Preparing the Ground: Finding Minor Landscape Names in Medieval Documents

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Introduction

Landscape reconstruction is often an important aspect of local historians' role in uncovering the history of British parishes. For many English parishes in particular, surviving 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 historical environment. Local history groups embarking upon this work often generate useful material and deposit it with county record offices for the benefit of all. However, continuing further 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 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-by-county volumes, for 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the two men named on the title page, A. Mawer and F. M. Stenton.[3] This work was various, and included transcribing unpublished manuscripts, extracting name-forms from both manuscripts and published sources, 'carding up' (Figure 1), building gazetteers, and dealing with 'questions of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*, published in 1952, had 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 survey 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 nothing short of essential. At the present time, 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, and 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 either student volunteers or those who are retired, especially as many groups are held 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 socioemotional 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 very old indeed, usually 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 1″ map. 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 for scholars

of all sorts to mine. A few examples from the earliest county survey, Buckinghamshire, will 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*). 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*). 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*). Wet ground was noted in Marsh Gibbon (*Merse* 1086; OE *mersc* 'marsh'), 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 *clǣgig, 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 communication infrastructure. *Ford*-names are common, and include Fenny Stratford (*Fenni Stratford* 1252), Stony Stratford (*Stani Stratford* 1202) and Water Stratford (*Stradford* 1086). Old English *strǣt* '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)) both contain the Old English word *weard* 'watch, look out', and both 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 – Cottesloe (*Coteslau* 1086), Rowley (*rugan hlawe* 949 (MS or 1200)), 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, MS from *c.*1250; 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 to see. 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 for this was that, as the editors of that county put it, 'many are without much interest, consisting largely of forms that are common in all field-names'.[18] However, only eight years later, one of these editors, Allen Mawer, published an essay demonstrating just how valuable field- and minor names could be – and 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.[19] It was not until the publication of the three-volume *Place-Names of Cumberland* (1950–52), however, that field-names were treated within the main body of the survey, after the major names of each parish and township.[20] 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) survey typically contains more field-name information than that found in the Buckinghamshire volume as a whole.[21]

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, not only for agricultural history but for history of all sorts. 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 is one example), tenure and endowment, structures, transport, and industry, and religious and judicial-administrative matters.[22] Many of Field's examples are from his 1972 *Dictionary*, which draws on evidence from the medieval through to the later 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 ages.[23] In the Editorial Preface to Field's *History*, David Hey comments 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 explanation.[24]

Nowhere is this demonstrated more effectively than in H. D. G. Foxall's *Shropshire Field-Names*.[25] 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-19th century, redrawing them to scale by tracing Ordnance Survey maps, and copying onto them the field-names preserved in the accompanying schedules.[26] In doing this, Foxall (and Gelling) could study the names in relation to the fields and features they referred to; the fruits of this contextualisation, and of his local knowledge of the Shropshire landscape, are clear in his book, whose focus is these 19th-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, Powke Field [OE *draca* 'dragon'; OE *puca* 'sprite, goblin'], Devil's Nest), and leisure (Skittle Croft, Race Field, Cockpit Meadow). Much can be learned, without specialist linguistic or onomastic training, about the lie of the land and its nineteenth-century inhabitants from the tithe apportionment.[27]

Earlier records are, though, invaluable, and sometimes cast light on seemingly transparent nineteenth-century (and later) names. The Shropshire field-names Far and Near Diagonal appear at first glance 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*).[28] 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 at SRO include references to structures (*bathhowse 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 (*Dadmans fields*, *Gallowtree feild*).[29]

Documents dating to before about 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 a study day at the SRO in early 2017. This event generated a high level of interest, with all available places sold out very quickly, and the feedback received was overwhelmingly positive. The SRO has established both an excellent volunteer network and a highly effective existing infrastructure within which projects are run, and the EPNS benefitted from this considerable expertise in managing archival volunteer groups. The Stafford and Lichfield place-name groups focused initially on the collection of historical 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 (Figure Two).[30] 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 at the Staffordshire Record Office in July 2017.[31]

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 (Figure Three). The course was led by academic staff from the University of Nottingham, and it 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 EPNS website, designed to help many other would-be palaeographers interested in using medieval documents to research their own local place-names.[32]

Finding place-names in medieval documents

Medieval landscape names are often found in abundance within the typical documentary sources that number amongst some of the earliest documents in local history collections within our county archives. These include later medieval charters and cartularies; manorial documents – in particular surveys, extents and terriers, but also manorial court and account rolls – can also be a good source of names. And, although not their primary function, some rentals also contain minor landscape names.[33] The principal repositories for medieval manuscript material in these categories are of course the National Archives, the British Library, the National Library of Wales and the county record offices.[34] In general, field-names are more 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, and so these are the documents that will be featured in what follows.

