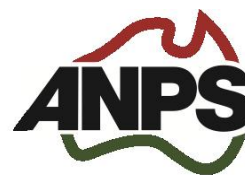


**MOTIVATIONS
FOR NAMING:
A TOPONYMIC TYPOLOGY**

ANPS TECHNICAL PAPER
No. 2

2009



AUSTRALIAN NATIONAL PLACENAMES SURVEY

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MOTIVATIONS FOR NAMING: A TOPONYMIC TYPOLOGY

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 *The Toponymic Form*

A toponym can be seen as a noun phrase which most commonly manifests as the basic formal structure of

<+Specific ±Generic>

to give such forms as *Cook Strait, Norfolk Island, Iron Knob, Jenolan Caves, Breakfast Creek*. Toponyms without the optional generic element are predominantly those for non-natural features, such as places of settlement *Brisbane, Kalgoorlie, Bendigo*. Less common variants include the reversal of the basic pattern, to give

<+Generic +Specific>

in such toponyms as *River Murray, Mount Kosciuszko*; or the substitution of the specific element by a determiner and/or a qualifier, to give such items as *The Gap, The Pinnacle, Old Bar, The Blue Range*. Particularly in informal reference, the generic element is often omitted (*the Murray, Kosciuszko*).

1.2 *The Naming Process*

Toponymic studies have classically attempted to answer the WH- questions for each placename: what is it? where is it? who named it? when was it named? and why was it given that name?

The first of the questions relates primarily to the form of the generic element, which is influenced (but not necessarily determined) by the geographic feature term that applies. A previous report has outlined the approach of the Australian National Placenames Survey to the classification of these generic elements.¹ That approach entailed three distinct subsidiary requirements: to identify a set of intuitive *semantic components* relevant to topographic features; to produce each of the *feature sets* within the catalogue by a logical sequence of those components; and to establish which *feature terms* are included within each feature set.

The *where/who/when* questions relate to the toponymic form as a whole, and respond to historical and linguistic research methods.

The final question—the *why* question—focuses on the specific element of the toponym, and can be the most difficult to answer, since the motivation for the naming process is not often documented and the namer's mind on the matter is a matter for speculation. The classification of this specific element and its relationship to the namer's intention is the subject of this technical paper.

2 TOPONYM SPECIFICS—EXTANT TYPOLOGIES

The lack of a standardised and practical typology for toponym specifics is a significant obstacle to any effective analysis of placenames. Zelinsky (2002: 248) likens the situation to 'a definitional morass that seems interminable,' and makes an appeal for the systematic 'cataloguing and arranging [of] all the objects under investigation into some logical, coherent classificatory scheme'.

¹ Blair, David (2009). *A standard geographic feature catalogue for toponymic research*, ANPS Technical Paper No. 1 (Ver. 2.3, July 2009)

Various typologies to classify motivation have been used, ranging from the simple to the quite complex, but none has been found to be compelling in its functionality.

2.1 *Mencken*

H.L. Mencken (1967 [1919]: 643), for example, sees toponyms as falling into eight classes:

- From personal names
- Transferred from other and older places
- Native American names
- Foreign language names (e.g. Dutch, Spanish, French, German, Scandinavian)
- Biblical and mythological names
- Descriptive of localities
- Suggested by local flora, fauna, or geology
- Purely fanciful names

However, there are areas where there is considerable overlap between categories, as well as a lack of consistency across categories. In the first instance, placenames derived from ‘other and older places’, ‘foreign language names’, and ‘biblical/mythological names’ would regularly be examples of ‘personal names’; and it is difficult to clearly distinguish between ‘descriptive of localities’ and ‘suggested by local flora, fauna, or geology’. Secondly, some classes identified are too broad (or inclusive) on the one hand (e.g. ‘descriptive of localities’) and too narrow (or exclusive) on the other (e.g. ‘biblical/mythological’).

2.2 *Stewart*

One of the first researchers to classify placenames in any systematic manner was George R. Stewart. In 1954, he published an article in *Names* entitled ‘A classification of place names’. This formed the basis of perhaps the most well-known and comprehensive reference on the classification of toponym specifics, his *Names on the Globe* (1975). It contains eleven short chapters devoted to placename classification. His system rests ‘upon the proposition that all place-names arise from a single motivation, that is, the desire to distinguish and to separate a particular place from places in general.’ (p. 86). In other words, his typology is based on placename *giving* (the ‘naming-process’) and recognises ten main toponym types (see Table 1).

