

Anna Stachurska

**Selected aspects of lexicography.**

**A diachronic approach**

2022

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Abbreviations

Foreword

1. The disciplinary status of lexicography.....	5
2. Pedagogical lexicography .....	16
3. Classifying dictionary works .....	23
4. Dictionary structure .....	32
5. On the types of lexicographic definitions .....	40
6. Tailoring the entry to the user who needs it .....	46
7. Issues in Monolingual Learners' Dictionaries .....	51
8. Problematic areas in EFL lexicography .....	65
9. Pragmatic specifications in lexicography .....	77
10. Linguistic aspects of a dictionary of English .....	96
11. Electronic dictionaries .....	108
REFERENCES .....	118

## TABLE OF ABBREVIATIONS

AmE	American English
AusE	Australian English
BrE	British English
<i>CALD</i>	<i>Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary</i>
<i>CCALD</i>	<i>Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's Dictionary</i>
<i>DOL</i>	Dictionary of Lexicography
IPA	International Phonetic Alphabet
<i>LDCE</i>	<i>Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English</i>
LGP	Language for General Purposes
LSP	Language for Specific Purposes
<i>MLD</i>	Monolingual Learner's Dictionary
<i>NED</i>	New English Dictionary
<i>OALD</i>	<i>Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary</i>
RP	Received Pronunciation

The major goal set to this introduction is to help students of English at the College/University level systematize their knowledge of the basics of lexicography, the branch of linguistic research that enjoy high interest and prestige in present day linguistic research. Although lexicography dealt with, also known as the art of dictionary making, especially in its practical aspect has been around on the linguistic scene for centuries it is only in recent decades that it has ceased to be a step-daughter of the study of language that for a long time could hardly find an appropriate place within the realm of linguistics. At present one can say that lexicography enjoys the status of a respectable subject field with its own foundations, theoretical apparatus and methodology.

*The book* is a very much modified and extended version of the text that was published as a part of a joint publication titled *The Rudiments of Lexicography and Sociolinguistics* (2016). Apart from touching several lexicographic problems that were unmentioned earlier the text offered here has been bibliographically updated and reorganized.

This publication is an outcome of the research project KEGA 019TTU-4/2021 Introducing new digital tools into teaching and research within transdisciplinary philological study programmes.

Of course, all blunders, errors and misfires are my own responsibility.

Author

## 1. The disciplinary status of lexicography

When we investigate the semantics of the term, as used in the latest lexicographic publications, it appears that treating lexicography merely as the compilation of dictionaries seems to be both much too narrow and largely inadequate approach. Thus, it seems that a more acceptable definition would be the one provided in Svensén (2009) who says that:

Lexicography is an activity which consists in observing, collecting, selecting, analysing and describing, in a dictionary, a number of lexical items (words, word elements and word combinations) belonging to one or more languages. In case where two or more languages are involved simultaneously, the description takes on the nature of a comparison between the items that have been selected from the vocabularies of the languages in question. This part of the subject, the compilation of dictionaries, is called PRACTICAL LEXICOGRAPHY, or simply DICTIONARY - MAKING. Lexicography also includes the examination and development of theories concerning the compilation, characteristics, purposes and use of dictionaries. This part of the subject is generally called THEORETICAL LEXICOGRAPHY or METALEXICOGRAPHY.

The science of lexicography is most frequently viewed as consisting of two main elements, that is to say the theoretical part of lexicographic enquiry and the practical component

of dictionary making. Rather unsurprisingly, normally special focus is placed on the lexicographic theory, known as metalexigraphy, which is by all means distinct from the practical component which is justifiably equated with the very process of compilation

of dictionaries. However, it is worth stressing that lexicography has by no means been always perceived as a two-sided field of scientific enquiry, and – in the cursory outline provided below – we hope to be able to show that the theoretical component may justifiably be regarded as a relatively late development, because up to a certain point of time lexicography was primarily associated solely and exclusively with the questions and problems related to the practice, or art of dictionary production.

One may certainly formulate a general statement and say that until the 20<sup>th</sup> century

linguists were hardly at all interested in dictionaries and dictionary making mainly due to the fact that lexicographic works were considered to be merely a commercial product without either any linguistic foundations needed or required from the realm of linguistic science proper. As noticed by Rey (1982:17), without running any risk of overgeneralization, one may say that at its beginnings the concept of a lexicographic work was far too unscientific to attract any truly academic enquiry, but also the academic world showed too little interest in the art of compiling dictionaries mainly due to the fact that lexicography was viewed and held to lie well outside the scope of theoretical considerations. Béjoint (2000:167) makes a strong claim when he says that:

(...) also, as a book about words, it shared the relative absence of prestige of lexis and semantics in the linguistics of the nineteenth and first three-quarters of the twentieth century. Lexicology was not a recognised branch of linguistics.

Obviously, such strong statements are neither isolated nor – by any means – a novelty in the literature of the subject. The general conviction that dictionaries and, in general, the art of dictionary making were largely neglected was earlier emphatically expressed by, for example, Gleason (1962:86), who apparently draws a realistic picture by saying that:

Certainly, we descriptive linguists tend to be contemptuous of vocabulary. It is also a dogma among us that vocabulary is the least significant part of language (save for a group among us who even doubt that vocabulary is really a part of language after all).

In fact, one may say that neither lexicographers nor publishing houses seemed to be interested in any way in the contribution of language theoreticians to the process of compilation of dictionaries because of the general conviction that academic world was hardly of any use in strictly lexicographic work. The conviction seems to have been largely practically based. In the words of Urdang (1963:594), although theoreticians are by all means welcome to the field of lexicography, each theoretical contribution should be judged in terms of its practical implementation to the field of dictionary making.

One may say that the interests and involvement of linguists in dictionary making became high starting from the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century when publishers of lexicographic matter started to seek the advice of language theoreticians, although –

as stressed by Knudsen and Sommerfelt (1958:98) – only few linguists were truly interested in the involvement in the field. Yet, one may say that by that time it was abundantly clear that strictly linguistic contribution could exert much impact both on the quality of dictionary compilation and production. In effect, the relation between dictionary compilers and linguists gradually warmed and became more intensive in the years to come. With reference to her own career that started in the 1970s Atkins (2002:25) admits that her lexicographic work had been influenced by linguistics, and that her own approach to lexicography benefitted greatly from various insights coming from linguistics. It appears that we may generalize and say that what the author says seems to represent a general attitude that linguistic theory, and – in particular – recent advances in lexical semantics can light the way to better lexicography.

Yet, it seems reasonable to stress that opinions on the mutual relationship between lexicography and lexicology differ substantially. Some linguists go as far as to claim that lexicography and lexicology are the same, while others view lexicography as merely one of the branches of lexicology. Simultaneously, one may speak of yet another viewpoint according to which lexicology is by all means equivalent to metalexicography. Dubois and Dubois (1971:15) and Rey (1982:17-18) makes us aware of the specific relation that holds between dictionary making and linguistic theory when they say that although dictionaries can be compiled by authors who have nothing to do with linguistics this does in no way imply that there is no linguistic knowledge in a dictionary, because all dictionaries adopt and transmit some points of view on language, even if dictionary compilers are not aware of it.

In the early 1970s Quemada (1972:427) expressed a much stronger claim when he said that “(...) each lexicographic work reflects a linguistic theory which the author more or less consciously applies.” More recently, Béjoint (2000:173) seems to have moved one step further in claiming that the main currents of theoretical linguistics had certain impact on practical lexicography “(...) but mostly faint ones, as if the rumors had taken a long time to reach the quiet studies of working lexicographers, and as if they had been weakened by the time they finally arrived.” The author attributes this to the fact that theoretical linguistics is not easily applied to the art of dictionary making, and – in particular – to the latest approaches to the science are typically ill-fitted for a general-purpose dictionary that is meant to be used by the man in the street. Even more recently, Zaenen (2002:239) apparently shares the aforementioned attitude in stating that lexicographers “(...) simply do not feel the need to improve in the ways that recent

research would make possible.”

This is fair to say that, as the art of dictionary making gradually developed, there seem to have existed varying and flexible degrees of proximity between the art of dictionary making and linguistic theory, depending on the specific nature of linguistic theories and schools of linguistic thought. Yet, there are no grounds to doubt that various advances in linguistic theory have had considerable influence not only on the issue of the lexicographic explanation of lexical meaning, but also on the nature of the presentation of semantic data within dictionary macrostructure (see Geeraerts 1996, Gouws 1996, Svensén 2009, Béjoint 2010). Likewise, as stressed by Sterkenburg (2003:16), innovations in other fields of science brought a radical change in the realm of lexicography. In effect, the art of dictionary making found much support from new techniques in data collection based on corpora of electronic texts anchored entirely in a database structure.

In the history of English lexicography, the lexical orientation was long diachronic. Geeraerts (1996:14-15), puts in explicitly and clearly that it was lexicology that originally provided the theoretical foundations for the scientific historical dictionary, although it must be ultimately viewed as tangible empirical realization of lexicologically-oriented research. In general, one may say that pragmatically driven lexicography made it all too obvious that there is the need for a separate theoretical module that was later to become labelled as metalexicography. As to the pragmatic angle within the realm of metalexicography, let us stress that is to be taken as encompassing all those linguistic phenomena which should be studied within the scope of that discipline, such as cultural setting in dictionaries, the question of equivalence and the various problems of lexicographic definition (see Burkhanov 2003:103). As to the question of whether lexicography should be taken to be as a science located within the realm of applied linguistics, or – as viewed by many others – as a branch of lexicology has been for a long time a much-argued point.

In the 1960s, on the grounds of the ongoing academic discussion, it was felt and repeatedly stressed that there was an urgent need to prepare and issue the manual for lexicography, and such a ground-breaking publication was prepared by the Oriental Institute of Czechoslovak Academy of Sciences with Zgusta as its main author (see Zgusta 1971:10). It goes without saying that the publication of Zgusta’s work marked an entirely new era in the area of dictionary making through bringing in an entirely novel approach towards lexicography because Zgusta’s *Manual of Lexicography* (1971)



linked many lexicographic problems with the science of linguistics. To put it more precisely, in this groundbreaking work lexicography was placed in the field of the study of lexicon, including the field of lexical semantics. This meant expecting lexicographers to be familiar with broadly-understood linguistic problems and due attention was paid not only to the structure of a given language, but also to cultural background of the relevant language community the lexical resources of which are subject to lexicographic account Zgusta (1971:19) stresses the role of the cultural component in the following words: “The scholar, by referring to the culture, makes way for an approach which compels lexicographers to contextualize the language in terms of the more general world of the relevant speech community,” and – in the same fragment of his publication – the author insists on the multiaspectual nature of lexicographic theory by saying that lexicography is multifacetedly connected with all those branches of linguistic science the target of which are the lexical resources of language, its semantics, grammar and stylistics (see Zgusta 1971:19).

This approach is evidenced by the structure of Zgusta’s seminal publication the four opening chapters of which are clearly concerned with linguistics rather than lexicography.

To be more specific, the spectrum of the issues raised in the text ranges from the problem of lexical meaning, language variation and the problems of formal variation of words. By providing discussion on variation, Zgusta (1971) managed to provide ample evidence that dictionaries must reflect the real language usage. More generally, with such a standpoint taken, it may be said to have formed a kind of opposition to the ideas formulated by the growing number of enthusiasts of the Generative Transformational Grammar who appeared to have the greatest share in shaping the linguistic scene of the 1960s and 1970s. Almost 20 years later Zgusta (1989) focused on the role lexicographic works have in displaying and accounting for the various faces of linguistic change.

One of the most important messages formulated in Zgusta’s (1989) work is that lexicography should not be regarded as a theory seen merely as theorizing for its own sake. According to the scholar, those whom we may label as theoretical lexicographers practice theorizing aimed at improving the work of practical lexicographers who are engaged in dictionary making. To illustrate the point in a more figurative fashion, a dictionary that is published may be viewed as the end product placed in the display-window of the linguistic workshop. This amounts to saying that it is the theoretical component of lexicography that makes it possible for practical lexicographers to work

on and compile dictionary reference works that are targeted at specific, well-identified and defined user groups, and those who practice dictionary making are fully aware of the needs, expectations and skills of those for whom dictionaries are intended. The term *user-perspective* that with time has come to be one of the key notions in lexicography, was introduced by Zgusta (1989), and one is justified to say the notion of user-perspective has become both the landmark and one of the major driving forces of lexicographic research.

At the same time, the varying impact of linguistic research on lexicography has been marked in the nature and extent of the presentation of semantic data in lexicographic reference works. Apart from that, one may speak of much variation clearly visible in the organization of other pieces of lexicographic information, and this lot includes pronunciation, etymological explanations, morphological and syntactic data, and this holds good both for monolingual and bilingual dictionary works.

It is generally believed that there obtains a strict correlation between the choice and use of a given linguistic framework on the one hand, and the degree of consistency a given lexicographic work enjoys. Other specialists go a few steps further and stress that lexicography should focus on, and draw from those latest linguistic disciplines that are concerned with the problems of language in use. Among others, Fox (1997:137-138) puts strong emphasis on the function of context in stating that the guided choice and use of illustrative examples is an integral component of the process of acquisition of lexical items. One feels tempted to add here that ideally the exemplary contexts should be extracted from language corpora and the necessary criterion of the choice of contextualized examples is that they adequately represent and reflect real use in of a given language. Certainly, the choice and application of illustrative examples plays a vital role in practical lexicography, and also, the influence that sociolinguistics made on the way in which lexicography handles must not be underestimated, least to say ignored. Let us point to the fact that the views sketched in the foregoing were hardly at all shared by either all linguists or all lexicographers. In this context, let us quote Stein (2002:68) who states that:

Linguistic research will and has to influence the making of language dictionaries is self-evident. What is, however, more astonishing is that linguists expect lexicography to incorporate their findings, yet they rarely assume that lexicography might further certain areas of linguistics itself. They use the

wealth of linguistic information that dictionaries provide; they rely on lexicographical data. They draw heavily upon these data banks to support or corroborate their theoretical views and therefore regard dictionary information as useful or necessary but of only secondary importance to their theoretical assumptions. They underrate the idea- provoking, insight-provoking value of these data because the underlying theoretical framework may not be as coherent or stringent as they think it should or could be.

Weinreich – one of the most outstanding and influential world linguists whose academic interests centred, among other scholarly disciplines, on the problems of dictionary making – made a strong claim when he said a dictionary should provide the foundation for lexicological theory. In the 1980s, along similar lines, Geeraerts (1986:287) argued that lexicography is the kind of human activity for which the principles of language provide only one source of parameters that determine the actual final shape that dictionaries take.

On the whole, one may generalize and say that during the 1970s and 1980s theoretical aspects of lexicography were studied chiefly within a linguistic context. The general focus was on strictly linguistic questions of dictionary compilation, and such bias was conditioned by the fact that – most frequently – those who were busy doing research in theoretical lexicography were, at the same time, linguists working in the centers of linguistic research. In particular, in the last decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, research in the field of metalexigraphy was largely dominated and influenced by the work of Wiegand (1983, 1984, 1989, 1998). His early work published in 1983 emphasized the importance of the formulating general theoretical basis of lexicography. In the following year Wiegand (1989:14-15) argued that lexicography should not be treated either as a branch of applied linguistics, but – at the same time – it is not a branch of lexicology, or to put it more precisely the questions that lexicography formulates are not answered by lexicology on its own. According to this author, in the field of lexicography one may speak of the following four major components, namely:

- 1) history of lexicography,
- 2) general theory of lexicography,
- 3) research dedicated to dictionary use,
- 4) the criticism of dictionaries.

In the following publications (see, for example, Wiegand 1996:251), the author introduced the term *dictionary research*, and proposed to divide the relevant research into four main study areas, that is:

- 1) research in dictionary use,
- 2) critical research,
- 3) historical research,
- 4) systematic dictionary research.

One may generalize here and say that although linguistics has a substantial impact on the field of lexicography, the target object of the latter is dictionary making and dictionaries, viewed as its product rather than language itself. In short, the view that the main target of practical lexicography is the process of dictionary making, and the theoretically biased lexicography addresses the questions related to dictionary research has been upheld in the majority of publications in the field of lexicography, with such names as, for example, Wiegand (1984, 1998), Hausmann and Wiegand (1998) Hartmann and James (1998).

One of the most prominent highlights of the work in theoretical lexicography in the 1980s and 1990s was a generally felt tendency to gear the ongoing research towards the problems of meeting the needs and reference skills of those for whom they are ultimately intended, that is the target users. Among others, this bias is felt in the monumental work of Hausmann (1989) who itemizes a set of relevant lexicographic questions to be tackled and dealt with, and the list includes:

- dictionaries and their public,
- dictionaries and their users,
- the history and theory of lexicography,
- dictionary components and dictionary structure,
- problems of description in the general monolingual dictionary types,
- dictionaries of language varieties,
- procedures in lexicographical work,
- lexicography of individual languages,
- the theory of bilingual and multilingual lexicography.

Among others, the list given above contains the point related to the work on dictionary structure and dictionary components. The research that was carried out in the 1990s emphasized that the questions related to the content of dictionaries were of primary importance (see McArthur 1986 among others). At that time, little interest was placed on the problems of dictionary structure, dictionary layout, dictionary articles or the problems related to the front and back matters' texts. Other authors, such as, for example, Bergenholtz (1995), concentrated on the questions related to dictionary layout.

Another target area that emerges from the list compiled by Hausmann (1989) is the distinction between general and specialized dictionaries. In his recent work Svensén (2009) supports the idea of making a distinction between general language lexicography that focuses on general vocabulary and technical lexicography (also known as terminology/terminography), the object of which are terminological riches of various specialist fields. Obviously, technical lexicography thus perceived should be viewed as a branch of lexicography, and – consequently – there is much overlap between the features of technical dictionaries and those of general lexicographic works. Yet, one of the stands for the distinction made here lies in the dictionary's scope of coverage by subject. To be more specific, let us say that although both general – language dictionaries and specialised dictionaries include technical items, technical dictionaries hardly ever contain general language.

Finally, let us point to the fact that – interestingly enough – in the history of lexicographic thought and research there is a certain recurrent research topic that appears and disappears only to reappear at a further stage of the development of the science, and this theme is the concept of user-perspective that was introduced by Zgusta (1971). Since the early 1970s many studies have been published, at different levels and with a variety of first-language backgrounds in mind. Hartmann (1987) listed four points of focus, namely:

- identifying the specific categories of linguistic information (e.g., meaning, spelling, pronunciation, grammar) perceived as important by particular groups of dictionary users,
- seeking to throw light on the users themselves, and on their assumptions and expectations in turning to the dictionary,
- investigating the study of occupational activities in the course of which and in support

of which a dictionary is used,

- investigating the reference skills which users have developed, or need to develop, to use their dictionaries more effectively, and evaluating teaching programmes or aids designed to enhance such skills.<sup>1</sup>

Truly, lexicographic theory of today seems to be based on a generally accepted view that dictionaries are utility products, and – as such – they are to be designed to meet the needs of users. At the same time, the changes that are taking place in the output of lexicographic production, result from various developments in descriptive linguistics, but – at the same time – they are brought by the growing awareness of the changes that take place in the changing needs of dictionary buyers. It goes without saying that the present-day lexicographic work – most frequently viewed as an independent discipline of applied linguistics – draws heavily upon, and benefits from various developments of linguistic theory, though the main focus in lexicographic research has by all means altered the functions set to dictionaries on the one hand, and the dictionary structure on the other. The questions that arise while considering the direction of today's lexicographic work are related to those disciplines of science that may aid, influence and have a constructive impact on the development of the art of dictionary making. According to Dolezal and McCreary (1999) – to provide but one voice in the ongoing discussion – lexicographic research should – among others – focus on the problem of models for dictionaries directed at specific target user groups.

## **2. Pedagogical lexicography**

Coming back to the basics, somewhat paradoxically it is close to impossible to provide a concise yet universally acceptable definition of the term *lexicography*. Etymologically, the sense of the term is relatively unambiguous as it is a combination

---

<sup>1</sup> Quoted after Cowie (1999:77).

of Greek elements *lexicos* ‘of words’ + *graphen* ‘to write’, and in most recent reference sources – it is treated as a polysemous term meaning either:

1. the study of the structure, content and style of dictionaries, or
2. the craft of making dictionaries. (*Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Semiotics, Media and Communications* 2000).

Rather significantly, some reference books on linguistics and – in particular – applied linguistics fail to recognize the existence of the science of lexicography (see, for example, *Podręczny słownik językoznawstwa stosowanego* 1984).<sup>2</sup> Yet, lexicography defined as the production of dictionaries, as well as the quantum of principles and practices pertaining to dictionary making is acknowledged in most of the reference that have been consulted. To illustrate this, let us quote one of the more familiar sources – that is the *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (2001:354), which says that “Lexicography deals with writing, compilation and editing both general and specialized dictionaries.”<sup>3</sup> According to *The Oxford Companion to the English Language* (1992:600), the science of:

(...) lexicography has been of two kinds: alphabetic lexicography, the dominant form whose best-known product is the dictionary properly so called, and thematic lexicography, which arranges words by themes or topics usually accompanied by an index.

In turn, the *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998:85) defines the term as the “professional activity and academic field concerned with dictionaries and other reference works.” Unfortunately, not infrequently one comes across very much simplified – if not simplistic – definitions of the science, such as that proposed in *Dictionary of Linguistics* (1954) which says that lexicography equals “the definition and description of the various meanings of the words of a language or of a special terminology”, or – more recently – Stockwell (1992:150) who provides a very succinct definition of the art saying that lexicography is *the writing of dictionaries*.

As already hinted in the foregoing, lexicography as a discipline is a disputed and controversial field of language enquiry. Burkhanov (1998:135) seems to be echoing the common view, according to which various experts hold discrepant views regarding the disciplinary status of lexicography. Yet, one may generalise and say that all experts in the field agree that the term *lexicography* denotes both the art of dictionary making and the field of lexicographic research (which is also referred to as *metalexicography*). When we go somewhat deeper into the texture of the ongoing discussion, we see that,

---

<sup>2</sup> In English, the title translates as *A Handbook of Applied Linguistics*.

<sup>3</sup> Along similar lines, *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (2002:307) defines the sense of the term *lexicography* as “(...) the art and craft of dictionary making.”

according to such researchers as Henne (1973) and Akhamowa (1969), the science of lexicography is a composite of three basic tasks, namely:

1. the science of dictionary-making, otherwise referred as *metalexigraphy*,
2. making dictionaries as a method of describing lexicon of a given language,
3. a collection of all dictionaries of a particular language or of a field of study treated as a whole.

In one of his more recent works, Hartmann (2001) defines the science of lexicography as a growing field, with a practical branch (dictionary making) and a theoretical branch (dictionary research). The position of lexicography as a branch of science has been variously described. Among others, it has been labelled as a part of the domain of applied linguistics, and – most frequently – a subject field whose theoretical aspect falls within the realm of theoretical linguistics, whereas lexicological practice pertains to the sphere of applied linguistics. (See, for example, Polański 1993:301) Svensén (1993:1) defines the tasks set to *lexicography* in the following manner:

(...) a branch of applied linguistics which consists in observing, collecting, selecting, and describing units from the stock of words and word combinations [and] also includes the development and description of the theories and methods which are to be the basis of this activity.

Along similar lines, Weinreich (1980:268) characterizes lexicography as a domain within descriptive semantics, by saying that the science should be viewed as:

A science of descriptive semantics as a methodology of glossing, stating meanings in dictionaries, of translating the words of real languages into an adequate metalanguage without arbitrariness, subjectiveness, or normativeness, it is not yet in sight.

Similar views are frequent in current research. Kay (1998:53) argues that semantics and lexicography are twin disciplines; both being concerned with meaning and its expression, yet “(...) their relationship has generally been an uneasy one.”<sup>4</sup> The belief that lexicographic practice belongs to the domain of applied linguistics,<sup>5</sup> while metalexigraphy should be perceived as a part of theoretical linguistics has led Wierzbicka (1985:6), among others, to assume that linguistic semantics should provide the theoretical framework for lexicography. Let us stress that although often based on linguistic research, lexicography is by no means universally considered a branch of

---

<sup>4</sup> As argued by Kay (1998), semantic theories which had most to offer lexicography, such as various versions of componential/feature analysis have been least regarded within semantics itself.

<sup>5</sup> Note that in current Polish philological research lexicography is most frequently treated as a branch of applied linguistics. (See, for example, *Słownik wiedzy o języku*, 2007)



linguistics (see, for example, Hausmann 1986; Rey 1986; Wiegand 1984), but rather as an independent discipline of its own. (See, for example, Zgusta 1986) To support this widely held view, Pawley (1985:99) stresses that the independence of lexicography derives from the fact that linguists:

(...) do not actually compile dictionaries according to the theoretical principles which they spell out; when they do tackle dictionary-making, grammarians generally switch hats and become conventional lexicographers.

Yet, some authors such as, for example, as Wiegand (1996) go significantly further. Taking the well-pronounced utilitarian position, the author claims that lexicography is not a science, a craft, art of linguistics and applied lexicology, but rather a calculable, analysable, checkable, manageable, testable and teachable practical process or cultural practice aimed at producing dictionaries to satisfy the reference needs of their users. Note that defining lexicography as the *art* or *craft* of dictionary writing locates it explicitly at the centre of applied linguistic endeavour.

As mentioned previously, some scholars distinguish between lexicographic theory, also known as metalexigraphy (dictionary research), and lexicographic practice (writing dictionaries). Others include all aspects of dictionary making (both theory and practice) in their definition of lexicography. For instance, Rey (1986:95) observes that treating lexicography as a branch of applied linguistics is a very much oversimplified view, since in lexicographic description one also finds elements of epistemology, technology, anthropology, the history of cultures and the history of literature. Along much similar lines, Ilson (1992:330) regards theoretical lexicography – understood as the study of dictionary making and the product of this activity – as a branch of information science dealing with the form, content, marketing and the use of lexicographic publications. For the purpose of the present study, the view of lexicography, as outlined in the works of Burkhanov (1998,1999) shall be adopted. In most general terms, lexicography – according to this author – is an applied discipline combining a linguistic, historical and philological nature specializing in producing dictionaries and other works of reference. As to the interpretation of the scope of lexicography it emerges from Burkhanov's (1998, 1999) works that:

1. in a broad sense, the term *lexicography* designates the combination of the process, result and theoretical assessment of the compilation of reference works such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias, glossaries, thesauri, usage guides, etc.,
2. in a narrower sense, the category of lexicographic reference works excludes encyclopaedias. In view of such interpretation, lexicography is an area of study and research that concentrates on the process, result and theoretical assessment of the compilation of reference works which present information about the lexicon of a given language,

3. from another viewpoint, characteristic primarily of the English-speaking countries, lexicography is regarded as a discipline dealing with the process, result and theoretical assessment of reference works composed of word lists.

Although these problems shall be subject to our scrutiny further on, let us indicate at this point that in specialized lexicographic literature various types of reference works are distinguished. And so, for example, according to Berengholtz and Tarp (1995:29-31), the quantum of reference works may be said to include the following categories:

1. dictionaries – printed works that provide information about words,
2. encyclopaedias – printed works providing information about facts,
3. encyclopaedic dictionaries – printed works that provide both linguistic and encyclopaedic information.

Predominantly, dictionaries and encyclopaedias are seen as the two main types of reference works, which may be said to stand at the opposite ends of a certain continuum, because one is concerned with words as linguistic or lexical items (*sun* = ‘the star around which the Earth circles’), while the other provides an account of extralinguistic facts (*sun* = ☀).<sup>6</sup>

It goes without saying that the two categories of reference work are closely linked and there is much overlap between the contents they offer. However, although they are sometimes erroneously considered interchangeable, they must be viewed as being essentially different types of reference works compiled with different purposes in mind. In the simplest of terms, a dictionary may be defined as a book that lists words in an alphabetical order and describes their meanings. To be more precise, dictionaries normally include information about spelling, syllabication, pronunciation, etymology, usage, synonyms and grammar. An encyclopaedia, on the other hand, traditionally provides a collection of articles or varying length about various (related) branches of knowledge. (Landau 1989:5) In short, dictionary definitions are usually confined to information that is essential in allowing the reader to understand an unfamiliar word. At the same time, a dictionary can be regarded as a text encoding certain specific information. It has, however, numerous characteristic features which distinguish it from other texts of similar type and purpose. To start with, words are arranged in alphabetical order, and this arrangement of the material is nothing but natural when one considers the way in which the dictionary is meant to be used. Most importantly, in contrast to many other published materials, it is not to be read from cover to cover. Instead, a dictionary is meant to be consulted whenever the user feels the need to fill a gap in their knowledge pertaining to a very specific point. In other words, the dictionary is most frequently viewed as a tool that is handled by the user in order to find a solution to what has presented itself to him as a lexical problem (cf. Bogaards 2003:30-31). The very close relation between types of users, types of social situations and types of user needs

---

<sup>6</sup> On this issue see, among others, McArthur (1986:102-4).

is the very nucleus of the lexicographic theory. It follows that a lexicographic function is defined as the satisfaction of the specific types of lexicographically relevant needs that may arise in a specific type of potential user in a specific type of situation. (See Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2010: 3031) It follows from this definition that each type of user in combination with each type of user situation triggers a separate lexicographic function and, besides, a specific lexicographic work may have one, two or several such functions.

Up to now our discussion of lexicography has centred on its disciplinary status. However, as the primary concern of this section is **pedagogical lexicography** and its scope, we shall delve into this issue in the sections that follow. To start with, it is necessary to indicate that the very term *pedagogical lexicography* is considered to be intuitively clear by the majority of those engaged in the art of dictionary making. It is noteworthy that the dictionary – viewed as a particular type of reference literature – is not infrequently regarded as a provider of a kind of pedagogical discourse. Yet, the very notion of *pedagogical lexicography* may seem to be somewhat redundant, because lexicography is, by its very nature, pedagogical. (See, for example, Burkhanov, 1999:200) For some experts in the field, the very notion of pedagogical lexicography should be restricted to the design and production of dictionaries for *EFL* students (see, for example, Cowie 1987 and Piotrowski 1994, McArthur 1998, Rundell 1998, Béjoint 2010). According to this point of view, the main domains of pedagogical lexicography are the following ones:

1. the theory and practice of producing learner's dictionaries,
2. the theory and practice of compiling minimal lexicons,
3. the theory and practice of pedagogical lexical statistics,
4. the theory and practice of developing reference books of lexicographic type,
5. the theory and practice of introducing and reinforcing new lexical items in a given course book glossary, as well as in the vocabulary lists from particular lessons.

