

**The Naming of the Korea-Tsushima Strait:**  
**Cartographic Origins and Current Customs.**

**(Abstract.)**

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**INTRODUCTION:**

From the 17<sup>th</sup> to the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the representation of the Korea-Tsushima strait evolved a lot in the European cartography: the drawing and the naming were gradually settled, according to various influences. The names of the seas in the Far-East were given and standardized by the European cartographers. But how were their perceptions, coming from various information sources, transmitted and imposed, and how are they interpreted nowadays? In order to answer, we have to analyze ancient and present maps of the area, and other kinds of documents.

The countries of the Far-East aren't in the habit of naming the seas (Pelletier, 2000). Thus, the seas of Eastern Asia are named by the Europeans: that's true from the discovery of those seas up to the generalization and the standardization, at an international level. The European sources allow to relate the history of the names of the maritime spaces in the Far-East, such as this strait. More, until the 19<sup>th</sup> century, geography and cartography are synonymous: cartography reflects the knowledge of the time (Pinchemel, 1995). Historically, the map is also the main source to reconstitute the development of the geographic knowledge, especially for maritime spaces. Furthermore, the map is a representation, but not the reality, then it shows the point of view of its author.

Cartography advances a lot in Europe from the 17<sup>th</sup> to the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Thanks to progresses in the navigation techniques and printing, more and more accurate maps and atlas spread in Europe. After the Portuguese then the Dutch presence in Japan, when contacts were very few, great travels of the end of the 18<sup>th</sup> century change widely the map of the region. Lapérouse's travel does especially, in the Far-East (Michoudet, 2002). After him, the map of Eastern Asia is rapidly completed and regularized, but maritime naming is still a problem: the question of standardization is particularly difficult in the case of that strait.

Through cartography, we have to inquire into the processes giving a new awareness of that area: then, we need to study the way those historical legacy is considered by official instances. With a chronological approach, it's necessary to consider the historic, politic, cultural, scientific and technical context, and the function of different actors, in order to understand the evolution. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, discussions move from cartography to standardization: we have to study how historical namings are integrated.

The strait, between Japan and Korea, is 200 km wide and not more than 130 m deep: it joins the Eastern China sea and the sea of Japan or East sea (Pelletier, 1994). Many islands are in the strait: at the side of Korea, Cheju-Do is the main island, but there are many little islands; at the side of Japan, Tsushima is in the middle of the strait, and Iki, Hirado, Gotō-Retto and Danjō-Guntō border the coast of Kyūshū. From a geopolitical and historic point of view, the strait is a complicated space (Michoudet, Pelletier, 2004). Place-names are a crucial stake for this boundary between Japan and Korea: Korea speaks about "Korea strait", whereas Japan says "Tsushima strait". The aim isn't to stand up for anyone, but to understand how a knowledge and a name have been built historically, and how it's used now, at different levels.

All maps used are registered at the end, with the precise reference. Those maps have the scale of Korea or Japan, or total Asia.

## **I) A STRAIT MISSING IN THE EUROPEAN MAPS TILL THE END OF THE 18<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY:**

Several cartographic trends succeed one another in Europe from the 17<sup>th</sup> to the 18<sup>th</sup> century, according to the influence of each country and great travels around the world. The first Europeans coming to the Far-East are the Portuguese, in the middle of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, but, because of the secret policy, their maps don't spread so much. The Dutch, with the *Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie*, take the place of the Portuguese at the beginning of the 17<sup>th</sup> century; thanks to the progresses in printing, their maps of Asia and their atlases are well known. The Jesuit missionaries, in Japan during the 17<sup>th</sup> century and

working with Japanese sources, are the second important cartographic school for Asia in Europe. Then, the French cartographers, even if they aren't in Eastern Asia, are very active and influent for the European cartography of the Far-East. Two topics have to be studied through those different trends: the drawing of the maps, especially about the coasts, and the naming used for the geographic objects of the maps.

### **1) An approximate coastline's drawing:**

The drawing of the Far-East on the European maps evolves a lot, because of many influences. Because the Dutch are tradesmen, present in Dejima, the Jesuits are monks, and the French aren't in Asia at that time, the knowledge and the interests in that part of the world are different; furthermore, none of them can directly observe the coasts of Eastern Asia more in the north than Nagasaki, so not in the strait.

#### ***a) The ignorance of the distance between Korea and Japan:***

The first European maps of the Far-East should be correctly drawn so as to show a strait between Japan and Korea. Each country has to be right, and the position of one in front of the other has to be good: in that way, the feature of the strait can appear. But, as the knowledge of those countries is weak, and the access is hard, the apprehension of the strait isn't so easy.

Because of their interests in that part of the world, the maps of the Dutch or of the Jesuits are almost maps of Japan or Asia; maps of Korea are mainly from the French.

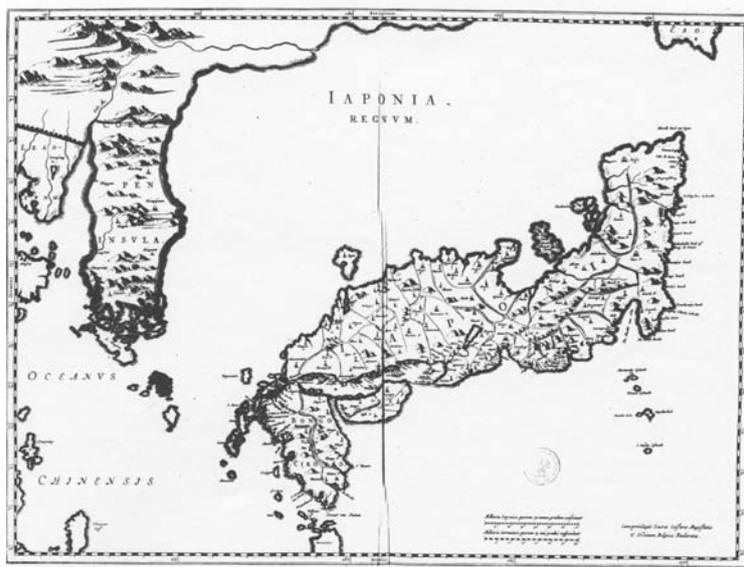
The map of Japan drawn by the Portuguese Luís Teixeira and published by the Dutch Abraham Ortelius is the first map of Japan published in Europe: so, it's a reference in the history of the cartography of the Far-East (Walter, 1994). Japan is more detailed than Korea, which is even drawn as an island. The relative position of Korea and Japan is a problem: the southern extremity is too in the south in comparison to Japan, and the distance between the two countries is far too wide. So, the feature of the strait doesn't appear on that map. The map of Willem-Janszoon Blaeu, from the V.O.C. and the founder of one of the Dutch cartographic schools, draws its inspiration from that document: particularly, the distance between Japan and Korea is as wide. His sons, Joan and Willem, or other cartographers of the same trend, like Claes-Jansz and Nicolas-Joan Visscher or George Humble, Jean-Baptiste Tavernier or George Psalmanazar, do the same mistakes.

The other school inside the Dutch cartography comes from Gerhard Mercator. If there are some maritime place-names on his map of Asia, unlike the map of Ortelius, there are nearly the same approximations in that area: Korea is an island, and the space

between Japan and Korea is wrongly estimated, so the strait can't be visible. Jodocus Hondius, his son-in-law, does the same; his son and Joan Jansson draw such maps.

The maps of the Jesuits are mainly maps in the scale of Japan. Because of their situation in Japan, their knowledge about lands are important, in comparison of their knowledge about maritime spaces, very poor. The maps of António-Francisco Cardim, Robert Dudley, Philippe Briet, Martino Martini or d'Antoine Gaubil give a lot of details about the Japanese coasts, but not about Korea, which seems to be very far and secondary. The strait isn't evident, whereas there are some straits mentioned between little Japanese islands. Maps of Eastern Asia, like the document of Giacomo Cantelli-Da-Vignola, show the Korean peninsula in the direction of China instead of Japan. In that case, the strait can't be discerned.