Table 1
Stewart's (1975) toponym typology

Main category	Sub-category
1. Descriptive names	Sensory descriptives Relative descriptives Intellectual descriptives Metaphorical descriptives Subjective descriptives Negative & Ironic descriptives Hortatory descriptives Repetitive descriptives
2. Associative names	
3. Incident-names	Acts of God Calendar names Animal names Names of human actions Names from an event associated with a person Names from feelings Names from sayings
4. Possessive names	
5. Commemorative names	Persons Other places Abstractions Miscellaneous
6. Condemnatory names	
7. Folk-etymologies	
8. Manufactured names	
9. Mistake-names	
10. Shift-names	

Although one can hardly dispute Stewart's dictum that the 'single motivation' of distinguishing a particular place from other places lies behind the naming process, this hardly supplies the basis for a naming typology. It is necessary to do what Stewart, in fact, goes on to do: to look beyond that intent and see how various source-types provide the means of satisfying the requirement. Unfortunately, as with Mencken's system, Stewart's resultant typology has several areas of overlap (e.g. 'condemnatory names' and 'names from feelings'), and has classes that are too narrow (e.g. 'repetitive descriptives') and ones that are too broad (e.g. 'associative names'). Stewart's system is also inconsistent in that some main categories have unnecessarily detailed subcategories (e.g. 1 and 3), whilst others (e.g. 2, 8, 9, 10) require further partitioning.

2.3 *Baker and Carmony*

In their toponymic dictionary, *Indiana Place Names* (1975), Ronald Baker and Marvin Carmony classify toponyms into thirteen main categories (see Table 2).

Table 2
Baker and Carmony's (1975) toponym typology

Type	Comment
1. Names for a person	Places named after a person
2. Names for other places	Transferred placenames
3. Locational names	Names indicating a direction or position ²
4. Descriptive names	<i>Objective</i> : noting a characteristic of the feature or surrounding area <i>Subjective</i> : personal judgement or taste playing a part
5. Inspirational names	Subjective, commendatory
6. Humorous names	
7. Indian and pseudo-Indian names	Authentic and calqued indigenous names, personal indigenous names, or corrupted/changed indigenous names; includes descriptive names
8. Names from languages other than English	Transferred names, descriptive and commendatory names in foreign languages
9. Incident names	Names arising from particular occurrences at a locale
10. Folk etymology	Reshaping of an unfamiliar name to familiar one; includes corrupted foreign names
11. Coined names	Manufactured from other names, coined by reversing letters, or initialisms
12. Mistake names	Names formed through orthographic errors
13. Legends and anecdotes	Names from indigenous folk legends

Whilst Baker and Carmony's scheme is an improvement on Stewart's system through extension and modification, it nevertheless has several flaws. Most seriously (and in common with most other proposed typologies), its categories are not unambiguously distinct from each other. Type 4 (Descriptive) and Type 5 (Inspirational) overlap in a particularly confusing way. Both include a 'subjective' subgroup; the Descriptive category allows names based on personal judgement or taste, while the Inspirational category includes commendatory names. Indeed, Type 8 also includes commendatory names. Descriptive names can be found under three separate categories, Types 4, 7 and 8. Personal names are included in two separate categories, Types 1 and 7. The existence of both Type 6 (Humorous) and Type 11 (Coined) seems to imply the doubtful proposition that coined names are never humorous in intent.

A particular problem arises with the allocation of 'corrupted foreign names' to a category: Baker and Carmony include them in Type 10 (Folk Etymology), but this seems to a quite arbitrary determination, and it is not clear why Types 1, 2, 8 or even 12 would not be equally as appropriate. The creation of Type 13 to include names from indigenous folk legends seems to be rather capricious; if the judgement is made that no toponyms are derived from non-indigenous stories, then Type 7 (Indian and pseudo-Indian names) would appear to be an entirely adequate category for the purpose.

² Included in this category are local transfer names 'with directional adjectives if they are truly descriptive of location relative to the borrowed name, as well as other names descriptive of location.' (p. xiii)

A large part of the problem with this scheme is simple category confusion. Baker and Carmony, in building on Stewart's typology, introduce three new categories which are properly part of a language-origin classification scheme rather than a naming motivation typology. It is possible to include language origin in a Stewart-type scheme, but only if the 'foreign' origin of the toponym is seen as the simple motivation for the transfer. The difficulty arises when, as with Baker and Carmony, the nature of the imported word in its original language ('descriptive', 'commendatory', etc.) is brought into the system.

2.4 *Gläser*

In a paper presented at the 19th International Congress of Onomastic Sciences held in Aberdeen in 1996, Rosemarie Gläser presents an analysis of the placename types in A.W. Reed's *Aboriginal Place Names and their Meanings* (1994) and *Place Names of Australia* (1992). She divides Australia's toponyms into: Aboriginal placenames and Anglo-Australian placenames, and claims the former are generally common nouns with a transparent meaning since they are 'descriptive names'. The Anglo-Australian names are divided thus:

