

Preparing the ground: finding minor landscape names in medieval documents

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Introduction

Landscape reconstruction is often an important aspect of the work of local historians in uncovering the history of a parish. For many English parishes in particular, tithe and enclosure maps of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries—alongside contemporary field-books, surveys and terriers—help researchers to take the first steps in recreating the historic environment. Local history groups embarking upon this work often generate useful material and deposit this with county record offices for the benefit of all. However, continuing back beyond the modern period can be problematic, especially for those without the specialist skills to read and decipher medieval records. This paper recognises the important contribution that volunteer researchers make to the discipline of local and regional history and, using material developed in conjunction with volunteer groups at the Staffordshire Record Office, provides a set of guidelines and resources designed to help non-specialist researchers to access medieval documents. Specifically, these resources aid local historians in finding and recording the abundant minor landscape- and field-names written in later medieval charters.¹ The paper is also designed to illustrate the value of this work for place-name scholars, especially those working on the English Place-Name Society's (EPNS) Survey of English Place-Names,² and for historians of all kinds.

Volunteers and the English Place-Name Society

The work of volunteers has underpinned the EPNS Survey from its very beginnings. The first of the county volumes (Buckinghamshire, 1925) acknowledges in its preface the work of many more individuals than the two men named on the title page, A. Mawer and F.M. Stenton.³ This work was various, and included transcribing unpublished manuscripts, extracting name-forms from manuscripts and published sources, 'carding up', building gazetteers, and dealing with 'questions of situation and pronunciation in which the man on the spot, who has lived in the district itself, is always the best guide'.⁴ Volunteer input has remained of primary importance throughout the almost hundred-year history of the Society. The preface to *The Place-Names of Northamptonshire*, published in 1933, reveals an increased and systematic use of volunteers: the editors recorded their thanks to the Northamptonshire Education Committee for its help in securing the services of around 200 of the county's schools to collect modern field-names.⁵ The editors of *The Place-Names of Cumberland* (1952) benefited from similar help from ten schools: the appeal 'was made at a difficult time, when the staffs were faced with war-time problems, and though only a few schools were able to help us, that help was of great value'.⁶ The EPNS survey of Shropshire owes its very existence to the efforts of a group of volunteers, students at a

University of Birmingham Extra-Mural Department weekend school on Shropshire place-names. Their teacher, Dr Margaret Gelling (1924–2009), ‘was pressurised by [their] local enthusiasm into the instigation of a research group for the collection of material for a full EPNS survey’.⁷ That group was active for 27 years, and its findings are still being brought to fruition in recent and forthcoming Shropshire volumes.⁸

The breadth and detail of modern EPNS surveys make them long-term projects—their completion is the work of decades rather than months or years. The surveys include not only the names of major and minor settlements, but also those of streets, fields, streams, and patches of woodland, marsh, and waste. Documents from the Anglo-Saxon period (and sometimes earlier, from the Romano-British period) to the present day are combed for forms of place-names, both obsolete and surviving. The scale of the undertaking presents challenges, particularly in the current academic climate, and makes volunteer contributions essential. At present, the EPNS editors of Kent, Lancashire, and Staffordshire receive very significant help with the collection of source material from groups within each of those counties.⁹

Public engagement as an integral part of academic research projects is a fairly recent phenomenon, despite the long history of volunteering for the EPNS, but is becoming increasingly widespread.¹⁰ Some recent projects have harnessed the resources of hundreds of volunteers.¹¹ Working in this way can generate mutually beneficial relationships: academic researchers profit from the quantity of data a committed volunteer group can produce, and volunteer researchers in turn benefit in myriad ways. They receive training from academics who are specialists in their field, which helps to ensure that volunteers can make a real intellectual contribution to the projects they are working on, rather than simply providing data input. Frequently, this provides them with new skills that can be usefully applied in the wider world and also to their personal research projects. Following medieval palaeography training delivered by the University of Nottingham, one Staffordshire Place-Name Project volunteer observed that the course would ‘widen the range of documents I can tackle for my own research’.¹² As is the case with many of the volunteer groups run from Staffordshire Record Office (SRO), the place-name groups (one in the SRO and one in Lichfield) meet each week for one afternoon.¹³ This is naturally more advantageous for student volunteers or those who are retired, especially as many groups meet mid-week. For older researchers in particular, volunteering can provide ‘a sense of well-being, or making valuable contributions to society ... and a sense of being part of an ongoing agenda’.¹⁴ As many reports attest, the associated socio-emotional and health benefits should not be underestimated.¹⁵ Margaret King, a volunteer on the Staffordshire Place-Names Project, sums up her volunteering experience as ‘quite hard work, but also a great deal of fun’, and her article outlining her experience with the group clearly expresses her understanding that all of the volunteers are an important part of this collaborative project, and essential to its success.¹⁶

Why work on place-names?

English place-names evolved as meaningful descriptions, sometimes arising in the everyday speech of those who worked the land, sometimes bestowed by people in positions of power. They described landscape, flora and fauna, agricultural, administrative, social and religious practices—the multifarious perceptions and evaluations of past populations. Some of them—the names of most towns and villages—are at least a thousand years old. They were given in languages no longer

spoken in Britain, or in early stages of English (and other languages) no longer readily comprehensible. Minor names, such as those of fields and minor landscape features, tend to be (although are not always) much younger, and can be subject to relatively frequent replacement. Typically, they start appearing in documents from the thirteenth century and later, and are very well represented in material from the nineteenth century. The best way to decode names, of whatever age, is from spellings which originate from a time as close as possible to the point at which the names arose as meaningful labels. These spellings are, therefore, the foundations of place-name study.

The EPNS editors of the first half of the twentieth century were mostly concerned with settlement-names and with the names of significant rivers and administrative districts, although they did include other sorts of names found on the Ordnance Survey one-inch and six-inch maps. Most of these major names are entirely opaque to modern English speakers, so the editors' linguistic and historical expertise was harnessed to offer etymologies (identifying the languages and words which originally comprised the names), thus exposing a rich seam of information to be mined by scholars of all sorts. A few examples from the earliest county survey, Buckinghamshire, reveal the value of these names, and the kinds of information they contain. Historical fauna is referred to in (North and South) Crawley 'crow open woodland' (*Crauelai* 1086; Old English (OE) *crāwe*, *lēah*); Foscott 'fox's cottage(s)' (*Foxescote* 1086; Old English *fox*, *cot*); and Culverton 'wood-pigeon hill' (*Culu'don* 1199, OE *culfre*, *dūn*). Calves were farmed at Calverton (*Calvretone* 1086; OE *cealf*, *tūn*), sheep at Shipton (*Schipton* 1279; OE *scēp*, *tūn*), and goats on the wooded slope at Gayhurst (*Gateherst* 1086; OE *gāt*, *hyrst*). Flora is also recorded: nuts grew at Notley (*Nutele* 1204; OE *hnutu*), oaks at Oakley (*Achelei* 1086; OE *āc*) and aspens at Apsley (*Aspeleia* c.1210; OE *æspe*), while Willen meant 'at the willows' (*Wily* 1189; OE *welig*). Landscape character and features also appear: wet ground was noted in Marsh Gibbon (*Merse* 1086; OE *mersc*), North Marston (*Merstone* 1086; OE *mersc*), Maids' Moreton (*Mortone* 1086; OE *mōr* 'waste, swamp'), and Slough (*Slo* 1340; OE *slōh* 'mire'), and geology was a factor in the naming of (Steeple) Claydon 'clayey hill' (*Claindone* 1086; OE *clægig*, *dūn*), which stands on Oxford Clay. The precise significance of the hill-term *dūn*, 'a low hill with a fairly extensive summit which provided a good settlement-site in open country', was brought to light many years after the publication of the Buckinghamshire survey.¹⁷ It can be distinguished from other hill- and ridge-terms, such as *hōh*, used of 'ridges which rise to a point and have a concave end' and found in Ivinghoe 'ridge of Ifa's people' (*Evingehou* 1086), and Tattenhoe, whose first element is uncertain; and *beorg*, used of rounded hills and found in Grandborough 'green hill' (*Grenebeorge* c.1060).

