

XVI (Louvain and Brussels 1966); C. Tavernier-Vereecken, Gentse Naamkunde van ca. 1000 tot 1253: een bijdrage tot de kennis van het oudste middelnederlands, Bouwstoffen en Studien voor de Geschiedenis en de Lexicografie van het Nederlands XI (Tongres 1968); W. Beele, Studie van de Ieperse Persoonsnamen uit de Stads- en Baljuwsrekeningen 1250 - 1400, 2 vols. (Handzame 1975).

The bilingual nicknaming of the Flemish/French borderlands offers a parallel of some potential interest for Middle English usage, see, for instance; Bougard and Gysseling, L'Impôt royal en Artois; M. Gysseling and P. Bougard, L'Onomastique calaisienne à la fin du XIII^e siècle, Anthroponymica XIII (Louvain and Brussels 1963); and the work of F. Debrabandere on Courtrai, especially Persoonsnamen in het Kortrijkse (1300 - 1350), Anthroponymica XIX (Louvain and Brussels 1971).

15. S. Hagström, Kölnner Beinamen des 12. und 13. Jahrhunderts, Nomina Germanica 8 (Uppsala 1949).
16. See Clark and Owen, 'Lexicographical Notes', and Clark, 'Quelques exemples'.
17. See 'People and Languages', p. 21, and cf. Archives, XIII, p. 88.
18. As well as Etudes I (see n.12 above), Michaëlsson's publications on names in Paris include Etudes II, Lexique raisonné des noms de baptême, A - B, Uppsala Universitets Årsskrift 1936/1, and the editions of Rôles de taille published in Acta Universitatis Gotoburgensis in 1951, 1958 and 1962.

See also A. Longnon (ed.), Polyptyque de l'abbaye de Saint-Germain des Prés rédigé au temps de l'abbé Irminon, 2 vols. (Paris 1895).
19. See, for instance, K. Michaëlsson, 'Questions de méthode anthroponymique', Onomastica, I (1947), 199-204, esp. 199.
20. V. J. Smart, 'Moneyers of the late Anglo-Saxon Coinage 773 - 1016', in Commentationes de nummis saeculorum ix - xi in Suecia repertis II = Kungl. vitterhets historie och antikvitets akademiens handlingar: antikvariska serien XIX (Stockholm 1968), 191-276.
21. I am grateful to Madame Marianne Mulon, of the Archives de France for sending me offprints of her two articles, 'La Société française d'Onomastique', Onoma, XVIII (1974), 554-8, and 'Le Centre d'Onomastique des Archives nationales', Revue historique, CCLV (1976), 237-43, as well as for the reference to the article by D. Kremer cited in n.5.

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PROLEGOMENA TO THE STUDY OF IRISH PLACENAMES

The notes which follow are intended mainly for the information of persons outside Ireland for whom the subject of Irish placenames is unfamiliar but they may be of some use to Irish people who have grown up among the names and who take them for granted without knowing much about how they originated or what they represent. The subject will be discussed under eight heads:

1. Languages of origin and transmission
2. Territorial units named
3. New territorial divisions and minor placenames
4. Documentation of placenames
5. The spelling and pronunciation of Irish words
6. Anglicized spelling of Irish placenames
7. The shape of Irish townland names
8. The shape of population names and of Irish barony names.

1. LANGUAGE: Placenames are part of language. To a large degree they are a fossilized part of language, to which they are related in two ways: the language of origin in which the name first arose and the language of transmission through which the name has come down to us in its now familiar form.

1.1 Languages or origin: There are four known languages of origin: Irish, Latin, Norse and English.

1.11 Irish: The vast majority of Irish placenames, over 90 per cent, arose in the Irish language, which we know from six periods:

- (a) Proto-Irish, 4th to 6th centuries, known from inscriptions in the *ogham* script and names in early Latin documents;
- (b) Archaic Irish, 6th/7th centuries, known from early glosses on Latin texts and the earliest portions of the ancient Irish laws;
- (c) Old Irish, 8th/9th centuries, known from a considerable corpus of literature, some of it altered in later transmission;
- (d) Middle Irish, 10th to 12th centuries, known from an expanding corpus of literature contained in the earliest surviving codices and later manuscripts;
- (e) Classical or Early Modern Irish, 13th to 17th centuries, the language of the bardic schools and later literature down to the eclipse of traditional Irish society by the Tudor and Stuart conquests: it was current also in Scotland;
- (f) Recent Modern Irish, since the 18th century, the language of the surviving spoken dialects and modern literature; in this period Scottish Gaelic and Manx have gone their own way as separate languages.

Placenames can have arisen during any of these periods, and some that arose during the earlier periods have since died out and are known only from literary sources.

1.12 Latin: The source of a tiny proportion of ecclesiastical names, e.g. *Sanctus Boscus*, now known in English translation as Holywood (Co. Down).

1.13 Norse: The source of a tiny proportion of mainly coastal names dating from the Viking settlements of the 10th/11th centuries and now surviving in

anglicized form in a few places which have quite different Irish names, e.g. Howth (Co. Dublin) from *hofuð* 'head', i.e. 'headland'; its Irish name is Beann Éadair.

1.14 English: The source of perhaps about 8 per cent of Irish placenames, some of which date back to the Middle English period (12th to 15th centuries) resulting from the Anglo-Norman invasion and settlements, though most date from the modern period since the 16th century. Two maps showing the distribution of English placenames in Ireland, one of names ending in *-town*, which are concentrated in The Pale and South Wexford - the two principal areas of Anglo-Norman settlement - and the other showing all other types of placenames of English origin, were published by T. Jones Hughes in 'Town and baile in Irish Placenames' in *Irish Geographical Studies in honour of E. Estyn Evans*, ed. N. Stephans and R. E. Glasscock (Belfast, 1970), pp. 248 and 251. It will be noted that the chronology of placenames of Germanic origin in Ireland is the reverse of what it is in England, i.e. Norse names predate English names.

1.2 Languages of transmission: There are seven languages of transmission, three major ones - Irish, Latin and English - and four minor ones - Greek, Welsh, Norse and French.

1.21 Irish: Irish itself is the medium of transmission of whatever names may survive from pre-Celtic and pre-Gaelic times. Irish belongs to the Goidelic (Gaelic) or Q-Celtic branch of the Indo-European language family and it is now generally accepted that there were also P-Celtic tribes, akin to those of Gaul and Britain, in Ireland in Iron Age times from whose dialects some names are derived, e.g. Partry (Mountains) from the tribal name *Partraighe*. Apart from P-Celts there is the much more abstruse question of pre-Celtic sources which the writer has discussed in 'Language and Mañ in Ireland' in *Ulster Folklife* vol. 15/16 (1970) 141-145, and in 'Hamito-Semitic and the pre-Celtic Substratum in Ireland and Britain' in *Hamito-Semitic*, ed. J. and T. Bynon (The Hague, 1975) 233-247. Irish continues to be the medium of transmission of placenames wherever it survives as a spoken language and in the present century has again become a written medium of transmission for placenames, including many of non-Irish origin.

