

Resources and sources in anthroponomastic studies: a review of contemporary references

Recursos y fuentes en los estudios antroponómicos: una revisión de referencias contemporáneas

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Abstract: This paper investigates the various sources that can serve as a starting point for the study of anthroponomastic processes. We examine two types of resources for this kind of research. On the one hand, we can access more or less established repertoires, as is the case of the database provided by public institutions in different countries (censuses, registers, statistical agencies, among others), whose purpose as a public service is open and multifunctional. On the other hand, this list can be complemented by other compilations of very different origin and purpose that can be used in a subsidiary manner. These corpora are mostly compiled by the onomastics researcher himself, who uses tools such as interviews, surveys or other mechanisms from which onomastic catalogues can be established, as well as gathering other relevant information in the processes that take place to determine the impact of certain parameters in the attribution processes, specifically in that which affects personal names.

Keywords: anthroponymy, anthroponomastics, socio-onomastics, sources, resources.

Resumen: Este trabajo indaga en las diversas fuentes que pueden servir de punto de partida para el estudio de los procesos antroponómicos. Examinamos dos tipos de recursos para este tipo de investigaciones. Por una parte, podemos acceder a repertorios más o menos establecidos, como es el caso de la base de datos proporcionada por instituciones públicas en diferentes países (censos, padrones, organismos de carácter estadístico, entre otros), cuyo objetivo como servicio público es de carácter abierto y plurifuncional. Por otra parte, este elenco puede complementarse con otras compilaciones de muy diverso origen y cometido que pueden emplearse de manera subsidiaria. Se trata de corpus elaborados mayoritariamente por el propio investigador en onomástica, que recurre a herramientas como entrevistas, encuestas u otros mecanismos a partir de los cuales pueden establecerse catálogos onomásticos, así como hacer acopio de otra información relevante en los procesos que se suceden para determinar el impacto de determinados parámetros en los procesos de atribución, concretamente en la que afecta a los nombres de persona.

Palabras clave: antroponimia, antroponómica, socionomástica, fuentes, recursos.

Introduction

Onomastics as a discipline raises many unresolved questions. Its open, multidisciplinary character, which makes it so attractive, has had as a counterpoint an enormous thematic and

methodological dispersion. It is in the methodological aspect that problems caused by not having a specialized and unified terminology, which allows the designation of phenomena within the field of study, are beginning to be solved¹.

In this work, I tackle a substantial aspect in the development of onomastic research: the sources and resources on which it is based, and which provide help to scholars of this topic. This task has been addressed before, with different approaches and perspectives. I highlight six bibliographic reviews: that pioneer of WEITMAN (1981), which very pertinently points out some of the issues raised by the selection of primary data sources; that of HUSCHKA and WAGNER (2010), focused primarily on statistical issues; that of SHOKENMAYER (2018), which examines the virtual supports; those of SEIDE (2016) and LÓPEZ FRANCO (2019), which analyze other underlying issues in a significant sample, and the very recent one of CAMPO and RABELO (2021).

Our study is based on a review of 228 works on anthroponymy from recent decades, excluding from this list those of a historical or diachronic type and those based on literary works (names of characters, etc.); likewise, research in anthroponymy-related areas is included (such as studies on onomastic trends addressed by Sociology), given the methodological confluence with our interests. The catalog is characterized by its accessibility and does not seek to be exhaustive since we do not have established bibliographic repertoires, but we believe that, as can be seen in the final section on bibliographic references, it is a sample that we consider to be very representative, more taking into account of the paucity of research in this area. Works written in Spanish, English, French, Portuguese, Italian, Galician, and Catalan have been chosen, although these languages are tools used for describing of much wider syntopies than the territories where their use is official. Therefore, we have not established any diatopical