**Martino Martini, Iaponia Regnum, *Novus Atlas Chinensis*, 1655 (GeDD1185 (17)):**



The French maps of the region take the information from the precedent sources. The maps of Nicolas Sanson-D'Abbeville and his son Guillaume are very close to the maps of the Blaeus: Korea is distorted, turned toward China. Vincenzo-Maria Coronelli, Nicolas De-Fer and Guillaume Delisle, an important cartographer of the beginning of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, draw maps in the same way than Sanson-D'Abbeville's ones. The maps of Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, the main French cartographer in the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, draws maps with only one country, Japan or Korea for example, without drawing the adjoining countries; it's quite the same for Gilles and Didier Robert-De-Vaugondy. Thus, the space let between Japan and the Asian mainland seems to be very important, and there isn't any correspondence between the lands around the strait.

So, it seems to be difficult to see a strait between Japan and Korea, but we have to analyse the representations of little islands so as to complete the observations.

***b) Illusory details:***

In spite of those problems concerning the main lands and islands, there is much information about the little islands in the borders of the strait.

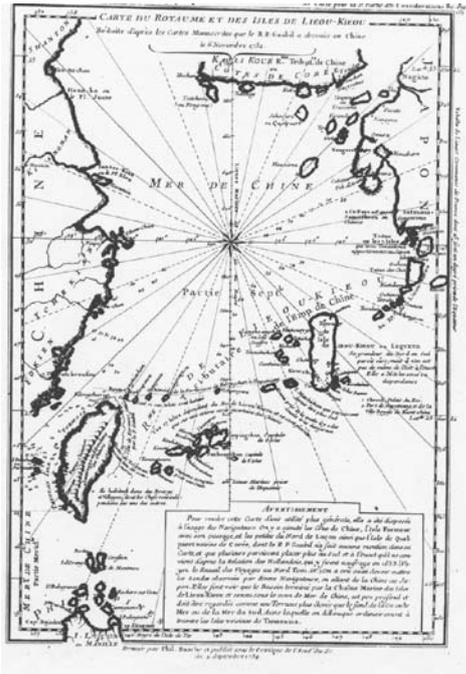
Since the map of Teixeira and Ortelius, a lot of small islands are drawn and named next to Kyūshū. They are generally correctly localized, but their features are risky and they are often really too big. For example, “Meaxima”, very big, is the island of Meshima, 1,34 km<sup>2</sup> only: this island is drawn because it’s an important landmark on the maritime route to Nagasaki (Michel, 1994a). The main interest is for the navigation use, but not for the scientific accuracy.

The numerous islands of the strait can appear or disappear on the maps, in a risky way, according to the different cartographers. Those fluctuations can’t be logically explained. For example, Tsushima isn’t represented on the map of Tavernier, even though precedent cartographers mentioned it before. More, Bourguignon-D’Anville draws several maps of Korea: some of them show Tsushima but not Cheju-Do; others show the opposite. The map of Adrien Reland shows a lot of islands all around Japan, but most of them don’t exist at all. All these examples prove that this area is really badly known in Europe.

The way the coasts are drawn is another element that proves the missing precise knowledge of Eastern Asia. Each cartographer has a different way to draw his maps: the draw can be linear, like Tavernier or Bourguignon-D’Anville, or very dentate, like Reland. That doesn’t show a better accuracy in one case or the other.

The map of Philippe Buache shows these difficulties. In his explanations, he speaks about his attempts to do a more accurate map than Gaubil’s one, by adding Cheju-Do, but its localization and the other islands, like Meshima, show that this map isn’t so accurate.

**Philippe Buache, Carte du Royaume et des Isles de Lieou-Kieou, 1754 (GeD10055):**



Before 1780, the knowledge of the area around the strait stays very fragmentary. With a regional scale, the approximations concerning Korea don't allow to see that it's so close to Japan; with a local scale, the fluctuations in the drawing inconvenience for the perception of the strait. The strait isn't drawn as a strait in the European maps of the Far-East. Toponymy should be considered, to complete this first points.

## **2) The inadequacy of the maritime naming:**

In the same time, the toponymy seems to be very deficient: of course, it's difficult to give a name to a place which isn't exactly delimited. So, we have to try to understand how those maritime spaces are named on maps which aren't precise enough.

### ***a) The failings in the vocabulary:***

The maritime place-names aren't very numerous in comparison with land place-names. It's possible to index all the names given to the seas around Eastern Asia: places interesting are not only the strait, but also the Japan sea or East sea, the Eastern China sea and the Pacific ocean, even if the delimitations of those seas don't correspond with the maps of that time.

**Maritime naming around the strait, from 1600 to 1780:**

N.B.: map's numbers refer to the list at the end.

<b>Maps.</b>	<b>Strait.</b>	<b>Japan sea or East sea.</b>	<b>Eastern China sea.</b>	<b>Pacific ocean.</b>
<b>1:</b> Hondius, 1602.	X	X	X	Oceanus Eous.
<b>2:</b> Teixeira, Ortelius, 1603.	X	X	X	X
<b>3:</b> Blaeu, 1608.	X	X	X	Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>4:</b> Visscher, 1608.	X	X	X	Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>5:</b> Cardim, 1612.	X	X	X	X
<b>6:</b> Mercator, De-La-Popelinière, 1613.	X	Oceanus Chinensis.	X	Oceanus Chinensis.
<b>7:</b> Hondius, 1623.	X	X	X	Oceanus Occidentalis (north), Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>8:</b> Humble, 1626.	X	X	X	The West Ocean (north), The Chinese Ocean (south).
<b>9:</b> Jansson, 1630.	X	Oceanus Chinensis.	X	Oceanus Chinensis.
<b>10:</b> Blaeu, 1635.	X	X	X	Oceanus Occidentalis (north), Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>11:</b> Dudley, 1646.	X	Oceano Boreale del Giappone.	X	Oceano Cinese.
<b>12:</b> Briet, 1650.	X	Océan Oriental.	X	Mer de la Chine.

<b>13:</b> Sanson-D'Abbeville, 1650.	X	X	X	Océan Oriental, Mer de la Chine.
<b>14:</b> Coronelli, ?.	Mare della China.	Mare della China.	Mare della China.	Parte del Mare Pacifico, Mare del Giappone.
<b>15:</b> Martini, 1655.	X	X	Oceanus Chinensis.	X
<b>16:</b> ?, ?.	X	X	X	X
<b>17:</b> Sanson-D'Abbeville, 1656.	X	Mare della China.	X	Oceano Indico Orientale.
<b>18:</b> Blaeu, 1659.	X	X	X	Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>19:</b> Visscher, ?.	X	X	X	Oceanus Occidentalis (north), Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>20:</b> Blaeu, 1662.	X	X	X	Oceanus Occidentalis (north), Oceanus Chinensis (south).
<b>21:</b> Sanson-D'Abbeville, 1667.	Oceanus Orientalis.	Oceanus Orientalis.	Oceanus Orientalis.	Oceanus Orientalis.
<b>22:</b> Sanson-D'Abbeville, 1669.	X	X	Mer de la Chine.	Océan Oriental.
<b>23:</b> Blaeu, 1670.	X	X	X	Mare del Zur, Oceano de la China.
<b>24:</b> Tavernier, 1679.	Mer de Coreer.	Océan Oriental.	X	Mer du Sud.
<b>25:</b> Cantelli-Da-Vignola, 1682.	X	X	X	X
<b>26:</b> De-Fer, 1696.	X	Mer Septentrionale	Mer de la	Mer Orientale,

