

in his approach to the spatial concepts found in Buton, for example, “spatial metaphors”: *labu wana labu rope*, meaning harbouring in the ‘bow’ and ‘stern’ positions. Understanding this metaphor culturally leads to understanding historical processes in Buton which are actually difficult to comprehend if we try to understand historical processes without taking cultural perspectives into account.

Labu rope and *labu wana*, which are associated with cultural resources, provide a variety of options for social interactions. The choice is then regulated by the social interaction between the Butonese, neighbouring landlords, and the VOC. Indeed, I find the legacy of Sahlin’s symbolic transaction here. Since the book is written by a historian, concepts of ‘events’ and ‘moments’ of the past are critical to the author.

Ironically this starting point is also a subject of discussion among readers interested in the impact of the past on the contemporary historical discourse which is often questioned by anthropology and sociology. From different perspectives, for instance, we find that the connection between Bajo and Wolio needs to be explored further since not all the locals, for instance, agree that Bajo can be equated with Wolio in contemporary terms.

This book has filled the gap between historians and anthropologists or between students of conservative historians and those who feel that the study of culture can help them to reveal the meaning of the past for the present.

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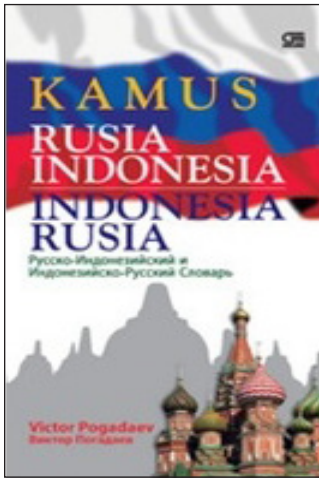
Victor Pogadaev, *Kamus Rusia-Indonesia/Indonesia-Rusia; Русско-Индонезийский и Индонезийско-Русский Словарь*. Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama, 2010, x + 1323 pp. ISBN 978-979-22-4881-4. Price: IDR 280,000 (hard cover).

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Russian lexicography with regard to Malay/Indonesian has a history of more than two centuries, culminating in the *Большой индонезийско-русский словарь / Kamus besar bahasa Indonesia-Rusia* (R.N. Korigodskiy ed., 1990, Moskwa: Russkiy Yazik; two volumes). The lexicographical products that were the result of all these efforts were published in Russia and intended for the Russian market: the earliest works were meant for Russian readers to get a glimpse of a language as exotic as Malay while the aim of most later ones



was to help speakers of Russian to understand Indonesian texts. Only one tiny dictionary of 7000 entries had Russian as its source language. The dictionary under review is the first one published in Indonesia. Moreover, to my knowledge, it is the first bidirectional dictionary of its kind: it consists of two parts, a Russian-Indonesian section of 687 pages (pages 43-729, with an estimated 30,000 entries) and an Indonesian-Russian one of 576 pages (pages 743-1319, containing some 11,000 main entries and at least as many subentries). The question is what kind of dictionary it exactly is. To what extent is the dictionary geared to the Indonesian market? If it is, the Russian-Indonesian

section should enable Indonesian-speaking users to find adequate translations of Russian words in context, whereas the Indonesian-Russian section should guide them to Russian translations equivalents for Indonesian words in context.

It will not come as a revelation that Russian is a highly inflecting language. It distinguishes six cases, singular and plural, for nouns, adjectives, and participles. Adjectives moreover have attributive and predicative forms. Furthermore, there are three grammatical genders in the singular and a number of different root and gender-based inflectional paradigms. Verbs are inflected for person and number of the subject and to some extent for tense. The systematic aspectual opposition perfective~imperfective is expressed by suppletive verbal paradigms. Minor word classes such as numerals and pronouns also have cases, often with unpredictable forms. Consequently, non-Russian users of the dictionary, confronted with inflected forms of words with unknown meaning, have to be able to deduce the “leading form” of the inflectional paradigm to which the words in question belong. For this leading form, representing the entire inflectional paradigm is presented as the lexical entry: for verbs the infinitive, for nouns the nominative singular, for adjectives the masculine nominative singular of the attributive paradigm etcetera.

Both sections of the dictionary contain a transparent user’s guide, a list of labels (unfortunately not without some gaps) and a grammatical sketch of the source language of the section in question. For Russian this sketch deals with the printed and written alphabet and with a survey of the inflectional patterns of nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, and verbs, and with (the derivation of) adverbs, comparative forms of adjectives and a short statement on word order. Succinct as it is, this grammatical survey (pages 11-41) offers a lucid picture of the grammar, sufficient to reduce most word forms to their leading form.

