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Lexicography

(Конспект лекций)

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Lecture 1.

Lexicography: its basis notions and functions

Plan

1. The subject matter and essence of lexicography.
2. The origin and concepts of lexicology and lexicography.
3. Common features and difference. Some approaches to the problem.
4. Aims and functions of lexicography.
5. Periods of practical lexicography.

Literature:


The aim of the lecture is to study thoroughly essence, aims and functions of lexicography.

To begin with we ought to answer some questions: where did the term “lexicography” come from and what does it mean? What is the subject matter of lexicography and lexicology? What do they have in common?

The word, “lexicography” is derived from the Greek origin: λεξίκος belonging to word and γράφω I write, if we translate it into English it means “I write words”.

Definition: Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. It’s an important part of applied linguistics. The word “lexicography” is of the Greek origin as well as lexicography.

λεξίκος belonging to word and λόγος means learning, if we translate it into English it means “learning of words”
Definition: Lexicography is the part of lexis dealing with the body of a language and the properties of words as the main units of language (words, words combinations)

Lexicography and lexicology have a common object of study for they describe the vocabulary of a language.

The essential difference between them lies in the degree of systematization and completeness. Lexicography aims at systematization revealing characteristic features of words. The field of lexicography is the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description.

Lexicology shows that the vocabulary of every particular language is not a chaos of diversified phenomena but a homogeneous whole, a system constituted by independent elements related in certain specific ways.

It goes without saying that neither of these branches of linguistics could develop successfully without the other.

Lexicography this section of linguistics concerns practice of theory of compiling dictionaries. Every theory is a result of practical needs. Practical lexicography and theoretical one are closely connected carrying out different socially important functions.

Functions of practical lexicography are as follows:

1. educational function presupposes teaching language both native and foreign;
2. ‘legislative’ function studies and problems of description and normalization of language; it relates with describing standardizing native language forming a certain language norm;
3. communicative function deals with realizing intercultural communications;
4. scientific function fulfills studying vocabulary of a language periods of practical lexicography.
In the long perspective of human evolutionary development dictionaries have been known through only a slight fraction of language history. People at first simply talked without having authoritative backing from reference books.

As far as practical lexicography is concerned it has nearly one and the same history that is divided into 3 periods:

1. pre-dictionary period;
2. period of early dictionaries;
3. period of developed lexicography.

Now let’s dwell upon it in detail.

The main function of pre-dictionary periods is to explain words which are difficult to understand.

In the long perspective of human evolutionary development dictionaries have been known through only a slight fraction of language history. People at first simply talked without having authoritative backing from reference books.

The first glosses appeared in Sumerain in the 25\textsuperscript{th} c. B.C. The term “gloss” is of Greek origin and first it means “tongue”, “language”. Glosses mean series of verbal interpretations of a text. Then glosses appeared in Western Europe in the 8\textsuperscript{th} c. A.D., and in Russia they occurred in the 11\textsuperscript{th} c. A.D.

Glossaries, collections of glosses pertained to one book or author, e.g. Veda dated to the 1\textsuperscript{st} millennium B.C. in India, Homer, his glossaries dated to the 5\textsuperscript{th} c. B.C. in Greece.

Collections of words for educational purposes are called vocabularias, e.g. Hettite-Akkadian-Sumerian plates, tablets dated to 14-13 c.c. B.C.

Thematic group of words pertained to the 2\textsuperscript{nd} millennium B.C. They were found precisely in 1750 B.C. in Egypt.

The 2\textsuperscript{nd} period is the period of early dictionaries, its function is to study literary languages which differ even now with many peoples from spoken speech: Sanskrit lexicons pertained to the 8-6\textsuperscript{th} c.c. B.C., ancient Greek lexicons dates to 10 c. B.C.
A short Akkadian wordlist from central Mesopotamia has survived from the 7th c. B.C.
The Western tradition of dictionary making began among the Greeks, although not until the language had changed so much that explanations and commentaries were needed. After a 1st c. A.D. lexicon was compiled in Greek, the most important being those of the Atticists in the 2nd c. that of Photius and the Suda in the Middle Ages.

Later on passive translated vocabularies appeared in which foreign vocabulary is explained with the help of a language of a people, e.g. Arabic-Persian – 11 c. A.D., Latin-English – 15 c. A.D., Church-Slavonic-Russian – 16 c. A.D.
Then the reverse process took place: translated dictionaries of active type arose, where the initial language was existing, living language (e.g. English-Latin, French-Latin 16 c., Russian-Latin-Greek – 18 c.) and besides bilingual dictionaries of the living languages appeared.

Explanatory dictionaries arose in countries with hieroglyphic orthography, e.g. in China – in the 3 c. B.C., in Japan in the 8th c. B.C.
Chaotic lexicography becomes regularly developed when national literary languages appeared, so the third period – period of developed lexicography took its place. The main function of which is describing and normalizing. It enhanced social linguistic culture. Philological societies and academies were founded which created explanatory, encyclopaedic dictionaries, such as “Halian Academic Dictionary by Crusca 1612, Russian Academic Dictionary, 1789-1794.

As far as special dictionaries are concerned they were also published such as dictionary of grammar, synompus, phraseology; dialectal, orthographic, orthoepic, terminological dictionaries and others.
It should be bear in mind that dictionaries and its compiling were closely conaceted with the period of their creation, leading philosophic schools.
In the 17-18\textsuperscript{th} c. \Enlightenment epoch and ideas of famous philosophers such as Fransis Bacon and Rene Dekartes were reflected in vocabularies. Later on ideas of positivism influenced French dictionaries in the 19\textsuperscript{th} c. e.g. a famous dictionary of E. Littre (1863-1872). Evolution theories and comparative linguistics brought out one of the problem, the problem of solving etymological questions in lexicography, strengthening the role of history from 18\textsuperscript{th} c. In the 20\textsuperscript{th} c. lexicography acquired \textit{industrial character}: dictionaries of related languages, reverse dictionaries, dictionaries of frequent words, concordances, dictionaries of the writers’ languages appeared.

Computer and computerised techniques in lexicography are being applied from 1950. The whole institutes and centres of lexicography were created.

Questions:
1) What is the origin of the terms “lexicology” and “lexicography”? What do they mean?
2) What do lexicography and lexicology have in common? Enumerate their differences.
3) Enumerate main functions of practical lexicography.
4) What periods is practical lexicography divided into?

\textbf{Lecture 2.}

\textbf{Historical development of British lexicography (VIII-XVIII cc.)}

\textbf{Plan}

1. Historical backgrounds from classical times.

2. The origin of English lexicography:
   - manuscript glossaries;
   - bilingual glossaries;
   - translating dictionaries.
3. A new stage of development: from a glossary to explanatory dictionary:
   - hard word dictionaries;
   - common words dictionaries;
   - dictionaries of new words;
   - etymological dictionaries.

4. Samuel Johnson’s personality and his innovations.

**Literature:**


4. Ступин Л.П. Лексикография английского языка. М., 1985. С. 51-65


A need for a glossary or dictionary has been felt in cultural growth of many civilized peoples at a fairly early period.

What is “dictionary”? The word “dictionary” comes from the Latin “dictio”, “the art of speaking” and “dictionarius”, “a collection of words”. According to Encyclopaedia Britannica definition, “dictionary is used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation, usage and/or origin”.

Because Latin was a much-used language of great prestige well into modern times, its monumental dictionaries were important and later influenced English lexicography. At least five medieval scholastics-Papias the Lombard, Alexander Neckham, Johannes de Garlandia (John Garland), Hugo of Pisa and Giovanni Balbi of Genoa – turned their attention to dictionaries.

It should be noted that the word “dictionary” was firstly used in a manuscript of Latin words by John Garland in 1225. The mammoth work of Ambrogio Calepino, published at Reggio, in 1502, incorporating several other languages besides Latin, was so popular that “calepin” came to be an ordinary word for a
dictionary. It was a tendency to call it so that’s why several centuries later caused people to say “Look in Johnson”, or ‘Look in Webster”.

The history of dictionary making for the English language goes as far back as the Old English period. According to L.P.Stupin the 1st stage of English lexicography began when bilingual manuscript glossaries appeared (7-14 cc)/

The earliest manuscript glossaries such as Corpus, Leiden, Epinal, Erurt Glossaries belonged to the 8th –9th centuries. These famous glossaries were called after their keeping place.

The origin of the bilingual lists can be traced to a practice of the early Middle Ages, that of writing interlinear glosses – explanations of difficult words – in manuscripts. Some of these have survived from the 7th and 8th centuries – and in some cases they preserve the earliest recorded forms in English.

The first bilingual glossary to find its way into print was a French – English vocabulary for the use of travellers, printed in England by William Caxton, without a title page, in 1480. It consisted of words and expressions appeared in parallel columns on 26 leaves.

Next came a Latin-English vocabulary by a noted grammarian, John Stanbridge, published by Richard Pynson in 1496 and reprinted frequently.

But far more substantial in character was an English-Latin vocabulary called the Promptorius puerorum (“Storehouse [of words] for Children”) brought out by Pynson in 1499. It was commonly attribute to Geoffrey the Grammarian (Galfridus Grammaticus), a Dominican friar of Norfolk.

It was the 2nd stage of English lexicography which is characterized by creating both manuscript and printed glossaries, including rather simple wordlists(14-15 cc).

The 3-d stage is concerned with printed bilingual glossaries having broaden word lists and versatile characteristics of words(15-16).

The next important dictionary to be published was an English-French one by John (or Jepan) Palsgrave in 1530 “les claircis-sement de la langue françoise
Palsgrave was a tutor of French in London, and a letter has survived showing that he arranged with his printer that no copy should be sold without his permission.

A Welsh-English dictionary by William Salesbury in 1547 brought another language in requisition:

The encouragement of Henry VIII was responsible for an important Latin-English dictionary that appeared in 1538 from the hand of Sir Thomas Elyot. It is the first work which took to itself in England what was destined to be the famous name of Dictionary and it was actually in alphabetical order. He was the 1st author who used the word ‘dictionary’ to his reference book in English.

The 4th stage of English lexicography is characterized by perfecting and developing of translating dictionaries of new western European languages (16c).

