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# Pedagogical Specialised Lexicography

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Ascensión Arribas-Baño

John Benjamins Publishing Company

## Pedagogical Specialised Lexicography

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## **Volume 11**

Pedagogical Specialised Lexicography. The representation of meaning in English and Spanish business dictionaries  
by Pedro A. Fuertes-Olivera and Ascensión Arribas-Baño

# Pedagogical Specialised Lexicography

The representation of meaning  
in English and Spanish business dictionaries

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*For our families, especially for Fátima and Miguel*



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## Introduction

### 1.1 Background

There is no doubt that we are now witnesses to an historic process marked by the specific needs arising from scientific developments and economic change. In this context, beginning in the second half of the 20th century, we situate the linguistic concept “Language for Specific Purposes” (LSP), a term currently used to refer to specialised communication. Although the boundaries of this concept are rather nebulous, since its analysis may be carried out from different cognitive perspectives – for instance, from linguistic, social, pragmatic or computational points of view – authors such as Cabré (2005) claim that a certain consensus exists as regards the main characteristics of LSPs.

First of all, there is agreement on the social dimension of LSPs. The concept of LSP has a socio-linguistic origin. Society does not have a linguistically homogeneous structure. Different varieties exist, like the one referred to by Sager et al. (1980: 36) as sub-languages, a synonym of LSP, characterised as being mono-functional, with a restricted number of users, employed in a specific topic area and of a decidedly utilitarian nature, which means that the speaker learns it voluntarily within a restricted communicative framework.

Secondly, there is acceptance of the functional nature of LSPs, not only as a logical extension of their socio-linguistic dimension, but also for essentially practical reasons relating to teaching. Now the concept of LSP forms part of the study area of applied linguistics, both in its general and more restricted sense. In the *Ariel Lingüística* 2004, Alcaraz Varó and Martínez Linares, for example, maintain that in its general sense it comprises the theory of translation, text analysis, etc. In its more restricted sense, applied linguistics refers specifically to the process of teaching and learning a second language or L2.

Thirdly, recent LSP research is mostly concerned with the lexicon, not only because corpus approaches to the analysis of language tend to highlight the leading role words play in language (Sinclair 2004), but also because there is a strong tradition maintaining that the lexicon is the element which differentiates LSPs (Brumme 1998). Furthermore, this interest in the lexicon has led to the compilation of many LSP dictionaries, some of which incorporate recent lexicographical approaches aiming at developing better reference works which should solve the needs of a specific type of user with specific types of problems related to a specific type of situation. (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2002, 2003, 2004)

These new approaches are understood in terms of the principles of the new lexicography. (Atkins 1996; Worsch 1999; Hartmann 2001) It is now accepted that the content and design of a dictionary are determined by the needs of its users. In practical terms, these principles mean the following:

1. A very rigorous approach to describing language usage facilitated by the availability of corpora. (Herbst 1999)
2. The optimal presentation of the information geared to the user's communicative needs and cognitive resources. (Rundell 1998)
3. A change in the traditionally privileged categories of information, which signifies that meaning has received an absolute priority in the description of the lexicon. Nevertheless, the organisation of the dictionary is becoming increasingly based on the principle of the combinatorial nature of lexical units (Rundell 1998); that is, their syntactic behaviour, complementation patterns of nouns, adjectives, verbs, lexical and grammatical collocations, restricted choices, etc. This has ultimately implied a recognition of the value of context as against the isolationist view of traditional lexicography, thereby overcoming the separation between lexicon and syntax, and consolidating lexical grammar, the functioning of which is a key element in the dictionary.
4. A more precise understanding of the relation between lexicography and other disciplines.
5. Lexicographical decisions should be based on a precise understanding of the function(s) of the dictionary.

Opitz (1983) sustains that the group of users of specialised dictionaries should include both technical experts and interested laypeople. Nkwenti-Azeh (1995: 328) points out that "the SLD (special language dictionary) assumes that its users have an adequate understanding of the language and the subject matter, so that learners and practitioners use the same dictionary representing the same compendium of objects, facts and concepts."

More recently, however, this situation is changing. Bergenholtz and Kaufmann (1997), for example, have made a detailed description of the different typical users in the field of biotechnology. Their typology differentiates between laypeople or potential dictionary users who have no knowledge of basic theories of biotechnology, or only the very basic knowledge associated with educated people, semi-experts or experts from other related fields, such as physicians, biologists, biochemists and true experts. In addition, they also comment that interested laypeople may read periodicals or books on the subject and thus may need the assistance of an encyclopaedic L2 to L1 dictionary.

In our opinion, Bergenholtz and Kaufmann's statement can be completed by adding translators, professional interpreters and LSP students. We believe that until now the majority of specialised lexicographers have not paid much attention to these users who are interested in acquiring a specialised discipline, partially through formal teaching. Hence, the purpose of the dictionary is also to serve as an auxiliary tool in the teaching-learning of the language for specific purposes. Moreover, the fact that they

may acquire knowledge in their own L1 means that the dictionary can equally contribute to the learning of the speciality itself. Thus, we add two more user types to this study: translators and interpreters and LSP students (see Table 1). Both groups must acquire a general knowledge of the LSP in question through formal education; dictionaries and other reference works can help them if the compilers have pursued a pedagogical orientation.

**Table 1.** Typology of linguistic and conceptual needs of the distinct groups of users of LSP dictionaries

User Type	Conceptual information in L1	Conceptual information in L2	Linguistic information in L1	Linguistic information in L2
Expert (bilingual dimension)				•
Semi-expert (monolingual and bilingual dimension)	•	•	•	•
Layman and beginner (monolingual dimension)	•			
Translator and interpreter (monolingual and bilingual dimension)	•	•	•	•
LSP students		•		•

The function of a dictionary is conceived as an intrinsic characteristic of the compilation of the work and as an extrinsic characteristic, as it takes into account the user and the situation of use. We distinguish between (i) the macrofunctions observed in the design and structure of the dictionary, and (ii) the microfunctions related to user needs. Our interest is in this functional aspect of the dictionary as the compilers conceive it. Lexicographers such as Bergenholtz and Kaufmann (1997), Tarp (2005b), and Verlinde et al. (2006) indicate that in very broad terms all lexicographical works attempt to helping the comprehension, production, and translation of texts, the acquisition of conceptual or encyclopaedic knowledge and linguistic knowledge.

In the teaching-learning context, the linguistic tasks carried out by students can be active (encoding) or passive (decoding). Between these tasks there are more specific ones. Decoding covers written and aural comprehension, as well as L2 to L1 translation; encoding covers composition, oral expression and L1 to L2 translation. In general, the passive aspect has traditionally been reflected in the elaboration of lexicographical works. This situation has changed in recent times to the extent that authors like Scholfield (1999) believe that the passive dimension has taken second place,

contrary to empirical data which affirm that the most popular use of dictionaries is connected with reading activities.

In the most characteristic use of the dictionary students consult the reference work in search of the meaning of an unknown lexical unit. For this they may recur to two types of works: (i) a pedagogical monolingual dictionary; (ii) a bilingual L2 to L1 dictionary. It takes a certain time to acquire the necessary cognitive strategies for the correct use of the dictionary in the passive mode. *Grosso modo*, these are:

1. Localization of the article corresponding to the lexical unit in question, resolving any difficulty of a morphological nature and of the dictionary policy in respect of polysemous lexical units and homonyms.
2. Deciding, from among the meanings and senses proposed, which one corresponds to the lexical unit in question; In this book we use “meaning” for referring to the different “senses” of a lemma; i.e., sets of conditions which must be satisfied by a lexical unit in order to denote the extralinguistic reality/ies which correspond(s) to each of its senses considering that a sense is one of several meanings of a lemma or expression. By meaning, therefore, we understand the relationship between a lemma and the object(s) or idea(s) it designates. There is a meaning relation between a lemma and its referent(s) in the extralinguistic world. Most lemmas do not have a one-to-one relation to a referent because there are sense relations such as polysemy, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and hyperonymy. Lexicographers tend to acknowledge this division by using “sense discrimination devices”. These may be numbers, letters, punctuation marks, etc., used for dividing the different senses of the lemma or expression inside a dictionary entry. In other words, the meaning of a lemma is what distinguishes it from other lemmas, whereas the sense of a lemma corresponds to a more precise division of the meaning of a lemma. Dictionaries tend to capture the different shades of meaning of a particular word by offering different senses of the same meaning (cf. Section 2.5.2; also Section 3.2).
3. Understanding the definition, to which may contribute (i) the use of definitional vocabularies; (ii) the use of novel definitional formulae (the case of *Cobuild*); and (iii) illustrations. (Jackson 2002)

Scholfield (1999) reviews the new policies incorporated in the latest generations of pedagogical monolingual dictionaries intended for leading the user to the required signifier in the least onerous manner possible. These policies aim at reinforcing the main qualities of dictionaries, namely, comprehensibility, usability and userfriendliness:

1. The use of “guiding words” (“signposts” in the Longman Dictionary 1995 and “guide words” in the Cambridge International 1995). Each sense of the lemma carries a guide word, whose nature varies (hyperonyms, related words, paraphrases, collocations, etc.). It is assumed that the user’s goal is to find a unique sense and not to read the complete entry, and so the process of consulting the dictionary is considerably simplified. Nevertheless, in order to make the best use of this feature,

the user must approach the dictionary with a more or less preconceived idea of the meaning of the lexical unit.

2. Criteria of the division of the article. Scholfield (1999) refers to four distinct policies for the division of articles: (i) all the senses of the homonymous words which belong to the same grammatical category are subsumed in the same article; (ii) to each grammatical category there corresponds an article, without taking semantic criteria into consideration; (iii) distinct articles are assigned to each grammatical category and to each homonymous lexical unit without any links; (iv) each meaning is given a separate article.
3. Each meaning appears on a new line, which considerably facilitates the search for meanings.
4. The ordering of meanings by frequency.

The ruling trends in the teaching-learning of a L2 have put paid to the idea of the dictionary as a mere compendium of lexical forms and have introduced a much more dynamic approach in which the dictionary user becomes an essential instrument in the production of language. Sinclair (1987) acknowledges that this development responds to new focuses caused by the communicative methodology which demands an active participation by the student. In the field of LSP lexicography, this change of focus has led to greater attention being paid to both receptive and productive functions.

The bilingual LSP dictionary tries to satisfy four functions. It attempts to satisfy the translators' needs, as they have to handle both direct or inverse translations. In lexicographical terms, this implies a traditional distinction between the "active" and the "passive" use of the dictionary. In the active use, the dictionary is designed to help the translator in the inverse translation and in the passive one, it is compiled to facilitate direct translation. The characteristic features of this dual approach are three. In the first place, there exists a perfect correlation between the active and the passive character of the dictionary and the lexicographical information offered about the lemma and its equivalent(s). This information is supplied by means of the so-called *explication language*, which Wolski (1988) defined as the language for metalexicographical information and semantic discrimination. It is a general principle that the metalanguage is based on the native language of the person consulting the work. Secondly, the meaning discriminators have two uses: (i) as an index of the polysemy of the lemma, in which case they should come before the equivalent; (ii) as an indication of the semantic or pragmatic differences between a lemma and a necessarily partial equivalent, in which case they should come after the equivalent. Thirdly, the criteria for the selection of entries are different and depend on the degree of specialization of the user.

The bilingual dictionary for active use is concerned mainly with providing information relating to the equivalent, whereas it focuses its information on the lemma when it is used passively. This distinction is basic, and affects the choice and presentation of linguistic information to be offered on either the lemma (passive use of the dictionary), or the equivalent (active use of the dictionary): (i) (meta)linguistic comments and



discrimination between meanings, of prime importance when dealing with bilingual dictionaries for active use, which include the lexical units of a pair of anisomorphic languages; (ii) identifying meanings in the case of bilingual dictionaries for passive use; (iii) giving consideration to collocations and idiomatic expressions; (iv) including grammatical information; and, finally, (v) establishing the nomenclature (Kromann et al. 1991).

Regarding text reception, Nielsen (1994: 53) states that bilingual comprehension dictionaries are designed “for the particular purpose of comprehension of a given utterance by way of a decoding process consisting of the understanding and interpretation in a foreign language.” Nielsen uses Shcherba’s (1940) proposal to compile defining bilingual dictionaries, a concept which follows in the steps of the bilingualised dictionary, but in which the definition in L2 is substituted by a definition which accompanies the equivalent. Thus, it is stated that a dictionary of this type has a set of lemmas in a foreign language (Y) followed by their equivalents in the user’s mother tongue (X) and by definitions of same also in the user’s mother tongue (X).