Field-names in medieval charters

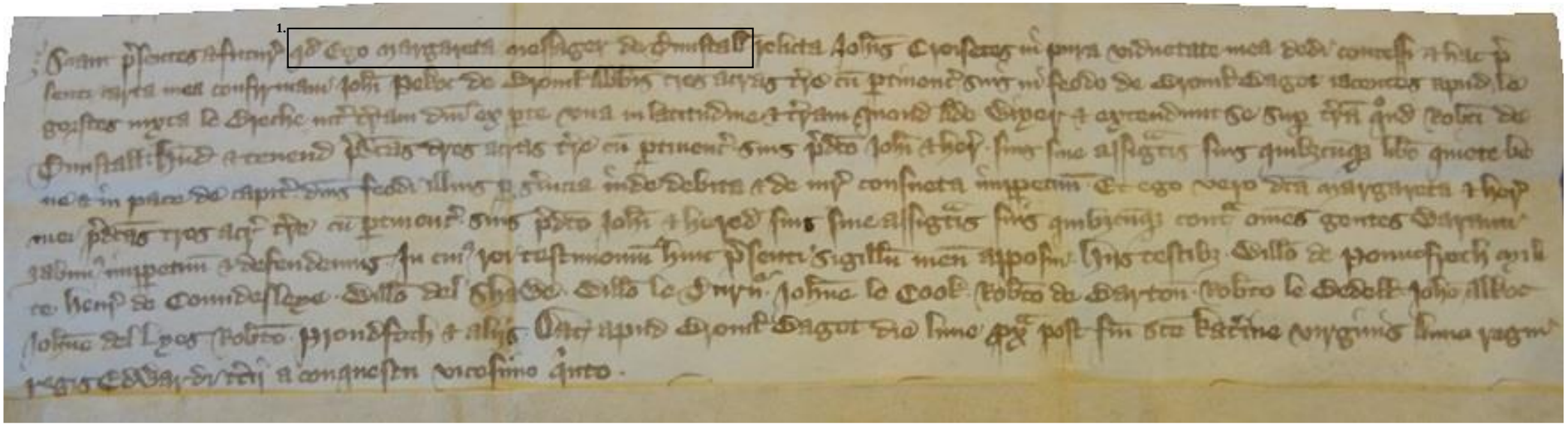
Later medieval charters produced by free peasants and burgesses tend to survive from the thirteenth century onward, and it is these documents that are frequently a good source of minor landscape names. The earliest of these are usually undated, and for these, dating can usually only be estimated by the handwriting style.[35] It is worth noting that legally, only freeholders were able to transfer land by charter, although it should not be automatically assumed that this meant that every grant was transacted between freeholders.[36] For the earliest charters within their collections, most archives will have produced a calendar, summarising most of the key information – notably the type of land transfer, the names of the parties involved in the transaction, the property details, the names of the witnesses, and the date, if it was recorded.

Frequently, but not reliably, field-names can also be noted, and so it is worth checking these finding aids.

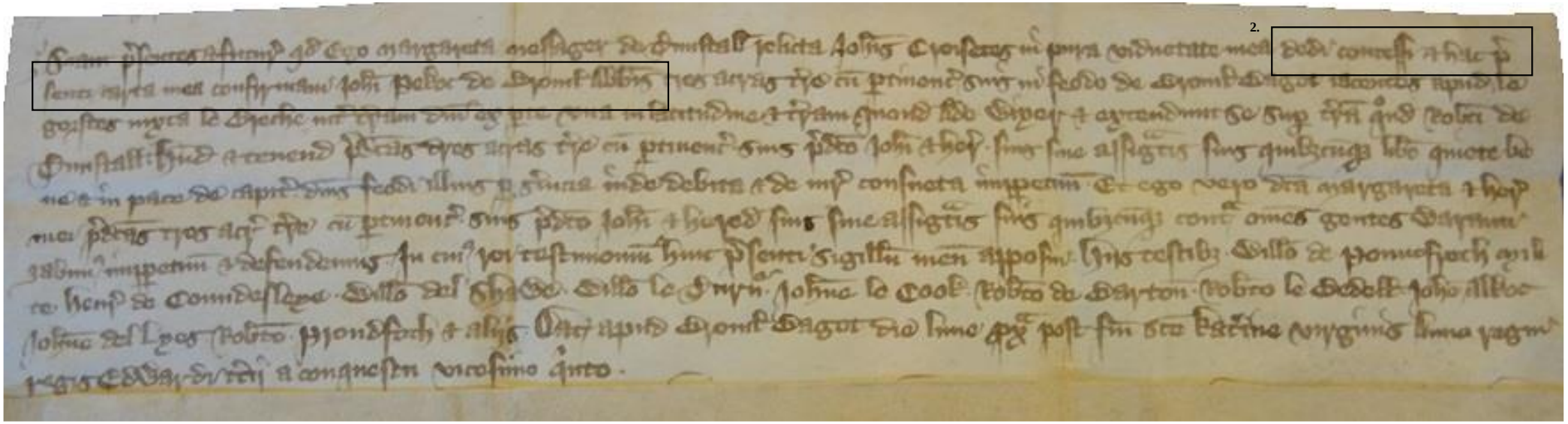
The greatest barriers to reading and understanding any documents from this period are of course the language – until the fifteenth century, usually medieval Latin[37] – and the handwriting style, described by historians as court hand. The resources presented here have been designed to assist researchers with little or no palaeographical training in finding and transcribing medieval field-names. Nevertheless, some familiarisation with medieval letter forms is essential in order to read medieval documents with any degree of confidence. There are several volumes that provide an overview of medieval court hand, of which the most useful for novice palaeographers is Johnson and Jenkinson's *English Court Hand 1066-1500* (Phillimore, 1915), since it includes a comprehensive history of both individual letter forms and the abbreviations most frequently used by medieval scribes. There are also a number of useful websites that offer resources for thirteenth- and fourteenth-century palaeography for beginners which can be studied before attempting to read original manuscript material.[38]

Even with a rudimentary understanding of later medieval letter forms, it is possible to locate and identify English field-names within Latin charters. This is achievable because conveyance charters are generally formulaic, and understanding how they are arranged helps in narrowing down the important elements – in this case the field-names. Figure four outlines the main clauses within a standard later medieval conveyance charter that need to be identified in order to locate field-names.[39] These are summarised in table one. Once these clauses can be identified, it is usually relatively straightforward to identify the section of the charter in which minor landscape names are most likely to be found, which is usually just after the clause detailing the action and grantor. Once the right section of the charter has been identified, it is then possible to look for specific 'indicator terms' which alert the reader that field-names are likely to follow (table two). The following examples of Latin words usually precede field-names, and are therefore useful words to look for in medieval charters.

