EXPLANATORY NOTES ON THE GAZETTEER OF SLOVENIAN EXONYMS

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This collection has been set up as part of the research project “Slovenski eksonimi: metodologija, standardizacija, GIS” (Slovenian Exonyms: Methodology, Standardization, GIS). It includes more than 5,000 of the most frequently used exonyms that were collected from more than 50,000 documented various forms of these types of geographical names. The table contains thirty-four categories and has been designed as a contribution to further standardization of Slovenian exonyms, which can be added to on an ongoing basis and used to find information on Slovenian exonym usage. Currently, their use is not standardized, even though analysis of the collected material showed that the differences are gradually becoming smaller. The standardization of public, professional, and scholarly use will allow completely unambiguous identification of individual features and items named.

By determining the etymology of the exonyms included, we have prepared the material for their final standardization, and by systematically documenting them we have ensured that this important aspect of the Slovenian language will not sink into oblivion. The results of this research will not only help preserve linguistic heritage as an important aspect of Slovenian cultural heritage, but also help preserve national identity.

Geographical names are names of settlements, parts of the Earth’s surface, and heavenly bodies, and other proper names are names of institutions, organizations, and companies that, by definition, are established and unambiguously identify and individualize one of these items. Every geographical name refers to a strictly defined geographical item; however, this does not mean that several identical geographical names can be used. They are created at a specific point in time on a specific language territory. All of the world’s geographical names in all languages can be divided into endonyms and exonyms. An endonym is a name from the inside (ένδον ‘within’), and an exonym is a name from the outside (έξω ‘out’).

Since time immemorial, people have named features from one of these two locations (i.e., from the inside or outside), depending on whether they live in the area of the named feature or see it from a certain distance. Slovenian endonyms are Slovenian geographical names within Slovenian ethnic territory, and Slovenian exonyms are Slovenian geographical names in all other territories if they differ from the endonyms there. Thus Ljubljana is the Slovenian endonym and Laibach is the German exonym for the Slovenian capital; Dunaj ‘Vienna’ is the Slovenian exonym and Wien is the German endonym for the Austrian capital. However, London is not the Slovenian exonym for English London because the Slovenian form does not differ from the English one even though it is pronounced differently. In the narrow sense of the word, Slovenian exonyms only include Slovenian geographical names that are completely different from the original endonyms (e.g., Nemčija for Deutschland ‘Germany’, and Carigrad for Istanbul ‘Istanbul’); in the broader sense, they also include geographical names translated into Slovenian (e.g., Skalno gorovje ‘Rocky Mountains’, and Rumena reka for Huang He ‘Yellow River’), adapted or Slovenianized geographical names (e.g., Pariz ‘Paris’, and Avstralija ‘Australia’) and artificial geographical names without an original form (e.g., Panonska kotlina ‘Pannonian Basin’ and Amazonsko nižavje ‘Amazon Basin’).

In 2000, the following internationally recognized definition of exonym was adopted:

*Name used in a specific language for a geographical feature situated outside the area where that language has official status, and differing in its form from the name used in the official language or languages of the area where the geographical feature is situated. Examples: Warsaw is the English exonym for Warszawa; Londres is French for London; Mailand is German for Milano. The officially romanized endonym Moskva for Mockv is not an exonym, nor is the Pinyin form Beijing, while Peking is an exonym. The United Nations recommend minimizing the use of exonyms in international usage.*

Professional literature and linguistic practice define the terms exonym and adapted foreign geographical name as synonyms or near-synonyms. Specifically, some do not treat adapted foreign geographical names that differ from the original ones only in the use of diacritics, special letters, non-use of hyphens or articles, and so on, as exonyms. Others do not count extraterritorial geographical names as exonyms because it cannot be determined which country they belong to; these include the names of oceans and seas, undersea features, and names in Antarctica, as well as extraterrestrial objects and features.
In addition to the basic properties of Slovenian exonyms (nominative and genitive forms, adjectival forms, their original form, location, semantic type, coordinates, adaptation type, standardization status, and recommended usage), their alternative forms, and their forms used in the nine most important Slovenian reference atlases and other sources, their forms in the majority of major world languages (English, French, German, Spanish, and Russian) and neighboring languages (Italian, Croatian, and Hungarian) are also provided. The exonym forms in these languages naturally does not mean that these languages contain all of the exonyms listed in individual columns because exonyms can also appear in individual languages that are not used in Slovenian and therefore original names are used instead. In the next-to-last column, an explanation of their origin and meaning is added to the majority of exonyms, and the last column also contains various note of interest connected with them.

The collection is not complete yet and we plan to add to it on an ongoing basis and improve it with new findings; we will also correct any deficiencies and errors as necessary, and so we are open to any constructive comments and suggestions.

Due to the sheer volume of data, it is inevitable that the collection and this description will contain some errors or other shortcomings. The authors request that users who notice such errors inform us, so that we can correct them and improve the collection.

Collecting exonyms

We collected exonyms from all important Slovenian world atlases and also added the relevant names from the Veliki splošni leksikon (Great General Encyclopedia, 1997 and 1998) and Slovenski pravopis (Slovenian Normative Guide, 2001). In addition, we added certain other frequently used exonyms, among which the names of historical settlements and historical regions are the most important.

A comparative analysis was used to eliminate unsystematic forms that were only used in individual cases and have not become generally established. They could merely be the result of non-critical editorial Slovenianization of the majority of geographical names in a given source. Based on a comparative analysis and the incorporation of historical exonyms, we prepared a spreadsheet with a total of 5,038 names, among which many are polysemous. We intentionally retained the majority of names of undersea features and important historical names. The extraterritorial names of undersea features have only been included in some more recent atlases, whereas the majority of historical names are included in encyclopedias and also in the dictionary section of the Slovenian Normative Guide (2001).

With the “rebirth” of Cigale’s almost forgotten Atlant (Atlas, 1869–1877), Slovenian atlas literature has a tradition that goes back nearly a century and a half. Atlant was the first Slovenian world atlas, in which many geographical names were already given in forms consistent with modern solutions. After this, nearly a century passed until a new general world atlas was published in Slovenia: Medved’s Veliki atlas sveta (Great World Atlas) of 1972. Several school atlases were published in the meantime, the majority of which (Orožen 1902; Visintin 1941; Sloški atlas 1959) were studied due to the developmental aspects of Slovenianizing foreign geographical names. With Slovenia’s independence, the publication of atlases was in full bloom, which continued into the first decade of the twenty-first century. We collected the exonyms from Atlas sveta (World Atlas, 1991), Veliki družinski atlas sveta (Great World Atlas, 1992), Atlas 2000 (1997), Geografski atlas za osnovno šolo (Primary School Geographical Atlas, 1998), Družinski atlas sveta (Family World Atlas, 2002), Geografski atlas sveta za šole (School World Atlas, 2002), Veliki šolski atlas (Great School Atlas, 2003), Primočni atlas sveta (Pocket World Atlas, 2003), Atlas sveta za osnovne in srednje šole (Primary and Secondary School World Atlas, 2005), and Veliki atlas sveta (Great World Atlas, 2005). The basic collection of Slovenianized foreign geographical names also includes names from the ethnically Slovenian cross-border areas in Italy, Austria, Hungary, and Croatia that appear on regional maps of parts of continents in atlases, but not those that are included in detailed maps of Slovenia and its parts. We also took into account those names from these areas that appear on maps of Yugoslavia. In addition, we included all of the geographical names from the cross-border areas used in the Great General Encyclopedia (1997, 1998) and the dictionary section of the Slovenian Normative Guide (2001).

We intentionally included the most important archaic exonyms in the collection, such as Florenca ‘Florence’, Kelmorajn ‘Cologne’, Monakovo ‘Munich’, and Solnograd ‘Salzburg’, for which we believe it is worth preserving the memory of their once exceptional communicative value, which is to some extent still used in their generally known adjectival derivatives such as florentinski and solnograški.
Presenting exonyms in a spreadsheet

The spreadsheet contains thirty-four fields divided into the same number of columns:

**Column A:** ID. ID (*identifier*) is the identification number by which all the exonyms included are ordered based on the alphabetical list of Slovenian exonyms in Column B.

**Column B:** Slovenian exonym. In this column all the exonyms included are ordered alphabetically.

**Column C:** Genitive form of the Slovenian exonym. This column contains the genitive forms of all the exonyms included.

**Column D:** Adjectival form of the Slovenian exonym. This column contains the adjectival forms of almost all the exonyms included. Exceptions are certain multiword exonyms for which it is almost impossible to derive adjectival forms. These include, for example, the names of tectonic plates (e.g., the Antarctic Plate). Such cases are marked with a dash.

**Column E:** Endonyms. In this column, endonyms are provided for all the Slovenian exonyms. They are written in the Roman alphabet and, for non-Roman-based orthographies, a standard Roman-alphabet transliteration. This ensures that all the names included are written in line with the latest transliteration rules, even in cases that seem foreign to Slovenian users. These primarily involve Slavic languages that use special letters for the shibilians č, š, and ž, and foreign and non-user-friendly systems of transliteration from Cyrillic such as those (arbitrarily) introduced by Ukraine, Bulgaria, and Belarus. The standard Romanization of Ukrainian and Bulgarian names is causing many arguments among the international professional community because it does not take into account the general recommendations on using the principle of transliteration, but resorts to transcription, which in the case of Ukrainian is even adapted to the English-speaking environment.