For the production of texts it is necessary to include the translation equivalent, grammatical information, examples of usage, synonyms, and abbreviated forms. The translation equivalent tells us that to each lemma must correspond, at least, one translation equivalent, which may assume one of two forms: (i) in cases in which the lexical equivalent is complete, a synonymous lexical unit in L2; (ii) on those occasions on which the equivalent is partial or non-existent, a paraphrase of the meaning of the lexical unit. The grammatical information corresponds both to the lemma and to the translation equivalent, and may adopt several forms: (i) information about the grammatical category of the lemma, fundamentally oriented towards clarifying the ambiguity of the homonymous lexical units; (ii) morphological information, especially relevant in the case of irregular forms; (iii) derivational information, given that the derivational patterns of the specialised fields are to a considerable extent idiosyncratic; and (iv) syntactical information. Examples of usage may be of two types: (i) examples which illustrate the usage of the translation equivalent, along with its grammatical properties; (ii) examples which show the translation equivalents of the collocations and idiomatic expressions. The presence of synonyms is a mark of quality of dictionaries. Finally, abbreviated forms are common in LSPs. Fuertes-Olivera and Arribas-Baño (2005) point out that in some bilingual business dictionaries nearly 10% of the nomenclature are abbreviations.

The LSP dictionary must be all-inclusive, as Henne et al. (1978) set out, i.e. a type of dictionary which adds conceptual/encyclopaedic information to the linguistic information normally given. Nielsen (1994: 69–70) states that as a distinction to the information about form, “it may be said that encyclopaedic information refers to the meaning of the lexical units treated lexicographically in a dictionary.”

The modern theory of lexicographical functions mostly advocated by scholars such as Bergenholtz and Kaufmann (1996, 1997), Bergenholtz and Tarp (2003), Nielsen (1994), Tarp (2000, 2001, 2002, 2005a, b) (see also Van Sterkenburg 2003) is in line

with these principles. For example, it makes a very interesting distinction between “knowledge-orientated functions” and “communication-orientated functions”. The former cater to users consulting LSP dictionaries as a source of learning or studying a special subject. The latter meet the needs of users looking up LSP dictionaries in order to facilitate an existing or planned communication. LSP dictionaries, then, should only include data on the basis of their respective functions. For example, there is no distinction between an electronic dictionary and a printed one provided that “they are conceived to solve the type of problems that arise for the same type of user in the same type of user situation.” (Bergenholtz and Tarp 2003: 191)

This lexicographical approach to LSP dictionaries also maintains that the often quoted distinction between LSP lexicography and terminology is of no practical use (Sager 1990). The connection between lexicography and terminology is more or less accepted by a large number of scholars who do not opt for compartmentalization (Lerat 1988; Béjoint 1989; de Bessé 1990, 1997), and do not seem to find clear frontiers or separation between one or the other discipline (Bergenholtz and Kaufmann 1997; Dubois 1979). Most of the authors consulted avoid taking a dogmatic stand on the question, an unmistakable sign that there exist areas where the link between both may tend to weaken any attempt at differentiation.

In general terms it is stated that lexicography is a science concerned with both compiling, writing, and editing dictionaries (i.e., *dictionary-making* or *dictionnaire*), and making dictionary criticism by means of which the semantic relationships within the vocabulary of a language are analysed and described, and theories of dictionary components and structures are developed (i.e., *metalexicography*, *theoretical lexicography*, *theory of lexicography*, or *academic lexicography*); and that terminography is an applied branch of terminology, occupied with the preparation of diverse terminological products dealing with terms and their uses. Both definitions share a number of features: (i) both are related to linguistics and are applied; (ii) in both cases it is a question of essentially descriptive practices; (iii) both describe lexical units, although these are pragmatically and functionally separated; (iv) to a considerable extent they share objectives. These similarities, besides, are reinforced by an unquestionable fact: technical and social evolution has eliminated the differences between the two with reference to the physical characteristics social purposes, and economic motivation of the product.

We believe, for this reason, that the so-called internal differences are not very significant. On the one hand, although terminography functions in thematically circumscribed fields, lexicography can equally function in the framework of independent semantic fields. It is true that terminological works, influenced by the General Theory of Terminology (GTT), had a marked unifying and normalising orientation (prescriptive terminography). But the same cannot be sustained of elaborate compendia at present, with a firmly descriptive slant (descriptive terminography). For example, words and terms are mostly being differentiated in terms of functional and pragmatic approaches, leaving aside established views which focus on the conceptual component of terms.

There is, then, a methodological confluence between LSP lexicography and terminography. Two fundamental reasons contribute to this. Firstly, the methodological renovation is driven by the incorporation of the text to the work of terminology. This textual dimension, which Bourigault and Slodzian (1999: 30) call *terminologie textuelle*, had already been proposed by Kocourek (1979). It is possible, however, that this change of attitude has been driven by socio-terminology. Numerous authors are openly in favour of the study of terminology in a textual framework arguing, besides, that the new theoretical and methodological models must be presented in such a framework (Arntz 1988; Le Guern 1989; de Bessé 1991; Bowker 1998).

What drives this new state of things is a swing from the concept as the centre of attention and methodological starting point of the GTT to the term. Temmerman (2000: 224) states that “as terminology can only be studied in discourse, it is better to accept that it is the term which is the starting point in terminological description rather than what was traditionally called the concept.” This change of emphasis has deep methodological repercussions, which imply the abandoning of the traditional method of onomasiological work in favour of a semasiological approach which has a great deal in common with lexicography.

What is of greatest transcendence for our research is the fact that descriptive terminography is equally applicable in adjacent fields like specialised lexicography, which may even point to a greater methodological convergence of lexicography and terminography, and the teaching-learning of a foreign language.

We can finish this theoretical discussion by arguing that terminography and specialised lexicography are, basically, the same discipline. They are not exactly homogeneous, but a variable set of complex practices which form a continuum in such a way that at times the point of view adopted in the development of an activity is more terminological and other times more lexicographical (Humbley 1997). Tarp (1997) suggests that both disciplines operate on the same common theoretical support, which of necessity must be lexicographical, as it is in the framework of lexicography where a response can be given to the needs of the users.

This connection or confluence between LSP lexicography and terminography favours a study such as this which is located within the tenets of metalexigraphy and which is concerned with analysing LSP dictionaries, a coverall term including LSP dictionaries, technical dictionaries, and terminological dictionaries.

These three terms intend to describe a product of specialised lexicography, although from different perspectives (Hartman and James 1998): the LSP dictionary focuses on semi-experts who need it in the context of teaching – learning a language for specific purposes; the technical dictionary describes the technical language of a specialised subject discipline, admitting a high level of internal variation according to the degree of the user’s specialisation; finally, the terminological dictionary provides information about a specialist field as defined by its practitioners. In practical terms, this distinction is mostly ignored, particularly in today’s world characterised by the advent of a new type of users who may simultaneously demand the three kinds of

information (Fuertes-Olivera and Velasco-Sacristán 2001; also Table 1). Hence, in this book the term “LSP dictionary” is being used as a superordinate term covering the three aforementioned types, and some others: special-dictionary, special-purpose dictionary, special-field dictionary, segmental dictionary, and restricted dictionary (Opitz 1990, 1996). Following Tarp (2005a, b), we also claim that the LSP dictionary is, basically, an instrument or object conceived to satisfy two main user needs: communication and knowledge. These needs are situation-specific and therefore partially influenced by three factors: (i) mother tongue; (ii) level of mastery of the subject to be studied; (iii) level of the user’s command of the special language presented by the dictionary.

A detailed analysis of any catalogue of LSP lexicographical works will show, firstly, that they exist in the great majority of fields of knowledge (Landau 2001: 34); secondly, that the development of specialised metalexigraphy is in full development (Fuertes-Olivera and Velasco-Sacristán 2001; Bowker 2003; Temmerman 2003; Fuertes-Olivera 2005, 2007; Fuertes-Olivera and Arribas Baño 2005; Tarp 2005a, b, 2007; Posteguillo-Gómez and Piqué Angordans 2005; Piqué-Angordans, Posteguillo and Melcion 2006; Faber, León Araúz, Prieto Velasco and Reimerink 2007; Piqué Angordans and Posteguillo 2007); and, thirdly, that recent LSP dictionaries tend to broaden the scope of possible users. For example, the LSP dictionary can cover one or more specialised fields (multi-field dictionary), the total field of the subject (general-field LSP dictionary), or a specific subfield (subfield LSP dictionary); it can be designed to cover the lexical universe of one or the other to a greater or lesser degree (maximising LSP dictionary or minimising LSP dictionary) (Nielsen 1994; Bergenholtz and Tarp 1995); and it is being compiled appropriate to the user’s level of specialization (cf. Table 1).

These circumstances have influenced the treatment lexicographers and publishing houses are according the LSP dictionary. Ten years ago, Sørensen (1997: 303) stated that steps were being taken to equip the subject with an important theoretical framework. Tarp (2005a, b) comments on some of the practical experiments that the Centre for Lexicography at the Aarhus School of Business has undertaken in the conception and production of specialised dictionaries to aid users in translation, reception and production of texts. He points out that this type of dictionary contains numerous explanations which serve as differentiators of meaning, as exemplified by the *Dansk-spansk 1999 / Spansk – dansk 2003*, and the *Engelsk-dansk 2005*.

The intended users of the *Dansk-spansk 1999* are a heterogeneous group of Danish business people who need to communicate with Spanish speakers. Though the main use situation is the production of texts in Spanish, the dictionary can also be used to translate into Spanish, to understand Spanish texts and to translate Spanish into Danish. As it is assumed that the potential users are already familiar with the field, the dictionary includes very few definitions, but a great number of collocations, authentic examples and grammatical information about inflection, morphology and syntactical properties of the Spanish lemmas. The data are undoubtedly very useful for those users who have very little knowledge of Spanish. For this reason, Tarp (2005b) reminds us that the articles have explicit meaning differentiators only in the Danish-Spanish part;

and it uses bold type for the Spanish equivalents but not for the Danish ones, which facilitates the production of texts in Spanish. Finally, and for the same reason as before, the Spanish collocations are in normal type while the Danish collocations are in italics. This highlights the structure of search fields, thus permitting an easy search as the paragraphs are well structured, are very visible and permit the user to reach their objective quickly.

## 1.2 Aims

The aim of the present study is to analyse how some business English and Spanish LSP dictionaries treat the representation of meaning. This research will fill a gap in LSP metalexigraphy. To carry out this research, we state, first of all, that lexicography, although it is an independent scientific discipline, is connected to other more or less related fields. Hartmann (2001: 8), for example, indicates some important external factors that have to be considered: the cost of material and staff; the selection of equipment and formats for corpus data, word-processing, printing and publishing; the planning and the designing of the layout; factual knowledge; dictionary research and knowledge of linguistics.

In this book, we combine dictionary research and linguistics knowledge, thus acknowledging links between both aspects of lexicography (dictionary making and metalexigraphy) and linguistics. This relationship is evident in the adoption of working methods from domains such as lexicology (Hartmann 1983; Zgusta 2000), syntax (Atkins 1998), corpus linguistics (Binon and Verlinde 1998; Sinclair 2003), contrastive linguistics (Hartmann 1991), and lexical semantics (Cruse 1986), etc. For example, the authors of DAFA 2000 have applied some of the principles of “lexical functions” by incorporating arguments, semantic decomposition, and paid attention to the principle of the combinatorial nature of lexical units, thus making sense of Béjoint’s comment (2000: 174): “his [Saussure’s] idea that a word should be considered in the multi-faceted contexts of its paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations is just beginning to be implemented.”

Our analysis focuses on the representation of meaning in terms of the main tenets and methods put forward by the proponents of the didactic role of the LSP dictionary. As pedagogical tools, dictionaries have been underused and relegated to a secondary role, perhaps because they are not primarily teaching materials, being used instead as reference works in the context of other activities. Dubois and Dubois (1971), however, maintain that the dictionary informs and regulates whilst it teaches.

This does not imply analysing what didactic role specific LSP dictionaries have for specific LSP students (Campoy Cubillo 2002); rather, it means that the analysis examines some current business dictionaries in terms of the principles and methods of pedagogical lexicography. Specifically, we consider whether the orientation of the dictionaries studied favours the communicative or the knowledge orientation.

