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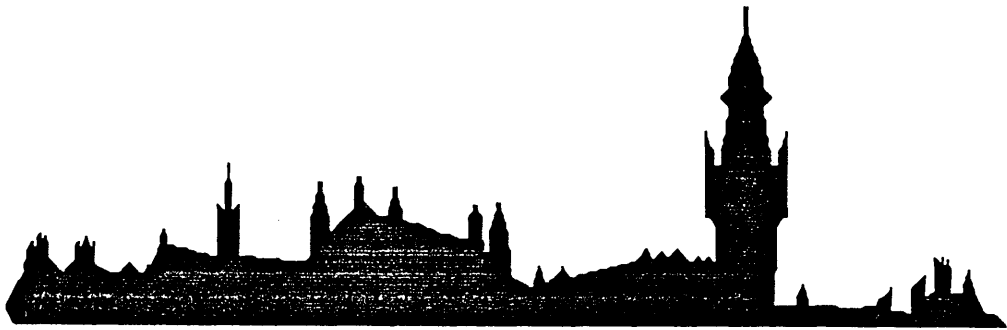
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THE ROLE OF THE DICTIONARY IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
ENGLISH- ARABIC DICTIONARIES

BY

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Abstract

The existing bilingual dictionaries are ill-equipped to satisfy any but the general needs of the learner. As soon as they are applied to the special needs of a certain category of learners, they are certain to reveal functional inadequacies. Some of these inadequacies are inherent in the structure of the bilingual dictionary (Bujas, 1980); others are external; others are inherent in the two languages involved.

In order to improve this unsatisfactory situation, new dictionaries especially designed to answer the needs of the learner should exist. A dictionary for foreign learners should not be a tool for comprehension only. It should also meet the communicative needs of the learner. It should not only tell him what is possible but also what is impossible, taking into consideration the findings of error analysis of that type of learner and other relevant disciplines. The linguistic background of the learner should be taken into consideration.

In this study an attempt is made to suggest improvements in the existing English-Arabic dictionaries which claim to be designed for learning English as a foreign language. It is also hoped that the proposal included in the study will lead to the advancement of pedagogical dictionaries in general and constitute

adequate evaluation criteria for teachers to base their recommendation on and for advanced learners to decide which dictionary to buy.

Chapter One explores the relationship between lexicography and language learning and how they affect each other.

In Chapter Two a revision of the previous classifications of dictionaries is provided to show that no serious attempt has ever been made to classify pedagogical dictionaries and how they should be. New ideas are presented for a sound classification which is intended not to classify the existing dictionaries but to show how learners' dictionaries should be compiled.

Chapter Three deals with the need for meaning discrimination in bilingual dictionaries and how it is achieved in the existing dictionaries. New proposals are set out.

Chapter Four deals with the phonological information in bilingual dictionaries. The attitude taken here is that the dictionary should indicate the phonological behaviour of a word within a context. Intonation should also be indicated. New proposals are set out.

Chapter Five deals with grammar and the dictionary. The attitude taken is that the dictionary should provide morphological and syntactic information.

But the linguistic background of the learner should be taken into consideration in deciding the type, amount and the way of presentation. The grammatical information in English-Arabic dictionaries is analysed. New solutions are proposed.

Chapter Six presents the problem of usage. The stand taken here is that dictionaries should tell the learner on which occasions words are appropriate for use and when they are not, through the use of codes and glosses.

Chapter Seven deals with the problem of lexical combinations and how they are handled by dictionaries. Bilingual dictionaries limit themselves to words in isolation. They often ignore the lexical combination that a word may enter into such as collocations, idioms and compounds.

A key to Arabic Transcriptions

1.	ʔ	ء	glottal stop
2.	b	ب	voiced bilabial stop
3.	d	د	voiced dental stop
4.	D	ض	voiced emphatic dental stop
5.	ʒ	ذ	voiced flat interdental fricative
6.	ʒ	ظ	voiced flat emphatic interdental fricative
7.	ʃ	ث	voiceless flat interdental fricative
8.	ɣ	ع	voiced pharyngeal approximant
9.	f	ف	voiceless labiodental fricative
10.	g	غ	voiced uvular fricative
11.	h	هـ	voiceless laryngeal fricative
12.	H	ح	voiceless pharyngeal fricative
13.	j	ج	voiced palato-alveolar affricate
14.	k	ك	voiceless velar stop
15.	l	ل	dental lateral
16.	m	م	bilabial nasal
17.	n	ن	dental nasal
18.	q	ق	voiceless uvular
19.	r	ر	alveolar trill
20.	s	س	voiceless grooved alveolar fricative
21.	s	ص	voiceless grooved emphatic alveolar fricative
22.	ʃ	ش	voiceless palatal fricative
23.	t	ط	voiceless emphatic dental stop

24.	t	ت	voiceless dental stop
25.	w	و	bilabial labio-alveolar glide
26.	x	خ	voiceless velar fricative
27.	y	ي	palatal glide
28.	z	ز	voiced grooved alveolar fricative

Vowels

1.	i		short close front unrounded vowel
2.	ii		long close front unrounded vowel
3.	a		short open central unrounded vowel
4.	aa		long open central unrounded vowel
5.	u		short close back rounded vowel
6.	uu		long close back rounded vowel

(Adopted from the principles of the International Phonetic Association; also Abdulbaqi, 1981)

Abbreviations

ALD	Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current Usage.
COBUILD	Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary.
COD	Concise Oxford Dictionary.
EARD	The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary.
EFL	English as a Foreign Language.
EMD	Elias Modern Dictionary.
ESL	English as a Second Language.
GID	Reader's Digest Great Illustrated Dictionary.
IPA	International Phonetic Association.
LDOCE	Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.
Man	AL-Manar English-Arabic Dictionary.
Maw	AL-Mawrid English-Arabic Dictionary.
ODCIE	Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English.
OEAD	Oxford English Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage.
OED	Oxford English Dictionary.
WNID3	Webster's Third New International Dictionary.

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CHAPTER ONE

Lexicography and Language Learning

1.1. Introduction

Lexicography is as old as foreign language learning. Many nations started their lexicographical traditions "with bilingual dictionaries or with glossaries of hard words which have a similar status" (Zgusta, 1986: 139). The oldest dictionaries were made in Iraq for learning purposes. The Assyrians came to Babylonia about three thousand years ago and had difficulty in understanding the Sumerian signs. They translated the Sumerian items into their language. The translation was made by the schoolboys and their teachers to serve their needs for a full comprehension of the foreign language (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 1).

The spread of Islam and the need of the non-native speakers of Arabic (the language of Koran and Hedith) to study Arabic led to the existence of the first Arabic dictionary (Haywood, 1960:3).

English dictionaries appeared for learning purposes too. Their origin may be traced to the Anglo-Saxon period and to the beginning of Christianity in the south of England when priests and scholars compiled lists of difficult Latin words (Wells, 1973: 1). Sir Randolph Quirk in his opening remarks in the Fulbright Colloquium on the emergence of lexicography as an international profession, which was held in London in 1984, emphasized

this fact:

The need to translate from Latin to the vernacular and to teach vernacular-speaking youngsters enough Latin to make them effective monks and priests caused the rapid development of pedagogical and glossarial skills. In short, we learnt to be lexicographers by writing dictionaries of Latin (Quirk, 1986: 2).

The aim of the early dictionaries, as we have seen, was to facilitate the comprehension of the foreign language and they were bilingual dictionaries. So naturally the policy and the information included should cope with facilitating comprehension.

The success of bilingual dictionaries and their wide spread affected even the theories of language learning. The grammar translation method owed the bilingual dictionary an essential part of its principles. This is shown clearly in the principles of the method, which may be summarized as follows:

1. Language is nothing more than words and idioms tied together by grammatical rules. So to learn a foreign language one has to memorize lists of words and their meanings together with grammatical rules.

2. All languages describe the same object or concept but in different words. So learning the foreign language is considered the ability to achieve the simple substitution of one symbol for another. The only difference between languages is the different symbols they offer to represent such objects or concepts.

3. Rules of grammar are universally applicable since all languages have verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc. (Younis, and Al-Hamash 1976: 30).

Recently, owing to the advances in science, technology and communications, learning a foreign language developed new dimensions. People began to use the foreign language for both oral and written communications. Bilingual dictionaries which were intended for comprehension were considered of little help. There was a need for a change. Change came when the direct method was introduced as a kind of revolt against the grammar translation method and its use of the mother tongue. The principles of this method may be summarized as follows:

1. Learning the foreign language can be achieved through direct association between the object or the concept and the foreign symbol. So the use of the mother tongue should be eliminated.

2. A foreign language can be learnt in the same way as the native language is learnt.

3. Language is basically oral. Writing is subsidiary to speech.

4. Language learning is the acquisition of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing (Younis, and Al- Hamash 1976: 33).

Learners were advised to use monolingual dictionaries. Bilingual dictionaries could not cope with the philosophy of the direct method because once they did they would stop being bilingual dictionaries. Yet bilingual

dictionaries continued to exist and make good sellers owing to the huge market and the learners' demands.

The learner has now two types of dictionaries and he has to choose one. Formally the learner is advised by his teachers to use monolingual dictionaries while actually he uses a bilingual one.

In 1979 Tomaszczyk in his questionnaire found that even advanced learners used bilingual dictionaries:

I found that not only did the beginning and intermediate FL learners rely on bilingual dictionaries almost exclusively, but also secondary school and university teachers used them more than L2 and other monolingual dictionaries even though the latter were available to them (Tomaszczyk, 1983: 46).

The present writer practised advising students to use monolingual dictionaries but in vain. They used bilingual dictionaries secretly at home.

1. 2. The Difference between Monolingual and Bilingual Dictionaries.

In order to understand the embarrassment caused by the previous situation let us discuss the advantages of each, taking the advantages of the monolingual dictionary as they are stated by Underhill as a starting point (Underhill, 1985: 104).

1. Underhill points out that when using monolingual dictionaries, "users have to think in English".

This is a very important point. It is obvious that foreign learners usually start learning English after they have mastered their native language and after they have built deep-rooted linguistic habits in their minds. So learning any foreign language will be thought of in concepts of the mother tongue. The foreign learner, consequently, develops the habit of thinking in the mother tongue first and then translating what he has thought of into the foreign language. That is the reason why we find the majority of foreign learners lack fluency in the foreign language. Unfortunately bilingual dictionaries through their misuse of the mother tongue reinforce this habit and thus they affect one of the four skills which are to be acquired by the foreign learner in learning the foreign language- speaking.

2. Underhill states that when using a monolingual dictionary, "meanings have to be understood in terms of other English words promoting a more rapid expansion of passive vocabulary".

This is another very important point. Meaning is treated differently in the two types of dictionaries. In bilingual dictionaries the dominant idea is that different languages provide different terms for the same meaning and that by matching the terms we can help the learner in understanding and producing the foreign language. They seem not to know that the meaning of the word is not inherent in the word itself but in the effect of that word on other words within a certain context. It

is also very difficult to find exact equivalents within the language itself (Palmer, 1976). Consequently it will be more difficult to find this equivalence between the two languages, especially if they belong to different families as English and Arabic do. Even if we succeed in doing that we have to tell the learner the associations of words which affect their meanings, such as collocations and idiomatic expressions, because the foreign learner has not grown up with the language and has no automatic built-in awareness of the association of words (Osselton, 1979: 121).

The existing bilingual dictionaries provide the learner with a run of partial equivalents in his mother tongue; thus they increase his familiarity with the near synonyms in his own language, which he does not need to know because his ultimate aim is to acquire the foreign language. This acquisition cannot be achieved through increasing his knowledge of near synonyms in his mother tongue.

Monolingual dictionaries increase the amount of the vocabulary of the learner because, when searching for the meaning of a word, the learner will come across many other words. So his vocabulary will increase unconsciously. But the process involves some disadvantages:

a. In their search for the meaning of a certain word, learners may come across words which are more difficult

than the word to be explained. Here the learners will be disappointed since they resort to the dictionary to find solutions to their semantic problems and not to be faced by other problems. Moreover this process is time-consuming and it has a bad psychological effect on the learners. So either they give up, a procedure which they usually follow, or turn to a bilingual dictionary where there is no need to search for the meaning of new words when looking for the meaning of a certain word.

If the dictionary tries to explain the meaning of words in easy and controlled vocabulary, though it is difficult to do so, it will sacrifice accuracy for simplicity which is the curse of many existing monolingual dictionaries (Weinreich, 1962: 26). Moreover the definitions written within a restricted lexicon are usually long and awkward.

West states:

In defining with an unlimited vocabulary, we can select one or two apt words which match the idea. In defining with a small vocabulary, we are compelled to explain at length. The less the user knows, the more carefully we have to explain and the more difficult it is to explain (West, 1935: 13).

b. In their attempt to define words by using controlled vocabulary, dictionaries usually fall into the trap of circularity (Hill, 1985: 115), a process which is more frustrating and disappointing for the learner because sometimes it happens that the learner does not know the meaning of the synonyms provided. When he refers to the same dictionary, he usually finds the first word provided

as the synonym of the second and so on. In this case the learner can do nothing but refer to a bilingual dictionary.

3. Underhill believes that "many high frequency function words which are virtually inaccessible via a bilingual dictionary may be given an appropriate treatment" in a monolingual dictionary.

This constitutes one of the basic defects of the bilingual dictionary. Bilingual dictionaries try to provide meaning for function words, which is almost impossible and which ends in meaningless statements as we shall see in Chapter Three. So in dealing with function words, bilingual dictionaries emphasize their meanings and ignore the most important thing-their function; a process which is quite misleading for the foreign learner and usually makes him produce the foreign language in an unnatural way, since the function words are considered the cement of the foreign language. In monolingual dictionaries there is a good chance to explain the function of such words since the foreign language itself is used.

4. Underhill states that in monolingual dictionaries "learners may get insight into the precision of defining and describing meaning and constructing example sentences as well as learning to cope with definitions which at first seem unclear".

This point has a pedagogical value. The learner here

will be trained for reading comprehension and he will find it easy to understand what he reads in the long run. But such definitions often have their own defects which constitute a good reason for making the learner resort to a bilingual dictionary. Sometimes it is very difficult to define familiar things. Monolingual dictionaries tend to give long formal definitions. For example the meaning of "water" is given in the Webster's New World Dictionary:

The colorless transparent liquid occurring on earth as rivers, lakes, oceans ..etc. and falling from clouds as rain: chemically a compound of Hydrogen and oxygen, H₂O, it freezes forming ice at 32 F (0 C) and boils forming steam at 212 F (100 C).

This is quite time-consuming for the foreign learner, who may not have time to read this long formal definition and moreover to comprehend it and to his utmost surprise he finds that it is "water".

Bilingual dictionaries have superiority over monolingual dictionaries in explaining the meanings of such universal concepts which are found in every community and words which have exact equivalents in the mother tongue of the learner and which can be served by providing one word in the target language. David Wright states:

In case of words like door and chess, they can be given one word equivalents in the foreign

language instead of the long-winded and unrealistic definitions which the monolingual dictionary is obliged to offer (Wright, 1981: 338).

5. Underhill believes that in monolingual dictionaries "the example sentences themselves not only exemplify typical usage but also provide an alternative access to the meaning either to substantiate the definition or support it where the example is found to be clearer."

This type of information is much needed by the learner in order to be able to produce English which is acceptable in the community of the foreign language. It is only recently that the lexicographers of bilingual dictionaries have begun to realize this fact and begun to provide example sentences, though not extensively.

6. Underhill states that "the ability to use the monolingual dictionary effectively allows students the satisfaction of exploration through the dictionary, a sense of sufficiency and greater confidence in their ability to solve problems for themselves."

An important objection to this point is that we cannot guarantee that the foreign learner can use the monolingual dictionary effectively unless he is trained in how to do that, a process which is still in its infancy.

As we have seen above both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries fail to help the learner in learning the foreign language adequately.

1.3. The Existence of Learners Dictionaries

The second World War gave the impetus to the existence of a new philosophy of language learning because the major nations were faced with the need to teach foreign languages to large numbers of people and make them acquire them fairly quickly. This made linguists think deeply about how to facilitate the learning of a foreign language and the learner's specific needs. Lexicographers, who were always trying to cope with the findings of linguistics and methodology, felt the need for a change. The pioneer work of Hornby, *An Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary*, which was published in Japan in 1942, and its publication in the U.K by the Oxford University Press under the title "Advanced Learners' Dictionary of Current English" in 1948, was considered a complete success since it had "arisen out of the experience and research of practical teachers" (Brown,1978:Vii).

The success and the wide spread of the ALD and its earlier version in Japan made eminent linguists look forward to having dictionaries especially adapted to the needs of foreign learners.

In 1948 Hill pointed out the importance of adapting the dictionary to the needs of the foreign learner (Hill, 1948: 9). But the proposal of Hill was not fully understood by both linguists and lexicographers until a group of eminent linguists and lexicographers held their

historic conference in 1961 at Indiana State University. One of the conclusions of that conference was that dictionaries should be adapted to the needs of the learners (**see 1.4**).

However the needs of learners are spread over a wide area, so in order to be exact in our estimation of the needs of the different categories of learners we have to classify both the learners and their needs. Cowie has proposed that the needs of learners can be classified according to two criteria: their language needs and their reference skills (Cowie, 1981). But their language needs differ according to their linguistic background. For example, the needs of Arabic-speaking learners are not the same as those of a Chinese-speaking learner.

Strangely enough there are few available studies of the needs and the reference skills of any category of learner. Tomaszczyk states:

Of the main factors determining the shape of a commercial dictionary, the needs of the audience they are designed for have thus received very little attention (Tomaszczyk, 1979: 103).

This is due to the fact that lexicographers think of foreign learners as one type of users only, whatever linguistic background they have. Jean Dubois rightly noted that:

While until comparatively recently lexicographers had scarcely looked beyond the

type of user-person of cultivated literary taste, sharing the same educational and linguistic background as themselves- more recently they have been led to acknowledge that the choice of the linguistic information in a dictionary and the means of access provided to it will vary with the class of user for whom the dictionary is intended (Dubois, 1981: 263).

The following studies of dictionary users have been carried out. Barnhart studied the use of the dictionary among a group of native speakers, namely college students in the U.S.A., in 1955. Quirk studied the use of the monolingual dictionary by English students in 1973. In 1979 Tomaszczyk studied the use of dictionaries by foreign learners. In 1980 Baxter studied the use of Japanese students of English-Japanese dictionaries. In 1982 Henry Béjoint studied the needs of French students in learning English as a foreign language. In 1982 Hartmann studied the use of bilingual dictionaries by English students. In 1985 Kipfer studied the needs and the skills of American high school pupils.

The dangerous thing here is not only the rareness of the studies but also the generalization of their conclusions. The results differ according to the linguistic background of the learner and the similarity between the foreign language and the mother tongue of the learner. The needs of each category of learners should be studied thoroughly.

1.4. The Need for the Study

Although some researches have been done on pedagogical dictionaries and their use, the results are still far from satisfactory. More research is needed before "the learner's dictionary can be improved in terms of content and presentation" (Hartmann, 1983: 195).

The time is now ripe enough to have new proposals for the advancement of dictionary making or in the words of Hartmann:

Linguists are apparently no longer reluctant to turn to solutions of practical problems; lexicographers have become more open than ever to new ideas; language teachers have begun to pay more attention to the lexical needs of their learners and publishers are willing to consider the special requirements of different users groups. (Hartmann, 1979 c: 185).

This new situation has resulted from the increasing recognition of the importance of lexicography, which might be traced as follows:

1. As a result of the increasing awareness of the importance of the dictionary as a teaching aid, a group of the most eminent linguists and lexicographers held their historic conference at Indiana State University in 1961. One of the main conclusions of their conference was that dictionaries should be adapted to the special needs of their users or in the words of Householder:

Dictionaries should be designed with a special set of users in mind and for their specific

needs e.g. an English dictionary for American users for help in speaking Arabic or a Thai-English dictionary for British and American users for help in reading Thai, etc. (Householder, 1962: 279).

2. The increasing public interest which was shown clearly in 1961 by the wide debate over the Webster's Third, a debate which was described as being wider than that caused by the war in Vietnam. Many people participated in that debate. Some of them are normally considered out of the linguistic circle. The debates were published in a book edited by James Sledd and W. R. Ebbitt called *DICTIONARIES AND THAT DICTIONARY* (Sledd: 1962).

3. The publication of a semantic theory in 1963 by Katz and Fodor (Katz and Fodor, 1963: 170-210) increased the awareness of linguists of the importance of lexicography through the storm of criticism which faced the theory.

4. In 1969 and as a result of the increasing importance of lexicography among linguists, Hill selected lexicography as a topic for his presidential address (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 8).

5. In 1970 the committee on lexicography of the present day English Group of the Modern Language Association and the Linguistic Society of America held a conference on lexicography at Columbus, Ohio. A group of the most eminent linguists studied the problems of lexicography and made new proposals.

6. On April 16, 1971, a group of linguists held a conference on lexicography at Indiana State University.

The focus of the conference was "the history and the study of lexicography" (Congleton et al, 1979: vii). Papers on North American lexicography were presented by the members of the lexicography committee of the Modern Language Association.

7. The Modern Language Association of America held a special seminar on lexicography in 1974 in New York. The main focus of the seminar was "Recent Research in Bilingual and Monolingual dictionaries."

8. In 1975 a conference was held at Indiana State University on lexicography. The main focus of the conference was "Historical Research on English Dictionaries". In this conference it was decided to organize "The Society for the Study of Dictionaries and Lexicography", which was later renamed as "The Dictionary Society of North America".

9. In 1975 the Modern Language Association of America held a special seminar at San Francisco. The focus of this seminar was also "Recent Research in Bilingual and Monolingual Lexicography".

10. In 1976 The Modern Language Association of America held a special session on lexicography in New York. The main focus was "Lexicography as a Science and as an Art".

11. In 1977 another similar session was held by The Modern Language Association of America in Chicago. The main focus was "Special Studies in Lexicography as a Science and as an Art".

12. In 1978 a seminar was held by the British Association of Applied Linguistics and almost half of the studies were relevant to lexicography or in the words of Hartmann:

Almost half of the contributions were explicitly or indirectly concerned with lexicographical problems in foreign language learning, including those of phonetic notation, structural contrasts and stylistic variants (Hartmann, 1979 c: 185).

13. In 1983 another historic international conference on lexicography was held at Exeter University from the 9th to the 12th of September. The conference brought over 270 lexicographers from thirty-nine countries. About the contributions Hartmann, who edited the proceedings in LEXeter 83, says:

The papers range in content, length, and style over a wide spectrum but they all exude a spirit of critical optimism toward the task still to be achieved in the field of dictionary making: systematic research is challenging received opinion (Hartmann, 1984).

In this conference it was decided to establish Euralex which reflects the international interest in lexicography as a profession.

14. In 1984 the Fulbright Commission organized a colloquium on "The Emergence of Lexicography as an International Profession" in London. The proceedings of the colloquium were published in a book edited by Robert

Ilson called "Lexicography, An Emerging International Profession" (Ilson, 1986).

15. In 1984 a Dictionary Research Centre was established at the University of Exeter.

1.5. The Aim of the Study

A dominant feature of almost all dictionaries now, both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, is the claim that their audience includes foreign language learners. English-Arabic dictionaries are famous for that claim. The dictionaries studied in this study for example state:

This dictionary has existed as a teacher of English and of help to those who intend to write in English in addition to its being a dictionary referred to by any one who intends to comprehend the meaning of a word or expression (Al-Mawrid).

Elias Modern Dictionary has been compiled chiefly with the view to the needs of Arabic-speaking students in their study of English. I hope, however, that English-speaking students of Arabic who have attained a fair degree of proficiency in that language will likewise find it more useful than any other English-Arabic dictionary published until now (Elias Modern Dictionary).

The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary is designed to meet the needs of Arabic-speaking learners of English at the intermediate and the post intermediate level (The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary).

Al-Manar English-Arabic Dictionary is an abridgement of a larger dictionary which was originally planned by the author. It is a medium dictionary with vocabulary of about forty thousand words and it is intended for use by students in secondary schools and in colleges and also by the general reader and the translator (Al-Manar).

The English-Arabic Dictionary of current usage is designed to meet the needs of those whose mother tongue is English and who are learning Arabic and of those whose mother tongue is Arabic and who are learning English. (The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage).

The aim of this study is to explore the role that the dictionary can play in the process of foreign language learning and to analyze the treatment of the general problems faced by Arabic-speaking learners by the English-Arabic dictionaries mentioned above. It will also propose new ideas which will lead to the advancement of bilingual dictionaries and the help they offer to the learner and change them into learners' dictionaries and not mere translation aids. I want to combine the best features of both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries so that we may get a more flexible teaching aid (Atkins, 1985: 22) and to bridge the gulf between the bilingual and the monolingual dictionary for the benefit of the foreign learner.

CHAPTER TWO

TYPES OF DICTIONARIES

2.1. Introduction

Dictionaries vary according to their purposes and the type of users they are intended for. Many linguists have tried to classify them but their classifications were pertinent to the existing dictionaries and not to what a dictionary should be; in other words they are not useful for the advancement of dictionary making.

In spite of the importance of pedagogical dictionaries in general and EFL dictionaries in particular, and in spite of the fact that dictionaries were first compiled for pedagogical purposes, and that school dictionaries are as old as lexicography, no-one has tried to classify them. In this chapter we shall survey the most eminent classifications of dictionaries and propose new ideas that will lead to the introduction of new dictionaries adapted to the needs of the learner.

2.2. A Survey of the Previous Classifications

2.2.1. Shcherba's monograph, published in 1940 by The Russian Academy of Science, is one of the earliest attempts to classify dictionaries (Garvin, 1947 :128). He sets up six contrasts between possible dictionary types. These contrasts are based on the most important features

of dictionaries. The first contrast is set between a normative dictionary and a reference dictionary. By a normative dictionary he means a dictionary which sets norms or which states how the language should be used and which is used by native speakers to check the use of words which they already know. A good example of this type is the dictionary of the French Academy. By a reference dictionary, Shcherba means a dictionary which is used by the native speaker to find the meanings of words in texts that are not completely understood by him.

The second contrast is set between an encyclopedia and a dictionary. This contrast is set on the grounds that proper names constitute a part of the language and that they should be included in a dictionary. The problem is that the information given by a dictionary about proper names should be distinct from the information which an encyclopedia gives about them.

The third contrast is between a normal dictionary and a thesaurus. By a normal dictionary Shcherba means both bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. By thesaurus, he means a general concordance which contains all the words of a language and a set of the quotations relating to them.

The fourth contrast is set between a normal dictionary, both bilingual and monolingual, and an ideological dictionary. By ideological dictionary, Shcherba means a synonymic dictionary or a thesaurus such as Roget's thesaurus. The deciding factor here is the way words are

arranged in a dictionary; an ideological dictionary is based on the arrangement of words as concepts while a normal dictionary is based on alphabetical arrangement.

The fifth contrast is between a monolingual and a bilingual dictionary. According to Shcherba, a monolingual dictionary explains elements which are not completely understood. That is to say it helps in checking what the user already knows. So a monolingual dictionary should be intended for native speakers. A bilingual dictionary helps the user to understand texts in the foreign language.

The sixth contrast is between a historical and a non-historical dictionary. According to Shcherba, in order to be a real historical dictionary, the dictionary should not only indicate etymological information but also the history of all words during a given period and their appearance and disappearance and changes.

2.2.2. One of the most eminent classifications is that of Malkiel (Malkiel, 1962:5). He classified dictionaries according to three criteria;

1. Range
2. Perspective
3. Presentation.

By range Malkiel means the size of the dictionary or how much the dictionary can include and the degree of concentration on lexical data and how much encyclopedic information is there.

By perspective he means the approach adopted by the compiler. Here Malkiel discerns three types of perspectives:

1. Diachronic (covering an extended time) vs. synchronic (covering one period of the history of the language).

2. The arrangement of its entries; whether it is alphabetic, or by concept like a thesaurus, or arbitrary or by any other means.

3. The level of tone. According to Malkiel the tone of the dictionary may be:

a. Detached (stating facts objectively)

b. Preceptive (normative and didactic)

c. Facetious (with teasing attitudes toward the language).

By presentation Malkiel means how materials are presented in the dictionary. Here he concentrates on definitions and how full they are. Some dictionaries give fuller definitions than others as in the case of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. He also concentrates on the verbal documentation (illustrative quotations and bibliographical references); whether graphic illustrations are used; and the presence of special features such as pronunciation and usage information.

2.2.3. T.A.Sebeok thinks that we have to consider the following seventeen properties and defining features if

we want to classify or decide the type of each dictionary (Sebeok, 1962, 363). According to him a dictionary may be:

1. Generated as is the case when a native lexicographer compiles a list of words to make a glossary.

2. Abstracted from texts and, since texts differ in one way or another, dictionaries differ according to:

3. The limit of the corpus

4. The internal diversity of the corpus.

5. Dictionaries may be classified according to whether they indicate simple forms or multiple forms. If the language is represented by multiple forms, the relationship between them may be based on:

6. Form or

7. Meaning.

Dictionaries differ according to the sequential arrangement of the entries, which may be based on:

8. Form

9. Meaning.

Cross reference can be arranged according to:

10. Form or

11. Meaning.

12. Documentation can be dialectical, geographical, or textual.

The remaining criteria are:

13. Exemplification

14. Glosses

15. Frequency data

16. Etymological comments

17. Encyclopedic commentary.

An important objection to the classification of Sebeok is that some of the seventeen defining features are "less intimately involved in the dictionary as a type", as Sebeok himself admits (Sebeok, 1962, 367). Al-Kasimi rightly noted that the seventeen defining features set by Sebeok fall into three subsets of relationships, namely:

1. The relationship between the dictionary and its sources.

2. The relationship between entries.

3. The relationship of the language components to each other (Al-Kasimi, 1977 : 14).

2. 2. 4. In 1971 Zgusta tried to classify dictionaries in what he called a skeleton of a classification (Zgusta, 1971, 220). He classified dictionaries according to the following contrast:

Encyclopedic vs. Linguistic.

According to Zgusta, the encyclopedic dictionaries are concerned with the denotata of the lexical units or as Zgusta himself put it:

They give information about the extralinguistic world, physical or non physical, and they are only arranged by the order of words by which the segments of the extralinguistic world are referred to (1971, 198).

The linguistic dictionary, on the other hand, is concerned with the lexical units of the language and all their properties.

It may be argued that all dictionaries cannot avoid encyclopedicity, especially bilingual dictionaries, which deal with two different cultures. Zgusta himself admits that "there are elements of encyclopedic character in almost all dictionaries" (1971 , 199).

Linguistic dictionaries in turn are divided by Zgusta into different types according to different criteria. The first one is whether the dictionary is diachronic or synchronic. According to Zgusta diachronic dictionaries are concerned with the history and with the development of words both in form and in meaning. A synchronic dictionary deals with the lexical stock of the language at one stage of its development.

The diachronic dictionaries are subdivided into historical dictionaries and etymological dictionaries. Historical dictionaries focus their attention on the changes occurring both in form and meanings. Etymological dictionaries focus their attention on the origin of words.

It seems very difficult to have a clear distinction between historical and etymological dictionaries owing to the overlapping between the two types. Zgusta himself admits that:

The two types are intermingled but in the majority of cases a preference for or the

prevalence of one point of view can be observed (1971: 200).

In the second division of linguistic dictionaries Zgusta recognizes general dictionaries on the one side and restricted dictionaries on the other. The terms of "general" and "restricted" are explained by Zgusta:

It would be totally wrong to think that general dictionaries try to contain "all the words" whereas restricted ones do not: the density of the entries and their numbers is a criterion that will be discussed in the section dealing with the size of the dictionaries. In reality it is the eligibility of a word (lexical unit) for being indicated in a "restricted" "special" dictionary which is restricted, because the compiler of the dictionary decides a priori that he will make his choice from only a certain part of the total lexicon of the language (1971: 204).

According to Zgusta the restriction can be based on any principle or a combination of principles determined by the compiler of the dictionary.

The present writer thinks that if we accept the explanation of Zgusta we shall scarcely find a dictionary which is not restricted.

General dictionaries are divided by Zgusta into standard descriptive dictionaries and overall-descriptive or informative dictionaries. By standard descriptive dictionaries he means:

Descriptive dictionaries of the standard national language as it is used at the point of

time when the dictionary is being compiled and to a degree also as it is expected to be used for some time after the publication of the dictionary (1971: 210).

In other words it states the norms of the language which are expected to last after its publication.

By overall-descriptive dictionaries he means dictionaries which:

Describe much more the standard national language as it is used at the time of compilation: they are not concerned with the future or norms. They are primarily used by users who wish to find information about the word they do not understand when reading a text (1971: 210).

This means that the former is a prescriptive dictionary while the latter is a descriptive dictionary.

Another important dimension used by Zgusta is the purpose of the dictionary. Dictionaries, according to Zgusta, may have severe restriction of their purpose. He uses the pedagogical dictionary as an example of this restriction. According to Zgusta, pedagogical dictionaries frequently contain more explanation or translations, more glosses etc. than general dictionaries (1971:214).

The number of languages used in the dictionary is also used as a criterion for classification by Zgusta. He recognizes monolingual dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and multilingual dictionaries.

Finally Zgusta uses the sizes of dictionaries as a

criterion for their classification. A big exhaustive dictionary is called a thesaurus. Another type is the big academic dictionary which differs from the thesaurus in the fact that it does not include all the occurrences of the lexical unit and all its occasional applications, and that not all the lexical units of the language are listed.

The third type is the medium-size dictionary which is of a more descriptive character because it cannot afford space for the inclusion of all words existing in a language.

The fourth type is the small dictionary, which is of a low generative power owing to the lack of quotations and examples. So only the important lexical units are included in this dictionary.