1.22 Greek: This is the earliest non-Irish source for the transmission of Irish placenames, dating from the work of Ptolemy of Alexandria in the 2nd century AD, which pre-dates by several centuries the earliest time from which information from native sources is available. For this reason the Greek forms of early Irish placenames are of great value and interest. They are discussed by T. F. O'Rahilly in the first chapter of his *Early Irish History and Mythology* (Dublin, 1946).

1.23 Latin: This is the source of transmission, either in latinized or translated form, of many placenames current during the Archaic and Old Irish periods through the annalistic and hagiographic writings of Irish monastic scholars. With the increasing use of Irish as a written language of civilization and the consequent decline of Latin during the Middle Irish period, Latin sources become less important, but in the later Middle Ages Latin again becomes important for the transmission of ecclesiastical and other names, e.g. the Taxation Roll of Pope Nicholas (early 14th century) and some documents relating to more restricted areas.

1.24 Welsh: A very small number of Irish placenames are transmitted in Welsh literature where they have acquired distinctively Welsh forms. An interesting example is the name of the river Shannon, *Llinon* in Welsh, *Sionann* in Irish. Welsh *ll* for Irish *s* is not a normal Celtic sound-correspondence, so this raises the question of whether the Welsh and the Irish were trying in different ways to reproduce the initial sound in a name of pre-Celtic origin.

1.25 Norse: A small number of Irish placenames are transmitted independently in Old Norse literature from Iceland, e.g. *Hlymrekr* for *Lwimneach* (Limerick),

where they may preserve evidence of Middle Irish pronunciation.

1.26 French: By this we mean not modern French, which simply uses the modern English forms of Irish placenames, but Old French in whose literary works, such as 'The Song of Dermott and the Earl', there is an independent tradition of handling the transmission of a number of Irish placenames, reflecting their pronunciation at the beginning of the Classical Irish period.

1.27 English: As well as being the source of a minority of Irish placenames, English is also the generally familiar medium of transmission for almost the whole corpus of Irish placenames in recent times. The process of anglicization began in the late medieval period (Classical Irish to Middle English) on a restricted scale, but was greatly extended with the expansion of English political power in Ireland in the 16th and 17th centuries. Documents relating to English dealings with the Irish during the earlier part of this expansion and to the confiscations and plantations of vast tracts of territory in the later phases form the most comprehensive sources for anglicized forms of Irish placenames, though lesser sources relating to particular areas, such as ecclesiastical records and 17th to 19th century estate papers, are also important. The latest and ultimate source for the English forms of Irish placenames is the work of the Ordnance Survey (1829-1842). The local pronunciation where English is now the spoken language is a supplementary source.

2. TERRITORIAL UNITS NAMED: While natural features named - mountains, hills, islands, headlands, rivers, lakes, bays, swamps, plains and woods - are of the same kind as in any other country, the name-bearing features that are of human origin may be somewhat different.

2.1 The largest unit, apart from the island of Ireland itself, is the *cúige* or province. The Irish and English terms are in no way cognate, either in origin or meaning. *Cúige* means 'fifth' and refers to the five great divisions of early Celtic Ireland: *Cúige Uladh* (Ulster), *Cúige Laighean* (Leinster), *Cúige Mumhan* (Munster), *Cúige Connacht* (Connaught) and *Cúige na Midhe* (Meath). The English names of the modern provinces are derived from the first four of these, apparently indirectly through Old Norse, while the last is no longer a province but has been absorbed by the second; its name is purely geographical and means 'middle fifth'. *Mumhais* an ancient territorial name of unknown meaning and origin. The remaining three are all tribal names of the early Celtic period. *Cúige Uladh* is treated as a single word with initial stress. The other four are treated as phrasal names with the main stress on the first syllable of the last part.

The ecclesiastical division of the country is also into four provinces but in this case the province of Armagh embraces the old *Cúige na Midhe* as well as Ulster and what is now Co. Leitrim in north-east Connaught. The province of Dublin covers the remaining south and central portions of the modern civil province of Leinster. The province of Cashel is almost exactly the same as Munster, and the province of Tuam covers Connaught without Co. Leitrim.

2.2 The second largest unit is the county (Ir. *conndae*) in the civil division and the diocese (Ir. *deoise*) in the ecclesiastical division of the country.

2.21 Counties are 32 in number and are an English innovation though the majority have names of Irish derivation. Those nearest Dublin, and a few others now superseded, were formed in the reign of King John (early 13th century). The remainder were formed for the most part in the reign of Elizabeth I (late 16th century) under the Lord Deputy Sir John Perrott about 1585, except Queen's County (now Leix) and King's County (now Offaly) which were formed in the reign of Mary I and Wicklow which was not separated from Dublin till the reign of James I. Londonderry has a hybrid name. Only Queen's Co. and King's Co. in west Leinster ever had distinctively English names. The three counties of Wicklow, Wexford and Waterford in the south-east have names of Norse origin,

now anglicized, and their Irish names are quite different, viz. Cill Mantáin, Loch Garmáin and Port Láirge respectively.

2.22 Diocesan areas - apart from minor differences of boundary in a few cases - are common to the Roman Catholic Church in Ireland and the Church of Ireland of the Anglican Communion, unlike the position in England where each church has a completely different system. They are 35 in number, but the two churches differ in the manner in which they have created unions of dioceses under one bishop. The Roman Catholic Church has 26 bishops, four of whom are archbishops (one for each ecclesiastical province). The Church of Ireland had 22 bishops (four of whom were archbishops) until early in the 19th century, but the number was reduced later to 12, now 14, bishops, of whom two (Armagh and Dublin) are archbishops. The diocesan areas date from the Synod of Kells (1152) when the Irish church was reorganized on continental lines after a long period of organization in families of monasteries, which had replaced whatever rudimentary diocesan organization may have existed in the earliest centuries of Christianity. Most of the present dioceses were based on the political unit known as the *mórthuath*, an alliance of several little *tuath*-kingdoms (see next section) and when one looks at a diocesan map of Ireland as it is today one is in effect looking at a political map of 12th century Ireland. The diocesan areas are as follows:

Armagh: Down, Connor, Dromore, Derry, Raphoe, Armagh, Clogher, Kilmore, Ardagh, Clonmacnoise, Meath.

Dublin: Dublin, Glendalough, Kildare, Leighlin, Ferns, Ossory.

Cashel: Cashel, Emly, Waterford, Lismore, Cloyne, Cork, Ross, Ardfert and Aghadoe (called Kerry in R. C. Church), Limerick, Killaloe, Kilfenora.

Tuam: Killala, Achonry, Elphin, Tuam, Clonfert, Kilmacduagh, Galway.

Apart from Waterford all of these diocesan names are of Irish origin.