Of all the works which we have yet considered, Latin was an essential element. But a new stage of development was marked by the appearance of English dictionaries with another modern language. In 1521 the “Introductory to write and to pronounce French” by Alexander Barelly was issued from the press of Robert Coplande; in 1527 Giles du Guez, French teacher to the Lady Mary, afterwards Queen Mary published his “Introductorie for to lerne to rede, to pronounce and to speke French trewly”. In addition to grammatical rules and dialogues, it contains a select vocabulary of English and French. Next to French, the continent all languages most important to English-men in 16th century, were Italian and Spanish of both of which accordingly, dictionaries were published before the end of the century. In 1599 Richard Minshen produced a still more ambitions work – a polyglot dictionary of English ten other languages, British or Welsh, Low Dutch, High Dutch, French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Latin, Greek and Hebrew, which he entitled “Ductor in Linguas”, the Grude into Tongues.

The mainstream of English lexicography is the wordlist explained in English. The first known English-English glossary grew out of the desire of the
supporters of the Reformation that even the most humble Englishman should be able to understand the Scriptures [the Bible]. The schoolmasters also had a strong interest in the development of dictionaries.

The 1st unilingual English dictionary “A Table Alphabetical of Hard Words” by a schoolmaster Robert Cawdrey appeared in 1604. It consisted of but one hundred and twenty pages, where he set forth the proper spelling and meaning of some 3,000 words. It was for ladies or any other unskillful person.

It included archaic words, Latin non frequent borrowings and even slang jargon words. The fifth period of EL deals with dictionaries of difficult words (17c).

John Kersey was the 1st lexicographer who had paid attention to the simpliest common words publishing his “A New English Dictionary: or, a lompleat Collection of Most Proper and Significant Words, Commonly Used in Language…” in London in 1702.

The son of Milton’s sister Anne, Edward Phillips, published his “New World of Words in 1658. After his death “The New World of Words: or a Universal English Dictionary” was brought out by John Kersey in London 1706, this edition is called “the Dictionary of Kersey-Phillips”. It included a considerable number of obsolete words, chiefly from Spenser and his contemporaries, in some cases erroneously explained.

The notion that an English Dictionary ought to contain all English words had apparently as yet occurred to no one; but this farther step in the evolution of modern dictionary was now about to be made, and the man who made it, was one of most deserving in the annals of English lexicography. Nathaniel Bailey was famous his “Universal Etymological English Dictionary, published in 1721. He aimed at including all English words; yet not for the mere boast of “completeness”, but for a practical purpose, pointing out words etymology and pronunciation. So the 6th stage of EL is characterized by preparing an explanatory dictionary of the English national language.
During the second quarter of 18th century, the feeling arouse among literary men as well as among the looksellers that the time had come for preparation of a ‘Standard Dictionary’ of English tongue, which should register the proper sense and use of every word and phrase, from which no polite writer henceforth would be expected to deviate. The turning point in the history of English tongue was 1st modern dictionary of English-Latin by Samuel Johnson. It’s full title was “A Dictionary of the English Language in Which the Words are Deduced from their Originals and Illustrated in their General Significations by Examples from the Best Writes”(1755).

Samuel Johnson set himself the task of making a different kind of dictionary, one that would include all the words in English, not just the difficult ones. In addition would show how to divide words into syllables and where words came from. He would establish a consistent system of defining words and draw from his own gigantic learning to provide, for the 1st time in any dictionary, illustrative quotations from famous writers.

Samuel Johnson, underfunded and working almost alone in a Fleet Street garret room, defined some 43,000 words and illuminated their meanings with more than 114,000 supporting quotations drawn from every of literature. This task took nearer nine than three years, but the results more than justified Johnson’s ambitions hopes. The two huge tomes, each the size of a lectern Bible and each of which would fill about five fat volumes today, were an immediate success upon their publication.

Johnson’s friend and student, the actor David Garrick, composed a couplet comparing Johnson’s singlehanded labours with the collaborative product of the Academie Francaise.

And Johnson, well arm’d like a hero of yore,
Has beat(en) forty French, and will beat forty more.
It was a hint at Academie Francaise that had been founded in 1635, it included 40 members.
Johnson defined a lexicographer as “a writer of dictionaries, a harmless drudge that busies himself in tracing the original and detailing the signification of words”.

But he was obviously far more than a harmless drudge, and his dictionary was by far the most comprehensive and readable that had appeared. The reputation of the Dictionary of the English language was so great that it dominated the field until the turn of the 18th century and established a mighty line of thorough and scholarly English dictionaries.

Johnson was an eccentric man, and he saw no reason why he should keep his eccentricities and strong opinions out of his dictionary. Thus, many of his definitions are as much revelations of the author’s personality as attempts to record the English language:

**Dedication.** A servile address to a patron.

**Goat.** A ruminant animal that seems a middle species between dear and sheep.

**Lunch.** As much food as one’s hand can hold.

**Oats.** A grain, which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people.

**Pensioner.** A slave of state hired by a stipend to obey his master. In England it is generally understood to mean pay given to a state hireling for treason to his country.

Despite the humorous pedantry of the above the relations, Johnson adopted an enlightened and humble view about the relationship between language and lexicographers. “I am not yet so lost in lexicography, as and forget that words are the daughters of earth and that things are the sons of heaven”, he wrote, and “Dictionaries are like watches: the worst is better than none, and the best cannot be expected and go quite true”.

Johnson’s great work raised English lexicography to a higher level. In his hands it became a department of literature. Johnson’s contribution to lexicographic
practice is considered to be as follows: two basic principles of vocabulary entry arrangements such as
1. clear differentiation and numbering of word meanings;
2. including a lot of illustrations providing quotations origin.
From Bailey onward and by Johnson himself, the place of the stress-accent had been marked, but no attempt had been made to show how such a group of betters as colonel or enough was actually pronounced. So the end of 18th century was the indication of Pronunciation.
Dr. William Kenrick compiled “A New Dictionary of the English Language” in 1773, later Thomas Sheridan respelled this dictionary in 1780 under the title “A General Dictionary of English Language” and at last John Walker whose authority long remained as supreme in the field of pronunciation as that of Johnson in definition and illustration produced his famous “Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language” in 1791.
To sum it up from the 1st quarter of the 19th century the lexicographical supremacy of Johnson’s Dictionary was undisputed, and eminent students busied themselves in trying to supplement and perfect it.

Questions:
1. Enumerate the earliest manuscript glossaries.
2. What was William Carton famous for?
3. Who was the first man to compile an English-French dictionary? When was it happened?
4. What was Thomas Elyot famous for?
5. Who was the anther of the first unilingual dictionary? When was it published?
6. Who was the author of the first etymological dictionary? What was its title, year of publication?
7. What was John Kersey famous for?
8. What was the title of Samuel Johnson’s dictionary? When was it published?

His contributions to English lexicography.

9. Who compiled the 1st pronouncing dictionary?

Lecture 3.

The history of the Oxford English Dictionary and its peculiarities

(XIX – XXcc)

Plan:

1. The Golden Age of English lexicography.
2. The origin of the “OED”.
3. The main principles and peculiarities of the “OED”.
4. The “OED” as the definitive historical dictionary of the English language.

Literature:


Premise of the OED creating

Noah Webster, an American lexicographer, had spent many years in compiling a laborious “Synopsis” of 20 languages, but he lacked an awareness of the systematic relationships in the Indo-European family of languages. Germanic scholars such as Jacob Grimm, Franz Bopp, and Rasmus Rask had developed a rigorous science of “comparative philology” and a new era of dictionary making was called for. Even as early as 1812 Franz Passow had published an essay in
which he set forth the canons of a new lexicography, stressing the importance of the use of quotations arranged chronologically in order to exhibit the history of each word. The brothers Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm developed these theories in their preparations for the *Deutsches Worterbuch* in 1838. The first part of it was printed in 1852, but the end was published in 1960, more than a century later. French scholarship was represented by Maximilien-Paul-Emile Littre, who began working on his *Dictionnaire de la langue francais* in 1844, but, with interruptions of the Revolution of 1848 and his philosophical studies, he did not complete it until 1873.

Among scholars in England the historical outlook took an important step forward in 1808 in the work of John Jamieson on the language of *Scotland*. His *Etymological Dictionary if the Scottish language* marked a turning point in the history of lexicography. Even as late as 1835 the critic Richard Garnett said that “the only good English dictionary we possess is Dr. Jamieson’s Scottish one.” Another collector James Jermyn, showed by his publications between 1815 and 1848 that he had the largest body of quotations assembled before that of *The Oxford English Dictionary*.

Charles Richardson was also an industrious collector, impressed by idea that definitions are unnecessary, the quotations alone are sufficient and he proceeded to carry this into practice illustrating each group of words by a large series of quotations. He quoted from authors back to the year 1300. His work *New Dictionary of the English Language* (1836 – 1837) still would continue to be a valuable repertoire of illustrations.

Scholars more and more felt the need for a full historical dictionary that would display the English language in accordance with the most rigorous scientific principles of lexicography.

The philological society, founded in 1842, established an Unregistered Words Committee, but upon hearing two papers by Richard Chenevix Trench in 1857 – “On Some Deficiencies in Our English Dictionaries” – the society changed its
plan to the making of “A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles”. It was R. Trench who called upon the Philological Society to undertake the collection of materials to complete the work already done by Bailey, Johnson, Todd, Webster, Richardson and others, such dictionary would register all omitted words and senses and supply all the historical information in which these works were lacking, and above all, should give every notable point in the life-history of every word.

Forward steps were taken under two editors, Herbert Coleridge and Frederick James Turnivall, until in 1879, James Augustus Henry Murray, a Scott known for his brilliance in philology, was engaged as editor.

Part I was finished in 1884, later, three other editors were added, each editing independently with his own staff – Henry Bradley, in the North of England, in 1888, William Alexander Craigie, another Scott, in 1901 and Charles Talbut Onions, the only “Southerner”, in 1914. The work was finished in 1928, in over 15,000 pages with three long columns each.

It was a consolidation of a century’s work of 4 generations of lexicographers. It was initially published in a series of 125 slim fascicles between the years 1884 – 1928.

The work was reprinted, with a supplement, in 12 volumes in 1933 with the title “The Oxford English Dictionary”, and as the OED it has been known ever since, a definitive historical dictionary of the English language.

Arranged mostly in order of historical occurrence, the definitions in the OED are illustrated with about 2,400,000 dated quotations from English-language literature and records. The aim of the dictionary (as stated in the 1933 edition) is “to present in alphabetical series the words that have formed the English vocabulary from the time of the earliest records down to the present day, with all the relevant facts concerning their form, sense-history and etymology.”

