

Placenames Australia

Newsletter of the Australian National Placenames Survey

an initiative of the Australian Academy of Humanities, supported by the Geographical Names Board of NSW



Jervis Bay ~ ~

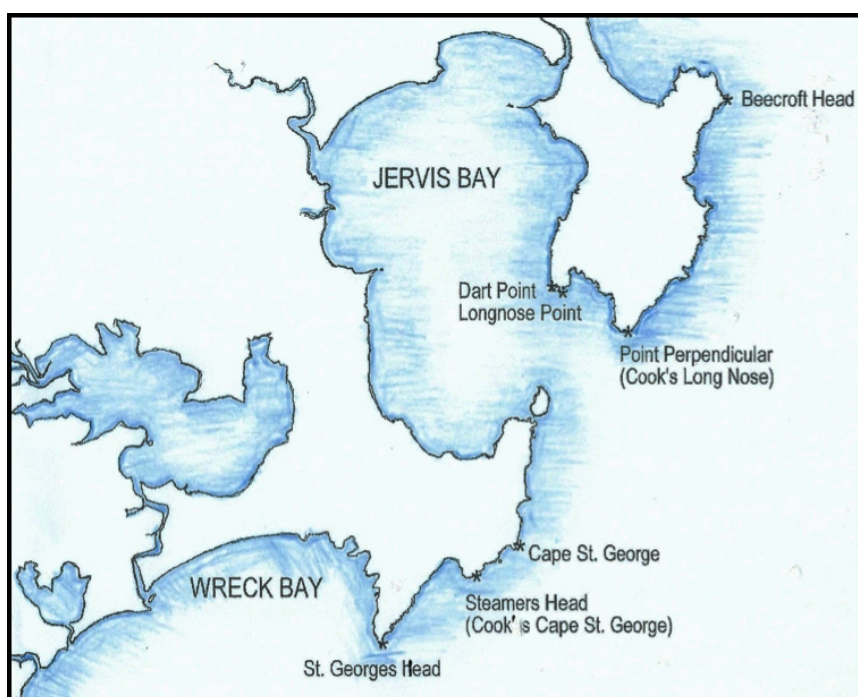
what Lt James Cook really named

Previous issues of *Placenames Australia* have identified features on the coasts of Victoria and New South Wales, named by Lieutenant James Cook in 1770, which appear in the wrong place on today's maps and charts.¹ Cape St George and Long Nose at Jervis Bay, near Nowra, New South Wales, are two more of these misplaced capes. Considerable confusion still exists about what Cook saw and named there.

By the time *Endeavour* reached Australia's eastern shores the crew had been at sea for nearly two years and were 'sighing for roast beef'. Cook had no time for a close survey of this unexplored and uncharted coast. With speed the essence, the safety of the ship required sailing well out to sea to avoid running on to unknown inshore shoals or a lee shore. Hence most of the features which Cook described and named are elevated and distinctive, standing out from the wooded coast and hills of the hinterland. Lack of appreciation of the distance Cook was sailing from the shore has been a major reason for later misplacement of the features he named at Jervis Bay. A secondary reason has been ambiguity arising from Cook's use of the word 'point'.

On the 24th of April 1770 *Endeavour's* journal records:

...being then by obserⁿ in the Lat^{de} of 35 degrees 10 minutes S and Long^{de} 208 degrees 51 minutes W. A point of land which I named Cape St George we having discover'd it on that Saints day, bore West distant 19 Miles ...²



Jervis Bay toponyms on today's map (Map by Shibu Dutta)

On 25th of April the journal records:

About 2 Leagues to the northward of Cape St George the Shore seems to form a bay which appeared to be shelterd from the NE winds but as we had the wind it was not in my power to look into it... The north

continued page 3

From the Editor



it's *jur-vuhs*.)

In other stories in this issue, Paul Geraghty completes his round dozen on Fiji toponyms; Jan Tent looks

I have to congratulate Trevor Lipscombe, the writer of our lead article: he managed to complete the whole piece and said not a word about how to pronounce *Jervis Bay*! (My advice: if you're Navy it's *jah-vuhs*, if you're civvie

at some names given by early explorers to parts of Australia, especially to the coastal regions; and in his Toponymy 101 series, Jan also reveals how placenames are often coined.

Jan's article on coastal regions originally had some first-class material in it that was just too long to fit here. So we've published it (along with Part 1 from last issue) as an *Occasional Paper*. See page 11 below for more details.

David Blair
<editor@anps.org.au>

We recommend...

Bev McGuinness has kindly sent us a copy of her latest book:

What's in a name: roads and parks, rivers and hills in the Shire of Denmark, Western Australia. (Osborne Park, WA: Cinnamon Coloureds, 2015)

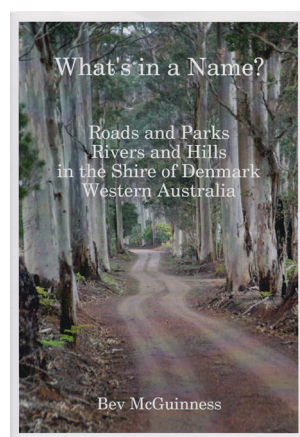
The book is a very fine historical record, with maps and photographs, of the Denmark area and its placenames.