		de Japon.	Chine.	Mer Méri­dion­ale de Japon, Partie de la Grande Mer Pacifique.
<b>27:</b> Thornton, 1699.	X	X	X	X
<b>28:</b> ?, ?.	X	X	X	X
<b>29:</b> Psalmanazar, 1705.	X	X	X	Océan Oriental.
<b>30:</b> Delisle, 1705.	X	Mer Ori­entale ou Mer de Corée.	X	X
<b>31:</b> Henselius, 1710.	X	X	X	X
<b>32:</b> Reland, 1716.	X	X	X	Mer du Japon.
<b>33:</b> Maas, 1727.	X	De Japane Zee.	De Cinase Zee.	Mare del Zur of Zuidzee.
<b>34:</b> Bourguignon-D'Anville, 1732.	X	X	X	X
<b>35:</b> Bourguignon-D'Anville, 1734.	X	X	X	X
<b>36:</b> Bourguignon-D'Anville, ?.	X	X	Mer Ori­entale.	Mer Ori­entale.
<b>37:</b> Bellin, 1735.	Mer de Corée.	Mer de Corée.	X	Mer du Japon.
<b>38:</b> Bourguignon-D'Anville, 1737.	X	X	X	X
<b>39:</b> ?, ?.	X	Mer de Corée.	X	X
<b>40:</b> Bourguignon-D'Anville, ?.	X	X	X	X
<b>41:</b> Bourguignon-D'Anville, ?.	X	X	X	X
<b>42:</b> Gaubil, 1752.	X	X	X	X
<b>43:</b> Buache, 1754.	X	X	Mer de	X

			Chine Partie Sept. <sup>le</sup> .	
<b>44:</b> Janvier, Longchamps, 1754.	X	Mer de Corée.	X	X
<b>45:</b> Robert-De-Vaugondy, 1757.	X	X	Océan Oriental.	X
<b>46:</b> Bellin, 1764.	X	X	X	X
<b>47:</b> Bellin, 1764.	Mer de Corée.	X	X	Mer du Japon.
<b>48:</b> Bonne, 1780.	X	X	X	Océan Oriental.

The first remark is as follows: the strait is never called so in the European maps before 1780. When a name is written inside, it's with the word "sea" or "ocean", as the continuation of maritime space. When there's no name at all for the maritime spaces, or just one name in the Pacific ocean, the strait can't be considered as a limit in the maritime spaces: Japan could eventually be seen as a delimitation, but this isn't so clear. Some maps mention a name in the Japan sea or East sea, or in the Eastern China sea, but not in each of them: so, that name should designate both those seas, without any delimitation in between. Only the maps of Nicolas De-Fer and of Abraham Maas use clearly different names for each sea: thus, the limit could be in the strait. Nevertheless, the drawing isn't so clear, and it isn't so easy to know exactly which space is designate by a name.

The naming of maritime spaces shows many major gaps: there are very few names in the maritime spaces, and the strait isn't designated as that. The word of "strait" is never mentioned for the place between Japan and Korea. This question isn't only about the name: that shows the way that place is perceived by the European geographers.

***b) A non-existent strait:***

Finally, several elements seem to prove that the strait between Japan and Korea isn't perceived as a strait by the Europeans before the 1780's.

First of all, because of the misreading of that area, the distance between Korea and Japan is nearly always overestimated, sometimes as wide as the seas on each side. Such maps don't permit to imagine a strait between those countries, which seem to be very far away from each other. Korea is close to China, whereas Japan is isolated in the Pacific ocean.

Then, the approximations on the islands are another doubt for the global aspect of the strait. Because of the overvaluation of little islands or the undervaluation, or even the omission of bigger islands, the feature of the zone is difficult to see. The representations can change even for one only cartographer. That's why, maybe, it's impossible for them to give a name to that place. The risky disposition of the little islands, encumbering the maritime way, makes the perception of the strait still more difficult.

Lastly, the toponymy is clear: the word of "strait" isn't used to designate this way. However, that word is often used by the cartographers, for more confined spaces between lands. The excessive width of the area is probably the reason for that. The strait appears like the continuation of the maritime spaces of the area, but not like a break.

All those reasons have a single explanation: no cartographer could go in that area at that time, and make directly precise measurements. Lapérouse is the first person to cross the area, in 1787: then, the perception of the strait is going to change in an irreversible way.

## **II) THE EUROPEAN CREATION OF A STRAIT BETWEEN JAPAN AND KOREA:**

During the 18<sup>th</sup> century, scientific motivations become progressively more important than political, commercial or religious ones, in the great discovery travels. By his travels in the Pacific ocean from 1768 to 1776, for England, James Cook didn't go to the Eastern Asian seas. The first European to do it is the French Jean-François Galaup-De-Lapérouse, sent by Louis the 16<sup>th</sup> in that part of the world, so as to complete the world map (De-Brossard, Dunmore, 1985a). Many things are new in this expedition, that changes deeply the European representation of Eastern Asia. Lapérouse is particularly important for the maritime naming of the region: especially, he gives the name of "Korea strait". So, we have to understand the reasons of his choices, and the way those choices settle after him.

### **1) Lapérouse's expedition, a turning in the strait's consciousness:**

The travel of Lapérouse is precisely prepared by Jean-Nicolas Buache-De-La-Neuville, Buache's nephew, in order to be able to do the best observations as possible. He gives to the navigator all the maps he needs, so as to be completed (Pelletier, 1979). Lapérouse knows the most recent information, and, in order to be efficient, he has to travel through each place in the other sense than James Cook.

*a) The discovery of the strait:*

The maps used for the preparation of the travel are published, with some transformations, after the travel (Aubert). Some of these maps are corrected by the editor according to the discoveries of Lapérouse, for some place-names for example. Even with these modifications, those maps are helpful to know more about the knowledge of the strait between Japan and Korea before the expedition of Lapérouse.

Four maps are shown as documents used by Lapérouse to prepare his travel (maps 49, 50, 51 and 52). On the first map, the only name of “Mer de Chine” is written along the Asian mainland, designating the whole sea from Japan to Indonesia, without any separation by a strait. So, the strait isn’t seen like a limit between two different seas. On the two following maps, from the same source, the geometrical and risky disposition of the islands differs a lot, showing how inaccurate the knowledge is at that time. There isn’t any maritime place-name on those maps, so nothing more in the strait. Because of the numerous little islands, there are a lot of little maritime routes in the strait, but too many obstacles to identify a strait with the local scale. With a more global scale, the general way between Japan and Korea can be perceived by Lapérouse. The last map, intended for Louis the 16<sup>th</sup>, is focused on the Yellow sea, where France has political and commercial interests, but not really on the strait.