Some minor gaps, however, must be mentioned. The deviating inflection pattern, for instance, of such frequent nouns as *мать* (mat’) ‘mother’ and *дочь* (doč’) ‘daughter’ and of neutral nouns with a nominative singular ending in

-мя is not listed in the survey of nominal inflection types (the pattern may be marginal, but with lexemes such as *имя* (ímya) 'name' and *время* (vrémya) 'time' their textual frequency is high). Another gap is the lack of mention of the gerund and active and passive participles of verbal paradigms. The Indonesian user of the dictionary might also have been reminded that masculine roots ending in certain consonant clusters may insert *o* or *e* between these consonants in the endingless nominative singular (compare the genitives and nominatives singular of 'disk', 'prophet' and 'list': *диска-диск* (díska-disk), *пророка-пророк* (proróka-prorók), *списка-список* (spíska-spísok)).

A more serious drawback for Indonesian users is the sparse information on word stress. With few exceptions, the Russian spelling of consonants is phonemic and the dictionary indicates these exceptions. The orthography of the vowels, however, is not phonemic and does not reflect pronunciation for this depends on the position of the (written) vowel vis-à-vis the stressed syllable. The rules are described on page 14 and 15 of the grammatical survey. The problem is that word stress in Russian is largely unpredictable, and often shifting within one and the same inflectional paradigm. The fact that stress is not indicated in the standard orthography presents a significant handicap for foreign learners of the language. The dictionary acknowledges the problem: "[t]ekanan dalam bahasa Rusia tidak tetap, sangat dinamis, dan bisa berpindah-pindah sesuai dengan perubahan kata" (page 14). Nevertheless, throughout the dictionary, information on the place of the stress is selective. Stress is not indicated in the Russian grammatical sketch, nor in the Russian equivalents of the Indonesian lemmas in the second part of the dictionary. In the Russian-Indonesian section, collocations and examples are unstressed. Stress is only indicated in the Russian lemmas and immediately following morphological information.

Russian verbal lemmas are followed by the endings of the first and second person singular and an indication of stress or its absence is provided. This information defines the lemma as a verb and is minimally needed to deduce the whole verbal paradigm (with the exception of the past participles for a number of verbs). For nouns, however, no other form than the lemma (that is, the nominative singular) is given. Combined with the indication of the grammatical gender, the *written* forms of the other singular cases can in general be deduced, but not the pronunciation, that is, the place of the stress. The same holds for the short predicative forms of the adjectives of which the stress is also unpredictable.

In other respects, the grammatical information presented in the Russian-Indonesian part of the dictionary is exemplary. Word classes are indicated for lemmas other than nouns and verbs. With nouns, gender is always indicated. This defines the lemma as nominal, while at the same time it is indicative of the written shape of the inflectional paradigm (deviating case forms excluded). Some deviating plurals, however, are included in the dictionary as separate entries. Very helpful is the fact that verbs are always qualified as to the case they govern or the preposition + case with which they are usually combined.

The dictionary consistently mentions their aspect (perfective or imperfective). Deviating inflected forms of minor word classes like pronouns are often presented after the leading form, but in many cases are also included as separate entries. Words central to the grammatical structure of the language (such as the major prepositions, pronouns, and words like *один* (*odín*) 'one', *весь* (*ves'*) 'all', *пока* (*poká*) 'as yet') are headed by an eye-catching grey box containing in bold the warning **kata kunci** 'key word'.

A vexing problem in bilingual lexicography is words whose referents are typical of only one of the cultures involved. Lexical items typical of Russian culture, flora and fauna, for which there is no immediate Indonesian equivalent are often merely transl(ite)rated, which is a sound though unsatisfactory practice. However, they are usually also clarified by a helpful short encyclopaedic explanation and/or an illustration. The equivalent given for the lemma *яблочко* (*jábločko*) for instance is besides 'buah apel' also 'yablochko', which is clarified as *sebuah tarian kelasi Rusia* and illustrated by a picture of two men, presumably sailors, jumping in mid air. Pictures are also inserted when there is a good Indonesian translation equivalent, such as with the lemma *портянка* (*portjánka*) which is appropriately translated as 'kain pembalut kaki', but since Indonesian users may associate this with wounded knees, it is specified as *biasanya dipakai oleh tentara bersama dengan sepatu lars* and illustrated with a picture. In some other cases, such as *ракета* (*rakéta*) 'roket, ... rudal' the picture is just a bonus.

