1. The Ancient Times

If the emergence of a new branch of science is marked by its being able to identify its subject, the germs of onomastics should be sought in ancient Egypt of 5–6 thousand years ago. It was them who, in their inscriptions, had first made a distinction between proper names and common nouns by inserting their gods’ and pharaohs’ names in frames or “name rings” (cartouche) and, later, writing them in red paint on papyrus. The cartouche below encloses Cleopatra’s name written in hieroglyphics:

Although this may have originated with respect to gods and kings, and not for the names themselves, it is indicative of the recognition of proper names as such. In Akkadian and Assyrian cuneiform inscriptions, as well as in Chinese and, later in Greek and Latin writings, various determining signs, mainly horizontal or vertical lines, were used to call attention to proper names (JENSEN 1970, KÉKI 1975, KESZLER 1993, 1996). In the most ancient layer of the Bible (the first book of Moses or Genesis, II, 19–20) there is reference to people’s name giving habits: “Now the Lord God had formed out of the ground all the beasts of the field and all the birds of the air. He brought them to the man to see what he would name them; and whatever the man called each living creature, that was its name. So the man gave names to all the livestock, the birds of the air and all the beasts of the field.” (The Holy Bible, New International Version. International Bible Society, Colorado Springs, Colorado 1984, p. 2). Whether taken literally or symbolically, the text of the Bible contains reference to man naming his environment right after his creation, giving only proper names as there was just one single specimen of everything. And all this he carried out before he had had any opportunity to communicate, his wife Eve being created later.

The roots of the scholarly treatment of names, like all European disciplines, can be traced back to ancient Greece. According to STEWART (1958) “name books”, which listed and explained mainly place names, enjoyed high popularity. He claims that SOSTRATOS wrote several books on rivers (one of them was known to Plutarch), of which “The second book of rivers” sur-
vived. “The eleventh book of rivers” by TIMOTHEOS [GASAIOS] or “The third book of mountains” by DEKYLL OS could have been along very similar lines. All this, however, is known only through circumstantial evidence. This is not to mean that onomatology as a separate branch of science existed, but no others did, either. Two big groups were distinguished: mythology and philosophy. The first dealt exclusively with the relationships between the gods and people. Philosophy, “the love of wisdom”, on the other hand, attempted to grasp things and covered all branches of science. The universality of science did not make it possible to draw sharp dividing lines between the doctrines and cultivators of its constituents: mathematics, astronomy and grammar. Considering Aristotle, Demosthenes, Plato, Socrates, Thales and other “Greek philosophers” does not necessarily mean that they were all concerned with the same problems. One of them was an outstanding mathematician, another acquired fame as a rhetorician, the third did great work in stylistics, whereas Plato has lasting achievements in onomatology. His Kratylos-dialogue is still looked upon as one of the definitive works of onomatology. STEWART (1958) also makes mention of PSEUDO-PHUTARCH having written 25 essays on names, but none of them has survived.

The ancient Romans imitated Greek art, science and even mythology, so the umbrella term “artes liberales” was used to refer to the accomplishments that, apart from regular physical exercise, a free Roman citizen was supposed to engage in. These were still non-specialized in the modern sense of the word, and it was MARCUS TERENTIUS VARRO (1974), the greatest polyhistor of the Roman Empire, who, in the 1st century B.C., systematized this activity and divided it into grammar, rhetoric, dialectic, arithmetics, geometry, astronomy and music, which have become current as septem artes liberales since then. It was not by chance that linguistics was given the first place in the list as he was the greatest linguist of his time, a fact that is not generally known today. Even less known are his studies in onomatology, despite his having been the first to describe the Roman family groups and investigate their origins. In another book of his he presented the interrelations connecting the Trojan families, thus laying the foundations of genealogy as a special field of research.

2. The Middle Ages

This division and systematization of Roman origin was accepted and applied by medieval science. The reason for this was not only the authority of Rome but also ST AUGUSTINE’s role and influence, who highly esteemed Varro’s work on the systematization of knowledge and was thoroughly familiar with it. One of the two comprehensive areas, patristicism, dealt with doctrines of faith (the works of “fathers”) and developed into theology as known and practised today; the other, scholasticism, comprised philosophy, that is the
various branches of science. These had two levels: the trivium and quadrivium and fell into the same seven classes as in ancient Rome. The distinction only meant that the trivium was taught to younger pupils and represented the lower level (hence the somewhat derogatory adjective “trivial”, whose original sense was ‘the intersection of three roads’). The three branches of the trivium were grammar, rhetoric and dialectic, the science of the younger age group, whereas the quadrivium (the intersection of “four roads”), comprising arithmetics, geometry, astronomy and music, was taught at a more advanced level. The inclusion of linguistic studies in the trivium was indicative of their indispensability rather than their disparagement and evidenced the primary importance of the sciences figuring in the curriculum. In other words, it seemed more essential to deal with language, speech, ways of thinking and their interrelations than with astronomy or music. It should be added, however, that these language studies were rather formal and hardly went beyond the limits of elementary information on grammatical rules, on the recognition of what was right or wrong or on how logic manifested itself in or outside language. This means that the studies concentrated on the forms of appearance of language rather than its internal structure. This approach was dominated by categories of rules that were sometimes imaginary or artificial.

Although onomatology was not even mentioned in any of the medieval sciences, scholasticism produced new results in this area. The debates between nominalism and realism focused on the denotative capability of language. Realists, Plato’s followers in this respect, considered the general to be independent of the individual and summarized this view in the maxim “universalia ante rem”. Representing the materialistic approach, nominalists, on the other hand, advocated the sole existence of the individual and argued that their generalization in larger groups was the secondary result of abstract thinking. To put it more simply, this meant that at first everything was named only by proper names but, as there were just a few words available and the number of things to be named was great, common nouns were formed on the basis of similarity. Today we also refer to Plato and hold the opposite view, claiming that in each language common nouns were to become proper names. In the meantime, however, it seems worth considering that in the initial stages of language development the reverse could also have taken place. LÁSZLÓ DEMÉ (1960) says that people living in nature do not “refer” to persons and things but give them names. In primitive societies and prehistoric hordes people probably knew each other in person and by their proper names and did not need a word meaning ‘man’ until they met the people of another horde that were unknown to them. In English, e.g., a circumscriptio (human being), the word meaning ‘male’ (man) or a French loan (person) is used; in Hungarian the word ember is a compound, origi-
nally denoting ‘woman + man’. Likewise, in Samoyedic, hills were at first
given proper names: “hill on which there stands a tree”, “hill on which an
animal was killed”, “hill from whose top you can see the village”, and it was
only later that the word for ‘hill’ was abstracted from these expressions and
began to be used.

3. The age of Humanism and the Renaissance

The Renaissance and humanism put all the sciences in a broader perspective.
Still being an age of polyhistors, it signalled the beginning of specialization
in science and its falling into parts. This is what can be witnessed in linguis-
tics, too. With rhetoric having been pushed back to the background, gram-
mar still remained an individual branch, but the disciplines that owed their
emergence to the investigation of facts and real phenomena and were not
merely speculative gradually grew out of it. The process of differentiation
was, of course, a long one. The ordering of events that follows may not be
the true reflection of what actually happened but it helps forming a general
idea of how these processes might have been going on. In addition, it may
prove that the classification of science in the age of humanism was really
based on the interest in man, his life, his general activity including such a
phenomenon as speech, which has resulted in the present-day state of affairs.

4. New disciplines concerning onomastics

4.1. Folklore and dialectology

The great thinker of the 16th century, ERASMUS OF ROTTERDAM, taking his
share from the debate of medieval scholasticism, spoke out for realism in his
“De rebus et vocabulis”. It was not this work of his, however, that was really
significant in linguistics and its development but “Adagiorum collectanae”,
which he himself considered to be of secondary importance. It first appeared
in 1500, was re-published twice in a short time and exerted a remarkable in-
fluence on his followers. This collection had been initially designed to popu-
larize quotations from ancient authors but proved to be much richer in its
contents: besides quotations, it recorded a great number of proverbs and
winged phrases, thus creating phraseology and starting a process of devel-
opment which brought about the emergence of a new branch in the contact
area of linguistics and, somewhat later, folklore. Still in the same century, in
1598, the Hungarian version of “Adagiorum” came out, after several Euro-
pean collections of this type had left the press. The work was accomplished
by JÁNOS BARANYAI (or BARONYAI) DECSI, who relied not only on Eras-
mus but also on other authors, and translated the original data adding a few
Hungarian ones and consistently using the Hungarian equivalents of proper
names.
The investigation of proverbs led to the strengthening of another new field of studies, namely, dialectology. An Englishman, JOHN RAY (1674), published a dictionary entitled “A Collection of Words not Generally Used”, in which regional words were listed. This work generated such an interest in dialects that it was re-published ten times shortly afterwards and turned researchers’ attention to popular usage.

