WEST LOTHIAN PLACE NAMES

To steering s.t
with thanks!

John Garth Wilkinson

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This booklet is dedicated to my late father, who first let me taste words, who taught me to cultivate them, and love them for their roots.

Kyscit lloegyr llydan nifer
A leuuer yn eu llygeit
(Marwnat owein ap vryen)

And to my father-in-law Robert Lind Webster, who died as it was nearing completion.

Kintevin keinhaw amsser.
Dyar adar; glas callet.
Ereidir in rich; ich iguet.
Gwirt mor; brithottor tiret.

Ban ganhont cogeir ar blaen güt guiw
Handit muy y lla Auridet.
Tost muc; amluc anhunet.
Kan ethint uy kereint in attwet.

Maytime, fairest season;

Loud the birds, the grove green;

Ploughs in furrow, ox under yoke;

Green the sea, the fields all dappled.

When cuckoos sing on fine tree tops,
Greater grows my grief.

Smoke smart, sorrow hurts,
For my kinsmen have passed away.

(Black Book of Carmarthen 12c.)
This small booklet is the direct descendant of an even smaller one written last spring on behalf of Harburn Residents' Association: "The Place-names of the West Calder/Harburn Area". It was found that there is a renewal of interest in such matters, linked with a general current trend of root-seeking in family regional and national terms; it was also realised that there is a great need for a single accessible alphabetical archive of the place-names of our district.

It is over fifty years since Angus MacDonald published "The Place-names of West Lothian", and forty-five since Norman Dixon completed his Ph.D. thesis on "The Place-names of Midlothian". The first one covers West Lothian as it was before the Second World War, while the latter includes the Calders area, then in Midlothian. Aside from their scholarly thoroughness and general excellence, both works are arranged by parish, which means a great deal of page-turning and cross-referencing; both are in essence the fruit of studies undertaken in the 1930s. Since then new discoveries have been made, much more research has been carried out, and place-name studies have moved on.

I am however greatly indebted to both these authors, whose works are indispensable to the serious student of our place-names and thoroughly recommended to any reader who may wish to research far more names than there is space for here, including many minor names, Linlithgow street-names, lost names and field-names. Where derivations in this booklet differ from theirs, it is not without much thought; in a work of this nature it is not always possible to enter into often long and detailed arguments with analogies and references, although problematical names have usually been given more space.

Since the time of these last studies of our district's place-names, not only has the population of West Lothian increased dramatically with the growth of a new town in its former agricultural heartland and an accompanying shift of centre in many respects, but the boundaries of the district have also altered. With reorganisation in the mid-1970s, West Lothian gained the Calders area, but lost a north-western part to Central Region, while its north-eastern tip was nibbled off by Edinburgh District.

The area chosen for this booklet represents all the land that has ever been a part of West Lothian, that is, up to now (see map), not only because the earliest name and the best-documented of our names (see introduction) are within the portion lost to Central Region, but because the natural marches of Avon and Almond express the integrity of the area better than any shorter-term administrative boundaries.

Many people have been of assistance in the preparation of this booklet: the following deserve particular thanks: as far as contents go, Professor Colin Smith, for his initial impetus, with the Camulosossa—Camilith question, and his later kind encouragement; Gareth Ford, for his characteristically patient help with the Welsh; Esther Daborn, for sound advice on 'signposting' and for making me mind my Ps and Qs; Jim Porter of Harburn, the late Bob Webster of Pumpherton, the Macintyres of Linlithgow, the Millers of Ormiston Mains, and Tom Inglis of Livingston for specific local information; and Hilda Gibson and Jean Walkinshaw of West Calder Branch Library for coping so efficiently with many requests and enquiries. Any flaws in the work are, of course, mine alone.

On the production side, I would like to thank Nigel Gatherer of The Piggpipe Press for his enthusiastic and valuable advice on publishing; a great debt of gratitude is owed to Stuart Angus of Push Button Solutions Ltd. of West Calder for kindly offering the use of DTP facilities, and to Ken Waldron for much assistance in using them; especial thanks are due to Sybil Calderwood and Bill Walker of West Lothian District Council Libraries for encouragement and generous financial help with printing costs.

And, in another way, I thank Heather for her constant support.

JGW Torphin, June 1992

FIRTH OF FORTH
MAN BLACKNESS
**INTRODUCTION**

West Lothian has been described as a “channel of conflict” throughout history. Perhaps it is better to call it a “cultural crossroads”, sitting as it does at the nape of Great Britain’s neck, like a dog guarding the gateway to the north; its position has meant that, for all recorded history, it has been subject to many different influences, often at the same time. This is evident both in West Lothian’s place-names and in its mix of present-day inhabitants; since the unknown, aboriginal folk who lived in what we know call Scotland, Briton, Roman, Pict, Gael and Angle, Norseman and Norman have all been here, on the very fringes of their lands. We are their physical descendants; they are our linguistic ancestors, our family tree.

In order to understand these different influences, we shall look briefly in this introduction at the various peoples that are closest to us on this family tree; the tongues they spoke will be dealt with at greater length in NOTES ON LANGUAGE. In this way it will be possible to demonstrate several layers of language which we need to be able to tell apart so that we can understand our place-names.

**THE EARLIEST EVIDENCE AND THE DARK AGES**

The first recorded people to live in the land we now know as “West Lothian” were known to the Romans around 2000 years ago as the VOTADINI, from a native Brittonic form *Votadini*, meaning perhaps “the supporters” (of a god? or of a king?). These people became the GUOTODIN, the Cumbrian form of the same word. (Gododdin in Modern Welsh). The kingdom of Guotodin, with its capital at Din Eidyn (now EDINBURGH), stretched at one time from the Forth to the River Wear, now in Co. Durham. The earliest poem known to have been made in Scotland (and one of the oldest in Europe outside Greek and Latin) is called “The Gododdin” or “Aneurin’s Song”; it was composed in Cumbrian sometime around the end of the sixth century, passed on orally by the British bards and written down in the kingdom of Strathclyde around 900 AD. In this poem Mynnedog the Wealthy, the last king of Guotodin, assembles an army of North Britons, Picts and South Britons who march and ride down Dere Street to Catraeth (Catterick) to claim back land which once was theirs from the “men of Lloegr”, the Angles of Deira, as that region was known. Of the three hundred three score and three men who set out, only three returned, along with the bard, Aneurin. The land was lost.

The names of Mynnedog and his men are the first we know of from this area; it is highly likely that descendants of at least some of these warriors still live in West Lothian.

At the time of this battle, about 600AD, to the north-west of Guotodin, at the head of the Firth of Forth, there was a small province called Manau Guotodin (Manaw Gododdin in Modern Welsh); it was called Manau in Guotodin to distinguish it from the other Manau, the Isle of Man. (Manau is from British Manaw, possibly meaning “mountain-place”, or perhaps named after the Celtic (sea-) god: W Manawydan map Llyr, G Manannan mac Lir). The district of Manau Guotodin was centred on Stirling, then called Iudeu (urbs geidi by Bede; Iuddeu in modern Welsh). In those days the Firth of Forth was known as merin Iudeu “the sea of Iuddeu”. Relics of the name Manau are still seen in SLAMANNAN (moor of Manau) and CLACKMANNAN (stone of Manau), and possibly DALMENY. The north-western part of what we now call West Lothian may then have been a part of Manau Guotodin; it seems fairly certain that the whole region was part of Guotodin itself.

We need to return to the Roman occupation for the first specific, positively identified place-name we have in this district: a Latin version of a second century British name. In 1956 an inscription was found at Carriden by Bo’ness, then still in West Lothian. This inscription, on a stone altar, reads: VIKANI
CONSI(S)TENTES CASTEL(LO) VELUNIATE, ie "(set up by) the village councilors to the fort at Velunia". VELUNIA (or VELUNIATE, the exact form is unsure) was therefore the Romano-British name of the Roman fort at Carriden, at the end of the Antonine Wall. VELUNIA is probably from British *veluna- "good", meaning "a goodly place". These worthy British-speaking councilors of VELUNIA are the first people we hear of in our particular district. The name of their convener is not recorded.

The Romans left little trace on our place-names beyond writing down their latinisations of native forms; two other possibilities within West Lothian are CAMULOSESSA PRAESIDIUM "fortlet at the seat of the god Camulos" (see CAMILTY), and MEDIONEMETUM "the middle sanctuary" (see CAIRNPAPPLE HILL). Vulgar Latin was, however, spoken in Britain for at least three centuries; KILPUNT shows Welsh pont, a borrowing of Latin pont(em) "bridge".

A HOTCH POTCH OF LANGUAGES

As far as most of the rest of Dark Age history goes, it is unclear who were the dominant people; West Lothian seems to have been debatable land. The native Britons were under pressure from the north by Pict and Gael, from the east and south by Angles from around the seventh century onwards, and it was not until 1018, when Malcolm II, King of Scots, inherited the old British kingdom of Strathclyde and also defeated the Angles of Lothian at Carham, to define the Anglo-Scottish boundary as the Tweed, rather than the Forth, that any sort of stability was reached. This was followed by peaceful invasion from the south, during King David's reign (1124-53) in the form of Norman-English noblemen. There had also been, at some time, an apparently equally peaceful Norse presence in the area.

As a result, the twelfth century is notable for the mixture of tongues in what was then Linlithgowshire - see LINLITHgow. In probable order of status, the languages known and used here were: LATIN, in the church; NORMAN-FRENCH, by the nobility; an early form of MIDDLE ENGLISH, by their servants and others; GAELIC, by some landowners; and CUMBRIC, possibly still spoken in parts of this area, then mostly moor, bog and forest, at the time - if not, it was probably spoken in neighbouring Strathclyde and Peebleshire until around 1200. It is just possible that some NORSE was still in use, but more likely that it had been absorbed into Middle English speech; it would have been at a similar cultural level to this and Gaelic, as property of "lesser" landowners. We have, therefore, a possible six languages known at this time, all of them evident in the earliest records of our place-names (see NOTES ON LANGUAGE, below).

It should perhaps be borne in mind that these changes of overlordship denoted by layers of language do not mean a total wipe-out of the previous inhabitants, or even much difference in their way of life, or physical make-up; just as the early Celts had imposed themselves, not necessarily by force, on an even earlier population whose names and tongues are lost, so the successive waves of invaders after them would have formed a dominant upper stratum on existing layers of folk, with some intermingling. The people of West Lothian would have remained much the same, then as now, with an admixture of the incomers. This process is still evident today, and we only have to look around us to see the different physical types among our generally hybrid island population. As in archaeology, where different strata can be seen to form the whole picture, descendants of these diverse peoples still walk among us. They are, in fact, us.

And with this brief historical background of people in mind, we can look at TOPONYMICS - the study of place-names.
WHAT IS A PLACE NAME?