Such authorities in lexicographic science as, for example, Hartman (2001:26) view pedagogical lexicography as a promising new field of enquiry, developing somewhere at the intersection between language teaching and dictionary making. The author adds that "(...) pedagogical lexicography, in the (British) English context, has been accountable for a new genre of reference works, the 'learner's dictionary.'" Note that both the scope and the main objectives of this area of lexicography are taken into consideration. The latter, in contrast with general lexicography, is usually defined as lexicography of smaller size and greater instructive orientation. (See Burkhanov 1999:201) For the reason of their greater instructive orientation, pedagogical dictionaries designed for non-native learners of foreign languages represent "(...) only what somebody learning a language may be expected to say, write, and read." (Zgusta 1971:214) This is the main reason why the scope of pedagogical lexicography in foreign language teaching is often restricted to the production of learner's dictionaries only (see

Burkhanov 1999: 201), and thus – it is agreed by many – this area of lexicographic activity remains very much in the sector of applied linguistics. (cf. Kortmann 2005: 11-12)

In some of the present-day studies, the scope of pedagogical lexicography encompasses all reference works “(...) designed for all practical didactic needs of teachers and learners of a language.” (*DOL*, 1998:107) In others, pedagogical lexicography is viewed merely as “(...) lexicographic description of the lexicon for the purpose of teaching a foreign or a second language.” (Burkhanov 1998:174) Hence, it is clear that pedagogical lexicography aims to present varied information pertaining to syntax, morphology, collocation restrictions, pragmatic properties of lexical items, etc. Rundell (1999:37) provides us with a summary of the information categories that *EFL* students need to understand for any successful performance of productive tasks:

1. syntactic behaviour,
2. collocation preferences,
3. sociolinguistic features (including register and regional variety),
4. semantic features,
5. contextual effects.

Likewise, Bogaards (1996:279) points out the major tasks a non-native learner is expected to perform while acquiring lexical knowledge. These are the following ones:

1. to learn completely new lexical items,
2. to learn new meanings for forms with which they are already acquainted (i.e., collocation, compounds, idioms, and so on),
3. to learn relations between lexical items with regard to form,
4. to learn appropriate uses of lexical items at grammatical, pragmatic, collocation and discourse levels.

In the history of lexicography, one may certainly point to various trends and tendencies that characterized dictionary making at various stages of the development of this branch of language science. As to the most recent editions of English-oriented learner’s dictionaries, they exhibit the tendencies towards the following characteristic traits:

1. the language of reference is every day,
2. an emphasis is placed on the quality rather than on the quantity of the microstructure,
3. the tendency to focus on high frequency words, as well as more frequent meanings of polysemic words,
4. an inclusion of those pieces of information that are necessary for expression:
  - a) coverage of both spoken and written styles,
  - b) pronunciation provided in International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA),

5. lack of those items of information that are considered as being not functional (etymological considerations, for example),
6. definitions that are provided are given in limited defining vocabulary,
7. an inclusion of multiple examples and contexts of use,
8. frequent inclusion of guidance section that serves to meet the answer to the question of ‘how to use the dictionary’,
9. generous illustrations of various kinds,
10. extra sections (middle matters, charts, etc.) included,
11. the use of electronic formats (CD- ROMs), the use of corpus,
12. user-friendly style,
13. more readable format,
14. focus the frequency of words/meanings,
15. focus on information on words use,
16. new types of illustrations, sounds, video sequences, etc. (Béjoint, 2010)

As forcefully stressed by Tarp (2004), the most important function of an *EFL* dictionary is to serve the purpose of self-instruction. To be more precise, the pedagogical dictionary collects and presents varied information related to syntax, morphology, collocation restrictions, pragmatic properties of lexical items, etc. The fundamental importance of learning within the scope of applied linguistics is beyond any question. Hence, the status of pedagogical lexicography as a branch of lexicography concerning the writing and study of dictionaries for language education is also pedagogically essential. All in all, the current international interest in teaching and learning English means that pedagogical lexicography has become a universal subject, mainly due to the fact that English has become the lingua franca in world-scale discourse and communication.<sup>7</sup>

### 3. Classifying dictionary works

The aims set to this section are easily definable. In a nutshell, the goal set to the

---

<sup>7</sup> For a recent voice in the debate dedicated to the growth of the importance of English in world communication see, for example, Gołąbek, R., Stachurska, A. (2020).

pages that follow is to provide a representative outline of dictionary classifications that have been attempted in the history of lexicography. What is more, one is certainly justified to demonstrate here the theoretical foundations of dictionary typologizing, as well as a number of classificatory efforts based on a set of distinctive classificatory criteria.

Let us start with the words of Landau (1989:5) who indicates that “(...) to most people, dictionaries and encyclopaedias are closely linked and are sometimes considered interchangeable, but they are essentially different kinds of reference works with different purposes.” For him (see Landau 1989:5-6), and also for many others, a dictionary lists words in an alphabetical order and defines their meanings, while an encyclopaedia is to be viewed as a collection of articles related to all branches of knowledge. Much more recently, similar views, though somewhat indirectly, have been formulated in the work of Murphy (2010:59-60). In a likewise manner, Jackson (2002:21) makes another attempt to draw a line of distinction between dictionaries and encyclopaedias, though the author admits that the distinction is not always and easy to draw, because – although the two categories do not share the same headword list, and the information they provide differs substantially – they do have much in common.

In spite of the multitude of views that have been formulated in the literature of the subject, the classical definition formulated by Zgusta (1971:17) – although formulated much earlier – still remains one of the most adequate and widely accepted definitions that have been worded in lexicographic research. The famous lexicographer says:

A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech habits of a given speech – community and complemented on by the author in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning (...) of each separate form, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community.

One of the possible divisions of printed lexicographic materials is the division between those works that are to be perused and those that are consulted on certain definite occasions. Obviously, the very fact that lexicographic works are consulted rather than read is strictly linked to the nature of dictionary content because – dictionaries are those reference books that are resorted to in the case of need; and the need may be defined by saying that people consult dictionaries in order to find information about the meaning(s) of (a) particular word(s) that are normally – yet with

certain exceptions – arranged in an alphabetical order of the headwords. Finally, let us quote another fragment that provides an over-all view of dictionaries viewed as information providers: “Dictionaries are of many kinds and may, and usually do provide phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical-semantic, pragmatic, and/or stylistic information about the native or non-native language.” (Burkhanov 1999:27)

In turn, when we approach the main question to be discussed we see that Zgusta (1971:222-223) points out that any lexicographer who embarks on the task of compiling a dictionary is bound to face at least two basic questions that necessitate taking two fundamental decisions, that is:

*1) What part of the total vocabulary of language the proposed dictionary will cover?*

But also, there is another question that sounds

*2) To what type the projected dictionary will belong?*

It seems fairly obvious that both questions may be adequately answered if and when the term *classification* of dictionaries is brought to the fore and clarified. And so, Swanepoel (2003:45) makes it very simple when he says that a typology can be defined as a system for the classification and description of items. In other words, dictionaries can be classified into various categories and the process of typologizing is normally done on the basis of a number of classificatory criteria. To start with, it seems reasonable to differentiate between a dictionary proper on the one hand, and dictionary-like works on the other. Alternately – in Zgusta’s (1971:197-199) terminology – these two types of lexicographic works are referred to as linguistic and non-linguistic dictionaries respectively. To be more precise, linguistic dictionaries are often called wordbooks, while non-linguistic lexicographic works are called either encyclopaedias or thing books. (Singh 1982:13-14)

In the history of lexicographic thought dictionary typologies have been proposed by a number of scholars, and the main aim of all classificatory attempts is to provide prospective dictionary users with a classification of existing dictionaries. (Swanepoel, 2003:45) To take one of the earliest typologizing schemes, Ščerba (1940) proposed the following classification of dictionary types:

- a normative dictionary vs. reference dictionary,
- an encyclopaedia vs. a dictionary,

- an ordinary dictionary vs. a general concordance in which all the words are listed along with all the quotations that can be found in texts,
- a dictionary vs. an ideological dictionary (that groups ideas or subjects),
- a defining dictionary vs. a translating dictionary,
- a historical dictionary vs. a non-historical dictionary.

It is fairly obvious that the above classification is based on the contrasts that exist between the types of lexicographic works, although – it is easy to observe that these antinomies show a fair amount of overlapping between the categories that are listed. Yet, what deserves the name of well-developed classificatory schemes were to be proposed somewhat later. Burkhanov (1998:69) may be right when he claims that the “(...) the first attempt at the description of lexicographic works in terms of distinctive features was made by Malkiel (1962) who has proposed a classificatory scheme based on key variables: range, perspective, and presentation.”

And so, according to so called **classification by range**, or – to put it differently – according to range parameter, dictionaries may be categorized by means of the following set of criteria:

- the density of articles, that can be measured by the breadth of coverage involved (total number of words covered), and by depth of coverage (how many senses are listed under each lemma),
- the number of languages that are involved, that is according to these one may distinguish: mono-, bi-, tri- or multilingual dictionaries,
- the extent of the concentration on lexical data.

In an attempt to summarize the content of the classificatory criteria specified above one may say that what has become known as classification by range distinguishes between dictionaries according to the number of lemmas, languages used and the proportion of linguistic information. Further, in an attempt to classify lexicographic works, one may also attempt to work out a **classification by perspective**, which amounts to saying that lexicographic works can be classified according to the set of parameters specified as:



- the fundamental dimension (dictionary is either synchronic or diachronic),
- contrasting patterns of arrangements: alphabetic, semantic or casual (non-systematic),
- contrasting levels of tone: the tone of a dictionary may be detached, prescriptive or facetious.

It follows that the criterion of perspective enables us to distinguish between historical dictionaries, that is those lexicographic works that account for the evolution of language over a certain period of time, and – on the other hand – synchronic dictionaries, that is the dictionaries the aim of which is to describe the language as it is used at a given period of time. At the same time, Malkiel (1962) introduced a distinction between prescriptive and descriptive dictionaries; a dichotomy that seems to fit amply into the general schema of prescriptive (normative) and descriptive approach to language and language studies. In simple terms, we may repeat after Danesi (2000:103) that while prescriptive dictionaries define the role of various parts of language and purport to tell the norm and rule of so-called correct usage, the aim of descriptive dictionaries is to determine how the meaning arrangement of the basic language units can be best described. The third classificatory category is the **classification by presentation**. In brief, this classificatory division may be said to involve such typologizing parameters as definitions, exemplifications, graphic illustrations and special features.

It is fairly evident that the classificatory criterion termed *presentation* is in some way fundamental in the case of this classificatory scheme, because it may be interpreted to be a measure of the precision of the definitions that are provided by dictionary compilers, the nature of the illustrative examples the editors provide and the presence (or the absence) of visual aids (for example, graphs, pictures, figures). Guided by a different criterion Rey (1986) proposed a typology based on particular language targeted, and – with respect to this classificatory scheme – Béjoint (2000:36-37) comments in the following manner:

(...) Rey's genetic typology uses some of the traditional classifying features, but it also introduces new distinctions and clarifications: it opposes 'observed dictionaries', that is to say dictionaries that are based on the observation of

discourse, and ‘observed and generated dictionaries’, which use language produced by the lexicographer and informants [...]; ‘functional’ and non-functional information, the former being that information which is meant to facilitate communication, as opposed to the information which is there just to educate the user on some linguistic and non-linguistic point- like, for example, etymology.

A decade later Al-Kasimi (1977) proposed his typology of bilingual dictionaries, and – according to this lexicographer – the classification should be viewed as an aid for those lexicographers who attempt to pursue a linguistic solution while compiling dictionaries.

At the same time, it must be pointed out that users take advantage of the taxonomies when they choose the dictionaries that best suit their lexicographic needs. Al-Kasimi’s (1977) typology pigeonholes bilingual dictionaries according to the following criteria:

- 1) source,
- 2) scope,
- 3) purpose.

To be more precise, the typology proposed by the author is based on the following set of criteria:

- dictionaries for the speakers of the source language vs. dictionaries for the speakers of the target language,
- dictionaries for the literary language vs. dictionaries of the spoken language,
- dictionaries for production vs. dictionaries for comprehension,
- dictionaries for human users vs. dictionaries for machine translators,
- historical dictionaries vs. descriptive dictionaries,
- lexical dictionaries vs. encyclopedic dictionaries,
- general dictionaries vs. special dictionaries.

Yet another important typologizing attempt was made by Wiegand (1984) where

two major classificatory criteria are distinguished. And so, while the first parameter is based on purposes that are set to each type of dictionary, the other criterion depends on the language or languages used in a given dictionary. Significantly, Wiegand (1983:60) insists that one should determine the main aim of lexicographic works by defining priorities according to the users' questions that are expected to be answered with the help of the dictionaries, provided that some questions may receive greater priority than others. According to this author, a dictionary type develops systematically when a variety of lemmas is placed according to a particular arrangement, and then the individual items that indicate pronunciation, word class, etymology, spelling, usage, etc., can be equaled with providing answers to the users' individual questions.

In other words, we are speaking here of the pragmatic view of dictionary types, that is the view that assumes that dictionaries are meant to answer the questions posed by the target user, and this is exactly what determines the dictionary type. At the same time Wiegand (1983) makes the provision for a dictionary typology that is aimed at the bridging several types of the existing dictionaries. As a consequence, the author arrives at a typological hybrid based on the variety of needs dictionary users have. In turn, Landau (1989) – discussed in Hartmann (2001:71-73) – proposes a taxonomy based upon the following eleven features:

- according to languages used: monolingual, bilingual, multilingual,
- according to the method of financing: scholarly and commercial,
- by the age of users,
- by size,
- according to the range of subjects' coverage,
- according to the range of lexical coverage,
- by the complexity of lemma,
- according to the leading language,
- by period of time embraced (diachronic or synchronic dictionaries),
- according to the linguistic approach adopted by the compiler (resulting in prescriptive and descriptive type of dictionaries),
- by the method of access producing alphabetic dictionaries, thematic dictionaries, picture dictionaries, frequency dictionaries, chronological dictionaries, etc.

Coming back to the work of Zgusta (1971), the author employs the classificatory method according to which the variety of dictionaries may be divided into linguistic and encyclopedic reference books. Two decades ago, Carter and McCarthy (1998) drew two basic distinctions, that is the distinction between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries on the one hand, and also another one that distinguishes between those dictionaries that are intended for native speakers, as contrasted to those that are meant for non-native language users. In turn, based on entirely different premises, Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995) distinguish a variety of specialized dictionaries.

Classifications of linguistic dictionaries have also been attempted by a number of other scholars, but – as a rule – the conclusion they arrived at invariably was that the topologising task is altogether all too difficult, as the very concept of dictionary taxonomy is far too imprecise. At the same time, let us point out that the classification that draws a hard-and-fast demarcation line between language dictionaries, dictionaries of things and encyclopedic dictionaries has been much criticised for being simplistic (Svensén, 2009), and the general point of view expressed by its critics is that the point of departure and reference should always be the needs of those who use reference works. (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 2002;2003)

When we consider all the criteria mentioned in the foregoing discussion, we arrive at the conclusion that the concept of lexicographic function must necessarily be taken into account, and it is generally agreed upon that a given dictionary may either be mono- or polyfunctional. In this context, let us provide the details of Svensén's (2009:22-36) recent classificatory scheme who proposes the following comprehensive classification the formation of which has been guided by a number of classificatory principles and parameters:

1. Dictionary types according to general characteristics:

- a) semasiological,
- b) onomasiological,
- c) synchronic,
- d) diachronic,
- e) historical,
- f) contemporary,
- g) general – purpose,
- h) specialised.

2. Dictionary types according to quantitative characteristics:
  - a) exhaustive,
  - b) selective,
  - c) cumulative,
  - d) commenting.
3. Dictionary types according to organization, function and use:
  - a) consultation,
  - b) reading,
  - c) reception,
  - d) production,
  - e) translation,
  - f) monoscopal,
  - g) biscopal,
  - h) monodirectional,
  - i) bidirectional,
  - j) dictionaries for native speakers,
  - k) dictionaries for non-native speakers,
  - l) dictionaries for foreign-learners,
  - m) directional for learners (pedagogical).
4. Dictionary types according to medium of storage and distribution:
  - a) print (paper),
  - b) electronic.

Simultaneously, with reference to Svensén's (2009) classification the author distinguishes the following categories of specialized dictionaries:

1. Syntagmatic specialised dictionaries
  - a) construction (valency) dictionaries,
  - b) collocation,
  - c) idiom
2. Paradigmatic specialised dictionaries:
  - a) content – paradigmatic dictionaries (synonym, distinctive-synonym, antonym, thesauri, pictorial),
  - b) expression – paradigmatic dictionaries (reverse-order (final –

alphabetical), initial – alphabetical dictionaries, rhyming dictionaries),

c) restricted dictionaries:

- dictionaries of certain lemma types (dictionaries for foreign words, dictionaries of neologisms), dictionaries of abbreviations, onomastic dictionaries, idiom dictionaries,
- dictionaries of certain information types (spelling, word-division, pronouncing, etymological, frequency),
- dictionaries of certain language varieties (historical dictionaries, dialect dictionaries, technical, group-language dictionaries, slang dictionaries),
- dictionaries of certain texts.

We realize that all that could be offered in this section is a representative review of classificatory ventures that have been offered in the area of lexicography with respect to the types of dictionaries. One may generalize and say that – for a variety of reasons – no final conclusions have been reached in the realm of lexicography, and the academic discussion on the subject continues. Yet, when we take into consideration the various typologizing frames that have been advanced in lexicography so far, recognition of the following types of linguistic dictionaries – based on the work of Zgusta (1971) – is both fully justified and acknowledged, that is the categories of monolingual dictionaries, as opposed to bilingual dictionaries, pedagogical dictionaries, school dictionaries, learner’s dictionaries, desk/college dictionaries, standard and comprehensive dictionaries.

#### 4. Dictionary structure

If we decide to equate looking for a definition of the term *dictionary* with looking for a prototypical dictionary we certainly speak of certain set of traits and characteristics of a prototypical dictionary. Thus, understood prototypical dictionary consists of numerous key components that may be discerned. Among them there is the only one that is obligatory, namely the lemma list (the ordered set of dictionary entries). There are also other elements some of which are more or less obligatory dictionary components (e.g., outside matter, preface, table of contents, user's guide, list of abbreviations, dictionary grammar, systematic introduction, indices, list of sources, appendices). (Svensén, 2009)

Béjoint (2000:1) distinguishes between two major lexicographic categories while discussing dictionary structure, namely **macrostructure** and the **microstructure**. However, in most recent literature we find more detailed account of dictionary structure, according to which one may distinguish seven types of it: megastructure, macrostructure, microstructure, distribution structure, cross-reference structure, access structure and addressing structure (Svensén, 2009). For the purpose set to this handbook, we will focus mainly on megastructure, macrostructure, as well as microstructure that may be viewed as key structure categories.

##### 4.1 Megastructure

As viewed by Svensén (2009:377) **megastructure** of a dictionary “(...) is the relationships and order between its main components.” Obviously, the central component of each work of lexicographic reference is **lemma list**. Note that some dictionaries may have a number of lists (for example central lemma list, subsidiary lemma list). What is more, one may speak of a number of other constituents are grouped within dictionary megastructure, that is **front matter**, **middle matter**, **back matter** (a broad term that is employed for them is **outside matter**).

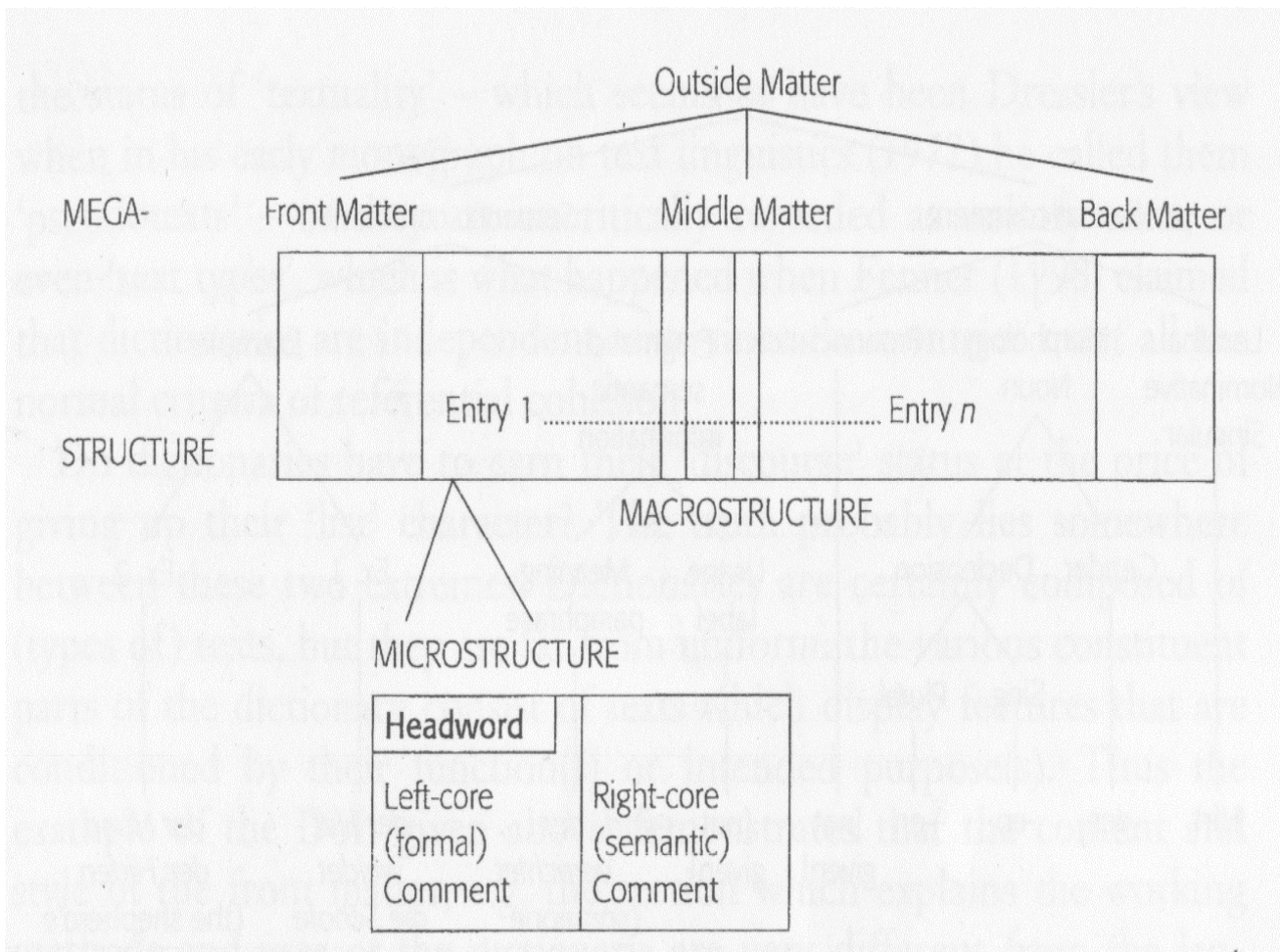


Figure 1: Mega-, macro- and microstructure of dictionaries. (Hartmann 2001:59)

In most of the works on the subject the concept of *megastructure* is a superordinate that covers more than the term *macrostructure*. In the words of Hartmann (2001:59):

(...) the Macrostructure is depicted as a sequence of entries (from 1 to n), preceded, interrupted and followed by Outside Matter in the form of Front Matter (such as a preface), Middle Matter (such as illustrations) and Back Matter (such as list of bibliographical references). The Microstructure (...) is shown as consisting of the Headword (usually typographically marked in **bold**) and two subsidiary structures, the left-core 'formal' comment and the right-core 'semantic' comment. The Macrostructure and Outside Matter together constitute what is (...) called the Megastructure.

Clearly, the classification of diverse types of outside matter is based on the position of the components in the dictionary. As explained by Svensén (2009:377) they may be classified according to their function, whether they:



1. provide information about the object language(s),
2. have a metafunction,
3. are elements of the access structure of the dictionary,
4. have other functions.

## 4.2 Macrostructure

As indicated by Béjoint (2010) the terms **macrostructure** and **microstructure**, were introduced by Rey-Debove (1971). According to her, macrostructure is (...) *the arrangement of the list of entry words*. Rey-Debove (1971: 21) Along much similar lines Burkhanov (1998:146) says that the term is used “(...) to refer to the arrangement of the stock of lemmata in the word list, i.e., in the main body of the dictionary.” Earlier, the term *macrostructure* was defined by Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:328) simply as “(...) the ordered set of all lemmata (headwords).” In short, the macrostructure of a dictionary is the arrangement of the stock of **lemmata**<sup>8</sup> in the word list, and – according to Burkhanov 1998:146 – any discussion on the notion of dictionary macrostructure boils down to distinguishing three main types, that is:

1. ideographic (lemmata organized according to semantic affinities of whatever sort),
2. alphabetical (lemmata arranged in accordance with the alphabetical position of each letter comprising the graphic words representing the lemmata),
3. analogical (which is the mixture of both alphabetical and ideographic types of lemmata arrangement).

Therefore, in Svensén (2009) it is proposed that one should speak of two types of macrostructures:

1. alphabetical macrostructure,
2. systematic macrostructure.

---

<sup>8</sup> Here the term is used as equal to *headword*, after Burkhanov (1998:116). It is a morphological form of a lexeme, which is widely used, grammatically simple, and traditionally serves to represent all morphological word forms of a lexeme.

When we turn to *EFL* dictionaries, we see that they are usually furnished with sections intended specifically to foster the user's understanding of the conventions<sup>9</sup> employed in the body of the dictionary. Such sections, together with maps, illustrations, appendices and the like, are held to constitute part of so-called **macrostructure** of a dictionary. Thus, one may say that lexicographic macrostructure is not merely associated with the arrangement of lemmata, but a structure which applies to the dictionary as a whole. For descriptive purposes, one distinction that is drawn between the macrostructure of various dictionaries is that of simple as opposed to complex macrostructures. It is customary to define a dictionary as a reference work containing a number of words, which are arranged in a systematic way with certain specific kind of information, related to such words or lexical units. (cf., for example, Landau 1989) For the purpose of *EFL* lexicography, one may distinguish between different and separate components of a particular dictionary work, which – ultimately – make up the dictionary as whole.

Due to the fact that some of the definitions of structure discussed here and found in existing metalexicographic literature suffer from similar shortcomings, below we shall scrutinize the macrostructure of dictionaries with an attempt to identify its different types which – in turn – may serve as an appropriate means of describing the macrostructure of an *EFL* dictionary within a metalexicographic framework. In other words, the arrangement or organization of any dictionary may be analysed according to its separate constitutive parts that collectively craft the entire lexicographic work. Nevertheless, here the main focus will be placed on *EFL* dictionaries. Likewise, it seems that in attempting to formulate an accurate definition of macrostructure, some recourse to the existing definitions found in metalexicography should be made.

In Hartmann's (1983:225) seminal work, the definition of dictionary macrostructure reads as follows: "(...) total number of entries in a dictionary."<sup>10</sup> As the term *macrostructure* in Hartmann (1983:70) is defined as a structure for the arrangement of entries, one has grounds to doubt whether the definition provided by Hartmann (1983:225) can be applied to the lexicographic structure. At the same time, it must be

---

<sup>9</sup> Here, by the term *conventions* we mean either labels, codes or abbreviations.

<sup>10</sup> It is worth noting, though, that the same definition appears for another lexicographic concept, namely, the **lemma stock** (see Wiegand 1983:431). The lemma stock, on the other hand, may be defined as the aggregate number of individual lemmata incorporated in a dictionary.

borne in mind, that the term *structure* usually refers to an arrangement or organization of something, or – alternatively – a way that separate parts are combined to make a whole. Hence, it seems necessary to attempt another definition of the concept of macrostructure. Svensén (1993:223) provides us with the following definition of macrostructure: “(...) the relative arrangement of the dictionary entries.” In turn, in Hausmann (1977:3), the term macrostructure is defined in the following manner: “(...) einer geordneten Folge von Wörtern; man, spricht von ‘Wörterbucheinträgen’ oder ‘Lemmata’ (...), zu denen das Wörterbuch etwas sagt.”<sup>11</sup> It appears that this author puts particular emphasis on the specific order in which lemma are arranged, rather than on the lemma stock itself.

One may generalize at this point and say that in the case of the two definitions given above the main emphasis is put on the arrangement and organization of dictionary articles. (cf. Wiegand 1983:453, 1989:372) It appears that the crucial point here is that the lexicographic macrostructure is an organizational structure of the entire dictionary (cf. Hausmann and Wiegand 1989:329). On the contrary, the definitions of macrostructures worded in Hausmann (1986) and Svensén (1993) hardly at all apply as organizational structures to the entire dictionary (although – apparently – they may appear to do so), but only to one part of a dictionary; that is, the word list.

Hence, in most general terms the lexicographic macrostructure may be equated with an organizational arrangement that applies to the dictionary as a whole (cf. Nielsen 1994:76). As far as the structure described as the arrangement of the lemmata is concerned, it seems that it is a macrostructure of the word list, as opposed to the macrostructure of the entire dictionary. (cf. Wiegand 1989) However, there are other key elements that are included in the lexicographic macrostructure and hence come within the scope of **outside matter**. First, one must make mention of the **front matter** and the **back matter** (such as the preface, the user’s guide and various appendices) that should be considered as making part and parcel of any lexicographic macrostructure.

Speaking of the constitutive elements of a dictionary, close scrutiny of currently published *EFL* dictionaries reveals that they hardly ever contain identical component parts. This leads one to propose a line of distinction between two major types of macrostructures labelled as **simple macrostructure** as opposed to **complex**

---

<sup>11</sup> Translation (ours): “(...) when we talk about the particular order in which lemmas are arranged within the dictionary, we may then consider them to be the macrostructure.”