2.2.5. The first purpose-oriented classification was proposed by Al- Kasimi (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 17). He sets seven contrasts for the classification of bilingual dictionaries:

1. Dictionaries for speakers of the source language vs. dictionaries for speakers of the target language.
2. Dictionaries of the literary language vs. dictionaries of the spoken language.
3. Dictionaries for production vs. dictionaries for comprehension.
4. Dictionaries for human user vs. dictionaries for machine translation.
5. Historical dictionaries vs. descriptive dictionaries.

6. Lexical dictionaries vs. encyclopedic dictionaries.

7. General dictionaries vs. specialized dictionaries.

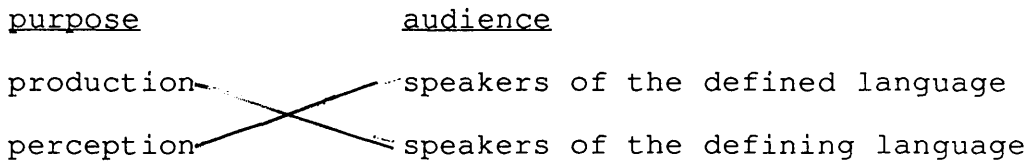
An important objection to Al-kasimi is that he has distributed the user's interrelated needs among many types of dictionaries. It is scarcely possible to imagine a user who needs a dictionary for comprehension only owing to modern advances in means of communications. Yet under Al-Kasimi's system, the user will have to buy different types of dictionaries to serve his different needs. He has to buy a dictionary for production and a dictionary for comprehension, a dictionary for the spoken language and another one for the literary language etc.

Another important objection is that it is impossible to have a complete contrast between a lexical dictionary and an encyclopedic dictionary because we need encyclopedic information in all types of dictionaries.

A good feature of Al-kasimi's classification is that he has made a clear distinction between two important types: the dictionary for speakers of the source language and the dictionary for speakers of the target language. In his justification for this distinction Al-Kasimi says that this criterion affects the selection of entries and the language of the general directions used. What Al-kasimi seems to have forgotten is the presentation of materials, which should be deeply affected by the linguistic background of the user, as we shall see

throughout this study.

2.2.6. In 1982 Ard classified bilingual dictionaries in a "functional typology", according to the needs they served, of four (2 x 2) types (Ard, 1982 : 6).



Ard thinks that the functional type of the dictionary is not necessarily the one included in the preface because publishers naturally need their dictionaries to appear to meet as many needs as possible (1982: 6). Instead he suggests that we have to decide the type according to the following:

- a. What language are the grammatical explanations given in?
- b. For which words is the grammatical information given?
- c. The number of equivalents given, since this may decide whether the dictionary is intended for comprehension or for production.
- d. Whether bases for choosing between the different equivalents are given since this helps the user to produce the language.

There is nothing new in the classification of Ard since it also classifies existing dictionaries depending on their features and not on how they should be.

2.2.7. Landau proposes eleven criteria for the

classification of dictionaries (Landau, 1984: 5).

1. The number of languages the dictionary contains. The difference here, according to Landau, is not only in the number of languages involved but in the essential purpose of the dictionary. For example the purpose of the bilingual dictionary is to help the user who understands one language but does not understand the other. So two types of users may be thought of. For example English-Arabic dictionaries may be used by Arabic-speaking users to understand English and by English-speaking users to understand Arabic, a process which leads to the necessity of changing the treatment of information so that it is especially adapted in its presentation and type to the needs of the user.

2. The second criterion is the manner of financing. Here Landau recognizes two types of dictionaries. The first is the scholarly dictionaries, by which he means dictionaries financed by governments or foundations, grants, or universities. They are not intended to make money such as The Middle English Dictionary and The Historical Thesaurus of Glasgow University.

The other type is commercial dictionaries which are financed by investors.

The market and the profits aimed at affect the compilation of a dictionary. In scholarly dictionaries the lexicographer has more freedom than in commercial dictionaries.

3. The age of the users. According to this criterion Landau classifies dictionaries into school dictionaries and adult dictionaries. He thinks that school dictionaries should be graded into three stages according to the age and the level of the pupils and to do so we need a frequency count of words so that the most frequent words are presented in a primary dictionary. This criterion affects the compilation of the dictionary. The difference here is not only in the size but also in the explanation of the meanings of words, the language used in their definitions, the use of pictorial illustrations etc.

4. The size of the dictionary is used by Landau to classify dictionaries. Here Landau recognizes the following types:

- a. Unabridged dictionaries
- b. Semi-unabridged dictionaries
- c. Desk dictionaries
- d. Pocket dictionaries

According to Landau space affects the information included in a dictionary and how extensively information is dealt with.

5. Landau also classified dictionaries according to the scope of coverage by subject. He discerns two types of dictionaries:

- a. General dictionaries
- b. Special field dictionaries

6. The limitation of the aspects of the language

covered. Here Landau recognizes dictionaries which are restricted to a special aspect of the language, such as slang dictionaries, pronunciation dictionaries, synonym dictionaries etc.

8. The period of time covered by their lexicons. Though Landau thinks that there is no pure synchronic dictionary, since it takes a long time to compile a dictionary and by the time it is published it cannot be considered a pure synchronic dictionary, he classified dictionaries into synchronic and diachronic dictionaries.

9. The linguistic approach chosen. According to this criterion, Landau classified dictionaries into descriptive and prescriptive dictionaries.

10. The means of access. Dictionaries, according to Landau, vary in the manner they provide access to the information. He recognizes four basic ways of classification:

- a. The alphabet
- b. By the form of the entry word
- c. By semantic features
- d. By no system at all.

11. The primary language of the market. Landau states that both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries differ in the primary or first language of the users. Dictionaries intended to be used by learners whose first language is not English, which are called EFL or ESL dictionaries, should provide fuller information.

Landau considers EFL dictionaries similar to children's

dictionaries in the fact that they are designed to help their users to produce the language as well as to understand it. He also thinks that EFL dictionaries should be graded into primary, intermediate, and advanced.

The present writer thinks that Landau has tackled an important point: that dictionaries should be especially adapted to the needs of the user. However, he has forgotten that foreign learners' needs are not identical to the needs of native speakers owing to their linguistic competence in their mother tongues, as we shall see later on.

As we have seen, the previous classifications have neglected pedagogical dictionaries. They are mentioned by Zgusta in his classification as a type of "restricted dictionaries" with no indication of their compilation or what they should be. The writer who tackles them best is Landau who refers to them as school dictionaries. But an important objection to Landau is that he has considered pedagogical dictionaries similar to the dictionaries for native learners. This conveys a regrettable fact: that native speakers are not sensitive to the needs of foreign learners. So Hartmann was right when he noted:

It is frustrating how little we know objectively about why and how, how often and how successfully or unsuccessfully, dictionaries are used in the process of acquiring another language (Hartmann, 1983 d: 196).

Unlike the native speaker, the foreign learner expects that the dictionary will satisfy his needs for grammar, usage, collocations, idioms, and cultural information in addition to meaning. J. Whitcut rightly noted that:

The foreign learner needs, and can be taught through the dictionary, more grammar, more usage, and collocations, more idioms, more cultural information.....(Whitcut, 1986: 112).

The reasons behind such needs are different for foreign and native speakers. While native speakers need grammar for analysis foreign learners need it for synthesis (Hornby, 1965: 108). Consequently the type of information needed by the two types of learners differs and they will not be satisfied by the same dictionary. While a new lexical unit presents only the problem of its meaning to the native learner, it presents extra problems to the foreign learner such as range of application, usage, collocations, and cultural information relevant to it, as we shall see throughout this study. Consequently the dictionary is more urgently needed by foreign learners than by native learners. It is referred to whenever a foreign learner reads English and it is such an indispensable tool for the comprehension and production of English that foreign learners keep it with their English books. So it is quite logical and practical that pedagogical dictionaries should have their own classification which will recognize the difference

between the needs of native and foreign learners and how these needs should be satisfied in a dictionary. Hartmann rightly noted:

The foreign learner well deserves his own type of dictionary which must be distinct from the historical, terminological and translator's dictionary (Hartmann, 1983 d: 196).

2.3. The New Proposals

The new proposed criteria for the classification of pedagogical dictionaries are not intended for the classification of existing pedagogical dictionaries. They are intended to show how pedagogical dictionaries should be. The present study is an invitation to lexicographers to think seriously about the problems faced by learners of English, whose needs are not well-served in the present dictionaries. The present writer intends to make dictionaries teach English, or in the words of Tomaszczyk:

The pedagogical dictionaries should go beyond the fact that they are reference books, their purpose should be to teach or help the student learn something in addition to supplying him with information (Tomaszczyk, 1981: 289).

Consequently the dictionary should not only satisfy the needs of the listener and the reader but also those of the writer and the speaker (Steiner, 1976: 146).

The present writer thinks that the most important factors affecting dictionaries are the finance of the

dictionary, the proficiency of the foreign learner in the foreign language, and the linguistic background of the learner. These points are fully discussed below.

2.3.1. The Finance of the Dictionary

Dictionaries differ in the manner of financing. Following Landau (see 2.2.7) we may isolate two types of dictionaries here: dictionaries financed by non-profit making organisations, such as governments, and dictionaries financed by investors.

The way dictionaries are financed affects their compilation. Some publishers or investors do not employ people who have studied lexicography. Edward Gates states:

Laurence Urdang employs mostly freelance writers. For him performance, not educational level attained, is the test. Indeed he wrote that he would not like to hire a staff editor who had studied lexicography and might waste his time arguing how the dictionary should be made (Gates, 1986: 84).

But in fact that is not the heart of the matter. It is economic problems that make publishers rely on freelance temporary lexicographers without sufficient training in lexicography. Full-time permanent lexicographers who are highly experienced will cost him a lot and reduce his profits.

Another regrettable situation is reported by Hausmann:

A freelance lexicographer was commissioned by a publisher to compile a school dictionary based on an existing dictionary. He presented a manuscript compiled in a lexicographically ideal manner. The publisher however declared it too good for his purpose and as such too costly, too extravagant and therefore not for the market. Despite these objections, the publisher bought the manuscript so as to prevent it ever being published elsewhere (Hausmann, 1984: 109).

Another effect of the method of finance on the compilation of learners' dictionaries is that dictionaries try to have a wide audience in order to ensure that they will sell well. They usually claim that they are especially adapted to satisfy the needs of different types of users. In English-Arabic dictionaries for example, we notice that this claim is widely made (see 1.5). The two best sellers in the Arab World, namely Al-Mawrid and Elias Modern Dictionary, both made such claims. Al-Mawrid is said to be intended to be used by learners, translators and writers, while Elias Modern Dictionary claims that it can satisfy the needs of both English-speaking learners of Arabic and Arabic-speaking learners of English.

The present writer thinks that such claims are far from being practical and logical for the following reasons:

1. One of the major conclusions of the conference of Indiana State University in 1961 was that the dictionary should be compiled with the type of intended user in

mind, that is to say, it should take the needs of the the user into consideration (see 1.4). If we have in mind more than one type of user and we want to satisfy all their needs, we shall end with a dictionary which is not satisfactory for any type, since it is impossible to serve the needs of more than one type of user in one and the same work. In the words of R. S. Harrell "It is clearly impossible to pay equal attention to both X speakers and Y speakers in one and the same work" (Harrell, 1962: 51).

What Harrell stated is widely acknowledged by both linguists and lexicographers (Householder, 1962: 279) but we still find the majority of existing dictionaries claiming that they are especially adapted to the needs of more than one type of user.

The dilemma is well described by Alain Rey:

If somebody wants to compile a dictionary of synonyms or a thesaurus in a given language, he must know whether he is mainly working for the native speakers of the language or for foreign learners. His publisher has an invariable answer to the dilemma: he must write for both in order to boost the sales of the book. Theoretical impossibilities are rather unimportant in this case (Rey, 1986: 96).

This suggests that Mary Haas was mistaken when she stated that "often the compilers are not aware of the problems involved" (Haas, 1962 : 47). Lexicographers, as we have seen, are aware of the problems involved but the

decision is not theirs. It is the decision of the publisher who wants more customers in order to attract greater profits.

J. C. Wells confessed that in compiling one recent major monolingual dictionary, GID 1984, he tried to make a good contribution to the phonological information in the dictionary but the decision of the publisher not to include detailed explanation reduced the usefulness of his ambitious contribution (Wells, 1985 :46).

A learners' dictionary has a unique character and additional duties and moreover it has a vertical market (it is intended for a limited number of users). Such a dictionary will not satisfy publishers. Since the publisher plays a decisive role in the way dictionaries are compiled, it is quite logical to conclude that dictionaries will never achieve what they should achieve, especially in foreign language learning, where many dimensions should be covered, unless we release the craft from this difficult situation. The alternative is financing learners' dictionaries by the governments of the countries where English is taught. There seems no logical reason why governments spend on textbooks and not on dictionaries. Such a step would produce results beyond the expectations of any individual.

2.3.2. The Proficiency of the Learner and his

Background

Another important factor affecting the compilation of

pedagogical dictionaries is the proficiency of the learner in the language and his linguistic background. On this basis we may isolate the following types of dictionaries:

1. Dictionaries for the primary native learner vs. dictionaries for the primary foreign learner.

2. Dictionaries for the intermediate native learner vs. dictionaries for the intermediate foreign learner.

3. Dictionaries for the advanced native learner vs. dictionaries for the advanced foreign learner.

The gradation of the lexicon of any language seems quite logical and practical for the following reasons:

1. It is impossible to answer the needs of all users in one and the same book as we have seen earlier. The user should be well-defined so that we may accurately estimate his needs. This fact has been stressed by Euralex, which set up a working party in 1984 on the use of bilingual and monolingual adult learners' dictionaries. The working party started its work by asking the user to identify himself, his age, his sex, profession and how long he has been studying English (Whitcut, 1986: 111). This identification will show the way for us to grade the lexicon for him. So not only dictionaries should be classified but also their users.

2. This gradation will save space for the very much needed information which is usually poorly-served in many, if not all, the existing dictionaries, owing to the

lack of space.

3. It will make easy access to the information possible. Instead of having 18 different senses in the entry for "lay", as in Al-mawrid, where it is very difficult for the learner to discriminate between the different senses and find the sense which fits the context at hand, we may have a few senses which are expected to be needed by the learner in his primary stage. As the learner advances in his studies, he is supposed to have mastered the senses in the previous stage and may find it easier to discriminate meanings and to choose what he needs fairly quickly.

This gradation is not identical in the case of foreign and native learners for the following reasons:

1. Gradation of the lexicon for the native speaker should depend on the frequency of the word in the community of the language, which may be decided by the various frequency counts available. For the foreign learner we should consider not only the frequency of the words in the community of the language but also their frequency in the textbooks taught in the area. In the majority of foreign countries, textbooks include some national and historical affairs of the native country, a process which leads to the introduction of words which are not frequent even to the native speaker.

2. From a pedagogical point of view the gradation in foreign learners' dictionaries should cover not only the gradation of the lexicon of the foreign language but also

the use of the mother tongue, since it is impossible to begin with a monolingual dictionary in the primary stage. The dictionary for foreign learners in the primary stage should be bilingual. Professor Sir Randolph Quirk in a preface to the new addition of LDOCE states:

In the early stages of learning a foreign language one of our essential tools is a good bilingual dictionary, linking words of the language we know well to the corresponding words in the language we are learning (LDOCE, 1987).

The danger lies not in the use of the mother tongue but in its potential misuse (Al-kasimi, 1977: 103). It is a real misuse if we use the mother tongue all the time and for all levels of learners, since the use of the mother tongue in this way will make the learner develop the habit of thinking in the mother tongue first and then translating what he has thought of into the foreign language, a process which tends to make him hesitate a lot when producing the foreign language. In such a case the association between the object or concept and the linguistic form will be indirect; the foreign language will be thought of in concepts of the mother tongue. Quirk rightly noted:

But as our competence and confidence increases we reach a point at which the bilingual dictionary is inadequate to our needs. It ties us down to a perpetual exercise of translation, inhibits us from free creative expressions in the foreign language we are now

mastering, and simply does not give us enough information on the meaning and the grammatical constraints of words we want to use (LDOCE, 1987).

The best solution is the gradual weaning of the foreign learner from bilingual dictionaries through the reduction of the use of the mother tongue in the intermediate and advanced stages. The intermediate dictionary for foreign learners should avoid the use of the mother tongue as much as possible.

An advanced dictionary for foreign learners should be a monolingual dictionary which uses the mother tongue when:

1. It saves time and energy, for instance in avoiding formal definitions like the definition of "horse" in ALD (see 1.2). Instead of giving such a long formal definition we may give a one word equivalent in the mother tongue of the learner.

2. When there is an exact equivalent in the mother tongue e.g. sky /samaa?/.

Unfortunately the mother tongue is misused in many of the existing bilingual dictionaries which claim to be intended for foreign learners. In English-Arabic dictionaries, for example, the dominant feature is word-for-word equivalents. It is only recently that lexicographers have begun to realize the danger of doing this and to add definitions in the foreign language. But such a process is not practical because foreign learners will look for definitions in the mother tongue. They will

neglect definitions provided in the foreign language if both are available.

The treatment of material in dictionaries intended for native learners differs from that in dictionaries intended for foreign learners because of their different linguistic backgrounds. The dictionaries for use by the foreign learner should have a double duty; they have to help the learner comprehend and produce the foreign language in a natural way and at the same time they have to fight against the negative interference of the mother tongue.

After a case study of two foreign learners, one of whom was an Arabic-speaking learner, Ard concluded that even without using bilingual dictionaries "factors of the lexicon of one's native language can influence composing in a second language" (Ard, 1982: 14).

It is not a matter of more detailed information that marks the difference between the the two types of dictionaries as is usually claimed (Zgusta, 1971: 214). The dictionary intended to be used by foreign learners should make full use of the findings of error analysis of the proposed user's language. It should concentrate on the points of weakness in his production and warn him against the possible pitfalls: it should not tell him what is possible only; it should tell him what is impossible as well, a process which is used by hardly any existing dictionary. Henry Béjoint rightly noted that the best dictionary for foreign learners should not only

include more detailed information on syntax and collocations but also "a device on pitfalls to avoid" (Béjoint, 1981:210). For example in a dictionary intended for Arabic-speaking learners, the entry for apologize should have the following illustrative examples pointing out the difference in prepositional use in the two languages:

He apologized to me (not from me).

The company apologized to us for the delay (not about the delay).

This leads us to conclude that no learners' dictionary can be absolutely useful to all learners whatever linguistic background they have. The speakers of each language should have their own especially adapted dictionary that copes with their linguistic needs; a good dictionary for Chinese-speaking learners of English is not suitable for Arabic-speaking learners of English.

An important objection to the existing learners' dictionaries is that they ignore the linguistic background of the learner rather than recognizing that the selection of information to be included in a dictionary should be affected by the intended user and his linguistic background (Dubois, 1981: 236). This ignorance of the linguistic background of the user tends to make learners' dictionaries mere reference books, not teaching aids.

CHAPTER THREE

MEANING DISCRIMINATION IN BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

3.1. Introduction

Bilingual dictionaries claim that they are coordinating the lexical items of one language with those of another. In the words of Zgusta:

The basic purpose of bilingual dictionaries is to coordinate with the lexical units of one language, those lexical units of another which are equivalent in their lexical meaning (Zgusta, 1971: 249).

So they are based on the controversial principle of interlingual equivalence. According to this principle meanings are seen as universal concepts which are found in all languages. The only difference is in the words provided in the other language (Lado, 1957: 77). Mufwene rightly noted that:

Most bilingual dictionaries are based on the controversial assumption that every basic, non-technical word or phrase of the object language has a counterpart with more or less the same meaning or pattern of use in the metalanguage (Mufwene, 1986: 19).

But meanings result from the attitude toward, and the classification of, the universe by a certain community. So meanings naturally should differ according to the language and its semantic classification of the universe.

Sydney M. Lamb stated that:

There is no absolute or universal way of classifying the universe. There are innumerable ways and each language has its own way of classification (Lamb, 1985: 47).

Consequently there will be a lack of equivalents in any pairs of languages involved in a bilingual dictionary. If we take the terms of kinship in English and Arabic for example, we shall find many terms in Arabic having no equivalents in English. The term "uncle" in English stands for /ʔam/ "paternal uncle" and /xaal/ "maternal uncle" in Arabic. Similar lack of one-to-one correspondence is found in many fields of semantic classifications.

In this chapter we are going to survey the difficulties of finding equivalents for the terms of the foreign language in bilingual dictionaries, how they affect the acquisition of the foreign language, and the means which lexicographers usually resort to in order to discriminate the intended meaning. New ideas will be proposed for the benefit of the foreign learner and the advancement of bilingual dictionary making.

3.2.The Search for Equivalents

In their attempts to provide equivalents, lexicographers aim at two types of equivalents. They are:

1. Translational equivalents which are lexical items

having the same meanings as those of their counterparts.

2. Explanatory equivalents, which are lexical items which do not have exactly the same meanings as those of their counterparts.

Extensive experience in lexical equivalence has shown that translational equivalents are rather infrequent except in technical terminology. Most of the alleged equivalents are indeed partial equivalents (Zgusta, 1971: 312). This is due to several factors:

3.2.1. Cultural Differences

Meanings are culturally determined and what may be true in one culture may not necessarily be true in the other (Lado, 1957: 113) or in the words of C.C. Berg:

Linguistic forms are social facts because they result from social utterances being socialized by being imitated and repeated time after time under similar circumstances by members of the community where they originated (Zgusta, 1971: 197).

Since linguistic forms are social facts and they originated in a certain community then it is inevitable that they will convey the culture and the social values of that community. If we isolate these linguistic terms from their culture the result will be a partial equivalence since culture as we have seen has a certain impact on the concept expressed by a linguistic form. Tomaszczyk states that:

Language reflects all through its lexicon the particular and always unique way of life of its speakers (Tomaszczyk, 1983: 43).

There may be different degrees of equivalence depending on the similarities and differences between the two languages, but one fact remains in all cases: we need explanatory notes or some other technique that gives the learner the information that will make it easy for him to use the linguistic form appropriately in his production and comprehension of the foreign language. There should be something added to the alleged equivalents to make them reflect the real concept of the linguistic form. This addition may take different forms depending on the degree of equivalence. It might be a gloss, an illustrative example, a picture etc. Additions may convey different types of information such as the connotations of the linguistic form or its appropriateness for use on certain occasions and its inappropriateness on others, since the same linguistic form may have different connotations in different communities. For example, dogs and terms used to denote them are found in every community but the term has different connotations in different communities. In the United Kingdom a dog has the concept of a friendly animal, but the same creature involves the concept of a source of food in China. In the Arab area, if one wants to abuse a person, one calls him a dog. In some American states if one calls a person a dog one admires him. So it is not enough for the

dictionary to state:

dog: /kalb/

The difference in range of use should be shown clearly through the use of illustrative examples and other techniques.

Sometimes, due to cultural factors, we do not find even partial equivalents in the mother tongue of the learner. Schnorr summarizes the fields where such a lack of equivalence exists:

1. Activities and festivities such as the concept of "Guy Fawkes Day" in the United Kingdom and "toss the caber" in Scotland.

2. Clothing such as national costumes.

3. Tools and objects.

4. Historical facts.

5. Religious terms such as "minister", "priest" etc.

6. Educational and specialist knowledge (Schnorr, 1986: 56-59).

An important objection to this summary is that it has excluded one of the most important fields where the lack of equivalence exists, that is situational protocols (McCreary, 1986: 58). There are words and expressions that are used especially for certain occasions. We greet, insult, apologize, invite, pacify, convince, congratulate, and for each action there are special words and phrases whose function is more important than their literal meanings. We rarely find equivalents for such

expressions in any other language. If we take, for example, the greetings used in Arabic and English we find many greetings which have no equivalents in the other language. For example, the Arabs use a special greeting for a person after shaving or having his hair cut; it is /na9iiman/ with a special response /an9ama Allaahu 9alayk/. There is no equivalent greeting in English. In English the phrase "good afternoon" has no direct equivalent in Arabic. There are also different meanings for the same greeting depending on the occasion. In English, if you say "good morning" to someone when you want to leave, it means "goodbye" while this is not true in Arabic.

Such linguistic terms cannot be fully understood and cannot be a part of the working vocabulary of the learner unless we add something to the alleged equivalents.

3.2.2. Grammatical Words

The second problem facing the process of finding exact equivalents is the fact that each language has its grammatical words which rarely have exact equivalents in other languages. The important factor in these words is their functions and not their meanings. Finding exact equivalents for these words is almost impossible, especially if the two languages involved differ as widely as English and Arabic. It is not enough to state that "the" means /alla8y/ since their functions differ widely.

3.2.3. Polysemy

The third problem facing finding exact equivalents is polysemy which is "the case when a word has a set of different meanings" (Palmer, 1976: 67).

Polysemy may exist in both languages involved in a bilingual dictionary. There may be a word which is polysemous in the target language and has one meaning in the source language, or a word which is polysemous in the source language with one meaning in the target language. What is even worse is the case when we have a word which is polysemous in both languages. Consequently it is illogical to provide the learner with a run of equivalents without additional information that will enable him to recognize the exact meaning.

The linguistic forms of every language involve another important factor which should be indicated clearly for the full understanding of their meanings. This is the fact that the range of application of those meanings is rarely identical in other languages. For example the word "lead" has several meanings. One of its several equivalents in Arabic is the word /yaquud/. But the range of application of /yaquud / in Arabic is different from the range of application of "lead". In Arabic /yaquud/ is used for:

1. Driving a car
2. Guiding a group
3. Leading a part of the state etc.

The danger here is that the learner, if not told the range of application, may develop the idea that what is true in his/her mother tongue is also true in the foreign language and produce such sentences as "Ali is leading his car" because in Arabic we say/9aly yaquudu sayyaaratahu/.

3.3. Meaning Discrimination

We have seen in the previous sections that it is not an easy task to find translational equivalents (equivalents which are interchangeable with the source language word) and that on most occasions, bilingual lexicographers are obliged to use partial equivalents (equivalents that do not have exactly the same meaning but differ in one of the components of meaning: denotation, connotation, and the range of application). By doing so they mislead the learner as we have seen earlier in this chapter. We need something in addition to the alleged equivalents. In the words of Dagut:

In the face of this challenge, the procedure of glossing evidently cannot just be assumed as a matter of course, but requires some linguistic underpinning if the whole practice of bilingual lexicography is not to seem to rest on a shaky, unproven, theoretical foundation (Dagut, 1982: 40).

The best underpinning is the use of meaning discrimination (showing the semantic difference between the source language word and its partial equivalents).

Consequently it should be the duty of any bilingual dictionary to provide meaning discrimination so that the learner may know exactly what is meant by the linguistic item and where to use it (Nguyen, 1983 :63).

This fact has received little attention from bilingual dictionaries. We often find runs of partial equivalents without a sufficient attempt to discriminate their meanings. After examining thirty bilingual dictionaries, Iannucci stated:

....not only meaning discrimination is handled very inadequately and inconsistently, but it also reveals very little evidence that any serious thought has been given to the purpose which meaning discrimination should serve in a bilingual dictionary. Even in some of the best bilingual dictionaries we find entry after entry (sometimes very long ones) with no meaning discrimination whatever (Iannucci, 1957: 272).

What Iannucci stated in 1957 is still true of the majority of bilingual dictionaries, especially English-Arabic dictionaries as we shall see later on.

3.3.1. The Need for Meaning Discrimination

The need for meaning discrimination is thought of differently by different linguists. Al-Kasimi thinks that the need for meaning discrimination is ultimately decided by the purpose of the dictionary and the audience for whom it is intended (Al-Kasimi, 1983: 161).

Dinh Hoà Nguyen believes that meaning discrimination or what he called "elaborate explanation" may be needed to

highlight ambiguities arising from polysemous items in either source language or target language (Nguyen, 1981: 63).

Zgusta stressed the importance of the purpose of the dictionary as a deciding factor in the need for meaning discrimination. He claims that if the dictionary is intended as an aid to the native speaker to comprehend the source language, there is no need for meaning discrimination. But if the dictionary is intended to help the speaker of the source language to generate the target language, then we have to discriminate meaning and instruct the user in how to use it (Zgusta, 1971: 304).

Iannucci thinks that the native to foreign use of the dictionary requires discrimination, but the foreign to native does not (Iannucci, 1962: 204). He means that if the user is given the meaning in his native language, he will be able to discriminate meaning and to choose the right equivalent while the user needs discrimination if he is given the meaning of his native words in the foreign language. Iannucci presents the treatment of the French word "tour" in a French-English dictionary and states that "tour" and its 27 translations do not constitute any problem for the English-speaking user because he is supposed to know his own language while it is a real problem for the French-speaking user because he has already got a meaning for "tour" in his mind and he wants to find an appropriate equivalent from the twenty

seven equivalents.

It is worth mentioning here that in 1957 Iannucci suggested a novel solution for the problem of meaning discrimination. He suggested the use of a monolingual dictionary as a basis for the foreign language counterpart. The senses in both dictionaries should be given identical numbers (Iannucci, 1957: 272-281). Thus if the user fails to understand the meaning of a word in the foreign language, he may refer to a dictionary which goes from the foreign language to his mother tongue, where he finds the same sense with the same number as in his first dictionary.

William Gedney in his comment on the idea of Iannucci rightly noted that it is unworkable in spite of its great advantage for the following reasons:

1. There will be a formidable problem over copyright.
2. If the foreign materials are printed with a monolingual dictionary, the result will be a bulky and expensive dictionary.
3. It is difficult to find a dictionary which is good enough to be used as a model (Gedney, 1962: 233).

Ard stresses the importance of meaning discrimination for production and states:

In order for a bilingual dictionary to be used successfully in writing, the user needs to know the differences in the meaning of the equivalents if more than one is given (Ard, 1982: 7).

The present writer thinks that meaning discrimination is needed in every case. Without meaning discrimination,

the dictionary is a skeleton of a dictionary and not a complete dictionary. All the ideas mentioned above presuppose that the learner has a certain type of sophistication, that he has a full mastery of his native language and the ability to discriminate. We cannot be sure that the learner is able to discriminate even in his native language. If he is able to do that, then there will be no need for dictionaries in the native language except for unknown words. Moreover there is also the practical point that it would be very expensive to produce all these different dictionaries. We should also bear in mind that bilingual dictionaries are widely used for both comprehension and production by foreign learners.

3.4. Means of Discriminating Meaning

In their attempts to discriminate meanings, lexicographers use different devices such as illustrative examples, glosses, pictorial illustrations, definitions similar to the definitions found in monolingual dictionaries but worded in the target language, or a combination of these. In the following sections we shall discuss their use and the practical value of that use to the foreign learner.

3.4.1. Illustrative Examples

The most important device used by bilingual

lexicographers to discriminate meaning is the use of illustrative examples, a technique which is highly appreciated by learners. About the suggestion for improvement put forward by the subjects of his questionnaire, Hartmann says:

The most frequent of these was a call for more examples of usage (Hartmann, 1983 d: 199).

The use of illustrative examples is not a new technique in lexicography. This technique was used many centuries ago by the Arabs, the Greeks, and the English, though it was used for different purposes. Al-Pharahedi used examples in his Arabic monolingual dictionary in the eighth century to prove that his derivations were accurate and that the words he classified into word families really existed (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 89). In Greek lexicography Aelin Dionysius and Pansaius compiled a series of specialist lexicons which were considered valuable for their illustrative examples (Collison, 1982: 36). In English lexicography, Dr. Johnson is considered the first major user of this technique. He first introduced examples in his dictionary in 1755. He used them not only to show that his words really existed but also to explain meaning (Wells, 1973: 89).

3.4.1.1. The Purpose of Illustrative Examples

Linguists seem not to have reached an agreement on the purpose of illustrative examples. There are five points

of view in this field.

The first point of view is that the purpose of illustrative examples is to illustrate the semantic range of the word (Nida, 1958: 282).

The second point of view is that the major function of illustrative examples is to show the stylistic value (Gleason, 1965: 429).

The third point of view says that the purpose of illustrative examples is to clarify meaning and to show the word in use (Hornby, 1965: 107, Jackson, 1986: 216).

The fourth point of view goes further to suggest that the purpose of illustrative examples is to indicate meaning, grammar, usage, and collocations (Martin, 1962: 157, Al-Kasimi, 1977: 91, Roberts et al, 1980 : 139, Heath, 1982: 105, Ilson, 1986 d: 216).

The fifth point of view denies all that. Iannucci states:

This device is certainly very wasteful of space and its usefulness is frequently very doubtful (Iannucci, 1957: 274).

The present writer thinks that the purpose of illustrative examples should be decided by the purpose of the dictionary. In dictionaries intended for comprehension, illustrative examples should focus on meaning. Nida might have had this type of dictionary in mind when he stated that the purpose of illustrative examples was to show the semantic range of words.

In learners' dictionaries, illustrative examples form "an integral part of the learning of a word" (Fox, 1987: 137). Learners need dictionaries not only for decoding but also for encoding. Therefore they need many other types of information such as phonology, grammar, usage, collocations etc. Since the use of illustrative examples is a good opportunity to show the learner how language works, illustrative examples should cover as much information as possible. The use of illustrative examples inevitably conveys other information in addition to that primarily intended. For example, in the entry for "police" in ALD we find the following illustrative examples:

1. Several hundred police were on duty.
2. The police have not made any arrests.
3. Extra police are needed here.

The examples mentioned above tell us many things in addition to meaning:

1. That police is a collective noun. Learners whose mother tongues do not have the same collective noun for this concept will benefit a lot from this example.

2. The use of the preposition "on" with "duty". Other languages may have different prepositions. In Arabic for example we say "in duty" instead of "on duty".

3. The lexical collocation between "arrest" and "make".

4. That in English only the thing being counted takes the plural suffix in phrases like "two hundred books". This is of practical value for foreign learners

especially when it is not the same in their mother tongues. For example in Arabic we say "two hundreds book" /miʔatay kitaab/.

