ON THE GEOGRAPHY OF ENGLISH FAMILY NAMES

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Abstract

The publications dealing with the distributional patterns of English family names in the United Kingdom are anything but numerous and comprehensive. For this task researchers used either different data sets to differing degrees and from different periods in the past or from different current periods. A concerted action in onomastic research is still lacking. A project on English surname geography, of which the first volume has recently appeared, is being carried out at the University of Bamberg. Its databases are briefly described and some examples of surnames with a recent or a long history are treated accordingly. The latter often developed variants of various kinds that mirrored changes in the common language that either survived or died out there. Also a quantificational surname approach is sketched to help identify historical cultural regions in England. Finally some aspects are mentioned that will be dealt with in the second volume.

Key words
hereditary English surnames, diachronic and synchronic databases, surnames and dialects, cultural regions

1. Introductory remarks and earlier research

The English of England, in fact of the United Kingdom, has repeatedly been put on maps. There are national linguistic atlases and regional ones, very detailed maps and simplified ones. Surprisingly perhaps, a comprehensive surname atlas does not yet exist.

The study of names is undoubtedly fascinating. It is an interdisciplinary activity, combining the interests of the genealogist, the human biologist, the historian and the philologist.

In England the introduction of hereditary surnames was connected with the enormous cultural change that followed the Norman Conquest in 1066. It is difficult to say when the family names became hereditary, but by about the mid 14th century very many people in southern and middle England had a hereditary surname. In northern England this process
took at least one hundred years longer and much longer in Scotland. Many Scottish names have been documented only since the 15th and 16th centuries, while on the Shetland Islands and in Wales the majority of the population only began to receive a hereditary surname as late as in the 18th century.

A family name could change over the course of a person’s life or from generation to generation. Names could also change due to the practice of the scribes. To give an example: a man could first be called *Will Dickson*, later he could call himself *Will Potter* or *Will Smith*, following his profession and later still, should he move away from home, he could call himself in his new surroundings after his place of birth, for example *Will York* or *Will Chester*. It thus becomes apparent that someone could have been called *Potter* although he was no longer a potter or had never been one.

The publications dealing with the distributional patterns of selected family names in the United Kingdom – and this overview is restricted to these – are anything but numerous and comprehensive. An early book was published by Guppy already in 1890 under the title *Homes of Family Names in Great Britain*. His distributional data are based on counting surnames of peasants in late Victorian county address books. Unfortunately, his book does not contain any maps. The first person who studied the geography of a name, his own, was Leeson (1964) who started from 16th century Parish Register Records over General Register Office Indexes of 1841 – 1850 down to an analysis of a telephone directory of 1961. Leeson was well ahead of his time. Only twenty years later did such surname geographic publications become a little more numerous. Brett (1985), Porteous (1987), Ecclestone (1989) and Titterton (1990) deserve to be mentioned in this regard. Their contributions contain a few distributional surname maps. A first peak in this kind of research was reached with Colin Rogers’ *The Surname Detective* (1995). Worth mentioning from the surname-geographic point of view are, finally, Steve Archer’s *The British 19th Century Surname Atlas* (2003), mapping the 1881 Census results, Hey (1997) and (2000) who, for one thing, used the telephone directories of the late 1980s and, for another, the Parish Death Registers of 1842 and 1846, and, again, Hey (1998) and (2003) who apart from providing a general overview also mapped the distribution of some rarer

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1 The CD-ROM contains coloured maps of over 400,000 surnames on a nationwide level! These can be generated and printed both on a county basis and on the considerably smaller Poor Law Union basis. A Poor Law Union was a unit used for local government in the United Kingdom from the 19th century until 1930. For Scotland, unfortunately, no data are available for the Poor Law Union. Despite the high number of surnames contained on this remarkable resource, the CD does not list all the existing surnames.
family names on the basis of the Census results of 1881. In the contributions mentioned, a welcome methodological diversity becomes noticeable, as does the fact that quite different data records from quite different periods of time were drawn upon. What is lacking, is a concerted action. Hopefully, this will come about one day. This concerted action should also include the Bamberg surname project that I would now like to present briefly. In compiling our atlas, we have done what the available databases permitted us to do. Of course, we could not investigate the origin of the single surnames in Parish Registers or tax lists that are hidden in English county archives. This task must be left to researchers in England. One such study is Porteous (1988) who traced the origin of the Mells family.