The Denmark River, by the way, was named by a surgeon of the Royal Navy, T.B. Wilson, who was exploring the area in December 1829; he named it in honour of his friend and colleague Dr Alexander Denmark, a physician to the fleet. A townsite was formally declared in 1909,

although a settlement with the name of *Denmark* had existed there for some years.

The book provides an excellent resource for those interested in the history of the Albany area, and is now a valued item in the ANPS Resource Collection.

Interested in having your own copy? Email the Editor and we'll put you in touch with Bev.



Notes and queries

IN or ON (again)

Chris Woods responded to this query by noting that the alternatives operate within street addresses too. While you can live 'in Smith St' (and certainly 'in Smith Close'), you have to live 'on Smith Highway'. The *on* choice seems to be the preferred one for streets, avenues and roads. We agree that the choice seems to depend on the size of the thoroughfare, but we also wonder whether Australian usage is now influenced by the US practice of using *on* for street addresses.

Shibboleths

Rick Johnson has noted that only the locals know how to pronounce *Daroubalgie* (near Forbes in the NSW

Central West). Our uninformed guess would have been <darra-BAL-ji>, but apparently the right answer is <duh-ROO-buhl-ghi>. Rick has since found a local who pronounces it <dah-roo-gal-bie>; make of that what you will!

Adventures in Cultural Toponymy

Chris Woods couldn't help wondering, since PETA objected to *Eggs and Bacon Bay* (last issue), were they next going to attack *Bacon Creek*, *Mt Beef*, *Chicken Island* and *Pork Chop Gully*? He reminds non-Tasmanians that the widow of the late Premier is the delightfully named Honey Bacon, and suggests that she'd better stay clear of PETA and vegan activists!

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...Jervis Bay: what Cook really named

...from page 1

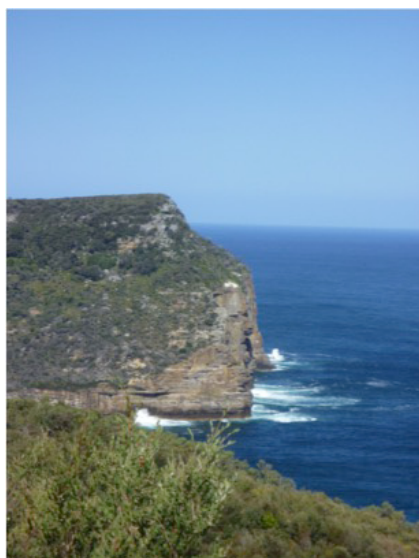
point of this bay on account of its figure I named Long Nose, Latitude 35 degrees 4 minutes S.

The most distinctive feature of the entrance to Jervis Bay is the northern head, a sheer cliff face more than 80 metres high, meeting the bay at today's Point Perpendicular. Cook's chart and journal show that he was three or four leagues offshore, between 16 and 22 kilometres. From that distance he would have been able to clearly see Point Perpendicular but not today's Longnose Point, a low peninsula about three kilometres to its north west. Point Perpendicular is the feature that Cook saw and named as *Long Nose*.

Today's Cape St George is at much the same latitude as Cook places it, 35° 10' S. It is a low grassy point about 40 metres above the sea. Cook puts it at 19 nautical miles due west of his noon position on 24 April 1770 which was 35° 10' S.

However if *Endeavour* was 19 nautical miles east of today's Cape St George the cape would barely have been visible because of the curvature of the earth. Assuming the cape was viewed from 18 metres up in the rigging of the ship and the ship was 19 nautical miles from the cape, the first 31 metres of the 40m cape would be below the horizon.³ Cook could not have seen today's Cape St George from 19 nautical miles.

So what did Cook see and name? There seems little doubt that it was a feature marked on today's maps as Steamers Head. This lies about two kilometres south west of today's Cape St George. A high and distinctive cliff with a sheer golden sandstone face, it would have stood out as a feature on this otherwise relatively low lying coast where trees



Steamers Head from Brooks Lookout
(photo: Trevor Lipscombe)

and scrub run down to the shore. Indeed this is the highest sea cliff on the New South Wales coast at 135m, and far higher than the coast to either side of it. From 19 miles out to sea it would appear as a 100m cliff.

How did Cape St George and Long Nose come to be in the wrong place on today's maps, and where did today's St Georges Head, still regarded by some as Cook's Cape St George, come from?



Point Perpendicular from seaward with Longnose Point beyond. The far shore of the bay can just be seen at the top of the photo.

(photo: Brian Kendrick, www.lightstormphotography.com.au)

Confusion about the whereabouts of Cape St George and Long Nose begins with the earliest explorers after Cook, and today's errors have their origins before 1800. Some of these misplacements may be explained by Cook's use of the term 'point of land' which suggests a projection or peninsula, but the term could also be construed as a place, as in 'a point on the route'. This has not stopped people going in search of projections or peninsulas to which to attach Cook's names.

