name] as Arya-Manah, ‘Aryan (noble?)-minded.’ The Vedic Aryaman seems to mean ‘friend,’ ‘comrade.’” Thus we see again de Vries’ notion of affinity and Dumézil’s Aryan element in the name.
Hengest and Horsa, to cross the North Sea and settle in Britain as auxiliary troops. When Vortigern was unable to provide adequate supplies for the unexpectedly large host that accepted his invitation, the Saxons revolted and eventually established a kingdom in Kent under Hengest’s rule.

There may also be an historical basis for Ottor Wèfre himself. Incorporated by King Ælfrid (A.D. 849-99) into his translation of Paulus Orosius’ Historiae adversum paganos is an eyewitness account of the lands and peoples of Scandinavia and the Baltic regions by an intrepid Norse mariner named Óthhere. The name Óthhere is an Old English adaptation from Old Norse Öttarr, and thus is simply a variant of the attested Old English name Óttor. Óthhere tells Ælfrid that he dwells eæra Nordsmonna norpmest “northmost of all Northmen” in a district called Hálgoland corresponding to the modern Norwegian Helgeland on the northwest coast of the Scandinavian peninsula. Óthhere also gives a brief description of the Cwënas, who harried the Norwegians from their homeland directly eastward across the Scandinavian peninsula from Hálgoland. The Cwënas were a Lappish people, known in their own tongue as the Kainualaiset, whose name as rendered into Old English was equivalent to the word for “woman”, and indeed Gwyn Jones notes that Cwënaland “acquired notes of a terra feminarum”, and was thus a sort of northern Amazonia (Jones, 1986, p. 253). It would of course be difficult to assert that Tolkien’s Ottor is the same person as Óthhere: Ottor’s home is said to be the island Helgoland, which is not the same as the Norwegian district of Hálgoland; that his wife is named Cwën may indeed have no more significance than that it is an Anglo-Saxon word meaning “woman”; and since Ottor is the father of Hengest and Horsa, who invaded England c.A.D. 450, he lived some four centuries before Óthhere, who would have flourished c.A.D. 875. But by noting that Ottor’s draught of limpe is said to have made him young again (Tolkien, 1984b, p. 290), and may have granted him an extraordinary lifespan, as it did for Ing of Luthany (Tolkien, 1984b, p. 306), we can at least remove time’s objection to equating Ottor with Óthhere. In any event, the correspondence of Óthhere – Hálgoland – Cwënas with Ottor – Heligoland – Cwën is remarkable, and must have some significance in Tolkien’s creation of the character and history of Ottor.

As Christopher Tolkien notes, the name Ælfwine, replacing the earlier Ottor Wèfre, enters with “a new conception” of the mythology, “subsequent to the writing of the Lost Tales” (Tolkien, 1984h, p. 301). In this new conception, Tolkien abandons the identification of Tol Eresseá with England, which instead exists in its own right as a land named Luthany by the Elves who for a time dwelt there under the rule of Ing, a mysterious figure about whom we will have much more to say momentarily. Because England has a separate existence from Tol Eresseá, Ælfwine is now made a man of eleventh-century Wessex who is driven from England over the sea to Tol Eresseá in flight from the Norman invaders.

Little more need be said here of the subsequent course of the figure of Ælfwine Eriol in the volumes of The History of Middle-earth published to date, since, although he plays a role in all of the subsequent material of the Elder Days (except for the brief gap of The Lays of Beleriand), his role is simply that of the chronicler or, in the case of The Lost Road and The Notion Club Papers, the receiver of the legends of the Elves. Thus he appears in The Shaping of Middle-earth only as the author or translator of the Qenta Noldorinwa (Tolkien, 1986, pp. 76-218), Tolkien’s 1930 version of his mythology, and of the various attendant Annals of Valinor (pp. 262-93) and Beleriand (pp. 294-341), portions of which are also given in Ælfwine’s “original” Anglo-Saxon versions (pp. 205-8, 337-41). The Elven-sage Rúmil of Tûn recites the earliest version of the Ainuilindalë to Ælfwine (Tolkien, 1987, pp. 155-66), and Ælfwine attests to various statements of the Lhammas, the “Account of Tongues” which he learned in Tol Eresséa (pp. 167-98); and he is the faithful translator of the first version of the Quenta Silmarillion (pp. 199-338).

In both The Lost Road (Tolkien, 1987, pp. 36-104) and The Notion Club Papers (Tolkien, 1992, pp. 269-82) he is the son of Éadwine, just one of several father-son pairs throughout time — such as the present-day Edwin and Alwin, or Oswin and Alboin, and the Númenóreans Amandil and Elendil — whose names mean “Bliss-friend” and “Elf-friend”, and who witness, either in person or through a vision, the Downfall of Númenor.