2.23 The units of organization in the non-episcopal churches have a demographic rather than a territorial basis and have varied from time to time. The *presbytery* in the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, and the *circuit* in the Methodist Church in Ireland are the nearest equivalents to the diocese of the episcopally governed churches but bear no territorial relationship to them. Several presbyteries and several circuits are grouped respectively into *synods* and *districts*, which are the nearest equivalents to the provinces of the churches with a diocesan organization but again have no territorial relationship to the four ecclesiastical provinces. From about 1840 onwards the Presbyterian Church in Ireland was organized into 33 presbyteries, but since mid-20th century their limits have been reorganized to take account of the changing distribution of church membership. They bear names taken from the ordinary placename stock of the countryside but just before the last reorganization one presbytery bore the invented name Magherahoghill (with penultimate stress) formed by combining two placenames - Magherafelt and Ahoghill - belonging to two former presbyteries which had been united to form it.

2.3 The third largest unit was originally the barony (Ir. *barúntacht*), a term of Norman-French origin denoting a territory held under feudal terms of military service. The barony in this legal sense dates from the Anglo-Norman period at the end of the 12th century, and some baronies were indeed created as a result of the Anglo-Norman invasion, but the term soon came to be roughly equivalent to something immensely older, namely the *tuath*-kingdoms of early Celtic Ireland. *Tuath* is an Irish word of Indo-European origin meaning 'people' and is cognate with Welsh *tud* and Old English *þeod* (cf. Thetford, from *þeodford*). The *tuath* was the basic political unit in early Celtic Ireland. At its head was the *rí* 'king' (cf. Latin *rex*, Hindi *raj*), and in later times we find that most baronies bear the names of early population groups which formed *tuaths* in early times. At the end of the 18th century there were 252 baronies - an average of about eight per county - but subsequently many baronies were subdivided into two or rarely three parts and in due course half-baronies and thirds came themselves to be known as baronies, making a

total at the end of last century of 326 baronial areas, or on average about ten per county. Their areas varied from the enormous barony of Kilmacrenan in north-west Donegal with 310,674 acres down to the tiny barony of Dublin with only 1693 acres. Only three other baronies exceeded 200,000 acres, and only seven others were less than 10,000 acres in extent. The baronies remained as statistical and taxation units down till the reorganization of local government in Ireland in 1898 and are still quoted as areas of location in the conveyancing of land and property, but as units of local government they were replaced by Rural Districts and Urban Districts in 1898. Under this scheme the six county borough areas of Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Londonderry, Limerick and Waterford lay outside the 32-county system. In Northern Ireland this system of local government has been replaced within the last few years by 26 local government areas incorporating both urban and rural functions and considerably larger than the old baronies and more recent Rural Districts. They are named mainly from their principal towns or in some cases from baronial or county names, but Moyle in north-east Antrim, corresponding to the barony of Cary and the northern half of the barony of Lower Glenarm, takes its name from *Sruth na Maoile*, the Irish name for the North Channel between Antrim and Argyllshire.

In ecclesiastical organization there is now no surviving intermediate unit between the diocese and the parish, equivalent to the civil barony, except the *rural deanery* in the case of the Church of Ireland, which is a grouping of parishes within a diocese.

2.41 The fourth largest unit of organization was originally the parish. This was both a civil and an ecclesiastical unit, and towards the end of the 18th century there were 2436 parishes in the whole of Ireland, whose boundaries sometimes overlapped barony boundaries so that in some cases a parish could spread into two or even three baronies, though they are much smaller than the latter. The names of these civil parishes (Ir. *ceanntar*) were generally taken from some townland (see next section) within them but were sometimes distinctive. They no longer have any function.

2.42 Ecclesiastical parishes (Ir. *paróiste*) came in time to differ from civil parishes and also from each other in the two churches maintaining a parochial organization. They are named either after some townland within them or from the dedicatory name of the church serving them. Presbyterian and Methodist churches do not use the parish as a unit of organization but are based on the *congregation* whose name is either that of the locality or is a memorial name of some former church dignitary or local benefactor. Where several Presbyterian churches exist in one town they commonly bear the name of that town preceded by a number denoting the order in which the particular congregation within the town was formed, but some congregations may have an alternative old townland name, e.g. First Saintfield Presbyterian Church is also known as Tonaghneave church, from Irish *Tamhnach Naomh* 'field of saints', the old name of the place of which Saintfield is a translation.

2.5 The fifth and smallest unit of organization is the townland (Ir. *baile fearainn*), of which there are 62,205 in the whole of Ireland. They vary in size from a few acres to several thousand acres, but the very large ones are confined to mountain moorland. Each townland has its name and defined boundaries, so there is no spot in Ireland without a name, though in the large cities of modern times some townlands have become absorbed and lost their identity. Originally the townland was an agricultural unit, especially the infield or ploughland, to which the outfield used for grazing was later added up to the point where boundaries with adjacent townlands were established. There was originally a scale of values of land measure as follows:

10 acres	1 gneeve
2 gneeves	1 sessiagh
3 sessiaghs	1 tate or ballybo (from <i>baile bó</i> 'cowland')
2 balliboes	1 seisreach ('ploughland') or carrow (<i>ceathramh</i> 'quarter')

- 4 carrows - 1 ballybetagh (*baile biataigh* 'food-provider's land') or townland
 30 ballybetaghs - 1 *triocha céad* ('30 hundreds') or barony.

This would give a theoretical size of 480 acres per townland but in fact the average size of townlands in Ireland is about 325 acres. Two things must be borne in mind, firstly that the size of the acre probably varied with the quality of the land - for instance, plantation acres in the 17th century were greater than the present statute acre - and secondly that some original townlands were later split in two, three or four parts and these smaller divisions came to be regarded as townlands in their own right, just as half-baronies came to be regarded as baronies in their own right.

3. NEW TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS AND MINOR PLACENAMES

3.1 Due to 19th-century social legislation a new hierarchy of territorial units was set up for certain purposes. This consisted of 163 Poor Law Unions (just half the number of 19th-century baronies) named usually after some prominent local centre and sometimes overlapping from one county to another. Within these were 799 Dispensary Districts, and within these in turn were 3520 Poor Law Electoral Divisions, at least in 1871, though this figure was slightly altered later to take account of population changes. These areas were later known as District Electoral Divisions (DED) in Northern Ireland and as Registration Units in the Republic. They consisted of groups of townlands, named after one of them, and when parliamentary representation ceased to be on a simple county and parliamentary borough basis they became the small units out of which parliamentary constituencies were built up. In Northern Ireland they have recently been replaced by a system of rural and urban wards, which are named after existing localities.

3.2 Outside the system of townland names - and of the names for major natural features of the landscape - there are three classes of minor placenames:

1. Landmark names, particularly round the coasts but sometimes inland;
2. Field names on many farms;
3. Street names, basically in towns but in Northern Ireland now also including the recently imposed rural road names.