It could be said that a place-name is a caricature-poem of that place at a particular moment in time. To take a simple example: instead of speaking of "the dirty cottages in the wide wood by the black ridge where nothing grows" we use "the black ridge" to denote the place. This in time becomes BLACKRIDGE. We could have used "the dirty cottages" (FOULSHIELS) or "the wide wood" (BROADSHAW) or "ridge where nothing grows" (DEDRIDGE); what we have done is to take some outstanding features of the place to make a symbol which by agreement becomes its name. In this it is not unlike a child's nickname; but while "Carrot-heid" will probably have that characteristic for most of his or her life, "Tich" may grow.

Place-names too tend to survive like living fossils, or like snapshots taken long ago. GLASGOW, for example, means "green hollow" (W glas cau), which may have been relevant in the infancy of the place, but hardly applies now, to the whole city at least. WINCHBURGH is a good local example that has meaning as a name, while the sense of the parts has been lost. It is from OE wincl (pron. winch'll) + burh "town", our "burgh", to mean "town in the nook or angle", presumably that of the Niddry Burn; in other words, we can tell from this name that the site of Winchburgh has shifted from beside Niddry Castle to its present location, while its name has remained, and is no longer descriptive of it.

Some place-names die, and are lost; such was VELUNIA until the recent find — although the name was known, its location was not. Many survive, and are changed; some are replaced. The most significant changes come from new languages, or new landowners, often the same thing. We can sum up by saying that place-names are changed by:

a. part-translation into the new language
b. complete translation into the new language
c. alteration of their elements to make apparent sense in the new language. This is related to FOLK-ETYMOLOGY (below) and happens also when the same language changes through time.
d. alteration of the sound of the place-name to fit the speech-patterns of the new language

e. the imposition of a completely new name by a new landowner.

It is interesting to note here a tendency that appears to have begun around the eighteenth century: that of importing names, often of a fanciful nature. This developed into the street-naming process based around a theme. Now, in an image-conscious age, it has led to the choice of a name because it looks good, or has the right feel. No “streets” here! These could be called “names without roots”.

Examples of each of these changes are easily found in the GLOSSARY OF PLACE-NAMES; we shall take a more detailed look at place-names in NOTES ON LANGUAGE.

BEWARE THE MYTH!

A tendency we must guard against in a study of place-names is FOLK-ETYMOLOGY. This is a process whereby a place-name is derived from its apparent meaning when the language has changed and the true meaning is lost. GLASGOW has often been spuriously derived from “dear green place”, typifying the romantic thread running through folk-etymology; the “grey hound” of LINLITHGOW is another case in point, although of great relevance to an anthropologist or student of folk-tales.

There are several more possible examples in West Lothian, perhaps the most spectacular being the folk-etymological derivation of TURNIEMOON, a farm-name near West Calder: it has been explained variously as "Tarneymoon" (ie "Tarn o’ the moon"), "Turn-the-moon" or even "Tame-the-moon" (as it appears on an 18c map). The story goes that the Ancient Britons used to perform their pagan rites here before the civilising Romans came; much later the famous Cauther Witches would fly up to tame or turn the moon each twenty-eight days, lest, under the influence of the new calendar issued in 1582, it might forget to reappear. This story of the Turnie moon witches is still current in the area; while it seems likely that there were women burned as witches in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries at Witches’ Knowes in both West Calder and Middelcar, it is even more likely that their activities at Turnie moon would have been confined to the cutting of peat. The present farm is on a ridge in what once was moorland; nearby is a raised peat-bog which has been there since the last Ice Age, gradually diminishing as locals have used it for fuel. It is now a Site of Special Scientific Interest under the guardianship of the Scottish Wildlife Trust. The original name is from Gaelic torr na moine, a term used elsewhere in Scotland. It means simply “hill of the peat-bog”.

While it may seem a shame to spoil a good story, there are many other elements in our place-names that can nourish our myth-making tendency, a phenomenon interesting in itself. (see OLD GODS, below)

OUR DISTRICT AS IT WAS

From place-names we can learn how the district appeared to our ancestors, and see how much, or how little, it has changed: our land was named for its crags and hills, its woods, moors, mooses and peat-bogs, its rivers, burns and pools, its sea and shore and headland; for its birches and elms, its rushes and grassy ridges. It was named for its animals: bears, boars, badgers, foxes, deer, hares and rabbits,
- even for its puddocks - as well as for its blackbirds, thrushes, magpies and bees.

The names tell of West Lothian's wetness and wind, its sun and plenty, and of its farmers of old, whose names live on over the centuries; of their shepherds and herdsmen, their farms, crofts, cottages and shielings, and their beasts - bulls, cows, sheep, goats and horses. We can also note other effects on man of his landscape: his fords and bridges, roads and landings, castles and forts, cairns and old stones; the Roman Wall, as significant in its day as the recent Berlin one, and the ever-present battles. But as well as strife, there was also music: apart from BALBARDIE and HARPERGIE, two old Linlithgow names were CRUDDERLANDS (buildings of the Crowthers, or players of the crowd, Welsh crwth, a lute-like fiddle) and FIDDLERS' CROFT. And there was religion: the priests, monks and nuns of the Middle Ages, as well as the Knights Templars and the Knights of St John.

OLD GODS

If there are different strata of languages and people, there are also different layers of belief: beneath the KIRKNEWTON and KIRKTAN of the medieval church lie the Celtic church-name of ECCLESMAICH and the Anglo-Saxon monastery of ABERCORN; behind the Lady of LADYWELL the Cauther Witches and an even older Lady; behind the sanctuary of TORPHICHELEN the ancient sanctuary of CAIRNPAPPLE, and, along with them, rumours of a ritual landscape, or even a zodiac, based on the Bathgate Hills.

There are many hints of old gods: apart from the possibility that the Celtic god Lugus left his name in LOTHIAN, there are suggestions that King Arthur fought his last battle at BOWDEN HILL, while a lost farm-name ARTHURHEAD in Ecclesmachan carried his name. DRUMABEN, a lost ridge-name near West Calder, bore the name of Mabon, or Mapon, the Celtic Divine Youth, as in Lochnaberen near Dumfries. There is evidence of British goddesses in our river-names, and traces too of the British war god Camulos, a ghost of whose name might be in CAMILTY, and is perhaps echoed in AUCHTIEGAMIEL FLOW, the old name for the moss between Crosswoodhill and Camilty Hill. AUCHTIEGAMIEL is Gaelic auchtie "eighth part" and Norse Gamel, possibly a personal name, but perhaps also, meaning "The Old One", a by-name of the devil, or Camulus, or the Norse/Anglian god Woden; near Woden Law in Roxburghshire is Gamel's Path, while one of his-bye-names, Grim, "The Masked One", led to the Roman Wall at Kinneil being called GRIME'S (or GRAHAM'S) DYKE. At Gormyche there was a DEVIL'S CORNER, and somewhere in Livingston, hopefully still uncultivated, still not built over, is a GUIDMAN'S CROFT, a name once common throughout Lowland Scotland, denoting a patch of ground forever left untilled and untended, "to give the devil his due" in much the same way as old Gamel had his eighth part.

But despite all this, indeed, perhaps because of it, the earliest name we have still holds, and, so far at least, West Lothian is still "a goodly place".

STANDING STONE.
Gala Braes
NOTES ON LANGUAGE

Layers of language

The place-names of an area are a mirror of its successive waves of incomers, and similar layers of language can be seen in West Lothian as in other parts of Lowland Scotland. It should be emphasised that the process of understanding these place-names, like the actual naming process, is still not complete, and that, in some cases, more or less enlightened suggestions are all that can be made. However, the great majority of our place-names can be deciphered satisfactorily. In order to see a clearer picture of the history of these place-names and the different strata, it is necessary to look at each linguistic influence in turn.

We can identify certain basic elements in place-names; throughout Great Britain and generally elsewhere, the oldest of these elements remain in natural features, especially in river-names. There is evidence that some of these reach back to a shadowy "Old European" language which just possibly dates back to the megalith builders of the third millennium BC, but probably back as far as 1500 BC. Since then, the later known languages have all come from the sea-coasts facing Britain - Spain, France, the Low Countries, Germany and Scandinavia, and with them, obviously, racial and cultural elements in our make-up. However, with no apparent exception in West Lothian, all the languages of our place-names can be shown to be later than this "Old European" stratum, as recognisable members of the Indo-European family of languages (see Diagram 1), which includes all the languages spoken in present-day Europe, as well as Persian and some Indian tongues, with the exceptions in Europe of the small family comprising Finnish, Lappish, Estonian and Hungarian, as well as Basque, which has no relations anywhere.

Apart from Latin, an Italic language, which left few traces here, two not-so-distantly related groups of this Indo-European family are evident in our place-names; the first is CELTIC, the second GERMANIC.

CELTIC

In the middle of the first millennium BC CELTIC was spoken from Britain to Asia Minor, from Southern Spain to the Baltic, and with the language went a highly developed culture. In Britain and Ireland the Celtic tongues were imposed on an existing pre-Celtic population which appears to have affected these languages quite considerably, perhaps implying that it had a certain prestige.

Celtic split into two main types: BRYTHONIC or P-Celtic, and GOIDELIC or Q-Celtic (see Diagram 2). The living P-Celtic languages are Welsh and Breton; Breton developed from another P-Celtic language, Cornish, which has died out in the last couple of centuries. The living Q-Celtic languages are Irish Gaelic and Scottish Gaelic; Scottish Gaelic has been a separate language for the best part of a thousand years. Manx, spoken in the Isle of Man, was another Q-Celtic language, which, like Cornish, has quite recently died out, although there are attempts to revive it. One word will serve to illustrate a major difference between P-Celtic and Q-Celtic; as it is found in both forms here in West Lothian it is quite relevant: in Welsh "head" is pen; in Gaelic it is ceann, often anglicised as Ken-, or Kin-.

Place-name study has shown that when the Romans arrived here roughly two thousand years ago, a P-Celtic language was spoken throughout most of Scotland, as it was in the rest of Great Britain, and had been for several centuries. This language was BRITISH, spoken by the people known to the Romans as BRITANNI, our "ancient Britons".

a. British > Cumbric

British was quite closely linked to GAULISH, the P-Celtic language spoken in Roman times and before in what is now France, the Low Countries, Spain and
parts of Germany; it died out about 1500 years ago. In south-western England British developed into Cornish when Cornwall and Devon were cut off by the threat of advancing Saxons from the east, having earlier suffered attacks from Irish Scots from the west. Cornishmen later fled to what is now Brittany, where their form of British became Breton; like the Welsh, they were called "Britons" for some time after the language changed. British developed into Welsh around 500AD, when it was still spoken both in Scotland and in most of England, as well as in Wales. The form of P-Celtic spoken in north-western England and southern Scotland is usually called Cumbric, even though it was virtually identical with what is now known as Primitive Welsh (still called British at that time). Indeed, much Primitive Welsh poetry, similar to "The Gododdin", was composed in and about what is now Scotland, by what were then called "Britons".

