CHAPTER III.

MEASURES OF LENGTH AND AREA.

The most convenient units for linear measurement are the parts of the human body. These were used from very early times, but gradually grains of corn were adopted as an alternative. The barley corn is the recognised legal unit in the Laws of King Athelstan, but the natural foot was still used, as in the Assize of King David. At the end of the fourteenth century, an official table was inserted in the York Memorandum Book, giving the traditional ratio of 3 grains of barley to the thumb or inch, and 12 thumbs to the foot; at the same time 3 thumbs were reckoned to the palm, and 3 palms and 3 grains made the foot, which gives a foot of only 10 thumbs. Sir Richard de Benese saw the uncertainty which was bound to arise when measurements were based on natural units: « The lengthe of an ynche after some mennes opynyon, is made by the length of the barlycornes, which rule is not at all times trewe. For the length of a barlycorne of some tillage is

2. Robertson, p. 88.
longer, and some shorter, after the fatnes and leanesse of the lande... Therefore in makynge of an ynche after this rule it shulde be somtymes longer, and somtymes shorter... the whiche shulde make great dyfference in mesurynge. Therefore ye shall take the length of an ynche moste truely upon an artificers rule, made of two foote in length, after the standarde of London, the whiche rule doth conteyne xxiiij ynches in length1. »

Professor Maitland pointed out that taxation was a strong force in the direction of standard land measures. If Danegeld and other levies based on land were to be successful and equitabe, local variations in land measurement must be done away2. A great advance towards standardisation was made when the Crown began to regulate cloth measures, saying how many thumbs macle up the cloth ell. Later, standard ells were sent round to the sheriffs. These royal standards were gradually used for measuring land, instead of the old local standards.

In spite of this tendency to standardise measures, there has always been a recognised difference between different kinds of land, which was reflected in the linear units. For instance, the forest was less fruitful than arable land, therefore forest measures were longer. Such differences were intelligible and justifiable when land was the basis of all taxation. Wastes and marshland had long measures, and many of these local variations were still used at the time of the Agricultural Commission in the early nineteenth century3.

The earliest recorded standard for linear measurements was the Yard or Girda, which was kept at Winchester during the Saxon period4. From the Conquest until the reign of Richard II, the yard and the ell were considered identical. The yard (Ulna was its Latin equivalent) was originally a cloth measure. The guardians of weights and measures appointed by Richard I were to have iron ulnae5, and as early as 1200 the iron yard was used for land in Gloucester6. The royal standard is mentioned in 1197 in a document of the Priory of S. Mary Spital without Bishopsgate, in

1. Sir Richard de Benese, Doke of the Mesurynge of Londe, fol. 7 v*-8 r*.
3. Reports of the Agricultural Commission, passim.
which land is measured by « the iron yards of John King of England1 », an early instance of the application of cloth measures to land. The Statutum de admensuratione terre lays down the legal standard of the iron yard of our Lord the King as « three Feet and no more2 ». But at the same time cloth was measured by different units based on the standard ell. In 1439 the « yard-and-inch » was fixed by statute as the sole cloth measure, and the longer « yard-and-handful » was abolished; the dozen of cloth (unwatered) was to contain 12 ells and 12 inches3. The old dozen had been measured as 14 yards or verges, apparently based on a standard between the yard-and-inch and the yard-and-handful4.

It has been noticed that the application of the yard to land measurements was a comparatively late development. A longer unit than the foot was the measuring rod. This is generally known as the Perch (Pertica or Ruta) in medieval records. Its local variations were numerous, according to the nature of the land, and the custom of the people; therefore the wise author of Seneschaucie bids the seneschal know by the perch of the country how many acres there are in each field5. The perch generally ranged between 15 and 24 feet. The Chronicle of Battle Abbey makes the English perch contain 16 feet6, but the present statute perch of 16 1/2 feet was established by the time of the undated Statutum de admensuratione terre7. Maitland suggests that the latter may be a compromise between the two customary perches of 15 and 18 feet8. Walter of Henley also gives la perche le rey as 16 1/2 feet, but in Grosseteste’s translation the perch is only 16 feet9. In the Anonymous Husbandry the author maintains that all land ought to be measured by the perch of 16 1/2 feet, although in practice acres are sometimes measured by perches varying from 18 to 24 feet10.

In Scotland the Perticata or Rude was to be measured by a rod of 20 medium feet in the town-lands; but in the country (in baro-

3. Chisholm, p. 50; Stat. at Large, I, p. 558; 18 Hen., VI, c. 16.
5. Walter of Henley, pp. 84, 85.
6. Chron. de Bello, p. 11.
9. Walter of Henley, pp. 8, 44.
10. Ibid., pp. 66-69.
the land measure was to be 6 ells or 18 medium feet in length. The use of a 20 foot perch in towns was common, for we find it again in York in 1280; the Friars Preachers gained licence to enclose a piece of land in the city, measured by the perch of 20 feet. Again, at Lincoln in 1329, the Bishop was granted a wall adjoining the palace containing 181/2 perches by the rod of 20 feet of the royal yard. Trevisa also gives the perch as containing 20 feet.

Long measures were generally used for forest land. Thus, according to the Arrentations of Assarts of Forests, made in the time of Henry III and Edward I, forest land was measured by a perch of 20 feet, and there are several instances of the use of a royal perch of 24 feet (pertica nostra xxiiij pedum), used for forests and assarts in the reign of Henry III. This use of the perch of 24 or 25 feet manupedum was confirmed in 1229; royal command was given to Hugh de Nevill and his fellow itinerant Justices of forest pleas that whereas the perch contained 24 or 25 such feet in the time of Henry II, Richard I, and John, so now they were to use such a customary perch for the measurement of assarts. Very long perches became less common with the decrease in forest lands, for at the beginning of the sixteenth century the woodlande perche of Sir Richard de Benese was 18 feete, and the statute perch of 16 1/2 feet was used for arable land and land in the felde.

Very short perches occur in some documents. Ducange mentions the use of a perch of 10 feet among the English. The perch of 15 feet was very common, although those of 16 and 16 1/2 feet were generally used for cultivated land. Entries in the Close and

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2. C. P. R. 1272-1281, p. 405.
4. N. E. D. Perch. There must be some error in the reading: the pace conteyneth five feete and the perche elleuene passe and ten feete. Should it be 2 pasces?
5. Gale, Roger, Registrum Honoris de Richmond, App. p. 11. Assart = land newly reclaimed from waste or forest.
6. C. P. R. Passim.
7. I can find no meaning for this word; it is probably the same as perch pedepalme of 24 feet, mentioned in P. R. 1216-1225, pp. 162-163.
9. Sir R. de Benese, Boke of the Mensrynge of Londe, fol. 8 v° (written, VI foote and di).
Patent Rolls, which frequently mention longer units but do not give small measures, confirm the conclusion already advanced; for ordinary land 16, 16 1/2 and 18 feet were the most usual measures, while for assarts, marshland, waste and forest, the perch varied between 20, 21, and 24 feet. The way in which local standards were preserved is illustrated in the Estate Book of Henry de Bray, where the length of the circumference of the vill is given « according to the measure of a perch on the gable outside the chancel at Harlestone. »

It must be remembered that perches also varied according to the length of the foot employed. The Statutum de ad mensuratione Terre defines the foot as containing 12 inches, each inch to be the thirty-sixth part of the iron rod of the legal standard; but a foot of 18 inches is said to have been used for the arrentations of forests in Nottinghamshire in the time of Richard Oysell. Naturally the foot used for ordinary land measurements would be a rough-and-ready customary standard. In this way Maitland has accounted for curious units like the Dorset « Gad » of 15 statutory feet and 1 inch; the gad was really 15 customary feet. The same reason may explain the perch of 18 1/2 feet and 3 inches with which the lands of Glastonbury Abbey were measured, when granted to the new Bishopric of Gloucester in 1541.