2. Databases used in the Bamberg project and mapping procedures

We rely on the following databases:

1. The International Genealogical Index (IGI) for the period between 1538 and 1850 and The British Isles Vital Records Index (VRI) for the period between 1538 and 1906. The IGI is a compilation of Parish Register Records (consisting of birth, baptism, marriage and death or burial records) made available by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, better known as Mormons. The Mormons’ great interest in genealogy goes back to their belief that families stay together in the other world. Therefore members of this church seek their ancestors in order to prepare them for a “sealing of their families” that can only take place after all the ancestors have been discovered. The IGI, of course, has weaknesses, such as the fact that the same persons were mentioned several times, or that a specific part of the population was not registered in most of the Parish Registers, namely those persons who did not belong to the Anglican Church. Records could also have been lost through fire and other catastrophes. The double listing of names in the IGI was largely removed in the VRI. This database was also made available by the

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2 The publications of the human biologists Lasker (1985), Lasker – Kaplan (1983), Lasker – Mascie-Taylor (1990) and Mascie-Taylor – Lasker (1990) pursued a different aim insofar as they selected some names whose bearers married during the first three months of 1975 in England and Wales. For population geneticists the adult breeding population is of greater interest than birth or death announcements.

3 The Mormons, of course, made available such records also for other countries, not just for the British Isles.
Mormons; it consists of about 12.3 million records and is obtainable on two CD-ROMs, one of records of births and baptisms and the other of marriage records.

2. Census results
In Great Britain censuses have been carried out since 1801. Only since 1841 have they become more valuable, as since then they have contained statistical data. The Mormons published the census results of 1881 on CD-ROM. They are more exact than the IGI, but they are not flawless either. Occasionally one encounters orthographic mistakes. In those years about half the British population could either not read or write at all or only within narrow limits. The weaknesses of the database have, however, largely been corrected by genealogy experts. As the maps of the aforementioned *British 19th Century Surname Atlas* by Steve Archer are in colour, we had to do without them as their publication would have been too costly. A conversion into black and white maps also proved to be senseless as the various gradations were no longer distinguishable. As a consequence the census results of 1881 were presented in the form of tables.

3. With regard to the present-day geography of family names, telephone directories were used, the *UK-Info Disk 2004* to be more precise. Altogether 11.5 million entries were searched. People who did not want to be listed were disregarded, of course. But there were also those who were listed twice – with a private and a business number.

Several possibilities existed in mapping the data. They were either presented on area fill maps using the county level, on point maps or on pie charts whenever several names or variants were to be compared with each other. The circles vary in size thus indicating a greater versus a lower concentration of the surname and its variants.

Maps based on the IGI or the VRI data were first cleared of double listings with the program *LDS Companion* and then generated with the software *GenMap UK*. The telephone directory data were first converted into Excel data lists which were then generated into maps with the software *PCMap*. These maps show, in addition, the absolute number of occurrences of the surnames per county.
3. Some results

