Book Reviews

Norske fiskeméd: landsoversyn og to gamle médbøker (Skrifter frå Norsk Stadnamnarkiv, 2). Oslo and Bergen: Universitetsforlaget, 1961. 380 pp. Paper, 19 Norw. kr.

The greater part of this impressive work by the director of Norsk Stadnamnarkiv consists of a general account of names applied to fishing grounds along the coast of Norway. To this account Hovda adds a comparative transcription of the contents of two manuscript collections of names and sites of fishing grounds about Skudeneshavn (Karmøy, Rogaland) and notes on the same grounds obtained orally from local fishermen. This is the first publication of such documents. The term *méd* designates the intersection of two bearing lines extending out to sea, each defined by two points on land; by transference it also signifies the point at sea thus identified. Each *méd* has a name, which is sometimes a simplex, but more often is a dithematic compound. The use of *méd* (pl.) as a means of finding and designating fishing grounds is associated with methods of fishing that antedate such mechanical devices as power-driven boats, trawls and purse-seines, radio navigation and echo sounding. The stock of names Hovda records is therefore passing into oblivion; his work represents the salvage of a part of the Norwegian linguistic heritage. He devotes much space to the etymology of both common and proper nouns that enter into the names of *méd*, as well as of the names of landmarks by which bearing lines are defined.

The reader is amazed by the detail in which fishermen knew the bottom of the sea in which they fished: a surface known only indirectly through experience with sounding line and fishing gear. Hovda illustrates both this detail and the accuracy with which *méd* were used to fix positions by telling (p. 17) how he was once out with a 75-year-old fisherman who stopped at one point and bade him lower the sounding line first on one side of the boat and then on the other. On one side he found rock bottom at a depth of 35 fathoms and on the other mud bottom at 75 fathoms.

Hovda's grouping of the generic terms used in compound names — usually but not exclusively as terminal elements — illustrates the kind of terms that occur: *A*, designations connected with the sea

and plants growing on its bottom; *B*, designations of relief features on, and the nature of, the bottom; and *C*, designations related to procedures in fishing. Group *B* is, as might be expected, the largest. Most of the terms in it are appellatives used for relief features on land; *e.g.*, *bakke* (slope), *berg* (rock), *egg* (sharp ridge), *hamar* (steep mountainside), *klett* (crag), *li* (slope), *nes* (promontory), *rygg* (ridge), and *skalle* (elevation of bare rock). Group *C* abounds in abstract substantives derived from verbs that refer to actions of fishermen or fish. The cognate of English "hold" yields *hald*, *helde*; of "lie" *lega*, *læger*, *lægje*; of "set" (used of fishing gear) *set*, *setning*; and of "sit" *seta*, *sæte*. The verb *reka* (drift) yields *rek*, *reke*, *rekstr*; and *leita* (seek, pursue) *leit*, *leite*. This group also includes the many combinations in which the generic element is *méd*. The first or differentiating element of a compound name may be taken from the name of a landmark — an island, a peak, or a building — in one of the bearing lines by which the position of the fishing ground is determined; from the name of an islet or a shoal in the vicinity; from a noun that refers obliquely to the quality of the fishing at the point in question; or sometimes from the name of a person whose identity is long forgotten. The naming of *fiskeméd* thus follows patterns familiar from the naming of features on land. But whereas the names of topographic features above water are usually recorded in documents, points at sea where fishing is good have been kept as private knowledge handed down orally through the generations and only exceptionally recorded in writing. Hovda got most of his examples by oral inquiry among fishermen. His exposition is not completed by this book; according to information from another source two further parts may be expected.

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The Place-Names of the West Riding of Yorkshire by A. H. Smith. English Place-Name Society, Vols. 30, 31, 32. Cambridge (University Press) 1961.

Anyone interested in English place-names must know Professor Smith's *English Place-Name Elements* (volumes 25 and 26) and will need no further encouragement to follow his work into the

present three volumes and the five more to come in the same series (for it will require eight volumes to complete the names of the entire West Riding).

Obviously it is impossible to review adequately so monumental a work when less than half is now at hand, and since all the apparatus of the series (abbreviations, sources, historical introduction, linguistic survey, lists of road names and of river names, and analyses of the personal names that appear in the place- and field-names) will only come out in the last volumes. Further, nothing much of a comparative sort can be said of Yorkshire as a whole until the promised complete index to the place-names of the three ridings has been issued.