The British kingdom of Strathclyde (Strat Clut) was based at Dumbarton Rock (Alclut). Our name DUMBARTON is from Gaelic *Dun Breatann "fortress of the Britons". This kingdom existed until the early eleventh century, and there is good reason to believe that what was well and truly "Welsh" was still spoken in such parts of Scotland as the Upper Clyde Valley and isolated tracts of south Lothian, Dumfriesshire and the Borders for some while after that. It may well have changed by isolation from the Welsh spoken in Wales, but there is some evidence of continued contact, although most "Welsh" speakers here probably had serf-status. The inhabitants of Strathclyde were still styled Walenses "Welshmen" into the twelfth century, as well as the earlier Brettos "Brits". Our Welsh is from Germanic *walaz "foreigner"; the common surname Wallace is a Norman form of the same word, implying British descent.

In West Lothian too, the first two linguistic strata are British and what will, for the purposes of the glossary, be called Welsh, to avoid confusion, as equivalent forms will be given in Modern Welsh. Cumbric, as previously stated, is a more accurate term for the donor-language, and will continue to be used in that sense.

Apart from the Old European previously mentioned, most ancient river-names in Great Britain are of British origin; some Scottish examples are: CLYDE *Clotha "the Cleanser"; TAY Tava or *Tauia "the Silent One" or "the Flowing One"; and DEE Deva or *Deuia "the Goddess". There is in fact much evidence to suggest that the Britons continued an older river-worship, as most river-names are feminine, and apparently personalised.

Many major settlement-names in Scotland are likewise British/Cumbrian in origin: GLASGOW glas cau "green hollow"; LANARK llanerch "clearing"; PERTH perth "copse, wood, hedge"; MELROSE moel rhos "bare moor"; KELSO catcynwydd "chalk-mount" translated into English catchow "chalk-heugh"; DIN EITIN or EIDYN "Eidyn-fort", possibly meaning "well-defended fort", anglicised as Edinburgh; ABERDEEN aber "mouth of" + *Devona "the Great Goddess", now the River Don; DALKEITH doil coed "river-meadow in the wood"; CARNWATH carn gwydd "tree-mound"; PEEBLES pebyll "tents", and many more. As British changed into Cumbrian it is likely that many place-names changed with the language, and may therefore have a longer history than is apparent.

b. Pictish

Having said that British was spoken throughout most of Scotland, it is now necessary to mention PICTISH, apparently spoken north of the Forth-Clyde line, especially in the east and north-east. Although there is no direct evidence that Pictish was spoken in West Lothian, the Pictish lands bordered Manaw Guotodin in the Dark Ages, and faced us across the Forth, so it is reasonable to assume some kind of regular contact, more sporadic during the Roman occupation, especially as it seems that rivers and firths were seen not as barriers so much as channels of communication. Moreover, the unrecorded word which gave our CARRIDEN (below), cognate with W carden "fort, enclosure" (also "thicket"), is considered to be Pictish rather than Cumbrian.
The term Pict was first recorded in 297AD; before that, the peoples of Scotland north of the Forth-Clyde line had been known, to the Romans at least, by various names such as CALEDONII, VERTURIONES, and CORNOVII, as well as the DUMNONII of Strathclyde, the last two being also names of tribes found in England. There is strong evidence to suggest that the folk we call "The Picts" were known generally as *Pecti, or the like, a word of disputed meaning, but no evidence that they ever knew themselves as PICTI, the Roman term, which could mean "painted people", but is more likely to imply "tattooed people", being a Latin translation of *Pritani "people of the designs, or patterns". This term was used of the Northern British, while the southern British-speakers were the *Pritani, a variant of the same name, from which we have, through Latin, words such as "Britain" and "Britannic". To the Q-Celtic speaking Scots (Irish), who had more contact with the north, these people were known as the *Quiriteni, i.e. their form of the same name; the later Old Irish form Cruithni, meaning "the people from Britain", came from this word, and was restricted to what we now call "Picts". It is worth remembering that while all Picts were Cruithni, not all Cruithni were Picts, in exactly the same way as all Scots today could be called "British", but not all British are Scots; this analogy is quite a good one, for, as in modern-day Scotland, two languages seem to have been spoken in the Pictish lands.

From place-name and personal-name studies it has been convincingly shown that the Celtic elements within the Pictish folk used a P-Celtic language, but one showing slightly more affinity with Gaulish rather than the very closely-related British; whether the Picts were, as seems more probable, an earlier group of Celts from Gaul, or whether the language had changed after being cut off from the other North Britons by the Roman presence, is very difficult to say. Certainly these Picts and the North Britons were as close linguistically as British English is to North American English; there would have been similar differences of accent as well. The Pictish-Celtic and Cumbrian elements in place-names can hardly be separated, and the realisation that the people who became the historical Picts used a P-Celtic language does help to explain the considerable amount of P-Celtic place-names found as far north as Orkney, even in pre-Roman times.

However, not one sentence of Pictish survives; while their personal-names can be shown to be mainly P-Celtic, the remaining Pictish inscriptions (in Irish _ogam_ brought across by the Gaelic-speaking Scots) are in a completely unknown non-Indo-European language which has so far been undeciphered. As in present-day Scotland, where a gravestone showing Gaelic personal-names may be inscribed in English, so the Celtic Picts used this unknown language because it had prestige, and in those days that would have meant religious prestige. The Pictish matrilineal system of succession is well-known, and there are tantalising hints that these northern P-Celtic speakers had taken over, or become absorbed into, an earlier religious system, perhaps involving Earth-Mother-Goddess worship. This unknown non-Indo-European Pictish language continued up until the ninth or tenth centuries, when it eventually died out through pressure from the Gaels, who had been moving into the Pictish heartlands of Perthshire, Aberdeenshire and Fife since the fifth century. The Picts were then absorbed into the Gaelic-speaking population. That such a language can linger long is shown also by the proto-European Basque (Euskara), spoken in northern Spain and south-western France, which has apparently "always" been there, despite much pressure from Indo-European speakers in the form of Celts, Romans, Goths, Spaniards and French, as well as from the Moors, over the millennia.

It has, however, recently been argued that the second Pictish "language" is in fact a calendrical system added later to the Pictish symbol stones, and therefore not a language at all. In common with most Pictish matters, this is a theory of some controversy.

**6. Gaelic**

The other Celtic language seen in West Lothian place-names was brought across from Ireland by the Scots, and is, of course, the Q-Celtic GAELIC. While there had been small movements of people from Ireland to Scotland during the Roman attempt to colonise the whole of Great Britain, it was not until the fifth or sixth centuries that settlement began in earnest, and much later when a Gaelicspeaking presence was felt here.

In Irish legend, Bregon, one of the Sons of Milo, built a tower in Spain, from where his son Ith saw Ireland... and there is indeed evidence of Q-Celtic speakers in Spain. Earlier invaders of Ireland, the Tuatha De Danann "the folk of the goddess Danu" and the Fir Bolg "the Bag-men" have been identified with the DAMNONII (or DUMNONII) and the BELGAE respectively; both of these are thought to
have been P-Celtic speaking peoples, and there were such groups in Ireland. However, there were apparently no Q-Celtic speakers anywhere else in the British Isles.

It is not clear when Goidelic arrived in Ireland, but it seems to have been early, and of all Celtic languages it has the most archaic traits. It has actually been suggested that Goidelic represents the early form of Celtic and was possibly used by Celtic settlers in Britain as early as 1800 BC, who would then be identified with the Beaker Folk of the late Bronze Age. If this were true, Brythonic would then be a later form of Celtic, a P-Celtic speaking offshoot from the Q-Celtic parent stock. It is not known where or when this split occurred; it may well have started on the continent, never to reach the outlying lands of Ireland and Spain. It should be emphasised that there is no trace of Q-Celtic in British place-names outside the later Gaelic-speaking areas; this could perhaps also be explained by the two languages having been close enough for full translation or change to have taken place at an early date.

It is a strange fact that Ireland, which had resisted, or remained untouched by, the Romans, succumbed almost immediately to the Christian church, which Celtic branch absorbed that special character still visible in glimpses today, and it is very hard to separate the Gaussian influence of the early church from that of the civic settlements; it is certain that both played a leading role in the quick spread of Gaelic, especially above the Forth-Clyde line. It is worth noting here that the three early saints - St Serf, St Ninian, and St Machan - who gave names to places in West Lothian were saints of the early British church.

When they arrived in Scotland, the Gaels took over certain British toponymical terms which are not, or hardly, evidenced in Ireland. Those relevant to West Lothian are: B *briga -> W bre "hill" may have given our "brae", although it is usually derived from Germanic.

In West Lothian, there seems to have been a slight Gaelic influence in the north of the district in the seventh or eighth centuries, but it was not until the tenth century that a strong presence can be detected, and most place-names of ours are later than that, stemming from a probable temporary landownership of around the twelfth century. It is not generally realised that at no time in history did everyone in West Lothian speak Gaelic; for while the Gaels were moving down to the area from north and west, another group of incomers was moving in from east and south, from the seventh century onwards at least, pressing the existing British population from all sides. These people were the first of the Germanic folk to arrive here.

GERMANIC

The cradle of the GERMANIC-speakers is thought to have been Southern Scandinavia. While Germanic is an Indo-European group of languages, roughly one-third of its words are of unknown origin, probably taken over from previous non-Indo-European speakers who also left a heavy imprint on the pronunciation.

There is some evidence from loan words (eg Gaulish *braeeu "trousers", our "braces") that the Celtic and Germanic peoples lived quite closely together at some time. While the Celtic languages seem to have had individual existences for about three thousand years, Germanic at the time of Christ was still a single language, although it was never written down, and consisted of many different dialects; it is only in the last two millennia that we can see the split, spread and
dominance of this family of languages (see Diagram 3). It is possible that when the
first Germanic-speakers arrived in Britain these languages, as they became,
were still mutually comprehensible to some degree.

In this area, these people were more specifically ANGLES or ANGLIANS, as
distinct from the closely-related SAXONS, who moved into southern England.

Before discussing the Angles, it is convenient to mention here the fourth group
of peoples to influence West Lothian’s place-names; their linguistic presence is
so small that they can be dealt with swiftly.

a. Norse

These people were the NORSE, from Scandinavia, who earlier spoke Germanic
dialects which developed into Danish, Swedish, Norwegian and Icelandic.
Their presence here is not to be confused with any Viking attack; it seems that
Norse elements evident in farm-names have arrived through peaceful settlement,
possibly through the medium of their Anglian cousins. Between them they gave
us such Scots-seeming words as bairn, kirk, greet and braw, and Norse personal
names were taken into the language along with many words of general use.
There was also a Norse presence in Ireland, and evidence in the district of Norse/
Irish names eg Kolbein, a Norse form of Irish Columban, seen in COBBINSHAW,
as well as in COLINTON (now in Edinburgh District), and possibly COLINSHIEL.

b. Anglian > Scots English

By far the greatest Germanic influence has been felt from the language brought
in by the Anglians, loosely called ANGLO-SAXON, but in this area rather
ANGLIAN, which has given Scots English its particular characteristics. For the
purposes of the glossary this language will be called OLD ENGLISH.