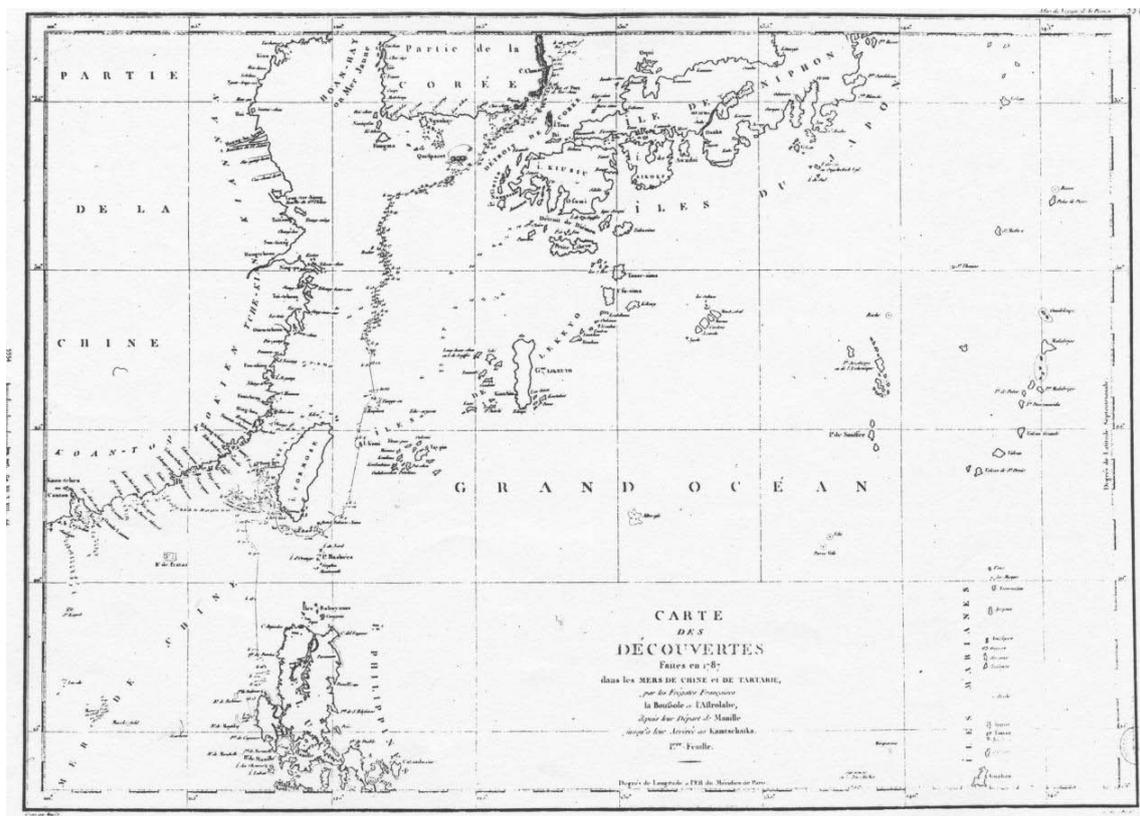
On those maps, we can see that the strait is never clearly named and described in Europe. However, a way narrower than the seas is visible on the maps of Eastern Asia: so, Lapérouse can have seen and identified it. He probably does, because, before arriving there, he speaks, in his logbook, about the “canal du Japon” for that area (De-Brossard, Dunmore, 1985b). This name of “canal du Japon” is mentioned three times before coming to the so-called place. The word “canal” is due to the specific conditions of the navigation: Lapérouse can imagine it before coming there, by studying the maps, even inaccurate. The name of “Japon” can be understood because Japan is known better than Korea in Europe: it’s easier to localize the place with that name, more accurately defined. Anyway, this name is given before Lapérouse’s personal experience in the strait.

When he crosses the strait, Lapérouse writes in his logbook that he crosses the “détroit de la Corée”, instead of “canal du Japon”, a few lines later. In fact, the Korean coast is closer to the axis of the strait than the Japanese coast, and Lapérouse chooses to hug the Korean coast because its knowledge is the most inaccurate in Europe. So, it’s easy to understand why he suddenly speaks about Korea and no more Japan. The word of “détroit” is also used instead of “canal”. The canal belongs to the vocabulary of navigation, whereas the strait, in that case, is just the narrowest line between Japan and Korea: this word is mainly used in the cartography. Later in his logbook, Lapérouse uses circumlocutions to designate that place, because he probably doesn’t want to be

implicated in political or economical stakes. His first goal is measuring the region precisely; then, if he has to give place-names, he does, but it isn't the main aspect for him.

The atlas of the travel of Lapérouse shows the maps he draws and the place-names he gives (Aubert). Four maps (maps 53, 54, 55 and 56). The first map is drawn by the editor, and is older. The second map shows Eastern Asia with a new feature for the European cartography; the name of “mer du Japon” is mentioned. The third map explains the precise route of Lapérouse in the strait, with the coasts he could measure, between Tsushima and Korea: that's probably the main explanation for the name of “détroit de la Corée”, used in the logbook. The last map shows, with a regional scale, the areas discovered by Lapérouse in Eastern Asia: for the first time, the name “détroit de Corée” is written in the strait, on this axis of Tsushima, so designating the whole strait. This choice seems to be spontaneous and logical for Lapérouse: he needs to choose a name pragmatically, and that gives a new lecture of that place for the Europeans.

**Jean-François Galaup-De-Lapérouse, Carte des Découvertes Faites en 1787 dans les Mers de Chine et de Tartarie, par les Frégates Françaises la Boufoule et l'Astrolabe, depuis leur Départ de Manille jusqu'à leur Arrivée au Kamtschatka, Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse, 1787 (GeBB3vol66 (4) (n° 558)):**



This document is primordial for the comprehension of the strait by the Europeans. The knowledge can improve and be completed, but the awareness of the strait is

established thanks to Lapérouse. We should now try to understand the reasons of his success in Europe.

***b) A significant progress for the knowledge of the Far-East:***

The observations of Lapérouse are particularly important for the knowledge of Eastern Asia in Europe. His maps and his descriptions in his logbook deeply change the European representation of that area (Michoudet, 2002). There are several explanations to his influence.

After the Portuguese, the Dutch are the only Europeans coming to Japan, to Dejima in Nagasaki, since the beginning of the 17<sup>th</sup> century (Pelletier, 1997). As there isn't any contact between Korea and European countries, the European presence in Eastern Asia is very limited, localized in the south of the strait only. That means that none European could cross the strait before Lapérouse. Lapérouse has no contact with Korea and Japan. So, for the first time, a European map is drawn from direct measurements, and not from indirect sources. That point is original and can explain one part of the success of the travel.

More, after James Cook, Lapérouse is the first navigator using precise measurement instruments, for the longitude especially. The first chronometers are realized since the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, after a period of concurrence between England and France (Broc, 1975). Henceforth, new measurements can be more accurate and reliable: that's a turning in the history of the cartography of regions very far away from Europe, like the Far-East. Lapérouse is aware of those major stakes (Bellec, 2000). Thanks to these new progresses, the map of the Far-East of Lapérouse gets a new credibility, and it can be admitted by everyone.

Because of those elements, the drawing of the map of this area can change radically: the coasts drawn by Lapérouse are settled. This is a real progress in the geographic knowledge, according to objective measures. That can be completed, but not modified. The question is different for the toponymy, because it's far more subjective; but the influence of Lapérouse is very important also. The attempt of political neutrality of Lapérouse is probably essential. Of course, the expedition has a political connotation at the beginning: if Charles-Pierre Claret-De-Fleurieu, for Louis the 16<sup>th</sup>, decides to send Lapérouse on the seas all over the world, it's a little to compete with James Cook for England (Gaziello, 1984). But Lapérouse himself doesn't feel like a concurrent with James Cook: he wants to complete his scientific aspects, and he knows that Eastern Asia is interesting because James Cook had no opportunity to discover it before, in spite of all his travels (Broc, 1975). Many sentences in his logbook prove that the improvement of the geographic and scientific knowledge is his main goal (De-Brossard, Dunmore, 1985b).

His principles are especially significant for the toponymy: Lapérouse wants to keep ancient names when there are, but he doesn't want to impose a new name for his personal glory (Kobayashi, 1988). In the case of the strait, there isn't any name before him; as he needs to give a name to the place he's discovering, he chooses the name of "détroit de Corée", which seems to be natural, but without any political point of view.

Nowadays, some choices can appear tendentious, but we have to consider the historical context. The discoveries due to Lapérouse are very important, and because of his intellectual integrity, his work is credible. That's why his map is a turning and becomes the new reference for the European cartography of Eastern Asia.

## **2) The increasing accuracy in the representations of that area:**

After Lapérouse, there are new explorations in the seas of the Far-East: the maps of those new discoveries are more and more rich and complex. The drawing is more and more accurate, thanks to the new measurements, and the toponymy is growing on the maps.

### ***a) The follow of Lapérouse's work:***

The heritage of Lapérouse is evident in the European history of cartography, but the evolutions aren't linear: there are some latencies in this field. We have to study how the conception of Lapérouse is integrated in the new explorations and in the cartography of that area.