The Furlong or Furrowlong was 40 perches in length, the actual length of the furrow depending on that of the perch employed. The furlong was, therefore, the same as the Quarentene which is often mentioned in medieval documents, and which generally contained 40 perches. The Register of Battle Abbey and the Liber Crabhusie both refer to quarentenes of 40 perches of 16 feet, while Walter of Henley gives the same equation, reckoned in statutory perches.

7. Chron. de Bello, p. 11.
8. Ducange, Quarentena.
Twelve quarentenes were supposed to make up the English League\(^1\), which was used almost invariably for long measurements. The Mile is very rarely mentioned in medieval documents, and the modern statute mile was apparently first legalised in Elizabeth’s reign\(^2\). Professor Seebohm has brought forward evidence to illustrate the constant use of the league in medieval England. Before the Conquest a document attributed to Bede defined the league as 1500 paces\(^3\). This agrees with the ordinary computation of a league of 12 quarentenes, as both make the league about one and a half times the length of the Roman and modern miles. Seebohm has also shown that the league was really the same as the old customary British mile of 1,500 paces\(^4\). The Roman mile of 1,000 double paces, on which is based the modern statute mile, was not employed in medieval England, but the customary miles of medieval England were based on the old standard of 1,500 paces\(^5\). Local variations are explained by the different length of the pace in various districts.

A peculiar use of the league in Worcestershire at the time of Domesday has been noticed by Mr J. H. Round. Woodland was generally measured in quarentenes and leagues; but whereas the normal equation was 12 quarentenes to the league, 3 quarentenes is the highest figure ever given below the league in this county. From this it appears that the league contained only 4 quarentenes, or half a modern mile; but the peculiar calculation may be due to the use of a very long forest perch, according to which the quarentenes were reckoned, while the normal league was retained\(^6\).

Superficial measures were based on linear standards. The idea of square inches, square yards and so on came very slowly, and in medieval England areas were still reckoned in terms of long measure. Thus, even in the sixteenth century, Fitzherbert defined the statute acre: «Four perches to an acre in bredth, and for-

1. Ducange, *Chron. de Bello*, p. 11.
2. Seebohm, p. 82.
3. Robertson, p. 89.
tye perches to an acre in lengthe. This was the regular size of an acre, but variations naturally arose, according to the length of the local perch.

The statute acre was based upon the statutory perch of 16 1/2 feet, but the acre of Battle Abbey was measured by a 16 foot perch; round Ely the long marsh perch of 18 feet was used to measure the acre.

The same variations and obscurities beset the study of superficial as of all other medieval measures. In the Chronicle of Battle Abbey reference is made to another acre as well as the normal acre. A grant of land mentions « thirty acres of meadow by the measure of Normandy » as distinct from the Saxon system, while a deed belonging to Harbledown Hospital records the grant of « an acre and a half of land, to wit, Langenekre ». Robertson has shown that this customany « langenekre », which contained 61,440 square feet, corresponded very closely with the old Norman acre of 4 Vergées, or 62,986 square feet. Therefore both grants probably refer to the same large system. These old Norman acres bear a striking resemblance to the measures now used in the Channel Islands, for the old Norman vergée, which was a quarter-acre, is still found in Guernsey, and is equal to about 1 1/2 English roods; whereas in Jersey a larger vergée is used, equal to twice that of Guernsey, or to half the old Norman acre and the English langenekre. This larger vergée is also approximately the same as the old Norwegian Daeg-slaat or day’s work, and as the Morgen or morning’s-works of Bremen, which was an half-acre, equal to 120 square Ruther, the Rute being a rod of 16 feet. It is interesting to compare these old English acres with the medieval German acres; the Acker of Bremen and the Heidscheffel or heath-measure of Geestland in Schleswig, were large acres, approximately equal to the Kentish langenekre, but in

3. Chron. de Bello, p. 11.
5. Chron. de Bello, p. 34; Triginti acras prati ad mensuram Normanniae dimensas, Ellis, W., Introduction to Domesday, I, pp. 157-158.
6. Robertson, p. 90; Unam acram et dimidium terrae seilcit Langenekre.
8. Ibid., pp. 90, 92.
Saxony, from the thirteenth century, the acre was only 40,960 square feet, the same as the ordinary acre of Battle Abbey, and 2/3 of that of Bremen.

The Cornish acre was different from the ordinary English acre. The customary acre of Cornwall and South Wales, according to the Agricultural Commission of 1820 to 1823, was apparently that of 160 square perches, based on a perch of 18 feet; but in Doomsday Book reference is made to a much larger Cornish acre. In the Testa de Nevill, the list of holdings belonging to the free tenants of the Pomeray Manor of Tregony, Cornwall, and to the tenants of the Bishop of Exeter, shows land reckoned by Cornish acres and carucates, which seem to be the same. No definite relation between the Cornish and normal acres is given, and the amount of land seems to have varied. Seebohm agrees with Carew’s History of Cornwall: «Commonly thirty Acres make a farthing land, nine farthings a Cornish Acre.» However, the measure varied, according to the nature of the land.

The Agricultural Commission gives numerous different acres in various counties, evidently dependent on the kinds of land. There were, for example, the small Dorset acre (4 × 45 the local gad of 15 feet and 1 inch), and similar small acres in Oxfordshire and Sussex. A large forest acre was found in the Northern Midlands, and a still larger plantation acre in the North, and occasionally in Northants, South Wales and Cornwall. All these local variations have probably come down from medieval times, but then measures were still more uncertain. Grants of land do not generally give the dimensions of the acres, but one entry in the Muchelney Chartulary shows that in 1225 the Abbot and convent received in an exchange, «one acre of arable land, having thirty-five perches in length and five in breadth».

1. Robertson, p. 90.
2. Seebohm, pp. 104-105; 4 × 40 perch of 18 ft, or 8 × 80 Cornish gad of 9 ft.
5. Seebohm, p. 66.
6. Ibid., p. 105.
8. Agriculture of the County of Sussex, 1805, p. 28.
The old Scottish acre was the same as the normal Cornish acre, 160 square perches, based on a perch of 18 feet. It is thus defined in the *Ancient Laws*: « The aker sail contene four rude, the rude .xi. fallis. The fall sail hald vj ellis », and the ell (*ulna*) contained 18 medium feet¹.

The Yardland and Farthingland were common units of area; occasionally they were less than an acre. According to Worlidge's *Dictionarium Rusticum* the Fardingland was a quarter-acre², and thus the same as the Yardland found in Wiltshire at the beginning of the nineteenth century³. In medieval times the farthingland (spelt in many different ways) was nearly always more than an acre. It generally represented a quarter-virgate, a furlong square, but it varied considerably and at Glastonbury the « Ferdel » was a quarter-virgate, generally of 10 acres⁴, while on one occasion « Fordels » are mentioned as larger than ferdels, but equal to 10 acres⁵. The grammar of the passage suggests a scribal error. According to the *Register of Worcester Priory* the « Forlands » contained 12 or 14 acres, while the virgates were 48 acres⁶. One of the grants to Athelney Abbey was a « Ferling » of land containing 12 acres⁷. Spelman says that 10 acres make a « Ferlingate⁸ ».