There is also a possibility of getting more information if we refer to the proposal set in Chapter Four and give the phonemic transcription of illustrative examples, and if we choose our examples with care or give many of them.

3.4.1.2. The Selection of Illustrative Examples

The selection of illustrative examples seems to face the same inconsistency as their purpose. Some linguists think that they should be coined by the lexicographer to meet the purpose they are intended to serve (Martin, 1962: 156, Hornby, 1965: 107)ᵃ

Others think that they should be selected from the actual use of the language (Gove, WNID3: 6a, Collison, 1982: 21, Sinclair, 1987 c: xv).

The present writer thinks that selecting examples from actual use is superior to the coining of them by the lexicographer. We do not need artificial contexts. We need authentic contexts. We do not want to explain meaning alone but also other aspects such as the culture of the community where the language is used as a native language. This can only be done if we present the native speaker's actual production in real situations.

As for where and how to find such examples, the

lexicographer has three courses open to him:

1. His keen observation.
2. The writings of famous writers.
3. A corpus of information to draw on.

The first course is not practical since we can hardly find a lexicographer who can match the needs of the learner with authentic examples from his observation of the language at work. This is beyond the ability of any individual.

The second involves many problems:

- a. It is difficult to decide the best writers.
- b. The process may have another effect on the learner.

He may find words used in their literary or poetic senses.

The third course seems more practical and logical than the first two courses. It answers the needs of the learner more accurately because of its wide coverage and the accurate picture it gives of how the native speakers produce the language. The examples provided are representative of natural and typical usage. Without a corpus we may have examples which are grammatical but not natural. For example in the entry for "abroad" in Al-Mawrid we find the following examples:

1. A tree spreads its branches abroad.
2. I am only a little abroad.

The two examples mentioned above are not helpful to the foreign learner; on the contrary they are misleading. It may seem very odd to a native speaker if we say "That

tree spreads its branches abroad" or "I am only a little abroad" because "abroad" is used out of its natural context. The learner will be corrected by his native listeners. This will make him lose confidence in what is included in dictionaries and may make him develop hatred against dictionary use.

If we refer to the entry of the same word in the COBUILD, we find the following examples:

1. My friend has gone to live abroad.
2. I just got back from abroad....a holiday abroad.
3. There is clearly a new spirit abroad.

Such examples show the foreign learners accurately how the native speakers produce their language. Producing such sentences in similar situations will not only serve the learner's communication needs but also have a certain psychological effect on him. He will gain confidence in the way he produces the foreign language.

However this course also involves some problems:

1. We have to decide the source and the size of the corpus.
2. The illustrative examples are often taken out of a context. So they may be partly damaged both semantically and grammatically. The lexicographer has to modify them so as to make them suit the purpose of the exemplification.

3.4.1.3. Characteristics of Good Illustrative Examples

1. They should be simple, precise, and easy to memorize. Therefore they should be introduced in easy language and controlled vocabulary which suits the level of the user. They should exclude words which are more difficult than the word to be exemplified unless they affect the pattern of use. But this does not mean that we should sacrifice accuracy for simplicity and preciseness.

These facts are rarely taken into consideration by bilingual lexicography. For example in the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary we find the following example in the entry for "red":

"The mere mention of nationalization was like a red rag to a bull."

The explanation of an easy word like "red" has led to the introduction of words like "nationalization", "rag", and the concept of a "bull fight", which might not be familiar to the learner since the learner who refers to the dictionary for the meaning of such a frequent word is definitely in the primary level.

An ideal exemplification is provided by the COBUILD :

"He had very red lips".

In the entry for "go" in Al- Mawrid we find :

"The old saying that it takes all kinds of people to make a world goes for our train".

Such ambiguous examples are doing more harm than good to foreign learners.

2. Illustrative examples should be informative. They should make it easy for the foreign learner to know the meaning and any relevant information. They should show what they are intended to show. They should not increase the troubles of the learner by being ambiguous.

3. They should be taken from authentic situations. This will have a psychological effect on the learner by giving him the feeling that his knowledge in the foreign language has increased and that he has become able to communicate in real situations. Moreover they will reflect the beliefs and the practice of the community of the language.

4. They should tackle the common errors of the learners and the points of weakness in their production of the foreign language. For example a dictionary compiled for Arabic-speaking learners should take account of the findings of error analysis and other related disciplines.

5. They should be grammatical. Incomplete sentences and phrases should be avoided because they are confusing for the foreign learner "since there is no larger context available by which to interpret the deleted portion" (Robinson, 1969: 96). Hints may be useful for native speakers because it is their own language but for the foreign learner they are not helpful. For example in the entry for "eye" in Al-Mawrid we find:

"-----for beauty".

This phrase is not beneficial to the foreign learner unless he has seen it before and reminding him of the

context will make him remember the meaning of "eye" in this sense.

An ideal exemplification of the same sense is provided by the COBUILD:

This artist has a marvellous eye for detail.

It was their eye for profits that made them successful.

3.4.1.4. The Language of Illustrative Examples

Linguists seem to suffer from a similar inconsistency concerning the issue of the language these illustrative examples should be presented in. James Iannucci mentions four methods applied by the existing bilingual dictionaries:

1. In the target language on both sides.
2. In the source language on both sides.
3. The same language on both sides.
4. Both languages on both sides (Iannucci, 1962: 203).

Al-Kasimi thinks that the language in which meaning discrimination is supplied should be the language of the foreign learner (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 73).

The present writer thinks that the language of illustrative examples should depend on the purpose of the dictionary. If the dictionary is intended for translation the illustrative examples should be in the language of the foreign user.

It goes without saying that in learners' dictionaries,

illustrative examples should be presented in the foreign language itself. Extensive experience in language teaching has shown that the foreign learner should be exposed to the foreign language at work. If we expose him to his native language, we are in fact showing him how his native language works and not the foreign language. We are indeed teaching something about the foreign language and not the foreign language itself.

3.4.2. Pictorial Illustrations

Pictorial illustrations play a decisive role in clarifying the meanings of words, to such an extent that it might be considered a real defect of any dictionary, if it does not make full use of them (Al-Hamash, 1984: 129). There are many places where pictorial illustrations convey the meanings of words more accurately than the verbal means or as the Chinese proverb says:

"A picture is worth a thousand words."

For example the word "screw" is entered in ALD as follows:

screw/skru:/ n.

1. metal peg with slotted head and spiral groove cut round its length driven into wood, metal, etc. by twisting under pressure for fastening and holding things together.

In the definition mentioned above, it is quite

difficult for the foreign learners to grasp what is meant by a "screw" through verbal means unless it is accompanied by a picture of a screw. Even if the lexicographer partly succeeds in guiding the imagination of the learner in the right direction toward understanding what is meant by "screw", we cannot guarantee that the learner will not mix it up with the concept of bolt. Scholfield rightly noted that:

Often dictionaries do not succeed in making the paraphrase or synonyms easier to understand than the word defined, and there is no way to avoid looking up these words in the definition that are unknown unless something can be inferred from pictures or examples (Scholfield, 1982 a: 190).

This importance of pictorial illustration is recognized by both linguists and foreign learners.

A. Ellegård states that the use of pictures enhances the precision in the definition and carries us beyond the purely verbal field (Ellegård, 1978: 232).

Gropper thinks that visual presentation is superior to verbal presentation:

The verbal presentation may require an uneconomical number of words and require an uneconomical amount of time in relation to the number of responses it enables the student to acquire. In this sense the visual may do a more efficient job of teaching than its verbal counterpart (Gropper, 1963: 81).

Hill states that "illustrations not only avoid

circularity but they clearly enrich context too" (Hill,C. 1985: 117).

In a questionnaire distributed by Tomaszczyk 69 % of the subjects believe that pictures would make words easier to understand (Tomaszczyk, 1979: 114).

3.4.2.1. Pictorial Illustrations in Dictionaries

In spite of the importance of this device of meaning discrimination, it is rarely used by dictionaries especially English monolingual dictionaries. When analyzing eight British and American dictionaries, Robert Ilson states that there is a historical "reluctance to use illustrations in serious native speaker's dictionaries" (Ilson, 1986: 56). Ilson describes that reluctance as regrettable.

There are many reasons behind that reluctance. The first is the imitation of early dictionaries where this technique received little attention except in technical dictionaries. Collison states that:

One very surprising aspect of dictionaries in the past is the general omission to make use of the powerful aid of illustrations when tackling the problem of interpreting words clearly and accurately (Collison, 1982: 20).

Another important reason is that pictures are space consuming while the lexicographer should always bear in mind that he should compile a dictionary within the size permitted otherwise the result will be a bulky and

expensive dictionary. Samuel Martin states:

"we want to boil our material down to essentials"
(Martin, 1962: 156).

Another important reason for this reluctance is that the picture itself conveys different things and we cannot be sure that the learner will grasp the intended meaning or that there will be no overlapping between similar concepts. For example, if we want to discriminate the meaning of "swimming" by showing the picture of a swimming man the learner may think that it is intended to explain the meaning of a swimming pool or the depth of the pool or any other related concept.

The present writer thinks that in spite of the difficulties mentioned above, the use of pictures will be effective, if, and only if, we decide in advance where and how to use them and to what extent they should be used. It goes without saying that concrete nouns can be easily illustrated by pictures. So the majority of concrete nouns should be illustrated unless the learner is familiar with them.

Adjectives may be illustrated in a contrastive way with their antonyms. For example, to illustrate the meaning of "short" we have to include a picture of a tall man beside the picture of a short man and write the words "short" and "tall" under them. This can be employed for the majority of adjectives with concrete referents.

There is also a possibility of using pictures to

illustrate the meaning of prepositions. We may use a picture of a box and put a point in it if we want to illustrate the meaning of the preposition "in", and on it if we want to explain the meaning of the preposition "on" etc. Professor Al-Hamash used this successfully in his Pupil's Dictionary. Other parts of speech may be a bit more difficult to illustrate. But even these difficult ones may be easy if we have people who are specialists in this field. Artists may introduce new means of illustrations which may be beyond the expectations of individuals. We look forward to having a new profession called "meaning illustrator".

For the sake of the practical and systematic use of pictures, the lexicographer should take into consideration:

1. The type of dictionary he is compiling. There is a difference between using pictures in monolingual dictionaries and using them in bilingual dictionaries. In bilingual dictionaries, sometimes the verbal means is quite enough to explain the meaning of words. For example, there is no need to include a picture of a telephone in an English-Arabic dictionary since Arabic has borrowed the word from English. But in a monolingual English dictionary the picture of a telephone will help a lot, otherwise we have to give a long formal definition which might not be clear without a supporting picture.

2. The type of learner the dictionary is intended for should also be taken into consideration. In a dictionary

geared toward foreign learners we should exclude pictures of things which are familiar to them though they are included in monolingual dictionaries intended for the native speaker. For example a picture of a camel in a bilingual dictionary intended for Arabic-speaking learners will be redundant. The level of the learner should also be taken into consideration. Pictures should be heavily used by dictionaries intended for primary learners while they should be minimized for the intermediate and advanced learners.

3.4.2.2. The Presentation of Pictorial Illustrations

Dictionaries differ in the way they present pictorial illustrations. Some dictionaries present them in appendices included in a special part of the dictionary and in a consecutive way. Others include them next to the entry of the item whose meaning is to be discriminated (Al-Hamash, 1983: 129). Some dictionaries present them in tables with cross reference; others do not. Others use both ways. Some present drawings. Others present photographs etc.

The present writer thinks that for the presentation of pictures in a systematic way, the lexicographer should take the following points into consideration:

1. He should provide photographs, preferably coloured ones, where possible because the photograph, especially the coloured one, is clearer than any drawing and it

addresses the mind of the learner in a truthful way.

2. Pictures with common themes should be gathered together so that each one may discriminate what is intended by the other. This will also tend to increase the working vocabulary of the learner and draw his attention in a psychological way to what we want to tell him. Moreover this will increase the user's interest in dictionary use.

3. The purpose of the picture should be precisely indicated so that it might be easily understood by the learner. Pictures which include many discriminations may not be beneficial to the foreign learner; on the contrary they may inhibit learning efficiency (Gropper, 1963: 80).

4. The lexicographer should pay much attention to the clarity of the picture, its size, and its artistic quality, especially if a small part of the picture is the essential one for the process of illustration.

5. He should always write the word intended to be illustrated by the picture under the picture together with the number of the sense in the entry if the entry has more than one sense.

6. Pictures should not be far from the entries of the words intended to be clarified unless included under point 2.

7. Drawings should be used instead of photographs whenever we deal with sophisticated items such as football grounds, gear boxes, parts of machines etc.

3.4.3. Glosses

Another important device which lexicographers often resort to in meaning discrimination is the use of glosses. A gloss is usually defined as "any descriptive or explanatory note within the entry" (Zgusta, 1971: 270).

There are many cases where meaning cannot be discriminated accurately through other means of meaning discrimination. For example, the word "austere" has two senses: it may mean "severely moral and strict" or "simple and plain". But the former is used when talking about a person or his behaviour while the latter is used when talking of a way of living, places, and styles. We cannot tell the learner the difference through the use of illustrative examples since illustrative examples tell the learner only what is possible. In the words of Janet Whitcut:

Illustrative examples can show how a word can be used but not how it can't (Whitcut, 1984: 77).

The learner should be told explicitly of any restriction on a word or its use, the range of its application and any other essential information. Instead of giving the synonyms or the equivalents alone, we have to add something. This addition provides the learner with the guidance which he needs in order to achieve a native-like competence in the foreign language. So before the

first sense we have to say "of a person or his behaviour" and "of a way of living, places, and styles" before the second.

3.4.3.1. The Purpose of Glosses

It is widely accepted that the purpose of the glossing technique is to describe the possible circumstances in which a speaker should utter a word or a phrase (Hanks, 1979; Mahavir, 1981). But this general purpose differs in its scope according to the type of the dictionary and the user whom it is intended to serve. In bilingual dictionaries it should have three dimensions: grammatical, semantic and encyclopedic.

1. The Grammatical Purpose

It is often said that the duty of the dictionary is to answer the questions of the user and that pedagogical dictionaries should make the learner avoid common mistakes or in the words of Cowie:

Pedagogical dictionaries should help the learner to be aware of and if possible avoid common sources of errors in the language he is attempting to acquire (Cowie, 1979 : 82).

Since bilingual dictionaries deal with two different languages, with two grammatical systems, the grammatical differences between them should be shown clearly in glosses. So not only should an adequate description of

the grammatical system of the foreign language be given, but also the difference between this system and the grammatical structure of the mother tongue of the learner. The lexicographer should know the points of weakness in the production of the foreign learner and emphasize them and show the learner how to avoid them. Consequently this leads us to the fact that lexicographers of bilingual dictionaries should be native or native-like speakers of the mother tongue of the learner. They should also have some linguistic training in contrastive analysis. From the glosses we have to know for whom the dictionary is intended.

What we find in the majority of the existing bilingual dictionaries is that the glosses describe the grammatical structure of the foreign language and ignore the learner's linguistic competence in his mother tongue, which, if correctly used, may facilitate and promote production of the foreign language.

What is really needed by foreign learners is a dictionary that instructs them explicitly and makes them avoid mistakes as much as possible and within the limits of information that can be included in a dictionary. They do not need a mere translation of the glosses which are intended for native speakers. They need genuine glosses. In the entry for the word "collide" in a dictionary intended for Arabic-speaking learners, for example, there should be a gloss telling the learner that "collide"

needs more than one person or thing as a subject unless it is followed by "with", otherwise the learner will produce such sentences as "His car collided." An ideal entry for such a word may be:

collide [kə'laɪd]

1. (of two people or objects unless followed by "with") come together violently; meet and strike: The two cars collided. The bus collided with a train 2.....

2. The Semantic Purpose of the Gloss

Providing meaning alone through the use of equivalents is not sufficient, if the dictionary is intended to help the foreign learner produce the foreign language efficiently. The dictionary should always tell the learner where and when he can use the item, and whether it can be used on all occasions or whether there are certain situations where it cannot be used. The learner should know the range of application of the word. In order to do that accurately, the learner and his mother tongue should be the deciding factor in composing the glosses. So we should not give semantic information about the linguistic item of the foreign language as it is used in its own community only; we should also state the difference between the item and the other items which have the same equivalents in the mother tongue of the

learner but are used differently in the foreign language. For example in a bilingual dictionary geared to the Arabic-speaking learners, the lexicographer should not only explain the meaning of "put on" but also the difference between "put on" and "wear" since there is no such distinction in Arabic. The learner should know which one is right and why:

Put on your clothes quickly!

*** Wear your clothes quickly!**

There is no device which is more practical than a gloss for showing such a distinction. Hornby seems to have felt the problem when he entered "put on":

put sth on (a)

(contrasted with take off)

**clothe oneself with: put one's
hat/shoes etc. on. (ALD)**

Though there is a hint at the fact that "put on" is used for the process of assuming clothing only, this is not enough since it does not tell the learner the difference between "put on" and "wear". A helpful gloss might be:

put sth on

**1. (used for the act of clothing; after
that use wear) clothe oneself with...**

A good example is mentioned by Steiner: the French

adjective "perdu" which means "lost", changes its meaning to "disposable" when applied to a container. There is no other way of explaining this except by the use of a semantic gloss (Steiner, 1977: 24).

3. The Encyclopedic Purpose of the Gloss

Encyclopedic glosses are usually used to give the learner the information that will make it easy for him to understand the meaning of the linguistic item more accurately or as accurately as it is understood in the community of the foreign language. Gleason emphasized that the duty of the dictionary is to relate the vocabulary of the language to certain extralinguistic systems and that it is not enough to state the referential meaning only:

Along with this, however, is required some relation to culture in the form of statements about the cultural implications of the items, their appropriateness in various culturally definable situations and the like (Gleason, 1962: 101).

Mufwene states that linguistic terms have a dual status:

a. They have an indexical /cataloguing denotational function (for purpose of successful references to the world of discourse); b. They are carriers of information governing their usage in linguistic utterances (Mufwene, 1986: 29).

There is no way to introduce such information except by the use of the encyclopedic glosses.

Zgusta emphasized the importance of encyclopedic explanations when dealing with languages belonging to distant cultures:

If the two languages belong to very distant cultures, there will be a great need to give some encyclopedic explanations (Zugusta, 1971: 299).

Henri Béjoint states that the foreign learner faces two additional difficulties which are not faced by the native speaker. They are the culture specific words and the connotations which are specific to one language (Béjoint, 1981 :210).

Zorg also emphasizes the need for encyclopedic information and believes that bilingual dictionaries should not only include information on sounds, spelling, meaning and grammar but also reference to the two languages (Zorg, 1979: 64).

3.4.3.2. The Language of the Glosses

The language in which such glosses should be presented depends on the type of information. The mother tongue of the foreign learner may be used when we have encyclopedic information while the foreign language should be used for grammatical and semantic information, since it may not be easy to find suitable words to convey such information in the mother tongue.

3.4.4. Other Devices

Many other devices are used by bilingual dictionaries to discriminate meaning. The best-known of these are:

1. Field Labels

Field labels are used to indicate that a certain sense is mainly used in a certain field of activity e.g. "nadir" (astronomy), "detritus" (geology), "supply" (economics), "inflection" (linguistics).

This device is of limited value or help since the majority of words have no subject labels. However these labels are useful when the user is looking for the meaning of a word in a certain field, for example, if he is looking for the meaning of "evolute" in Geometry. There is also the problem that some dictionaries use a large number of these labels, for example, Al-Mawrid uses 85 of them. The learner may not be able to remember them all.

Another problem is that some dictionaries, owing to the problem of space, use the first letter of the equivalent of the field in the mother tongue of the learner. The learner has to refer to the front matter every time he consults the dictionary. Al-Mawrid, for example, labels the word "evolute"/R/ which is the first letter in /ryaaDyyaat/ "mathematics". But the letter "R" may stand

for many fields beginning with it in Arabic, e.g. /RyaaDah/ "sports".

2. Usage Labels

Usage labels may be used to discriminate meaning, but they are, like subject labels, of limited value. They are useful when the user is looking for the meaning of a word in a certain type of usage.

3. Parts of Speech

The indication of parts of speech may be used as a means of meaning discrimination. For example if the learner is looking for the meaning of a word and from the context he knows that it is a verb, he will go directly to the uses of the word as a verb and so on. But their use involves some problems:

a. Words belong to different parts of speech in different languages.

b. The user needs a good syntactic knowledge before these labels are useful to him.

c. There may be many senses within the same part of speech.

4. The Context Word

The context word discriminates meaning by showing the context within which the word may be used. This can be achieved by indicating the following:

a. The type of the subject or the object may discriminate the meaning of the verb.

b. Showing the transitivity and the intransitivity of the verb discriminates its meaning.

c. Indicating the noun that an adjective usually modifies may help in discriminating the meaning of that adjective such as the use of collocations.

5. Punctuation

Punctuation may be used to discriminate meaning, especially in bilingual dictionaries which provide runs of undiscriminated synonyms. Commas are usually used to separate synonyms while semicolons are used to separate different meanings.

Iannucci commented on the use of punctuation and said that it may be called meaning discrimination but in the broadest sense (Iannucci, 1957: 272).

6. Pronunciation

Pronunciation can be of help in meaning discrimination. Sometimes words are pronounced differently when they belong to different parts of speech or when they convey different meanings. A good example here is the word "lead". But the problem is that pronunciation is valid when we hear the word while it is invalid when reading.

The present writer believes that using one device is not enough for achieving good meaning discrimination. For example, punctuation may help us to differentiate between synonyms and different meanings. But differentiating the meaning of the synonyms is the job of another device such

as pictures or illustrative examples etc. We should use as many devices as possible till we feel sure that the meaning of a linguistic item can be easily discriminated.

3.5. Meaning Discrimination in English-Arabic

Dictionaries

3.5.1. One common structural weakness in English-Arabic dictionaries is the lack of adequate meaning discrimination. The learner is usually confronted by a run of undifferentiated groups of partial equivalents whereas if the dictionary is to be a help and not a hindrance to the process of foreign language learning, it should give the equivalents with specific reference to the contexts where they are possible. It seems reasonable to provide a run of equivalents in order to guide the imagination of the learner to the right perception if and only if, the equivalents provided are all translational equivalents of the headword. But this is impossible in the case of English and Arabic, as we have seen earlier, since the gap between the two languages is very wide. In the words of N.S. Doniach, editor of the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage:

The gap between the two languages is so wide that a glossary which confines itself to equating words is as frustrating for the Arab reading an English text as it is for the English speaker trying to convey his thought in Arabic (Doniach, 1972: vii).

Unfortunately, lexicographers of English-Arabic dictionaries keep their eyes closed to this fact. By doing so they mislead the foreign learner. For example the word "digress" is entered as follows:

**digress, /inHarafa, Dalla, tabaa9ada, 7a88a*
?i9tasafa/ (Elias Modern Dictionary)**

Each of the alleged equivalents has its own difficulty for the foreign learner: /inHarafa/ tends to guide the imagination of the learner into two different directions: /inHarafa/ may convey that the subject of the sentence turns away or leaves what is usual, customary, right etc., which is exactly the same meaning as "deviate". /inHarafa/ may also mean that the subject of the sentence takes the wrong direction to his destination.

/Dalla/ may also mean that the subject of the sentence loses his way. We may imagine the confusion of the learner when he finds the same equivalents used by the same dictionary to discriminate the meaning of another word such as "deviate".

**deviate /inHarafa, Dalla, haaada
zaaga /**

On this basis the Arabic-speaking learner is liable to produce such sentences as "The young lady digressed and then came back to normal behaviour".

Other dictionaries try to avoid the problem of such partial equivalents by adding something new. They indicate where the digressions may take place:

digress [digres; dig-]

v.in./ yastaṭrid/ "give more details" /yanHarif 9an al mauDuu9 al ra?iisi/ "digress from the main subject" (Al-Mawrid)

digress [daigres]

vi./yanHarif 9an al mauDuu9 al ra?iisi/ "digress from the main subject" (The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

digress,

vi (---ion n.) /?staṭrada, Haada, aw xaraja 9an al mauDuu9/ "digress from the subject" (The Oxford English-Arabic dictionary)

In spite of the provision of the same misleading equivalents the three dictionaries mentioned above treat the word "digress" in a better way. An important objection to their definitions is that they indicate where the digressions may take place by adding/9an al mauDuu9 al ra?iisy/ "from the main subject" but they do not indicate how the digression takes place and where; in speech, in writing etc. Al- Manar, for example,

indicates that the digression may take place in speech /fy al kalaam/ but says nothing about writing.

digress [or dig]

v./?staṭrada fii al kalaam/ "digress in speech" /inHarafa 9an al mauDuu9 al ra?iisi/ "digress from the main subject" (Al-Manar)

An ideal treatment may be the one provided by ALD:

digress[daigres]

vi[vp2A,3A]~(from) (esp in speaking or writing) turn or wander away (from the main subject) digression [daigre[n] n (U) ~ing (C) instance of this.

It seems that the lexicographers of English-Arabic dictionaries attempt to save space in order to include the various types of information needed by the various types of users they claim to serve. They try to cut meaning discrimination short by providing such runs of undiscriminated partial equivalents.

It is impossible that they are not aware of the importance of meaning discrimination since they depend on the existing monolingual dictionaries. Al-Mawrid, for example, shows in the list of its references that the lexicographer used many eminent English and American dictionaries such as Webster 3 (1961), Webster 7 (1965) and the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary Of Current

English. But if we translate the entry of "digress" as it is entered in ALD, we shall get a better meaning discrimination especially if it is supported by an illustrative example such as "He digressed away from his main story".

digress [daigres]

vi. [VP2 A, 3 A].. from/yanHarif
 (x a a s s a t a n f i i a l k a l a a m a w a l
 k i t a a b a h) 9 a n a l m a u D u u 9 a l r a ? i i s i
 d i g r e s s i o n [d a i ' g r e] n (n .) U . . i n g
 (C) / H a a l a t u n k a h a a 8 i h i /

This example shows that there is no other reason except the attempt to save space for including various types of brief and therefore inaccurate information. In trying to satisfy the needs of various types of users, the dictionary ends up failing to satisfy the needs of any.

It might also be argued that, to deal so extensively with meaning discrimination, we may need more than one volume of the same dictionary. But space may be saved if we refer to the proposal stated in Chapter Two (2.3.2): that we have to have three types of dictionaries for three levels of learners, namely primary, intermediate and advanced learners. We may then cut full entries from various levels as each stage is passed rather than keep all the entries at the expense of the accurate and adequate treatment the learner needs.

3.5.2. Another technique used by English-Arabic

dictionaries is the use of definitions in Arabic, which are not dissimilar to those found in monolingual dictionaries. But this technique is not executed in a way that can be safely described as a help and not a hindrance to accurate meaning discrimination. For example, the word "haberdasher" is treated as follows:

haberdasher (n)=

/9aqqaad= taajir naøriyaat al albisah
(kal qumsaan wal qafaafiiz/ (Al-Manar)

Here the learner is told that a haberdasher is the merchant of sundries of clothing such as shirts and jumpers.

An important objection to this definition is that it calls a haberdasher a "merchant", a term which does not convey the accurate sense, because a haberdasher is a shopkeeper and not a merchant. So instead of using the term /taajir/ "merchant" the dictionary should have used / saHib maHal/ "shopkeeper".

Al-Mawrid has another misleading definition:

haberdasher[habðr dashðr]

(n) 1.baa?i9 al sila9 al gagiirah kal ubar wa al azraar etc./ "the seller of small articles as needles and buttons."

2./baa?i9 al sila9 al rijaaliyah kal qumsaani wa ?rbitatu al 9unuqi wa

**alqafaafiiz/ "seller of men's articles
such as shirts and neckties and
jumpers "**

An important objection to this definition is that the dictionary states two senses of two different national varieties namely British and American, without indicating that they belong to two different varieties. Thus the learner may use the British usage in America when asking about a haberdasher in the British sense and he will be misunderstood and led to a shop selling men's clothes.

Another important objection is that the terms used do not convey an accurate discrimination of the sense of the word. For example the first sense, "the seller of small articles such as needles and buttons" is inaccurate because the term "small articles" is a wide term. There is a large number of articles which are as small as a needle or a button.

In the second sense "the seller of men's articles" is not a helpful definition because men's articles are various whereas he is really selling men's clothing.

Elias Modern Dictionary provides an even more misleading definition:

haberdasher

**/xurdaaji, baaʔ9 al sila9 al
sagiirah/ "seller of small articles"**

Here the dictionary indicates that a haberdasher is the

seller of small articles without indicating the type of articles. The learner here may call a grocer a haberdasher or the keeper of a fruit store a haberdasher because the articles they sell are also small compared to motor cars, tanks and planes.

The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary mixes small articles and clothing, i.e. indeed it mixes the senses in British and American English:

haberdasher[habð da[ðr]

n. (C)/baaʔ9 xirdawaat sagiirah kal azraar wa al kumsaan / "the seller of small articles such as buttons and shirts"

The Oxford English-Arabic dictionary gives a better definition:

haberdasher:

/baaʔ9 lawaazim al xiyaaṭah, xurdawaati/ "the seller of sewing equipment"

An important objection to this definition is that it states that a haberdasher is the seller of sewing equipment without indicating what type of equipment. The term "sewing equipment" covers a wide semantic area, so the learner will not know whether this includes sewing machines or only needles, buttons and so on.

An ideal definition is given by the Collins COBUILD Dictionary:

haberdasher[habð daʃðr] a haberdasher is:

1. In British English, a shop or a shopkeeper selling small articles for sewing and dressmaking, for example buttons and zips
2. In American English, a shop or a shopkeeper selling men's clothing.

3.5.3. Pictorial illustrations are rarely used in English-Arabic dictionaries and if they are used, they are used at random and not because they convey meaning more accurately than the verbal means. They are used as mere ornaments and not as a lexical support.

The present writer has gone through the five dictionaries being analyzed and found that little attention has been paid to this important means of meaning discrimination. The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary does not use any illustrations.

Al-Manar included forty thousand words. Only 238 single pictures are used. However, this dictionary includes 18 tables of common theme pictures. They are:

1. Birds of the middle east.
2. Some common birds of the palearctic.
3. Buildings and people.
4. Butterflies and moths.
5. Clouds.

6. English costumes through the ages.
7. Islamic ornaments.
8. English furniture.
9. Fruits and their flowers.
10. Traditional costumes of Arabia.
11. Canals, dams and locks.
12. Fruits flowers and seeds.
13. Islamic architecture.
14. Fruits.
15. Islamic architecture (famous places).
16. Sea fishes.
17. Vegetables.
18. Animals in the Middle East.

It also includes eight pictures illustrating systems:

1. The air craft.
2. The human anatomy.
3. Marine travel (a ship)
4. Oil drilling and refining.
5. Parts of the plants.
6. Radio communication.
7. Human body.
8. The motor car.


The use of these single pictures and tables is not helpful at all for the following reasons:

a. The pictures provided are small and therefore not clear.

b. There is no indication of the word intended to be illustrated by the picture. For example on page 299, a

picture is included under the entry for "hollowness" and opposite to the entries of "holly" and "hollyhock" and exactly over "holm-oak".

This will confuse the learner because he will not be able to see the purpose of the picture. The picture is of a plant, so "hollowness" may be excluded since the equivalents provided have nothing to do with plants. But holly, hollyhock, and holm-oak are all plants, so which one is intended to be illustrated?

holl'ow [-ō], <i>v.</i>	حَفَرَ . جَوَّفَ . حَفَّرَ وَجَوَّفَ
holl'owness , <i>n.</i>	جَوَّفَ . تَجَوَّفَ . نَفَاهَا العَقْل
	holl'y , <i>n.</i> ثَرَابِيَّة الرَّاعِي . الآسِ الثَّرِي
holl'yhock , <i>n.</i>	حَطَمِي = نَبَاتٌ مِنْ فَصِيلَةِ الْحَبَائِزِيَّاتِ
holm'-oak [hōmōk], <i>n.</i>	بَلُوطٌ أَخْضَرٌ . أَلْبَانِيَّةٌ

c. Some of the tables provided deal with themes which the learner does not need any illustration to understand, such as the traditional costumes in Arabia, animals in the middle east and so on. The lexicographer attaches English and Arabic words to the pictures provided, but the problem is that the learner is not told where to find them when they are not headwords.

d. Some pictures are repeated in many tables, such as the pictures of tomato and aubergine on pages 332 and 804.

e. Some of the pictures presented in tables do not illustrate any word in the dictionary, especially those of buildings and people such as Glamis Castle, Scotland,

the Taj Mahal etc.

f. Some of the pictures are misleading. For example on page 161, the dictionary presents pictures of a number of Islamic ornaments. One of the pictures is of a lamp but we do not find any reference to the Islamic lamp in the entry for "lamp". So there is a possibility that the learner will use the word lamp for Islamic lamps only.

g. Single pictures are provided in black and white while pictures provided in tables are coloured. But there is no consistency in that. For example, pictures of traditional costumes of Arabia are coloured while pictures of Islamic Architecture are not and so on.

Elias Modern Dictionary includes 371 single pictures. But the way they are used is far from being satisfactory for the following reasons:

1. It includes pictures to illustrate words when no-one needs pictures to discriminate their meanings because they are commonly known. At the same time, the dictionary ignores illustrating the meanings of words denoting things or concepts which are nonexistent in the community of the foreign learner. For example the word "camel" is illustrated by a picture of a camel while "emu" is not illustrated. This is due to the effect of monolingual dictionaries intended for native speakers of the language. For a native speaker the word "camel" needs illustration because camels are nonexistent in his community.