¹ The International Council of Onomastic Sciences (ICOS) has made and is making a great effort to organize and unify the terminology of this discipline, but some of the deficiencies pointed out by Aleksiejuk (2015) are still under observation: "In onomastics, a lack of universally accepted terminology and definitions creates difficulties in cooperation between different scholars and schools, which may affect the success of a prospective theory".

restriction, but a temporary one, since, although some of the phenomena treated may date back to centuries ago, they are considered from a strictly synchronous point of view, regarding the last two decades of production². In this regard, we believe that historical research has its own procedures and sources, which should be considered in a specific review. Although our inventory collects data on anthroponymy, there are subtypes, such as first names, which are evidently more represented than other categories, such as family names or nicknames. Before moving on to the classification of sources, I will make two pertinent remarks, despite being obvious.

In the first place, the methodologies, of course, must be adapted to the objectives of the research, so that the same tool cannot be used for an examination of attributive tendencies as for analyzing the attitudes generated by certain names. Secondly, on many occasions the approach to a research topic must be polyhedral. This is the foundation of methodological principles such as triangulation, which DENZIN (1970, *apud* HERREROS MARCILLA, 2020: 68) defines as "the combination of two or more theories, data sources, research methods, in the study of a singular phenomenon". The starting point is that studies that use a single methodological strategy are more vulnerable to bias, so triangulation offers the alternative of approaching a certain phenomenon from different angles in search of a more objective point of view.

1. Sources of anthroponomastic research

In our classification, we distinguish between external sources and those made by the researcher himself.

1.1. External sources

² On some occasions, the less, and because of their methodological interest, we cite pioneering works in anthroponymy, such as that of Boyd-Bowman (1970) or Henley and Spencer (1985).

On many occasions, there are ready-made repertoires available to the scholar of anthroponomastics that can serve as a starting point for their research. These repertoires pursue other purposes than purely onomastic analysis, but they constitute a first-order tool for it. This type of corpus largely comes from public institutions that prepare and share it as a service to the community and as a sign of transparency, under headings that vary depending on the organization of population data from different countries.

In this category of sources we find the classic national population censuses, such as the US Census (WHISSELL, 2001; BARRY and HARPER, 2003; MATEOS, 2010; HEGARTY et al., 2011; MONASTERIO, 2017³), the Registro Nacional de Población de México (RENAPO) (BECKER, 2018), the Registro Civil Central de Chile (BECKER, 2018), the Registraduría Nacional de Colombia (BECKER, 2018), the National Register Norway (ALHAUG, 2002), the Central Bureau of Population of Norway (ALHAUG and SAARELMA, 2017), the Census of Population for England and Wales (KANDT and LONGLEY, 2018), the Gemeentelijke Basis Administratie (GBA) (BLOOTHOOFT, 2010) or the Finnish Population Register Center (AINIALA, SAARELMA and SJÖBLOM, 2016).

We also include here the specific registers and records of certain syntopies: Barcelona (ALBAIGÉS, 2014), Casabindo (ALFARO, 2010), Baia Mare (BARBUL, 2012), Madrid (BRAVO, 2012, GARCÍA GALLARÍN, 2007a and 2014), Basque Country (GORROTXATEGI, 2000a), Galicia (BOULLÓN, 2006), Palotina (VESCOVI, 2014, 2015 and 2016), Toledo-Paraná (SEIDE and GRESPAN, 2013 and GRESPAN, 2014), Tromsø (REISMTER, 2006), Montpellier (LÓPEZ FRANCO, 2001, 2003, 2010c, 2014 and 2016), Tlalnepantla de Baz (LÓPEZ FRANCO, 2007, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2014; JIMÉNEZ SEGURA, 2005, 2014, 2016), New York State (LIEBERSON and BELL, 1992), Riudoms (PEREA, 2016), Marechal Cândido Rondon (SEIDE, 2017b), Santa Clara (RABELO, 2020),

³ References are cited in order of publication date.