1. Expressing loyalty to the British Empire
 - 1.1 in honour of royalty
 - 1.2 in honour of statesmen
 - 1.3 in honour of Australian Governors and Secretaries of State
2. Commemorating explorers
 - 2.1 commemorating captains and ships surgeons
 - 2.2 commemorating ships' names
 - 2.3 in honour of surveyors
3. Commemorating persons who contributed to the economic development of Australia
4. Commemorating women
5. Transferred placenames
6. Common nouns (i.e. descriptive, associative, incident)

Firstly, Gläser's schema is remarkably anglocentric—it ignores the fact that many of the placenames in Reed (1992) were bestowed by non-English explorers and settlers (by those who were Dutch, French or German, for instance). This system then makes needless distinctions: items in categories 1, 2, 3 and 4 could all be subsumed under a single category 'eponymous' or 'after personal names'. Moreover, why a separate category is needed for women is puzzling. Are women therefore excluded from category 3? The final category is also too broad and inclusive to be of any use. Any typology based on the motivation for naming must include distinct categories for descriptive, associative and incident names.

2.5 *Smith*

Grant Smith (1993, 1996) has developed both an extensive numbering system for toponym data collecting as well as a typology for Amerindian toponyms. The former records details on the toponym's official Geographic Names Information System code, its linguistic features (i.e. spelling, morphology, pronunciation etc.), its feature class and details of its coordinates, details of its namer, and details about its meaning. Details of the mechanism and motivation of the naming play an extremely minor and imprecise role in this system. Smith's Amerindian

toponym typology suffers similar shortcomings to the systems mentioned above; in addition, it cannot be applied to introduced toponyms.

2.6 *Gasque*

In designing a method for sorting and counting his South Dakota toponyms, Thomas Gasque (2005) employs four levels of classification, where each toponym is assigned an alpha or numeric code at each level:

Table 3
Gasque's (2005) toponym typology

Level	Description
Level 1	Level of knowledge about the origin of the toponym. There are six levels of documentation from full to none.
Level II	Motivation in the choice of toponym.
Level III	Source of the toponym (biographical, geographical, fauna, flora, geological, metaphorical, judgemental, miscellaneous, unknown).
Level IV	Language of the toponym.

The system is helpful if one wants to calculate the number of placenames at each level. However, the wholesale adoption of Stewart's typology for Level II is imprudent because it causes serious areas of overlap between various categories between levels (e.g. Level I, category D 'Folk Legend, Guesswork etc.' overlaps with Stewart's 'Folk Etymology' and perhaps 'Mistake-names' in Level II). This situation is further compounded by overlapping between a number of Level III and Level II categories (e.g. Level III's 'Fauna', 'Flora', 'Judgemental' and Level II's 'Associative Names', 'Commendatory Names'). Gasque's Level III category 'Miscellaneous or Combination' is also unsatisfactory, because an effective typology should not contain categories that allow placenames to be classified under two or more categories. It is also difficult to see a clear distinction between Levels II and III.

2.7 *Marchant*

In his detailed analysis of the French exploration of Southland's coasts and place-naming, L.R. Marchant (1998: 316), includes a simple typology of the French toponyms conferred on the Australian coastline. He identifies eight different types of toponym:

- after expedition members
- after expedition ships
- after earlier French navigators in the region
- after notable historical figures in French science, literature and war
- after then contemporary notable figures in French politics, science, and war
- after French revolutionary and Napoleonic military victories
- after physical appearance of the feature
- after an incident at the place
- after flora or fauna noted at the place

This is quite an effective typology for the names identified by Marchant, and clearly reflects French culture, politics and values of the time. However, this typology, like those of Smith

and Gasque, is specifically designed to deal with a very restricted category of toponym, and is therefore unsuited for analysis of toponyms in general.

2.8 *Rennick*

Robert Rennick (2005) presents a set of instructions on what should be considered and included in the study of placenames.

Rennick first makes two distinctions necessary for the effective study of placenames: that between 'place' and 'feature' and that between 'the kind of name (the name itself)' and its 'application to a particular place or feature' (i.e. denotation vs. connotation). He defines a 'place' as a 'human settlement of some kind' (e.g. city, town, village). It must also have definite geographic limits and concentrated populations. However, he also includes unfocussed neighbourhoods in this category. A 'feature' on the other hand is defined as a 'natural element' (e.g. stream, lake, mountain etc.) or a number of 'man-made' elements (e.g. mine, school church, cemetery, building complex, railway station etc.) (Rennick 2005: 291). Secondly, according to Rennick, a denotative name simply refers to its referent; 'it's obvious; it's descriptive of the place or feature.' On the other hand, a connotative name is 'associated with the place or feature solely by its application' and reveals nothing about the place or feature. (Rennick 2005:292). This distinction seems to be both unhelpful and unnecessary. It is not required in order to make a successful classification of toponyms, and its foray into semantics is linguistically naïve.