Another example of this effect is the use of pictures of objects existing in the communities of the two languages and having exact equivalents in the mother tongue of the learner such as the word "bottle". In a monolingual dictionary we need a long formal definition to explain the meaning of easy words and in many cases the verbal means does not succeed in conveying the meaning of a word accurately. There is always a need to provide pictures to support the definition provided. For example the word "bottle" is entered in Webster's New World dictionary as follows:

bottle [bat'1]

n. [ME botel < OFr. bouteille < ML butticulla, a bottle<LL buttis a cask]
 1. a container, esp. for liquids, usually made of glass, earthenware, or plastic and having a relatively narrow neck

Almost the same definition is used by ALD. In general in such definitions the learner will encounter words which are more difficult than the words whose meanings they are supposed to explain. So it is quite logical and practical to provide a picture to support the definition. In bilingual dictionaries, we do not need pictures if there is an exact equivalent for the word in the mother

tongue of the learner and the concept is familiar, since the verbal means here is as accurate as the pictorial illustration.

2. The pictures provided are not successful at achieving their aims. For example the item "cane chair" is illustrated by a picture of a chair. Of course the purpose here is to show the user the difference between this chair and other types of chair as it is made of cane. But it is not easy to do so since we can not indicate the difference between cane and iron, for example, in a drawing.

The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, which includes 40,000 words, includes 229 pictures only. The inclusion of pictures in this dictionary has the same defects as in the other dictionaries. The pictures are small and unclear e.g. the picture of whale on page 785. They illustrate common words denoting common things in the community of the learner. For example, the term "box of matches" is illustrated while it has an exact and common equivalent in Arabic. The same is true of the word "locust". Sometimes pictures are included but the terms to be illustrated are not included in the dictionary. For example on page 94 we find the picture of a chair and under it the term "cane chair" is indicated. The lexicographer might have wanted to illustrate the meaning of the word "cane", which is very near to the picture, but that is not a good way to do it because it

is difficult to do so in a drawing as we have seen earlier.

Al-Mawrid, which includes more than one hundred thousand words, includes 1243 pictures only. It also includes eight tables of common themes, namely: animals, birds, fishes, flowers, fruits, germs, vegetables and the human body.

The use of pictures in Al-Mawrid is deeply affected by Webster dictionaries. Words which denote common themes in the Arab world are illustrated, such as the term "minaret" while the term "church" which is not common in the Arab world is not illustrated.

This imitation of monolingual dictionaries intended for native speakers will make the use of pictorial illustrations of no practical value whatsoever since they illustrate what is not common for the native speaker, which may not be so for the learner.

3.5.4. English- Arabic dictionaries use glosses but there is no consistency in their practice. For example the word "priest" is entered in the five dictionaries as follows:

priest (n)

/kaahin, qissiis, qis, xuuri/

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

priest

/kaahin, xuuri, ra?iis kahana/

(Elias Modern Dictionary)

priest [prest]

(n) /kaahin, qissiis, qis/

(Al-Mawrid)

priest [pri:st]

n. 1./ rajul diin, quis masiiHi /

(The English-Arabic Reader's
Dictionary)

priest (n)

/saadin. kaahin. qissiis/ (Al-Manar)

All the five dictionaries mentioned above provide equivalents in the mother tongue which mean "a Christian religious man". Sometimes a priest is called a / quis or qissiis /; sometimes he is called /kaahin /or /xuuri/ but they all mean the same.

Strangely enough we find the same equivalents provided as the equivalents of another word denoting another Christian religious man without any indication of the difference between the two words and where they may be used. The word "clergyman" for example is entered as follows:

clergyman

(n) pl-men /xuuri, qissiis/

(Al-Manar)

As we have seen above /qissiis/ and / xuuri/ are also used as the equivalents of "priest" by Al-Manar.

Al-Mawrid gives two senses for the word "clergyman":

clergyman [kl^ʌʒr^vji-]

1./ al kaahin, al qis/ "priest"

2./rajul al diin/ "religious man"

Again Al-Mawrid uses the same equivalents /kahin / and /qis / for both "clergyman" and "priest".

Elias Modern Dictionary also uses the same equivalents for both "clergyman" and "priest":

clergyman / qissiis, qis, xuuri/

The same is done by the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary:

clergyman /qissiis , rajul diin masiiHi/

The only dictionary that indicates a slight difference between the two terms is the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary. It adds the term / anglikani / "of the Anglican church".

clergyman, (n) /qis, kahin anglikaani/

An important objection to this discrimination is that the lexicographer uses the foreign word. The learner may not be able to know the meaning of /anglikani/. The lexicographer could have made it clearer by using the gloss (in the Church of England).

Such types of definitions are not helpful at all. On the contrary they are misleading. An Arabic-speaking learner who reads such misleading definitions will surely

call any religious man a priest whatever church he belongs to; or he may call him a minister or a clergyman or cleric since the same equivalents are used to explain their meanings in his dictionary.

The present writer thinks that the linguistic gap between the two languages should be emphasized and not minimized. In the case of "clergyman" or "priest", English-Arabic dictionaries would have done better to provide an encyclopedic gloss explaining their ranks and in which church they are so called:

Priest [pri:st]

(n. c.), (in Roman Catholic, Anglican, and Pagan churches) /qis, qissiis, kaahin, xuury/ (see minister, clergyman, cleric)

By using the gloss (in Roman Catholic, Anglican and pagan churches) we have made it clear for the learner that /qissiis/ is called a priest in those churches only.

Glosses are rarely used for semantic purposes. For example the term "put on" mentioned in 3.4.3.1 is entered in the five dictionaries as follows:

put on

/tasanna9a , taDaahara• labisa,
?rtadaa/

"pretended", "pretended", "put on"

/albasa/ "put on"

(Elias Modern Dictionary)

put on

1. /yartadi/ 2. /yastani9, yataDaahar/
 "put on" "pretend", "pretend"
 3. /yuziid al sur9ah/ 4. /yuqaddim al
 saa9ah/ "increase the speed", "wind
 the watch" 6.....7.....8.....(Al-
 Mawrid)

In sense number one, here the word /yartady/ which means both "put on" and "wear" in Arabic is used as the equivalent of "put on".

put on :

- / labisa, ta9anna9a, ?dda9aa,
 ta9ahhada/
 "put on" "pretend", "claimed"
 "undertake"
 /zaada, izdada, 9araDa (masraHiyatan)/
 "increase", "increase", "act a play"
 (Al-Manar)

Here the word /labisa /, which is the synonym of /yartadi/ "put on" or "wear" in Arabic, is used as the equivalent of "put on".

The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary uses the word in a sentence and translates it into Arabic:

She puts on her best dress.

/hiya labisat ?Hsanu malaabisihaa/

Strangely enough the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary does not include this sense:

put on

/yataDaahar, yataṣann9/ "pretend",
 /yuqqaddim 9aqaarib alsaa9ah/ "wind the
 clock", /yaDa9 qaydu al ?sti9maal/"use",
 /yuziid alsur9ah/ "hurry up", /yuraahin
 9alaa/ "make a bet"

The same equivalents used for "put on" in the sense of "clothe oneself with" are also used for "wear"

wear[wār] v(wore, worn, wearing)

/labisa/ "put on", /ja9ala aw rabbaa
 linafsihi liHyatan/ "grow a
 beard"/badaa 9alayhi/ "seems" /?bdaa /
 "show", / daama / "last", / Dahara
 9alaa wajhihi / "seem on one's face "
 (Al-Manar)

wear (pret. wore past, past p. worn) v.t., in.)

1. have on the body /labisa, ?irtadaa/
 The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

Again /labisa/, "put on" or "wear" in Arabic is used while it is also used for "put on" by the same dictionary.

wear[war] (vt; in; n)

1./yalbas, yartadi/

With fifteen other senses)

(Al-Mawrid)

Here the dictionary uses /yalbas/ which is the present tense of /lābisa/ and /yartady/ which is the present tense of /ʔirtada/. /yartadi / is the synonym of /yalbas/ in Arabic.

wear[weə(r)] vt, vi [pt wore [wo n] p. p. worn
[wo:n]

1. /yalbas, yartady, yaDa9 /

He wore a ring on his finger

(The English-Arabic^{Reader's} Dictionary)

As a result of these definitions, it is quite possible that an Arabic-speaking learner may produce such sentences as "She came to the party putting on a blue dress". In order to help the learner avoid falling into that semantic trap, the lexicographer could tell the learner in a gloss that "put on" is used for the process of clothing oneself with something. Once that is done we should use "wear" instead. He could also do it through contrasting "put on" with another term. For example ALD has used this method successfully:

put sth on, a.

(contrasted with take off)

clothe oneself with, put one's

hat/shoes etc. on

3.5.5. Another technique used by English-Arabic dictionaries is the use of illustrative examples. It is a new technique in these dictionaries. It was first introduced by Al-Mawrid in 1967 and then it was imitated by a few other dictionaries. Thus the use of illustrative examples is still in its infancy and there is a lot to be done before we can safely say that the learner is well-served in this particular field.

Among the dictionaries chosen for analysis, Elias Modern Dictionary does not make any use of illustrative examples.

Al-Manar uses illustrative examples to a very limited extent. The present writer has gone through the dictionary and counted the illustrative examples used and found that this dictionary, which includes forty thousand words, uses only one hundred and seventy seven illustrative examples. Only forty eight of these are full sentences.

Al-Mawrid, the first dictionary to use illustrative examples, provides illustrative examples for 14,7 % of the one hundred thousand words included (Al-Kasimi, 1983).

The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary and the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary make better use of illustrative examples. The present writer has counted the linguistic items beginning with the letter "U" in the

English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary and found that the dictionary includes 274 items with 290 senses. Only one hundred and twenty illustrative examples are used, illustrating 41 % of the senses. Twenty eight of the examples are full sentences. For the same words and senses the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary provides only eighty six illustrative examples, illustrating 29.5 % of the senses. Only twenty five of them are full sentences.

The present writer thinks that the treatment of illustrative examples in English-Arabic dictionaries does not satisfy the need of the foreign learner for a sound meaning discrimination for the following reasons:

1. The majority of English-Arabic dictionaries do not make full use of this technique of meaning discrimination since few senses are discriminated in this way. If the dictionary is to help the foreign learner learn the foreign language, it should use every single sense in an illustrative example (Yorkey, 1969:257-267).

2. Most of the illustrative examples provided are no more than phrases in the majority of cases. Such phrases may be of great help to native speakers because they act as reminders of the semantic field of the sense, but the foreign learner expects more from the illustrative example, as we have seen earlier in this chapter. Moreover phrases lack life because they do not represent authentic situations. So our English-Arabic dictionaries sacrifice utility for space. They provide these phrases

just because they save space. It might be the imitation of the eminent monolingual dictionaries intended for native speakers that resulted in this defective use of illustrative examples.

3.5.6. Another technique of meaning discrimination used by English-Arabic dictionaries is the use of the foreign language itself in addition to the mother tongue of the foreign learner. They give the synonyms of the word to be explained.

This technique is a new one in English-Arabic dictionaries. It was first introduced by the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary to discriminate the meanings of a few terms. It was later on imitated by Al-Musbaah Dictionary by Nayef Kharma which used both languages for all items. In 1987 the Longman First Learning Dictionary appeared, which also used both languages to some extent.

An important objection to this newly introduced practice of using the foreign language in meaning discrimination is that it is greatly misused. For example in the Longman's First Learning Dictionary, the lexicographers seem in a hurry to introduce it. The word "banana" is entered as follows:

banana: a long yellow fruit/mawz/ "banana"
Bananas grow in hot places.

The definition mentioned above "a long yellow fruit" is misleading since we have other long yellow fruits. Luckily the lexicographer has provided a picture of a

banana.

The word fruit is another example.

fruit :

/faakihatun/

The soft sweet part of a plant or a tree that you can eat like apples, bananas and oranges.

Again this definition is misleading since there are many soft sweet parts of plants which can be eaten but they are considered vegetables, e.g. lettuce. Moreover there is no need for the definition since the word /fakihatun/ is an exact equivalent of the word "fruit". Strangely enough the lexicographer does not provide a picture of fruits to be a lexical support to the definition.

A more misleading definition is the definition of "domestic science".

domestic science:

/9ilm al tadbiir al manzili/ "domestic science", a school subject

At school Fatima has lessons in domestic science about cooking and making clothes.

The lexicographer has provided a definition which is not helpful at all for the following reasons:

a. The word covers a wider range of meaning.

b. It is rather old fashioned. "Home economics" seems to be used nowadays.

The lexicographer should have realized that the time is not ripe at this level for the wide use of the foreign language. When we find an exact equivalent of the foreign word in the mother tongue and when it is difficult to explain it in the foreign language we have to give the meaning in the mother tongue of the learner.

Another important objection to this new technique is that dictionaries use the mother tongue of the learner in addition to the foreign language. It might be argued that the main purpose of using the foreign language is to get rid of the interference of the mother tongue and to make the foreign learner think in the language itself. We try to make him stop thinking of the foreign language in terms of the mother tongue. If we use both languages, the learner will neglect what is indicated in the foreign language and go directly to the translations.

3.5.7. Other means of meaning discrimination are used by English-Arabic dictionaries:

1. Punctuation is used by some English-Arabic dictionaries. The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary uses commas to separate synonyms and semicolons for different senses. Other dictionaries, such as Elias Modern Dictionary and Al-Mawrid, use their own systems of punctuation. Others such as AL-Manar do not use any.

2. Pronunciation is used as a means of meaning

discrimination but the problem is that few dictionaries indicate pronunciation.

3. Field or subject labels are sometimes used but their use fluctuates between none at all in Elias Modern Dictionary and the intensive use of them, as in Al-Mawrid, which uses 85 of them as we have seen earlier in this chapter.

4. Usage labels and parts of speech are also used but they have received very little attention. Some dictionaries do not include parts of speech and use few usage labels as Elias Modern Dictionary. Others such as AL-Manar and the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary, include few labels.

Chapter Four

Phonological Information in Bilingual Dictionaries

4.1. Introduction

One of the formidable problems facing foreign learners is the problem of pronunciation. No description of the language can be adequate and practical if pronunciation is not included. For Bloomfield, the description of the language begins with phonology (Bloomfield, 1933: 138). A foreign learner who wants to produce the foreign language in a natural way should always know the pronunciation of a word before learning its meaning, because unless he does so, his production of the foreign language will be defective and might lead to misunderstanding. This fact is fully realized by foreign learners. Pronunciation is "almost certainly the most frequently consulted of all the explanatory materials" (Secrist, 1978: 44).

But very often the problem of pronunciation is neglected by bilingual lexicographers affected by traditional bilingual dictionaries which were originally intended for translation. In such dictionaries the exclusion of phonemes does not affect their role in facilitating comprehension since the phonemes themselves have no dictionary meaning, and contribute nothing to meaning.

Owing to modern advances in science and technology and the means of communication, people now study languages

for both oral and written communication. This leads to a recognition of the importance of pronunciation, since it is no use knowing the meaning of a word without knowing how to produce it correctly. If a dictionary is intended to help the foreign learner produce the foreign language and at the same time it ignores pronunciation, it would be like giving a soldier a highly sophisticated gun and asking him to fight the enemy without being trained in how to use it.

Unfortunately critics do not stress the importance of indicating pronunciation in dictionaries because they think that it is a derivational business (Magay, 1979:99). Secrist states that:

Some reputable scholars have considered the make up of the pronunciation key to be "of no importance whatsoever" and that in modern textbooks on lexicography it is rarely even mentioned as one of the factors to be considered in making a modern dictionary (Secrist, 1978: 44).

The present writer does not take this position. But even if pronunciation were less in importance than other factors, this does not entitle us to neglect it, because no dictionary can neglect one need in favour of the other (Cowie, 1983: 136). Besides, those who neglect pronunciation are completely mistaken. Barnhart, in his questionnaire of 1955, found that 56,000 of the subjects considered pronunciation as third in importance after

meaning and spelling (Barnhart, 1962: 162). It is worth mentioning that Barnhart had native speakers of English as his subjects. Pronunciation is higher in importance for foreign learners. It is, indeed, the users not the critics who should estimate the value of the work. Dr. Johnson rightly noted:

The value of a work must be estimated by its users. It is not enough that a dictionary delights the critics unless at the same time it instructs the learner (Johnson, 1747: 5).

Many native lexicographers are not sufficiently sensitive to the needs of the foreign learner (Broeders & Hyams, 1984: 172).

There is also inconsistency among lexicographers themselves on the importance of pronunciation. The editor of the Oxford English Dictionary in the preface to the edition of 1888 stressed the importance of pronunciation and stated:

Pronunciation is the actual living form or forms of a word, that is, the word itself,.... This living form is the latest fact in the form-history of the word, the starting point of all investigations into its previous history, the only fact in its form-history to which the lexicographer can personally witness.

David Abercrombie, a well-known phonetician, denies the importance of pronunciation in reference books and thinks that pronunciation is given more space than it really deserves:

I have often wondered whether the big Oxford English Dictionary (1888-1928) really needed to show pronunciation; I doubt very much whether anyone ever uses it to verify how a word sounds. I do not think it should be taken for granted that indication of pronunciation is a necessary part of any entry in a work of reference. It seems to me that in contemporary reference books pronunciation is shown more often than it needs be (Abercrombie, 1978: 119-120).

However, the modern tendency in monolingual dictionaries and some bilingual dictionaries is to supply a phonemic transcription with word stress of the headword. EFL dictionaries have gone further in this respect by indicating not only British and American English but also stress patterns of compounds and the possible stress shift in compound phrases.

4.2. The Indication of Pronunciation

The indication of pronunciation is not an easy task for several reasons:

1. There are many varieties of English, so which variety should the lexicographer choose for guidance in pronunciation?

2. Should he restrict himself to one variety or include reference to others as well?

3. The pronunciation of a word varies according to the context, but in dictionaries the pronunciation of words is given in isolation. This will surely cause trouble to

users, especially the foreign learner.

4. Pronunciation changes quickly, so by the time a lexicographer finishes his dictionary, some pronunciation indicated in it may have fallen into disuse.

If the lexicographer decides to take the risk of indicating pronunciation, he has to make some decisions in advance:

a. He has to decide the extent of his work. For example whether to give the pronunciation of the headword only or also the derivations; whether to give the pronunciation of a word in isolation or within a context.

b. He has to decide where to indicate the pronunciation. There are two possibilities. We can indicate the pronunciation on the headword itself by using such devices as diacritics over and under the letters of the headword, different type for certain letters and by using numbers (Abercrombie, 1978: 120). Alternatively the pronunciation of the word may be indicated separately.

c. If the pronunciation is given separately another decision is required. There are three possible methods of doing this:

(i) A respelling system which depends on the traditional English orthographic conventions. The word is respelt with some diacritics to make the spelling fit the pronunciation of the word.

This system is difficult for foreign learners especially those whose language is spelled phonemically. The learner will be puzzled to see that the letter "O",

for example, is used to represent eight sounds in the key of Al-Mawrid Dictionary. Moreover the English writing system is not phonemic and one sound may be represented by many letters. The sound /f/ for example may be represented by "-gh" as in laugh, "f" as in fact and "ph-" as in phonetics.

(ii) An idiosyncratic method. Some dictionaries have their own idiosyncratic symbols, derived from representation of phonemes in the native language, as in those Indian dictionaries where the pronunciation is indicated in the vernacular Nagari scripts (Zgusta, 1986: 139). It is difficult, however, to find a language whose letters represent sounds completely identical with the foreign language phonemes. For example, the consonants /p/ and /v/ are not found in Arabic and therefore not represented in the script. This will lead to misunderstanding and deficiency in the production of the foreign language if the difference is not clearly explained.

(iii) Phonetic transcription. In this method each sound in English is represented by a certain symbol. But the choice of phonetic transcription will lead us to another problem: which system to choose. There are many available. Some dictionaries have their own transcription e.g. the OED.

However good such a system is, it requires the learner to master information which will be of no other use to him. The only possible solution is to use the IPA because

it is universally known and the differences between its variants can be easily mastered. Béjoint sums up the argument:

The international phonetic alphabet, though more difficult to master than other systems is the only possible choice for foreign students because it is more precise and because it is well known internationally (Béjoint, 1981: 214).

The present writer thinks that there is no doubt that the foreign learner has his own needs which differ completely from those of the native speaker. Foreign learners consider the indication of pronunciation in dictionaries as essential (Gimson, 198: 251). They cannot take the advice of Fowler to pronounce as their neighbours do (Fowler, 1926: 466) because the pronunciation of their neighbours may be even worse than their own. They expect information on pronunciation to be given early in the entries and they do not like to be obliged to refer to the front matter every time they consult the dictionary.

Another important point is that foreign learners are not interested in variants. What they really need is a single pronunciation to be recommended as acceptable. J.C. Wells states that:

The dictionary user who is in search of pronunciation advice will be most satisfied if he is offered a single recommendation for each word (Wells, 1985: 46).

This leads us to the problem of which variety of English to choose. The present writer thinks that all types of pronunciation lack the status of being widely understood except what is called Received Pronunciation (RP). R.P. is taught in many places abroad as a model and, since the foreign learner needs to be understood everywhere and not only in certain countries or regions, the best solution is to choose this variety.

A further point is that foreign learners should be given pronunciation within a context to show them how the same word is pronounced differently in different contexts. This will enable them to produce the language in a more natural way. David Decamp emphasized this fact when he stated that:

The pronunciation will be more normal and natural if imitated in a context (Decamp, 1985: 199).

Wells stressed the same idea and noted that:

It seems to me highly desirable for dictionaries to draw explicit attention to these last two types of variation between the pronunciation of a word in isolation and its likely pronunciation in connected speech (Wells, 1985: 49).

A failure to understand this distinction constitutes the major defect in the pronunciation of many foreign learners. A prominent feature that tells you whether the speaker is a native speaker or a foreigner is the use of

weak and strong forms of pronunciation. Foreign learners often use strong forms where weak would be appropriate, because they are given this pronunciation in dictionaries. Dictionaries may thus be held responsible for such a defect in the foreign learner's production of the foreign language. Atkins rightly noted:

If students use their dictionary carefully and intelligently and still they make mistakes, then there is nothing wrong with the student. There is a great deal wrong with the dictionary (Atkins, 1985: 22).

If the dictionary is to play its role in teaching English as a foreign language, it should teach the learner both weak and strong forms of pronunciation. General principles may be indicated in the front matter of the dictionary while entries should apply these principles through the indication of the pronunciation of illustrative examples showing the phonological behaviour of the word within a context. For example, a sentence like "Jack is sitting in the room" is usually pronounced by Arabic-speaking learners /djak ?iz ?sitn ?in ? te ?rum/. They insert a glottal stop /?/ which is equal to Arabic "Hamza", before each word. The sentence should rather be pronounced /djaks_usitin_uin terum/.

As the last example shows, not only the pronunciation of a word within a context can be shown but also the pronunciation of connected speech. This will expose the learner to a natural pronunciation, a process which

cannot be achieved so extensively by textbooks. He will thus become aware of many features of native speakers' pronunciation such as glides, assimilation, elision etc. It may be argued that a dictionary is not a substitute for a textbook. But the purpose of the learner's dictionary is to describe the language. This description will be defective and incomplete if such features of the native speaker's pronunciation are neglected, since this will affect the foreign learner's skill in speaking.

Another point is that the lexicographer should indicate the pronunciation of derivations in the entry whenever there is a change in pronunciation. For example, the word "prefer" is pronounced /pri'fə:(r)/, but when the suffix "-able" is added to it, it should be pronounced /'prefrəbl/. If the learner is not told this information, he will pronounce it /pri'fə:rəbl/.

A further point is that we can recognize the speaker as a foreigner from the intonation he uses. Foreign learners usually use the intonation found in their mother tongue in their production of the foreign language. This transference makes the foreign learner's production of the foreign language seem unacceptable. This defect is also made worse by dictionaries since they do not indicate the correct intonation. So to help the learner in this particular aspect, one might suggest that dictionaries should indicate the intonation of the illustrative examples in a way which suits the dictionary

and benefits the user. For example we can do it as follows:

There was a lot of money in the bank.

tð wəz ə lɒt əv mʌni in tð bʌŋk

This method shows the way the voice moves up and down and takes less space than the translation of illustrative examples in some bilingual dictionaries.

If we use the above mentioned method, we have sacrificed some of the accuracy for simplicity but it is better than leaving the learner completely in the lurch. At least in the example mentioned above the learner will be exposed to the weak form of "there, was, a, of, the, to," and the glide between the two vowels in "money" and "in" in addition to being shown how to produce the correct intonation.

Finally, the dictionary should indicate the shift of stress since the process affects the meaning of some linguistic forms, especially compounds and idiomatic expressions e.g.

'Wait a minute = I have not finished.

Wait a 'minute = sixty seconds.

The general principles should be indicated in the front matter while the entries should be left for reinforcing them.

4.3. Phonological Information in English-Arabic Dictionaries

The ideal bilingual dictionary should give an accurate description, supported by illustrative examples, of the phonological structure of the language, showing the learner the differences between the phonemes of the foreign language and those of the mother tongue of the learner. This includes the difference in stress and intonation and the phonological behaviour of the linguistic forms when they are combined to make sentences.

Arabic-speaking learners of English are in great need of such information since the phonological systems of the two languages differ widely "not only in the range of sounds used but in the emphasis placed on vowels and consonants in expressing meaning" (Smith, B. & Swan 1987: 142).

Strangely enough phonological information is something new in English-Arabic bilingual dictionaries. It is only recently that the lexicographers of these dictionaries have realized the importance of phonological information and begun to add it. It was first introduced by Al-Mawrid in 1967. Later on he was imitated by a few other bilingual dictionaries.

Among the dictionaries analyzed, Elias Modern Dictionary does not include any phonological information, nor does the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary.

Al-Mawrid, Al-Manar and the English-Arabic Reader's

Dictionary give some phonological information, but the information included is defective and incomplete for the following reasons:

1. The keys to pronunciation used by them, except the one used by the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, are very difficult for foreign learners. Al-Mawrid, for example, uses the same English letter to represent many sounds with few changes. For instance, the letter "a" is used with diacritics to represent four sounds, namely /a/ as in aware, /ȧ/ as in car, /ä/ as in map and /ā/ as in date. The letter /o/ is used to represent eight sounds: /ȯ/ as in bond, /ō/ as in bone, /ö/ as in orphan, /oe/ as in the French word "feu", /oi/ as in boil, /oȯ/ as in look, /oö/ as in boot, /ou/ as in out. The learner has to go back to the front matter every time he consults the dictionary while one of the main findings of the questionnaire distributed by Hartmann in 1982 was that the front matter is rarely referred to (Hartmann, 1983 d: 198). Thus this method leads to poor results.

In 1981 Henry Béjoint found that the complexity of the coding systems inhibits their use (Béjoint, 1981: 215). To master this key to pronunciation, the learner has not only to have a good proficiency in English to understand the meanings of the key words but also a good proficiency in French to know the pronunciation and the meaning of "feu". The main purpose of supplying key words should be to reinforce the pronunciation of the sound by relating it to a common word. Richard Yorkey rightly stated that

the foreign learner:

...needs pronunciation symbols that are as uncomplicated as accuracy allows with key words that he is sure to know how to pronounce correctly (Yorkey, 1969: 258).

Al-Mawrid's system is misleading for the foreign learner who is not familiar with the sound system of the foreign language and who needs such a system to be described explicitly. If he is given an explicit system, the learner will master it easily and save time for learning the pronunciation of words and their phonological behaviour in isolation and within a context.

Al-Manar uses another difficult key to pronunciation. For example the vowel sound /i:/ is represented by a series of symbols: /ea/ as in beat, /ē/ as in be, /ee/ as in meet, /ie/ as in piece, /ei/ as in receive. Thus the symbols used to represent only vowel sounds and diphthongs amount to about 50 symbols.

This constitutes a contradiction to the well known principle of having no more than one symbol for each sound. Moreover there are also other confusing situations caused by this key. For example /ie/, which is used by the lexicographer to represent the vowel sound /i:/, is also found in the word "audience". The learner may think here that it represents /i:/ and pronounce it /o:di:ns/. The lexicographer tries to avoid such a confusion by adding a diacritic sign to /e/ and treating /ie/ as

representing two vowels: /i/ and /ð/ and forming the diphthong/ ið /. But that is not a good way to escape the problem. In fact it is easier for the learner to understand the solution of a problem in mathematics than understand the symbols of this key and the way they are combined.

Such treatments are quite confusing to the foreign learner, who usually resorts to the dictionary to find solutions to some linguistic problems and has no wish to be faced by other problems. A key such as Al-Manar's will make the learner either neglect pronunciation in general and substitute the phonemes of his mother tongue, especially if his mother tongue is phonemically spelled, or waste much of his valuable time analyzing these symbols.

It may be argued that such keys are used by famous dictionaries. For example, the key used by Al-Mawrid is also used by WNID3. But this does not make any difference, since the foreign learner has his unique needs which are not necessarily the same as those of native speakers. It is the duty of the dictionary to consider the needs of the foreign learner in the design of its aid to pronunciation, or in the words of Broeders and Hyams:

Although this perhaps is not always fully realized, any thinking about the design of the pronunciation components of the dictionary should primarily consider the needs of the user. (Broeders &Hyams, 1984: 165).

Though the foreign learner needs an easy and accurate key to pronunciation, the eyes of bilingual lexicographers remain closed to it. This may be less surprising when we realize that some linguists such as Bloomfield believed that "the pronunciation key was of no importance whatsoever and felt that any key that used symbols consistently was adequate" (Barnhart, 1962: 174). As noted in 4.1., modern books on lexicography rarely mention the pronunciation key as one of the features of a modern dictionary.

The IPA phonemic notation system is quite practical and useful for foreign learners because it achieves consistency with a minimum number of symbols. Most of the existing dictionaries, however, use respelling systems; this is particularly true of American dictionaries. Among the eight modern British and American Dictionaries chosen by Robert Ilson for his analysis, only the Collins English Dictionary used the IPA notation (Ilson, 1986 b: 55).

It is only recently that lexicographers have realized the importance of the IPA system. The Oxford English Dictionaries are now going over to IPA (Ilson, 1986 b: 55).

The present writer thinks that any dictionary geared to the native speaker should make use of the IPA system. But an important objection to such keys in dictionaries for foreign learners is that they use key words from the foreign language. There is no guarantee that the foreign learner can pronounce such words correctly. It seems

quite logical to suggest the use of key words from the mother tongue of the foreign learner in addition to the key words from the foreign language. The vowels of the foreign language should be described in a contrastive way with the vowels of the mother tongue of the learner. Thus an ideal key to pronunciation in a dictionary intended to be used by Arabic-speaking learners may be arranged in the following way. The order of the symbols is traditional in Iraqi textbooks (Behnam and Al-Hamash, 1975).

vowels and diphthongs

/i:/ as in heat /hi:t/. Similar to the vowel in /fi:l/ "elephant".

/i/ as in hit /hit/. Similar to but shorter than the vowel in /min/ "from".

/e/ as in ten /ten/. Similar to but shorter than the vowel in /beyt/ in the sense of "house" in Baghdadi Arabic and the first vowel sound in Egyptian and Iraqi colloquial pronunciation of /betna/ "our house".

/a/ as in cat /kat/. Similar to the last vowel sound in Iraqi colloquial pronunciation of /fulan/ "Mr. so and so" and the final vowel sound of the Egyptian colloquial phrase /kan ja: ma: kan/ "once upon a time".

/a:/ as in arm /a:m/ similar to the vowel in /sa:bu:n/ "soap".

/o/ as in got /got/. Similar to the vowel sound in the

colloquial pronunciation of the word /doq/ in the sense of "beat" or the Iraqi colloquial pronunciation of the first vowel in /ʒoneq/ "neck".

/o:/ as in all /o:l/. Similar to the vowel found in the pronunciation of the word /so:m/ "fasting" or /lo:m/ "blame" in Iraqi Arabic.

/u/ as in put /put/. Similar to the vowel sound in the Arabic word /bulbul/ "nightingale".

/u:/ as in fool /fu:l/. Similar to the vowel sound in the Arabic word /moudju:d/ "available".

/ʌ/ as in cup /kʌp/. Similar to the vowel sound found in the Arabic /baʔ/ "a flock of ducks" or /zʌnd/ "arm".

/ð:/ as in bird /bð:d/. Similar to the feminine ending of /wahi:dð/ in Egyptian and Iraqi Arabic.

/ð / as in ago / ðgðu /. Similar to the vowel found in /blð k/ "plug" in Iraqi Arabic.

/ei/ as in /dei/. Similar to the vowel found in the Arabic word /leil/ "night".

/ou/ as in home /houm/. Similar to the vowel sound in the Arabic word /soʊb/ "toward".

/ai/ as in my /mai/ similar to the vowel sound found in the Arabic word /ʃ aib/ "old man".

/au/ as in cow /kau/. Similar to the vowel found in the Arabic word /laun/ "colour".

/oi/ as in boy /boi/. Similar to the vowel found in /boi / "paint" in Iraqi Arabic.

/ið/ as in ear /ið r/. Similar to the vowel found in /taiðr/ "tyre" in Iraqi Arabic.

/uð/ as in pure /pjuðr/. No Arabic vowel sound is similar to this diphthong. A full description of the diphthong should therefore be given in terms of other vowels which are already known by the learner. For example we tell him that it starts with /u/ and ends in a sound of the /ð/ type, then give a run of English words which the lexicographer thinks are well known to the learner.

Consonants

/b/ as in bad . Similar to the first Arabic consonant in /ba:b/ "door".

/t/ as in take. Similar to the last consonant in /ma:t/ "died".

/d/ as in food. Similar to the first consonant in /da:r/ "house".

/k/ as in keep . Similar to the first consonant in /ka:tib/ "writer".

/g/ as in good . Similar to the first consonant of the Egyptian pronunciation of /gema:l/ "beauty".

/m/ as in man. Similar to the first consonant in /ma:t/ "died".

/n/ as in no. Similar to the first consonant in /nu:r/ "light".

/ŋ/ as in ring . Similar to the consonant in /meŋð/ "an Egyptian fruit".