Nevertheless, these first three volumes, which together cover almost half of the West Riding (the southern part) give a substantial idea of what the whole will be. Following the established pattern of the series, the administrative subdivisions (in Yorkshire, wapentakes) are treated in more or less geographical sequence, and for each the names are listed with variant forms, dated references to sources, the etymological elements, and brief comments of a historical nature. At the end of each such section is a separate list of field names, treated similarly, and even some lists of street names. In each volume is a map showing the wapentakes and their township subdivisions.

The imagination is stimulated in so many ways as one reads these volumes that it would be impossible to comment on all. The topographical and other elements exhibit a part of the Old English vocabulary little known from literary documents. It gets close to the realities of daily life, with the shaws, meres, moors, downs, marshes, amidst which life had to be pursued; the various works dug, cut, grown, or built upon these by the hand of man (hedges, dykes, pits, kilns, intakes, riddings); the evidences of wild vegetation (thorn, oak, fern, ash, aspen) and of cultivation (beans, barley, wheat, worts), of wild life (fox, crow, fish, daw, earn) and of domestication (milk, bull, cow, ox, sheep). The names reflect buildings and establishments, often religious ones, as in Nunmoor, Kirkbridge, Munkflet; and some remains of folkloric belief, as in Grimwell (goblin's well) and Drake Pits (dragon pits) such as Professor Bruce Dickins has studied and Miss Dorothy Whitelock has associated with the *Beowulf*. One is reminded also of the mixture of

sources in this area by finding not only Old Norse and Old English elements but a few Celtic ones (as in Ecclesall and Penistone) and French ones (as in Bawtry Spittle and Fountains Abbey). The sources, of course, are by no means on a par chronologically.

One very valuable contribution that these and other place-name volumes make is to dialect geography, as Professor Smith has elsewhere shown. The "regularity" of sound-change apparent in early literary remains is due to normalization and paucity of evidence. In place-names one finds normalization too, but many names, especially the less important or more local ones, are largely free of it. The evidence, too, is usually datable, localized and plentiful. One can therefore establish isoglosses from these sources and even sometimes follow their changes through history, attaining a much more accurate picture of sound-change.

In sum, these volumes, in their series, constitute a remarkable storehouse, almost inexhaustible, excellently prepared, from which the linguist, the historian, the literary scholar, and others will be able to draw fresh information for years to come.

F. G. Cassidy

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A Guide to Kentucky Place Names by Thomas P. Field. Lexington, Kentucky Geological Survey in cooperation with the Department of Geography, University of Kentucky, 1961. Pp. 264. Paper, $2.00.

A Guide to Kentucky Place Names should prove a valuable aid to anyone interested in investigating the toponymy of Kentucky. Since the basic use of the guide is to answer "where" a place-name is in use, the investigator is spared the exacting work of locating 39,212 physical and cultural features covered by Professor Thomas P. Field's book.

The *Guide* is keyed fundamentally to 763 modern topographic maps, providing complete coverage of Kentucky and appearing in the prefatory listing, "Alphabetical-Numerical Index of the 7.5 Minute Topographic Maps of Kentucky." Additional maps referred to are numbered as follows: older topographic maps (764), manuscript maps of the University of Kentucky Agricultural Experiment

Station (765), county maps published by the State Highway Department (766), the U.S. Post Office Department *Postal Route Map* for Kentucky (767). Miscellaneous sources are shown as number 768 without further reference. The author's genuine interest in and acquaintance with place-name research is evidenced by his inclusion of "good" names, even when map reference was not available, because "a place name poorly recorded is a bit of history lost." At all times, local usage has been respected. Also, he has inserted a partial bibliography of significant published works of Kentucky place-names.

The index to modern topographic maps immediately follows the author's explanatory remarks on the abbreviations used in the guide and precedes a listing, "Standard Designator Abbreviations," and a State Finder Map showing the encoded county names. The standard designator abbreviations serve to clear up doubts concerning the nature of a feature, when there is some doubt as to the meaning of the generic. The designation "SWMP" may stand for any of the following: swamp, wash, flatwoods, gut, marsh, prairie, scatters, slough; therefore, the entry "GRIFFITH SLOUGH" is described in the identification column by "SWMP." "SWAMP BRANCH" is shown to be a post office by the abbreviation "PO" in the identification column. On the State Finder Map, ninety-eight of the counties are designated by the first three letters of the name; the remaining twenty-two abbreviations have the same initial letter as the name. A listing of the twenty-two exceptions, with the code devised for them, would be helpful to the user of the gazetteer.