For presentation here a few surnames with a long history and one with a short history in England were selected. A family name with a short history in England is Murphy. It was not listed by Guppy in 1890 and must be presumed to have become common in England only after the large-scale immigration from Ireland since the potato famine in the mid-19th century. As Map 1a shows, Murphy is today a common family name in England, the density of which, however, is greatest in the historical Lancashire area. With the county reform of 1974 this large county was divided into several smaller units.\(^4\) Next in Murphy-density is London. Map 2 reveals an especially strong correlation of both areas with Irish immigration. In Lancashire it was possible to prove linguistically even one century later that many Irish immigrants found work there. Map and legend (Maps 3a and 3b) taken from the linguistic atlas by Viereck & Ramisch (1991) attest Anglo-Irish praties in this area. Irish préata, práta, fata are originally borrowings from English potato that the Irish later brought back to England as pratie(s). Another allusion to the Irish is to be seen in murphies ‘potatoes’ that in Orton’s Survey of English Dialects (1962-1971) shows up only once in the Southeast of England and, consequently, was not mapped in Viereck & Ramisch (1991). Half a century earlier Wright had attested murphy for a much greater area in England in his English Dialect Dictionary (1898-1905). Onions’ Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology (1966) notes “from the common Irish surname Murphy, with allusion to the potato being a staple article of food of the Irish peasant” (s.v. ‘murphy’). In Ireland the surname Murphy had, of course, nothing to do with potato, but derived from Irish Ó Murchadha ‘descendant of Murchadh ‘warrior at sea’ (Irish muir ‘sea’ and chadh ‘warrior’). The third strongest concentration of Murphy today is in Lanarkshire in Scotland. The industrialised area in and around the third largest city in Great Britain, Glasgow, attracted many Irish looking for work, which they apparently also found there. As was to be expected, the 1881 Census results already showed the three concentrations of Murphy in the United Kingdom quite clearly (see Map 1b).

In contrast to Murphy, variants of the next surname to be presented have already been at home in England for a long time. However, not all of them have survived. The name ultimately goes back to an early Latin loanword, puteus, which is attested in Old English

\(^4\) See Maps A, B and C on pre- and post-1974 county divisions and their names.
as *pytt* ‘pit’. Old English <y> developed in Middle English to <e> in the Southeast, to <i> in the North and to <u> [ü] in the Southwest and the West Midlands. This development is mirrored in the said surname *Pytt*, *Pett*, *Pitt* and *Putt* ‘dweller at a pit’ or ‘(place at) the pit’ as well as in the place-name *Pett* in East Sussex (*Pette* 1195) (Mills 1998²). The telephone directories (*UK-Info Disk 2004*) list the following variants:

<table>
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<th>Variant</th>
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<td></td>
<td>(9,303)</td>
<td>(4,274)</td>
<td>(4,149)</td>
<td>(1,059)</td>
<td>(390)</td>
<td>(11)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
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<td>(1,145)</td>
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<td>(619)</td>
<td>(237)</td>
<td>(18)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putt</td>
<td>(1,085)</td>
<td>(659)</td>
<td>(31)</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Variants of the surname *Pitt*.

The occurrence of the original form *Pytt* became regionally more and more restricted in the course of time, but survived surprisingly down to the early 19th century (Map 4). *Pytt* together with *Pett* and *Putt* belong to the sizeable group of English words fossilised in family names. In the common language these spellings had died out centuries ago. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1989²) only <i> spellings are attested from the early 17th century, *pit* with one <t> – in contrast to the family names where <tt> predominate by far.

According to the above table, *Pett*, *Petts* and *Putt* occupy a middle position as far as the frequency of occurrence of all the variants is concerned. Map 5 displays the distribution of *Pett* and *Putt* in absolute numbers in comparison to each other and Map 6 shows the regional distribution of the variant *Petts*. The highest density of *Pett* and *Petts* is found in the Southeast of England, namely in Kent and the neighbouring counties, while of *Putt* it is the Southwest, especially Devon. The VRI and the 1881 Census confirm Kent in the Southeast and Devon in the Southwest as centres of the occurrence of *Pett* and *Putt* respectively. The origin of both variants must therefore be thought there. What, historically
speaking, no longer fits into the picture is the rather high occurrence of Putt in and around
London. However, the capital is a special case as it has acted as a magnet for migrants
during all the centuries since surnames were formed. It is, therefore, normal to find that
some, probably many, people there possess a surname that is otherwise concentrated
elsewhere. The distribution of the name in and around London can often be disregarded,
unless, of course, all the other examples of the surname are from those parts.