4.2. Phonetics

FARKAS KEMPELEN, a scholar who was Hungarian by birth, played an important role in making phonetics an individual branch of science. His “Mechanismus der menschlichen Sprache nebs Beschreibung seiner sprechenden Maschine” came out in 1791 and was translated into Hungarian by KÁROLY MOLLAY and published as late as 1989. The treatment of phonetics as a special field of studies, however, is not usually linked with his name and age. It is the German-Austrian physiologist-physician ERNST WILHELM BRÜCKE who is revered as “the father of phonetics”. Phonetics has been regarded as a field of studies in its own right since the appearance of his “Grundzüge der Physiologie und systematic der Sprachlaute” in 1856, and it is well-known that in the mid-19th c. there existed a couple of periodicals dealing with phonetics exclusively, which is generally considered to indicate the independence of a branch of science.

4.3. Philology and historical linguistics

The growth of historical linguistics into a special field of studies was preceded and prepared by the improvement and modernization of the methods of philology. For ancient Greeks and in the ages to come up to the Renaissance it meant hardly more than encyclopedic knowledge. Philology in the modern sense of the word, that is, the thorough investigation, criticism and the exact and manifold explanation of old written documents and works of literature, began with FRIEDRICH AUGUST WOLF, who, in 1795, analyzed Prolegomen, the introduction to Homeric poems. This detailed examination of texts laid down the foundations for comparative studies in general. The comparison of languages or the different periods of one and the same language could have been started only when some of its basic methods had become available. Their application to linguistic studies was pioneered by the German scholar FRANZ BOPP, who stated the ancient character of Sanskrit and its features derived from the protolanguage on the basis of the identities and systematic correspondences between Indo-European languages. Other excellent and multilateral comparisons of languages had, however, existed before, such as the dictionary by PETER PALLAS, containing 285 entries from 51 European and 149 Asian languages. It was exceeded, however, by JÁNOS SAINOVICS, who proved the genetic relationship between Hungarian and Saami as early as 1770, and by SÁMUEL GYARMATHI, who published a
comparative grammar of Hungarian and other Finno-Ugric languages in 1795. Modern and successful research in historical linguistics (works by Antal Reguly, Pál Hunfalvy, József Budenz, József Szinneyi, József Pápay, Dezső Pais, István Knieza, Géza Bárczi, Lóránd Benkő and other Hungarian and non-Hungarian language historians) is all founded on the philological method, the only pledge of its effectiveness. Consequently, the historical study of language as a special discipline could not have emerged until philology itself had become one and its methods had been modernized. Research in the history of names, a branch of onomastics, has the same foundations.

4.4. Synchronic linguistics

It did not take long, however, for descriptive linguistics to split off from historical linguistics, which first manifested itself in the vivid attention paid to general characteristic features. As is widely known, its first theoretician was Ferdinand de Saussure from Switzerland, whose lectures, held between 1906–1911, were published by his students in 1916. With his work, Saussure created descriptive and general linguistics, which are very popular today but have split up into several sub-branches themselves. Their methods and results are frequently applied in onomastic research.

5. Onomastic interest

Interest in names or what could be called the germs of onomastics can be found in myths, legends of ethnogenesis and works of literature as long as thousands of years ago. This is evidenced by explanations and etymologies given to names. The first book of the Old Testament also has passages of this type: “[Cain] was then building a city, and he named it after his son Enoch” (Gen. 4: 17, p. 3), [Two sons were born to Eber:] One was named Peleg, because in his time the earth was divided” [the common meaning of the word is ‘division’.] (Gen. 10: 25, p. 7). “[The angel of the ‘Lord of seeing’ found Hagar near a spring in the desert.] That is why the well was called Beer Lahaj Roi” [meaning ‘well of the Living One who sees me’.] (Gen. 16: 14, p. 10). The following example is taken from the New Testament: “And I tell you that you are Peter, and on this rock I will build my church, and the gates of Hades will not overcome it” (says Jesus in Matthew 16: 18, p. 694). (For the source of the biblical texts in English see above.). The Indian four Vedas, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana as well as the Old Iranian Avesta, the Old Icelandic Poetic Edda, the Finnish Kalevala and several other ancient mythical stories abound in explanations of names. They are also typical of Homer’s epic poems and or Vergil’s Aeneid. The Greek-Roman historians were also preoccupied with attaching etymologies to proper names. Plutarch, the author of “Parallel Biographies” tries to de-
rive almost all of his figures’ names from common words. Even the early Christian authors, e.g., SOPHRONIUS EUSEBIUS HIERONYMUS (SAINT JEROME) wrote works like “Liber interpretationis nominum hebraicorum” and “Liber de situ et nominibus locorum hebraicorum”, which, taken together, made up a whole biblical encyclopaedia. While these two were written in 390, his “De viris illustribus” came out in 392 and was actually a catalogue of Christian writers.

It was regarded almost as obligatory by medieval chroniclers to explain names in their historiographic work, in which they also drew upon legends and sagas. CONSTANTINE PORPHYROGENITUS (De administrando imperio, cca. 950) was probably right in interpreting the Slavic tribal name Zachlumci as ‘those (from) behind the hills’. Etymologies similar to that can be found in WIDUKIND VON CORVEY’s “Rex gestae Saxonicæ” (cca. 962) and in the chronicle written around 1000 by THIETMAR, bishop of Merseburg, where the proper name Beleknegini is given the explanation ‘pulchra domina’, and the hill name Belern near Torgau is assigned the meaning ‘pulcher mons’. The list could be continued with “Gesta Friderici I. imperatoris” by the Austrian-German OTTO VON FREISING up to “Historia Polonica” by the Polish JAN DŁUGOSZ (JOHANNES LONGINUS) in the 15th century. Attempts at etymologies are frequent not only in them but also in other works on history of the time.

It is a matter of course that the records made by authors in Hungary also abound in interpretations of names. The best known of these are the etymologies of proper names and place names in ANONYMUS’ “Gesta Hungarorum”, several of which were formerly accepted by historians and language historians alike, but many of which have recently been repudiated by LORÁND BENKŐ in his papers on this topic (1966, 1967, 1972, 1994, 1996, 1998). ANONYMUS’ most commonly quoted explanation is that presenting the emergence of the place name Csepel: “[Árpád] made a very clever Cumanian, Csepel by name, supervisor of his grooms. As the equerry lived in that island, it was named Csepel after him and has been called so ever since.” (ANONYMUS 1975, p. 117).

In the 13th century SIMON KÉZAI explained how the hill name Vértes (lit. ‘armoured’) had sprung up (the fleeing German army threw away all its heavy armament so as to be able to run more quickly). He also dealt with the origin of Szekszárd, which, according to Kézai was named by king Béla I after himself, as his hair was light (szögszár used to mean ‘light yellow’). GALEOTTO MARZIO presented a few etymological explanations as if they had been pronounced by king Matthias: “Hungaria was named after the Huns and the Avars.” “Taurinus sinus” of the ancient times has recently been called Nándorfehérvár by the Magyars and Beograd by the Slavs and Ital-
ians. Both the Hungarian and the Slavic word mean ‘white castle’.” Excellent decipherments as well as round guesses and mistakes can equally be found in these old explanations. There have also been, however, priggish distortions and misinterpretations. FERENC OTROKOSI FÖRIS in the 18th century, ISTVÁN SÁNDOR and ISTVÁN HORVÁT at the beginning of the 19th are especially notorious for their word-twistings. The introduction to them is of particular interest and is very typical of the latter: “The Holy Script teems with old Hungarian names everywhere...”, then his well-known explanations follow. Even the Hungarian grammar published by GÁBOR GALGÓCZI in 1848 contains similar pseudo-etymologies, e.g., the name of the Carpathian mountains is derived by him from the word carpet (Hungarian kárpit) “because it covers the country like a carpet”. Of course, all this is a far cry from onomastics, but it is indicative of the interest in, and a demand for, dealing with names.

5.1. Dictionaries of names and collections of personal names

From about the 16th c. onwards nomenclatura or onomasticon, a special genre of dictionaries containing rich material of proper names, became current. Its first sample that has come down to us dates back to 1537 and is entitled “Aliquot nomina propria Germanorum ad priscam etymologiam restituta”. GEÖRG WITZELS wrote his “Onomasticon ecclesiae”, subtitled “Die Taufnamen der Christen deudsch und christlich ausgelegt”, in 1540. In Basel in 1544 AMBROSIUS CALEPINUS appended an “Onomasticon nominum proprium” to his voluminous dictionary formerly published. CONRAD GESSNER’s long-titled (Onomasticon Propriorvm, Nominvm, Virorvm, Muliervm, Serrarvm ‘schools’, Popvlorvm, Idolorvm ‘idols’, Syderum ‘stars’, Vento-rum ‘winds’, Vrbum ‘towns’, Marium, Fluuiorum, Montium et reliqiorvm ‘what still remains, the rest’), containing historical names, came out at about the same time, in 1546. The literal quotation of its copious title is important to show the hitherto unheard-of extension of the notion ‘proper name’. After Gessner, it took quite a long time for this concept to be accepted and continued. In 1556 NICODEMUS FRISCHLUS edited a trilingual (Greek–Latin–German) dictionary of names, entitled “Nomenclator trilinguis”, in Frankfurt am Main. Other works from the 17–18th century that should by all means be mentioned are “Onomatologia, sive de nominibus hominum propris liber” published in Zurich in 1671 by OTTIUS (JOHANN HEINRICH OTT) and “De nominibus et Agnominibus Antiquarum; De Cognominum Origine” by LUDOVICO ANTONIO MURATORI (1740). All this, however, can be regarded as a transition to the investigation of names in the scientific sense, which will be the topic of later discussion.