An adequate balance between the communicative and the knowledge orientation is essential in pedagogical LSP lexicography, no matter which side one places oneself in the current debate between those who maintain that pedagogical lexicography is strongly connected with L2 teaching and learning (Hartmann 1996) and those who oppose it (Tarp 2004). We adopt a middle ground position, particularly because in the field of LSP the mastering of lexical competence reinforces the complementary relation between linguistics and lexicography.

Five arguments support our position: (i) learning the (specialised) vocabulary is an objective necessity for LSP students, who judge their mastery of it by the yardstick of lexical acquisition; (ii) specialised vocabulary presents a linguistic dimension in terms of denomination and a terminological dimension as regards concepts; (iii) vocabulary has its own autonomy, as has been highlighted by the pan-lexical approaches adopted in recent years (Lewis 1993; Powell 1996; Erman and Warren 2000); (iv) vocabulary learning also has a cognitive and a psychological dimension which influences its level of processing. The current pedagogical models tend to respect previous cognitive stages and, in general, respond to differences in level, from the central (or most frequent) to the peripheral vocabulary; (v) the teaching of vocabulary is integrated either into the discursive context or its co-text. As a result, it should be recognised that the dictionary plays a didactic role.

A good example of this didactic role is the electronic version of dictionaries. In addition to their being more widely used as a source of lexical knowledge by computer programmes (for example, for (semi)automatic translation), electronic dictionaries allow human users to obtain more explicit and focused information. For example, in electronic dictionaries cross-references are no longer a nuisance since the required information can be given on the spot or as a hyperlink (Oppentocht and Schutz 2003; Selva et al. 2003). Also, they improve the functionality of dictionaries by adjusting the selection and representation of data, and by allowing users to benefit from the onomasiological approach electronic dictionaries permit easily. For example, the electronic version DAFA 2001, together with its paper version (DAFA 2000), constitute a breakthrough in the field of specialised pedagogical lexicography because they combine an alphabetical/semasiological macrostructure with an onomasiological/conceptual microstructure, each article being a kind of semantic field or microsystem.

This dictionary is considered a yardstick in the field of learners' dictionaries of business French. Bogaards (2002), for example, comments that the design and the elaboration of the DAFA 2000 are original and innovative in a number of ways. Among other features, he emphasizes that all the words in the alphabetical list are treated in more detail in the context of one of 135 word families describing central concepts in business French. This dictionary also illustrates how collocations, synonyms and antonyms should be treated in specialised dictionaries. Collocations, for example, are treated separately, being arranged for combinations with different parts of speech and sometimes explicitly explained; most are illustrated by means of examples. The technique of this dictionary is based on the assumption that a "collocation" is one of the

categories illustrating the extended meaning of each lexical item (Sinclair 1996; Burkhanov 2003; Cheng 2006), but it also pays attention to the syntagmatic potential of their components, which can be very useful for meeting the needs of advanced learners and translators of specialised languages. This approach is also used by dictionaries of synonyms. (Nuccorini 2003)

Our research is concerned with two international languages with millions of speakers around the world: English and Spanish. Considering that the monolingual learner's English dictionary is in the forefront of any lexicographical research and practice, and that it is pioneering new lexicographical methods and proposing new theoretical approaches, it seems appropriate to explore the possibilities of transferring some of its practices, methods, and theoretical underpinnings to the compilation of new LSP monolingual and bilingual dictionaries targeting learners of business English and/or Spanish.

The English pedagogical tradition has considerably advanced this trend and has led to a marked expansion of the design and use of the pedagogical dictionary for L2 teaching-learning for the following reasons: (i) social: in a fully globalised world, the need for learning an L2 is becoming more and more evident; (ii) pedagogical: the new trends in pedagogy place emphasis on the importance of the learner; (iii) economic: a greater purchasing power means that more dictionaries are bought by individual students. The result of these three factors is that most students and speakers of a foreign language regularly use dictionaries.

We will observe the pedagogical characteristics of the monolingual business dictionaries in terms of the following basic characteristics of the monolingual pedagogical dictionary:

1. The central "lexical units" (Cowie 1983a; Tomaszczyk 1983), which very often are polysemic, occur frequently and give rise to a large number of derivatives, compound nouns and idiomatic expressions; so it is fundamental that they be dealt with in depth (Béjoint 2000).
2. Definitions should be formulated in the framework of controlled vocabularies, respecting the lexicographical principle that they should be expressed in simpler language than the term to be defined. Despite these definitions being problematic, the fact is that empirical evidence exists showing students to be particularly receptive to them (McFarquhar and Richards 1983), although it is yet to be determined whether there is any advantage with regard to learning the vocabulary.
3. Grammatical information takes on a hitherto unknown central role in the field of lexicography. In the design of a monolingual EFL dictionary, for example, some balance must be preserved between a portrait of the vocabulary of the language and an adequate description of the use of words in the productive mode (Carter 1989). This is the aspiration of information on grammar, with an increasing degree of transparency implicitly observed in the very large number of examples incorporated into this type of work, and clearly exemplified in the definitions.
4. Phraseology is a key component linked to the lexicon of any language.

Regarding bilingual business dictionaries, our analysis will take account: (i) the principles derived from research into L2 teaching-learning, (ii) the linguistic information to be included in accordance with the user's level of language, and (iii) the findings concerning error analysis and principles for vocabulary teaching-learning.

Many authors have addressed the issue of the requirements a bilingual dictionary needs to meet in order to become truly pedagogical (Atkins 1996; Marelló 1996). It should include phonetic, (ortho)graphic, morphological, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic data. The new bilingual dictionary should implement the principle of the "dominant language" (Thompson 1987; Roberts 1996), which is closely related to the notion of language of description. This principle requires that the metalanguage of the dictionary discourse on the lemma or its equivalents should be the native language of the user for whom the work is intended.

Stated briefly, the main research questions are the following:

1. What is the lexicographical treatment each of the business dictionaries studied accords key aspects of meaning? In particular we explore how each dictionary treats the representation of meaning in its macrostructure, mediostructure, access structure, and microstructure.
2. Which of the different models seems more adequate for students of business English and/or Spanish for reception, production, and translation?
3. Is it possible to translate some of the methods, practices, and theoretical approaches of monolingual learner's English dictionaries to the compilation of new LSP dictionaries?
4. Is it possible to apply the methods, principles and practices of the English pedagogical monolingual business dictionary to the compilation of a similar Spanish dictionary? As Section 1.3 below shows, no such dictionary exists; therefore, our study will also aim at filling this gap by showing how this endeavour can be accomplished, considering that both languages share very similar conceptual and cultural traditions.

### 1.3 Material and method

Our analysis deals with monolingual and bilingual (English-Spanish/Spanish-English) business dictionaries. It follows accepted metalexical practices. For example, an aspect such as "definition" is analysed in each monolingual dictionary from the different perspectives of studying definitions (semantic definitions; terminological definitions; encyclopaedic definition). This means that in addition to offering figures on the use of every specific lexicographical aspect discussed, we will also focus on trends and comment on them in order to offer some theoretical backgrounds for the constructions of pedagogically oriented business dictionaries.

The "business dictionary" we are postulating is a collection of eight business dictionaries (see Table 2). As can be deduced from the data in Table 2, all the dictionaries



cover more than one field related to business English and/or Spanish. This prototype business dictionary is a reference work which includes the lexical units occurring in the area of business in one or both of these languages. The lexical units are terminological in nature, are arranged alphabetically and are provided with factual and linguistic information required by, at least, three types of users: experts, semi-experts, and informed laypeople.

The selection has been made applying a uniform criterion and, in order to achieve an internal coherence of the study, we will carry out an analysis of those works which have a common thematic substratum. On the other hand, we wish to check how the treatment of meaning differs in monolingual dictionaries for native speakers (one English, and one Spanish), pedagogical monolingual dictionaries (three English) and bilingual dictionaries (three English-Spanish/Spanish-English), for which reason we have chosen a balanced sample of these types of works.

**Table 2.** Classification of the dictionaries of the sample

	Extension		Number of languages			
	Multi-field	Single field	subfield	Monolingual for natives	Monolingual pedagogical	Bilingual
Alianza Economía 1994)	*			Spa.		
Management 2003	*			Eng.		
Longman Business 1989	*				Eng.	
Oxford Business 1993	*				Eng.	
Peter Collin Business 2001)	*				Eng.	
Business Spanish 1997	*					Spa.-Eng./ Eng.-Spa-
Pirámide Economía 2001	*					Spa.-Eng./ Eng.-Spa.
Ariel Economía 2002	*					Spa.-Eng./ Eng.-Spa.

There are more business dictionaries and business teaching materials than comparable LSP teaching materials (Nickerson 2005). Our selection is balanced in the sense that some of the dictionaries chosen are cognitively oriented whereas some others are communicatively oriented (Andersen and Fuertes-Olivera, 2009). They are therefore adequate for analysing the pedagogical soundness of dictionaries currently used in Spanish universities: many of them tend to ignore grammatical information, do not disambiguate homonyms, offer very poor encyclopaedic information, do not offer orthographical variants or register labels, and do not pay much attention to acronyms and abbreviations, etc. (Fuertes-Olivera and Velasco-Sacristán 2001; Fuertes-Olivera and Arribas-Baño 2005)

Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995: 66–69) describe some of the characteristics of business dictionaries. First, expertise in business/economics covers varied fields, which means that many of these dictionaries deal with terms belonging to more than one field, while others are limited to just one and even a particular aspect of this. Second, certain sub-types included in the genre cover terms which are not genuinely related to the field of business/economics (thus, the dictionaries which cover the lexis employed in business language include legal terms), while others cover lexical units belonging to the common language (the paradigmatic case is the “commercial dictionary”). Third, the scope of business/economics tends to respond to particular cultural traditions.

Cultural differences constitute a problem since these dictionaries have to cope with two opposing trends. They have to deal with culture-bound traditions and legislation while at the same time considering the process of internationalisation and globalisation which is affecting most spheres of life, especially those connected with business/economics, science and technology, and the status of English as *lingua franca*. A consequence of this state of affairs for lexicography is the existence of areas of lexical inequivalence, which, though it is not usually a problem for the so-called hard sciences, are very frequent in the terminologies of the social sciences. It is often said that the monolingual business dictionary is only meant for native speakers. For that reason Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995: 66) believe that its typical functions are reception, encyclopaedic introduction and the solution to problems of a conceptual nature at the moment of producing a text. This situation is improving as the Oxford Business 1993 shows:

The information categories of the Oxford Dictionary of Business English (...) resemble those of the Oxford learners' dictionaries (...) At the functional level, entries are labelled according to a complete set of grammatical classes; the pragmatic information covers usage notes, register, geographical variations, collocations and word combinations; explanatory information includes definitions, subject-field labels, examples and contextual information. (Fuertes Olivera and Velasco Sacristán 2001: 33)

In the same line are situated the DICOFE 2000, and the DAFA 2000, whose objective is to satisfy the needs of the oral and written production of students of an intermediate level. As in general pedagogical monolingual dictionaries, the nature of the categories of linguistic information which is included in these dictionaries only implicitly permits recognition of the productive core in the teaching-learning of a language for specific purposes. It seems appropriate, for this reason, to go more deeply into this question by analysing the group of business dictionaries already referred to (Table 2, above).

The dictionaries chosen agree with the described prototypical characteristics. In addition, they are very popular on the Spanish market. For example, Alianza Editorial has published 19 editions of the Alianza Economía dictionary although with two different titles: *Diccionario de Economía* from 1988 to 1994, and *Diccionario de Economía y Finanzas* since 1994. Similarly, Editorial Pirámide has sold more than 150,000 copies of the *Diccionario Bilingüe de Economía y Empresa inglés-español/español-inglés*

(Pirámide Economía 2001 in this book), particularly because it was distributed free with a respected Spanish economic newspaper: *Expansión*.

Our analysis is focused on the noun terms of the entries of the letter **p**. Given the grammatical complexity which characterises the majority of terms (for example, they can adopt the form of a word or a multiword expression), and that this complexity affects other linguistic dimensions such as phonology, graphics and semantics, it is not possible to find definitive criteria of convergence between the definitions of “word” and those of “term.” This fact, nevertheless, can be circumvented by establishing a distinction between term and non-term (cf. Desmet and Boutayeb 1994; Kageura 1995), which, amongst other things, permits us to point out that most terms belong to four grammatical categories (noun, verb, adjective and adverb), and that terms have a meaning and a referent (cf. Section 1.1).