Curitiba (THONUS, 1992) and Comuna de Fidela (TONDA, 2014). In this category, we incorporate electoral registers, such as the Instituto Nacional Electoral de México (INE) (BECKER, 2018), the registers of Illinois, Alabama and North Carolina (COOK et al., 2015) and the Electoral Register for Great Britain (MATEOS et al., 2007; TUCKER, 2004).

In other countries, similar data are provided by other types of organizations, sometimes of a statistical nature, as is the case of the Instituto Nacional de Estadística of Spain (INE) (BECKER, 2018; FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL, 2019, 2021a, 2021b; FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL and SEIDE, 2021; GORROTXATEGI, 2000b; KOHOUTKOVÁ, 2009), the Institut National de la Statistique et des Études Économiques of France (INSEE) (BERGER and LE MENS, 2009), the Office of National Statistics of Great Britain (HEGARTY et al., 2011), the Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística (IBGE) (AMARAL and SEIDE, 2020; FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL and SEIDE, 2021; SEIDE and FRAI, 2019; SEIDE and PETRULIONE, 2018), the Instituto Galego de Estatística (BOULLÓN, 2016), the Valstybinė lietuvių kalbos komisija (VLKK) – State Commission of the Lithuanian Language (SEIDE and PETRULIONE, 2018) or the Department of Statistics of Jordan (HARB and AL ABED, 2016).

Very close to this category of official repertoires are those from the health field, such as the US Social Security Administration (SSA) (BARRY and HARPER, 2003; BERGER et al., 2012; BERGER and LE MENS, 2009; NUESSEL, 2016; TUCKER, 2009; TWENGE et al., 2010; XI et al., 2014), the Dutch Social Security Service (GERRITZEN, 2006), the Pennsylvania State Health Data Center (BARRY and HARPER, 2003), and the California Department of Health Services (FRYER and LEVITT, 2004), to which the hospital records, that have served as the basis for some studies such as that of MATEOS and WEBER (2018), must be added.

Also of an institutional nature, there is one of the most common sources for onomastic studies: school records, which allow to detect trends in age groups and are usually within the

direct reach of researchers in their double capacity as teachers (ALLEN et al., 1941; BAEZ et al., 1993 and 1994; GORROTXATEGI, 2002; LIRA and HOSOKAWA, 2012; LU and MILLWARD, 1989; MABUZA, 2014; MATEOS, 2010; NAKOS and POIRIER, 1988; OLIVEIRA, 2012; PARADA, 2016; PENNESI, 2014; PHARR, 1993; RAGONE, 2012; REYES and MARRERO, 2013; SABET and ZHANG, 2020; SOUZA, 2009; TEIS, 2020).

Religious records must also be cited, chiefly baptismal records (BOYD-BOWMAN, 1970; WALKOWIAK, 2014). In this regard, the work carried out by the Mormon Church (Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints) is very notable, which has created the *International Genealogical Index* (IGI) from the digitization of a very high number of parish archives around the world (VIERECK, 2006)⁴.

Telephone directories have also been used as a source corpus, a fairly accessible and close instrument, which is why they have been used frequently (ESHEL, 2001; HANKS and TUCKER, 2000; LAVENDER, 1988; MATEOS, 2003, 2006, 2010; MATEOS et al., 2007; MATEOS et al., 2011; MATEOS and TUCKER, 2008; MIR DE LA CRUZ, 1981; MORA, 1976; RODRÍGUEZ-LARRALDE et al., 2003; VIERECK, 2006), since they are very extensive catalogs (for example, more than 88 million names in the North American registrar or 12.6 in the Spanish one). However, this tool poses difficulties (HANS and TUCKER, 2000; MATEOS, 2006):

- firstly, there are telephone directories where the first name appears with initials (this is the case in the United Kingdom), so its value is reduced to the study of surnames;
- secondly, the name of the head of the family is registered, which is usually a man, thus excluding other members, such as the spouse and descendants;

⁴ The interest of this religious group comes from the belief in the need to register all the members of each family, which are guaranteed salvation en bloc in eternity.