4. DOCUMENTATION OF PLACENAMES

4.1 Early Christian and Late Medieval periods:

All placenames occurring in Irish literature from the Archaic Irish down to the Classical Irish period (roughly 600 to 1700 AD), together with those occurring in Irish Latin literature, have been gathered together by Edmund Hogan, S. J., in his *Onomasticon Goedelicum Locorum et Tribuum Hiberniae et Scotiae - An Index with Identifications to the Gaelic Names of Places and Tribes* (Dublin, 1910). As the Latin part of the title shows, he includes names occurring in Scotland as well as in Ireland but these are only a small proportion. He quotes 44 manuscripts and 132 printed sources for this corpus. A rough estimate by page-count suggests that it contains almost 28,000 names, which is a considerable proportion of the 62, 205 townland names now existing, though of course this includes a small number of names in Scotland together with mountain, river, and tribal names. Nevertheless, documentary evidence from early native sources for our placenames is considerable. After making due allowance for population, mountain, river, and Scottish names, perhaps one third of all townland names are attested.

4.2 16th/17th centuries:

During this period, while Irish still remained a strong source of documentation owing to the considerable number of learned works compiled in Irish at least down to the middle of the 17th century, English gradually

became the main source of documentation from the middle of the 16th century onwards owing to the expansion of English political power and institutions in Ireland. Many placenames occur in anglicized spelling in the fiants and pardons granted to Irish individuals but the most valuable sources are the various land surveys made in connection with confiscations and plantations of territory since these frequently lay down for the first time the exact boundaries and extent of the areas named. The spelling of the names of course departs from that of Irish literary tradition, being based for the most part on the local pronunciation - which might of course be misheard - represented by contemporary English spelling conventions, but in many cases such forms were more accurate than those that later became official.

Among documents which may be mentioned as listing large numbers of such 17th-century forms are:

Pender, S. (ed.) *A Census of Ireland, circa 1659, with supplementary material from the Poll Money Ordinances (1660-1661)* (Dublin, 1939).

Goblet, Y. M.: *A Topographical Index of the Parishes and Townlands of Ireland in Sir William Petty's MSS, Barony Maps (c. 1655-9) and Hiberniae Delineatio (c. 1672)* (Dublin, 1932).

Simington, R. C.: *The Civil Survey, AD 1654-1656*, in three volumes covering parts of Munster, Leinster and Ulster (Dublin, 1937).

4.3 18th/19th centuries:

During this period English became almost the sole source of documentation for Irish placenames. Apart from rent rolls and estate maps, which it is not the purpose of this article to catalogue, the most important sources for this period date from the second quarter of the 19th century onwards representing the work of the Ordnance Survey which, under the direction of John O'Donovan, established the official English spelling of all Irish placenames which we use today, and the various censuses of population which record the whole range of Irish placenames apart from those falling into the category of minor placenames.

For most census years the census reports are accompanied by indexes of townlands, parishes, baronies (from 1901 onwards by rural districts), counties, provinces, dioceses, Poor Law Unions, dispensary districts, district electoral divisions, parliamentary divisions, and Petty Sessions districts, the last five of these being of 19th-century origin and using names derived from the general stock of placenames. The first census of population in Ireland was in 1821, but it was not established on a satisfactory basis, including the smallest divisions of the country, until 1841.

4.41 20th century:

The most important development in the present century has been the reemergence of Irish as an official language of documentation (except in Northern Ireland) and the setting up of the Irish Placenames Commission to reestablish the correct forms of placenames of Irish origin and where possible to gaelicize those of non-Irish origin. In the case of fixing the official Irish forms of the names of post towns its activities have extended to the whole of Ireland. These will be found on pages 125 to 257 of volume I of *Eolaí an Phoist/Post Office Guide* (Dublin, 1977, price 10p.), while pages 259 to 289 give a reverse index with the Irish form first followed by the anglicized form.

4.42 Regarding maps, the Ordnance Survey (*Suirbhéireacht Ordanáis*), Phoenix Park, Dublin, publishes quarter-inch and half-inch maps for the whole of the Republic, with one-inch maps for selected areas, while the Ordnance Survey in Northern Ireland (83 Ladas Drive, Belfast 6) publishes quarter-, half- and one-inch maps for the whole of this area. It is also possible to obtain Townland Index Maps for each county (from one to several sheets per county)

on a large scale which name and show the boundaries of every townland and of the DEDs and larger units of which they form part. A quarter-inch index map to these townland index maps in four sheets for the whole of Ireland is published, showing all DEDs/Registration Units with their boundaries. A curious feature of this map is that while the Registration Units in the Republic (where the map is published) have been brought up to date as at 1961, the Northern Ireland portion of the map - which appears on the north-eastern sheet - still shows the old DED boundaries of pre-1920 times. In 1973 the Ordnance Survey of Northern Ireland published a map on the scale of 1: 250,000 showing the boundaries and names of the 26 new local government districts and of the electoral wards within them, together with 15 maps of the separate local government areas on a scale of one inch to one mile, with insets of certain parts on a scale of two inches to one mile, showing every townland with its name and boundaries. In 1962 a Topographical Index to the Census of Population of 1961 had been published relating the townland areas to the older larger units of subdivision in Northern Ireland.

A map of all Ireland on a scale of 1: 500,000 is published by the Ordnance Survey in Dublin with all the placenames shown on it in their Irish forms.

4.43 Though there have been a number of works published on the names of particular areas, there is no up-to-date work on Irish placenames in general. P. W. Joyce's *Irish Names of Places* (3 volumes, 1869-1913) has recently been republished (1976) but though still useful in some respects it is now somewhat outdated and is not always accurate. His little guide, *Irish Local Names Explained* (Dublin, 1923) is still available and is useful for the beginner. It contains a gazetteer of placenames with explanation of their meaning (pp. 5-94) and a list of placename elements (pp. 95-107) with their Irish and anglicized spellings.

There have been two journals devoted to the study of Irish placenames published during this century. The *Bulletin of the Ulster Placename Society* was published between 1952 and 1956 and lapsed on the death of its editor Seán MacAirt. It is to be revived again under the editorship of Mrs. Deirdre Flanagan towards the end of 1978. From 1964 *Dinnseanchas* was published in Dublin by Cumann na Logainmneacha, but it seems to have lapsed now, at least for the time being.*

Finally, mention must be made of *Ireland in Maps* (Dublin, Dolmen Press, 1961), a 36-page catalogue of all the maps of Ireland or any part of it that have been published, from Ptolemy's maps c.150 AD down to 1961. Out of 120 items listed, six date from before 1500 AD and a further 22 from the 16th century. These older maps contain many early forms of placenames.

5. THE SPELLING AND PRONUNCIATION OF IRISH WORDS

In this section we are not concerned with anglicized spellings, which follow the vagaries of English spelling, but with the differences between Old Irish and Modern Irish spelling, two systems which stand in much the same relationship to each other as the pointed and unpointed spelling of Hebrew words. Old Irish spelling is more concise but less accurate than Modern Irish spelling. This has nothing to do, however, with how words were actually pronounced at a given period, for the spelling and pronunciation of Irish have developed along largely independent lines.

5.1 Some terms are used in this and the following sections which are unfamiliar to the general reader, so at this point it will be useful to define them. They arise in part from phonological and grammatical peculiarities of Irish that are unusual or unknown in other European languages, and in part from the fact that Irish has a native system of linguistic description going back to the Middle Ages which is quite independent of the traditional terminology of Latin grammar.