We used the online portal GeoNames (Internet 1), the *Great World Atlas* (2005), the *Great General Encyclopedia* (1997, 1998), and Czech (Beránek et al. 2006) and Polish (Krauze-Tomczyk & Kondracki 1994a, 1994b, 1994c, 1996) publications on exonyms in order to check the correct forms of endonyms. We also used *Wikipedia* (2012) to identify the standard Romanization for Ukrainian (Internet 2), Bulgarian (Internet 3), Belarusian (Internet 4), and Mongolian (Internet 5) Cyrillic, based on which we transliterated the geographical names from these countries.

The written forms of geographical names reflect a “frozen” form of their pronunciation. In principle, the pronunciation form is still the most important for toponym specialists, whereas for cartographers, who deal with geographical names, only their written form is of key importance (Kadmon 2000).

There are approximately 4,000 languages in the world, but the number of writing systems is considerably smaller. Because the majority of well-known and useful writing systems are used by several languages, some are widely used around the world. The number of writing systems depends on the definition of the term, but it most likely does not exceed 100. In terms of the number of users and range of use, the Roman alphabet and its variations are the most established around the world. Numerous languages take on nearby established writing systems. Thus, for example, Japanese kanji uses Chinese characters, and Arabic writing is used not only by Arabic speakers, but, with certain diacritic adaptations, also by many peoples and ethnic minorities in Asia and Africa (e.g., the Iranians, Pashtuns, and Sindhi in Afghanistan and western Pakistan; the Baloch, Brahu, and Urdu-speaking Muhajirs in Pakistan; the Kashmiri and Balti in northwestern India; the Dakhini in southern India; the Moros in the Sulu Archipelago; the Swahili in Kenya; and the Hausa in northern Nigeria). With additional modifications, it is still used by speakers of modern eastern Aramaic, the Maldivian language Dhivehi, Punjabi, and Fulani, but the majority of them have begun using Roman alphabets, which have proved to be the most universal of all.

Despite the fairly small number of writing systems, it is very demanding to follow the transitions from one writing system to another, especially when seeking to represent this transition most precisely. To this end, international research institutions and committees have come up with extended alphabets containing several new letters and numerous diacritics. One such international phonetic alphabet intended for transliteration into the Roman alphabet contains up to 125 letters (compared to twenty-five in Slovenian) with additional special marks for accent and length; based on this, they can be used to at least roughly describe, tonally notate, and adequately
present a fair share of sounds in various languages (Moder 1972). However, because this complex alphabet cannot be applied to everyday use, a simpler written form had to be added to foreign geographical names. Also in this regard, the Roman alphabet has won in term of international use, which means individual countries have taken on the responsibility of defining the official written forms of their geographical names.

The transfer of phonological linguistic elements or graphic symbols from a non-Roman writing system into the Roman alphabet is referred to as Romanization. The rules for transliterating a specific non-Roman writing system into the Roman alphabet are defined by the Romanization keys and transliteration tables, which are supervised by the Working Group on Romanization Systems as part of UNGEGN (United Group of Experts on Geographical Names).

However, some countries that use the standard Roman alphabet insist on the use of established written forms adapted to the pronunciation in their leading languages. Because there are more than thirty at least partly different versions of the Roman alphabet in Europe alone, there are numerous special features and exceptions, and numerous identical graphemes are used for different sounds, and several different graphemes are used for the same sounds. In addition, there are also numerous sound varieties that often remain unmarked in individual languages because their users know how to read them automatically.

Due to necessary simplifications, two procedures – transcription and transliteration – have become widely used for written toponym transformation.

Transcription is the written transformation of an endonym from one language to the other using the alphabet of the target language without resorting to additional letters, letter combinations, diacritics, and other signs. It can be also used to write names from languages that do not have a writing system. The greatest advantage of transcription is perhaps the fact that users can pronounce a given name fairly correctly when reading in the target language. This pronunciation is of course only an approximation of the pronunciation in the original language because the symbols in a given writing system usually do not make it possible to accurately copy the entire range of sound varieties.

Transcription is a one-way process. This means that after the transformation from one language to another any backwards transcription into the original language (which is now the target language) usually does not result in a form identical to the initial original name, which is a serious drawback for anyone that wishes to reconstruct the original form of the name in the original writing system. Due to this irreversibility, transcription is regarded a popular but non-scholarly form of transforming names. Therefore, transcription procedures cannot be used to an entirely satisfactory extent for professional purposes, which demand a reliable transfer path from one alphabet to another and back as one of the essential and vital preconditions for any serious work.

Transliteration entails accurate transcription from one alphabet to another, and backwards if necessary. It is a procedure in which written forms of geographical names are transformed between different writing systems (rather than different languages, which is characteristic of transcription). As a rule, every symbol in the original writing system is replaced with the corresponding symbol in the target writing system. However, because letters of various writing systems also express various sounds, a specific letter or letter combination in the original writing system is replaced or represented not only with one symbol (or one letter), but with a combination of symbols. Because often even this is not enough, special graphic symbols called diacritics are used in the target language; diacritics mark sound values of the original symbol, such as length and accent.

In contrast to transcription, transliteration is characterized by complete reversibility, which means that the target-language users can reconstruct the original form of the name in the original writing system (although this cannot be always consistently achieved in practice), but only if they are sufficiently qualified to perform this demanding task. Transliteration can be performed between alphabetical and syllabic writing systems, in which every grapheme always represents the same sound or phoneme. In transliteration, all geographical names from all Roman alphabets remain completely unchanged.

The main disadvantage of transliteration procedures has to do with the fact that diacritics and special letters in target languages often do not have a recognized sound value, which is why the Romanization key is necessary for every language that uses a specific target alphabet.

In Slovenia, due to the previously firmly rooted transcription practice and deviation from the graphemic system of the established Roman alphabet for Slovenian, the transliteration method is (or was) fairly alienating and disturbing for everyday use because, for instance, Slavic names are rendered (unnecessarily) foreign.
Column F: Language of the endonym. This column contains the languages of the endonyms of all the Slovenian exonyms listed in the spreadsheet. The endonyms are provided in 219 languages. The list was made based on knowledge of the linguistic features of individual countries and their regions, and the official languages in individual countries, as described in the Great General Encyclopedia (1997, 1998), the volume Države sveta (Countries of the World; Natek & Natek 1999), the CIA World Factbook website (Internet 6), and Wikipedia (Internet 7).

When possible, multilingual forms of names are provided in multiple languages. This applies both to multiethnic countries and to major regions, mountain ranges, and rivers found in more than one country, and seas. The names of oceans are only provided in English and French; the same applies to the names of continents and major landscape units, which are, however, exceptionally also provided in the predominating language.

In the territories of former colonies in Africa and Asia, as well as in Oceania, Australia, and North and South America, the name forms in the colonial languages continue to be the most widely used, whereas native languages are only gradually becoming established in international use. It will probably still take a long time for the native endonyms to become widely used on maps in these countries. This raises the question of how this change will affect the use of Slovenianized forms because experience shows that Slovenian also tends to use the traditionally more familiar colonial forms of geographical names such as Burma instead of Mjanmar ‘Myanmar’, Bombay ‘Bombay’ instead of Mumbai ‘Mumbai’, or Celebes instead of Sulavezi ‘Sulawesi’.

List of main languages:

Abkhazian
Adyghe
Afar
Afrikaans
Akkadian
Albanian
Aleut
Altai
Amharic
Ammonite
Ancient Egyptian
Ancient Greek
Antillean Creole French
Arabana Aboriginal
Arabic
Aramaic
Arawak
Armenian
Ashanti
Assamese
Assyrian
Avar
Aymara
Azeri
Babylonian
Bashkir
Basque
Belarusian
Bengali
Berber
Bislama
Bosnian
Breton
Bulgarian
Burmese
Buryat
Carthaginian
Catalan
Chamorro

Dzongkha
English
Estonian
Etruscan
Evenki
Faroese
Fijian
Filipino
Finnish
French
Friulian
Galician
Georgian
German
Greek
Guarani
Gujarati
Haida
Hausa
Hawaiian
Hebrew
Hindi
Hittite
Hungarian
Icelandic
Indonesian
Ingush
Inuit (Eskimo)
Irish Gaelic
Iroquoian
Italian
Japanese
Karachay-Balkar
Karelian

Lepcha
Limbu
Lithuanian
Low German
Lower Sorbian
Luxembourgish
Lycian
Lydian
Macedonian
Malagasy
Malay
Malayalam
Malaysian
Maldivian (Divehi)
Manx Gaelic
Maori
Marathi
Mari
Marshallese
Mauritian Creole
Mayan
Medieval Greek
Medieval Greek
Mojave
Moksha
Moldavian
Monégasque
Mongolian
Mossi or Jula
Nenets
Nepali
Nicobarese
Norwegian
Old German
Old Persian

Rhaeto-Romance
Romanian
Russian
Saho
Sami
Samoan
Sango
Sanskrit
Scottish Gaelic
Serbian
Sesotho
Sindhi
Sinhala
Siswati
Slovak
Somali
Sorbian
South Marquesan
Spanish
Sumerian
Swahili
Swedish
Tagalog
Tamil
Tatar
Telugu
Tetum
Tiv
Turkish
Turkmen
Tuareg
Tuscarora

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Column G: Exonym location (continent, ocean). Just like the next one, this column provides information on the geographical location of exonyms or adapted foreign geographical names. If a feature denoted by the exonym extends across several territorial units, its location is given in all the units it belongs to; this means all the corresponding continents and oceans are provided.