Following his whaleboat voyage along this coast in 1797-8 George Bass decided that today's Longnose Point was the 'Long Nose' of James Cook:

...it must be readily granted by any one who has seen the place that when to the southward of the bay, which was Capt. Cook's situation when he speaks of Long Nose as forming its northern extremity, then Point Perpendicular has no visible appearance of a projection or point, but seems to be in a line with the rest of the cliffs; whereas Cuckold's Point, as Capt. Bowen has called it, is so conspicuous as not to fail of being remarked as a point, notwithstanding its being some distance within the entrance of the bay. It may therefore, I imagine, be fairly concluded that the Cuckold's Point of Capt. Bowen is the Long Nose Point of Capt. Cook...⁵

Bass's 'Long Nose Point' (note that he has added 'point' to Cook's name) is indeed a point but it is very low lying and could not have been seen by Cook from his position far out to sea. Bass's error was perpetuated on Admiralty charts by

continued next page

...Jervis Bay: what Cook really named

...from previous page

Flinders (1801) and Stokes (1852) and has appeared on hydrographic charts to this day.⁵ The few modern accounts by historians of the area that mention the feature also accept Bass's placement of Cook's Long Nose (Jervis 1936; Pleaden 1990).

Over the years Cape St George has appeared on maps in a variety of places and guises, as *Cape George*, *St Georges Cape*, *St George Head* and *St Georges Head*. Today's maps show both *Cape St George* and *St Georges Head*, both still advanced as the location Cook named. He named neither of them.

Cook's use of the word 'point' may also have influenced the naming of St Georges Head, a point or peninsula about four kilometres south west of Steamers Head and the eastern point of Wreck Bay. It first appeared on land maps following settlement of the area in the 1830s and seems likely to have resulted from land-based exploration—Cook had written of a point, Cape St George was not a point, and this must be it. This feature is certainly a point at the end of a peninsula but it is very low lying and would not be visible at any distance from the shore.

Along with Cape St George, Stokes first placed St George Head on Admiralty charts in 1851 where it remains today.⁶ The National Trust of Australia (in Taylor 1988, p. 22) assert that Cook 'gave the name *St George Head* [the official name is now *St Georges Head*] to the northern point of the bay to the south, later named *Wreck Bay*'. The book is one of very few published accounts of Jervis Bay's history and heritage and is still an important source of information.

The Australian Government's Department of Infrastructure and Regional Development's website page on Jervis Bay history, apparently using the National Trust publication as their source, describes Cook's 1770 sighting: 'Captain Cook sighted Jervis Bay and named St George's Head...' ⁶ However this website correctly describes Point Perpendicular as being Cook's *Long Nose*.

Bass, to his credit, was the first to record that today's Steamers Head was Cook's Cape St George, though he did not realise this until he returned from his voyage:

...at about the distance to the southward of Jervis Bay which Capt. Cook fixes his Cape George, there is a high mountainous point or cape that forms the northern extreme of the bight at the back of which the Pidgeon House is situated. About 2 miles to the southward of this

cape I had an observation which gave latitude 35.14, but I then had no idea of its being Cape George...⁷

This describes Steamers Head in terms of both its physical appearance and its position on the coast. Bass's observed latitude is not two but about three and a half nautical miles south of Steamers Head. Bass's latitudes are understandably approximate as his observations were taken from a small pitching vessel, and his estimation of the distance is a qualified one. Unfortunately Bass's placement of Cape St George at Steamers Head has never influenced maps or charts.

Endnotes

¹ See for example: Rupert Gerritsen, 'A Dangerous Point: Fingal Head and Point Danger', *Placenames Australia*, June 2013; Trevor Lipscombe, 'Rame Head – misnamed and misplaced', *Placenames Australia*, September 2013; Trevor Lipscombe, 'Point Hicks (Cape Everard): James Cook's Australian Landfall', *Placenames Australia*, September 2014.

² Cook's journal entries are as in Beaglehole (1955, pp. 302-3). An alternative transcription may be found in the *South Seas* archive of the National Library of Australia, at <http://southseas.nla.gov.au/journals/cook/about.html>

³ For calculations see www.cactus2000.de/uk/unit/masshor.shtml, retrieved 2 January, 2017.

⁴ 'Mr Bass's Journal in the Whaleboat, between 3rd of December, 1797 and the 25th of February, 1798'. *Historical Records of New South Wales (HRNSW)*. Volume 3, p. 332.

⁵ See for example: *Crawford's Mariners Atlas: Jervis Bay to Port Stephens*, (2008). Adelaide: Australian Hydrographic Service. Charts 1 and 35.

⁶ *Jervis Bay Territory History*. Retrieved 2 January, 2017, from http://regional.gov.au/territories/jervis_bay/history.aspx

⁷ Bass, *HRNSW*. Volume 3, p. 333.

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Trevor Lipscombe

Toponymy 101

F: How to coin a toponym

In this instalment of our Toponymy 101 series, we look at the linguistic processes of name formation. It is an extension of the Toponymy 101 B instalment (March 2016) in which we examined the word structure of toponyms.

New placenames can be formed by the very common process of description (e.g. *Coldwater Creek*, *Rocky Plain*, *Round Mountain*, etc.) or by naming features after someone or something (e.g. *Mt Kosciuszko*, *Powerline Creek*, etc.),¹ but this is not what I want to discuss here.