Some names point to early travel and communications infrastructure. *Ford*-names are common, and include Fenny Stratford (*Fenni Stratford* 1252), Stony Stratford (*Stani Stratford* 1202) and Water Stratford (*Stradford* 1086). Old English *stræt* 'main road, Roman road' refers in the first two names to Watling Street, and in the third to the Roman road heading north east towards Towcester. Ward's Hurst (*Wardhurst* 1333) and Whorley Wood (*Wardeleie* 1195/14th-century MS)¹⁸ contain the OE word *weard* 'watch, look out', and have excellent views over the Icknield Way—groups moving along this ancient route would not have remained undetected for long. Fingest (*Tingeherst* mid-12th century) and Skirmett (*la Skiremote* c.1307) were sites of administrative importance: each contains an Old English word for an assembly, *þing* and *gemōt*. The first means 'wooded hill of the assembly', the second 'shire meeting'. Some of the county's hundred-names, such as Cottesloe (*Coteslau* 1086), Rowley (*rugan hlawe* 949/1200 MS), and Secklow (*Sigelai* 1086), have *hlāw* as their second or

generic element, indicating that the freemen of these hundreds met at the *hlāw*, a mound or tumulus. That legends and superstitions grew up around such features is suggested by an early name for Warren Farm, *scuccan hlaw* (792/c.1250 MS; OE *scucca*, *hlāw*) ‘mound associated with a demon or sprite’.

Here, there are riches for historians of all persuasions—landscape, social and administrative, religious and linguistic—and their interest is clear. The generally younger field-names, on the other hand, were deemed less interesting in the early years of the Survey. Until 1952 they were covered in brief summary sections at the back of EPNS volumes: Buckinghamshire devotes just over four pages to the elements and personal names found in field-names. The justification was, as the editors put it, that ‘many are without much interest, consisting largely of forms that are common in all field-names’.¹⁹ However, only eight years after the Buckinghamshire volume appeared, one of these editors, Allen Mawer, published an essay demonstrating just how valuable field- and minor names could be. This coincided with the more detailed treatment of field-names in the Northamptonshire survey, facilitated by the involvement of 200 of the county’s schools.²⁰ Not until the publication of the three-volume *Place-Names of Cumberland* (1950–1952), however, were field-names treated within the main body of the survey, after the major names of each parish and township.²¹ Since then, the county surveys have tended towards ever fuller coverage of field- and minor names. An entry for a single parish in the Leicestershire survey (1998–2016) typically contains more field-name information than that found in the entire Buckinghamshire volume.²²

The increased focus on field-names reflects the realisation that their evidence is every bit as valuable as that provided by the major place-names, and not only for agricultural history. John Field’s *A History of English Field-Names* includes chapters on common fields and enclosure, landscape and geology, woodland, size and shape, transferred names (the name of one place being used for another, different place—the recurrent field-name London being one example), tenure and endowment, structures, transport, and industry, and religious and judicial-administrative matters.²³ Many of Field’s examples are from his 1972 *Dictionary*, which draws on evidence from the medieval to the modern periods. This and its successor, Paul Cavill’s *A New Dictionary of English Field-Names*, demonstrate clearly the interest and value of field-names of all periods.²⁴ In the editorial preface to Field’s *History*, David Hey commented that, with field-names,

the amateur comes into his own. Few documents record field-names so far back in time that only a trained linguist can be trusted to interpret the evidence. With field-names that were coined in much later periods the historian who knows a locality intimately is in a far better position than the linguist to offer a convincing explanation²⁵

Nowhere is this demonstrated more effectively than in H.D.G. Foxall’s *Shropshire Field-Names*.²⁶ Foxall was one of Margaret Gelling’s weekend-school students, whose contribution to the Shropshire survey was so great that he is acknowledged on the title pages of the first six volumes. He recreated the Shropshire tithe apportionment maps of the mid-nineteenth century, redrawing them to scale by tracing Ordnance Survey maps, and copying onto them the field-names preserved in the accompanying schedules.²⁷ In doing this, Foxall (and Gelling) could study the names in relation to the fields and features to which they referred. The fruits of this contextualisation, and of his local knowledge of the Shropshire landscape, are clear in his book, whose focus is these nineteenth-century names. They reflect **shape** (Hare’s Ears, The Haunch); **soil type** (Clay Puddings, Quaking Mire, Pastrycrust);

crops (Hemp Butt, Saffron Hill, Barley Field); **industry** (Mill Meadow, Walkmill Field, Limekiln Leasow, Tanhouse Close); **rent** (Penny Rent, Guinea Furlong); **animals** (Stag Park, Brockhill, Swinesdale, Foxholes); **birds** (Kites Piece, Lapwing Leasow, Pye Pit); **trees** (Wollers [alders], Birchen Pits, Wild Peartree Piece); **archaeological features** (Bloody Romans, Great Stone Castle); **defensive arrangements** (Tuthills [OE *tōt* 'lookout'], Wart Hill [OE *weard* 'watch, lookout']); **judicial history** (Gallows, Gallitree Bank); **superstition** (Drake Hill [OE *draca*, 'dragon'], Powke Field [OE *puca* 'sprite, goblin'], Devil's Nest); and **leisure** (Skittle Croft, Race Field, Cockpit Meadow). Without specialist linguistic or onomastic training, much can be learned from the tithe apportionment about the lie of the land and its nineteenth-century inhabitants.²⁸

Earlier records are invaluable though, and may cast light on seemingly transparent nineteenth-century and later names. Thus, the Shropshire field-names Far and Near Diagonal appear to be shape- or position-names, but a seventeenth-century form, *Drakenal* (1698), reveals a rather more exciting possible origin: 'dragon's nook' (OE *draca*, *halh*).²⁹ Most records dating from the seventeenth century and later are relatively accessible to the non-specialist. The deeds, surveys, terriers, maps and plans which began to proliferate during this period often record the names of small landscape features, and are well worth investigating for this reason alone. Seventeenth-century name-forms collected by the Staffordshire Place-Name Project volunteers include references to **structures** (*Bathhouse croft*, *Brikilne*), **flora** (*Byrch croft*, *Bromycroft*), **livestock** (*Calfe Croft*, *Hogghay*), **soil improvement** (*Marl Pit Croft*), **land newly cultivated** (*Newe intacke*) or **cleared** (*Pye Riddinge* [OE *ryding* 'cleared land'], *Stocking* [OE *stoccing* 'land cleared of stumps'], **small fields** (*Plecke* [ME *plek* 'small piece of ground']), **wet fields** (*Riddings Flash* [ME *flasshe* 'marshy piece of land']), and features of **open fields** (*Clifts doale* [OE *dāl* 'share of common land'], *Hemp Butt*), striking **landscape features** (*Cloughhead* [OE **clōh* 'ravine']), and the **morbid** (*Gallowtree feild*).³⁰

Documents dating to before 1600 contain equally rich material, but are likely to present greater challenges to researchers lacking specialist linguistic and palaeographical skills, who can easily be deterred from attempting to investigate them for place-name evidence. These archival sources were written in early forms of English or in a contracted form of medieval Latin, which survives in manorial court rolls long after the close of the Middle Ages. Some of the richest sources of medieval name-forms are the earliest documents in local history collections within our county archives. Access to this earlier material can be facilitated relatively easily either within a supportive volunteering environment which offers training, or independently, as should be clear from what follows.