It may be interesting to note that — although it is not part of the scholarly study of names in Europe and cannot have influenced it — in Japan collec-
tions of names of the “Who’s Who” type were rather widespread and played a considerable role as early as the 6–8th centuries AD. In 815 a thirty-volume collection appeared and similarly huge dictionaries of biographies continued to be published up to the 14th century (KAGAMI 1995, p. 264).

5.2. Martyrologies and calendars

Besides collections of names, the choice of personal names must have been influenced by calendars and martyrologies. Their detailed summary has already been published in Hungarian (HAJDU 1977), so their early history will be given but a short review below. In all probability, the earliest Christian calendars go back to the so-called Syrian Calendar, compiled in the mid-4th century (around 362). Apart from the general and compulsory holidays, it listed the namedays of 411 saints, with several names of Persian or other Central Asian origin. The first “Martyrology”, supposed to have been compiled by St. Jerome in the 2nd half of the 4th century, is built on it. Saint Jerome spent five years in Syria as a hermit. This was followed by numerous martyrologies, such as the Martyrologium Romanum Parvum (cca. 700), and those compiled by BEDE THE VENERABLE (8th century), HRABANUS, MAURUS, FLORUS, USUARD, and, finally, by the Viennese bishop ADO (cca. 850). When in 1583 CAESAR BARONIUS was entrusted by Pope Gregory XIII to edit the final version of Martyrologium Romanum, he used them as sources. It was first published in Rome in 1586, then in Venice in 1587. It has been revised a couple of times and broken down into nations (1902, 1948, 1956 and recently in 1970, this latter reflecting the spirit of the Vatican Synod of 1963). The instruction to compile the Martyrologium Romanum was closely interrelated with the calendar reform, the Stilus Novus, introduced by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582. In Hungary, it was made a law in 1588. In many places, however, the old Julian-style calendar remained in use until 1625 or, especially in the territories under Turkish occupation, even after that. Of course, calendars, featuring the names of patron saints, i.e. name-days, alongside with the days, had been in use long before. NÁNDOR KNAUZ found several versions of two calendars from the 13th, fifteen from the 14th, twenty-four from the 15th and eighteen from the 16th century. That they were widely spread is evidenced by the so-called Marsigli (Bologna or Székely) calendar, whose outer appearance (special Székely characters carved in a rectangular wooden board) excludes ecclesiastical use and supports its having been common among the people (SÁNDOR 1992). The “Slovanische Kalender”, published in 1577, could have been similarly popular in its time. The holidays, memorial days of saints and martyrs had a great effect on name-giving habits. Roman Catholic and Protestant Christianity could not shed it as late as until the mid-20th century. Menologies, which were current in the Orthodox Church, also contain names and particulars of saints.
5.3. Registries of place names

In the overwhelming majority of nomenclatures personal names were collected and explained. The list of place names usually began with the description of the country and continued with the store of settlement names in alphabetical order. Moravia, e.g., was presented in “Prodromus Moravographie” (1633). MÁTYÁS BÉL made his “Notitia Hungariae novae historicoco-geographica” about 1730, five volumes of which came out in his lifetime (Vienna 1735–1747). The material of some counties and towns (the counties Csongrád, Csanád, Borsod, Esztergom, Heves, Komárom, Szabolcs, Vas, Moson, Zemplén, Pest, Pozsony; the cities of Buda and Pest) appeared only recently. An Estonian, A. W. HUPEL, published a three-volume “Topographische Nachrichten” (Riga 1774–1982). Stores of settlement names falling into the second category are so numerous that only the most important of them are going to be mentioned. The earliest is the one initiated by Joseph II and entitled “Lexicon universorum Regni Hungariae locorum populorum” (1773), which, however, does not contain Transylvania’s settlements. The first printed edition of this work came out only in 1920. The “Geographisch-Historisches und Produkten Lexikon von Ungarn” was published by JOHANN MATHIAS KORABINSKY in Pozsony (Pressburg) in 1786. This was a collection of settlement names translated and completed to a certain extent by ANDRÁS VÁLYI, who gave his work the title “Magyar országnak leírása” (The description of Hungary, Buda 1796–1799). JOANNES LIPSZKY’s “Repertorium Locorum Objectorumque in XII. tabulis Mappae Regnorum Hungariae, Slavonie, Croatiae, et Confiniorum Militarium Magni item Principatus Transylvaniae occurrentum” (Buda 1808) lists the names of 30 thousand Hungarian settlements and their versions on nearly 1,000 pages. Of later authors, ELEK FÉNYES’s several excellent works (1836–1840, 1847, 1851) deserve to be mentioned. Stores of settlement names have regularly been edited by the Central Office of Statistics since 1873. For the last decade, there have been a number of publications in which the names of Hungarian settlements beyond the border are identified with their foreign-language equivalents. The most thorough and complete of them is GYÖRGY LELKES’s “Magyar Helységnév-azonosító Szótár” (A Dictionary of Hungarian Settlement names with their Foreign Language Equivalents), which has been published twice (1992, 1998).

5.4. Grammar books

The role of proper names and their functioning as part of speech have been treated by grammars. As is generally known, it was DIONYSIUS THRAX who had first divided words into eight parts of speech in the 2nd century BC and it was he who had first mentioned proper names as a special category and defined them as denoting one single being (this is what is still being taught at
elementary level, although it is common knowledge that they can refer to not only one single being but their groups or even non-existent ones). AELIUS DONATUS’s doctrine from the 4th century AD can be considered a step backward. What he asserts in the more voluminous one of his two Latin grammars is the following: “Nomen est pars orationis, significans rem, ut arbor, lapis” (SCHWARTZ 1942, pp. 47–8). This definition had been continued and hardly altered in Europe before the 17th century as evidenced by the formula in HONTERUS’s book, published in Hungary in 1532: “Nomen est pars orationis cum casu corpus, aut rem proprium committer vel significans” (SCHWARTZ 1942, p. 64). The same holds for Russian grammars, as stated by SUPERANSKAYA: “The earliest Russian philologists did not make a distinction between proper and common nouns.” (1995, p. 193).

What is generally regarded as the first Hungarian grammar is the one by KRISTÓF HEGENDORF that came out in 1527 and paralleled four (Latin, German, Polish and Hungarian) languages. Its Hungarian data originated from JÁNOS SYLVESTER. Under the heading “Divisio Nominis” the following definition can be found: “Nomen proprium tauff nam kreñymye, Ungariae Tulaydon new, ut Petrus Paulus”. It may be interesting to note that both the German and Polish definitions and examples are unequivocally related to “Christian names”, whereas the Latin and Hungarian definitions have some significance beyond this, although the examples given are Christian names, too. A clearer distinction between common and proper nouns is made by Gergely Molnár in his Latin grammar (1556), where four types of nomen proprium are distinguished: “Praenomen, nomen, cognomen, agnomen”. The definitions and examples, however, leave no doubt that he regards only personal names as proper nouns and explains them by referring to ancient Roman names and Christian name-giving habits: “1. Praenomen est, quod more antiquo Nomini anteponitur, ut Marcus Publius, 2. Nomen est, quod in Baptismo cuique additur, ut Tullius, Cornelius, 3. Cognomen est, quod toti familiae vel genti est commune, ut Cicero, Scipio, 4. Agnomen est, quod alicui ob virtutem aut vitium additur, ut Pater eloquentiae, Africanus” (SCHWARTZ 1942, pp. 64–5). The “Grammar of Kolozsvár” (cca. 1600) is important for its separation of proper names into a special category, supported by examples indicative of their extension: “Mitsoda az Tulajdon Nev? Azért mert tsak ugyan azon edd dologhoz illlik hogj Janos, maria nap keleti Ól, Caucahez hegje, Duna, kolosvar, magyar or Mag, Erdely or Bag”. (What is a proper noun? Because it fits only one single thing like…). What follows is an almost literal imitation of Gergely Molnár, but the definitions are in Hungarian and the choice of Hungarian examples is probably conscious: “Elől jaro nev az mely az nemzettségi nevnek az főlgi Szokas Szerent eleiben tetetik, hogy Publius, markus Nev az mely ugyan egj meg olhatatlannak tulajdonat jegőzi hogj Ovidius Tullius Pet(e)r Pal Vezetek nev az mely
az ro(g)konsagokkal köz, hogy nagy orru, Scipio Grakkus Fabian Tsufos nev, az mely valamely[ne]k törtenetből adatik hogj Africai (K)Nemeti” (A pre-name is put before the name of a family, as old custom suggests… A name denotes one single indivisible property… A surname is shared by relatives… A nickname derives from some anecdote… LÖRINCZI 1998, pp. 27–8).