The Angles came from further north than the Saxons, probably from northern
Denmark, and invaded East Anglia as well as Northumbria, which was to include
much of Lothian. From the seventh century onwards their presence was felt in
West Lothian, more particularly along the northern coastal strip, and Lothian
became gradually more anglicised; the Angles even pushed into the Pictish
territories of Fife and further north until a decisive defeat by the Picts at the Battle
of Nechtansmere (now Dunnichen near Forfar) in 685 caused them to relinquish
much of their land. A further battle in the plain of Manau, between Avon and
Carron, in 710 or 711, of which the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle tells that “Beorhfrith
feoht with Pyhtas betwix Hoefe and Coere”, redressed the balance slightly.

The Anglians stayed, and their descendants are still here today, among the rest
of the mixed inhabitants of West Lothian; we speak their tongue.

Domination from the south was further reinforced by the introduction of
Norman-English noblemen into the area from the twelfth century onwards; this
combination turned the language into Middle English, but not the Middle
English of Chaucer and the southern English-speakers. This was a northern
variety in which Scots forms such as tane “taken”, bane “bone”, aye “one”, grette
“cried”, fra “from” and hert “heart” already existed, and which can still be heard
today, in West Lothian, almost three-quarters of a millennium later. It was a
tongue which looked set fair to develop into a different language which would
have sounded uncannily familiar to modern English-speakers in an even greater
way than modern Dutch or Danish sounds to today’s Scots.

In the glossary the dialect which grew from this northern form of Middle English
will be called SCOTS ENGLISH for convenience. Unfortunately, dialect (not
necessarily to be confused with any spoken accent) is no respecter of political
boundaries; identical place-name elements can be found throughout northern
England, as far south as Lancashire and Yorkshire at least. (Compare, for
example, within fifteen miles of each other in mid-Lancashire: Preston,
Blackburn, Longridge, Walton, Harwood, Balderstone, Holden, Brotherton,
Longton and Newton (apart from a River Calder), as well as names in -shaw,
-syke, -dyke and -dean, all echoing names in West Lothian; apart from telling us
about certain sound-changes, they perhaps suggest that we should look rather to
the combination and blend of various layers of language within an area to find
the unique character of that area’s names.)

History took another turn, and the Act of Union put a stop to the idea of Scots
English ever becoming a language in its own right; one constant in a survey of
West Lothian’s place-names has been the further creeping change of Scots names
into a standardised modern "English" form, made easier by their having the same
roots. Inevitably, once the standardised form is written on a map, it becomes
"official" and "correct", and it seems only a matter of time before this process
becomes irrevocable, unless there is a new surge of interest in, and use of, the older deeply-rooted forms which are all too often discarded.

However, as noted above, another constant has been the conservative nature of local oral tradition; a twelfth century spelling of LINLITHGOW as Lythcu is echoed by the modern local term Lithca or Lithgae. Linthouse Water The Lennis and Stonyburn Staneyburn are other names whose older forms have been kept alive, and there are many more examples in this booklet.

INDIVIDUAL NAMES

Having considered the linguistic influences of Celtic and Germanic, we can now turn to the individual names. How are we to approach them? Some, like WESTFIELD, are quite straightforward. Others are not. To take BATHGATE as an example: like Westfield, it has two elements which are meaningful in English, bath and gate. However, these two elements are meaningless, or ridiculous at best, when put together. Perhaps knowing that gate means “way” or “road” from Middle English or Norse, we could say that Bathgate means “road to the spa”, with reference to Bath in England. However, we do not think that there was ever a spa in what is now Bathgate, so what is the next move?

If there is ever any doubt in the meaning of a place-name, and often even when the meaning of the name seems straightforward, it is essential to check the earliest spellings. These always reflect the pronunciation, even at a time when spelling was not yet standardised, and are of utmost importance.

In 1153 Bathgate was written Batket. What language can it be? This combination is meaningless in Gaelic, but in Welsh we find two elements: baedd “boar” (pron byth) and coed “wood” (pron coit). Bathgate means “boar-wood”, another example of a nick-name long grown out of it. It should be noted here again that the Welsh examples given are Modern Welsh, as with Modern Gaelic for the Gaelic names. Since they gave these names to us, the languages themselves have changed. Gaelic for several hundred years, and Welsh, as distinct from the original Cumbric, for over a thousand. In fact, the Cumbric form of baedd-coed would probably have been written Battt (or Bacet), and pronounced “Badged”; the change to “Bath” could possibly be used as evidence that Cumbric continued to be known here later than is usually considered.

BACK TO ROOTS

To go back to the earliest spelling is the equivalent of an archaeologist sifting carefully through strata before deciding on an identification and dating. One place-name in our area, perhaps the best-documented in the whole of Lowland Scotland, shows these linguistic strata perfectly in its sequence of spellings: KINNEIL. Bede, writing before 733, stated that the Roman wall between Forth and Clyde began two miles west of the monastery at Aebbercurc (Abercorn) at a place called Penfanhel in the Pictish language, but in Anglice (English) Pennelton. At around 800 Nennius added that this wall was called Gual in the British language; a later note in the margin commented that it ran from Pengau which in Scotia (Gaelic) is called Cenail, but in English Penelton. Apart from showing the linguistic confusion here at around that time, these terms illustrate the following sequence:

1. Pengauil (Cumbric) pen “head” + guail “wall” = “wall-end”
2. Penfanhel (Cumbric or Pictish) pen “head” + (Gaelic) fal, fail “wall” = “wall-end”
3. Cenail (Gaelic) cenn “head” + fal, fail “wall” = “wall-end”
4. Pennelton (Old English) is an anglicised form of (1) or (2) with tun “farmstead” added; it is not clear when.

(2) is a half-translation of (1), while (3) is a complete translation, and this shows another constant in West Lothan: as Cumbric and Gaelic were so relatively close, a Cumbric element was often translated into the equivalent Gaelic one; KILPUNT is another example, and there may be more many more hidden from us because of a lack of early written records. This translating tendency also shows the certain degree of bi- or tri-lingualism typical of an area where so many tongues overlap, and also implies some co-existence. It should be noted here as well that all Gaelic names in West Lothan have undergone a process of anglicisation, as in Cenn(h)ail > Cenail > Kinneil.

The Anglian -tun, as in Pennelton, is a very common element in West Lothan place-names; it always becomes -toun or -ton, and is sometimes mistaken for stone, especially when preceded by a personal name. Tun is the direct equivalent
of Gaelic baile, usually anglicised as Bal-, and Welsh tref, usually anglicised as -tree, or -try > -dry, as well as Norse byr, anglicised as -by or -bie. All four words mean “farmhouse, homestead, stead ing”, later “hamlet, village”; it is possible that some -tun names already represented hamlets by the time of their first recording. Several examples of all these elements will be found in the glossary. The order of elements in eg Ochiltree, Niddry, Camelpitree suggests derivations from a British form with adjective + noun; in later Celtic this order was usually reversed, eg Polbeth, Dunbarvie.

**LANGUAGE AND RACE**

Having said all this, it should be emphasised that it is dangerous to think of language as a witness of “race”; after all, both the modern Australian aborigine and North American Indian now speak English. Language should be thought of rather as a culture-bearer, with the tongue perceived as the most prestigious, for whatever reason, always dominating, layer upon layer, with basically the same folk being affected, from the unknown aboriginal inhabitants of Scotland who spoke a long-dead language, through Old European, Celtic, Roman, Norse, Norman and English influences down to the present day. And now in West Lothian there are second generation Asians, Africans and Europeans speaking in local accents in the dominant language, carrying on a process that is as old as speech itself.

**ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS USED IN THE GLOSSARY**

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<td>Scots English</td>
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* identifies an unrecorded form which can be presumed, or deduced
? ? possibly; an unsure derivation
< derived from > became; to
C century
+ and/with
ie in other words

With each of the following place-names, words in brackets show interesting and relevant early spellings, with dates of recording beside them, as well as local spoken forms where appropriate.

Six-digit numbers in square brackets after an entry are National Grid References; the entire area is to be found on OS Sheet 65 “Falkirk and West Lothian”. Names with no Grid Reference are on the map.

[850550-999550] are in the NS Grid Square; [000550-200550] are in the NT Grid Square.
GLOSSARY OF PLACE-NAME

1. District names

LOTHIAN  (Lodoneo 1096 Laudonic 1126 Locnecis 1158 Leudonia 1164 Lleudinyawn c1170, anglicised as Lothene and Lowthian) The derivation is much disputed, supposedly being from Leudonus or Lleidan, who was St Kentigern's maternal grandfather "a man half-pagan", who ruled the province named after him. It has also been derived from Lothius or Llew, "second son of Arthur", possibly the Lot of Lothian of Arthurian legend. These seem to be early folk-etymology. There are apparently two Modern Welsh forms of Lothian: Lledduwn (pron. "lay-them-down", to rhyme with "lay-them-drown"), *Lugudunion "place of the fort of the god Lugus", a god later known as Lug(h) in Irish mythology and Llew, or less correctly Llew, in Welsh legend, and usually equated with Mercury, from a Celtic root *leuco- meaning "light", a shorter form Lleuddin (pron. "lay-thin", with th as in "then") is *Lugudunon, meaning "Lugus' fort". Lothianburn was Loudonburn in 1702; Loudoun Hill near Darvel is *Lugudunon. The place in Lothian may have been Mount Lothian (Monte Ladonia 1176 Monteleun 1166) or another place which has lost the name, ?Dalmahoy Hill or ?Chester Hill, even ?Arthur's Seat, as there may be a link between a god of light and Arthur as solar hero. However, Arthur's Seat may have been mët eiddyn "Edinmount" in Cumbric. There is no Gaelic form of Lothian other than Loudy < E. It has been suggested that the form Loeneis gave rise to legends of Lynesse, now submerged, and reputedly the birthplace of Arthur. Also The Lothians.

WEST LOTHIAN  (Linlidduskir 1153 Linlithgowshire 1473 West Lothian 1540 West Lawthian 1630, and Linlithgowshire in the 18th and 19th centuries) see LINLITHGOW.

The CALDERS  (I: Cauther; Caledour 1153 Kaledour 1165 Kaledofre 1170 Kaldover 1178) Immediately west of Lothian in the 12th century was a small region known as CALATRIA or CALATERA, the Latinised form of an earlier British name. There is reason to believe that this region was The Calders. Calder is a common water-name from Caithness south into the north of England, and is represented in Wales by such forms as Cletwr and Calettwr < B *caleto-dubros (W caled-ddwr, or caled-ddwr) "hard water", ie either "rough", or "hard" in the sense that we now speak of "hard water", from its mineral deposits; this certainly suits the area, and there is no evidence that there has ever been a River Calder in the region. West Calder Burn seems to have been named from the village. CALATERA would have meant "place of hard waters" < B *Caletodubras. The popular derivation of Calder as "oak-stream", from a spurious cal "water" and der "oak", is incorrect. While der can mean "oak" in the Celtic languages, the early spellings show that this was not the second element. Dover in England, < B *Dubras "waters", is identical with the second element of the 1178 form. The Calders area was, however, heavily wooded, as the locally well-known rhyme (?16c) says:

"Cather Wood was fair to see (Calder)
   When it went up to Camel Tree (Camilty)
Cather Wood was fairer still
   When it went up to Corset Hill" (Crosswoodhill)

It is interesting that the local term Cauther seems to retain W -dd- (pron th as in then) of, say, Caled-ddwr, as do Lothian (above) and Bathgate (below and see introduction). But compare shoother "shoulder".

