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M. Alan Rayburn a écrit cet article suivant quand il s'est inscrit au doctorat au département de géographie de l'université Laval en 1971-1972. Ce fut publié en anglais dans le journal "The Canadian Cartographer", Vol. 10, No. 1, juin 1973, pp. 26-43, et fut publié de nouveau dans la série des réimpressions de la Direction des Levés et de la cartographie. Voir la version anglaise pour les illustrations et les références.

ACADIE/L'ORIGINE DU NOM ET SON USAGE GÉOGRAPHIQUES ET HISTORIQUE

par Alan Rayburn

*Ce n'est ni porte ni frontière
Car ce n'est pas un vrai pays
C'est à la fois fable et mystère
C'est tout simplement L'ACADIE**

En recommandant dans son récent rapport l'union politique complète des trois provinces Maritimes, la Commission d'étude de l'union des provinces Maritimes a fait observer que le choix d'un nouveau nom poserait un problème délicat. Si jamais cette union devenait une réalité politique, la population de cette nouvelle province ne pourrait probablement faire choix plus judicieux qu'en adoptant le nom historique et harmonieux d'ACADIE, soit pour la province elle-même ou pour sa capitale.

Le présent exposé traite de l'origine du nom Acadie, depuis l'utilisation par Verrazzano du terme *Laracadia* pour désigner la région côtière des Carolines et de la Virginie (en 1524) jusqu'à son adoption sous diverses formes par les Français du XVIII^e siècle. Les diverses théories selon les-

quelles le terme ACADIE serait dérivé des langues amérindiennes y sont étudiées. L'exposé comprend également un examen de l'évolution des concepts historiques et géographiques d'ACADIE, depuis ses origines jusqu'à son acception actuelle. Enfin, différents usages du nom ACADIE pour désigner diverses entreprises culturelles et commerciales sont énumérés.

Voyage de Verrazzano en 1524 et cartographie subséquente

En 1524, Giovanni da Verrazzano explore la côte de l'Amérique du Nord, des Carolines jusqu'à la Nouvelle-Ecosse. Le long de la côte, il donne plusieurs noms à certains détails caractéristiques tels des pointes, des collines et des îles.

La plupart des auteurs affirment que Verrazzano aurait donné le nom d'ARCHADIA à une partie du littoral de la péninsule Delmarva, mais, selon Samuel Morison (1971, 295), il l'aurait donné à Kitty Hawk, en Caroline du Nord. Dans une lettre adressée au roi François 1^{er}, Verrazzano raconte "*batesamo Archadia per la bellezza de li arbori*" (nous nommâmes Arcadie en raison de la beauté de ses arbres). Sur la dernière feuille de sa lettre, il écrit: "*Ne l'Arcadia trovamo un homo, el quale veneva al lito per vederce che gente eramo*" "En Arcadie, nous trouvâmes un homme qui s'approchait du rivage pour voir qui nous étions).

La source du nom donné par Verrazzano semblerait être une oeuvre populaire d'alors intitulée *L'Arcadie* écrite par Jacopo Sannazzaro dans les années 1480 éditée plus de trente fois au cours du siècle suivant. L'idée voulant que l'ARCADIE soit un paysage champêtre idéal comme il se trouve dans les *Bucoliques* de Virgile.

Si Giovanni de Verrazzano a dressé des cartes de ses voyages, il n'en a laissé aucune à la postérité. La première trace de ses voyages se retrouve dans une carte de Vesconte de Maggiolo (1527), mais le nom d'ARCADIE n'y est pas inscrit. Geralamo da Verrazzano, frère de Giovanni, publie vers 1529 une carte où figure le nom de *Lamacra* (Figure 1).^{*} La plupart des spécialistes de la cartographie et de la toponymie du XVI^e siècle acceptent l'hypothèse voulant qu'il s'agisse d'une mauvaise corruption d'ARCADIA (Ganona

* Tiré de la chanson *Shippagan* de Michel Conte, citée dans "La récupération d'un passé ambigu" par Camille Richard, *Liberté*, 11, 5, 1669, 27.

[1931] 1964 125, Wroth 1970, 83 et Morison 1971, 295), bien que Wilkins (1957, 8) soulève des doutes sérieux sur la relation entre ces deux termes.

La première preuve cartographique manifeste de l'utilisation du terme LARCADIA est la carte de Gastaldi publiée en 1548 dans la version italienne de la *Géographie de Ptolémée* (Figure 2). Au cours de la période de 1560 à 1565, Ferrando Bertelli publie une carte sur laquelle LARCADIA paraît comme nom de région sous le toponyme *Nueva Franca*, LARCADIA étant ainsi déplacée vers le nord à l'endroit où la *Tierra de Los Bretons* était indiquée sur les cartes antérieures. Pendant quelques années, diverses cartes italiennes continuent d'indiquer LARCADIA ou LARCADIA PRO (pour province) à côté de la *Nova Franca*. Une carte de Bolognini Zaltieri publiée en 1566 indique le nom LARDADIA inscrit en grosses lettres entre R. Fondo et R.S. Lorenzo.

Une carte que Ganong (1964, 167 et 352) appelle *The "Remarkable" Italian* et date de la période 1562-1567, bien que Wilkins (1957, figure 4) la fasse remonter aux environs de 1585, semble représenter la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse laquelle est identifiée du nom d'ARCADIA (Figure 3). En 1575, André Thevet dans sa publication *La Cosmographie Universelle* il utilise le terme ARCADIE. Mais, soit par erreur ou invention, il ajoute le nom *Cap de L'ARCADIE*.

En 1599, Pierre Chauvin est fait lieutenant général du roi "au pays de Canada, costes de Lacadie et autres de la Nouvelle France pour 10 ans". (Wilkins, 1957, 15).

Le sieur de Monts (1603) et l'usage du XVII^e siècle

En 1601, Guillaume Levasseur établit une carte sur laquelle il a représenté la Côte de CADIE à l'ouest de la Nouvelle France (Figure 4). Deux ans plus tard, dans un récit de voyage intitulé *Des Sauvages*, Samuel de Champlain emploie le terme ARCADIE pour désigner une vaste région dans laquelle était incluse la Nouvelle-Ecosse. Au cours de la même année, le Sieur de Monts propose l'exploration et la colonisation de la Nouvelle-France et il se sert de la forme LACADIE dans sa pétition, forme qui est retenue par le Conseil d'Etat dans son approbation. La commission accordée à de Monts par le roi Henri utilise trois formes: LACADY, LACCADIE et LA CADY. Un opuscule publié en 1605 ne comporte que la forme LACADIE. Wilkins (1957, 19) a trouvé quatorze documents de la période 1603 à 1605 qui portent sur l'activité du Sieur de Monts et dans lesquels il a relevé douze fois L'ACADIE, six fois LA CADIE, deux fois LACADIE, deux fois LACADY, une fois L'ACADY, et une fois CADIE. L'étendue de la région désignée par ce nom dans la commission du Sieur de Monts est étudiée plus loin dans le présent exposé.

Wilkins (1957, 21) affirme que les pêcheurs bretons peuvent avoir été responsables de l'élision du "r". Il conçoit aussi que la forme ACADIE aurait pu être dérivée de LA CADIE, bien qu'il admette la possibilité du phénomène inverse. Wilkins (1957, 21) conclut que "the outcome of the process was most fortunate: for the name *Acadie* and its English equivalent *Acadia* are both excellent names, pleasant to utter and pleasant to hear, and perfectly distinctive".

Durant le XVII^e siècle, deux formes françaises du terme ont été principalement utilisées sur les documents et les cartes où l'on retrouve quatre fois plus souvent ACADIE que la forme ACCADIE. Au cours de la même période, l'usage anglais a varié entre ACADIA, LACADY, ACADIE, LA CADIA, L'CADIA, ACCADIE et ACCADIA.

Autres modes de dérivation proposés

On trouve dans *A genuine account of Nova Scotia*, 1750, l'affirmation de l'origine européenne possible du terme ACADIE.

"When the French got possession of it, they called it *L'Acadie*, in allusion to *Areadia* in the *Grecian Peloponnese*, but with what propriety I cannot pretend to determine".

* Cette carte étant presque illisible, nous l'avons accompagnée d'une copie de W.F. Ganong qui en montre la nomenclature.

Williamson reprend cette affirmation dans son *History of Maine*, 1, 1839, 188, mais Ganong (1915, 443) suppose que l'opinion du premier auteur n'était qu'une conjecture.

La première mention d'une origine amérindienne se trouve dans l'oeuvre anonyme* intitulée *A general description of Nova Scotia* (1823, 86, imprimé par la Royal Acadina School):

"The two largest rivers of Nova Scotia are the Shubenacadie and the Annapolis. The former, called by way of pre-minance (*sic*) Shubenacadie, or the River of Acadia (Shuben being the Indian name for a river**) is very large, rapid and circuitous". Cette interprétation est suivie de celle d'Abraham Gesner dans *The industrial resources of Nova Scotia* (1849, 2):

"In the Micmac Indian dialect *ākāde* signifies a place. Thus *Anglishouākāde* means a place where Englishmen reside, *Wenjouākāde* a place where French people live or a French settlement... The terms *Cadie* and *L'Acadie* have evidently been derived from the Micmac *ākāde* - a place".

Dans son *Acadian geology* (1855, 1), Sir William Dawson accorde beaucoup d'importance à la théorie selon laquelle ACADIE serait dérivé du micmac:

"The aboriginal Micmacs of Nova Scotia, being of a practical turn of mind, were in the habit of bestowing on places the names of the useful articles which could be found in them, affixing to such terms the word *Acadie*, denoting the local abundance of the particular objects to which the names referred. The early French settlers appear to have supposed this common termination to be the proper name for the country, and applied as the general designation of the region now constituting the provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island: which still retain *Acadia* as their poetical appellation, and as a convenient general term for the Lower Provinces of British America as distinguished from Canada".