Volunteering on the Staffordshire Place-Names Project

The Staffordshire Place-Names Project was launched at an SRO study day in early 2017. This event generated a high level of interest and the feedback was overwhelmingly positive. The SRO has established an excellent volunteer network and a highly effective existing infrastructure within which projects are run, and the EPNS benefited from this considerable expertise in managing archival volunteer groups. The Stafford and Lichfield place-name groups focused initially on the collection of place-name forms from published and manuscript post-medieval material. Under the guidance of designated project officers, the volunteers were encouraged to work independently on their findings.³¹ The project website provided

a forum for the volunteers to write blog posts, and two members of the group published short articles in local magazines and presented their work at a second study day held in July 2017.³²

In order that the volunteers might access earlier material, they were invited to attend a short palaeography course specifically focused on extracting place-names from medieval documents, including surveys, charters and manorial records. The course was led by academic staff from the University of Nottingham, and was designed to ensure that novice palaeographers could learn to identify where they might find place-names, and to provide them with a range of tools to aid their ongoing research. In creating the course materials, special attention was paid to the fact that delegates might have little or no experience with either medieval Latin or English court hand. In a very short time, the fledgling palaeographers had made significant progress, and the majority could locate and transcribe the medieval minor landscape names that they found in the documents with increasing confidence. The feedback and enthusiasm from those undertaking the course provided the impetus for the creation of the palaeography resources both within this article and on the Institute for Name-Studies website, designed to help many other would-be palaeographers interested in using medieval documents to research their own local place-names.³³

Finding place-names in medieval documents

Medieval landscape names are often found in abundance within the typical documentary sources which are among the earliest material in local history collections within our county archives. These include later medieval charters and cartularies, and manorial documents (surveys, extents and terriers, and also manorial court and account rolls) can also be a good source. Some rentals also contain minor landscape names.³⁴ The principal repositories for medieval manuscript material in these categories are The National Archives, the British Library, the National Library of Wales and the county record offices.³⁵ In general, field-names are most likely to be found in surveys and in later medieval charters and deeds; for those new to reading medieval documents it is generally easiest to begin with conveyance charters, as they are usually formulaic. Those are the documents featured in what follows.

Field-names in medieval charters

Later medieval charters produced by freemen and burgesses survive from the thirteenth century onward, and are frequently a good source of minor landscape names. The earliest are usually undated and a date can typically only be estimated using the style of handwriting.³⁶ Legally, only freeholders could transfer land by charter, although it should not automatically be assumed that every grant was transacted between freeholders.³⁷ For the earliest charters within their collections, most archives will have produced a calendar, summarising the key information—notably the type of land transfer, the names of the parties involved, the property details, names of the witnesses, and the date if it was recorded. Frequently, but not reliably, field-names are also noted, and it is therefore worth checking these finding aids.

The greatest barriers to reading and understanding documents from this period are the language—until the fifteenth century, usually medieval Latin³⁸—and the handwriting, described by historians as court hand. The resources presented here have been designed to assist researchers with little or no palaeographical training in finding and transcribing medieval field-names. Nevertheless, some familiarity

with medieval letter forms is essential in order to read documents with any degree of confidence. Several volumes provide an overview of medieval court hand, the most useful for beginners being Johnson and Jenkinson's *English Court Hand 1066-1500* (Phillimore, 1915), since it includes a comprehensive history of individual letter forms and the abbreviations most frequently used by medieval scribes.³⁹ A number of useful websites offer resources for thirteenth- and fourteenth-century palaeography which can be studied before attempting to read original manuscript material.⁴⁰

Even with a limited understanding of later medieval letter forms, it is possible to locate and identify English field-names within Latin charters. This is because conveyance charters are generally formulaic, and understanding how they are arranged helps in narrowing down the important elements. Figure 1 outlines the main clauses within a standard later medieval conveyance charter that must be identified in order to locate field-names.⁴¹ They are summarised in Table 1 and sample clauses are given in Table 2. Once these clauses can be identified, it is usually relatively straightforward to find the section of the charter in which minor landscape names are likely to be found (usually just after the clause detailing the action and grantee). Once the correct section has been identified, it is possible to look for specific 'indicator terms' which alert the reader that field-names are likely to follow (Table 3). The following examples of Latin words usually precede field-names, and are therefore useful to look for.

Table 1 Identifying the key clauses of a medieval deed

1. The grantor	'q[uo]d Ego Margareta Messager de Tunstall' [that I Margaret Messager of Tunstall]
2. The action and the grantee	'dedi concessi et hac p[re]senti carta mea confirmaui' ⁴² Joh[ann]i Pekoc de Broml' Abb[at]is' [have given, granted and by this my present charter confirmed to John Pekoc of Abbots Bromley]
3. The property	'tres acras t[er]re cu[m] p[er]tinenc[iis] suis in feodo de Broml' Bagot iacentes apud <i>le gorstes</i> iuxta <i>le Breche</i> int[er] t[er]ram d[omi]ni ex p[ar]te vna in latitudine et t[er]ram quondam Ade Wiyer et extendunt se sup[er] t[er]ra q[uo]nd[am] Rob[er]ti de Tunstall' [three acres of land with its appurtenances in the fee of Bagots Bromley, lying at <i>le gorstes</i> next to <i>le Breche</i> , between the lord's land on one side in width, and the land sometime belonging to Adam Wiyer, and extending onto the land sometime belonging to Robert of Tunstall]
4. The tenure	'H[ab]e[n]d[um] et tenend[um]...' [To have and to hold ...]

Table 2 Samples of the main clauses in later medieval conveyance charters

clause	key Latin phrases	English translation
1 first party	Ego [Margareta Messenger]	I [Margaret Messenger]
2 action and second party (i)	Dedi, concessi et hac presenti carta confirmaui [Johanni Pekoc]	Have given, granted and by this my present charter confirmed to [John Pekoc]
action and second party (ii)	Dedi, vendidi et hac presenti carta confirmauimus Ricardo atte Hulle et Cristine uxori sue et heredibus suis	Have given, granted and by this my present charter confirmed to Richard atte Hulle and Christina his wife, and their heirs
3 property (i)	Tres acras t[er]re cu[m] p[er]tinenc[iis] suis in feodo de Broml' Bagot iacentes apud <i>le gorstes iuxta le Breche</i>	Three acres of land with its appurtenances in the fee of Bagots Bromley, lying at <i>le gorstes</i> next to <i>le Breche</i>
property (ii)	Omnia terras et tenementa, prata, pascua et pasturas cum omnibus pertinenciis suis in villa et campis de ...	All lands and tenements, meadows, grazings and pasture with all their appurtenances in the vill and fields of ...
property (iii)	Unum messuagium cum curtilagiis et gardinis adiacentis ...	A messuage with the curtilages and gardens adjacent ...
4 tenure	Habendum et tenendum ...	To have and to hold ...

Finding field-names: indicator terms in charters

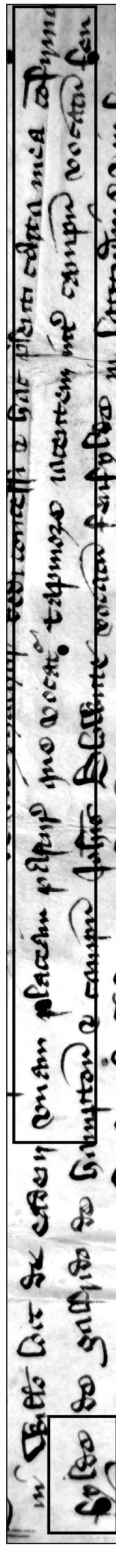
In the following section, the most useful indicator terms are assessed in detail, alongside examples from later medieval charters. As a supplement to this article, additional examples of these terms (together with those featured here) can be found using a permanent link on our website at <https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/go/medievalfieldnames/>. This allows for a much greater range of documents to be featured, and also enables users to increase the size of the images to read them more easily.