The OED covers words from across the English-speaking world, from North America to South Africa, from Australia and New Zealand to the Caribbean.
It also offers the best in etymological analysis and in listing of variant spelling, and it shows pronunciation using the International Phonetic Alphabet.

The Oxford English Dictionary is not an arbiter of proper usage, despite its widespread reputation to the contrary. The Dictionary is intended to be descriptive, not prescriptive. In other words, its content should be viewed as an objective reflection of English language usage, not a subjective collection of usage ‘dos’ and ‘don’ts’. However, it includes information on which usages are or have been popularly regarded as ‘incorrect’.

As far as making it modern the 2nd edition of the OED own as OED 2 was published in 20 volumes in 1989 by the Oxford University Press/ its co-editors were John A. Simpson and Edmund S.C. Weiner.

In 1992 the first CD-ROM version of the OED is published, the OED is now being fully revised, with new material published in parts online. It has been a great success. The electronic format has revolutionized the way people use the Dictionary to search and retrieve information. Complex investigations into word origins and quotations that would have been impossible to conduct using the print edition now take only a few seconds.

The Oxford English Dictionary has been the last word on words for over a century. But, as with a respected professor or admired parent, we count on its wisdom and authority without thinking much about how it was acquired.

To sum it up, the OED is the accepted authority on the evolution of the English language of the last millennium. It is an unsurpassed guide to the meaning, history, and pronunciation of over half a million words, both present and past.

The OED is a living document that has been growing and changing for 140 years. Far more than a convenient place to look up words and their origins, the OED is an irreplaceable part of English culture. It not only provides an important record of the evolution of our language, but also documents the continuing development of our society. It is certain to continue in this role as we enter the new country.
Questions on lecture:
1. Whose lexicographic works are considered to be the famous in Europe in the 19th century?
2. Why do we call the OED a definitive diachronic dictionary of the English language? Whose ideas formed the basis of this dictionary?
3. Speak on its date of publication, original name, lexicographic concept and purpose.

Lecture 4.
The historical signposts of American lexicography

Plan:
2. Webster’s dictionaries.
4. Other dictionaries published in the USA.

Literature:

It is known that the English language was brought to the North American continent by English settlers at the very beginning of the 17th century. By the
end of the 18th century the population of the United States of America was about
4 mln people 90% of whom was British.

Americans have had additional reasons for their homage to the dictionary. In
colonial times Americans felt themselves to be far from the centre of
civilization. They were willing to accept a book standard in order to learn what
they thought prevailed in England. This linguistic colonialism lasted a long time
and set the pattern of accepting the dictionary as a “law giver”.

First lexicographical editions were just compilations of a poor quality of English
explanatory dictionaries of the 18th century. Most of them were compiled for
schools.

Curiously enough, the 1st American dictionary of the English language was
made by a man whose name was also Samuel Johnson.

Samuel Johnson Jr., a Connecticut schoolmaster, published in 1798 a small book
entitled “A School Dictionary” (4100 words). It contained parts of speech, brief
definitions (of 2-3 words) on etymology.

Another book “A Selected Pronouncing and Accented Dictionary” of the same
author with John Eliott was published in 1800 which showed already some signs
of Americanization. It included for instance word like tomahawk and wampum
borrowed into English from the Indian languages.

J. Pickering published “A Vocabulary or Collection of Words and Phrases which
have been supposed to be peculiar to the United States of America” in 1816. It
was the first work collecting all Americanisms in which the author criticized
their antinorm, anti British character. It should be mentioned that American
dictionaries from the end of the 18th century till the thirties of the 19th century
were published almost for special usage in schools.

It was Noah Webster considered to be the father of American lexicography. He
defended Americans’ right to create their own words. N. Webster realized the
importance of language for the development of a nation, and devoted his energy
to giving the American English the status of an independent language, distinct from British English.

In 1828 his famous “An American Dictionary of the English language” in 2 volumes appeared in New York. This dictionary creating American English norm sustained numerous revised and enlarged editions.

Webster’s dictionary enjoyed great popularity from its first editions, which was due not only to the accuracy and clarity of definitions but also to the richness of additional information of encyclopaedic character, which had become a tradition in American lexicography.

In the USA, lexicographical activity has been unceasing since 1828. In the middle years of the 19th century, a “war of the dictionaries” was carried on between the supporters of Noah Webster and those of his rival, Joseph Emerson Worcester. This “war” outbursted when Joseph Worcester published his reference book reflecting Johnson’s traditions. N. Webster on the contrary was quite opposite British influence in the USA. He accused Worcester of plagiarism. To a large extent, this was a competition between publishers who wished to preempt the market in the lower schools, but literary people took sides on the basis of other issues.

In particular, the contentions Noah Webster had gained a reputation as a reformer of spelling and a champion of American innovations, while the quiet Worcester followed traditions.

In 1846 Worcester brought out an important new work “A Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language”, which included many neologisms of the time, and in the next year Webster’s son-in-law, Chauncey Allen Goodrich, edited an improved “American Dictionary of the deceased Webster. In this edition the Webster interests were taken over by an aggressive publishing firm, the G&C Merriam Company.

Their agents were very active in the “war of the dictionaries” and sometimes secured an order, by decree of a state legislature, for their book to be placed in
every schoolhouse of the state. Worcester’s climatic edition of 1860, “A Dictionary of the English language”, gave him the edge in the “war”, and James Russell Lowell declared: “From this long conflict Dr. Worcester has unquestionable come off victorious.”

The Merriams, however, brought out their answer in 1864, popularly called “the unabridged”, with etymologies supplied by a famous German scholar, Karl August Friedrich Mahn. Thereafter, the Worcester series received no major re-editing, and its faltering publishers allowed to pass into history.

At last there was but one winner – the American lexicographic practice.

One of the best English dictionaries ever compiled was issued in 24 parts from 1889 to 1891 as “The Century Dictionary”, edited by William Dwight Whitney. It contained much encyclopaedic material but bears comparison even with the OED. The history of this dictionary dated back to John Ogilvie’s “The Imperial Dictionary of the English Language: A Complete Encyclopaedic Lexicon, Literary, Scientific and Technological on the Basis of Webster’s English Dictionary”, 2 volumes, London, 1847 – 1850. This work was noteworthy due to the following reasons:

1) encyclopaedic character of presenting material;
2) Webster’s Dictionary was taken as a starting point.

It should be noted that in 1823 Isaac Kauffman Funk brought out “A Standard Dictionary of the English Language”, its chief innovation being the giving of definitions in the order of their importance, not the historical order. Thus, at the turn of the new century, the US had four reputable dictionaries: Webster’s, Worcester’s (already becoming moribund), the Century, and Funk’s Standard.

England was also well served by many (the original dates given here) – John Ogilvie (1850), P. Austin Nuttall (1855), Robert Gordon Latham (1866, re-editing Todd’s Johnson of 1818), Robert Hunter (1879), and Charles Annandale (1882).

A synchronic review of the language in the middle of the 20th century was presented by Random House Dictionary of the English Language (1967).

Questions:
1. Who was at the cradle of American lexicography?
2. Who is considered to be the father of American lexicography? Why?
3. Who was the winner in the war of dictionaries in the 19th century?
4. Enumerate the companies to publish dictionaries in the 20th century.

Lecture 5.

Historical development of Russian lexicography

Plan:
1. Main signposts of Russian translating lexicography.
2. Lexicographic achievement throughout 16th – 20th cc.

Literature:
In Russia the 1st foreign manuscript dictionaries appeared in the 18th century. They aimed at: 1) explaining new necessary foreign terms for being quickly mastered by society; 2) opposing superfluous foreign words to Russian ones in order to show that foreign words are not necessary.

The encouragement of Peter the Great was responsible for appearance of the first part of “Lexicon of new vocabulas in alphabetic order” («Лексикон вокабулям новым по алфавиту»). But it was not finished. It included new loan words from new European languages concerning military, scientific and administrative terms from different fields of knowledge.

Appearance and development of bilingual English – Russian and Russian – English dictionaries are closely connected with the history of economic and political relations between Russia and England in the 2nd half of the 16th century. However, the first dictionary referred to the 18th century. It contained English vocabulary and its translation into Russian. It was a multilingual dictionary: Russian – Greek – Latin – French – German – English one which was published for the sake of young Russian people in Saint Petersburg in 1763 without a title page. Г.А. Полетика (Г.А. Полетика) is supposed to be its author. This dictionary included 32 word groups (nearly 4 thousand words) based on ideographic principles. Some years later П.И. Жданов (П.И. Жданов) published 2 works:

1) The English and Russian Dictionary (Словарь Английской и Российской) in 1772;

2) “A New Dictionary of English and Russian” in 1784, which was arranged in alphabetical order containing 30 thousand words.
It was for the first time in the history of Russian bilingual lexicography that vocabulary entries were arranged in alphabetic order, besides, it was made an attempt to differentiate word meanings, there were labels indicating grammar and word usage.

At the end of the 18th century traditions of Russian lexicography resulted in the Russian Academic dictionaries: the 1st volume was published in 1789-1794; the second one was published in 1806-1822.

Lexicographic work would continue attaining great development in Russia. As to the 19th century the following dictionaries which are by no means of great importance should be mentioned:

1) Academic Russian and Church Slavonic Language Dictionary in 4 volumes (1847);
2) The Old Russian Dictionary was compiled by I.I. Sreznevsky (1890 – 1912) which was published postumously:
3) Dall’s V.I., Dictionary of the Great Russian Language was published in 1863 – 1866.
4) Academic Russian language Dictionary was compiled by I.K. Grott in 1895.

At the beginning of the 20th century 8 dictionaries which are worth considering should be mentioned:
3) As far as explanatory dictionaries are concerned it should be mentioned: “Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language” by D.N. Ushakov (1935 – 1940).
4) “Explanatory Dictionary of Russian Language” by S.I. Ozhegov (1949), which was many times revised and reprinted.

As far as translating lexicography is concerned a lot of bilingual dictionaries (English – Russian and Russian – English) are published annually in our country.

In XX c. the most reliable are New English – Russian Dictionary in 2 volumes under the guidance of I.R. Galperin (1972), containing 150 thousand words and Russian – English Dictionary, under the guidance of A.I. Smirnitsky (1948), containing 50 thousand words. Both of these dictionaries are constantly revised and perfected.