The final -s as in Petts occurs in all surname categories, see Williams or Margetts
(patronymics and metronymics), Briggs (topographical expressions), Smiths (occupational
terms) or Oulds (nicknames). The ending can have different meanings. The Williams-type
was first attested in the Domesday Book in 1086 – of course in Latin – as Robertus filius
Willelmi, in English a Thomas Williams appeared in 1307. Here the final –s is a sign of
the genitive ‘son of William’; it can also mark the possessive. For Petts and variants
the first attestations are Roger de Pettes 1276, John ater Puttes 1296 and Richard Pyts 1395
(Reaney & Wilson 1976). These are clearly plural forms.

Maps 4, 5 and 6 also show that the bearers of these names, in the overwhelming
majority of cases, liked to stay where their ancestors had lived. Many English family
names display a surprising distributional stability across the centuries. This can also be
said of the following examples. Whereas Pytt, Pett, Pitt and Putt show special
developments in phonology, Oakes, Noakes and Roake testify to the disintegration of old
decensions. The name ultimately goes back to Old English āc ‘oak’. We are here exposed
both to gender confusion – grammatical gender was abandoned in early Middle English –
and the wrong separation of article and noun. Old English āc ‘oak’ was feminine which
together with a local addition corresponded to the construction æt þære āce ‘at the oak’ in
Old English. This developed to attær óke /ɔː/ in Middle English. However, Middle English
documents also attest the type atten óke /ɔː/ as if an Old English *æt þæm āce had
preceded. The noun would then have been either masculine or neuter. As soon as the forms
attær and atten on their way to the indeclinable form of the definite article competed with
the form atte (= at the), it could easily happen that the final consonants -r and -n were
erroneously assumed to be the beginning of the noun. Thus the surnames Roak and Noake
developed in addition to the normal Oake.

Maps 7 and 8 show the historical diffusion of Oakes and Noakes and Maps 9 and 10
the present distribution of Oakes, Noakes and Roake. Surprisingly, members of these
families have hardly ever migrated north of the Humber. From the Humber in the East to the rivers Lune and Ribble in the West an important linguistic divide made itself felt down to the middle of the 20th century (see line 1 on Map 11). North of it Old English /aː/, as in āc, remained unrounded, to the South it was rounded during the 11th-13th centuries to long open /ɔː/ which was raised in the 16th and 17th centuries and then diphthongized in the 19th century to Modern English /œː/, as we find it today in the pronunciation of Oake, Noake and Roake. The first attestations of these names are all documented south of the Humber (see Reaney & Wilson 1976, s. v.). The final -s in these surnames is a sign of the plural.

Compound surnames with Old English āc as a second element fit this distributional pattern nicely. To these belong Brodok ‘large oak’ (Old English brād + āc), first bearer John del Brodeoke, 1295 Salop; Halyok ‘holy oak’ (Old English hālig + āc), first bearer Walter de Halyok, 1255 Worcestershire; Pykedok ‘pointed oak’ (Old English *pīcede + āc), first bearer William de la Pykedok, 1327 Gloucestershire; Selliok ‘flourishing oaktree’ (Old English *sēlig + āc), first bearer Robert del Selliok, 1327 Derbyshire; Vairoke ‘fair oak’ (Old English faeger + āc with later southern voicing of initial F- to V-), first bearer Robert atte Vairoke, 1312 Gloucestershire and Whitoke ‘white oak’ (Old English hwīt + āc), first bearer Alice atte Whitoke, 1302-03 Cheshire (all examples from Kristensson 1970, s.v.).