Besides these familiar land measures, there were many local units. The Selion was a strip of land between the divisions of the open field; it had no fixed dimensions, but was generally less than an acre. The Nook of land is mentioned occasionally; according to Noy's *Complete Lawyer*: « Two Fardells of land make a Nooke of land, and two Nookes make halfe a Yard of land⁹. » For

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¹ *A. Purl. Scot.*, 1, p. 387.
⁵ Elton, C. J. ed., *Rentalia... Michaelis de Ambresbury. Glastonbury* (Som. Rec. Soc.), 1891, p. 73; *tenent bis quinque acras pro ferdellis que largiores et ampliores sunt quam ferdelli. Does que refer to ferdellis or to acras?*
⁶ Reg. Worcester, p. 82.
⁹ N. E. D. *Fardel*. 
linear measurements, the Gad¹ and the Lug² are local varieties of the perch, though the Lincolnshire gad is only 10 feet³. In Suffolk the Stetch, a measure of 8 feet 2 inches, was used in old days⁴. The Bescia of Lincolnshire illustrates the use of a certain amount of work performed as a superficial land measure; this was a local measure for turf-cutting on the fens, and was equal to the amount of land that could be dug annually by one man with a spade (Vangia) between May 1st and August 1st.⁵.

CHAPTER IV.

MISCELLANEOUS AND OBSOLETE MEASURES.

Many of the measures mentioned in medieval documents mean nothing to the modern reader, for some have long passed out of use, while others have become much more local and restricted. The curious measures of ecclesiastical records have departed, and in many cases it is impossible to gauge their contents from the occasional entries in accounts and ordinances. In other cases the same word applies to a number of different measures, thus making the task of interpretation exceedingly difficult, and the result often inaccurate. The Sextarius is, perhaps, the most familiar of these uncertain measures, and it seems to have undergone as many changes in meaning as it had variations in spelling.

The medieval sextarius was obviously derived from the sextarius of classical Rome, which was used as a dry and as a liquid measure of capacity. In the former case, it was the sixteenth part of the Modius or bushel; in the latter, the sixth part of the Con- gius, and thus the equivalent of the modern pint. Ducange has quoted numerous examples of the use of the sextarius in the early Middle Ages, which differ considerably from the classical measure⁶. The small sextarius is mentioned by Spelman, who identi-

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2. N. E. D. Lug.
6. Ducange, Sextarium.
NOTES ON THE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF MEDIEVAL ENGLAND.

fies it with the quart, and quotes a lettres of Gregory the Great, referring to a modius of 18 sextarii.

The sextarius is often given in terms of weight, and thus it differed for various commodities, such as oil and honey. However, it generally weighed about 2 pounds, both in England and on the Continent. Ducange quotes a document which makes the sextarius of oil weigh 2 pounds, of wine 2 pounds 8 ounces, and of honey 4 pounds. On the other hand, M. Guilhiermoz quotes a ninth-century table of medical weights and measures, in which the sextarius of wine or water weighs 2 pounds, that of oil 2 pounds 8 ounces, and that of honey 2 1/2 pounds. In England, the sextarius was 2 pounds, as we find in a Saxon leechdom of about 1000 A.D. Wyclif defined the « sextarye » as 2 pounds, and so did Trevisa: « Sextarius is the measure of two poundes... that is Cenix in grewe. »

By the time of Fleta the sextarius as a liquid measure was used for much larger quantities than in earlier years, for every sextarius of pure wine should contain 4 gallons. This measure was the common wine sextarius, which figured so largely in the Assizes of wine all through the Middle Ages. In Scotland, the sextarius was to contain only 3 gallons. The Scotch Assize gives the weight of the gallon of water as 12 pounds, so that the sextarius must then have weighed about 36 pounds. Contemporary accounts bear evidence that the wine sextarius was generally equivalent to 4 gallons. In Rogers' price lists from the thirteenth to the sixteenth centuries there are occasional references to purchases of wine by the sextary, which apparently contained 4, occasionally 5 or 6 gallons. There is one curious entry at the end of the period; 10 1/2 gallons of wine were bought at Oxford at one shilling and

2. Ducange, Sextarium, from Glossae Velt. Cassinenses Mss. : « Sextarius olei habet libras iij. Sextarius mellis habet libras iii. Sextarius est duarum librarum... con-gius sex metitur sextarius... sextarium vini habet duas libras et viii uncias. »
5. N. E. D. Sester.
8. Ibid., I, p. 310.
eight pence the gallon, and 31 sextaries at six pence. At this time the normal price of a gallon of wine was from one to two shillings, so that there must be some scribal error with regard to the sextaries unless, improbably, a small measure like that referred to by Spelman is indicated. The *Household Roll* of Bishop Swinfield records numerous purchases of wine by sextarius and gallon, the sextarius being equal to 4 gallons. The *Compotus Rolls* of Worcester Priory do not give satisfactory references to the sextarius and gallon, but calculation from the prices by the dolium and lagena give a sextarius of from 2 1/2 to 4 lagenae or gallons.

According to the official regulation of measures the dolium or tun should contain 252 gallons, so that the correct number of sextaries in a tun would be 63. Calculation from prices generally gives 50 to 53 sextaries to the tun, but this discrepancy is probably due to the difference between the wholesale price of the dolium and the higher retail prices of the sextarius and gallon, while the royal purveyors would always pay less. At Bury St. Edmund's 50 sextarii were reckoned to the dolium, but the Sacristan's *Account Rolls* seem to show that about 60 were contained in actual practice. In the Duke of Buckingham's *Accounts* for 1507 there is a long and interesting list of purchases of wine by retail. In this, the sextarius contains 4 Pitchers, and the pitcher 4 quarts. "Pitcher" being a colloquial name for gallon, the sextarius is evidently the wine sextarius of the Assize, containing 4 gallons; therefore it should not be translated "pottle", for the pottle was only 2 quarts.

Although the capacity of the sextarius was legally fixed, and considered constant in the Assizes, there was a very common idea, probably derived from monastic custom, that the sextarius represented a weekly portion or allowance; this naturally caused variation in its size according to the liquid measured. Thus Rogers...
notes that the sextarius of sweet wine held only 2 gallons. Men drank much more ale than wine, so that this idea of an allowance, may underlie the striking difference between the contents of the sextarius when used for wine and for ale. The latter measure was officially fixed in Scotland, where the Assisa de Bolla ordained that the Boll should contain 1 sextarius, that is, 12 gallons of ale. The Assize of Bread, Wine and Ale ordained that whereas King David had been wont to receive 10 gallons of ale from every boll of malt, now every huckster was to receive 12 gallons of inferior ale from every boll. On the St. Paul's estates, the bolla was only equivalent to a gallon, but each of the chief ecclesiastical officials received 10 bollae of ale a week, an example of the large weekly allowance or sextarius of ale. Bishop Swinfield's Household Roll contains an interesting parallel between the two sexta-
rii, for purchases of wine and ale are made; the wine sextarius is constantly 4 gallons, that of ale 12 or even 14 gallons.

The sextarius, when used for ale, was called by so many different names, that it is liable to be overlooked in medieval accounts. It was spelt as « cestre », « sestur », « cistern », « sestron », etc. In the fifteenth century the sester of ale contained about 12 gallons; its content was fixed at Coventry in 1421 by proclamation of the Mayor. This proclamation fixed the price of ale at 11/4 d. and 1 1/2 d. a gallon, and added: « That no brewster sell no derre a Cestron ale to noo hukster but for xviij d. » A century later the price of a sester of ale was again fixed at 18d., and the brewers were to sell « xviijj galowndes to the sestur ». By 1528 the price of the « cester » had risen to 2 shillings, and its size decreased to 13 gallons. On the other hand, some of the prices paid for ale, according to the Mayor's Accounts of 1486, must refer to a sester of only 4 to 6 gallons.