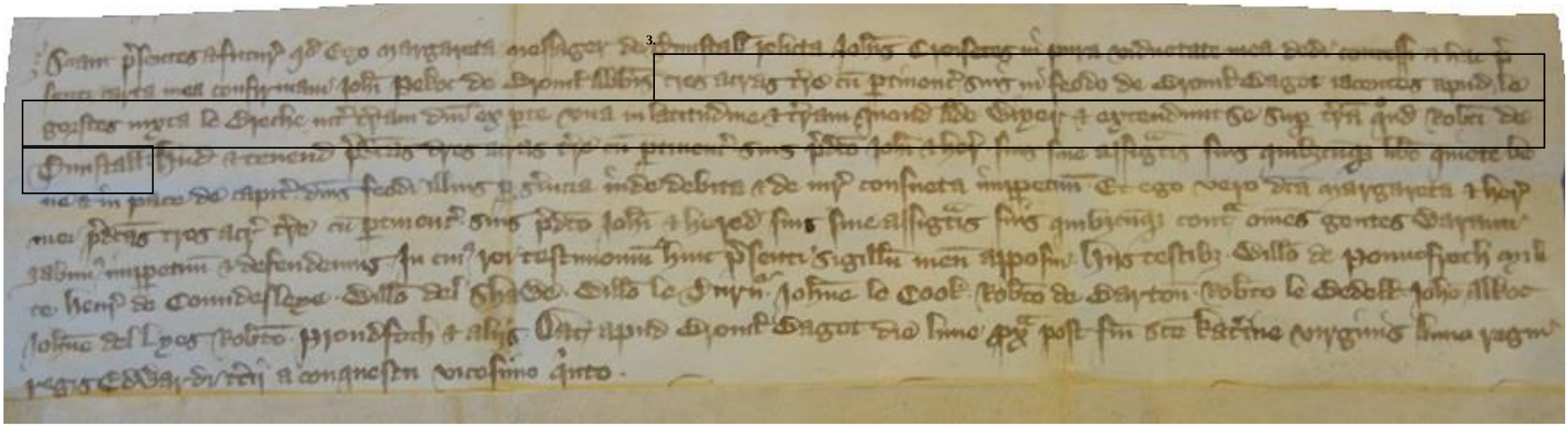
Figure Four: Identifying the key clauses of a medieval deed



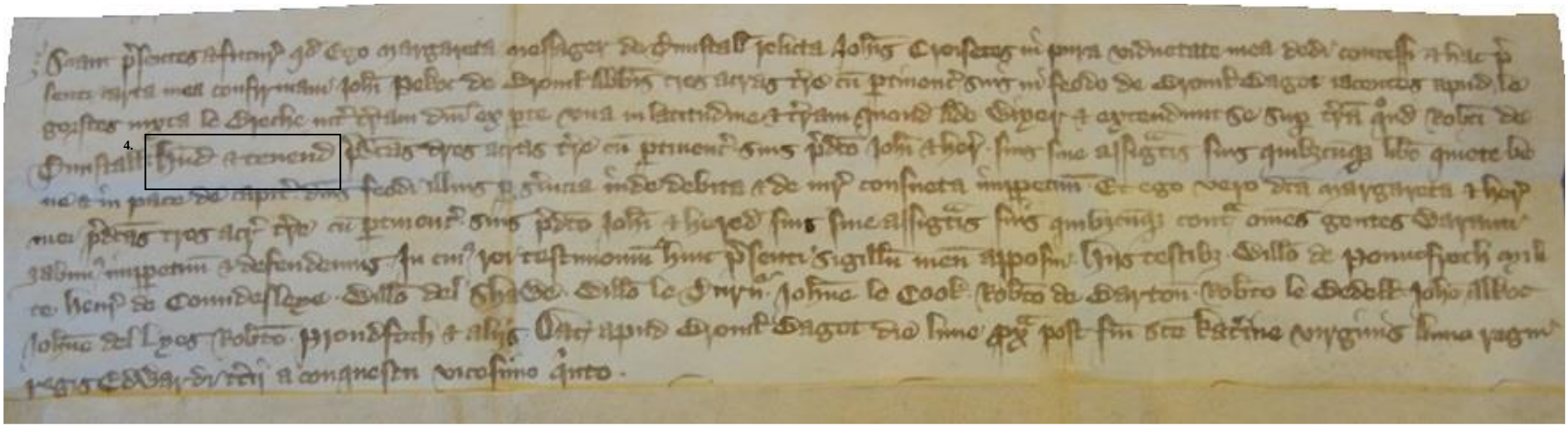
1. The grantor: ‘q[uo]d Ego Margareta Messager de Tunstall’ [that I Margaret Messager of Tunstall]