Surnames with Old English āc ‘oak’ north of the Humber – Lune/Ribble line are listed in Reaney & Wilson 1976 only as the first element in compounds, namely Aked, Akett, Akitt and Aikett, all variants meaning ‘dweller by the oak-covered headland’ (Old English āc + hēafod), first bearer of the name Richard de Aykeheved, 1280 Yorkshire or Ackroyd, Acroyd, Akeroyd, Akroyd, Aykroyd, Ackred, Akred and Ecroyd, all variants meaning ‘dweller by the oak-clearing’ (Old English āc + *rod ‘clearing’), first bearers Hugo Aikroide, 1612 York and Henry Ackroyd, 1645 York. The distribution of all these surnames is remarkably similar: their greatest density in 1881 was in Yorkshire or north of it (see Map 12 Akitt and Map 13, showing the distributions of Ackroyd, Acroyd, Akroyd, Akeroyd, Eckroyd, Ecroyd and Ackred). Thus with their surprising distributional stability the surnames with Old English āc precisely mirror diachronic phonological processes of English.
Not only do single surnames show a remarkable stability over long periods of time, this can also be said when endings are attached to patronymics and metronymics. With the following two maps we move from an analysis of single family names or very few family names to a stronger quantification. Map 14 shows that the *Williams*-type (patronymic plus genitival -s) is especially well-attested in Wales, the West Midlands and in southern England. Also the final -s in *Petts* shows a very similar distribution (cf. Map 6) insofar as it hardly occurs in the North of England. As already mentioned, the strong presence of *Petts* in the Southeast of England is due to the vowel <e>, or, to put it differently, the vowel is responsible for the striking absence of this surname in the West Midlands and in Wales. In contrast to the *Williams*-type, the ending -son, as for example in *Williamson*,\(^5\) is strongest in the North of England and diminishes in strength further south (Map 15). Both maps show that the mapping of surname categories may well lead to clear regional contrasts. Overlaps of surnames in -son and -s are minimal. Maps 14 and 15 are Schürer’s (2004) who attempts to identify historical cultural regions with the help of family names. His source is the Census of 1881. Schürer compared these results with those of taxlists, the Lay Subsidy Rolls of 500-600 years ago, and discovered astonishing correspondences in their distributions – another proof of the stability of these surnames across the centuries. It is interesting that important traditional dialect features of English reveal clear distributional correspondences with the patronymics mentioned. Haematological results are also of importance (see Map 16). This is true of the very clearly differentiated northern region as well as of the adjoining southern region.

The factors that traditionally have been considered in creating cultural regions in England were dialects, topography and politics, population density (see Map 16), the economy and commerce, as well as material culture, such as the architecture of houses. To these and to geographic haematology, a rather recent addition, family names, one must now add. For the Welsh-English border area this is, however, only a rediscovery. For this region, the research with regard to the diffusion of Welsh and English family names and their correlation with the distribution of blood groups go back already to the 1950s and 1960s. Significant differences between the distribution of blood groups, on the one hand, and of Welsh and English surnames, on the other, were noted then (Viereck 2007: 527ff.).

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\(^5\) The ending -son counts for both sexes. Surnames in -daughter are not attested today.
More recently I described a clear correlation between a special dialectal feature of English, the blood groups and family names in parts of England (Viereck 2007: 530ff.).

4. Further research

The identification of cultural regions with reference to family names has only just begun in England. Also DNA tests in a bid to search for separating families with the same surnames and to find the first bearer of a particular family name have only been used sparingly in England up to now. Further aspects to be pursued are the following: Which family names show the widest distribution and which ones are the most concentrated? Do they correlate with a specific surname type? Family names that go back to dialect words have also only been researched very unsatisfactorily up to now. In his English Dialect Dictionary (1898-1905) Wright attested royd ‘clearing’ in Yorkshire and Lancashire. With this second element a number of surnames are formed such as Ackroyd and variants – this family name was already mentioned above with regard to its first element denoting ‘dweller by the oak-clearing’ – according to Reaney & Wilson (1976²) “a Yorkshire name preserving the dialectal pronunciation royd’ (for road ‘clearing’), Boothroyd “from Boothroyd ‘clearing with a booth or shed’ West Riding of Yorkshire”, Oldroyd ‘dweller at the old clearing’, Murgatroyd “from a lost Yorkshire place, ‘Margaret’s clearing ’” and Holroyd and variants ‘dweller at the clearing in the hollow’ (Yorkshire). According to Reaney & Wilson (1976²) the first bearers of the above names are John del Botherode, Adam de Buderude 1274, 1296, Adam de Olderode 1316, John Mergetrode 1379 and Thomas, Andrew Holerode 1296, Gilbert de Holrode 1327. The dialectal pronunciation