Of the 39,212 features entered in the "Kentucky Gazetteer," 6,500 refer to populated places and rural neighborhoods, and 11,500 refer to streams of all kinds. Included among the physical features are hills, mountains, knobs, bottoms, flats, spurs, bends, reaches; and among the cultural features are schools, churches, community centers, industrial sites, parks, institutions, roads, dams, and cemeteries. The two columns of names on each page are supplemented by three columns furnishing the county location, further identification — as mentioned above — and the number of the map which substantiates the proper name. Those names which have been shifted from a populated place to neighboring features have not been given. Known dualities are shown by the parenthetical inclusion of the alternate name, as it appears on the modern topo-

graphic maps. Identical entries sometimes appear. For example, two Wheeler Cemeteries are found in Central Crittenden County and are shown on Marion Map (443). Inter-county features and locations on county boundaries are indicated by a footnote. The County Finder Maps, inserted alphabetically by each county name in the gazetteer, enable the *Guide*-user to better pinpoint a location and provide eye-relief from the columnar listings.

Professor Field's *Guide*, a windfall for the student of Kentucky place-names, is offset printed and attractively and durably bound. The cover of 110-pound white paper, with a brown-tint area map of the State wrapped front and back and across the spine, has its title overprinted in black. The book is printed in sixteen-page signatures, ends glued and cover wrapped, and on sixty-pound white, calendered book paper. The introduction is in ten-point body type, and the alphabetical listings, typewritten in capital letters reduced approximately one-half size, are quite readable despite reduction.

Helen Carlson

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Pronunciation Guide of Oregon Place Names by Robert R. Monaghan. Oregon Association of Broadcasters (P.O.Box 5025), Eugene, 1961. viii + 81 pp., $1.00.

This useful and attractively produced booklet has been compiled to aid radio announcers and others in pronouncing the more difficult and less usual Oregon place-names. It will thus be useful not only in Oregon and the West but also for broadcasters across the country, and joins a number of similar guides earlier prepared at the behest of the National Association of Radio News Directors (see *Names* 2. 207).

About 1500 Oregon place-names are given alphabetically, accompanied by a simulated pronunciation, coordinates keyed to an outline map of the state, and a few words giving the general location, as "14 miles east of Portland." The simulated pronunciation will look rather strange to the linguist, who would prefer a phonemic rendition, but it is consistent, unambiguous and efficient in having one unchanging sequence for each phoneme. Only the voiced and

voiceless *th* are not differentiated. Since this practically-oriented booklet will be used by persons with no linguistic background, the author's solution is the most appropriate one.

The place-names listed have been chiefly drawn from the 7,000 entries in Lewis McArthur's *Oregon Geographic Names* (3rd ed., Portland, 1952), with the omission of names which presented no problem in pronunciation. Every user will probably disagree with certain inclusions, or suggest some names to be included. I can see no problem to Aspen, Cedar, Elkhorn, Empire, Glendale, Laurel, Logan, Rachel or Vinemaple, or to Friend, Baker County, Badger Corner and some others. Many others, however, are deceptively familiar, such as (I respell in a modified Smith-Trager phonemic transcription) Barclay [barkléy], Charlton [kǽrɨltən], Cupper [kúwper], Nice [níys], Sumac [súmæk] and Yachats [yaháts]. Particularly interesting are the three pronunciations recorded for different Alder's, viz., [óldər], [áldər] and [ǽldər]. The compiler failed to include the regional pronunciation of Oregon itself, namely, not the [óriygan] so disliked by Oregonians, but [órɨgən]. Missing too is Klamath [klǽmaθ] and some local Portland names, as Couch [kúwč] and Mount Tabor [téybər], but these last were actually beyond the compiler's scope.