Dans la deuxième édition de son ouvrage (1868, 1) il développe davantage cette question; selon lui l'origine du mot *Acadie* est indéniable et signale que Silas Rand, auteur réputé de diverses listes de termes micmacs, est d'accord avec lui pour dire que *Kady* ou *Cadie* provient d'un mot signifiant "region, field, ground, land or place".

Dawson (1868, 4) conclut:

"(Acadia) is not only a beautiful name, (but) should never have been abandoned for such names as New Brunswick or Nova Scotia...; and I venture to predict that it will yet figure honourably in the history of the western world".

Les affirmations de Dawson sont reprises par Sir John Bourinot dans le *Canadian Monthly*, 7, 1875, 291 et dans les comptes rendus de la Société royale du Canada, 9, 1891 2, 327, et 5, 1899, 2, 4. Des auteurs tels Roth (1890, 81) acceptent la dérivation de Dawson et rejettent complètement l'hypothèse d'une origine européenne; cependant, l'authenticité du voyage de Verrazzano était mise en doute au XIX^e

* Peut-être de Thomas Haliburton.

** En réalité, Shubenacadie signifie "endroit où l'on trouve des noix de terre".

siècle et l'hypothèse d'une origine non indigène du mot ACADIA était considérée comme peu plausible.

Deux commissaires, Mudge et Featherstonhaugh, font enquête au cours des années 1830 sur le différent existant à la frontière du Nouveau-Brunswick et du Maine et ils écrivent plus tard dans le Livre bleu (1840, 12) qu'ils remettent au gouvernement britannique:

"The French, according to their usual custom, abbreviated the Indian name (Peskadumquodiah), which we sometimes, in the old records, read *Quadiac and Cadie*, and at length we find it taking the general designation of Acadie.

The English race, have turned the original Indian name, into *Passamaquoddy*, and the Indians of the district have long been by them familiarly called Quoddy Indians, as, by the French, they have been called *Les Acadiens*."

Cette explication est reprise par de nombreux auteurs et particulièrement par Francis Parkman dans *Pioneers of France in the New World*, 1910, et par Shea dans sa traduction de *L'Histoire de Charlevoix, 1866-1872*. Finalement l'origine donnée par Sir William Dawson et appuyée par Sir John Bourinot l'emporte sur cette hypothèse.

Le père E. Vetromile s'est acquis une certaine renommée pour ses interprétations fantaisistes et très peu fiables. Dans *"The Abnakis and their history (1866, 45)*, voici ce qu'il dit au sujet du mot ACADIE:

"I was at one time led to resolve Acadie in the two Abnaki words *Aki-cadie* (land of dogs). Yet, after more recent investigation, I consider it more natural to trace it to the Micmac word *academ* (we dwell), or *tedlaacadem* (where we dwell), that is, our village".

A l'aide de semblables déductions, le père Pacifique offre l'explication suivante dans *Une Tribu Privilégiée (1910, 3)*:

"Acadie ou Arcadie, du mot micmac *algatig*: qui vient de *algatigei*, 's'établir, demeurer, camper ça et là;' pour indiquer un village ou une colonie particulière, ils disaient *etlagatig*, de la Tracadie".

En 1863, l'auteur anonyme de *A peep at the Western World* interprète le terme Acadie comme venant du nom d'une fleur sauvage vivace de la région.

Récemment, c'est-à-dire, le 15 janvier 1972, le journal *The Globe and Mail* a publié une note sur l'origine micmac du mot ACADIE.

Recherche relative à l'origine européenne du nom

La première objection à l'hypothèse de l'origine amérindienne du terme ACADIE est soulevée par W.F. Ganong en 1896 (216-217). Diverses autres notes (1901, 161; 1915 et

1917) développent sa thèse de l'origine européenne d'ACADIE. Jusqu'en 1915, Ganong ne trouve que trois auteurs qui ont cité ses conclusions: S.E. Dawson, dans son ouvrage intitulé *The Saint Lawrence*, 1901, sans citation ni appui; Grant et Riggar dans l'édition de *L'Histoire de Lescarbot* publiée par la Champlain Society, 1911, 211; et le juge A.W. Savary dans son *Supplement to the history of the County of Annapolis*, 1913, 2.

Ganong ajoute en 1917 (106):

"It would be quite too extraordinary a coincidence that with ARCADIA applied on the maps of the time to the coast just to the westward of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Champlain would have obtained

a Micmac place name suffix - ACAAUIC, transformed it into ARCADIE, and applied it to precisely the same region. From Champlain's ARCADIE to the later ARCADIE the transition is perfect".

Au cours de la même année, dans une note parue dans le *Bulletin de la Société de géographie de Québec* (298), le père Pacifique* réfute son affirmation antérieure de l'origine indienne du terme ACADIE et conclut que la découverte de la lettre de Verrazzano semble résoudre la question de son origine. Henri Froidevaux se dit d'accord avec l'hypothèse de l'origine européenne dans une note publiée en 1920 dans le *Journal de la Société des Américanistes de Paris* (167, 268). Cependant, il attribue le mérite de la recherche à l'historien Hector Garneau, alors qu'un examen des annexes de Garneau à *L'Histoire du Canada F.-X. Garneau*, 5e édition, 526, 527, montre qu'il en attribue lui-même le mérite à Ganong.

La plupart des auteurs sérieux admettent par la suite le fait que les preuves de l'origine européenne du nom ACADIE semblent inattaquables. Parmi les tenants de cette opinion, nous retrouvons Dudley LeBlanc (1937, 1), Antoine Bernard (1945, 16), John Quinpool (1936, 48, 49), Robert Rumilly (1955, 8), Ernest Wilkins (1957, 1) et Clément Cormier (1960, 1). Certains autres auteurs comme Sir Arthur Doughty (1916, 1) et Emile Lauvrière (1947, 7) présentent les divers arguments comme étant des théories et s'abstiennent de prendre position. L'éminent géographe historien Andrew Clark (1968, 71) fait toutefois exception, il mentionne l'existence de deux théories dominantes, mais semble accorder un poids plus grand à l'influence du micmac:

"Perhaps the most sensible conclusion is that the cartographic ancestry of Arcadie for various parts of the coast of eastern and northeastern North America prepared the way for the acceptance of "Cadie", "La Cadie", "L'Acadie" and so "Acadie" from its Indian source."

L'auteur de ce travail affirme que le contraire peut être vrai, c'est-à-dire que l'ACADIE des Européens a influencé l'orthographe de toponymes dont la terminaison signifie "lieu où l'on trouve" (A-KA'-DI-K)***, comme, par exemple, *Chebenacadie* cité par Bellin (1755) pour Shubenacadie, et les divers endroits des Maritimes appelés Tracadie, ce qui signifie "terrain de campement".

Concepts historiques

Au XVII^e siècle, le nom ARCADIE et ses dérivés ont été utilisés différemment pour désigner un endroit particulier et une région située dans le territoire actuel de la Nouvelle-Angleterre et des provinces Maritimes. Son étendue a été

délimitée pour la première fois dans la commission du Sieur de Monts qui lui accordait la côte entre le 40^e et le 46^e parallèle. On pourrait conclure, en consultant des cartes modernes, qu'on lui avait confié le territoire situé entre l'emplacement actuel de Philadelphie et le cap Breton et c'est la conclusion à laquelle Wilkins (1957, 19) est arrivé. Toutefois, si l'on tient compte de l'imprécision de la cartographie du début du XVII^e siècle, il est plus probable que la limite méridionale de l'ACADIE ait été le cap Cod comme l'affirme Ganong (1901, 159, 160).

En 1606, le roi Jacques 1^{er} fixe les limites septentrionales de la Virginie au 45^e parallèle; cette ligne passe près de l'emplacement actuel de St. Stephen, N.-B., et constitue la frontière entre le Québec et les Etats-Unis. Samuel Argal attaque les Français sur l'Île Mont Désert en 1613 et plus tard détruit les bâtiments de l'Île Sainte-Croix et de Port-Royal. En 1616, le père Biard déclare au sujet

* On attribue cette note au père Pacifique dans la *Bibliographie choisie d'ouvrages sur la toponymie au Canada*, 1964, mais le *Bulletin* n'en indique pas l'auteur.

** De nombreux auteurs (par exemple, Winzerling 1955, 4, et Cormier 1966, 6) interprètent ce mot comme signifiant "terre d'abondance", mais Ganong (1915) a montré clairement que sa signification est "lieu où l'on trouve".

de l'ACADIE: "il n'en reste plus aucune mémoire sur le pays" (Thwaites, 1959, 40). Cependant, les archives municipales de Libourne, près de Bordeaux, contiennent l'acte de naissance d'André Lanier vers 1620 "en Canada coste de l'Acadie ..." (d'Entremont, 1968, 351).

Deux sociétés françaises se forment en 1619, l'une pour le commerce du poisson sur l'île Miscou et l'autre pour la traite des fourrures à l'embouchure de la rivière Saint-Jean. Deux ans plus tard, Jacques Ier confie à Sir William Alexander toutes les terres situées à l'est d'une ligne tirée en direction nord de la source de la rivière Sainte-Croix jusqu'au Saint-Laurent; Sir William Alexander a nommé ce territoire New Scotland, appellation qui a survécu dans sa forme latine.

Le conflit entre la France et l'Angleterre au sujet de leurs revendications territoriales en Amérique du Nord devient inévitable. La guerre éclate en 1627, l'Angleterre s'empare de Port-Royal et de l'établissement de Charles de St-Etienne, Sieur de la Tour, situé près de l'emplacement actuel de Yarmouth. Alexander accorde des baronnies en Nouvelle-Ecosse à Charles de la Tour et à son père et, dans les documents relatifs à ces baronnies, le nom ACADIE ne semble désigner que la côte méridionale de la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse.