1. Rogers, IV, p. 650.
3. Ibid., I, p. 311: Quod quilibet brasiator ... recipieret de qualibet bolla boni brasai ordiacio nisi xij lagenas servicie taberne.
8. Ibid., p. 678.
10. Ibid., p. 531.
This large ale *sextarius* explains a Gild ordinance of Southampton in 1300, which provided the lepers of *La Maudeleyne* (Mawdlens) with two « cestres » or « cisterns » of ale, the sick folk of S. Julian’s with two, the Friars Minor with two « systerns » of ale, and one of wine, and the poor four « systerns » of ale, whenever the Gild sat. The editor, following Spelman’s definition of the sester as a modern quart, has concluded that « in the present case « cestre » can hardly denote so small a capacity as a quart or even a gallon... for then the gift to the lepers... would hardly have been worth mentioning, especially as the alderman and steward received two gallons of wine apiece every night that the Gild sat. « Cestre » must mean at least four gallons¹. » The large ale *sextarius* of 12 gallons would place the gifts on a much more reasonable scale.

The *sextarius* as a measure of dry goods had also changed greatly from its classical prototype. Instead of the *sextarius* of 1/16 of the *Modius*², we find reference in Henry of Huntingdon to a *sextarius* of corn, which should be a horse’s burden, that is, the ordinary seam or quarter of 8 bushels³. The *sextarius* was used for lime in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and seems to have contained 3 or 4 quarters⁴. On the other hand the « sexter » of corn used in reckoning the dowry of Margaret of England in 1278 must have been the small French *Setier*, for apparently more than eight of such sexters were required to equal the *Muid* or bushel⁵. The *langhsester* of a Glastonbury manor may possibly refer to an unusually large *sextarius*⁶.

It is possible to gauge the connection between the *sextarius* and the peculiar ecclesiastical measures, *Oenophorum, Justa,* and *Caritas.* This last measure or allowance of wine was evidently regarded as 1/6 of the *sextarius* at Worcester, Evesham, and Abingdon⁷, though at Worcester the Prior had half a *sextarius* as his

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². Ducange, *Sextarium*.
⁴. Rogers, II, pp. 450-453.
caritas. Moreover at Abingdon a gallon and a half were equal to rather more than 2 caritates¹, while at Evesham the justa of ale contained 2 caritates². The justa, when used for the amount of the daily allowance, seems to have been generally 1 1/2 gallons of ale. Thus, the caritas must have been about three-quarters of a gallon, which gives the usual sextarius of 4 gallons; but it is interesting to note that this sextarius was used for ale in monastic houses, instead of the larger measure of 12 gallons. The Sacristan’s Accounts at Bury St. Edmund’s show a sextarius of 4 gallons⁴, and the large allowances granted make it far more likely that the sextarius at Worcester was the English measure, rather than the classical 1/6 congius, as assumed in the Introduction⁵.

The Gallon is often mentioned in ecclesiastical records under such names as Flascon⁶, Lagena⁷, or Oenophorum⁸, while the distinction between the justa and the gallon is plainly shown in the Custumale Roffense, where on the six principal feast-days the almoner was to receive as rent one justa of ale or one gallon of wine⁹ (evidently a smaller quantity), but at Worcester the justa was only a gallon¹⁰.

In the eleventh century the sextarius used for honey was to contain 32 ounces¹¹. Later documents mention sextarii of honey, but do not give the size of the measure. The thirteenth century Compotus Roll of Crondal includes prices of honey bought by the Stoup (Stopa) and by the gallon¹². From these the stoup seems to have been about 3 1/2 gallons, and one entry mentions a stoup containing 5 gallons. It is, therefore, tempting to conclude that

¹. Dugdale, I, p. 517: Constituit itaque cistum quendam magnum, flasconem et dimidium, sicilicet duas caritates et eo amplius in se plenarie continentem.
⁴. Dugdale, III, p. 162.
⁷. Ibid., III, p. 163.
⁸. Chronicon Monasterii de Abingdon (R. S.), II, pp. 394, 400: Oenophorum, id est galonem.
the honey stoup was really the same measure as the wine *sex-tarius*.

Such measures as the *Ambra* and the *Mitta* are also difficult to co-relate with modern standards. The former was used as a dry and as a liquid measure. The *Ambra* (*Mambra*) of the *Laws of Ine*¹ must have been a large measure, since 12 *mambrae* of Welsh ale and one full of butter were considered a right contribution to combine with 10 tuns of honey, 300 loaves, 2 oxen or 10 rams, etc. As a measure for corn, salt and hay, we learn from an *Extent of the Manors of Crowhurst and Fylesham* in Sussex (time of Edward I), that 24 *ambrae* of salt made 12 quarters of London measure². Since the London quarter contained 8 bushels, the *ambra* must then have held 4 bushels.

A Kentish will of the ninth century, which mentions « xxx ambrae of good Welsh ale, which are equal to xv mittas³ », is no help in determining the size of the *ambra*, for the *Mitta* is also a subject for dispute. It was a measure largely used for salt, and was equivalent to a horse-load, according to the *Register of Worcester Priory*⁴. This would make it about 8 bushels (and the Kentish amber 4 bushels), but locally the horse-load was apparently larger, for 280 *nzittae* held 2,800 bushels, making the *mitta* equal to 10 bushels⁵. The same word was used for a much smaller measure; seventeenth century writers refer to a *Metra* of 1 or 2 bushels⁶, and from Rogers’ price lists the *mitta* was 2 bushels at Oldington (Kent) in the thirteenth century⁷. However, when the prices for salt in Rogers’ lists are compared with those given in the *Early Compotus Rolls of Worcester*⁸, it would seem that the Worcester *mitta* was no more than 2 bushels, more probably 1, while the *Metra* was half as small again. On the other hand, the

1. Spelman, *Ambra* (*Lex Ine 67*).
3. Robertson, p. 68.
larger Mitta may be identified with the midda of salt, which cost 6 s. 8 d. in 1414 (the average price of a quarter\(^1\)).

The Mina was another grain measure, equal to 4 1/2 bushels\(^2\), but varying according to the kind of grain\(^3\). The need for a measure representing half a quarter or horse-load must have been considerable, for the quantity of 4 bushels occurs frequently under various names. The ambra has been already noticed; later the measure of 4 bushels was often called a Coomb\(^4\). The coomb of grain is still in use. The "Cowme" of Promptorium Parvulorum may refer to this measure, but is more likely the coomb on a bushel sold by "heaped-up" measure\(^5\). The Custumale Rotense mentions a coomb (Cumba), but this is a much larger measure, equal to 3 summae or horse-loads\(^6\). At Worcester the Cronnus or Cronn of 4 bushels was in use during the thirteenth century\(^7\), and the Crannock, a common dry measure in the West of England and Ireland, was evidently the same\(^8\). Against this conclusion, it must be noticed that the "crannok" of the Wardrobe Book of Edward I was reckoned as 2 quarters\(^9\), but this was for oats, and for oats measures seem to have been doubled, as we learn from Rogers' price lists. The Irish crannock of oats was 2 quarters, and of wheat one, and the sum of oats (Wales, Bedfordshire and Norfolk) was also 2 quarters or 24 Trugg\(^10\).