Classification by continent is more complicated than classification by country because it can be carried out in several ways. Classification by continent is defined in terms of physical geography and not politically, which is why the divisions do not always follow the national borders. Classification by continent only partly agrees with the traditional geographical classification. Due to ethnic, linguistic, and historical reasons, Central America is treated as a special unit composed of the countries of Central America, and the islands of the Caribbean region or the Greater and Lesser Antilles.

The border between Europe and Asia runs along the Ural Mountains and Ural River, and the Greater Caucasus Mountain Range. The border between Asia and Africa runs through the Suez Canal, and the border between Oceania and Asia is set in a way that all of New Guinea belongs to Oceania, and the rest of the Malay Archipelago belongs to Asia. The method of classifying archipelagos and islands under individual continents, and thus the borders between them, is described in greater detail below.

Greenland and the Bermudas belong to North America, and Iceland and the Azores belong to Europe. Madeira also belongs to Europe, whereas the Canary Islands belong to Africa alongside the isolated islands of Saint Helena and Tristan da Cunha in the middle of the Atlantic Ocean. The Saint Peter and Saint Paul Archipelago in Brazil belongs to South America. The Seychelles, the Mascarene Islands, Amsterdam Island, Saint Paul Island, Prince Edward Island, and the Crozet Islands to the east belong to Africa, the Maldives and the Chagos Archipelago belong to Asia, whereas the Kerguelen Islands, Heard Island, and the McDonald Islands are part of Antarctica. South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, the South Shetland Islands, the South Orkney Islands, and the Balleny Islands also belong to Antarctica. The Falklands are part of South America, as are the Juan Fernández Islands, the Desventuradas Islands, and the Galápagos Islands to its west. Cocos Island, Clipperton Island, and the Revillagigedo Islands are part of Central America. Easter Island and Hawaii are part of Oceania; the Bonin Islands, the Volcano Islands, the Marianas, and the Palau Islands to the north, and the Antipodes Islands, the Auckland Islands, Campbell Island, and Macquarie Island to the south also belong to Oceania. Australia’s Christmas Island and the Cocos Islands south of Java and Sumatra are part of Asia. The Commander Islands are also part of Asia, whereas the Aleutian Islands are part of North America. A quick glance at the delimitation of islands between Europe, Asia, and North America in the Arctic Ocean: Spitsbergen, Franz Joseph Land, and Novaya Zemlya are part of Europe, the Russian islands and archipelagos east of Novaya Zemlya are part of Asia, whereas the Canadian Arctic Archipelago is part of North America, just like Greenland.

The borders between oceans are based on the borders agreed upon by the experts of the International Hydrographic Organization (IHO). These are fairly clear; the only exceptions are the Arctic and Southern oceans. The area of the Arctic Ocean matches the Arctic Sea and is essentially its allonym, whereas the Southern Ocean is a body of water south of 60° S latitude bordering on the Atlantic, Indian, and Pacific Oceans, which correspondingly reduces their respective areas (Internet 8; Internet 9; Perko 2006). The International Hydrographic Organization decided on the "independence" of the Antarctic Ocean in spring 2000 (Perko 2006),
under the name Southern Ocean. Its northern border matches the border laid down in the international Antarctic Treaty. With an area of more than 20,000,000 km², the Southern Ocean is larger than the Atlantic, and thus the fourth-largest body of water on the planet (Internet 10).

**Column H: Exonym location (country, sea).** The countries are defined according to the latest situation at the time this volume was being created. The only exception is Western Sahara, which has been almost completely taken over by Morocco, but it is still treated as an independent country. South Sudan, Palestine, and Kosovo are also listed as independent countries.

Sea exonyms include all sea names outside world oceans, and their undersea features. According to Wikipedia (Internet 10), there are 103 seas on Earth (including major gulfs), of which fifty-three are in the Atlantic Ocean, thirty-five are in the Pacific Ocean, nineteen in the Southern Ocean, sixteen in the Arctic Ocean, and ten in the Indian Ocean. The Atlantic Ocean also includes the land-enclosed Mediterranean Sea and the Baltic Sea, which are composed of several smaller seas; the Mediterranean Sea includes eighteen seas (e.g., the Alboran, Aegean, Adriatic, and Ligurian Seas, and the Gulf of Sidra), and the Baltic Sea includes ten (e.g., the Sea of Aland, the Bothnian Sea, the Gulf of Finland, and Øresund).

The borders between seas are delineated on the maps of seas in the Great Family World Atlas (1992, 114–119), which mirror the agreements of the International Hydrographic Organization. Inland seas (the Caspian Sea or Каспийское море in Russian, the Dead Sea) are essentially saline lakes and are classified under the continents and countries they lie in, just like all the other land hydronyms. One should note that, due to its exceptional role in society and history, and proximity to Slovenia, the Mediterranean Sea (which is part of the Atlantic Ocean) is treated as a special subunit. It is composed of smaller seas such as the Ligurian, Tyrrenhenian, Ionian, Adriatic, and Aegean seas, as well as the Sea of Marmara, the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azov, which are sometimes regarded as inland seas.

The zero (0) denotes names that cover larger territories and refer to spatial units that cannot be classified by country or sea or for which it does not make sense to do so.

**Column I: Semantic type of exonym.** In this column, exonyms are divided into semantic groups. The classification is adapted to global dimensions and the standard division of names of geographical features and topographic objects in Slovenian atlases and encyclopedias. We combined several geographical features and topographic items into main items or semantic groups, which can also be referred to as semantic types. The range of semantic types is relatively extensive; there are sixteen types altogether. The majority of them are composed of several related features and objects.

The largest spatial unit is continent; for example, Africa, South America, and Antarctica, but also Oceania and Central America, which has been treated as a separate continent due to the large density of exonyms in a relatively small area.

The names of countries form another type (e.g., Jordan, the Central African Republic, and the United States of America). The list only includes those countries whose Slovenianized name differs from the original name. The names of island countries such as Cuba, Antigua and Barbuda, and the Solomon Islands deviate somewhat from the established pattern because they are also the names of islands or island relief forms.

The majority of Slovenianized foreign geographical names are classified under the settlement semantic type. They include the Slovenianized forms of large cities (e.g., Rim ‘Rome’, Krakov ‘Krakow’, Basra, Akra ‘Accra’) and important settlements in ethnically Slovenian cross-border areas (e.g., Brod na Kolpi ‘Brod na Kupi’, Krmin ‘Cormons’, Velikovec ‘Völkermarkt’, and Monošter ‘Szentgotthárd’). Some settlements are also labeled historical settlement (e.g., Korint ‘Corinth’ and Sparta ‘Sparta’ in the Peloponnesse). Some settlements have changed their names completely over time and so their former name is also Slovenianized (e.g., Akvileja ‘Aquillea’, Bizanc ‘Byzantium’). Other settlements have disappeared (e.g., Efes ‘Ephesus’, Herakleja ‘Herculea Lyncestis’, Mikene ‘Mycenae’, Troja ‘Troy’), and the modern names of some of them still contain traces of the old name (e.g., Maraton ‘Marathon’, Tebe ‘Thebes’).

The land relief form semantic group is very diverse. It includes all names connected with terrain and relief categories in general. Thus it contains the names of mountain ranges (e.g., the names for the Alaska Range, the Chersky Range, and the Appalachian), chains of hills (e.g., the Flinders Ranges, the Timan Ridge, the Yenisei Mountains, and the Slovak Ore Mountains), low hills (e.g., the Don Hills, the Ashmyany Hills), peaks (e.g., K2, Adam’s Peak, and Aventine Hill), plateaus (e.g., the Altiplano, the Yukon Plateau, the Laurentian Upland, the
Central Plateau), plains and lowlands (e.g., the Po Plain, the Dnieper Lowland, and the Turan Lowland), tablelands (e.g., the Barkly Tableland and the Antarctic Plateau), basins (e.g., the Aquitaine Basin, the Congo Basin, and the Great Basin), depressions (e.g., the Qattara Depression and the Turpan Depression), rifts (e.g., the East African Rift and the Great Rift Valley), land faults (e.g., the San Andreas Fault), mountain passes (e.g., the Karakoram Pass, the Jvari Pass, and the Belfort Gap), river and dry valleys (e.g., the Fergana Valley, Death Valley, and the Nugaal Valley), and canyons (e.g., the Grand Canyon). These examples demonstrate the wide diversity of names referring to specific relief features.

Hydronyms or names of bodies of water are divided into land and sea hydronyms. The land hydronym semantic type includes the names of rivers (e.g., the White Nile, the Meander River, and the Rhine), freshwater lakes (e.g., Lake Chad, the Kama Reservoir, and Lake Khanka), saline lakes (e.g., the Dead Sea, the Great Salt Lake, Lake Van, and Lake Natron), periodically dry lakes (e.g., the Chott el Hodna), lagoons (e.g., the Mirim Lagoon and the Venetian Lagoon), canals (e.g., the Panama Canal, and the Rhine–Main–Danube Canal), waterfalls (e.g., Angel Falls and Niagara Falls), swamps (e.g., Kuk Swamp and the Pripyat Marshes), and glaciers (e.g., the Pasterze Glacier, the Byrd Glacier, and the Malaspina Glacier).