**Table 3.** Absolute distribution figures of the grammatical categories in the specialised dictionaries of the sample

	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs	Others* Unmarked	Total
Oxford Business 1993	106	11	12	2	3	134
Peter Collin Business 2001	91	29	40	11	8	179
Business Spanish 1997						
Sp- Eng	82	40	34	2	8	166
Eng-Sp	51	27	16	2	4	100
Pirámide Economía 2001						
Eng-Sp.	161	22	73	8	18	282
Sp-Eng	123	52	69	3	23	270
Ariel Economía 2002						
Eng-Sp	50	27	13	0	2	92
Sp-Eng	75	25	20	1	3	124

\* The field ‘others’ comprises all those lemmas which are assigned to a grammatical category different from the previous ones (for example, prepositions), and also the lemmas which do not appear accompanied by any grammatical mark (for example, an *idiom*):

Our decision is based on both quantitative and qualitative reasons. LSPs tend to show nominal styles which prove the terminological relevance of the noun term. Similarly, in quantitative terms, nouns predominate in the vocabulary of any LSP. For example, data extracted from analysing the consonant sequence **pr-** in a sample of the dictionaries studied show that nouns account for around between 45% and 79% of all the lexical items (see Tables 3 and 4).

**Table 4.** Relative distribution figures of the grammatical categories in the specialised dictionaries of the sample

	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Adverbs	Others*/ Unmarked*	Total
Oxford Business 1993	79.1%	8.2%	8.9%	1.4%	1.5%	99.97%
Peter Collin Business 2001	50.83%	16.20%	22.34%	6.14%	4.46%	99.99%
Business Spanish 1997						
Sp.-Eng	49.10%	24.09%	20.48%	1.20%	4.81%	99.71%
Eng-Sp.	51%	27%	16%	2%	4%	100%
Pirámide Economía 2001						
Eng.-.Sp.	57.09%	7.8%	25.88%	2.83%	6.38%	99.99%
Sp-Eng	45.38%	19.18%	25.46%	1.10%	8.48%	99.63%
Ariel Economía 2002						
Eng-Sp	53.34%	29.34%	14.13%	0%	2.17%	98.99%
Sp-Eng	60.48%	20.16%	16.12%	0.80%	2.41%	99.99%

\* This comprises all those lemmas which are assigned to a grammatical category different from the previous ones (for example, prepositions), and also the lemmas which do not appear accompanied by any grammatical mark (for example, an idiom):

Finally, as we propose a transformative view of lexicography (Tarp 2007), we finish our analysis by offering specific models for the construction of pedagogically oriented bilingual business dictionaries aiming at meeting the needs of Spanish users, particularly students and translators.

#### 1.4 Outline of the study

Chapter 2 introduces three concepts – macrostructure, mediostructure, and access structure – and analyses the way of relating them in order to achieve the most adequate exploitation of the contents of the business dictionaries studied. Our empirical study focuses on the existence of different possibilities in the configuration of the macrostructure, mediostructure and access structure. In particular, it studies how the dictionaries analysed cope with three lexicographical issues, all related to the representation of meaning: homonymy, the form of the lexicographical article, and polysemy.

Chapters 3 through 5 will present the results of the investigation of the representation of meaning in terms of the microstructure. Although the concept of microstructure is subject to various interpretations, we have considered them of little importance. Hence, we have arrived at a kind of compromise solution by accepting Hartmann's (2001: 64) definition of microstructure as “a (preferably hierarchical) way of showing

how the various information categories are arranged within entries.” Chapter 3 deals with definitions, while chapters 4 and 5 concentrate, respectively, on equivalence and examples in business dictionaries. The analyses included in chapter 3 will highlight quantitative and qualitative results of the comparison of different types of definitions used in the monolingual dictionaries sampled. Chapter 4 is devoted to bilingual dictionaries. After reviewing the close connection between translation and bilingual lexicography, this chapter will present the notion of equivalence and will discuss our empirical results on how the bilingual dictionaries deal with equivalence in both their active and passive parts. Chapter 5 studies the lexicographical importance of examples. It provides an operative definition of the lexicographical concept “example” and offers quantitative and qualitative results of the comparative study of the examples used in the business dictionaries studied.

Chapter 6 is divided into two parts. This first summarises the main conclusions drawn from the previous empirical study in terms of the pedagogical approach to the LSP dictionaries here examined. The other provides some ideas for a range of future studies. In particular we will discuss a model for dealing with the representation of meaning in bilingual business dictionaries. Our model proposes a bilingualised business dictionary adopting a mono-directional orientation since it will target Spanish students of business English courses.

## The macrostructure, mediostructure and access structure of business dictionaries

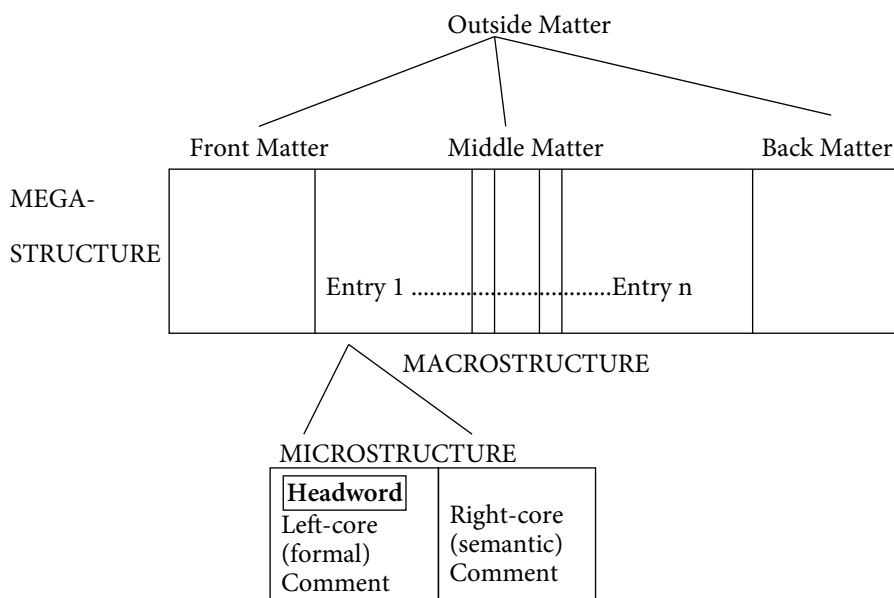
### 2.1 Introduction

Our study starts with analysing the different possibilities of configuring the macrostructure, the mediostructure and the access structure of the dictionary. The study of these three structures is mainly concerned with facilitating the user's access to the dictionary and helping to achieve the internal coherence of the final lexicographic product. Before presenting the results of our study we have considered it convenient to define the constituent parts of the dictionary and their application to the specialised business dictionary.

### 2.2 The constituent structures of the dictionary

It is usually stated that the structure of a dictionary or of any work of reference comprises the constituent parts related to its design ("macrostructure") and to the contents of each individual entry ("microstructure"). In our opinion this definition is somewhat incomplete and rather general as dictionaries possess a multidimensional structure which corresponds to the diverse nature of the contents. In other words, a detailed study of the component parts of a dictionary indicates that the structures that make up a lexicographical work are varied and interrelated to different degrees. This means that, besides the macrostructure and the microstructure, we must consider other structural components. One of them is the "mega-structure", which is defined as the totality of the parts that constitute a work of reference. Figure 1 is a graphic representation of Hartmann's structure of the dictionary.

Meaning is distributed basically in the macrostructure, the mediostructure, the access structure and the microstructure. This is what leads this work to be centred on these four components.



**Figure 1.** Graphic representation of the basic constituent structures of the dictionary (Hartmann 2001: 59)

As a starting point, then, we commence by highlighting the fact that between the form of the lexical unit and its meaning there may be three types of correspondence or mapping:

1. To a lexical unit there corresponds a unique meaning or equivalent (“one-to-one correspondence”). This would be the case of all those units which, although they are formally identical, possess semantic differences which are treated in independent articles (homonymy, see Section 2.3).
2. To a lexical unit there corresponds more than one meaning or equivalent (“one-to-many correspondence”). In this case we find a semantic bond which permits the attribution of different meanings to the same lexical unit (polysemy, see Section 2.5).
3. To a unique meaning there correspond more than one lexical or equivalent units (“many-to-one”). This phenomenon occurs when more than one formally divergent lexical units correspond to just one meaning (synonymy, see Chapter 4).

Most dictionaries resort to a series of linguistic parameters when discerning if a lemma is an example of homonymy or polysemy. The first of these criteria is etymology, which maintains that words with an identical form but of distinct historical origin must be treated as homonyms. This criterion, however, is confusing for the dictionary compiler and for the user, and so it does not seem to be very useful. The second parameter is that of meaning, which establishes that when a more or less narrow relationship is perceived between two formally identical lexical units we are dealing with a case of homonymy, whereas when it is perceived that the different meanings of the lexical

unit have their origin in a unique semantic nucleus or basic meaning, we are faced with an example of polysemy. The third of the criteria is that of the formal features which tell us that homonyms are lemmas that do not belong to the same grammatical category and have some similar morphological and/or phonetic features. Another of the criteria is pronunciation which tells us that homonyms are lexical units with identical spelling but different phonetic form. Finally, the fifth parameter is related to the collocational features, possibly the most used criterion by French lexicography to distinguish between cases of homonymy and polysemy.

### 2.3 Homonymy in business dictionaries

In the business dictionaries studied we have analysed their macrostructure with a view to determining if in selecting the nomenclature the above-mentioned linguistic phenomena have been considered, and if so, to discover the preferred criterion used for each one of them. We must not forget that the General Theory of Terminology (GTT) sustains that polysemy is a phenomenon whose incidence is restricted to the area of common language. Although this affirmation has been refuted it is possible that the compilers of the dictionaries analysed have taken it into account, as can be seen in our analysis which shows that only the Oxford Business 1993 has considered the criterion of meaning in establishing the nomenclature. Our analysis of the letter **p** shows that only the Oxford Business 1993 – a pedagogical dictionary – gathers under the letter **p**, 358 articles, 44 of which correspond to homonymous lexical units.

The above data indicate, firstly, that homonymy has a very low incidence in the specialised dictionaries analysed. The rejection of homonymy is quite surprising considering that, according to tradition, homonymy should have a much higher incidence in the lexis of specialised discourse than polysemy. Perhaps the explanation can be found in the exiguous affinity between traditional lexicographical theory and its practice, something that is evident in dictionaries with a cognitive orientation prepared by experts, as the Ariel Economía 1994 and Management 2003 (Andersen and Fuertes-Olivera, 2009).

Secondly, we observe that dictionaries such as Management 2003 follow very traditional arrangements and are, for this reason, not very user friendly. Instead, they should have followed the publishing policy of the Oxford University Press, as the application of the principle of homonymy tries to satisfy the needs of their users, inasmuch as the only information they require is the grammatical category of the noun-term in question, something that undoubtedly can be inferred from the context.

Thirdly, and focusing on the Oxford Business 1993 itself, we observe that the criterion used in the determination of homonymy of the consigned lexical units has been merely formal. Concretely, it has been adscription to different grammatical categories – as well as occasionally diverging phonetical examples – which has permitted the identification of homonymous lexical units, because of the scarce relevance of



etymological and/or semantic criteria for the student of business English. Example (1) shows the implementation of the concept of homonymy in the Oxford Business 1993.

(1) Homonymy in the Oxford Business 1993

<p><b>price<sup>1</sup> noun</b> (sales) the amount of money for which something can be bought or sold: <i>The price for these goods is too high. O What is the price of petrol now? O We can't afford to buy the computer at that price. O a price increase of 10%</i></p>	<p>/praɪs/ <b>pl</b> prices ▶◀ agree, fix, increase, reduce, set a price; a competitive, high, low, maximum, minimum, reasonable price; a price list, tag ▶ American Selling Price, asking price, best price, cash price, cost<sup>1</sup>, cost price, cut price, intervention price, list price, manufacturer's recommended price, market price, mean price, net price, nominal price, quoted price, retail price, trade price</p>
<p><b>price<sup>2</sup> verb</b> (sales) 1 to fix the price of something: <i>These goods are priced too high. O goods priced at £6.99 each O Our new range will be competitively priced.</i> 2 to mark the price on goods in a shop: <i>The shop assistant priced the goods before putting them on the shelves.</i></p>	<p>/praɪs/ <b>price, pricing, priced</b> <b>note</b> transitive verb ▶◀ competitively, highly, moderately, reasonably priced ▶ cost<sup>2</sup></p>

#### 2.4 The form of the lexicographical article in business dictionaries

The “mediostructure” incorporates the dimension of the meaning of the lexical unit in the relationship which is established between the form and the content or contents of the dictionary. The mediostructure usually coincides with the “cross-reference structure”, a concept which alludes to the network of references which permit the user of the dictionary to locate the information spread over different component parts.