Broad (Ir. *leathan*): A consonant of neutral, velarized or labialized quality deriving from an adjacent broad-vowel letter (*a, o, u*) and corresponding to the 'hard' consonants of Russian; by extension, a word-form ending in a broad consonant. To broaden a word is to insert a broad glide-vowel between its final consonant and a preceding non-broad stem-vowel (cf. *slender*).

Eclipsis (Ir. *urú*): The process whereby the sound of an initial consonant is replaced by that of a homorganically related consonant written before it for grammatical reasons and derived from a final nasal consonant formerly standing at the end of the preceding word. Corresponds to nasal mutation in Welsh, but the eclipsing sound in Irish is no longer always nasal and in Welsh the eclipsed sound is not written.

Glide-vowel: A vowel-letter inserted between a consonant of like quality and a syllable-vowel of unlike quality to show the quality of the consonant, e.g. the vowel-letters flanking *s* in *caiseal* 'cashel, stone fort'.

Lenition (Ir. *séimhiú*): The process whereby the sound of a consonant is weakened, usually from occlusive to fricative, because of a preceding vowel, either within a word or initially after a now lost terminal vowel in the preceding word. Corresponds historically, though not always phonetically, with soft mutation in Welsh. In old-fashioned grammars sometimes called *aspiration* because in Roman script it is denoted by adding *h* to the lenited letter, but the phonetic process involved is not in fact aspiration, hence the latter term should be avoided.

Low plural (Ir. *iolradh íseal*): An umlaut-plural formed by internal vowel-change to make the final broad consonant slender, so that the plural is, so to speak, of the same height as the singular.

Mutation: Initial consonant change for grammatical reasons (see *eclipsis* and *lenition*).

Punctum delens: The use in medieval Latin mss. of a superscript point to delete a letter written in error or to show that a letter formerly pronounced had now become silent.

Réim, 'course': An oblique case-form of a word contrasting with its *ainm* or 'nominative' form.

Slender (Ir. *caol*): A consonant of palatalized quality deriving from an adjacent slender-vowel letter (*e, i*) and corresponding to the 'soft' consonants of Russian; by extension, a word-form ending in a slender consonant. As a verb - often replaced by *attenuate* - (Ir. *caolú*): to make a final consonant slender by inserting *i* before it after a broad stem-vowel.

Tall plural (Ir. *iolradh árd*): A plural formed by adding a suffix, so making it taller than the singular.

Taoibhréim, 'side-course': That form of *réim* which is placed beside another noun to qualify it, namely the genitive case of the noun.

Tuilréim, 'front-course': That form of *réim* which is preceded by a proclitic, normally a preposition, in which case it is derived from the old accusative and dative cases, or by the numeral *dhá* 'two' expressing the dual number.

5.2 Old Irish spelling arose during the Archaic Irish period by applying the Roman alphabet with the contemporary British, i.e. Early Welsh, pronunciation of Latin to Irish as it was then pronounced. Some words are spelt differently as between Archaic Irish and Old Irish because the final sound changes that converted Ancient Celtic through Proto-Irish into the stabilized forms of the later language had not yet been fully worked out, but the number of placenames quoted either from Latin or Archaic Irish sources for this stage of the language is not very great. The system once established for Old Irish endured right through till the Classical Irish period when the modern system gradually

evolved. This is still in use with some simplification introduced since the middle of the present century. Classical Irish could be and was written in every stage of transition from the Old Irish to the Modern Irish system.

5.21 The number of letter changes between the two systems is not very great and may be summarized as follows:

1. The modern writing of *ao/aoi* for older *ae/aí* and *oe/oí* and sometimes *uí*, and the reduction of all final unstressed short vowels to *a* or *e*;
2. The replacement of non-initial *p, t, c* in most cases and of non-initial *mb, nd, ld, mm, ss* in all cases by *b, d, g, m, nn, ll, m, s* respectively.

5.211 More extensive changes, because the length of words is increased by them sometimes very considerably, are caused by: (1) the fuller writing of consonantal mutations, and (2) the use of glide-vowels between a syllable-vowel and a following consonant of opposing quality. Of the former, while the initial eclipsis of *b, d, g* has always been shown by writing *mb, nd, ng*, the initial eclipsis of *p, t, c, f* was originally unmarked or denoted by writing *bf* in the last case, whereas in the modern system - after an intermediate phase of doubling the letter - the spellings *bp, dt, gc, bhf* have come to be used to show initial eclipsis of these letters. While lenition of *p, t, c*, whether initial or non-initial, has always been written as *ph, th, ch*, lenition of the other consonants was unmarked in the Old Irish spelling system, but *bh, dh, gh, mh, fh, sh* are now written where simple *b, d, g, m, f, s* (the last two sometimes marked with a *punctum delens*) formerly sufficed. Initially these letters received either their full or lenited sounds according to grammatical circumstances. In Irish script the *h* is now replaced by a superscript point.

5.212 Among glide-vowels, *i* was always written after other vowel-letters before a final slender consonant though not always before a medial slender consonant as in the modern spelling system. The broad glide-vowels *a* (after *e*) and *o* (after *i*) were normally omitted in the Old Irish spelling system which did, however, use the glide-vowel *u* after *a, e, i* where modern spelling omits it in the first case and writes *ea* and *io* in the other two cases. The following are some examples of Old Irish and Modern Irish spellings before and after the slanting stroke, intermediate forms showing a mixture of old and modern spellings being omitted. The anglicized spellings of the placenames in question are added in brackets to aid identification:

Emain Macha/Eamhain Macha (Navan, from An Emain),
 Cenél Enda/Cinéal Éanna, Temair/Teamhair (Tara),
 Sliab Cuilind/Sliabh gCuilinn (Slievegullion),
 Muscrige/Múscraige (Muskerry), Feda/Feadh (Fews),
 Benn Étair/Beann Éadair (Hill of Howth),
 Mag Bolcc/Magh Bolg (Moybolgue), Mag Bile/Magh Bhile (Movilla).

5.31 Changes in pronunciation are a different matter which have operated largely independently of spelling changes. *Th* and *dh* were pronounced like English voiceless and voiced *th* in 'thin' and 'then' down to the end of the 12th century when they fell together with *h* and *gh* respectively. Some placenames were anglicized early enough to preserve the late Middle Irish pronunciation, e.g. *Meath* from *Midhe*, and the element *rath* 'fort' even where the name was anglicized much later. Slender *t* and *d* beside *e* and *i* are now pronounced like English *ch* and *j*, except in Munster, but this is rarely shown in anglicised forms, due perhaps to the fact that O'Donovan was of Munster origin. Non-initial lenited *bh, dh, gh, mh* and *th* have often been reduced to the point of disappearing and this is reflected in the anglicized forms, and now also in many 20th century Irish written forms.