One more work of English lexicographers deserves our attention – The Oxford Russian Dictionary, edited by M. Wheels and B. Unbegaun, published in 1997. It includes some new words being coined at the 2nd half of the XXth century. All of the given bilingual dictionaries concern general type, for they contain general lexis and its translation, such dictionaries are widespread and they are the most useful reference books for studying languages. However, there are a lot of dictionaries of special type, such as: 1) English – Russian Economic and Financial Dictionary compiled by A.V. Anikin (1993), containing 75 thousand words; 2) Dictionary of Law compiled by S.N. Andryanov, A.S. Berson and A.S. Nikiphorov (1993), containing 50 thousand terms; 3) English – Russian Building Dictionary compiled by S.N. Korchemkina, S.A. Kashkina, S.V. Kurbatova (1995), containing 55 thousand words; 4) English – Russian Printing Dictionary, compiled by A.V. Vinogradsky, M.G. Kosenko, etc. (1995),

It should be said about one more book “Translator’s Russian – English Phraseological Dictionary”, compiled by S.S. Kuzmin (2001), which can truly be called Dictionary of the 21st century. It includes 2 thousand Russian phraseological expressions and how to express them in English. The author’s progressive ideas about the role of phraseology in communication give him every ground for addressing the dictionary to translators first of all.

At the end of the XXth century electronic versions of Multilex appeared, they are computerized dictionaries of new generation. We may enjoy their advantages and discuss their peculiarities. We’ll dwell upon electronic dictionaries further on.

Questions:
1) When did the first multilingual dictionary appear in Russia, its author, content?
2) What types of dictionaries appeared in Russia in the 19th century?
3) What do you know about famous reliable dictionaries in the 20th century?
4) Give examples of Russian – English and English – Russian bilingual contemporary dictionaries. What do they aim at?

Lecture 6.

Theoretical lexicography, its aims, problems and functions

Plan:
1. The concept of “lexicography”.
2. Aims and functions of lexicography.

Literature:

Lexicography is the theory and practice of compiling dictionaries. The province of lexicography lies in the semantic, formal, and functional description of all individual words. Dictionaries aim at a more or less complete description, but in so doing cannot attain systematic treatment, so that every dictionary entry presents, as it were, an independent problem.

We may say that lexicologists sort and present their material in a sequence depending upon their views concerning the vocabulary, whereas lexicographers have to arrange it most often according to a purely external characteristic, namely alphabetically.

Theoretical lexicography aims at:
1) codification of any modern language lexicon, carried out in various types of dictionaries based on historical learning;
2) systematization of characteristic features of words;
3) dictionary making providing foundation for fundamental research of dictionary development and their types.

Theoretical lexicography studies the following problems:
1) general typology developing of dictionaries and dictionaries of new types;
2) development of dictionary macrostructure;
3) development of dictionary microstructure.

Let’s consider it in detail. Lexicography develops general typology of dictionaries and new types of dictionaries. It means that there are unilingual
lexicography (compiling explanatory dictionaries), bilingual lexicography (compiling translating dictionaries), educational lexicography (compiling dictionaries for language studying), and scientific-technological lexicography (making terminological dictionaries).

More detailed criteria on the term “dictionary” are necessary before the next problem should be considered.

Firstly: *dictionary* is a term used to denote a book listing words of a language with their meanings and often with data regarding pronunciation/ usage and/ or origin. Basically, a dictionary lists a set of words with information about them. The list may attempt to be a complete inventory of a language or may be only a small segment of it.

A short list, sometimes at the back of a book is often called *a glossary*.

Secondly: *lexicon* is of Greek origin, *lexicos* – “relating to word”. It is used to denote the system being formed by the total of all the words of a given language. It is better to use it when speaking of a dead or exotic language such as Greek/ Latin, or Hebrew/ Arabic Lexicon.

Thirdly: *reference book* containing words (or morphemes, phrases, idioms) arranged in a definite order (different one in various dictionaries), explains meanings of described units, gives different information about objects or presents translation into other languages or describes objects.

The second problem of theoretical lexicography deals with macrostructure of dictionary development. It embraces choice of vocabulary, principles of arranging words and entries. In addition to its basic function of defining words, a dictionary may provide linguistic information about their pronunciation, grammatical forms and functions, etymologies, syntactic peculiarities, variant spellings and antonyms.

A dictionary may also provide quotations illustrating a word’s usage, and these may be dated to show the earliest known uses of the word in specified senses.
The third problem of theoretical lexicography concerns with microstructure of a dictionary, that is of a separate entry. It affects grammar and phonetic commentaries to a word and relates to classification and outlining of meanings, definitions, note system, supplementary materials. In addition balance of linguistic and encyclopaedic information should be taken into consideration.

Modern lexicography outlines important social functions of dictionaries which record entire knowledge of a given epoch, which are as follows: 1) informative function; it reflects the shortest was that is through notations to acquire knowledge; 2) communicative function, it gives readers the necessary words of native and foreign languages; 3) nominative function, it is originated from the Latin word “nomen”, from times immemorial it is use to nominate objects. Dictionaries acquire greater and greater role in storing and transforming information.

General Typology of Dictionaries

There are lots of types of dictionaries which serve as the object of lexical description. Language is greater and various social demands of information grow rapidly. The demand for dictionaries is very great too.

It is impossible to give complete information about language which would satisfy the whole society of all its layers, so in many national lexicography there are hundreds and dozens of different dictionaries. There is no acclaimed typology of dictionaries. However, attempts to do it were made by our Russian scientists such as L.V. Schterba, P.N. Denisov, L.P. Stupin and by foreign linguists as well: B. Kemado, J. Malkilon, L. Zgusta.

Traditionally dictionaries are divided into types due to the following principles of classification:

Principles of Classification and Types of Dictionaries

1. Object of description
### DICTIONARIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic dictionaries (lexicons)</th>
<th>Encyclopaedic dictionaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>give information about</td>
<td>contain information about/ on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language units in various</td>
<td>objects, notions, things and events, being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aspects</td>
<td>explained by language units</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2. Selection of vocabulary (lexicon)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thesauruses</th>
<th>Special dictionaries in which principle of selection of lexis is presented according to different criteria (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, homonyms, abbreviations, terminological, dialectal, etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dictionaries which lack principle of selection aiming at maximum fully represented all the words of a language and their usage in texts (e.g. explanatory dictionaries, frequent dictionaries, translating dictionaries, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

which were reflected in booklet of Л.В. Варпахович Лингвистика в таблицах и схемах. Минск, 2003. 128с.

Now we’ll study it in detail.

Due to the object of description dictionaries are divided into encyclopaedic and linguistic.

What does any linguistic dictionary include? In linguistic dictionaries the word itself is described, the word is characterized as a language unit, its meaning, grammar, orthographic, orthoepical and stylistic peculiarities are reflected.
What does any encyclopaedic dictionary consist of? Encyclopaedic dictionaries do not concentrate on words, one may say that objects, things, events are explained and connected with a certain word. No prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, interjections are used, verbs are rare. Many nouns, proper names are included there. To sum it up, encyclopaedic dictionaries contain information of extralinguistic character.

Лев Успенский, one of Russian linguists, gave different names to dictionaries and encyclopaedias. He called linguistic dictionaries “словари” (for they describe words, from Russian («слово» means “word”) and encyclopaedias “вещари” (for they describe things, in Russian “вещи”).

Nevertheless linguistic and encyclopaedic dictionaries have some common features such as:

1) often a common glossary or word list;
2) alphabetic arrangement of material;
3) partially common definitions.

As we have already mentioned, encyclopaedic dictionaries are usually non philologically oriented. Linguistic dictionaries are compiled for philologists, linguists by lexicographers.

Strictly speaking, lexicography is the theory and practice of creating only linguistic dictionaries.

3. Coverage (the number of words being included into a dictionary)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>DICTIONARIES</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BIG</td>
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</table>

The next principle which should be mentioned is coverage or volume, i.e. the number of words which are included into this or that reference book. According
to this reason there are three groups of dictionaries: big, average, small. Every
dictionary presupposes very strict choice.

*E.g.* 1) “The Oxford English Dictionary” has more than 450,000 words,
the maximum complete choice; 2) “Small Abridged Oxford Dictionary”
includes 74,000 words, more than 40,000 entries; 3) “Oxford Illustrated
Dictionary” consists of more than 30,000 words.

The next approach

*4. Number of languages in a dictionary*

| DICTIONARIES |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Monolingual (unilingual) (one language dictionary) | Bilingual (two language dictionary) | Multilingual (polyglot dictionary) |

cconcerns the language of describing entries or units in the dictionary. If we use
the means of the same language as the entry itself – it is a monolingual
dictionary (or unilingual); if not – translating dictionary (bilingual or
multilingual).

The next principle

*5. Volume of Description (functional peculiarities of a language)*

| DICTIONARIES |
|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Common literary language** | Language of science and technology | Language of territory dialects |

is connected with describing separate functional peculiarities of the language.
Any national language (not literary one) has some archistucture, which consists
of: 1) common literary language; 2) language of science and technology; 3) language of territory, professional and social dialects.

The next approach

6. Way of language unit description

DICTIONARIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General dictionaries</th>
<th>Special dictionaries</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>contain multiaspect word description</td>
<td>reveal only some aspects of words or relations between them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(e.g. explanatory dictionaries)</td>
<td>(e.g. etymological, wordbuilding, orphographical, dictionary of collocations, etc.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

concerns way of language unit description. There are separate special dictionaries which are contrasted to general ones. The aim of special dictionaries is to cover only a certain specific part of vocabulary. To describe them we should mention dictionary of literary language, reflecting the language of fiction, mass-media.

Types of Dictionaries Are Based On

Usually linguistic dictionaries are divided into: 1) general; 2) special; 3) unilingual or monolingual; 4) translating: bilingual or multilingual; 5) defining, explanatory; 6) universal (such as Big Oxford Dictionary, Webster).

The main types of dictionaries are also different in coverage, order of description, volume of description, etc.

The first type of linguistic dictionaries is language explanatory, in other words general, monolingual, unilingual dictionaries, showing the meaning, usage, grammar, phonetic and stylistic peculiarities of words. They appear on the level of national language created by Academies. They give all information
about a word and they are the basis for creating other types of dictionaries, e.g. Big Oxford Dictionary, Collins English Language Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Linguistic encyclopaedias and thesauri would contain all lexicon of a given language.