There are three aspects which make up the mediostructure of the dictionary: (i) the concrete selection of the lemmas which make up the nomenclature; (ii) the presentation criteria of the lemmata; and (iii) the organization of the lemmas and the internal structuring of the sub-lemmas in the article. We are going to focus on a particular aspect of the third of these features, that is, the structuring criteria of the lemmas and sub-lemmas inside the dictionary article. This means distinguishing between “strict-alphabetical arrangement” and “non-strict alphabetical arrangement.”

The strict-alphabetical arrangement is subdivided on the principle of “straight alphabetical arrangement” or “niche-alphabetical arrangement.” The former gives rise to an analytical macrostructure, whose effect is manifested clearly in reception tasks giving a direct access to the lemmas of the nomenclature. The latter comprises articles

composed of a series of niche-sub-articles arranged either as lists or clusters. The non-strict alphabetical arrangement arranges sub-lemmas on the basis of other criteria, normally the grammatical characteristics of the sub-lemmas, thus producing “tiered entries” (Atkins 1998), giving rise to synthetic macrostructures. (Van der Meer and Sansome 2001)

On many occasions the difference between non-strict alphabetical articles and “niche articles” is irrelevant. (Nielsen 1994: 200) Both of them allow space saving, and increase the pedagogical value of the dictionary, given that they permit the grouping of lexical units with semantic, morphological and etymological relationships. Nevertheless, the potential of these ways of arrangement have not always been appreciated. Householder (1962: 279), for example, states that however scientific it might be to group all etymologically related words together, “students derive no commensurate benefit from the hours of time wasted hunting down words not in their obvious alphabetical place. The one or two dissenters argued for the mnemonic value of associating related words in learning.”

Our analysis of the macrostructure of the business dictionaries studied shows interesting findings (Table 5).

**Table 5.** Arrangement of the lemmas

	Straight alphabetical arrangement principle	Niche- alphabetical arrangement principle	Non-strict alphabetical arrangement principle
Alianza Economía 1994	•		
Management 2003	•		
Longman Business 1989	•		•
Oxford Business 1993	•		
Peter Collin Business 2001		• (cluster)	•
Business Spanish 19977			
Esp-Ing		• (cluster)	•
Ing-Esp		• (cluster)	•
Pirámide Economía 2001			
Ing-Esp		• (list)	•
Esp-Ing		• (list)	•
Ariel Economía 2002			
Ing-Esp		• (cluster)	
Esp-Ing		• (cluster)	

In all cases the arrangement criteria of the implemented lemmas is alphabetical. Thus, no dictionary has opted for a thematic arrangement of its contents. This fact can be interpreted in two ways. On the one hand, it is an easy-to-work-with criterion: it permits a direct access to the lemmas which make up the nomenclature – and with this tradition – the users are fully familiarised. On the other hand, it means a detriment in the inner cohesion of the field, whose conceptual links do not appear to be co-ordinated. This is a matter which, in spite of its importance, we must leave aside, because as previously indicated we are mainly concerned with the arrangement of lemmas and sub-lemmas at the heart of the dictionary article.

Four of the dictionaries have opted for arranging the lemmas according to a straight alphabetical arrangement (Alianza Economía 1994, Management 2003, Longman Business 1989 and Oxford Business 1993). They are monolingual dictionaries of Spanish or English. The difficulties created by this arrangement are demonstrated in Examples (2) and (3) corresponding to the noun-term *producto/product* and the complex terms in which they participate. In the English dictionaries we note a break in the thematic grouping of those complex terms in which *product* presents an attributive use (e.g. *product liability*). It is a matter, therefore, of terms which maintain some type of conceptual link. Such conceptual links, however, are slacker than in the case of the complex terms in which *product* functions as a nucleus (e.g. *end product*), which become hyponyms. On the other hand, while the morphosyntactical nature of the Spanish language permits us to group these terms, in the case of English monolingual dictionaries the situation is different, and such terms must be sought in the corresponding place in the nomenclature.

In order to overcome this problem, several dictionaries have opted for the introduction of slight modifications in the arrangement criteria of lemmas, converting into sub-lemmas many of the complex terms which in other dictionaries had their own articles: Example (2) illustrates this with entries from the Peter Collin Business 2001 and the three bilingual dictionaries studied. They have opted for a mixture of arrangements which offer a solution to the problem. Both those complex terms with strong conceptual bonds and those with weaker ones (*producto/product* in attributive use), are added as sub-lemmas at the heart of the article, either in the corresponding semantic subdivision, because of their meaning (Peter Collin Business 2001 and Business Spanish 1997; Example (2)) or in a graphically indiscriminate way (Pirámide Economía 2001, Ariel Economía 2002; Example (3))

The consequence of this arrangement is that the sub-lemmas are usually grouped together according to their nature as: (i) hyponyms of the lemma; or (ii) hyponyms of a related word. In their concrete arrangement the dictionaries appeal to distinct criteria as whether the original language is English or Spanish has morphosyntactic repercussions. In the case of the Peter Collin Business 2001, and also the English-Spanish part of Business Spanish 1997 and the Pirámide Economía 2001, in the arrangement of hyponyms – those cases in which *product* becomes the nucleus of the complex term (e.g. *end/final/finished product*) – the authors observe a non-strictly alphabetical arrangement.

Nevertheless, the compilers maintain an alphabetical order when they consider that the conceptual bond of the lemma and sublemma really merit it. Less successfully, they opt for arranging alphabetically in niches those complex terms in which *product* appears in an attributive position (e.g. *product advertising*) (Example 2).

(2) Arrangement in a monolingual English and the English-Spanish part

(a) Peter Collin Business 2001

**product** [ˈprɒdʌkt] *noun* (a) thing which is made or manufactured; **basic product** = main product made from a raw material; **by-product** = product made as a result of manufacturing a main product; **end product or final product or finished product** = product made at the end of a production process (b) manufactured item for sale; **product advertising** = advertising a particular named product, not the company which makes it; **product analysis** = examining each separate product in a company's range to see why it sells, who buys it, etc.; (...)

(b) Business Spanish 1997

**product** [ˈprɒdʌkt] *noun* (a)(thing which is made) producto *m*; **basic product** = producto básico; **by-product** = subproducto; **end product or final product or finished product** = producto final *or* acabado (b) (*manufactured item for sale*) producto; **product advertising** = anuncio del producto; **product analysis** = análisis de productos; (...)

(c) Pirámide Economía 2001

**product** (n.). Producto. [Inf.] Producto. *v.* «multiply». *By-product*: Subproducto. *By-product method of cost accounting*: Método de reparto de costes de subproductos. *Cartesian product*: producto cartesiano. *Constant product curve*. *v.* «iso-Product curve». *Consumption product*: Bien de consumo. *Demands on the national product*: Demanda de producción nacional. *Distribution of the Gross National Product*: Distribución del producto nacional bruto. *Domestic Product*: Producto interior nacional; interno [Hisp.]. *End product*: Producto final. *Enlarge the national product*:

Aumentar el producto nacional. *Finished product*: Producto acabado; producto terminado [Hisp.]. *Formation of the National Product*: Formación del Producto Nacional. *Gross domestic product*: Producto interior bruto. *Gross domestic product at factor cost*: Producto interior bruto al coste de los factores. *Gross national product at market prices*: Producto nacional bruto a precio del mercado. *Gross national product deflator*: Corrector del producto nacional bruto. *Gross national product gap*: Brecha o déficit del producto nacional bruto. *Homogeneous product*: Producto

homogéneo. *Iso-product curve*: Curva iso-quanta. *Joint-product method of cost accounting*: Clave de reparto en producción conjunta. *Marginal physical product*: Producto físico marginal. *Marginal product*: Producto marginal. (*Social marginal prod-*

«marginal revenue product».) *Marketing of a product*: Venta o comercialización de un producto. *Milling product*: Producto de la molienda. *Multi-product firm*: Empresa multiproducto. *National income and product accounts*: v. «NIPA». *National product*: Producto nacional. *Net domestic product*: Producto interior neto: producto interior neto [Hispano]. *Net National Product (NNP)*: Producto Nacional Neto (PNN). *Net product*: Producto neto. *Potential gross national product*: Producto nacional bruto potencial. *Private net product*: Producto privado neto. *Processed product*: Producto transformado, procesado. *Real product measure*: Medida de producto real. *Residual product*: Subproducto. *Social marginal product*: Producto social marginal. *Total product*: Producto total. *Value of marginal product*: v. «marginal revenue product».

*uct*: Producto social marginal. *Value of marginal product*: v. «marginal revenue product».

*Marginal revenue product*: Ingreso marginal. *Marginal social product*: Producto social marginal. *Marginal value product*: v.

*Waste product*: Producto de desecho, desperdicio.

p. **contour (or curve)**. v. «Iso-product curve».

p. **development**. Desarrollo productivo.

p. **differentiation**. Diversificación de productos.

p. **homogeneity**. Homogeneidad de producto.

p. **liability insurance**. Seguro de responsabilidad civil de productos.

p. **line**. Línea de montaje.

p. **mix**. Razones de los diferentes productos de un proceso a la producción total.

p. **moment**. Momento producto.

p. **moment correlation coefficient**. Coeficiente de correlación por el momento-producto.

p. **planning**. Planificación de productos.

p. **value added**. Valor añadido del producto.

#### (d) Ariel Economía 2002

**product** *n*: producto; *V. line*; *products of first-stage processing*. [Exp: **product abandonment** (abandono del proyecto de producir, comercializar, etc. determinado producto comercial; *V. abandon a product*), **product advertising** (publicidad de un producto), **product coverage** (productos incluidos), **product differentiation** (diferenciación de productos), **product extension merger** (fusión orientada a aumentar la comercialización o mejorar la cuota de mercado de un producto; *V. vertical amalgamation/integration, horizontal/lateral amalgamation; conglomerate amalgamation; market-extension merger*), **product family** (PUBL familia de productos), **product leader** (MERC artículo líder; se trata de un artículo

con alta cuota de mercado), **product liability insurance** (seguro de responsabilidad civil por productos defectuosos), **product life cycle** (ciclo de vida de un producto; en el ciclo de vida de un producto se distinguen cuatro fases: *introduction phase* – fase de introducción-, *growth phase* –fase de crecimiento-, *maturity phase* –fase de madurez- y *decline phase* –fase de declive-; *V. shelf life, product rotation; economic life, useful life; shelf life*), **product line** (MERC, PUBL gama/abanico/ línea de productos; alude a la gama de servicio o productos dentro de la misma categoría; *V. range of products; product mix*), **product management** (dirección/gestión de un producto), **product manager** (GEST jefe de producto; es el

responsable del desarrollo de los nuevos usos y aplicaciones de un producto, o de su gama, para evitar su estancamiento u obsolescencia en el mercado), **product/marketing mix** (gama total, composición o combinación de productos de una empresa  
 ◇ *Get the right product mix; V. product line*), **product obsolescence** US (obso-

lescencia del producto; V. *planned obsolescence*), **product planning** (adaptación de un producto a las necesidades del mercado), **product planning manager** (jefe de programación de productos), **product range** (gama de artículos), **product range analysis** (análisis del surtido)]

In the Spanish-English part of the bilingual dictionaries mentioned, the approach is precisely the contrary as Example (3) shows; the hyponyms are arranged alphabetically in niches (e.g. *producto/acabado/terminado/final*) [*finished/terminal/final product*]), while the related words adopt a non-strictly alphabetical arrangement (e.g. *anuncio del product – product announcement*).

### (3) Arrangement in the Spanish-English part

#### (a) Business Spanish 1997

**producto** *nm* (a) (*cosa producida*) product; **producto acabado** *o* **producto final** = end product *o* final product *o* finished product; **productos acabados** = finished goods; **producto de alta rentabilidad** = cash cow; **producto básico** *o* **de primera necesidad** = basic product *o* staple commodity; **productos en competencia** = competing products; (...) (b) **análisis de productos** = product analysis; **anuncio del producto** = product advertising; **código de un producto** = stock code *o* product code; **conjuntos de productos de una compañía** = product mix; (...)