NB: the element *caleto- "hard" is seen also in CALEDONIA/CALEDORIA,
the land of the **CALEDONIT**. (the tough, hardy ones), used originally of the main tribe to form the historical Picts; **CALIDONIA** was used by the Romans to denote Britain north of the Antonine Wall, now Caledonia is a poetic synonym for Scotland.

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2. **Water-names**

**ALMOND** (Aumond 1420 Awmond 1556) B *ambe “river” + -ona (feminine) > *Ambona “river”? “great river”.

**AVON** (Avin 1128 Avane 1517) B *aba “water” + -ona (feminine) > *Abona “great water”, a common river-name throughout Britain.

**BEUGH Burn** Sc bucht “sheep-fold” + burn “stream”.

**BREICH Water** (I: The Breichie) Possibly named from the farm-names (below), but the early spellings (Brech 1199 Brecht 1512) suggest G breacht ”speckled” W brych; or G brec “trout”, ie ”trout-stream”.

**CULTRIG Burn** from CULT (below) + rig “ridge” + burn “stream”.

**FORTH, Firth of** (Sea of Iudderw 7c - see introduction). To the Romans, the R. Forth was known as BODOTRIA or BODERIA “Deaf One,” or “Silent One”. To the Celts it was W Gweryd, G Foirthe, both < B *Woritia “Slow-running one”. Firth is from N.fjordr “fjord, arm of the sea”.

**GOGAR Burn** It is not known if the burn is named for the place, now in Edinburgh District, (Goger 1214 Coger 1336 Gogger 13c) or vice-versa. ?< B *Coccora “red stream”. W coch ar is “red land” (Redheughs is nearby). Note also W gogarth “hill, slope, terrace”; the position of the other Gogar (near Menstrie) suggests that this could be the correct derivation. The name could also be connected with W cog “cuckoo” as in Penicuik (W pen y gog “Cuckoohead”). Near Bathgate were a Gowkstone and Gogstanes. The cuckoo would seem to have mythological connections here.

**KILLANDEAN Burn** Sc ?kil + dean “valley” < potter’s clay + burn “stream”.

**LEITH, Water of** (Aque de Leith 1328 Vater of Leicht 1439) W llaith “damp, moist”.

**LINHOUSE Water** (I: [The Lennis) It is not known if the river is named from the place, or vice-versa (see LINHOUSE below).

Some other stream-names are also names of dwellings, and are dealt with below.

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3. **Fort- and Hill-names**

**b. Ranges**

**BATHGATE HILLS** named for the place (see below).

**PENTLAND HILLS** apparently named for the place PENTLAND (Pentland 1150 Penteland 1268) W ?pant “valley” or W ?pente “chief house” + E land. It is worth mentioning that the PENTLAND FIRTH between Orkney and the mainland was known to the Norse as Pettlandsfjordr “Pictland’s Firth”.

**b. Individual hill- & fort-names**

**AIRNGATH or IRONGATH Hill** (Eringayth 1306 Erngythe 1335 Ardyngaith 1488) G earann na gaoithe “portion of the marsh, or wind” > ard na gaoithe “windy height” or “marshy height”. [003790]

**BEE Craigs** (Becraggis 1568) Sc bee + craigs “crags frequented by bees”. [010740]

**BINNY Craig** G binnean “little peak” (identical with Craig Binning below). [043735]

**BOWDEN Hill** (?Bondha Hill 1698 Boudoun 1725 Buden 1750)?OE bog-dun “bowed or arched hill”, but the Iron Age hillfort suggests B *Bog-dunon “bow-fort”, either < the hill’s shape or the curve of the Avon below; or ?B *Bogiodon “battle-fort” or ?B *Boudo-dunon “victory-fort”. It has been suggested that this was the site of Arthur’s last battle at Mons Badonis (Mount Badon), but early historical evidence, where not lacking, seems to contradict; however, Badon -> Boudoun is quite possible. [977775]

**CAIRNPAPPLE Hill** (Kerneppiple 1619) Sc ca(i)rn + OE papol “pebble”; “pebble-cairn”. Sc cairn + pap + hill “Breast-cairn-hill” has also been suggested.
It was possibly the site known to the Romans as **MEDIONEMETUM** & B *Medionemeton* “The Middle Sanctuary”; this sanctuary may have been transferred to **Torphichen** below the hill in Christian times under the auspices of the Knights of St John, possibly along with the cup-marked sanctuary stone. [988718]

**CAIRNS, East & West** (Caernys 1359 Cairnis 1387) ?Sc “(place) of the cairns”. East Cairns (Carnhill 1452) ?< W cernicarnau “cairns”. [107584/122596]

**CARRIDEN** Roman Fort (see **VELUNIA** below).

**CASTLE GREG** [Roman fortlet on Camilty Hill] (Castelgreg 1512 Castle Craig 19c) E castle (or ?W castell) + craig “crag” is the usual derivation, but there are no crags near. ?< B *crocou- “mound, tumulus” > W crug (pron “creeg”) or ??B *uroic- “heather” > W grug (pron “greeg”). There is an intriguing possibility that this was the site known to the Romans as **CAMULOSESSA PRAESIDIUM** & B *Camulo-sehta “Seat of Camulos” + L praesidium “fortlet” (see **CAMILTY** below). [1050953]

**CATHLAW** (Cauldrow 1540 Cathlaw 1572 Catlaw 1649) ?W cad “battle” or ?G cath “battle” or ?E cat + Sc law “hill”. The first spelling is Sc cauld “cold”. [985720]

**CAULDSTANE SLAP** (Caldstaineslope 1684) Sc cauld “cold” + stane “stone” + slap “slope”, “cold, ie exposed, stone pass”. [118588]

**COCKLEROY** (Cocklerue, Coclereuf, Buckold le Roi 1818) ?G cockull “hood” + G ruadh “red”, ie “red-topped hill”. Or ?G cucaite “seat” ie “red seat”. [989744]

**CRAIGENGALL** (Craigngall 1426 Cragingaw 1540) G creag nan gall “rock of the foreigners”. [925712]

**CRAIGENGAR** (Craigengar 1773) G creag na geair “rock of the hare”. [090551]

**CRAIGMARRY** (Craggenamarie 1391 Craigmarvie 1614) G creag nam marbh “dead man’s rock”. [919698]

**CUNNINGAR** (also Cunningry, Cunningrie 1685 Bo’ness; The Cuningar Torphichen) E coninger Sc cuningar “rabbit-warren”. The mound in Midcalder is also known as “The Witches’ Knowe”; Sc knowe “knoll, rounded hill”. [074677]

**DECHMONT** Law (Deghmethe 1336 Dechmond 1511) W ?teg “fair” + W mynydd “mount”, < the view? The village was named for the hill, Sc law (see **Dechmont**, below). [034697]

**GALA** Braes (Galla Braes 1818) Sc gallows + brae “brow, hill” ie “gallows-hill”. [987702]
Henshaw Hill Sc hain "enclosed" + shaw "wood" + hill. [062547]

Knock Hill (L: The Knock; knobhill 1541) G cnoc "small knob-like hill". [991712]

Leven Seat (Leven’s Seat 1773) *W llyfn "smooth, flat" + E seat "hill" ie "smooth hill"; or *W llwyfan "elmwood". [946576]

Logie Braes (Logy Bray 1540) G logach "place in a hollow" or *B leuco- "bright" + Sc brae(s) "brow, hill". [943717] Also Luggage Brae (Dedridge).

Mons Hill (Munhill 1622 Munsehill 1669) anglicised form of G monadh "mount" < B * monido-. [155785]

Peace Knowe *E pace "step of a stair" ? < its ridged look + Sc knowe "knoll". [031741]

Pearie Law *Sc peerie "spinning-top" + law "hill", ie "top-shaped hill". [007584]

The Pike Sc pike "pointed hill". [076544]

Tar Hill G torr > Sc iar- "round hill" + hill. [060740]

Tawncraw *G torr na croibhe "hill of the tree". [904693]

Temple Hill E "temple-hill," formerly Knights Templars’ land. [112613]

Torweaving *G torr uaimhinn "hill of horror, devastation" or *W twr gwefryn "little amber-coloured hill". [072570]

Torwhitie G torr "hill" + *G cuiileach "set-apart" or *G cuiithe- "enclosed". [043618]

Velunia, or Veluniate The name of the Roman fort at Carriden; *B *uellaun- "good", ie "goodly place", or *B *uellaun- "strong", ie "fortified, walled place", in which case *B *wall- > W galw "the Antonine Wall" is still preserved in Kinneil (see below and introduction) two miles west, implying that Velunia was an early term for the area now covered by Boness. [019814]

Many other hill-names in West Lothian have become farm-names; these will be dealt with below.

4. Dwelling-names

Abercorn (Aebbercumig 737 Abycorne 1357) W aber "river-mouth" + W curnig "homy" ? from the horn of land below. It is at the mouth of the Cornie Burn.

Addiewell (Awdyweill 1512 Adieweel 1792) Sc Adie "Adam" + well "Adam’s well".
ALDERSTONE (Auldstone 1452 Awdenstoun 1535) OE tun “farm” + Aldwina; “Aldwin’s farm” [044663]

ALMONDELL E “dell by the R. Almond”, an 18c name. [091692]

ANNETSCROSS (Annottiscroce 1559) G annaid “a patron saint’s church, or church containing the relics of the founder” + E cross, ie “crossing”, or “church-cross”. [044623]

ARMADALE Named after Armadale in Sutherland by Wm. Honeyman, Lord Armadale.

AUCHENHARD (Achenhard 1696) G achadh na h-airde “field of the height”. [996633]

AUCHINOON (Auchinolynshill 1538 Auchinhoundhill 1773) G ?achadh na h-olainn “field of wool”. [096619]

BAADS (Badds 1786) BAAD PARK (Baddis 1512) G bad “spot, place, clump of trees”. [001599/102608]

BALBARDIE (Balbardi 1335 Bawbordie 1566) G baile a bhaird “bards’ farm”. [975698]

BALDERSTON (Bauderstone 1296 Bawdriston 1395) OE tun “farm” + Baldhere; “Balder’s farm”. Balder is also the name of a N/E god, the son of Woden (see introduction). [991782]

BALGORNIE G baile gronnaigh “boggy farm”. [934659]

BALGREEN (Balgrein 1683) G baile + greine “sunny farm”. [055633]

BALLENCRIEFF (Balnecref 1335 Bancreif 1579) G baile na craoithe “tree-farm”. [978706]

BALMUIR (Baymuyr 1750) G baile mor “big farm”. [943712]

BALVORMIE (Balormy 1335 Bormy 1540) G baile “farm” + ? (no derivation can be suggested). [999742]

BANGOUR (Bingouer 1204 Bengowre 1353) G beann gobhar “goats’ peak”. [044716]

BANKTON (Cockrig 1585) Sc cock “blackcock” + rig “ridge”; “ridge frequented by wild cocks” > “farm at the bank”. [056654]

BARBAUCHLAW (Balbaghlagh 1335 Barbachlaych 1558) G barr “hill” or baile “farm” + bachlach “crozier”, it being monastery land once attached to Holyrood. [928686]

BARNBOUGLE (Prenbowgall 1323 Barnebagale 1361) W pren “tree” + bugail “shepherd” partly translated > G barr na “hill of” (“the shepherd”). [169785]

BATHGATE (Batket 1513 Bashkete 1361 Bathytac 1488) W baedd-coed “boar-wood” (see introduction).