En 1632, l'Acadie est restituée à la France en vertu du Traité de Saint-Germain-en-Laye. Les Français présumant que les anciennes limites descendaient bien au sud le long de la côte des Etats-Unis; ils attaquent le poste de traite de la rivière Penobscot et s'en emparent. Les habitants de la Nouvelle-Angleterre sont avertis de ne pas aller à l'est de la rivière Kennebec, dans le territoire actuel du Maine.

Le territoire est divisé en 1636 et confié au Sieur de la Tour, au Sieur d'Aulnay Charnisay et à Nicolas Denys. La Tour, décrit comme étant le Lieutenant général d'ACADIE, reçoit les terres depuis le milieu de la baie Française (baie de Fundy) jusqu'au détroit de Canseau (détroit de Canso). Dix ans plus tard, Charnisay obtient "they said country, territory coast and bounds of Acadia, to begin on the shore of the Great River of St. Lawrence... clear to Virginia..." (Ganong, 1901, 177). En 1651, La Tour succède à Charnisay et juge apparemment que l'ACADIE s'étend jusqu'à la rivière Penobscot.

Entretemps, les Anglais et Alexander n'ont pas complètement renoncé à la possibilité d'occuper l'ACADIE. En 1654, sur les ordres de Cromwell, des soldats de la Nouvelle-Angleterre commandés par Robert Sedgwick capturent les forts français de Penobscot à Canso. Deux ans plus tard, Cromwell confie l'ACADIE et une partie de la Nouvelle-Ecosse à Thomas Temple, William Crowne et Charles de la Tour. Cette concession coïncide pratiquement avec les lettres patentes antérieures d'Alexander, mais elle implique que l'ACADIE n'était qu'une petite partie de la région. En 1664, le duc d'York reçoit un territoire dont les limites occidentales vont de la rivière Kennebec jusqu'au Saint-Laurent, près de l'emplacement actuel de Lévis; ce territoire a par la suite pris le nom de Sagadahock. Avant que les diverses contestations relatives aux concessions territoriales ne puissent être réglées, l'Angleterre et la France se déclarent une fois de plus la guerre et, en vertu du Traité de Breda, l'ACADIE est restituée à la France. Cette cession considère nettement que l'ACADIE comprend la rivière Penobscot et la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse; mais Thomas Temple prétend que l'ACADIE comprend seulement la partie méridionale de la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse. Il ne considère donc pas que ces terres ont été cédées par le traité. Le roi Charles II ordonne toutefois à Temple d'abandonner tout son territoire. La France et l'Angleterre conviennent aussi que les limites de l'ACADIE s'étendent jusqu'à la Penobscot. Par la suite diverses seigneuries accordées par la France, même dans le territoire actuel du Maine, sont clairement décrites comme appartenant à l'ACADIE.

Le conflit entre Anglais et Français se poursuit de façon irrégulière et, en 1690, les Anglais prennent Port-Royal. Ils réaffirment leur revendication relative à l'"ACCADA", utilisant également l'expression *Nova Scotia*. Le territoire est remis une fois de plus à la France par le Traité de Ryswick et

1697. Le gouverneur français Joseph Robineau de Villebon avise officiellement le Massachusetts que les Français considèrent que les limites de leur territoire s'étendent jusqu'à la rivière Kennebec. Plus tard, on accepte que ces limites se situent un peu à l'est de la rivière Saint-Georges.

La guerre se déclare encore en 1702 et, par le Traité d'Utrecht, l'ACADIE est cédée à l'Angleterre en 1713. Le Traité dit:

"Le Roi Très-Chrétien fera remettre...la nouvelle Ecosse, autrement dite Acadie, en son entier, conformément à ses anciennes limites..."

Une discussion se soulève alors entre la Nouvelle-Ecosse et le Massachusetts à propos de la répartition des terres situées entre les rivières Kennebec et Saint-Croix. En vertu du Traité de Paris signé en 1763, la rivière Sainte-Croix et le prolongement de sa source vers le nord sont adoptées comme frontière.

Le conflit devient plus violent entre Anglais et Français. Les premiers affirment l'extension de l'ACADIE jusqu'au Saint-Laurent alors que les Français, par un ironique retour des choses, déclarent, comme Thomas Temple, que l'ACADIE n'est que la partie méridionale de la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse. Pour faire valoir leurs revendications, les Français construisent le Fort Beauséjour sur l'isthme de Chignectou et les Anglais ripostent en édifiant le fort Lawrence. En 1755, ces derniers prennent Beauséjour, ravagent les habitations françaises et dispersent les Acadiens d'origine française. En vertu du Traité de Paris signé en 1763, les Français abandonnent toutes leurs revendications relatives au continent nord-américain.

Pendant plus d'un siècle et demi, l'Acadie avait été un territoire indéterminé situé à l'est de la Nouvelle-Angleterre et au sud-est de la Nouvelle-France. Les habitants d'origine française, n'ayant eu que peu d'échanges avec les Français de la Nouvelle-France et n'ayant reçu presque pas d'immigrants de France, ont acquis progressivement une culture française distincte qu'on a identifiée sous l'appellation d'acadienne. Leur déportation et le retour subséquent d'un grand nombre d'entre eux les a rendus plus conscients de leur héritage culturel acadien. Conservant leur identité, ils se sont établis le long de la côte nord du Nouveau-Brunswick, dans la vallée de la Memramcook, sur la côte sud de la Gaspésie, dans l'Île-du-Prince-Edouard, dans l'île du Cap-Breton et dans les îles de la Madeleine, de même que dans la vallée de la rivière Saint-Jean, d'abord en amont de Fredericton et plus tard dans le comté de Madawaska. La question des modes de regroupement géographique des Acadiens est étudiée de façon approfondie par Robert LeBlanc (1967).

Représentation géographique

La limitation de l'ACADIE à une simple péninsule, débute avec la carte *The "Remarkable" Italian* de la dernière moitié du XVI^e siècle. Champlain donne le nom d'ACADYE à une péninsule sur sa petite carte de 1613, mais il l'omet sur ses cartes plus grandes de 1612 et 1632. Creuxius (1669),

Parmi d'autres usages dans les provinces Maritimes, on note l'ACADIA Trust Company, l'ACADIAN Fisheries, l'ACADIAN Gas Engines et l'ACADIAN Distillers. Les usages commerciaux à l'extérieur des Maritimes comprennent la populaire voiture ACADIAN fabriquée par General Motors et les panneaux de type ACADIAN Elm fabriqués par l'Abitibi Paper.

Les Acadiens déportés ont amené le nom en Louisiane; ils y ont nommé un comté ACADIA (non changé ultérieurement) près de la rivière des ACADIENS et ils ont donné plus tard le nom d'ACADIA à une paroisse de l'Ouest de l'Etat du nom d'ACADIA. Au Québec, ils ont laissé le nom L'ACADIE à une agglomération située à l'ouest de Saint-Jean, à une rivière du comté de Chambly et à une rue de Montréal. Le mot CADIE, comme synonyme de rang, semble assez peu utilisé au Québec; Réal Guay l'a trouvé employé dans les seules régions de Nicolet et de Bellechasse (1972, 16, 17).

A une époque encore plus récente, la collectivité d'ACADIA VALLEY s'est établie en Alberta. Depuis 1942, une circonscription fédérale d'Alberta se nomme ACADIA. Une résidence de l'université de la Colombie-Britannique s'appelle

ACADIA CAMP (j'y ai passé une année dont je garde d'excellents souvenirs), mais on l'a nommé ainsi en l'honneur de l'ACADIA University, plusieurs rues du campus portant les noms d'autres universités canadiennes.

Dans le Maine, on a replacé le nom sur la côte continentale en 1928 lors de la création de l'ACADIA NATIONAL PARK en 1928.

On rencontre, parmi les usages culturels, le journal littéraire ACADIENSIS publié à Saint-Jean aux environs de 1900, Le Moniteur ACADIEN, un journal francophone, La Société historique ACADIENNE et l'Association ACADIENNE d'éducation qui oeuvrent au Nouveau-Brunswick et en Nouvelle-Ecosse. L'Office national du film a produit un film intitulé L'ACADIE, L'ACADIE; ce film qui traite des manifestations qui ont eu lieu à l'université de Moncton en 1968 et 1969 a été télédiffusé en français en janvier 1972 (et en anglais sous une forme abrégée) et a provoqué d'autres manifestations. La Société nationale des ACADIENS a son siège social au Nouveau-Brunswick.

Conclusion

Les preuves cartographiques et historiques démontrent de façon raisonnablement concluante que le terme ACADIE est dérivé du nom ARCADIA lequel a été donné en 1524 par Verrazzano à une partie de la côte est de l'Amérique du Nord. Les cartographes, principalement les cartographes italiens, ont situé ce nom dans une région au sud de la Nouvelle-France. Quand le Sieur de Monts s'est établi entre la Nouvelle-France et les possessions espagnoles, les cartes alors disponibles lui ont fourni un nom particulier qu'il a rendu en français par LACADIE.

Au XIX^e siècle, alors qu'on mettait en doute l'authenticité du voyage de Verrazzano, Sir William Dawson a proposé la théorie selon laquelle le terme ACADIE était dérivé de la terminaison micmac - ACADIE qui signifie "lieu où l'on trouve". Vers la fin de ce siècle, W.F. Ganong a affirmé que le nom était probablement d'origine européenne et, dans des exposés ultérieurs, il a apporté des preuves concrètes à l'appui de cette explication.

De 1600 à 1763, le toponyme ACADIE désignait un territoire qui s'étendait à l'ouest aussi loin que Québec selon certaines interprétations, et ne comprenait que la partie sud de la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse selon d'autres. De fait, comme l'a écrit Brebner (1927, 45), il y avait deux ACADIES: "... one was the Acadie of the international conflict, the other the land settled and developed by the Acadians".