The Strike was smaller than the ambra and coomb; it is mentioned under several names in medieval documents. The word may originally have meant the measure of corn struck level with the rim of the containing vessel by means of the wooden rod known as a Strike. As a general rule the strike was a bushel\(^11\), as at Worcester in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, where it was called Estarium and Estricha\(^12\). But according to the Domesday

2. Cust. Roff., p. 32; Dom. S. Paul's, pp. 76, lxxii.
3. Cust. Roff., p. 35.
8. C. P. R. 1281-1292, p. 481.
of S. Paul’s¹, the strike was equal to 2 bushels, and the Hoppa to 1, instead of a Peck, as at Worcester. It is possible that the strike was the same as the Skep or Eskippa, although the evidence is too slight for any conclusion. From Rogers’ lists, the skep seems to have been 2 quarters in Derby and Carlisle (1277-8)², but Ducange quotes the Book of Joan of Westerham, Prioress of Rochester, in which 5 eskippae make 1 mina; the mina being 5/8 of a quarter, the eskippa must have been 1/8, a bushel³. Wyclif says that the « skipp » of corn is more than a quarter⁴. A survival of the eskippa can be traced in the Gloucestershire Kype, mentioned in Morton’s Cyclopaedia of Agriculture⁵, and wicker baskets called « Skeps » are still used in the Eastern counties.

Among these small units must be mentioned the Eytendale⁶ or half-bushel, 1/8 of the coomb; it was the same as the Northern Frundele.

Besides these common measures, local units of capacity are often mentioned in medieval records, generally without reference to their content. In the Worcester Rolls, Dales, Prioress and Pannae of salt are given⁷. The Toltrey, a toll on salt paid by the men of Malden to the Bishop of London, was 2 bushels⁸. Curious lime measures were the Miell of 2 quarters, found at York⁹, the Treye of Norfolk and Boston (Lines)¹⁰, also of 2 quarters, and the Quick, which was apparently 1 quarter, and was used in Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire¹¹. The Dodd of 1 1/2 quarters was used on the S. Paul’s estates¹². A peculiar ale measure was used on these estates; 30 Bollae, each of a gallon capacity, made the Prebenda¹³. This, in dry measure, would be approximately the same as the Prebendarius of 4 bushels, used at S. Riquier near Abbeville¹⁴.

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1. Dom. S. Paul’s, pp. lxxi, 17.
2. Rogers, II, pp. 13, 14.
4. N. D. Skep.
5. Britten, J., op. cit., p. 150.
10. Ibid., III, pp. 355, 362.
11. Ibid., III, pp. 358, ff.
12. Dom. S. Paul’s, p. 47.
but at Rochester the prebendaries held only about 40 cubic inches.

Among the common medieval measures, which are now obsolete, the Sarplar is conspicuous, for it is constantly mentioned in documents referring to the wool trade. Cowell defines the sarplar as half a sack, or 40 Tods, each tod of 28 pounds. He adds: « This in Scotland is called Sarplathe, and containeth fourscore stone. » Other writers have followed his opinion. Confusion may arise from this definition, since Cowell’s sack is obviously very much larger than the medieval sack of 26 stone. The amount of wool in a sarplar was originally quite indefinite; thus in 1278 a consignment of 103 sacks (weight) of wool was sewn up in 86 sarplars, and all through the fourteenth century the Close and Patent Rolls give evidence of sarplars containing odd numbers of sacks and cloves. In 1340 the collectors of customs at King’s Lynn were ordered to ascertain the number of sacks and stones in a consignment of 56 sarplars; and in the same year the collector of customs in the Port of London received orders to « weigh seven sarplars of the wool of Peter, Cardinal Priest of St. Praxed, and, the sacks being counted, to permit the cardinal or his attorneys to lade those sarplars and take them to Flanders ». The number of sarplars was evidently no clue to the weight of the wool.

The amount of wool in a sarplar gradually increased, until in 1435 there is mention of « 222 sarplars of wool containing one with another 2 1/2 sacks apiece ». This weight apparently remained constant for some time, for the sarplars mentioned in the Stonor Papers contained 21/2 sacks each with some extra cloves, but those of the Cely Papers were nearly 3 sacks. However, increase in the size of the sarplar must have taken place before Co-

1. Cust. Roff., p. 35: Prebendaries, id est, mensura unde distributur prebenda equis, debet esse xiii pollieicum latitudinis infra circulum et altitudinis trium pollieicum.
2. Cowell, John., Interpretor, 1607, Sarpler.
7. C. P. R. 1429-1436, p. 454.
8. Statutes at Large, I., p. 575, 27 Hen. VI, c. 2.
160

W. H. PRIOR.

well's time, for his sarplar of 40 tods of 2 stone would be equal to 3 medieval sacks.

This slight sketch is very far from being an exhaustive study of the systems of weights and measures in medieval England, or rather, of the lack of scientific system which prevailed. Its object will have been attained if it shows to some degree that extraordinary complexity of medieval measures which must have been such an obstacle to commercial enterprise, and gives at the same time approximate relations between the most common units.

CHAPTER V.

THE EXCHANGE VALUES OF ENGLISH AND FOREIGN COINS.

Evidence on the subject of foreign exchanges during the Middle Ages is very scanty, but occasionally a series of documents gives rates of exchange for a few consecutive years. The exchange between England and France remained remarkably steady on the whole, during the later Middle Ages, considering the debasements and alterations of the French silver standard. This was probably due to the use of the standard of St. Louis as the basis for calculation, and partly to the custom of making payments by weight.

From the middle of the twelfth century, the English mark of sterling silver was equal to 53 1/3 Sous, or 4 marks of Tournois currency, which made the penny sterling equal to 4 cl. Tournois.

This was the usual rate of exchange until the fourteenth century, when the Tournois standard was much debased. Some variations are given in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Rate of Exchange</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1292</td>
<td>4 1/8 d. tourn. = 1 d. sterling</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1292-1301, p. 234.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1297</td>
<td>4 1/6 d. tourn. = 1 d. st. (L 100 tourn. = L. 24 st.)</td>
<td>Rymer, II, p. 773.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1310</td>
<td>4 d. tourn. = 1 d. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1307-13, p. 216.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Robertson, p. 44; Guilhiermoz, pp. 204, 206.
The standards of Paris and Tours were in the ratio 5:4, though Roger Bacon, in 1267, counts the Paris pound as 1/3 of the English sterling pound, making the rate as 4:3, and in 1339 the Gros tournois was reckoned as 10 d. Parisis, giving an exchange of 6:5. The gros tournois was generally equivalent to 3 d. sterling, but sometimes 52 groats made up the silver mark. The reference in Reynerus, which makes 4 gros tournois equal to 15 pounds of sterlings in 1344, must be a mistake and should probably be 15 sterling pennies, the ordinary rate of 4 d. Tournois to the English penny being given later, and L. 60 Tournois being equated with L. 15 sterling.