- thirdly, many people do not have a telephone, others do not allow their names to be public, there are restricted access areas (MORA, 1976),
- and finally, the proliferation of mobile telephones, pertaining to very diverse companies, has caused the number of users of landlines inventoried in these catalogs to drop.

The onomastic research itself causes the making of repertoires that can later be used in successive inquiries, perhaps for different purposes.

- This is what happens with name dictionaries (ALEKSIEJUK, 2015; BARRY and HARPER, 1982; BLOOTHOOFT and MANDEMAKERS, 2014; BOULLÓN, 2016; CASTIGLIONE, 2014; KALUZYNSKA, 2014; MILIA, 2014; MARTÍNEZ NAZARIO, 2016; REVELLI, 2006)

- with virtual files of names in some languages (TONDA, 2014),
- with scientific articles that also include lists (AMARAL, 2008; ELSAYED, 2018; ESTRADA, 2014; LU, 2009; MONASTERIO, 2017; MUTSUKAWA, 2014),
- with genealogical research and specialized corpus (BLOOTHOOFT, 2010; BLOOTHOOFT and MANDEMAKERS, 2014; VAN POPPEL et al., 1999),
- and specific gazetteers, such as that of Basque names of SATRUSTEGI (1983).

Following this line, a Corpus Linguistics approach has been adopted, albeit still infrequently, resorting to general corpora that collect productions in oral or written language, as AMARAL (2008) did, taking the *Corpus del Proyecto para el estudio sociolingüístico del español de España y de América* (PRESEEA).

To conclude this section on external sources, we shall mention a series of repertoires of a miscellaneous nature, which account for the multiplicity of resources that the attentive eye of the researcher can detect as a starting point for a study in our field:

- from lists of electoral candidates (MATEOS, 2010; SABET et al., 2020; SMITH, 2007; URBATSCH, 2014)

- to bank records (BLOOTHOOFT, 2006)
- going through relations of opponents in Boletines Oficiales (BOE) (MIR DE LA CRUZ, 1981),
- directories of scientific journals (PubMed/PMC) (CARSENAT and SHOKHENMAYER, 2016),
- economic and consumer studies, such as The German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP) (BRUHN et al., 2012) or De Grote Consumenten Enquête from the Netherlands (BLOOTHOOFT and ONLAND, 2011),
- genealogical databases (Dutch Wie-was-wie database, the HisKi database) (BLOOTHOOFT and SCRAAGEN, 2014; AINIALA, SAARELMA and SJÖBLOM, 2016 respectively),
- sailing lists (ALBAIGÉS, 2014),
- weather phenomena name lists (the United States National Hurricane Center) (BERGER et al., 2012),
- laboratory lists (PHILLIPS, 1994)
- journal authors and reviewers' lists (SADOWSKI et al., 1983)
- court records (MARTINI, 2006; STEENHOLT, 2006)
- library readers records (BLACK, 1996)
- immigrant arrival records (BLOOTHOOFT and LOEK, 2008; MONASTERIO, 2017; RODRÍGUEZ, 2009)
- or current or old calendars (ESTRADA, 2014; KIRKHUSMO, 2014).

1.2. Own sources

Facing ready-made documentary bases, there are also many occasions in which researchers must prepare their own databases. These are investigations that pursue not only the examination of inventories of names, but also want to investigate other issues and, therefore,

they require metaonomastic data from the protagonists of the phenomenon and from language users in general. Added to this is the need to have an analysis perspective that is not only quantitative but also qualitative, in line with the trends detected in linguistic studies in general. The most common procedure in these cases is to use interviews (poorly structured) or questionnaires (more structured). Some examples of the former, which are mostly face-to-face, are found in AINIALA (2016), ALHAUG and SAARELMA (2017), BRAMWELL (2009, 2011 and 2016), CILA (2018), FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL (2000, 2002, 2008), FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL and HERNÁNDEZ MUÑOZ (2019 and 2021), FRAI (2016a and 2016b), FREITAS (2007), JIEANU (2015), LAWSON et al. (2005), LI and LAWSON (2006), MOINHOS (2015), MUTUNDA (2016), NABÃO (2007), ODEBODE (2010), OLIVEIRA (2012), PHARR (1993), RABELO (2020), REISAETER (2012), REISMTER (2006), ROSSI (1965), SANTOS (2013) or SEPPO and LAWSON (2016).