In practice, the observations of Lapérouse are quickly completed by other European navigators, like Colmet in 1789, the English William-Robert Broughton in 1797, then the Russian Adam-Johann Von-Krusenstern in 1804 and in 1805. Each of them tries to measure places that Lapérouse couldn't see during his travel. Colmet goes to the east of Tsushima, before going to the north, in the direction of Korea. Broughton bypasses Cheju-Do by the north, and hugs the south of the Korean coast. Krusenstern passes in the east side, close to Kyūshū and Iki. Those travels are complementary: after that, all the coasts of the strait are known with a good accuracy, even if the cartography doesn't always show it immediately.

In theory, the action of Lapérouse is important also. Fleurieu, who sent him to the Far-East, considers that the work of delimiting and drawing the world belongs to the navigators (Pelletier, 1998). Because of the responsibilities he gives to Lapérouse, and because of his institutional situation, the propositions of Fleurieu are important for the attempts of the standardization of the maritime place-names: he proposes a typology of

the maritime spaces, with a nomenclature, after a discussion with the National Institute (Carpine-Lancre, 1992). He explains that he wants a universal nomenclature, without any political opinion. In that way, the names should be given by the local population or by the first navigator discovering a place (Claret-De-Fleurieu, 1799). According to that principle, he gives the name of “Korea strait” to the strait between Japan and Korea, respecting the name given by the first navigator there, Lapérouse.

All those elements are integrated in the cartography and in the official institutions, but with different ways. The discoveries are very important, and very fast, but the ideas, like Fleurieu’s ones, aren’t so evident: his universal principles are generally respected, but the results are finally complex.

***b) The abundance of naming:***

After the detailed exploration of the coasts of the strait, the drawing of the maps doesn’t evolve so much anymore, but there are a lot of changes in the toponymy. The fluctuation in the naming of the strait and the increasing number of the names evolves with the increasing accuracy of the drawing and the knowledge. The maps of the navigators, like Krusenstern and Broughton, don’t give any names to the maritime spaces, because they aim at measuring the coasts only. However, the maps that use maritime place-names give names to the strait, generally by distinguishing the two ways inside.

**Place-names used for the strait after Lapérouses’s trip:**

N.B.: map’s numbers refer to the list at the end.

<b>Maps.</b>	<b>Whole strait.</b>	<b>West way.</b>	<b>East way.</b>
<b>57:</b> Von-Krusenstern, 1804.	X	X	X
<b>58:</b> ?, 1805.	X	Strasse von Corea.	X
<b>59:</b> Broughton, 1807.	X	X	X
<b>60:</b> Bennet, Van-Wyk, 1829.	X	Straat van Korea.	X
<b>61:</b> De-La-Roche-Poncié, Estignard, Delbalat, 1848.	X	X	X
<b>62:</b> De-La-Roche-Poncié, Hacq, 1848.	X	Détroit de Broughton.	Détroit de Krusenstern.
<b>63:</b> Von-Siebold, 1851.	Canal Korai.	Str. Broughton.	Str. Von

			Krusenstern.
<b>64:</b> Mouchez, 1852.	X	Détroit de Corée.	D <sup>t</sup> de Krusenstern.
<b>65:</b> Maury, Malte-Brun, 1855.	Mer du Japon.	X.	Mer du Japon.
<b>66:</b> Rodgers, Brooke, 1859.	Korea Channel.	Broughton Straits.	Krusenstern Straits.
<b>67:</b> Zegelbert, 1859.	Straat van Korea.	Broughton's Kanaal.	Straat van Korea.
<b>68:</b> Clérot, 1861.	Dét. De Corée.	X	X
<b>69:</b> ?, 1864.	X	Détroit Ouest de Corée.	Détroit Est de Corée.
<b>70:</b> Carré, 1886.	Détroit de Corée.	Détroit Ouest de Corée.	Détroit Est de Corée.
<b>71:</b> ?, ?.	Détroit de Corée.	Chenal Occidental (Canal Broughton).	Chenal Oriental (Tsushima Kaikyō).
<b>72:</b> ?, 1894.	X	Broughton Strait.	Krusenstern Strait.
<b>73:</b> Ritter, Pogio, 1895.	Koreanischer Canal.	Brouton Canal.	Krusenstern Canal.
<b>74:</b> Bartholomew, ?.	Korea Strait.	Broughton-Strait.	Eastern Chan.
<b>75:</b> ?, ?.	Korean Strait.	Broughton Channel.	Krusenstern Channel.
<b>76:</b> ?, 1900.	X	Проливъ Вроутона [Broughton Strait].	Пр. Крузенштерна [Krusenstern Strait].

First of all, the terminology is very confused: the words of “strait”, “canal” and “channel” can be used. That use seems to be risky, without any scale relations between those words. In fact, the dictionaries of the navigation in the 19<sup>th</sup> century show that this problem isn't resolved (Bonnafox, Paris, 1856). Still nowadays, the difference between “strait”, “canal” and “channel” isn't so clear (De-Dainville, 1964; Brunet, Ferras, Théry,

1992). The word of “strait” is the most usual, and it’s a geographical word; the words of “canal” and “channel” are more specific, belonging to the navigation’s vocabulary.

Then, the nomenclature is abundant also, but there are some trends asserting themselves. After some hesitations at the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the map of Philipp-Franz Von-Siebold brings new elements (Michel, 1994b). He’s the first to give the name of “Korea” to the whole strait, and the names of “Broughton” to the west way and “Krusenstern” to the east way, because of the explorations of those navigators in the strait. Other European cartographers follow him in that way. Except some maps without enough maritime place-names, we can consider some general points. When there’s a name for the whole strait, it’s the name of “Korea”. For each way, naming uses the cardinal points, with “West” and “East”, or the names of the navigators, “Broughton” for the west and “Krusenstern” for the east.

After the travel of Lapérouse, the strait between Japan and Korea is generally admitted in the European cartography. The awareness of the Europeans about this geographical object has changed: the drawing and the naming show the intellectual construction of that place. Nevertheless, all those names are too heavy to designate the strait: so, the stake of the 20<sup>th</sup> century is the simplification and the standardization of the naming of that maritime space.

### **III) A NAMING STILL PROBLEMATICAL AND MOVING:**

After the discovery of Lapérouse, there are more and more names given to the strait, each time there are new measurements. All those names add a new difficulty for the designation of the strait. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, international agreements are needed so as to make customs easier. That’s why we have to consider official issues and practical uses about the actual naming of the strait.

#### **1) A strait not officially admitted:**

It isn’t so evident to delimit and to give a name to maritime spaces, because their features are more difficult to identify than land ones; more, straits are special places, as a transition between two seas. So, specialized organizations are created with this end in view. That question is important and complex for the strait between Japan and Korea.

##### ***a) The impact of the international conferences:***

From the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century to the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, some attempts are made all over the world so as to standardize the geographical knowledge. For

example, Greenwich's meridian is chosen to become the reference for the international cartographic production (Chenuet, 2000).

For the maritime toponymy, the International Hydrographic Conferences of London in 1919 and Monaco in 1926 are the main events. Then, the International Hydrographic Organization is created in 1921, held in Monaco. Those conferences and that organization aim at settling delimitations and names of maritime spaces, for a cartographic utilization first. The results are a special publication as soon as in 1928, and new editions are published in 1937, 1953 and 2001.

In the preface, it's specified that "these limits have no political significance whatsoever" (B.H.I., 1928). In that way, meridians and parallels are used instead of land marks, for a better neutrality. For the methodology, it's told that "straits joining two seas have been allotted to one of them in accordance with the resolution of the International Hydrographic Conference held in London in 1919". So, small straits, like Tsugaru, Shimonoseki or Lapérouse, are described as boundary lines between two seas, included in one of them; bigger straits, like Malacca or Singapore, are defined as a real zone for itself.