French baronial currencies are occasionally mentioned in English documents, and the varying rates of exchange are illustrated in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Rate of Exchange</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1198, 1202</td>
<td>4 d. of Anjou = 1 d. sterling</td>
<td>Robertson, p. 44; Dugdale, VI, p. 1093.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1265</td>
<td>15 d. of Anjou = 12 d. tournois</td>
<td>Ducange, Moneta, Andegavenses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1236</td>
<td>4 d. of Bordeaux = 1 d. sterling</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1231-47, p. 136.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1243</td>
<td>4 1/2 d. of Bordeaux = 1 d.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1232-47, p. 368, 389.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14th century</td>
<td>4 1/2 d., 5 d. of Bordeaux = 1 d.</td>
<td>C. P. R., passim.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Ibid., p. 200.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Rate of Exchange</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1318</td>
<td>6 d. Bord. (v. nearly) = 1 d. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1317-21, p. 249.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1310, 1317</td>
<td>5 d. Bord. = 4 d. tournois.</td>
<td>Ducange, Moneta; Rymer, III, p. 626.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1290</td>
<td>5 1/2 d. of Chipot = 1 d. st.</td>
<td>Tout, T. F., Chapters in the Administrative History of Medieval England, II, p. 6, note.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1312</td>
<td>8 d. of Chipot = 1 d. st.</td>
<td>Rymer, II, p. 188.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1301</td>
<td>5 d. of Chipot and Arnald = 4 d. tournois.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1232-47, p. 422-3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1244</td>
<td>2 d. Morlaas (about) = 1 d. st.</td>
<td>Ducange, Moneta.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scottish coin was lighter than English and was generally condemned as false\(^1\). In 1374 Edward III ordained that 4 d. of Scots money should pass for 3 d. in England\(^2\), while the statute 14 Richard II, c. 12, fixed the current value of the Scots penny at the English halfpenny\(^3\), and two years later Scots coin was prohibited from importation into England. By 1502, L. 100 Scots was worth only 50 English marks, and L. 600 Scots was equal to L. 200 sterling.

When gold currency was introduced, the problem of foreign exchange grew more complex. Confusion arises because many different gold coins are described as Florins. Gold was minted at Florence in 1252, and the Florentine florin was imitated in other realms. Below are given the exchange rates between the English sterling standard and some of these foreign florins.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Rate of Exchange</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1330</td>
<td>1 florin of Florence = 3 s. 6 d. sterling.</td>
<td>Rymer, IV, p. 434-5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1332</td>
<td>1 florin of Flor. = 4 s. st. (about).</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1330-4, p. 239.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Rate of Exchange</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1337-44.</td>
<td>1 flor. of Flor. = 3 s. st.</td>
<td>Rymer, IV-V; C. P. R., passim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1302.</td>
<td>1 florin = 3 s. 4 d. st.</td>
<td>Gesta Abbatum Sancti Albani (R. S.), p. 56.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1307.</td>
<td>1 flor. = 2 s. 10 d. st.</td>
<td>Rogers, I, p. 177.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1362.</td>
<td>1 flor. = 3 s. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1361-4, p. 268.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1370.</td>
<td>1 flor. = 3 s. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1370-4, p. 25.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1372.</td>
<td>1 Floranus Auri de Camera = 3 s. st.</td>
<td>Rymer, VI, p. 727.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid. 14th cent.</td>
<td>1 french scute = 4 s. 6 d. st. (2 french flor. = 3 flor. florins).</td>
<td>Rymer, V, p. 157.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1342.</td>
<td>1 french flor. = 3 s. 4 d. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1340-3, p. 501, 507.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1343, 1344.</td>
<td>1 french flor. = 3 s. 7 d. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1343-5, p. 105, 154.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1345.</td>
<td>1 french flor. (scute) = 4 s. st.</td>
<td>Rymer, V, p. 485.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1359.</td>
<td>1 scute = 3 s. 9 1/4 d. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1358-61, p. 167.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1331.</td>
<td>1 flor. = 3 s. 4 d. st.</td>
<td>Rogers, II, p. 633; I, p. 177.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1363.</td>
<td>1 Flemish crown = 3 s. 4 d. st.</td>
<td>C. P. R. 1361-4, p. 431.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15th century</td>
<td>French crown = 3 s. 4 d. st.</td>
<td>Rymer, X-XII, passim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500.</td>
<td>Florin of the Rhine = 3 s. 4 d. ster.</td>
<td>Italian Relation of England.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Florin of the Rhine = 4 s.</td>
<td>C. S. p. 39.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flemish groats.</td>
<td>Rymer, X, p. 792.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1480.</td>
<td>Old french crown = 4 s. 2 d. st.</td>
<td>Rymer, XII, p. 115.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crown of the Sun = 4 s. 4 3/4 d. st.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1324.</td>
<td>Florenus de agnello or Lamb. (Lambkyn) = 4 s. st.</td>
<td>C. C. R. 1323-7, p. 212.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1331.</td>
<td>Lamb. = 3 s. 8 1/2 d. st.</td>
<td>Rogers, I, p. 177; II, p. 634.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1338.</td>
<td>Lamb. = 3 s. 9 d. st.</td>
<td>C. C. R. 1337-9, p. 456.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Date. | Rate of Exchange. | Reference.
--- | --- | ---
1334. | Florenus Realis or Royal = 3 s. 2 1/2 d. st. = 4 s. st. | C. C. R. 1333-7, p. 106.
From 1340. | Royal = 4 s. st. | C. C. R. 1339-41, p. 512.
1313. | Small gold florin = 4 s. st. | C. P. R. 1313-17, p. 45.
1304. | Great gold florin = 5 s. st. | C. C. R. 1302-7, p. 175.

The Venetian State Papers and the Cely Papers contain some interesting information on rates of exchange in the latter part of the fifteenth century; the former give the variation in the sterling value of the ducat between 1453 and 1497, showing its rise from 44 1/4 d. sterling in Venice and 39 3/4 d. sterling in London to 5 s. 2 d. in London. Between 1475 and 1482 the English pound of sterlings rose from 21 s. to 28 s. in Flemish money, while the English noble was worth 11 s. Flemish in 1482, and the ryall of 10 s. sterling was valued at 13 s. 4 d. Flemish.

GLOSSARIAL INDEX

NOTE. — A few common variations in spelling are given here; for other variations, see N. E. D.

ABBREVIATIONS.

A.-S. = Anglo-Saxon. | m. a. = measure of area.
E. = English. | m. c. = measure of capacity.
F. = French. | m. l. = measure of length.
l. = Italian. | m. q. = measure of quantity.
L. = Latin. | mon. acc. = money of account.
c. = coin. | wt. = weight.
d. = pence. | s. = shilling.
m. = measure.

The page members refer to pages in fascicules 2 and 3 of ALMA.

ACRA (p. 146 ff.). L. Aera, Ager. P. Acre. A.-S. Acre. E. Acre, Aker, Akir, Akyr. — m. a. legally 4 X 40 sq. perches; but with great variation according to soil and custom.

1. This great gold florin was probably the model for Edward III's gold noble in 1344.
3. Cely Papers (C. S.), passim.
NOTES ON THE WEIGHTS AND MEASURES OF MEDIEVAL ENGLAND.


ANGEL (p. 163). L. Angelus. E. Angel, Aungell. — Gold c. used in England; = 6 s. 8 d. in coinage of 1469 and 1472.

ANGELET (p. 163). E. Angelet, Aungellet. — Gold c. = 3 s. 4 d.


BARREL (p. 95). m. c. = 31 1/2 gallons of wine, from 32 to 36 gallons of beer and ale.

BESCIA (p. 150), L. Bescia (Pl. Reschie). — m. a. in Lincolnshire, for turf. cutting.

BINDA (p. 96). L. Binda, Bynda. E. Bind. — m. q. used for eels, salmon, etc. and for hides.

BOLL (p. 95, 153, 158). L. Bolla. E. Boll. — m. c. of varying quantity, used in Scotland and North of England.

BUSHEL (p. 92, 166). See, Russelius.

BUSSELLUS (p. 92, 93). L. Bussellus, V. Bussel (Pl. Bussela), Busselle. E. Buscel, Buschal, Buschelle, Busshell, Bysshel, Bysselle. — m. c. officially = 8 gallons, but with numerous variations. See, Modius.

BUTT (p. 95). m. c. used for wine, legally = 126 gallons.

CARITAS (p. 154). Allowance of wine and ale, = 1/6 sextarius, about 3 1/4 gallon.