The application of questionnaires is a process that can be carried out in multiple ways: face-to-face surveys, postal mailings and in recent times, of course, online surveys.

Questionnaires are used in the investigations of ÁGUILA MARTÍNEZ (2014), AINIALA (2016), ALBA (2013), ALDRIN (2014, 2016 and 2017), ARTEAGA and COVA (2003), AYDIN (2016), BERGER and LE MENS (2009), CAMPO YUMAR (2020 and 2021), CASTIGLIONE (2014), CHEN (2015), CILA (2018), COLMAN et al. (1980), COLMAN et al. (1981), DARDEN and ROBINSON (1978) DINUR et al. (1996), FAYER (1988), FELECAN (2014), FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL (2019 and 2021), FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL and HERNÁNDEZ MUÑOZ (2019 and 2021), GARAIO (2017), GARCÍA GALLARÍN (1997), GARWOOD et al. (1981), GRESPAN (2014), GUTIÉRREZ SANTANA (2009), HAGSTRÖM (2012), HARB and AL ABED (2016), HEGARTY et al. (2011), HENSLEY and SPENCER (1985), JIEANU (2015), LAWSON (1985a, 1985b and 1987), LEINO (2014), LEON (1976), LÓPEZ FRANCO (2001 and 2010), LU and MILLWARD (1989), MABUZA

(2014), MARCET and AIJÓN (2003), MEHRABIAN (1997), MILIA (2014), NICK (2017), PARADA (2013), PASCUAL et al. (2015), POWELL and KARRAKER (2013), PRIKHODKINE (2011), REYES CONTRERAS (2020), RODRÍGUEZ (2020), SAKALLI (2016), SALAMANCA and PEREIRA (2013), SIDHU and PEXMAN (2015), SEIDE (2017a), SLATER and FEINMAN (1985), STEELE and SMITHWICK (1989), TAHAT (2019), THONUS (1992), TIRACH (2002), TSEPKOVA (2016), URAWA (1985), VESCOVI and SEIDE (2013), VIRKKULA (2014), WAHED (2009), WATZLAWIK et al. (2016), WIKSTRØM (2012), WRIGHT (2009) or ZHONGHUA and LAWSON (2021).

The content and purpose of the questionnaires is also diverse:

- anthroponomastic designation processes in natives and non-natives,
- links between onomastics and identity,
- diastratic differentiation trends (gender, age and sociocultural) in personal names,
- difficulties posed by the category of proper name,
- attitudes towards elements of one's own and others' repertoire and even prejudice towards ethnically marked names, for which the well-known *matched-guise* technique is used, which seeks to determine the true attitudes of an individual or community towards a certain linguistic phenomenon (COLMAN et al., 1980 and NICK, 2017).

Lexical availability surveys are also included here, a kind of lexical generation associative test, in this case, proper names, starting from a thematic stimulus (FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL and HERNÁNDEZ MUÑOZ, 2019 and 2021).

There are also other direct or indirect addressing systems for informants. Thus, **discussion groups** (face-to-face or virtual) offer an ideal setup to study aspects of identity, attribution, or attitudes. These small study communities can be created *ex nihilo* (ALDRIN, 2016, 2017; ALEKSIEJUK, 2015; HAGSTRÖM, 2012) or they can have previously existed, as is the case with established parents' associations or boards (MEGALE, 2012; LAYNE,

2006). On the other hand, case studies, which monitor different generations of the same family, are not abundant, but are worth mentioning (DECHIEF, 2009).