Actuellement, on considère que l'ACADIE englobe les trois provinces Maritimes. Le terme ACADIE et ses dérivés ont été utilisés fréquemment pour désigner divers phénomènes culturels et commerciaux au Canada et aux Etats-Unis.

Sanson (1656), Franquelin (1686) et Coronelli (1689) donnent le nom d'ACADIE à l'ensemble de la péninsule. D'autres cartes, comme celles de Boisseau 1643 et Franquelin 1707 semblent le limiter à la partie méridionale de la péninsule. Quelques cartes du XVII^e siècle, comme celle de Duval (1677), étendent l'ACADIE à une plus grande partie du continent, tout comme certaines cartes du début du siècle suivant (Delisle 1700 et 1703). Après le Traité d'Utrecht signé en 1713, lorsqu'il devient de l'intérêt des Français de limiter le territoire appelé ACADIE, les divers cartographes appellent ACADIE la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse. La *Carte de l'Acadie* de Bellin (1744) montre à la figure 5 un exemple des cartes de cette époque.

La Figure 6 illustre les divers arguments des Français et des Anglais au sujet des limites de l'ACADIE vers le milieu de XVIII^e siècle. Pour les Anglais, les rivières Kennebec et Chaudière constituent les limites occidentales de l'ACADIE. Pour les Français, l'ACADIE n'englobe que la partie méridionale de la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse. Les deux parties étendent les limites de l'ACADIE dans l'Atlantique de façon à comprendre l'île de Sable.

Par la suite, le nom d'ACADIE disparaît de la cartographie de la région; on le remplace par Nouvelle-Ecosse

de 1763 à 1784 et par Nouvelle-Ecosse et Nouveau-Brunswick à compter de 1784.

Au fil des ans, les auteurs en viennent à ajouter l'île du Cap-Breton et l'île-du-Prince-Edouard à leur concept d'ACADIE et certains englobent même les îles de la Madeleine et la côte sud de la Gaspésie. Cependant, la plupart des auteurs, comme Sir William Dawson, préfèrent restreindre l'étendue de l'ACADIE aux trois provinces Maritimes.

Andrew Clark (1968, 72, 73) utilise le mot ACADIA dans le titre de son étude sur la géographie historique de la Nouvelle-Ecosse des origines à 1760, mais son acception du terme ACADIA ne comprend que les régions qui ont réellement été occupées par les Acadiens, principalement la péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse, bien qu'il admette une beaucoup plus grande extension du concept d'ACADIE après le Traité d'Utrecht (1713). Philip Smith (1884, 11, 12) emploie aussi le terme ACADIA dans le titre de son ouvrage, mais il se sert indifféremment de l'expression péninsule de la Nouvelle-Ecosse et du terme ACADIE. Quelques auteurs d'ouvrages récents (par exemple Richard 1969 et Brunelle 1969) accordent la prépondérance au Nouveau-Brunswick comme centre de l'ACADIE moderne.

ACADIE et ses dérivés

Bien qu'on n'ait jamais attribué le nom d'ACADIE à une division provinciale ou même territoriale au Canada, il a eu plusieurs usages. En Nouvelle-Ecosse, le nom d'ACADIAVILLE a été utilisé brièvement pour une agglomération connue maintenant sous le nom de West Arichat; un village localisé près de New Glasgow porte le nom d'ACADIA MINES; et l'université ACADIA (Queen's College 1838, ACADIA College 1841, ACADIA Univ. 1891) est située à Wolfville. Au Nouveau-Brunswick, la paroisse ACADIEVILLE a été établie en 1876. A la construction du chemin de fer Intercolonial, la station érigée dans cette paroisse a reçu le nom d'ACADIAVILLE, que les gens de l'endroit appellent ACADIE SIDING, et ces deux formes subsistent encore aujourd'hui. Cinq milles à l'est de cette station se trouve ACADIEVILLE dont le bureau de poste s'est appelé ACADIE jusqu'en 1955 et ACADIEVILLE jusqu'à sa fermeture en 1970. Le bureau de poste d'ACADIE SIDING a aussi été fermé au cours de cette année. Entre les deux endroits, on retrouve CENTRE-ACADIE lequel a été doté d'un bureau de poste de 1893 à 1960. Au centre nord du Nouveau-Brunswick une chaîne de montagnes a été appelée ACADIANS Range en l'honneur de tous les Acadiens qui ont contribué à l'histoire et au développement de cette province. On localise l'ACADIA Forest Experiment Station près de Fredericton. L'ACADIA Pulp and Paper est établie à Nelson Miramichi. Dans l'île-du-Prince-Edouard, l'agglomération de NEW ACADIE a été fondée vers la fin du XIX^e siècle par Eusebius Peters et nommée ainsi en l'honneur de ses ancêtres.

Post-scriptum

Par ce qui semblerait une pure coïncidence, le colonel Edmund Scarborough a reçu en 1663 une concession territoriale dans la partie de la péninsule Delmarva laquelle se situe actuellement dans le Maryland et il l'a appelée ARCADIA. Wilkins (1957, 26) a supposé que Scarborough avait tiré ce nom de l'*Arcadia* de Sir Philip Sidney, oeuvre très populaire basée sur une oeuvre antérieure de même titre écrite par Sannazzaro et publiée pour la première fois en 1590. On ne connaît plus ce nom dans la région.

Le texte suivant a été publié premièrement dans les *Cahiers de géographie de Québec*, Vol. 10, n^o. 20, septembre 1966, pp. 195-211 sous le titre "De la Toponymie Traditionnelle à une Choronymie Totale". Cela représente un apport significatif concernant le développement et la direction des études sur la nomenclature au Canada français.

M. Alan Rayburn a fait la traduction. Il est le chef de la Division de la Toponymie, Direction des levés et de la cartographie, EMR, et secrétaire exécutif du CPCNG. Ses commentaires à propos du texte sont marqués alphabétiquement, tandis que les notes originales en bas des pages, sont indiquées numériquement.

The following paper was originally published in *Cahiers de géographie de Québec*, Vol. 10, No. 20, September 1966, pp. 195-211 with the title "De la Toponymie Traditionnelle à une Choronymie Totale". It represents a significant statement concerning the development and direction of nomenclature studies in French Canada.

The translation was made by Alan Rayburn, the chief of the Toponymy Division, Surveys and Mapping Branch, EMR, and the Executive Secretary of the CPCNG. His comments on the text are listed alphabetically, while the original footnotes are shown numerically.

FROM THE TRADITIONAL TOPONYMY TO A COMPREHENSIVE CHORONYMY

by

Henri Dorion^A and Louis-Edmond Hamelin^B

Toponymy is as old as the world. Primitive societies have always had the delimitation of their territories as a primary activity and consequently, the naming of them. And as man travelled long before he wrote, as far back as the literature of the world goes names will be encountered which men have attached to natural elements - water or land -, to villages, towns, works of art or engineering that they have produced.

On the other hand, if place names have existed for a long time, toponymy itself is quite young. Very rare indeed did men of letters or science, before the last third of the 18th century, think of considering place names other than as simple location references and deriving from them any message that went beyond the ordinary nomenclature level. Following geographers and cartographers, for whom toponyms constitute a daily vocabulary, historians and, especially linguists, began to draw from the toponymic treasure, especially in France and Germany. The surveys that they made of European toponyms as well as the investigation of documents led them to discover innumerable variations in place-name forms: orthographic, phonetic and semantic variations, and differences in space as well as in time. The overlaying of numerous human groups on the substrata of Europe, as well as the traditional character of European toponymy, conceived in lands of ancient civilization, are at the foundation of these variations which, as conceived and studied, have constituted the major task that has preoccupied toponymists.

Because of that, toponymy developed primarily in the ranks of linguistic science and soon took shape as a specialized sector of dialectology. As a consequence, toponymic works, either general or regional, were very rarely carried beyond those limitations. Paradoxically, the science called "toponymy" acquired its definition without any fundamental reference to geography from which, nevertheless, it obtained its own vocabulary.

The classical works of French toponymy comprise the obvious exhibition of this state of things. For example, when Charles Rostaing¹ determined that "the toponym is a word like

any other, subjected to the laws of phonetics", he was considerably restraining the field of toponymy, which was thus restricted to considering the place name as only a witness of language and dialectical evolution. Later² the author felt the need to pay tribute to the sciences whose contributions are indispensable to toponymy: linguistics, phonetics, archaeology, prehistory. Of geography, no mention.

It is evident that geography itself has its place of responsibility in this development of toponymy among the very exclusively linguistic fields. Few geographers in effect, until recently, have cared to analyze the toponymic material that their regions have given them to study.³ Rarer still, if that were possible were those who would restore toponymy to be more and more a fundamental discipline of geography.

In the first decades of this century it was not a surprising situation considering the synthetic character of geography's objectives in that period. It is more surprising, on the other hand, that the analytical tendency of contemporary geography had not engendered the preoccupation of researching in detail the origin, sense, explanation, justification, modifications and all other characteristics of place names that today, still more than formerly, have a designative function which has become more and more precise.

This is not to say, however, that toponymy has been left exclusively in the hands of dialectologists until today. On the contrary, numerous are those - and among them, several professional geographers - who have laboured in the forefront official commissions to standardize usage and application of place names in their respective countries. Quite often neglecting the genetic aspects, which for a long time were at the same level of preoccupation of toponymists of the first school, these men applied themselves to regulating nature's problems more by evidence than by theory, more by practice than by hypotheses. These works were and remain very useful, in truth, indispensable. However, they contributed in no way to uniting toponymy with geography, to placing it in the service of geography or vice versa, to taking toponymy out of the very narrow paths in which it was entangled from the beginning.

Traditional toponymy is, in our way of thinking, extremely fragmentary in its outlook, too modest in its objectives; it is not the comprehensive science that we would wish it to be, it has not that essential multivariety for its development as an autonomous science.