CELDRA (p. 95). L. Cedra, Cersina, Chaldra, Cheldra, Seldra. E. Celder, Chaldar, Childyr, Chaldron, Childyr. — m. c. = 4 quarters, but with variation.

CENTENA (p. 88). L. Centena, Centenarius, Centum. I. Centinajo. E. (Hundred, Hundredweight). — wt. = 100 or 120 pounds. — m. q. = 100 to 120, used for spices, metals, boards, herrings.


CHALDRON (p. 95). See, Celda.


CIPHA (p. 91). L. Cipha, Sippa. E. Sife. — m. c. = 5 quarters.

CLAVIS (p. 85). L. Clavis. F. Clou. I. Chiivo. E. Clave. — wt. used for wool, dairy produce etc. = 7 pounds, but with much variation.

CLOVE (p. 85). See, Clavis.


COURTCELDRA (p. 95). m. c. used for salt. = 1 quarter.

CRANNOCK (p. 157). L. Crannock. E. Cornoc, Crannock, Chronock, Kronneke, Cranone, Crenneke, Creannock, Crenneke. — m. c. used in Ireland and the West of England. = 1/2 or 2 quarters.

CRONNUS (p. 157). L. Cronnus. E. Cronn. — m. c. = 4 bushels, used at Worcester.

CROWN (p. 163). L. Corona. F. Couronne. E. Crown, Crone. — Gold c. Name used for several different coins in West Europe.

CUMBA (p. 92, 157). L. Cumba. E. Coomb etc. Hemp on measure of corn sold by heaped-up measure. — m. c. = 3 summae at Rochester in 1320. See, Coomb.
DACRUM (p. 96). L. Dacra, Dacrums, Dykeres. E. Daker, Dicker, Dycker. — m. q. = 1/2 score, used for skins etc. = 20 horse-shoes.

DALES (p. 158). m. c. used for salt at Worcester; capacity unknown.


DODDA (p. 158). L. Dodda, E. Dodd. — m. c. rather more than 1 quarter.

DOLIUM (p. 94, 152). L. Doleum, Dolium. — m. c. = 52 sextarii, or 252 gallons. For dry goods = 3 to 6 1/2 quarters. See, Tun.

DOZEN (p. 96). L. Duodena, Dussein, Dusseine, Dusein. E. Dozen. — m. q. used for gloves etc. For iron = 6 Peciae? — m. for cloth. = 12 to 14 yards.

DUOPENA (p. 96, 143). See, Dozen.

DUCAT (p. 164). Venetian gold c. = 4 s. to 5 s. sterling.

ELL (p. 142). See, Ulna.

ESCHIPPA (p. 158). L. Escheppa, Eschippa, Eskippa, Sceppa. E. Skep, Skip. — m. c. = 1 to 2 bushels. See, Kype, Skep.


ESTERIA (p. 157, 158). See, Estricum.

ESTRIGUM (p. 157, 158). L. Esteria, Estricum, Striga. E. Strike, Stryke. — m. c. used for corn. = 1 bushel, as a rule. See, Strike.


FARDELLUS (p. 149). L. Fardellus. E. Pardel, Fardellus, Fardell. A bundle of uncertain amount; used for wool, hides, etc. also a truss of hay etc. See, Promptorium Parvulorum.

FARTHING (p. 80). See, Quadrans.

FARTHINGLAND (p. 148 ff.). L. Furchendellus, Fardelle, Fardeilus, Feringus, Forlandus, Furthendellus. E. Fardell, Fardingland, Farthingdale, Farundele, Ferlig, Farthinland, Forland, etc. — s. m. generally = 1/4 Virgate, sometimes = 1/4 Acre.

FLASCO (p. 155). m. c. = 1 gallon.

FLORENUS (p. 163 ff.). L. Florenus. F. Florin, Florin. — Gold c. Name applied to all kinds.

FOOT (p. 143). E. Fote, Foot, Foote, Fowle. — m. l. = 12 inches.

FOTHER (p. 91). E. Fochaer, fochaer, Fother, Foder, Fudder, Fother, Fothyr, Fothre, Fothir, etc. — wt. used for lead, lime, etc. generally = 150 to 200 stones.

FOTMELLUS (p. 91). L. Fotmelus, Fotmellus, Formella. E. Fotmael, Fotmal, Fotmel, fotmel. — wt. used for lead. = 70 pounds; 30 fotmals = 1 charre.

FRUNDELE (p. 158). m. c. = eytendele, or 1/2 bushel.

GAD (p. 145, 150). E. Gad, Gadde, Goad. — m. l. = short perch, generally about 10 feet long, sometimes 15 to 16 feet.

GADDE (p. 90). wt. used in the North for metals. = 12 to 17 stones.

GALON (p. 92 ff.). L. Galon, Galun. F. Galoun, Galon. E. Gallon, Gallun. — m. c. = 8 pounds of wine in theory.

GIRDA (p. 142). L. Girda, E. Gyrd, Yard. — m. l. in Saxon times. See, Ulna.

GRANUM (p. 79). L. Granum. E. Grain. — wt. 32 wheat grains = 1 sterling penny, later 24 wheat grains = sterling.

GROAT (p. 161). See, Grossus.

HALFPENNY (p. 162). See, Obolus.
HEMINA (p. 150). L. Eminia, Emynia. — m. c. = 18 ounces in 630 A.D.: sometimes equated with the Sextarius.
HOPPA (p. 158). L. Hoppa. — m. c. = 1 bushel on S. Paul’s Estates. = 1 peck at Worcester.
INCH (p. 143). E. Inch, Yanche. — m. l. = 3 barley corns. See, Poller.
JALONES (p. 151, n. 6). L. — m. c. = Gallon. q. v.
JUSTA (p. 154, 155). L. Justa. E. Joust. — Allowance of Ale, etc. generally = 1 1/2 gallons.
KARK (p. 91). L. Carcha. I. Carica. E. Carke, Karke, Karre. — wt. = 3 to 4 hundredweight; used chiefly for spices.
KARRE (p. 91). See, Kark.
KYPE (p. 158). E. Kype. — m. c. = a wicker basket, used in Gloucestershire. = 1 bushel.

Lade. m. c. used for coal. = 1/3 quarter (See, Durham Account Rolls, I, p. 229).
LAGENA (p. 95, 152, 157). L. Lagena. — m. c. = Gallon. q. v.
LAMBKYN (p. 163). L. Fiorenus de Agnello. F. Ecu à L’aiguel, Montun d’or. E. Lamb, Lambkyn. — Gold c. = 3 to 5 shillings.
LANGENEKRE (p. 147). Local s. w. used in Kent. = 1 1/2 normal acres.
LANGHISESTER (p. 154). m. c. at Glastonbury.
LAST (p. 97). E. Last. — m. c. used in the North and East. = 21 coomb, also 12 quarters. — m. q. and wt. = 12 sacks of wool.
LEAP. m. c. = 1/2 bushel.
LIBRA MERCATORIA (p. 81). wt. = 15 Tower ounces.
LIBRA (p. 91). L. Libra. — wt. used for lead in Dorset; 126 librae = 1 fother.
LUG (p. 160). E. Log, Lug, Lugg. — m. l. used locally; varying from 15 to 20 feet.
MARGA (p. 79). L. Marca, Marcha. F. Marc. I. Marco. E. Mark, Marke. — wt. and mon. acc. = 13 s. 4 d. sterling.