The second type of dictionaries are special ones such as: dictionary of terms, dictionary of abbreviations, concordances dictionary, dictionaries of borrowings, neologisms, dictionary of proverbs, jargons, colloquial, dialectal dictionaries, etc.

*E.g.* dialectal dictionary may describe vocabulary of related dialects or one dialect. One of the best dictionaries of this kind is “The English Dialect Dictionary” compiled by Joseph Wright in 6 volumes was published in Oxford in 1898 – 1905. It included dialects of England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales. Before this dictionary could appear a thorough study of English dialects had to be completed. With this aim in view Walter Skeat, famous for his “An Etymological English Dictionary” (1879 – 1882), founded the English Dialect Society as far back as 1873.

As far as American lexicography is concerned the following special dictionaries are considered to be reputable in the USA:


Besides there are regional dictionaries describing the English language in the USA, Canada, Australia, India, New Zealand. One of this type is “Dictionary of American English on Historical Principles” [in 4 volumes, Chicago University, 1938 - 1944] published by W.A Craigi and G.K. Hulbert; 3) one more dictionary, being compiled by a Georgian scientist G. Zviadadze “Dictionary of Contemporary American English Contrasted with British English” and it was published in Tbilisi, 1981. It includes more than one thousand contrasted pairs of words.
Reference books concern territorial, local dialects, professional speech, jargons, reflecting oral colloquial speech differing from written or science and technique, terminology where word-book is lexicon of the certain scientific sublanguage.

Even special dictionaries may be subdivided depending on: 1) whether the words are chosen according to the sphere of human activity in which they are used (technical dictionaries); 2) the type of units themselves (e.g. phraseological dictionaries) or the relationships existing between them (e.g. dictionaries of synonyms, antonyms, etc.).

Very often frequency dictionaries give a bright picture of different types of a language.

Order of arranging words may be quite unusual in such type of dictionary as reverse: it presupposes comparing of 2 words from the end of it to the beginning (Cf. A.F. Brown. Normal and Reverse English Word List, 1968).

The third type of dictionaries are translating ones which should be divided into 2 categories: active dictionaries and passive ones.

Passive dictionaries are those where the native language is in the right part of it, e.g. English – Russian, French – Russian, German – Russian. Active dictionaries are those where the native language is in the left part of it, e.g. Russian – English, Russian – French, Russian – German.


Questions:
1. Where does the province of lexicography lie?
2. What are the aims of theoretical lexicography?
3. What are the problems of theoretical lexicography?
5. What are the principles of dictionary classification?
6. Types of dictionaries are based on.

Lecture 7.

Encyclopaedic dictionaries and their peculiarities

Plan:
1. The history of encyclopaedias in England.
2. Modern encyclopaedias in English-speaking countries.
3. Linguistic Encyclopaedias, their type and function.

Literature:
3. The Britannica – CD.

Encyclopaedia is a reference work in one or more volumes which presents extensive information in all branches of knowledge. The word “encyclopaedia” is a modern coinage derived from a Greek phrase, “enkuklion paideia”, which means literally “education within a circle”, i.e. those elements of learning which constitute a complete education. The first occurrence of the word in modern times is in the Governorie (1531), a treatise on education and politics by the
English scholar and diplomat Sir Thomas Elyot. It is necessary to distinguish between the encyclopaedic works published before the 17th century and those which appeared later. The earliest encyclopaedias were not intended to be compendiums or digests of the knowledge of their times, but rather anthologies of the works of the most regarded authors.

From the 17th century to the present, the word “encyclopaedia” has taken on the meaning of a unified work which presents all the various branches of knowledge.

The first alphabetical encyclopaedia in English was “the Lexicon technicum” or “A Universal English Dictionary of Arts and Sciences (1704), by John Harris (1667 – 1719), a London clergyman. In view of the continuing spread of knowledge and education, a comprehensive reference work was needed which would inform its readers of the many discoveries in basic science. It would guide readers’ understanding of the whole of human knowledge by means of some scheme showing how each of the various branches of learning is correlated with the others. This need was partially met by the publication in England in 1728 of the Cyclopaedia or “Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences” by Ephraim Chambers (1680 – 1740). Originally published in 2 folio volumes, Chambers’ Cyclopaedia was prefaced by an elaborate scheme of the divisions and subdivisions of knowledge. It closely resembled a present-day dictionary, especially in its emphasis on the definition of common words. It contained a particular abundance of medical and pharmaceutical terms, but lacked geographical, historical and biographical information. The work was illustrated by 21 large plates devoted to such subjects as heraldy, surveying, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and navigation.

The French Encyclopedie (1751 – 1772) was a far greater work than Chambers’ one for it was originally intended as a translation of Chambers’ Cyclopaedia. Ostensibly, the Encyclopedie was a reference work; but its main purpose
apparent from the publication of the first volumes, was to influence its readers in favour of rational and scientific points of view. It was published in 28 volumes. The most reliable and famous is “The Encyclopaedia Britannica. A New Survey of Universal Knowledge”, the first two numbers appeared in December 1768 at a price of sixpence per copy on ordinary paper for it was sold by subscription and was issued periodically in sections. The second edition of it included 10 volumes (1784), while the 14th edition included 24 volumes (1929). Since 1974 30 volumes of The Encyclopaedia Britannica have been issuing annually. As to coverage it contains one thousand pages of a large size each volume, more than 350 000 entries, in addition to it annual edition “The Britannica Book of the Year” has been published since 1938. In the early 1990s, Britannica was made available for electronic delivery on a number of CD-ROM-based products, including the Britannica Electronic index and the Britannica CD (providing text, illustrations and a dictionary, along with proprietary retrieval software, on a single disc). During this period the company also developed Britannica Online, an extended electronic reference service for delivery over the Internet. In 1994 it debuted on the Internet’s World Wide Web at http://www.eb.com.

In 1796 the German publisher Gotthelf Renatus Lobel issued the 1st volume of his Frauenzimmerlexikon, an encyclopaedia for women. This project was continued by Friedrich Arnold Brockhaus. The 17th edition, in 20 volumes, is called Brockhaus Enzyklopaedie (1966 – 1976). Brockhaus set a new style in encyclopaedia publishing. It presented information on all kinds of subjects in short, concise, unsigned articles, whereas Britannica and the Encyclopedie had contained both brief articles and extended discussions. It was written in popular nontechnical language and placed emphasis on topics of special interest to Germans designated for nonspecialist readers. Thus,
Norwegian, Dutch, French, Danish, and even Russian encyclopaedias - all of them followed the Brockhaus model.

In America the German immigrant, historian and economist Francis Lieber (1800 – 1872) used the 7th edition of Brockhaus as the basis for the Encyclopaedia Americana (1829 – 1833, 13 volumes). Later it was published in 16 volumes (1904) and in 1920 it contained 30 volumes, it was just the same as nowadays. Each volume consists of 950 pages, nearly 320,000 entries.

Besides it should be mentioned that over 40 Encyclopaedias are issued both in Britain and in the USA, most of them are very popular in English speaking countries.

American encyclopaedias:
1) The World Book Encyclopaedia in 26 vv;
2) Collier’s Encyclopaedia in 20 vv published for students and schoolteachers;
3) American People’s Encyclopaedia in 20 vv;
4) Encyclopaedia International in 20 vv.

British encyclopaedias:
1) Britannica Junior in 15 vv;
2) Britannica for Children in 20 vv;
3) Chamber’s Encyclopaedia in 15 vv for family usage, it should not be confused with Epliraim Chamber’s Cyclopaedia;
4) Everyman’s Encyclopaedia in 12 vv;
5) The Reader’s Digest Great Encyclopaedic Dictionary in 3 vv, it is a kind of reference book.

An English translation of the 10th edition of Brockhaus was the basis of Chamber’s Encyclopaedia (1859 – 1868, 10 volumes). This work was named for its publishers: Robert and William Chambers and … it should…

At last one volume or two volume Encyclopaedic dictionaries are published both in Britain and in the USA such as: Columbia Encyclopaedia, Collins New Age Encyclopaedia, Basic Everyday Encyclopaedia.
It should be mentioned that Soviet Encyclopaedia has been issued since 1960 till 1970 in Russia. There are a lot of different kinds of Encyclopaedias, e.g. on pedagogics, history, chemistry, biology, etc.

To describe linguistic encyclopaedias one should bear in mind that mostly they are reference books with systematic knowledge about language and methods of its description.

Linguistic Encyclopaedias may be general and special, e.g. describing a separate language. As to arrangement of material they may be alphabet or thematic, sometimes both.

They may reflect linguistic studies at a given historic period.

Traditionally French school of lexicography should be honoured, i.e. we may pay tribute to “Encyclopedie de la Pleiade, la Langue, 1968 by Martine in 25 vvs. French “Dictionnaire Encyclopedique des Sciences de la langue” by D. Ducro, T. Tudorov in English translation by C. Poter “Encyclopaedic dictionary of the Science of language” was published in 1979.

Encyclopaedias are organised on systematic principles influenced by functional linguistics such as Russian formal school and besides structural and semiological brunch of French linguistics.

Encyclopaedias include poetical, rethorical and semiological elements to provide scientific synthesis to study language as a system and texts as language material.

3 more Encyclopaedic dictionaries should be mentioned:

1) In Germany 3 volumes of Encyclopaedic dictionary were published in 1970 “Lexikon der germanistischen Linguistik”; 2) “Die Deutsche Sprache Kleine Enzyklopadi” in 2 volumes was published (1969 – 1970); 3) “Linguistischen Worterbuch” in 3 volumes and other dictionaries.

In England “Encyclopaedia of Linguistic Information and Control” was published in oxford in 1961.
In 1989 “An Encyclopaedia of language” was issued by Collins in London. It studies the structure of language, besides it develops studying language and thought, language and psychology.


In Russia one may be proud of national Encyclopaedia of Scientific and Applied Knowledge, 1905; Literary Encyclopaedic Dictionary, 1987; Linguistic Encyclopaedic Dictionary by V.N. Jartseva which has been reprinted and revised many times in the XXth century.

To sum it up an encyclopaedia differs from a dictionary for it can explain subjects in detail, rather than merely supplying definitions of words and phrases. encyclopaedia is generally written in the form of many separate articles, often by experts in the field.

Questions:
1) What is the origin of the term “encyclopaedia”?
2) What are the most famous Encyclopaedias in Britain and in the USA?
3) What is a linguistic encyclopaedia? Types of them to describe.

Lecture 8.