Table 3 Some useful indicator terms in later medieval charters

indicator term	translation	indicator term	translation
<i>abuttans</i>	'abutting'	<i>quarum</i>	'of which'
<i>apud</i>	'at'	<i>situato</i>	'situated at'
<i>iacens, iacet</i>	'lying', it lies'	<i>super</i>	'on'
<i>iuxta</i>	'next to'	<i>vocatur, vocatus</i>	'is called'

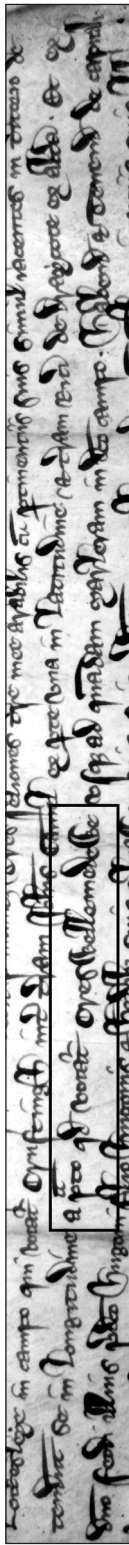
Note: primary indicator terms are in bold type

Figure 2 *Vocatur, vocatus* ['called']



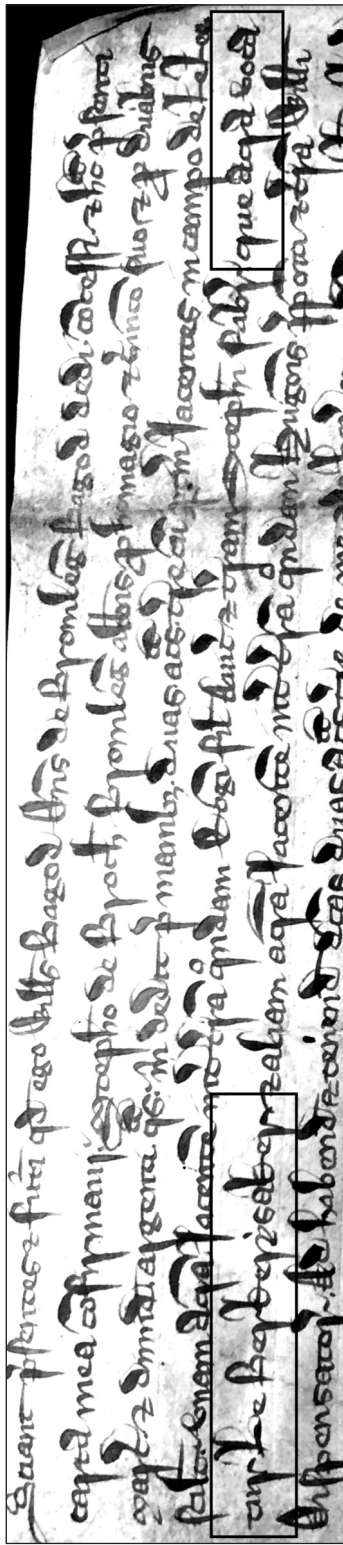
2.1 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/40

'... vnam placeam pastur[am] que vocat[ur] tapmore iacentem int[er] campu[m] vocatu[m] fenfylde ...'
[... a plot of pasture which is called *tapmore*, lying between the field called *fenfylde* ...]



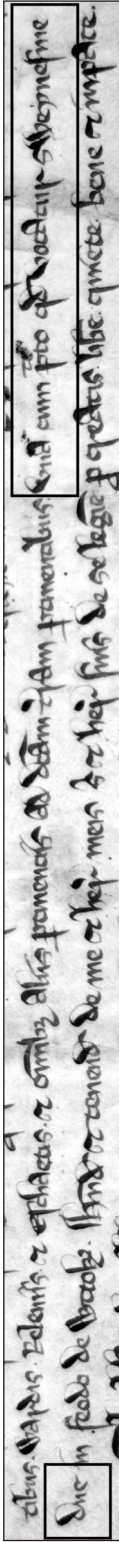
2.2 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/17

'... a p[er]alto quou[er]d vocat[ur] Cresvelmedeue ...'
[... from the meadow that is called *Cresvelmedeue* ...]



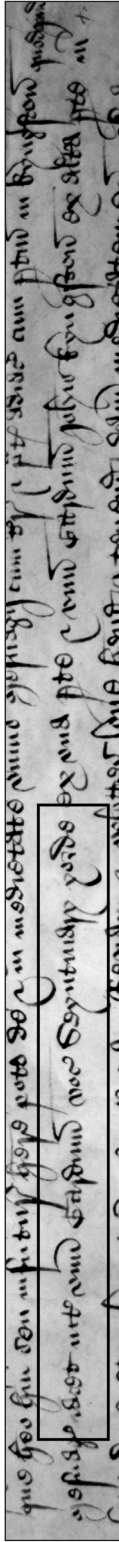
2.3 SRO/D(W)1721/3/26/5

'... que acra vocatur *Le Berkersaker* ...'
[... which acre is called *Le Berkersaker* ...]



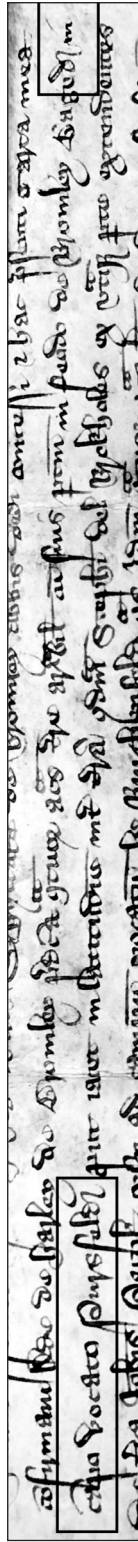
2.4 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/12

'... vna cum p[ra]lto q[uo]d vocatur Sueynesmedue ...'
[... together with the meadow that is called Sueynesmedue ...]



2.5 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/118

'... iacet int[er] vnu[m] Gardinu[m] vocatur Seyntmary yorde ...'
[... lies between a garden called Seyntmary yorde (yard) ...]



2.6 SRO/D(W)1721/3/30/12

'... in cal[m]po vocato Pursfeld ...'
[... in the field called Pursfeld ...]

Of all the indicator terms, *vocatur* (or, occasionally, *dicitur*) ‘called’ is the most useful, since in every instance we can expect it to be followed by a name. Therefore, for those searching for landscape names, it is worth becoming familiar with this term and the various ways in which scribes reproduced it. In examples 2.1 and 2.2 note that it has been abbreviated to *vocat*, and that a superscript ‘ur’ symbol completes the word.⁴³ This kind of abbreviation is common: a comprehensive list of the symbols used for abbreviations can be found in Johnson and Jenkinson’s *English Court Hand 1066-1500*. Here, the two scribes have written the ‘ur’ symbol quite differently. In 2.1 it looks a little bit like a drawing of a tadpole or a hook, and in 2.2 it resembles the symbol for a modern ‘2’. These are the two principal ways in which medieval scribes wrote this symbol. In example 2.3 *vocatur* has been written out in full, though split between two lines of text: ‘*voca*’ at the end of line four, and ‘*tur*’ at the beginning of line five. In 2.4, although *vocatur* is written in full, the field-name that follows is split over two lines of text, which is not untypical. In 2.5 the scribe has simply written the first three letters of *vocatur*: *voc*’. There are two examples in which the past participle has been used. In 2.1 the scribe has used *vocatu[m]* for the second use of this word. This is written in the accusative case, linked with the word ‘between’. In 2.6 the ablative form is used: *vocato*, linked with the word ‘in’. This is a common way for medieval charter scribes to construct a sentence containing *vocatus*, and it should be noted that the word ending changes according to the case used. When used in conjunction with place-names, the past participles are usually found in the accusative, ablative or dative forms. Table 4 gives the declension of *vocatus*.⁴⁴ Additionally, medieval scribes might sometimes shorten any of these forms to *voc*’.