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6 In late Old English and at the beginning of the Middle English period originally voiceless fricatives in initial position became voiced. In contrast to the family names (for example Fid(d)ler – Vidler, Fenn – Venn) only very few remnants of this change were retained in the common language (see fox ‘male fox’ – vixen ‘female fox’ or fain ‘happy’ – vane ‘weathercock on a steeple’).

7 All listed in Reaney & Wilson (1976², s.v.). The examples listed only in Kristensson (1970) are Hegerode ‘high clearing’ (Old English hēah+rōd), first bearer Robert del Hegerode, 1327 Lancashire; Hengandrōde ‘steep clearing’ (Old Norse hengjandi+rōd), first bearer William del Hengandrōde, 1307 Yorkshire; Langhrode ‘long clearing’ (Old English langs+rōd), first bearer Amabilla del Langhrode, 1330 Yorkshire; Leghrode ‘wood-clearing’ (Old English lēah+rōd), first bearer Thomas del Leghrode, 1326 Yorkshire; Wotherode ‘hunting-clearing’ (Old English wāþ+rōd), first bearer John del Wotherode, 1325 Yorkshire and Okenrode ‘oak clearing’ (Old English ācen+rōd), first bearer Thomas del Okenrode, 1323 Lancashire. The name is due to a later change as in the 13th century it was Akenrode, following proper historical considerations.
manifested itself in the spelling of these surnames only much later, namely in the 17th and the early 18th century.\textsuperscript{8}

One of the weaknesses of Reaney & Wilson’s dictionary of 1976\textsuperscript{2} is that local surnames are often not listed. In addition to some of the surnames mentioned above with Old English *rod as a second element this is apparent also in its dialectal form -royd and in the dialect vocabulary in general, as, for example, the family names Bassenthwaite, Brocklehurst (Map 17) and Micklethwaite show.\textsuperscript{9} For more such examples both Kristensson’s study of 1970 and Wright’s English Dialect Dictionary (1898-1905) would have to be worked through. Wright’s dictionary is now available in digitalized form, unfortunately this version has not yet been checked against the dictionary proper.\textsuperscript{10}

What are the limits with respect to the selection of a family name when they became hereditary? Were there nouns that were used rarely or not at all as surnames? Animal names should be of interest in this connection. Hound, today reduced to the meaning of ‘hunting dog’, was attested only six times as a family name in the 17th and 18th centuries, eleven times in 1881 and today once only. An even more drastic decline as a surname is shown by Dog: from 95 occurrences in the 17th and 18th centuries to zero a century later and today. In view of the negative semantic development of both nouns this is no wonder. Ass and donkey left no traces in the diachronic corpora of English surnames, Frog occurred only three times and Pig(g) only four times in 1881. A seeming counterexample is Hog(g) with 10,906 occurrences in 1881. It does not only mean ‘pig’, but also ‘lamb’ and other young animals, a fact that no doubt increased its frequency of occurrence. Bear occurred 799 times as a surname, Fox 27,825 times and Wolf(e) 2,147 times (all figures refer to 1881). Hog(g), bear, fox and wolf played an important role in superstition with positive and negative connotations. In English, their negative associations occurred at a time when they had already established themselves strongly as surnames.

\textsuperscript{8} Hugo Aikroide 1612, Henry Ackroyd 1645 (both surnames were already mentioned above), Henry Akeroyd 1648, Richard Buthroid 1627, Robert Ouldroyde 1666, Bryan Murgetroyde 1647 and George Holroyd 1709 (see Reaney & Wilson 1976).\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{9} The omission of local surnames was largely corrected in the third edition of the dictionary (Reaney & Wilson 1991\textsuperscript{3}, rev. edition 1997) with the inclusion of some 4,000 additional surnames. Bassenthwaite, Brocklehurst and Okenrode, mentioned earlier, are still missing from the dictionary.