Rennick then goes on to propose a placename classification system based on 'the names themselves rather than the purposes for the naming.' (Rennick 2005:291). He warns that the reasons for naming are often not known, because no record is left of the namer's motivation. There is good reason for this caution; however, the same applies to attempting a definitive categorisation 'based on the names themselves'. One cannot classify, for instance, a toponym as a name of Approbation or Disapprobation purely on its linguistic form; the application of such a category entails a judgement about the namer's intent. (A toponym such as *Pleasantville*, to take just one example, may well be ironic.) Rennick's inclusion of his Humorous category is a further indication that his classification system does not, and probably cannot, adhere to this prescription.

There is one further reservation that might be expressed about Rennick's proposal: as he points out (301), his categories are not mutually exclusive. That this is the case becomes clear with Category 7 'Names derived from several possible sources'. Rennick's example (that of a toponym where the name of a national hero may have been borrowed from its use as a placename elsewhere) shows clearly that the overlapping of categories is a result of his prescription that the classes must be based on inherent characteristics of the placenames, not on the namer's intent. A placename may indeed have multiple connections and connotations; but the namer's motivation (*commemorative*, for example) will be unitary.

Table 4
Rennick's (2005) toponym typology

Main category	Sub-category
1. Personal Names	a. Full names (family, given, nicknames, discoverers, first settlers etc.) b. Names of local people c. Friends, relatives of early settlers d. On-local persons associated with the place e. Prominent non-local persons (national leaders, historic figures etc.) not having an association with the place
2. Names Taken from Other Places or Features	a. Names imported from earlier residences of first settlers b. Names transferred from nearby features c. Names taken from other places with no association with place or residents
3. Local or Descriptive Names	a. Location, direction, position or distance in relation to other places or features b. Shape, size, odour, colour c. Names derived from some other feature or characteristic of the natural environment (landscape, terrain, topography; soil, minerals; water bodies; animals; plant life) d. Names of Approbation and Disapprobation or otherwise suggestively descriptive or metaphoric
4. Historic Events	a. Non-local (commemorative) b. Local (nearby, at a single point of time) c. Local (nearby, recurring behaviour) d. Exclamations (first words uttered at time of naming)
5. Subjective Names	a. Inspirational and symbolic names (e.g. reflecting aspirations and ideals of early settlers) b. Nicknames of the kinds of settlers (referring to their character or behaviour) c. Literary, Scriptural and names reflecting high culture, tastes, interests or aspirations d. Humorous names and miscellaneous oddities reminiscent of events/conditions at time of settlement/naming
6. Mistake Names	
7. Names from more than one source	
8. Underived Names	Including those of unknown etymology

2.9 *Gammeltoft*

Peder Gammeltoft (2005) provides a useful system of classification which, like Stewart's, is centred upon the motivation for naming. However, the system is much more sophisticated, is consistent and has no overlapping between categories.

Gammeltoft sees three basic motivations for naming: relationship of the locality-type to something external; an inherent quality of the locality (i.e. characteristic of the named locality); the use of the locality. In the table below, it will be seen that the first two are divided into further subcategories:

Table 5
Gammeltoft's (2005) toponym typology

Primary level	Secondary level	Tertiary level
1. Relationship	a. Topographical relationship	i. Characterisation of the location in relation to a name-bearing location
		ii. Characterisation of the location in relation to a non-name-bearing location
		iii. Characterisation of the location by means of its relative position
	b. Institutional & administrative relationship	
	c. Association to a person/persons	
	d. An external event to which naming is related	
2. Quality	a. Size	
	b. Shape	
	c. Colour	
	d. Age	
	e. Material or texture	
	f. That which exists at or near	i. Creatures
		ii. Plant-growth
		iii. Inanimate objects
g. Perceived qualities		
3. Usage		

Gammeltoft's system is significantly better than those previously advanced. It permits an insight into the namer's 'frame of mind' or motivation for the naming; it incorporates hierarchical categorisation and structuring of placenames at various levels of detail; and it permits detection of small differences in naming practices.

Category 3, however, is an oddity. It is not clear that a type based on how the locality is 'used' is anything other than a Relationship sub-category. The raising of this type to full category status is particularly puzzling in the absence of other categories that might have recognised eponyms (surely not adequately covered by Gammeltoft's 1c sub-type), linguistic innovations and 'mistaken' or 'erroneous' names.

3 A PROPOSED CLASSIFICATION

The most successful attempts so far to construct an effective typology have been those that use the namer's motivation as the starting point. Two further requirements, however, must be

met: the typology needs to have enough specific categories to cover all types of toponym, and to reveal the distinctions in their naming motivation; and the categories must be mutually exclusive.

A practical typology must also be flexible enough to allow for additions of categories without causing fundamental structural changes, as well as permit toponyms bestowed in different regions (international and national) and eras.