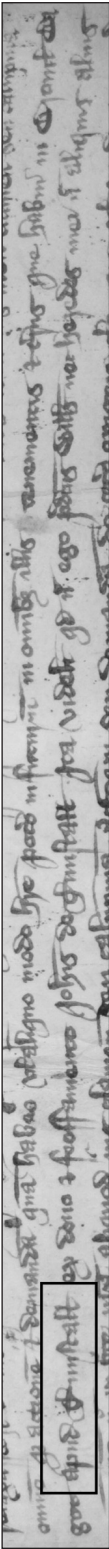
Table 4 The declension of Latin *vocatus* (past participle)

	singular			plural		
case/gender	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter
nominative	vocatus	vocata	vocatum	vocati	vocata	vocata
accusative	vocatum	vocatam	vocatum	vocatos	vocatas	vocata
genitive	vocati	vocata	vocati	vocatorum	vocatarum	vocatorum
dative	vocato	vocata	vocato	vocatis	vocatis	vocatis
ablative	vocato	vocata	vocato	vocatis	vocatis	vocatis

Apud ‘at’ is another useful indicator term (Figure 3). In figures 3.1 - 3.3 *apud*, ‘at’, is written out in full, but in 3.4 - 3.6, typical abbreviations are used: in the first abbreviated form, the first two letters are written out, followed by a superscript /d/, while the second abbreviation consists of a simple contraction, with the horizontal pen stroke through the final /d/ indicating a missing letter; in this case /u/. Example 3.6 features the first two letters of *apud*, above which is a **tilde** – a mark used to let the reader know that there are letters missing. For finding place-names, *vocatur*, and its derivatives, and *apud* are the most useful terms, since they are almost always followed by a name.

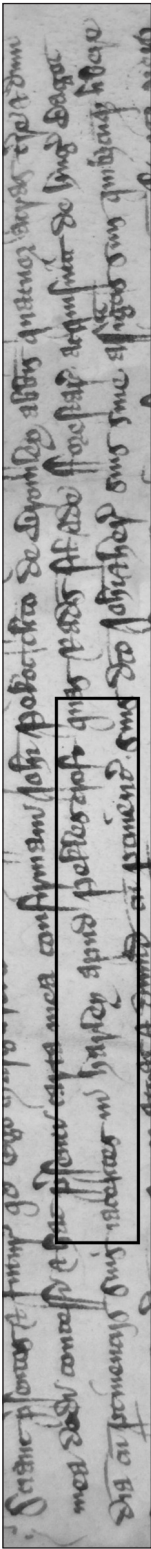
Nevertheless, *iacet* ‘[it] lies’ and *iacens* ‘lying’ are also very helpful because they are often used in later medieval charters to indicate where a particular plot of land lies and frequently these are in named places (Figure 4). In general, two forms of the verb ‘to lie’ are used to indicate where the transferred land is situated. The straightforward present tense form *iacet* is occasionally used, as indicated in example 4.1. The more commonly used form, *iacens*, is the present participle form of the verb, translated as ‘lying’. It declines in accordance with the relevant case (Table 5). In

Figure 3 *apud* ['at']



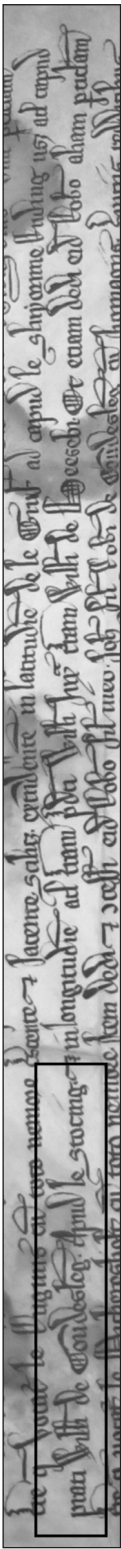
3.1 SRO/D(W)1721/3/1/9

'... apud Tunstall[e] ...'
[... at Tunstall[e] ...]



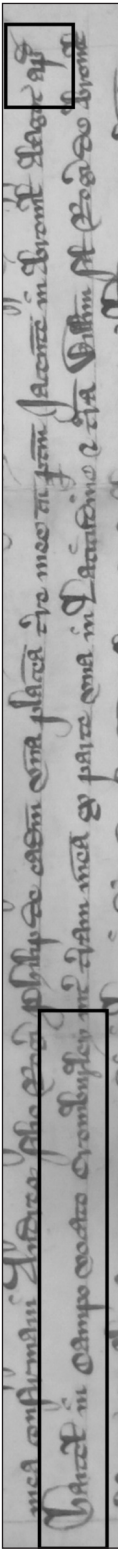
3.2 SRO/D(W)1721/3/2/12

'... iacentes in Harley apud Peklescroft ...'
[... lying in Harley at Peklescroft ...]

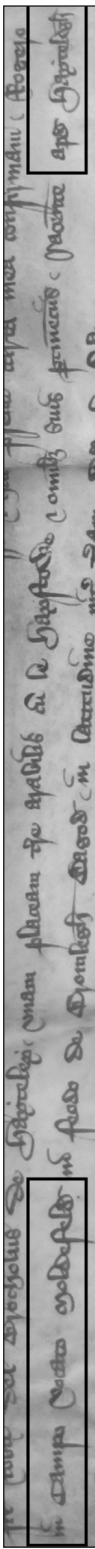


3.3 SRO/D(W)1721/3/25/4

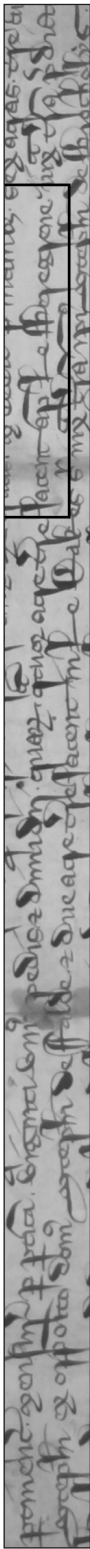
'... prati Will[elm]i de Cou[n]desleg[h] Apud le stocing ...'
[... the meadow of William of Coundesley at le stocing ...]



3.4 SRO/D(W)1721/3/21/2 ‘... ap[u]ld Haitell[e] in Campo vocato Cromburley ...’
[... at Haitell[e] in the field called Cromburley ...]

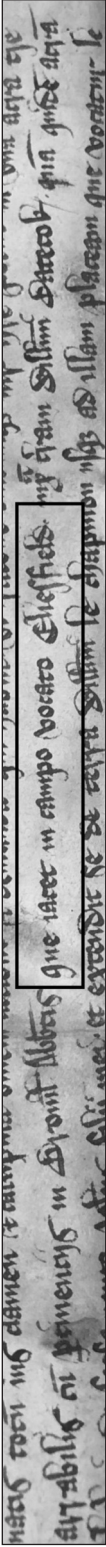


3.5 SRO/D(W)1721/3/21/13 ‘... ap[u]ld Hayteleghe[e] in Campo vocato Moldefeld[e] ...’
[... at Hayteleghe[e] in the field called Moldefeld[e] ...]

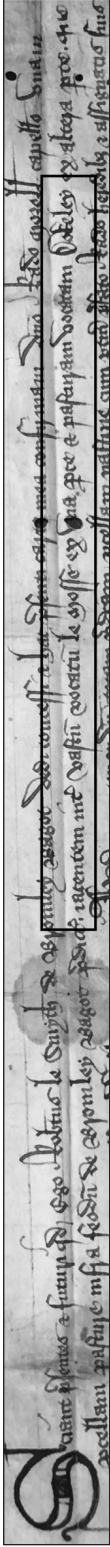


3.6 SRO/D(W)1721/3/24/4 ‘... iacent[em] ap[ud] Le Berengene ...’
[... Lying at Le Berengene ...]

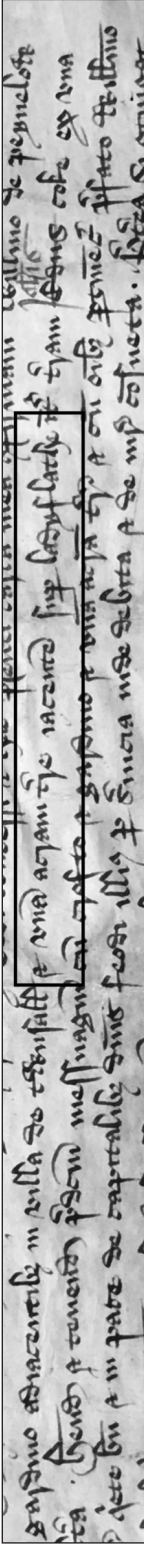
Figure 4 *iacet* and *iacens* ['lies, lying']