5.32 Several short vowels followed by a glide have undergone umlaut in pronunciation under the influence of the glide, so that *ea* is now always like *a* (except in *beag* 'little'), *io* is often like *o* instead of *i*, while *ai* and *oi* are pronounced as open *e*, e.g. Derry from Doire (cf. German and Swedish *ä*). On the other hand long vowels remain stable and there has been nothing like the Great Vowel Shift in English, so that English words borrowed in Middle English times retain their unshifted M.E. pronunciation, e.g. *pioipa* 'pipe', *pidar* 'powder', with continental Latin/Italian vowel values. In the long diphthongs *eó* and *iú* stress has shifted from the first to the second element, while *ae/aí* and *oe/oí* which have fallen together orthographically as *ao/aoi* are variously pronounced according to region. In Munster this has fallen together with *é*, in Connaught with *í*, in southern Scottish Gaelic with German *ö* or French *eu* (cf. *Mull* for *maol*), while in Ulster and northern Scottish Gaelic the sound is a retracted *ee* or unrounded *oo*, e.g. Ballykeel from *Baile Caol*, but *Ó Maonaigh* gives Mooney.

5.4 Scottish Gaelic has basically the same spelling system as Irish but generally uses the grave accent instead of the acute over long vowels in stressed initial syllables, omitting the accent over vowels in unstressed syllables, and retains the older digraphs *sb, sd, sg, eu* and the trigraph *chd* where Irish now prefers to write *sp, st, se, ea*, and *cht*.

5.5 It should be noted that Hogan's *Onomasticon* is based generally on the Old Irish spelling system, which is also for the most part the case in the Royal Irish Academy's (*Contributions to a Dictionary of the Irish Language*). Researchers on the history of Irish placenames thus need to be able to switch at will between the Old Irish and Modern Irish spelling systems, just as students of Hebrew and Arabic need to be able to switch between pointed and unpointed spellings. The modern forms being established by the Irish Placenames Commission, of course, use modern Irish spelling in its 20th-century simplified form.

6. THE ANGLICIZED SPELLING OF IRISH PLACENAMES

There are some slight variations according to the period when anglicization took place in different parts of the country but in general the following principles are followed:

Words: All phrasal placenames made up of separate words are treated as being one word in their anglicized form.

6.1 Consonants:

- (1) The letters *p, b, m, f, t, d, n, s, l, r, c, g, h* of modern Irish spelling are normally represented by the same letter in anglicized spelling except that:
 - (a) *s* may be represented by *sh* when it has its slender value beside a front-vowel letter (*e* or *i*) in Irish;
 - (b) *c* is normally replaced by *k* before a front vowel in the anglicized spelling, since English *c* is pronounced as *s* in this position contrary to the rule in Irish, and also when final;
 - (c) *c* is occasionally replaced by *qu* and *g* more rarely by *gu* or *gw* when followed by an Irish digraph such as *ai, oi, ui, ao* representing a front-vowel sound;
 - (d) *t* and *d* occasionally appear as English *th* (e.g. Thurles for *Durlas*) and *f* occasionally as English *wh* (e.g. Whiddy Island for *Oileán Fuide*), in both cases normally when beside a broad vowel (*a, o, u*) in Irish.
- (2) Consonants written single in Irish are normally doubled after a short stressed vowel in anglicized spelling, so that the Irish distinction in pronunciation between single *l, n, r* and double *ll, nn, rr* (the only double letters in Irish) is lost. Conversely, but more rarely, Irish double *ll, nn, rr* are written single after long vowels in the anglicized form.

- (3) When a consonant in the Irish orthography is eclipsed into silence it is simply omitted in the anglicized form.
- (4) Lenited consonants are written with different letters:
- bh* and *mh* represented by *v* or sometimes *w*;
 - ph* is sometimes retained but is more often replaced by *f*, while the silent *fh* is simply omitted;
 - ch* is represented by *gh* or sometimes by *h*, while original Irish *gh* and *dh* are represented by *y* or *g* or are lost;
 - th* and *sh* are represented by *h* or sometimes lost;
 - exceptionally *th* and *dh* sometimes survive as *th* in early anglicizations.

6.2 Short vowels. When stressed these are generally retained as in the Irish spelling, but there may be interchange between *a* and *o*, *o* and *u*, *e* and *i*, *i* and *u*, while Irish orthographic *ea* can be either *e* or *a* in anglicized spelling (e.g. Aglish or Eglis for *Eaglais*), and *ai* and *oi* may both appear as *e* (e.g. Derry for *Doire*).

Unstressed final Irish *a* and *e* are either lost or appear as *a* or *y*. The unstressed neutral vowel heard but not written within certain consonant clusters is usually but not always represented by a written vowel in the anglicized form.

6.3 Long vowels. These may vary according to whether anglicization took place before or after the English Great Vowel Shift.

- Long *á*, *é*, *ó* are usually represented by English long *a*, *e*, *o*, but the first two have usually though not always shifted their pronunciation according to modern English vowel values. Long *á* is rarely represented by *aa* (e.g. Naas, rhyming with 'face', but Maam, Maas, where it is pronounced 'ah'). The ending *-ane* is pronounced *-aan* in some names, e.g. Strabane, whereas in others it rhymes with 'Dane'.
- Long *í* and *ú* are represented phonetically by *ee* and *oo* in recent anglicizations, or historically by diphthongal long *i* and *ou* in older anglicizations with shifted pronunciation.
- Long *ao/aói* is represented by *ee* or more rarely *oo*, or in Munster sometimes by *ea*, originally with its older sound as in 'great', or else it is shortened and represented by *u* or *i*.
- The diphthongs *ia* and *ua*, which are pronounced *eea* and *ooa*, are generally treated like *í* and *ú* or like *é* and *ó*.
- The glide vowels which may follow or precede a long vowel in Irish spelling to show the quality of adjacent consonants are simply lost, in most cases with the distinctive consonant quality, while in the north long unstressed vowels have sometimes been shortened.

7. THE SHAPE OF IRISH TOWNLAND NAMES

7.1 These are either single words or phrasal names. Single-word names may consist of simple words or compound words and in either case the stress falls upon the first syllable, except in certain word-types in Munster Irish which has developed a new stress-system distinct from that of Classical Irish and other dialects. In compound words the initial consonant of the second part undergoes the change known as lenition which weakens its original sound.

Some names retain vestiges of the Irish definite article or now have the English definite article prefixed to them. Sometimes words that were plural in Irish have the English plural *-s* added to them. E.g. Killybegs/Cealla beaga (little churches).

Examples: Knock/Cnoc 'hill', Moy/Maigh 'plain', Inch/Inis 'island', Maze/Maighe 'plains', Frosses/Freasa 'showers', Pullans/Polláin 'hollows', Tempo/An t-Iompódh 'the turning', Nenagh/An Aonach 'the fair'; Omagh/Eo-mhagh 'yew-plain' (originally

anglicized correctly as Owey, but lenition now lost), Shandon/Sean-dún 'old-fort', with loss of lenition in Irish itself at juncture of homorganic consonants.