Dictionary structure from the synchronic point of view

Plan
1. Structure of a conventional dictionary.
2. Entry of any linguistic dictionary and its structure.
4. Problems of words choice.
5. Problems of selecting dictionary.

Literature
1. Ступин Л.П. лексикография английского языка. М., 1985. С. 42-54

The structural synchronic approach may be said to have grown into a whole system of procedures which can be used either successively or alternately. In general any contemporary conventional dictionary may include 6 main parts:
1. introduction or foreword;
2. the guide to dictionary usage;
3. key to transcription system;
4. a list of abbreviations and their explanations;
5. the main list of words – the dictionary itself;
6. supplementary material, e.g. proper names, geographical names, tables of measures and so on.

As far as the structure of a dictionary entry is concerned it depends on the type and function of a dictionary.

In fast it consists of:
1. headword;
2. description of grammar, semantic styles and functional peculiarities of a word;
3. documentary justifying and proving that no word exists in a language without examples: citations, illustrations are indicated there.

Strictly speaking dictionary structure is characterised by segmented arrangement of material: any word or group of words is followed by an independent text which is called a dictionary entry. It can be continuous, unbroken or it may be split into zones of the main and additional information.
Dictionary entry is an equation between left part and the right one. The headword is given in its initial form: infinitive for Russian and English verbs, the 1st person singular for Greek and Latin verbs.

In some types of dictionaries (ideographic, synonymous) notions are presented. The word “ideographic” is originated from Greek: “idea” – “concept”, “notion”, “grapho” I write”, the whole word means ‘I write notion’.

As to frequency dictionaries they contain vocabulary or word lists where word usage frequencies are indicated.

Besides there are dictionaries with incomplete structure of an entry: the 1st and 2nd parts of equation coincide in such dictionaries as orthographic dictionaries reverse dictionaries.

In some dictionaries the right part is only a list of words, e.g. synonymous, morphemic dictionaries, dictionary of rhymes. The right part of equation is mostly different in very dictionary.

As to monolingual (explanatory) dictionary explanation is presented with ideally the same number of semes as in the left part.

Definitions reflect the nearest notions and are not the same as in encyclopaedic dictionaries.

Dictionary explanation can be logical, linguistic, objective, word-building, formula.

Logical, e.g. a square is a rectangle with equal sides.

Linguistic, e.g. (through synonyms) oblique – not straight (косой).

Objective: quarter is the 4th part of the year.


In translating dictionaries the right part contains equivalent, which may be translation, explanation or transcription.

Explanations and traditions are made more precisely by examples, marks and illustrations.
In any language lexicography there is a special metalanguage. What is it? Metalanguage is a set of typical formulas to describe a word meaning. Besides metalanguage of a dictionary may include explanations, special marks such as short forms, labels, special signs, grammar codes. Let’s explain them in detail: 
1) short forms are abbreviations: sth, sb, E-east, W-west; 2) labels are subdivided into: a) words which are used mainly or only in one region or country: Am E, Br E, Can E, Ind E; b) words which are used in English but they are still borrowings for they are not completely assimilated: French, Latin, Greek; c) of particular simulation usage such as: formal, informal, humorous, approving; d) of particular context: biblical, old-fashioned, old use, slang, taboo, trademark; 3) special signs or symbols are used to denote, for example, pronunciation
  || sign of parallel separates pronunciation in Britain and in USA: ['ktɔ:s] || [klæs]  
  ' – main stress  
  – secondary stress  
  ► stern shift
  [ ] – square brackets contain transcription of the headword.
Signs are usually used to substitute words or a word, e.g. a mark over the ñ in Spanish that pronounces quite differently than n without this sign.
~ swung dash is used to substitute for a headword or initial form of a word in compounds, e.g. 1) sleeping: ~ bag, ~ car, ~ pill;  
  2) editor: ~ ur-chief.
◊ rhomb(us) is used for idioms or phrasealogical with;
4) grammar codes – such abbreviations are used to denote the following words:
a – attributive; c – countable; α – an adjective that is used only following the noun, it is described usually after be or another verb marked “v”; e.g. The children are asleep.
p - plural, s – singular; e.g. She rides a Mercedes.
Dictionaries can use different types of scripts, tables, illustrations, graphical tools.
Individual approach is quite obvious to any dictionary besides it contains type, volume and different lexicographical parameters development. Conceptual part of a dictionary is either implicitly realized in the very structure of a dictionary or explicitly explained in an introductory part.
Different lexicographic parameters are reflected in specific language, lexicographic traditions and individual views of lexicographers. The problem of choice is quite important in lexicography. Dictionaries are divided according to its information into:
extensive – i.e. maximum units, number and coverage;
reflective – i.e. restricting the choice of units due to the name of a dictionary.
The choice of words in a dictionary is based upon texts analyses, colloquial speech, patterns study plus individual experience of lexicographers.
The main problems of lexicography are dealt with the selection of headwords, the arrangement and contents of the vocabulary entry, the principles of sense definitions and the semantic and functional classification of words.
Problems of dictionary selecting.
First of all you ought to decide for what purpose you are in search of a dictionary, secondary you ought to hear in mind merits and drawbacks of any dictionary; thirdly 3 main factors should be taken into consideration such as: date of publication, dedication and editorial team.
Date of publication is quite essential and important factor for the given dictionary. Where should we find it? It’s indicated on the reverse side of the title page (in English editions). It’s important to differentiate between new edition and new reprinting. New edition is a version which has been revised and improved. New reprinting presupposes that it has been only reprinted without revision of the dictionary.
Dedication is meant for whom it is prepared. It must be explained explicitly in the foreword/introductory part often given dictionary for whom it’s designed, e.g. “Oxford Students Dictionary of Current English has been specially prepared for those learning English up to the intermediate level: for teachers of English, students, senior pupils.

Editorial team is no less important when selective, a dictionary. It means that the author’s group which has contributed to the making of the dictionary is very important, especially when names of prominent scientists, linguist are mentioned.

Modern lexicography outlines important social functions of dictionaries that record entire knowledge of a given epoch. Social functions of dictionaries are as follows 1) informative one reflects the shortest way that is through notations to acquire knowledge; 2) communicative one gives readers the necessary words of native and foreign languages; 3) nominative one originating long ago is used to nominate objects. Dictionaries acquire greater and greater role in storing and transforming information.

According to a famous French lexicographer Alan Rey: “Modern civilization is civilization of dictionaries”. What does it mean? A.P.Lobodanov, one of our Russian scholar dwelt upon this problem: it has 2 meanings - dictionary as an unique text and dictionary as the text of a language.

Let’s discuss it in detail: a) dictionary as a unique text.

The leading role of a dictionary is in capacity of a text. It embraces 3 items: 1) text organizes different aspects of life in a special manner; 2) from the point of view of thought, text allows itself to develop, to perfect, to foster standard of speech, for one learners both native and foreign languages; 3) text unites great national cultures as a mediator.

Thus dictionary is the main book of human life events and it is a tool of a person, society development, their cultures and besides text is a way of
preserving these cultures both historically and synchronically. Dictionary as a
unique text embraces entire knowledge of the given epoch.

b) in the second meaning dictionary as the text of a language contains systematic
knowledge about it.

Due to its existent character, dictionary as a unique text presents a set of
important distinctions and peculiarities such as 1)imperishable feature, keeping
safe in historical culture 2) absolute characteristics revealing dictionary as the
text of a language embracing the “whole” language 3) capability of safe
linguistic interpretation, for a dictionary contains this interpretation in one or
another period of its existence. These peculiarities are revealed alongside with
comparison of dictionary and other texts existence in historical culture, such as
documents, poetry and fiction. None of these texts concerns language in its total
volume, although they constitute the definite linguistic units. A well-known
opinion of a famous French writer Anatole France confirms this idea:
”Dictionary is the book for the most part. The other books are included into it,
one has only to extract them form the dictionary”.

How do dictionaries realize the system of a vocabulary of a language in general?
It should be beard in mind 4 main principles:
1) creation of a dictionary as a norm of thought, 2) formation of tradition in
conventional dictionary description both as practice of language normalization
and as the form of linguistic theory itself, 3) style revealing possibilities of
language system through description of dictionary history and lexicographic
traditions, 4) capabilities of a dictionary, as the language system, being
described through analyses and record of sense level as opposed to grammar
traditions of language description through expression level; capabilities of
constructive interpretation of language theory and practice relations in forming
and normalizing of language through dictionary descriptions.

Questions:
1. What is a conventional dictionary structure?
2. Give definition of a dictionary entry. What does it include?
3. Types of dictionary explanations.
4. What is metalanguage?
5. How is conceptual part of a dictionary realized itself?
6. Why is the problem of choice so urgent in lexicography?
7. What are the main problems of selecting dictionary?

Lecture 9.

Thesaurus as a special type of ideographic dictionary

Plan:

1. The origin of the term “thesaurus”.
2. Aims, meanings, functions.
3. What is a Thesaurus?
4. Types of thesauruses.

Literature:
5. The Encyclopaedia Britannica. – CD.
Thesaurus is the opposite of a dictionary. You turn it when you have already a meaning don’t yet have the word. It may be on the tip of your tongue, but what it is you don’t yet know. It is like a missing piece of a puzzle.

What is its origin? It is of Greek origin meaning “treasure”, “treasure of words”. In Latin *thesaurus* – “memoria omnium rerum”.

In English a thesaurus is a treasure or storehouse especially of words as a repository, “store of knowledge”, the opposite to a dictionary.

The history of the sort of dictionary which has come to be called a thesaurus is both curious and revealing. Specialization of thesaurus as the name of one sort wordbook reflects the fancy of Peter Mark Roget (1779 – 1869), Swiss by ancestry and English by birth. He was a versatile man, having a questing intellect which he employed with devotion, and he lived to be ninety. He was a surgeon by profession, a lecturer or medicine, the Fullerian Professor of Physiology at the Royal Institution. He was multifarious; at the request of the government he surveyed the water system of London and he published a description. He was famous for his pioneer work – a calculating machine. He wrote a two-volume study of phrenology, a standard work on electricity and galvanism.

He was nearly 73 when he published his personal treasure house of knowledge as Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases Classified and Arranged so as to Expression of Ideas and Assist in Literary Composition (1852) Roget’s arrangement of ideas reflected the thinking and state of knowledge. This volume was an immediate success, and it was revised first by the author and later repeatedly by his son.