Two further aspects should be noted. Firstly, the term ‘motivation’ is perhaps simplistic in this context. The intent behind the typology is to indicate the mechanism or *modus operandi* of the naming process in each case. Where a toponym has been given on the basis of a misunderstanding or error on the namer’s part, a term such as ‘motivation’ is not entirely appropriate; in fact, it is difficult to find a term that will suit equally well all the possibilities in such a typology as this. For that reason, we have resorted to using ‘motivation’ as our keyword, in want of a more suitable equivalent or superordinate.

Secondly, toponym interpretations in the ANPS Database follow the principle that only the immediately-preceding etymology is recorded for each toponym. In the Australian context, for example, the Sydney suburb of Camperdown is sited on part of Governor Bligh’s 240-acre estate, from the early years of the 19th Century; and it bears the name of that estate. The fact that Bligh’s estate commemorated the Battle of Camperdown (October 11, 1797), which in turn took its title from the Dutch village of Camperduin, does not affect the typology tag for the suburb’s entry in the Database. In other words, within the current ANPS typology (below), the suburb’s name is an example of *feature shift*; unlike the name of Bligh’s original estate, it is neither *eponymous* or a *transfer*.

3.1 *Outline of Development–Early Drafts*

The ANPS Database requires provision within its structure for typology values to be entered. In early versions of the Database, we used modified forms of Stewart’s typology. Table 6 (below) shows the initial draft, with some brief explanations and Australian examples.

Table 6
ANPS Database: original typology

Typology Values [Draft 1] + Description
[Commendatory] e.g. Fairview, Rosewater -- deliberately chosen for pleasant associations
[Descriptive] e.g. Bare Island, Mount Abrupt, Mount Lofty; includes flora/fauna, e.g. Acacia Creek, Alligator River; also affective impressions, e.g. Dismal Swamp
[Narrative] e.g. Lightning Ridge (where a flock of sheep is said to have been struck by lightning); Ophthalmia Range (named by Ernest Giles while suffering from the complaint)
[Transfer Indigenous: placename or other word] e.g. Wagga Wagga, Parramatta, Toowoomba, Maroochydore
[Coined] Combinations of (parts of) words/names, reversals, anagrams, e.g. Australind < Australia + India; Ashbury < Ashfield + Canterbury; Lidcombe < Lidbury + Larcombe; Nangiloc < Colignan
[Mistake: garbled] e.g. Dee Why (recorded in journal of surveyor James Meehan as Dy Beach)
[Mistake: folk etymology] e.g. Coal and Candle Creek < Kolaan Kandahl; Collector; Delegate; Tin Can Bay
[Proper Name: other] e.g. Norseman (horse), Banana (bullock), Coolangatta Qld (ship), Yarrana Heights (helicopter)
[Proper Name: personal - commemorative] e.g. Sydney, Melbourne, Brisbane; Frew River named by Sturt after member of his party
[Proper Name: personal - possessive] e.g. Archdale (on a run taken up by Mervyn Archdale), Brodies Plains (on land taken up by Peter Brodie)
[Proper Name: placename - relational] e.g. East Sydney, West Wyalong, Central Mangrove, MiddleCove
[Proper Name: placename - nearby] From nearby place, e.g. Buffalo River and Lake Buffalo near Mount Buffalo (named from its resemblance in shape to a buffalo's head); Double Bay (suburb) from Double Bay (bay)
[Proper Name: placename - distant] From place in Europe or elsewhere in Aus, e.g. Newcastle, Perth, Ballina, Mt Arapiles

A second draft revised some to the labels and made minor changes to the organisational structure. Table 7 shows the relationship between the two versions.

Table 7
ANPS Database: early typologies

Version 1		Version 2	
Commendatory		Description	Commendatory
Descriptive			Impression
Narrative			Incident
Indigenous transfer		Indigenous	
Coined		Linguistic	Coined
Mistake	Garbled		Mistake
	Folk etymology		Popular Etymology
Proper name	Other	Non-Personal Name	
	Personal commemorative	Personal Name	Commemorative
	Personal possessive		Possessive
	Placename - relational	Placename	Relational
	Placename - nearby		Shift
	Placename - distant		Transfer

Both of these early versions were a partial rationalisation of Stewart's scheme. Neither, unfortunately, solved the problems of overlap that we had experienced, or overcame the many uncertainties of categorisation that our researchers continually experienced.

Version 2, in fact, even reverted to Stewart's difficult distinction between 'shift' and 'transfer'. So the typology in these early implementations of the Database, of course, displayed exactly the sorts of problems that we had earlier anticipated, and so we had a strong stimulus to develop a new categorisation.