As the Korea-Tsushima strait joins the Yellow sea, the Eastern China sea and the Japan sea, with the naming of that time, their delimitations shall be studied. The north-eastern limit of the Eastern China sea is described like this: "from Nomo Saki (32°35' N) in Kyusyu to the South point of Hukae Sima (Goto Retto) and on through this island to Ose Saki (Cap Goto) and to Hunan Kan, the South point of Saisyu To (Quelpart), through this island to its Western extreme"; the south-eastern limit of the Yellow sea is mentioned in that way: "from the Western extreme of Quelpart to Ka Nyo or West Pinnacle Island (34°13' N) in the Mengoru Group, thence to the North point of Oku To (34°22' N), to the West point of Small South Stone Island (Syo-Zyonan To) and the North point of Great South Stone Island (34°24' N) to a point on the coast of Tin To (34°25' N) along the Northwest coast of this island to the North point thereof, and thence on a line in a Northeasterly direction to the mainland of Tyosen (Korea)"; the southern limit of the Japan sea is as follows: "the Northeastern limit of the Eastern China Sea" (I.H.O., 1953). No change is observed for the strait from 1928 to 1953.

According to that definition, the maritime limit is in the south-western part of the strait: in that way, the strait drawn by the cartographers of the 19<sup>th</sup> century is included in the Japan sea. It is implicitly the south-western boundary of that sea, but the word of "strait" isn't even mentioned for that place.

After those international standardization attempts, and in spite of historical cartography, the strait between Korea and Japan isn't defined. The idea of a special transition area between the seas doesn't appear.

***b) The difficulties for the designation of that place:***

Even if there isn't any real official name, it's necessary, for each geographical object, to be defined and named. This is simply a practical question, not a political one: a space that people use has to be clearly identified. That's why Lapérouse had, the first, to give the name of "Korea strait". Nowadays, not only cartographers or navigators need it, but also new people, in fields like policy, trade, transportations and so on, at worldwide scale. The actual nomenclature is insufficient to describe what's really happening. In fact, the strait between Japan and Korea is identified, but there are still some problems for its naming.

The American organization U.S. Board on Geographic Names is in charge of the worldwide toponymy, for the land names as well as the maritime names. All the place-names in the world are compiled in a list by this organization (<http://gnswww.nga.mil/geonames/GNS/index.jsp>). When a geographical name becomes official, it's written in that list: so, this organization should induce a normalization in the naming customs.

However, this list reveals the difficulties of the place-naming. For each place, several names are mentioned, as "local" name and "variant" names. For the "local" name, there is only one name, in English, which should be the official name. For the "variant" names, several names are written: names in English, their translations in local languages, or sometimes other names, especially for the boundary maritime spaces. One thing is important: if one name is introduced as official, other names can be tolerated.

For the strait between Japan and Korea, the local name is "Korea Strait", but several variant names are given: "Tsushima Strait", "Taehan Haehŏp", "Tsushima Kaikyō", "Chōsen Strait" and "Chōsen Kaikyō". The local name is surprising, for two reasons: firstly, this is an English name, and not a Korean or Japanese one; secondly, that name has been given by a French navigator, Lapérouse, and not by local populations, Korean or Japanese ones. The variant names are written in English, in Japanese or in Korean, with sometimes several languages in the same name. If we translate all these denominations in English, there are actually two names: "Korea strait" and "Tsushima strait". The name "Korea strait" is considered as official, but the use of "Tsushima strait" is admitted also.

Then, the U.S. Board on Geographic Names distinguishes the two parts, on each side of Tsushima. The local name of the western part is « Western Channel », while variant names are "Westkanal", "Chōsen Kaikyo", "Tsushima Kaikyō", "Tsushima Strait", "Tsushima Nishi Suidō", "Taehan Haehŏp", "Sō Sudo", "Nishi Suidō", "Chosŏn Haehyŏp", "Chōsen Strait", "Chōsen Kaikyō", "Chōsen Channel" et "Broughton Channel". For the eastern part, the local name is "Eastern Channel", and

variant names are “Tsushima Kaikyō”, “Tsushima Strait”, “Tsushima Higashi Suidō”, “Tsushima Channel”, “Ostkanal”, “Krusenstern Strait” and “Higashi Suidō”. Next to English, Japanese and Korean, German is also used. Those names can refer to the cardinal directions only, according to the name given to the whole strait, or to Korea and Tsushima, or to the navigators Broughton and Krusenstern.

Unlike the I.H.O., the U.S. Board on Geographic Names speaks a lot about the strait: the problem is mostly the high number of different names. This number is maybe so high precisely because there isn't one official name given by the I.H.O.. Nevertheless, the name of “Korea strait”, the historical basis, seems to be dominant, but we have to see how the cartographic customs integrate that aspect nowadays, in different levels.

## **2) Pragmatic naming's habits:**

The international straits are strategic places: this one, between Japan and Korea, is a highly one. Geographical dictionaries show it clearly, often mentioning that strait in the definition of the word “strait”: “we fight for the straits, in the straits” (Brunet, Ferras, Théry, 1992). The maritime place-names in that area can be a hot question, as the organization of this seminar shows; the number of names used can be an obstacle for the diplomatic relations.

### ***a) At the world level, predominance of “Korea strait”:***

The national cartographic institutions in the world need to name each place on their maps. According to the list of the U.S. Board on Geographic Names, the name “Korea strait” should be the most usual, but maybe not the only one. We have to check in general and geographical dictionaries.

In fact, uses are still fuzzy and ambiguous. In the dictionaries of proper nouns, the strait is quoted at the name of “Korea”; generally, at the name of “Tsushima” is only mentioned the island, but not the strait itself. In the geographical dictionaries, at the word “strait”, there are often examples speaking about the “Korea strait”; for specific aspects, like strategic ones, the name of “Tsushima” is written, but we don't know exactly if it's for the strait or only for the island (Brunet, Ferras, Théry, 1992). The battle of Tsushima in 1905, well-known, is a way to designate that space without any hesitation. Because of the ambiguous formulation, it's difficult to know if there is only one name, “Korea strait”, or if both “Korea strait” and “Tsushima strait” are good.

The atlases show nearly the same situation, but, because of the drawing, it isn't so ambiguous. On the Western atlases, the strait is generally called “Korea strait”, and the name of “Tsushima” only designates the island in the middle. But sometimes, the name of

“Korea strait” is written in the west way: so, we don’t know if it’s used for the whole strait or only the west way; in that case, there isn’t necessarily a name in the east way. Some atlases can also use many names for the strait, with all the combinations as possible.

In France, the *Institut Géographique National* uses a naming list established by a specialized commission. This commission bases its works on the list of the I.H.O. for the maritime naming, with some arrangements if necessary (Commission Nationale de Toponymie, 2004). That new list must correspond to practical demands. The strait is named “Korea strait”: that name designates the whole strait, but there isn’t any name for the two secondary ways. The maps produced by the I.G.N. use those references. So, in France, the name of “Korea strait” is this only one on official documents.

When there are some, the national regulations are by the help of the “Korea strait”, but the results are limited to the national cartographic production. For the other kinds of uses, the words can move more easily; in spite of the ambiguity, the comprehension is never embarrassed. For the countries living far from that place, there’s no problem to understand, and the political stakes aren’t so important; the problem is different for the riverside countries, which need to understand each other, without generating a conflict.

***b) The ways used by the riverside countries:***

Because of the material necessities, it’s essential to defuse any tension about the naming in that area: if not, it could be a problem for the economic projects between those countries. As it’s a controversial question, we have to see the current naming customs in Japan and Korea.

**Naming used by Japan and Korea:**

	<b>Japanese names.</b>	<b>Korean names.</b>
<b>Whole strait.</b>	Tsushima strait.	Korea strait. South sea.
	Western channel.	
<b>West way.</b>	Tsushima western channel. Korea strait.	Western channel.

	Eastern channel.	
<b>East way.</b>	Tsushima eastern channel.	Eastern channel.
	Tsushima strait.	