7.2 In the much more numerous phrasal class of placenames the stress falls on the first syllable of the last principal word, and almost always remains undisturbed in the anglicized form whatever other changes are made. Phrasal names are of the following types:

- Noun plus one or more adjectives: Loughbeg/Loch Beag 'little lake', Slievemeelmore/Sliabh Maol Mór 'big bare mountain'.
- Noun plus noun in genitive case: Slievegullion/Sliabh gCuilinn 'mountain of holly', i.e. 'holly mountain'.
- Noun plus definite article plus genitive, the commonest type of townland name: Limavady/Léim an Mhadaidh 'the dog's leap', Ardnacrusha/Árd na Croise 'the height of the cross', Altnaveagh/Allt na bhFiach 'the ravens' cliff'.
- Noun plus numeral plus genitive: Cloondalin/Cluain dá Linn 'meadow of two pools'.
- Noun plus proper name (forename or surname): Ballygawley/Baile Uí Dhálaigh 'O'Daly's townland'.
- Noun plus two or more nouns in genitive, only the last having the definite article: Tullywasnacunagh/Tulaigh Chuas na gCoineach 'the little hill of the holes of the rabbits'; from the Irish form one would expect the anglicized form to be Tullywasnacunagh, but the voiced and voiceless consonants have been transposed.

7.3 Phrasal names involve a number of points of Irish grammar.

- Nouns are either masculine or feminine, as in the Romance and Semitic languages, but the distinction is made only in the singular. Old Irish, however, had a neuter gender, like Latin and Greek, which has left some fossilized remains in the form of placenames, usually in the shape of consonantal eclipsis where it would not now be expected.
- Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, except *sean* (old), *droch* (bad) and *deagh* (good), which form a compound with the following noun. The initial consonant of an adjective or an indefinite genitive with no definite article has lenition (weak mutation) if the noun is feminine but not if it is masculine except after certain prepositions, while after neuters - which have now become either masculine or feminine - it originally had eclipsis.
- Plurals are of two types: 1. *iolradh íseal* 'low plural', formed by internal vowel-change (cf. English man/men), whereby an *i* is inserted before the final consonant, sometimes with other vowel-changes, to make it slender in quality, e.g. *fear* 'man'/*fíre* 'men', *pollán* 'hollow'/*polláin* 'hollows'; and 2. *iolradh árd* 'tall plural', formed by adding a weak suffix *-a* or *-e*, or a strong suffix: *-í*, *-acha*, *-anna*, *-ta*, *-te*, *-tha*, *-the*, *-anta*, the strong endings being modern developments.
- In addition to the *ainm* form, 'nominative', nouns also have a *taoibhréim* or genitive form, and in some words two special forms with no English equivalent: the *tuilréim* used after prepositions, and also a vocative form which does not normally affect placenames.
- The *tuilréim* is a conflation of the original accusative and dative cases used after prepositions, and when differing from the nominative it is formed by making the final broad consonant of the nominative, or occasionally of the genitive, slender by inserting *i* before it. It occurs only in feminines, apart from *teach* 'house' and *sliabh* 'mountain' (*tuilréim*: *toigh* and *sléibh*). All plurals formerly had a special *tuilréim* ending *-ibh*, now disused except in set phrases and certain placenames, e.g. *Na Dúnaibh*, Downings (Co. Donegal), but the English form is from an alternative diminutive form *Dúnáin*. Since placenames are often preceded by prepositions, their *tuilréim* sometimes becomes fixed as the basic form of the placename, thus Kenmare/Ceann Mara (Co. Kerry) is nominative

(though the Irish name of the place is in fact *Neidín*) but Kinvara/Cionn Mhara (Co. Galway) is the tuilréim form, with an old dative form of *ceann* preserved.

- (6) The *tuilréim* form is also used after the numeral *dhá* 'two' as dual number, even when no preposition is present, and in this case is followed by the plural form of the adjective with lenition.
- (7) The *taoibhréim* or genitive is formed in five ways:
- by internal vowel-change with slendering of the final consonant in most masculines and all broad adjectives qualifying a masculine noun;
 - by adding the slender vowel *-e* to most feminines and their adjectives and to a few masculines including *teach* and *sliabh*;
 - by adding the broad vowel *-a* to masculine names of persons with the suffixes *-óir*, *-úir*, *-éir*, feminine abstract nouns with the suffixes *-acht* and *-áil*, the feminine of adjectives with the suffix *-úil*, and a few other nouns of both genders;
 - by making no change in the diminutive suffix *-ín*, in the masculine of slender adjectives, and in most nouns and all adjectives ending in a vowel;
 - by adding a broad consonant to a few mostly feminine nouns which also keep it in the genitive plural and dual.
- (8) Plurals with a strong ending keep it in the genitive plural but in all other words the genitive plural and dual are identical with the nominative singular apart from the few which add a broad consonant to form their genitive. The genitive plurals of *bean* 'woman', *bó* 'cow', *súil* 'eye' are however *ban*, *bó*, *súil*.
- (9) The *Ó* prefix of surnames becomes *Uí* in the genitive singular and nominative plural but reverts to *Ó* in the genitive plural, while the genitive of *Mac* 'son' in surnames is *Mhic*.
- (10) The forms of the definite article are as follows:
Singular (except genitive feminine) and dual: *an*
Plural and genitive feminine singular: *na*
an prefixes *t* to vowels in the masculine nominative singular only and causes lenition of consonants, and prefixes *t* to lenitable *s* in all other cases except the masculine nominative singular.
na eclipses the genitive plural but prefixes *h* to vowels in all other cases.
- (11) Adjectives have lenition when not preceded by a homorganic consonant after all singular nouns except (a) masculines in the nominative or immediately preceded by a non-leniting preposition, and (b) feminines in the genitive; also after low plurals and all dual nouns, but lenition is sometimes lost in the anglicized forms of placenames where it would be expected. There is no lenition after tall plurals, the feminine genitive singular, or singular masculines in the nominative or immediately preceded by a non-leniting preposition.

8. THE SHAPE OF POPULATION NAMES AND OF IRISH BARONY NAMES

In Ancient Celtic times of the Iron Age period population names might properly be described as tribal names though later this designation becomes inappropriate as the names came to denote the whole people of particular *tuath*-kingdoms whatever their ethnic origin. A large number of these names survive as barony names and in the names of three provinces and several counties, and also of a few parishes. They are of different types as follows: bar. = barony, par. = parish.

8.1 Plural names:

- ending in a slender consonant, broadened in their genitive, with addition of *-a* (originally *-u*) in their old accusative case and *-aibh* in their old dative case:
Laighin, whence *Cúige Laighean* (Leinster)
Manaigh, whence *Fir Manach* (Fermanagh), cf. Gaulish *Menapii*
Ulaidh, whence *Cúige Uladh* (Ulster)
Mughdhoirn (Mourne bar.) 'slave-Darini'; Ptolemy mentions the *Darini*.
- ending in *-i*, becoming *-e* in the genitive, both being later confused:
Déisi (Deece bar., Co. Meath), cf. Sanskrit *Dasya* 'tributary people'.
Uaithni } two peoples on borders of Tipperary and Limerick, whence
Arai } Owney and Arra bar. (Tipperary) and Owneybeg bar. (Limerick).
Uaithni derives from *Auteini* mentioned by Ptolemy.
Luighni } whence *Lune bar.* (Meath) and *Leyney bar.* (Sligo).
Luaighni }
Eili, whence *Eliogarty bar.* (Tipperary).