(c) (*artículo*) article *o* item (of stock); **este producto se ha agotado** = this item has sold out (d) **productos agrícolas** = (agricultural) produce *o* farm produce; **productos agrícolas nacionales** = home produce; (...)

#### (b) Pirámide Economía 2001

**producto** (m.) Article. Good. Commodity. Output. Proceeds. Produce. Product(ion). Turnover. Increase. Make. Issue. Avails. (pl.) Commodities. Fruit Growth. Profit. Rent. (...) *Comercialización de productos*: Marketing. *Curva de producto*: Output curve. *Declaración de un*

*producto exento de derechos*: Entry for duty-free goods. (...)

p. **acabado, final**. Final good. Finished good, product. *Costes de acarreo de materias primas y productos acabados*: Transfer costs.

*Rentabilidad del producto acabado*: Finished goods turnover

p. **anual de una propiedad**. Year's purchase.

p. **de deshecho**. Waste product.

p. **de inversiones**. Investment income (...)

(c) Ariel Economía 2002

**producto**<sup>1</sup> *n*: ECO, COM, FIN product; produce; commodity; consumer good; line; S. *Mercadería, artículo de consumo, género, mercancía*. [EXP: **producto**<sup>2</sup> (income, yield, return; proceeds; S. *renta, ingreso*), **producto acabado/terminado/final** (end/final/finished product), **producto agrícola** (farm produce), **producto básico o de primera necesidad** (staple), **producto bruto** (FIN gross national product, gross product), (...)]

The Ariel Economía 2002 simplifies the arrangement used. Thus, in the English-Spanish part these complex terms in which *product* is in attributive position (*product abandonment*) are listed as sublemmas; in the Spanish-English part it includes those complex terms in which *producto* becomes the nucleus (e.g. *producto acabado/terminado/final*). We believe this approach is appropriate: in the active mode, the user, after checking that there is no article for the term in question in the nomenclature, should proceed to seek a conceptual hyponym materialised as a complex term in the article corresponding to the hyperonym. Also, in the part of the dictionary designed for receptive use, a hyponym should be consigned under the article corresponding to its hyperonym. Thus, *product abandonment* appears in the English-Spanish part as sublemma of *product*, and is not included as a sub-lemma of *abandonment*, while in the Spanish-English part *producto/acabado/terminado/final* is consigned as a hyponym of *producto*. This approach facilitates the user's search task, as the compilers have excluded from the English-Spanish part all those terms whose initial word does not coincide with the lemma. They have excluded other approaches so that *product abandonment* also appears under *abandonment*. This approach also recognises that the term should appear as a sub-lemma under the lemma *product* or even as article. This is precisely the approach adopted by the Longman Business 1989, as we see in Example (4).

- (4) (a) The lemma *abandonment* in the Longman Business 1989

**abandonment** (1) COM. giving up possession of right or property to others:

*Abandonment of goods in customs.*

**product abandonment** giving up, discontinuing to make or sell a product.

(2) MAR. INSCE. giving up possession of a ship and her cargo by the owners to the insurers when total-loss insurance is paid. **notice of abandonment** written notice given by the insured to the insurer claiming for a total loss.

(3) TRANSP. the refusal of a consignee to accept delivery of goods badly damaged during a car-riage.

- (b) The sub-lemma *product abandonment* in the Longman Business 1989

**product abandonment** COM. giving up, discontinuing, the production and marketing of an article.

Summing up, the arrangement of the contents of the specialised bilingual business dictionary can be carried out in both parts in agreement with terminological principles. According to these, each single-word noun-term will have to become the lemma of its own article and simultaneously of other related sub-lemmas. The conceptual bond between them is sufficiently solid to legitimate the rejection of an alphabetical arrangement in the case of the English-Spanish part (“non strictly-alphabetical arrangement principle”), whereas, because of the morphosyntactical characteristics of the Spanish language, the arrangement of sub-lemmas in the Spanish-English part will have to be alphabetical.

**Table 6.** The macrostructure of business dictionaries

	Analytical macrostructure	Synthetic macrostructure
Alianza Economía 1994	•	
Management 2003	•	
Longman Business 1989	•	•
Oxford Business 1993	•	
Peter Collin Business 2001		•
Business Spanish 1997		•
Pirámide Economía 2001		•
Ariel Economía 2002		•



Despite being a matter of distinct concepts, there exists an aspect in which macrostructure and mediostructure appear intimately connected, namely in that the type of mediostructure to a considerably degree determines the synthetic or analytical character of the macrostructure. In view of such concepts, the dictionaries of the sample use both types of macrostructure (see Table 6 above).

All the monolingual dictionaries (with the exception of the Peter Collin Business 2001) have an analytical structure. For this reason they are conceived in the first instance to serve as an auxiliary tool in receptive tasks. Certainly, this is the case of the two encyclopaedic dictionaries and of the pedagogical dictionaries, which give priority to the user's access to the lemmas rather than maintaining an internal terminological coherence in the field. As for the bilingual dictionaries, they all tend to group the related terms thematically. Finally we note that all dictionaries are interested in reflecting the conceptual bond of the terms. This approach guarantees the terminological coherence of the field, and it becomes a compromise solution between the purely alphabetical dictionary and the thematic dictionary. New formulas may contribute to harmonising the access facility which ensures the former and preserving the conceptual structure which guarantees the latter. Moreover, the synthetic macrostructure facilitates the use of the dictionary in the productive mode, which is particularly helpful in the Spanish-English part of the bilingual dictionary. In the English-Spanish part of the work it will be necessary to place the hyponym in its corresponding place in the macrostructure and refer from there to the article corresponding to the hyperonym. This offers the advantage that no information is lost and the dictionary is easy to consult.

## 2.5 Polysemy in business dictionaries

In the present section, our attention will be centred on the linguistic phenomenon of polysemy and its treatment in business dictionaries. Although scholars such as Svensén (1993) claim that polysemy should be analysed in relation to microstructure, we have opted for dealing with this linguistic issue in this chapter. This means that we have considered it more convenient to carry out this study within the wider framework of the lexicographical compendium, as we consider that an adequate treatment of polysemy contributes in a very important way to the arrangement and the presentation of the contents of the work.

The concept of "access structure" coined by Wiegand (1988) refers to the different indicators that direct the user to the information in the dictionary. He distinguishes an "outer access structure" and an "inner access structure." The former refers to the structure that permits access to a lemma; the latter gives the user access to the distinct information categories contained in the microstructure. Herbst (1996) maintains that there are four aspects of the dictionary intimately related to the access structure: (i) the overall structure of the page; (ii) the lemmatisation policies, which refer both to the number of lemmas and to

the distinction between homonymous and polysemous lexical units; (iii) the divisions of meaning; and (iv) the treatment of the derived and compound lexical units.

In our analysis of homonymy (see section 2.2), we have already dealt with the lemmatisation policies of business dictionaries. The following analysis (see section 2.5.2.1, Example 5) of the entry structure and the arrangement of meaning and senses refers to the entry *premium*.

### 2.5.1 The structure of the entry

The structure of the entry should permit the most simple and direct access to the information contained in the dictionary. The lexicographer can opt for presenting the information in an explicit or an implicit manner at various levels, that is, in the consignment of the information the lexicographer can employ various levels of description. Different lexicographical techniques are commonly used (Al 1991): (i) typography, which includes the type of font and the configuration of the page; (ii) punctuation, including the use of symbols; and (iii) labels which indicate grammatical (sub)categories, semantic fields, language levels, etc. Scholars such as Béjoint (1979, 1981, 1987, 1989, 1994, 2000), Bogaards (1988); Herbst (1989, 1996) and Van der Meer and Sansone (2001), for example, attribute success in the clarity of the exposition of lexicographical data to the semiotics of the dictionary.

**Table 7.** Categories of information transmitting information about meaning

	Definition	Example(s)	Equivalent(s)
Alianza Economía 1994	1	–	–
Management 2003	1	–	–
Longman Business 1989	1	2 (italics)	–
Oxford Business 1993	1	2 (italics)	–
Peter Collin Business 2001*	1	2 (bold and italics)	–
Business Spanish 1997	–	2 (bold the example in the source language)	1
Pirámide Economía 2001	–	2 (italics the example in the source language)	1
Ariel Economía 2002	–	2** (italics the example in the source language)	1

\* We have not differentiated between the active and passive side of bilingual dictionaries because information is presented in a parallel way in both sides.

\*\* The Spanish-English side of the Ariel Economía 2002 does not include examples.

Table 7 shows the results of our analysis of the different categories used by the business dictionaries studied to transmit information about the meaning of each entry. It also shows the ordering of the different categories used: 1 precedes 2: i.e., the categories “definition” and “equivalent” always precede the category “example.”

We note that the editors have opted for a traditional approach to the (re)presentation of the information: explicit information (definition and equivalent(s)) precedes implicit information (example(s)) in those dictionaries of the sample which comprise one or the other, namely those oriented towards the teaching-learning of business English. The arrangement criterion of the same type of information will be discussed in chapters 3 (definitions), and 4 (examples).

Regarding the techniques for presenting the different types of information, all the dictionaries coincide in not highlighting typographically the primary or explicit information (definitions and equivalents). They highlight the secondary or implicit information (examples, but only in the source language) by using: either italics (Longman Business 1989, Oxford Business 1993, Pirámide Economía 2001 and Ariel Economía 2002), bold type (Business Spanish 1997), or both (Peter Collin Business 2001).

The conclusion to be drawn from the above analysis is that the business dictionaries studied follow the norms of general lexicography in matters of arrangement and presentation of contents.

## 2.5.2 Treatment of polysemy: Sense differentiation and sense ordering

### 2.5.2.1 *Sense differentiation*

Modern methods present the structure of the article corresponding to a polysemous lexical unit more explicitly. Atkins (1998) states that the sense structure selected at the design stage may be flat or hierarchical. The former indicates that all senses will have equal status, that the senses are numbered accordingly by numbers such as 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., and that only proximity or lack of it will show closeness or distance in meaning. Hierarchical design shows that some senses come from previous basic ones. They are numbered accordingly by means of combining numbers and letters: 1, 1a, 1b, 2, 2a, etc. Below (Example (5) and Table 8) we present the results of our analysis of the entry *premium/prima*.

#### (5) Sense differentiation

##### (a) Alianza Economía 1994

**PRIMA.** Cantidad de dinero que se facilita para estimular una acción determinada, favoreciendo la *competitividad* al hacer posible la disminución del precio de venta; p.e.: las primas de *exportación* permiten la penetración en determinados mercados. // Cantidad por encima del valor nominal de una *acción* que se exige a los suscriptores en el momento de entrar

una sociedad en el mercado bursátil, o al ampliar su capital, para ajustar el precio de venta efectivo al *valor en libros* de la sociedad, o al nivel de su cotización en bolsa.// Pago periódico del asegurado que ha contratado una póliza de seguros. Cantidad que se paga cuando se compra una opción. Supone un gasto para el comprador, que se convierte en una pérdida si no se ejercita la opción. Se expresa en puntos básicos o tantos por diez mil. *E.i: incentive payment, export subsidy* (1.<sup>a</sup> acepción); *premium* (2.<sup>a</sup> y 3.<sup>a</sup>).

(b) Management 2003

**premium** 1. *Fin* the price a purchaser of an option pays to its writers 2. *Fin* the difference between the futures price and the cash price of an underlying asset 3. *Fin* the consideration for a contract of insurance or assurance 4. *Gen Mgt* a higher price paid for a scarce product or service 5. *Gen Mgt* a pricing method that uses high price to indicate high quality

(c) Longman Business 1989

**premium** *adj.* COM. of specially good quality and therefore sold at a higher price: *Premium grade petrol.*  
*n.* (1) STK. EXCH. the amount which is paid for a stock or share over and above its nominal or face value. *At a premium*, at a price higher than the face value of the security. *See par. Opp.* Discount. *See also* option (1). (2) BKG. the amount by which the market rate of exchange of a particular currency is above the par rate. *See* dollar premium. (3) ADVTG. *see* deal (4). (4) a sum of money formerly paid by an apprentice or articulated clerk to a master or professional man as payment for his articles. (5) LAW a sum of money paid on a lease, usu. in advance of signature and over and above the rent. *Syn.* key money. (6) (INSCE. the money paid by the insured to the insurers in return for insurance cover or benefits payable under the conditions in an insurance policy. *Abbr.* pm.; Pm.