2. The action and the grantee: ‘dedi concessi et hac p[re]senti carta mea confirmaui[40] Joh[ann]i Pekoc de Broml’ Abb[at]is’ [have given, granted and by this my present charter confirmed to John Pekoc of Bromley Abbots]



3. The property: ‘tres acras t[er]re cu[m] p[er]tinenc[iis] suis in feodo de Broml’ Bagot iacentes apud *le gorstes* iuxta *le Breche* 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 with its appurtenances in the fee of Bagots Bromley, lying at *le gorstes* next to *le Breche*, 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. Tenure: ‘H[abe]nd[um] et tenend[um]…’ [To have and to hold…]

Table One: Samples of the Main Clauses in Later Medieval Conveyance Charters

	Clause	Key Latin Phrases	English Translation
1.	First party	Ego [Margareta Messager]	I [Margaret Messager]
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 *le gorstes* iuxta *le Breche*	Three acres with its appurtenances in the fee of Bagots Bromley, lying at *le gorstes* next to *le Breche*
	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

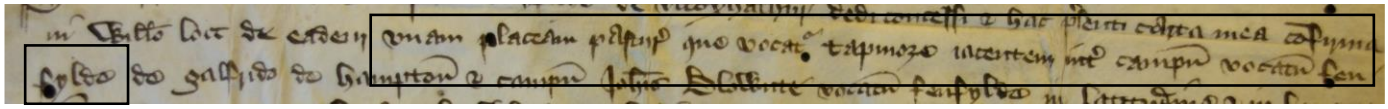
In the following section, the most useful indicator terms are assessed in detail, alongside examples from later medieval charters. As a supplement to this article, additional examples of these terms – together with those featured here – can be found by visiting a permanent link on our website at https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/research/groups/ins/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

Table Two: Some Useful Indicator Terms in Later Medieval Charters

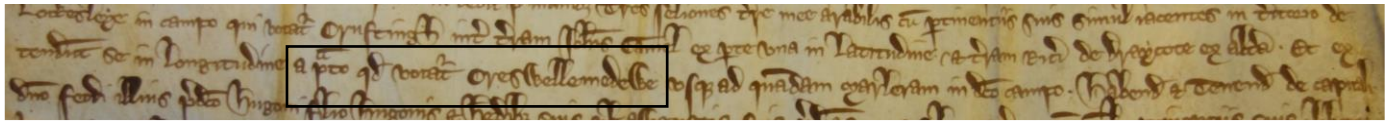
Indicator Term	Translation	Indicator Term	Translation
abuttans	'abbuting'	*quarum*	'of which'
apud	**'at'**	*situato*	'situated at'
iacens, iacet,	**'lying', it lies'**	*super*	'on'
iuxta	'next to'	***vocatur***	**'is called'**

Note: Primary indicator terms are in bold type.

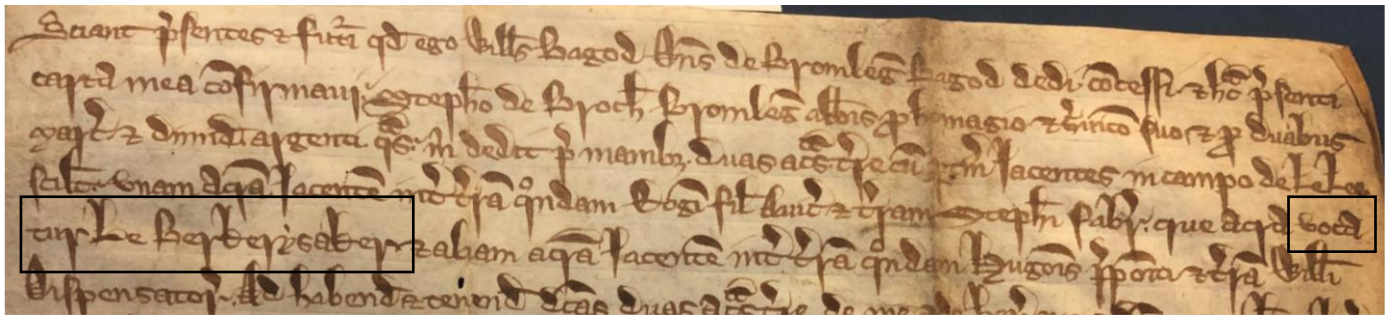
1. *Vocatur, vocatus* ‘called’



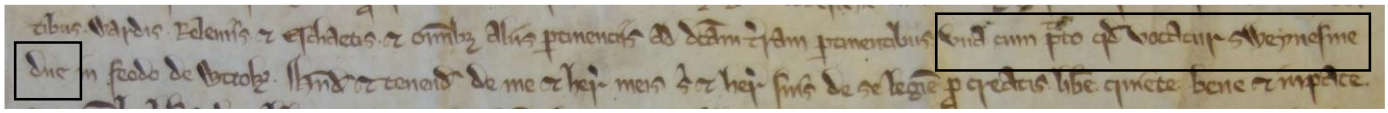
1.1 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/40 ‘…vnam placeam pastur[am] que vocat[ur] *tapmore* iacentem int[er] campu[m] vocatu[m] *fenfylde*…’ […a plot of pasture which is called *tapmore*, lying between the field called *fenfylde*…’]