Living languages are ever evolving—spelling changes over time as does pronunciation and grammar, words fall into disuse, meanings change, and new words are added to the language. A language that does not undergo such changes is a dead language (like Latin or Sanskrit). So, how do new words or names enter into a language? There are a number of linguistic processes.

1 Borrowing is a very common process. This is where Language X adopts or copies a word from Language Y. English is a prolific borrower of words and toponyms. Examples of borrowed toponyms in Australia include: *Waitara* (< Māori), *Malua Bay* (< Polynesian), *Lakemba* (< Fijian *Lakeba*), *Zeehan* (< Dutch *Zeehaen* ‘gurnard/sea robin’, and the name of one of Tasman’s ships), *Cape Adieu* (< French *Cap Adieu*), *Sans Souci* (< French ‘without a care’). And of course all our Australian placenames of Indigenous origin are ‘borrowed’.

1.1 A sub-class of borrowing is the **calque**; that is, a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word translation. Examples include: *Steep Point* (< Dutch *Steijle Houck*), *Swan River* (< Dutch *Zwaan Rivier*), *Two Peoples Bay* (< French *Baie des deux Peuples*), and *Rosedale* (< German *Rosenthal*).

2 Coinage is a creative method of crafting new words or names. An example of a coined personal name is *Vanessa*, said to be created by Jonathan Swift by blending parts of his friend Esther Vanhomrigh’s name. There are a number of linguistic processes by which new names may be coined.²

2.1 Abbreviation

2.1.1 Initialisms, e.g. *M M Beach* (< ‘Metal Manufactures’), *B A Creek*, *J D Swamp*.

2.1.2 Acronyms, formed by taking the initial letters or syllables of a phrase and forming a new word or name, e.g. *Anzac Hill*, *Soweto* (< ‘South West Townships’ in South Africa), and the unofficial names of the re-purposed neighbourhoods of New York: *SoHo* (< ‘South of Houston Street’), *TriBeCa* (< ‘Triangle

Below Canal Street’), *DUMBO* (< ‘Down Under the Manhattan Bridge Overpass’), *NoHo* (< North of Houston Street’), *Nolita* (< North of Little Italy’) and *NoMad* (< ‘North of Madison Square’).

2.1.3 Clipping is shortening or abbreviating a word or name by removing one or more syllables/words to create a new one.³ *Los Angeles* (< El Pueblo de Nuestra Señora la Reina de los Ángeles de Porciúncula).⁴

2.2 Affixation, the addition of one or more affixes (suffixes and/or prefixes) to a root, as in the word *affixation* itself (Latin *affixat* + *ion*). Examples include: *Tasmania*, *Hornsbys*, *Humula* (‘Hume’ + *-ula* ‘Latin diminutive’⁵).

2.3 Blending, forming a name by joining parts of two or more words/names: *Lidcombe* (< ‘Lidbury’ + ‘Larcombe’), *Kurmond* (< ‘Kurrajong’ + ‘Richmond’), *Australind* (< ‘Australia’ + ‘India’), *Belrose* (‘Christmas bell’ + ‘native rose’), *Wangara* (< ‘Wanneroo’ + ‘Gnangara’).⁶

2.4 Compounding, forming a name from two or more words: *Cooktown*, *Forestville*, *Lucyvale*, *Castlecrag*, *New Lambton*.

2.5 Grammatical Conversion, the change of a word from one part of speech to another: *Manly* (< adjective to noun), *Cape Upstart* (< verb to adjective/noun).

2.6 Deliberate **respelling** of a name to create a new one, common with house and property names: the house names *Emohruo* / *Emoh Ruo* (< ‘Our Home’), *Erehwon* (< ‘Now Here’/‘Nowhere’), *Wy-wurrie* (< ‘Why Worry’), *Dunroamin* (< ‘Done Roaming’); as well as the Victorian township *Nangiloc* (< ‘Colignan’).⁷

2.7 Neologising, the process of coining a totally new word or name: *Longreach* (< the ‘long reach’ of the nearby Thomson River), *Killcare* (< estate name based on ‘forget your worries’ in the vein of *Sans Souci*), *Vrilya Point*.⁸ The best known examples are from literature: *Hogwarts*, *Narnia*, *Lake Wobegon*, *Brobdingnag*, *Rohan*, among others.

2.7.1 Humour, using language play with humorous intent to create a new toponym: *Bust-me-gall Hill*, *Linger And Die Hill*, *Watchamacallit Dam*, *Hellzapoppin* (a hill in WA), *Hit And Miss Claypan*, *Nowhere Else*, *Dootown*, *Come By Chance*.

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...from previous page

2.8 Mistaken identification through garbled transmission, misspelling, mistaken meaning, etc.: *Coal and Candle Creek* (< ? 'Kolaan Kandhal'), *Tin Can Bay* (< ? 'Tuncanbar'), *Collector* (< 'Colegdar' / 'Caligda'), *Tom Groggin* (< ? 'tom-a-roggin'), *Tom Uglys Point* (< ? 'Tom Huxley' or 'Tom Wogu(ly)').