**macrostructure.** By way of illustration, one may say that a simple macrostructure is typically made up of a preface and an alphabetically arranged word list. Obviously, one of the two major macrostructural components will always be the word list, or – in other words – the dictionary proper in the most restricted sense of the word that may alternatively be termed the body of the dictionary. (See, for example, Al- Kasimi 1977: 110, Nielsen 1994: 78) On the contrary, what is referred to as complex macrostructure may be defined as the type of structure composed of more than two major macrostructural components (see Nielsen 1994:78). Normally, the most typical complex macrostructure involves the notion of the preface, the word list, and at least one additional macrostructural component (e.g., an appendix).

### 4.3 Microstructure

In turn, the dictionary microstructure – according to Hausmann and Wiegand (1989:344) – may be defined as “(...) an order structure made up of classes of items which have the same function.” In the simplest of terms, microstructure is the way of arranging the various lexicographic information categories within the entries. In the words of Svensén (2009:78) “(...) the microstructure of a dictionary is the order of, and relationships between, the items of information (INDICATIONS) that (directly or indirectly) have reference to a lemma.” Much along similar lines is the much earlier definition that can be found in Rey-Debove (1971:21) stating that “the word microstructure refers to the set of pieces of information as they are ordered in every article, (...) which are meant to be horizontally after the entry word.” Hence, we may assume that the dictionary microstructure is of universal character and that the microstructure of a dictionary is composed of a number of information pieces that vary depending on the kind of dictionary and hence – to a considerable degree – the microstructure is determined by lexicographic tradition. (cf. Burkhanov 1998:155)

As it is to this particular aspect of *EFL* lexicographic works that our attention now goes, it seems to be appropriate to clarify the concept of dictionary microstructure with particular emphasis on *EFL* dictionaries. To start with, let us quote Hartmann (2001:94) who provides the following explanation of the term *microstructure*:

(...) the internal design of a REFERENCE UNIT. In contrast to the overall word-list (MACROSTRUCTURE), the microstructure provides detailed information about the HEADWORD, with comments on its formal and semantic properties (spelling, pronunciation, grammar, definition, usage, etymology).

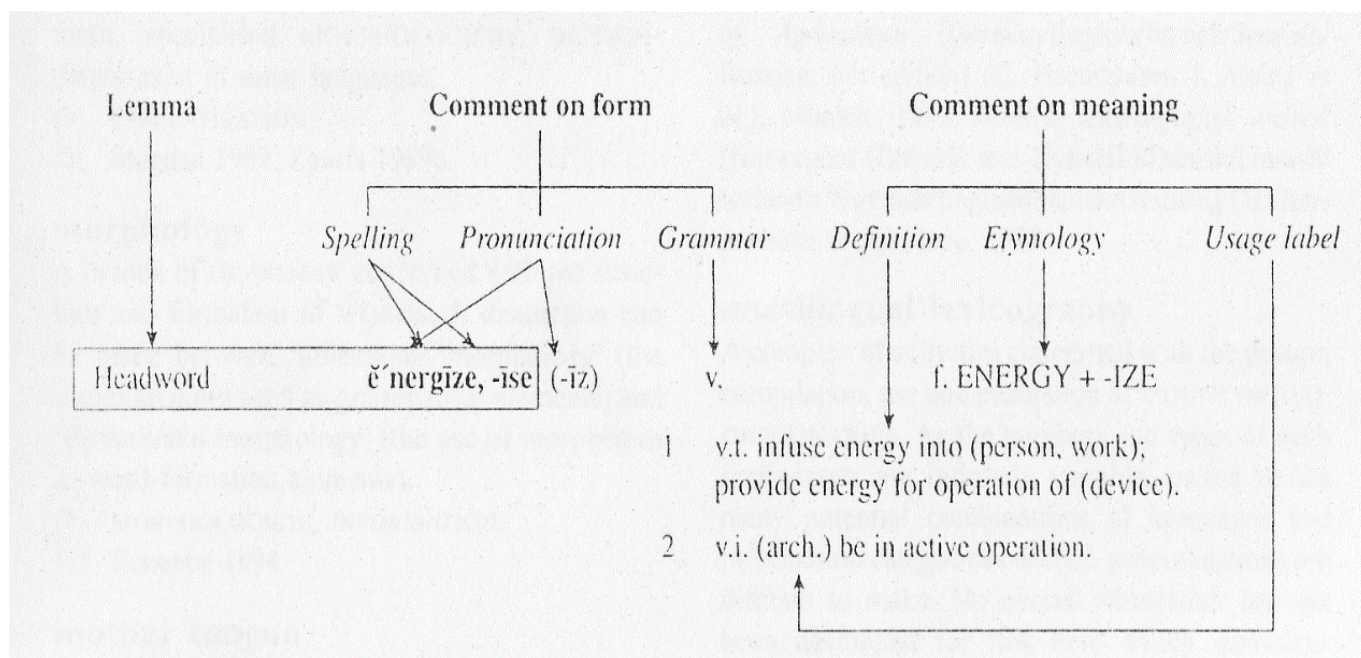


Figure 4. Dictionary microstructure according to Hartmann (2001:94).

Svensén (1993:202) clarifies the sense of the term *microstructure* in a somewhat extended manner by saying that it stands for “(...) the structure of the individual dictionary entries: their various parts and the mutual relationship of these. It also includes the typographical conventions used (various type-faces and type-sizes, punctuation, and special symbols).” Much along similar lines, Burkhanov (1998:155) argues that the term “(...) is used to describe the arrangement of lexicographic data provided in individual subdivisions of a dictionary. The microstructure of dictionary articles and entries is of a universal character and is to a considerable degree determined by lexicographic tradition.”

It goes without saying that the layout of the *microstructure*, that is to say the structure of the individual lexicographic articles, and the information types which they include, determines – to a considerable degree – the pace at which learners can locate the information sought within a given article. Obviously, the bulk of information contained in each entry is normally evaluated in relation to lexicographic criteria, such as the types of information which they include on the assumption that the entry must obligatorily have clear and rigid structure. Nevertheless, it must be pointed out that the question of how the information is ordered and displayed within the article is again of major importance to the user-friendliness of a given lexicographic publication. (see McArthur, 1992:165)

## 5. On the types of lexicographic definitions

It is oftentimes stressed in linguistic literature that what a dictionary offers is a text that describes meanings of words (see, for example, Landau 1989:6). Certainly, one may justifiably claim that the main function of any monolingual dictionary is to clarify word meanings. The description of word meanings is done by means of definitions, and hence the next problem we face is that of discussing the issue of dictionary definition. While discussing the issue of definition Dubois and Dubois (1971:85) describe the task of accounting for word senses in the following way:

The definition of the word is a paraphrase which is semantically equivalent to it: this means that, the content being considered as an invariant and being, so to speak, put between parentheses, there are at least two ways of expressing the content. In other words, the lexicographic definition of a word presupposes the existence of a semantic universal: there is always at least one synonym for each term of the language, word or sentence. It is always possible to replace a word or a sentence by another without modifying the meaning.

When we pursue the problem further, we see that such authors as Béjoint (2010: 320) hardly at all put the equality mark between the definition of the word and its meaning, but rather tend to view the definition of word meaning as an attempt at describing its meaning in such a way that it is properly clarified. In the literature of the subject there is much lexicographic discussion on accounting for word meaning, and

hence Atkins and Rundell (2008:404) may be right when they maintain that the explanation of word's meaning is certainly one of the most argumentative problems of practical lexicography. The process of defining word meaning is by no means simple, and its complexity shows in the fact that one may distinguish and speak about various procedures involved. The process includes the following partial steps that are taken in lexicographic practice:

- a division of the lemma into lexical units,
- a characterization of the meaning of lexical units,
- finding corpus examples showing how the words are typically used,
- providing information concerning register, collocational restrictions,
- syntactic preferences, pragmatic features, etc.

Obviously, there exists nothing like one generally accepted type of definition, but rather – as stressed by Atkins and Rundell, (2008:407) – dictionary definitions that are formulated in lexicographic practice may vary, according to the two major parameters, that is

- 1) their content (the information included in the definition),
- 2) their form (the words and structures used for conveying senses).

With respect to this problem, one should keep in mind that a dictionary is a reference work the aim of which is to record the lexical resources of a given language in a very definitional manner. However, at the same time, it is crucial to stress that the lexicographic definitions are worked out and universally intended to meet communicative needs of dictionary users, and this practical aspect of dictionary use involves:

- 1) reference (decoding), that is the situation when the dictionary user takes advantage of the definition that helps him to verify the meaning of an unknown word,
- 2) production (encoding), that is the situation when the dictionary user needs to encode the meaning he wants to convey.

Obviously, providing semantic information in lexicographic works goes well beyond the semantic account of the meaning range of individual words. This is because words do not exist in isolation, but rather they are related in multiple ways (cf. Geeraerts, 2003:83-84). However, one may say with certainty that regardless of the purpose of each individual dictionary consultation, it is essential for the definitions to be comprehensible, and the parameter of comprehensibility implies that there are a number of criteria that must be met. With respect to this problem Atkins and Rundell (2008: 412), enumerate the following points:

- the language should be proper for the users' linguistic skills,
- in case of polysemous words atypical senses should be avoided,
- the user should avoid consulting another dictionary in order to grasp the meaning of the lexical unit,
- the wording of the definition should not force the user to learn the lexicographic conventions that are adopted.

The process of providing an adequate and comprehensible definition in lexicographic practice is not an easy task, which due to the fact that not only various factors and parameters must be taken into account, but also – at the same time – lexicographers must face various choices when rendering semantic information in the process of compiling dictionaries. Landau (1989: 215) draws an interesting parallel when he says that while defining word meanings “(...) the intellectual effort is analogous to that employed in deciphering a message in code, except that, unlike cryptographers, definers never know whether they have the message right.”

Let us stress that the problem of definition is by no means a new one, and since the Aristotle's times its nature has received much effort of both philosophers and logicians alike, but not until the 18<sup>th</sup> century did lexicographers start to speak of definition types. The two major types of definitions that are distinguished are, according to Riemer, (2010: 80):

- 1) **real definition**, that is the definition of the essence of a thing,
- 2) **nominal definition**, that is the definition of the meaning of the word.



This fundamental typological dichotomy furthers yet another distinction, because the category referred to here as a nominal definition may be further split into subtypes, that is:

- **extensional** (fixing the meaning of a word so that there can be no ambiguity about its denotation),
- **cognitive** (bringing about an understanding of the meaning of a word in someone who does not already understand it). (Riemer, 2010: 64)

In turn, Riemer (2010: 65-81) argues that what he refers to as a cognitive nominal definition can in actual lexicographic practice take a number of individual forms:

- definition by ostension (when the meaning of the word is defined by indicating the objects to which it refers),
- definition by synonymy (when the definition is given by providing synonyms, in the same language as the word being defined or in a different one),
- definition by context or typical exemplar (when the word is situated in a system of wider relations through which the specificity of the definiendum can be seen),
- definition by genus and differentia that involves specifying the broader class to which the definiendum belongs (*genus*) and showing the distinguishing feature of the definiendum (*differentia*) that distinguishes it from the other members of the class.

The typology that has recently been proposed by Riemer (2010) is merely one of the classificatory schemes that have been worked out in lexicographic literature. Svensén (2009: 214-227) proposes a somewhat different classification where the author distinguishes synonym definitions on the one hand, and lexicographic definitions on the other. As a matter of fact, in this typologizing proposal synonymy is apparently employed as a cover term for three different aspects of the problem, that is denotative meaning (real, objective, cognitive), connotative meaning (subjective, emotive), and – finally – pragmatic characteristics that are related to the status of a given word, such as style and its belonging to either general or specialised language. (cf. Zgusta, 1971: 27) As to synonymy-based definitions, these should ideally be made up of those words that are better known than the defined headword itself.

Svensén (2009: 217), expresses the general conviction when he says that dictionary

definitions need to express distinctive features of meaning in order to provide dictionary users with satisfactory representations of the semantic content of words. In fact, in lexicographic practice each particular notion is rendered by specifying either its intention (content of the concept) or extension (range of the concept). The notion (represented by the lemma) is called **definiendum** (= word being defined), while the definition is referred to as **definiens** (words that serve to define). To put it differently, the term *definiens* refers to the defining part of the definition meant to account for the lexical meaning of an unfamiliar lexical item, which – in current metalexicographic discussion – is normally referred to as *definiendum*. Having defined the concepts involved, let us now see how the distinction introduced above works in lexicographic practice. In his typologizing scheme Svensén (2009: 217-227) distinguishes the following types of lexicographic definitions:

- **intentional definition**, that is the definition that refers to the content of the concept. In case of this definition, the process of defining includes indicating superordinate concept next to definiendum (**genus proximum**) along with at least one distinctive feature of the definiendum (**differentia specifica**), e.g., the definition of the meaning of *hen* may be formulated as ‘bird’ + ‘female’,
- **extensional definition** that refers to the range of the concept. This type of dictionary definition is used most frequently in terminography, rather than in general-language dictionaries. In case of this definition the definiens consists of a list of concepts that are included in the definiendum, e.g. the definition of the meaning of *domestic science* is ‘a study of cooking, sewing, etc. taught as a subject at school’.
- **prototype definitions** that have appeared in dictionaries under the influence of prototype theory, according to which it is impossible to decide unquestionably which distinctive features are necessary to define a particular category, as the borderlines between categories are usually vague and uncertain. What is more, they are not applicable to all sorts of things, being much easier to be used for natural phenomena rather than abstract concepts,
- **circular definitions**: they can be of two kinds; one of them uses the definiendum in the definition, e.g., *goldsmith* ‘smith who works with gold’. The other type occurs when two or more lexical items are used in defining one another, e.g. *aluminium* ‘a metal extracted from bauxite’, *bauxite* ‘a substance from which aluminium is extracted’.

There have been many other proposals in current lexicographic discussion. In another recent attempt, Atkins and Rundell (2008: 436-445) propose the following defining conventions:

1. **the genus-and-differentia model:** the word is explained by its superordinate, or genus expression (that specifies semantic category the word belongs to), or differentiae (with the function of distinguishing the meaning from other category members), e.g., *gynaecologist* ‘a doctor who treats medical conditions and illnesses that affect only women’,
2. **the lexicographic use of parentheses** which may serve two functions, namely:
  - 2a. to indicate a word’s selectional restrictions, e.g., *assassinate tr. v.* ‘to murder (a prominent person) by surprise attack, as for political reasons’,
  - 2b. to encode possible readings, e.g., *send v. ...* (Of a (person using a) radio apparatus) ‘to transmit’.
3. **formulaic defining components:** the function of these is to enable lexicographers to account for contextual variability within a defining statement, e.g., *pedantic* ‘of, relating to, or being a pedant’,
4. **full-sentence definitions:** these present information in the form of a complete sentence with the definiendum inserted, e.g., *expire*: ‘When something such as a *contract*, deadline or visa expires, it comes to an end or is no longer valid’ (*CCAD*, 2006),
5. **‘when’ definitions:** this type is a relatively new concept in lexicography, and it is typical for learners’ dictionaries. The definition begins with *when* word, and consists of one verbless clause, e.g., *discussion*: ‘when people talk about something and tell each other their ideas or opinions’ (*CALD*, 2005),
6. **short definitions:** these are definitions meant for those dictionary users who are not interested in any navigational procedures, and this definitional formula is frequently used in electronic dictionaries, e.g., *fork*: ‘utensil for eating’ (*NED*, 1932).

Even more recently, Béjoint (2010: 322-325) proposes another compact classification of dictionary definitions in which four types of definitional formulae are distinguished:

- **intentional definition:** such a definition defines the referent of a lexical item/its concept, and it is sometimes referred to as Aristotelian definition. It consists of a genus word, the

hypernym, that is the name of a category to which the concept belongs, as well as differentiae the function of which is to distinguish the concept from others that belong to this category, e.g., *snail*: ‘gastropod with spiral shell able to enclose whole body’,

- **extensional definition**: this definition lists the names of the concepts that belong to a given category, e.g., *colour*– *red, blue, yellow*, etc.
- **operational definition**: defines the word by the operation that brings the concept into existence, e.g., *triangle*: ‘the plane figure formed by connecting three points’,
- **definitions by synonyms or antonyms/synthetic definitions**: such definitions are primarily used for adjectives and occasionally for verbs, e.g., *wealthy*: ‘rich, prosperous’. Note that this kind of definition may be circular: if *A* is defined by *B* and *B* by *A*.

The process of providing definitions is by no means haphazard, but rather rule-governed. Béjoint (2010: 324) lists a set of rules that are aimed to regulate the procedure of formulating lexicographic definitions. One of the fundamental ones is the principle of simplicity, the other rule to be observed in lexicographic practice is the principle of non-circularity, and the principle of closeness which says that the dictionary is considered closed if and when all the lexical units used are present in the macrostructure. Finally, the author mentions the principle of substitutability according to which definitions should be written in such a way that they can be substituted for the definienda in any context they appear.

## 6. Tailoring the entry to the user who needs it

To start with, let us stress that until 1960s the dictionaries had been compiled with the main aim of standardizing the language. In other words, quite understandably there was little, if any, interest either in the users or in the needs of those who use lexicographic publications. Yet, the user-oriented research that started and developed in the last few decades has advanced substantially. During the last fifty years or so lexicologists and lexicographers have become more aware and more convinced that dictionaries have to be designed for special user groups in response to well-specified and well-defined needs. (See, for example, Bogaards 2003:26) And hence, both dictionary use and dictionary requirements have been investigated in a number of different ways and from different points of view. Hartmann (1987) identifies four major categories of academic investigation in this area, namely:

- research into the information categories provided in dictionaries,
- research into specific dictionary user groups,
- research into the contexts of dictionary use,
- research into dictionary look-up strategies.

The proposal made by Hartmann (1987) was followed by other signposts, and one of the most recent examples is that of Béjoint (2010: 453) who provides us with a number of dictionary investigation paths, such as:

- wide-ranging considerations concerning diverse categories of linguistic activity (reception, production, translation), as well as main types of dictionaries that are used in performing the respective activities,
- the reference needs of the users,
- the reference skills.

Naturally, there are a number of methods of obtaining information about the dictionary users, such as user profiling, as well as user research (Atkins and Rundell, 2008:28). One gets an impression that there are two main criteria that are involved here, that is:

- 1) the understanding of the target group (adults, teenagers, children, native or foreign learners, general users or specialists),
- 2) the usage purpose (educational, domestic or professional purpose).

At the same time, the parameter of type of use should be by all means taken into account, too. As indicated by Atkins and Rundell (2008: 29), the dictionaries may be used for the following purposes:

- general reference purposes (understanding words),
- checking spelling and pronunciation,
- studying,
- learning a language,
- translating,
- writing essays,
- preparing for exams.

As to the users of lexicographic reference materials, Varantola (2002:33) divides the quantum of dictionary users into language learners, non-professional users and professional users, while dictionary use itself is classified as either being receptive (helping with decoding tasks) or productive (helping with text encoding tasks). Fair enough, while monolingual dictionaries focus on meeting the receptive needs of native speakers, *EFL* dictionaries are aimed at language production. (on this issue see, among others, Marengo 1987; Hartmann 1999; Stark 1999) As pointed out by Bogaards (2003:26), one can say with a certain degree of approximation that dictionaries are most frequently used for reading skills, mostly in order to find out about meanings of unknown words, less for writing skills, where the checking of spelling becomes important, and – least of all – dictionaries are used for orally performed tasks.

Let us delve more deeply into the subject, and to this end quote some specific views on the subject, formulated in one of the early publications Tomaszczyk (1979) who found out that students use dictionaries mainly while translating from L2 to L1, while two decades later Battenburg (1991) collected enough evidence to formulate the opinion that at the lower levels of language mastery learners of English tend to use dictionaries mostly while reading, whereas advanced students of English resort to dictionaries most frequently while performing writing tasks. In a nutshell, one may conclude that the diverse functions of dictionaries match different choices that the dictionary compiler makes in the process of compilation. Much earlier, taking into consideration various parameters of dictionary making, Zgusta (1971:216) maintained that:

The decision concerning the purpose or the combination of purposes of a planned dictionary is one of the most important ones. A good part of both the scientific and the commercial success of the dictionary will be the result of how reasonably this decision was made and how adroitly it was carried out.

Back in the 1970s, McDavid (1979: 19-20) drew a list of four potential functions the dictionary is aimed to fulfill:

- the record of the language, whether diachronic or synchronic,
- the familiarising a user with a language/variety of it,
- the supply of supplementary information (linguistic or otherwise) for the casual user,

- the guide of what one should or should not.

In the history of lexicographic thought, Hartmann (1985:5) provided what may be called an extended version of the functions singled out by McDavid (1979), and his account includes the following items:

- the dictionary as an authority on usage,
- the dictionary as a vocabulary store,
- the dictionary as a tool for improving communication,
- the dictionary as a means of strengthening the language,
- the dictionary as a stimulus to reflection to language,
- the dictionary as an aid in *EFL* classroom,
- the dictionary as an ideological armament.

Linguistic causes and conditions aside, when one assumes a strictly sociological perspective, user research certainly necessitates the inclusion of the following aspects of dictionary function:

- attitudes and habits of particular groups regarding dictionary use,
  - the way dictionary users are distributed among social, educational, occupational, age and sex groups,
  - the role dictionary plays (at home and work),
  - the profile of buyers and dictionary owners,
  - the parameter of dictionary lifespan,
  - the influence of the price on the potential buyers' purchase decision,
  - the way electronic dictionaries influence the perception and usage of dictionaries.
- (See Svensén, 2009)

One must say that the issues highlighted above are discussed rather sporadically today, whereas the main interest tends to be focused on those inquiries that are related to reference needs of dictionary users with certain aspects more frequently discussed than others; here checking words for meaning and spelling seem to be at the fore. Summers (1988: 113-114) stresses that:

Looking up meaning was actually the most frequent use for the dictionary in most households, with checking with correct spelling coming second. Reference to the dictionary for word meanings was not for common words, but for 'hard words:'

- Words commonly confused or misused;
- Encyclopedic words;
- New words;
- Rare or obsolete words.

As a matter of fact, one does not need much specialist literature to realize that explanation of the word meaning (or meanings) may be assumed to be the major dictionary user requirement. Béjoint (2010:243) stresses that – although results related to dictionary users and dictionary use are not easy to relate – assumptions are intuitively clear and justified: The main conclusions may be grasped in the following set of points:

- Monolingual dictionaries are used mostly for meaning, particularly of rare words, and secondly for spelling.
- Monolingual dictionaries are often used in families for word games.
- The entries for frequent words, especially function words, are hardly ever consulted, even by foreign students,
- Information on expression in monolingual dictionaries is not used much, particularly when it is in coded form. Foreign students, who need it most, prefer using their bilingual dictionaries for that purpose.
- The front matter on how to use the dictionary is rarely consulted.
- The subjects are not clear about what other types of information they would like their dictionaries to carry.

We observe that there are a number of specialised studies that deal specifically with the issue of the relationship between types of words that are checked by dictionary users and their influence on look-up behaviour. Let us quote another voice in the discussion, that is that of Bogaards (1996) who seems to be claiming nothing new when he says that infrequent words are checked more often than those lexical items that look familiar to



dictionary users. In any case, it is fairly obvious that any look-up procedure starts with the decision to open a dictionary, and determine the word that causes the problem. Yet, whatever the lexical entry to be looked up is, one may certainly speak of certain definite users' skills. In their recent study Atkins and Rundell (2008: 29) put emphasis on two skills expected on the part of dictionary users, namely their linguistic knowledge and their familiarity with dictionary conventions.

To round up, one may say that the dictionary is most frequently used as a tool for quick and easy reference. Research into dictionary use is intended to help users consult dictionaries successfully, and the results obtained inform teachers, as well as dictionary compilers about potential dictionary skills. Unfortunately, they by no means guarantee the right choices made by commercial dictionary publishers. (cf. Bae 2011)<sup>12</sup>

## 7. Issues in Monolingual Learners' Dictionaries<sup>13</sup>

It is evident that *EFL* dictionaries are far from being a novelty in any sense. Originally, at the beginning of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, monolingual dictionaries were merely lists of words and these lists of words were expanded into the first lexicographic publications. As Jackson (2002: 37) reports, the beginning of the 18<sup>th</sup> century brought a new focus to the monolingual English dictionary, with the publication of *A New English Dictionary* in 1702. Nathan Bailey's *Universal Etymological English Dictionary* of 1721 had a fundamentally different aim, because, according to Collinge (1990: 674):

It set out to include all words, not for the sake of completeness itself (...) but for the purpose of explaining derivation. The *Universal* contained cant terms, proverbs and dialect words, and in its 1740 edition was the first dictionary to mark stress position. Later, in 1730, the *Dictionarium Britannicum* was published which was to form working basis of the outstanding lexicographical achievement of the century.

As far as the more recent history of the *EFL* dictionary is concerned, the first of the modern dictionaries was *The New Method English Dictionary* (1935) compiled by

---

<sup>12</sup>Lew and Dziemianko (2006: 277) rightly point out that "(...) few modifications to the learners' dictionary design are supported by published results of experimental research on how learners really use dictionaries."

<sup>13</sup> This section has already been published in 2014 (see references).

West and Endicott, which was almost immediately displaced by *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (henceforth: *OALD*) (1942), published in Japan, under the name of *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary*. In 1978, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (henceforth: *LDCE*) appeared, and in 1987 *Collins Cobuild Advanced Dictionary* (henceforth: *CCAD*) was published for the first time. Specialists in the field of lexicography agree almost unanimously that neither *LDCE* nor *CCAD* were as revolutionary as it was originally claimed (see, for example, Cowie 1999a: 105; Hausmann and Gorbhan 1989: 44-56), though Cowie (1999a: 105) comments that they "(...) bring the learner's dictionary into line with more recent developments in linguistics."

As Cowie (1998) goes to great lengths to explain, there has taken place an expansion of the established conventions of dictionary macrostructure<sup>14</sup> with a set of features that were shaped by the actual needs of non-native users of English. In the course of time the features obtained the status of conventions. The following fundamentals should be noted:

- 1) *Vocabulary control* – as a consequence of Hornby, Palmer and West's research into vocabulary, they created a learner-oriented dictionary. The important aspect of vocabulary control was the emphasis placed on meaning and idioms of the most common words. The other thing was the notion of the restricted defining vocabulary (limited number of lexical items in their direct senses), either in the form of an explicit list or the use of simple vocabulary and grammatical structures in the defining process.<sup>15</sup>
- 2) *Grammatical and syntactic information* – the attempt to meet the encoding needs of the *EFL* students led to a more detailed description of grammatical categories and syntactic preferences.
- 3) *The role of examples* – the examples appeared to be a special need, particularly required by the non-native learners of English. From the times of Hornby and his fellows they started to appear extensively. The examples functioned as a model that learners could use.

---

<sup>14</sup> Here the term is understood after Burkhanov (1998) as the arrangement of the stock of lemmata in the word list.

<sup>15</sup> For the more detailed discussion on the history of *MLD* see, among others, Rundell (1998).

- 4) *Phraseology* – the roots of the idea of the tendency of writers and speakers to store, retrieve, and process language very largely in chunks are dated back to the times of the work by Palmer and Hornby in the 1930s. According to Cowie (1999b: 10), their research revealed the prevalence of ready-made sequences in everyday speech and writing, and helped pave the way for the strong upsurge of interest in phraseology of the 1980s and 1990s. According to Rundell (1998: 317), the concern for describing and explaining phraseology has been one of the key features of the *MLD* ever since.

One may venture to say that the situation has changed substantially since the advent of the second and third generation of learners' dictionaries. According to Cowie (1990: 691), the main reason behind this was the growth of critical awareness among the *EFL* lexicographers, as well as the growing awareness of the study needs of the foreign students. Zgusta (1989: vi), who introduced *user-perspective* theory, contributed to models that allowed practical lexicographers to compile dictionaries aimed at target user groups by taking cognizance of their specific needs and reference skills. As a consequence, Cowie (1990: 691) concludes that "(...) the interests of researches have broadened to take account not only of what a dictionary contains but also of the user's motives in turning to it in the first place." Obviously, one has no choice but to agree with Hartmann (2001: 87) who indicates that such needs are different for different user groups.

On the whole, one is entitled to say that in recent years *EFL* dictionaries have been designed to meet the needs of all potential users. The ongoing changes are the obvious consequences of developments in descriptive linguistics, as well as a growing awareness of the needs of *EFL* students. At the same time, as pointed out by Cowie (1981: 206): "(...) there is a real danger of opening the gap which is known to exist between the sophistication of some features of dictionary design and the user's often rudimentary reference skills. Dictionary makers should (...) have the limits of acceptable innovation."

Before we proceed with our discussion, one further issue needs to be addressed, namely the concept of user-related research. The starting point in the aforementioned discussion was the Exeter conference organised by R., R. Hartmann back in 1972. The conference started a period of intense investigation into both the users and uses of learner's dictionaries. Since that time, studies have been conducted in different

countries, at different levels, and against a variety of first-language backgrounds. In 1987 Hartmann published a critical survey of the research and singled out four points of focus (after Cowie 1999: 177); that is:

- 1) identifying the specific categories of linguistic information (e.g., meaning, spelling, pronunciation, grammar) perceived as important by particular groups of dictionary users,
- 2) seeking to throw light on the users themselves, and on their assumptions and expectations in turning to the dictionary,
- 3) investigating the study of occupational activities in the course of which and in support of which a dictionary is used,
- 4) investigating the reference skills which users have developed, or need to develop, to use their dictionaries more effectively, and evaluating teaching programmes or aids designed to enhance such skills.

Clearly, some revealing observations seem to emerge from studying the findings of the above-mentioned fields of enquiry.<sup>16</sup> To start with, user-oriented studies emerged in the late 1970s lexicographic. Tomaszczyk (1979) examined two groups of users. The first of which consisted of university students, and the second group of users included translators and instructors. When asked what dictionary they consulted for information of a given type, *MLDs* owners expressed the highest level of satisfaction with the information provided (see Tomaszczyk 1979: 111). Cowie (1998) informs us that – along similar lines – Béjoint (1981), Marellò (1987) and Al Ajmi (1992) investigated the learners' attitudes towards *MLDs*. Thus, for instance, as pointed out by Marellò (1987: 109), students generally prefer to use the monolingual dictionary as a source of meaning. Not surprisingly then, also Al Ajmi (1992:157 in Cowie 1999a) remarks that advanced users of the *MLD* show a greater degree of interest in its guidance on grammar, spelling and collocation.