Roget was not trying to prepare a handbook for ready reference; he was publishing as an aging intellectual, the results of his lifelong hobby of classifying ideas by assorting words in his “storehouse of Knowledge”, for that is what thesaurus meant when he adopted it and incidentally gave it a new use. It occurred to him that his hobby might have application, “to facilitate the
expression of ideas”. His work tended to inhibit fresh thinking on the whole subject of synonymy.

Thus, the aims of thesaurus are: 1) to enrich individual lexicon of a user; 2) in information system and work – to unify and replace lexical units in a text by standard words and expressions [so called descriptors] in the process of codifying and indexing of documents.

It has 2 meanings: 1) a dictionary with maximum fully represented words of a given language with complete enumeration of examples, having been used in texts; 2) an ideographic dictionary in which semantic relations are shown between lexical units (synonymous, antonymous, gender relations, etc.).

In the first meaning Thesaurus is possible only for dead languages, e.g. Thesaurus Linguae Latinae, 1900 or Dictionary of the Polish Language [16th century] was published in 1966. It is impossible to cite all examples for the existing languages.

Nevertheless some attempts were made by Russian lexicographers: J.K. Grott, A.A. Shachmatov, L.V. Schterba.

The structural basis of thesaurus in the second meaning – hierarchic system of notions which allows to look for a lexical unit from notion (meaning). To look for a notion from the word they use alphabetic order (alphabetical index). Alphabetical index is used in Roget’s thesaurus of English words and Phrases (1652). The name of a dictionary gave the second usage of the notion “thesaurus”. In theoretical aspect Thesaurus is one of the possible lexis patterns of semantic system: here lexis corresponds to all the words in a language.

To sum it up, thesaurus consists of words grouped according to their meaning. The aim is to provide a source of words that express the same idea or closely related ideas. Thus each thesaurus paragraph on a particular topic contains a range of words covering different parts of speech and different levels of formality or informality. Vulgar and colloquial terms have all been appropriately labeled in the thesaurus.
Words and phrases current on the other side of the Atlantic are labeled as Americanisms. Where necessary, cross-references to the paragraphs are also given. Thesaurus should concentrate on areas of shared meaning, in which usages overlap and shade off into similar ideas.

E.g. the paragraph on *obstinary* has cross-references to the paragraphs on *unwillingness* and *perseverance* – all different words relayed by a central core of common meaning.

A thesaurus is fashioned with a two-fold aim and the main functions of it are to provide ready synonyms for the time-pressed worker and to give a richer list – thought expressing and thought provoking – to the more leisured writer, the scholar and the stylist. Although including synonyms, entries in a thesaurus should not be taken as a list of synonyms. The entries are also designed for drawing distinctions between similar words and assisting in choosing exactly the right word. Any Thesaurus does not define words that work is left to the explanatory dictionary.

The essential part of a thesaurus is index, which guide about which terms to use, it can help to improve the quality of retrieval.

With the help of the thesaurus a user can raise his word power by finding the exact word or phrase, increase user’s vocabulary.

The thesaurus can make user’s speaking and writing come alive with new freshness a vigor.

The thesaurus is designed to help you find the words with which to express yourself more clearly, more effectively, more precisely.

It can provide a user with the one particular word or phrase that will most successfully convey to your reader the subtle shading of thought or emotion a user wish to get across to him. It is helpful in good writing because it presupposes using the exact word. We may draw a scheme: Thesaurus: from idea to word or phrase. Dictionary: from word to idea.
Today a lot of thesauruses are issued by different foreign publishers. The most famous of them are Harper Collins, Oxford University Press, Wordsworth, Merriam-Webster.

Usually a thesaurus is designed for indexing and searching in a specific subject area such as education, metallurgy, art and architecture. Thus thesauruses cover all areas of human knowledge: words of related meanings clustered into tiny groups of nearby synonymous meanings which in its turn spread into a network of related meanings.

There are some modern versions of thesauruses:
1) Roget’s Pocket Thesaurus;
2) Roget’s International Thesaurus;
3) Roget’s Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases which is a classical American edition;
4) Collin’s Paperback Thesaurus;
5) Webster’s New Explorer Thesaurus.

Here is a famous Dr. Johnson’s quotation: “Men require more often to be reminded than to be informed.”

We look up any thesaurus in the hope that something we really know already will come back to us in our need.

Questions:

1) What is the origin of the word “thesaurus”?
2) What is the aim of a thesaurus?
3) Speak on the meanings of a thesaurus.
4) What was Peter Mark Roget famous for?
5) What is the structure of a thesaurus?
6) For whom is a thesaurus designed?
7) What are the types of thesauruses?
Lecture 10.
Translating dictionaries, their functions and peculiar features

Plan:

1. Bilingual lexicography: types of translating dictionaries
2. Problems of bilingual dictionaries
3. Problems of norm

Literature:
4. Multilex 1.0 – CD; Multilex 2.0 – CD; Multilex – 3.0.
5. Bookself – CD.
6. The Encyclopaedia Britannica – CD.
7. The British Multimedia Encyclopaedia – CD.
8. Americana.com
9. Britannica.com

Of all specialized dictionaries, the bilingual group is the most serviceable and frequently used. With the rise of vernacular languages during the Renaissance, translating to and from Latin had great importance. Even the most exotic and remote languages have been tackled, often by religious missionaries with the motive of translating the Bible. The finding of exact equivalents is more difficult
than is commonly realized, because every language slices up the world in its own particular way.

Definition: Translating dictionary is a reference book in which sense of words are interpreted with the help of another language or some foreign languages. Before speaking of their functions we ought to distinguish: 1) why are they useful? 2) whom are they designated for?

It goes without saying that translating dictionaries help persons while studying foreign languages. Their differentiation may depend upon status of any user, thus they may be divided according to 1) functions, 2) status of addressee. Translating dictionaries may be of 2 types: bilingual one and multilingual/polyglot one.

Any bilingual dictionary is a reference book which has 2 languages in use while multilingual dictionary covers several foreign languages. Which of these types is more useful? You have come across quite often with bilingual dictionaries and one’d rather use? browse bilingual dictionary for some reasons: 1) it is easy to browse; 2) a piece of information may be fully represented in this type of dictionary. As far as multilingual dictionaries are concerned their sphere of usage is limited to some extent. If we need to choose some equivalents to define the term, to compare it in many languages, then we’d rather select them from multilingual dictionary.

Each language has its own scope of difficulties and these problems are apt to vary depending on the language it is compared with. There are a lot of facts about English that are known to every native speaker but must be explained to a
foreigner. Moreover, e.g. the English part of the English-Spanish dictionary may be quite different from that of the English-Russian dictionary. For different languages are self-contained specific system, they show only little conformism with one another (this term “isomorphism” is borrowed by linguists from mathematics, it may be defined as the sameness of relationships between elements in different sets).

A good knowledge of word-formational principles of any foreign language is essential because it can compensate the absence of some entries that is impossible in the native-to-foreign dictionary and besides supplementary material with data on word formation can be very helpful.

So the native-to-foreign and foreign-to-native dictionaries have to meet different requirements as they supply information for different types of work. A good dictionary is one where you can quickly find what you are looking for.

As L.P.Stupin outlines 3 problems of bilingual lexicography, all of them should be mentioned here:

1) word-list
2) word choice
3) alphabetic arrangement of material. Word-list or nomenclature of a dictionary is called a total sum of words included into this dictionary.(One of the famous and most available bilingual dictionary is Yu.D.Apresyan’s the New English-Russian Dictionary contains 300 thousand entries, despite of its advantages this dictionary can’t embrace all English lexis).

2) The problem of word choice arises inevitably while compiling any dictionary for no dictionary can register all the words of a given languages. It includes only some groups of lexis leaving aside another ones. This problem should be solved specifically and it depends upon general settling of dictionary, aims of it and users’ status.

3) While making bilingual dictionary the 3 problem appears dealing with arrangement of words according to their external forms being arranged strictly in alphabetical order. It is not an ideal one for words that being not
correlated are put together or words that being semantically related are dispersed in different parts of dictionary, that’s why you can’t follow properly the structure of the language lexical system. As a result you can’t find words signifying one notion or some relative notions in alphabetically arranged dictionary.

L.V. Malakhovsky stressed out some more disadvantages of bilingual dictionaries: 1) such alphabetic reference books are only translating ones for they explain word’s meaning only through equivalents of another language. However due to peculiar historical development of every language and conditions of its development, the system of meanings of one language doesn’t coincide with the system of meaning of analogous word in another language. It is clear that simple enumeration of translating equivalents of a word doesn’t produce distinct idea of its whole volume of meanings, 2) bilingual, translating dictionaries show extremely rare words’ distribution, i.e. that typical verbal surrounding, that syntactical model in which the given meaning of the word only may realize.

All these demerits of bilingual dictionaries are related with one of the central problems of any national lexicography, i.e. the problem of norm.

Definition: norm, for the most part, is linguistic reality that exists objectively in the given language.

Compiling a dictionary to start with any lexicographer should solve one or another problem of language and norm. Thus solution depends upon both as coverage of registered words in the dictionary and some devices of its processing which in its turn forms total scientific value of any lexicographic work. This problem of norm is rather complicated in many aspects. L.P. Stupin outlines some questions to be solved:

1) objectivity of norm existence
2) adequate reflection of language reality in a dictionary
3) objectivity and inevitability of language changes
4) a role of lexicographer while he/she registers facts of language and speech
5) lexicographer’s attitude to idea of language perfection and improvement
6) maximum of units number and coverage
7) material processing devices included in any dictionary.

Actually any reference book may be considered to be reliable when it truly reflects, treats and interprets facts of language in the given language group at the given moment of life.

Questions:
1. What is “translating dictionary”?
2. What are the types of translating dictionaries?
3. Advantages of b.d.
4. Demerits of b.d.
5. Outline the problem of norm.

Lecture 11.

Corpus Linguistics as a new achievement in modern lexicography

Plan

1. The main corpus
2. Advantages and merits of this trend
3. Perspectives of Corpus Linguistics
4. The Longman Language Activator

Literature

The conventional dictionary was improved through generations—
to explain what
some else has said or written, converting words into meanings for the passive
partner in communication. For the active partner converting meaning into
words a new dictionary is necessary. There are new corpus based dictionaries.
They reflect corpus linguistics development. The corpora used for the
Activator dictionary are described collectively as the Longman Corpus
Network.