ALBERT SZENCZI MOLNÁR, the prominent linguist, lexicographer and psalm translator of the early 17th century, did not subdivide nouns into categories but, in Chapter III of his Book II (“De convenientia nominis cum nomine”), he presented several examples of the relations of Hungarian proper names to other words, which is actually the illustration of the process of common nouns becoming proper names: “Mátys király, Császár János, Kovács Antal, Pozsony Várossa, Kassai Hegedús Máté” etc. (SZENCZI MOLNÁR 1610).

In his Latin, German, Czech and Hungarian grammars, published several times at the beginning of the 18th century, MÁTYÁS BÉL rarely gives a definition of proper nouns, although he makes an attempt in one of his works written in Hungarian: “[a proper name] denotes a certain and particular thing, such as a hill, a person, a town, a river or a province” (M. BÉL 1713). The outstanding grammarians and grammars of the first half of the 19th century: SÁMUEL GYARMATHI (1794), Debreceni Grammatika (A Debrecen Grammar, 1795), PÁL BERECSZÁSZI NAGY (1797, 1832), a French grammar by GYÖRGY SZALLER (1805), MIKLÓS RÉVAI (1803–1805), FERENC VERSEGHY (1805, 1816, 1816–1817, 1820a, 1820b), JÓZSEF KASSAI (1817), JÓZSEF KOLMÁR (1821), FERENC KOHÁRY (1824), a grammar by ZSIGMOND DEÁKY, written for Italian speakers (1827), KÁROLY GRUBER’S grammar, written in Latin and called “historical” (1830), do not spread the notion of proper noun beyond personal names and place names.

The spelling rules of 1832, published by the Hungarian Academy (then called Hungarian Scholarly Society), brought no remarkable change in the definition of proper nouns. The question had to be raised in connection with the rules of capitalization. It is a fact, however, that names of institutions were treated in it as proper names (in the examples at least) and it was suggested that any proper nouns can become proper: “All proper nouns are capitalized because any common noun, becoming proper, is begun with a capital letter, e.g., magyar tudós Társaság” (Hungarian scholarly Society, Magyar Helyesírás [Hungarian Spelling] 1832, p. 10). In the grammars of the 19th century there is usually something new added to the definitions of proper nouns. Thus, PÉTER VAJDA is obviously struggling with the psychological and logical approach to common and proper nouns: “…Peter is generally a common noun but becomes a proper one when the apostles are meant; Napoleon is generally a common noun but is a proper one when the
French emperor is meant by it… Names of objects can also be proper names if they refer to one particular thing, e.g., Paris, Anglia, Ganges, Karpathok (the Carpathians) Panama-szoros (the Strait of Panama); Eperjes (a Hungarian town), Vas (a Hungarian county), Tisza (a Hungarian river), Cserhát (a Hungarian hill), Béga (a Hungarian river) etc.” (VAJDA 1835). All these groupings are complemented in a two-volume school textbook by KÁROLY SZÁSZ, who considers even names of ships to be proper nouns: “For example, a new town is being built on the bank of the river Küükülő, a new steam ship is being launched on the Danube and its builders want it to have a name forever. So the former is called »Erzsébetváros« the latter is named »Árpád« by its owners, and all this is done in the way the priest, when a new citizen enters this world, utters the following words over his head: from now on be called János (John), Péter (Peter), Éva (Eve), or Gizela (Gisela), etc., and the name of the town will be Érzsébetváros until it ceases to exist, the steam ship will be called Árpád until it rules the waves, and the man will be named János, Péter, etc., until he or the memory of him is alive. That is how proper names are derived.” (SZÁSZ 1839). Formulating this point, he did not only expand the circle of proper nouns but also expounded his view on the arbitrariness of the emergence of names. There were, of course grammar books, that did not go beyond the personal name/place name concept, like, e.g., the grammar school textbook compiled by MIHÁLY TÁNCICS (at the time he was still called STANCSICS, 1840) or JÁNOS FOGARASI’S book (1843). The definition given in GÁBOR GALGÓCZI’S grammar, richly illustrated with examples, may sound trivial, but it can be considered new in many respects. One of these is the minute definition of what a place name is: “The names of counties, settlements, hills, waters, etc… the names of barren fields, castles, rivers, lakes, arable lands, vineyards, forests, meadows, flat areas, hillocks, caves, etc.”. What is most interesting and radical, however, about his approach is that he also lists the names of the days of the week and the (old) names of the months here: “Boldogasszony’ hava, Bőjtelő’ hava… Télhó, Télutó… Előhó, Másodhó… Hétfő, Kedd” (GALGÓCZI 1848). Besides this minute and almost systematic enumeration, he also calls attention to the importance of toponymic research: “The collection of such denominations in full number and the investigation of their meanings and constituents would be very important for the grammar of Hungarian, as the names of settlements, forests, meadows, etc. contain not only several autonomous roots and stems which could have been nouns and adjectives current at one point of time and lost subsequently but also plenty of affixes that are generally unknown in the formation of common nouns but which may throw light upon these formations (GALGÓCZI 1848, p. 199).
5.5. Handbooks on orthography

Collections of spelling rules should, of course, also be discussed together with grammars, as capitalization generally means the acceptance of a word as being a proper noun. The spelling regulations of the mid-19th century do not, however, exceed the personal name/place name-type definitions to be found in grammars. SZENDE RIEDL was the first to include animal names and ethnonyms in the category of proper names in some of his grammars: “The names of individuals, animals, countries, peoples, rivers, hills, etc. are proper nouns.” (RIEDL 1866, p. 30). In his grammar book written in German he places even forms of address with them: “Ländernamen… Städte- und Ortsnamen… Familienamen… Taufnamen… Titulaturen (Kend, Tekintetés)…” (RIEDL 1858). Grammarians that came after him returned, however, to the old and narrow personal name/place name definition (SZVÓRÉNYI 1864, ÁRVAI 1865, LUTTER 1866, GYURITS 1874, L. TORKOS 1879, etc.). The reason why it does not seem to be worth dealing with textbooks used in elementary education is that these were excellently described by JÁNOS BÖNGÉRFI (1908), who embraced the period between 1780 and the end of the 19th century and stated that none of them gave the system of proper names a thorough consideration.

At the end of the 19th century ZSIGMOND SIMONYI was the first to recognize that proper nouns were “highly varied”. He enumerates names of people, angels, gods, personified notions (Truth, Falsehood), animals, places, stars, ship, books, newspapers, periodicals, institutes, adding that adjectives can also figure as constituents of proper names (Alexander the Great, Saint Stephen), while names of “months, days, holidays are proper nouns in some languages, but not in ours [in Hungarian]” (SIMONYI 1879, p. 37). Another great linguist of the time, JÓZSEF SZINNYEI, is similarly systematic in discussing proper nouns: “Proper nouns are various, such as personal names, family names, animal names, geographical names, names of stars and constellations, institutes and societies, titles of books, newspapers and periodicals (SZINNYEI 1885). Grammarians to come usually followed suit in extending the notion of proper nouns beyond personal and geographical names, even if many of them did not give such a detailed list of the minor categories (HALÁSZ 1897, NÉGYESY 1900, BALASSA 1922, TRÓCSÁNYI 1929, TECHERT 1941, BENKŐ et al. 1951a, 1951b, SZEMERE 1953, etc.). Change was only brought about by the academic descriptive grammar of 1961 (TOMPA) in that trade mark names were also included in this category, which has been promptly reflected in our school text books ever since. KATALIN SOLTÉSZ (1981) proposed that “event names” should be proper nouns in Hungarian, too, a view that has not yet been generally accepted by linguists. It is to be hoped that this will soon happen.
We fully agree with the following statement made by JÁNOS BALÁZS (1970, pp. 297–8): “subsystems of proper nouns are categories that are continually changing and fluctuating in different languages”. This is why it seems difficult to give an overall definition valid for every language and this is why the grouping and categorization of proper nouns vary from language to language.

6. Name theory

A field more important and requiring a deeper insight than mere systematization is the determination of the place of proper nouns in the language system, so it is understandable that the issue became the focus of interest considerably later. PARTRIDGE (1949) applied a formal approach, saying that proper nouns consisting of more than one words cannot be considered a sub-branch of proper nouns. This was taken up by STEWART (1953), LANGENDONCK (1978, 1979), then by PAMP (1982, 1985, 1989). In Hungarian linguistics, it was BARABÁS, KÁLMÁN C., and NÁDASDY, who first discussed this question and stated: “structures consisting of more than one words cannot be considered to be parts of speech, consequently, nouns” (BARABÁS et al. 1977, p. 136). It is really hard to imagine that the title of the following study should be taken for a noun: “A rossz arcú, himlőhelyes, nyiszlett kis Varjúnak tulajdonképpen Varga János volt a neve. Már ezt is tudtam. Azt hittem, hogy már memenyi mindent tudok.” (The real name of little Varjú, who had a skinny figure and a coarse-featured, pock-marked face, was János Varga. I knew even that. I thought that I knew an awful lot; E. FARKAS 1997).