Two types of research that require specific and mixed tools for their development deserve particular attention. In the first place, we have researches in what has been called interactional onomastics, which are interested in the role of anthroponyms (in all their diaphasic variants) within the schemes of communicative exchange. To obtain sufficient samples of this type of discourse, corpus have been created *ad hoc*, previously quoted oral or written corpora or discussion groups have been used (AINIALA and SJÖBLOM, 2014; SACKS, 1992; DE STEFANI, 2009). Sometimes the ethnographic method of observation as a participant has been followed (BRAMWELL, 2016; KIM and LEE, 2011; PEPIN, 2009), especially fruitful when working with children.

Secondly, we find few works based on the researcher's own experience, who finds the examples in their environment or prior knowledge (CILA, 2018; MUTUNDA, 2016). Here we can include what we have called onomastic stories, which are attempts of personal reflection on the names of the researchers themselves. NICOLAISEN (1999) unifies the two meanings of the term *historia* (*story* and *history* in English) and describes the contrast between his official name and those he has received throughout his life. A very similar point of view is adopted by WHEELER (2018a), who uses his onomastic autobiography as an ethnographic reflection on areas of language crossing and with the use of minority languages. WHEELER (2018b) emphasizes the value of this type of narration to explore concepts such as identity and belonging, as well as the symbolism of personal names. ALIA (2007) presents an essay where she inserts elements belonging to her family history, with different origins and onomastic traditions. In a previous work, ALIA and MCLANE (2005) relate this type of narration as part of the appropriate techniques in the field of political onomastics, which deals with examining the relationship between naming practices (also toponymic) and relationships of power,

especially towards ethnic minorities, some of which she belongs to. LU and MILLWARD (1989) and SEIDE (2013c) use history as a source for two works. In the first case, the exploitation of the data is limited, since it is used to fundamentally collect names of the informants and their relatives. SEIDE (2013a) takes advantage of a task from a Semantics course to create a brief corpus of 23 narratives, which serve to reflect on the reasons for choosing names.

Narrative methodology is a well-established research procedure in the social sciences, especially in the ethnography field, which has received different names throughout its development. From our point of view, the narrative has proven its effectiveness in various spheres of knowledge, from psychology to medicine, going through economics or pedagogy, and we think that it can also be of great interest in the sphere of onomastics. It is in this area that we are developing a project that combines the pursue of answers for the description of the mechanisms that operate in the onomastic attribution and also the attitudes that are generated around it.

Finally, there are other sources that provide researchers with data to create their own corpus, among which we highlight two: on the one hand, there are those of the **media**, which support this type of work in different ways: either as linguistic repertoires that include in themselves proper names, or with their popular studies on the subject and that are translated into two modalities: press (AMARAL, 2008; AZHNIUK and AZHNIUK, 2014; BECKER, 2018; BERGIEN, 2014; BERNÁRDEZ, 2016; BIANCO, 2014; FRIDRICOVA-MUDROCHOVA, 2014; KOHLHEIM, 2002; MAŃCZAK, 1991; OBASI, 2016; SEIDE, 2008; SEIDE and FRAI, 2019; VAXELAIRE, 2009) and television (FELECAN, 2014).

Within this resource, there is a growing tendency to take advantage of the opportunities offered by the **Internet**, specifically, the proliferation of social networks and wikis, where the use of nicknames, aliases and pseudonyms has spread with its own features, but where

interactional practices, attributive tendencies and onomastic attitudes can also be detected (BERGIEN, 2014; AZHNIUK & AZHNIUK, 2014; MARTIN, 2014; MITZLAFF & STUMME, 2013).