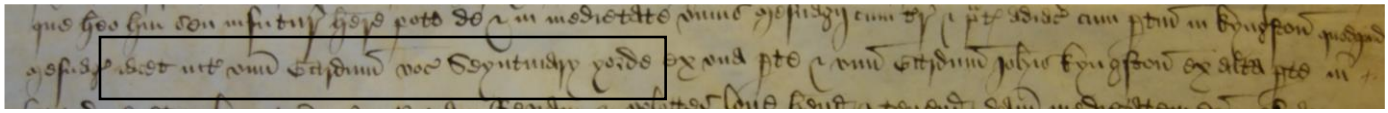
1.2 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/17 ‘…a p[ra]to q[uo]d vocat[ur] *Creswellemedewe*…’ […from the meadow that is called *Creswellemedewe*…’]



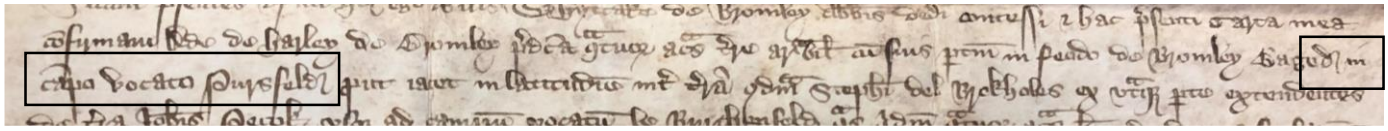
1.3 SRO/D(W)1721/3/26/5 ‘…que acra vocatur *Le Berkerysaker*…’ […which acre is called *Le Berkerysaker*…’]



1.4 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/12 ‘…vna cum p[ra]to q[uo]d vocatur *Sweynesmedue*…’ […together with the meadow that is called *Sweynesmedue*…’]



1.5 SRO/D(W)1733/A/2/118 ‘…iacet int[er] vnu[m] Gardinu[m] voc[atur] *Seyntmary yorde*…’ […lies between a garden called *Seyntmary yorde* (yard)…’]



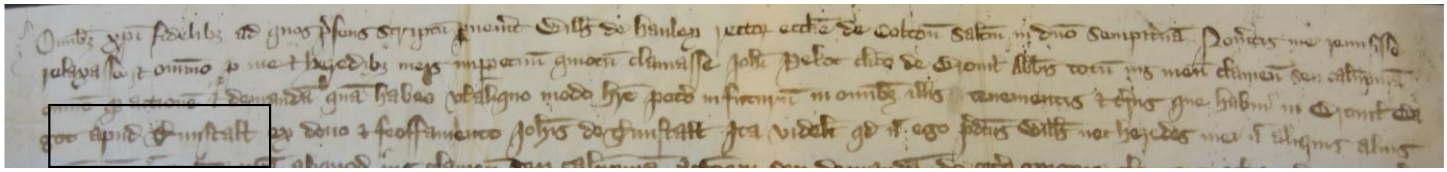
1.6 SRO/D(W)1721/3/30/12 ‘…in ca[m]po vocato *Pursfeld*…’ […in the field called *Pursfeld*…’]

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 worthwhile becoming familiar with this term and the various ways in which scribes reproduced it. In examples 1.1 and 1.2, note that it has been abbreviated to *Vocat*, and that a superscript 'ur' symbol completes the word.[41] This kind of abbreviation is common, and a comprehensive list of the symbols used for abbreviations can be found in Johnson and Jenkinson's *English Court Hand 1066-1500* (Phillimore, 1915). Here, the two scribes have written the 'ur' symbol quite differently. In 1.1 it looks a little bit like a drawing of a tadpole or a hook, and in 1.2, it looks more like the symbol for a modern '2'; these are the two principle ways in which medieval scribes wrote this symbol. In example 1.3, *vocatur* has been written out in full, albeit split between two lines of text: '*voca*' at the end of line four, and '*tur*' following on at the beginning of line five. In 1.4, although *vocatur* is written in full, the field-name that follows it is split over two lines of text – this is not untypical. In example 1.5, 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 example 1.1, 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 1.6, 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 three outlines the declension of *vocatus*.[42] Additionally, medieval scribes may sometimes shorten either of these forms to *voc'*.

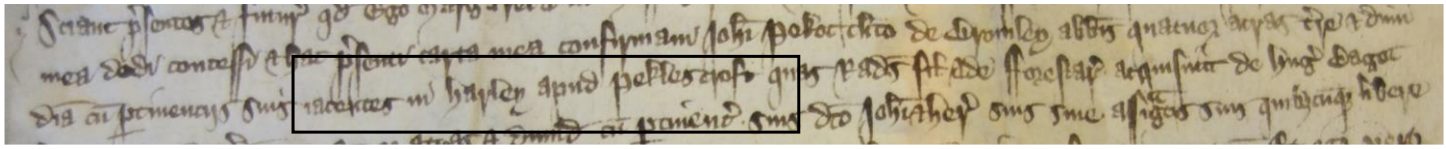
Table Three: The Declension of Latin *Vocatus* (Past Participle)

	Single			**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

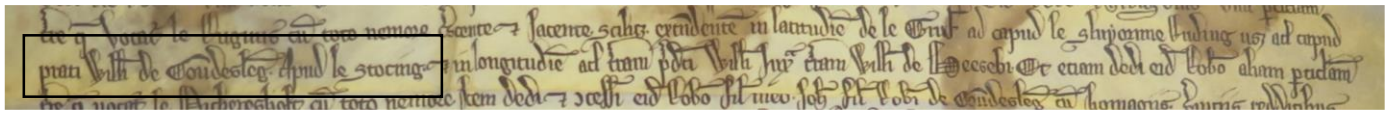
2. *apud* ‘at’