Although it has been pointed out above that titles of books, periodicals, poems, etc. have been regarded as proper nouns in Hungarian linguistics since the end of the 19th century, this proper noun can, however, by no means be a noun! This means that the three sentences quoted above constitute a single title and can be built in the text as a single noun, but it cannot be subcategorized as a noun in the system of the parts of speech. The views have taken shape in the course of a long debate with many participants (FABÓ 1979, 1980, HAJDÚ 1997, 1998a, 1998b, 1999, HEGEDŰS 1997–1999, NYIRKOS 1998, SEBESTYÉN 1998) and have concluded in the recognition that proper nouns may behave as nouns grammatically but the part of speech they belong to can be a meaningless flow of sounds, verbs, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, adverbs, interjections, etc. or a phrase, a full sentence as well as a text consisting of several sentences (see the example above). Concerning the part of speech they belong to, proper nouns are not nouns in each case and, naturally, can never be one of the subgroups of nouns.

Thus, proper nouns are embedded in the communication (sentence, text) as nouns, but, unlike common nouns, they do not convey thoughts. Their function is one of identification rather, so they are independent of the other parts
of speech and constitute a special system beside them. Although it occurs that the two systems of signs coincide (if the proper noun in question is a one-word unit and has some common meaning as well), but proper nouns like these are but a minor part of their own class; the other, greater part (un-analysable, foreign, not originating from a common noun, a name made up by a phrase, consisting of several words, sentences, texts) is an entirely autonomous linguistic sign, forming a special system. As one-word proper nouns, too, are elements of the identification system, despite undeniable mutual influences they should be separated from common nouns, since the way they emerge, change and disappear has regularities that differ from those of other linguistic elements. Consequently, our grammars should also treat the means of communication (i.e., common nouns) and the means of identification (i.e., proper nouns) as separate units. This view was also held by GÉZA BÁRCZI (1958), who devoted a special chapter to proper nouns in his textbook on the history of vocabulary and differentiated the history of common nouns from that of proper ones. The same approach can be observed in BENKŐ—IMRE’s English-language history of Hungarian (1972), in the great descriptive grammar by ANNA JÁSZÓ (1991) and, recently, in BORBÁLA KESZLER’s “Magyar grammatiká” (Hungarian Grammar, 2000). In all of them special chapters are devoted to the discussion of proper nouns.

7. Researches of scholarly character

All over the world, it was the 19th century that saw the beginning of scholarly studies in onomastics (InternHO. 1995, Vol. I, p. 287). In several countries they were started in the early 19th century (England, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Italy, South-Africa, Japan, Australia, etc.), in others either in the middle (Switzerland, Slovenia, Croatia, USA, Estonia, Russia, etc.) or at the end of the 19th century (Scotland, Iceland, Rumania, Finland, Lithuania, Poland, Bulgaria, Spain, Portugal, Mexico, etc.). Hungary seems to have been in the vanguard of research. ATTIŁA SZABÓ T. (1944) made a detailed summary of toponymic research in Hungary in the 19th century and LÁSZLÓ PAPP (1970) gave a nearly as thorough one on the investigation of personal names. One or the other period or some special areas of the history of onomastic research in Hungary has been discussed either widely or by way of introduction to more comprehensive studies by GÉZA BÁRCZI (1958, pp. 123–6, 142–5); LORÁND BENKŐ (1949, 1970), MIKLÓS KÁZMÉR (1956, 1968), JOLÁN BERRÁR (1960), ÁRPÁD SEBESTYÉN (1967), MIHÁLY HAJDÚ (1969, 1981, 1989, 1992), LAJOS KISS (1970, 1989), KATALIN J. SOLTÉSZ (1981), ANDRÁS MEZŐ (1981, 1982, pp. 15–25), FERENC ÖRDÖG (1989), ISTVÁN HOFFMANN (1993, pp. 7–32). These works reveal that, as early as in 1804, Benedek Virág called Kazinczy’s attention to the importance of names and urged him to deal with their etymologies. The
periodical Tudományos Gyűjtemény (Collection of Scholarly Studies, 1817–1841) was undoubtedly of particular significance. It was initiated and edited for a year by György Fejér, a historian, from 1819 the post was filled in by Endre (András) Thaisz, who was also susceptible to onomastic research. Although there were periods when the romantic historian István Horvát set the tone, the articles touching upon popular usage, ethnography and, last but not least, onomastics, this periodical can be regarded as the starting point in the formation of several areas of research. The study of Hungarian dialects was also launched by this forum, as stated by LORÁND BENKÓ and LÁJOS LÓRINCZE (1951, p. 4).

The urgent need for a complete collection of Hungarian names (Magyar Onomasticon) first emerged at about this time (HORVÁT 1821) and COUNT JÓZSEF TELEKI also wrote his competition essay “A magyar nyelvnek tökélletesítése új szavak és új szóllás módok által” (The Improvement of the Hungarian Language with New Words and Styles), awarded with Marczi-bánya Prize, in 1821. Here he elaborated the view that proper nouns, being totally different from common nouns, should be grouped in different sets, and in a dictionary to be made first names and family names should come separated from place names. He also noted that the latter, though less significant, should by all means figure in a dictionary “because of their peculiarities of derivation”. It was essentially upon his directions that the collection of material for the commonly known Czuczor—Fogarasi dictionary began. Its guidelines, laid down in 1840, paid special attention to proper nouns: “Proper names of families, nations, countries, provinces, towns, hills, waters, settlements, etc., like magyar (Hungarian), cseh (Czech), Őrs, Sajó, Pécs, etc., should also be given their entries as they can be informative of derivation types.” (CzF. Vol. I, p. 3).

Family name research also yielded some surprising results. In the same year two authors, THAISZ (1820) and GÁBOR SEBESTYÉN (1820) made individual attempts to systematize Hungarian family names. A few decades later ISTVÁN FÁBIÁN (1864), making use of foreign experience, expanded this classification.

Addressing the scholars of the time, in 1837 the Hungarian Scholarly Society announced a competition for “providing etymologies for (geographical) place names and family names, either current or living in memory”. We have seen above that GALGÓCZI’s Grammar (1848) also urged the collection of place names. The initiative soon bore its first fruit. In the 1850 issue of the journal “Új Magyar Múzeum” (New Hungarian Museum) IMRÉ RÉVÉSZ, a young Calvinist minister from Balmazújváros, first spoke out for the importance of teaching folk songs, then added that he was collecting place names “in both Hungarian homelands” (Hungary and Transylvania), empha-
sizing their crucial role: “It would be a tremendous advantage for the development of our language if we recorded the names of all mountains, hills, vales, streams, balks between strips of land, that is all the names current in a region. What an enormous treasure lies buried here without being exploited and what useful information it would give to linguists on this undisclosed labyrinth of our language!” (quoted by S. É. Kiss 1981, p. 3). In his works that followed (1850, 1853, 1855) he even went far beyond these limits, giving an account of his methods of collecting two thousand place names and sketching up his future plans. Most of them obviously fell through because of his being invited by the populous Debrecen congregation, which also meant an ever increasing burden of ecclesiastical duties. Following in Plato’s and Leibnitz’s footsteps, he held that one, if properly trained, could find a sound etymology for every place name, but he condemned pseudo-etymologies like Zsigmond Lenkey’s Aquitania < ‘agg ti tanya’ (untranslatable: meaning something like ‘old man’s farm’, an explanation naively based on the similarity of sounds — translator’s remark). ATTILA T. SZABÓ refers to Révész as “one having been a great researcher of place names even according to our standards, let alone those of his time” (1944, p. 21). His influence can be traced in place name collections in which attempts at full coverage can be observed, as in LAJOS BALKÁNYI SZABÓ’s “Debrecen helynevei” (The Place Names of Debrecen, 1865), but it was most crucial to giving ideas and encouragement to Frigyes Pesty to start off collecting work on a large scale.

In 1856, Pál Hunfalvy launched the journal “Magyar Nyelvészet” (Hungarian Linguistics), which survived for six years. It soon became a forum for the publication of studies on place names and personal names. (In LÁSZLÓ PAPP’s opinion [1970, pp. 61–2] it was only then that place name research meeting the standards of scholarly investigation in the modern sense of the word had begun.) As early as in the very first issue an unknown author published an essay on CURTIUS’s “De nomine Homeri” (173–5), followed by a paper by BUDENZ on the Indic elements of Greek proper names and on the necessity of comparative studies in onomastics. Place names of the Fertő region and Zala county were also topics of discussion (PHILOPHENNUS 1858, L. TORKOS 1860). It was here that HUNFALVY (1867) published a paper of methodological importance.