On the other hand, and although it is still in the development phase, there is an incipient use of the richness offered by the linguistic landscape for anthroponymy, with studies on the presence of anthroponyms in a type of hodonym, street names (COLOGNESE, 2011; SEIDE, 2013b), in inscriptions in cemeteries (ADAMS, 2008; VAJTA, 2020), in obituaries or mortuary notices (OLLAQUINDIA, 1996) and, of course, in the names of businesses, a type of crematonym (FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL, 2021c, 2021d and FERNÁNDEZ JUNCAL and SEIDE, in press).

1.3. Classification and distribution of sources

Next, we address the distribution of the resources and sources pointed out in our corpus. For its interpretation, it must be taken into account that in many cases there is a simultaneous use of several of the cited sources, so that the recurrences in the use of sources in the table (281) exceed the number of works examined (228).

Table 1.

Classification of the sources used in the analyzed bibliography

	type	No.
EXTERNAL		
	Census / census records	18
	Municipal registers and records	29
	Health records	12
	Statistical institutions	15
	School records	18
	Religious records	3
	Telephone directories	13
	Previous repertoires	23
	Others	24
		155
OWN		

With informants	Interviews	23
	Questionnaires	70
	Discussion groups	6
	Ethnographic method	3
	Case studies	1
	Interactions	3
Personal experience		9
Media		14
Linguistic landscape		6
		126

In the first place, we can observe the diversity of sources and resources that anthroponomastics has to develop its studies.

Secondly, choosing between resorting to previously elaborated repertoires or creating one of one's own is very even in percentages, so here we must consider the purpose of the research. If the purpose forces us to deal with a very large sample of anthroponyms, we cannot choose to collect the data personally; that alternative is reserved for other kind of objectives, more of a qualitative nature, in the attitudinal, attributive or interactive field.

In this sense, thirdly, contacting with informants can be approached from different perspectives, which imply more or less interaction, but it is the use of questionnaires, which can reach a greater number of speakers and users, which is the most used system, a fact that we can attribute to its ductility in data collection: the possibility of making it in a written way and of processing it in an asynchronous way, further aided in our times by the virtual means of interaction.

For their part, external sources offer numerous advantages to the researcher: the first and fundamental, the access to databases of such dimensions that they are impossible to replicate by individuals or small research groups. They also have the virtue of immediacy, most of them are digitized and allow complex quantitative analysis. However, compared to the transparency that should characterize public information, there is a force in the opposite direction, data protection, which hinders the researching work. The meaningful speech of

PERAL RABASA (2020) can serve as an example about the total impossibility of working with names of people under the umbrella of very restrictive legislation and that does not consider the special circumstances in which the work of onomasticists is carried out.

Conclusions

We believe that in this work we have ratified the diversity of resources and sources available to the researcher in onomastics when undertaking their work. We have barely seen part of the possibilities, but we have presented the most commonly used ones.

We have repertoires created *ex ante*, many of which pursue other purposes than linguistic analysis. However, these catalogs are presented in tension between two forces: the necessary transparency and openness of data, especially in the public environment, which moves our times, but also the protection of the privacy of people, whose first individual manifestation is their name. Scientific advances well deserve a special treatment that harmonizes both impulses.

On the other hand, depending on the interests of the research itself, it is necessary to develop our own corpus, which not only collect lists of anthroponyms but also data and information that is highly relevant to understanding the phenomenon: its social importance, its use, its values, the attitudes that it awakens, the habits and traditions that sustain them, among others.

In this regard, we focus our gaze on a resource that is rarely used, but that we believe is very useful to account for those aspects that are necessary in understanding phenomena such as attribution, of great social importance. It is about the onomastic narrative, a methodology through which we have created an open corpus, whose analysis is very advanced.

Our intention is that the created corpus be permanently active with new annual contributions that allow us to continue detecting attributive movements. It would also be highly

desirable if other corpus could be elaborated in other syntopies to be able to point out the local or global character of these displacements in customs and uses.

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