3.2 Taxonomy Based on Semantic Features

As we have seen, imprecision and ambiguity are difficult to avoid when toponym typologies are being constructed. However, a highly explicit taxonomy and catalogue of terms can reduce or eliminate ambiguity within the toponymic system. As with the generic feature catalogue reported earlier, the construction of such a taxonomy must begin with a specification of the intuitive semantic components that form its foundation. And, as before, these semantic elements have not been chosen from an *a priori* list. They are intuitively produced as part of the step-by-step process of distinguishing the 'motivation' labels from each other. They are therefore arbitrary and subjective, to some degree. They are also heuristic, in that the application of these components is directed towards a particular output: a set of labels which will usefully tag a namer's motivation in the toponymic event. If the output is found to be useful, then the structure of the semantic analysis which led to it may be subsequently disregarded. On the other hand, a catalogue which groups labels non-intuitively or which omits significant motivational options would indicate a necessary revision of the semantic components or of the taxonomic structure.

The current task, then, has entailed two distinct subsidiary processes: identifying a set of intuitive *semantic components* relevant to toponymic motivation; and producing a set of *motivation labels* by a logical sequence of those components. The labels thus produced represent nine major classes; these have been subdivided further into 29 optional sub-classes (without the intervention of further semantic components).³

The taxonomy is represented by a tree structure (Figure 1) in which the semantic components are progressively applied, to proceed from an initial level of abstraction (or generality) to a more highly-specified level of toponymic motivation.

The nodes (that is, the points of distinguishment) in the taxonomic tree are binary in nature, although in theory a taxonomy tree which contains nodes with three or more splits is not prohibited. One advantage of the binary splitting process lies in its intuitive force, since the ability to contrast sets of terms by the presence or absence of some feature is part of our linguistic competence. Another advantage is more pragmatic (although we have not taken advantage of it here): binary features provide potential labels for each node or point of distinguishment, and facilitate discussion of the various levels of generalisation/specialisation.

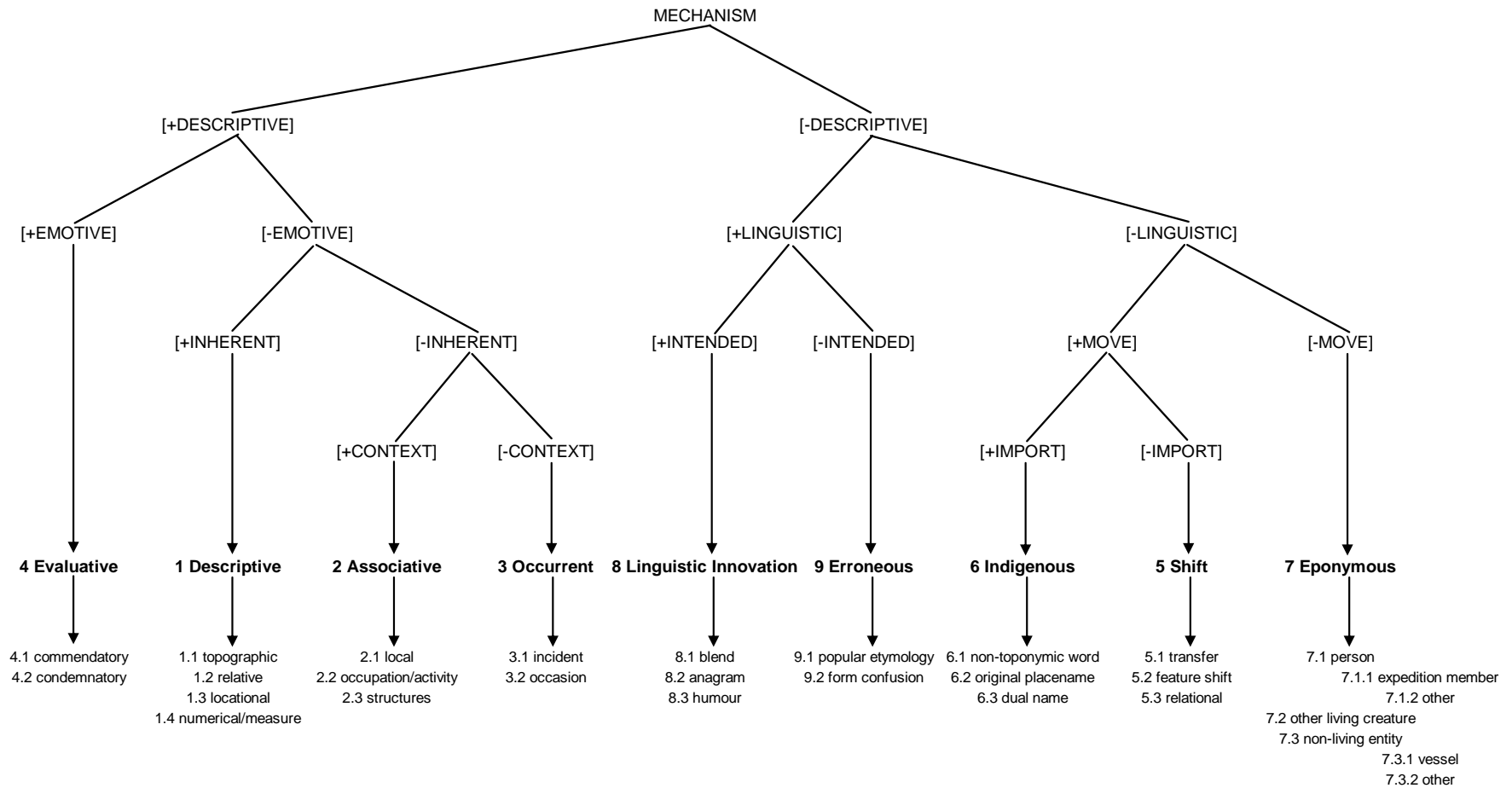
The eight semantic components used within the structure are defined in Table 8.