2.9 Numerating and alphabetising, the bestowal of a numeric or sequence of letters as a name for a place: *Seventeen Seventy*, *ABC Range*.⁹ The USA has about a dozen places that have numeric names: *Eight*, *Fifty Six*, *Eighty Four*. There is also a *Twenty* in Lincolnshire, UK.

Placenames are not only an important part of language, they are also part of a society and its culture. Names are given in interaction between individuals, the speakers of a language, and the environment. We give names to places and geographic features we consider worthy of naming, and in bestowing such names we take control of the environment, stake our claim of ownership of places or regions, and consequently leave our imprint on them. In doing so we make the names part of our culture. Moreover, how we name places reveals much about our national psyche.

The act of naming a place also solidifies and objectifies our experience and it becomes a very powerful suasive tool, allowing us to create entities out of virtually nothing (Bolinger, 1975: 251). In bestowing names on places we may resort to using names of people, events, other places and entities, or simply by description. However, as highlighted in this article, we may also coin new ones. Bollinger continues, '[a]s we inherit our nouns [...] we also inherit the right to make nouns, which is one of the few truly inventive privileges that our language

...How to coin a toponym

affords us: anyone can make up a name for something and many people do, while inventing a new suffix or a new syntactic pattern is practically impossible.' Naming is therefore truly inherent to our nature.

In future instalments of *Toponymy 101*, we'll look at how placenaming is regulated, and at how placenames act as identity markers. We'll also begin an introduction to the nature of Australia's indigenous toponymy.

Endnotes

- ¹ See for example *Motivations for naming: A toponymic typology*. ANPS Technical Paper No 2. (2009, 2014).
- ² Not all linguistic processes produce new placenames, therefore only those that do are listed here. Of those that do, Australia may not have any examples, so ones from elsewhere are used.
- ³ As the examples of **blends** show, these also involve the process of clipping.
- ⁴ I do not include in this category clipped or contracted examples like *The Gong* (< 'Wollongong'), *The Loo* (< 'Woolloomooloo'), *Brizzie* (< 'Brisbane'), *The Alice* (< 'Alice Springs'), or *Wagga* (< Wagga Wagga) because these are all unofficial names and sobriquets.
- ⁵ See *Placenames Australia*, September 2014.
- ⁶ The difference between an *acronym* and a *blend* is that in the former only the initial elements of words are joined to form a new word, and in the latter any elements of a word (initial, medial or final) are joined.
- ⁷ Often also a representation of 2.7.1 Humour.
- ⁸ See *Placenames Australia*, September 2009.
- ⁹ I do not include in this set toponyms such as *No. 1 Swamp* or *First Creek*, because they are often a member of a series of related features which are enumerated for identification. Numeric placenames are generally always officially fully spelled out, although you will see 1770 on road signs, hotel signage, etc.

Reference

Bolinger, Dwight (1975). *Aspects of Language*. 2nd Edition. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.

Jan Tent

Drop bears and kangaroo tails

Our correspondent Bill Forrest knows of a country lane about 15 km east of Tamworth (NSW) which may strike terror in the minds of wandering tourists. No-one will admit to actually naming this little thoroughfare, but we suspect that traffic has been a bit lighter since the sign was put up.

Bill is undoubtedly right when he suggests that this story of **killer koalas** is just one of the various hoaxes played on visitors. He's aware of the tale that the Alice Springs signature dish, **kangaroo tail soup**, is happily provided by macropods whose tails re-grow within three weeks. And he confesses that he has himself been guilty in the past of convincing gullible tourists that the Warrumbungles were burial mounds for some of the great Aboriginal chiefs of aeons past!



Early names of Australia's coastal regions - Part 2

Previously we looked at coastal region names bestowed on the Australian continent by the Dutch. In this part we look at others, including those of French and British origin, and then conclude with a brief discussion.¹

French names

The French names bestowed along the Australian coastline first appeared in Louis de Freycinet's *Voyage de decouvertes aux terres australes: Atlas historique*. Plate no. 2. *Carte generale de la Terre Napoleon (a la Nouvelle Hollande)*. The chart was published in 1811 as part of Francois Peron's publication on Nicolas Baudin's voyage of discovery in 1801-1802. Interestingly, there is no acknowledgement on the chart of Flinders' prior discoveries; nevertheless, the Dutch discoveries of the west and southern coastline are acknowledged. This is perhaps due to the French-English rivalry during this period, and the French desire to lay claim to at least part of the continent. The referents of the eponymous French names need no explanation.

Terre Napoléon

Referred to the stretch of coastline approximately from Wilsons Promontory to Cape Adieu. Named by Baudin, commander of the ships *Géographe* and *Naturaliste*. On other French (and a few German) maps *Terre Napoléon* is divided into a number of other coastal regions (see Figure 1).



Figure 1: Section of the M. (Pierre) Lapie (c. 1820) map, Oceanie ou Australasie et Polynesie... (MAP RM 591)

Terre de Baudin

Denoted a stretch of coastline from approximately Cape Northumberland to Encounter Bay.

Terre de Flinders

Although Flinders was a British national, the French

conferred his name on part of the continent's southern coastline from Encounter Bay to Cape Nuyts. It appears on only a few maps.