The most outstanding contribution of the age to research in onomastics was undoubtedly made by FRIGYES PESTY. Some information on his career seems to be inevitable to mention. He was born in Temesvár in 1823 and studied to be a historian. In 1849 he worked at the Ministry of Defence of the Debrecen Government, so he was forced to emigrate to Turkey after the surrender at Világos. In Turkey he fell ill, returned home and was im-
prisoned twice. Between the two terms he was the secretary of the Chamber of Industry in Temesvár. In 1861, after being released for the second time, he was elected representative and then worked as general secretary for the First Industrial Bank of Pest. In 1867 he played a prominent role in the organization of the Hungarian Historical Society. He died in Budapest in 1889. From about the 1850s he was considered to be one of the best journalists even by his contemporaries. Pesty regularly wrote articles on historical topics as well as on histories of various localities and place names for the leading daily and weekly papers of the late 19th century Imre Révész’s studies, the calls of the Academy and the “Új Magyar Múzeum” (New Hungarian Museum, a periodical, see above) for research urged him to organize the collection of geographical names, which he promulgated in a number of his articles. He was deeply aware of this kind of research being not only important but difficult, too, not to mention the errors that could be committed. To show how untenable etymological explanations based on the mere similarity of sound forms were, he used a strange simile: “Etymologists using the similarity of sounds are worth no more than politicians influenced by their changeable moods in dealing with state affairs” (PESTY 1857). The idea of starting the collection of place names all over the country first emerged in a letter of his written to Antal Csengery in 1863 (A. SZABÓ T. 1944, p. 40). In all probability, Pesty had the idea rejected by the Military Government General at the beginning of that year or at the end of the previous one but he immediately applied to the Hungarian Regency, the Transylvanian Government General and the Headquarters of the Southern Borderguards asking them “to order the collection of geographical names to be carried out as an official state commission”. Supported by the Academy and the Transylvanian Museum Society, he was granted permission to begin the work in Hungary and Transylvania but not in the border zones of Croatia and Slavonia, which were under military control. PESTY made the instruction as to how the collecting work should be done in an unbelievably short time and had it translated into the languages of all the ethnic groups of contemporary Hungary. In a few days it was sent out to the counties, which forwarded it to the settlements. It is worth briefly considering the whole process. Pesty asked for support in his letter of February 10, 1863 and was granted permission on July 30. By January 27, 1864, he had sent out more than 10,000 instructions and questionnaires, with the majority of answers coming back by late 1864. He and Vilmos Duliczky, archivist of the city of Pest, looked through the incredibly huge material by August 1865, calling upon settlements that had not carried out the work or did it negligently to complete the collecting, which meant that by late 1865/early 1866 the nearly full list of place names of historical Hungary, gathered simultaneously, had been made. The whole material was bound in 63 bulky volumes and deposited in the Hungarian
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National Museum. Today it is preserved in the manuscript archives of the National Széchényi Library. Apart from organisational work, never really appreciated, Pesty wrote dozens of articles for newspapers, scientific and literary periodicals to popularise the project and promote its success. All this makes him worthy of the esteem of posterity. This is what the scholar and organiser himself wrote about this tremendous work, unmatched in its speed and effectiveness anywhere in the world: “I sent out programmes, questionnaires and instructions, translated into every language, to every village. The result is of mixed quality as my programme might have reached different, more or less intelligent and enthusiastic priests, town or village clerks and supporters of the cause. Therefore, the collection is partly deficient but there is no doubt that now it could not be compiled even with the deficiencies it has because of the consolidation of holdings that has been carried out since then. The old names of land strips have been abandoned and re-numbered instead, as suggested by the land surveyors” (Pesty 1888, pp. XXXI–XXXII).

It is to be regretted that this invaluable and huge material lay untouched for decades. Our best researchers knew about it but they did not have either the time or the opportunity to process it and make it available to scientific study. Besides the study of folk language, the inaugural article of the journal “Magyar Nyelvőr” (Hungarian Language Guard), launched in 1872, announced the task of collecting place names (and personal names) as though Pesty’s work had not even existed.

8. The role of linguistic periodicals

There is no doubt that the launching of a new periodical gives an impetus to scientific research and that is what happened when “Magyar Nyelvőr” was started. Hundreds of data of place names, personal names and even animal names were published from the 1870s onwards. Although these were of a mixed standard, one cannot help but wonder why researchers have been processing, as a rule, only their own material for studies in onomastics, whereas data collected by others has hardly been dealt with until recently. And this is so despite the fact that an excellent bibliography of the study of folk usage, place names and personal names has been available since the middle of the 20th century (Benkő—Lőrincze 1951). Apart from the mere recording of data, Nyelvőr has, of course, hosted a number of theoretical studies on Hungarian onomastics. Áron Szilády began to publish a series entitled “A nevekről” (On Names; 1873) as early as in the second issue. In the following one Gyula Krajnik (1874) discussed the translatability of proper nouns. The problem of 14th–15th century family names and nicknames, which has not yet been settled up to the present, was raised by Frigyes Pesty (1876), whose activity has been given an appreciative review.
above. The periodical “Turul”, launched by the Hungarian Society of Heraldry and Genealogy, also advanced the cause of research in onomastics to a remarkable extent. The same can be said of the journal “Turán”, started in 1913 by the Turan Society. It was in the former that FERENC KUBÍNYI, JÁNOS KARÁCSONYI, GÉZA NAGY and others printed their papers on personal names. At the end of the 19th century the adoption of Hungarian-sounding family names became highly fashionable, a topic which engaged a wide circle of linguists, historians and politicians. Around the Millennium (the thousandth anniversary of the Hungarian Conquest) the debate on the translatability of names flared up again, followed by a similarly lively discussion of female names at the beginning of the 20th century. It was also at that time that the eminent ethnographist JÁNOS JANKÓ undertook to gather the place names and nicknames at Kalotaszeg (1892) and around Lake Balaton (1902). In 1905 the Hungarian Linguistic Society launched its periodical “Magyar Nyelv” (Hungarian Language), which also served as a forum of scholarly studies in onomastics.

9. Historical onomastics

The turn of the 19th–20th centuries saw a general upsurge in the investigation of historical names all over the world. Up to that time it was the names of antiquity that were in the focus of historical study; from the early 20th century on growing attention was paid to names of national history. According to EKWALL’s bibliography (1936, pp. XXXVI–XLI) at least a dozen counties of England published their own volumes of historical place names in those decades. A historical treatment of personal names and place names is reflected in BARDSLEY (1901, England and Wales), JOYCE (1869–1913, Ireland), AASEN (1878) and RYGH (1896, 1904, Norway), LUNDGREN et al. (1892–1934, Sweden), STEENSTRUP (1918, Denmark), WINKLER (1898, Friesland), FÖRSTEMANN (1854–1859, 1863) and SCHÖNFELD (1911, Germany), SCHERER (1884, Austria), LONN (1878, 1872–1874, common Slavic), KOVÁCS (1902–1928, Slovenia). The works (summaries, dictionaries, databases) listed are of different sizes and represent various standards of research.

The genuinely scientific approach to names can be traced back to the development of comparative-historical linguistics, which took its origin from positivism in Europe (J. BALÁZS 1970, MÁTÉ 1997). FERENC KUBÍNYI (1892) was also guided by the principle of searching for and comparing “facts” in his unfinished “A régi magyar személynevek” (Old Hungarian Personal Names). Proper nouns (exclusively of Slavic origin) were first thoroughly analysed and given etymological explanations most of which are considered to be correct even today in JÁNOS MELICH’s dictionary of loans from Slavic (1903–1905). ŽOLTÁN GOMBÓCZ (1915) produced high-level

10. Syntheses

It is a matter of course that great works of synthesis were published simultaneously with those in Hungary in several countries of Europe and new summaries of this kind are regularly published all over the world. A book on family names (1958), then one on place names (1960) was published by REANY. The system of place names was discussed by CAMERON (1961) and MCCLURE (1972), the latter using a historical approach. Rumanian Christian names were treated by CONSTANTINESCU (1963), place names (1963) and family names (1983) were described by IORDAN. Besides these, the following authors and topics are by all means worth mentioning: ÖTTERBJÖRK (1964, Swedish Christian names), RAJANDI (1966, Estonian Christian names), VILKUNA (1984, Finnish Christian names), SILINŠ (1990, Latvian Christian names), NIWA (1981, 1985, 1987, Japanese family names), MORGAN et al. (1979), REES—NOBLE (1985), URDANG (1987, nicknames in English), RAVER (1989, South-African place names), PELLEGRINI (1990, Italian place names), SEIBICKE (1991, German Christian names), TIKHONOVA, BOYARI NOVA, RIZHKOVA (1995, Russian Christian names and nicknames). The works listed are construed either as monographs or etymological dictionaries.