Table 8
Semantic component definitions

Semantic Component	Definition
[+DESCRIPTIVE]	Reflects a characteristic of the feature or its environment.
[+EMOTIVE]	Reflects a subjective response by the namer to the feature.
[+INHERENT]	Characteristic of the feature itself, rather than of its surrounds or context.
[+CONTEXT]	Characteristic of the physical surrounds of the feature, rather than of any event associated with the naming.
[+LINGUISTIC]	Relates to the linguistic form of the name.
[+INTENDED]	Deliberately constructed as an innovative linguistic form.
[+MOVE]	Indicates the toponym has been reapplied from another location, another feature-type, or another language system.
[+IMPORT]	Indicates the toponym has been reapplied from an Australian Indigenous language.

³ An implementation of this classification is reported in: Tent, Jan and Slatyer, Helen (2009). 'Naming Places on the 'Southland': European Place-Naming Practices from 1606 to 1803', *Australian Historical Studies*,40:1, 5-31

Figure 1.
Taxonomy of Australian toponym specifics



3.3 *The Current Model*

The typology which the model produces (Table 9) is centred on the ‘mechanism’ of the naming process. In other words, it is based on the *modus operandi* of the naming. Where available and relevant, it takes into account the procedures, methods, strategies, motivation, original reference and/or referents of names. Through the typology’s recognition of nine major categories for toponym specifics, all based on explicitly defined and intuitive semantic components, the previously-experienced problems of overlap and uncertainty of classification have been avoided.

Table 9
Toponym Typology

0	Unknown – where the meaning, reference, referent, or origin of the toponym is unknown.
1	<p>Descriptive – indicating an inherent characteristic of the feature.</p> <p>1.1 Topographic – describing the physical appearance of a feature either qualitatively or metaphorically (e.g. <i>Cape Manifold, Steep Point, Point Perpendicular, Broken Bay, Mount Dromedary, Pigeon House Mountain, Cape Bowling Green, Pudding-pan Hill</i>).</p> <p>1.2 Relative – indicating position of a feature relative to another, either chronologically or spatially (e.g. <i>South Island vs North Island, North Head vs South Head, Groupe de l'Est vs Groupe de l'Ouest, Old Adaminaby</i>).*</p> <p>1.3 Locational – indicating the location or orientation of a feature (e.g. <i>Suyt Caap, Cape Capricorn, South West Cape</i>).*</p> <p>1.4 Numerical/Measurement – measuring or counting elements of a named feature (e.g. <i>Three Isles, Three Mile Creek, The 2 Brothers, Cape Three Points</i>).</p>
2	<p>Associative – indicating something which is always or often associated with the feature or its physical context.</p> <p>2.1 Local – indicating something of a topographical, environmental or biological nature seen with or associated with the feature (e.g. <i>Lizard Island, Shark Bay, Palm Island, Green Island, Botany Bay, Magnetic Island, Cornelian Basin, Oyster Bay, Bay of Isles, Ocean Beach</i>).</p> <p>2.2 Occupation/Activity – indicating an occupation or habitual activity associated with the feature (e.g. <i>Fishermans Bend</i>).</p> <p>2.3 Structures – indicating a manufactured structure associated with the feature (e.g. <i>Seven Huijsien</i> ‘Seven Houses’, <i>Telegraph Point</i>).</p>
3	<p>Occurrent – recording an event, incident, occasion (or date), or action associated with the feature.</p> <p>3.1 Incident – recording an event, incident or action associated with the feature (e.g. <i>Cape Keerweer, Magnetic Island, Indian Head, Cape Tribulation, Smokey Cape</i>).</p> <p>3.2 Occasion – recognising a time or date associated with the feature (e.g. <i>Whitsunday Islands, Pentecost Island, Trinity Bay, Paasavonds land</i> ‘Easter Eve’s land’, <i>Restoration Island, Wednesday Island, St Patrick’s Head, Ile du Nouvel-An</i> ‘New Years Island’).</p>
4	<p>Evaluative – reflecting the emotional reaction of the namer, or a strong connotation associated with the feature.</p> <p>4.1 Commendatory – reflecting/propounding a positive response to the feature (e.g. <i>Hoek van Goede Hoop</i> ‘Good Hope Point’, <i>Fair Cape, Hope Islands, Ile de Remarque</i> ‘Remarkable Island’).</p> <p>4.2 Condemnatory – reflecting/propounding a negative response to the feature (e.g. <i>Mount Disappointment, Passage Epineux</i> ‘Tortuous Passage’, <i>Baie Mauvaise</i> ‘Bad Bay’).</p>
5	<p>Shift – use of a toponym, in whole or part, from another location or feature.</p> <p>5.1 Transfer – transferred from an other place (e.g. <i>Pedra Brancka, Rivier Batavia, ‘t Eijlandt Goeree, Orfordness, River Derwent, Lion Couchant, Cap du Mont-Tabor</i>).</p> <p>5.2 Feature Shift – copied from an adjacent feature of a different type (e.g. <i>Cape Dromedary</i> from nearby <i>Mount Dromedary, Pointe de Leeuwin</i> from adjacent <i>‘t Land van Leeuwin, Cap Frederick Hendrick</i> from surrounding <i>Frederick Hendrix Baaij</i>).</p> <p>5.3 Relational – using a qualifier within the toponym to indicate orientation from an adjacent toponym of the same feature type (e.g. <i>East Sydney < Sydney, North Brisbane < Brisbane</i>).*</p>