However, the results of the research into the attitudes of users towards the dictionaries seem to pose something of a paradox. Note that – on the one hand – there is the high significance that students place on their dictionaries. Yet, on the other hand, they show considerable ignorance both of their structural elements and – worse still –

---

<sup>16</sup> Some scholars have questioned the value of dictionary users' views gathered by means of questionnaires (see Cowie 1999: 178).

possible functions the dictionaries may serve. Tomaszczyk (1979: 116) concluded that while beginners and intermediate students tend to know their dictionaries very well, they make unreasonable and contradictory demands on them. To be more specific, complaints centred on deficiencies and inadequacies of dictionaries (typically: locating idioms, phrasal verbs and finding collocations), and these aspects are also mentioned by Sora (1984) and Coviello (1987).<sup>17</sup> It is for precisely this reason that, when an *MLD* is acquired, a wide gap – if not chasm – oftentimes emerges between a student's perception of the dictionary's value and its genuine usefulness as a learning aid (see Cowie 1999: 184).

It must be pointed out at this point that a user's understanding of the information categories that the *MLD* contains seems to be largely limited.<sup>18</sup> Hence, not surprisingly, a discussion conducted from this vantage point must necessarily go to the question of whether the failure to use dictionaries effectively results from inadequacies on the part of users or from deficiencies in the dictionaries themselves. In an attempt to answer this question, Tomaszczyk (1979: 111) argues that the fault never lay entirely with lexicographers, but rather with the limited understanding and skills of dictionary-users.<sup>19</sup>

Simultaneously, it must be borne in mind that *EFL* dictionary users are not always fully aware of the differences between a monolingual English general-purpose dictionary and a monolingual English dictionary compiled for foreign learners (Stein 2002: 72). Hence, to proceed with the discussion further it seems justifiable to outline the basic differences between these two types of dictionaries. According to Stein (2002: 72-73), they are as follows:

- 1) The vocabulary listed in an *EFL* advanced learner's dictionary focuses on the fundamental word stock and usually includes neologisms, regional words and expressions and specialized technical terms. It usually contains about 50, 000 items. In contrast, a general-purpose dictionary contains a significantly greater number of archaic expressions, neologisms, regionalisms, loanwords and technical terms which are not found in the native speaker's general repertoire of words. Desk-size dictionaries usually contain at least 70, 000 entries.

---

<sup>17</sup> On this issue see Cowie (1999).

<sup>18</sup> Such views are expressed by Moulin (1987), Stein (1989), Atkins and Varantola (1997) among others.

<sup>19</sup> Additionally, Bareggi (1989), Nuccorini (1994), Nesi and Meara (1994) investigated users' dictionary skills. For the details concerning both the genesis and history of the research see, in particular, Cowie (1999: 82-192).

- 2) The origins of the monolingual English dictionary for native speakers can be traced back to as early as the 17th century. Those first works were meant to explain to the layperson complicated and problematic Latin and Greek borrowings. Taking into consideration the so-called hard word tradition of monolingual English lexicography, it was from its beginnings directed at the decoding reference needs of the dictionary users. *English Dictionarie* by Henry Cockeram which consists of three volumes is a remarkable exception. The second volume contains basic English words and translates them into more sophisticated vocabulary for those who wanted to make their speech sound more stylish and elegant.

The research carrying out by Quirk (1974) and Greenbaum *et al.* (1984) has indicated that the decoding reference needs are also of significance to users of general-purpose dictionaries in contemporary times. The dictionary is used mainly to obtain information about the meaning of words and the studies by the two authors report spelling as the second most important reason for looking up a word in a dictionary. Naturally, most of us are familiar with this situation when we intend to write a letter, an essay, etc., and are not certain how to spell a given word. In the above-mentioned cases, general-purpose dictionaries are applied for encoding purposes. Therefore, they contain lexicographical information which meets the decoding and encoding reference needs of the users; however, the decoding aspect seems predominant. The information that can be accessed in *EFL* dictionaries fulfils both needs of the users. Special attention is paid to the encoding needs though, so as to enable users to form accurate and correct expressions. The ability to produce well-formed utterances is often associated with a solid knowledge of the grammar of a language. The most important and distinctive characteristic of *EFL* dictionaries is the description of the behaviour of words in terms of grammar.

- 1) The language of *EFL* dictionaries used in the definitions of words is maintained at an easy level because foreign users are still learners.
- 2) Pronunciation can be provided in different ways by *EFL* dictionaries and general-purpose dictionaries. The later indicate pronunciation by means of a respelling system or by the phonetic symbols whereas the former use exclusively the International Phonetic Alphabet.
- 3) *EFL* dictionaries can be characterized by the application of more explicit references to language use so as to facilitate foreign learners to achieve the appropriate stylistic level. The above is possible due to the application of labels and notes with regard to the usage.

- 4) *EFL* dictionaries contain a significant number of examples and phrases which illustrate how the item in question is actually used. The purpose is to provide further help to the foreign learners.
- 5) Lastly, as yet *EFL* dictionaries do not contain etymologies (see in this respect Ilson 1983).

Fair enough, from the very beginning *EFL* dictionaries have changed beyond any doubt and any recognizable measure not only with respect to the medium. One may reasonably state that this is the consequence of the fact that *EFL* pedagogical lexicography is actually gaining more and more popularity among the research communities. In particular, it holds true for the major British pedagogical dictionaries.<sup>20</sup> Since all the aforementioned dictionaries aim to improve and to add to the user's language skills as efficiently as possible numerous attempts have been made aimed at minimizing the 'looking up in the dictionary' problems. On the whole, one may say that the recent developments reflect lexicographers' awareness of the problems and efforts to minimize them. It goes without saying that any attempt at assessment of these four works can in no way be exhaustive, and it is not in any way a matter of primary concern of the present study, therefore it is bound to be highly selective. Keeping this in mind, we shall concentrate on selected aspects that seem to indicate a certain development within *EFL* lexicography. These may be said to include the following points in no particular order of importance.

### 1. Navigation

To start with, in most cases the aim of the look up exercise is to find a precise piece of information about a specific unit, rather than to find out everything about it. Note that in case of longer entries it can be a source of difficulty. Yet, dictionary entries may have and often do have a more complex structure. Additionally, they may include subentries<sup>21</sup> and run-on entries.<sup>22</sup> To illustrate this, let us draw reader's attention to the fact that in *CALD* there is an all-pervading tendency to add subentries to the headwords. Let the *CALD* (2005) sample entry illustrate the point discussed here:

---

<sup>20</sup> At present these are the following: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD)*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE)*, *Cobuild Collins Advanced Dictionary (CCAD)* and *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (CALD)*.

<sup>21</sup> According to Burkhanov (1998: 226), the notion of a *subentry* may be defined as a part of the entry that contains a derivative, a compound lexeme (one-word lexical item), related to the simple lexeme which heads the entry line, or a multi-word lexical item.

<sup>22</sup> In the words of Burkhanov (1998: 204), a *run-on-entry* is a form in bold type nested at the end of the entry, headed by a lexeme which is the closest to the base lexical stem.

In contrast to this, in *OALD* (2005) one may clearly observe a tendency towards run-on entries. Take, for example, the entry *detriment*:

**det·ri·ment** /'detrɪmənt/ *noun* [U,C, usually sing.] (*formal*) the act of causing harm or damage; sth that causes harm or damage **[DM]** **to the detriment of sb/sth** | **to sb/sth's detriment** resulting in harm or damage to sb/sth: *He was engrossed in his job to the detriment of his health.* **without detriment (to sb/sth)** not resulting in harm or damage to sb/sth *papers, 3 (formal) to destroy*

Note that both types of the aforementioned entries are used for items related to the main headword (either semantically or formally), although each dictionary would appear to have its own individual policy providing the rules according to which the words are arranged as main entries, subentries or run-on entries.

## 2. Style/Register Differences<sup>23</sup>

It is safe to assume that *EFL* dictionary users – first and foremost – expect the dictionary to describe the standard language, the form of natural language that is understood by the majority of the native speakers of a given language. It is noteworthy to verify what the *EFL* dictionaries say with respect to the social and regional variety of the language they describe. The questions that should be answered at this point are about the actual form specified.<sup>24</sup> In fact, the *LDCE* gives the impression of being the most user-friendly dictionary in terms of this specific aspect. Let us quote what the editors of *LDCE* (2003: xv) have to say on the matter:

This dictionary has full coverage of both American and British English. If a word is only used in British English, it is marked BrE. If a word is used in American English, it is marked AmE. If there is another word with the same meaning in British or American English, it is shown after the definition. Labels before the definition show you if a word is used in informal, formal, legal, or technical English.

Despite the long history of interrelationships between British and American dictionary making and their present-day interconnectedness, there are strong national

<sup>23</sup> The issue will be deeply investigated in section 9.

<sup>24</sup> The questions indicate the actual form specified; that is either British English or American English or both.



biases in works published on both sides of the Atlantic. As pointed out by Algeo (1995: 205):

Such bias is to be expected since the dictionaries of each nation are designed to serve the interests of that nation. They supply the information wanted by each country's citizens to serve the interests of the nation (...) They also promote that nation's position and status abroad and satisfy the curious passion of the chattering classes in non-English-speaking countries for "pure" form of the language of their later acquisition.

In this context, one feels tempted to ask a number of questions. To start with, one could pose the following question: „Do students of language realize of the existence of various regional/social dialects of English?“ Secondly, one feels tempted to ask: „Why do lexicographers decide to distinguish only the two varieties of English (BrE and AmE) and fail to account for other lexical differences that stem from the existence of other dialects?“ Setting the specialized pronouncing dictionaries such as Wells' (2000) *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* aside, Longman's *LDCE* is the only *EFL* dictionary that discloses its pronunciation model for the American variety of English. *CCAD* that – without any exaggeration – may be considered one of the latest developments on the *EFL* market (1995: ix):

(...) gives priority to the English of most general utility worldwide. Dialect words are not feature (of the dictionary), nor is the language of small social groups or specialists; instead, space is reserved for international English, predominantly British English but with a lot of American usage recorded.

In the following dictionary nothing is mentioned about American English pronunciation and as far as the British accent is concerned it is RP. Also, *CALD* (2005: x) provides both ways of pronunciation:<sup>25</sup>

British and American pronunciations of the word are shown after the headword. These are written using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) (...) Labels in SMALL SLOPING CAPITALS tell you how a word or phrase is used, for example if it is informal or humorous.

As to the model of pronunciation employed in *OALD* (2005: R116) we read to the following effect:

The British pronunciation given are those of younger speakers of general British. This includes RP (Received Pronunciation) and a range of similar accents which are not strongly regional. The

---

<sup>25</sup> Although it gives BrE as well AmE, the user does not know if it is the standard variety.

American pronunciations chosen are also as far as possible the most general (not associated with any particular region). If there is a difference between British and American pronunciations of a word, the British one is given first, with AmE<sup>26</sup> before the American pronunciation.

Note that many British-American pronunciation differences are systematic ones, and – therefore – are less significant for the users of dictionary entries. However, some of the difference's words; *axe* and *ax* provide a case in point. Although both spellings can be found on both sides of the Atlantic the former variant is most frequently considered as the BrE form, while *ax* is considered as chiefly AmE, though – as shown by Algeo (1995: 210) – the lexicographic sources are far from being consistent in this respect. Last but not least, in spite of the growing interest in the collocational value of *EFL* dictionaries, of which the recent study of Osuchowska (2007) bears witness, particular dictionaries tend to deal with collocational patterns by examples, if at all. Such national collocational differences as those that *account* enters in the banking sense, for example, *credit account/charge account*, *current account/checking account* are seldom to be found in most dictionaries perhaps – as pointed out by Algeo (1995: 211) with the exception of The *BBJ Combinatory Dictionary of English* (1986). In general, however, handling dialect differences is by no means a strong point of the majority of the *EFL* dictionaries available on the market.

### 3. Phraseology

As Stein (2002: 77) succinctly puts it, one may speak of three types of lexical units with which *EFL* lexicographers usually have difficulties as to where to place them within the bodies of their dictionaries, and this lot includes verb + particle combinations, idioms and affixes. Note that the practice employed by the editors of the *LDCE* seems to be highly complicated. In the Preface (2003: xiv) it is said that:

Idioms and phrases are shown at the first important word of the phrase or idiom. For example, *have egg on your face* is shown at *egg* and *have a nice day* is shown at *nice*. Idioms and phrases are listed together with the other senses of the word in frequency order. Phrasal verbs are listed in alphabetical order after the main verb. If the phrasal verb has an object, this is shown as sb (=someone) or sth (= something). The symbol ⇔ means that the object can come before or after the particle. <sup>27</sup>

---

<sup>26</sup> North American English (*OALD* 2005).

<sup>27</sup> Underlines mine.

Note that the non-native speaker of English is supposed to know whether or not a word is important or not in order to find the fixed meaning of an idiom or a phrase. Unfortunately, non-native dictionary users have no criterion to decide about the importance of the words and – therefore – they are consequently at a loss. A much more satisfactory solution is the practice adopted by the editors of *CALD* (2005: ix) where the subentry policy has been adopted:<sup>28</sup>

If a word or meaning of word is always used in a particular grammatical pattern or with particular words, this is shown at the beginning of the definition. Idioms (phrases which have a special meaning that is not clear from the separate words) and other fixed phrases are shown separately with their own definitions. Idioms and fixed phrases are usually listed at the first important word. If you are not sure where to find them, look in the ‘Idiom Finder’ on page 1515.

#### 4. Lexical relation

All in all, one may say that lexical relations, especially synonymy, hyponymy and antonymy seem to be an area where more recent dictionaries have broken new ground. For example, in *CCAD* there is the ‘side column’ to show the lexical relation of a particular word. Take, for example, the following entry taken from the *CCAD* (1995):

<b>female</b> /fi:meɪl/ <b>females</b>	◆◆◆◆◆
1 Someone who is <b>female</b> is a woman or a girl. ... <i>a sixteen-piece dance band with a female singer...</i>	ADJ ≠male
<i>Their aim is equal numbers of male and female MPs by the year 2000... Only 13 per cent of consultants are female.</i> † <b>femaleness</b> <i>They are under pressure to negate their femaleness.</i>	N-UNCOUNT
2 Women and girls are sometimes referred to as <b>females</b> when they are being considered as a type. <i>But the average young female in this country now is stylish and remarkably confident... Hay fever affects males more than females.</i>	N-COUNT ≠male
3 <b>Female</b> matters and things relate to, belong to, or affect women rather than men. ... <i>female infertility. ...a purveyor of female undergarments... I realize there's no consensus on what are male or female values.</i>	ADJ: ADJ n =women's ≠male
4 You can refer to any creature that can lay eggs or produce babies from its body as a <b>female</b> . <i>Each female will lay just one egg in April or May.</i> ▶ Also an adjective. ... <i>the scent given off by the female aphid to attract the male.</i>	N-COUNT ≠male ADJ ≠male
5 A <b>female</b> flower or plant contains the part that will become the fruit when it is fertilized; a technical term in biology. <i>Figs have male and female flowers.</i>	ADJ: usu ADJ n ≠male

<sup>28</sup> The complicated way of finding a lexical unit can also be found in *OALD* (where the user is supposed to state which word is more important). As far as *CCAD* is concerned phrasal verbs are assembled as subentries under the main verb, in case of idioms *CCAD* does not tell the user under which headword idioms are listed where they consist of several open-class lexical items.

It seems that a very convenient way of showing major lexical relations is to be found in *LDCE* (2003: xvi) where „synonyms (= words with the same meaning), opposites, and related words are shown after the definition”. Let us exemplify the practice employed by the editors of *LDCE* (2005) by means of *female* entry:



Sporadic as it is, the way of presenting information of this type has featured in *EFL* lexicography for over 30 years. On the other hand, there has been another area where more recent dictionaries have broken new ground. Standard lexical relations appear to play a crucial role in the way concepts are stored and linked in the mental lexicon (Aitchison 1987: 72). This helps to understand why they feature so principally in the case of non-native English speakers.<sup>29</sup>

## 5. Grammar and Syntax

Ever since the advent of a scheme of verb patterns, the provision of syntactic information has been essential for the editors of major *EFL* dictionaries. Basically, one may speak of two main ways in which this kind of information can be conveyed (Rundell 1998: 329). Namely, the information may be conveyed either:

- 1) explicitly (typically through coding systems of one type or another),
- 2) implicitly (by being built in the wording of definitions and examples).

According to the same scholar (Rundell 1998: 329-330), two trends may be identified here; that is:

- 1) a well pronounced move towards more transparent coding,

<sup>29</sup> As Rundell (1989: 327) points out, most learners are familiar with the experience of defaulting to an opposite or superordinate term to encode an idea for which their lexical resources are limited.

- 2) a more syntactic effort to ensure that information supplied in codes is mirrored in examples and in definitions as well.

At the same time, as Stein (2002: 86) stresses, in the case of *EFL* dictionaries, the following features are the real hallmarks:

- 1) the explanation of meaning,
- 2) specifications of word's grammatical behaviour,
- 3) the illustration of the meaning and the syntactical use of a word with real language examples.

In the case of each of the four dictionaries targeted here it holds true that 1) the grammatical information is specified in an abbreviated form and 2) for the explanation of a word normal print is used while for the example's italics are used. In this context one is tempted to address the following pertinent question, that is: „Since considerable variations still exist between different *EFL* dictionaries, what grammatical coding system assumes the most grammatical knowledge on the part of user?“ In general, one may say that current research into dictionary use has shown that non-native speakers of English have great difficulty in handling grammatical codes. The major reason behind it may be the fact that, as Stein (2002: 89) suggests “(...) grammatical description obviously varies according to the overall grammatical system underlying the syntactic analyses in each dictionary.” It is usually common that the explanation is given after the headword. Obviously, there is the grammatical equivalence between the headword and the definition.<sup>30</sup> On the whole, learners expect to find information quickly within their dictionaries and to be able to grasp it immediately. Let us at this point have a closer look at selected definitions. In *LDCE* (2005: xiii):

Part of speech is shown first, then information about whether a word is countable, uncountable, transitive, intransitive etc.  
Common grammar patterns are shown before the examples, so that you can see clearly how the word operates in the sentence.  
Common prepositions are also shown before the examples.  
Information about irregular forms of verbs, nouns, and adjectives is shown at the beginning of the entry.

---

<sup>30</sup> That is when the headword is a noun, it shall be a noun phrase, when it is a verb the information provided has the grammatical status of a verb.

Most regrettably, in the case of *CALD* the coding system implied requires users to consult explanatory tables given on a separate page. The editors of *CALD* (2005: ix) say that “(...) labels in square brackets give you grammar information. These labels are explained inside the front cover of the dictionary.” Likewise, the lexicographic description of the words in *CCAD* also requires verification aided by explanatory pages and – therefore – one feels that the situation seems to be somewhat off-putting for the user as there are ten of them (1995: xxiv-xxxiii).<sup>31</sup>

## 6. Illustrations

According to Stein (1991: 101), dictionaries have featured illustrative materials since as long ago as 1958 and she indicates that, except *CCAD*, all *EFL* dictionaries make extensive use of them. Although illustrations are still widely used in lexicographic practice, one may speak about certain new directions and innovations in this area. According to Rundel (1998: 335-336), these novelties include:

- 1) diagrams clarifying spatial or temporal terms,
- 2) illustrations showing the related meanings of polysemous words,
- 3) illustrations clarifying the differences between confusables like *borrow* and *lend* or *rob* and *steal*,
- 4) illustrations that show the literal meanings of words which are often used metaphorically,
- 5) illustrations showing cultural stereotypes,
- 6) illustrations of what sometimes called ‘scripts’, showing the various actions and events relating to a particular situation, with the associated lexis.

Lexicographical teams at Oxford (*OALD*) and Harlow (*LDCE*) distinguish four main types of illustrative materials (Stein 2002: 127), that is to say:

- 1) illustrations showing common animals, objects, plants, etc.,
- 2) illustrations ‘showing things that are not easily explained in words, such as shapes, complex actions or small differences between words which are similar but not the same’ (F49),

---

<sup>31</sup> For a detailed discussion concerning the grammar element in *EFL* dictionaries see Bèjoint (1994b) among others.

- 3) illustrations depicting ‘groups of related objects. These explain the differences between similar objects, show the range of shapes and forms covered by a particular word, and serve as an important aid to vocabulary expansion’ (F49),
- 4) illustrations showing ‘the basic or physical meaning of words that are commonly used in an abstract or figurative way’ (F49).

Stein (2002: 131) stresses that “(...) illustrations in dictionaries are always text-bound. They either occur within a dictionary entry, to the right or the left of the definition, or they may precede the text or follow it.” Burkhanov (1998: 96-97) emphasizes that “(...) furnishing graphic illustrations, then, is an important technique of lexicographic description.” All in all, everyone would agree that they could encourage not only language comprehension, but also language production at the same time.

## 7. Examples

Cowie (1978: 131) indicated 30 years ago, while commenting on the work of Hornby (the early master of lexicographic work), that an invented example could include a range of information types, and fulfilled several functions simultaneously. At present, all *EFL* dictionaries base every part of their text on corpus data and – as a consequence – corpus-derived dictionary examples. One has grounds to believe that most scholars in the field probably agree that “(...) where the corpus provides natural and typical examples that clearly illustrate the points that need to be made, there is no conceivable reason for not using them.” (Rundell 1989: 334-335)

One of the most obvious changes pertaining to *EFL* dictionaries in recent years has been the application of the corpus data to the process of compiling dictionaries. The impact of the following development has been profound within the field of pedagogical lexicography. Another aspect worth mentioning in this context is the contribution made by laymen. Such aspects as pragmatics, cultural allusion and encyclopaedic information, as well as the guidance on grammar can hardly be omitted. All of the aforementioned aspects seem to reflect a move from the model of general-purpose dictionary towards *EFL* dictionary, in which the needs of the user take absolute priority over all other factors.

The fact that English is the *lingua franca*, and more and more people have acquired – to a varying degree of mastery – a certain command of English, has caused

fierce competition on *EFL* lexicographic market. The positive aspect of the rivalry is the fact that the lexicographers are constantly experimenting with new ideas and solutions. Stein (2002:125) indicates that the year 1992 “(...) marked a new venture in *EFL* lexicography. Oxford University Press and Longman both produced a new *EFL* dictionary which included a cultural component.” All the cultural editions were based on *EFL* versions of particular dictionaries.<sup>32</sup> From the *Preface* one may learn that the overall aim of the dictionary may be encapsulated as follows (*LDCE*, 1998: v):

This is a full dictionary with 40,000 general language words, but also with 15, 000 cultural references in addition, all of which have been fully updated. These range from literary figures to pop culture, from Shakespeare to Psych, from Maya Angelou to the Simpsons. Historical events, such as the Gettysburg Address; sporting heroes, such as Ayrton Senna and Michael Owen; products, such as Viagra or m'n'ns, are all entered.

Given the rapid changes in communication technologies, popular expressions, and advertising slogans, it might seem problematic for *EFL* learners to find a dictionary covering a particular field of study. At present, one is given the impression that there are more and more niche reference works that in some way tend to cover an existing gap on the lexicographic market. The *Longman Business English Dictionary*, published in 2007, or *Fire Fighting Dictionary* target the practical language needs of specific foreign language learner in the process of study.

## **8. Problematic areas in *EFL* lexicography<sup>33</sup>**

When we cast a synthetically oriented look at an idealised *EFL* student and his reference needs, we may say that such a dictionary meets the following needs and expectations:

1. the dictionary is chiefly used for decoding, traditionally understood – from Richards, *et al* (1985:73) – as the process/act of trying to understand the meaning of a word, phrase or sentence (Béjoint 1981, Hartmann 1983),
2. the vast majority of *EFL* students use dictionaries primarily to look up meanings (Tomaszczyk 1979, Béjoint 1981, Hartmann 1983),

---

<sup>32</sup> The examples of the aforementioned are: *The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, *The Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*.

<sup>33</sup> This section has already been published in 2015 (see references).



3. *EFL* students find bilingual dictionaries more useful than those of a monolingual nature (Tomaszczyk 1979),
4. the use of dictionaries by *EFL* students decreases as their language proficiency increases (Tomaszczyk 1979),
5. dictionaries are used more competently by the most linguistically proficient users (Tono 1991, Neubach and Cohen 1988),
6. the look-ups are mainly motivated by the following reasons: spelling and meaning to a larger extent, existence of a given word, synonymy, grammar, register, collocation and – to a lesser extent – inflection (Harvey and Yuill, 1997).

Obviously, the ability of the dictionary user to find the required information depends largely on his reference skills. Lexicographers tend to agree on two general stages of the dictionary search; prior to location of the sought word (macrostage), and after location of the sought word (microstage). It is fair to add that the process of finding the right meaning requires a complex set of processes. To be more precise, as Schofield (1982:186-193) indicates, what are termed here as macrostrategies demand the following technical skills:

1. locating the word(s) or phrase(s) which the learner does not understand,
2. recovering the canonical form or inflected form of an unknown word,
3. searching for an unknown word in the alphabetical list,
4. taking the following procedural steps if at least one main entry for the unknown cannot be found:
  - 4a. if the unknown seems to be a set phrase, idiom or a compound word, look up each element,
  - 4b. if the unknown seems to have a suffix, look up the entry for the stem,
5. if the unknown appears to be an irregularly inflected form or spelling variant, scan nearby entries, if there is an addendum, search there.

Note that once the target word has been successfully located, there is a series of strategies that are there at user's disposal at the micro-level. Scholfield (1982) identifies the following strategies that are put to use:

1. reducing multiple senses or homographic entries by elimination scanning all of the definitions in the entry before making any decision about which one fits the meaning that has been decoded from the context,
2. understanding the definition and integrating it into the context where the unknown was met,
3. inferring one appropriate sense that fits the context from the senses entered if none of these senses seems to fit. If more than one sense fits, then one must seek further contextual clues in the source text to disambiguate. Obviously, many statements are ambiguous in isolation, but either clear in context or are amenable to logical analysis. (See McArthur 1992)

Teaching practice shows that the application of the aforementioned strategies offers a number of challenges for *EFL* students. Yet, *EFL* students can face a number of other problems as well. However, in short one may say that teaching experience shows that the majority of these problems are merely consequences of a lack of mastery of dictionary-using skills. On the other hand, there are several problems of dictionary compilation that should be considered in close connection with the needs of *EFL* students. It goes without saying that the parameter of needs forms the basis on which the dictionary editor must determine the type of information to be included in the dictionary structure. To what extent, then, can the editor answer the questions of *EFL* students? It goes without saying that one of the major questions that must be answered is: *Which words should be entered and how should they be treated?*

Among issues that certainly call for the utmost attention is determining various problems that dictionary compilers have to deal with. According to Cowie (1990:685), “(...) the learner’s dictionary has had a number of central concerns.” On the one hand, one can speak of the development of controlled vocabulary that would allow the adequate, precise defining style, yet – at the same time – the style that would be simple enough to be understood by a language learner. On the other hand, there is the provision of detailed syntactic, grammatical and inflectional information and, finally, the provision of collocational information. At the same time, one should not ignore the fact that purely commercial considerations have always played a vital role in lexicography. As Hanks (2005:249) points out in a very much down-to-earth manner dictionaries are

involved in the “(...) pursuit of spiralling marketing claims.” It is the function of the *EFL* dictionary to answer the questions that the user of the dictionary asks, and – as a consequence – dictionaries on the commercial market will be successful in the proportion to the extent to which they can answer these questions of the buyer.

Like any other either non-academic or academic item that is subject to produce-buy-and-sell cycle dictionaries must ultimately be viewed as goods that sell well or sell poorly. Landau (1989) is commonly credited with being amongst the first to have drawn our attention openly to the fact that a dictionary is a commodity, designed not only to sell but make a profit as well. As a consequence, the author speaks of the *manner of financing* as a criterion, according to which modern dictionaries can be classified, which is either scholarly or commercial. While the project that belongs to the former category may take years to complete the latter – as plainly formulated by the author – “(...) commercial dictionaries are done at a much-accelerated rate”. (Landau 1989:11)

Taking into consideration the fact that innovation in no way guarantees a subsequent commercial success, reviewers rarely undertake a detailed analysis of the content of the work, as an average user does not simply know, or – at least – is not fully aware what a good dictionary should contain. The problem is that most frequently each new edition of a lexicographic reference work is merely a reformulation of the previous edition to a certain degree cosmetically changed and differently dressed. Let us resort to the same author who argues along the following lines (Landau 1989:x):

(...) in spite of showy graphics and ballyhooed usage notes, there have been very few meaningful changes in commercial American lexicography in the past twenty years. American dictionary publishers are afraid to take risks because of the intense competition and because, being in the main publicity owned corporations, they must show constant growth in revenue. Really innovative works almost always take years to develop, and the investment period is therefore greatly protracted. Moreover, there is no guarantee that the innovative work will be an immediate success: it may take years of expensive promotion campaigns to win back the market share that might have been earned by a conventional revision.

Also, Jackson (1988:172) claims that “(...) innovation is not possible because the public and the publishers have such a fixed idea of what a dictionary should look like, deriving from a tradition developed over centuries.” In addition to this, Hartmann (2001:130) stresses that the development of lexicography and introducing changes in dictionary compiling and production is hardly at all possible without political, economic, technological and other non-lexicographic factors. In particular, the author remembers all too well that the state of technology is what always matters, and – on top

of all – the factor that boosts lexicographic tradition (see Landau 2001:40). Obviously, the introduction of computer corpora has led to technology becoming greatly involved in the process of dictionary production. As early as the 1960s, some computational work was done on dictionaries and thesauruses, but it was not until the early 1980s that typesetting of dictionaries became widely available, and that machine-readable lexicographic works gained more attention from dictionary compilers (see Kruyt (2003:195). In effect, more and more commercial publishers began to produce electronic versions of their printed folio editions. However, one may speak of certain drawbacks of the all-embracing commercialisation of dictionary making. The quotation given below shows some of the dangers that arise at the intersection of information technology and lexicography.