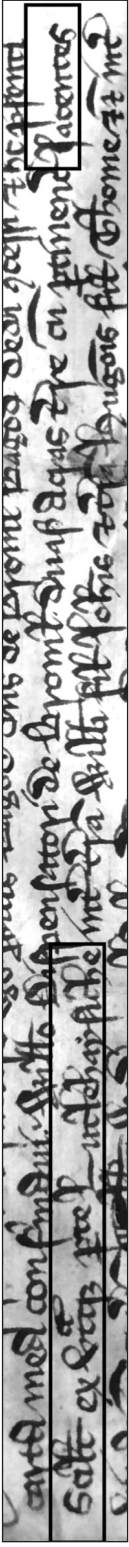
4.1 SRO/D(W)1721/3/30b/2



4.2 SRO/D(W)1721/3/31/12



4.3 SRO/D(W)1721/3/31/18



4.4 SRO/D(W)1721/3/26/3

examples 4.2 and 4.3, because *inter* ‘between’ and *super* ‘on, above’ take the accusative case, it becomes *iacentem*. The nominative plural form is used in 4.4 because in this instance two acres of land are being transferred. This is not as complex as it seems, but it is important to remember that however *iacens* declines, the stem form is always *iacen-* which makes it easy to look for when scanning the document for field-names.

Table 5 The declension of Latin *iacens* (present participle)

	singular			plural		
case/gender	masculine	feminine	neuter	masculine	feminine	neuter
nominative	iacens	iacens	iacens	iacentes	iacentes	iacentia
accusative	iacentem	iacentem	iacens	iacentes	iacentes	iacentia
genitive	iacentis	iacentis	iacentis	iacentium	iacentium	iacentium
dative	iacenti	iacenti	iacenti	iacentibus	iacentibus	iacentibus
ablative	iacente	iacente	iacente	iacentibus	iacentibus	iacentibus

The remaining indicator terms listed in Table 2 are secondary, and usually appear in conjunction with one of the primary terms listed above. They are useful to know and to be able to recognise, as they can signal place-names in charters.⁴⁵ Examples of these words in medieval charters can be found by visiting our website.⁴⁶ In addition to these terms, another group of words can indicate the position of the fields being named, and these are useful words to look out for (Table 6).

Finding field-names: some typical generic field-name elements

In addition to the finding aids outlined in the preceding section, it is helpful when locating minor landscape names to have some idea of how they are formed, and which elements are the most useful in identifying them as names. Names are usually made up of anything from one to four or five distinct parts; the final element is known as the ‘generic’, and the preceding elements are ‘qualifiers’ or ‘specifics’.⁴⁷ For example, *grenehull* has one qualifier ‘green’; and its generic is ‘hill’. The generic terms are often, but not always, words that were commonly used to describe the rural landscape in the later Middle Ages. These words are sometimes still in everyday use (like ‘hill’), but in many instances they no longer form part of our modern vocabulary. Table 7 lists many of the most common medieval generic landscape name terms, and aims to make finding field-names in charters and other medieval local history documents a little easier. In each case, there is also a list of possible variant spellings, as spelling in this period varied according to local English dialect, which was generally the language used in writing down field-names.

The resources presented here have been designed to help researchers with little or no medieval palaeography skills to begin the process of unravelling a typical medieval conveyance; to find the relevant section within the charter in which field-names are most commonly found; and to locate the field- and minor landscape names recorded therein. They provide a step-by-step approach to understanding where minor landscape names are recorded in most standard medieval conveyances.

Table 6 ‘Positional’ words used in later medieval charters

Latin	common contraction	English	Latin	common contraction	English	Latin	common contraction	English
<i>ad</i>	-	to, towards	<i>de</i>	-	from	<i>prope</i>	ƿ + pe	near
<i>a, ab</i>	-	from, by	<i>ex, extra</i>	ex	outside	<i>sub, subter</i>	sub, sb	below, beneath
<i>apud</i>	apd	at	<i>extendunt se de</i>	ex, ext se de	extending from	<i>super, supra</i>	sup	above, on
<i>circa</i>	circ + superscript /a/	about	<i>in</i>	i	in, into	<i>trans</i>	tns	across
<i>contra</i>	9 + tra	against	<i>inter</i>	int'	between	<i>ultra</i>	ult' or vlt'	beyond
<i>cum</i>	cu'	with	<i>iuxta</i>	iux + superscript /a/	next to	<i>usque ad</i>	us or vs + 3 symbol 9 + 3	as far as
<i>una cum</i>	un cu' or vn cu'	together with	<i>per</i>	ƿ	through, by	<i>versus</i>	v' + 9	towards

Table 7 Common generic landscape terms used in later medieval charters⁴⁸

OE/ON/ME element	gloss	typical Middle English spelling
æcer	plot of cultivated land; a measure of land which a yoke of oxen could plough in a day	acre, aker; acres, acris (pl.)
balca	unploughed ridge marking a boundary between selions; a bank	baulk(e), bauke, balk(e), balc(e)
banke	ridge, hill, slope, bank	banc, bank(e)
bekkr	stream	bec, bech, beck, bek
be(o)rg, berg	hill, mound	barwe, ber(h), berg(h), berge, bery
brēc	land broken up for cultivation	brech(e), breck
brekka	slope, hill	breck (outside the north-west, this is more likely to represent <i>brēc</i> , above)
brōc	brook, stream	broc, brok(e), brock
brycg	bridge	brigg, brug(e), brugge
burna	stream	borne, burn(e)
busc, buskr	bush	busc, busk(e), busche
butte	strip of land abutting a boundary; short strip or ridge at right angles to other ridges; short strip ploughed in the angle where two furlongs meet	but, butte; buttes, buttis (pl.)
clōh	clough, ravine; land in a deep dell or valley	cleugh, cloche, cloghe, clou(h)
cnoll	knoll, summit	knole, knoll(e), know(e)

OE/ON/ME element	gloss	typical Middle English spelling
cot	cottage, hut, shelter or den	cot(e)
croft	small enclosed field	croft(e)
cros	cross	cros(e), crosse
crouche	cross	crouch(e), cruch, cruce
dīc	ditch or embankment	dich, dyche(e), dyk
dæl	hollow, valley	dal(e), del(e)
dole	a share, a portion; share in the common field	dole
ende	an end; the end of something, the end of an estate; a district or quarter of a village or town	end(e), hend(e), ynd
eng	wet meadow or pasture land	eng(e), hing, hyng(e), ing(e)
erg	shieling	arg(e), erg(e), erh(e)
fal(o)d	fold	fald(e), fold(e)
f(e)alh	ploughed land; later, fallow land	falgh, faluwe, faugh, vallow(e)
feld	land for pasture or cultivation	feld(e), fild(e), fyld(e), field
fell, fjall	fell, mountain	fel, fell(e)
flasshe	pool, flooded grassland	flask(e), flaisk(e), flash(e), floch(e), floshe(e), flosshe
flat	a piece of flat ground	flat(e)
ford	ford	ford(e), forth
furlang	furlong	forlong(e), furlong(e)
gāra	a gore, a triangular plot of ground	gar(e), gore
garðr, garth	an enclosure	gard, garth(e)
gata	a road ⁴⁹	gat(e)
geard	yard	yerd(e), yord(e)
gil	ravine, narrow valley	ghil(e), gil(e), gill(e), gyl(e), gyll(e)
gote	watercourse	goat, gote, gott
grāf / græfe	grove, copse, thicket	greue, greve, groue, grove
grēne	grassy spot, a village green	grene
haugr	mound, natural or manmade	how(e), hou(e)
hæg	fence, enclosure	hay(e), hey(e)
halh	nook of land; small valley; dry ground in marsh; piece of land projecting from, or detached from, the main area of its administrative unit	all(e), hale, halugh, halw(e), haugh(e)
hēafod-land	strip of land at the head of a furlong, for turning the plough	hauelond, hauedlond, hauedelond
hethe	heath	heth(e)