<p>6</p> <p>Indigenous – importing an Indigenous toponym or word into the Introduced system.</p> <p>6.1 Non-toponymic word – importing an Indigenous word, not being a toponym (e.g. <i>Charco Harbour</i> from the ‘charco’ or <i>yir-ké</i> ‘an exclamation of surprise’).</p> <p>6.2 Original placename – importing the Indigenous toponym already used for that location or feature (e.g. <i>Ku-ring-gai, Parramatta, Turramurra</i>).</p> <p>6.3 Dual name – restoring an original Indigenous toponym as part of a dual-naming process (e.g. <i>Uluru / Ayers Rock, Darling Harbour / Tumbalong</i>).</p>
<p>7</p> <p>Eponymous – commemorating or honouring a person or other named entity by using a proper name, title, or eponym substitute as a toponym.</p> <p>7.1 Person(s) – using the proper name of a person or group to name a feature.</p> <p>7.1.1 Expedition member – where the named person is a member of the expedition (e.g. <i>Tasman Island, Point Hicks, Crooms River, Labillardiere Peninsula, Huon River</i>).</p> <p>7.1.2 Other – where feature is named after an eminent person, patron, official, noble, politician, family member or friend etc. (e.g. <i>Maria Island, Anthonio van Diemensland, Cape Byron, Terre Napoleon, Cap Molière, Prince of Wales Island, Princess Royal's Harbour, Cap Dauphin, Ile de la Favourite</i>).</p> <p>7.2 Other Living Entity – using the proper name of a non-human living entity to name a feature (e.g. <i>Norseman</i> after a horse, <i>Banana</i> after a bullock).</p> <p>7.3 Non-Living Entity – using the proper name of a non-living entity to name a feature.</p> <p>7.3.1 Vessel – named after a vessel, usually one associated with the ‘discovery’ (e.g. <i>Endeavour River, Arnhem Land, Tryall Rocks, Cap du Naturaliste, Pointe Casuarina, Pantjallinngs hoek</i> after the <i>Nova Hollandia</i>).</p> <p>7.3.2 Other – named after a named non-living entity (e.g. <i>Agincourt Reefs</i> after the battle, <i>Vereenichde Rivier</i> after the Dutch United Provinces).</p>
<p>8</p> <p>Linguistic Innovation – introducing a new linguistic form, by manipulation of language.</p> <p>8.1 Blend – blending of two toponyms, words or morphemes (e.g. <i>Australind</i> from ‘Australia’ + ‘India’; <i>Lidcombe</i> from ‘Lidbury’ + ‘Larcombe’).</p> <p>8.2 Anagram – using the letters of another toponym to create a new anagrammatic form (e.g. <i>Nangiloc</i> reverse of ‘Colignan’).</p> <p>8.3 Humour – using language play with humorous intent to create a new toponym (e.g. <i>Bustmegall Hill, Howlong, Doo Town</i>).</p>
<p>9</p> <p>Erroneous – introducing a new form through garbled transmission, misspelling, mistaken meaning etc.</p> <p>9.1 Popular etymology – mistaken interpretation of the origin of a toponym, leading to a corruption of the linguistic form (e.g. <i>Coal and Candle Creek</i> from ‘Kolaan Kandhal’, <i>Collector, Delegate, Tin Can Bay</i>).</p> <p>9.2 Form confusion – alteration of the linguistic form, from a misunderstanding or bad transmission of the original (e.g. <i>Bendigo, Dee Why</i> from <i>Dy Beach</i>).</p>

* Note that categories 1.2 and 1.3 refer to *features*, while category 5.3 refers to *toponyms*

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