The Main Corpus, the Longman Lancaster Corpus is nearly 30 mln words made
up of chunks of text up to 40000 words long from over 2000 books,
periodicals and unpublished material from British, American and other
varieties of English.

The 10 mln-word Spoken Corpus is developed by Longman as part of the
British National Corpus and it is the 1st large-scale corpus of truly natural
spontaneous speech.

The Longman Learners’ Corpus of students’ writing has given us insights into
problems shared by students from more than 70 countries, the words and
structures which students at different levels can already use successfully, e.g.
the word ‘mean’ in the sense of ‘not generous’ is defined as a British use,
because the analysis of the written corpus which is 40 % American
demonstrates that ‘mean’ is more rarely used in this sense in American
English. It is used to express the idea of ‘deliberately unpleasant or nasty’.

2. Advantages of Spontaneous Speech Corpus are:
1/access to the language of spoken English, 2/natural ways of expressing ideas in
the spoken medium. Many of these lexical items are phrases rather than single
words. For native speakers often use a phrase rather than a single word to
express their ideas, e.g. ’be going’ which means ‘available’: Is there any more
wine going?

Corpus linguistics was produced in response the need to have new type of
dictionary.
Creation of international basis of language units is a leading trend in English and English lexicography.

The head of the International English Language Corpus project was Greenbaum in 1970.

Creation of the English language written and spoken speech corpus commenced with working out and development of important ideas in London University in 1988 such as: 1/ comparison of English with other languages, 2/ patterns to compare and study of dialects, 3/ computerized study of material, 4/ implication of analysis parameters, 5/ system in discourse description, 6/ pragmatics.

What are the reasons of corpus development? There are 3 of them: 1/ practical - to perfect knowledge and translation, 2/ educational - Corpus is concerned with the core of the language, 3/ social integration – English and its role in life of international community. There are 3 types of communities: 1/ native English speaking countries, 2/ countries where English is a second official language 3/ European countries where English is an international language.

In 1991 new projects appeared such as the British Corpus of the English language including more than one hundred million words plus texts of different genres. The most ambitious project, the Bank of English by Cobuild Collins including more than 200 mln words from written and oral sources were registered by computer analysis.


They gather only/mainly modern texts as far back as 1990 and later origin, 25% is American material, 5% is from other variants of English such as Australian, Canadian, Indian, Singapourian, the rest are British texts which are divided into: 1/ written texts taken from newspapers, magazines, scientific and popular editions, letters, brochures, nearly 2/3 of material is from mass media, besides international, national, local publications are included: to specify
different stylistic peculiarities hundreds of notes were written on any topic, non official spoken speech was represented by records of ordinary every day conversations – meetings, interviews, discussions.

It was rather difficult to get such material, to record it, to transcribe, then to put it in the computers.

Nearly 5 mln. words were registered in such a way.

The Survey of English Usage was produced by London University. It outlines the following problems and perspectives of corpus linguistics:

1/ to create a Corpus of written translations from European community languages into English 2/ oral communication between speakers of different nationalities, 3/ Euro-English is the English language for official publications at European commissions, conferences, summits.

Thus the work hasn’t yet finished in this field creation of new projects as well as detailed investigations and enlargement of old ones bear witness to it.

5. The Longman Language activator is a revolutionary dictionary for learners of English. It is a conceptually organized dictionary of the core of English, and has been designed to enable students of English to express themselves accurately and appropriately for each context. Around 20,000 meanings are arranged into 1052 concepts such as ANGRY, WALK, INTERESTED. Each concept includes words within the same semantic set.

Words are organized basic concepts and their differences are fully explained.

Put your ideas into words!

Questions:

1. What dictionaries reflect new achievements in lexicography?
2. What is the name of the corpora used for the Activator?
3. What does the Main Corpus contain?
4. What is Spoken Corpus?
5. What are advantages of Spontaneous Speech Corpus?
6. What are the reasons of corpus linguistics development?
Lecture 12.
Multilex as a new type dictionary

Plan:

1. Computer lexicography development.
2. Multilex of 3 generations, their peculiar features.
3. Other computerized dictionaries and encyclopaedias, their structure, volume, content.

Literature:
1. Multilex 1.0 – CD; Multilex 2.0 – CD; Multilex – 3.0.
2. Bookself – CD.
3. The Encyclopaedia Britannica – CD.
4. The British Multimedia Encyclopaedia – CD.

The development of machine aids such as the computer, has been heralded by some as ushering in a new era in lexicography. Although the computer can do well in many tasks of great drudgery – mechanical excerpting of texts, alphabetizing and classifying by designated descriptors – it is limited to what a human being is to do.

Due to science and technology development a great possibility appeared, concerning various types of human intellectual activity.

Since lexicography has been one of the most labour-intensive type of human activity one has to be recorded a great number of words in reference books such as terms, names, jargons.

It should be established that automation achievements have penetrated first and foremost into this area, namely lexicography.
As a result a lot of automatically operated dictionaries were created, e.g. explanatory, phraseological dictionaries, thesauruses and so on. It should be mentioned that electronic copies of reference books are the improved versions, combining indications of various dictionaries. The computer versions of conventional dictionaries can be used to facilitate while operating with electronic dictionaries due to: 1) various systems of menu; 2) suitable structure of material arrangement; 3) various searching devices, accelerating information retrieval; 4) storage of information. You may enjoy an advantage and make use of computerized dictionaries for they combine explanatory and encyclopaedic characteristics. All their information being united into one system is quite helpful for some reasons: 1) to transfer from one type of information/knowledge to another one quite easily; 2) to come up with a quick and detailed answer to one’s questions; 3) to obtain mostly adequate data without forcing oneself and without browsing a lot of reference books over a long period of time; 4) to gain new possibilities granted by information storage. 

There many Multilex versions, common features of electronic ones are as follows: 1) all of them are licensed electronic versions of well-known printed dictionaries; 2) seven generations of Multilex are known to be the famous ones; 3) all of them are designed and dedicated for Russian users. To make a clear distinction between three versions of Multilex one should bear in mind that all of them differ to some extent in volume, content and structure. Let’s consider these versions in detail.

Multilex 1,0 is based on “The New Big English-Russian Dictionary” by J.D. Apresyan, which is an unique object to prove that one should consult it: 1) it has about 250,000 English entries, 2) having modern and adjustable information, it may be compared with the Big English – Russian Dictionary of conventional printed type, 3) it proves to be methodically substantial.
Multilex 2,0 embraces more than 250,000 meanings, 1 mln. English words and 1,300,000 Russian words. It contains all the layers of lexis. It includes “The New English-Russian Dictionary” by J.D. Apresyan with vocabulary as a whole and besides it consists of five English-Russian dictionaries concerning the following items: 1) economy, 2) building, 3) printing, 4) technology. Its advantages are: 1) comprising various dictionaries one may use each of them without any difficulty, 2) one may quite easily transfer from one dictionary to another, 3) for user’s dictionary is at one’s disposal, one may fill it up oneself, 4) one may listen to pronunciation of English words and phrases, 5) retrieval request of English words and phrases is carried out quite rapidly and with good results: so the word in question is always at hand.

Facilities of this version are as follows: 1) regulation, fixing and adjustment of comprehensive information, 2) data exchange, 3) prompting input, 4) traditional browsing while searching computer material.

Multilex 3,0 is called ‘popular’ for it is based on the printed English-Russian and Russian-English dictionaries by O.S. Akhmanova and E.A.M. Wilson besides there are two user’s dictionaries, English-Russian and Russian-English. Its advantages are to be compared with the 1 and 2 versions of Multilex. We may add some peculiarities of the 3 version: 1) one may compare translations of widely used English and Russian words and phrases which do not coincide in various dictionaries, 2) it gives an opportunity for extracting a lot of information in two ways – in turn and simultaneously.

To sum it up here are some general peculiarities of Multilex versions: 1) retrieval rate, 2) serviceability, 3) new capabilities, 4) translations in both directions (from English to Russian and vice versa), 5) simplicity, 6) simultaneous operation with various dictionaries, 7) user’s dictionaries.

As to computerized encyclopedias one may get acquainted with the following versions: 1) The British Multimedia Encyclopaedia, 2) The Britannica – CD, 3) The Programme “Bookshelf”. Let’s consider the latter one.
The programme “Bookshelf” comprises 7 various books which are different in content and structure. To analyse it in short we ought to begin with “the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language”, it includes audio programme of correct pronunciation which contains a lot of video audiostreams, images and multiplications.2)”Roget’s Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases”, its content is divided into 6 groups: three of them concern inner life of human beings, the rest are dedicated to outer life of human beings. It helps any user to enrich and to enlarge one’s vocabulary, 3)”The Columbia Dictionary of Quotations” where quotations are distributed according to special topics and headings. Any entry structure may include: heading, quotation, author’s name of citations, short bibliographical information, 4)”The Concise Columbia Encyclopaedia” which is a universal one being a prototype to printed Encyclopaedia, here short information is given in terms which are borrowings from foreign languages. Many entries are provided with different kinds of photos, images, etc. Animation is one of the main support while explaining biology, physics, chemistry, etc. 5)”The Hammond Atlas of the World” is not only a collection of geographical maps for they are united under the common programme, which presupposes clear depiction of continents and countries on the screen (monitor), states’ flags and national anthems are illustrated, capitals are included special system of reference – from Atlas to Almanac and Encyclopaedia,6) “The People Chronology” which is a report about social and historical facts and events taking place in history (from before Christ and to nowadays 1994 including), 7)”The World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1995” which is a kind of anthology containing knowledge of entertaining and of information type. It includes 8 chapters: arts and massmedia, chronology, sciences of the world, peoples, the world history, science and technology, sports, the USA. Its advantages are: 1) different devices and techniques such as multiwindowing multiway enter and/ or exit allow us to combine information from various sources to reinforce by using photoimages, video and audio
recordings, 2) easy transfer from one dictionary to another, 3) instantaneous access to information, 4) capability of collecting and storage of information, 5) conversion of retrieval activity into communicative and cognitive ones, 6) multiaspects retrieval.

To sum it up computerised dictionaries instead of conventional printed ones are used to facilitate while operating and one may enjoy its advantages for they combine translating, explanatory and encyclopaedic characteristics.

Questions:
1. How do machine aids facilitate lexicographic practice? To what extent?
2. Why are computerized versions so helpful?
3. Enumerate electronic versions of Multilex, their common characteristics and general peculiarities.
4. What other computerized encyclopaedias do you know? Describe one of them.