The sea hydronym semantic group includes the names of oceans (e.g., the Pacific Ocean and the Arctic Ocean), seas (e.g., the Andaman Sea, the Caribbean Sea, the Ligurian Sea, the Sargasso Sea, and the Wadden Sea), inland seas (e.g., the Seto Inland Sea, and the Visayan Sea), gulls (e.g., the Bay of Biscay, the Gulf of Sidra, and also the Foxe Basin, which is actually an unusual name), straits (e.g., the Denmark Strait, Dover Strait, the Strait of Hormuz, the Virgin Passage, the Bab-el-Mandeb), fjords (e.g., the Trondheimfjord and the Vestfjord), estuaries (e.g., the Amazon Estuary, the Irrawaddy Estuary, the Niger Estuary), and extensive ice shelves in the Antarctic seas (e.g., the Amery Ice Shelf and the Ross Ice Shelf), from whose edges glaciers break off.

The undersea feature semantic group is diverse and large. It is composed of continental shelves (e.g., the Arafura Shelf and the Celtic Shelf), shoals (e.g., the Dogger Bank, the Silver Bank, and the Great Sole Bank), abyssal fans (e.g., the Amazon Fan and the Indus Fan), submarine canyons (e.g., the Amazon Canyon and the Hudson Canyon), seamounts (e.g., the President Thiers Seamount, the Seine Seamount, and the Flemish Cap), guyots (e.g., the Discovery Seamount and the Ob Seamount), abyssal plains (e.g., the Ceylon Plain), deep-sea plains (e.g., the Demerara Plain and the Cape Plain), submarine troughs (e.g., the Nankai Trough), submarine deeps (e.g., the Diamantina Deep and the Barents Trough), submarine trenches (e.g., the Aleutian Trench and the Philippine Trench), mid-ocean ridges (e.g., the Mid-Atlantic Ridge, and the Ninety East Ridge), submarine shelves (e.g., the Chile Rise and the Rockall Rise), oceanic basins (e.g., the Celebes Oceanic Basin and the Shikoku Oceanic Basin), oceanic plateaus (e.g., the Aguilhas Plateau and the Blake Plateau), discordances (e.g., the Australian-Antarctic Discordance), and submarine fracture zones and fracture systems (e.g., the Agassiz Fracture Zone and the Clipperon Fracture Zone). As a rule, this entire group of names is not Slovenianized because these are extraterritorial geographical names. In practice, the Slovenianized forms still differ significantly from one another, which also results from an excessive use of foreign words, for which suitable synonyms are available in Slovenian; for example, celinska polica instead of shelf ‘shelf’, globokomorski instead of abisalen ‘abyssal’, and planota instead of plato ‘plateau’.

The island relief form semantic group is also quite extensive. It consists of the names of islands (e.g., Crete, Fraser Island, Devil’s Island, Robinson Crusoe Island, Saint Kitts, and Tierra del Fuego) and archipelagos (e.g., the Mariana Islands, the Kerguelen Islands, the Azores, and Adam’s Bridge). There is a rough difference between Slovenian names containing otočje ‘archipelago’ and otoki ‘islands’. As a rule, the term otočje refers to large groups of smaller islands, or atolls, which are common in tropical seas; for example, the Line Islands and the Maldives. The term otoki usually refer to small groups of larger islands (e.g., the Canary Islands, the Orkneys, and the Hawaiian Islands). The common noun otoki is also used in the names of countries (i.e., the Marshall Islands, the Solomon Islands, and Cape Verde), and dependent territories (e.g., the Faroe Islands and the Cayman Islands). For example, the Slovenian exonym Marshallovo otoče ‘Marshall Archipelago’ refers to the island group as a natural feature, and the exonym Marshallovi otoki ‘Marshall Islands’ refers to the administrative unit. Names of island groups can also contain the common nouns arhipelag ‘archipelago’ (e.g., Arktični arhipelag ‘Arctic Archipelago’), atol ‘atoll’ (e.g., Johnstonov atol ‘Johnston Atoll’), otoška skupina ‘island group’ (e.g., Otoska skupina Agalega ‘Agalega Islands’), čer ‘reef’ (e.g., Ceri svetega Petra in Pavla ‘Saint Peter and Saint Paul Archipelago’), and koralni greben ‘coral reef’ (e.g., Veliki koralni greben ‘The Great Barrier Reef’).

The coastal relief form semantic group includes the names of peninsulas (e.g., the names for the Apennine Peninsula, Crimea, the Kamchatka Peninsula, and the Rybachy Peninsula), capes (e.g., the Cape of Good Hope and Cap-Vert), coasts (e.g., the Pepper Coast, the Italian Riviera, and George V Coast, which also refers to a
natural landscape), isthmuses (e.g., the Isthmus of Panama and the Kra Isthmus), and sand-dune spits (e.g., the Curonian Spit). This group also contains the names of river deltas (e.g., the Danube Delta, the Ganges Delta, and the Orinoco Delta).

A natural landscape is a territorially complete physical-geographical part of the Earth’s surface smaller than a continent that has not been significantly affected by human activity, or only to a small extent. It may possess several characteristics, but its definition does not usually emphasize any individual natural elements. Typical examples include the names for Queen Maud Land in Antarctica, the Caprivi Strip in northeastern Namibia, the Far East in Russia, Frisia in northeastern Germany and northern Denmark, the Indian Subcontinent in south Asia (which is also a historical administrative unit), Croatian Zagorje (due to its plateau or hilly features this can also be treated as an onymin), Piedmont (also an administrative unit), Attica (a natural landscape, an administrative unit, and a historical region), and Masuria, which has the same characteristics as Attica. The most typical natural landscapes include deserts (e.g., the Sahara, the Gobi Desert, the Kyzyl Kum, the Atacama Desert, and the Rub’ al Khali), and steppes (e.g., the Baraba Steppe, the Kulunda Steppe, the Masai Steppe, and the Hunger Steppe).

A historical region is a landscape unit that had great importance in historical development, but did not play a role of a state or administrative unit. Typical examples include the names for Abyssinia in today’s Ethiopia, and Bithynia and Lydia in Asia Minor as important regions of the ancient Greek civilization, Castile as the heart of modern-day Spain, Acadia as the center of the French-speaking people in eastern North America, and Annam as the French protectorate in Southeast Asia. Numerous French regions, such as Burgundy, Normandy, and Provence, can be considered both historical and natural regions. Due to their unique influence on the ethnic characteristics of the people, younger historical regions also have the character of cultural landscapes.

Oases, such as the Kharga Oasis and Siwa Oasis, are classified under the paysage semantic group, which is not very large. Some of them have natural region features, and others have the features of a settlement.

Administrative units at various levels form a separate semantic type. They often have the nature of regions, which is indicated by adding both semantic types to the name (unless the administrative function is not absolutely predominating). Administrative units include federal states (e.g., North Dakota, Maharashtra, and Western Australia), other states and regions (e.g., Bavaria, Lower Saxony, Upper Austria, and Tuscany), republics (e.g., Ingushetia, Kabardino-Balkaria, South Ossetia, and Serbia), autonomous territories (e.g., the Chukotka Autonomous Okrug and the Jewish Autonomous Oblast), departments (e.g., Haute-Savoie), overseas territories or colonies (e.g., the British Virgin Islands and French Guiana), administrative territories (e.g., the British Indian Ocean Territory, and the French Southern and Antarctic Lands), provinces (e.g., Sichuan, Shanxi, and Northwest Province), counties (e.g., Vas County), and unions such as the Commonwealth and the European Union. Some administrative units (e.g., Sikkim) were independent states in the past.

The historical administrative unit semantic group is largely composed of former colonies (e.g., British Somaliland, French West Africa, Portuguese Guinea, Northern Rhodesia, Indochina, and Manchuria), parts of former colonies (e.g., Transjordan), the names of administrative units of former large states that dissolved later on (e.g., Galicia in Austria-Hungary and Courland), the names of former countries (e.g., the German Democratic Republic, South Vietnam, and the Ottoman Empire), and the names of former principalities and related territorial units (e.g., Hadhramaut in Yemen and Lotharingia).

The other semantic group is not very large, but semantically still quite diverse. It includes the names of river dams and sluices (e.g., the Aswan Low Dam and the Three Gorges Dam), parts of settlements (e.g., Champs-Élysées), defensive walls (e.g., the Great Wall of China and Hadrian’s Wall), archeological sites (e.g., Abu Simbel), tectonic plates (e.g., the African Plate, the Eurasian Plate, and the Cocos Plate), shields (e.g., the African Shield, the Baltic Shield, and the Canadian Shield), and other geological formations (e.g., the Caledonian Mountains), isolated points in the Earth’s surface (e.g., the South and North poles), and abbreviated compound geographical names (e.g., Maghreb and Benelux).