Typographical errors are few: I note only *Weyhauser* for *Weyerhauser*; *Tualtin* for *Tualatin*; *Malheur* given as *Malhuer* and *Malhauer*, and (in the key to pronunciation) *rough* for *rouge* (illustrating the phoneme [ž]). The pronunciations reported conform in general to those I have heard during 8 years' stay in the Pacific Northwest (including 3 in Oregon). I heard [bánəvil] for his [bániyvil] (the compiler states in the preface that in all cases of variance the more frequently recorded form was selected), and *The Oregonian* (Oct. 9, 1961, p. 14) editorially carped at his choice for Wallowa as [waláwə]. The newer pronunciations of Chehalem as [čəhǽləm] instead of the older [šəhǽləm] parallel the present development of similar names (Chinook, Chehalis) in Washington (cf. my "A Pronunciation Standard for Place Names of the Pacific Northwest," *American Speech* 37. 74–75, Feb., 1962).

Scanning the entries reveals that Oregon has its share of names well-known from the other American states, viz., Detroit, Dallas, Dayton, Ontario, Saginaw, as well as those taken from "exotic" places, as Odessa, Damascus, Lebanon, Madras, Cairo, Mecca, Iran

and Palestine (a source of some confusion for new residents on reading news items). Among the picturesque may be mentioned *Bakeoven, Donner und Blitzen River,* and *Splintercat Creek.*

Mr. Monaghan (who is assistant professor of Journalism at the University of Oregon, Eugene) has produced a useful and well-done booklet, which may be recommended for all those interested in American names, particularly those of the West.

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The Geographical and Ethnic Names in the Þiðriks Saga: A Study in Germanic Heroic Legend, by William J. Paff. Harvard Germanic Studies II, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1959. Pp. 238.

The present work is divided into two main chapters, namely "Foreword" and "Geographical and Ethnic Names." In the Foreword the author traces the efforts of students of *Þiðriks Saga* (the Norse version of stories about Dietrich von Bern) to find some criteria "by which the reliability of any narrative sequence in the saga may be measured." The study of place-names seems to have been most fruitful in establishing such criteria. The author states that in the Scandinavian version of the saga personal names have been translated "into forms preferred in Scandinavia, whereas geographical names are more stable, and efforts to adapt them are, in themselves, revealing."

The work "is not a place-name study in the narrower sense." The author has "attempted to reassemble the contemporary contexts of these names; not only the narrative context, but the historical, verbal, and geographical contexts as well." He has devised a parenthetical style to keep all ideas operating simultaneously.

The chief objective of the study is to point out different "layers of accomodation which can be discerned in the development of many of the legends as they moved from one such context to another." Says the author: "Perhaps, if we can discern these layers, we can cite a name and the story in which it appears with more confidence than our citation is evidence, concerning the origin and transmission of legend."

The author's approach seems to be most logical. From the literary point of view the Norse version of *Díðriks Saga* would be classified with *Riddarasögur* (Romances of Chivalry) and *Fornaldarsögur* (Mythical-heroic Sagas). Therefore the saga could by no means be considered as being of great historical value. In the introduction to *Díðriks Saga* itself it is bluntly stated that the saga was partly based on oral tradition furnished by Germans (most probably German merchants) and partly on "their poems" (*af þeira kvæðum*). As a consequence, the students of the saga have focussed their investigation on the transmission of legend rather than on historical trustworthiness.

The "Foreword" to the present study contains much information on previous research on *Díðriks Saga*. This reviewer would, however, have welcomed a more thorough discussion of the dating of the saga. The author justly talks about Norwegian texts, but in this connection some scholars would like to modify the meaning of the adjective. In the present context it should merely imply "written or compiled in Norway," as it can hardly be questioned that the compilation of *Díðriks Saga* was the work of Icelanders who were the only history writers in 13th century Norway. Therefore terms like "Norwegian redactor" (p. 77) should be used with utmost caution. A further evidence of Icelandic participation in the rendering or the compilation of *Díðriks Saga* is the close connection between some of its chapters and Icelandic 13th century literature.

The author deserves credit for treating his main theme, i.e., the geographical and the ethnic names, most thoroughly. His method of discussing many different aspects simultaneously has not prevented him from maintaining a necessary degree of clarity and coordinating a huge amount of data. Some readers might wish that the different manuscripts of the saga had been treated in a separate chapter, even though in Bertelsen's edition, which furnishes the basis for the present study, these matters have been dealt with in detail. It might also have added to the clarity of the main discussion, if a separate chapter had been devoted to Norse (Icelandic) sources which contain some of the geographical or the ethnic names which are to be found in *Díðriks Saga*.