/w/ as in wing. Similar to the first consonant in

/walad/ "boy".

/f/ as in fat. Similar to the first consonant in /fem/ "mouth".

/v/ as in live. There is no similar consonant in Arabic.

/θ/ as in thin. Similar to the first consonant in /θo:r/ "ox".

/tʃ/ as in chair. Similar to the first consonant in the Iraqi colloquial pronunciation of the word /tʃa:n/ "was".

/dʒ/ as in Jack. Similar to the first consonant in the word /dʒa:r/ "neighbour".

/s/ as in see. Similar to the first consonant in /sin/ "tooth".

/z/ as in please. Similar to the first consonant in /zauð/ "husband".

/ʃ/ as in sheep. Similar to the first consonant in the word /ʃa:b/ "young man".

/ʕ/ as in pleasure. Similar to the Iraqi and Syrian colloquial pronunciation of /ʕa:?a/ "He came".

/l/ as in look. Similar to the first and final consonant in the word /leil/ "night".

/r/ as in red. Similar to the last consonant of the word /da:r/ "house".

/j/ as in yes. Similar to the first consonant in the word /jektub/ "write".

/h/ as in hit. Similar to the first consonant in the word /ha:tif/ "telephone".

/p/ as in apple. Similar to the first consonant in the word /ʔptika:r/ "innovation".

/t/ as in this /tis/. Similar to the first consonant in the word /tʰahab/ "gold".

2. English-Arabic dictionaries indicate the pronunciation of the headword and its derivations but they do not indicate the pronunciation of the inflected forms and the compound words where the head word is the first word. For example the learner is told the pronunciation of "house" /haus/, but he is not told that the plural of house should be pronounced /hauziz/:

house: (n)

/daar, bayt 7araf, bayt 9yaal,
aallilbayt, maHal tijary, majlis / (Al-
Manar)

house /haus/ n. (C) (pl~s)

/bayt, manzil, maskan/ (The English-
Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

house [n. hous v.houz]

/manzil, bayt,..../ with eleven other
senses (Al-Mawrid)

No one of the three dictionaries indicates that the plural of "house" is pronounced /hauziz/. Thus the learner will produce English in an unnatural way, which will lead to his being corrected by his listeners, a

process which will tend to make him lose confidence in the way he produces the foreign language. Consequently, he will hesitate a lot and his production will lack fluency.

This defect may also lead to the misunderstanding of the foreign learner by his listeners. For example the learner is told that the pronunciation of "read" is /ri:d/ but he is not told that the past tense of "read" should be pronounced /red/. He may therefore produce such sentences as "They read/ ri:d/ a newspaper" when he means /red/. The listener here either corrects him, if he is intelligent enough to do so, or misunderstands him.

As for compounds, all the dictionaries, except Al-Manar, leave them without any indication of their pronunciation. For example "houseboat" is treated as follows:

houseboat[hous~] (n)

/almarkab albayt, markab mu9ad
lilsuknaa (bixaasatin fy nahr)/
(AlMawrid)

houseboat (n) (C)

/markab mu9ad lilsuknaa (bixaasatin fy
nahr), 9awwaamah/ (The English-Arabic
Reader's Dictionary)

houseboat[--sbot] (n)

/8ahabyah, qaarib sakan/
(Al-Manar)

Al-Mawrid indicates the pronunciation of the first part of the compound but not the second. There seems no sound reason for doing that. If it is intended that the user can refer to the words in their separate entries, there will be no reason for the indication of the pronunciation of "house". If it is intended to save the time and the energy of the learner, the dictionary should indicate the pronunciation of "boat" not "house", because the pronunciation of "house" is very near to him. Al-Manar seems to have chosen the latter course, but even this is time-consuming. The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary has neglected the pronunciation of this word entirely.

3. The dictionaries being analyzed do not warn the learner of the possible pitfalls from the interference of the mother tongue. An ideal bilingual dictionary should indicate pronunciation in a way which is not purely descriptive. It should indicate pronunciation in a contrastive way. The word "children" is usually pronounced as /tʃilidrən/ and not /tʃildrən/ by Arabic-speaking learners because there is no three consonant cluster in Arabic. A successful bilingual dictionary which is intended to be a teaching aid and not a mere reference book should not only tell the user how to pronounce a word but also warn him of common errors, a process which should be based on the findings of error analysis of the learner. We may put it in this way, using the symbol Δ to indicate an erroneous pronunciation:

children [tʃɪldrən...Δ tʃɪlɪdrən]

It may seem odd to include errors in a dictionary. But this inclusion may be justified by the fact that learners need such information. Greenbaum's questionnaire elicited an interesting suggestion which is applicable not only to spelling but also to other types of information. The suggestion was that a dictionary should provide a list of common misspellings (Whitcut, 1986: 115). It is worth noting that the subjects of Greenbaum were American college students. For a native speaker the most formidable problem is the problem of spelling. The foreign learner definitely has other common areas of errors such as pronunciation, grammar, usage etc. These problems differ according to the linguistic background of the learner. Consequently the treatment of this problem should differ from learner to learner according to his mother tongue and the similarity to or difference from the foreign language.

In a recent study of the problems of native speakers of nineteen languages in learning English as a foreign language, Michael Swan and Bernard Smith concluded:

Some linguists have claimed that the large majority of typical learners errors are shared by speakers of widely different first languages, that mother tongue interference is not an important factor in interlanguage, and that learners of a given foreign language tend to follow the same kind of route through its difficulties regardless of their first language. For those interested in such matters,

it is worth noting that the following descriptions do not appear to support this view (Michael Swan and Bernard Smith, 1987: x-xi).

In the study of Swan and Smith mentioned above, we find that Arabic-speaking learners learning English face not only the problem of producing the sounds of English but also other problems. They face the problem of consonant clusters not because the range of such clusters "occurring in English is much wider than in Arabic" as stated by Smith and Swan, but because they do not exist in Arabic at all. In Arabic, as in any other Semitic language, a syllable consists of a consonant and its vowel. For this reason Arabic-speaking learners tend to insert a vowel when they pronounce words containing consonant clusters. They also face the difference between the stress patterns in the two languages. In Arabic word stresses are regular and predictable while they are not in English. There is also the problem of intonation and juncture. All these problems should be catered for in any dictionary intended to be used by Arabic-speaking learners, otherwise the door will be wide open for the interference of the mother tongue, a process which, if not stopped, will lead to the existence of types of pronunciation which are not understandable outside the speaker's own country.

4. They indicate pronunciation in the strong forms. Weak forms are completely neglected. For example the word "and" is entered as follows:

and, con.

/Harf al 9illah (al waaw aw alfaa? aw
øumma/ (Al-Manar)

and [ðnd;and]

1./Harf al9illah,waaw/

2./kay, min ajl, li/ (The English-
Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

and [and] (con) /waaw al9atf wa/
(Al-Mawrid)

In the entries mentioned above, the weak forms of "and", which are more frequent than the strong ones, are indicated only, though not adequately, in the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary. If the dictionary is to be a real teaching aid and not a mere translation aid, it should indicate not only strong forms but also weak ones, showing the learner when each one is used. An ideal way of treating the pronunciation of "and" is provided by the ALD:

and [usu forms ðn,ðnd (after t, d, f, v, ø. †, z,
], ʒ) often n; strong form and]

If such help is not offered, the foreign learner may be puzzled when he hears someone say / kaʃ n kari/ and he may not be able to understand it, especially when it is too much assimilated with/kaʃ/ and produced /kaʃn kari/, a

pronunciation often heard from native speakers.

5. Intonation is not indicated by English-Arabic dictionaries. Such an omission is the dominant feature of all existing dictionaries whether they are bilingual or monolingual. The reason for this is that monolingual dictionaries, which are basically intended for native speakers, do not need to include such information, since it is not necessary for a native speaker. Bilingual dictionaries have copied monolingual ones because it was assumed that the only difference between them was the use of the mother tongue of the learner. This is shown clearly by their neglect of grammar and other essential information for the foreign learner. It is only recently that lexicographers of bilingual dictionaries have realized the importance of grammatical information and begun to include it.

Now the time has come to recognize the importance of intonation and to include it in our dictionaries and help the learner to speak the language in a natural way, using the intonation used in its own community and not the intonation used in the mother tongue of the learner. Intonation patterns, after all, are capable of changing the meaning of an utterance. The same utterance can be said in two different tunes and in each case it means something different. For example:

Thank you. (casual; acknowledging something unimportant)

Thank you. (showing real gratitude)

We hear these two intonations daily in the community of the foreign language. But how could the foreign learner be expected to know such things? Native speakers are not available everywhere. There is no way out but to include this information in the dictionary. It might be a good idea to propose the inclusion of intonation contours on the illustrative examples, which in turn should be fully transcribed. In this way we offer a solution to problems of the foreign learner.

It might be argued that this proposal is space-consuming, but space can be saved if we refer to the proposal set out in Chapter Two and have three dictionaries: primary, intermediate and advanced, where we may cut full entries instead of keeping them all at the expense of an adequate and detailed guidance. Moreover space is available in some of the existing English-Arabic dictionaries. For example in the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary, the illustrative examples are translated into Arabic, a procedure which is not as beneficial as indicating intonation.

Chapter Five

GRAMMATICAL INFORMATION IN BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES

5.1. Introduction

Languages generally consist of two ingredients: these are the linguistic forms of the language and the means of manipulating these units. The latter is usually referred to as the grammar of that language (Laird, 1974: xx) and is of much importance especially for the foreign learner. It is so crucial that it is considered "hardly less important than semantic information if the dictionary is geared to the foreign learner" (Heath, 1982: 104).

Lexicographers have realized that importance and have begun to add more detailed and varied information for the sake of facilitating language production. Most of the increase of information over the past few years in EFL dictionaries has been grammatical (Cowie, 1983: 155) because it is thought that adults learn more quickly and easily if they are shown how the grammar works, especially when it works differently from that of the mother tongue of the learner (Ellegård, 1978: 240).

Foreign learners themselves have stressed the importance of this need in all the empirical studies of their needs. Tomaszczyk found that 70% of his subjects used their dictionaries to get answers to their grammatical problems (1979: 112).

In 1981 Béjoint found that 53% of foreign learners used

their dictionaries for solving their grammatical problems (1981: 215).

In 1982 Hartmann found that 61.6 % looked for solutions to their grammatical problems in their dictionaries (1982: 82).

Since grammatical information constitutes one of the essential needs of the foreign learner, as we have seen, any dictionary geared to foreign learners should provide the learner with adequate grammatical information because the duty of the dictionary is to serve the needs of its users (Gove, 1967: 5).

In this chapter we shall survey the relationship between grammar and the dictionary and the extent to which the needs of the foreign learner are satisfied, with special reference to English-Arabic dictionaries.

5.2. The Relationship between Grammar and the Dictionary

The increase of grammatical information led to a dispute over the relationship between grammar and the dictionary. This relationship is thought of differently by different linguists.

Bloomfield considers that grammar and the lexicon are two parts of language description and that the lexicon is really an appendix of grammar, a list of basic irregularities (Bloomfield, 1933: 274).

Howard Jackson thinks that grammar and the dictionary

are complementary parts of the overall description of the language:

A grammar describes the syntactic arrangement of classes of items; it describes the kinds of grammatical "meanings" (e.g. plurality, tense) that may be realized in language and the formal means (e.g. inflectional endings) by which those meanings are realized. A dictionary aims to list the lexical items (words, idioms, and other fixed expressions) in a language and to give a description of their meaning and usage; within "usage" will be included the part a lexical item plays in the grammatical system of the language (Jackson, 1985: 54).

Gleason mentions four possible bases for defining the scope of grammatical statements and the dictionary.

The first is that the grammatical statement deals with form and the dictionary with meaning.

The second is that grammatical statements deal with tight structure and the dictionary with loose structure.

The third is that all matters that apply to a considerable number of items belong to a grammatical statement while those which apply to a single item belong to a dictionary.

The fourth one is that the grammatical statement deals with the relationship between classes while the the dictionary deals with those matters which pertain to the members of classes (Gleason, 1962: 90-92).

John Sinclair believes that grammar is concerned with general principles; it is not concerned with what

actually occurs:

The main point is to note that a separate grammar would tell you what is, in principle, possible in the way of construction. Such a grammar is not usually concerned with what actually occurs or is likely to occur. Grammar can produce structures which are quite correct but which are not at all likely to be used. For example the verb "mightn't have been going to be tested" or the noun group "all seven of the very happy old brown grass-eating garden rodents" are quite correct in grammar. But it is most unlikely that such complicated combinations would actually be used in a text (John Sinclair, 1987: xvii).

The present writer believes that in bilingual dictionaries geared to the foreign learner, the relation between grammar and the dictionary should be governed by the dictionary commitment to serve the needs of the user, especially when the dictionary is intended to help the user produce the foreign language. The dictionary should make use of any other aspect of the language which may promote production. Since grammatical guidance promotes such production (Cowie, 1981), grammar should constitute an essential part of such a dictionary. Furthermore, grammatical and lexical materials should be clearly separated.

Such a separation might constitute a problem when thinking of a monolingual dictionary intended for native speakers, where the grammatical information may not have the same importance since the native speaker is already

using the language.

Since grammatical information should be included in the bilingual dictionary to help the foreign learner produce the foreign language, it is quite difficult to have a general principle which is applicable to all types of users. Their needs differ in a variety of ways.

The type, the amount, and the place of the information, depend on the purpose of the dictionary, the type of user, and the grammatical information itself. If the dictionary is intended for the comprehension of the foreign language, then the grammatical information should be included in the front matter of the dictionary and be restricted to information which affects comprehension. Much of the space in the entries should be given to the indication of meaning and meaning discrimination and provision of the exact equivalents.

If the dictionary is intended to help the foreign learner produce the language, then the grammatical information should be included in the front matter while the entries should contain the grammatical irregularities and explain the differences between the two languages, stressing the main sources of errors and drawing the attention of the learner to them through the use of illustrative examples and glosses.

The type and amount of grammatical information should also be decided by the type of user, and his proficiency in the foreign language and by the similarities between the two languages involved. What is compiled for a

primary learner should not be the same as that compiled for an intermediate or advanced learner. What is compiled for a learner whose native language is Arabic should not be the same as that compiled for one whose native language is Chinese. Finally, and more importantly, what is compiled for a native speaker should not be the same as what is compiled for foreign learners. The type of grammatical information in each case differs according to the needs of the user. Native speakers do not need grammar for the sake of producing the language because they already know it. They need it for the analysis of the language while foreign learners need it for production. In the words of Hornby:

Grammar, for the learner of a foreign language, should be interpreted as a set of "Directions For Use", for use in building up. The learner needs to know not why certain words have come to be used in certain ways (that, for example, "ought", was at one time the preterite tense of "agan", to own, possess), but how they are used today. He requires, that is to say, a grammar that is a catalogue of the existent phenomena which are the outcome of natural linguistic evolution. He does not need a collection of problems explainable only by logic (Hornby, 1965: 109).

If we intend to satisfy the needs of all types of users, we are in fact trying the impossible or in the words of Rey:

We know that bilingual dictionaries might easily be improved if their readers were more

accurately defined. To compile, say, an English-Spanish dictionary simultaneously for English native speakers, for Spanish native speakers, other languages native speakers, school children, college students, teachers, businessmen, tourists, and so on is obviously attempting the impossible (Rey, 1986: 96).

Generally speaking all types of users need guidance in morphology and syntax.

5.3. Morphological and Syntactic Information in Dictionaries

Grammar received little attention in early bilingual dictionaries because of the old notion that a foreign language can be acquired by the memorization of words and their meanings. Early dictionaries therefore limited themselves to meaning only. But meaning is not inherent in the word in isolation; it is also present in the effect of that word on other words within a certain context. Most of the effect is grammatical in origin. There are many places where the learner fails to understand the meaning of a sentence "because of the difficulty of matching its syntax with its meaning" (Heath, 1982: 95). A complete description of the language is needed if we want adequate meaning discrimination. In the words of Gerard Wahrig:

In my opinion only an integrated description of the language will result in a useful discrimination of the meaning of the language

forms. This description must take into account the formal and the functional aspects of language and their interaction (Wahrig, 1973:162).

Strangely enough we find that dictionaries still neglect grammar. Most of them do not include a section on grammar in their front matter (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 48). What is even worse we still find some linguists who deny the importance of grammar, particularly for foreign learners.

D.L.Nilson states:

I have studied many different languages and I can not remember a single time when I have been stopped in speaking for not having a grammatical pattern, but I can recall many times when not having a key lexical item greatly affected my ability to communicate (Nilson, 1980: 28).

Al-Kasimi described the morphological and syntactic information provided in existing dictionaries as defective and incomplete (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 49).

The present writer thinks that grammar should constitute an essential part of any dictionary geared to the foreign learners. Such a dictionary does much harm to foreign learners when it neglects grammar, for two reasons:

1. Unlike the native speaker, the foreign learner uses his dictionary for both decoding and encoding (Ellegård, 1978: 240). Excluding grammatical information will lead to a failure to help the foreign learner produce the foreign language.

2. Foreign learners usually start learning a foreign language after they have mastered their native language and after they have built deeply rooted habits. Without further information this can produce a type of transference from their mother tongue. They will apply the rules found in their mother tongue to producing the foreign language. For this reason not only should the grammar of the foreign language be included but also the differences between the two grammatical systems. The learner should always be warned of the possible pitfalls caused by those differences. The learner should not be thought of as a newly born child or someone who has no linguistic experience. A type of grammar which facilitates production and fights against the interference of the mother tongue is therefore urgently needed. What we find in our present dictionaries is that some of them show the learner how an item can be used within a certain grammatical system but they do not tell him where such an item cannot be used (Whitcut, 1984:78).

5.3.1. The kind of grammatical information needed in a dictionary is thought of differently by different linguists. According to Bloomfield the dictionary should include information about the irregularities of the language (Bloomfield, 1933: 274). Gleason thinks that the dictionary should give for each item all the pertinent grammatical identification (Gleason, 1962: 102). (See 5.1)

Al-Kasimi has a very ambitious idea. He thinks that a dictionary should provide the foreign learner with all

the grammatical information he needs without referring him to a handbook of grammar (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 50).

Hornby has a contrary idea to that of Dr. Al-Kasimi. He thinks that a dictionary cannot deal with the grammar of the language comprehensively:

It would be unreasonable to expect a dictionary to cover the grammar of a language. The traditional grammar book is a book of formal grammar often with chapters on historical grammar (Hornby, 1965: 108).

Hornby believes that the kind of grammatical information included in a dictionary depends on the prospective user; if the dictionary is intended for native speakers, it should provide grammatical information that helps them to analyze the language; if it is intended for foreign learners, it should include grammatical information needed for synthesis because they need to "compose" not to pull to pieces (1965: 108).

Howard Jackson mentions four kinds of grammatical information that we might expect to find in a dictionary:

1. The inflections that a lexical item might have.
2. The part of speech to which an item might belong.
3. Grammatical information of a more explicitly syntactic nature such as marking verbs as transitive and intransitive.
4. Syntactic information provided implicitly by means of illustrative examples (Jackson, 1984: 54). **(See 5.2)**

Hill noted that we should expect to find five kinds of

information:

They are in ascending order of complexity: the phonemic structure of the word, its morphemic structure, the grammatical modifications it undergoes, its syntactic habits and its meaning (Hill, 1948: 10).

The present writer thinks that a dictionary should not be made a substitute for a textbook. It is unreasonable, as Hornby noted, to expect a dictionary to cover the grammar of a foreign language. We also do not expect the user of a dictionary to have no grammatical information. Learners usually study the grammatical rules of the foreign language in their preliminary stages. So the grammatical information should depend on the type of users the dictionary is intended for and on their proficiency in the foreign language (Hornby, 1965: 108). Grammatical information in a dictionary intended for primary learners should differ in scope and quantity from that included in a dictionary intended for advanced learners. But we should keep in mind that the information relevant to a particular item should always be presented.

Generally speaking foreign learners need five types of grammatical information:

1. Which part of speech a word belongs to. This is quite important for the foreign learner because it leads to the knowledge of many things. Jackson mentions two advantages of indicating parts of speech:

- a. It tells the learner the type of inflections that

are appropriate to the lexical item, though not adequately.

b. It provides basic information about the syntactic operation of the lexical item (Jackson, 1984: 55). This fact has been realized by dictionary makers. They have begun to introduce different techniques to achieve that guidance. But an important objection to the majority of existing dictionaries is that they limit themselves to the indication of the main parts of speech. If the dictionary is to be a teaching aid and not a mere reference book, it should go beyond that and indicate the subcategories that can offer the foreign learner more accurate syntactic guidance, a procedure which is successfully followed by the most eminent learners' dictionaries such as the ALD and the LDOCE.

Gleason stressed the importance of this point and stated:

It is inadequate particularly in bilingual dictionaries merely to label items as nouns or as verbs, if it is known that there are significant subclasses within such classes (Gleason, 1962: 62).

2. The second important area of grammatical information is the irregularities of the language which are relevant to certain words. It is not enough to tell the learner what parts of speech the words belong to and whether verbs are transitive or intransitive. There are other pieces of information that are urgently needed by foreign

learners in order to produce the language accurately. Professor Mahavir emphasized the importance of such information and stated that, in spite of the the fact that the verb "collide" is well defined by all dictionaries, especially the ALD, the learner is still left in the lurch:

The learner is still unable to see what goes wrong when he says "Her car collided and she was thrown out of it" (Mahavir, 1981).

The learner should be told that "collide" is normally used with a singular subject followed by "with"; if "with" is not present it needs a plural subject.

4. The third important area of grammatical information is the difference between the foreign language and the mother tongue, especially the differences which are responsible for the common errors of the foreign learner. Here the lexicographer should make use of the findings of error analysis and other relevant disciplines. The foreign learner should not only be told what is normal, he should be warned of possible errors. For example the adjective "worth" has a verb as its equivalent in Arabic. If the learner is not warned of that he may use "worth" as a verb.

5. The fourth area is the morphology of the foreign language. If the dictionary is to provide an adequate description of the foreign language, it should include adequate morphological information. Stein states that the

vocabulary stock of the language consists of primary and secondary elements. By primary elements, Stein means "the linguistic signs which cannot be analyzed further into smaller linguistic signs, but which may serve as bases for secondary items". By secondary items, she means "combinations of primary elements" (Stein, 1985: 35).

Primary elements comprise free morphemes such as "desk, bag, book" and bound morphemes such as -ing, -ly, un- (1985, 35).

Unfortunately, the majority of dictionaries, both monolingual and bilingual, limit themselves to primary elements, because they denote meaning, while bound morphemes, which also denote meaning when they are added to other free or bound morphemes are almost completely neglected. Some dictionaries do not include a section on morphology in their front matter. Their description of the language is thus rather shallow.

If we really want to help the foreign learner, we should tell him about the internal structure of the foreign language and about the difference between its morphological rules and those of his mother tongue. The front matter of the dictionary should include a brief contrastive analysis of the morphological structure of the two languages involved. General principles should be included in the front matter while irregularities should be included in the entries. We should also tell the learner extensively about the process of compounding and affixation and any other relevant information. This will

widen the vocabulary of the learner and give him experience in the structure of the language and the way it works.

Linguists have stressed the importance of morphological information in dictionaries in general and bilingual dictionaries in particular. Robert Ilson states:

One of the important features of a good bilingual dictionary is the exposure of the user to the morphology of the foreign language. But this fact was not realized by lexicographers. It was only in 1958 that A. Hill called for it in learner's dictionaries. But no existing learner dictionary has included it though it was included in COD (Robert Ilson, 1986 b: 58).

5.3.2. The presentation of grammatical information in a dictionary constitutes a problem for both the lexicographer and the learner. The learner needs such information and moreover he needs to find it easily and quickly; the lexicographer always has to think of space.

There are three possible choices for the lexicographer:

1. Grammatical information may be presented in the front matter of the dictionary. This does not satisfy the learner for two reasons:

a. As stated in **5.3.1.** not everything can be mentioned in the front matter because sometimes we have irregularities.

b. This will be time-consuming for the learner because he has to go to the front matter every time he consults

the dictionary.

2. Grammatical information may be indicated in the entries but this is space consuming and the lexicographer has to think of the size of his dictionary.

3. The lexicographer can include grammatical information in both the front matter and the entry but the result will be a bulky and expensive dictionary.

Cowie sides with the learner and suggests a solution which is a compromise between the three ideas. He thinks that we can indicate grammatical information in the form of labels in the entry while the information itself should be indicated fully in the front matter. For example we may indicate the syntactic behaviour of the verb "rely" in its entry in the following way:

v+ prep + (n) or (pro)

This indicates that "rely" is followed by a preposition followed by a noun or a pronoun. In his justification of this idea Cowie states that the solution might be:

To introduce at the point of the entry such standard abbreviations as NP (noun phrase), Prep (prepositional phrase), O (direct object), Comp (complement) and so on. These class and class element labels are already widely used in pedagogical grammars and their introduction in E. F. dictionaries would parallel the inclusion of parts of speech labels (n, adj, v. and so forth) in dictionaries of various kinds. Such a policy is undeniably attractive though of limited applicability (Cowie, 1983: 156).

The present writer thinks that the solution suggested

by Cowie is quite logical and practical. But not only the verb patterns should be coded but also other patterns as well. For example we should tell the learner whether an adjective is a postmodifier or a premodifier or both; whether an adverb postmodifies nouns or occurs as a complement and so on. We shall deal extensively with such matters in the next section when analyzing the grammatical information in English-Arabic dictionaries.

Irregularities should be indicated in glosses and explanatory notes attached to the entries.

5.4. The Grammatical Information in English-Arabic Dictionaries

Grammar, as we have seen in previous sections, should constitute an essential part of any teaching aid used in teaching English as a foreign language. As Béjoint says, the best dictionary is the dictionary with the most information:

On the whole the best dictionary for encoding is one that provides the most detailed guidance on syntax and collocations including perhaps pitfalls to avoid (Béjoint, 1981: 210).

Strangely enough the treatment of grammar in English-Arabic dictionaries is far from being satisfactory and there is a lot to be done before we can safely say that they constitute a help and not a hindrance to language learning.

The present writer has gone through the five

dictionaries being analyzed and found that their inclusion of grammatical information is defective. It should be noted that the dictionary entries given as examples have been transcribed exactly with translations given in inverted commas where appropriate. Errors in syntactic, phonological and lexical information are a further indication of the weakness of the dictionaries.

Elias Modern dictionary, for example, does not include any grammatical information. It only states the word and its alleged equivalents. Parts of speech, which represent the minimum syntactic guidance, to the utmost surprise of Scholfield, who stated that even the worst dictionary records them (Scholfield, 1982 a: 188), are not recorded. The dictionary depends on the ability of the foreign learner to know the part of speech from the equivalents provided and the agreement of parts of speech and the nonlinguistic world, or from the form of the word. But sometimes both of them are misleading. For example in the entry for friendly we find:

friendly:

/Hubby, silmy, widaady* bimawaddah,
bisadaaqah*muHib, mutaHaab/

Here the learner will be completely confused. If he refers to the form of the word, he will find that the word ends in -ly, therefore it should be an adverb. If he refers to the equivalents, he will find /bimawaddah,

bisadaaqah/, both of which are adverbs in Arabic meaning "in a friendly way", while /Hubby, widaady/ are adjectives meaning "friendly, peaceful". The word/ muHib/ "lover" is a noun while the word /mutaHaab/ "loving each other" is an adjective.

The learner here either resorts to a monolingual dictionary, or any other dictionary that indicates parts of speech or takes Elias at its face value and believes that the word "friendly" may be used as an adjective, an adverb and a noun. In this case we may expect him to produce such sentences as:

*** He spoke friendly.**

/huwa takallama bimawaddah/

*** She met one of her friendlies.**

/hya saadafat aHad muHibbyha/

In this case there is no one to blame but the dictionary. Such things represent the irregularities of the language and the fitting place for them is the dictionary. Textbooks give general principles which are applicable to a large number of items. They cannot include the irregularities of the language.

Moreover it is impractical and sometimes dangerous to try to find a suitable meaning for grammatical words such as "the", "a", "some" etc., a method which is widely used by Elias Modern Dictionary. In the entry for "the" we find (with translation given in inverted commas):

the

/?daatul ta9riif al fi al9arabyyah/ "The Arabic definite article"

We notice here that the dictionary emphasizes the part of speech in Arabic, but Arabic-speaking learners do not need this piece of information about their native language. What they really need is the part of speech of the headword and its derivatives if any in the foreign language. It is true that there is a similarity between "the" and /al-/ in Arabic, but they are not identical. There are many differences in their distribution. The duty of the lexicographer here is to show such differences clearly and not to minimize them. To try to teach the learner by analogy will mislead him. The learner here may use "the" as it is used in his mother tongue and instead of saying "Man studied science", when he intends mankind generally and not a certain man, he will say "The man studied the science" because in Arabic /al-/ is used in this way:

/Al insaanu darasa al 9ilma/

If the dictionary is to play a decisive role in teaching English as a foreign language, it should emphasize the function of "the" in the foreign language and show the difference between its syntactic behaviour in the foreign language and in the mother tongue of the learner, who should also be warned of the possible

pitfalls.

No pieces of morphological and phonological information are included. Here are some typical entries from this dictionary:

Fresh	— 286 —	Fripper
fresh	جديد. غريش. طازج. طري. غش. حلو. ناضج. يابس. أخضر. تذب. ساخن. حلو. جديد. حديث. نشيط. بارد. بلب. رطب.	electricity الكهربية الاحتكاكية
— air	هواء نقي، طلق أو منض. نسيم. بلب	pull الجذب الاحتكاكي
— colored	تغير اللون. غش. الإهاب	resistance مقاومة احتكاكية
— milk or water	تشيل. الماء عندما يستخرج من البئر والبن ساعة الحليب	Friday يوم الجمعة
— rations	تعيينات طازجة	Good — «يوم» الجمعة الحزينة. الجمعة الآلام
— water	ماء تذب (خال من الاملاح)	fried لحم أو غيره مقلو (أي محمر بالسن أو الزيت)
— water facies	[سحنة الماء العذب] (أحافر)	friend صديق. صاحب. خيل. مُصيف. مساعد
freshen	جدة. أنش. أبيض. تجدد. تقوى. برد	a firm — صديق أو خيل وفي
freshet	سبل. قيسان. طوفان. نهر	to make — s with تصاحب مع. تحاب مع. صادق
freshly	من جديد. حديثاً. باتشاش. بنشاط. ببرودة	friendless بلا أصحاب. تقديم الأصدقاء
freshman	تلميذ مبتدئ في كلية أو جامعة أو عمل	friendliness صداقة. مودة
freshness	جدّة. حدانة. طراوة. طراوة. نغارة. عذوبة. برودة	friendly حبي. يلمي. ودي. وادي
freshwater	نهر. مختص. بالانهر أو البحيرات العذبة	friendliness مودّة. صداقة. محبّ. متحاب
— fish	سمك نهرى	— suit قضيّة أي دعوى صورتيّة
fret	حلبة جفت. نقش. [تعب «المود والقيسارة وأمالها»]. دستان. اضطراب. ترم. قوباء (مرض). تأكل. اغضب. أعاظ. اغناظ. اضطرب. ترم. ذمق. بري. بلي بالملك. حك. تحل. تحر. نقش. نقش. نقش. خرم	Friends جماعة أو مذهب المتمرّين أو الأصدقاء
fretful	تكيد. شكس. متبرم. مضطرب	friendship صداقة. صعبة. مودّة. لطف. معروف
		frier, see frying-pan ميفلاة
		frieze إنفريز (في المعمار) * نسيج خشن
		frig. (slg.) = refrigerator, which see
		frigate سفينة حربية قديمة
		frigerata برودة. تليج
		frigeratory غرفة التبريد (في السفن وخلافه)
		fright رعب. فرع. خوف. ذعر
		frighten رعب. فرع. أفرع. خوف. ذعر
		frightened مذعور. مرعوب. خائف
		frightful, frightsome مرعب. مرعب. مُفزع

I wonder what help the learner receives from such entries except an unsuccessful attempt to provide equivalents in the mother tongue (See 3.2). Strangely enough, Elias Modern Dictionary is typical of the majority of English-Arabic dictionaries and it is one of the two best sellers in the Arab area and the world.

Other English-Arabic dictionaries include grammatical information, but this inclusion is incomplete. In the

following sections we shall point out their defects, a process which is intended as an invitation for lexicographers of such dictionaries, and indeed any lexicographer who wants to compile a good bilingual dictionary for Arabic-speaking learners of English, to take these points into consideration.

5. 4. 1. Nouns

Some English-Arabic dictionaries indicate nouns, but they, except the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, do not differentiate between countable and uncountable nouns. This kind of grammatical information is badly needed by foreign learners. Heath states:

The marking of nouns for number is the most important grammatical information for foreign learners (Heath, 1982: 101).

For example the word "information" is entered as follows:

information[infə'māʃn] (n)

1.a./ʔi9laam, ʔixbaar/ "notification"

b./ 9ilm, ʔiʔilaa9/ "knowledge,
acquaintance with" c./ma9rifah/
"knowledge"

2.a./ʔxbaar, ʔnbaaʔ/ "news"

b./Haqaaʔq, ma9lumaat/ "facts,
information"

3./ʔtihaam rasmi (sadir 9an al

niyaabah)/ "notice sent by the court"
(Al-Mawrid)

information (n)

/?xbaar, ma9lumaat/"news, information"
/?9laam, ?xbaar/ "notification"
/ta9riif, wi7aayah/ "giving knowledge,
defamation", /tablyg/" notification"
(Al-Manar)

information (n)

1, (telling) /?xbaar, ?9laam/
2. knowledge, news/ ma9lumaat, ?xbaar/
(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

information [infəmei{n]} (n)

(U)/ma9lumaat, Haqaa?q/ "information,
facts" (The English-Arabic Reader's
Dictionary)

All the dictionaries mentioned above, except the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, which includes the symbol **U** = uncountable, do not indicate in their entries that the word information is uncountable.