OE/ON/ME element	gloss	typical Middle English spelling
hlaða	barn	lad(e), ladhe, late, lathe
hlāw	tumulus; a hill	law(e), low(e)
holmr	island, an inland promontory, raised ground in marsh, a river-meadow	holm(e)
hop	valley, remote enclosed space, enclosed land in the midst of fens	hop(e), hopp, ope, up
hyll	hill	hil(e), hul, hull(e)
hyrst	wooded hill	hurst, hyrst
kjarr	marsh overgrown with brushwood	car, carr(e), ker(e), kerr(e)
læs	pasture, meadow-land	leys, lese, lees, lesewe, leswe, lesue
land	land; an estate; possibly a new arable area; in minor and field names, a strip in a field-system	land, lond, lont; londes (pl.)
lane	lane	lone
lēah	forest, wood, glade, clearing; (later) a pasture, meadow	ley(e)
lundr	grove, small wood	lond, lound, lund
mēd	meadow	mede, medue, medewe, medo, medowe, medwe
mere	pond, pool or lake	mere ⁵⁰
mersc	marsh	merch, mersh ⁵¹
mōr	marsh, barren upland; later, open grazing land	mor(e)
mos	bog, swamp	mos(e), moss(e)
myln	mill	muln(e), miln(e), myln(e)
mýrr	swampy ground	mir(e), myer, myre
place	an open space in a town, an area surrounded by buildings; a town-house; a residence, a mansion-house	place
pōl	pool	pol(e), polle, pul
pytt	pit	pett, put, putte, putth, pytt
rode, rodu	clearing	rod(e), roid(e), royd(e)
rydding	clearing	ri(d)ding(e), ryding(e), rydyng(e)
sceaga	small wood, copse	saghe, sahe, shagh, shaw(e)
sīc	small stream, drainage channel	sech, sich(e), sych(e)
skógr	wood	scoe, scouwe, scugh, skowe
slæd	valley, meadow, marshy greensward	slade, slade scled(e)
stede	place	sted(e)
stīg	path, a narrow road	sty(e)
stigel	stile, a place devised for climbing over a fence; topographically perhaps a steep ascent	stile, steyll, style

OE/ON/ME element	gloss	typical Middle English spelling
stoccing	place cleared of tree stumps	stoccing(e), stokkyng(e), stoking(e), stocking(e)
stræt	paved (Roman) road; later 'street'	strete
þveit	clearing; meadow; paddock	thueit, thwait(e), twayte
vangr	enclosure in an open field	wong(e), wang(e)
wēg	road	wey(e), weg
wella	spring, stream	wall(e), well(e), wel
wudu	wood	wod(e), wodd

Conclusion

The increasing importance of field-names and minor landscape-names as historical evidence in local history research should not be underestimated. Medieval material of this nature can help to illuminate elements of the socio-economic outlook for a period in which there may be little detailed documentary evidence. Furthermore, landscape names, almost exceptionally, offer researchers access to the perceptions of people lower in the social hierarchy, enabling a more complete reconstruction of the local landscape. The linguistic value of field-names is also worth stressing. They preserve the agricultural, environmental and cultural vocabulary of those who worked the land, which is poorly represented in other medieval sources. The guidelines set out within this article place this previously inaccessible material within the reach of non-specialist researchers.

The success of this approach is witnessed by the treasure trove of landscape names already unearthed from medieval manuscripts by the Staffordshire Record Office volunteers. These relate to **industry** (*Lymputtes* 1297–8 'lime pits', *Wynmulnefield* 1398 'windmill field'); **pastoral farming** (*Oxemedewe* 1297–8 'ox meadow', *sheperduscrofte* 1398 'shepherd's croft', *Swynfen* 1297–8 'pig marsh'); **crops** (*le Ruyeland* 1275–1300 'rye arable land'); **flora** (*Bromhull* 1297–8 'broom hill', *le Gorstiknol* 1297 'gorsy hillock', *le Olleresshawe* 1340 'alder's small wood') and **woodland** more generally (*Gretwode* 1297–8 'great wood', *le quech* 1317 'thicket'); **fauna** (*Foxholes* 1297, *Owelcotesfeldes* 1430 'owl cottage's fields', *Wolfhurst* 1297–8 'wolf wooded slope'); and **features of the landscape**, in particular wetland (*Dedemor* 1297–8 'dead (i.e. unproductive) marsh', *Mershemedewe* 1297–8 'marsh meadow', *le snape* 1401–2 'swamp', *Wethales* 1297–8 'wet nooks') and **watercourses** (*Holebrokende* 1297–8 'hollow brook end', *Shirwelleheuede* 1297–8 'bright spring head', *Smalesich* 1297–8 'small stream').⁵²

The landscape is peopled with individuals who bear nicknames (*Pecokesfeld* 1430 'Peacock's field'), occupational names (*messengereshey* 1437 'Messenger's enclosure'), names of Old English origin (*Levericheruding* 1297–8 'Leofric's clearing', *Wilmondesruding* 1297–8 'Wilmund's clearing') and (ultimately) of Biblical origin (*Jamesbrich* 1297–8 'James's newly broken-in land').⁵³ In addition to the details of people, land-use and landscape provided by these names, they also include linguistic features characteristic of the west midlands, for example the **u** in *Lymputtes*, *Wynmulne*-, and *Bromhull* (and also *le Hulfeld* 1398), where we have standard modern English **i** (in the forms of pit, mill, and hill). The date of attestation of the name *le quech* 'the thicket' is 1317, 169 years earlier than the first citation in the Oxford English Dictionary.

The process of learning to read medieval documents proficiently typically requires students to embark upon many hours of study. So, while the resources presented in this article cannot replace a formal palaeography course in which expert tuition is offered, they provide an accessible introduction to medieval palaeography for those wishing to develop their skills. More significantly, for many researchers and volunteers who cannot make such a significant time investment, especially those simply wishing to extract information that relates to the medieval landscape of their particular village or town, they offer a guide to retrieving data that, for some researchers, might hitherto have seemed impossible to access.

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- Lancashire Place-Names Survey: www.lancspns.weebly.com/
- The National Archives Online Catalogue: www.discovery.nationalarchives.gov.uk/
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- Johnson and Jenkinson on the Internet Archive: www.archive.org/details/englishcourthand01john/

NOTES AND REFERENCES

- 1 Specifically, conveyances (otherwise known as 'gifts').
- 2 The Survey is an Academy Research Project, one of about 55 projects distinguished by the British Academy's 'kitemark of academic excellence', producing 'fundamental works of scholarship' (www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/academy-research-projects).
- 3 A. Mawer and F.M. Stenton, *The Place-Names of Buckinghamshire* (Cambridge UP, 1925) v–viii
- 4 *ibid.* v; 'carding up' involved volunteer researchers noting historical place-name spellings on slips of paper, ready for further analysis.
- 5 J.E.B. Gover, A. Mawer, and F.M. Stenton, *The Place-Names of Northamptonshire* (Cambridge UP, 1933) vi
- 6 A. Armstrong, A. Mawer, F.M. Stenton, and Bruce Dickinson, *The Place-Names of Cumberland* (Cambridge UP, 1950–2) vol.3, vii
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- 9 Place-Names Committee of Kent Archaeological Society (www.kentarchaeology.org.uk/about-us/committees/place-names-committee); Lancashire Place-Names Survey (<http://lancspns.weebly.com/>); Staffordshire Place-Name Project (<https://staffordshireplacenames.wordpress.com/> and <https://staffordshireplacenames.esdm.co.uk/>)