In the national customs, each country uses its own naming, referring to its territory. In Japan, the whole strait is named “Tsushima strait”, and the two ways “Western channel” and “Eastern channel”, according to the global name. When the name of “Korea strait” is used, it’s only for the west way, and it’s generally written in brackets. In Korea, the name of “Korea” is the only one used so as to designate the strait, and the cardinal points are used referring to the name of “Korea”. In Korea, the distinction between the two ways isn’t as frequent as in Japan, maybe because it would give more importance to the Japanese island of Tsushima. Korea sometimes speaks about the “South sea” to designate the strait on the maps of the Korean peninsula: this name is surprising, but it’s probably due to the scale of those documents. Anyway, we have to remark that Japan and Korea use only different names to designate the same place, their mutual maritime boundary. The maps of the area in each country are totally different for the naming of the strait.

Nowadays, some important economic projects are building in that area. The Yellow sea region is the place of great initiatives in many fields, between a part of Japan, of South-Korea and of China. The cities are particularly the foundation of the regional economy and of the cooperation’s attempts between the countries. The Pan Yellow Sea City Conference includes ten cities for the construction of a mutual development policy: Fukuoka, Kitakyūshū and Shimonoseki in Japan; Pusan, Incheon and Ulsan in Korea; Dalian, Qingdao, Tianjin and Yantai in China (Collective, 2005). The strait appears like a neuralgic area, with the three Japanese cities and the Korean city of Pusan. Four fields are mainly interesting now for the cooperation between these countries, and particularly around the strait: innovation, environment, logistics and tourism.

In each field, the contacts around the strait are important for the construction of the region. For example, logistics are a major way in the regional organization. All the cities participating to the project are important ports: in Japan, the harbour of Hakata is growing very fast, and the group Shimonoseki-Kitakyūshū-Fukuoka is a major port front (Michoudet, Pelletier, 2004); on the opposite side of the strait, Pusan is the third container harbour in the world (Ducruet, Frémont, 2004). Because of the containerization, only the big ports can keep an international statute; because of the economic growing of Eastern Asia and especially China, this area, in touch with Japan and Eastern Asia on the

mainland, is strategic: all that produce a concentration of the exchanges on the axis Fukuoka-Pusan. The present evolution increases the importance of these two ports. Aerial relations are more important for Incheon, worldwide hub, and Fukuoka, for the Asia-Pacific area. In fact, transportations and economic relations between Japan and Korea around the strait are an important subject for the two countries. Common studies have been realized, so as to increase the exchanges. Those studies are published, in Japanese and in Korean: they need to refer to the strait, as the support of those exchanges. They mention it, necessarily, but they don't give any name: they just speak about the "Strait" (Japan, Republic of Korea, 2004). So, on specialized works, made by both Japan and Korea, the only word of "strait" suffices to be understood.

However, that used spreads more than that. For the tourism, the titles of the publications are revealing. Some prospectuses for the promotion of the tourism, published by the prefectures along the strait, in Japanese, in Korean and in English, and destined to a larger public, speak about the travels around the strait: here, the strait is called "Korea-Japan Channel" (Busan, Jeollanam, Gyeongsangnam, Jeju, Yamaguchi, Fukuoka, Saga, Nagasaki, 2005). This name is more precise, maybe because of the public, but it doesn't refer to the names given by Japan or Korea, or by the historical European cartographers. The names of the two countries are on the same level, and the name of "Tsushima" isn't quoted. In fact, when there are some needs of economic collaboration, the two countries manage to obtain a consensus. The way is a little artificial, because each country has to forget its own customs, but this compromise permits to avoid useless tensions.

So, for that strait, Japan and Korea have taken a pragmatic behaviour: by forgetting its own naming, or by accepting at an international level a name not so favourable than its own habits, these countries show that, in practice, the problems due to the naming aren't insolvable. The both choices, no name or a shared name, can be efficient solutions.

## **CONCLUSION:**

It's difficult, for the moment, to speak about standardization for the name of the strait between Japan and Korea. There isn't really any official name for that strait. The name of "Korea strait", probably because of the historical conditions it was given, is dominant today, but the name of "Tsushima strait" is as efficient to designate the same space. The naming of "Korea strait" is more a use name than an official name: it asserts itself by the habits, during a long history, but not by an official international decision.

These ambiguities aren't a handicap in practice, but, on the contrary, an advantage, because the uses are lither. At an international level, the maps use mainly the name of "Korea strait", but the name of "Tsushima strait" is understood as well. At a local level, each country can use the name it wants, but they can find together a mutual way to call that place, when they need it for economic and politic projects. The flexibility is maybe the best way to avoid a crisis like for the sea just in the north: the climate of consensus and cooperation around the strait, permitted by the maritime naming, could become a regional model...

### **List of maps with bibliographical reference or mark in BnF:**

N.B.: maps are classified chronologically; when the date is unknown, classification is done according to other elements (author, influences, etc.).

**Map 1:** Jodocus Hondius, Asiae Nova Descriptio, 1602. (GeD8033.)

**Map 2:** Luís Teixeira, Abraham Ortelius, Iaponiae Insulae Descriptio, *Theatrum Orbis Terrarum*, 1603. (RéGeDD250 (110).)

**Map 3:** Willem-Janszoon Blaeu, Asia, 1608. (GeC4930.)

**Map 4:** Claes-Jansz Visscher, Asia, 1608. (GeD11873.)

**Map 5:** António-Francisco Cardim, Iapponiae Nova et Accurata Descriptio, 1612. (GeDD2987 (7438).)

**Map 6:** Gerhard Mercator, De-La-Popelinière, Iapon ou Iapan Isle, *Atlas Minor*, 1613. (GeFF9678 (615).)

**Map 7:** Jodocus Hondius, Asia Recens Summa Cura Delineata, 1623. (GeD7969.)

**Map 8:** George Humble, Asia with the Islands Adioyning Described, the Atire of the People, and Townes of Importance, 1626. (GeD22031.)