But simply because Ælfwine’s role in Tolkien’s subsequent mythology becomes less prominent than in The Book of Lost Tales is not to say that Ælfwine’s significance to an examination of Tolkien’s development of a mythology for England was ended. The mere fact that it is a man of Anglo-Saxon England who throughout receives the “true tradition” of the Elves demonstrates that Tolkien did not completely abandon his ambition of creating a mythology for England. Moreover, while English geographical and mythological elements are manifest in the story of Ælfwine, the role of Ælfwine as translator into Old English of the Elvish legends shows that the crucial third element of Tolkien’s criteria for a true English mythology, the linguistic element, is also present, since it demonstrates that Old English and the Elvish tongues coexisted in Tolkien’s mythology.

But in incorporating Old English into his mythology, one would expect Tolkien to explain how it and other languages of the Primary World fit in with his invented languages; and in fact he does just that. In §10 of the Lhammas, the “Account of Tongues” that was learned and, presumably, translated by Ælfwine in Tol Eresséa, we are told that:

The languages of Men . . . were for the most part derived remotely from the language of the Valar. For the Dark-elves . . . befriended wandering Men in sundry times and places in the most ancient days, and taught them such things as they knew . . . . Now the language of [the folk of Beor and Haleth and Hador] was greatly influenced by the Green-elves, and it was of old named Taliska . . . . Yet other Men there were, it seems, that remained east of Eredlindon, who held to their speech, and from this, closely akin to Taliska, are come after many ages of change languages that live still
In the North of the earth.
(Tolkien, 1987, pp. 179).

The significance of this passage cannot be overstated. Here Ælfwine, an Anglo-Saxon mariner, reports that "languages that live still in the North of the earth", which can hardly be other than the Indo-European languages, and which must surely include Ælfwine’s own language, are ultimately descended from the languages of the Dark-elves. Thus Ælfwine himself makes it clear that Old English and the Elvish tongues not only coexisted but, far more importantly, that they are cognate languages; that is, they are sprung from a common source.\textsuperscript{16}

Ingwë

We conclude with a discussion of Ingwë, or rather, of the two Ingwës, for there are two seemingly distinct figures of Tolkien’s mythology that bear this name. We will first discuss Ingwë King of Luthany, who appears in The History of Eriol or Ælfwine in The Book of Lost Tales, Part II, and who is often called by the Gnomish form of his name, Ing, as we shall call him here in order to distinguish the pair.

From The History of Ælfwine (Tolkien, 1984b, pp. 300-310) we learn that Ing, apparently a mortal man, was the ruler of Luthany (that is, England) when the Elves retreated there from the Great Lands on their way back to Tol Essësa. At this time, Ing was given a draught of limpë, the Elvish nectar, which endowed him with great longevity, if not immortality. After many ages of rule in Luthany, Ing set sail to rejoin the Elves in Tol Essësa, but his ship was driven far east by Òsse and wrecked on the shores of the East Danes, where he became a “half-divine king” of the peoples collectively named the Ingwaiwar. After a sojourn among the Ingwaiwar, Ing departs once again for Tol Essësa.

Meanwhile, Luthany was made into an island by the remaining Elves for their defence, but they are nonetheless subjected to seven successive invasions, including that of the Rumhoth, which is the Gnomish name for the Romans. The final invasion is by the Ingwaiwar, because they have been instructed by Ing, are kindly disposed to the remaining Elves. After many years, Ælfwine, a descendant of Ing, is born and when grown sails to Tol Essësa.

We have already mentioned Tacitus’ threefold division of the Germanic tribes into Ingaeones, (properly the Inguaeones), Herminones, and Istaevones (Germania 2). Tacitus describes the Ingaeones as dwelling “nearest the Ocean”, indicating the Baltic maritime peoples that were the parent nations of the Anglo-Saxons, including the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, and the Frisians. There can be no doubt that Tolkien’s Ingwaiwar are to be identified with the Ingaeones, a fact made manifest by the apparently Quenya names for the peoples that the Ingwaiwar comprised: the Angali, Saksani, Euti, and Firisandi.

It will certainly come as no surprise, then, that the Inguaeones are named for a semi-divine figure of Germanic legend known to the Anglo-Saxons as Ing. As Christopher Tolkien notes (Tolkien, 1984b, p. 305), there is a very brief story of Ing in the Anglo-Saxon Rune Poem:

\begin{verbatim}
[Ing] was ærest mid Eastedenum
geseyen secgyn, op he sidån eft
ofer wæg gewat, wæn eftor ran;
ðus heardingas don hele nemdu.
Ing was first among the East-danes
seen by men, until he afterwards again
departed over the waves, the wagon ran after;
thus the brave-ones named that hero.\textsuperscript{17}
\end{verbatim}

It can be seen that Tolkien’s account of the sojourn of his Ing among the East Danes agrees in all particulars with that of the Ing of the Rune Poem, which is, notably, unique to the Anglo-Saxons. It should also be noted that a name for the Danes in Anglo-Saxon poetry, notably in Beowulf, is Ingwine, literally the “friends of Ing”.