\textsuperscript{10} A further weakness of Reaney & Wilson’s dictionary must be seen in the fact that genealogical methods are largely ignored. With quite a number of examples Redmonds shows that “without some sort of genealogical evidence it can be unwise to link modern surnames with those found in medieval sources” (1997: 11). Hey concludes: “It will be a long time before we have reliable, comprehensive dictionaries of all surnames in the land” (2003: 17).
In conclusion I would like to say that our grammar of English surnames will be in two parts. Part I deals with aspects of expression and Part II with aspects of content, that is the atlas proper. Up to now we have devoted special attention to a selection of those family names that have their origin in local names, either locative or topographical, occupational names and nicknames (cf. Barker/Spoerlein/Vetter/Viereck 2007). On some surnames derived from personal names cf. Viereck (2008). This surname category will be given more attention in the volume to come together with those aspects that were only marginally dealt with in the first volume. To these belong mainly maps on aspects of expression, such as graphemics, special developments in phonology, and, on the syntagmatic level, the disintegration of Old English declensions, peculiarities of word formation and family names in relation to the history of the vocabulary both English and foreign.

5. References

Databases

Software

Secondary Literature


Maps

IGI, VRI and Census 1881 Map

The IGI, VRI and Census maps are generated directly with the software GenMap UK and display the pre-1974 county borders. They very closely resemble the borders used in the UK-Info maps generated with PCMap.

Map A
The maps are based on the [post] 1974-1996 counties of England and Wales and Scotland's pre-1974 counties without Bute, the Isle of Man and the Isle of Wight - a combination which suits the data received from UKInfo Disk best.

UK-Info 2004: County Codes Reference Map
### Table of County Abbreviations (based on “Chapman Codes”)###

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*County Cleveland resembles the UK-info data for Flintshire County. This seems to disregard the fact that the no longer existing county Cleveland consisted of Denbighshire and Wrexham as well as of Flintshire Country. Yet, Denbighshire and Wrexham are searchable in a subfolder of Flintshire County and thus part of the data received for Flintshire County, Cleveland.*

### Map C###

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Map 1b. British Census 1881: Actual Distribution of Murphy (County Level)
Distribution of Irish immigrants, 1851
Based on Census of 1851: Population Tables, II, vol. 1, pp. ccxc-ccxcvi
(P.P. 1852-3, lxxxviii, pt 1).
(From Darby 1973: 171)
L 25: II.4.1.1 Potatoes

What root-crops do you grow?
Map 1.1 Pytt in the 16th Century

Map 1.2 Pytt in the 17th Century

Map 1.3 Pytt in the 18th Century

Map 1.4 Pytt in the 19th Century

Map 4
Pett/Putt Comparison
UK-Info 2004: Absolute Distribution (Pie Chart)
Petts
UK-Info 2004: Absolute Distribution (Point Map)
Map 04. Distribution of Noakes and Oakes in 2004

Map 9
Middle English Heteroglosses.

1. The vowel in "stone": \( N / \ddot{a} / \neq S / \ddot{q} / \) (OE \( \ddot{a} \))

(Kurath 1972: 81)

Map 11
Map 12. British Census 1881: Actual Distribution of Akitt (County Level).
Figure 3 Distribution of patronymic and metronymic surnames ending with a genitival -s, by parish, 1881.

Notes: The key denotes the percentage of the population in each parish with patronymic and metronymic surnames ending with a genitival -s. The number in brackets indicates the number of parishes within the given category.
Source: 1881 CEBs (Schürer 2004)
Figure 2 Distribution of patronymic and metronymic surnames by parish, 1881.

Notes: The key denotes the percentage of the population in each parish with patronymic and metronymic surnames ending in -son. The number in brackets indicates the number of parishes within the given category.

Source: 1881 CEBs (Schöner 2004)
Map 17. British Census 1881: Actual Distribution of Brocklehurst (County Level).