BEDLORMIE (Badlormy 1424) G bad “spot, place” + ? (no derivation can be suggested, as in ?related BALVORMIE, above). [874674]

BELLSQUARRY E “Bell’s quarry”.

BELSTONE (Moorbarn 1773) ? Bellstone in Devon is “logan-stone, stone that rocks like a bell”. ?< C * bel-, bil- “holy, sacred” as in Bellsane “holy fire” + Sc stane “stone”. [107640]

BELSYDE (Balside 1550 Beilsyed 1669) Sc bell “top of a hill, knoll” + side, ie “hilltop-side”. Names in Bel- have also been connected with C *bel- “bright, shining” and sun-worship, or OE bel “funeral pyre”. [977755]
BELVEDERE (Belen) “beautiful” + vedere “to see”, i.e. “picturesque viewpoint”.

[973697]

BENHAR G ba身高 chara “peak of the rock-ledge”. [917617]

BENTS (The Bentis 1586) Sc bents “fields” or “land covered with bent-grass”. [976624/053623]

BINNS (Bynnes 1336) G beann “hill” + E -s plural; “hills”. [053786]

BIRKENSHAW Sc birken “birch(y)” + shaw “wood”; “birch-wood”. [935694]

BIRKHILL Sc birk “birch” + hill; “birch-hill”. [967789]

BLACKBURN (Blakeburn 1335 Blekburne 1630) Sc black + burn “black stream”, or ?< OE blac “pale, white, bleak”.

BLACKNESS (Blackenis 1165 Blakenes 1301) Sc black + ness “headland”; “black headland” or ?< OE blac “pale, white, bleak”.

BLACKRIDGE (Blakrig 1581) Sc black + rig “black ridge”.

BOGHALL (Boghall 1492) Sc bog + hall; “farmhouse in the bog”.

BO’NESS (Burustounnes 1532 Barrestounness 1574) Sc ness “headland, or point” of BORROWSTOUN (below).

BONHARD (Balnehard 1296 Banhard 1538) G baile na h-airde “farm on the hill”. [020794]

BONYTOUN (Bondington 1315 Bonyngton 1434) OE tun “farm” + N > E Bonding “Bondi’s people”; “Bondings’ farm”. [008784]

BORROWSTOUN (Berwardston 1335 Barwartstoun 1473) OE tun “farm” + Beornweard; “Beornweard’s farm”, or “bear-keeper’s farm”. [997803]

BREICH (Breach 1199 Brecht 1512) G bruach “by the braes, or banks”, but see BREICH Water (above). The village was formerly BLINKIE.

BRIDGENESS (Brigneis 1642) N bryggja “landing-place” + N ness or Sc ness “headland”. [013814]

BRIESTONHILL Sc brie-stone “sandstone” + hill. [019646]

BROADSHAW (l: Bradshaw; Braidschaw 1492 Breidschall 1586) Sc braid “broad” + shaw “wood”; “broad wood”. [049624]

BRODYETTS Sc broad + yetts “gates”; “broad gates”. [057717]

BROTHERTON (Brethertoun 1452 Broytoun 1586) OE brother “brother” + tun “farm”; “brother’s farm”. [038648]

BROXBURN (Broxburne 1658) Sc brock “badger” + burn “stream”; “badgers’ stream”. Formerly known as STRATHBROCK (see below).

BRUCEFIELD (Aldanestoun 1482) see Alderstone; it was held by the Bruces in 19c. [040648]

BRUNTONT (The Brunt 1540 Burntoun 1572) Sc burn “stream” + OE tun “farm”; “burn-farm”. [959730]
BUIGHTKNOWES (Boughtknowes 1750) Sc *bucht* “sheepfold” + *knowes* “knolls, hillocks”. [984694]

CAMILTY (Cammolty 1492 Campbell-tree 1684 Camelltree 18c) G *camalltaidh* “bent little burn”. But -tree suggests B *trebo- > W *tref* “homestead” (see Ochiltree). The first element would then be ?B *Cambula* “bent stream”, ?W *camblwr* “pool at a bend” or ?B *Camulo- (from Camulos, the war god) > *Camilte; “Camulos’ homestead” (see Castle Greg, above). [063608]

CAMPS (Camp 1773) E *camp* “fort, enclosed piece of ground”. [106683]

CANNIEHOLE (Cannyhole 1773) Sc? *canny* ie “snug, gentle” + *hole* “hollow”, or ?< *coney-hole, cunny-hole* “rabbit-hole”. [045631]

CAPUTHALL (Capithaw 1750) Sc *cappit* “capped, peaked” + *hall*; “peaked hall”. [012690]

CARDROSS Named for Lord Cardross. The Dunbartonshire Cardross (Cardross 1208) is W *carden* “enclosure, fort; thicket” + *rhos* “moor”. [070720]

CARLEDUBS (Curledubs 1818) Sc *curling + dubs* “pools”; “curling-ponds”. [060727]

CARLOWRIE (Carlouryn 1336 Carloury 1522) ?W *caer* “fort, castle” + ?lloran < *llawr* “low, level ground”, ie “low-lying fort”. ?? W *caer + llewryn < B *lournos* “fox”, ie “fox-fort”. It is suggestive that Foxhall (below) is nearby. [139746]

CARMONDEAN (Carmondene 1549) ??W *caer* “fort” + *mynydd* “mount” + Sc *dean* “valley”; but CARMONLAWS (Carmonlawis 1586) in Linlithgow belonged to the Carmelite friars. [034688]

CARRIBBER (Karibyr 1282 Carrebyr 1506) W *caer, castle* + *ebyr* “streams, confluences”, ie “castle at the streams”. [970750]

CARRIDEN (Karreden 1148 Carredyn 1164 Carrin 1693) W *carden* “enclosure, fort” ?< the Roman fort, known as VELUNIA (or VELUNIATE; see introduction and fort-names, above). [019814]

CAULDCOATS (Caldcottis 1541) Sc *cauld* “cold, exposed” + *cot(s)* “cottage(s)” “cold cottages”. [038792]

CAULDIMMER (Cold Emery 1750) G *coill(te) “wood” + *iomaire “ridge”; “wooded ridge”. [023761]

CAUSEWAYEND (Calsayend 1535) E “end of the paved way” ? from the nearby Roman road. [083608]

CHAMPANY F from Champayn, a 16c surname. [029789]

CHAMBFLEURIE F “flowery field”, an 18c name. [036764]

CHUCKETHALL Sc *chucket* “blackbird” + *hall*. [021692]

CLAPPERTON (Clappertoun 1535) Sc *clapper* “stepping-stone” + OE *tun* “farm”, “stepping-stone farm”. [087693]

COBBINSHAW (Cobbinshe; Colbinshaw 1512 Kobinshaw 1654) G *Columban > N Kolbeinn > E + Sc *shaw* “wood”; “Colvin’s wood”. (013575)

COALHEUGHHEAD Sc *coal + heugh* “projecting ridge of land” + *head*; “coal-ridge-end”. [035615]

COLINSHIEL (Collinsheild 1750) Sc *shiel* “cottage”; “Colin’s cottage” ?<
Kolbeinn as in Cobbinshaw, above. [948693]

**COLZIUM** (Cuizean 1539 Collium 1773) G cuingleum “gorge-leap”. [083586]

**CONTENTIBUS** L “place of contentment”, a fanciful 18c name. [071653]

**CORSTON** (Corstoun 1632) Sc corse “cross” + OE tun “farm”; “crossing-farm”. [078638]

**COUSLAND** (Cowsland 1538 Cawsland 1593) Sc cow(s’) + land; “cows’ land”. [013669]

**CRAIG BINNING** (Benny 1200 Byynyn 1296) G creag “rock” + binnean “small peak”. [035718]

**CRAIGMAILING** (Craigmailen 1818) Sc craig “rock” + mailing “rented farm, holding”. [995725]

**CRAIGHILL** Sc craigs “rocks” + hill.

**CROFTMALLOW** (Croch Molloch 1693) G croit molach “rough croft”. [947643]

**CROSSWOOD** (Corswoode 1478 Corset 16c) Sc corse “cross” + wood, ie “crossing-wood”, from the old trans-Pentland drove road. [054569]

**CULT** (Quilt 1488 The Cult 1624) G cuilt “nook” or ?G coille “woods”. [926642]

**DALMENY** (Dunmanyn 1214 Dunmanye 1562) W ?din meini “stone-fort”. It has been suggested that this marked the boundary of Manau Guotadin (see introduction).

**DEANS** (Le Denys 1468 Deaneis 1618) Sc dean(s) “valleys”.

**DECHMONT** named from Dechmont Law (above).

**DEDRIDGE** (Dedrig 1618 Dedriggis 1619) Sc dead + rig “ridge”, ie “infertile ridge”.

**DOLPHINGTON** (Dolphingtoun 1490 Dauphington 1692) OE tun “farm” + Dolgfinn, a N personal name > E, borne by the Dundas family; “Dolphing’s farm”. [155769]

**DOVETSHILL** (?Double Dovecoat 1799 Dovatshill 1773) Sc ?? “Dovecoteshill”. In Inverdovet (Fife) -dovet is < C *dubh- “black”. [037635]

**DRESSELIG** (Drischelrig 1512 Dreysthelrig 1587) Sc dry + shiel(ing) “cottage” + rig “ridge”, ie “sheltered cottage-ridge”. Also called Castle Somervell 1717 and Backstoneford 1739. [054646]

**DRUMBowie** (Drumby 1682) G druim-buidhe “yellow-ridge”. [907699]

**DRUMCROSS** (Dromcros 1335 Drumcors 1377) G druim + crois “cross-ridge”. [000700]

**DRUMBEG** (Drumbegg 1750) G druim + beag “little ridge”. [874681]

**DRUMSHORELAND** (Drumshollline 1629 Drumsorgling 1671) G druim
“ridge” + ??sgoitean “eleft”.  [085700]

**DRUMTASSIE** (Drumtasie 1686) G druim + taise “ridge of wetness”.
[902707]

**DUDDINGSTON** (Dodyngestone 1219 Dudiston 1593) OE tun “farm” + Doding; “Doding’s farm”.  [100776]

**DUNDAS** (Dundas 1180) G dun deas “southern fort”.  [118767]

**DUNTARVIE** (Duntarvyne 1320 Duntervy 1463) G dun tarbhaidge “bull-ford” but identical with and ?< B *Taruedunon “bull-fort”. The original fort was on Craigton Hill. The early spellings also suggest W Din “fort” + terfyn < L terminus “boundary”.  [082770]

**DYKE** (Dike 1773) Sc dyke “ditch” or more probably “wall”.  [917647] Also DYKES between Addiewell and Stoneyburn.

**DYLAND** (Dailand 1510 Dyaland 1593) Sc dey-land “dairy-land”.  [031794]

**EAST CALDER** (l: Cauther; Caucodure Radulphi de Clare 1201 Kaldor Cler 13c Caldor Cleire 1308) named for Radolphus de Clare, granted the land around 1150 (see CALDERS above).