Terre de Freycinet

This also appears on few maps; it referred to an area from approximately Cape Northumberland to Encounter Bay. Named after the French navigator and cartographer Louis de Freycinet aboard the *Naturaliste*. His map of Australia, published in 1811, was the first published map to depict the entire Australian coastline (Reynders & Gerritsen 2012).

English names

British navigators and cartographers conferred coastal region names on the continent independently of colonial administration.

New South Wales

Originally dubbed *New Wales* by James Cook in 1770, and subsequently altered to *New South Wales*, it designated the entire east coast of the continent. This was almost the only section of Australia's coastline that had not been charted by the Dutch. Cook named this region because it reminded him of Wales. From 1787, the name was associated with the entire eastern half of the continent. By the mid-19th century its area started to be reduced piece by piece as the new colonies of South Australia, Victoria and Queensland were established.

Terre de Grent /Grant / Grants Land

This stretch of the Victorian coastline also bears the name of another Englishman, Lt. James Grant. It appears on few maps (but see Figure 1), and designates the stretch of coastline from approximately Wilsons Promontory to Cape Northumberland. Grant was the commander of the *Lady Nelson*, the first ship to sail through Bass Strait and thus the first to chart the Bass Strait coast of Victoria. The *Lady Nelson* was the first vessel to make its way to Sydney from England via the Strait rather than via the south coast of Tasmania (Lee 1915). It's true that James Grant named a cape on the Victorian coast after Sir William Grant (a British lawyer, Member of Parliament from 1790–1812 and Master of the Rolls), but he is not the source for the name *Terre de Grant*.

continued next page

Early names of...

...from previous page

Australia Felix

Although not a coastal region name, it is worth including here. It was the name conferred by Thomas Mitchell on the pasture in parts of western Victoria he explored in 1836 on his third expedition. It is Latin for 'fortunate/happy/felicitous Australia'. It appears on numerous maps around the mid-19th century.

Miscellaneous names

There are a number of coastal region names that appear on a small number of maps that were not bestowed by explorers, but were later recorded on the maps by the cartographers or by others.

Dampier's Land

This toponym appears on Fenner's map (1835) and referred to the Western Australian coastal region from approximately Roebuck Bay to the Buccaneer Archipelago—between Van Diemen's Land (NT) and De Witts Land. Obviously named in honour of William Dampier who had visited and charted the area in 1699.

Tasman's Land

On some other maps (Arrowsmith 1838; Sharpe c.1849; Weiland 1858) the area designated as *Tasman's Land* also appears between Van Diemen's Land (NT) and De Witts Land, commemorating that section of the coast explored by Tasman in 1644.

Dinnings Land

This is an enigmatic region name and appeared on a number of maps between the mid-18th and mid-19th centuries. It most likely derives from a topographic descriptor on the Pieter Goos/Johannes van Keulen map (c.1690) which states: 'Duyning land boven Lage Ruigte Gelyk Verdronke Boomen en Boschaghe' (roughly translated: 'Dunes/dune land above Low Scrub Seemingly Submerged Trees [mangroves?] and Underwood/Boscage') (c.f. Pool 2013: 149). This descriptor seems to be derived from blending two descriptors on the Hessel Gerritszoon map of 1627 upon which is transcribed: 'Duynig landt boven met boomen ende bosage' (Dunes/dune land with trees and underwood/boscage at top) and 'Laegh ghelijck verdroncken landt' (Low, seemingly submerged land) (see Tent 2016).

Ulimarua & Notasia

These two other rather peculiar names were given to the continent in the late-18th and early-19th centuries

(Tent 2010; Geraghty and Tent 2010). The first was the bizarre *Ulimarua*, which was conferred by the eccentric Swedish geographer and cartographer Daniel Djurberg in 1776 in his *Geografi, sammandragen utur de nyste och tilförliteligaste auctorer* [Geography, summaries of the newest and most comprehensive authors]. He first used *Ulimarua* on a map in 1780 (*Karta over Polynisien eller Femte Delen af Jordklotet af Daniel Djurberg Ledamot af Cosmografiska Sällsk I Upsala. Stockholm*). Subsequently, other cartographers and publishers used it on various European maps until about 1819. It is most likely a corruption of the Māori *ko Rimarua*, meaning 'long arm' (*rima* 'arm/hand' + *roa* 'long'), and was a possible reference to the long, narrow island of Grande Terre of New Caledonia. The second, *Notasia*, started appearing on a number of maps of Australia in the early-19th century. It is not known who coined the name, but its most logical meaning seems to be 'Southern Asia' and is said to be derived from the Greek *votos* (*notos*) 'south; the south wind'.

Discussion

The question arises as to why so many *-land* names were conferred on coastal regions of our continent, and why many of them disappeared from maps from the early to mid-1800s. If you look at the early-17th century Dutch maps of the western half of the continent, you will notice gaps along the coastline between the variously named regions. It was not known at that time whether all the named regions belonged to the same continent, hence the distinct names. The gaps are clearly visible on Hessel Gerritszoon's map of 1627.