We would like to indicate here the new or little explored paths, identify the scope and variety of toponymic subjects, distinguish selected viewpoints according to how toponymic research could be undertaken, and suggest some applications of a usefully restored toponymy. We are not so pretentious as to establish a program. We will content ourselves by elaborating our wish.

THE SUBJECTS OF TOPONYMY

In the beginning man designated topographical features by the common words that he used to describe them: "The Mountain", "The River". But from the very first trips he encountered features that he had to designate thereafter in a more precise way: "Big River" and "Little River", "Sharp Mountain", "Long Mountain", The designation of place names is then, from the beginning and in all world languages, composed of two elements which are found in practically every case: a *generic* element which indicates the relief form, hydrographic phenomenon, or type of territorial unit: *mountain, lake, town, field*; then a *specific* element which clearly defines, in individualizing it, the place in question, be it to describe it or to associate it with a person or an event: *Kings Spring, White Mountain, Deadmans Rapids*....

GENERIC AND SPECIFICS

At first sight, this distinction is clear and offers

¹ Rostaing, Charles, *Les noms de lieux*, Paris, Presses de l'Université de France, 1954, page 9.

² Ibid., pages 22-23.

³ The study of Emmanuel de Martonne should be mentioned: *Sur la toponymie naturelle des régions des hautes montagnes*.

little difficulties. The reality is often more complex however. For example, it may happen that a generic term alone may be sufficient, in the geographical context where a name is used, to specify a place for naming. *Sulphur Springs*, a generic term that designates a frequent phenomenon in regions of active vulcanism, may suffice alone to specify a place in other regions where this kind of volcanic activity is rarer.⁴ Thus, a generic element, by its rarity itself, can take its place as a specific term. This phenomenon is related to the frequency of the feature or of the place to be identified and to the rule called *relative negativity*.⁵ Difficult is the problem of utilizing a linguistically generic term by inhabitants of a place who use it as a specific designator. For the people of Ile d'Orléans (Province of Quebec) it is known as no more than *The Island*, the people of the *North Shore*⁶ (of the St. Lawrence) speak of *The Shore*.

This problem is ever present in the toponymy of regions of so-called primitive peoples or languages, more especially such surroundings where toponymy in general makes a very large use of descriptive elements (Big Island, Wood Point, Square Falls) and in contrast uses few loans of the dedicatory type. The most important town of the North Shore, *Sept-Iles*, is called in the Montagnais language simply *Wabât (The Bay)*; however, bays are not rare there and the Montagnais language is able to designate topographical features with a vocabulary many times richer than ours.

There is no concern here of an academic distinction and a false problem. Indeed, in the way that a generic term and a specific term are affected, the application of recognized rules in toponymy will be quite different for the adaptation of names, their translation, their classification, their grammatical position in the language.

Generics

The problem of the distinction of constituent elements of toponymic expressions have not only been ignored until now, but also it can be said that the whole field of generic terms used in toponymy has been very little explored. The study of what could be called *common toponyms* has, until now, been only made in dictionaries or lexicons of geographic terminology, whether general or specialized in a particular branch.⁷ But it must also be seen that study of them be made in the toponymic context, that is to say in studying the connections between geographical terminology used and the milieu or precise place where it is applied.⁸ Does one say *Hudson Bay* or *Sea of Hudson*,⁹ *Aral Sea* or *Lake Aral*, *St. Lawrence*

Plain or *St. Lawrence Valley*.¹⁰ This aspect of toponymy has been very little studied. It is a pity considering it is the only one where geography constitutes an exclusive reference. Indeed, geographers will have to exercise an absolute control if only to avoid having a geographical terminology deteriorated by the usage of a very unscientific toponymy. Geography could make a valuable contribution in extending its different branches - rural geography, geomorphology, administrative geography - towards a correct generic toponymy, linguistically as much as geographically.

Specifics

In respect to the vocabulary specifying toponymic designations, it is just as rich as language itself. There is, to be sure, material for every kind of linguistic study imaginable. For ourselves, it particularly interests us to see what kinds of facts or geographical phenomena this toponymy applies to itself. It has been said that toponymy is interested in every place name, no matter what it may be. Yet it may be said that some kinds of space have been the subject of toponymists' concern much less than others.

Inhabited places, built-up places particularly, were named early and toponymic science collected lists of them and studied their origin and significance. It is the same for other uninhabited places, oronyms and hydronyms.^D

Rarer still are studies that relate to names of routes and other channels of communication. Odonymy is nevertheless a rich branch of toponymy. And it is not futile to observe that, with the explosive development of urban areas and communication routes, odonymy may double itself if not supplanted by the abuse of the 20th century, enumeration. In proportion, streets, roads, maritime routes and concession lines^E are named less and less. There is an enormous job to do to retrieve names relegated to oblivion by numbers and also, an even more onerous task, to outline reasonable standards and principles in choosing thousands of odonyms which, each day, must be given and whose proliferation is in a constant progression.

Another group of toponymic subjects has been quite neglected by toponymists, that of the names of regions.¹¹ By tradition, the toponymist prefers to study microtoponymy, the specific toponyms which, most of the time, relate to residence; generally, he is less interested in the names of regions and in those of large unified areas.^F

DIMENSIONAL ASPECTS

Thus, in Canada as an example, toponymic studies are wanting, particularly at the level of spatial differentiation. In Quebec, it may be seen in the classic *Dictionnaire des paroisses*.¹² Similarly, an otherwise interesting survey about the Beauce (Canada)^G is little concerned with the regional hierarchy.¹³ Equally in the avenue of the traditional viewpoint are the otherwise fertile reflexions of Jean Poirier.¹⁴ Concerning its activities, the Canadian Permanent Committee on Geographical Names (Ottawa) declares that it is not customarily interested in regional names.

4 One could cite here numerous examples like *Piedmont*, *Detroit*, *Echourie*, *Barachois*, *Le Havre*, *The Alps*, *The Sugarloaf*...

5 See E.M. Pospelov, *La Toponymie en U.R.S.S.*, *Cahiers de géographie de Québec*, 10, 20, September, 1966, pages 241-252.

6 In the expression *North Shore* one should note the non-existence of a specific term. If it, however, constitutes the complete form of the toponym, can one consider "North" as the specific element.^C

7 Cited here is *Vocabulaire de géomorphologie* by H. Baulig, 1956 and *Le dictionnaire des glaces flottantes* of Louis-Edmond Hamelin, Quebec, 1959. Also the vocabulary of rural geography on which the International Geographical Union is currently working and which will also examine the whole of the terminology of agrarian structures.

8 A good example of this kind of study is found in the report of Camille Blanchard, *Les noms des cours d'eau des Alpes cottiennes in International Congress of Toponymy and Anthroponymy*, 1949, Louvain, 1951, tome II, p. 324-335.

9 Note that Elisée Reclus in 1890 recommended the use of the generic *sea* for Hudson Bay.

10 Some shrewd reflexions have been presented by Jean-Claude Dionne in *Pour un emploi rationnel des termes géographiques appliqués aux littoraux de l'Arctique canadien*, *Canadian Geographer*, 7,3,1963,116-131.

11 At the risk of committing a barbarism and of choking the purists, we are tempted to suggest the word "regionym".

12 H. Mignan, *Dictionnaire historique et géographique des paroisses, missions et municipalités de la province de Québec*, Arthabaska, 1925, 737 pages.

13 F. Grenier, *Les noms de lieux de la Beauce*, Travaux, No. 15, Institute of Geography, Laval University, Quebec, 1965, 99 pages. The careful list includes names of highways, roads, hills, crossings, rivers, lakes, islands, ranges, unoccupied places, peaks, stations, villages and rapids.

14 Jean Poirier, *Toponymie, Méthode d'enquête*, Quebec, 1965, 156 pages.

Also, in the literature, if certain authors mention the "dimension of geographical features",¹⁵ we would look in vain for a systematic classification of toponyms with a plan of regional areas. Nevertheless, a known framework of hierarchy characterizes the subjects of study of linguists, historians and geographers.

This attitude perhaps explains why existing regionyms are very often unsatisfactory. Let us give some Canadian examples. The expression "Northwest Territories" badly represents the otherwise eastern position of this region.^H Indeed, in the Middle North Zone it is really the Yukon Territory which merits the appellation of "northwest" while, in the High North and Extreme North Zones, the land masses would suggest the expression "northeast" much more.^I The historical past of the Territories does not entirely justify the present improper usage.

The terms used to designate time zones in Canada are a second example of an awkward regional toponymy. The legal time called "Atlantic" does not comprise the whole Canadian territory fronting on this ocean. "Eastern Time", in spite of the localization suggested by this expression, avoids "the Maritimes" but boldly reaches almost to Manitoba. "Central Time" suggests only one of the debatable ways of speaking of the centre of Canada. Unacceptable is "Rocky Mountain Time" in the middle of Saskatchewan. The time called "Pacific" has a front as well on the Arctic Ocean. The expressions used to describe Canadian time zones are shocking from the point of view of strict geographical circumstances.^J

The names of inclusive regions are often neglected and for a long time the "Province of Quebec" has been spoken of in reference to its southern part only. The "Montreal Plain" is a doubly ambiguous expression on the functional and terminological levels. The expressions "Useful Canada" and "Inhabited Canada", at first descriptive notes, are subsequently becoming choronyms by the force of events; they are unsatisfactory because their southern connotation embraces neither all useful parts nor all inhabited places of the country; better would Canada be spoken of in its entirety.

Not only is it necessary to develop a good part of the regional paleotoponymy but also to create a neochoronymy to meet the political needs of the world and to express the results of the new administrative regionalization. It is a vast domain then in which, from now on, toponymists will have to work conscientiously.