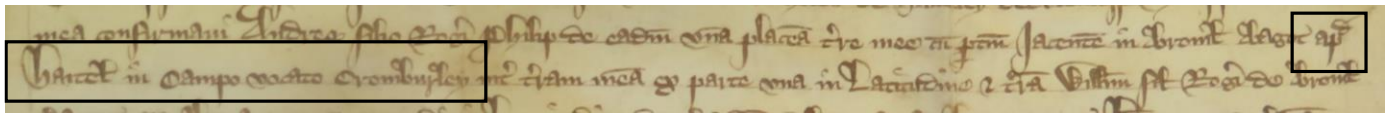
2.1 SRO/D(W)1721/3/1/9 ‘…apud *Tunstall[e]*…’ […at *Tunstall[e]*…’]



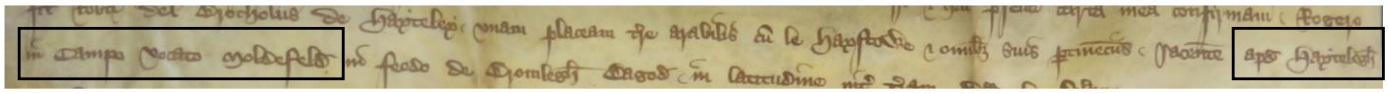
2.2 SRO/D(W)1721/3/2/12 ‘…iacentes in *Harley* apud *Peklescroft*…’ […lying in *Harley* at *Peklescroft*…’]



2.3 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*…’]



2.4 SRO/D(W)1721/3/21/2 ‘…ap[u]d *Haitel[e]* in Campo vocato *Cromburley*…’ […at *Haitel[e]* in the field called *Cromburley*…’]



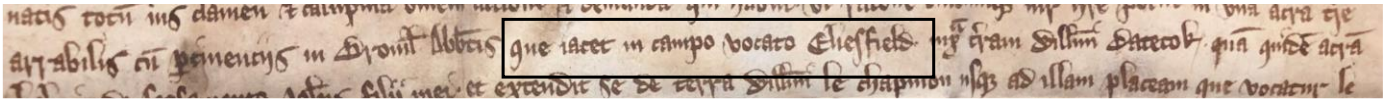
2.5 SRO/D(W)1721/3/21/13 ‘…ap[u]d *Haytelegh[e]* in Campo vocato *Moldefeld[e]*…’ […at *Haytelegh[e]* in the field called *Moldefeld[e]*…’]

2.6 SRO/D(W)1721/3/24/4 ‘…Iacent[em] ap[ud] *Le Beregrene*…’ […Lying at *Le Beregrene*…’]

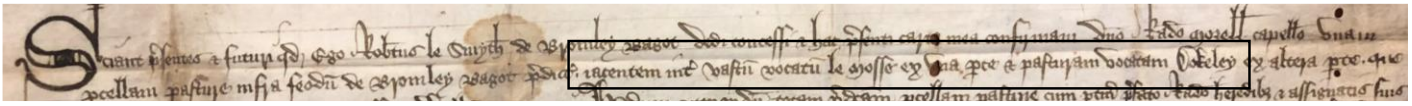
In extracts 2.1 - 2.3, *apud* ‘at’ is written out in full, whilst in 2.4 - 2.6, typical abbreviations are used; in the first abbreviated form, the first two letters are written out, followed by a superscript /d/, whilst the second abbreviation consists of a simple contraction, with the horizontal pen stroke through the final /d/ indicating a missing letter, in this case /u/. Example 2.6 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 useful terms since they are often used in later medieval charters to indicate where a particular plot of land lies, and frequently, these are named places.

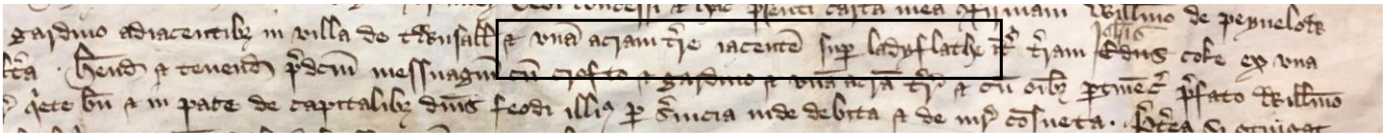
3. *iacet and iacens* 'lies, lying'



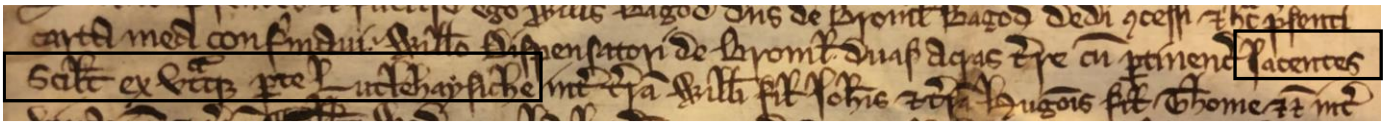
3.1 SRO/D(W)1721/3/30b/2 '…que iacet in campo vocato *Eliesfield*…' […which lies in the field called *Eliesfield*…']



3.2 SRO/D(W)1721/3/31/12 '…iacentem int[er] vastu[m] vocatu[m] *le Mosse* ex vna p[ar]te, et pasturam vocatam *Dokeley*…' […lying between the waste called *le Mosse* on one side, and the pasture called *Dokeley*…']