**Map 9:** Joan Jansson, Nova et Accurata Iaponiae Terrae Esonis ac Insularum Adjacentium, 1630. (GeD8733.)

**Map 10:** Willem-Janszoon Blaeu, Asia Noviter Delineata, *Nouvel Atlas*, 1635. (GeDD1169.)

**Map 11:** Robert Dudley, Asia Carta, 1646. (GeFcarte13048.)

**Map 12:** Philippe Briet, Royaume du Japon, 1650. (GeD8732.)

**Map 13:** Nicolas Sanson-D'Abbeville, Asie, 1650. (GeDD2987 (6459).)

**Map 14:** Vincenzo-Maria Coronelli, Asia, undated. (GeC7999 (2).)

**Map 15:** Martino Martini, Iaponia Regnum, *Novus Atlas Chinensis*, 1655. (GeDD1185 (17).)

**Map 16:** Unknown, Imperii Sinarum Nova Descriptio, undated. (GeDD1210 (1).)

- Map 17:** Nicolas Sanson-D'Abbeville, La Chine Royaume, 1656. (GeDD2641 (15).)
- Map 18:** Joan Blaeu, Asiae Descriptio Novissima, 1659. (GeDD5106.)
- Map 19:** Nicolas-Joan Visscher, Asia, undated. (GeDD5111.)
- Map 20:** Willem Blaeu, Asia Noviter Delineata, 1662. (GeDD4796 (28).)
- Map 21:** Guillaume Sanson-D'Abbeville, Asia Vetus, 1667. (GeDD2687 (49).)
- Map 22:** Guillaume Sanson-D'Abbeville, L'Asie, 1669. (GeDD2987 (6460).)
- Map 23:** Willem Blaeu, Totius Asiae Nova et Exacta Tabula, 1670. (GeC7991.)
- Map 24:** Jean-Baptiste Tavernier, Carte des Isles du Japon, 1679. (GeDD2987 (7445).)
- Map 25:** Giacomo Cantelli-Da-Vignola, Il Regno della China, 1682. (GeAFport192 (4851).)
- Map 26:** Nicolas De-Fer, L'Asie, 1696. (GeDD2987B (6472).)
- Map 27:** John Thornton, no title, 1699. (SHMport181 (4).)
- Map 28:** Unknown, no title, undated. (SHMport184 (11).)
- Map 29:** George Psalmanazar, Carte du Japon, 1705. (GeDD2987 (7433).)
- Map 30:** Guillaume Delisle, Carte des Indes et de la Chine, 1705. (GeDD2987 (6808).)
- Map 31:** Henselius, Asia Polyglotta, 1710. (GeDD2987 (123).)
- Map 32:** Adrien Reland, Le Japon Divisé en Soissante et Six Provinces, 1716. (GeDD2987 (7437).)
- Map 33:** Abraham Maas, Nieüwe Kaarte van de Oostkusten van Groot Tartarië, 1727. (GeB2369.)
- Map 34:** Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, Carte Générale de la Tartarie Chinoise, 1732. (GeDD2987 (7270).)
- Map 35:** Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, Carte la plus Générale et qui Comprend la Chine, la Tartarie Chinoise, et le Thibet, 1734. (RésGeDD2035 (1).)
- Map 36:** Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, no title, undated. (GeD10855.)
- Map 37:** Jacques-Nicolas Bellin, Carte de l'Empire du Japon, 1735. (GeDD2987 (7441).)
- Map 38:** Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, no title, *Description de la Chine*, Jean-Baptiste Du-Halde (dir.), 1737. (GeDD2987 (7444).)
- Map 39:** Unknown, Carte du Royaume de Kau-Li ou Corée, undated. (GeDD2987 (7320).)
- Map 40:** Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, Royaume de Corée, undated. (GeD10853.)
- Map 41:** Jean-Baptiste Bourguignon-D'Anville, Carte de la Corée, undated. (GeD10854.)
- Map 42:** Antoine Gaubil, Deuxième Carte Manuscrite du Royaume et des Isles Dépendantes de Lieoukieou en Chine, 1752. (GeD16749.)
- Map 43:** Philippe Buache, Carte du Royaume et des Isles de Lieou-Kieou, 1754. (GeD10055.)

**Map 44:** Jean-Denis Janvier, Longchamps, L'Asie Divisée en tous ses États, 1754. (GeB6940.)

**Map 45:** Gilles Robert-De-Vaugondy, Didier Robert-De-Vaugondy, L'Empire de la Chine, 1757. (GeDD282 (93-81).)

**Map 46:** Jacques-Nicolas Bellin, L'Asie, *Petit Atlas Maritime*, 1764. (GeFF4695 (tomeIII) (2).)

**Map 47:** Jacques-Nicolas Bellin, Carte de l'Empire du Japon, *Petit Atlas Maritime*, 1764. (GeDD2987 (7442).)

**Map 48:** Rigobert Bonne, L'Empire de la Chine, 1780. (GeD23805.)

**Map 49:** Unknwon, Mappemonde ou Carte Réduite des Parties Connues du Globe pour Servir au Voyage de Lapérouse Fait dans les Années 1785, 86, 87 et 88, *Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse*, L. Aubert (dir.), undated.

**Map 50:** Unknown, Partie de la Mer du Sud Comprise entre les Philippines et la Californie. D'après la Carte Espagnole Trouvée sur le Galion Pris par l'Amiral Anson en 1743, qui Représente l'État des Connaissances à cette Époque, et les Routes que Suivaient Ordinairement les Galions dans leur Traversée de Manille à Acapulco, *Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse*, L. Aubert (dir.), undated.

**Map 51:** Unknown, Partie de la Mer du Sud Comprise entre les Philippines et la Californie. D'après une autre Carte Espagnole Communiquée à Lapérouse dans sa Relache à Monterey, sur laquelle il avait Tracé sa Route ainsi que les Îles qu'il avait Reconnues, avec des notes sur celles qu'il n'avait pas Retrouvées, *Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse*, L. Aubert (dir.), undated.

**Map 52:** Unknown, Carte en Trois Parties Reproduisant l'Expédition de Lapérouse. Sur la Partie Nord de cette Carte qui a Appartenu à Louis XVI sont Reportées les Précisions sur les Découvertes de Lapérouse sur la Côte Ouest du Pacifique, *Le Voyage de Lapérouse. 1785-1788. Récits et Documents Originaux*, Maurice De-Brossard, John Dunmore, 1985a.

**Map 53:** Unknown, Carte du Grand Océan ou Mer du Sud Dressée pour la Relation du Voyage de Découvertes Faites par les Frégates Françaises la Boubole et l'Astrolabe dans les Années 1785, 86, 87 et 88, *Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse*, L. Aubert (dir.), undated.

**Map 54:** Jean-François Galaup-De-Lapérouse, Carte Générale des Découvertes Faites en 1787 dans les Mers de Chine et de Tartarie ou depuis Manille jusqu'à Avatscha, par les Frégates Françaises la Boubole et l'Astrolabe, *Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse*, 1787. (GeBB3vol66 (2) (n° 557).)

**Map 55:** Jean-François Galaup-De-Lapérouse, Plan de la Partie des Îles ou Archipel de Corée, Vue au Mois de Mai 1787 par les Frégates Françaises la Boubole et l'Astrolabe, *Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse*, 1787. (GeCC1216 (44).)

**Map 56:** Jean-François Galaup-De-Lapérouse, Carte des Découvertes Faites en 1787

dans les Mers de Chine et de Tartarie, par les Frégates Françaises la Boußole et l'Astrolabe, depuis leur Départ de Manille jusqu'à leur Arrivée au Kamtschatka, Atlas du Voyage de Lapérouse, 1787. (GeBB3vol66 (4) (n° 558).)

**Map 57:** Adam-Johann Von-Krusenstern, Carte de la Partie Sud du Japon et du Détroit de Van-Diemen par le Nadeshda en 1804, 1804. (SHMport178div2 (8D).)

**Map 58:** Unknown, Carte du Japon pour le Voyage de Krusenstern, 1805. (GeD16359.)

**Map 59:** William-Robert Broughton, Carte de la Côte Nord-Est de l'Asie et des Îles du Japon, 1807. (GeFF7421 (1).)

**Map 60:** R.-G. Bennet, J. Van-Wyk, Kaart van Japan, 1829. (GeCC2302 (7).)

**Map 61:** J. De-La-Roche-Poncié, X. Estignard, J. Delbalat, Carte de l'Archipel Lou-Tchou et de la Partie Sud du Japon, 1848. (GeBB3vol66 (6) (n° 1174).)

**Map 62:** J. De-La-Roche-Poncié, J.-M. Hacq, Carte de la Presqu'Île de Corée, 1848. (GeBB3vol66 (10) (n° 1173).)

**Map 63:** Philipp-Franz Von-Siebold, Karte vom Japanischen Reiche, 1851. (GeSH19<sup>è</sup>port178div1 (21/1D).)

**Map 64:** M. Mouchez, Côte Est de Corée et Partie de la Tartarie Reconnues par la Corvette la Capricieuse, 1852. (GeSH19<sup>è</sup>port177div2 (26).)

**Map 65:** Alfred Maury, V.-A. Malte-Brun, Corée, 1855. (GeFF6.4<sup>è</sup>S<sup>ic</sup>TIX (1855).)

**Map 66:** John Rodgers, John-M. Brooke, Japan, 1859. (GeAA2747 (65-1859).)

**Map 67:** P.-F. Zegelbert, Kaart van Japan, 1859. (GeSH19<sup>è</sup>port178div1 (18).)

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**Map 73:** Karl Ritter, M.-A. Poggio, Karte von Tio-Sionj oder Korea, 1895. (GeFF3254.)

**Map 74:** J.-G. Bartholomew, Special Map of China, Japan and Korea, undated. (GeC3198.)

**Map 75:** Unknown, Eastern Asia Showing Japan, Korea, Manchuria, and Adjoining Parts of Siberia and China, undated. (GeD6071.)

**Map 76:** Unknown, Корея [Korea], 1900. (GeC3372.)

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