MAYNARDE. wt. of cheese. = 32 pounds.
MELL (p. 158). L. and E. Meel, Mele, Miell. — m. c. used for lime at York. = 2 quarters.
MET (p. 158). L. Metra, Mita, E. Met, Melt, Mette. — m. c. = 1 or 2 strikes.
METRETA (p. 155). L. Metreta. — m. c. for liquids. = 16 small sextarii. See, Modius.
MINA (p. 79, 157, 158). L. Minu. — m. c. used for corn in the South. = 4 1/2 bushels.
MIT (p. 156). L. Midda, Mita. E. Mytte. — m. c. = 2 ambrae or 1 quarter.
MITTA (p. 156). L. Mitta. E. Met and Mit. — m. c. of uncertain capacity, used as Latin equivalent of Met and Mit, sometimes = 1 to 2 bushels, sometimes = 8 to 10 bushels. See, Mit.
MODIUS (p. 160, 154). F. Muid, Mugs. — m. c. = 16 small sextarii, or 8 gallons. See, Bushel.
MOUTON DE ROY (p. 163). F. Mouton de roi. E. Lambkin etc. — French gold c. = ¼ s. sterling.

MUID (p. 154). See, Modius.

NAIL (p. 85). E. Nail, Naille. — wt. used for wool, metals, dairy produce, etc. = 7 to 8 pounds. See, Clavis.

NOOK (p. 149). E. Nook, Nooke. — s. m. of uncertain amount.

OBOLUS (p. 162). L. Obolus. F. Obole. — wt. c. mon. acc. = 16 wheat grains; later = 12 grains = half penny.

OENOPHORIUM (p. 154). See, Anaphorum.

ORE (p. 80). wt. of gold, used in A.-S. England, and in Scandinavia. = 16 or 20 pences.


PANNA (p. 158). L. Panna. E. Paners (plural). — m. c. used for salt in Worcestershire; capacity unknown.

PANNUS. wt. used for lead in Wales.

PECK (p. 158). E. Peck, Pekke. — m. c. = 1/8 bushel. See, Wash.

PENNY (p. 79). A.-S. Penega. E. Penny, Penny. — wt. c. mon. acc. = 32 wheat grains; later = 24 grains. See, Denarius.


PERTICA (p. 143). L. Partica, Pertica. F. Perche, Perchot. E. Perche, Polle. — m. l. = 15 to 24 feet; also s. m.

PERTICATA (p. 143). L. Particata, Perticata. E. Particale. — s. m. = square perch.

PES (p. 92). L. Pes, F. Pex, Pex, Pies, Pycx. E. (foot, etc. q. v.). — m. l. = 12 inches, but varying locally. See, Foot.

PES (p. 91). wt. used for lead in the West. = 80 Pounds.


PITCHER (p. 96). m. c. = gallon. q. v.

PLAUSTRATA (p. 91). wt. used for lead in the West = 24 Pedes.

POKE. A bundle of wool. Pocket of wood = 1/2 sack.

POLLEX (p. 143). L. Pollex. — m. l. = Inch. q. v.

PONDUS (p. 88). L. Pondus. — wt. used for wool, dairy produce, etc. = Wey. See, Waga.

POTELLUM (p. 96). L. Potellum. E. Pottle. — m. c. = 2 quarts.


PREBENDA (p. 158). L. Prebenda. — m. c. used on S. Paul's Estates. = 30 Pollae.

PREBENDARIUS (p. 158). m. c. used for feeding horses etc., of varying capacity.

PRIOR (p. 158). L. Priores (plural). — m. c. used for salt in Worcestershire. = 1 quarter, apparently.

PUND (p. 89). wt. used for wool, lead, and dairy produce in Sussex. = 18 to 21 pounds.

QUADRANS. L. — wt. and c. = 1/4 d.

QUARENTENA (p. 145). L. Quadrantena, Quarantena, Quarantana, Quarenteina, Quarentena. F. Quarenteyne. E. Quarentene. — m. l. = 40 perches.
QUARTERIUM (p. 92, 93). L. Quarterium. F. Quarter, Quatre. E. Quarter. — m. c. = 8 bushels. See, Summa.

QUICK (p. 158). m. c. used for lime in Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire = 1 quarter.

RIDER (p. 163). Gold c. used in Flanders. = 3 s. 4 d. sterling.

ROYAL (p. 164). L. Florenus Realls. F. and E. Royal. — Gold c. used in England. = 3 s. to 4 s.

RYALL (p. 164). E. Royall, Ryall. — English gold c. of the late fifteenth century. = 10 s.

RUNDLET (p. 96). m. c. used for wine. = 18 1/2 gallons.

RUTE (p. 143, 147). m. l. = Perch. q. v.


SCEATT. A.-S. penny, small and thick.

SCHILLING (p. 79). L. Solidus. — wt. and mon. acc. in A.-S. England; = 4 den. in Mercia, 5 den. in Wessex, 20 den. in Kent.


SEAM (p. 94). See, Summa.

SELION (p. 160). L. Selion, Selliones (plural). E. Selion, Selgyn. — s. m. of varying amount.

SEM. m. used for metals and glass. = 100 to 120 pounds.

SESTER (p. 150). See, Sextarius.

SERTER (p. 150). See, Sextarius.

SEXTARIUS (p. 150 ft.). L.-S. Cistra, Sextarius, Sextarium, Sestlcerium, Sextertium, Sistarius, etc. F. Cestre, Sekter, Seiter, Sexter. E. Cester, Cestron, Cestre, Sester, Sestre, Sextarie, Seutur, Sestur, Sistern, Sisterne. — m. c. of varying capacity.

SHILLING (p. 79). L. Solidus. F. Sou. E. Skilling, Shillyngae. — wt., mon. acc., and livers c., = 12 pence, or 1/20 pound by wt.

SHOCK. A number of sheaves of corn tied together, varying from 6 to 15.

SOLIDUS (p. 79). See, Skilling and Shilling.

SOU (p. 160). See, Skilling.

STACA (p. 94). L. Staca. — m. c. used at Glastonbury. = 1 1/3 quarters.


STICK (p. 96). E. Stick, Stik. — m. c. used for eels = 25 or 26; also varying length of a roll (Piece) of textiles, imported from Flanders.


STOPPA (p. 156). L. Stoppa. E. Stoup. — m. c. used for honey = 5 gallons.

STOOK. = Shock. q. v.

SUMMA (p. 94). L. Summa. E. Ceme, Seam, Seem. — m. c. = horse-load = quarter. See, Quarterium.

TERCIAN (p. 95). F. Terciane. E. Tercian. — m. c. used for wine = 8 1/4 gallons.

THRIVE. E. Threve, Threeve. — m. c. used for corn, straw, etc. = 12 shocks. See, Shock.

TIERCE (p. 95). E. Tierce. — m. c. used for wine = 11 gallons.
TOD (p. 89). E. Tod, Todd. — wt. used for wool. = 2 stone.
TOLTREY (p. 158). m. c. used at Maldon. = 2 bushels.
TREAVE. See, Threave.
TREYE (p. 158). E. Treye, Treyy. — m. c. used for lime in Norfolk, and at Boston. = 2 quarters. See, Mell.
TUN (p. 94). See, Tonellum, Dolium.
TYMBRES (p. 96). m. q. used for hides; amount uncertain.
ULNA (p. 142). L. Ulne. E. Ell, Yard. — m. l. for cloth = 2 feet; also m. l. for land = 3 feet = 1 yard. See, Girda.
VIRGA (p. 147). L. Virga, Virga. — m. l. used for land = 1 yard. See, Girda.
WASH. m. c. used for oysters = 1/8 bushel.
WEY (p. 88). See, Waya; also m. c. used for salt = 5 quarters.
YARD (p. 142). See, Girda, Ulna.
YARDLAND (p. 149). s. m. of varying amount.