**ECCLESMACHAN** (Egglesmanekin 1207 Eglishmauchane 1543) W eglwys “church” of St. Machan, a 77c saint.

**ECHLINE** (Ekelyn 1214 Eghelin 1296) Geachleann “(at the) horse-paddock”.
[118778]

**ELIBURN** Named from Elibank (Peeblesshire). ?? E eely-(burn).  [045675]

**FALLAHILL** (Fallahill 1750) Sc falla “fallow, unploughed land” + hill; “unploughed hill”.  [929607]

**FAUCHELDEAN** Sc ‘faugh “pale, yellow” + hill + dean “valley”; “pale-hill-valley”. Hardly < Sc fauchie “to act lazily!”  [080741]

**FAULDHOUSE** (Fawlous 1523 Fallas 1633 Faldous 1559) Sc falla “fallow” + house; “fallow-house, house on unploughed land” > Sc fauld “sheep-fold” + house, ? < Fauld Burn.

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**FOULSHIELS** (Foulscheilis 1454 Foulscheils 1598) Sc foul “dirty, foul” + shiel “cottages”; “dirty cottages”.  [975639]

**FOXHALL** (Toddischauch 1539 Todhaughe 1648) Sc tod “fox” + haugh “rivermeadow”, misinterpreted as Foxhall < Foxha’ pronunciation.  [131742]

**GALA FORD** G geal-ath “bright ford” + E ford.  [106616]

**GAVIESIDE** (Gawesye 1586 Gyside 1773) Sc gaw “slope with drainage-
channel” + side. or ?G gabhadh “danger” + side. [026655]

**GLENDEVON** (Glendaven 1754) G gleann “glen” + B *dubona “black river”; an imported name, as there is no river nearby. **Glendevon** is in the Ochils. [078750]

**GLENMAVIS** Sc glean + mavis “song-thrush”. A fanciful name. [984694]

**GORMYRE** (Garmyre 1646) Sc gore “dirt” + mire “bog”; “dirt-bog”. [975729]

**GOSCHEN** From Goshen in the New Testament; “land of plenty”, a common 18c farm-name. [072721]

**GOWANBANK** Sc gowan “daisy” + bank. [916712]

**GRANGE** (Lie Grange de Breych 1569 Grangebreich 1602) F grange “granary”. [018655]

**GROUGFOOT** (Grugfot 1335 Greukfute 1573) ?W crug “mound, hill” + E foot; “mound-foot” [026788]

**HANDAXWOOD** (Handiswode 1492) Sc ?“Hand’s wood” or ??“wood where handles were cut”. [947600]

**HARBURN** (Hartburn 1620 Hartburn 1773) Sc hairt, hert “hart, stag” + burn “stream”; “stag-stream”. There has at some time been confusion with Harwood, below. The area was once known as Hardale.

**HARPERRIG** (Herperrig 1634) Sc herper “harper”(s) + rig “ridge”. [105612]

**HARRYSMUIR** (l: [The] Mair; Harrys on the muir 1773) Sc Harry’s (house) + mair “moor”. [062692]

**HARWOOD** (l: Harret; Harewood 1512 Harwod 1583) Sc hare “hare, hoar (ie old, grey)” + wood; “grey wood” or “hare-wood” (the hare is “the grey one”). Nearby Hartwood House is perhaps by confusion with Har(t)burn, above. [015614]

**HERMAND** (Hirdmanscheillis 1583 Hermisheel 1654) Sc shiel “cottage” + herdman “(shep)herd”; “herdman’s cottage(s)”. [028634]

**HILDERSTON** (Hilderstoun 1562) OE tun “farm” + Hildhere; “Hilder’s farm”. [968712]

**HILTY** (Hildeclive 1296 Helteclife 1465) OE clif “cliff” + Hild “at Hild’s cliff”. [006754]

**HOUSTON** (Hughston de Strabrok 1353 Howstoun 1488) OE tun “farm” + Hugh “Hugh’s farm”, ?< Hugh, grandson of Freskin the Fleming, in David I’s time. [053713]

**HOWDEN** (Holdene 1382) Sc hole, ie “hollow, deep” + dean, dene “valley”; “hollow valley”.

**HUMBIE** (Kirkliston; Hundeby 1290; Kirknewton: Hunby 1546) N byr “farm” + Hund “Hundi’s farm”, or ? < N hundr “dog, hound”. [114755/114677]

**ILLIESTON** (Ileuestune 1200 Illefston 1336 Elotston 1421) OE tun “farm” + N Ill-Leifr; “Ill-Leif’s farm”. [101702]

**INCH** (Le Inche 1335 Inche of Baythcat 1566) G innis “island” or “river-meadow”, probably a raised settlement in the bog. [989673]

**INCHGARVIE** (Inchegarde 1490 Inchevarie 1512) G innis garbh “rough island”.

**INVERALMOND** G inbhir “river-mouth, confluence” + Almond: ie “where a burn meets the Almond”. [057672]

**INVERAVON** (Inneravyn 1455 Inneravine 1669) G inbhir + Avon “mouth of
the River Avon, ?? < W aber-avon; "Avon-mouth". [956798]

KEPSCAITH (Scape Scotia 1773 Skepscaith 1818) Sc skip “measure” or ??OE sic “sheep” (though this normally > sheep; ??N interference) or E skip “bee-hive” + skaithie “shelter, fence”. [945633]

KETTLESTON (Ketlistoun 1147 Kilstoun 1627) OE tun “farm” + N Ketil > E; “Ketil’s farm”. [988763]

KILPUNT (Kenpunt 1200 Kilpont 1467) W pen “head” partly translated > G ceann “head”, anglicised as Ken-, + W pont “bridge”, “bridge-end”. [098718]

KINGLASS (Kinglas 1240) G ceann glas “green-head”; ?? < W pen glas, meaning the same, although there is no evidence for this. [006804]

KINGSCAVIL (Kincauill 1307 Kincawill 1531) G ?ceann cabhual “fishing-creel-head, or end” with reference to the former loch. [028767]

KINNEIL (Peanfaehil 737 Penguail 8c Penneltun 737 Cenail Kinel 1160) W pen gwawl “Roman-wall-end” translated > G ceann-fhail (see introduction). Kinneil KERSE is Sc kerse, carse “low fertile land beside a river”. [985805]

KIPPS (The Kippis 1562) G ceap “stone-block” + E-s plural; “blocks”, ?? the nearby cromlech. [989739]

KIP RIG G ceap “block” or “top of hill” + Sc rig “ridge”. [023601]

KIRKLISTON (Kyrklystoun 1447) Sc kirk “church” of LISTON (Listona 1163 Lystoune 1290 Temlistoun 1311) OE tun “farm” + ?Lissa, ie “Lissa’s farm”, or ?? W llis “court, hall”, or ?? G lios “garden” + kirk “church”; a problematical name. The barony of Liston belonged to the Knights Templars, then to the Knights of St John.

KIRKNEWTON (f: Kirknutton, [The] Nutton, The Burrae [Burrow]; Ecclesia de Neutun 1150 kirk of Natoune 1503) Sc kirk “church” + new + OE tun “farm”; "new farm of the church".

KIRKTON (Kirktoun of Levingstoun 1539) Sc kirk “church” + OE tun “farm”; "church-farm". [033668]
KNIGHTSRIDGE (Knightisridge 1540) Sc knight "knight" + rig "ridge"; the Knights of St John of Jerusalem owned much land in this district.

LADYWELL. E "The Lady's Well". < a lost well dedicated to the Virgin Mary "Our Lady"; < Knights of St John, or the Templars.

LANGTON (Langtoone 1200) Sc lang "long" + OE tun "farm"; "long farm". [089668]

LATCH. Sc latch "boggy ground". Also LATCH Burn, near Blackburn. [098656]

LAW (Tar 1737 Law 1750) G torr > Sc tar- "rounded hill" > Sc law "hill". [039721]

LEARIE LAW (Lierylaw 1750 Lyrielaw 1773) Sc lairy "muddy" + law "hill"; "muddy hill". [090712]

LEITHHEAD (Lethishead 1454 Leythheid 1558) Sc heid "head" of the Water of Leith (see Water-names, above). [113635]

LETHAM (Letham 1631) OE lathe-hame "barn-steading". [065684]

LEUCHOLD (Luchweld 1392 Lewchold 1667) G leamh-coill(t)e "elm-woods", but the order adjective + noun suggests C *leuco-caldi "bright wood" > W lluch "shining" + coledd "grove, trees", or > G luach "bright" + coill(t)e "woods", ? from the nearby Forth. ??G cult "nook", ie ?"bright nook". [150787]

LEYDEN (l: [The] Leedon [Brae]; Ladone 1507 Ledoun 1546 Lidden 1612) The modern spelling suggests OE leah "meadow" + denn "pasture", whereas the early spellings suggest < B *Lugudunon "Lugus' fort" as in Leyden in Holland (but see LOTHIANS above for local development of the B form). This does not suit the location, unless there is a lost hill-fort. Rivers Leaden and Lidden (Leden 1248) in England are < B *Litana- "broad (river)" > W llydan "wide". The local pronunciation and form suggests ?"broad (brow)". [099643]

LINBURN Sc linn "pool" + burn "stream". [123683]

LINHOUSE (l: [The] Lennis; Leuenax 1537 Lenos 1585 Lennox 1595) Apparently Sc linn "waterfall, pool" + house, which suits. However, the early spellings show it to be identical with the district of Lennox, G Leamhnacht (Levenax 1199) < B *Lemineta "elmwood-place" or < B *Lemanacos "abounding in elms", or the like, and changed by folk-etymology > Linn-house. [062629]

LINLITHGOW (l: Lithgae, Lithca; Linlitcu 1124 Lytheu 1299 Lynlythqw 1381) W llyn "loch" + llaith "damp” + cau "hollow"; "Damp Hollow Loch". The town was originally Lythcu "Damp Hollow" still echoed in the local forms. It seems that this was early associated with G llaith cu "grey dog", hence the town's
arms, and the black bitch legends? G linn fhliuchua (pron linn liucho) means the same as the W, but is often written Gleann liucho.

**LIVINGSTON** (Livi, Livvy, Livison; Uilla Leuing 1124 Leuiggestun 1153 Levingstone 1301) OE tun “farm” + Leving; “Leving’s farm”. There is still confusion with -stone.