This is misleading because the most frequent equivalent of "information" in Arabic is / ma9lumaat/ which is the plural of /ma9luumah/, meaning "a piece of information" . So it is quite possible that the learner will produce

such sentences as "The informations were true" because in Arabic it is so used /al- ma9lumaatu Haqyqyyatun/. Moreover, there is no guarantee that the learner will not fall into this semantic trap even if the dictionary indicates whether the noun is countable or uncountable. What remains in the mind of the learner is the equivalent and not the coding system of the dictionary. The dictionary should not only indicate whether a noun is countable or uncountable, but also warn the learner of such pitfalls. Without this the learner will be confused because the word at hand is grammatically singular, as indicated by the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, but semantically plural, as the equivalents provided by the dictionaries suggest.

It is also useful if we tell the learner the way we can make such words plural. For example, we can tell him that the plural of information is "pieces of information" in order to make it fit the equivalents provided.

2. They indicate nouns which appear in the plural form only, but they do not warn the learner of possible mistakes. For example the word "scissors" is plural in English but its equivalent in Arabic is singular. It is not enough to tell the learner that the word is plural. We should go further than that and tell him the difference between its syntactic behaviour in the two languages.

scissors

(n) pl (sing in comb. only) /miqas/
 "scissors" (The Oxford English-Arabic
 Dictionary)

scissors [sizðrz]

(n. pl.) 1./miqas/ "scissors"

2./Harakah fy al jumnaastik tattaxi8
 fyhaa al saaqayn waD9an ?7bahu
 bilmiqas/ "a movement in gymnastics
 where the legs take the form of
 scissors"

3./?tbaaqat al miqas/ "the movement in
 wrestling where the wrestler holds the
 neck of the opponent with his legs"
 (AL- Mawrid)

scissors (n) pl or sing.

/miqas, MiqraD/ "scissors"

(Al-Manar)

scissors [sizðz] n pl

(a pair of ~/gaaliban/) /miqas/
 "scissors"

(The English-Arabic Reader's
 Dictionary)

scissors, a pair of----,

/miqas, miqraaD/ "scissors"

(Elias Modern Dictionary)

None of the dictionaries refers to the difference between the word "scissors" and its equivalent in Arabic /miqas/. Thus Arabic-speaking learners are expected to produce such sentences as "This scissors is new".

3. Collective nouns are not indicated in all the dictionaries being analyzed. For example the word "police" is entered as follows:

police (n)

/7urṭa, 7ihna, polys/ "police"

(Al-Manar)

police (n) (usually attrib)

/Al7urṭa, rijaal al amn, polys/

"secyrity men, police" By "attributive" the dictionary means it can be used as an adjective.

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

police [pɒli:s] n.

/al7urṭah, alpulis/ "police"

Vt/yuHaafiD 9alaa al amn wa al niDaam/ "keep law and order"

(The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

police (n. vt.) [pɒlɪs]

1./tanDiim al mujtama9 wa bixasatin maa yata9allaq bi 7?uun al amn wa al axlaaq/ "the arrangement of society especially for security and behavior"

2.a./daa?irat al 7urṭa aw al pulys/

police station" b./rijaal al 7urta aw
 al pulys/ "policemen" 3./tanDiim
 tertiib wa bixaasatin tartiib al
 mu9askaraat al Harbyyah wa tartiibihaa
 etc./"arrangement especially of
 military camps (Al-Mawrid)

As we have seen none of the dictionaries indicates that the word "police" takes a plural verb. This might not constitute any difficulty for the native speaker, but for a foreign learner of English this information is essential, especially when it is not identical to what is found in his mother tongue. In Arabic the exact equivalent of "police" is /7urta/ and it is singular. The Arabic-speaking learner of English tends to produce such sentences as "The police is coming" because in Arabic the sentence is /ja?t al 7urtah/.

The Oxford English-Arabic dictionary and Al-Mawrid try to prevent such errors by giving /rijaal alamn/ "policemen" in addition to the exact equivalent /7urta/.

4. There is no indication whether the noun is preceded by an article or not and if so whether the article is obligatory or optional as in:

The sun rises in the east.

God is merciful.

Diana is the goddess of the moon.

Such information is urgently needed by foreign learners especially Arabic-speaking learners, because in Arabic

the distribution of these articles differs widely.

5. Nouns which look like plural nouns but in fact are singular nouns with no plural, such as "news" are included but the learner is not told that they are singular in English while their equivalents in Arabic are plural. Sometimes dictionaries provide the plural and the singular form of the equivalent in the run of alleged equivalents. In this way they increase the learner's confusion. For example in the entry for "news" in the Oxford and Al-Mawrid dictionaries we find/ xabar/ and /?xbaar / and / naba?un / and /?nbaa? / are given as equivalents. But /?xbaar / is the plural of /xabarun / and / naba?un / is the singular of / ?nbaa?/.

The learner will be greatly confused by the above. If he refers to the form of the headword, he will find that it ends with "s", so it should be plural. If he refers to the equivalents, he will find that they are of two kinds : plural and singular. There is no way out but to take it that "news" is both singular and plural. Thus the Arabic-speaking learner may produce such sentences as "The news are true" because in Arabic it is /al ?xbaaru Haqiqiyytun/. Here are the entries for the word "news" in the dictionaries:

news [nūz] 1. / naba?, xabar/ "a piece of news"
 2. /?nbaa? /, /axbaar/ "pieces of news"
 (Al-Mawrid)

news (n)

/xabar , ?xbaar, naba?, anbaa?/

"a piece of news, news, apiece of news, news" (The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

news (n)

/xabarun, Hadagun/

"a piece of news"

(Al-Manar)

news /nju:z/ (n) (U)

/xabarun, naba?un/

"a piece of news"

(The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

Only the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary has indicated that "news" is uncountable but it has not indicated that the equivalent is plural in Arabic.

6. Finally the dictionaries do not tell the learner the preposition needed after the noun. For example the noun "proficiency" usually takes the preposition "in" but this is not indicated in the dictionaries analyzed:

proficiency (n) (U)

/jadaarah, kafaa?ah/ "proficiency"

(The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

proficiency[prəʃɪʃənsi]

1./ taqadum/ "progress"

2. /baraa9ah, Hi8q/ "skill"

(Al-Mawrid)

proficient a.(-ency n.)

/Ha8q, maahir, mutqin / "skilful",

/ 7ahaadat al mahaarah wa al jadaarah/

"the certificate of proficiency and

skill" (The Oxford English-Arabic

Dictionary)

proficiency[- fish-]

/ mahaarah, durbah/ "skill"

/taDalu9/ "experience"

/xibrah, malakah, itqaan/

"proficiency"

(Al-Manar)

If we refer to the entry of the same word in the ALD we find the following:

proficient[prəʃɪʃɪənt] adj. --- (in)

skilled; expert ---ly adv. proficiency

/-nsi/ n. proficiency (in) (U)being--,

a certificate of proficiency in

English.

Prepositional usage constitutes a formidable problem for Arabic-speaking learners owing to the wide difference in selection of prepositions between their mother tongue and English. For example the noun "answer" is followed by the preposition "to" in English e.g.

What is the answer to my question?

In Arabic the noun "answer" is followed by the preposition / 9alaa/ "on" e.g.

/ma huwa aljawaab 9alaa su?aaly/

Without further information the Arabic-speaking learner may produce such sentences as "I want an answer on my question". So the dictionary should indicate the preposition used with the noun in all its senses and also show the learner the difference between his mother tongue and the foreign language.

Heath stressed the importance of such information and stated:

We might expect a dictionary which aims to help the student to write and speak English to acknowledge that this information (The use of preposition) is essential (Heath, 1982: 103).

5.4.2. Verbs

The most important part of a sentence is the finite verb of that sentence. Heath stated that the finite verb is "the syntactic nucleus of the sentence" (Heath, 1982: 97).

This fact is rarely recognized by English-Arabic

dictionaries. No verb patterns are included in the front matter nor do they appear in the individual entries for the verbs. A simple and inaccurate coding system is frequently used. This coding system is doing more harm than good to the foreign learner.

If the dictionary is to help the foreign learner it should provide him with not only an accurate coding system but also carefully chosen examples supporting the coding system. This has not been done by all the existing English-Arabic dictionaries.

The dictionaries being analyzed label verbs. They also, except Al-Manar, indicate whether the verbs are transitive or intransitive. But they do not indicate:

1. Verbs followed by a direct object+ indirect object
e.g. **I gave her a book.**

2. Whether the indirect object is optional or obligatory:

I bought her a watch. (optional)

I gave her a watch. (obligatory)

3. The preposition needed when the indirect object is moved e.g.:

I bought a watch for her.

In Arabic such prepositions differ widely from those needed in English. For example in the sentence mentioned above, the preposition is usually "to" e.g.

/ʔtaraytu kitaaban lahaa/

4. Whether the transitive verb needs a complement or

not e.g.:

I saddled the horse.

I saddled him with responsibility.

saddle (vt. lit& fig)

/asraja al (faras)/ "saddle the horse"

/ waDa9a bir8a9atan 9alaa Dahr/

"put a rag on the back of"

/?lqaa mas?ulyatan 9alaa 9aatlq/

"saddle with responsibility"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

saddle(v.)

/asraja, hammala (wa alzama bi),

kallafa/

"saddle, make some one responsible

for, charge with an affair" (Al-Manar)

The two dictionaries mentioned above try to make the learner see the grammatical structure through the equivalents provided. For example the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary provides/ 9allaqa mas?ulyatan 9alaa 9aatiq/ which roughly means "saddle him with responsibility". But what is given here is semantic guidance, not syntactic.

Al-Manar provides / kallafa/ which roughly means "make a person legally or morally liable for carrying out a duty". This is also done for semantic guidance or meaning discrimination.

Al-Mawrid gives an illustrative example which is also meant for meaning discrimination:

"He is ---- with seven children."

This example cannot be considered an accurate syntactic guidance unless it is accompanied by a code or a gloss explaining to the learner how the structure works.

The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary indicates some equivalents accompanied by an illustrative example:

saddle[sadl]

1./yusraǰ al faras/ "saddle the horse"
 /yuHamilhu 9ib?n aw mas?uliyatan/"
 make a person legally or morally
 liable for carrying on a duty "--with
 big debt

In the entry mentioned above, the illustrative example is misleading because we cannot say "I saddled with big debts". There should be an object, which the dictionary has ignored.

An ideal treatment is provided by the ALD:

saddle[sadl] vt.

1.put a ---on (horse)
 2. [VP14]---sb. with something, put a
 heavy responsibility on him, put a
 burden etc. on him: be----d with a
 wife and ten children;----sb. with a
 heavy task.

5. The preposition needed after a verb and whether it is obligatory or optional. This constitutes one of the major difficulties facing Arabic-speaking learners in producing good English owing to the fact that the preposition needed after each verb is not identical in the two languages. For example the verb "apologize" is entered as follows:

apologize[ʔpɔlɔʒiz] vi.

1./ya9ta8ir (9an xata?in/

"apologize for a mistake"

/yudaaf9 9an taryq al kalaam aw al
kitaabah/ "defend through speech or
writing" (Al-Mawrid)

apologize[ʔpɔlɔdʒaiz] vi.

/ya9ta8ir/ "apologize/yatlub al
9afw/"ask for being forgiven" (The
English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

apologize(v.i.)

/ʔ9ta8ara, intaHala al ʔ98aar aw al
mubarriraat, istamaaHa 9u8ran/
"apologize" (Al-Manar)

apologize (v.i.)

/ʔ9te8ara, talaba al 9afw/ "apologize,
ask for forgiveness" (The Oxford
English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

This is quite misleading to Arabic-speaking learners because in English we say apologize "to" someone "for" something e.g.

He apologized to his teacher for being late.

In Arabic we usually say /ʔta8ara min/ which means "apologize from" and instead of saying "for being late" we say /9an al taʔxiir/, which means "about being late". So we can expect an Arabic-speaking learner to produce such sentences as "She apologized from the customer about the delay" unless he is explicitly told of the prepositions needed, preferably in a contrastive way with what is found in his mother tongue.

Sometimes using the wrong preposition changes the meaning of the whole sentence. For example, the verb "made" is usually followed by the preposition "of" when used in the sense of making something out of a substance:

Chairs are made of wood.

In Arabic we say/ al karaasy tuḡna9 min al xa7ab/ "chairs are made from wood", which in English has a slightly altered meaning.

6. There is no indication of linking verbs and whether they are followed by an adverbial phrase referring to the location of the subject of the sentence e.g. "she slept in the garden" or by a complement e.g. "He became a teacher".

7. There is no indication of verbs which are often used as adjectives when -en , --ed are added to them e.g. "written exam", "cultivated land" etc.

5.4.3. Adjectives

The dictionaries being analyzed indicate adjectives but they fail to indicate essential information about adjectives and their syntactic behaviour.

1. Except for Al-Manar and the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, they do not indicate the degrees of comparison. Though Al-Manar and the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary indicate them, their indication is incomplete and defective. For example the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary indicates the degrees of comparison of the adjective "clever", which is regular, and "good", which is irregular, but not those of "beautiful".

Al-Manar indicates the degrees of comparison of irregular adjectives only.

If the dictionary is to help the foreign learner produce the foreign language, it should avoid incomplete information.

To indicate the irregularities only in the entries for adjectives might be accepted to some extent if the dictionary indicated the general principles in the front matter. But the majority of English-Arabic dictionaries do not have a section in their introductions on grammar. So the learner here has to refer to grammar books for answers to his questions.

2. Adjectives having no degrees of comparison such as "annual" are not indicated:

annual /anjuðl/ adj.

1. /sanawy, yaHduø kula 9aam/
"annual, happening every year"
2. /Hawly, ya9ii7 min bidaayat al 9aam
Hataa nyhaayatihi/" living from the
beginning till the end of the year"
(The English-Arabic Reader's
Dictionary)

annual a.

- / sanawy, fy al 9aam, fy al sanah/
"annual, in a year, in a year"
(Al-Manar)

annual

- /sanawy, Hawly/ "annual"
(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

annual[anyooðl] (adj. n.)

- 1./sanawy/ "annual"
2. Hawly, ya9ii7 9aaman waaHidan/-----
plant " living for one year"
- 3./na7ratun sanawyatun/ "yearly
bulletin"
- 4./quddaas sanawy 9alaa ruuH mayyt/" a
yearly service for the spirit of a
deceased person"
5. /daf9atun sanawyatun/" yearly
payment"
- 6./ nabaat Hawly/" a plant living for
one year" (Al Mawrid)

None of the dictionaries indicates the unique character of such adjectives. It is thus quite possible that the foreign learner will treat them by analogy and produce such sentences as "The plant is more annual than that.", an error for which the dictionary may be blamed.

3. They do not point out adjectives premodifying nouns and adjectives which function as postmodifiers e.g.:

My ultimate aim is to succeed. (premodifier)

The prime minister elect went to America (post modifier)

ultimate: a & n.

/ʔxyr, nyhaaʔy / "final"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

ultimate[^vult^vðmit] (adj, n)

1./ab9ad/"further"

2. /aqsa/ "to the utmost of one's power" (to the--sacrifice)

3./ nihaaʔy / "ultimate, final"

4. / mutlaq / "open"

5. /ʔsaasy, jawhary, awaly/ (the--- nature of things) "essential"

6./7ayʔ mutlaq aw ʔsaasy aw nihaaʔy/ "free"

7. /qimmah, 7arwah/ "summit, top" (Al-Mawrid)

ultimate[[^]altimðt] adj

/ʔxiir, nihaaʔy, asaasy/
 (The English-Arabic Reader's
 Dictionary)

ultimate[-it] a. n.

/ab9ad maa yakuun/ "the
 furthest"/ʔxiir nihaaʔy/" final,
 ultimate" /ʔusy, ʔsaasy, maaly, aaxir
 maa yakuun ʔlayhi ay ʔmr, fy aaxir al
 ammr, Haasim, ʔ9Dam ma yakuun,
 maʔyyr, ʔayrurah/ "final" (Al-Manar)

elect^{v v s}[ilekt] (adj, vt, vi.)

- 1./ muntaxab, muxtaar/ "elect"
2. /al 7aaxs al muntaxab/"the person
 who is elected" 3. /yantaxib (bil
 ʔqtraa9 9aadatan)/ "elect through
 voting"
- 4./yaxtaar/ "choose" (Al-Mawrid)

elect a.

- 1.(chosen) /muxtaar, muntaxab/
- 2.(theology) / mustafaa, muxtaar/
 "chosen by God"
- 3.(chosen to office etc. but not yet
 installed /muntaxab lammaa yatasallam
 mansibahu ba9d/ (The Oxford English-
 Arabic Dictionary)

elect a.

**/muxtaar, mustafaa, safwah/ "elect"
(Al-Manar)**

As we have seen in the entries mentioned above only the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary and the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary provide illustrative examples. But this is not sufficient guidance because the dictionaries do not indicate the grammatical points explicitly and the illustrative examples are used as a means of meaning discrimination.

If we use illustrative examples as a means of syntactic guidance, they should be accompanied by a pattern that explicitly shows the syntactic behaviour of the adjective, similar to the verb patterns used by the ALD, or a code that differentiates this type of adjective from others. For example we may use the code "P" for adjectives which are used as postmodifiers and the code "R" for premodifiers:

elect (adj,P)

happy (adj,P & R)

This will help the foreign learner a lot and make him avoid such sentences as:

I visited the ill man.

The late leader apologized for being late.

The elect president will come shortly.

4. Only Al-Mawrid and the Oxford English-Arabic

Dictionary include nominalized adjectives but they are not coded as nominalized adjectives. For example the word "accused" is labelled as a noun by the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary:

The accused (n) /al muttaham/ "the accused"

Al-Mawrid labels it both adjective and noun:

accused (adj. n.)

1./ muttaham/ "accused of"

2./Al muttaham; al mudda9aa 9alayhi/
"the accused"

5. Nominalized adjectives used with plural verbs such as "the dead" are not indicated in any of the dictionaries at hand.

6. The preposition needed after each adjective and after each sense is not included. For example the adjective "famous" is entered as follows:

famous [feimðs]

/ma7huur, 7ahiid, 8aa?9 alsiit/
"famous, well-known" (The English-
Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

famous [fa--] adj

1./7ahiid/ "famous"

2. /mumtaaz/ "excellent" a--- dinner.

(Al-Mawrid)

famous a.

/7ahiiir, 8aa?9 al siit, Hasin/

"famous, well-known, good"

(Al-Manar)

famous a.

/7ahiiir,7aa?9 al siit/

"famous, well-known"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

This is quite misleading to Arabic-speaking learners in particular because prepositions differ widely in the two languages. For example the word "famous" is followed by the preposition "with" in Arabic e.g.

/al 9iraaqu ma7huurun bi "with" ? ntaaj 'l' tumuur/
which roughly means "Iraq is famous for producing dates".

5.4.4. Adverbs

The dictionaries analyzed label adverbs but they fail to indicate essential information about adverbs. As a result of this, their treatment of adverbs is always incomplete and misleading:

1. Adverbs postmodifying nouns are not indicated e.g. "ago" is entered as follows:

ágo (adj. adv.)

/qabla, minqabl, mun8u/

"before, before, since"

(Al-Manar)

ago (adv)

/mun8u, mu8/ "since, since"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

ago [əgo]

/maaDy, mun8u, fy al maaDy /

"past, since, in the past"

(Al- Mawrid)

ago [əgəu] adv

/mu8, mun8u(lil maaDy)/

(The train left ten minutes-----).

It is ten minutes since the train left.

(The English-Arabic Reader's

Dictionary)

In these entries none of the dictionaries indicates the syntactic behaviour of "ago". What they concentrate on is the meaning of the word, but they do this in a misleading way since none of the equivalents is an exact equivalent. The exact equivalent is /xalat/ e.g. /øalaaøu ?yyaamin xalat/ "three days ago". This equivalent is both syntactically and semantically identical to "ago".

The illustrative example provided by the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary is intended for meaning discrimination since the lexicographer uses another illustrative example to explain the meaning of "ago" in

the first illustrative example.

As we have seen earlier in this chapter (See 5.2.3.), illustrative examples cannot be considered adequate syntactic guidance unless they are supported by accurate codes or patterns or a gloss telling the learner explicitly the syntactic behaviour of the word. To leave matters in this way is unhelpful to the learner because the only thing he has available is the alleged equivalent / mun8u/ "since" which is not syntactically equivalent. He may therefore produce such sentences as "I have not seen him ago February ", meaning since February. The dictionary has failed to prevent this error.

2. Adverbs which occur as complements are not indicated. The adverb "abroad" is entered as follows:

abroad/ʔbro:d/ adv.

1./xaarij al bilaad/ "outside the country"

be /go/live /travel----

2./ fi kul makaan, fi kul ʔttijah/
"everywhere, in every direction"

(The English-Arabic Reader's
Dictionary)

abroad (adv)

1.(in, to, a foreign land)

/(safratun) ʔlaa al xaarij, xaarij al
bilaad/ "travel outside the country"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

abroad (adv)

/xaarij al bayt aw al bilaad/

"outside the house or the country"

(Al-Manar)

abroad[ʔbrəd] (adj, adv)

1./ biʔitisaa9 fawqa masaaHatin
waasi9ah/ "extensively, on a wide
area"

(a tree spreads its branches....)

2./xaarij al bayt/ "outside the house"

(to walk....) 3. /xaarij Hiduud

biladin maa/

"outside the border of a country" (to
live..)

4. / fy kul ʔtijaah/ "in every
direction"

(news quickly spread....)

5./ muxt? aw munHarif 9an al sabiyH al
saHiyH/ "mistaken or deviating from
the right way" (I am only a
little....)

(Al-Mawrid)

Further syntactic information is needed in such cases. The extent to which the equivalents provided are misleading is also obvious in Al-Mawrid examples. One might suggest the use of codes for detailed information

about the syntactic behaviour of adverbs.

3. Adverbs that can be used in combination with prepositions such as "He jumped right through the window.", are inadequately treated. Further syntactic information is needed in such cases. The extent to which the equivalents provided are misleading is also obvious in Al-Mawrid's examples.

right[riṭ] (adj. n. adv. vt. i)

1.--2---3----4-----23./tamaaman, bi
kul ma fy al kalimah min ma9naa/
"completely, absolutely" (Kamal's hat
was knocked---off)

24. / bitaryqah mulaa?mah aw saHiyHah/
"in a suitable or correct way" (held
his pen----)

25./ mubaa7aratan, bixattin mustaqiyam/
"directly in a straight line" (---to
the bottom)

26./9alaa naHwin sa?b aw mutaabiq
9alaa al Haqiyqah/ "in a straight or
correct way" (to guess---)

27./ tawwan, fawran, fy al Haal/
"soon, immediately, shortly"

28./?1aa Haddin ba9iyd/ "to a great
extent" (---pleasant day)

29. /jiddan/ "very" (the---river end)
(Al-Mawrid)

right[rit](ad)

/9alaa al wajh al saHiyH, bi maa huwa saHiyH, bi9adl/ "in a right way, in a fair way" /9alaa Haq aw sawaab, musaHHaH/ "right or correct" / 9aamidan aw bi ?stiqaamah/ "in a straight way" / yamiynan, tamaaman, fawran, bi taswiyb, jiddan/ "to the right side, completely, immediately, in a correct way, very" (Al-Manar)

right(adv.) (direct, straight)

/fy al Haal/ come right in /marHaban bika, ?udxul biduun taradud/ come right away / ta9aala fy al Haal/

2. Completely /tamaaman/ He returned right now/?stadaara ?laa al waraa?/

3. very/taam/ They gave him a right royal reception/?staqbaluuh ?stiqbaal

al muluuk/ 4.(correctly, properly,

justly/tamaaman/ If I remember

rightly./?i8aa lam taxunny al

8aakirah/ Nothing seems to go right

with you/?nna al HaD la yuHaalifu fy

?y 7ay? taf9aluhu/. It serves him

right/?nnahu yastaHiq haa8aa,

yast?hil/

5.(opposite of left) /yamiyn/ Eyes

right! /yamiyn unDur/

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

If not told the syntactic difference between such adverbs and their equivalents in Arabic, the Arabic-speaking learner may produce such sentences as "The stone came through the window right", because in Arabic we say /jaa?t al-Hijaratu min xilaal al fubaak tamaaman/.

4. Adverbs that do not occur as complements such as "usually", "always", "often" etc. are not marked for this feature. This constitutes a problem to Arabic-speaking learners, especially in sentences having verb "to be" since verb "to be" does not exist in Arabic. For example, Arabic-speaking learners usually produce such sentences as "He is late always."

usually[^uju:ʒðli] adv.

/ʒaadatan, gaaliban/

"usually, often"

(The English-Arabic Reader's
Dictionary)

"Usually", which is a very common word, is not included in Al-Mawrid.

usually adv.

/ʒaadatan, gaaliban/

"usually, often"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

usually adv.

/9aadatan, gaaliban, fy ?glab al
?Hwaal/

"usually, in most situations"

(Al-Manar)

If the dictionary does not include such information, the learner will have recourse to his linguistic competence in his mother tongue and produce such sentences as "He is late always".

5. English-Arabic dictionaries do not indicate the type of word which is modified by the adverb. This is quite misleading to the foreign learner. Al-Kasimi says that we have four types of adverb according to the part of the sentence they modify:

1. Adverbs modifying forms of verbs but not adjectives, like "well-educated" but not "well-clever".

2. Adverbs modifying other adverbs and adjectives, but not verbs e.g. "very clever" but not "walk very".

3. Adverbs modifying sentences e.g. "Usually his plans work."

4. Adverbs which can be added to verbs to make idioms such as "leave out the details"; we cannot say "leave quickly the city" (Al-Kasimi, 1977: 57). If we take the adverb "very" for example and see how it is treated in English -Arabic dictionaries we find:

Very: adv.

/jiddan, lilgaayah/ "very ,extremely"

This is my very lowest price.

/haa8aa al s9r huwa Haddy al ?dnaa/.

He used the very same words.

/?sta9mala tilka al alfaaD bil Harf al
waaHid/

very good (well)/ wahwa ka8aalik,
9aal/

I am not very fond of music.

This house is my very own.

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

very, adv.

/jiddan, tamaaman, jid/

"very, completely, extremely/

(Al-Manar)

very[veri] adv.

1-----2---3----4-----5--

6./jiddan, ?laa Haddin ba9iid/

"very, to a great extent"

7./fi9lan/ "actually"

The----- best school in the town.

8./tamaaman/ "exactly"

She expected the very opposite result.

(Al-Mawrid)

very/veri/ adv.

/jiddan, lil gaaiyah/

"very, extremely"

(The English-Arabic Reader's
Dictionary)

Since no practical syntactic guidance is offered by English-Arabic dictionaries, the learner has nothing to refer to but the equivalents. Unfortunately here even the equivalents are misleading because of the difference in their syntactic behaviour. If he follows them an Arabic-speaking learner might produce such sentences as "The plan worked very", because in Al-Mawrid, for example, he finds /?laa Haddin ba9iid/ "to a great extent". If the dictionary is to be a help and not a hindrance to the process of language learning, it should give the learner an accurate syntactic guidance.

A good treatment is provided by the ALD, which shows not only the meaning but also the use:

very [veri] adv.

(used intensively with adj and adverbs
and part adj) ----quickly/ carefully
soon etc.----much/little----amusing/
interesting etc.,--small/cold/ useful.
etc. (Note that when the pp. is part of
a passive voice phrase, much or very
much is preferred, when the p p. is

the complement of be, seem, feel,---is used): I wasn't much surprised at the news. He wasn't much interested in the news. Cf He was /seemed---interested.--well often used to indicate agreement or assent (often after persuasion or argument or in obedience to a command, request etc.) V--well doctor, I'll give up smoking. Oh---well, if you insist. 2.(with a superl, or own) in the highest possible degree: the---best quality, the---first to arrive; six o'clock at the---latest. you can keep this for your----own.

5.4.5. Pronouns

The way pronouns are treated in English-Arabic dictionaries is far from being satisfactory. All types of pronouns are labelled (pron). There is no indication of their being demonstrative, interrogative, personal, possessive or relative pronouns. The dictionaries emphasize their lexical meanings and ignore their functions or the ways they are distributed.

5.4.5.1. Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are not identical in English and Arabic. In Arabic demonstratives are inflected according

to number, gender and the distance of the noun qualified. As for their distribution, in Arabic, they may be both post nominal and prenominal according to the noun they qualify. Haywood states that if the demonstrative pronouns qualify a simple noun they precede it and the noun takes the indefinite article as in / haa8aa l kitaabu/ "this book". If the noun "is defined by a following genitive or a prenominal suffix the demonstrative is placed after these" as in: / ibnu l maliki haa8aa/" This son of the King" (Haywood, 1962: 81).

English-Arabic dictionaries deny all this and try to coordinate English demonstratives with demonstrative pronouns in Arabic. The pronoun "this" for example is entered:

this (prn; pl these)
 /haa8aa, haa8ihi, haatihi/
 "this" (Al-Manar)

this [this] (pron;adj) Plural these
 1./haa8aa, haa8ihi/
 2./haa8aa lil zamaan wa al makaan/
 "this, this for place and time"
 (expected her to return before...to
 wait....long.) (Al-Mawrid)

If the learner is not told the difference between the distribution of demonstratives in English and Arabic, he may use English demonstratives as postmodifiers and

produce such sentences as "I visited the part of the country this".

5.4.5.2. Relative Pronouns

The treatment of relative pronouns in English-Arabic dictionaries is inadequate and misleading. They emphasize their meanings and ignore their functions and their distribution. They are usually treated as groups in single entries and given the same meaning without the learner being told the difference between them and the places where they are used:

who, whom, whose (pron)

1. (interrog) / man/

"who, which, that, whom, whose"

2. (rel) "relative" /?llaty etc./ "who, which.etc. (The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

Who (pron)

1. /man/ "Who, whom, which etc.

2. /alla8y, alla8iyn, alla8aan, allawaaty, allwaaty etc. "who, who for plural nouns, who for dual etc". (Al-Mawrid)

whō [hōo] prn.

/alla8y, man, allaty etc.

"who, who, who"

(Al-Manar)

who /hu:/(interr pron)

/fy Haalat al raf9 lil 9aaqil/ "when
it is used as a subject"

Whom /hu:m/ /siygat al mulk/ "when
used as an object"

whose/hu:z/ /siigat al mulk minhaa/
1./man lil 9aaqil/" who, whom, for
persons" Who is that man? Do you know
who she is ? Do you know whom you are
speaking to? To whom did you give it ?
/fy al lugah al rasmiyah/ "formal" Who
did you give it to? /fy al lugah al
daarijah/ "informal" 2. /alla8y,
allaty lil9aaqil/ "who, whom for
persons" This is the man who asked to
see you. My son whom you met last week
wants to see you again. (The English-
Arabic Reader's Dictionary)

The problem here is that, unlike English, Arabic has one equivalent for all these pronouns. When they are used as interrogative pronouns, it is /man/, and /alla8y/ with suitable inflections when they are used as relative pronouns. To give one word for all these pronouns will not offer the learner any help either in semantics or in syntax. So dictionaries should sweep the whole floor instead of hiding things under the rug. Instead of these unsuccessful attempts to coordinate the linguistic forms

of the two languages, a process which is fairly difficult, they should tell the learner the difference between the two languages in this particular aspect and support what they state with illustrative examples. Illustrative examples alone will not do. If they fail to do this, the Arabic-speaking learner is likely to produce such sentences as "We repaired the chair whom she had broken", since the equivalent /alla8y / which is provided by dictionaries stands in his mother tongue for all cases of the pronoun.

Another important point is that some dictionaries try to code relative pronouns, but the codes themselves are not included in the front matter such as the use of "rel" by The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary in the entry for "who".

5.4.5.3. Personal Pronouns

Personal pronouns are also not identical in the two languages. For many pronouns in English there are a number of pronouns in Arabic, but sometimes the opposite is true. /hua/ stands for both "he" and "it"; /hiya/ stands for "she" and "it". "you" stands for /ana, anta, antuma, antum/. The duty of any dictionary intended to be used by Arabic-speaking learners is to make such differences clear and not to minimize them. What we find in English-Arabic dictionaries is that the main focus is on the meaning of such pronouns while their function and

distribution are completely ignored:

she pron /hiya/ "she"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

she [she]

1./hiya/ "she"

2. /al unøaa min al Haywaan wa al
insaan/

"female both human and animal"

(Al-Mawrid)

she prn

/hiya lil 9aaqil aw al 7abiyhu bil
9aaqil/

"she for both inanimate and animate"

(Al-Manar)

she/ |i:/ pron

/hiya (qaarin her fy siygat alnasb wa
al jar)/ "she" compare "her" in the
form of an object (The English-Arabic
Reader's Dictionary)

If the dictionary is to help the learner produce the foreign language it should indicate all the necessary information about the pronoun in the entry for that pronoun with the forms it takes in different positions. For example in the entry for "he" we should tell the learner the possessive, reflexive, and the object form of the pronoun so that he may have an idea of the structure

of the foreign language. At the same time, and in order to provide easy access to the information included, we may give each form a separate entry with cross-reference.

5.4.6. Prepositions

Prepositions constitute a real problem for Arabic-speaking learners because of the wide difference in their distributions in the two languages. Sometimes there is an overlapping between their meanings as adverbs and their meanings as prepositions. For example the adverb "between" is entered:

between prep & adv.