The field of choronymy can be revealed under various aspects. The most elementary method concerns the classification of space. As the development of a general theory of a total choronymy and the ascendancy of regional science proceeds, some more refined solutions will naturally come to light. Let us content ourselves to suggest here a summary of choronyms according to their dimensions:

1. *Very small places*

Generally, these are restricted spaces that have no legal, political or administrative jurisdiction. For example: rooms and floors of buildings, in truth even of a house, a residence, a station, a part of a farm, a lot or a homestead, a rapids, a portage, a brook, a little island, a highway interchange, a harbour....

2. *Micromilieus*

They correspond to the concentrated community or to the natural phenomena at the scale of a few miles only. Preferred subjects of toponymists. A village, a street, a road, a parish, a township, a town, a river, a lake, a hill...

3. *Mesoregions* (in the order of 10,000 km²)

These often correspond to a regional structure of the first order. For example: a county, a small region

(e.g., Lower Beauce in Canada), a French department...

4. *Macroregions* (in the order of 100,000 km²)

For vast, complex and integral regions. For example: each of the ten geographical regions of southern Quebec, Northern Italy, Parry Channel.^K

5. *Megaregions* (of the order of 1,000,000 km²)

The Common Market of Europe, a group of Canadian provinces (e.g., Alsama^L), world geomorphological regions proposed by the International Geographical Union in 1964...

6. *Super Territories* (of the order of 10,000,000 km²)

Europe, Canada, Arctic Ocean....

7. *Ultra Vast Masses* (of the order of 20,000,000 km² and more)

U.S.S.R., Africa...

In accord with their own size, the different political spaces as well as the classical geographical regions fall into one or another of these dimensional categories.¹⁶

Any regional study is confronted with numerous problems. One of the most difficult concerns the outer limits of regions to be named. The question of regional frontiers is settled differently according to the type of regions considered and the factual knowledge of choronymists. When the frontier is not found to coincide with well defined administrative limits, it is often necessary to re-evaluate and consider the divisions less as fine lines than as broad bands.

Moreover, frontiers are subject to adjustment. When those of Canada are thought of, one perceives the small territory around the St. Lawrence in the beginning to the expansion of its political horizons in 1949 when Newfoundland came into Confederation. It is the same for "Western Canada", once situated to the east of Lake Superior but whose present eastern limits are about 300 miles to the west of that lake. A geographical region is an inhabited or occupied space by human beings whose destiny is full of contingencies. In these conditions, a certain imprecision of limits is made only to reflect reality. However, such establishment cannot serve as an excuse for an insufficient study of limits. Toponymy must then adjust itself to the mobility of geographical spaces.

Some other aspects of the field of regional toponymy will appear in the presentation of nominative toponymy.

A COMPREHENSIVE CHORONYMY

In sum, toponymic subjects are more numerous than it is possible to guess in the fields of interest of traditional toponymy. If one were to speak of "space" and not of "place", of "choronymy" and not of "toponymy", one would already refer to the vastness of this science and the variety of its subjects. It is why we are proposing, in designating the science of place names, to use the noun *choronymy* whose etymology seems to us to conform more than that of *toponymy* to the inclusive definition of this science which examines all of the subjects that we have mentioned above and in the viewpoint that it is now necessary to be precise. *Choronymy* treats *toponyms* (place names) as much as *regionyms* (names of large spaces), *hydronyms* (names of watercourses and surface waters) as much as *terranyms* (names of terrestrial elements) and even of *aeronyms* (names of air spaces) and *glacionyms* (ice islands).

To complete this chapter on *choronymic subjects*, certain qualitative aspects are not to be forgotten that can

15 See the pamphlet of Michel Brochu, *Normes et principes généraux de toponymie*, Quebec, Les Editions Ferland, 1962, 16 pages.

16 Some examples of regional toponyms relating to most of these dimensional classes appear in: Louis-Edmond Hamelin, *Noms de régions, Cahiers de géographie de Québec*, 10, 20, Sept. 1966, p. 253-262.

alter place names. Choronymic subjects can in effect be modified according to strongly varying determinants from which it would be interesting to sift out some precious information, and, without doubt, some behavioural types and even some rules. As a good example, let us mention the case of portage (a route, generally in the forest, that goes around rapids or crosses a watershed line and where canoes are portaged from one point to another) which, in the Montagnais language,^M is called *Kaskametawatsistakan* in summer and *Kaskampetsonan* in winter. Let us cite also the case of Turkish toponyms that vary according to the colour of the landscape. Such qualitative and relative aspects permit one to explain that the Northwest Territories are in the north-east of Canada, while the Eastern Townships are in the south-west of Quebec, or still that on heading toward the south, on leaving Berthierville (Quebec) one says: "going to the north"

Choronymic subjects are then varied. They are also flexible and changing. Nothing at all should escape the viewpoint of the choronymist.

VIEWPOINTS OF CHORONYMY

There are many ways of approaching the study of place names. We would like to emphasize three main ones which correspond to as many quite different scientific approaches: *genetic* approach, *nominative* approach, *administrative* approach (in the sense of ratification of usage by administrative authorities).

GENETIC CHORONYMY

The expression "genetic toponymy", in the actual state of the development of the science of place names, almost constitutes a totality of its study.

Traditional toponymy, in effect, is almost exclusively preoccupied, until recently, with the origin of place names. Even that, as we have already said, has been done with a relatively restrained viewpoint such that only - or almost only - the linguistic aspects are retained. In one sense, that has been far from being unfortunate, since this genetic and linguistic step has allowed, thanks to the remarkable work of Dauzat, Rostaing, Deslandes and others, the emphasizing of methods of analysis and classification of place names according to their origins and linguistic evolutions. From this viewpoint, toponymy has a considerable gain and one should be delighted with it.

But it should be mentioned that genetic choronymy should not remain fragmentary but must, in addition to studying the "linguistic" origin of place names and their evolution, apply itself to exploring all semantic fields internally, from which each toponym is derived, in space as in time, pausing to determine the explanation and even the geographical, historical and folkloric justification... In this viewpoint, choronymy consecrates itself to the study of the relation between a place and the manner by which one traditionally refers to it.

The discovery of the origin of place names leads naturally to their classification. Under this aspect, it will be easy to distinguish at least four types: 1) *descriptive* choronyms; 2) *historical* choronyms; 3) *commemorative* choronyms; 4) *possessive* choronyms.

Choronyms of *possession* concern history and law, their study being able to disclose, for example, former property structures.

Dedicatory choronyms, the frequency of which seems to be increasing these days, will illuminate, on their part, sociological, cultural, and physiological aspects as well as the societies that created them. Sufficiently revealed, for example, may be the frequency in a certain epoch, of place names of religious origin (the excessive abundance of *hagiotoponyms* in Quebec is well known) or as well the

distribution over a territory of *anthropotoponyms*¹⁷ associated with military elements.

Choronyms that we call *historical* are those which agree with facts, real or imagined, which history will be concerned in verifying authenticity. The importance and scale of the element which a choronym refers to will determine if it really concerns a choronym that can be qualified as *historical*, or really a *folkloric* or *anecdotal* choronym.

Much more important, in number and in interest (for geographers) are *descriptive* choronyms. They can in effect represent witnesses of great value for the restructuring of former landscapes and environments, for the discovery of abandoned human occupation sites and for detailed data on certain facts that historical geography, geomorphology or biogeography could not discover through their own methods. Here still, a terminology remains to be elaborated. According as choronyms describe landform, a place's vegetation or fauna, should one speak of *morphonym* or *morphochoronym*, *botanym* or *phytochoronym*, *zoonym* or *zoochoronym*?

The classification of choronyms, in general like the interior of each of the regions studied, is indispensable to a systematic examination of choronymy. This has already been done elsewhere, especially by Deslandes.¹⁸ But it is necessary to go further. In adopting a method that is essential to every step that involves geography, it is necessary, in a systematic way, to enter on maps the distribution of place names according to their diverse characteristics, in particular according to their genetic characteristics. This allows the determining of choronymic areas the knowledge of which, one will see later, will be extremely valuable in revealing the linguistics, history, geography and archeology of the elements that choronymy alone may conceal. Let us note that this work is already initiated. Numerous communications at international onomastic congresses have adopted this method. Let us also cite the enormous work that the United States Geographic Board has done under the direction of Meredith Burrill: the distribution, from maps at the scale of a mile to the inch, of diverse classes of United States toponyms. This research has incontestably taken American choronymy a great step forward.

Genetic choronymy then has already a tradition. It is necessary to extend it in augmenting it out and also introducing to it some new methods, such as refined cartographic methods, or even statistical methods. It would be, for example, easily imaginable to put into memory banks of an electronic computer as many descriptive cards as there are toponyms in a country or a region, cards that would be conceived on the basis of a certain number of descriptives (location, type of choronym, scale, origin, date of establishment or dedication, language, etc....) that would serve afterwards for classifications, for cross referencing, and for discovering the frequency of choronyms and their tendency for clustering, and for even defining areas or choronymic periods. There is here, believe us, a field as fertile as it is new.

NOMINATIVE CHORONYMY

The interest of genetic choronymy must not, however, cast into the shade another extremely important branch of choronymy, *nominative choronymy*. In reality, toponymy is perhaps still less an historical science than a practical one, that is, being more devoted to the study of existing toponyms, it must furnish the required norms in the

17 Let us note here a little problem of terminology and classification. *Anthropochoronyms* can be *possessive* choronyms or *commemorative* choronyms. Besides *hagiochoronyms* can evidently be only *dedicatory*.^N From the other side, commemorative choronyms can be formed from foreign choronyms. Would there be a place to create neologisms for each of these types of choronyms?