The Norse version of *Díðriks Saga* did by no means follow its originals closely. On the contrary it does contain a good deal of

material which had its origin in the native tradition of the translators. Some of the place-names in the saga seem to reflect the translator's effort to lend the translated names the romantic flavor which often characterizes the *Riddarasögur* (Romances of Chivalry) and *Fornaldarsögur* (Mythical-heroic Sagas). *Aldinsæla* (p. 16) is a good example of a Norse form which contains romantic elements from the South. It is very probable that the ancient Scandinavians associated the name in its translated or adapted form with *aldin* (fruit of trees) and *sæla* (happiness). Ancient Scandinavian writers had less knowledge of etymological laws than the modern philologists. Even Snorri Sturluson, in his *Heimskringla*, maintains that the name "Danmörk" originated in the personal name "Danr" (cf. Íslenzk fornrit XXVI, *Ynglingasaga*, p. 35). The author of the present work very wisely ignores such popular theories, and he is to be congratulated on having exercised a critical judgment in selecting and expounding plausible etymologies.

It is interesting to note that the oldest manuscript of *Díðriks Saga* does not always distinguish between "ae" and "ao" (cf. *norraenner*, p. 141). The two diphthongs merged in Icelandic about 1250. Some scholars would, however, have been so conservative as to correct the manuscript and clearly distinguish between these two diphthongs.

One of the chief conclusions the author has arrived at in his study is that Saxon points of views are dominant in *Díðriks Saga*. He produces evidence for Low German origin of some of the geographical references to Westphalia. Attila's court is located at Soest which "is not inconsistent with vague references to the Huns in Edda." It is likely that "this localization of Attila in Northern Germany . . . opened Saxon tradition to a flood of southern German stories about the Nibelungs and Dietrich von Bern."

It can be firmly stated that the author has succeeded in lending support to the theory "that the study of place-names can help in discussion of the transmission of a story or its amalagamation with another."

It would have been well, if the author had separately discussed in some detail the general patterns of the Norse renderings of place-names in *Díðriks Saga* and made a comparison with the patterns of ancient Scandinavian place-names. Such a comparison alone would reveal much as to the solidity or the lack of solidity in the

translation of the names. Faithfulness to native patterns on the part of the translator would indicate that he did not follow the German originals closely. This is, however, not the case with *Díðriks Saga* as the author points out in the course of his discussion of the main theme.

A comparatively full bibliography includes "all works referred to more than once." The reviewer should have liked to see the first edition of *Díðriks Saga*, namely that of J. Peringskiöld, Stockholm, 1715, and Unger's edition from 1883 (Kristiania) included in the bibliography. The former is not important from the scholarly point of view, but C. R. Unger did pioneer research on the saga, and his edition will always be useful for students in the field.

When reading the chapter on Væringiar (p. 223—225), the reviewer missed references to Dr. Blöndal's *Væringja saga* (Reykjavík, 1954).

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Geographical Names of Boikovia (Heohrafichi nazvy Boykivshchyny), 2nd. ed., by J. B. Rudnyćkyj. Published by Ukrainian Free Academy of Sciences, *Onomastica* No. 23—24, Winnipeg, 1962. Pp. xvi, 246.

This is a revised doctoral dissertation, written in Polish in 1937, and first published by the University of Lviv in 1939, under the title *Nazwy geograficzne Bojkowszczyzny* by the outstanding Canadian Slavic onomatologist, J. B. Rudnyćkyj, republished now by U.F.A.C. The book contains the geographical names and their etymologies from the territory of the Ukrainian Boikovian dialect, situated in the middle of the Carpathian Mountains. The research is based on material collected in the terrain by the author, and on previously published works on the subject. It contains also a linguistic analysis, the results of that analysis, and conclusions, preceded by six pages of extensive (general and particular) literature on the subject, and concluded with an index of 37 pages (in two columns) of the discussed names. The list of the consulted literature of 107 items was conscientiously collected, and will be useful to every Slavic onomatologist.