**LOCHCOTE** (Lochcotteis 1471 The Lochtitis 1482 Lochquatt 1654) Sc loch + cot: “loch-cottages”. [975735]

**LOCHTYLOCH** (Loghtilik 1335 Lochtillow 1453) G ?loch “dark” + tulach “hillock”; “dark hillock”. [002682]

**LOGANLEA** G lagan “small hollow” + liath “grey”; “grey hollow”. [984624]

**LONGFORD** (Lomphard 1662) G longphort “encampment” or “shieling-hut”. [982607]

**LONGRIDGE** (Longrigg; Lang rig 1696) Sc lang “long” + rig “ridge”.

**MAINs, North and South** (North Mains of Torthraven 1571 South Mains of Trattrevine 1473) Sc mains “home farm of a laired estate”, quite a common element in West Lothian (see TARTRAVEN below). [013730/011727]

**MANNERSTON** (Maneristoun 1320 Manderstoun 1618) OE tun “farm” + Manhere; “Manner’s farm”. [048789]

**MAUKESHILL** Sc mawk “hare” + hill; “hare’s hill”. [040670]

**MERRYLEES** (Murrieleis 1540 Mirrieleyes 1642) Sc muir(-ie) “moor(y)” + lea(s) “fields”; “moory fields”, or Sc mire(y), ie “boggy fields”. [047782]

**MIDCALDER** (Midcalder 17c) was part of Calder Clere (see EAST CALDER above).

**MIDHOPE** (The Medope 1438 Mydoip 1583) Sc mead “meadow” + hope “valley”; “meadow-valley”. [073787]

**MORTON** (Murtoun 1523) Sc muir “moor” + OE tun “farm”; “moor farm”. [073632]
Muirhouse (Murisdikis 1512 Muirisdykes 17c) Sc muir “moor” + house. The old name includes Sc dykes “walls”. [039626]

Muldron (Molron 1512 Mulrane 18c) G *maol draum “bare hill ridge”. [924584]

Murieston (Murreistoune 1529 Muirhousetoun 1773) Sc muir “moor” + OE tun “farm”; “moor-house-farm”.

Newpark (Sandiegait 1586) Sc sandy + gate, gate “road, way”; “sandy-way”. Newpark is literal. [048648]

Newton (The Newtoun 1497) OE tun “farm” + new; “new farm”. [093777]

Niddry (Nudreff 1370 Nidre 1542) W newydd “new” + tref “farm”. [091739]

Ochiltree (Ockiltrie 1211 Uchiltre 1382) B *uxello-trebo- > W uchel “high” + tref “farm”; “high farm”. The same element is seen in the Ochils, “The High Ones”. [031746]

Ogilface (Oggelfast 1165 Uggefas 1303) W uchel “high” + faes (< maes) “field”; “high field”. [927690]

Ormiston (Ormystoun 1211) OE tun “farm” + N Ormr, a personal name, meaning “worm, dragon” > E; “Orme’s farm”. [098665]

Paddockhall (Paddockshall 1818) Sc paddock, puddock “frog, toad” + hall; “Toad Hall”. [036785]

Pardovan (Pardufin 1124 Purduyn 1282 Per dov in 1475) W par “grazing-field” + (d)dwfn “deep”; ie “dense grazing-field”. [045774]

Philpingston (Philpdoawystoun Eu 1165 Philpewiston 1577) OE tun “farm” + Philip d’Eu; “Philip d’Eu’s farm”. Eu is a small town to the north of Paris. [013815]

Philpston (Philpston 1431) OE tun “farm” + Philip; “Philip’s farm”.

Peel (Linlithgow: Pele 1303; Livingston: Peill de Levingstoun 1542) E pel “stockade” > “castle” > “land”. [003773/045675]

Polsbeth (Polbaith 1417 Powbeate 1726) G poll “pool” + beith “birch-tree”; “birch-pool”.

Polkemmet (Polcamat 1336 Pokamat 1583) G poll “pool” + camaidh “crooked”; ie “pool on the river-bend” [920625]
POTTISHAW (Padokschw 1503 Podishaw 1642) Sc paddock “frog, toad” + shaw “wood”; “frog-wood”. [964659]

POWFALTS (Powflatis 1635) Sc pow “pool” + flats “river-meadows, level ground”. [078713]

PRESTON (Prestoun 1472) OE preost “priest” + tun “farm”; “priest’s farm”. [998758]

PUMPHERSTON (I: Pumphae, Pumpherson; Pumfrayston 1421) OE tun “farm” + W ap Hwmfire “son of Humphrey” (W mæþ = G macc “son of”); “Pomphray’s farm”.

PYOTHALL Sc pyot “magpie” + hall; “magpie-hall”. [074729]

QUEENSFERRY (Passagium Sancta Margaretae Regine 1184 The Quenysfery 1449 Le Ferye 1501 Lie Southquenis Ferry 1558) E “Queen’s Ferry”, associated with Saint and Queen Margaret, wife of Malcolm Canmore (G ceann mor “bighead”). The G name survived till the 1660s: Caschilis < G cas chaolais “deep or sudden strait”.

RASHIEHILL (Reshihill 1649) Sc rash(ie) “rush(y)” + hill; “rush-covered hill”. [962611]

RASHIERIGG (Rushierig 1773) Sc rash(ie) “rush(y)” + rig “ridge”; “rush-covered ridge”. [947672]

REEVES (Rives 1694) Sc reeve “pen, or sheepfold(s)”. [943639]

RICCARTON (Ricardistun 1282 Richardstoun 1615) OE tun “farm” + Ricard; “Richard’s farm”. [019751]

RIDDICH-HILL (Ridoch-Hill 1696) Sc ?rid “red” + haugh “river-meadow” + hill; ?“red-meadow-hill”. [979657]

RIVALDSGREEN (Riwaldrugene 1537 Ribbanis Grene 1564 Ribbaldsgreyne 1577) Sc green “lawn, or grassy spot” + N Hroaldr or E Ribald; “Ribald’s Green”. [000769]

ROUSLAND (Rusland 1540) Sc land + OE Hrolf; “Rolf’s land”. [980793]

RUSH (I: Rushae; Russchaw 1512 Rushie 1773) Sc rash “rush” + shaw “wood”; “rush-wood”. [993609]

RYAL (Rial 1773) ?E “rye-hill” or ?G riaghail “a rule”, common in place-names, but of unclear meaning. [080715]

SEAFIELD (Seafield 1750) E “sea-field”; a puzzle.

SELM (Selmys 1474 Selmes 1773) It has been derived from Sc? sallie “sallow” + moss “bog”, but Selm Muir nearby cannot be explained in this way; Sc selm is “bar of a gate”. [088660]

SKIVO (I: Skeevae; Skevoche 1600 Skevoch 1664 Skeva 1773) G skieimbeach (pron skeevach) “place of beauty”. [054637]

STANDHILL (Standhill 1549) Sc stane “stone” + hill; “stone-hill”. [968669]

STANKARDS (Stanketts 1570 Stankcottis 1575) Sc stank “fish pond” + cot(s) “cottage(s)”; “fishpond-cottages”. [060713]
STARLAW (ie Starlaw 1468 Sterlaw 1618) Sc ?stair "stepping-stones, or rough bridge" + law "hill"; "stepping-stone hill". [003673]

STONEYBURN (I: Staneyburn; The Stanyburne 1500 Stannyburne 1641) Sc stane(y) "stony" + burn "stream"; "stony stream".


STRATHBROCK (Strathbroc 1226 Strabrok 1307) G srath "valley" + broc "badger" or W ystrad broc meaning the same; "badger valley". Now BROXBURN (above).

SYKE (Syke 1818) Sc syke "ditch, drain, or small stream", quite a common term in this area. [996784] Also HAWTHORNSYKE near The Binns.

SWORDE Sc sward "sod, piece of turf". [995789]

SWINABBHEY (Swynish Abbey 1668) Sc ?swin "to cut aslant" + ?abeigh "astray"; the R. Almond cuts diagonally near the farm. [972654]

TAILEND Sc tail "irregular piece of land jutting from a larger piece" + end. [015676]

TARRAREOCH (Torreoch 1500) G torr riabhach "grey, brindled hill". [942674]

TARTRAVEN (Tortrevane 1490 Tartrewin 1586) W unr or G torr > Sc tar- "rounded hill" + W trefan "little farm" (see also North and South Mains, above). [005725]

THREEMILETOWN (Thremy/houses 1563 The thrie mylntoune of Wattirstoun 1598) Sc thrie "three" + meln "mill" + OE tun "farm"; "three-mill-farm". Also called QHUITFLATTS 1563, Sc Whiteflats "white level ground".

TIMMERYETTS (I: Timmeryates) Sc timmer "timber, wooden" + yetts, yates "gates". [072723]

TIPPEHILL, TIPPEKNOWE, TEEPIT HILL Sc tippet "crested, tipped" + hill, and knowe "knoll, hillock". [944659/922612/963676]

TORBANE (Torbane 1335 Torbeane 1649) G torr ban "white hill". [947669]
TORPHICHEN (Thorpechin 1165 Torfeka 1199) Usually derived < G torr phigheann “magpie hill”, but G pighenn “magpie” has been shown to be a late borrowing < E pie “magpie”. W tref-fechan “small farm” is suggested, but in the absence of early written forms this is speculation.

TORPHIN (Torfin 1450) G torr fionn “white or holy hill”. [035610]

TURENMONE (Turnamoon 1773 Tamethemon 18c) G torr na moine “hill of the peat (-bog)” (see introduction). [035623]

TRINLYMIRE (Truly Mire 1750) Sc trindle “circle” + mire “bog”, ie ? “circular patch of bog”. [064754]

UPHALL (Wphall 1602) E up-hall “upper house, manor house.”

WALLHOUSE (Wolhouse 1540 Wellhoos of Torphiching 1572) Sc well + hoos(e) “house”; “house by the well”, St John’s Well is nearby. [957724]

WALTON (Wilton 1335 Welloone 1473) OE wella “well” + tun “farm”; “well-farm”. [026794]

WATERSTONE (Walterstone 1465) OE tun “farm” + Walter; “Walter’s farm”. [059747]

WEST CALDER (l: Cauther; Kaledure Comitiss 1150 Westercaledoure 1170) L comitis “of the count”, ie “Earl’s” or “Thane’s Calder”, owned by the Earls of Fife (see CALDERS above).

WESTFIELD (Westfield 1773) E “west field”.

WHITBURN (Whiteburne 1296 Whittburne 1365) Sc white + burn “stream”; “white stream”.

WHITEBAULKS (Quhitbawkes 1531 Whytbaulks 1656) Sc white + baulk “unploughed ridge”. [006746]

WHITEOCKBRAE (Quhythokbray 1614) Sc “white-oak” + brae “brow”. [939696]

WILKIESTON (l: Wilkieson; Spetelon 1375 Spittelton 1547) Sc spital “hospice” + OE tun “farm”. It was renamed “Wilkie’s farm” after a local family.

WINCHBURGH (Wincleburgh 1189 Wincleburghhe 1377) OE wincel “nook, angle” + burh “town”; “town in the nook”.
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This list shows books which have proved useful in the preparation of this booklet, and which the interested reader would find helpful for further study.

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A WORD OF WARNING!

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With map, grid references and 24 illustrations.

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