3.3 SRO/D(W)1721/3/31/18 '…et vna[m] acram t[er]re iacente[m] sup[er] *ladyslathe*…' […and one acre of land lying on *ladyslathe*…']



3.4 SRO/D(W)1721/3/26/3 '…Iacentes scil[ice]t ex vt[raq]ue p[ar]te *Lutlehaysiche*…' […Lying, namely on both sides [of] *Lutlehaysiche*…']

In general, two forms of the verb 'to lie' are used in medieval charters to indicate where the transferred land is situated. The straightforward present tense form *iacet* '[it] lies' is occasionally used, as indicated in example 3.1. The more commonly used form, *iacens,* is the present participle form of the verb, and translates as 'lying'. It declines in accordance with the case used by the scribe (table four). In examples 3.2 and 3.3, because *inter* 'between' and *super* 'on, above' take the accusative case, it becomes *iacentem*. The nominative plural form is used in 3.4, 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 Four: The Declension of Latin *Iacens* (Present Participle)

	Single			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 two 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.[43] Examples of these words in medieval charters can be found by visiting our website.[44] 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 five).

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

In addition to the finding aids outlined in the preceding section, when locating minor landscape names it is helpful 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'.[45] 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 six is designed to list 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 followed local dialect in this period, and there was no fixed way of spelling English words, 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.[46]

Table Five: 'Positional' Words used in Later Medieval Charters

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

Table Six: Common Generic Landscape Terms used in Later Medieval Charters[47]

OE, ON or ME Element	Gloss	Typical Middle English Spelling
æcer	A 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)
breche	Land broken up for cultivation	brech(e)
brōc	A brook, stream	broc, brok(e), brock
brycg	A bridge	brigg, brug(e), brugge,
burna	A stream	borne, burn(e)
busc	A bush	busc, busk(e), busche

OE, ON or ME Element	Gloss	Typical Middle English Spelling
butte	A strip of land abutting on a boundary; a short strip or ridge at right angles to other ridges, a short strip ploughed in the angle where two furlongs meet.	but, butte; buttes, buttis (pl.)
cot	A cottage, hut, shelter or den.	cot(e)
croft	A small enclosed field	croft(e)
cros	A cross	cros(e), crosse
crouche	A cross	crouch(e), cruch, cruce
dīc	A ditch or embankment	dich, dych(e), dyk
dæl	Hollow, valley	dal(e), del(e)
dole	A share, a portion; a 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)
feld	Land for pasture or cultivation.	feld(e), fild(e), fyld(e), field
flat	A piece of flat ground	flat(e)
ford	A ford	ford(e), forth
furlang	A furlong	forlong(e), furlong(e)
gāra	A gore, a triangular plot of ground	gar(e), gore
grāf / græfe	A grove, a copse, a thicket	greue, greve, groue, grove
grēne	A grassy spot, a village green	grene
haugr	A mound, natural or manmade	howe, hou(e)
hæg	A fence, enclosure	hay(e), hey(e)
halh	A nook of land; a small valley; dry ground in marsh; a piece of land projecting from, or detached from, the main area of its administrative unit.	hale, halugh
hēafod-land	A strip of land at the head of a furlong, for turning the plough.	hauelond, hauedlond, hauedelond
hethe	Heath	heth(e)
hlāw	A tumulus; a hill	lowe
holmr	An island, an inland promontory, raised ground in marsh, a river-meadow.	holm(e)
hyll	A hill	hil(e), hul, hull(e)
hyrst	A wooded hill	hurst, hyrst

OE, ON or ME Element	Gloss	Typical Middle English Spelling
lǣs	Pasture, meadow-land	leys, lese, lees, lesewe, leswe, lesue
land	Land (as part of earth's surface); an estate; possibly also new arable area. In minor and field names: strip in a field-system.	land, lond, lont; londes (pl.)
lane	A lane	lone
lēah	A forest, wood, glade, clearing; (later) a pasture, meadow.	ley(e)
mēd	A meadow	mede, medue, medewe, medo, medowe, medwe
mere	A pond, pool or lake	mere[48]
mersc	A marsh	merch, mersh[49]
mōr	Marsh, barren upland	mor(e)
myln	A mill	muln(e), miln(e), myln(e)
place	An open space in a town, an area surrounded by buildings; a town-house; a residence, a mansion-house.	place
pōl	A pool	pol(e), polle, pul
pytt	A pit	pett, put, putte, putth, pytt
sīc	A small stream, drainage channel	sech, sich(e), sych(e)
slæd	A valley, meadow, marshy greensward	sclade, slade, sled(e)
stede	A place	sted(e)
stīg	A path, a narrow road	sty(e)
stīgel	A stile, a place devised for climbing over a fence; topographically perhaps a steep ascent.	stile, steyll, style
stoccing	Place cleared of tree stumps	stoccing(e), stokkyng(e), stoking(e), stocking(e)
strǣt	A paved (Roman) road; later ‘street’	strete
vangr	Enclosure in an open field	wong(e), wang(e)
wēg	A road	wey(e), weg
wella	A spring, stream	wall(e), well(e), wel
wudu	A wood	wod(e), wodd
yard	A yard	yerd(e), yord(e)

Conclusion

The increasing importance of field- 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, frequently, little detailed documentary evidence survives. Furthermore, landscape names – almost exceptionally – offer researchers access to the perceptions of the lower orders, 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 sources from the medieval period. 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 unearthed already 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', *scheperduscrofte* 1398 'shepherd's croft', *Swynefen* 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 wet land (*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').[50] 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 of Biblical origin (*Jamesbrich* 1297–8 'James's newly broken-in land').[51] 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, whilst the resources presented within this article cannot replace a formal palaeography course in which expert tuition is offered, these materials provide an accessible introduction to medieval palaeography for those wishing to go on 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 means of retrieving data that – for some researchers – might hitherto have seemed impossible to access.