(...) I confess to some disappointment when I learned that a first step towards the 'New Oxford English Dictionary' project was to be some market research to find out what the consumers of dictionaries want from the product (...) but I trust that they will have a through idea of what might be accomplished to supplement the predictable demands of those who will respond to the questionnaire. Too often the tendency is for the bad dictionaries to drive out the good ones, and for frequently consulted components to drive out the ones rarely used. Commercial considerations like these seem inevitably to shape – or deform – the slow evolutionary growth of our dictionaries (Bailey, 1986:123-125).

There is sufficient amount of evidence to claim that technology affects all aspects and stages of dictionary production. In day-to-day practice, all of the technological limitations must have stood in contradiction with the user's reference needs, at least sporadically. However, one is fully justified to stress that – apart from the attractiveness of new high-tech solutions for dictionary users – latest developments also facilitate editorial work. From the user's perspective, electronic dictionaries offer a number of advantages compared to hard-copy dictionaries. While printed lexicographic works offer only one way of searching for information, in electronic dictionaries there are various routes we may follow to find the information they contain (see Moerdijk 2002:15).

Another issue that must be borne in mind is the presence of cultural load in *EFL* dictionaries<sup>34</sup>. Zgusta (1989b:3-4) stresses the importance of cultural information to pedagogical dictionary users. The significance of the problem of culture in dictionaries is beyond any conceivable doubt, as every dictionary is a snapshot of the society's life

---

<sup>34</sup> For a detailed discussion concerning culture in dictionaries see Włodarczyk - Stachurska, 2014.

reflecting the culture (as the system of values existing in the society). In his work Rey (1987) attempted to characterize those features of lexicographic content and organization that can be safely assumed to convey a cultural load. Likewise, the author discusses the very issues of internal organization and the range of arrangement conventions. At the same time, Rey (1987:4) admits that the pedagogical dictionary is one of a number of dictionary types with a low cultural content, and – as such – it stands in direct contrast to such dictionaries as Room’s (1986) *Dictionary of Britain* or Crowther’s (2000) *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture* the sole task of which is to familiarize the potential users with cultural facts related to Anglo-Saxon countries.

As follows from this short exchange there arises the question of whether Rey’s (1987) claims are open to challenge? It seems that it is extremely difficult, if not utterly impossible, to find an equivalent with exactly the same meaning as the lemma as far as culture is concerned, providing that dictionaries should never fail to explain the existing cross-cultural differences.<sup>35</sup> “Definitions of lexical items might, for instance, consist of two parts; a semantic paraphrase of the meaning of the word and then an additional comment of a cultural type” (Stein 2002: 140). Here, a brief illustration may help us indicate the kind of difference discussed at this point:

#### CCAD (1995)

**suburb** /sʌbɜːr̩b/ **suburbs** ◆◆◆◆◆

**1** A **suburb** of a city or large town is a smaller area which is part of the city or large town but is outside its centre. *Anna was born in 1923 in Ardwick, a suburb of Manchester. ...the north London suburbs of Harrow, Barnet and Enfield.* N-COUNT: usu with supp, oft N of n

**2** If you live in the **suburbs**, you live in the mainly residential area outside the centre of a large town or city. *His family lived in the suburbs. ...Bombay's suburbs.* N-PLURAL: oft in the N

#### CALD (2005)

**suburb** <sup>A</sup> /'sʌb.ɜːb/ <sup>US</sup> /-ɜːb/ *noun* [C] an area on the edge of a large town or city where people who work in the town or city often live: *Box Hill is a suburb of Melbourne.* ○ *We drove from middle-class suburbs to a very poor inner-city area.*

<sup>35</sup> Sometimes it happens that – despite apparent correspondence between lemma and equivalent – the two may refer to different realities (Hartmann 1983:122). What is more, the problem of double equivalence may appear when finding the target language equivalent.

LDCE (2005)

**sub·urb** /'sʌbɜːb \$ -3:rb/ *n* [C] an area where people live which is away from the centre of a town or city: a London suburb | [+of] a suburb of Los Angeles | a kid from the suburbs | in a suburb Don't you get bored living out here in the suburbs?

As may be concluded from the set of examples provided above, there is no comprehensive, highly informative cultural note. The information that is given in no way indicates that the word *suburb* has many connotations in English. Note that it is sometimes used derogatorily to refer to a kind of middle-class way of life, socially respectable, yet definitely as dull as can be. Sometimes its use alludes to the orderliness of the neatly laid-out, semi-detached houses with front gardens that characterize many suburban areas, the connotative element that is specified in none of the dictionaries under consideration.

All in all, it seems obvious enough that most of the vocabulary of any natural language is culture-specific. It is so because the lexicon reflects the particular and unique way of life of its speakers. It is fair to say at the same time that – while there are certainly degrees of culture-specificity – some items are more culture-bound than the others, and there is very little in the lexicons of different languages that is truly universal (cf. Hartmann, 1983). In the words of Zgusta (1989:3):

(...) since language is embedded in culture, cultural data are important to the learner not only for steering his linguistic behaviour but frequently for choosing the correct lexical equivalent. Such cultural information can be understood in a broad way, so that it can pertain to political and administrative realities of the country or countries whose language is being learned, and so on. Undoubtedly a good part of this information is of encyclopaedic character; be this as it may, it belongs to what the learner has to learn.

In fact, very frequently dictionary compilers do have problems with the culture-bound words, but this is not the only problem pedagogical lexicography struggles with. Likewise, it goes without saying that pronunciation labelling in learners' dictionaries poses certain serious problems in lexicographic practice. Non-native speakers of English expect *EFL* dictionaries to provide a full account of the standard language for the purpose of communication between non-natives. Sobkowiak (2002) is of the opinion that the phonetic aspect of *EFL* dictionaries is the most completely underrated and

undersized in (meta)lexicography. Along similar lines is Hulbert (1955) quoted in Landau (1991:97), who states:

(...) Dictionaries are less satisfactory in pronunciation than in spelling, meaning, or etymology. The record of the spoken language is difficult to acquire, difficult to transcribe accurately and unambiguously, difficult to represent understandably in a dictionary transcription, and in most cases of less interest to the user than other kinds of information.

Also, Gimson (1973:115) stresses that “(...) Today, when no longer recorded speech as a degraded form of writing, the pronunciation entry in dictionaries (...) should be accorded much greater importance.” The same author goes on to add that “(...) unfortunately, the theory is too frequently difficult to discern.” At this point it seems reasonable to dedicate more time and space to the state of the art. The *OALD* (2005:1540) specifies the model in the following manner:

(...) The British pronunciations given are those of younger speakers of General British. This includes RP (Received Pronunciation) and a range of similar accents which are not strongly regional. The American pronunciations chosen are also as far as possible the most general (not associated with any particular region). If there is a difference between British and American pronunciations of a word, the British one is given first, with AmE before the American pronunciation.

*CALD* (2005:x) seems to clarify the situation by saying that: “(...) British and American pronunciations of a word are shown after the headword. These are written using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA).” *LDCE* (2005: xii) characterizes the language it describes as “(...) Pronunciation is shown using the International Phonetic Alphabet. If the British and American pronunciations are different, the British pronunciation is shown first and the American pronunciation has a dollar sign \$ in front of it.” The latest, *CCAD* (1995: xxxviii) focuses on the following assumption:

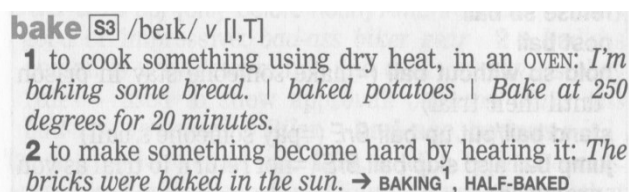
(...) the basic principle underlying the suggested pronunciation is ‘If you pronounce it like this, most people will understand you’. The pronunciations are therefore broadly based on the two most widely taught accents of English, RP or Received Pronunciation for British English, and GenAm or General American for American English.

Significantly, all of the big four dictionaries currently employ some versions of IPA to indicate pronunciation, which seems logical from a pedagogical point of view, as appealing to an international patent in *EFL* dictionaries. One may say that for the majority of learners this practice is far too demanding. It seems that the statement that no pedagogical dictionary of English would be marketable without reference to the IPA

pronunciation is obvious, but – at the same time – it must be borne in every lexicographer’s mind that such a system needs replacement, or at least some major supplementation. It is for precisely this reason, for learners who bring little or no literacy skills in their L1, that it is particularly difficult to take advantage of the IPA system that bears insignificant similarity to anything they read in English. At present, more and more frequently the phonetic form is encoded acoustically, so that the dictionary users can hear words being pronounced by clicking on the phonetic form in the entry for the word, and this feature of modern dictionary has been made possible by the advancements in electronic technology.

When we move further, we see that part of speech coding and grammatical information is another problematical area. It goes without saying that grammatical information is very important for the learners of English. Ideally, each dictionary should specify which requirements a word imposes on its grammatical environment, and traditionally this information is expressed by means of subcategorization features the aim of which is to show in which syntactic contexts a word can or must appear. Sometimes dictionary compilers provide various labels, such as *intransitive/transitive*, *countable/uncountable*, etc. To pick a random example, let us have a look at the *LDCE* entry that makes use of traditional grammatical coding.

*LDCE* (2005)



**bake** S3 /beɪk/ v [I,T]  
**1** to cook something using dry heat, in an OVEN: *I'm baking some bread. | baked potatoes | Bake at 250 degrees for 20 minutes.*  
**2** to make something become hard by heating it: *The bricks were baked in the sun.* → BAKING<sup>1</sup>, HALF-BAKED

Note that this kind of arrangement requires the learner to thumb frantically back to find simple details. On the other hand, the editors of *CCAD* include grammatical information in an extra column, that is a narrow column alongside each column of entries, defining which part of speech the particular words are.



	<b>bake</b> /beɪk/ <b>bakes, baking, baked</b>	◆◆◆◆◆
1	If you <b>bake</b> , you spend some time preparing and mixing together ingredients to make cakes or biscuits. You then put them in the oven to cook. <i>How did you learn to bake cakes?... I love to bake.</i>	VB: no passive V n V
2	<b>baking</b> <i>On a Thursday she used to do all the baking.</i>	N-UNCOUNT: also the N
3	When a cake or bread <b>bakes</b> or when you <b>bake</b> it, it cooks in the oven without any extra liquid or fat. <i>Bake the cake for 35 to 50 minutes... The batter rises as it bakes. ...freshly baked bread.</i>	V-ERG V n V V-ed
4	If places or people become extremely hot because the sun is shining very strongly, you can say that they <b>bake</b> . <i>If you closed the windows you baked... Britain bakes in a Mediterranean heatwave.</i>	VERB V
	In British English, a vegetable or fish <b>bake</b> is a dish that is made by chopping up and mixing together a number of ingredients and cooking them in the oven so that they form a fairly dry solid mass.	N-COUNT: usu n N

In the case of this entry some of the terminology employed may be rather confusing. Take, for example, the code *N UNCOUNT* that stands for uncountable noun. It is fair to say that the abbreviation is rather cryptic, or – at least – highly confusing. In any event, the majority of learners find such encoding patterns particularly frustrating and difficult, and this may ultimately lead to a consequent neglect of dictionary usage. Evidently, then, learners should be exposed to such grammatical coding readily available to them, in clear-cut language or at least non-obscure easily recognizable symbols, preferably supported by means of adequate, well-selected illustrative material.<sup>36</sup> The use of abbreviations *per se* is not the case; obscurity, obfuscation and confusion are precisely those issues that must be avoided as most obtrusion-bringing factors in the process of information decoding.<sup>37</sup>

Yet another problematic aspect of compilation of *EFL* dictionaries is language phraseology. It is common wisdom that a dictionary should contain the established words of a given language, and – at the same time – the idiomatic word combinations.<sup>38</sup> Let us now try to shed some light on the question of how lexicographers encode the evidence of phraseological patterning. Yet, before looking at *EFL* dictionaries, it is

<sup>36</sup> Illustrative materials are here understood as example sentences that follow the definition. They are useful as they provide extra denotative and connotative information, what is more they can convey or reinforce grammatical information by exemplifying its syntactic behaviour.

<sup>37</sup> The grey area refers also to the pattern of indication of the inflected forms. There is a constant need for clearly indicating irregularly formed words; additionally, non-transparent inflected forms of a main entry should be spelled out.

<sup>38</sup> The qualifier *idiomatic* should be understood here in a broad sense: as not only word combinations of which the meaning is not fully compositional, but also word combinations that function as established conventional units without any no-compositional meaning.

important to consider why idiomatic information should be recorded at all<sup>39</sup>. Obviously, idioms and other fixed phraseological expressions must be taken into consideration, as the primary role of a dictionary is to list and account for the lexical items of a given language.<sup>40</sup> There is also a need to show phraseology when senses or items are restricted co-textually (for example, when verbs are followed by exact prepositions or related to particular kinds of objects).

What is more, phraseology has a purpose in clarifying sense differentiation, if the information appears as part of the definition or contained by illustrative example (it can – at the same time – clarify the definition itself). Another reason for including phraseological information is purely linguistic, or – to put it differently – there exists the ultimate objective to create a record of lexical behaviour as a part of an entire and incorporated description of a language. However, only very large-scale dictionary projects with unlimited funding would be in position to do this for all words. What is more, average dictionary users are rather unlikely to find the information useful enough to be worth the extra work, while interactive corpus/tools provide the information both more economically and effectively.

Additionally, to be classified as monolingual, a lexicographic work of reference must display the feature explained; in the words of Hartmann and James (1998:95) “(...) the words must be explained by means of the same language.” No matter whether it is done by means of synonymous equivalents, a definition, antonyms in negation or a combination of these, all are relatively space consuming. That means that the space left for other information categories is limited. As a consequence, the compiler may feel forced to reduce the amount of phraseological information to the bare minimum. Another thing is that monolingual definitions are more difficult to process than native language equivalents. When dictionary consultation repeatedly involves finding the meaning relatively fast, and the students’ assignments concern many new vocabulary items, such difficulties may result in the learner switching back to a bilingual dictionary.

The present period of *EFL* dictionaries, that is the corpus era which began with *CCAD* (1987), led to a special focus on corpus evidence and the typological lexicogrammatical patterns revealed. The truth is that within the body of *EFL* dictionaries

---

<sup>39</sup> For the detailed discussion see Włodarczyk-Stachurska, 2015.

<sup>40</sup> Phraseology is a domain of linguistic study which illustrates the correlation between language and culture. An important reason why cultural information of this kind should be included in an account of *EFL* dictionaries concerns the needs of lexicography today. For the practical purposes of dictionary making, cultural markedness certainly must be taken into account.

one may find merely limited reference to phraseological phenomena other than collocation. Yet, even from this narrow focus, there are clearly important points to consider, apart from the quality, range and information provided. It seems that of essential importance is the function of phraseological information in relation to the needs and interests of the target users. The compiler's task here is to estimate what learners might want to know about the phraseology of an individual lemma, form or sense, as well as identifying which patterns to record.

Another aspect that may be pointed out here is the challenge of the move from the position where the release of phraseological information is considered from the perspective of linguistic research, to the situation when the needs of the user become the primary objective. It appears that particularly crucial is the function of phraseological information in relation to the needs and interests of the *EFL* students. The lexicographer's task here is to second-guess what users might want to know about the phraseology of individual lemma, form or sense, as well as identifying which patterns to record.

Here, the discussion concerning electronic lexicographic products inevitably emerges. Of course, the challenge here has been to move from the position where the retrieval and delivery of phraseological information is designed from the perspective of linguistic research, including the provision of data for lexicography, to one where the users' needs are prioritised. Yet, it seems even more difficult to identify what these are than in the case of traditional printed dictionaries. In the past, dictionaries simply provided raw corpus data, encouraging users to work empirically, observing patterns for themselves. Nevertheless, there are disadvantages, including time factors, and difficulties with interpreting the evidence found. Furthermore, extensive corpora are too large to be used effectively; small corpora are subject to skewing from constituent texts especially relevant where phraseological patterning varies according to genre.

It seems obvious enough that tools should be dynamic and provide filtered data, organized in terms of significance, word class, syntagmatic positioning, genre and meaning, but overly filtered data may be misleading and may become under informative entries in printed dictionaries at the same time. The major conclusion that seems to be emerging from the above considerations is that lexicography – although the science has been recently developing at an unprecedented pace – still suffers from numerous problematic issues. It sets up a number of indispensable requirements which any lexicographic description is to observe if it is hoped to be somehow satisfactory.

Inevitably, future dictionaries will continue to combine the lasting achievements of print lexicography with the electronic medium. As most adequately summarised by Varantola (2003: 229), with the passage of time print lexicography has evolved and perfected its tools, solutions and results over centuries while the electronic medium provides us with new freedom by liberating us from the straightjacket of the alphabet, and – most importantly – modern advances in lexicography allow layering of lexicographic information into user-friendly chunks and open new vistas in the realm of look-up strategies.

## 9. Pragmatic specifications in lexicography<sup>41</sup>

We feel justified to start with the basic notions employed in the codification of usage<sup>42</sup> by labels. As to the very notion of labels, when we refer to DoL (2001: 80), we find out that:

(...) label is a specialised symbol or abbreviated term used in reference works to mark a word or phrase as being associated with a particular usage or language variety. Dictionaries differ widely in the way they do this. As the information necessary to support a particular decision is not always available and boundary lines between different usage features are fluid, consistency is rarely achieved.

Obviously, when we face the challenge of investigating usage specifications in lexicography, one should by all means refrain from tackling the problem of the meaning of the usage category. And so, usage is the manner in which the elements of language are typically used to produce meaning while Landau (2001: 174) argues that the term usage denotes either kinds of spoken or written language, the standard ways of its usage, as distinguished from non-standard ones or – alternately – the study of any limitations on use (geographic, social or temporal).

In current lexicographic practice such data is provided by usage labels, usually given in the form of one-word labels or abbreviation (such as, for example, old-fashioned, slang, AmE). Quantitatively, Landau (2001: 175) claims that most common usage labels are

---

<sup>41</sup> This section is an abridged version of the paper published in 2018. (Stachurska, 2018)

<sup>42</sup> I understand the difference between systemic and pragmatic meaning after Grzegorzycykowa (1990: 30-31), who explains as follows “(...) pragmatics is the study of language use (of the text broadly defined), while semantics involves the study of the linguistic system.”

as follows:

- currency or temporality: archaic, obsolete,
- frequency of use: rare,
- regional or geographic variation: U.S., British, Canadian, Australian
- technical or specialized terminology: astronomy, chemistry, physics
- restricted or taboo: vulgar, obscene,
- insult: offensive, disparaging, contemptuous,
- slang: slang,
- style, functional variety, or register: informal, colloquial, literary,
- status or cultural label: nonstandard, substandard.

The idea of incorporating thus understood labels in the structure of lexicographic description is by no means a novelty, and it has existed for a long time, but – equally for a long time – lexicographers have faced the multitude of difficulties related to the intricacies of the shape the labelling system (Ptaszyński, 2010: 411-412). One of the main reasons, as indicated in Atkins & Rundell (2008:496), is that: “many labels are umbrella terms that conceal a good deal of variation.” To uncover the content of these umbrella terms is to say that labels proposed for the dictionary content aim at indicating data about limitations concerning the way words are to be used, in the contexts they occur or, alternatively in relation to different lexical items within the body of a dictionary. In the literature of the subject, these limitations are referred to as diasystematic marking or diasystematic information. (See, for example, Hausmann, 1989; Svensén, 2009) In turn, Landau (2001: 217) explains briefly as “usage refers to any or all uses of language.” According to the author, it explains and guides the readers how to use a given language correctly, but also provides relevant information on the limitations of use. As a rule, usage comments are provided in dictionaries as a guide on how to use words appropriately (the use of a particular lexical item can be restricted to a certain area, a specific domain as well as style/register). Normally, these limitations are indicated in such a way that dictionaries employ labels (either in the microstructure, or in the megastructure of a dictionary).

In other words, this means that they are to be useful when dictionary users are uncertain if a given word is old-fashioned/slang/taboo, etc. Such pieces of information,

in the words of Svensén (2009: 315), inform dictionary users that “a certain lexical item deviates in a certain respect from the main bulk of items described in a dictionary and that its use is subject to some kind of restriction.” Obviously enough, a dictionary user normally consults the work of reference for the guides on how to use a lexical item appropriately (or alternatively one of its senses), its spelling, pronunciation, the fact it is restricted somehow (to a geographical region/ a domain / a style). Such information tends to appear in different forms as well as varying positions. Most frequently, limitations of all types are provided as labels given within the dictionary microstructure. At the same time, they are at times to be found in the dictionary megastructure (front or back matter).

At the same time, when we to start to enquire about the causes of incorporating usage labels, lexicographers tend to indicate that – most frequently – dictionary users react negatively to the lack of this kind of lexicographic information. (See Landau 2001) What is more, as revealed by the Lew’s (2004) research, users turn to works of reference for data concerning usage limitations. The author stresses that stylistic information is “primary useful in encoding tasks.” (Lew, 2004:126) Apparently, this seems to suggest that the incorporation of labels is justified mainly for the purpose of language production. When producing a text, one is forced to make various choices while the system of labels is supposed to guide dictionary users through the set of alternative options, as well as to warn users about the possible social consequences of using one word instead of another, since usage labels are intended to show various restrictions on word application. Another problem that arises in this context is the problem of label typology. The discussion concerning label classifications has been carried and the major distinction drawn by the authors covers the difference between group labels and register labels. In short:

1) Group labels indicate that a lexical item is restricted in its use (here geographical, temporal, frequency and field labels are mentioned).

1.1) Geographical labels show that a particular word is used in a certain region (that is it does not belong to standard language).

1.2) The function of temporal labels is to indicate the first/last occurrence of the lexical item.

1.3) Frequency labels – although generally these labels are hardly ever used in printed dictionaries, their function is to indicate which forms are used most

frequently.

1.4) Field labels have the function of indicating to what professional or social domain a given word belongs.

2) Register labels guide individual language users in their choice of the right words in the right contexts.

There have been other typological proposals, and so Jackson (2002: 109 - 115) postulates the following categories:

- dialect labels – that refer to geographical restriction,
- formality labels – a number of words that are marked as *formal* or *informal*,
- status labels – concerning the propriety of the use of a word,
- effect labels – they relate to the effect that a word or sense is intended by the speaker/writer to produce in the hearer/reader,
- history labels – labels for words or senses that are either no longer in current use or whose currency is questionable or suspect,
- topic or field label – they relate to where a word or sense is restricted to,
- usage label – used when the usage of words is a matter of controversy,

More recently, Atkins and Rundell (2008: 227-230) distinguish the following marking indicators:

- domain labels,
- region (dialect labels),
- register (slang and jargon labels),
- style labels,
- time labels,
- attitude labels,
- meaning type labels,
- using labels.

When we review the body of typologies that have been offered, it turns out that, the most detailed classification is to be found in Hausmann (1989), who distinguishes the following

categories of labels:

- diachronic information (criterion: time) – feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular period in the history of a given language. This dimension includes a range of labels that can be arranged chronologically from archaic, via obsolete to contemporary words or senses, as well as recent neologisms. In practice, lexical items that do not represent old use are not marked with a label, which in practice means that neologisms are usually unmarked. The most common temporal labels found in contemporary dictionaries are *old-fashioned*, *obsolete*, *archaic*, *old use* or *dated*.

- diatopic information (criterion: place) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular regional dialect or national variety of language. Obviously, every language community has certain conventions as to what is standard, thus unlabelled in a dictionary, while regional areas within a country are specified the in the following way: *regional* or *dialect*.

- diintegrative information (criterion: nationality) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with the dimension of integration into the native stock of words of a language. Monolingual dictionaries usually provide information on the language of origin, mostly with words that have retained their original form (e.g., those words that have been borrowed from Latin at various stages of the development of English).

- diamedial information (criterion: medium) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular medium of communication. The most commonly employed labels are *written* and *spoken*.

- diastratic information (criterion: socio-cultural specificity) – a feature which is aimed to associates a word or one of its senses with a particular social group, consequently referring to social dialects, such as slang and different kinds of jargon. The most common labels that are used here are *slang*, *vulgar* and *taboo*.

- diaphasic information (criterion: formality) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular register of a language, and the most commonly used labels are *formal* and *informal*.



- diatextual information (criterion: text type) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular discourse type or genre. The most common labels are *poetic* and *literary*.

- diatechnical information (criterion: technicality) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular subject field. In monolingual dictionaries, subject-field labels, field labels or domain labels normally indicate that a certain word or one of its senses belongs to technical or scientific strata of vocabulary. Obviously, a large number of sublanguages typical of different subject fields pose a problem even for educated native speakers, since each subject field has its own specific vocabulary. Consequently, some dictionaries, frequently resort to such general label as *technical* or *science* rather than giving detailed information on specific subject fields.

- diafrequent information (criterion: frequency) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular frequency of occurrence. Labels used to indicate frequency are *less frequent*, *rare*.

- diaevaluative information (criterion: attitude) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a particular attitude. Typically, those labels that are used to denote diaevaluative information are: *derogatory*, *offensive*, *humorous*, *ironic*, *euphemistic*.

- dianormative information (criterion: normativity) – a feature which associates a word or one of its senses with a certain degree of deviation from a cultural standard that characterizes a given linguistic community. Most frequently, labels that serve to express - dianormative information are *non-standard*, *substandard*, *disputed*. In other words, the acceptability of those items that are marked with one of these labels is questionable as regards linguistic correctness. (cf. Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995)

Much along the same lines is the division proposed by Svensén (2009: 326-331), where we find:

- diachronic marking - involving archaisms and neologisms (*archaic*, *old-use*),
- diatopic marking – referring to geographical dimension,
- diaintegrative marking – concerning the dimension *native* vs. *foreign*,
- distratic marking - all kinds of marking that have to do with style (*spoken*, *written*,

*formal, slang*),

- diatechnical marking – pertaining to certain technoelect or subject field (*medical, law*),
- diafrequential marking – involving frequency of occurrence (*often*),
- diaevaluative marking – concerning speaker’s attitude or mood (*derogatory, humorous, ironic*),
- dianormative marking – relating to words and expressions whose acceptability is questioned as regards linguistic correctness (*substandard*).

As we have seen the systems that have been proposed in the existing literature differ both with respect to their scope and the number of typological categories that are distinguished. Yet, one may say that all the classifications that have been sketched jointly provide evidence that seems welcome, if not necessary to classify both restrictions and constraints that should be incorporated within the structure of lexicographic works.

Labels in *MLDs*: the state of the art

At this point it seems reasonable to start our discussion by taking a closer look at each of the *EFL* dictionaries individually in order to find out how practising lexicographers classify the usage labels. To start with *Collins Cobuild Advanced Dictionary* (2009) (henceforth: *CCAD*), its usage information may be sampled in the following manner:

Style labels	
BUSINESS:	used mainly when talking about the field of business, e.g., <b>annuity</b>
COMPUTING:	used mainly when talking about the field of computing, e.g., <b>chat room</b>
DIALECT:	used in some dialects of English, e.g., <b>ain’t</b>
FORMAL:	used mainly in official situations, or by political and business organizations, or when speaking or writing to people in authority, e.g., <b>gratuity</b>
HUMOROUS:	used mainly to indicate that a word or expression is used in a humorous way, e.g., <b>gents</b>
INFORMAL:	used mainly in informal situations, conversations, and personal letters, e.g., <b>pep talk</b>
JOURNALISM:	used mainly in journalism, e.g., <b>glass ceiling</b>
LEGAL:	used mainly in legal documents, in law courts, and by

	the police in official situations, e.g., <b>manslaughter</b>
LITERARY:	used mainly in novels, poetry, and other forms of literature, e.g., <b>plaintive</b>
MEDICAL:	used mainly in medical texts, and by doctors in official situations, e.g., <b>psychosis</b>
MILITARY:	used mainly when talking or writing about military terms, e.g., <b>armour</b>
OFFENSIVE:	likely to offend people, or to insult them; words labelled OFFENSIVE should therefore be avoided, e.g., <b>cripple</b>
OLD-FASHIONED:	generally considered to be old-fashioned, and no-longer in common use, e.g., <b>dashing</b>
RUDE:	used mainly to describe words which could be considered taboo by some people; words labelled RUDE should therefore usually be avoided, e.g., <b>bloody</b>
SPOKEN:	used mainly in speech rather than in writing, e.g., <b>pardon</b>
TECHNICAL:	used mainly when talking or writing about objects, events, or processes in a specialist subject, such as business, science, or music, e.g., <b>biotechnology</b>
TRADEMARK:	used to show designated trademark, e.g., <b>hoover</b>
VERY OFFENSIVE:	highly likely to offend people, or to insult them; words labelled VERY OFFENSIVE should be avoided, e.g., <b>wog</b>
VERY RUDE:	used mainly to describe words which most people consider taboo, words labelled VERY RUDE should be avoided, e.g., <b>fuck</b>
WRITTEN:	used mainly in writing rather than in speech, e.g., <b>avail</b>

When we move further to the relevant features of provided in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2014; henceforth: *LDCE*), we see that its treatment of usage guidance is merely restricted to the inside front cover within the space given, and the labels that are distinguished are grouped as follows:

<b>LABELS</b>	
<b>1.</b>	<b>Words which are used only or mainly in one region or country are marked:</b>
<i>BrE</i>	British English
<i>AmE</i>	American English
<i>AusE</i>	Australian English
<b>2.</b>	<b>Words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude:</b>
<i>approving</i>	a word that is used to praise things or people, although this may not be clear from its meaning
<i>disapproving</i>	a word that is used to show dislike or approval, although this may not be clear from its meaning
<i>formal</i>	a word that is suitable for formal speech or writing, but would not normally be used in ordinary conversation
<i>informal</i>	a word or phrase that is used in normal conversation, but may not be suitable for use in more formal contexts, for example in writing essays or business letters
<i>humorous</i>	a word that is normally used in a joking way
<b>3.</b>	<b>Words which are used in a particular context or type of language:</b>
<i>biblical</i>	a word that is used in the language of the Bible, and would sound old-fashioned to a modern speaker
<i>law</i>	a word with a technical meaning used by lawyers in legal documents etc
<i>literary</i>	a word used mainly in English literature, and not in normal speech or writing
<i>medical</i>	a word or phrase that is more likely to be used by doctors than by ordinary people, and that often has a more common equivalent
<i>not polite</i>	a word or phrase that is considered rude, and that might offend some people
<i>old-fashioned</i>	a word that was commonly used in the past, but would sound old-fashioned today
<i>old use</i>	a word used in earlier centuries
<i>spoken</i>	a word or phrase used only, or nearly always, in

	conversation
<i>taboo</i>	a word that should not be used because it is very rude or offensive
<i>technical</i>	a word used by doctors, scientists and another specialists
<i>trademark</i>	a word that is the official name of a particular product
<i>written</i>	a word or phrase that is used only, or nearly always, in written English

When we turn to the information section contained in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2014; henceforth: *OALD*) that is given on the inside cover we find out that the editors provide a list of labels that have been employed as guidance markers, and it is there that we find the following relevant explanation:

“The following labels are used with words that express a particular attitude or are appropriate in a particular situation:”

<b>approving</b>	expressions show that you feel approval or admiration, for example <i>feisty, petite</i> .
<b>disapproving</b>	expressions show that you feel disapproval or contempt, for example <i>blinkered, newfangled</i> .
<b>figurative</b>	language is used in a non-literal or metaphorical way, as in <i>He didn't want to cast a shadow on (=spoil) their happiness</i> .
<b>formal</b>	expressions are usually only used in serious or official language and would not be appropriate in normal everyday conversation. Examples are <i>admonish, besmirch</i> .
<b>humorous</b>	expressions are intended to be funny, for example <i>ankle-biter, lurgy</i>
<b>informal</b>	expressions are used between friends or in a relaxed or unofficial situation. They are not appropriate for formal situations. Examples are <i>bonkers, dodgy</i>
<b>ironic</b>	language uses words to mean the opposite of the meaning that they seem to have, as in <i>You're a great help, I must say!</i> (= no help at all).
<b>literary</b>	language is used mainly in literature and imaginative writing, for example <i>aflame, halcyon</i> .