The author gives a survey of the different etymologies of the ethnic name *B'oyky*, preferring the most convincing linguistic interpretation, which is an ethnic nickname, derived from the frequently used dialectal affirmative particle *boy*, *boy'e* 'so, so is it,' which originated the verb *b'oykaty* 'to say *boy*,' and finally a nickname for its user, *B'oyko* 'one who says *boy*' (p. 6).

In the linguistic analysis, the author discusses the relationship between a place-name (*nomen proprium*), and a common noun (*nomen appellativum*), and he suggests the revision of the common opinion in traditional grammars, "as if all place-names are derived from common nouns, especially in cases where a common noun has disappeared" (p. 157). As an example, he gives the common noun *xolm* 'hill,' (now an obsolete word in the Boikovian dialect), and the place-name *Xolm* (the name of a specific mountain and a place in Boikovia), and then *p'otik* 'brook' (word now in common use), and the place-name *P'otik*, the name of a few brooks and villages there. Regarding these examples, he sees in the place-name not a derivation from a common noun, but an alteration of that word. For him, the same word appears in two different functions, once in an "appellative function," and at another time in an "onomastic function." He states that "an onomastic function of a given word is the result of the process of the semantic individualization of that word," and vice versa, "an appellative function is the result of the semantic typification of that word" (p. 158). One and the same word, according to the author, could appear in both functions, such as *p'otik*: *P'otik*, or merely in one function, e.g., the place-name, *Xolm*, and the common noun *xolm*, which has disappeared completely in the Boikovian dialect.

This is an interesting interpretation and merits consideration. The theory may apply in some specific cases, but can we generalize and apply it in every case? It seems to me, we must consider the level of civilization of a given ethnic group, and also the proportion of names identical with common nouns. A primitive man would probably call many places by the same name, and would no doubt use common nouns. At a higher level of development, he would try to specify them by adding some adjectives, or some other qualifying words. If we look at the name *P'otik*, we find there are only a few such names without qualifications, but there are thirty-three other "brooks" with some qualifications, such as *Ch'ornyj P'otik* 'Black

Brook,' *Hlub'okyj P'otik* 'Deep Brook,' *Kr'yvyj P'otik* 'Winding Brook,' and *Suxyj P'otik* 'Dry Brook' (p. 232f).

In speaking of water-, mountain-, and other place-names, the author included several pages of "doubtful" names (pp. 53, 77, 147) and "unclear" names (pp. 54, 81, 147). The great majority of them are indeed difficult to explain, but a few of them have reasonably clear meanings; e.g., *Buv'anchyk* 'bubbling water' (cf. in the Polessian dialect *buvvan'ity* 'to bubble'); *Shyb'ela* 'fall place'; *Zelemi'anka* < dialectal *zelemni'anyj* 'greenish'; *V'ydilok* < *v'ydilyty* 'to separate'; *Stol'any* 'table-like'; and *Klon'owa* < Pol. adj. *klon'owy* 'maple tree'.

A small map of the territory discussed would be a useful addition to the book.

These few comments are in no way meant to minimize the usefulness of this well-written and well-documented onomastic work.

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A Glossary of Geographical Terms. Edited by L. Dudley Stamp. London: Longmans, 1961. xxix, 539 pp.

Professor Stamp and the Committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science (Geography) have performed a commendable service not only for geographers but also for scholars in other disciplines by editing and compiling *A Glossary of Geographical Terms*. This glossary, which incorporates terms in physical, human, social, and economic geography, fills a need that has long existed in an increasingly important field. Since the nature of the study of geography seems to preclude manipulating symbols, such as are found in physics, chemistry, or symbolic logic, a glossary of terms becomes almost a necessity for those who wish to keep abreast of research published in geographical journals and texts. Geographical discussion should no longer be hampered by a lack of agreed definitions of common and sometimes not so common geographical terms. The glossary, of course, will not, nor should, limit the meanings or connotations a given term may have, but it will at least serve as a guide for usages in learned journals, where some agreement on meaning is desirable.

The format is patterned much the same as will be found in excellent glossaries. The reason for the compilation is given, along with a preface explaining why certain terms are included or omitted. A list of standard reference works is supplied, plus a list of correspondents and collaborators. Following the glossary are three helpful appendices. The first one lists Greek and Latin roots that are resorted to when new terms are constructed. The second records geographical terms that have been absorbed into English from foreign languages. The third gives some stratigraphical terms that are used in Britain and Northwest Europe, "with some particularly important ones from North America."