## (d) Oxford Business 1993

**premium** *noun*

1 (*insurance*) an insurance premium 2 an extra payment or charge: *A premium of 2% is paid on long-term investments.* O *pay a premium for express delivery*

at a premium 1 rare or difficult to obtain and therefore expensive: *Building land in cities is at a premium.* 2 (of a share or security) above the normal value: *These shares are being sold at a premium.*

/ˈpriːmiəm/

pl premiums

▶ insurance premium

2 ▶◀ charge, pay a premium

▶ acceleration premium

## (e) Pirámide Economía 2001

**premium** (n.). Premio, prima. *Acceleration premium*: Prima de aceleración, de rapidez. *Annual premium*: Prima anual. *Assess the premium*: Fijar la prima. *At a premium*: Sobre la par. *Automatic premium loan clause*: Cláusula de cobro automático de primas. *Be at a premium*: Estar a prima. *Bond premium*: Prima de un bono. *Deposit premium* [Seg.]: Prima provisional o de depósito. *Disability premium waiver insurance* [Seg.]: Seguro complementario de vida con exención del pago de prima en caso de incapacidad del asegurado. *Dollar premium*: Diferencia entre el cambio oficial del dólar y el del «dollar pool». *Earned premium* [Seg.]: Prima devengada. *First premium*: Primera prima. *Gantt premium plan*: Plan de incentivo salarial. *Graded premium life insurance*: Seguro de vida que prevé un incremento anual de la prima durante un período para volverse luego constante. *Gross net premium*: Prima bruta o total neta. *Halsey premium plan*: Plan Halsey de incentivo salarial. *Insurance premium*: Prima de seguros. *Issue shares at a premium*: Emitir acciones sobre la par, con prima. *Level premium insurance*: Seguro a primas niveladas. *Loaded premium*: Sobreprima. *Loading of the premium*: Margen de la prima. *Natural premium* [Seg. de vida]: Prima natural. *Net premium*: Prima neta. *Night work premium*: Compensación por trabajo nocturno. *Pure premium* [Seg.]: Prima neta o pura. *Quarterly premium*: Prima trimestral. *Redemption premium*: Prima de redención, prima de reembolso

*Refund of premium*: Reembolso de una prima. *Regional employment premium*: Prima de empleo regional. *Renewal premium*: Prima sucesiva. *Restoration premium*: Prima adicional fijada para una póliza después de pagar daños. *Return of premium*: Reembolso de la prima. *Return premium*: Prima a devolver. *Rowman premium plan*: Plan de incentivos Rowman. *Semi-annual premium*: Prima semestral. *Shift premium*: Prima por trabajos fuera de turno. *Single premium*: Prima única. *Single premium life insurance*: Seguro de vida a prima única. *Stand at a premium*: Estar a prima.

*Step-rate premium insurance* [Seg. de vida]: Seguro a primas escalonadas (variables). *Under spot premium*: Agio. *Unearned premium*: Prima no cobrada. *Unearned premium reserve*: Reserva para primas no cobradas. *Unexpired insurance premiums* [Seg.]: Primas no vencidas. *Waiver of premium clause*: v. «disability premium waiver insurance».

p. (**appreciation of a share on its issue, price**). Prima de emisión o de opción.

p. **bonds**. Obligaciones con prima.

p. **discount plan**. Descuento a pólizas de gran valor nominal.

p. **for risk**. Prima de riesgo.

p. **loan**. Préstamo sobre pólizas para el pago de las primas

p. **on foreign exchange**. Prima cambiaria.

p. **pay**. v. «incentive pay».

p. **rate**. Tipo de la prima

p. **savings bonds**. Bonos de ahorro con prima.

p. **stock**. Acción con prima o primada.

p. **wage system**. Sistema de primas.

## (f) Peter Collin Business 2001

**premium** ['pri:mjəm] *noun* (a) payment to encourage someone; **premium offer** = free gift offered to attract more customers (b) **insurance premium** = annual payment made by a person or a company to an insurance company; **additional premium** = payment made to cover extra items in an existing insurance; *you pay either an annual premium of £360 or twelve monthly premiums of £32* (c) amount to be paid to a landlord or a tenant for the right to take over a lease; *flat to let with a premium of £10,000; annual rent: £8,500, premium: £25,000* (d) extra charge; **exchange premium** = extra cost above the normal rate for buying foreign currency; *the dollar is at a premium, shares sold at a premium* = shares whose price is higher than their face value; *new shares whose market price is higher than their issue price* (NOTE: the opposite is shares at a discount) (e) GB **premium bonds** = government bonds, part of the national savings scheme, which pay no interest, but give the owner the chance to win a monthly prize (f) **premium quality** = top quality

## (g) Business Spanish 1997

**premium** [pri:mjəm] *noun* (a) **premium offer** = obsequio *m* publicitario or oferta *f* especial (b) **insurance premium** = prima *f* de seguros; *you pay either an annual premium of £360 or twelve monthly premiums of £32* = se paga o bien una prima anual de £360 o bien doce primas mensuales de £32; **additional premium** = sobreprima *f*; **risk premium** = prima de riesgo (c) (*lease*) **traspaso** *m*; **flat to let with a premium of £10,000** = piso para alquilar con un traspaso de £10.000; **annual rent: £8,500, premium: £25,000** = alquiler anual: £8.500, traspaso: £25.000 (d) (*extra charge*) **agio** *m*; **exchange premium** = agio del cambio; *the dollar is at a premium* = el dollar está por encima de la par; *shares sold at a premium* = acciones

ventas por encima de la par (NOTE: the opposite is **shares at a discount**) (e) GB **premium bonds** = bonos del gobierno con prima (f) **premium quality** = alta calidad

## (h) Business Spanish 1997

**prima** *nf* (a) (*bonificación*) bonus; **prima de incentivo**= incentive bonus; **prima de producción** = incentive payment; **prima de productividad** = productivity bonus; **los obreros han dejado de trabajar para reivindicar una prima por trabajo peligroso** = the workforce has stopped work and asked for danger money; **acción con prima** = bonus share (b) (*seguros*) premium; **prima de riesgo** = risk premium; **prima de seguros** = insurance premium; **se paga o bien una prima anual de 3.600 ptas. o bien doce primas mensuales de 320** = you pay either an annual premium of 3,600 pesetas or twelve monthly premiums of 320 (c) (*bolsa*) **prima de opción a vender** = put option

La prima de riesgo para invertir en España cae al mínimo en 26 meses

El País

## (i) Ariel Economía 2002

**premium**<sup>1</sup>, **pm** *n*: SEG prima; lo opuesto de *premium* es *discount* ◇ *Insurance premium*; *V. insurance premium, acceleration premium, earned premium, graded premium, prepayment premium, risk premium*. [Exp: **premium**<sup>2</sup> (BOLSA prima de emisión; diferencia del precio de un título en el mercado secundario con relación al de emisión o a la par; *V. face value; market value*), **premium**<sup>3</sup> (COMER prima; entrega a cuenta o depósito previo en un contrato de futuros o de productos, también llamado *margin*<sup>4</sup>), **premium**<sup>4</sup> (COMER prima; diferencia entre el precio inicial y el final de un producto divisa en un mercado de futuros), **premium**<sup>5</sup> (de primera categoría, de calidad ◇ *Premium grade/rate*), **premium**<sup>6</sup> ([prima por] traspaso), **premium, be at a**<sup>1</sup> (...)

- (j) Ariel Economía 2002  
*prima* *n*: premium, <sup>1</sup> bonus, <sup>1</sup> bounty; S.  
*plus; abandono de prima*. [Exp: *prima a*  
*cuenta en un contrato de futuros o de*  
*productos* (COM premium, <sup>3</sup> margin<sup>4</sup>),  
 (...)]

**Table 8.** Differentiation of sense in the business dictionaries

	Punctuation signs	Flat structure	Hierarchical structure
Alianza Economía 1994	• (double slash)		
Management 2003		• (numbers)	
Longman Business 1989		• (numbers)	
Oxford Business 1993		• (numbers)	
Peter Collin Business 2001		• (letters)	
Business Spanish 1997		• (letters)	
Pirámide Economía 2001	• (commas/stops)		
Ariel Economía 2002		• (numbers)	

Table 8 shows the lexicographical foundations of each work. Alianza Economía 1994 and Pirámide Economía 2001 use old lexicographical methods, namely punctuation marks and other typographical elements. Such procedures may perhaps be justifiable in the case of Alianza Economía 1994, given the encyclopaedic vocation of the work; but they cannot be justified in Pirámide Economía 2001, which specifically targets students of business English, because the users of the Spanish-English part of the dictionary for language production are faced with different lexical units of whose usage they are not conveniently informed. Although the same policy is used in the English-Spanish part, it is less problematic given the orientation of this dictionary towards Spanish.

The rest of the works incorporate methods of differentiation of senses (cf. Section 1.1). In all cases the structure of the article is uniform (or flat), and the senses appear one after the other, unlike the generalised practice in pedagogical monolingual lexicography. The elements that structure the meaning of the lemma are either numbers or letters. The numbers constitute a more solid lexicographical method, considering that the letters remit intuitively to the differentiation not so much of meanings as of senses. In the Peter Collin Business 2001 and Business Spanish 1997, for example, this decision is probably due to the fact that numbers are reserved for indicating the grammatical classes of lemmas. Moreover, the lemma is attributed many senses which rarely coincide in the different works. Even in those cases in which they coincide, the order diverges considerably, which seems to indicate a lack of solid semantic anchoring in the structuring of the information. This analysis indicates, firstly, that the situation has improved considerably in comparison with what was until very recently the general practice in specialised lexicography, and, secondly, that there are still possibilities of



incorporating improvements already employed by pedagogical lexicography in giving the structure of the meanings a more solid semantic basis and incorporating more intuitive presentation methods.

Each of the numbers we referred to previously becomes a structural element of the article and they are denominated *polysemous indices*. Nielsen, for example, comments that:

[w]here a lemma sign is treated as polysemous, it is necessary to treat each meaning within a semantic subcomment (SCS<sup>1</sup>) (Wiegand 1989a: 435), and it is usual to indicate the polysemous nature of the lemma by way of polysemy items (PI). From this it follows that where a lemma sign is treated as *n* times polysemous, the microstructure of the dictionary article has *n* semantic subcomments (Hausmann and Wiegand 1989: 335). (...) The comment on semantics contains the entire meaning of a lemma heading a dictionary article, whereas a semantic subcomment contains one of several partial meanings of a lemma heading the dictionary article. Thus, if a lemma is treated lexicographically as being monosemous, it may be said to have one meaning, the entire meaning being contained in a comment on semantics alone. On the other hand, where a lemma is treated lexicographically as being polysemous, there is one comment on semantics containing the aggregate number of partial meanings which again are contained in separate semantic subcomments. (Nielsen 1994: 237)

#### 2.5.2.2 *Sense ordering*

Sense ordering is also of outstanding importance. Roberts (1992: 224–225) states that “while a larger number of sense subdivisions is an aid to the organisation of information, (...) it also creates organizational problems, for the many senses have to be carefully ordered.” Metalexigraphers have proposed several criteria for the ordering of senses. (Hausmann 1977; Béjoint 1981; Van der Meer and Sansome 2001; Al-Ajmi 2002) They are listed below:

1. Chronology. The temporal criterion seems inappropriate for synchronic dictionaries.
2. Frequency. This criterion can cause problems because the word-count offers statistics relative to the use of lexical units, but not to the different uses of these in their diverse senses.
3. Distribution. This criterion is insufficient in itself.
4. Coherence. This criterion refers to the application of the cognitive concept of “basic meaning” to lexicography, according to which there are central and typical uses of the word in question, “from which appear other meanings by means of figurative extensions, specializations, and similar procedures.” (Van der Meer and Sansome 2001: 291–292)

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1. SCS stands for subcomment on semantics (cf. Wiegand 1989a).

Each of these methods has some drawbacks. Therefore, lexicographers seem to prefer combining them. Our analysis of the entry *premium* shows, however, that there is little coincidence between them in the business dictionaries studied. Table 9 presents the definitions and equivalents of the distinct meanings of *premium/prima* as they are found in the business dictionaries. For the sake of clarification, we have also summarised the information obtained by assigning each of them to a concept (see Table 10). For a better understanding of the information presented in Table 9, two decisions were adopted: (i) we offer an English adaptation of the Spanish meanings found in the Spanish monolingual dictionary Alianza Economía 1994, and in the Spanish-English side of Ariel Economía 2002; (ii) numbers were used to label each meaning of the entry *premium/prima* as noun-term. Each number was then used in Table 10 to assign each meaning to a particular concept.