<b>offensive</b>	expressions are used by some people to address or refer to people in a way that is very insulting, especially in connection with their race, religion, sex or disabilities, for example <i>half-caste, slut</i> . You should not use these words.
<b>slang</b>	is very informal language, sometimes restricted to a particular group of people, for example people of the same age or those who have the same interests or do the same job. Examples are <i>dingbat, dosh</i> .
<b>taboo</b>	expressions are likely to be thought by many people to be obscene or shocking. You should not use them. Examples are <i>bloody, shit</i> .
<b>technical</b>	language is used by people who specialize in particular subject areas, for example <i>accretion, adipose</i> .

“The following labels show other restrictions on the use of words:”

<b>dialect</b>	describes expressions that are mainly used in particular regions of the British Isles, not including Ireland, Scotland or Wales, for example <i>beck, nowt</i> .
<b>old-fashioned</b>	expressions are passing out of current use, for example <i>balderdash, beanfeast</i>
<b>old use</b>	describes expressions that are no longer in current use, for example <i>ere, perchance</i> .
<b>Saying</b>	describes a well-known fixed or traditional phrase, such as a proverb, that is used to make a comment, give advice, etc., for example <i>actions speak louder than words</i> .
<b>TM</b>	shows a trademark of a manufacturing company, for example <i>Band-Aid, Frisbee</i> .

In case of *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (2008; henceforth: *CALD*), the front-page explanation of usage labels employed in the dictionary is acquires the following shape:

“Style and usage labels used in the dictionary:”

ABBREVIATION	a shortened form of a word
APPROVING	praising someone or something

AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH	
CANADIAN ENGLISH	
CHILD'S WORD/EXPRESSION	used by children
DATED	used in a recent past and often still used by older people
DISAPPROVING	used to expressed dislike or disagreement with someone or something
EAST AFRICAN ENGLISH	
FEMALE	
FIGURATIVE	used to express not the basic meaning of a word, but an imaginative one
FORMAL	used in serious or official language or when trying to impress other people
HUMOROUS	used when you are trying to be funny
INFORMAL	used in ordinary speech (and writing) and not suitable for formal situations
IRISH ENGLISH	
LEGAL	specialized language used in legal documents and law courts
LITERARY	formal and descriptive language used in literature
MALE	
NORTHERN ENGLISH	used in the North of England
NON-STANDARD	commonly used but not following the rules of grammar
OFFENSIVE	very rude and likely to offend people
OLD-FASHIONED	not used in modern English – you might find these words in books, used by older people, or used in order to be funny
OLD USE	used a long time ago in other centuries
POLITE WORD/EXPRESSION	a polite way of referring to something that has other rude names
SAYING	a common phrase or sentence that gives advice, an opinion, etc.
SCOTISH ENGLISH	
SLANG	extremely informal language, used mainly by a particular

	group, especially young people
SPECIALIZED	used only by people in a particular subject such as doctors or scientists
TRADEMARK	the official name of a product
UK	British English
US	American English
WRITTEN ABBREVIATION	a shortened form of a word used in writing
E	Essential: the most common and useful words in English
I	Improver: the next level of words to learn to improve your English
A	Advanced: words to make your English really fluent and natural

Finally, as to the labeling system used in *MED* (2007), there are the following labeling conventions:

<b><i>formal</i></b>	in current use but not used in ordinary conversation or in normal everyday writing: <i>aegis, remonstrate, remuneration, accede, perpetrate</i>
<b><i>humorous</i></b>	used in an ironic and often friendly way; <i>ill-gotten, gains, rascal</i> (used to a child). Some humorous words are more disapproving than they seem, for example: <i>ladies who lunch</i>
<b><i>impolite</i></b>	not taboo but will certainly offend some people
<b><i>informal</i></b>	more common in speech than in writing and not used on a formal occasion: <i>guy, bloke, go broke, gutsy, crack up, cop</i>
<b><i>literary</i></b>	old but still used in some kinds of creative writing: <i>behold, jocund, perfidious</i>
<b><i>offensive</i></b>	extremely rude and likely to cause offence
<b><i>old-fashioned</i></b>	no longer in current use but still used by some older people: <i>A-!</i> (=very good), <i>gramophone</i> (=record player)
<b><i>showing approval</i></b>	used when it is not obvious from a definition that a word says something good about someone or something: <i>fearless, tireless</i>
<b><i>showing disapproval</i></b>	used when it is not obvious from a definition that a word says something bad about someone or something: <i>babyish, smooth</i> (=relaxed and confident)
<b><i>spoken</i></b>	used in speech rather than writing: <i>believe it or not, after you, I bet</i>
<b><i>very formal</i></b>	not very common. People who use them often seem to be trying to be more intelligent and important than they really are: <i>ameliorate, asperity, abjure</i>
<b><i>very informal</i></b>	used only in very informal situations and mainly among people who know each other well. Some dictionaries use the label <i>slang</i> : <i>go ape, journo</i>
<b>[modal verb]</b>	that are used with another verb to express ideas such as possibility, permission, or intention: <i>She <b>might</b> come. He <b>can</b> go now. I <b>will</b> ask him to call you.</i>



<b>formal</b>	in current use but not used in ordinary conversation or in normal everyday writing: <i>aegis, remonstrate, remuneration, accede, perpetrate</i>
<b>humorous</b>	used in an ironic and often friendly way; <i>ill-gotten, gains, rascal</i> (used to a child). Some humorous words are more disapproving than they seem, for example: <i>ladies who lunch</i>
<b>impolite</b>	not taboo but will certainly offend some people
<b>informal</b>	more common in speech than in writing and not used on a formal occasion: <i>guy, bloke, go broke, gutsy, crack up, cop</i>
<b>literary</b>	old but still used in some kinds of creative writing: <i>behold, jocund, perfidious</i>
<b>offensive</b>	extremely rude and likely to cause offence
<b>old-fashioned</b>	no longer in current use but still used by some older people: <i>A-!</i> (=very good), <i>gramophone</i> (=record player)
<b>showing approval</b>	used when it is not obvious from a definition that a word says something good about someone or something: <i>fearless, tireless</i>
<b>showing disapproval</b>	used when it is not obvious from a definition that a word says something bad about someone or something: <i>babyish, smooth</i> (=relaxed and confident)
<b>spoken</b>	used in speech rather than writing: <i>believe it or not, after you, I bet</i>
<b>very formal</b>	not very common. People who use them often seem to be trying to be more intelligent and important than they really are: <i>ameliorate, asperity, abjure</i>
<b>very informal</b>	used only in very informal situations and mainly among people who know each other well. Some dictionaries use the label <i>slang</i> : <i>go ape, journo</i>
<b>[modal verb]</b>	that are used with another verb to express ideas such as possibility, permission, or intention: <i>She <b>might</b> come. He <b>can</b> go now. I <b>will</b> ask him to call you.</i>

Obviously enough, both style and usage labels provide dictionary users with restrictions on the particular word usage. Yet, it is fairly obvious that the main problem is that we find different labels in different MLDs; fair enough all of the MLDs under scrutiny here propose different, both quantitatively and qualitatively, sets of labeling markers, and – what is more – employ them differently in the dictionary macrostructure. The most extended list of labels used is to be found in in *CALD* (2008) (there are altogether 34 labels provided). The dictionary distinguishes the following categories of labels: *abbreviation, approving, Australian English, Canadian English, child's word/expression, dated, disapproving, East African English, female, figurative, formal, humorous, informal, Irish English, legal, literary, male, Northern English, nonstandard, offensive, old-fashioned, old use, polite word/expression, saying, Scottish English, slang, specialized, trademark, UK, US, written abbreviation, E, I, A*. Much shorter lists of labels are proposed by the editors of *CCAD* (2009) and *LDCE* (2014): 20 in either of them is employed. To be more specific, *CCAD* (2009) divides the body of labels into the following marking units: *business, computing, dialect, formal, humorous, informal,*

*journalism, legal, literary, medical, military, offensive, old-fashioned, rude, spoken, technical, trademark, very offensive, very rude, written.* In turn, *LDCE* (2014) proposes the following set of labeling categories: *BrE, AmE, AusE, approving, disapproving, formal, informal, humorous, biblical, law, literary, medical, not polite, old-fashioned, old use, spoken, taboo, technical, trademark, written.* In case of *OALD* (2014) one may itemize 17 different markings within the body of the dictionary. The array of labels put to use there includes the following ones: *approving, disapproving, figurative, formal, humorous, informal, ironic, literary, offensive, slang, specialist, taboo, dialect, old-fashioned, old use, saying, TM.* Interestingly, the shortest list (13 labels provided) is identified in *MED* (2007), and it includes such labels as: *formal, humorous, impolite, informal, literary, offensive, old-fashioned, showing approval, showing disapproval, spoken, very formal, very informal, [modal verb].*

As to the mode of presentation, only *OALD* (2014) and *LDCE* (2014) group labels in categories. In case of the first one, we have:

- labels used with words that express a particular attitude or appropriate in a particular situation,
- labels that show other restrictions on the use of words.

When we turn to *LDCE* (2014), we find the following:

- words which are used only or mainly in one region or country,
- words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude,
- words which are used in a particular context or type of language.

The dictionary analysis that has been carried out reveals that in case of the majority of *MLDs*, we encounter major variation in the way the guiding labels are introduced and presented to the users. In general, the editors of *LDCE* (2014) apparently prefer the following acronymized forms for dialect words *BrE, AmE, AusE.*, while in case of *CALD* (2008) we find the following versions of acronymized labels: *UK, US*. At the same time, we find one-letter acronyms for *essential (E), improver (I), advanced (A)*. Moreover, substantial differences can also be noticed in the way the same information is provided. There are a number of labels that apparently mean the same, but acquire different forms in analysed dictionaries. For example, we find the label *dated* in *CALD*

(2008), while in *CCAD* (2009), *LDCE* (2014), *OALD* (2014), *MED* (2007) there is the label *old-fashioned* provided to encode exactly the same lexicographic information. What is more, one is tempted to ask what the difference between *old-fashioned* and *old-use* is. This is because both labels are given by the editors of *LDCE* (2014), yet – regrettably – there is explanation that might clarify the difference, if any.

Similar questions and queries may be formulated for other labeling conventions employed in various MEDs. And so, for instance, a certain discrepancy can be observed in case of *not-polite* put to use in *CCAD* (2009), *OALD* (2014), *MED* (2007), *CALD* (2008), *LDCE* (2014) and the label *offensive* employed by the editors of *CALD* (2008), *MED* (2007), *OALD* (2014), *CCAD* (2009) where – in fact – the label *very offensive* is provided, while the editors of *CCAD* (2009) have opted for *rude*. Somewhat less doubt goes with the label *disapproving* that is used in *LDCE* (2014), *OALD* (2014), *CALD* (2008).

When we move further, we see that certain inconsistencies are also to be discerned in the way the parameter of formality/informality is grasped and codified. In most general terms, the labels within the group are arranged according to the descending scale formal-informal-slang-taboo. As far as register is concerned, the bulk of lexicographic works that have been examined is by no means free of variation and inconsistencies either. While the authors of *CALD* (2008) use *specialized/legal/literary* labels, in *LDCE* (2014) we find such markings as *technical/medical/literary/law/biblical*. In turn, *CCAD* (2009) provides the following labels: *business/computing, journalism, legal, literacy, medical, military, technical*, while *OALD* (2014) employs only two register-specific labels, namely *literary* and *specialist*.

It turns out that the information content of various labels is rarely treated with equal attention by the editors of MEDs; we observe that while some of them are almost universally included in the structure of the dictionary others tend to be ignored. And so, for example, it is noticeable that practising lexicographers differ in their opinions concerning the importance of including and marking dialect words. In *MED* (2007), the regional dialects are not distinguished at all. At the same time, there is the label *dialect* given in *OALD* (2014) and *CCAD* (2009). In case of *LDCE* (2014), there are the following labels related to the dialect category: *BrE, AmE, AusE*, while in *CALD* (2008) we find: *Australian English, Canadian English, East African English, Northern English, Scottish English*.

At the same time, some of the labels are singular in the sense that they are employed only on individual occasions by one and not (many) other dictionary editors. In this context let us point to *MED* (2007) which provides 3 labels that occur in no other dictionary, and these are: *showing approval*, *showing disapproval*, *modal verb*. Simultaneously, these labels appear with certain modifications as *approving* and *disapproving* in case of *CALD* (2008), *LDCE* (2014), *OALD* (2014). The label *modal verb* appears in none of the dictionaries, except *MED* (2007). The label *very informal* used within the body of the dictionary, expresses intensification, and although it is apparently close in meaning to the label *slang*, the latter is not used. Another label used only in case of one dictionary is *written* in *LDCE* (2014), explained as “used mainly in writing rather than in speech.” When compared to formal “used mainly in official situations, or by political or business organisations, or when speaking or writing to people in authority” one gets the impression that these two explain very much the same. Another observation worthy of comment is the fact that the system of labels in *MED* (2007) is by no means detailed and all-embracing. In particular, it is striking to see that there is no special group of labels denoting different registers.

The survey of the labels that has been carried out in the foregoing shows that one may hardly speak of any consistency of either the system or the usage of labelling systems in the dictionaries of current English that have been subject to examination here. Let us now take a closer look at the sample of informal words and the labeling values attached to them within the body of the dictionaries under scrutiny.

lexical item	<i>LDCE</i>	<i>MED</i>	<i>CCAD</i>	<i>OALD</i>	<i>CALD</i>
<i>mate</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>quid</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>hooker</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>dude</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>shit</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>bloody</i>	-	+	+	+	+
<i>freak</i>	+	+	+	+	+
<i>moron</i>	+	+	+	+	+

Figure 5: Informal value markings of selected words in MLDs.

lexical item	<i>LDCE</i>	<i>MED</i>	<i>CCAD</i>	<i>OALD</i>	<i>CALD</i>
<i>mate</i>	informal	Informal	Informal	Informal	informal

<i>quid</i>	informal	Informal	Informal	Informal	informal
<i>hooker</i>	informal	Informal	Informal	Informal	informal
<i>dude</i>	informal	Informal	Informal	Slang	slang
<i>shit</i>	not polite	Impolite	Informal	taboo/slang	offensive
<i>bloody</i>	-	Impolite	Rude	taboo/slang	very informal
<i>freak</i>	informal	Informal	Informal	Informal	informal
<i>moron</i>	informal	Informal	Offensive	Informal	informal

Figure 6: Usage labels provided for the informal words in MLDs.

As may be noticed, the usage labels given in various dictionaries may differ substantially with respect to the very system employed by individual lexicographic editorial teams. Consequently, it seems reasonable to clarify the usage labelling practices in case of every work of reference as well as group the usage labels as well as their explanations.

What we have already stressed is our conviction that the information labels should be included in the structure of current dictionaries, but in their present form they appear, and – in actual practice – turn out to be less useful as they are supposed, meant and expected to be.

In general, the reasons of this state of affairs are varied and many. To start with, all dictionaries have their own criteria for marking words or word senses, what consequently cause the problems concerning the accurate labelling policy. As indicated by Stain (2002:14) “it is admittedly very difficult to make objective assessment on the social status of the word but it seems ... that we need much more research in this area.” Also, Leech and Nessi (1999: 259) admit that dictionaries “fall well short of perfection.” Attempts to improve usage labelling in MLDs have been given much stimulus from the work of Atkins & Rundell (2008:496) admitting that “labelling is an area of lexicography where there is more work to be done.”

When we turn to the question of how lexicographers determine usage labelling, we see that practising lexicographers consistently acknowledge the difficulty of labelling words Ptaczyński (2010:411) clarifies that “lexicographers have been searching in vain for an exhaustive and precise answer to the questions of which words to label in what kind of dictionaries and how to do it.” As shown in the previous section, and emphasised by the same scholar these difficulties “stem from the lack of firm theoretical basis for the application of diasystematic information in dictionaries”. Ptaczyński (2010: 411)

Certainly, it could be argued that the virtual non-existence of commonly agreed criteria

for usage labelling is dependent only on formal theoretical framework or rather functional approach, as suggested by practising lexicographers.

As already shown, some of the labels that are proposed in current MLDs overlap, and consequently labels that are synonymous are assigned to unconnected words. The actual length of labels should be limited to one word (as the abbreviations and longer usage notes are rather cryptic). First of all, it is plausible to develop and propose a new systematized and unified schedule of usage labels that could be successfully employed in the structure of the existing MLDs.

### **10. Linguistic aspects of a dictionary of English<sup>43</sup>**

The debate on the relationship between linguistics and lexicography, or the usefulness of theoretical linguistic descriptions in practical lexicography, is not new. The 1970s was the time when lexicographers began to treat linguistic theory as an indispensable tool in their work on dictionaries. Today lexicography and linguistics are inextricably linked. In the works of researchers, we find the statement that the precision and quality of lexicographic description largely depend on the results developed by linguists. (Hartmann, 1983; Gouws, 1996)

We shall begin by placing the art of lexicography in a broader linguistic context. Practical lexicography, of which dictionaries of modern English<sup>44</sup> are the final product, is very often seen as a part of applied linguistics. At the same time, it does not take much careful reading and analysis of the changing and constantly improving art of dictionary writing to notice that practical lexicography is very often influenced by, uses or even builds on the achievements of various other branches of theoretical linguistics. In particular, we can talk here about the relationship of lexicography with lexicology, semantics, but also sociolinguistics and stylistics. It seems that we can speak not so much of a symbiosis, but rather of a conditioned coexistence of dictionary art on the one hand and on the other hand of various branches of theoretical linguistics, which is shown below:

#### **LEXICOLOGY**

[...]

#### **MORPHOLOGY**

---

<sup>43</sup> This section has been published in Polish in 2019. (See Stachurska, 2019)

<sup>44</sup> The dictionaries of modern English which are the subject of this study are not understood to be solely and exclusively Anglo-Saxon dictionaries.

[...]



**LEXICOGRAPHY**

**SEMANTICS**



[...]

**SOCIOLINGUISTICS**

Figure7: The relationship of lexicography with lexicology, semantics, but also sociolinguistics and stylistics.

As Polański (1995) points out in the *Encyclopaedia of General Linguistics*, monolingual dictionaries: “(...) are the primary means of broad public outreach and communication of the results of lexical resource research.”

Dictionaries have a normative function in the field of linguistics. This is especially true of the study of semantics, phraseology and morphology. It can be said, therefore, that any attempt at linguistic research, the purpose of which is to some extent theoretical, must be based on the practical product of the work of lexicographers. In case of semantic, lexicological or morphological studies, dictionaries serve as a research base and a tool of verification. At the same time, it is obvious that at different stages of the development of linguistic thought, the proposals of many individual theoretical solutions have found their influence and reflection on the directions in the development of metalexicography and on the shape of the products of dictionary making itself. Examples of this are numerous, but we will focus on the most representative ones.

Let us begin with one of the most important periods in the development of modern linguistics, which fell in the 19th century. The development of the historical-comparative method in the nineteenth century resulted in the development of European lexicography in two ways. First of all, we should mention the appearance of the category of etymological dictionaries, which began to appear on the publishing market precisely in the second half of the 19th century. At the same time, the historical-comparative method had a tremendous impact on the development of historical dictionaries, whose products were intended to contain not only etymological information, but also a documentation of the development of words from their appearance until modern times. The first of such a work in the history of British lexicography was the 10-volume *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles*, which began to appear in the last decades of the 19th century.

Analyzing the early studies of meaning, one can see that one of the most important achievements in this sphere that had a considerable impact on dictionaries was semantic research in the last decades of the 19th century and the first decades of the 20th century. Thematic dictionaries began to appear on the British market as early as in the middle of the nineteenth century, for example in Roget's *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* or Dornseiff's German-language dictionary of 1933. Thematic or ideographic dictionary itself is defined in words taken from Burkhanov's work of 1998: "(...) the ideographic dictionary is defined as a reference work with non-alphabetical arrangement of the word list."

It should be stressed that the idea of a dictionary ideographic system based on object groups corresponding to conceptual areas - although it was already present in practical lexicography in the mid-19th century - undoubtedly received a stimulus for development, as well as a theoretical basis with the emergence of J. Trier's field theory in the first decades of the 20th century. As far as more contemporary achievements of British lexicography in this field are concerned, an unquestionable achievement is McArthur's *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* of 1980. Its macrostructure is presented below:

### **B The Body: its Functions and Welfare**

<b>B1</b>	<b>The Body Generally</b> C324 Souls, Spirits, and Ghosts E30 Food H1 Substances and Materials Generally G1 Mind, Thought, and Reason	<b>B60</b>	<b>Fluids and Waste Products of the Body</b> 040 The Bathroom D42 Plumbing and Pipes H13 Rubbish and Waste
<b>B10</b>	<b>The Body: Overall</b> A120 Parts of Animals A130 Kinds and Parts of Plants	<b>B80</b>	<b>Bodily States and Associated Activities</b> F1 Feeling and Behaviour Generally F260 Senses and Sensations
<b>B20</b>	<b>The Head and the Face</b> F240 Actions of the Face Related to Feelings	<b>B110</b>	<b>Bodily Conditions Relating to Health, Sickness, and Disability</b>



	G1 Thinking, Judging, and Remembering		F260 Senses and Sensations
<b>B30</b>	<b>The Trunk, Arms, and Legs</b>	<b>B140</b>	<b>Diseases and Ailments</b>
	E30 Food		E80 Cigarettes and Drugs
<b>B50</b>	<b>The Skin, the Complexion, and the Hair</b>	<b>B160</b>	<b>Medicine and General Medical Care</b>
	A120 Parts of Animals D170 Cleaning and Personal Care L20 Light and Colour		I170 Science and Technology

Figure 8: *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* of 1980 - its macrostructure.

Similarly, an interesting variation of the dictionary of this type is William Brohaugh's *English through the Ages* (1998), which somehow combines a thematic approach with a diachronic view.

The basic feature of the layout of such a dictionary is the thematic group, which contains a set of dictionary units that have the same or similar denotatives falling within a given thematic group. The most important thing for the addressee of such dictionaries - and most often, according to lexicographers, these are the users for whom the language of the dictionary is not their native tongue - is that the list of thematic groups and their size are conditioned by the parameter of importance for the communicative needs of the dictionary users.

The rapidly developing cognitive linguistics has also found its reflection in the latest works of lexicographic art. This is perfectly evident in Michael Rundell's 2002 *Macmillan English Dictionary*, in which the so-called box method has been applied to the breadth of metaphorical English.

### **Linguistic aspects of the dictionary of modern English - selected problems**

One of the paradoxes that has always existed in linguistics is that the researchers concerned with meaning have often not been quite sure what meaning actually is. This uncertainty has manifested itself in several ways. Among other things, in the text of Ogden and Richards' ever-present work called significantly *The Meaning of Meaning*, the authors subject over a dozen conceptions of meaning to critical analysis.

Of course, this has had little effect on the necessity of defining meaning in lexicographical work, after all, for the purpose of editing dictionaries, defining meaning is a fundamental and overriding task. Let us now turn to one of the most essential elements of lexicographic description that is, the definition of meaning. Here we present the definition of meaning according to the *Universal Polish Language Dictionary* (2003) “(...) to determine the meaning of a word, which usually involves specifying its content and giving an idea of its possible scope.”

Most often - though not exclusively - the user of a dictionary of modern English turns to the product of lexicographic work in order to learn the meaning or meanings of a given word, while other information - important for a full lexicographic description, such as the pronunciation of a word, the grammatical category to which a given word belongs, or the collocational connectivity of a given unit - is of much lesser and lesser interest to the dictionary user. Obviously, the process of describing the meaning of dictionary units requires from a lexicographer, or rather from a team of lexicographers editing a given lexicographic entry, both a good knowledge of semantic theories and easily definable technical skills.

It may also be said that the very operation of defining meanings is like the last phase of the creative lexicographic process, because apart from defining itself the lexicographer often has to deal with complex polysemic chains resulting from the historical development of meanings. And it is here that the process of describing meaning consists of the often-arbitrary process of isolating all the meanings and shades of meaning of a given unit and placing them appropriately within a headword article as illustrated by a headword taken from the *Macmillan English Dictionary*:

***calendar***

*1 a set of pages showing the days, weeks, and months of a particular year: a wall/desk calendar*

*2 a system for measuring the length of a year and dividing it into periods such as weeks and months: the Jewish/Roman calendar*

*3 a list of important events and the dates they take place: one of the major events of the sporting calendar*

*4 Am E a DIARY where you write things you plan to do 4a. AmE the things you plan to do within a particular period of time: I don't see how we can fit this into the senator's busy calendar.*

Figure 9: Headword taken from the *Macmillan English Dictionary*

There are also other issues here, such as the problem of deciding whether in certain cases we are dealing with a polysemous sequence of a single word, or whether we can rather speak here of the existence of two separate homonymous units. This seemingly exclusive and purely linguistic problem is of course reflected in the dictionary practice. It is true that the difference between homonymy and polysemy - as Polański (1995) stresses in the *Encyclopaedia of General Linguistics* - is “(...) of a genetic, and therefore diachronic nature,” but every lexicographer taking care of the details of description must decide which of the phenomena discussed here he is dealing with. And so, for example:

**lead** = ‘to give access to’ (example: This road leads to the Soho Square).

**lead**= ‘very heavy metallic substance’ (example: I could hardly walk because my feet felt as heavy as lead).

shows that there is little doubt that in the case of words such as the verb lead and the noun lead, we are dealing with homonymy - or rather with a variant of homonymy called homography, then in the case of the pair of nouns given below:

**sole** = ‘name of the fish’ (example: I never eat the sole because there is little to eat but bones).

**sole** = ‘lower part of the shoe’ (example: The shoemaker said that the sole was beyond repair).

it seems that we are dealing here - as in the previous case - with homonymy, which, as Burchanov (1998) argues, probably justifiably, was historically a polysemy.

One of the main problems faced by a lexicographer is to separate the meanings of headwords and to sequence them. In accordance with the art of lexicography, the lexicographer initially looks at a set of examples of usage recorded on fiche, microfiche or, in modern times, in the form of computer files, the analysis of which is supposed to reveal various meanings of words. Dealing with controversial cases is not limited to the English language, but is rather the norm in editorial work on dictionaries in different languages. Thus, for example, both in Polish and Slovak the word *głowa* /head or the Slovak noun *hlava* occur in polysemous sequences revealed at the semantic level. We find it on the basis of such expressions as head of the state, head of the family, cabbage head, as well as the Slovak equivalents *hlava statu*, *kapustna hlava* occurring both in the sense of 'head of cabbage', 'the most important person in the family', 'the most important person in the given state', but also metaphorically in the sense of 'foolish, incompetent

person', as it seems to be suggested by the poster from the Slovak black humour resources shown below:



Figure 10: Poster taken from [www.ciernyhumor.sk](http://www.ciernyhumor.sk)

Semantics has developed clear criteria for including and processing word ambiguity. It is most often assumed that we are dealing with ambiguity when there is a broadly understood relation of similarity between particular meanings, which is absent in the case of homonymy. Theoretical lexicography - supported by achievements in semantics - places detailed demands on dictionary practice, especially on the description of polysemous units, which is one of the most important tasks of a lexicographer, because it is the meaning, or meanings, of a word that a dictionary user is most likely to look for in a dictionary. More generally, the requirements and postulates formulated by theoretical lexicographers towards dictionary writers are presented after Źmigrodzki (2008, 129-130):

1. † first of all, a dictionary definition should be linguistic and not encyclopedic. If this requirement is not fulfilled one speaks of scientism or encyclopedism in defining,

2. † the definition should be translatable, i.e., the defining sequence should be equivalent to the definiendum. Otherwise, we are dealing with a definition that is too narrow or broad,
3. † the definition should be disjunctive, i.e., it should consist of simpler elements than the definiendum,
4. † neither the word being defined nor any of its components may occur in the definition,
5. † some entities in the dictionary do not need to be defined. For example, in a popular dictionary, there is no need to define the most basic vocabulary, such as animals or plants,
6. † the linguistic nature of description requires that we refrain from defining any specialised terminology, as this would require the use of specialised terminology,
7. † there are units whose meaning should not be defined each time a headword is used (systematic polysemy), units that are in a hierarchical relationship to each other.