Acknowledging all the importance and value of historical summaries (BÁR CZI 1958, 1960, 1961, BENKŐ—IMRE 1972) and works written with an eye on popularization or for didactic purposes (KÁLMÁN 1967, 1978, 1989, L. KIRÁLY 1991, HAJDÚ 1994), one cannot help but state that in Hungary comprehensive syntheses, as well as surveys of the history and present-day stages of the various branches of onomastics, are still to be made.
11. Bibliographies

Current or retrospective bibliographies can provide a great impetus for the development of an area of science. Works of this kind have appeared since the late 1860s, but they began to come in larger numbers from the 1950s. Data of studies on English personal names were retrospectively collected by ELSDON C. SMITH (1952, republished 1965). It is perhaps the four-volume bibliography of onomastics published in Poland that can be considered to be the first complete series hitherto launched (TASZYCZKI 1966–1992). In Germany, a bibliography of names of field units of village land and strips between them came out very early (BESCHORNER 1928), in former East Germany ERNST EICHLER supervised the edition of the summary of literature in the area (EICHLER et al. 1963, 1966). GABRIELE KEMPF (1976–1978) compiled a three-volume list of studies in German-Slavic onomastics. The two bibliographies of French onomastics was made by MARIANNE MULON (1977, 1987), the first one embracing the period before 1960, the second one comprising the material between 1960 and 1985. In the former Soviet Union, a three-volume bibliography of studies in onomastics, which covers the period from 1963–1980, was compiled by MALINSKAYA and SABAT (1976–1984). In Norway, two separate bibliographies were published: one for personal names (AARSET 1979), the other for place names (LARSEN 1981). ZWANZIGER (1980) has been editing the bibliography of onomastic studies in Austria since 1980. In Bulgaria, a three-volume bibliography of studies in onomastics (DURIDANOV et al. 1972–1980, CHOLEVA 1993) was published. Spanish and Portuguese onomastics has been summarised in one volume (ARIZA VIQUERA 1981). KAGAMI, KUSUHARA and SAKURAI (KAGAMI et al. 1981) produced a bibliography of 5400 studies in Japanese place names published between 1869 and 1979. In Switzerland, separate bibliographies are devoted to place names (GAPANY 1982) and family names (MOOS 1993). Icelandic and Faroese onomastics was summed up in a bibliography by ELINGSVE (1984). The same work for Uzbekh onomastics between the late 19th century and 1988 was done by NAFAsov et al. (1989). An enormous amount of material of onomastic studies in Uralic languages is contained in the two-volume HOFFMANN 2001. The list given above is one of individual books, summaries published in periodicals have not been treated. The several excellent surveys published in the volumes of “Onoma” have been left out. Neither have I included the works that are given at the end of the summaries of onomastic studies in different nations (International Handbook of Onomastics 1995).

In Hungary, as in many other countries, it was the bibliography of dialectology (BENKŐ—LÖRINICZE 1951) that first listed publications on Hungarian (folk) place and personal names. The bibliography of Hungarian studies in linguistics, edited by JÁNOS BALÁZS, came out yearly between 1961 and
1965. In its subchapters on onomastics all the studies of the genre can be found. Experts were given good orientation about articles dealing with names and published in various periodicals between 1970 and 1991 from “Analecta Linguistica”, which was edited by ANDRÁS RÓNA-TAS and came out semi-annually. The journal “Hungarológiai Értesítő” (Review of Hungarian Studies) had a section of bibliography edited by JAKAB MÁTE, which contained all the works in Hungarian onomastics from 1979 to 1994, the last being its 24th volume. The publication ended then and no continuation can be expected as yet. A secondary English-language bibliography of Hungarian onomastics was edited by HAJDÚ (1973), but it enumerated only partial studies, repertories of periodicals and lesser compilations. The series “Onomastica Uralica” (HOFFMANN 2000) was launched as what seemed to be a major enterprise in the field but its first volume included just a short selection of literature in onomastics, therefore it can mainly be used by college students as a reference book helping with their theses or by persons of other professions interested in onomastics.

12. Institutions

Another important point of reliance for a branch of science to become independent and capable of developing is some institutional background with an administration and a budget. This is not to mean that researchers of the field should be accommodated by one single institution. There should, however, be a university department, a section of the Academy or a civil organisation with its own budget that would ensure a security of working conditions for a few researchers and where there would be an employee in charge of administration, sending out questionnaires and doing the mechanical arrangement of incoming responses and their preparation for research. A scholar working on its own would not be able to do that even if endowed with the most outstanding organisational skills.

Institutions can be divided in two rather clear-cut types. The first type emerged at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century and consisted of state panels, offices and commissions dealing mainly with place names in order to eliminate identities of names that became noticeable as a result of the expansion of railway and postal services. At the same time they also aimed at creating a unified system of usage of denominations. Their members were state-employed office clerks working in the administration on the one hand and archivists, historians and, to the least extent, linguists, on the other. This type is well represented by the Geographical Board of Canada, established in 1897 and re-named Canadian Permanent Committee on Geographical Names in 1961. It functions even today alongside with the French-language Commission de toponymie de Quebec, formed in 1977 (HARDER 1995). The Place Names Office in Ireland, which published the re-
sults of its work as early as in 1905, is similarly structured and has not ceased to work ever since (EASPAIG 1995). The Ortnamnskommittén in Sweden is engaged in the same activity. The Stednavneudvalget, that is the state-run place name committee in Denmark, was set up in 1910. In Switzerland the so-called nomenklatorkommision was formed in each canton, the Mistopisná komise (Onomastická komise since 1982) was established in the Czech Kingdom in 1913. All these are organizations that are still functioning.

Historical Hungary with its multiethnic social structure took a start on other European states, for it soon turned out to be vitally necessary to unify and systematize settlement names. The special body that was set up was called the Register Committee and the work it had accomplished between 1898 and 1912 could have been anything but easy and must have required great care (MEZŐ 1982). For a long time, however, there has been no official organisation that would deal with name giving and name selection in Hungary. In 1968 there was an attempt to establish a national name committee (MIKESY 1968) but it never was put into practice. Permission to change place names is given by the Central Office of Statistics. The Ministry of the Interior is the authority that can certificate changes of surnames. The list of first names is reviewed and completed by the Institute of Linguistics of the Hungarian Academy but, except for the last institution, it is state officials and not linguists who make the decisions.

Apart from these state-run official bodies, scholarly circles (semi-officially linked to institutes of academies or university departments) and civil societies formed by people interested in onomastic studies sprang up rather early all over the world. The first of these, undoubtedly, was the place name and dialect research institute of Göteborg University, established in 1917. The English Place Name Society has been functioning since 1923. It was in 1926 that the Commission royale de Toponymie et de Dialectologie in Belgium was founded. In France it was Albert Dauzat who organised the Commission nationale de Toponymie et Anthroponymie within the Department of Phonetics and Dialect Studies, also headed by him, and directed it until his death (1955). This can be considered to have been the predecessor of the Institut d’Onomastique, the Centre d’Onomastique des Archives Nationales, the Commission Nationale de Toponymie and the Société Française d’Onomastique (MULON 1995). In the USA, the American Name Society was called to life in 1951. It has had a place name section since 1953, whereas its computer database was begun in 1960. In Poland, the Academy has run separate departments of personal names and place names since 1958. The same year saw the formation of a place name research team, which has had a special department in the Institute of Linguistics since 1991. In Bulgaria, a place name research section has worked since 1950, having had its own sub-
department since 1963. In 1964 the Istituto Italiano di Onomastica came into being at the University of Florence. The Canadian Society for the Study of Names sprang up in 1967. In South Africa, the Onomastic Research Institute was created not much later, in 1970. One of its branches is the Southern African Names Research Institute. Since 1981 the Institute has had a civil society, called Names Society of Southern Africa. The Austrian institution for dialect and onomastic studies is the Dialekt und Namenlexika der österreichischen Akademie der Wissenschaften in Wien.

Unfortunately, research in onomastics in Hungary does not have either independent or shared institutional background. The Committee of Onomastics of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences operated a Subcommittee of Name Studies for a short time, which, however, ceased to function after Géza Bárczi’s death (1975). No university or college department has undertaken to include the tag ‘onomastics’ in its denomination and researchers in the field are rather isolated from each other. The institutions where different research topics in onomastics are present are as follows: Institute of Linguistics, Hungarian Academy of Sciences; Faculty of Philology, Teacher Training College, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest; Faculty of Philology, University of Debrecen; University of Miskolc; Pázmány Péter Catholic University; Besseneyet György Teacher Training College, Nyíregyháza; Esteházy Károly Teacher Training College, Eger; Teacher Training Colleges of Jászberény, Kaposvár and Zsámbék. At the Department of Hungarian Linguistics of Eötvös Loránd University, there have been attempts, though, to coordinate researchers in Hungary and abroad. In 1970 a Name Research Workgroup was established (DEME 1974, p. 33), whose members, over a hundred people, regularly exchanged publications and held conferences together with the Hungarian Linguistic Society. Owing to failing administration, however, these connections have either disappeared or are disappearing.