/ bayna fy maa bayna/ "between" . few
and far between /naadir aw qaliyl(al
Hiduø)/ between whiles/ fy fataraat
mutabaa9idah, bayna al fiynah wa al
fiynah/ There is little to choose
between them./laysa baynahumaa farq
yu8kar, humaa 9alaa Haddin sawaa?/(The
Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

between (prep)

/bayna fy maa bayna, maa baynaa/
"between"

between (a)

/bayna, duuna/ "between"

between (adj)

/fy maa baynaa/

(Al-Manar)

between, prep, adv. [bitwēn]

/bayna, fymaa bayna/~~~the devil and
 the deep sea/ bayna naarayn/
 ~~~ourselves/fy maa baynanaa, alsir  
 lan yatajaawazana/  
 far~~~1. /fy fataraatin mutabaa9idah/  
 "between whiles" 2. /mutabaa9id  
 ba9Dahu 9an ba9D min Hayøu al makaan  
 aw al mawqi9/ "in distant places"  
 in~~~/1. fy al wasat 2./ wast ka8aa/"  
 in the middle, in the middle of  
 something" (Al-Mawrid)

The Oxford English-Arabic dictionary has provided /bayna, fy maa bayna/ as the equivalents of "between" both as an adverb and as a preposition. The learner is not told which one is for the preposition and which one is for the adverb. No syntactic guidance of any type is provided.

The entry provided by Al-Manar is more misleading than that of the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary. It provides almost the same equivalents for "between" as an adverb, an adjective and as preposition. The same can be said of the entry for "between" in Al-Mawrid.

What is even worse is that the same equivalents are used for another preposition, "among", which is not an exact synonym of "between" in English.

among [ʔmʊŋ] amongst

/bayna, fy maa bayna, wasat/

(Al-Mawrid)

From the entries mentioned above we see not only that the absence of adequate syntactic guidance is the dominant feature of English-Arabic dictionaries but also that the equivalents provided are misleading. The learner has nothing to help him. If he refers to his mother tongue he will be misled since Arabic and English differ widely in their syntax. For example there is no difference between "among" and "between" in Arabic. If he refers to the equivalents provided, he will be misled too as we have seen earlier. A better treatment is provided by the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary:

**between**[betwi:n] ( prep)

1./bayna (lil makaan) /"between for location" The letter B comes ~ A and C.The Mediterranean sea is ~Europe and Africa./ yaqa9 al baHr al abyad al mutawasst bayna ?wrubaa wa ?fryqya/ 2. /al ritbah/" rank" A corporal rank is ~a private soldier and a sergeant 3./al zamaan/ "time"~two and three o'clock 4. /Al masaafah wa al kammiyah wa gayraha/" distance, amount and so on"~five and six miles.~freezing and boiling points 5./li tibyaan al

mu7aarakah wa al inDimmam/" for sharing" share the money~/among you. B~the two of them, they did much to make the party succeed 6. /li tibyaan al 9ilaaqah wa al muqaaranah/" for showing relations and for comparison". We can usually distinguish ~right and wrong. The relation~management and staff is excellent.

In spite of the illustrative examples used, the learner will not be able to know the syntactic behaviour of "between" unless he is explicitly told. The present writer thinks that, instead of providing the translation of illustrative examples, we can benefit the learner by telling him the way this preposition is used and where it is impossible to use it. He should know whether he can say "She was between the people who visited the museum." or not.

#### 5.4.7. The Definite and the Indefinite Articles

One of the major problems facing Arabic-speaking learners is the distribution of definite and indefinite articles since this is not identical to what is found in his mother tongue. In Arabic the definite article is /al-/, which is the partial equivalent of "the" in English,

but the difference here is that /al-/ is prefixed to the noun, for example /bayt/ "house" becomes /albayt/ "the house", i.e. it becomes a part of the noun and not a separate word. Moreover /al-/ is differently distributed. For example we cannot produce such sentences in Arabic as " Man invaded the moon". We should say /al?nsaanu gazaa al qamar/ "The man invaded the moon". Furthermore adjectives qualifying nouns having definite articles should have the same articles, for example /al bintu al jamiylatu/ "the beautiful girl".

The indefinite article does not exist in Arabic. We can realize indefiniteness by the ending of the word. If it ends with /-un/ like /kitaabun/ "a book" then it is indefinite.

The duty of any dictionary geared to Arabic-speaking learners is to take these differences into consideration when presenting information about such articles. Unfortunately we notice that the majority of English-Arabic dictionaries limit themselves to the meaning of such articles and ignore their function. The definite article "the" is entered as follows:

**the** [the, thə, thi]

/ laam al ta9riyf, al- alta9riyf/

"the definite article al-/

(Al-Mawrid)

**the** [thi before a vowel, the before a consonant]

a./ al- alta9riyf/

"The definite article the"

(Al-Manar)

the:

/tθ, walaakinahaa tulfad/ti/ qabla al  
 aswaat al layynah/ "but it is  
 pronounced/ti/ before vowels"/adaat al  
 ta9iyf/ "the definite article" / aqal  
 taHdiydan min/ "less in definiteness  
 than" this, that, these, those.play---  
 guitar/piano (but cf play tennis,  
 football etc.) The car does thirty  
 miles to the gallon. / tastahlik al  
 sayyarah gaaluun waaHid kul øalaaøiyna  
 mylan/ (The English-Arabic Reader's  
 Dictionary)

#### 5.5. Morphological Information in English- Arabic Dictionaries

Each language has its unique sounds and its unique ways of using them in meaningful combinations (Hodge, 1985: 30). So a dictionary geared to the foreign learner should indicate these combinations extensively. In other words it should include adequate morphological information, especially adapted for inclusion in dictionaries and for offering the learner morphological guidance which will lead to a full understanding of the internal structure of the foreign language. The importance of this



information has been emphasized by many eminent linguists . (See 5.3.1.)

In 1948 Hill noted that we expect to find five types of information. One of them was the morphemic structure of the foreign language. (See 5.3.1.)

Mary R. Haas in 1962 emphasized the importance of morphological information in a bilingual dictionary:

It would contain all the inflectional, derivational, syntactic and semantic information that any user might ever need. (Haas, 1962: 45).

In 1984 Gabriel Stein emphasized the importance of such information for the foreign learner and stated that it promotes encoding (Stein, 1984: 38).

But this fact has not been realized by the lexicographers of English-Arabic dictionaries :

1. None of the five dictionaries has a section in the front matter on the morphology of the foreign language.

2. They emphasize the meaning of some affixes and ignore their function. But there is no consistency even in the way they do that. The following tables show the extent to which a sample of affixes is included as separate entries in the dictionaries.

**Table 1: Suffixes in the five dictionaries**

x= included      0 = not included

| Affixes | Man | OEAD | Maw | EARD | EMD |
|---------|-----|------|-----|------|-----|
| -able   | X   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -bly    | 0   | 0    | 0   | 0    | 0   |
| -al     | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ance   | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ate    | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -er     | 0   | 0    | 0   | 0    | 0   |
| -ery    | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ily    | 0   | 0    | 0   | 0    | 0   |
| -ing    | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ly     | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ment   | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ness   | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -or     | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -ous    | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |
| -y      | 0   | 0    | X   | 0    | 0   |

**Table 2: Prefixes in the five dictionaries**

| Prefixes | EARD | Man | OEAD | Maw | EMD |
|----------|------|-----|------|-----|-----|
| bi-      | X    | 0   | X    | X   | X   |
| by-      | 0    | 0   | 0    | 0   | 0   |
| co-      | X    | 0   | X    | X   | X   |
| dis-     | X    | X   | 0    | X   | X   |
| en-      | 0    | 0   | 0    | X   | X   |
| mid-     | 0    | 0   | 0    | 0   | 0   |
| mis-     | X    | 0   | 0    | X   | X   |
| non-     | X    | 0   | X    | X   | X   |
| out-     | 0    | 0   | 0    | 0   | 0   |

|       |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------|---|---|---|---|---|
| over- | X | O | O | O | O |
| post- | O | O | O | X | X |
| pre-  | X | X | X | X | X |
| pro-  | X | X | X | X | O |
| semi- | X | X | X | X | O |
| tri   | X | O | X | X | X |

---

These tables show that the inclusion of affixes in English-Arabic dictionaries is arbitrary. Prefixes seem to have received better treatment.

The inclusion of affixes as separate entries is in fact of no practical value at all. It cannot facilitate comprehension since affixes do not occur in isolation. They are largely meaningless unless they are used with other morphemes. This method of inclusion is not of a practical value unless the learner is told something about affixes in the front matter.

Compounds seem to have received no better attention. They are either completely neglected or entered as separate entries with no indication of their relatedness to their constituents. For example "kind-hearted" is included as a main entry after "kind" in Al-Mawrid and Al-Manar. It is not included in the Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary and the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary.

The present writer thinks that the dictionary should give the learner an adequate description of the morphology of the foreign language. This can be achieved through the use of the technique of subentries. The consistent listing of stem, derivatives, allomorphs, and

compounds will make the learner consciously associate them with the headword. General rules may be indicated in the front matter of the dictionary while the irregularities and the reinforcement of these general rules should be indicated in the entries. This display of derivationally related forms in one entry is extremely useful for showing the foreign learner the morphological structure of the foreign language.

As for inflectional affixation, the present writer thinks that the general rules governing it should be included in the front matter while the entries should deal with the irregularities and the reinforcement of such rules in the illustrative examples.

It might be argued that the drawing together of all the derivationally related forms under one entry will make access to the information included in the dictionary more difficult since some entries will be out of their strict alphabetic place. But accessibility can be achieved through the use of cross reference techniques. Words may be listed according to their alphabetic order and cross-referenced to the main entry they are related to.

## CHAPTER SIX

### USAGE

#### 6.1. Introduction

The wide spread of English and its being the native or first language of over three hundred millions living in different parts of the world has led to the existence of different varieties of English owing to the different cultures and linguistic needs of the speakers. National varieties have flourished and at the same time different social groups inside each country have developed their own varieties, which has led to the existence of socially-graded varieties. These social varieties have been enriched by vocabulary items which were needed by members of the social group in their daily life and at work. Such vocabulary items were either coined by the members of these groups or borrowed from other languages.

The existence of these new forms has led to the existence of two or more linguistic forms which are essentially the same in meaning but convey different social values. This situation can cause problems for lexicographers. For example the word "ain't", which simply means "is/am/are not" and "has/have not", caused a storm of debate when it was first included in WNID3 in 1961 not because it was not understood by people but because it was "an expression used by people on the fringes of polite society" (Sledd & Ebbitt, 1962: 56).

This reaction shows how there are different occasions where forms or linguistic units may be used appropriately. Thus it does not become a gentleman to use words which are coined by thieves, though they convey the same meanings as other words. At the same time it does not suit the same man to use colloquial words on formal occasions.

This situation constitutes a problem to the foreign learner who is not familiar with the foreign language. He should not only know the meanings of words as he normally does in his mother tongue but also other things. He has to choose the right word for the right context. Professor Leech et al. in the preface of 1987 edition of LDOCE states:

It is difficult to explain the meaning of some words without giving details of the context in which it would be appropriate to use them (Leech et al., 1987: f13).

Graves emphasizes the same point and states that:

It is more important that the students should know the context in which words and phrases might be used than that they should be able to explain their meanings (Graves, 1967: 141).

The foreign learner has to choose the right word and style for the right context. He also has to know the social implication of the linguistic item (Decamp, 1985: 147). In order to do that he has to know certain things

about the linguistic form. As Hornby puts it, he must know:

.....that it is not too formal or colloquial, that it will not offend the listener or the reader or that it is not dated (old fashioned) or archaic (no longer used) (Hornby, 1986, xxvi).

The foreign learner who has not grown up with the language may not be able to do that without being guided.

This guidance cannot be offered by textbooks in a satisfactory manner for two reasons:

1. Types of usage do not lend themselves easily to any classification.

2. Textbooks are prone to oversimplification or in the words of A.H.Marckwardt:

Textbooks oversimplify complex linguistic issues in the interest of what their authors conceive to be pedagogical effectiveness and there is surely a justification for that (Marckwardt, 1973: 271).

The most suitable place for the accurate guidance needed by the foreign learner is the dictionary. Sadly enough, the eyes of dictionary makers have been closed to some extent to such a problem, though it is one of the basic duties of the dictionary. Yorkey states:

For foreign students who have no way to judge the status of words and grammatical forms, it seems practically important that a dictionary gives them some kind of guidance (Yorkey, 1969: 204).

According to Cowie the lack of usage information in a dictionary intended for foreign learners leads not only to misunderstanding but also sometimes to offence (Cowie, 1977: 8).

Some linguists go further in this field and think that the dictionary should not only give the foreign learner usage information but also warn him of words not to be used in certain situations. M.R.Haas states that the ideal dictionary should

---contain information on all levels of usage including special warnings about words not to be used in the presence of ladies, in the presence of children, or to or in the presence of superiors (Haas, 1962: 45).

In spite of all that focus on the importance of usage for the foreign learner, we still find that there is a wide reluctance among lexicographers to deal extensively with usage levels because it is thought that it is very difficult to do so. Allen Walker Read states:

I feel that the central practical procedure of lexicography will always be the gathering of documented evidence on all aspects of usage. This is laborious work, perhaps "donkey work", and can be mechanized, I think, only partially. Nevertheless I will welcome the time when we can give the order, "switch on the lexicography machine" (Read, 1962: 217).

The present situation has brought new implications with it. Professor Sinclair and his colleagues have partly



achieved what Read had dreamed of in Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary. There is now no reason why it should not become a lexicographical convention to include notes and usage labels fairly extensively, especially in a dictionary geared to foreign learners. The evidence can be easily retrieved from a computer, which represents the lexicography machine mentioned by Read, though a human being still has to analyze the context and decide what is appropriate when there is little evidence.

In this chapter we shall survey the treatment of usage information in existing dictionaries with special reference to English-Arabic dictionaries and propose new ideas for the benefit of the foreign learner and the advancement of dictionary making.

## 6.2. The Indication of Usage

The indication of usage orientation, is nothing new in lexicography. Usage notes first appeared in Bullokar's English Expositor in 1616 (Wells, 1973:87). But the indication of such guidance remains an area of some controversy. It faces two traditions.

The first is the prescriptive tradition, which was first introduced by Samuel Johnson who believed that dictionaries should help in fixing the language and exclude its absurdities. Dictionaries should be used to keep language pure and items for inclusion should be

selected on this basis. In this way the dictionary is considered a linguistic judge. Correctness depends on what is included in the dictionary.

The second tradition is the descriptive one. The followers of this tradition believe that the dictionary should describe the language as it is used by its own community. They think that the duty of the dictionary is "to record and not to criticize" (Weekly, 1962: 17). Their philosophy is well-summarized in a letter by Philip Gove addressed to the editor of "Life Magazine", when Gove says:

The responsibility of the dictionary is to record the language, not to set its styles. For us to prescribe the language would be like "Life" reporting the news as its editors would prefer it to happen (Gove, 1962: 91).

WNID3 represents the real application of this philosophy. The project caused widespread controversy, which was described as being wider than that caused by the war in Vietnam. But the wide discussions helped to enlighten and deepen that philosophy.

The present writer thinks that a dictionary, especially one intended to be used by foreign learners, should be descriptive. The main emphasis of the dictionary should be put firmly on contemporary language with special attention to language of daily communication. The foreign learner does not need to know what the native speaker should use but what he is really using, since he studies

the language to communicate with other speakers of the language. Moreover life, people, and their needs change and language changes accordingly to serve the new needs and to suit the new type of life. There is no logical reason why we should permit the changes in life and consider them normal while the changes in language resulting from them are considered abnormal.

Those who still believe in the prescriptive tradition and try to fix the language are like those who still believe in fighting a well-equipped army with swords. Even Johnson himself admits the impossibility of fixing the language when he writes in his preface:

Those who have been persuaded to think well of my design, require that it should fix our language, and put a stop to those alterations which time and chance have hitherto been suffered to make in it without opposition. With this consequence I will confess that I flattered myself for a while; but now begin to fear that I have indulged expectations which neither reason nor experience can justify. When we see men grow old and die at certain time one after another, from century to century, we laugh at the elixir that promises to prolong life to a thousand years....(Sledd and Ebbitt, 1962: 28).

At the same time the dictionary should not be open to all types of words and have nothing to do with what ought to be. Indeed the dictionary has many functions. These functions are well-summarized by Zorg when he states:

A dictionary has three functions: descriptive (giving forms and uses actually recorded),

pedagogical (teaching facts about the spelling, pronunciation, words, meanings, uses and idioms of the language.) and prescriptive (stating what the language should be (Zorg, 1979: 71).

People expect that they will find a judgement when they refer to a dictionary and they have the right to think so. But the judgement given should be based on usage and not on a personal taste.

Funk in his preface to his "New Standard Dictionary of the English Language" mentions two reasons why the dictionary cannot escape the responsibility of passing a judgement:

In the first place usage is infinitely various so that the whole of it cannot possibly be recorded. It varies with the time and place, with the culture and social status of the individual with the speech habits of the community. A selection of the usages to be recorded must inevitably be made, and selection involves a critical act. To include or to exclude is to pass a judgement. In the second place change is the law of life for a spoken language and usage therefore never absolutely binding...(Sledd and Ebbitt, 1962: 40).

In order to select effectively, dictionaries should have a standard on the basis of which they take their decisions. This constitutes a problem for lexicographers because of the difficulty of finding what is called standard English. Philip Gove stated:

In order to understand decisions about usage, one should probably understand something of the underlying concept of what standard English is, who uses it, where it is found (Gove, 1966: 285).

Some linguists believe the standard is the language used by professional writers. But who are the professional writers? Others think that it is the language of educated people; others again think that it is the language of a certain social group.

The concept of standard English is also a problem for methodologists, textbook writers and teachers of English. In a meeting held in October 1986 at the B.B.C. in Edinburgh attended by the present writer, well-known English teachers and linguists were trying to find an answer to the question "Which variety to teach?", thus proving after 25 years what Funk had prophesied in his preface to his "New Standard Dictionary of the English Language" when he wrote:

It may be that at some future time, the English speaking people will call an international orthoepic congress with a view of discussing and compromising dialectal differences and agreeing on a convenient elect norm, which could be then taught in schools by means of standard phonographs (FUNK& Wagnalls, 1961, :xxi).

Though Funk's prophesy refers to pronunciation and spelling only, it is also applicable to all aspects of the language.

The present writer thinks that in choosing a certain variety as a standard we should not refer language to individuals and their education because the education of individuals may vary. At the same time we should not

think of languages in terms of social classes. Language as a human heritage has nothing to do with classes. It has to be thought of in terms of its success in helping people communicate with one another.

As for EFL dictionaries, the standard should be a variety which is least restricted in social or geographical aspects, a variety which is well-understood by the majority if not all speakers, since the foreign learner wants to be widely understood. He is not interested in varieties and controversial areas. So it is quite logical to propose here that the concept of "Core English" mentioned by Quirk in his "Comprehensive Grammar" (Quirk, 1985) should be implemented in EFL dictionaries.

### **6.3. Recording Usage Levels**

There is inconsistency in recording usage levels. What is considered informal by a certain lexicographer may be considered formal by another. This constitutes such a formidable problem that Gove suggests the following:

Let us instead of arguing about such labels as colloquial, informal, vulgar, low and slang settle for the use of a sign - an obelus (∴) to mean "people have divided ideas about the propriety of this word" (Gove, 1966: 292).

Three methods are employed by lexicographers nowadays. The first method was introduced by "The American College

Dictionary" in 1947. They chose to follow decisions taken by a usage committee composed of eminent linguists such as Leonard Bloomfield, Charles Fries, Cable Greet, Irving Lorge, and Kemp Malone (Landau, 1985: 204).

The second method was proposed by Barnhart. He suggested the use of a questionnaire for labelling linguistic forms. The advisory committee are asked a number of questions and the decision should be taken on the basis of their answers. He attached "a list of typical restrictions" used in dictionaries for help in forming the labels (Barnhart, 1962: 178-180).

The third method of recording usage makes use of frequency for determining usage. Modern lexicographers use a computerized corpus, a process which is successfully used by Sinclair and his colleagues in their COBUILD English Language Dictionary. Twenty million words collected from books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, leaflets, conversations, radio and television broadcasts were put into a computer (Sinclair, 1987: xv). The aim of the process is to provide a true representation of contemporary English.

The present writer thinks that the last method is of more practical value than the first two methods since the evidence is found in the language itself. The frequency of the word and its actual use are the deciding factors in determining its usage status. Personal tastes and emotions will not play a decisive role in determining usage. But the corpus should be wider than the COBUILD

corpus since we still need a usage panel owing to the lack of evidence in some cases. Sinclair admits that a usage panel is used "whenever there is a small amount of evidence of the usage of a word or a phrase" (Sinclair, 1987: xv).

#### **6.4. The Presentation of Usage Information in Dictionaries**

Existing dictionaries translate decisions about usage, whether taken by the lexicographer himself, through a questionnaire, by a usage panel or by frequency depending on a computerized corpus, into labels. But there is no consistency in labelling. Most dictionaries use their own system of labels. The commonest labels used by dictionaries are:

##### **1. Labels of Currency**

The learner is told here whether a word is archaic or obsolete. This is an important piece of information since the foreign learner is not familiar with the foreign language and indicating the currency of the word will make him avoid using dated words and expressions in his production of the foreign language. Thus he will be widely understood.

##### **2. Frequency of Use**

The only label used here is "rare". It might be argued that such a label is misleading because the learner may take it as a warning against using such words. The best



solution may be the use of a gloss telling the learner where the word is rare: in formal language, in colloquial language, slang or whatever.

### **3. Regional and geographical variations**

Here the user is usually told whether the term is common in British English or American English. But some dictionaries go further to mention whether terms are Canadian, Australian, New Zealand, Irish or Scottish English.

The present writer thinks that in learner dictionaries we should not complicate matters for the foreign learner. What the learner really needs is core English or a variety which is widely understood by speakers of all varieties. To mention all these national varieties in a learner dictionary is impractical for the following reasons:

- a. They are space consuming.
- b. They draw the attention of learners to different varieties while he should concentrate on one variety.

### **4. Field Labels**

The user is told here, especially for technical or specialized terminology, where special senses are used in fields such as chemistry, anatomy, mathematics etc.

The present writer thinks that the principal value of indicating such information is that it helps the learner discriminate meaning. Only on a few occasions can we safely indicate that a certain linguistic form belongs exclusively to a certain field and is not used outside

that field. This is because of technological advances and the wide human knowledge which makes people use many words in their daily production of the language which are traditionally considered to belong to a certain field. Moreover technical terms are unlikely to be needed by foreign learners at least at the elementary stages.

Strangely enough we still find some dictionaries using large numbers of field labels, to such an extent that the learner cannot manage to understand them without referring to the introduction every time he consults the dictionary.

#### **5. Restricted and Taboo Usage**

The user is told here whether the word is vulgar, obscene etc.

It must be argued that such words should not be included in the dictionary intended for learners at secondary school level, since they are better avoided in the production of the foreign language for moral reasons, especially in the third world, where the social values are against the least reference to them. Still there is a possibility to include them in dictionaries for advanced learners.

#### **6. Insult Words**

The learner is told here whether words are offensive, disparaging, contemptuous etc.

The present writer thinks that including such information is quite important for the foreign learners, who have little familiarity with the foreign language.

But such information cannot be accurately provided through usage labels because the real effect of such words depends on the relationship between the interlocutors. A word which is generally offensive may not be so when used between friends and at the same time it may be offensive if we use it on a wrong occasion. It is the duty of the lexicographer to tell the learner explicitly, by using a gloss, where and with whom such words should not be used and with whom they are not offensive.

For example the word "bastard" is offensive when used with strangers while it is not so when used with close friends. This type of information is lacking in most, if not all, the existing dictionaries but it is the sort of real and practical usage guidance needed by foreign learners.

## **7. Slang**

The label "slang" conveys not only the linguistic status of the word but also its social implications. Many slang words have been used for a long time but have never been recognized as standard because the type of people they are used by have become a part of their linguistic properties. The word "finalize" was first introduced by one of the American presidents; within a short period of time, the word became a part of formal terminology. However, there are hundreds of words which have been used in everyday English for a long time but, because they are

not used by important people have never become formal.

Another problem with slang is that it changes so quickly so as soon as the dictionary is published the words may have changed their status.

### **8. Style Labels**

Style labels tell the learner whether words are formal, informal, colloquial, literary, poetic etc.

Style labels are urgently needed by foreign learners. If we examine the production of foreign learners, we often find that it is a mixture of all styles. The dictionary may be held responsible for this because the learner is not well-informed of the real situations where words can be used. Robert Ilson emphasizes this fact when he states:

...the labelling of things as formal is absolutely essential to keep foreign learners from sounding too formal: as real a danger for them as is the danger of sounding informal (Ilson, 1986 b: 60).

Unfortunately the majority of bilingual dictionaries intended for foreign learners neglect style labels, especially the indication of the label "formal". They are influenced by monolingual dictionaries intended for native speakers, where there is a reluctance to label formality owing to the feeling that:

The proper language begins with the unmarked and includes everything above it whereas every thing below it—colloquial, slang, etc. is worthy of labelling because it is not part of the standard language (Ilson , 1986 b: 60).

The learner should also be told the difference between the colloquial and literary words.

### **9. Status or Cultural Level**

The learner is usually told here whether the word is nonstandard, substandard or illiterate.

The present writer thinks that any dictionary geared to foreign learners should deal in great depth with usage. Such a dictionary should not limit itself to usage labels only. It should go further than that and provide the learner with usage glosses and usage examples. These in turn should take the linguistic background of the learner into consideration. Usage notes and examples in a dictionary intended for native speakers should not be the same as those found in a dictionary for foreign learners. At the same time usage notes and examples in a dictionary intended for Arabic-speaking learners should not be the same as those found in a dictionary intended for a Japanese-speaking learner.

It might be logical to propose here that in order to offer the user practical linguistic guidance, dictionary makers should analyze the communication systems and the cultures of the two languages involved in order to avoid the interference of the mother tongue and to have a full awareness of the level of usage in the foreign language. For example in Iraqi Arabic if you want to admire someone a lot in his absence, you start by cursing him or his parents e.g. "Curse on him, what a clever man he is". In a

dictionary intended for foreign learners of Arabic we should indicate in a gloss that it is normal to do so.

### 6.5. Usage in English-Arabic Dictionaries

Usage orientation has received very little attention in the existing English-Arabic dictionaries. Some, such as Al-Manar, do not include any usage information either in the front matter or in the entries. Others, such as Elias Modern Dictionary, The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary, and The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, include a few labels and some usage notes. But usage orientation provided by English-Arabic dictionaries is defective for the following reasons:

1. Obsolete and archaic words are registered in an arbitrary way. Some are included, others are not, without any logical principle. For example the word "argent" in the sense of "silver" is entered as follows:

**argent** [arjənt]

1. / fuDDah / "q" "archaic" "silver"

2. / fuDDy / "of silver"

(Al-Mawrid)

**argent**

1. /?byad/"white"\*/bayaad fuDDy/  
"silver white"\*/fuDDah/"silver"/fuDDy/  
"of silver"

(Elias Modern Dictionary)

<sup>^</sup>/  
**argent, n.** a./fuDDah/"silver"

(Al-Manar)

The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary and The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary exclude the word "argent" while at the same time they include the the word "hither" in the sense of "to this place":

**hither, adv**

**/ʔilaa hunaa/ "to this place"**

**(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)**

**hither [hiθ(r) ] adv**

**/hunaa, (ʔq)/"archaic" "to this place"**

**(The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary)**

Al-Mawrid includes "hither" and excludes "hint" in the sense of "occasion".

Elias Modern Dictionary includes "damsel" and excludes "hint".

There is also inconsistency in labelling these words. The word "argent" for example is labelled "archaic" in Al-Mawrid while it is not labelled in Elias Modern Dictionary. This implies that the dictionary considers it normal.

Another good example is the word "thou" in the sense of "you". It is entered in the five dictionaries as follows:

**thou, prn**

**/ʔnta, ʔnti/ "you"**

**Al-Manar**

thou [thou] pron; vt

1./ʔnta, ʔnti/ "you"

2./yuxaatibhu bi haa8ihi al  
taryqah/"address him in this way"

(Al-Mawrid)

thou pron

/ʔnta,ʔnti/ "you"

(The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary)

thou[tau ](pron; vt.)

1./ʔnta/"you"/ʔisti9maal ʔadaby aw  
qadiim/ "archaic" or "literary" (The  
English-Arabic Reader's dictionary)

thou

/ʔnta,ʔnti/ "you" /yusta9mal lil  
ta9Diim wa al tabjiil/ "used for  
extolling and magnifying"

(Elias Modern Dictionary)

As we have seen all the dictionaries mentioned above, except the English-Arabic Reader's dictionary, do not indicate that "thou" is "archaic". Elias Modern dictionary tries to tell the user where the word is appropriate for use. This implies that the word is still used in contemporary English. The learner may produce such sentences as "Thou are very kind" when addressing his superiors, since such expressions are frequently used in Arabic. Instead of saying /ʔnta/ "you", we usually say /ʔntum/ when addressing a superior.



2. As for national and regional labels, English-Arabic dictionaries indicate senses found in British English and neglect senses in American English. But there is no consistency in that. Sometimes they include American senses without telling the learner that they are found in American English only. For example Al-Mawrid includes the word "hood" and indicates the two senses of the word in British and American English without indicating that they belong to different national varieties.

**hood {hood] (n.), (vt)**

1..2...3. a. /giṭaa? aw kabbuut al  
9arabah aw al sayyaarah/ "car tent"  
b./giṭaa ? muḤarrik al saal ma9dani/  
"bonnet" (Al-Mawrid)

The Arabic-speaking learner may produce such sentences as "Can you show me the way to a shop where I can find a hood for my car?" in Britain when he means "a bonnet" and he will be misunderstood and led to the wrong shop.

3. Field labels are widely used by English-Arabic dictionaries. But the problem is that some dictionaries use large numbers of them so that it is quite difficult for the foreign learner to know what is meant by each of them without referring to the front matter of the dictionary every time he consults it. Al-Mawrid, for example, uses 85 labels. Most of the labels are redundant. For example the word "battery" in the sense of "an army unit of big guns with men and vehicles" is

labelled "military" by Al-Mawrid. It might be argued here that the learner does not need to be told where such a word is used. Moreover this sense may be used by the layman when talking about the army. We do not expect any one to use it when talking about astronomy. Most of the words that are traditionally thought to belong to a certain field are actually used in everyday English.

The present writer thinks that field labels should be used only when the meaning does not convey clearly the field where the words are used. The use of field labels should be restricted to those words or senses that are used only in a certain field and only by those who study or work in that field.

4. As for taboo words, English-Arabic dictionaries seem to have decided to exclude them but there is no consistency in this attitude. For example the word "bastard" is included in all the dictionaries analysed. At the same time there is no consistency in labelling them. The word "nigger" is included in Al-Mawrid and the user is told in the definition of that word that it is a taboo word, while the word "mammy", in the sense of a negro nurse-maid for white children, is not indicated as a taboo word.

Elias Modern Dictionary excludes the word "mammy" in the sense mentioned above, while the word "nigger" is included without warning the user.

Al-Manar includes "coolie" without labelling it. The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary includes "bitch" and

labels it but "coolie" and "bastard" are included but not labelled.

5. The treatment of slang words in English-Arabic dictionaries fluctuates between nothing at all, as in Al-Manar, and the indication of both British and American slang. But there is no consistency here either. The slang word "kid" in the sense of "tease by telling a lie" is included in all the five dictionaries. Only The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary indicates that it is slang.

6. Style labels in English-Arabic dictionaries concentrate on colloquial words while there is no indication of formal, literary, poetic and humorous, as we shall see in the table below.

Table 3: Usage labels in the Five Dictionaries

o = included but not labelled

- = not included

+ = included and labelled

The ALD and the Webster's New World Dictionary are consulted for the labels in column 1

| <u>style labels</u>                             | Man | OEAD | Maw | EMD | EARD |
|-------------------------------------------------|-----|------|-----|-----|------|
| bone-head(sl)                                   | -   | -    | o   | -   | -    |
| contiguous(for) "near"                          | -   | o    | o   | o   | -    |
| decease (for) "death"                           | o   | o    | o   | o   | -    |
| barker(colloq) "a person shouting to advertise" | o   | -    | o   | -   | -    |
| beef(sl) "complain"                             | -   | -    | +   | -   | -    |

|                                                       |   |   |   |   |   |
|-------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| dine (for) "have dinner"                              | o | o | o | o | o |
| hence(for) "from now"                                 | o | o | o | o | o |
| hither(old) "to this place"                           | o | o | o | o | + |
| kid (sl) "tease by lies"                              | o | o | o | o | + |
| eve (poetic) "evening"                                | o | o | o | o | o |
| fey (Scot) "having a feeling<br>of approaching death" | - | - | - | - | - |
| exam (coll) "put a baby on<br>a chamber pot"          | - | + | + | o | - |
| <u>field label</u>                                    |   |   |   |   |   |
| nadir (astronomy)                                     | o | - | + | o | - |
| detritus                                              | o | o | o | o | o |
| supply (economics)                                    | + | o | + | o | - |
| evolute (geometry)                                    | - | + | + | - | - |
| inflection (linguistics)                              | o | - | + | o | o |
| <u>taboo words</u>                                    |   |   |   |   |   |
| coolie                                                | o | o | o | o | - |
| bitch                                                 | - | + | o | o | - |
| bastard                                               | o | o | o | o | o |
| dago                                                  | - | - | - | - | - |

The present writer thinks that the most urgently needed guidance is on the pragmatic side of the language. If we really want to help the foreign learner and make the dictionary play its decisive role as a teaching aid and not as a mere reference book, we have to tell the learner where to use words and within which social context;

whether their use is free or restricted. Table 3 shows how inaccurately usage information is handled by English-Arabic dictionaries.

This leads us to conclude that if English-Arabic dictionaries are to help the Arabic-speaking learner they should:

1. Label every sense of the linguistic unit.