The above postulates should be considered as consequences that have been introduced from the adoption of the principles of general semantic theory. More specifically, as far as the first point is concerned, it should be stressed that the problem of encyclopaedicisation of definitions is not a new one. It can be said that the encyclopaedicisation of dictionaries is taking place with the development of education, but also with the widespread temptation to treat the linguistic dictionary as a source of popularisation of scientific content. Equally importantly, one of the important reasons for the spread of such definitions is the undoubted ease of encyclopaedic definition.

It should be stressed that the encyclopaedism of dictionary meanings seems to diverge from linguistic sensibility, as encyclopedic definitions often do not match quotations or examples of use, and what is perhaps most important is that in the era of accelerated changes in civilisation, such definitions may become outdated relatively quickly with the progress of science, but - which is equally important - they do not account for an individual's ability to motivate derived meanings and metaphors. The definition of the noun ear/ucho exemplifies typical examples of encyclopedic definitions of dictionary entries of identical nouns taken from English and Polish:

**ear** = the vertebrate organ of hearing, responsible for maintaining equilibrium as well as sensing sound and divided mammals into the external ear; the middle ear; and the inner ear.

**ucho**- parzysty narząd słuchu i równowagi u kręgowców (u człowieka i ssaków składający się z ucha zewnętrznego, środkowego i wewnętrznego) znajdujący się po obu stronach głowy; małżowina uszna.

The encyclopedic definitions of the English noun ear and the parallel definition of the Polish noun ucho do not reflect the ability of these nouns to motivate derived meanings, as both the former and the latter can be used in the sense of 'a projecting handle, as on a vase or pitcher', as well as in the vaguely motivated meaning of the English noun ear 'a cob (e.g., of corn)'. (English: 'the seed-bearing spike of a cereal plant, such as corn').

The postulate of the linguistic rather than encyclopedic character of definitions is relevant and most often accepted by lexicographers-practitioners. Encyclopedic definitions are factographic in their nature, they refer to given scientific disciplines and applications, sometimes meanings. It should be stressed that they are mainly used by native speakers, while in contrast, dictionary definitions in normative dictionaries, such as dictionaries of modern English, focus mainly on the meaning, spelling, morphology, stylistic status and usage of a given dictionary unit. Such a dictionary is therefore more useful for those who are learning the language.

Furthermore, editors of dictionaries of modern English should not adopt an encyclopedic approach because explaining the meanings of lexical units from the point of view of different scientific disciplines is usually fraught with the error of **ignotum per ignotum**. The concept of defining ignotum per ignotum, i.e., a way of defining where the unknown is explained by the unknown, includes a mechanism for creating so-called vicious circles, as illustrated:

**pisać** = formułować, ujmować swoje myśli na piśmie, utrwaląc je za pomocą pisma.

**utrwaląc**= rejestrować dźwięki, obrazy na taśmach, płytach itp. w celu ich późniejszego odtworzenia; zapisywać tekst.

In other words, this procedure means that the meaning of a word is explained by means of words that the dictionary user does not understand, so that the process of explanation takes place by means of elements that need explanation themselves. The correlation of modern linguistic theory with lexicographic practice can be demonstrated on this example. Thus, representatives of cognitive semantics point out that definitions

formulated in this way are not useful for demonstrating the ability of a given lexical unit to motivate derived meanings, metaphors and phraseologisms.

Hence, the postulate of alternative, linguistic, strongly disjunctive definitions has begun to be put forward. They can be defined as explications of lexical meanings using the notion of indefinibilia and lingua mentalis (Wierzbicka, 1985) and, more generally, developing the concept of cognitive definition (Bartmiński, 1984). Certainly, a cognitive definition can be regarded as an attempt to represent the whole - and sometimes very complex - semantic structure of a given concept, but putting them into general dictionaries is difficult to do, mainly for technical reasons<sup>45</sup>.

Remaining in the field of cognitive linguistics, an interesting attempt to respond to the need for taking metaphors into account is provided by the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (2002), which - theoretically underpinned by the rapidly developing and pervasive cognitivism - proposes a solution of capturing metaphorical meanings in the form of the so-called metaphorical boxes containing the key idea of a given metaphor, because, as we know, every metaphorical use of a given word or idiom contains a key idea. And so, we show the box method applied to the lexeme conversation, which occurs in the metaphorical sense:

### **conversation**

1 (C) a talk between two or more people, usually a private and informal one: letter in the evening, the conversation turned to politics. ♦ + with / between a conversation with my neighbor/ between two friends ♦ have a conversation She had a long telephone conversation with her mother.

2 (u) Informal talk between people: With so much loud music, conversation was almost impossible. ♦ subject/ topic of conversation He's so boring his only topic of conversation is football. ♦ snatches of conversation (short parts of a conversation) / overheard a few snatches of conversation and realized we were in trouble.

---

<sup>45</sup> Bartmiński (1984:9) pointed out that the definitions in the dictionary (he referred this remark to the Dictionary of the Polish Language) are written in scientific language and correspond to scientific knowledge. Along with Burkhanov (1998:40), both pointed out the need for definitions of a linguistic nature. This is because scientific definitions are difficult for the average language user to understand. Bartmiński (1984) pointed out that in lexicography there is no rigid boundary between linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge, and therefore in conveying the necessary elements a cognitive definition is needed "which takes as its main objective the account of the way in which an object is conceived by speakers of a given language, i.e.: of the way in which knowledge about the world is socially fixed and cognisable through language and the use of language, its phenomena are categorised, characterised and valued." (Bartmiński, 1988:169)

get into conversation (with sb>) to start talking 1« someone you have never met before: She met Harry at the airport and they got into conversation. make conversation to talk to someone that you do not know well, in order to be polite, not because you really want to talk to them. This type of conversation is also called small talk: 'Nice party. isn't it?' / Said, trying to make conversation.

### **Metaphor**

A conversation or discussion is like a journey, with the speakers going from one place to another.

Let's |go back to what you were saying earlier. ♦ Can we return to the previous point? ♦ I can't quite see where you're heading. ♦ The conversation took an unexpected turn. /Direct. ♦ I'm listening Go on/  
♦ We've covered a lot o/ground. ♦ / was Just coming to that. ♦ We eventually arrived at a conclusion. ♦ It's a roundabout way of saying she's refusing our offer.  
♦ You're on tin\* right/wrong track. ♦ We wandered off the topic. ♦ The conversation drifted rather aimlessly. ♦ We kept going round and round in circles.

Figure 11: Headword conversation taken from Macmillan English Dictionary

As far as the postulate of the translatability of definitions, it is difficult to argue with it. Let us note that it is followed by a more specific postulate, i.e., the desire to avoid what are called open definitions, i.e., definitions that contain unfinished enumerations. As we show, definitions such as those taken from the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* are very often burdened with the flaw of vagueness:

**furniture** - large objects such as chairs, tables, beds, cupboards, etc.

**bed** – a piece of furniture you sleep on,

**chair** – a piece of furniture for one person to sit on,

**table** – a piece of furniture with a flat top supported by legs.

Figure 12: Definitions taken from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English

However, at this point it should be stressed that open definitions are unavoidable, as the scope of certain concepts is difficult to present in any other way.

On the other hand, when it comes to the criteria mentioned in points 3, 4 and 5, which are reduced to the requirement that the definiens should contain semantically simpler



elements than the definiendum, the expectations are fully justified. However, it should be noted that it is not always known, without detailed semantic analysis, which of the given semantic elements are simpler than others, but also not always what seems semantically simpler is more comprehensible. Lexicographers-practitioners, especially those who compile pedagogical dictionaries make attempts to limit the inventory of definiens to a strictly indicated, closed set of lexemes. Thus, in the case of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* cited here, the concept of a so-called definitional lexicon used to define all dictionary units was adopted. The core of the factual basis is that, as research on language acquisition shows, these are the words that humans learn earliest.

Interestingly, a certain discrepancy between theoretical postulates on the one hand and practical needs on the other is clearly visible here. After all, as we know from Wierzbicka's numerous publications, that the number of what can be described as indefinibilia amounts to 60 items. In lexicographic practice a collection of 2,000 lexemes turns out to be insufficient, as in the case of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* there is a need to use many lexemes remaining outside the defining lexicon. In such situation, one additionally encounters a nested definition of this unknown word in the definition itself, as shown:

**kangaroo** = an Australian animal that moves by jumping and carries its babies in POUCH (= a special pocket of skin) on its stomach.

What is more, since we decide to define all entities in the dictionary, including the semantically simplest ones, it is inevitable that when we explicate them, we have to use semantically more complex elements, and even those that were previously explained by means of the entities we are just trying to define. It follows that in some cases it becomes virtually impossible to avoid the error of *ignotum per ignotum* or the vicious circle. A reading of selected groups of headwords in various dictionaries of modern English shows that the vicious circle of indirectness - so unambiguously condemned by theorists - is often encountered in lexicography, and lexicographers seem not to be ashamed of it. This is perfectly clear from the dictionary material taken from the same dictionary (*LDCE*):

**child** = a son or daughter of any age,

**son** = someone's male child,

**daughter** = someone's female child.

Figure 13: Definitions taken from *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*

It can be said that we are in a vicious circle here, in a sense, and breaking out of this circle is possible, but at the expense of defining with more semantically complex lexemes, as, for example, defining kinship terms by using the English lexeme 'offspring' as used in the *Collins Dictionary & Thesaurus*. This is shown by the illustrative material included:

**child**= a human offspring; a son or daughter,

**son**= a male offspring; a boy or a man in relation to his parents,

**daughter** = a female offspring; a girl or woman in relation to her parents.

Figure 14: Definitions taken from *Collins Dictionary & Thesaurus*

To conclude, one can say that when defining the most basic units it is very difficult to avoid any of the mistakes discussed above. It remains for the lexicographer to consider and decide what he considers to be the worse: the looping of the definition, or referring in it to more semantically complex expressions. As a result, in lexicographic practice the postulate of avoiding errors of the *ignotum per ignotum* type is usually realized only to a very limited extent. However, it should be emphasised that the entry of computer technology into practical lexicography, and above all the enormous growth of the potential of computer technology, makes it possible to check whether all the words used in the definitions have been treated as duly explained entries. However, as Michael Rundell, points out in his preface to the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (2002), which opened a new cognitively theoretically underpinned phase in the development of English-language dictionaries: "While technology lays a major part in today's lexicography, dictionaries are not written and edited by computers, but by highly qualified editors."

It should also be stressed that the postulate of refraining from defining all specialised terminology is not feasible in lexicographic practice, for the simple reason that a general dictionary should include a range of specialised terminology necessary in everyday life. The postulate of omitting certain correlations and not registering them in the headword section, although justified theoretically, seems to have a rather practical basis, or, simply

speaking, one resulting from the economic motivation to save space in a dictionary published in the traditional way, i.e., in print. Almost without exception, in the case of derivative subentries there is no definition, because the semantic structure of the lexeme and its relation to the headword lexeme is obvious. The aspect of modern English dictionaries discussed here is illustrated by means of the dictionary entry of the word *download* taken from the *Miriam-Webster American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*. This entry contains - in addition to the grammatically determined forms *downloaded*, *downloading*, *downloads* - the adjective *downloadable*:

**download**

**downloaded, downloading, downloads**

- to transfer (data or program) from a central computer or website to a peripheral computer or device  
**(v.intr.)**

- to download data or program,

**n**

1. a file that has been downloaded,
2. an instance of downloading data or a program

**downloadable** (adj.)

Figure 15: Definitions taken from *Miriam-Webster American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*.

It is worth noting that the lexicographical portrayal of semantic polysemy is somewhat different. It can be said that noting all the meanings that can be interpreted as the effect of regular polysemy in each dictionary entry is fully justified, as it allows us to identify the units for which these meanings are realised and those for which they remain only a potency. This point is illustrated with the help of the polysemically extended dictionary entry **lady**:

**n. pl. ladies**

1. A woman of high social standing or refinement, especially when viewed as dignified or well – mannered.
2. A woman who is the head of a household: Is the lady of the house at home?
3.
  - a. A woman, especially when spoken of or to in a polite way: Ladies, may I show you to your table?
  - b. Used as a form of address, often with sarcasm or irritation: Look, lady, I was ahead of you in line.
- 4.

- a. A woman who is the object of romantic or chivalrous love: a knight serving his lady.
  - b. Informal A wife or girlfriend: a man kissing his lady at the airport.
5. A lady in waiting: the queen and her ladies.

Figure 16: Definitions taken from Merriam-Webster American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language.

This section attempts to show how linguistic theory is used in everyday lexicographic practice. Generally speaking, many solutions and postulates formulated by theoretical linguists have been and still are reflected in dictionaries of modern English. However, the unqualified application of the principles formulated by linguists, such as, for example, the principles of defining lexemes in lexicographic practice is not only possible, but also not always justified with regard to the user - friendly perspective. Therefore, being aware of the importance of these rules, the lexicographer should apply them with far-reaching sensitivity, so that the resulting description is satisfactory for himself, i.e., meets the basic requirements of adequacy, and at the same time is useful to a wide range of users.

## 11. Electronic dictionaries

Dictionaries date back to the time when words were written down by hand on clay tablets and papyrus leaves. However, they are longest remembered as lists of words contained in voluminous books also written down by hand at first, and then after the invention of printing, the process was greatly improved. Another important milestone in the development of practical lexicography was reached in 1993. As Nessi (2016) points out, it was in 1993 that the World Wide Web became free, making the Internet also a potential platform for electronic dictionaries. In her own words: "it is undoubtedly electronization that has had the greatest impact since 1998, influencing all other aspects of dictionary creation and use. CERN opened up the internet as a possible site for e-dictionaries in 1993, but in the 1990s lexicographers' focus was largely on the collection and exploration of digital language data." (Nessi, 2016: 580) Jackson (2013: 540- 541) explains that "the Yahoo! Search engine in 1997 listed 91 cyberdictionaries (...) In 1997 One Look indexed 188 dictionaries: by 2005 this had increased to 992, and in February 2016 the number stood at 1061".

Evidently, the growth of the Internet has contributed to the development of dictionary studies. Many paper-based dictionaries have been adapted for electronic use. These include dictionaries on CD-ROMs or online dictionaries. Scholars agree that the

difference between these two types of dictionaries lies in the way in which one may access the information stored in them. In the case of paper dictionaries, the possibilities revolve around alphabetically listed headwords. Electronic dictionaries, on the other hand, also contain alphabetically structured word lists, but can be searched much more quickly due to technical possibilities. Researchers, however, have advocated more complex techniques, such as the use of hyperlinks, images and graphics, corpora or the context of use (important from the translators' point of view).

To characterise electronic dictionaries, we will start with their taxonomy. Svensén (2009) proposes a division into two groups:

- 1- used interactively by people for consultation or reading,
- 2- used automatically by computers for various applications. (cf. Lehr, 1996)

Svensén (2009) further divides this second category into dictionaries used off-line (stored in an PC (CD-ROM, DVD, 'smart card') or in an electronic pocket calculator or reading pen) and on-line (published on the Internet).

All in all, an electronic dictionary "may, in all essentials constitute a digitised version of a print dictionary or have been produced from the very outset as an electronic dictionary. A dictionary belonging to the former category (DIGITIZED PRINT) can differ to varying degrees from the print version as regards methods of access and formats of presentation." (Svensén, 2009:438)

Much along similar lines is the taxonomy found in Klotz and Herbst (2016) who classify:

- e-dictionaries on optical drives for laptops and desktops,
- e- dictionaries for handled devices,
- e-dictionaries available on the Internet.

In turn, De Schryver (2003: 146) advocates a three – step typology:

- machine readable – dictionaries vs. human – oriented electronic dictionaries,
- robust machines (dictionaries accessed on robust machines e.g., stored on optical drives) vs. handheld devices (reading pens or portable electronic dictionaries),
- electronic dictionaries on stand – alone computers vs. electronic dictionaries on network computers (may be used free of charge or may also be fee based).

Without any doubt, electronic dictionaries can be classified differently, according to different criteria. Many attempts have been made to create such taxonomies. The work of Nesi (2000) should be mentioned here. The author argues that electronic dictionaries differ from electronic versions of paper dictionaries and that these, in turn, due to the use of modern technology, are easier to access and allow for a more comprehensive use of the information they contain (they also allow for advanced searching). Moreover, their updating is automatic. The following is a diagram containing the typology of electronic dictionaries proposed by Lehr (1996):

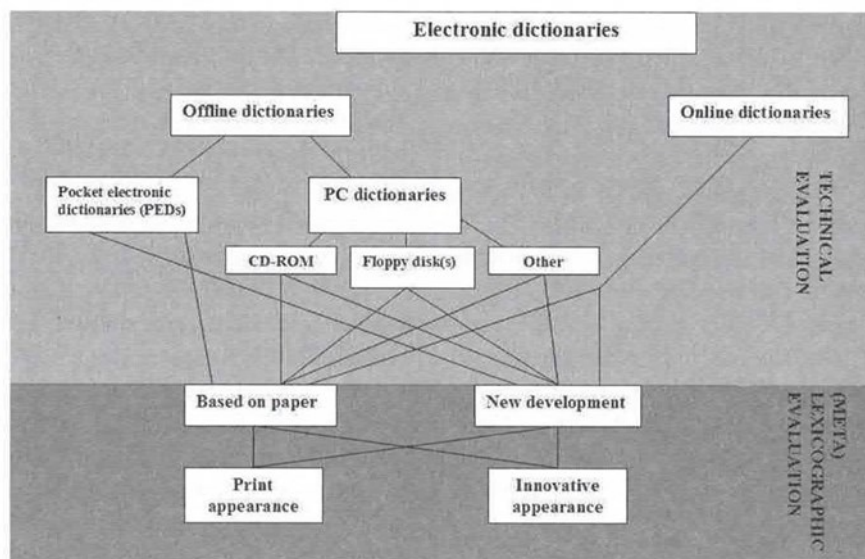


Figure 17: Classification of electronic dictionaries by Lehr (1996:315) taken from Pastor and Alcina (2013:99)

Of course, there are also critical voices in this discussion. Thus, for example, Lew (2011) argues that some electronic dictionaries are not very easy to use, and certainly their use is much more complicated than that of traditional paper dictionaries. Lexicographers also point out another aspect - namely that each online dictionary is used differently, for the reason that its macro and microstructure is usually different from that traditionally known to language users. Therefore, each time the user has to spend a lot of time studying the usage techniques, which at the same time, does not guarantee the information sought in the end. The way the lexical units are displayed uses different colours to highlight information of different types. It is also possible to find dictionaries in which the user can add comments, make notes in the margins (important from the point of view of later use). Of an equal importance is also the possibility to have copied

a dictionary entry without having to rewrite it. Similarly, the space in this type of dictionaries is unlimited in comparison to paper dictionaries, where space forces savings due to the publishing costs.

As to the use of electronic dictionaries, while at first sight appearing to be easier and quicker compared to traditional dictionaries, some difficulties can also be faced here. For example, Hartmann (1999) points out that it is difficult to consider this type of a dictionary as user-friendly, as access to information is difficult and users usually do not know how to search for the information they need. (cf. Bèjoint, 2009; Cowie, 1999; Hartmann 1999)

Bèjoint (2009) further points out that these dictionaries do not fully exploit the possibilities offered by the Internet and usually reduce their content to the information available in their paper versions.

According to Pastor and Alcina (2013: 103), as far as electronic dictionaries are concerned, online dictionaries are more accessible than those on CD-ROM, and most online dictionaries are free. They can be accessed from any computer, provided it has an Internet access, and do not need to be installed on it. However, offline dictionaries have more search options and are also more durable. Unfortunately, online dictionaries may change their URL, which sometimes causes difficulties in access, or they may disappear altogether (Pastor and Alcina, 2009: 103). The analysis of search techniques reveals many possibilities, as indicated in Pastor and Alcina (2009: 104-131).

Search techniques are all the choices that a dictionary user consciously chooses to find the information they are looking for, such as the meaning or context of the use of a lexical unit. The first phase of the search for such information is called the **query** in metalexigraphy, while the information sought is called the **resource** (the information or sequence that the user needs at the time). Finally, we obtain the **result**.

Let us therefore look in more detail at the various stages of data retrieval in electronic dictionaries. The query is a word or phrase entered into the dictionary by the user. It can be a word, a part of a word, an anagram, a phrase or part of a sentence. Along with this type of information, the user can also make the search more specific by indicating a part of speech or a semantic field.

The types of queries fall into the following categories:

- an exact word (introduction of the word in the same form for gaining its definition, grammatical information, etymology, an example),

- a partial word (an incomplete word where the omitted part may be beginning, the middle or the end of the word (indicated as \* and the question mark, e.g.: house\* for *housemaid*, *housewife* etc).
- an approximate expression (a word or a sequence of letters that is similar to the word explained in a dictionary; it may be an inflected form of a lexical item, a word or an arrangement of characters pronounced or spelt similarly to another word).

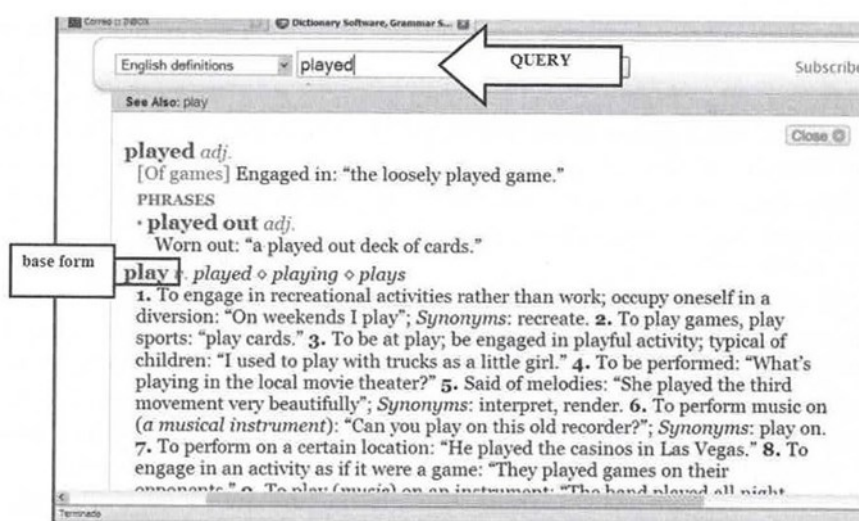


Figure 17: Search by inflected form (Pastor and Alcina, 2009: 107)

As to the resource, in electronic dictionaries the information is given in sectors, while each of the sectors can be queried. In contrast to paper dictionaries, where searches are made only in an alphabetical list of words, in electronic sources other ways of retrieving data (definitions, examples, relations, corpora) are possible. This stage of data extraction divides the sources and/or specific sectors in the following manner:

- a search in the entry field (here understood as all the headwords; a search will enable the user to access the entries matching the query) An entry may also contain a sub-entry with its own entry field. Let us present an example



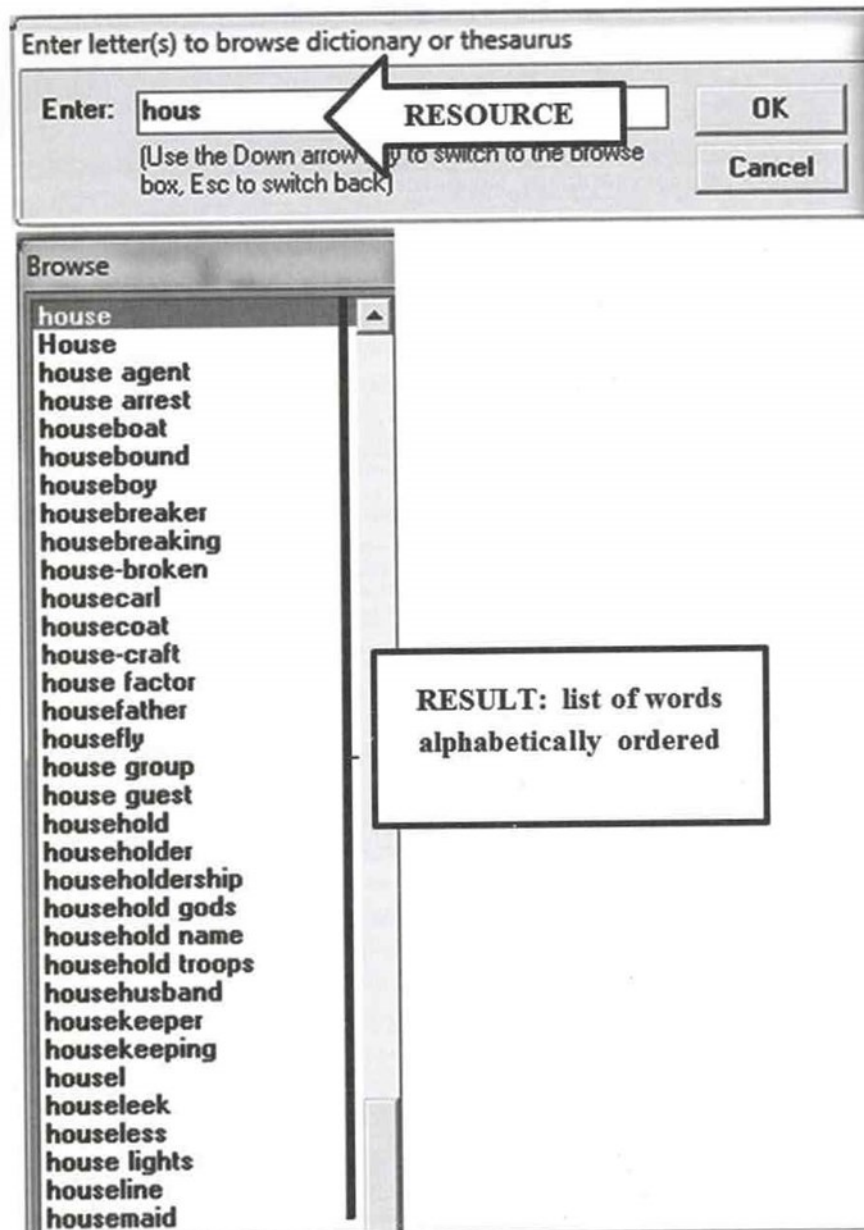


Figure 18: Search in the alphabetical list of entries (Pastor and Alcina, 2009: 118).

- a search in the content field (these include information in the text format in each entry, such as a definition, examples, lexical/semantic relations, corpus concordances). The user searches in order to find entries matching the query introduced.

Let us present some examples:

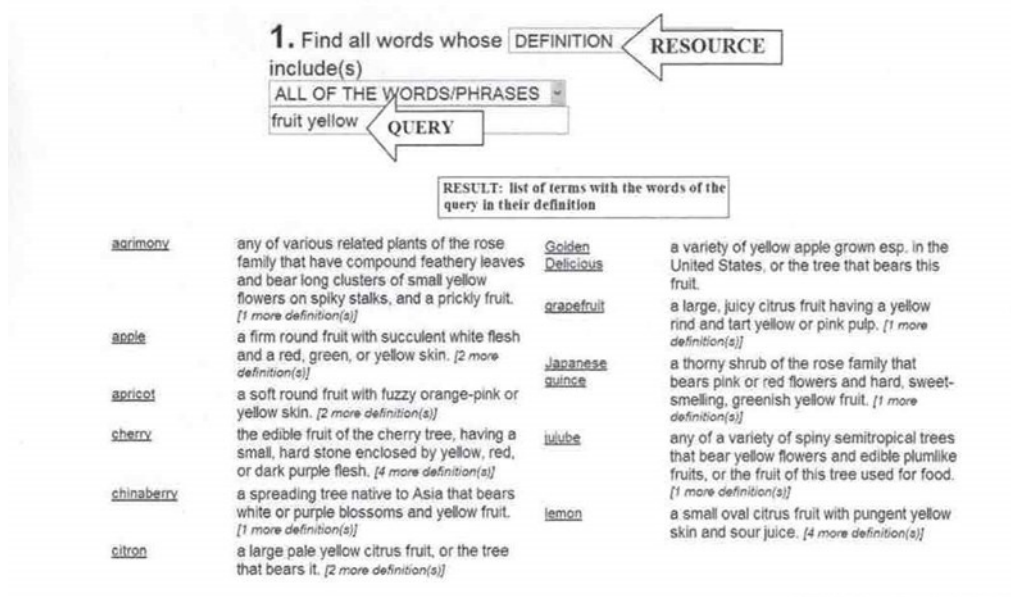


Figure 19: Search in the definition field. (Pastor and Alcina, 2009: 120)

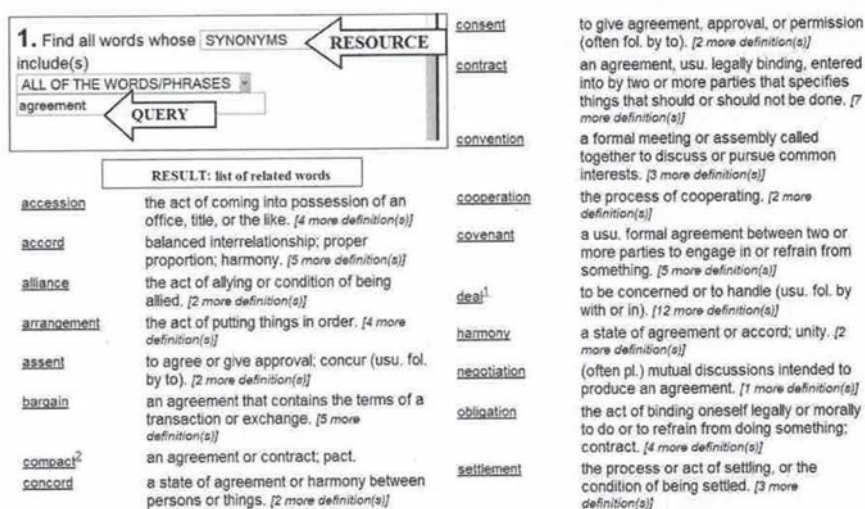


Figure 20: Search in the semantic relations field. (Pastor and Alcina, 2009: 121)

- search in the thematic field index (it is a list of hierarchically ordered areas, where the user can navigate and select the item to be consulted). It is mainly used to show a map of the thematic area. There are two types:

- the search by navigation where the user scrolls down the hierarchical structure of the thematic areas,

- the direct search where the user introduces a keyword in the work of reference,
- a search in the external links access field (this kind of search offers various links to external sources, such as web search engines as well as other works of reference).