13. Periodicals

How independent and well-organized a branch of science is best proved by its having periodicals of its own. Those in onomastics are often mentioned in the Hungarian specialist literature (L. KISS 1966, HAJDŰ 1992), but their complementation and review on the basis of the International Handbook (InternHO 1995) mentioned above seems to be an important task to do. In all probability, the first periodical of onomastics is “Namn och Bygd: Tidskrift för Nordisk Ortsnamnsforskning”, which has come out since 1913 in Sweden. At first only place names were treated in it, but today it is a forum of theoretical onomastic studies and reviews as well. The annual “Sydsvenska Ortnamssällskapets Årsskrift” has been published by the Place Name Society of South Sweden since 1925, whereas the Uppsala Place Name Society launched its yearly, the “Ortnamssällskapets i Uppsala
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Årsskrift” in 1936. It is the same city where the “NORNA-Rapporter” has been issued since 1973. It publishes databases and bibliographies. Since 1983 personal name studies have had their own periodicals in Sweden: one of them is the “Studia Anthroponymica Scandinavia: Tidskrift för Nordisk Personnamnsforsking”, the other is the “Anthroponymica Suecana”. And it is also Sweden that hosts the journal “Nomina Germanica”. The first periodical of onomastics in Germany, the “Zeitschrift für Namenforschung”, existed between 1925 and 1943. It was restarted after the World War II, in 1950, in Heidelberg and was called “Beiträge zur Namenforschung”. Its new series has come out re-numbered since 1966. The annual of Upper Germany is “Blätter für Oberdeutsche Namenforschung”. In Leipzig, East Germany, “Namenkundliche Informationen” has been printed since 1964. It may be a little less attractive in its outer appearance but is richer in its content than the others. It is also in the East German city that ERNST EICHLER has edited the serial “Onomastica Slavogermanica” since 1965. In Holland, the periodical “Naamkunde” has come out twice a year since 1925. “Anthroponymica” has been published in Groningen and Brussels since 1950. In Belgium, a bilingual journal of onomastic studies, the “Bulletin de la Commission Royale de Toponymie et de Dialectologie / Handelingen van de Koninklijke Commissie voor Toponymie et Dialectologie”, was launched in 1926. In France, ALBERT DAUZAT organized international conferences at first, then he started “Onomastica” in 1947, which, two years later, changed its title into “Revue Internationale d’Onomastique”, and since 1983 it has been named “Nouvelle Revue d’Onomastique”. In harmony with its subtitle (Onomastique Générale et Methodologie Toponymie et Anthroponymie Romanes et Slaves) it covers a wide range of topics. In Canada, 1950 saw the appearance of “Onomastica”, changed into “Onomastica Canadiana” in 1983. It is published once every half years, with studies written both in English and French. “Canoma”, which deals with English and German place names, has been in circulation since 1975 and comes out twice a year. In Greece, “Onomata: Revue d’onomastique greque”, has come out with varying regularity since 1952. In the USA, the American Name Society first published “Names: A Quarterly” in 1953, which soon acquired international fame and publishes excellent theoretical studies as well as data from all over the world. In Poland, “Onomastica: Pismo poświęcone nazewnictwu geograficznemu i osobowemu”, was started in 1955. In Japan, “Chimeigaku Kenkyuu” (Place Name Studies) first came out in 1957, the annual “Chimei to Fuudo” (Place Names and Folklore) was launched in 1982. The Czech “Zpravodaj Místopisné Komise Československá Akademie Víd” was first printed in 1960 and was later named “Onomastický Zpravodaj” and re-named “Acta Onomastica” in 1995. In Great Britain, the “Journal of the English Place Name Society” has been published since 1969, whereas “Nomina: Journal of the Society for Name Studies in Britain and Ireland” first appeared in 1978. In Yugoslavia, 14
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volumes of “Onomastica Jugoslavica” left the press from 1969 to 1991 and it was followed by “Onomatološki Prilozi”, a joint publication by Serbia and Montenegro. Croatia has its own periodical entitled “Folia Onomastica Croatia”. In the former Soviet Union, annuals or occasional series of onomastic studies appeared in several places. From 1971, “Вопросы Ономас-

tica” (The Questions of Onomastics) and “Ономастика Поволжья” (Onomastics around Volga) came out in various cities. In 1980, the periodical “Ономастика Востока” (Onomastics of the East) was still being published in Moscow. “Топонимика” (Toponymy) was started in Tbilisi in 1976, whereas in Machatchkala, Dagestan “Ономастика Кавказа” (Onomastics of the Caucasus) was launched. “Беларусская Анамастика” (White Russian Onomastics) began in 1977. All these may have ceased to function since then as a result of the recent historical changes. The Austrian annual of onomastics, “Österreichische Namenforschung”, was first printed in 1973. In Roumania, the periodical, whose first issue came into circulation in 1976, was called “Studii de Onomastică”. The periodical in Spain is named “Societat d’Onomàstica Bulletí Interior” (1980). Switzerland launched its “Studi Onomastica Helvetica” in 1983. The following year, 1984, saw the appearance of “Namn og Nemne” (Names and Naming) and “Nytt om Namn, Meldingsblad for Norsk Namnelag” (News on Names. Information Bulletin of the Norwegian Onomastic Society) in Norway. In Northern Ireland, “Ainm, Bulletin of the Ulster Place-Name Society”, was first brought out in 1986. “Nomina Africana” in South Africa began in 1987. In Denmark, 1992 was the year that witnessed the birth of “Navnestudies” (Studies in Names). To my best knowledge, the most recent one is the Italian “Rivista Italiana di Onomastica” (1995), whose prominent Hungarian contributor is ZSUZSA FÁBIÁN.

The idea of launching a Hungarian journal of onomastics first sprang up in 1958, when Sándor Mikey edited the first issue “Névészeti Értesítő” (Bulletin of Onomastics), but even those few copies, which had been printed with a rather primitive technology, were not even sent out. The “Névtani Ér-

téső” (Onomastic Bulletin), initiated by the Onomastic Workgroup of the Department of Hungarian Linguistics of Eötvös Loránd University, was first edited in 1979 by Mihály Hajdú and Andráss Mező. They shared the editorial work on the first three issues, then it was Mihály Hajdú alone who prepared the volumes up to the 12th, but, having no institutional background, he passed the duty on to Attila Hegedüs, head of the Hungarian Linguistics Department of Pázmány Péter Catholic University. In 2000 he edited the 22nd volume (formally still under the aegis of Eötvös Loránd University) of this periodical, which can be considered to be the first of this kind in Hungary. The team mentioned above began to publish the series “Magyar Személyné-
i Adattárak” (Databases of Hungarian Personal Names) which has con-
tained 99 volumes so far. “Magyar Névtani Dolgozatok” (Papers on Hungarian Onomastics) is a series of essay volumes started in 1976 and having reached its 170th issue. Both of these items were launched and are edited by Mihály Hajdú. Apart from the forums mentioned journals of linguistics like “Magyar Nyelvjárások”, “Magyar Nyelv”, “Magyar Nyelvőr”, “Nyelv- és Irodalomtudományi Közlémények” as well as annuals of universities and colleges regularly deal with questions of onomastics.

14. Congresses and conferences

The international society of onomastic studies was founded by Albert Dauzat in Paris in 1938 and was called Comité international des sciences onomastiques (CISO). Its first (1938) and second (1947) conferences were held here. At the third one in Brussels (1949) the organisation was given its more commonly known English name: International Council of Onomastic Sciences (ICOS), which has had about 150 members ever since and with the member countries represented by 2–10 delegates. They are chosen for this body by recommendation, invitation or election. For many years, Hungary was represented by István Kniezsa, Géza Bárczi, Béla Kálmán and Loránd Benkő. Since 1949, congresses have been held in various countries every three years: 4th in Uppsala in 1952; 5th in Salamanca in 1955; 6th in Munich in 1958; 7th in Florence in 1961; 8th in Amsterdam in 1963; 9th in London in 1966; 10th in Vienna in 1969; 11th in Sofia in 1972; 12th in Bern in 1975; 13th in Cracow in 1978; 14th in Ann Arbor in 1981; 15th in Leipzig in 1984; 16th in Quebec in 1987; 17th in Helsinki in 1990; 18th in Trier in 1993; 19th in Aberdeen in 1996; 20th in Barcelona in 1999. This latter was to have been arranged in and by Hungary but the Hungarian Academy of Sciences did not undertake the task as there was no background institution to be found that would have done the work of organisation. So far the proceedings of each of the congresses have been printed, some of them forming rather bulky volumes. The real effect of ICOS on international onomastic research has been felt since 1950, when its periodical “Onoma, Journal of the International Council of Onomastic Sciences, Bibliographical and Information Bulletin” was started. At first it published studies and articles on all types of proper names from several regions and countries in the world as well as retrospective and annual national bibliographies. Lately, owing to financial difficulties, the range has been narrowed down to selected bibliographies, news and obituaries. Sándor Mikesy edited the list of Hungarian specialist literature up to his death (1975), when the task was taken over by Ferenc Ördög and László Vincze.

In Hungary, the Hungarian Linguistic Society arranged one or two lectures in onomastics within a separate onomastic section every year between 1975 and 1985. Since then these lectures have been organised by the Hungarian
Linguistics section. Conferences are also put up by the Hungarian Linguistic Society together with other institutions. The presentations given at them are also published. The first such conference was held in Budapest in 1958 and the lectures were edited by SÁNDOR MIKESY in 1960. 2nd conference: Budapest 1969, “Névtudományi előadások” (Lectures in Onomastics) eds. MIKLÓS KÁZMÉR and JÓZSEF VÉGH, Budapest. 1970; 3rd: Veszprém 1980, “Név és társadalom” (Name and Society) eds. MIHÁLY HAJDÚ and ENDRE RÁCS, Budapest. 1981; 4th Zalaegerszeg 1986 eds. LÁJOS BÁLOGH and FERENC ÖRDÖG, Budapest. 1989; 5th Miskolc 1995 eds. PIROSKA B. GERGELY and MIHÁLY HAJDÚ, Budapest.–Miskolc 1997.

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