18 M. Deslandes, *Toponymie*, Paris, Imprimerie de l'Institut géographique national, 1961 and 1963, 2 volumes.

creation of neologisms. Traditional toponymy, more turned toward the past than the future, is little prepared to play this second role. For one thing, it even ignores the pressing needs of the world for new place names; let us consider that it is necessary to answer not only to the present world political integration, but also to the multiplication of regional geographical studies, to the establishment of living centres and to the incorporation of new territories into the ecumene; before long it will be necessary even to investigate some appropriate names of places and environments of other heavenly bodies and an *astronomy* will reasonably begin its career by a *selenonymy*.¹⁹ Faced with the prospects, the road travelled seems quite short.

Nominative choronymy at first achieves satisfaction in various special disciplines that we have not mentioned.

It is known that toponymy for a long time has been the exclusive business of linguistics, recognized as "the essential principle of this science".¹⁹ In Canada, in spite of some generously overtitled works, such as *Normes et principes généraux de toponymie*²⁰ and *Principles and Procedures* of the Canadian Permanent Committee on Geographical Names in Ottawa, the elements noted relate almost exclusively to grammar, spelling, adaptation of aboriginal words and translation from English to French.

Some other toponymists, often independent from the first group, lean, on the contrary, toward *history*. In Canada several researchers, especially Pierre-Georges Roy and G.H. Armstrong, have appealed to this discipline. On the whole, toponymic studies seem in Europe to have been inspired more by linguistics while those in French Canada have been influenced especially by history. It does not mean that in Quebec toponymy has sufficiently respected historical data; on the contrary, thousands of aboriginal names, European names before the official discoveries, then French names, should have been conserved. History permits the knowledge of chronological stratigraphy. Thus, according to Jean Mercier, the southeast of Quebec has been designated by four main expressions: *Eastern Townships* from approximately 1800, "*Townships de l'Est*" toward 1850, "*Cantons de l'Est*" from 1862 and "*Estrie*" which appeared on a map in 1946.

Thanks to Luc Lacourcière and some of his other predecessors, *folklore* began to make its own contribution.²¹

In reaction against a false "linguistic geography", one of us endeavoured to define the real participation of geography in toponymic studies: "These could furnish some interesting corroboration, if not authenticating certain geographical theories. They can also furnish some eloquent means of representing geographical phenomena. Finally, they can help in establishing the uncertainty of a region studied".²² In a more elementary way, geography is useful because of the very large proportion of words attached to natural phenomena.

Moreover, to be considered also is the place of sciences that are especially administrative in better correlating choronyms to frontier problems and to the jurisdiction and political organization of territories.

Finally, the *cartographie* art cannot remain foreign to the nomenclature of place names because it is often the

map that establishes a term; it would have been thus for the river name "Saint Laurent", an appellation established by Mercator's map of 1569.^P

Readers could be smothered with a presentation of a list of the main disciplines judged useful to toponymic studies; nevertheless, this method only serves to illustrate the monogenetic formula very often used by most of the researchers in this field. But as we see it, the interpretation of an old name as well as the creation of a new term can not rest on the exclusive knowledge of a single discipline. In light of this observation, the suggestion of Michel Brochu to designate some points of Hudson Strait seem the least fortunate to us, being frozen over for a large part of the year: *Pointe du Soleil d'Afrique* and *Cap du Palmier*.²³ The historical argument (the names of d'Iberville's vessels) would not efface the geographical misinterpretation evident that these names would have originated there. A valuable toponym according to science must be abandoned if it is incompatible with the data of other sciences or with recognized principles. Thus, and with reason, phonetics advises against, in the official languages of Canada, the use of too long descriptive Eskimo expressions. These words are difficult not only to pronounce but also to write; in fact, the Romanized script of *Tuktoyaktuk* reveals seven variations. Expressed badly in the feminine form, the descriptive "Madelinot" should be abandoned in favour of "Madelinien".^Q A toponym is like a finished product, its creation is exacting. It is the interdisciplinary viewpoint, produced in a man, but much better in a group, that indicates the path to follow.

Neotoponymy must renew itself on other planes like that of some disciplines. We are particularly thinking about the spatial dimension; as has been previously ascertained, it does not only concern the giving of names to stations, post offices and mountains, and highways, lakes and watercourses; it has to provide for an appropriate choronymy in all elements of space. Paleogeography creates a supplementary need for one must also name regions corresponding to extinct phenomena (for example, *Champlain Sea* in the Quebec area of the Quaternary).

Moreover, the requirements in new terms also concern the generic domain as well as the specific domain, although the distinction between these two aspects, we have seen, is not absolute. *Lake River* on *James Bay* is wrong on all accounts.^R From the generic side, it is very necessary to assure the deliberate use of terms of a vocabulary genetically well defined.²⁴ Everything abrupt is not a cliff. Downriver from *Trois-Rivières*, the *St. Lawrence* is an estuary. Most of the individual islands of the *Magdalen* archipelago in the *Gulf of St. Lawrence* really are not, being attached one to the other by sand bars. To describe the two opposing but aligned halves of *Lake Albanel*, one of us proposed the generic term "wing", as being more appropriate than the alternative words "bay" or "basin".

Similar precautions will have to be taken for the specific terms of toponyms. On this plane, many errors could have been avoided; for example, the Quebec Department of Lands and Forests considered it advisable to change the toponym *Payne* (a river of Arctic Ungava) to *Arnaud* (the name of an Oblate missionary who, moreover, had never worked in this hydrographic basin!). For the specialists of regional science, numerous are the ways of creating an acceptable regional qualitative. Often, terms of a similar group are better defined with one having a function of the other; one can use it then whether for hydrographic lists (for example: *upper, middle and lower estuary*) or absolute opposition (*Upper Beauce* and *Lower Beauce*) or gradation of intensity (for example: *Middle North, High North* and *Extreme North*, established following a total northern index). In many of the cases, a certain simple classification can be built from the quantifying of selected data; some levels of altitude and slope could thus define hills, peaks and different mountainous masses. Briefly, in what concerns the specific aspect of place names, there is here almost every rule of comprehensive choronymy that must be summoned forth.

19 Charles Rostaing, *Les noms de lieux*, Paris, Presse universitaire de France, 1945, 134 pages; p. 6.

20 Michel Brochu, *Normes et principes généraux de toponymie*, already cited.

21 Luc Lacourcière, *Toponymie canadienne*, in *Études sur le parler français au Canada*, Quebec, 1955, pages 199-220.

22 Henri Dorion, *Toponymie et géographie*, Association canadienne française pour l'avancement des sciences, 1960, unpublished.

23 Michel Brochu, *Le défi du Nouveau-Québec*, Montréal, 1962, pages 132 and 135.

24 See the article by Jean-Claude Dionne cited above.

Finally, a choronym must be simple, expressive and suitable; it has to be understood at the first glance by the reader and the listener. It is the best way to avoid the hurried birth of secondary meanings. Thus, to designate, near the Témiscamie River a modest swelling of quartzite characterized by the whitish aspect of debris that does not obscure a very minor patch of vegetation, we have suggested the expression *white hill*.²⁵

There are three principal ways by which neochoronyms have their start: official promotion of a local and well known popular term, suggestion made at random and specific research; it is the last that must become the main source of production. We are particularly thinking, following the saying of Anne Hébert: "about those landscapes in advance of man that are waiting to be named;" for in the pioneer oases of Canada's Middle North, there develops for each and every banal toponym an intolerable attribution; also, the substitution rhythm of these unfortunate terms is quite rapid, sometimes even annual, which uselessly encumbers the records. Nominative toponymy is not then only a skilful learned creativity; it must be supported by a legislation which promotes it and especially which watches to adjust it to new realities.

ADMINISTRATIVE CHORONYMY

A third sector of choronymy is that of administrative choronymy, that is to say, that step by which administrations or official organizations endorse choronyms already in use, after having verified their origin, correctness and validity, or officially establish new choronyms suggested by persons competent in the matter. It is then normal to consider as prerequisites genetic choronymy and nominative choronymy.

The field of administrative choronymy embraces, in one sense, all other sectors of choronymy, since its role is to record all names in use or to be used in specifying their form and fixing their usage. Official organizations that survey and control the toponymy of their respective territories ought to devote their activity in the viewpoint of comprehensive choronymy, touching all choronymic subjects, generics as well as specifics, toponyms as well as regionyms, place names as well as descriptive designators of places, using genetic steps as much as nominative study, calling on all appropriate auxiliary sciences, using all historical, linguistic, statistical and mechanographic methods as needed. There is material for an ambitious program. But we believe that this is the prize that a well established choronymic body has for the possibilities of its development and perpetuation.

Administrative choronymy will have to face up to problems the nature of which could largely vary according to national or administrative settings where local choronymy is evolving and according to distributions that can vary to infinity: types and number of languages at present, written or oral character of traditional toponymy, alphabets in use, state and accessibility of documents, characteristics of the milieu or of the context in which choronymy is born and developed, degree of territorial occupation, mobility of settlement and therefore of the choronymy, etc...

These particular problems will concern the verification of every name of a place or region, the standardization

25 Louis-Edmond Hamelin, *La Colline Blanche au nord-est de Mistassini Géomorphologie et sciences humaine*. Travaux divers, no. 6, Centre d'Etudes nordiques, Quebec, 1st printing, 1964, p. 10.

of names in use²⁶ (as to their writing, their spelling,²⁷ their grammatical composition, as to the use of diacritical marks, hyphens, capitals...), their translation (at first its advisability, then the manner of realizing it), the recording of place names in functional gazetteers, the supervision of the development of duplicated choronyms and the proliferation of homonyms, the control of metonymic deterioration,[†] the prevention of avoidable changes, and even the qualitative improvement of choronymy.²⁸ This last activity is surely not the easiest since it requires of involved organizations an elevated cultural system and a very keen conscience together with every aspect of the comprehensive choronymy and every historical, geographical and cultural element that is worth merits interpreting by a careful choronymy truly reflecting the country being named.