**We found 43 dictionaries with English definitions that include the word *hall*:**  
*Click on the first link on a line below to go directly to a page where "hall" is defined.*

➔ **General** (29 matching dictionaries)

1. hall: American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language [[home](#), [info](#)]
  2. hall: Encarta® World English Dictionary, North American Edition [[home](#), [info](#)]
  3. hall: Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary, 11th Edition [[home](#), [info](#)]
  4. hall: Cambridge International Dictionary of English [[home](#), [info](#)]
- [...]

<b>EXTERNAL LINKS</b>
---------------------------

➔ **Art** (1 matching dictionary)

30. HALL: Shakespeare Glossary [[home](#), [info](#)]

➔ **Business** (2 matching dictionaries)

31. HALL: Bouvier's Law Dictionary 1856 Edition [[home](#), [info](#)]
32. hall: Legal dictionary [[home](#), [info](#)]

Figure 21: Search in the external links access field. (Pastor and Alcina, 2009: 128)

In turn, the result stage is reached when the dictionary user finds the information he needs. It is usually the headword with the information about the word (meaning,

grammatical information, pronunciation, etymology, context(s), collocations and related words, etc.). What is more, the user may obtain a list of words. There are search techniques (a search in content fields or a search in the thematic field index) that may create a list of words. What is beyond, visual dictionaries retrieve images classified in the thematic field index. Recently, more and more dictionaries include audio files in their entries, that provide the pronunciation of the words. Occasionally, audio files help the user to understand the meaning of a particular lexical item, in the same manner a definition does.

As to the use and usability of electronic dictionaries, in a survey conducted in 2011, EFL students indicated reliability of the content, its clarity, up-to-date content as well as the speed as the most important features. As less important they specified such features as long-term accessibility, links to other dictionaries, adaptability, suggestions for further browsing and multimedia content (Nessi, 2016: 580). At the same time, users' attitudes towards electronic dictionaries are changing. Another survey conducted also in 2011 showed that when instructed properly how to use multimodal interfaces, the users value them higher (Nessi, 2016: 580).

Recently, as indicated by Dziemianko (2018: 675) the future of electronic dictionaries has been widely discussed. One of the conclusions reached at the eLex conference in 2013 is that "the future of dictionaries does not concern dictionary products, but rather lexicographic assets integrated with other products to add value". Very important, as it seems, is the fact that "dictionaries of the future will, to an increasing extent, be regarded as digital assistants" (Nielsen, 2013: 370). Without any doubt, automatic lexicographic work will expand in the years to come. This means that the lexicographer's work will focus on selecting material available on the web (cf. Rundel, 2012). The lexicographer's work will involve selecting linguistic data on the basis of choices made by software. Müller-Spitzer (2013: 378), cited in Dziemianko (2018:676), raises yet another following crucial aspect: 'it can also be predicted that electronic dictionaries and corpora will be brought together to an even greater extent than is the case nowadays. There are already dictionaries which give links to corpora, show more corpus examples or feature customised tools which make it possible to explore corpora'.

In conclusion, we would like to point out that research into the usability of electronic dictionaries (including the user-friendliness of the microstructure) is becoming extremely important (cf. Dziemianko, 2010). Also important is the academic discussion

concerning the quality of dictionaries of this type, the development of evaluation criteria as well as the debate on the role of users in the process of dictionary compilation.

## REFERENCES

### Dictionaries and Encyclopaedias:

- Baker, E.A.** (1932) *New English Dictionary*. London: Odhams Press Limited.
- Burkhanov, I.** (1998) *Lexicography. A Dictionary of Basic Terminology*. Rzeszów: WSP.
- Byram, M.** (ed.). (2001) *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Language Teaching and Learning*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Cowie, A.** (eds.) (2005) *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Crowther, J.** (2000) *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Danesi, M.** (2000) *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Semiotics, Media and Communications*. Toronto: The University of Toronto Press.
- Doroszewski, W.** (1958-1969) (red) t. I-XI. *Słownik Języka Polskiego*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Dubisz, S.** (eds.) (2003) *Uniwersalny Słownik Języka Polskiego*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Hartmann, R.R.K. and James, G.** (1998) *Dictionary of Lexicography*. London: Routledge.
- Hausmann, F.J., Zgusta, L. and Reichmann, O.** (1991) *An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography*. Berlin: Walter De Gruyter.
- Plóciennik, I. and Podlawska, D.** (2007) *Słownik wiedzy o języku*. Bielsko Biała: Wydawnictwo Park Sp.
- Polański, K.** (1995) *Encyklopedia Językoznawstwa Ogólnego*. Wrocław: Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich.
- Richards, J., C., Schmidt, R.** (2002) *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Roget, P.M.** (1852) *Dr Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*. Oxford: The Clarendon Press.
- Room, A.** (1986) *Dictionary of Britain*. London: Cassell.
- Rundell, M.** (2002) *Macmillan English Dictionary*. London: Macmillan Publishers.
- Sinclair, J.** (2009) *Collins Cobuild Advanced Dictionary of Contemporary English* (6th edition). New York: Harper Collins.
- Summers, D., Rundell, M.** (2005) *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. London: Pearson Education Limited.
- Szulc, A.** (1984) *Podręczny słownik językoznawstwa stosowanego*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Walter, E.** (eds.) (2008) *The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary 3<sup>rd</sup> edition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

### Other Works:

- Aitchison, J.** (1987) *Words in the Mind*. Oxford: Blackwell.

- Akhamova, O., S.** (1969) *Slovar' lingvisticskikh terminov*. Second Edition. Moscow: Sovietskaja Encyklopedija.
- Algeo, J.** (1995) 'British and American biases in English dictionaries' [in:] Kachru, B. and H. Kahane (eds), *Cultures, Ideologies and the Dictionary*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag. pp. 205-212.
- Al Kasimi, A.M.** (1997) *Linguistics and Bilingual Dictionaries*. Leiden: E.J. Brill.
- Atkins, S.** (2002) 'Then and Now: Competence and performance in 35 years of lexicography', [in:] Braasch, A. and Povlsen, C. (eds). *Proceedings of the 10th EURALEX International Congress*. København: Center for Sprogteknologi. pp. 1-28.
- Atkins, S., Rundell, M.** (2008) *The Oxford Guide to Practical Lexicography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Atkins, B.T.S. and Varantola, K.** (1997) 'Monitoring dictionary use', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*, vol. 10.1, pp.1-45.
- Bae, S.** (2011) 'Teacher –training in dictionary use: voices from Korean teachers of English'. [in:] Akasu, K. and Uchida, S. (eds) *Lexicography: Theoretical and Practical Perspectives. Papers Submitted to the Seventh ASIALEX Biennial International Conference*. Kyoto: The Asian Association for Lexicography.
- Bailey, R. W.** (1996). Old Dictionaries, New Knowledge. *Digital Studies/le Champ Numérique*, (4). DOI: <http://doi.org/10.16995/dscn.199>
- Bartmiński, J.** 1984. 'Definicja leksykograficzna a opis języka' [in:] Polański, K. (red.) *Słownictwo w opisie języka*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego. pp. 9-21.
- Bartmiński, J.** 1988. „Definicja kognitywna jako narzędzie opisu konotacji. [in:] Bartmiński, J. (red.) *Konotacja*. Lublin: Wydawnictwo UMCS. pp. 169-183.
- Battenberg, J. D.** (1991) *English Monolingual Learners' Dictionaries: A User – Oriented Study*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Bergenholtz, H. and Tarp, S.** (1995) (eds) *Manual of Specialised Lexicography*. Amsterdam-Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Bergenholtz H., and Tarp, S.** (2002) 'Die modern lexicographische Funktionslehre: Diskussionsbeitrag zu neuen und alten Paradigmen, die Wörterbücher als Gebrauchsgegenstände verstehen.' [in:] *Lexicographica* 18 (2002): pp. 253-63.
- Bergenholtz H., and Tarp, S.** (2003) 'Two opposing theories: on H.E. Wiegand's recent discovery of lexicographic functions.' [in:] *Hermes* 31 (2003): pp. 171-196.
- Bergenholtz, H. and S. Tarp** (2010) 'LSP lexicography or terminography? The lexicographer's point of view' [in:] P. A. Fuertes-Olivera De (ed.) *Specialised Dictionaries for Learners*. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, pp. 27-38.
- Béjoint, H.** (1981) 'The foreign student's use of monolingual English dictionaries: A study of language needs and reference skills', [in:] *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 2.3, pp.207- 215.
- Béjoint, H.** (2000) *Modern Lexicography: An Introduction*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Béjoint, H.** (2010) *The Lexicography of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bogaards, P.** (1996) 'Dictionaries for learners of English', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography* 9/4: pp. 277-320.
- Bogaards, P.** (2003) 'Uses and users of dictionaries' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 26-33.
- Booij, G.** (2003) 'The codification of phonological, morphological, and syntactic information' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp 251-296.
- Burkhanov, I.** (1999) *Linguistic Foundations of Ideography: Semantic Analysis and Ideographic Dictionaries*. Rzeszów: Wydawnictwo Wyższej Szkoły Pedagogicznej.

- Burkhanov, I.** (2003) 'Pragmatic specifications: Usage indications, labels, examples; dictionaries of style, dictionaries of collocations' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp.102-113.
- Carter, R. and McCarthy, M.** (1998) (eds.) *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. London: Longman Group Publishers.
- Carter, R. and McCarthy, M.** (1998) (eds.) *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. London: Longman Group Publishers.
- Cowie, A.P.** (1978) 'The place of Illustrative materials and collocations in the design of a learner's dictionary', [in:] P. Strevens (ed.) *In Honour of A.S. Hornby*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.127-139.
- Cowie, A.P.** (1981) *Lexicography and its Pedagogic Applications*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag.
- Cowie, A.P.** (ed.) (1987) *The Dictionary and the Language Learner. Papers from the EURALEX Seminar at the University of Leeds, 1-3 April 1985*. Tübingen: Niemeyer, pp.60-80.
- Cowie, A.P.** (1990) 'Language as words: Lexicography', [in:] Collinge, N.E. (ed.) *An Encyclopaedia of Language*. London: Routledge, pp.671-700.
- Cowie, A.P.** (ed.) (1998) *Phraseology: Theory, Analysis, and Applications*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cowie, A.P.** (1999) *English Dictionaries for Foreign Learners: A History*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cowie, A.P.** (1999b) 'Learners' dictionaries in a historical and theoretical perspective', [in:] Herbst, T. (ed.) *The Perfect Learners' Dictionary?* Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, pp.111-138.
- De Schryver, G.-M.** (2003) 'Lexicographers' Dreams in the Electronic-Dictionary Age', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography* 16(2): pp.143–199.
- Dolezal, F.T. and McCreary, D.R.** (1999). *Pedagogical Lexicography Today. A Critical Bibliography on Learners' Dictionaries with Special Emphasis on Language Learners and Dictionary Users*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Dubois, J. and Dubois, C.** (1971) *Introduction à la lexicographie: Le dictionnaire* Paris: Larousse.
- Dziemianko, A.** (2010) 'Paper or Electronic? The Role of Dictionary Form in Language Reception, Production and the Retention of Meaning and Collocations', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography* 23(3). pp.257–273.
- Dziemianko, A.** (2018) 'Electronic dictionaries', [in:] Fuertes – Oliviera, P., A. (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of Lexicography*. London and New York: Routledge. pp. 663-683.
- Fox, G.** (1997) 'The case for examples', [in:] Sinclair, J. (ed.), *Looking up*, pp.137-149. London: Collins.
- Fuertes-Oliviera, P. A. and Bergenholtz, H.** (eds.) (2011) *e-Lxicography: The Internet, Digital Initiatives and Lexicography*. London and New York: Continuum.
- Fuertes – Oliviera, P., A.** (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of Lexicography*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Geeraerts, D.** (1986) *Woordbetekenis – een overzicht van de lexical semantiek*. België: Acco.
- Geeraerts, D.** (1996) 'Entfernung, Fortschritt und Unrdlständigkeit: das historische Verhältnis von Lexicologie und Lexicographie', [in:] Konerding, K-P. and Lehr, A. (eds.) *Linguistische Theorie und Lexicographische Praxis*, pp.7-15. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag.
- Geeraerts, D.** (2003) 'Meaning and definition' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 83-93.
- Gleason, H.A.** (1962/1975), 'The relation of lexicon and grammar', [in:] Householder, F.W. and Saporta, S. (eds.) *Problems in Lexicography*. Bloomington: Indiana University, pp.85-102.



- Golałek, R., Stachurska A.** (2020) *On sociolinguistic variation: the case causative verbs as markers of gender and power in F.Scott Fitzgerald's prose*. Radom: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Technologiczno – Humanistycznego w Radomiu.
- Gouws, R.H.** (1996) 'Bilingual dictionaries communicative equivalence for a multilingual Society', [in:] *Lexicos*, 6., pp.14-31.
- Gouws, Rufus H., Heid, U., Schweickard, W., and Wiegand H. E. (eds.)** (2013) *Dictionaries: An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography. Supplementary Volume: Recent Developments with Focus on Electronic and Computational Lexicography*. Berlin, Boston, MA: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Grzegorzczkova, R.** (1990) *Wprowadzenie do semantyki językoznawczej*. Warszawa: PWN.
- Hanks, P.** (2005) 'Johnson and modern lexicography', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*, vol. 18.2, pp.243-266.
- Hausmann, F.J. and Gorbhan, A.** (1998) 'COBUILD and LDOCE II. A comparative review', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*, vol.2.1, pp.44-56.
- Hartmann, R.R.K.** (1983). 'The bilingual learner's dictionary and its uses', [in:] *Multilingua*, vol. 2 (4), pp.195-201.
- Hartmann, R.R.K.** (1987) 'Four perspectives in dictionary use: a critical view of research methods', [in:] Cowie, A. P. (ed.) *The Dictionary and the Language Learner: Papers from the EURALEX Seminar at the University of Leeds*, vol. 1-3 April 1985. Lexicographica Series Maior 17, pp.11-28. Tübingen: Niemeyer Verlag.
- Hartmann, R. R. K.** (1999) 'Case study: the Exeter University survey of dictionary use. [in:] R.R.K. Hartmann (ed.) *Thematic Network Project in the Area of Languages. Sub – project 9: Dictionaries. Dictionaries in Language Learning*. Berlin. Freie Universität, pp. 36-52.
- Hartmann, R.R.K.** (2001) *Teaching and Researching Lexicography*. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.
- Hartmann, R.R.K. and James, G.** (1998) *Dictionary of Lexicography*. London: Routledge.
- Harvey, K. and Yuill, D.** (1997). 'A study of the use of a monolingual pedagogical dictionary by learners of English engaged in writing', [in:] *Applied Linguistics*, vol.18 (3), pp.253-273.
- Hausmann, F.J.** (1986) 'The training and professional development of lexicography in general', [in:] Ilson, R.F. (ed.) *Lexicography: An Emerging International Profession*. Manchester: University Press, pp.137-154.
- Hausmann, F.J. and Wiegand, H.E.** (1989) 'Component parts and structures of general monolingual dictionaries: A survey', [in:] *WDD*, vol. 5.1, pp.328-60.
- Henne, H.** (1973) 'Lexicographie', [in:] Althaus, H.P., Henne, H. and Wiegand, H.E. (eds.) *Lexikon der Germanistischen Linguistik*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, pp.590-601.
- Ilson, R.F.** (1983). 'Etymological information: Can it help our students?', [in:] *ELT Journal* 37, pp. 76-82.
- Ilson, R.F.** (1992) 'Lexicography', [in:] Bright, W. (ed.) *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp.330-332.
- Jackson, H.** (1988) *Words and their Meaning*. London: Longman.
- Jackson, H.** (2002) *Lexicography: An Introduction*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Jackson, H. (2013) (ed.)** *The Bloomsbury Companion to Lexicography*. London: Bloomsbury.
- Kay, J. Ch.** (1998). 'Historical Semantics and Historical Lexicography: Will the two ever meet?' [in:] *Lexicology, Semantics and Lexicography. Selected Papers from the Fourth G.L. Brook Symposium, Manchester, August 1998*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp.53-69.
- Klotz, M.** (1999) 'Word complementation in English learners' dictionaries – A quantitative study of CIDE, COBUILD2, LDOCE3 and OALD5', [in:] Herbst, T. and Popp, K. (eds.), *The Perfect Learners' Dictionary (?)*. Tübingen: Niemeyer, pp.33-43.
- Klotz, M. and T. Herbst (2016)** *English Dictionaries*. Berlin: Erich Schmidt Verlag.

- Kobayashi, C. (2007)** Comparing electronic and printed dictionaries: Their effects on lexical processing strategy use, word retention, and reading comprehension. [in:] **Bradford-Watts, K. (ed.)**, JALT2006 Conference Proceedings. Tokyo: JALT.
- Knudsen, T. and A. Sommerfelt. (1958)** 'Principles of unilingual dictionary definitions', [in:] Sivertsen (eds.) *Proceedings of the Eighth International Congress of Linguists*. Oslo: Oslo University Press, pp.92-115.
- Kortmann, B. (2005)** *English Linguistics: Essentials Anglistik-Amerikanistik*. Berlin: Cornelsen Verlag.
- Kruyt, T. (2003)** 'Multifunctional databases: Their multiple use' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (eds.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 194-2003.
- Landau, S. (1989)** *Dictionaries. The Art and Craft of Lexicography*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lehr, A. (1996)** 'Electronic dictionaries'[in:] *Lexicographica* 12, pp. 310-317.
- Leech, G., Nesi, H. (1999)** 'Moving towards perfection: the learners' (electronic) dictionary of the future" [in:] *The Perfect Learner's Dictionary*, edited by Thomas Herbst and Kerstin Popp, Tübingen: Niemeyer Verlag. pp. 295-309.
- Lew, R. (2004)** Which Dictionary for Whom? Receptive Use of Bilingual, Monolingual and Semi-bilingual Dictionaries by Polish Learners of English. Poznań: Motivex.
- Lew, R., Dziemianko, A. (2006)** Non-standard dictionary definitions: what they cannot tell native speakers of Polish. *Cadernos de Tradução* 18, pp. 275-294.
- Lew, R. (2011)** 'Online Dictionaries of English', [in:] Fuertes-Olivera, P., A. and Bergenholtz H. (eds.), pp. 230-250.
- Malkiel, Y. (1962)** 'A Typological Classification of Dictionaries on the Basis of Distinctive Features' [in:] Housholder, F., W. & Saporta, S. (eds.) *Problems in Lexicography*. Bloomington: Indiana University. pp. 3-24.
- Marello, C. (1987)** 'Examples in contemporary Italian bilingual dictionaries' [in:] A.P.Cowie (ed.) *The Dictionary and the Language Learner: Papers from the EURALEX Seminar at the University of Leeds, 1-3 April 1985* (Lexicographica. Series Maior 17). Tübingen: Max Niemeyer, pp. 224-37.
- McArthur, T. (1986)** *Worlds of Reference: Lexicography, Learning and Language from Clay Tablet to the Computer*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McArthur, T. (1998)** *Living Words: Language, Lexicography and the Knowledge Revolution*. Exeter: Short Run Press: Ltd.
- McArthur, T. (1992)** *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McArthur, T., Kernerman, T. (1998)** *Lexicography in Asia*. Tel Aviv: Password Publishers.
- Mittmann, B. (1999)** 'The treatment of collocations in OALD5, LDOCE3, COBUILD2 and CIDE', [in:] Herbst, T. and Popp, K. (eds.) *The Perfect Learners' Dictionary (?)*, Tübingen: Niemeyer, pp.101-111.
- Moerdijk, A. (2002)** *Het Woord als Doelwit*. Amsterdam: Vossiuspers.
- Murphy, L. (2010)** *Lexical Meaning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Müller-Spitzer, C. (2013)** 'Textual Structures in Electronic Dictionaries Compared with Printed Dictionaries: A Short General Survey', [in:] Gouws, R. H., Heid, U., Schweickard, W. and Wiegand, H. E. (eds.), pp. 367-381.
- Nessi, H. (2000)** 'Electronic dictionaries in second language vocabulary comprehension and acquisition: the state of the art' [in:] Heid et al. (eds.) pp.839-847.
- Nessi, H. (2016)** 'The Demands of Users and the Publishing World: Printed or Online, Free or Paid for?' [in:] Durkin, P. (ed.) *The Oxford Handbook of Lexicography*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. pp. 579-590.
- Nielsen, S. (1994)** *The Bilingual LSP Dictionary. Principles and Practice for Legal Language*. Tübingen:

Gunter Narr Verlag.

**Nielsen, S.** (2013) "The Future of Dictionaries, Dictionaries of the Future", in Jackson, H. (ed.), *The Bloomsbury Companion to Lexicography*. London: Bloomsbury. pp. 355–372.

**Nuccorini, S.** (1994) "On Dictionary Misuse", in M. Willy and W. Meijs (eds.), *EURALEX'94*: pp. 586-597.

**Osuchowska, D.** (2007) *In Search of the Collocation Value of EFL Dictionaries*. Rzeszów: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Rzeszowskiego.

**Quemada, B.** (1972) 'Lexicology and Lexicography', [in:] T.A. Sebeok (ed.) *Current Trends in Linguistics*. The Hague: Mouton, vol. 9/I, pp.395-475.

**Pastor, W., Alcina, A.** (2013) Researching the Use of Electronic Dictionaries [in:] Jackson, H. (ed.) *The Bloomsbury Companion to Lexicography*. London: Bloomsbury. pp. 97- 147.

**Pawley, A.** (1985) 'Lexicalization', [in:] Tannen, D. (ed.) *Georgetown University Roundtable of Language and Linguistics*. Washington, D.C: Georgetown University Press, pp. 98-120.

**Piotrowski, T.** (1994) *Z zagadnień leksykografii*. Warszawa: PWN.

**Ptaszyński, M.** (2010) 'Theoretical Considerations for the Improvement of Usage Labelling in Dictionaries: A Combined Formal-Functional Approach' [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*. 23(4), 2010, pp. 411-442.

**Quirk, R.** (1974) 'The social impact of dictionaries in the UK', [in:] McDavid, R. and Duckett, A. (eds.) *Lexicography in English*, New York: Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, vol. 211, pp.76-88.

**Rey – Debove, J.** (1971) *Etude linguistiques et sémiotique des dictionnaires français contemporains*. The Hague: Mouton.

**Rey, A.** (1982) *Encyclopédies et dictionnaires*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France.

**Rey, A.** (1986) 'Training lexicographers: Some problems', [in:] Ilson, R.F. (ed.) *Lexicography: An Emerging International Profession*. Manchester: University Press, pp.93-100.

**Rey, A.** (1987) 'Le dictionnaire culturel'[in:] *Lexicographica*, vol. 3, pp.3-50.

**Riemer, N.** (2010) *Introducing Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

**Rundell, M.** (1989) 'Dictionary use in production', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*, vol. 12, pp.35-53.

**Rundel, M.** (1998) 'Recent Trends in English pedagogical lexicography' [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography* 11/4, pp. 315-342.

**Rundell, M.** (2012) 'The Road to Automated Lexicography: An Editor's Viewpoint', [in:] S. Granger, S. and Paquot, M. (eds.), pp. 15–30.

**Scholfield, P.** (1982) 'Using the dictionary for comprehension' [in:] *TESOL Quarterly*, vol.16 (2), pp.185-194.

**Siepmann, D.** (2006) 'Collocation, colligation and encoding dictionaries. Part 2: Lexicographical aspects' [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*, vol.19 (1), pp.1-39.

**Stachurska, A.** (2018) 'On the Codification of Usage by Labels', [in:] *JoLaCe: journal of language and cultural education*. - Nitra: SlovakEdu, 2018. - ISSN 1339-4084. - Vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 89-107

**Stachurska, A.** (2019) 'Językoznawcze aspekty słownika współczesnej angielszczyzny'[in:] *Radomskie studia filologiczne*/ed. Buda, A., Stachurska, A. - Radom: Uniwersytet Technologiczno-Humanistyczny, 2019. - ISSN 2299-1131. - No. 1/8/2019 (2019), pp. 47-66.

**Summers, D.** (1988) 'The role of dictionaries in language learning', [in:] Carter and McCarthy (eds) *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*. London: Longman, pp.111- 125.

**Stein, G.** (1989) 'Illustrations in dictionaries', [in:] *International Journal of Lexicography*, vol.4.2, pp.99-127.

- Stein, G.** (2002) *Better Words: Evaluating EFL Dictionaries*. Exeter: Short Run Press Ltd.
- Stark, M.** (1999) *Encyclopaedic Learners' Dictionaries: A Study of their Design Features from the User Perspective*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.
- Sterkenburg, P.** (2003) 'The dictionary: Definition and history' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 3-17.
- Stockwell, P.** (1992) *Language and Linguistics: The Key Concepts*. London and New York: Routledge Publishers.
- Svensén, B.** (2009) *A Handbook of Lexicography: The Theory and Practice of Dictionary – Making*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swanepoel, P.** (2003) 'Dictionary typologies: A pragmatic approach' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 44-69.
- Svensén, B.** (1993) *Practical Lexicography: Principles and Methods of Dictionary-making*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Svensén, B.** (2009) *A Handbook of Lexicography*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tarp, S.** (2004) 'Basic problems of learner's lexicography' [in:] *Lexicon 14 (AFRILEX-reeks/series 14: 2004)*, pp. 222-252.
- Tomaszczyk, J.** (1979) Dictionaries: users and uses. [in:] *Glottodidactica* 12, pp. 103-119.
- Tono, Y.** (1991) 'A good dictionary user: what makes the difference?', [in:] Ito, K. *et al.* (eds.) *Recent studies on English language teaching*. Tokyo: Yumil Press, pp.229- 253.
- Urdang, L.** (1963) 'Review of problems in lexicography', [in:] *Language*, vol. 39, pp. 86-94.
- Varantola, K.** (2002) 'Use and usability of dictionaries: common sense and context sensibility?' [in:] M.H. Corréard (ed.) *Lexicography and Natural Language Processing A Festschrift in Honour of B.T.S. Atkins*. Euralex, pp. 30-44.
- Varantola, K.** (2003) 'Linguistic corpora (databases) and the compilation of dictionaries' [in:] P. van Sterkenburg (ed.) *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company. pp. 228-249.
- Włodarczyk-Stachurska, A., Kleparski, G., A.** (2014) *The rudiments of lexicography and sociolinguistics*. Radom: University of Technology and Humanities.
- Włodarczyk-Stachurska, A.** (2014) 'Some remarks on recent trends in lexicography' [in:] *JoLaCe: journal of language and cultural education*. - Nitra: SlovakEdu, 2014. - ISSN 1339-4045. - Vol. 2, no. 3 (2014), pp. 120-138
- Włodarczyk-Stachurska, A.** (2015) 'On the problems in EFL lexicography' [in:] *European journal of social and human sciences*. Banská Bystrica: Univerzita Mateja Bela v Banskej Bystrici, Filozofická fakulta, 2015. - ISSN 1339-6773. - Vol. 6, no. 2 (2015), pp. 123-179
- Wierzbicka, A.** (1985) *Lexicography and Conceptual Analysis*. Ann Arbor: Karoma Publishers, Inc.
- Weinreich, U.** (1980) 'Dictionaries of the future: A set of parameters for descriptive semantics', [in:] Weinreich, U. (ed.) *On Semantics*. Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press, pp.260-280.
- Wiegand, H. E.** (1983) 'Synonyme in den Grossen Alphabetischen Wörterbüchern der Deutschen Gegenwartssprache', [in:] Askedel, J.O. *et al.* (eds.) *Festschrift für Laurits Saltreit*. Oslo: Univeritetsforlaget, pp.215-231.
- Wiegand, H.E.** (1984) 'On the structure and contents of a general theory of lexicography', [in:] Hartmann, R.R.K. (ed.) *LEXeter '83 Proceedings. Papers from the International Conference of Lexicography at Exeter, 9-12 September 1983*. Tübingen: Lexicographica Series Maior, vol.1, pp.13-31.
- Wiegand, H.E.** (1989) *Wörterbücher in der Diskussion 1. Vorträge aus dem Heidelberger*

*Lexicographischen Kolloquium*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.

**Wiegand, H.E.** (1996) *Wörterbücher in der Diskussion I. Vorträge aus dem Heidelberger Lexicographischen Kolloquium*. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.

**Wiegand, H.E.** (1998) *Wörterbuchforschung*. Berlin: De Gruyter.

**Wierzbicka, A.** (1971) *Kocha, lubi, sznuje. Medytacje semantyczne*. Warszawa: Wiedza Powszechna.

**Wierzbicka, A.** (1985) *Lexicography and Conceptual Analysis*. Ann Arbor: Karoma.

**Wittgenstein, L.** (1953) *Philosophical Investigation*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

**Zaenen, A.** (2002) 'Musings about the electronic dictionary', [in:] Corr  ard, M., H. Lexicography and Natural Language Processing: A Festschrift in Honour of B. T. S. Atkins. Stuttgart: EURALEX. pp. 230–244.

**Zgusta, L.** (1971) *A Manual of Lexicography*. The Hague: Mouton.

**Zgusta, L.** (1986) 'Idle thoughts on an idle fellow; or, vaticinations on the learners' dictionary', [in:] M.L. Tickoo (ed.) *Learners' Dictionaries: State of the Art*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, pp.1-9.

**Zgusta, L.** (1989) 'The role of dictionaries in the genesis and development of the standard', [in:] F.J. Hausmann *et al.* (eds) *Wörterbücher. Dictionaries. Dictionaries. An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography*. Berlin: De Gruyter, pp.70-79.

**Zgusta, L.** (1989b) 'Idle thoughts on an idle fellow; or, vaticinations on the learners' dictionary', [in:] M.L. Tickoo (ed.) *Learners' Dictionaries: State of the Art*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, pp.1-9.

**Żmigrodzki, P.** (2008) *Słowo- słownik- rzeczywistość*. Krak  w: Lexis.

Autorka:

doc. Anna Stachurská, PhD.

Názov publikácie:

Selected aspects of lexicography. A diachronic approach

Vydavateľ:

Pedagogická fakulta Trnavskej univerzity v Trnave

Recenzenti:

prof. Henryk Kardela

doc. PhDr. Klaudia Bednárová Gibová, PhD.

ISBN 978-80-568-0528-2