- 10 Ann Grand *et al*, 'Mapping public engagement with research in a UK university', *PLoS ONE* 10:4 (2015) 2; S.R. Davies, 'Research staff and public engagement: a UK study', *Higher Education* 66 (2013) 726; J. Tosh, 'Public history, civic engagement and the historical profession in Britain', *The Journal of the Historical Association* (2014) 194; although those engaged in local history research in all its forms have long connected with local communities: J. Beckett, 'Local history in its comparative international context', *The Local Historian* vol.41 no.2 (May 2011) 102
- 11 The Charnwood Roots project at the University of Leicester, for example, attracted more than 500 volunteers over its four-year lifetime: <<https://www2.le.ac.uk/departments/history/research/grants/charnwood>>; J. Attard and M. Morris, 'Digging up the past: community test-pit excavations with Charnwood Roots', *Transactions of the Leicestershire Archaeological and Historical Society* vol.92 (2018) 149.
- 12 Feedback received following medieval palaeography training at Staffordshire Record Office, May 2018.
- 13 The SRO hosts and co-manages a number of additional projects for which volunteer input is essential. These include joint initiatives with the Staffordshire Victoria County History; and with the Universities of Keele and Sussex examining poor law records ('Small bills and petty finance: co-creating the history of the old Poor Law').
- 14 J. Hendricks and S.J. Cutler, 'Volunteerism and socioemotional selectivity in later life', *Journal of Gerontology: Social Sciences*, vol.59b (2004) S252
- 15 R. Casiday *et al*, *Volunteering and health: what impact does it really have? Report to Volunteering England* (2008) 3; F. Tang, E. Choi and N. Morrow-Howell, 'Organizational support and volunteering benefits for older adults', *The Gerontologist* 50:5 (2010) 605
- 16 M. King, 'Wots-Its-Name?', *Smestow Vale Grapevine* (April 2017)
- 17 M. Gelling and A. Cole, *The Landscape of Place-Names* (Shaun Tyas, 2000) 164; see also Gelling's earlier book, *Place-Names in the Landscape* (Dent, 1984) 140–158
- 18 The form '1195/14th-century MS' indicates that the name occurs in a later copy of an earlier and now lost document.
- 19 Mawer and Stenton, *Place-Names of Buckinghamshire*, 257
- 20 A. Mawer, 'The study of field-names in relation to place-names', in J.G. Edwards, V.H. Galbraith, and E.F. Jacob (eds), *Historical Essays in Honour of James Tait* (1933) 189–200
- 21 Armstrong, Mawer, Stenton, and Dickins, *The Place-Names of Cumberland*.
- 22 Barrie Cox, *The Place-Names of Leicestershire*, 7 vols (EPNS, 1998–2016). An eighth volume, the introduction to this county survey, is in progress.
- 23 John Field, *A History of English Field-Names* (Longman, 1993)
- 24 John Field, *English Field Names: A Dictionary* (David & Charles, 1972); Paul Cavill, *A New Dictionary of English Field-Names*, with an introduction by Rebecca Gregory (EPNS, 2018)
- 25 Field, *A History of English Field-Names*, xi
- 26 H.D.G. Foxall, *Shropshire Field-Names* (Shropshire Archaeological Society, 1980)
- 27 Where tithe apportionment material did not exist, Foxall drew on estate survey maps.
- 28 For some more recent work, see the contributions by members of the Chester Society for Landscape History in Vanessa Greatorex and Mike Headon (eds), *Field-Names in Cheshire, Shropshire and North-East Wales* (Marlston Books, 2014).
- 29 Gelling with Foxall, *The Place-Names of Shropshire*, Pt.2, 97
- 30 The names are from the following SRO documents: D593/H/14/3/2, D593/J/6/1/1, B/V/6/B15-16, D554/25/1-16, D593/H/14/3/1, D240/B/2/1. For the significance of the last two names, see J. Harte, 'Down among the dead men', *Nomina* 36 (2013) 35–52, and R. Gregory, 'Some Nottinghamshire dead men', *Nomina* 38 (2015) 85–92.
- 31 Our project officers are students writing PhDs on place-names; they also benefit enormously from the experience of working with volunteers and record office staff, and from exposure to the broad range of documents on which the volunteers work.
- 32 <https://staffordshireplacenames.wordpress.com/blog/>
- 33 <https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/go/medievalfieldnames/>
- 34 For useful overviews of these sources see: J. West, *Village Records* (Phillimore, 1982); P.D.A. Harvey, *Manorial Records* (Alan Sutton, 1984); N.W. Alcock, *Old Title Deeds: a Guide for Local and Family Historians* (Phillimore, 1986).
- 35 Online catalogues are: TNA <http://discovery.nationalarchives.gov.uk/> and BL <http://explore.bl.uk/> (select 'Archives and manuscripts catalogue' from the drop-down box on the left-hand side of the menu). Medieval documents within county archive collections and at other repositories are usually also found on the TNA online catalogue, Discovery, and this is the best place to begin any search for manuscript material. The majority of the TNA collection of 'Ancient Deeds' is searchable at British History Online www.british-history.ac.uk/search/series/ancient-deeds. For a list of medieval cartularies see G.R.C. Davies, *Medieval Cartularies of Great Britain and Ireland*, revised by Claire Breay, Julian Harrison and David M. Smith (British Library, 2010). Lists of manorial documents are also searchable for most counties at <http://discovery.nationalarchives.gov.uk/manor-search>. Some inquisitions post mortem contain minor landscape names, and are searchable at <https://www.british-history.ac.uk/search/series/inquis-post-mortem> and <http://www.inquisitionspostmortem.ac.uk/>.

- 36 Alcock, *Old Title Deeds*, dating of medieval charters usually begins in the last quarter of the thirteenth century.
- 37 M.M. Postan and C.N.L. Brooke (eds), *Carte Nativoorum, a Peterborough Abbey Cartulary of the Fourteenth Century* (Northamptonshire Record Society, 1960) xli
- 38 Occasionally, charters were written in Anglo-Norman. Here, we concentrate on the Latin charters.
- 39 C. Johnson and H. Jenkinson, *English Court Hand 1066-1500* (Clarendon Press, 1915). An electronic copy is available online: <https://archive.org/details/englishcourthand01john/>. Also worth consulting is D. Stuart, *Manorial Records: an Introduction to their Transcription and Translation* (Phillimore, 1992).
- 40 There are good introductory online palaeography resources, including TNA <http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/latinpalaeography/> and University of Nottingham <https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/manuscriptsandspecialcollections/researchguidance/medievaldocuments/introduction.aspx>.
- 41 Medieval charters take several forms. Those typically used in peasant land transactions are all formulaic. Examples of the relevant clauses can be found online at <https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/go/medievalfieldnames/>.
- 42 *confirmaui* 'I have confirmed' is sometimes replaced by the Latin *vendidi* 'I have sold'.
- 43 Superscript ('above written') indicates that one or more letters have been missed out. The type of superscript symbol used usually indicates which letters are missing.
- 44 E.A. Gooder, *Latin for Local History, An Introduction* (Longman, 1978) 26 provides a useful guide to the formation of Latin participles.
- 45 The secondary indicators are very much that, and while in many instances they precede field-names, occasionally they may not. For further information, see <https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/go/medievalfieldnames/>.
- 46 <https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/go/medievalfieldnames/>
- 47 Cavill, *A New Dictionary of English Field-Names*, vi
- 48 This is not an exhaustive list. For more place-name elements see A.H. Smith, *English Place-Name Elements*, Part 1 and Part 2 (Cambridge UP, 1956).
- 49 This element can be confused with OE *gāt* 'goat', and with ME *gate*, which can be used as a northern dialect term meaning 'right or privilege of pasture for cattle': Armstrong, Mawer, Stenton and Dickens, *Place-Names of Cumberland*, Part 3, 474.
- 50 Beware, as this element is often abbreviated to *mer*', which means that it is difficult to distinguish from other elements, such as *mersc*.
- 51 Sometimes abbreviated to *mer*' or *mar*'.
- 52 SRO D(W)1721/3/29/ 3 and 9; D(W)1721/3/14/7; D(W)1721/3/19/11; D(W)1721/3/7/13; D(W)1721/3/12/16; D4038/E/1/1; D4038/E/2/1; D(W)1734/J/2268
- 53 SRO D4038/E/2/1; D4038/E/2/2; D(W)1734/J/2268

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