By 1644 most of the gaps on the charts of the coastline were filled in, marking the end of these diverse names. The entire continent then became known as *Nieuw Holland*.

Greg Windsor (2014, 2015) reveals that it is notoriously difficult to delineate the margins of a region. Indeed, as many of the early maps of Australia show, there is quite a range of variability not only in the spelling of the early coastal region names but also in their exact location or extent. In essence, we are dealing with something similar to what the Permanent Committee on Place Names designates as a *LOCALITY* (unbounded) (*LOCU*), which is defined as 'an area with un-defined boundaries within a local authority or other legislative area, a sub-unit of a suburb; a rural locality' (CGNA, 1996).

...Australia's coastal regions

Boundaries of regions on maps can vary radically, and even the number of named regions can be dissimilar. Two maps that actually depict margins of coastal regions are the de Freycinet map of 1811, and the Brué map of 1826. On inspection, it is clear that there are significant discrepancies in the boundaries marked on these two maps. Almost all other maps depicting coastal regions, however, do not delineate their boundaries and therefore vary considerably as to how and where their labels are shown.

Flinders' map of Australia (1814), interestingly, does not show any of these coastal region names, and maps produced after this started to omit them. French maps seem to be the exception because the French were still interested in laying claim to the areas they explored and named.

Some of the early coastal names survive today, though the area they delineate may differ markedly from their original allocation. *New South Wales* is the most obvious one. Its boundaries have changed more than any other Australian region name. After embracing the east coast of the continent, it had grown to encompass the entire eastern half of the continent by the arrival of the British at Sydney Cove in 1788, and endured until approximately 1830 (the western half of the continent being known as *New Holland* during this time). *Arnhem Land* is the other name that has endured as a significant region name. It basically encompasses the same area that it was first ascribed to. Other early region names survive as land district names and include: *Dampier*, *Nuyts*, *Edel*, *De Wit*, and *Nuytsland Nature Reserve* (all in WA), and *Carpentaria* (QLD) a county and a locality.

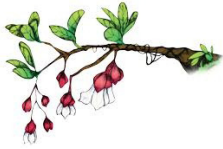
Jan Tent

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Endnote

- ¹ The maps cited are not the only maps that exist with the coastal region names discussed, but are representative of such.



In our previous instalment of the continuing saga of island names of Fiji, we traced the origin of the name of the fourth largest and southernmost island of Fiji—**Kadavu**. The name is derived from a word *kadavu*, meaning ‘raincloud’ or ‘rain’, that was used by the Lapita people, the first settlers of much of Oceania, some three thousand years ago. In Eastern Melanesia, the meaning changed to ‘west wind’. So when they sailed east to Fiji, they gave the name *Kadavu* to a small island to the west of the mainland of Vitilevu. They then moved fairly swiftly further east to western Polynesia, and from Samoa, at least a thousand years later, a group moved north to settle the chain of atolls called *Tokelau*, which means ‘north wind’ or ‘north’ in Polynesian. The most westerly of the three atolls they christened *Atafu*, the Polynesian version of *Kadavu*, so meaning ‘west wind’ or simply ‘west’.

So it seems that, just as the Lapita settlers used other wind direction terms to name islands—*Tonga* meaning ‘south’, *Fiji* and *Tahiti* meaning ‘east’, *Tokelau* meaning ‘north’—they also used *Kadavu*, meaning ‘west wind’ or ‘west’, to name islands or localities situated in the west. The only problem is that the large island of Kadavu is situated not to the west of the nearest landmass, Vitilevu, but to the south!

To understand why it was so named, we need to turn to a feature of Pacific cultures which has yielded a number of placenames and which can give us clues about settlement patterns: the jumping-off places of spirits of the dead. According to the traditional beliefs of many Pacific islanders, the souls of the dead follow a path on a ridge that leads, usually in a roughly westward direction, to a headland from which they jump either into the sea or onto a canoe, and thence to the underwater realm of the spirits. Given that it is reasonable to assume that spirits of the dead go to join their ancestors in a former home, it is likely that such jumping-off places can give a rough idea of where people originate from.

To take a well-known example from Aotearoa (New Zealand) in Eastern Polynesia, the north-western extremity of the North Island is called *Tē Reinga*, which means ‘the jumping-off place’, composed of *rei* ‘to jump’ plus ‘-nga’ the nominalising suffix, and is so named because of the traditional belief that spirits of the dead jump off there to return to their ancestral home. I will

Where souls jump off ~ ~

leave it to others to speculate as to why this points to a homeland nearer to Tonga than the Cook Islands or Tahiti, places usually cited as the source of the first settlers of New Zealand. There is also a jumping-off place of the spirits called *Rereinga* in Mangareva in the Gambier Islands of French Polynesia.

Likewise in Samoa, in Western Polynesia, the western extremity of Savai’i, the westernmost island, is known as *Le Fafā*, and souls of the dead go there before continuing westward to Puloa, the Western Polynesian elysium (which I believe to have been **Matuku**, an island in eastern Fiji which used to be named *Burotu*). In Tonga, there are numerous paths of the souls known as *hala-ki-Pulotu*, and all end at a western extremity of an island.