8.2 Collective names. Formed with prefix or suffix and often alternatives derived from the same tribal name:

- prefix *Dál* 'part': *Dál Riada* in north Antrim (pronounced *Reeada* and not *Reaada* as now often mispronounced), from tribal name *Reti* preserved in Latin documents, cf. *Carrickarede*.
Dál mBuinne, whence *Dalboyne* (Lisburn area)
- prefix *Corcu*, later *Corca* 'progeny': *Corcu Dhuibhne*, whence *Corkaguiney bar.* (Kerry), *Corcu Mruadh*, whence *Corcumroe bar.* (Clare), *Corca Righe*, whence *Corkaree bar.* (Westmeath)
- suffix *-rige*, later also *-raighe*: *Ciarrraighe/Kerry*, *Osraighe/Ossory* (diocese), *Partraighe/Partry* (mountains), *Múscraighe/Muskerry bar.* (Cork), *Darraighe/Dartry bar.* (Monaghan)
- suffix *-ne*, later also *-na*: *Breifne/Brefney* (Leitrim/Cavan), *Lathairne* or *Latharna/Larne* (Antrim), *Dealbhna/Delvin bar.* (Westmeath)
- suffix *-acht*, infrequent collective: *Connachta/Connaught*, *Cianachta/Keenaght bar.* (Derry)

8.3 Sept names: later divisions of earlier tribes, formed with various prefixes:

- prefix *Uí* (sometimes in tuilréim form *Uíbh*) 'descendants' partly pre-literary in formation but revived later to form sept names not all of which became territorial:
Uíbh Eachach/Iveagh bar. (Down), *Uí Nialláin/Oneilland bar.* (Armagh), *Uí Dróna/Idrone bar.* (Carlow)
- prefix *Cinéal* 'kind, class, generation', mainly from 5th century:
Cinéal Fhaghartaigh/Kinelarty bar. (Down)
Cinéal mBeice/Kinalmeaky bar. (Cork)
- prefix *Clann* 'children, race', (from 6th century):
Clann Aodha Bhuidhe/Clandeboyne (Down), *Clann Chealaigh/Clankelly* (Fermanagh), *Clann Bhreasail/Clanbrasil* (district in north Armagh)
- prefix *Muintear* 'people' (from 6th century):
Muintear Luinigh/Munterloney par. (north Tyrone)

- (e) prefix *Pobal* 'people':
Pobal Bhriain/Pubblebrien bar. (Limerick)
- (f) prefix *Fir* or *Feara* 'men':
Fir Manach/Fermanagh, Feara Maighe/Fermoy (men of the plain),
Feara Bile/Farbill bar. (Westmeath) - 'men of the sacred tree',
Feara Tulach/Fartullagh bar. (Westmeath) - 'men of the hills'
- (g) prefix *Teaghlach* 'family' or *Teallach* 'hearth, residence' (these two words were confused in names):
Teallach Eachach/Tullyhaw bar. (Cavan) - 'Eochu's residence'
Teallach Dhunchadha/Tullyhunco bar. (Cavan)
- (h) prefix *Siol* 'seed':
Siol Éalaigh/Shillelagh bar. (Wicklow)
Siol Fhealachair/Shillelogher bar. (Kilkenny).

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* For the future of *Dinnseanchas* see p.11 above, under Appointments. Ed.

MARGARET GELLING, *Signposts to the past: place-names and the history of England*, J. M. Dent and Sons, 256 pages + 21 maps, £6.50.

Dr. Gelling provides a valuable synthesis of the developments in the study of English place-names over the last fifteen years, based mainly on the articles produced by what she terms (p.15) the 'middle-aged revolution', but with some new material too, particularly on the Romano-British period (chapter 2), and with many personal comments *passim*. Her book, intended primarily for the archaeologist and local historian (p.11), should become required reading for all undergraduates or extra-mural students in either subject, as well as for those on more mainstream historical or linguistic courses. Delegates to recent Council for Name Studies conferences will find several familiar, but perennially-thorny, topics discussed: the interpretation of Celtic compounds (pp. 51-2), place-names in OE *þrop* (pp.227-8), personal names or significant elements (pp. 170-80), the 'so-called Grimston-hybrids' (pp. 228-34) and the significance of the 'x's *tūn*' type of place-name (pp. 180-90). All these esoteric-sounding subjects, and others, are treated in an intelligible and dialectic manner with frequent reference to a bibliography of specialist articles for further study.

The over-all scheme of Dr. Gelling's book is chronological from the pre-Roman period to the end of the eleventh century, with a chapter on 'The Languages' at the beginning and one on 'Place-names and the Archaeologist' half way through. Although some space is given (pp. 23-9) to a discussion of the relationship between the written and spoken forms of English place-names, little is said of the actual nature of the available sources. A fuller discussion of the sources would be helpful to the many amateur, or budding, historians and archaeologists who have little appreciation of the best classes of document to consult for different types of place-name research. An extra chapter on the use of field and street-names to the economic and social historian, particularly of the medieval period, might have brought these often highly-significant types of name to the attention of a group of specialists which has in the past tended to ignore them.

A more specific criticism of the book, not unimportant in view of its intended readership, is the use of Greater London (GTL) as a county designation for places which are historically parts of Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex. Although it may be argued that the city of London has always had a distinct economic and social influence over its hinterland, its neighbouring counties were administratively separate until the very recent past and should be kept so in any discussion of their history and place-names.

The bibliography is useful and fairly comprehensive for its purpose, though two additions may be suggested here. The first of these is the series of articles by John Dodgson on place-names in *-ing* (*Beiträge zur Namenforschung* NF 2 (1967), pp. 221-45, 325-96, and NF 3 (1968), pp. 141-89) which could have been referred to in the discussion of singular *-ing* formations (pp. 120-2, 179-80). The second is the study by Eilert Ekwall of 'Variation and change in English place-names' (*Vetenskaps-Societeten i Lund, Arsbok* for 1962, pp. 3-49), which is very relevant to the question of name-changes and the antiquity or otherwise of surviving place-names.

While, quite rightly, maintaining (p.12) that 'a closed shop is something of a necessity on the etymological side of place-name study', Dr. Gelling makes frequent comments designed to stimulate research into less purely-linguistic aspects of the subject. Her plea (pp. 116, 180) for more studies of the total name-stock of limited areas, to complement those which consider one name-type across a larger area, is one to be supported. Individual editors of the English Place-Name Society volumes attempt to catalogue the total name-stock of a whole county and inevitably do not have the time to investigate the particular significance, within its own social and historical context, of every name or