Column J: Latitude. This and the following column in the spreadsheet contain the geographical coordinates of all the exonyms included, in which Column J contains the latitudes. The values for individual settlements and territorial units were established using Google Earth and DNR Garmin software, and the GeoNamesweb portal (Internet 1).
Google Earth and DNR Garmin use decimal notation, whereas we decided to use the sexagesimal numeral system, which geographers and the public are more familiar with and which divides a given value into degrees, minutes, and seconds. In the case of large territorial units, the latitude of their centroids is provided.

We also changed the indications of the cardinal points. Google Earth and DNR Garmin indicate them by adding a plus or minus sign in front of the decimal number, in which northern latitudes carry a plus sign, and southern latitudes carry a minus sign. In our spreadsheet, the cardinal points or the position north or south of the Equator are indicated with the capital letters S for North (Sln. sever) and J for South (Sln. jug).

The conversion from the decimal system into sexagesimal is simple (the example of converting the value 25.135° is provided in parentheses):

– The integer represents the degrees (25°),
– The remainder after the decimal point is multiplied by 60 (0.135 × 60 = 8.1),
– The integers represents the minutes (8′),
– The remainder after the decimal point is multiplied by 60 (0.1 × 60 = 6),
– The integer represents the seconds (6″; any decimal remainder in seconds was neglected).

**Column K: Longitude.** This column contains the longitudes of all the exonyms included. The values for individual settlements and territorial units were established using Google Earth and DNR Garmin software, and the GeoNamesweb portal (Internet 1).

Google Earth and DNR Garmin use decimal notation, whereas we decided to use the sexagesimal numeral system, which geographers and the public are more familiar with and which divides a given value into degrees, minutes, and seconds. In the case of large territorial units, the longitude of their centroids is provided.

We also changed the indications of the cardinal points. Google Earth and DNR Garmin indicate them by adding a plus or minus sign in front of the decimal number, in which east longitudes carry a plus sign, and west longitudes carry a minus sign. We indicated the cardinal points or the position east or west from the Prime Meridian with the capital letters V for East (Sln. vzhod) and Z for West (Sln. zahod).

The conversion from the decimal system into sexagesimal is simple (the example of converting the value 25.135° is provided in parentheses):

– The integer represents the degrees (25°),
– The remainder after the decimal point is multiplied by 60 (0.135 × 60 = 8.1),
– The integers represents the minutes (8′),
– The remainder after the decimal point is multiplied by 60 (0.1 × 60 = 6),
– The integer represents the seconds (6″; any decimal remainder in seconds was neglected).

**Column L: Exonymization type.** This column contains information on the typology of adapting the exonyms included to Slovenian. Several exonymization typologies have been worked out to date. The first detailed typology was developed in the 1970s by Moder for the *Great World Atlas* (1972, 396–397). His typological groups also take into account the pronunciation and are ordered from the smallest to the greatest degree of adaptation.

Studying the method and type of exonymization is demanding and also partly subjective. In addition to subjectivity, which makes it difficult to ensure completely identical results when classifying names into groups multiple times, the main problem in developing such typologies is classifying a specific exonym into a single type; due to simplifications, which should ensure sufficiently comprehensible categories, some types overlap and therefore individual names can be classified under several groups.

For the purposes of this exonym spreadsheet, we developed a modified version of Moder’s classification, which includes eleven types instead of nine that are ordered from the smallest to the greatest degree of exonymization:

**A. Only the first common noun element is translated, and the proper name that follows is left in its original form.** Typical examples are the following names: *globel Meteor* ‘Meteor Deep’, *hrbet Sala y Gómez* ‘Sala y Gómez Ridge’ (*Cadena de Sala y Gómez*), *jezero Hanka* ‘Lake Khanka’ (*озеро Xanka*), *mizasta gora Sylvania* ‘Sylvania Tablemount’, *otoki Bounty* ‘Bounty Islands’, *plošča Nazca* ‘Nazca Plate’, *prelom GOFAR* ‘GOFAR Fracture Zone’, *rt Correnti* ‘Cape Correnti’ (*Capo delle Correnti*), and *zemeljska ožina Kra* ‘Kra Isthmus’ (*Kor kót grà*).
B. The first common name element is translated, and the proper name that follows it is more or less adapted to Slovenian. Typical examples: goru Fuji‘Mount Fuji’ (Fujisan), jarek Ob‘Ob Trench’, jezero Abaja‘Lake Abaya’ (Abaya Hayk), oaza Karg‘Kharga Oasis’ (el-Karga), polotok Šantung‘Shandong Peninsula’ (Shändōng Bándào), prekopol Majna–Donava‘Main–Danube Canal’ (Main-Donau-Kanal), rt Komorin‘Kanyakumari’ (Kanyiyākumāri), and slana puščava Lut ‘Lut Desert’ (Dasht-e Lüt).

C. Adopted secondary original names. These include geographical names that differ from the official original names and can be borrowed in an unchanged, non-adapted form as colonial names, names from the past, names in the neighboring languages, and names from a Slavic language. Since they became widely used, they have been used exclusively or largely in this version, whereas the official forms of the names are only used for their unambiguous identification. Typical examples of this type of adaptation include the following names: Armenija‘Armenia’ (Hayastan), Benares‘Varanasi’ (Vārānasi), Bistrica‘Haliacmon River’ (Haliākmōn), Cejlon‘Sri Lanka’ (Śrī laṃkāva), El Obeid‘Al-Ubayyid’ (Al Ubayyiḏ), Harkov‘Kharkiv’, Kanton‘Guangzhou’ (Guāngzhōu), Kosovska Mitrovica‘Kosovska Mitrovica’ (Mitrovicë), Lemnos (Limnos), Pečuh‘Peć’, Sinkiang‘Xinjiang’ (Xīnjiāng), Tirana (Tiranë), Tripolis‘Tripoli’ (Ţărăbalus), and Železno‘Eisenstadt’.

D. Omitting special letter symbols, accent marks, and diacritical signs. Also in this adaptation type, the main principle is to remain as faithful to the original form as possible, but here the main issue is the letter, accent, and diacritics, which are omitted due to simplifications in printing and tradition, but here the main issue is that a letter, accent or diacritic is omitted due to simplifications in Slovenian printing, tradition, and pronunciation. For example, Bogota (Bogotá), Kabul (Kābul), Narjan Mar‘Naryn-Mar’ (Nyar’yana marq), Reykjavik (ReykJavik), Riga (Rīga), Gdansk‘Gdańsk’, and Iran (Iran).

E. Transliterated names with simplified letters and diacritics. This includes a large group of names that are transferred from non-Roman scripts (e.g., Cyrillic, Arabic, Hebrew, Devanagari, Chinese, and Japanese) into the Roman alphabet. In this process, we skip the intermediary language (French, English, German, and Russian) and any unusual phonetic representation (sh, sch, ch = š; oo, ou = u); for example, we write Pandžab instead of Punjab, Cejlon instead of Ceylon, and Sečuan instead of Sichuan. We also omit any long or short syllables markings, as already mentioned with the Roman alphabet: for example, Asuan (Aswān), and Tokio (Tokyō). Even greater adaptation linked to the written form has become common in the pronunciation of these names. They are pronounced like Slovene names, without any foreign flavor.

F. Transcribed names, partly with Slovenian endings. This group of exonyms is composed of “hybrids” partly resulting from the Slovenianization tendencies present in the previous two groups. It includes names with a Slovenianized ending (e.g., Tirana [Tiranë]), the root (e.g., in the pronunciation of Georgija ‘Georgia’), especially if the root is commonly known (e.g., from a personal name: Aleksandrija‘Alexandria’ [Al Iškandariyāh]) or it does not belong to the same language group (Indian and Spanish cities in North America, and native names in the former British, French, Portuguese, and Spanish colonies. They also include names such as Praga‘Prague’ (Praha), Pariz‘Paris’, and Varšava‘Warsaw’ (Varšava). The following basic principle applies to the entire group: the better the name is known, the longer it is present in Slovenian consciousness, and the more frequently it is used, the smaller the likelihood that its pronunciation will strictly copy the original form; instead it is simplified (especially the endings), which makes it easier to decline and to form its adjectival form.

G. Borrowed and adapted names. This group includes names borrowed from another language, Slovenianized, and adapted to Slovenian pronunciation (e.g., Abesinija‘Abbyssinia’ [from Italian Abissinia]) or Slovenian usage: Dniester‘Dniestër’ (Dniśter, Nistru), Hongkong‘Hong Kong’ (Xīānggǎo), Japonske Alpe‘Japanese Alps’ (Nihon Arupusu), Kašgar (Kāši/Qeşqer), Mizijski Olimp‘Uludağ’, Nahičevan‘Nakhchivan’ (Naxḵwan), Peč‘Peć’ (Pejë/Peja), Spisberg‘Svalbard’, Šenš‘Šenš Province’ (Šnansi Šeng), and Velika Vlaška‘Muntenia’ (Ţara Românească / Wallachia Mayor).