Naicobocobo is a well-known example of a jumping-off place of the spirits in Fiji. It is the westernmost point of Vanualevu, the second largest island in Fiji, in what is now the province of Bua, and it is believed that the souls of the dead in much of Vanualevu follow the central ridge westwards until they come to the headland of Naicobocobo, from which they jump into the sea and thence to Bulu, the land of the spirits. This placename has the same meaning as *Tē Reinga*, that is ‘the jumping-off place’, but is of different construction, consisting of the article *na*, the nominalising prefix *i-*, and the reduplicated verb *cobo*, meaning ‘to jump’. This verb is no longer used in any Fijian language, but has related forms in many Polynesian languages, such as Tongan and Tuvalu *hopo* and Futunan *sopo*, all meaning ‘to jump’.

So where is the jumping-off place of the spirits in Kadavu? It is called **Naiqoro**, and uniquely for Fiji, it is not in the west of the island but in the east, indeed at the eastern extremity of Kadavu in the district of Nakasaleka. This, then, is a possible explanation for the perversity of Kadavu’s being named ‘west’ although it lies to the south of the nearest major landmass, Vitilevu. The answer is simply that the earliest settlers of Kadavu did not come from Vitilevu in the north, but from an island in the east, and given its proximity and other factors which I will not mention here, the most likely candidate is **Matuku**, the very island which used to be named *Burotu*, and which Western Polynesians (or at least their chiefs) originated from, and which they now call *Pulotu*.

According to this theory, the earliest settlers of Kadavu came from Matuku and gave the island the name *Kadavu*,

~~ Placenames of Fiji - 12

meaning 'west', because it lies to the west of Matuku; and, because they retained the memory of Matuku being their ancestral homeland, the souls of the dead in Kadavu follow a path heading east, unlike similar paths in other parts of Fiji which all head to the west.

Which brings us to the fifth largest island in Fiji—but since we have once again run out of space, the excitement

of discovering its identity and the etymology of its name will have to wait for another issue in the future!



Paul Geraghty

University of the South Pacific

[The emblems above represent the tagimaucia, national flower of Fiji, endemic to the island of Taveuni]

New from ANPS

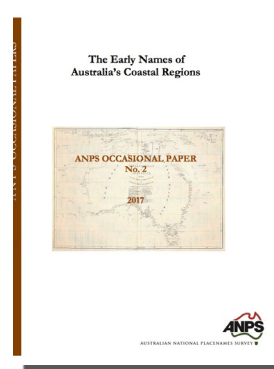
ANPS Occasional Papers is the series in which we publish articles of toponymic interest (often those stimulated by discussion in *Placenames Australia*) which are too long to find a place in this newsletter.

Jan Tent's two-part article on early names for Australia's coastal regions fits into this category—even though we've run it across two issues, some material (including a table which revealed some interesting discrepancies between early maps) had to be left aside. Those two sections,

however, are now available as a consolidated paper (including the extra material).

For your free download of *Occasional Paper 2*, go to our website and find Occasional Papers under the 'Publications' tab. Or go direct to

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Placenames Puzzle Number 62

Botanical toponyms

The clues for this puzzle conceal the names of places that have names of plants and trees as (part of) their specific elements, e.g. (NSW) Northern Sydney suburb: a portmanteau (blend) of two plant names... Belrose (Christmas Bell + Native Rose). [Plants may be either indigenous or exotic; names may be common or botanical]

1. (QLD) Beach south of Port Douglas: tree with a quirky name
2. (NSW) Sydney beach suburb: tree symbolic of the tropics
3. (NSW) Western Sydney suburb: gave us an iconic parrot
4. (TAS) North-eastern outcrop: our most prolific tree species
5. (VIC) Country town: Ned was imprisoned here
6. (NT) Darwin northern suburb: native tree
7. (NSW) Sydney suburb: waratah

8. (NSW) Blue Mountains township: indigenous tree
9. (NSW) Bay in Sydney's north: fruit tree
10. (VIC) Melbourne suburb: home of the Hawks
11. (NSW) Stream near Port Macquarie: callistemon
12. (VIC) Bay north-west of Wilsons Promontory: a State emblem
13. (NT) Locality near Alice: yearning tree
14. (QLD) Cape York stream: symbol of Lebanon
15. (NSW) Harbour-side suburb: copse of white-trunked deciduous trees
16. (WA) Island west of Dampier: our first botanist
17. (NSW) Highlands town: damp low-lying plant
18. (NT) Arnhem Land cove/beach: spiky with red berries
19. (WA) Island in the Montebello group: shade for our mythic swagman
20. (NSW) Harbourside suburb/bay: fragrant shrub for potpourris

[Compiled by: **Jan Tent**]

16. Banksia Island
17. Moss Vale
18. Holly Inlet
19. Coolibah Island
20. Lavender Bay
11. Bottlebrush Creek
12. Waratah Bay
13. Pine Gap
14. Cypress Creek
15. Birchgrove

6. Casuarina
7. Telopea
8. Kurrajong
9. Apple Tree Bay
10. Hawthorn

1. Oak (*Quercus*) Beach
2. Palm Beach
3. Rose Hill
4. Eucalyptus Rock
5. Beechworth

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