2. Reinforce the labels by usage notes.
3. Give a brief account of what is meant by such labels in the front matter.

## Chapter Seven

### LEXICAL COMBINABILITY

#### 7.1. Introduction

One of the main difficulties facing the foreign learner in learning English as a foreign language is the way lexical units are combined to make larger semantic units. It is confusing for the foreign learner to encounter combinations of words whose meaning does not depend on the meaning of their constituent parts, such as "kick the bucket" or "let the cat out of the bag". Fixed collocations, such as the "train started" and "\*the train began", where the verbs convey the same meaning but are not interchangeable, also cause problems.

These lexical combinations fall into four major groups according to the freedom of their constituent parts to combine with other words. These groups are: free combination, idioms, collocations, and compounds.

These combinations cannot be taught adequately by text books since there are no general rules governing the way they are combined. So the suitable place for them is the dictionary.

Unfortunately the present English-Arabic dictionaries are of no practical help. They limit themselves to the description of words standing alone and ignore their lexical combinations.

In this chapter we shall review the difficulties they pose for the foreign learner and their lexicographical

treatments in dictionaries in general and English-Arabic dictionaries in particular.

## 7.2. Collocations

A collocation is usually defined as a pair or group of words that occurs repeatedly (Benson, 1985: 61).

Cowie referred to a collocation as "the occurrence of two or more lexical items as realizations of structural elements with a given syntactic pattern" (Cowie, 1978: 132).

An adequate knowledge of collocations is quite essential for language acquisition. Familiarity with these patterns is considered "a major factor in the development of lexical competence" (Summers, 1987: f9)

Collocations constitute a problem for both the native and the foreign learner (Whitcut, 1985: 76), but the native learner finds little difficulty in recognizing them because of his linguistic competence in his native language. This linguistic competence makes him recognize that it is a "weak tea" and not "a feeble tea" unconsciously (Mackin, 1978: 150).

The foreign learner, does not have this advantage (Osselton, 1978: 121). Surely he cannot memorize thousands of collocations, and if he tried he would try in vain. He has three courses open to him:

1. He may get experience through extensive reading or

constant use of the language over a long period of time.

2. He may be in contact with people who constantly correct him when he uses collocations in the wrong way.

3. They may be taught to him in the English classroom (Mackin, 1978:150).

Another important difficulty facing the foreign learner is that collocability is found in every language but words collocate differently in different languages. So if the foreign learner is not explicitly told of these collocations he may have recourse to his negative linguistic background, where he will be completely misled. A. Aisenstadt states:

While the phenomenon (collocability) as such may be considered one of the language universals, its specific structure, meaning and usage vary from language to language (Aisenstadt, 1979: 71).

Fortunately collocations do not deeply affect the foreign learner's comprehension, but they deeply affect his ability to produce the foreign language in a natural way (Benson, 1985 a: 65). From his knowledge of collocations one can guess the proficiency of the foreign learner in the foreign language. So the study and indication of collocations are of special importance for the teaching and learning of a foreign language (Aisenstadt, 1979: 74).

Foreigners sometimes produce grammatically good English but it is unacceptable owing to lack of knowledge



concerning usage and collocations; so the foreign learner should know which verb goes with which noun and which preposition goes with which verb etc.

Since the duty of the dictionary is to serve the needs of the users who consult it (Gove, 1967: 5), and since collocations constitute a problem for the learner, dictionaries should include them and offer the learner the best possible guidance. This fact has been stressed by many eminent linguists. Henri<sup>f</sup> Béjoint states that:

The best dictionary for encoding is one that provides the most detailed guidance on syntax and collocations including perhaps pitfalls to avoid (Béjoint, 1981: 210).

Cowie emphasizes two advantages of indicating collocations:

One of the advantages of indicating collocations of a dictionary entry is that it provides lexical materials that any student can use with confidence while leaving scope for the more advanced student to make his own selection on the basis of those provided. Another advantage of this form of presentation is that lexical choices are displayed as the exponents of a particular syntactic function (Cowie, 1978: 26).

### **7.2.1. Types of Collocations**

Generally speaking collocations of any structural type vary according to two principles. The first is the freedom of the constituents to collocate with other words

and the second is how established they are in usage (Cowie, 1978: 133). On the basis of the first principle collocations can be classified into open collocations and restricted collocations. Yet there is inconsistency in the classification of collocations and the terminology used in their classification.

Morton Benson divides them into grammatical collocations and lexical collocations. By grammatical collocations, he means:

..a recurrent combination usually consisting of a dominant word (verb, noun, adjective) followed by a grammatical word, typically a preposition, such as "accuse of", "aim at" etc.

By lexical collocations, he means collocations consisting of two equal lexical components such as "compile a dictionary" (Benson, 1985: 61).

E.Aisenstadt divides collocations into free phrases and restricted collocations. By restricted collocations, he means:

Combinations of two or more words used in one of their regular non-idiomatic meanings following certain structural patterns and restricted in their commutability not only by grammatical and semantic valence (like components of so called free word combinations) but also by usage (Aisensadt, 1978: 71).

Cowie classifies collocations according to two principles: first whether they are open or restricted; second whether they are established or potential in the

speech of the native speaker (Cowie, 1978: 133-134). He thinks that the openness and restrictedness of occurrence can be represented as the end points of a scale while other collocations can be related to parts of this scale.

The present writer thinks that, for practical reasons relevant to dictionary making, we have to agree with the classification of Benson and recognize grammatical collocations and lexical collocations (**see further 7.2.2.**). We have also to admit that within lexical collocations, we may recognize other types of collocations. The knowledge of these collocations will facilitate their lexicographical treatment.

#### **7.2.2. The Presentation of Collocations in Dictionaries**

The presentation of collocations in a dictionary constitutes a problem for both the learner and the lexicographer. The learner wants to find an answer to the question "which item collocates with which?" and moreover he wants easy access to such information. The answer if successfully provided will solve many of his problems:

1. He will be able to produce natural English and avoid being corrected by his native listeners.

2. He will have accurate comprehension, since some lexical items denote a slightly different meaning when collocating with other items (Kharma, 1983: 204).

Lexicographers for their part face the difficulty of

selecting collocations from the multitude found in the foreign language. Some lexical items collocate with hundreds of words and to include them all is impossible. So what collocations should the lexicographer include, especially of those open collocations?

Linguists offer different solutions:

Ronald Mackin thinks that inclusion depends on a collocation's position on a scale of probability of occurrence:

One method of determining whether to include or exclude a given collocation in a dictionary is to regard it as having a position somewhere on a scale of probability (Mackin, 1978: 151-152).

Cowie suggests that we should examine the words with which the headword collocates. If the collocates are relatively akin, the lexicographer has three courses open to him:

1. To specify the semantic features shared by the collocates. If they are "father, foreman, officer" the relevant features might be said to include (human male, adult, in authority).

2. To specify one general inclusive word which may be suggestive to the dictionary user .

3. To list a selection of such items as representative and suggestive of the total range of choice (Cowie, 1978: 135).

But Cowie himself confesses that the first creates difficulties for the learner, the second is unsuccessful.

He prefers the third:

Of these alternatives, the first is ruled out on the grounds that it would impose an additional burden of interpretation on the user in requiring him to reconstitute a number of abstract feature labels as lexical items. The second is also unacceptable because it is precisely his ignorance of individual particular items that often makes the learner turn to a dictionary in the first place (1978: 135).

Benson thinks that grammatical collocations should be included at the entry of the dominant word and at the same time suggests four types of lexical collocations:

1. Noun+ verb, e.g. "Bells ring."
2. Adjective + noun, e.g. "keen competition"
3. Verb + noun CA collocations
4. Verb + noun EN collocations

By verb + noun CA collocation, he means collocations which consist of a verb denoting creation and/ or activation such as "compile a dictionary" (creation) and "launch a missile" (activation).

By verb + noun EN, he means collocations which consist of a verb denoting eradication and/ or nullification and a noun, such as "demolish a house", "reject an appeal".

As for the inclusion of CA and EN collocations Benson thinks that they should be entered at noun entries since verbs collocate more widely than nouns (Benson, 1985 b: 13).

Aisenstadt thinks that restricted collocations should

be treated systematically; they should be given a special place like idioms and not with free phrases (Aisensadt, 1978: 74).

The present writer believes that we can solve the problem of collocations if, and only if, we abandon the idea of compiling a dictionary which serves the needs of all learners at all levels. Rather we should recognize that we have three types of learners: primary, intermediate and advanced. What is needed in each dictionary is not identical. We should emphasize collocations which fall within the scope of each dictionary fully and accurately, thereby utilizing the space left free by the limitation of the scope of the dictionary. If we aim at including all collocations and explaining them accurately we will end in failure. Moreover there should be an accord between dictionaries and the syllabus taught in the area where the dictionary is intended to be used.

As for their classification, the present writer fully agrees with Benson on the need to divide lexical from grammatical collocation (**see 7.2.1.**). The foreign learner is not interested in the place of a collocation on a scale of probability; nor can we ensure that the learner is sophisticated enough to grasp the semantic features shared by the collocates. We have to indicate the grammatical and the lexical collocations of each entry word, since these constitute a real problem for the

foreign learner ,especially if his mother tongue and the foreign language differ. In Arabic, for example, most of the collocations can be avoided by using derivations of the collocates. Extensive experience in teaching English to Arabic-speaking learners has shown that they find it difficult to decide whether to use the verb "do" with work or the verb "make". They usually produce such sentences as "I made my work." when they mean "I did my work" because in Arabic we can derive a suitable verb from the noun and say /ʔna 9amiltu 9amali/ "I worked my work".

### 7.2.3. The Treatment of Collocations in English - Arabic Dictionaries

A common structural weakness of English-Arabic dictionaries is their lack of information concerning the words and phrases with which the headword collocates in spite of the importance of such collocations for the generation of acceptable English (Benson, 1985 b: 12). If we go through any English-Arabic dictionary, we shall see that there is a complete ignorance of both grammatical and lexical combinations. They limit themselves to idioms and idiomatic uses instead. For example, the verb "accuse" is entered in the five dictionaries chosen for analysis as follows:

**accuse vt**

/ʔitahama bi ,wajjaha ʔilayhi  
ʔitihaaman/

**/nasaba ?ilayhi tuhmatan/**

**(The Oxford English-Arabic dictionary)**

Here the dictionary provides the word /?itahama/ "accuse" as an equivalent of the word "accuse", together with many other partial equivalents which are basically intended to discriminate the meaning of /?itahama/ in Arabic. There is no indication of the grammatical collocation of the verb "accuse" with the preposition "of".

Strangely enough the lexicographer recognizes the importance of collocations for the accurate production of any language through the indication of the collocates of the equivalents in Arabic but not for the English word. The grammatical collocation of the verb /?itahama/ with the preposition /bi/ "with" is indicated while there is no indication of the grammatical collocation of the verb "accuse".

The same is true of the treatment of "accuse" in other dictionaries:

**accuse [ʔKŪZ'] (vt, i)**

**/yattahim, yuwajjih tuhmatan/**

**(Al-Mawrid)**

Here the dictionary provides the word /yattahim/ which is the present tense of /?ittahma/ "accuse". This is also given by The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary, with many



other partial equivalents. In the entry mentioned above Al-Mawrid recognizes the importance of lexical collocations when it indicates /yuwajjih/ "bring" /tuhmatan/ "accusation" "against" showing the learner that there is a lexical collocation between /yuwajjih/and /tuhmatan/.

The same equivalents are given by the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary:

**accuse /ekju:z/ vt.**

**/yattahim, juwajjih tuhmatan/**

Al-Manar recognizes the importance of grammatical collocations, but again in Arabic, not in English:

**accuse, v.**

**/?ittahama, laama, ?ista8naba  
tajannaa (9alaa)/**

The grammatical collocation between/ tajannaa/ "accuse falsely" and the preposition / 9alaa/ which roughly means "on" is indicated.

Only Elias Modern Dictionary indicates that it collocates with "of".

**accuse, of,**

**/7akaa, ?ittahama bi, ?idda9aa 9alaa  
bi/**

But this indication does not represent the general policy of this dictionary. It seems incidental. For

example, the verb "translate" usually collocates grammatically with the preposition "into" but it is entered in Elias as follows:

**translate:**

**/tarjama "translate" min lugatin ?ilaa  
uxraa/ "from one language to another"**

This definition not only ignores the grammatical collocations of the English word but also misleads the learner by telling him the grammatical collocation between /tarjama/ and /?ilaa/ "to".

As we have seen in the entries mentioned above, English-Arabic dictionaries fail to help the learner produce natural collocations in the foreign language; on the contrary they mislead him by emphasizing the importance of collocations in his mother tongue. There is a great possibility here that the foreign learner will resort to his mother tongue, as he usually does when there is a linguistic gap. He will be completely misled in this case since the two verbs "accuse" and /jattahim/ collocate differently in the two languages. In Arabic, as we have seen, the verb /jattahim/ collocates with the preposition /bi/ "with" while "accuse" collocates with the preposition "of". The Arabic-speaking learner may thus produce such sentences as "He was accused with murder" because the Arabic equivalent of "accuse" is /muttaham bi/ "accused with", as is indicated by The

Oxford English-Arabic dictionary.

As for lexical collocations, they are also ignored by English-Arabic dictionaries. For example the word "verdict" in the sense of "decision reached by a jury on a question of fact in a law court", usually collocates with the verb "reach" but there is no indication of that in the five dictionaries:

**verdict (n.)**

/qaraar al muHallafiin/ (qaanuun)  
 "law" (The Oxford English-Arabic  
 dictionary)

Here the dictionary indicates that it is "the decision of a jury".

**verdict**

/Hukm (al muHallafiin), qaraar Hukm  
 ra?y (mummahas)/ (Al-Manaar)

Here the dictionary states that a "verdict" is "a sentence decided by a jury, decision, sentence, a point of view decided carefully".

The same is true of the entries provided by Al Mawrid and The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary:

**verdict** <sup>A V</sup> [vurdikt]n.

1./Hukm al-muHallafiin/  
 2./ra?y, Hukm, ra?y al-naaxibiin/  
 (Al-Mawrid)

**verdict** [vɒː dikt] (n.)

1./qaraar(al-muhallafiin)/

2./raʔi ,hukm, raʔi al-naxibiin/

(The English-Arabic Reader's  
Dictionary)

Again the entries mentioned above indicate only the equivalent in the mother tongue of the learner, with many other partial equivalents indicated for meaning discrimination.

This ignorance of lexical collocations may make the learner produce the foreign language in an unnatural way because his production will be a mere translation of the way he produces his mother tongue. Moreover this ignorance of collocations may make the learner completely misunderstood by his listeners, especially when the learner uses polysemous words whose different senses collocate with different words having the same meanings. For example the word "operation" collocates with different verbs of similar meaning to denote different meanings. If it is used with "perform", it refers to a medical operation; if it collocates with "carry out", it refers to a military operation.

Omission of such information may not constitute a big problem for native speakers, who have grown up with the language and to whom producing the language is automatic. There may, therefore, be an excuse for omitting collocations in dictionaries intended for native

speakers, but there seems no logical reason for their being ignored in a dictionary which is geared to the foreign learner.

It might be argued that indicating collocations is space-consuming, but space can be saved if we neglect collocations in the mother tongue of the learner, since the foreign learner is well aware of collocations in his mother tongue.

### **7.3. Idioms**

Idioms constitute such a formidable problem for foreign learners that they usually avoid them by using alternatives in their production of the foreign language, especially in their oral production when they have no time to think of their various possibilities.

#### **7.3.1. Definitions**

The concept of idiomaticity is ill-defined and the question "what is an idiom?" still has no agreed answer. In their definitions linguists stress only the semantic features of idioms. The following definitions show us this fact clearly:

.....Idioms are sequences of words whose meanings cannot be predicted from the words themselves. (Palmer, 1976)

.....Peculiarity of phraseology approved by usage though having meaning not deducible from the separate words (COD).

.....fixed groups of words with a special meaning that cannot be guessed from the combination of the actual words used (Longman xxv1).

.....A phrase or a sentence whose meaning is not obvious through the knowledge of the individual meanings of the constituent words but must be learnt as a whole (ALD).

.....A group of words whose meanings cannot be predicted from the meanings of their constituent words. (Collins English Dictionary, 1979)

.....A constituent or a series of constituents for which the semantic interpretation is not a compositional function of the formatives of which it is composed (Fraser, 1970: 22).

An expression established in the use of a language that is peculiar to itself either in grammatical construction or in having meaning that cannot be derived as a whole from the conjoined meanings of its elements (WNID3).

.....A linguistic sequence which is partly or totally resistant to the syntactic manipulation which an examination of its structure would make predictable (Moulin, 1979: 80).

Hockett introduced something different. He considered every morpheme an idiom if its meaning is not deducible from its structure:

.....An idiom is a grammatical form-single morpheme or composite form the meaning of which is not deducible from its structure (Hockett, 1958: 172).

In the definitions mentioned above we have seen that the main focus is on the fact that the meaning of an idiom cannot be predicted from the meanings of its constituent parts. So any group of words, in order to qualify as an idiom, should have that characteristic; otherwise it is not an idiom.

The structure of an idiom is not well-defined except in the definition provided by the ALD, where "phrase or sentence" is included.

The present writer thinks that it is not enough to indicate that an idiom is a "group of words" or a "series of constituents" because sentences themselves are groups of words but not every group of words is a sentence. The most important thing is how that group of words is structured. To deal with structure in such a loose way, as in the definitions above, will mislead the learner. This inconsistency about the structure of idioms should be ended for the benefit of the foreign learner.

### 7.3.2. The Structure of Idioms

Little attention has been paid to clarifying the structure of idioms in modern linguistic writings (Makkai, 1969: 44). Some linguists such as Bloomfield, Harris, and Chomsky failed to deal with idioms at all. Others such as Malkiel warned people against idioms calling them ill-defined, and thought that one did well to steer clear of any reference to them (Makkai, 1969: 44)

It is only recently that linguists have begun to consider the structure of idioms. Lyons mentions that there are readymade utterances and schemata. By readymade utterances he means such expressions as "How do you do?" and proverbs and sayings. They are sentences. By schemata he means those incomplete expressions which are understood or partially structured and which can combine with others within a sentence, such as "for.....'s sake" or " what is the use of....ing?" (Lyons, 1977: 177-178 )

Makkai recognizes six types of lexemic idioms:

1. Phrasal verb idioms like "put up"
2. Tournure idioms like "to step on it"
3. Irreversible binomial idioms like "give and take "
4. Pseudo-idioms like "spic and span", "to and fro"
5. Post idioms like "preoccupation; deduce "
6. Phrasal compounds like "white house", "blackboard "

In addition to that Makkai recognizes sentence or proverbial idioms such as "curiosity killed the cat".

M.J Wallace categorized all the stereotyped utterances



according to the degree of their opaqueness and their structural hierarchy (Wallace, 1979: 67). To him an idiom starts at compound word level and ends at a sentence level. This seems quite sensible.

The present writer thinks that it seems logical to suggest the following definition:

**An idiom is a compound word, a phrase or a sentence whose meaning is not deducible from the meanings of its constituent parts.**

In this definition we distinguish two dimensions which are of much value to the foreign learner: they are the semantic dimension and the structural dimension.

### **7.3.3. The Problems Caused by Idioms**

In dealing with idioms foreign learners studying English as a foreign language face three types of difficulties: semantic, syntactic and phonological.

#### **7.3.3.1. The Semantic Problems**

The semantic problems caused by idioms result from the fact that idioms are semantically one unit while grammatically they are not. Foreign learners who are accustomed to decoding the foreign language word by word will have the problem of deciding the meanings of such lexical entities. They may take idioms to be like any

other expressions or phrases whose meanings are decided by the meanings of their constituent parts. If so, they will be misled since it is one of the essential characteristics of an idiom to be semantically opaque.

Moulin mentions three additional semantic difficulties:

1. The collocational properties: if the idiom is a phrasal verb what type of subject or object does it take? e.g. "make it" in the sense of "move aggressively toward".

2. The possibility of a paradigmatic variation inside the idiom. The learner should know whether it is possible to replace some of its constituents by semantically related ones, such as "to jump (climb or get) on (aboard) the bandwagon".

3. The possibility of introducing lexical materials into the idiom (Moulin, 1979: 80).

The foreign learner needs help here, and since it is the duty of the dictionary to serve the needs of the user who consults it, the lexicographer should include as many idioms as space in his dictionary permits.

The present writer thinks that the best solution is to give idioms their special entries in the dictionary and to make use of a coding system for the different types that is capable of answering the needs of the foreign learner.

### 7.3.3.2. The Syntactic Problems

It is not enough to know what an idiom means. The learner should know what he can do with it. Idioms are problematic in this way:

1. Some verbal idioms are used with and without a direct object; others are used with a direct object only:

**She left as soon as your message got through.**

**I will come as soon as I get through my work.**

2. The second element of idioms can be problematic, such as in the idiom "take off", where "off" functions as a preposition and as an adverb:

**The plane took off despite the fog.**

**She took her hand off his shoulder.**

3. The components of some idioms are inseparable while others are not:

**Tears gave way to smiles.**

We cannot say "tears gave to smiles way."

4. The transformations relevant to idioms vary widely.

### 7.3.3.3. The Phonological Problems of Idioms

In addition to their semantic and syntactic problems to foreign learners, idioms also constitute a phonological problem for them. It is quite difficult for the foreign learner to know where the principal stress falls. This

fact is not fully recognized by dictionary makers. They deal with the problem by using broad generalizations, while the foreign learner needs precise and accurate guidance in the foreign language. In ALD third edition we find:

**The principal stress usually falls on the last non-grammatical word of the combination (p.xlv).**

In the ODCIE we find:

**In any idiom one word is always more strongly stressed. In most cases this is the last full word (i.e noun, adjective, verb or adverb) in the phrase or the clause (1983: iii).**

An important objection to the guidance mentioned above is that it greatly oversimplifies the problem. There are many places where these rules are not applicable (Broeders, 1987: 248).

Another attempt to provide rules to the assignment of accent was made in 1984 by Gussenhover (Gussenhoven, 1984:69). He tried to distribute the accent according to the syntactic structure of the idiom and the placement of focus.

An important objection to this attempt is that it has ignored the fact that idioms themselves are semantically misleading. Unlike the native speaker, the foreign learner may not be able to know where the main focus falls.

Broeders thinks that we should use a special mark for the main accent in dictionaries and put it "before the accent syllable of the word in which the main accent

falls whenever this word is not the last content word " (Broeders, 1987: 255).

The present writer thinks that this problem can be solved adequately if we refer to the proposal set out in Chapter Four: that the learner should be exposed to natural English through the indication of the intonation of illustrative examples. Idioms would be treated in the same way as any other entry.

#### **7.3.4. The Presentation of Idioms**

The presentation of idioms in a dictionary constitutes a problem for both the lexicographer and the dictionary user.

The learner wants to have a more extensive treatment of idioms as they constitute a formidable learning problem. For the lexicographer, the problem is once again space. Any extensive treatment of idioms needs to be matched by a corresponding reduction elsewhere (Cowie, 1981).

The presentation of idioms in dictionaries seems to be deeply affected by the problem of space. Therefore we find a great inconsistency in the methods of presentation among dictionaries and within each dictionary. The foreign learner is often misled and wastes his time and energy in searching for words .

Some dictionaries enter idioms as main entries; others enter them as subentries; others enter them within the entries of that one of their constituent parts which is supposed to be the most important. But what may seem

important for the lexicographer may not seem so for the learner; or what seems important to one lexicographer may not be the same for another lexicographer. This seems to be especially true when the two main words in an idiom belong to the same part of speech, as in "let the cat out of the bag". We find the idiom within the entry of "cat" and not "bag" in Elias Modern Dictionary while the same idiom is entered under the entry of "bag" in ALD. Sometimes we find them, perhaps accidentally, in the entries for both.

The present writer thinks that either the dictionary should stick to one policy which should be fully explained in the front matter, or idioms should be included within the entries of all their principal constituent parts. The latter procedure tends to make the entries rather long and the information included rather entangled. The best solution seems to be to refer to the proposal mentioned earlier (**See 7.3.3.1.**): that idioms should be given their special entries in their natural alphabetical order.

### **7.3.5. The Treatment of Idioms in English-Arabic Dictionaries**

The treatment of idioms in English-Arabic dictionaries is not satisfactory at all for the following reasons:

1. The meanings of idioms, as those of any other vocabulary item, are not well discriminated as we have

seen in Chapter Three.

2. The foreign learner wants to know not only the meaning of the idiom but also how he can use it in his oral and written production of the foreign language. No adequate guidance is provided by these dictionaries, as we have seen in Chapter Five.

3. The decision to include or exclude an idiom is arbitrary both in quality and quantity.

The present writer has chosen twenty idioms and looked them up in the five dictionaries being analyzed. He found that Al-Mawrid includes nine; Elias Modern Dictionary includes only three. The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary includes only five; Al-Manar includes only three. The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary included twelve.

**Table 4: The inclusion of idioms in the five Dictionaries.**

- = not included

+ = having its own entry

| Idioms                      | Maw       | EMD | Man | EARD            | OEARD |
|-----------------------------|-----------|-----|-----|-----------------|-------|
| to have an axe              | -         | -   | -   | grind axe&grind |       |
| to grind                    |           |     |     |                 |       |
| to jump on the<br>bandwagon | bandwagon | -   | -   | -               | -     |
| bandwagon                   |           |     |     |                 |       |

|                     |        |        |       |        |        |  |
|---------------------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--|
| To have one's       |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| back to the wall    | wall   | -      | back  | wall   | -      |  |
|                     |        |        | &wall |        |        |  |
| To be beside        | beside | beside | -     | beside | -      |  |
| oneself             |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| To kill two birds   |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| with one stone      | -      | -      | -     | -      | kill   |  |
| To champ at the bit | -      | -      | -     | -      | champ  |  |
| In the back         | -      | -      | -     | -      | -      |  |
| In cold blood       | blood  | -      | blood | blood  | cold   |  |
| To miss the boat    | -      | -      | -     | -      | -      |  |
| To make no bones    |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| about something     | bone   | bone   | -     | -      | bone   |  |
| To hit the bottle   | hit    | -      | -     | -      | -      |  |
| To bow and scrape   | -      | -      | -     | -      | scrape |  |
| A busman's holiday  | -      | -      | -     | -      | -      |  |
| To let the cat out  |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| of the bag          | bag    | cat    | -     | cat    | cat    |  |
| Wild goose chase    | -      | -      | -     | +      | wild   |  |
| To keep one's chin  |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| up                  | -      | -      | -     | -      | chin   |  |
| The coast is clear  | -      | -      | -     | -      | coast  |  |
| The other side      |        |        |       |        |        |  |
| of the coin         | -      | -      | -     | -      | -      |  |
| Let it go at that   | at     | -      | -     | -      | -      |  |
| Kick the bucket     | kick   | -      | -     | -      | kick   |  |



The policy for where to include such idioms seems to have the same arbitrary nature. Although Al-Mawrid's compiler claims in the front matter of the dictionary that compound items (no differentiation is made between idioms, collocations, and compounds) are included in their natural places in the alphabetical order, we find the following:

"To have an axe to grind" is included in the entry for "axe". "To hit the bottle" is included in the entry of "bottle". "To kick the bucket" is included in the entry for "kick". "To let the cat out of the bag" is included in the entry of "bag". Finally and more strangely, "Let it go at that" is included in the entry for "at". Would any learner think of looking it up there? We hardly believe it.

Elias Modern Dictionary claims in its front matter to be exhaustive and to satisfy the needs of the learner. But we find that "to be beside oneself" is included in the entry for "beside". "To make no bones about something" is included in the entry for "bone". "To let the cat out of the bag" is included in the entry for "cat".

Al-Manar seems to include idioms in the entry for the first noun. "To have an axe to grind" is included in the entry for "axe". "In cold blood" is included in the entry for "blood". But "to have one's back to the wall" is included in the entry for both "back" and "wall".

In the English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary, "To have

one's back to the wall" is included in the entry for "wall". "To be beside oneself" is included in the entry for "beside". "In cold blood" is included in the entry for "blood "but not"cold". "To let the cat out of the bag" is included in the entry for"cat". Finally and more strangely "wild goose chase" has its own entry under wild.

In The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary "to have an axe to grind" is included in the entry for both "axe" and "grind". But when we come to "Jump on the bandwagon", we find it included in the entry for "bandwagon" only. "To be beside oneself" is included in the entry for "beside". "To kill two birds with one stone" is included in the entry for "kill" and not "bird" or"stone". "In cold blood" is included in the entry for "cold" and not "blood". "To bow and scrape" is included in the entry for "scrape" but not "bow" while both of them are verbs. "Wild goose chase" is included in the entry for "wild" while "the coast is clear" is included in the entry for "coast".

It seems that the commitment of the dictionary to provide easy access to the information included is not taken into consideration when compiling English-Arabic Dictionaries. None of the dictionaries analyzed makes a direct reference to idioms, the way they are included, or how to retrieve them.

4. It is also the duty of the lexicographer, if the dictionary is to be "a teacher of English", as Al-Mawrid

claims to be, to indicate the grammatical information relevant to idioms and to tell the learner what part of speech the idiom functions as; whether it can be used as a verb, a noun etc. This is not done by the dictionaries in question.

#### **7.4. Compounds and Free Combinations**

A thorough analysis of great numbers of compounds reveals that some of them are systematically put together while others have evolved from sequences of words and have consequently developed special meanings (Al-Hamash, 1976), e.g. "badly-cooked" and "pick-pocket".

It goes without saying that dictionaries should offer guidance on the second type. The first is definitely the job of the grammar, or the learner may be told the general rules of compounding in the foreign language in the front matter of the dictionary.

The main problem facing the learner here is how to recognize an idiom from a free phrase. Such a distinction will help him in the production of the foreign language semantically and syntactically. For example he will know that a greenhouse is a house for growing plants while a green house is a house which is green. He will also know that in a sentence like "She is a sweetheart ", sweetheart is a compound while "She has a sweet, kind heart" is a free combination , since it is one of the characteristics of a compound that it cannot accept

any intervening materials.

The present dictionaries offer different solutions. Some of them use hyphenation; others use stress; others give compounds separate entries.

Compounds seem to have received very little attention in English-Arabic dictionaries. For example in Al-Mawrid "greenhouse" is given its own entry but there is no indication of the difference between "greenhouse" and "green house" or that of similar compounds either in the front matter or in the entries. The dictionary indicates stress, but we cannot determine where the major stress falls since there is no explanation of the marks used either in the front matter or in the entries. The Oxford English-Arabic Dictionary gives "greenhouse" its own entry but no stress is shown. Al-Mawrid also gives "greenhouse" its own entry. It has also indicated stress but there is no indication of the difference between a compound and a free combination either in the front matter or in the individual entries. The same is true of The English-Arabic Reader's Dictionary. Elias Modern Dictionary includes only "greenhouse" and its equivalents.

The present writer thinks that the learner should be told the difference between compounds and free combinations in the front matter of the dictionary, while all the relevant phonological and syntactic information should be included in the entries, reinforced by illustrative examples and glosses.

## Conclusion

Bilingual dictionaries can be improved if their potential users are well-defined and if their difficulties and possible problems are well thought out. This leads us to the fact that, if the lexicographer is compiling a dictionary for the benefit of the foreign learner and not for the sake of profit making, he has to tell the learner not only what is possible but also what is impossible, taking his linguistic background into consideration. This cannot be done in one and the same dictionary for all levels, because the result will be a bulky and expensive dictionary. We have to compile three dictionaries in a systematic way for three levels of user, namely: primary, intermediate and advanced. We should begin with a bilingual dictionary and then the learner should be weaned gradually to a monolingual dictionary in the advanced stage. The lexicographer has also to take the following remarks into consideration:

### 1. Meaning discrimination

Lexical equivalence rarely exists between languages, because each language has its unique semantic classification. Even if we find lexical items which seem equivalents, they are not exact equivalents. They definitely differ in one of the components of meaning: denotation, connotation and the range of application. In order to allow learners to get the maximum semantic benefit from their dictionaries, lexicographers should

always make use of the devices of meaning discrimination for every single sense, but these should not be mere translations or imitations of monolingual dictionaries intended for native speakers, since the difficulties are not identical.

## **2. Grammatical information**

Grammar is of vital importance for acquiring a foreign language. Lexicographers should provide learners with more detailed syntactic and morphological guidance than is the case at present. Here lexicographers should make use of the findings of error analysis of the potential users. He should also bear in mind that, unlike native speakers who need grammar for analysis, foreign learners need it for synthesis. As a result of that the grammatical information in a dictionary intended for foreign learners should not be completely identical to the information found in a dictionary intended for native speakers. The dictionary for foreign learners should recognize the linguistic background of the learner and fight against the negative interference of the mother tongue.

## **3. Phonological information**

No description of any foreign language can be adequate without a full description of the sound system of the language and the way its sounds are combined into meaningful utterances. Lexicographers should describe the sound system of the foreign language in a way contrastive

with the sound system of the mother tongue of the potential user in a key to pronunciation in their front matter. Weak forms should not be ignored since they are more frequent than strong ones. The learner should know the phonological behaviour of the word in a context. This can be done through the transcription of the illustrative examples. The learner should also be exposed to the intonation used by native speakers through the indication of the intonation of illustrative examples.

#### **4. Usage**

For the foreign learner every word included in the dictionary is applicable in all situations. If we examine the production of foreign learners of English we shall find that it is a mixture of formal and informal words. Sometimes the learner is put in a critical situation because of sounding too formal. In order to improve this unsatisfactory situation every single sense should be labelled and, if necessary, reinforced by glosses.

#### **5. Lexical combinability**

One of the major difficulties facing the foreign learner in learning English as a foreign language is the way lexical units are combined. The lexicographer should include the general rules in the front matter while irregularities should be included in the entries. Such information will solve many of the semantic, syntactic and pragmatic problems of the learner. Special emphasis should be put on collocations, since they affect the idiomatic use of the language.

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