I. Phonetic form of the root with Slovenian endings. The next stage of adaptation is best seen in the names of numerous countries, continents, settlements, regions, and island groups. Here, an ideal harmony is achieved between the foreign root and Slovenian pronunciation, which means that the root is written completely phonetically and the endings are completely Slovenian. Examples: Portugalska

J. **Fully translated names.** This group includes full translations of endonyms. This stage no longer involves original official names that preserve the root, but only in the semantic sense. Examples: *Rdeče morje* ‘Red Sea’, *Plitvina lososov* ‘Salmon Bank’, *Nizozemska* ‘Netherlands’, *Veliko slano jezero* ‘Great Salt Lake’, *Skalno gorovje* ‘Rocky Mountains’, *Rt dobrega upanja* ‘Cape of Good Hope’. These names also include generally and partly borrowed foreign names, such as *Pacifik* ‘Pacific’, and *Mediterran* ‘Mediterranean’, and roots of heavily Slovenianized geographical names, such as in *Zahodnosibirsko nizávje* ‘West Siberian Plain’, *Nova Zelandija* ‘New Zealand’, *Nova Škotska* ‘Nova Scotia’, and *Novi južni Wales* ‘New South Wales’.

K. **Traditionally Slovenianized names (with a trace of the root).** This group is comprised of names in which the root can still be traced in places. Examples: the exonym *Rim* ‘Rome’ (Roma), *Benetke* ‘Venice’ (Venezia), and *Lipnica* ‘Leibnitz’.

L. **Slovenian names.** In the last group the root can no longer be traced because the names have been borrowed through other channels. Typical examples include *Dunaj* ‘Vienna’ (Wien), *Celovec* ‘Klagenfurt’ (according to Ramoviš’s etymology, the names *Celovec* and *Klagenfurt* most likely developed in parallel from ancient *Aquilita*) and *Videm* ‘Udine’.

**Column M: Status of the Slovenian exonym.** In this column, exonyms are defined in terms of the level of their standardization or, which is evident in the great majority of cases, their lack of standardization. A standardization procedure must be carried out in order for them to become standardized, whereby a detailed interdisciplinary analysis should be performed on the exonyms included in this document. The list of exonyms has been prepared as the basic material for greatly needed standardization, in which linguistics that are experts in geographical names must present their views and opinions in addition to geographers.

In addition to all of the geographical names in Slovenia, this stage of review has already been performed on all of the Slovenian exonyms denoting items and features in the nearby territories of the neighboring countries presented in the map *Državna pregledna karta Republike Slovenije, Standardizirana slovenska zemljepisna imena v meritu 1 : 250 000* (National Index Map of the Republic of Slovenia, Standardized Slovenian Geographical Names, 1:250,000) published in 2008 by the Surveying and Mapping Authority of the Republic of Slovenia. In neighboring countries, only geographical names outside officially recognized bilingual areas, where Slovenian names are endonyms, have the status of exonyms. Therefore, they are provided as exonyms in parentheses following the original forms of geographical names. After a detailed analysis, the Committee for the Standardization of Geographical Names of the Republic of Slovenia also standardized these names. Typical examples of standardized exonyms of this type include *Belo jezero* ‘Weiße See’, *Červigniano del Friuli’, *Karlovec* ‘Karlovac’, *Lipnica* ‘Leibnitz’, *Reka* ‘Rijeka’, and *Videm* ‘Udine’.

Even prior to this, in 2007, Slovenian names of all independent states were standardized in addition to the names of the most important dependent territories with a high level of autonomy, which could become independent if the majority of the population so decided and appropriate political decision were adopted. This group of standardized exonyms includes approximately 220 names.

**Column N: Recommended use.** We decided to use five main categories of recommended use of the Slovenian exonyms included in the spreadsheet. These should be regarded as an attempt to evaluate the overall corpus of foreign geographical names and highlight those names whose usage is practically obligatory or at least recommended. In addition, this can be used to eliminate any names whose use is not recommended, unnecessary, or even inappropriate. The categories are labeled with the following capital letters:

A: necessary
B: recommended
C: less recommended
D: not recommended or unnecessary
E: inappropriate

In determining the suitability of use, the following criteria were taken into account (listed in the order of importance):

- Grammatically correct form;
- Necessary in terms of international standards of using individual name types arising from UN resolutions (states, seas, uninhabited areas);
- Degree of proved accuracy of name in terms of its origin (correct adjectival use);
Traditional use of exonym;
Slovenian common noun elements in names have priority over foreign words;
Short forms have priority over long forms;
Distance from Slovenia;
Extensiveness of the area in which a specific name is used;
Importance of the name from a global perspective;
Role in forming any other geographical names.

It should be noted that this type of evaluation involves a great deal of subjectivity. In order to achieve better results, in addition to a detailed collective treatment a longer, more accurate path can also be used that can ensure greater objectivity through weighting. However, this approach is extremely time-consuming.

**Column O: Alternative exonym.** An alternative geographical name or allonym is “any of the two or several toponyms denoting a single topographic item” (Kladnik, Lovrenčak, & Orožen Adamič 2005); that is, a widely used form of the name that used to or continues to denote specific features and items, for which Slovenian exonyms are available.

Typical examples of these types of names that are also fairly widely used are Severno ledeno morje for the newer and more appropriate Arktični ocean ‘Arctic Ocean’, Pacifik and the older, now almost forgotten name Veliki ocean ‘Great Ocean’ for the leading exonym Tihi ocean ‘Pacific Ocean’, Nova zemlja for the semantically more appropriate exonym Nova dežela ‘Novaya Zemlya’, Sedmograška and Erdelj for the more modern exonym Transilvanija ‘Transylvania’, Sveta dežela ‘Holy Land’ for Palestina ‘Palestine’, Kapverdski otoki for Zelenorštinski otoki ‘Cape Verde’, and Gumin instead of the more established Slovenian name Humin for the Friulian town of Gemona del Friuli (Glemone). Even though some names such as the names for the Indian metropolitan cities Mumbai ‘Mumbai’ and Čenaj ‘Chennai’, formerly known as Bombay ‘Bombay’ and Madras, are only beginning to be established, new forms were given priority over older ones, which are nonetheless included in the spreadsheet as allonyms.

The list of alternative names remains fairly modest because more allonyms could definitely have been found if a more thorough approach had been used. If there are several established alternative exonyms available, they are separated with a slash.

**Column P: CIGALE’S ATLAS (1869–1877).** This column contains all the forms of Slovenian exonyms that appear in *Atlant* (Atlas), the first Slovenian world atlas that was published in six three-sheet fascicles by the Slovenian Society (*Matica slovenska*) from 1869 to 1877. Eighteen maps were thus printed altogether, showing the world and its individual parts. The maps have never been bound into a volume. Because individual sheets were frequently lost, these maps became fairly rare. The set of all the maps is even more difficult to find; the Ljubljana National and University Library only keeps two copies of it. It is interesting that in the set the maps are ordered thematically, from Slovenia outwards, rather than chronologically in the order of their actual publication as is the case in the facsimile version (*Atlant 2005*).

The editor’s role was assumed by the lawyer and linguist Matej Cigale (1819–1889), who also performed the pioneering work in Slovenianizing geographical names. Cigale lived in Vienna at the time, where he was in charge of Slovenian legal terminology and translations of laws, decrees, orders, and proclamations. He created the linguistic policy through geographical names, making Slovenian comparable to other European languages in countries with already well-developed cartography.

Due to the lack of examples in professional literature, which was still scant and incomplete at the time, Slovenianized names were the result of committed intellectual creation and certainly not uncritical borrowing from similar publications. This extremely difficult work in designing *Atlas* is indicated by the numerous inconsistent forms of names referring to the same feature that are separated with a slash in the table. This was mainly due to the intuitive approach and the time-consuming lithographic technology, which prevented Cigale from being more consistent and controlling his work more easily; the inconsistencies probably also resulted from his changed views over nearly a decade of developing *Atlas*.

**Column Q: OROŽEN’S SCHOOL ATLAS, 1902.** Šolski atlas (School Atlas) is an adapted version of Haardt’s atlas published in 1883. The editing of geographical names was first tackled by Simon Rutar, a geographer and historian from the Littoral region, but due to the phonetic transcription of the geographical names the ministry in charge did not approve his 1896 work. Because Rutar was unwilling to correct the criticized parts, the atlas was published a few years later in a reworked version by the historian and geographer Fran Orožen (1853–1912). The
atlas was reprinted twice (first in 1902), and was primarily intended for public schools in Carinthia and Styria with Slovenian as the language of instruction. In the two publications, Orožen further defined the criteria for writing foreign geographical names.

This atlas has a small format (25.5 × 16 cm) and contains fourteen color lithograph maps. They are ordered thematically from Slovenia outwards, towards nearby and more distant foreign countries. Given the total number of names used in the atlas, the rate of their exonymization is extremely great. Mainly, all of the geographical names that were also commonly translated by the Germans are provided in a Slovenianized form, whereas the majority of other names are given in the original form. The inconsistent use of names referring to the same feature is fairly frequent, in which the different names are separated with a slash; for example, Bismarckovo otočje and Bismarkovo otoče for the Bismarck Islands north of New Guinea, Bolsensko jezero and Bolzensko jezero for Lake Bolsena, and Belgrad and Beligrad for Belgrade.