APPLIED CHORONYMY

The development of a conscientious and coherent administrative choronymy already comprises an application of other choronymic steps. However, we would like to reserve the expression *applied choronymy* to that branch of comprehensive choronymy that places the choronymic treasure of diverse regions of the globe in the service of research in various disciplines for which choronymy constitutes a contribution or useful reference.

Three series of choronymic facts could support or orient the scientific research for which, in its occurrence, choronymy plays the role of an auxiliary science: a) frequency of choronyms, b) their distribution, c) the nature of their evolution. The discovery and classification of genetic choronymy, arranged on *choronymic maps*, will permit the establishing of *choronymic areas* and the frequency of choronymic types; the diachronic utilization of this process will allow the disclosure of the evolution of them. But it is evident that the methods of choronymy, especially in its role of an auxiliary science in the service of other disciplines, will largely vary according as the goals being pursued will be by nature geographical, historical, folkloric, archaeological, linguistic, sociological, etc....

It would be without doubt impertinent on our part to want to show linguists, historians and folklorists the vast resources that choronymy may conceal for the benefit of their respective sciences. But allow us, for this treatise only, to point out that choronymy can serve linguistics in making the discovery of the stratification of choronymic layers, in establishing relationships, in revealing the actual or past distribution of dialectical forms, in retracing the substrata, the adstrata and the superstrata. Let us mention that this service may be balanced by the indispensable support of linguistics in regulating the problems of transcription, transliteration and translation of foreign choronyms.

Choronymy can also serve folklore in the areas where popular beliefs have presided over the baptism of places, or still where local names have an anecdotal nature. It would be, for example, easy to retrace almost every legend which has frequented the St. Lawrence in the course of the choronymy of this region of Quebec.

The usefulness of toponymy for the archaeological sciences has already been noted by Barandiaran and Knudsen

26 The writing of geographical names alone constitutes a problem of scope and enormous complexity; we are not touching on it here, but one of us is preparing an important work on the question.⁵

27 Thus the Commissions ought to always stand on guard against what Deslandes (*op.cit.*, 1, p. 154) calls the "prejudging of a thing written" and to take care to rectify where needed all incorrect spellings.

28 A systematic and very interesting presentation of these problems has been made by M. Arousseau: *The Rendering of Geographical Names*, London, Hutchinson University Library, 1957, 145 pages.

at one of the onomastic congresses,²⁹ and the same for the support of choronymy in law.³⁰

Choronyms being historical witnesses of the first value because of the linking of time to space and events, it is surely history that finds very precious information in it. The reconstitution of the great itinerary of St. James of Compostela from France to Galicia, thanks to the toponymic signposts, is a well known example. Also, some toponymic similarities can sometimes, in the course of linguistic relationships, pose some problems of an historical nature: think of the difficult questions of ethnic geneology and kinship, like that of the Basques and the Ossets, and that of the Peruvians and the Polynesians, etc...

As regards the possible support of choronymy in geographical research, it is also manifest that it is underutilized up to now. The limits of this current article prevent us from developing here a point that, in itself alone, conceals the material of several books considering it touches a matter of global importance: that which establishes an intimate bond between the world and the language which names and describes it. The designation of places most often develops, it has been said, by reference to the place itself, very often in giving to it a description, morphology etc. Names of places contain, in themselves, essential information for the geographer.

This information can lead to posing some problems and even to making some discoveries. Former areas of clearing have been revealed, quite well in some cases, by toponymic studies.³¹ In the delta of Lac Saint-Pierre are some paleotoponyms that are evidence of hunting micro territories (R. De Koninck). The usefulness of choronymy for limology (science of boundaries), revealed by J. Devleeschouwer,³² was already reported in the excellent little book by Dion on France's boundaries. The geography of population, which concerns itself, among others, with movements of people, will see in the toponymic axes some landmarks which it is sometimes difficult to retrace otherwise. The location of former lakes now dried up or former islands now attached to tombolos, the variation of river channels or the depth of harbours, the sites of fields or portages, the hydrographic changes, briefly a myriad of facts that concern geomorphology can be discovered or indicated by choronymy. Biogeography, rural geography and all other traditional sectors of geography can without doubt also find their profit in it.

Placing choronymy in the service of geography constitutes one of the aspects of the integration of choronymy in the whole of geographical science, as one of the ways of making toponymy a still more useful science than it has been up to now. It is concerned, in our opinion, with an urgent and imperative necessity, which we have already noted.³³

Besides, the intimate lines between choronymy and geography are manifested at other levels, as for example in focusing on some choronymic generic terms according to a scientific geographical vocabulary, in the production of the descriptive value of choronyms, or still in the creation of a new choronymy that respects geographic data, as well as, besides, the historical, linguistic or even political data.

29 See, among others, Joseph-Michel de Barandiaran, *Rapports entre la toponymie et l'archéologie au pays basque*, and R. Knudsen, *Toponymy as a clue to Scandinavian Archaeology in the Report of the International Congress of Toponymy, Brussels (1949)*.

30 See, in *ibid*, the article of Egede Strubbe *La valeur de la toponymie pour l'histoire du droit*.

31 Proceedings of the Congress at Brussels.

32 J. Devleeschouwer, *Un limes bilgicus ingevon de la Mer à la Meuse*. In the congress report already cited, volume 3, pages 650-657.

33 Henri Dorion, *Toponymie et géographie*, Association canadienne française pour l'avancement des sciences, 1960.

In its subjects, viewpoints and applications, choronymy then constitutes an extremely vast science. It can be *comprehensive* in the measure where any of its sectors, of which we have indicated the main ones, are not neglected. To be sure, detailed studies, monographs, micro surveys, as well as research in the exclusive scope of linguistics or history, remain necessary, indeed, indispensable. These studies must continue to enrich the body of a science, which, as we can see it, although essentially connected with geography, is largely many faceted.

Briefly, choronymy more *comprehensive* than traditional toponymy, must be more than a nomenclature, more even than a vocabulary. It must be a language.

COMMENTARY

- A Director, Department of Geography.
- B Professor, Department of Geography, Laval University.
- C In French it is the hyphenated form *Côte-Nord*. It would seem in English that "North" is clearly the specific and "Shore" the generic.
- D French-speaking geographers have been much more active in the introduction of new divisions of toponymy. "Hydronym" is likely readily understood as referring to a water feature name, but few would likely associate "oronym" as a mountain name. Later in this paper the authors introduce *odonym*, *regionym*, *terranyim*, *aeronym* and *glacionym*. Also used at Laval and in France is *hagionym*, a place named for a saint. In 1975 Les Presses de l'Université Laval published *Lexique des termes utiles à l'étude des noms de lieux* by Henri Dorion and Jean Poirier. It provides definitions for 434 words and phrases.
- E The French word in the text is "rang", which might be better translated by "range" for those familiar with the cadastral framework of the Canadian and American West.
- F In the same number of *Cahiers de géographie de Québec* (10, 20, Sept. 1966, p. 253-262) Dr. Hamelin presented a paper with the title *Noms de Régions* in which he proposed several regionyms. At the 1968 meeting of the Canadian Association of Geographers J. Keith Fraser gave a paper on the names of several regions in Canada.
- G Beauce County is directly south of Quebec City.
- H It could also be added that the plural form often misleads many to believe that there are three territories, Mackenzie, Keewatin and Franklin, when in actual fact the Northwest Territories is a single *territory*, with the three divisions being *districts*.
- I It could well be argued that a greater area is west of a line drawn north through the centre of Canada, but the basic argument that "northwest" is rather an illogical name would still stand.

- J Names of time zones are not toponyms. Yet, because they concern divisions of the geographical landscape, the authors envisioned the need for a new word for all kinds of terrestrial phenomena, and, therefore, introduced CHORONYMY.
- K Parry Channel consists of Lancaster Sound, Barrow Strait, Viscount Melville Sound and M'Clure Strait.
- L Dr. Hamelin proposed this acronym in 1965 for the three Prairie Provinces.
- M The Montagnais Indians live in a large area of Quebec north of the St. Lawrence River and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
- N On the contrary, many a settler in Canada has had his name commemorated in a saint name. St. Hubert and St. Gilbert are two examples in Prince Edward Island, and St. Thomas and St. Catharines in Ontario.
- O The study of the names of the moon.
- P An English form (St. Laurence, and, ultimately, St. Lawrence) dates from Hakluyt, 1600.
- Q For the residents of the Magdalen Islands (Îles de la Madeleine) in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
- R Appearance are deceiving, even to the expert choronymists. Rather than being a generic, "Lake" is a contraction of *Lakitusaki*. The Cree community of *Lake River* is about 10 miles from the mouth of *Lakitusaki River*.
- S Henri Dorion, *L'écriture des noms géographiques: recherche d'une solution universelle*, unpublished paper, 17 pages.
- T "... contrôle des glissements métonymiques, ..." which is interpreted to mean the control of names derived from other names that are not entirely accurate; for example, Dr. Hamelin prefers Province du lac Supérieur rather than Province Supérieur for the geological division.
- U Rodolphe De Koninck, *Les cent-îles du lac Saint-Pierre, Québec*, Presses de l'Université Laval, 1970, 125 pages.

CORRIGENDA

Dans l'article de M. Michael B. Smart, *La toponymie et les impératifs de la technologie* dans le Vol. 1 n° 2 de CANOMA, les corrections suivantes s'imposent:

Texte anglais -

- p.2, 1.52: "purveyors" non "surveyors"
- p.8, 1.26: "just" non "must"

Texte français -

- p.2, 1.52: "En toponymie, on doit se fier à son oreille", non "La Toponymie doit improviser".

CORRIGENDA

In Michael B. Smart's paper, *Toponymy and the Technological Imperative*, in CANOMA, Vol. 1, no. 2, the following corrections should be made:

English text -

- p.2, 1.52: "purveyors" not "surveyors"
- p.8, 1.26: "just" not "must"

French text -

- p.2, 1.51: "En toponymie on doit se fier à son oreille", not "La toponymie doit improviser".