No dictionary can be exhaustive. However, a short test using one page of the short story "Отец" 'The father' by the twentieth century Russian author Isaak Babel' (*Selected Stories and Plays*, 1965, Letchworth: Bradda Books) reveals that only six (lexemes) out of 220 words (tokens) could not be found, at least four of which would have to be qualified as of marginal frequency. My impression is indeed that the Russian-Indonesian section of the dictionary is fairly comprehensive. Examples and collocations are well chosen, the Indonesian equivalents are accurate, and the typographical elaboration of the articles is a treat for the eyes.

Although the Russian-Indonesian part of the dictionary seems to be geared to Indonesian users, Russian speakers will generally not be at a loss when they look for an equivalent of a Russian entry. When more than one equivalent is possible, often semantic specification in Russian is added. For instance the lemma *лишний* (*líšnij*). The equivalents given are 'berlebihan', 'tidak diperlukan' and 'tersisa', which options are disambiguated by explications in parenthesis, respectively *избыточный* (*izbýtočnyj*) 'superfluous', *ненужный* (*nenúžnyj*) 'unnecessary', and *оставшийся* (*ostávšijsja*) 'remaining'. In other cases, Russian users are guided to the correct choice through examples.

To some extent, the Indonesian-Russian part of the dictionary has both receptive and productive characteristics. Of course, the grammatical survey of Indonesian is meant for Russian users and written in Russian. However, it covers less than five pages (738-742) and is limited to the morphological rules of nasalization and a table of the major patterns of inherited derivational

morphology with their most common meanings. An obvious gap in this survey is the absence of patterns of reduplication, and the omission of any discussion of inflectional morphology, relevant especially for transitive verbs. A list of spelling conventions would also have been useful for Russian users, clitics not being separated from the word they are combined with and compounds being written as one word only when they are enclosed by a prefix and a suffix. Finally, it is not uncommon in lexicography with Indonesian as the source and/or target language to distinguish the mid front vowel /e/ from schwa, but the dictionary consistently applies the 1972 orthography for Indonesian which does not make the distinction.

The Indonesian lemmas are ordered according to the well-established lexicographical tradition for Malay/Indonesian: main entries are inherited roots and monomorphemic borrowings, as well as derivations with foreign affixes (both from borrowed and inherited roots). Derivations with inherited affixes and reduplication are subentries under the entry of the root.

All lemmas are marked for word class, with the exception of geographical and proper names since these are easily recognizable as nouns. Ideally, the form of the lemma in combination with the word class label defines which words the lemma represents, each with which meaning and which syntactic valence. This information is not made explicit, however, in the user's guide. For nouns, adjectives and minor word classes this is of limited consequence, since their inflection is practically restricted to reduplication. For verbs, however, the label *v* is an underspecification, at least for Russian users, who should be aware of the (in)transitivity of the verb in question.

In a number of other respects, the second part of the dictionary is receptive rather than productive. Lexical items typical of Indonesian culture and natural environment for which there is no immediate Russian equivalent are merely (more or less) transl(ite)rated and explained by means of illustrations and/or some short encyclopaedic clarification. A random example is *jairongan*, transl(ite)rated as джайпонган (*džaiPON-gan*) and explained as *песенно-танцевальный жанр на Западной Яве* (*pesénno-tancevál'nyj žanr na Západnoj Jáve*) 'song and dance genre in West Java'. This information may be partially redundant for speakers of Indonesian but it is necessary for Russian users.

Other information is redundant for the latter, but necessary for Indonesian users but in spite of that it is not or insufficiently included in the dictionary. For verbal lemmas for instance, only the imperfective Russian equivalent is given; Russians will know the suppletive perfective form, Indonesian users most likely not.

Indonesian nouns used as postnominal attributes may refer to a specific entity or to a type. In the latter case Russian uses a denominal adjective (compare *harga kayu* 'the price of (the) wood', *цена дерева* (*cená déreva*) with *rumah kayu* 'wooden house', *деревянный дом* (*derevjánnij dom*)). In some cases, such as with names of countries, the dictionary gives both the Russian noun and the corresponding adjective (for example, *Indonesia* 1. *Индонезия* (*Indonézija*) 'Indonesia', 2. *индонезийский* (*indonezjískij*) 'Indonesian').