The Committee has anticipated almost every criticism of the glossary by pointing out its shortcomings and limitations. Still, it is possible to direct some legitimate criticism at method and other small matters. First, there is a reticence in giving reasons for excluding terms proper to surveying, mathematical geography, and astronomical geography. Apparently, there were means at the disposal of the Committee to include such terms — many, by the way, are included —, but some members were "far from sympathetic" to their inclusion. Next, there is a hint that new terms are not needed, or at least that it is best to let well enough alone. The editor somewhat archly states that he hopes the inclusion of a list of Greek and Latin roots "will not afford undue encouragement to inventors of new terms." Further, geographers and other users of the glossary will find omissions that may call into question the judgment of the Committee. Anyone familiar with Professor E. Wallace McMullen's *English Topographic Terms in Florida, 1563—1874,* which is not mentioned among the references, can furnish a rather large list that might be embarrassing to the Committee. It should be pointed out that A. J. Wraight's book on the definition of *place* is likewise unnoticed. *Place,* an important term, does not even appear in the glossary. But each reader will have to make his own list of omissions.

A glossary of this kind is not required nor expected to be built on historical principles, and this one is not. The *Oxford English Dictionary,* however, serves as the primary source for quotations. In fact, the *O.E.D.* should be handy if anyone attempts to do serious work based on the glossary. The method follows the pattern of giving the term, the definitions, including pertinent quotations from sources,

and usually a final commentary by the editor as to usage. The authorities quoted are generally listed in chronological order.

Approximately 4,000 terms are defined and amply illustrated with quotations. Many entries are actually small essays. Since space limitations in a short review do not permit full quotation, I shall settle with a few examples of the terms. *Abstraction, fairway, cockpit, millionaire city, shield, squattocracy, crab hole, paint pot, psychosphere, senile river,* and *spit* are among hundreds that would be interesting and informative to a browser and probably to some geographers. Many terms, as can be seen from the examples given, have been shifted from other activities or meanings for use in a specialized sense applicable to geography. A morbid one is *behead, beheading,* "the action of a river in cutting back its valley so as to intercept and divert the water of a second river." Other examples include *bed, air saddle, alcove, apron, arena, Atlantic Suite, cone of dejection, hanger, heave, misfit river, mortlake, rejuvenation, ribbon-development, roads* ("places for open anchorage"), *satellite town,* and *scabland.*

Geographers have conformed with the practice of creating new terms from Latin and Greek roots.Among these are *aethesnosphere, cryopedology, ecumene, pluviometric,* and *cyclothem.* Foreign terms have been liberally introduced, since geographers working in a foreign area tend to use the native term when it is needed. The editor acknowledges that "both original language and correct spelling are often uncertain." Perhaps it would have been of benefit if some indication of pronunciation had been given, especially of the foreign terms. Some of these foreign terms are *kivas* (Ethiopian), *bush* (Afrikaans), *kasba* (Arabic), *willy-nilly* (Australian), *ya* (Burmese), *pingo* (Eskimo), *ha* (Japanese), *voe* (Scottish), *crib* (Welsh), and *tundra* (Russian). Approximately 950 foreign terms are included, thus constituting almost one-fourth of the total number of terms defined in the glossary. The languages in India lead the list with 127 terms.

The value of the glossary extends beyond that of a sourcebook for word-searching geographers. The place-name specialist will find it almost indispensable, although he should supplement it with McMullen's work and with J. V. Howell's *Glossary of Geology and Related Sciences* (1957), a work received too late to be used by the Committee. For descriptions of topographic features and definitions

of toponymic generics, a compilation such as this is a noteworthy contribution to onomastic scholarship, and its usefulness to both the layman and the specialist cannot be truly indicated in a review. Coming as it does, before many new terms will be applied to topographical features in space, the glossary in a way sums up the geographical terminology of a passing age, the age of earth science, and perhaps points to the astrographical terminology that the age of space science will require. In the meantime, the earthbound can greet this glossary in the same manner, according to Professor Stamp, that the natives of an Eastern country greeted an international group of geographers, "Well came, O earth writers." Maybe it is too far-fetched to imagine our astrographers being astonished on some distant planet with the same message.

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