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D(W)1721/3/21/2 and 13

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[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' (British Academy, London. www.thebritishacademy.ac.uk/academy-research-projects).

[3] A. Mawer and F. M. Stenton, *The Place-Names of Buckinghamshire* (Cambridge University Press, 1925) v–viii.

[4] Mawer and Stenton, *Place-Names of Buckinghamshire* 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 University Press, 1933) vi.

[6] A. Armstrong, A. Mawer, F. M. Stenton, and Bruce Dickins, *The Place-Names of Cumberland*, 3 vols (Cambridge, 1950–2) Part 3, vii.

[7] Margaret Gelling, with H. D. G. Foxall, *The Place-Names of Shropshire*, 6 vols (EPNS, 1990–2009) Part One, ix.

[8] The latest volume is John Baker, with Sarah Beach, *The Place-Names of Shropshire: Part Seven* (EPNS, 2018).

[9] The Place-Names Committee of Kent Archaeological Society (www.kentarchaeology.org.uk/about-us/committees/place-names-committee); the Lancashire Place-Names Survey (http://lancspns.weebly.com/); the Staffordshire Place-Name Project (https://staffordshireplacenames.wordpress.com/ and https://staffordshireplacenames.esdm.co.uk/).

[10] 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*, 41:2 (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*, XX (XXXX), 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*, 59b (2004), S252.

[15] Casiday *et al, Volunteering and Health: What Impact Does it Really Have? Report to Volunteering England* (2008), p. 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) 140–58

[18] Mawer and Stenton, *Place-Names of Buckinghamshire* 257

[19] 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

[20] Armstrong, Mawer, Stenton, and Dickins, *The Place-Names of Cumberland*.

[21] Barrie Cox, *The Place-Names of Leicestershire*, 7 vols (EPNS, 1998–2016). An eighth volume, the introduction to this country survey, is in progress

[22] John Field, *A History of English Field-Names* (Longman, 1993)

[23] 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 (English Place-Name Society, 2018)

[24] Field, *A History*, xi.

[25] H. D. G. Foxall, *Shropshire Field-Names* (Shropshire Archaeological Society, 1980)

[26] Where tithe apportionment material did not exist, Foxall drew on estate survey maps.

[27] 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).

[28] Gelling with Foxall, *The Place-Names of Shropshire*, Part Two, 97.

[29] 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.

[30] 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.

[31] https://staffordshireplacenames.wordpress.com/blog/

[32] Insert web address for new resources

[33] 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)

[34] 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 Record Office collections and at other repositories are usually also found on the National Archives' (TNA) online catalogue, Discovery, and this is usually the best online catalogue with which to begin any search for manuscript material. The majority of the TNA collection of Ancient Deeds is searchable online 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). 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/

[35] N. W. Alcock, *Old Title Deeds: a Guide for Local and Family Historians* (Phillimore, 1986). Dating of medieval charters usually begins in the last quarter of the thirteenth century.

[36] M. M. Postan and C. N. L. Brooke (eds), *Carte Nativorum, a Peterborough Abbey Cartulary of the Fourteenth Century* (Northamptonshire Record Society, 1960) xli

[37] Occasionally, charters were written in Anglo-Norman. Here, we will concentrate on the Latin charters.

[38] C. Johnson and H. Jenkinson, *English Court Hand 1066-1500* (Clarendon Press, 1915). Also worth consulting is D. Stuart, *Manorial Records: an Introduction to their Transcription and Translation* (Phillimore, 1992). There are also good introductory online palaeography resources, including TNA http://www.nationalarchives.gov.uk/latinpalaeography/; University of Nottingham https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/manuscriptsandspecialcollections/researchguidance/medievaldocuments/introduction.aspx

[39] 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 xxxxx

[40] *confirmaui* 'I have confirmed' is sometimes replaced by the Latin *vendidi* 'I have sold'

[41] Superscript literally means 'above written', and indicates that one or more letters have been missed out. The type of superscript symbol used usually indicates which letters are missing.

[42] E. A. Gooder, *Latin for Local History, An Introduction* (Longman, 1978) 26 provides a useful guide to the formation of Latin participles.

[43] The secondary indicators are very much that, and whilst in many instances they precede field-names, occasionally they may not. For further information, see https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/research/groups/ins/ [to be confirmed]

[44] https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/research/groups/ins/ [to be confirmed]

[45] P. Cavill, *A New Dictionary of English Field-Names*, with an introduction by R. Gregory (EPNS, 2018) vi

[46] For other types of deed, such as quitclaims, see https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/research/groups/ins/ [to be confirmed]

[47] 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 University Press, 1956)

[48] Beware, as this element is often abbreviated to mer', which means that it is difficult to distinguish from other elements, such as mersc.

[49] Sometimes abbreviated to mer' or mar'.

[50] 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

[51] SRO D4038/E/2/1; D4038/E/2/2; D(W)1734/J/2268