However, in most cases only the nominal equivalent is presented. Given the context, Russian speakers will be able to decide whether they have to use the adjective corresponding to the given noun, Indonesians will in general not be able to construct that adjective.

When more than one equivalent is given for an Indonesian lemma, the context will usually be sufficiently disambiguating for a Russian to make the correct choice. An Indonesian, however, would need information on the semantic differences between the alternatives. For instance, *jahitan*, for which the following equivalents are given: 1. *шов* (šov), 2. *шумьё* (šit'jó); *швейное изделие* (švéjnoe izdélie), 3. *покрой* (pokrój). Without the additional information that the respective equivalents of these four meanings are 1. 'seam, stitch; joint, junction', 2. 'needle work, embroidering, embroidery; sewing product', 3. 'cut', it will be difficult for Indonesian users to arrive at a correct translation.

The conclusion must be that the Indonesian-Russian part of the dictionary is in its microstructure more informative for the Russian user than for the Indonesian. What about its macrostructure, the selected lemmas? A short check with a standard and a more colloquial text, respectively from Andrea Hirata's *Laskar pelangi* (2008, Yogyakarta: Bentang) and Hilman's *Lupus; Interview with the Nyamuk!* (2007, Jakarta: Gramedia Pustaka Utama) yields the following results: out of 201 tokens of standard Indonesian only five roots could not be found, whereas for more colloquial Indonesian these figures were seven roots out of 172 tokens. These figures suggest that for Russians the macrostructure is sufficiently adequate to understand an average Indonesian text.

The former distinct border between the domains of standard and colloquial Indonesian has become increasingly opaque with diglossia turning into a continuum of varieties of the language. The present dictionary has "solved" this lexicographical challenge by accounting for the standard vocabulary, exhaustively as far as the dictionary goes, while also inserting a limited number of colloquial roots and derivations typical of the Jakartan variety of spoken Indonesian. Some of these have indeed a high frequency, the selection of others seems to be arbitrary. The treatment of the colloquial forms is moreover not without inconsistencies. The colloquial (= Jakartan) equivalent given in the Russian-Indonesian section of the dictionary for the second person singular pronoun *ты* (ty) is *lu*, which, however, is not included as a lemma in the Indonesian-Russian section. The colloquial equivalent given for the Russian first person singular pronoun *я* (ja) is *gue*, which is included as an Indonesian lemma. The more common variant *gua* does not appear as a lemma, or as an immediate equivalent. Curiously enough, *gua* is the unexpected translation of *я* in some example constructions, for instance of the perfectly standard lemmas *mau* and *dulu*. However, these are details.

An interesting feature of both sections of the dictionary with regard to the macrostructure is the insertion of geographical and other names and abbreviations, and for the Indonesian-Russian section a number of items typical of Javanese culture. In this section, lemmas and collocations have been

included which are not found in Korigodskiy's much larger dictionary. One of the outstanding qualities of the latter dictionary is precisely its abundance of collocations and other examples. The article for the lemma *cara* for instance contains 35 words in eleven one-column lines in the dictionary under review, whereas Korigodskiy uses more than seven columns of 65 lines each and six words per line. A major reason why the Indonesian-Russian section of Pogadaev's dictionary is an essential complement to Korigodskiy's is, apart from the extra lemmas, the fact that the Russian equivalents of the same entry are often different, whereas neither dictionary can be said to be wrong. To give just one example out of many: the equivalents of *kayu* in the dictionary under review are 1) *лес* (*les*) 'timber', *деревесина* (*derevesína*) 'timber', 2) *палка* (*pálka*) 'stick', whereas the equivalents *дерево* (*dérevo*) 'tree' is given only in a few examples/collocations. In Korigodskiy the first meanings are 1) *дерево* 'tree' (with the adjective *древесный* (*drevésnyj*)), 2) *дерево* 'wood' (with the adjective *деревянный* (*derevjánnij*)), 3) *бревню* (*brevnó*) 'log', *полено* (*poléno*) 'log, billet', 4) *палка* etcetera, whereas *лес* only appears as an equivalent in four of the 114 collocations.

The ideal dictionary remains utopian. What is clear is that in spite of its predominantly receptive character, Pogadaev's dictionary is a welcome addition to the growing series of bilingual dictionaries that have appeared in Indonesia over the last decade.

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The police force in the Dutch Indies had a difficult job, which was made even harder by the different expectations of groups in Dutch East Indies' society and in the Netherlands. To complicate matters, police operations in the colony were also highly influenced by the international attention paid to