The identity of Tolkien’s Ing or Ingwë of Luthany with the Ing of the Anglo-Saxon Rune Poem is obvious, and in fact would not even require discussion here beyond Christopher Tolkien’s own treatment, were it not for the fact that there is another figure of Tolkien’s mythology named Ingwë, who also shares a remarkable association with a figure of Germanic mythology.

In his commentary in Sauron Defeated on the various versions of The Drowning of Anadône, Christopher Tolkien includes a remarkable set of notes by his father titled The theory of the work. In these notes are among the most explicit statements made by Tolkien demonstrating the intended geographical, historical, and mythological unity of Middle-earth with “our” earth. He states, for instance, that “Men ‘awoke’ first in the midst of the Great Middle Earth (Europe and Asia), and Asia was first thinly inhabited, before the Dark Ages of great cold” (Tolkien, 1992, p. 398).

In fact, in the first sketch of this passage he was even more specific, writing that “Men awoke in Mesopotamia” (Tolkien, 1992, p. 410 n. 2).

In this same passage, Tolkien continues with an explanation of the relationship of Men and Elves, who are here called the Eledäi:

Even before that time Men had spread westward (and eastward) as far as the shores of the Sea. The Eledäi withdrew into waste places or retreated westward.

The Men who journeyed westward were in general those who remained in closest touch with the true Eledäi, and for the most part they were drawn west by the rumour of a land in or beyond the Western Sea which was beautiful, and was the home of the Eledäi where all things were fair and ordered to beauty . . .

Thus it is that the more beautiful legends (containing truths) arose, of oreads, dryads, and nymphs; and of the Ljós-alfar.

(Tolkien, 1992, p. 398)

As Christopher Tolkien notes, Ljós-alfar is an Old Norse

\textsuperscript{16} The ramifications of this for the study of Tolkien’s invented languages are enormous, and form the basis of the column Words and Devices by Carl Hostetter and Patrick Wynne that appears regularly in Vinyar Tengwar, a journal of the Elvish Linguistic Fellowship, to which interested persons are directed.

\textsuperscript{17} My translation – CFH.
It is clear from this passage that the *Ljós-alfar* of Norse myth are to be seen as a legend of Western Men inspired by their close contact with the Eledári, the Elves of Tolkien's mythology. And when it is remarked that the name *Freyr* is literally "Lord", and thus simply a title of the deity who is also named *Yngvi-Freyr* or simply *Yngvi*, it becomes equally clear that *Yngvi-Freyr* of the Vanir, Lord of the *Ljós-alfar* "Light-elves", who dwells in *Alféheim* "Elf-home", is to be seen as a memory of *Ingwé* of the Vanyar, Lord of the *Calaquendi* "Light-elves", who dwells in *Eldamar* "Elvenhome". Thus just as Tolkien incorporated Irmin and Embla into his mythology as the first Men, so too did he incorporate a figure of Germanic mythology as the first and foremost of the Elves.

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We have shown that several significant figures of Tolkien's mythology - Éarendil, the saviour of Elves and Men and bearer of the only surviving Silmaril; Ermon and Elmir, the first Men; Elfwine, the Anglo-Saxon chronicler of Elvish mythology; and Ingwé, both the Lord of the Light-elves and the King of Luthany - are all derived from English and Germanic mythology, so that Tolkien could in some measure satisfy his desire for a mythology for England, a mythology that is English in both tongue and soil. By incorporating elements of English and Germanic mythology into his own mythology, Tolkien enriched both, providing a fictive unified background for the former, a continuity and heightened relevance for the latter, and a deepened significance for both. The effect of this on Tolkien's works is expressed best by Tolkien himself, though he was speaking of *Beowulf*:

its maker was telling of things already old and weighted with regret, and he expended his art in making keen that touch upon the heart which sorrows have that are both poignant and remote. If the funeral of Beowulf moved once like the echo of an ancient dirge, far-off and hopeless, it is to us as a memory brought over the hills, an echo of an echo. There is not much poetry in the world like this . . .

(Tolkien, 1984c, p. 33).

Indeed, there is not.

In describing to Milton Waldman his ambition to create a vast, unified mythology for England, Tolkien concluded that he had wanted to draw some of the great tales in fullness, and leave many only placed in the scheme, and sketched. The cycles should be linked to a majestic whole, and yet leave scope for other minds and hands, wielding paint and music and drama. Absurd.

(Tolkien, 1981, p. 145)

Absurd? To us who have come together from around the world to celebrate in England the Centenary of its greatest mythologer, Tolkien's ambition is far from absurd. Indeed, it is realized in us, for we are those other minds and hands, wielding paint and music and drama, and words, within a majestic whole.

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