**Column R: DE AGOSTINI SCHOOL ATLAS (1941).** Soon after the fascist occupation of Slovenia during the Second World War, the famous Italian cartographic publisher De Agostini from Novara decided to contribute its share to the Slovenian collection of atlases. It immediately published the *Zemljepisni atlas za srednje in njim sorodne šole* (Geographical Atlas for Secondary and Similar Schools) – that is, already during the year in which Slovenia was divided between Germany, Hungary, and Italy, and the Province of Ljubljana was established. The atlas’ subtitle states that it is composed of “fifty-six mathematical, physical, political, and economic geographical maps with 350 copperplate engravings.” With its thematic and graphic diversity, the 33 × 24 cm atlas represents a great cartographic achievement of the mid-twentieth century; in various aspects, it outmatched every single atlas published in Yugoslavia during the first decades following the Second World War.

Its chief editor was Luigi Visintin, the research head of the De Agostini Geographical Institute. The Slovenian edition was adapted by Valter Bohinec (1898–1984) in cooperation with fellow geographers Ciril Bernot, France Planina, and Roman Savnik. Bohinec had studied in Vienna, Zagreb, Naples, Heidelberg, and Ljubljana. In 1921, he received his PhD and thus became the first associate of the University of Ljubljana’s Geographical Institute with a PhD. From 1936 to 1942, he worked as assistant professor of regional geography at the University of Ljubljana. He produced a number of school wall and pocket maps, school atlases, wall maps of Slovenia, and tourism and road maps of Slovenia with Istria. He made an invaluable contribution to the preparation and development of secondary-school geographical textbooks.

All of the names are provided in only one language, which means they are either Slovenianized or provided in the original. The rate of exonymization decreases with the maps’ scale. It is thus the greatest on large-scale maps of the world and continents, and the smallest on regional maps. Despite extensive exonymization of geographical names, the nearly absolute prohibition of Slovenianizing place names and land hydronyms in Italy is very striking. The editor was only allowed to Slovenianize the names of two cities written as doublets: *Benetke/Venezia* and *Rim/Roma*. They both disappeared in the second edition of the atlas. A significantly higher rate of Slovenianization was allowed for other areas, including the Italian ally Germany. The main weakness of exonymization in De Agostini’s school atlas is the multitude of allonyms that were most likely created due to haste. They can be easily overlooked when glancing quickly through the atlas, but are rather distracting upon closer inspection of the names.

**Column S: MEDVED’S GREAT WORLD ATLAS (1972).** *Veliki atlas sveta* (Great World Atlas) is considered the first modern Slovenian world atlas and was published in 1972 by Mladinska Knjiga publishers. The cartographic bases for the topographic maps were obtained from the London-based publisher Aldus Book, which published the *New Relief World Atlas*, and the bases for the thematic maps were obtained from the German Bertelsmann Cartographic Institute. The *Great World Atlas* was published in Slovenian only once, whereas it turned out to be a bestseller in Serbia and Croatia, where it was reprinted fifteen times (last in 1988).

Its main author was Jakob Medved (1926–1978), who specialized in agricultural geography, and taught methods of geographical instruction and regional geography as a university professor. Medved’s right-hand man was the editor at Mladinska Knjiga and fellow geographer Borut Ingolič (1939–), and an important contribution was also made by the journalist and translator Janko Moder (1914–2006), who published the first systematic explanation of how geographical names are written and pronounced in Slovenian as part of this atlas (Moder 1972).

The *Great World Atlas* is also the first Slovenian atlas with an index of names, which shows that its maps include approximately 25,000 geographical names. Because the names in the Roman alphabet are written in their original form, and the names from non-Roman scripts are transliterated in line with the transliteration rules of that time, this atlas represents a big step forward compared to its predecessors.

**Column T: GREAT FAMILY WORLD ATLAS (1992, 1996).** Veliki družinski atlas sveta (Great Family World Atlas) was published in 1992 by Državna Založba Slovenije and is still considered one of the best atlases published in Slovenian. It is an adapted version of Grande Atlante Geografico, published by the Italian cartographic press Istituto Geografico De Agostini of Novara. In addition to its esthetically outstanding cartography, it is also distinguished by its international character, reflected in the extensiveness and systematicity of geographical names, especially in providing all of the versions of names referring to geographical features extending across several countries.

Because this atlas was a great marketing success, but the forms of Russian names in the first edition did not meet international transliteration standards, a second, revised edition was published in 1996 entitled Veliki atlas sveta (Great World Atlas). Due to the (overly) slow adaptation of the Italian publishing industry to the new linguistic circumstances, the second edition still contains inconsistencies regarding the forms of names in the majority of countries in the former Soviet Union: Ukraine, Belarus, Moldova, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kirghizstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Uzbekistan. The first edition was edited by the geographers Milan Orožen Adamič (1946–) and Drago Kladnik (1955–), and the journalist and translator Janko Moder (1914–2006). The geographer Drago Perko (1961–) joined the editorial board for the second edition.

All of the names on the world maps and the maps of continents are provided in only one language, which means they are either Slovenianized or given in the original forms. The rate of exonymization is great in these maps. The exonyms on the maps of the world and the continents repeat on regional maps. However, here they are provided in bilingual forms, almost without exception and regardless of the semantic type; the original name is provided first, followed by the Slovenian name in smaller font. Only the exonyms of historical regions are provided only in Slovenian. The rate of exonymization on regional maps is much lower. If geographical features extend across several countries or linguistic areas, their names are provided in several languages. This principle has only been used in this atlas and shows that authors sought to make the less established and less known languages equal to the major world languages. Due to its detailed presentation of undersea features, the atlas is an invaluable collection of names of a wide variety of undersea features, which are of course exonymized due to their extraterritorial nature. The index of names includes nearly 100,000 geographical names. Its special feature is the valuable multilingual forms of many geographical names. In addition to the original form of the geographical name, the Slovenian version (if known) and any English, German, French, and Spanish versions are provided.

**Column U: ATLAS 2000.** Atlas sveta 2000 (2000 World Atlas) was published at the end of the second millennium as an adaptation of Die Welt, Atlas International issued by the publisher RV Reise- und Verkehrsverlag. It is the result of many years of work performed by nearly 100 cartographers, geographers, and other associates of the Bertelsmann Cartographic Institute. The company Natek in Ostali d.n. was responsible for preparing the Slovenian edition, which means that the geographical names were translated and adapted by the geographers Karel Natek (1952–) and Marjeta Natek (1955–). It was published by Mladinska Knjiga.

This is the first atlas in Slovenian that shows all of the world’s continents, except for Antarctica, at a uniform and extremely detailed 1:4,500,000 scale. This means that, compared to other atlases, it shows Europe very roughly, whereas it presents the rest of the world with a significantly higher precision. This is also the first time that the names referring to the countries of the former Soviet Union are reasonably correctly provided in the languages of the majority population there.

There are only a few different exonyms on the maps. For greater cost-effectiveness, the Slovenian publisher defined the number of exonyms in advance (one needs to take into account that some names occur on several maps) because any changes in the agreed-upon number would incur additional costs. This forced the editors to adopt an extremely economical approach but, because they were aware that the total number of exonyms
denoting foreign geographical features and topographic objects was significantly larger than the norms set in advance, they included some of the exonyms by only adding them to the index of names. The exonymization rate and the forms of Slovenianized and other multilingual names differ considerably between both types of maps in the atlas. On large-scale maps of the world, a large portion of the names on land and sea are exonymized, and all of the names of undersea features are exonymized. All of the names are provided in one language, either in the Slovenianized or original form. The names of large relief and landscape units that cover several countries are exonymized, whereas in Antarctica only the names of major regions are exonymized. Allonyms of Slovenian exonyms are relatively frequent and separated with a slash in the table.

**Column V: MONDE NEUF (2003).** In 2003, the Ljubljana-based cartographic enterprise Monde Neuf d.o.o., which was established by the cartographers Damir and Denis Šehić, published the *Geografski atlas sveta za šole* (School Geographic Atlas). This is essentially the first Slovenian-only product and is regarded as the first new school atlas in the third millennium. The Šehić brothers designed and produced this atlas completely on their own. The material was reviewed and edited by the geographer Franc Lovrenčak (1940–). At first glance, the 33.5 × 23.5 cm *School Geographic Atlas* is a perfectly fine product. In addition to topographic maps referred to as physical maps, it also contains systematically arranged thematic maps. It concludes with a subject index, which is supposed to include all of the geographical names used in the physical maps of the world, continents, and Slovenia; at least this is what it says in the introduction. The index of names includes fifteen pages of approximately 4,200 geographical names in a sufficiently large font; one quickly realizes that many geographical names from all over the world are missing without any working it out systematically.

The physical maps contain more settlement names than the political maps, which is unusual. As a rule, the names on the maps of continents or their parts, and regional maps are provided bilingually; the original name is provided first followed by the Slovenian name in parentheses (in somewhat smaller font for the names of settlements, and for the names of islands in small letters after larger letters). In principle, there are so many problems and inconsistencies that they cannot be explained by looking at just one map. Only the names of countries and seas are provided consistently as exonyms (if available). The way in which geographical names, both original and Slovenianized, are provided is at an extremely low level of quality. There are numerous mistakes, which can also be seen in the column with exonyms, and even more clearly when comparing them to the forms used in other atlases listed in the adjacent columns. In addition, it is full of inconsistent forms, which is reflected in numerous doublets. There is a lack of systematicity in exonymization; for example, nearly all of the names of capes, bays, straits, and lakes, even the smallest and completely unimportant ones, are translated.

**Column W: MLADINSKA KNJIGA SCHOOL ATLAS (2005).** *Atlas sveta za osnovne in srednje šole* (Primary and Secondary–School World Atlas) is the most widely used Slovenian atlas, and a true best seller. At first it was a required textbook but, when several competitive school atlases recently appeared on the liberalized market, it preserved its leading status due to its undisputable content-related quality. It was first published in 1979 under the editorship of Jakob Medved (1926–1978). It was reprinted several times until its complete redesign in 2002. Karel Natek (1952–) was appointed the editor and the geographer Bibijana Mihevc (1955–) was in charge of the translation and adaptation of geographical names. This column includes the Slovenian exonyms from its fourth edition published in 2005.

The German publisher Westermann Schulbuchverlag GmbH provided the majority of non-Slovenian cartographic bases, and the rest were provided by the Slovenian Mapping and Surveying Authority, the Surveying and Mapping Institute of Slovenia, Monde Neuf d.o.o., and Printa d.o.o.

The accompanying text on how to write geographical names also contains the following explanation: “Because exonyms – that is, old, traditional names – are part of the Slovenian lexicon and world view, we consistently provided them in parentheses next to the original names; for example, Wien (Dunaj) ‘Vienna’, Venezia (Benetke) ‘Venice’, Roma (Rim) ‘Rome’, and Paris (Pariz). A careful user will quickly notice the difference between the general maps, where this principle was consistently followed, and the economic and other large-scale thematic maps, where these names are only provided in the Slovenian form; for example, Dunaj ‘Vienna’, Benetke ‘Venice’, Firence ‘Florence’, Rim ‘Rome’, and Neapely “Naples.” Even though the *Primary and Secondary-School World Atlas* is a high-quality product in every respect, many deficiencies or even mistakes can be detected upon closer inspection.

**Column X: GREAT WORLD ATLAS (2005).** Even though in some way the *Veliki atlas sveta* (Great World Atlas) is the successor to the *Veliki družinski atlas sveta* (DZS 1992) and the note “revised edition” is added to
its title, it is actually a completely new product. The former analogue cartography is completely replaced by
digital cartography, there are differences in content, design, and maps, and the principles of writing geographical
names are also partly different. This atlas is the translated and adapted version of the Atlante della Terra (World
Atlas), which was produced and published in 2002 by the Italian cartographic publisher Istituto Geografico De
Agostini. Because it was printed in international co-production, approximately one-third of the maps are missing
in the Slovenian version, especially more detailed presentations of areas outside Europe. It was published by
DZS. The translations and adaptations were made by Mauro Hrvatin (1962–), Drago Kladnik (1955–), and
Drago Perko (1961–) at the ZRC SAZU Anton Melik Geographical Institute. Drago Kladnik edited the
geographical names outside Slovenia.

All of the geographical names on the maps of the world, the Arctic, the Antarctic, and the oceans are provided
only in one language, either in the Slovenianized form or original form. The principle of using exonyms is
completely different on the regional maps showing parts of continents, but consistent through the entire atlas.
The majority of exonyms within individual countries are provided in parentheses next to the original names. On
land, exclusively Slovenian names (if they differ from the original names) are only used for countries, historical
regions, and historical settlements. The names of geographical features spanning several countries or two
neighboring countries are usually only provided in Slovenian. This principle also predominates with the names
of sea hydronyms with one significant exception: the bays inside the territorial waters of individual countries are
provided bilingually, in which the exonym is provided in parentheses next to the original name. One should also
note the use of names in official bilingual areas, where the names of settlements and administrative units are
provided in both official languages and separated with a slash.

The political maps use either Slovenianized forms or original forms of geographical names, which is why it is
very difficult to distinguish the exonyms from the original names and, in order to do so, one must use the index
of names or look at the regional maps. The names used in officially bilingual areas are only provided in the
language of the majority population in the country. The index of names also lists certain exonyms that are not
included on the maps.

Column Y: OTHER. This column contains exonyms collected from other sources, among which the Great
General Encyclopedia and the Slovenian Normative Guide are the most prominent.

The Great General Encyclopedia (1997 and 1998) was published in eight volumes and is the translated and
adapted version of the German work Der Knauer – Universallexikon in 15 Bänden published by VS Verlagshaus
Stuttgart GmbH & Co. Despite being essentially based on the Great Family World Atlas (1992), the exonyms in
it were created relatively independently under careful copyediting supervision. The encyclopedia also lists many
names of historical settlements and regions as entries that are not usually included in geographic atlases. We
only took into account the geographical names printed in bold as independent headwords because there are many
more exonyms elsewhere in the encyclopedia. Criticism in using geographical names can be directed at
excessive translation of some lesser known geographical names and to the poorly worked-out formation of
adjectives from proper names in multiword names of geographical features in Africa, especially the names of
lakes and mountain ranges.

The latest edition of the Slovenian Normative Guide was published in 2001 by ZRC Press (Založba ZRC SAZU).
It was issued by the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts, and the Fran Ramovš Institute of the Slovenian
Language. From a geographical perspective, a detailed review showed a significant number of deficiencies
among the exonyms used as dictionary entries, both due to the unclear selection and inappropriate definition of
the types of geographical names, and occasionally even inappropriate forms. The list of geographical names
included in the dictionary part of the guide is comprehensive and, in addition to geographical aspects, primarily
reflects a cultural and historical orientation. The normative guide also contains a fairly large group of
mythological, imaginary, and legendary geographical names, and also lists several archaic names, such as
and Tarent ‘Taranto’.

Column Z: English name. This column contains the English forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They
were largely obtained from the English Wikipedia, which is at a remarkably high level of quality. Many forms of
the names denoting undersea features were obtained from specialized web portals (Internet 11 and Internet 12).
If several equivalent English names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original
name is in English, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the English name is the same as the
original name in another language, none is entered in the field. In exceptional cases, a dash (–) appears in the
field, which means we were unable to find the English equivalent of the name. The column also contains the
English names of all extraterritorial features, among which the majority refer to undersea features and Antarctica.

**Column AA**: French name. This column contains the French forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the French Wikipedia, which is at a high level of quality. If several equivalent French names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in French, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the French name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the French equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AB**: German name. This column contains the German forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the German Wikipedia, which is at a high level of quality. If several equivalent German names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in German, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the German name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the German equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AC**: Spanish name. This column contains the Spanish forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the Spanish Wikipedia, which is at a relatively high level of quality. If several equivalent Spanish names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in Spanish, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the Spanish name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the Spanish equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AD**: Russian name. This column contains the Russian forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the Russian Wikipedia, which is at a high level of quality. Because Russian uses Cyrillic, we transliterated these names into the Roman alphabet in line with the Russian Romanization key. If several equivalent Russian names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in Russian, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the Russian name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the Russian equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AE**: Italian name. This column contains the Italian forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the Spanish Wikipedia, which is at a relatively high level of quality. We also checked and added names using the 2002 Italian world atlas published by De Agostini. If several equivalent Italian names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in Italian, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the Italian name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the Italian equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AF**: Croatian name. This column contains the Croatian forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the Croatian Wikipedia, which is at a relatively low level of quality, but nonetheless better than the Slovenian version. If several equivalent Croatian names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in Croatian, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the Croatian name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the Croatian equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AG**: Hungarian name. This column contains the Hungarian forms of the Slovenian exonyms included. They were largely obtained from the Hungarian Wikipedia, which is at an average level of quality. We also checked and added names using the 1995 Hungarian world atlas published by Cartographia. If several equivalent Hungarian names are provided, they are separated with a slash. In cases in which the original name is in Hungarian, the value 0 is entered in the corresponding field and, if the Hungarian name is the same as the original name in another language, ni ‘none’ is entered in the field. A dash (–) is used in cases in which we were unable to find the Hungarian equivalent of the Slovenian exonym.

**Column AH**: Etymology. This column provides the etymology and meaning for the majority of the exonyms included, which is exceptionally important for the correct formation of their Slovenian names. In determining the etymology, we largely relied on the book Placenames of the World (Room 2006), which contains 6,600 entries, and the etymological explanations provided in Wikipedia, especially its English version, but also German, French, and Russian versions; we rarely used the Spanish and Italian versions.
The etymological aspects of the names of countries were checked in a special Wikipedia article (Internet 13). The English Wikipedia also contains the list of names of prominent people from the English-speaking environment (Internet 14) after whom specific geographical features are named; these lists also include the names of prominent researchers (Internet 15) and research vessels (Internet 16) after which numerous land, sea, and submarine features around the world have been named. Two documents available online (Internet 17 and Internet 18) proved especially helpful in determining the etymology of undersea features, and the web portal of the Australian Antarctic Data Centre proved most effective in finding the etymology of seamounts (Internet 19). The English Wikipedia systematically lists the origin of nearly all major geographical names in Antarctica and the Arctic, and a great deal of the missing information was obtained from older online books on polar explorations (Internet 20 and Internet 21), as well as a number of other documents on the Internet that we discovered by searching for the origin of individual names. For many geographical names we prepared the etymological explanation ourselves because they were sufficiently unambiguous that we could draw reliable conclusions. We could not satisfactorily explain the etymology of approximately 10% of the names; this is indicated with a dash (–).

Column AI: Notes. This column contains various interesting facts connected with a specific exonym.

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