Tables 9 and 10 show that there exist meanings that are peculiar to each of the languages: *subvención especial a la importación* (export subsidy) in Spanish; *price adjustment method according to product quality, promotion method and cost price of options and futures* in English. They also show that some meanings are shared by both languages: *bonus, insurance premium and overload*. If Tables 9 and 10 are confronted, it can be observed that in the second there are many supposed meanings which the dictionaries assign to *premium* or *prima* which we have opted for subsuming under a unique sense, that is, *extra charge/cargo extra*. Their analysis shows us that the said “meanings” (cf. Section 1.1.) are nothing more than senses of a same meaning which extends its application to diverse subfields. And so, we are confronted with a noun-term which has four senses in Spanish and five in English. The fact that the relationship between them is not certain permits us to state that we are faced with divergent senses which have been lexicographically treated as such, for example by means of different numbers. Meanwhile, many senses can be subsumed under just one meaning. In this way, they become individual senses of one and the same meaning, which can be indicated, for example, by means of letters of the alphabet in an application of the cognitive principle of the basic sense, i.e., the essential meaning of a lemma selected for prominent treatment in the corresponding entry.

Table 9. Meanings assigned to the noun-term *premium/prima*

Alianza Economía 1994	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) Cantidad de dinero que se facilita para estimular una acción determinada, favoreciendo la competitividad al hacer posible la disminución del precio de venta*</li> <li>(2) Cantidad por encima del valor nominal de una acción que se exige a los suscriptores en el momento de entrar en el mercado bursátil, o al ampliar su capital, para ajustar el precio de venta efectivo al valor en libros de la sociedad, o al nivel de su cotización en bolsa**</li> <li>(3) Pago periódico del asegurado que ha contratado una póliza de seguros***</li> </ol>
Management 2003	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) The price a purchaser of an option pays to its writer</li> <li>(2) The difference between the futures price and the cash price of an underlying asset</li> <li>(3) The consideration for a contract of insurance or assurance</li> <li>(4) A higher price paid for a scarce product or service</li> <li>(5) A pricing method that uses high price to indicate high quality</li> </ol>
Longman Business 1989	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) The amount which is paid for a stock or share over and above its nominal or face value</li> <li>(2) The amount by which the market rate of exchange is above the par rate</li> <li>(3) A special effort, lasting only a short time, to attract buyers by a temporary price reduction or by providing a gift with each article sold</li> <li>(4) A sum of money formerly paid by an apprentice or artied clerk to a master or professional man as payment for his articles</li> <li>(5) A sum of money paid on a lease, usu. in advance of signature and over and above the rent</li> <li>(6) The money paid by the insured to the insurers in return for insurance cover or benefits payable under the conditions in an insurance policy</li> </ol>
Oxford Business 1993	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) An insurance premium</li> <li>(2) An extra payment or charge</li> </ol>
Peter Collin Business 2001	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) Payment to encourage someone</li> <li>(2) Insurance premium = annual payment made by a person or a company to an insurance company</li> <li>(3) Amount to be paid to a landlord or tenant for the right to take over a lease</li> <li>(4) Extra charge</li> </ol>

	(5) Premium bonds = government bonds, part of the national savings scheme, which pay no interest, but give the owner the chance to win a monthly prize premium quality = top quality
Business Spanish 1997 Spa-Eng	(1) ( <i>bonificación</i> ) bonus (2) ( <i>seguros</i> ) premium ( <i>bolsa</i> ) prima de opción a vender = put option premium offer = obsequio publicitario, oferta especial
Eng-Spa	(3) insurance premium = prima de seguro (4) (lease) traspaso (5) (extra charge) agio premium bonds = bonos del gobierno con prima premium quality = alta calidad
Pirámide Economía 2001 Spa-Eng	bonus premia premium tantieme primage first quarter of the night early morning premio prima
Ariel Economía 2002 Eng-Spa	(1) SEG prima± (2) BOLSA prima de emisión; diferencia del precio de un título en el mercado secundario con relación al de emisión o a la par ±± (3) COMER prima; entrega a cuenta o depósito previo en un contrato de futuros o de productos ♣ (4) COMER prima; diferencia entre el precio inicial y el final de un producto divisa en un mercado de futuros de primera categoría, de calidad ♣♣
Spa-Eng	(5) premium (6) bonus (7) bounty

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\* 'A sum of money paid to increase market share' (our adaptation)

\*\* 'The amount which is paid for a stock or share over and above its nominal or face value' (our adaptation)

\*\*\* 'Insurance Premium' (our adaptation)

± 'Insurance Premium' (our adaptation)

±± 'The amount which is paid for a stock or share over and above its nominal or face value' (our adaptation)

♣ 'Downpayment in a future contract or similar' (our adaptation)

♣♣ 'The difference between the futures price and the spot price of a currency in a forward market' (our adaptation)

Table 10. Concepts assigned to each sense

	Export subsidy	Price adjustment according to the quality of the products	Product promotion	Bonus	Call option	Insurance premium	Extra charge
Alianza Economía 1994	• (1)					• (3)	• (2)
Management 2003		• (5)			• (1)	• (3)	• (2) • (4)
Longman Business 1989			• (3)			• (6)	• (1) • (2) • (4) • (5)
Oxford Business 1993						• (1)	• (2)
Peter Collin Business 2001				• (1)		• (2)	• (3)
Business Spanish 1997				• (1)		• (2) • (3)	• (4) • (5)
Pirámide Economía 2001							
Ariel Economía 2002	• (7)			• (6)	• (3)	• (1) • (5)	• (2) • (4)

## 2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter we have shown that the business dictionaries studied cope with the representation of meaning in terms of three basic lexicographical issues: homonymy, the form of the lexicographical article, and polysemy.

We hope to have demonstrated that the analysis of these three components has been practically absent from LSP metalexicography. Only a handful of references by Nordic scholars like Bergenholtz, Tarp, and Nielsen (Bergenholtz and Nielsen 2006; Bergenholtz and Tarp 1995) lend support to our initial claim that LSP lexicography must upgrade its theoretical foundations, perhaps by imitating the process and methods of pedagogical lexicography in general dictionaries as we propose in this book.

More specifically, the analysis of homonymy has been carried out accepting the view which equates “macrostructure” and “nomenclature.” Our findings indicate that the tenet of the General Theory of Terminology which maintains that polysemy is ei-

ther absent or negligible in specialised discourse is not supported. Only one pedagogical dictionary – the Oxford Business 1993 – gives homonymy some prominence (around 12% of the entries). In the rest of the dictionaries studied, the compilers consider polysemous all lexical items with the same spelling but different meanings. These findings show that there is little affinity between LSP theory and practice, and that these dictionaries do not give students much help in understanding the conceptual bonds of the business domain.

We have also studied the representation of meaning of each entry in terms of the relationship which is established between the form and the content(s) of the dictionary. Two findings merit an explanation. First, our analysis has shown that these dictionaries arrange lemmas alphabetically, which is only partly satisfactory from a pedagogical point of view. On the one hand, this alphabetical arrangement helps students as they are used to looking up alphabetically. On the other hand, it makes it much more difficult to discover the conceptual structure of the field. Therefore we consider it appropriate to adopt a half-way position which consists in using an alphabetical ordering while increasing the number of sub-lemmas, and cross-references, and including a thematic introduction to the field in question. Second, our findings also indicate a distinction between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries regarding an aspect which connects macrostructure and mediostructure: the use of a synthetic or analytical structure. With the exception of the Peter Collin Business 2001, the monolingual dictionaries prefer an analytical structure, and the bilingual dictionaries opt for a synthetic one, thus reinforcing the pedagogical value of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries in receptive and productive tasks respectively.

Our analysis of polysemy has been divided into two important lexicographical issues: the structure of the entry and the ordering of meaning and senses (cf. Section 1.1.). Considering that being systematic increases the pedagogic value of reference works, we have concentrated on the lexicographical techniques typically used to structure meanings and senses in pages and within entries. Our analysis has found that the business dictionaries studied have opted for a traditional approach to the representation of the information: “explicit information” (i.e., definitions and equivalents) precedes “implicit information” (i.e., examples), and they do not highlight explicit information, which diminishes their pedagogical value. This lack of pedagogical orientation is more evident in dictionaries like *Alianza Economía 1994* and *Pirámide Economía 2001* which prefer using flat articles.

There are, however, some signs of change, and some modern dictionaries have opted for a more manifest pedagogical orientation. For example, they use numbers instead of letters for the ordering of senses and meanings. This improvement is not widespread and therefore we can conclude that there are still possibilities of increasing the pedagogical value of business dictionaries by making them more systematic and consistent with both sense differentiation and sense ordering.



## Definitions in business dictionaries

### 3.1 Introduction

Hartmann (2001: 64) describes the microstructure as “a (preferably hierarchical) way of showing how the various information categories are arranged within entries.” That is to say, the microstructure governs the selection of information categories of the entry and its internal arrangement.

Any lexicographical work is initiated by deciding about two principal microstructural elements: the presentation of the lexical units, and the relevant information associated to each lexical unit. The first of these elements are the mechanisms of differentiation and ordering of senses in polysemous lexical units (c.f. 2.5). Polysemy only has a secondary structuring potential, and therefore “polysemy indices” are only indicators of the repetition of a previously decided structural agreement determining the internal structure of the information categories.

The attention which experts have dedicated to the phenomenon of the internal organization of the microstructure is insufficient, with the exception of the groundbreaking article of Hausmann and Wiegand (1989). Al (1991), referring to the entry in the bilingual dictionary, distinguishes laconically between the three following components: (i) the “heading” (*tête*), which refers to the concept which we would designate as “lemma position”; (ii) the “translations”, that is, the “equivalents”; and (iii) the “syntagmatic part”, which in an indiscriminate way contains collocations and examples. In a similar way, Stein (1999) establishes a dichotomy between the descriptive part and the demonstrative part of the microstructure of the lexicographical work.

The overall structure of the dictionary article is conveniently represented graphically and we have chosen Wiegand’s model for this purpose (Figure 2).

This model is also used in the business dictionary, though, as we will see in Example (6) and in Figure 3, the left-hand ramification of traditional specialised dictionaries is frequently much simpler than that of general dictionaries. The right-hand ramification is more developed, something which reinforces our interest in going deeply into the study of the semantic component of the specialised business dictionary.



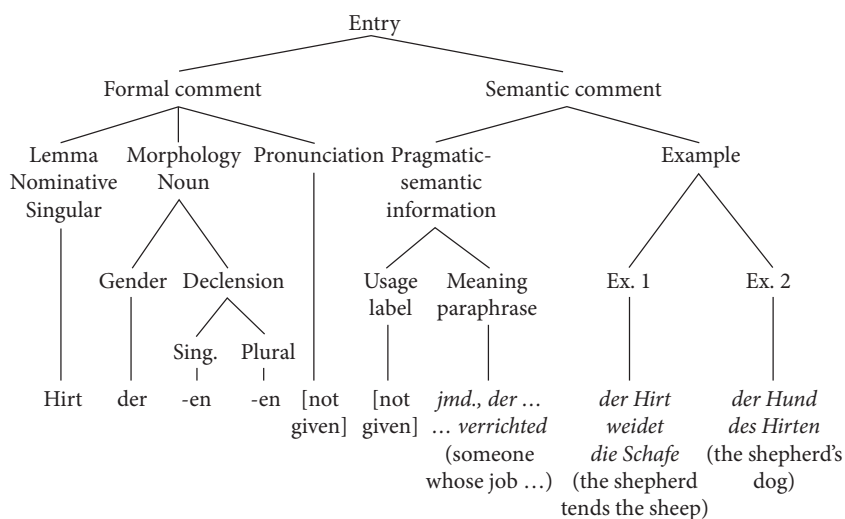


Figure 2. Model of the lexicographical article (Wiegand 1991: 44)

(6) The lexicographical article in Ariel Economía 2002:

*perk col n*: REL LAB plus, extra, emolumento, ventaja ◊ *Salary plus perks*; V. *perquisite*. [*Perk* es la abreviación coloquial de *perquisite*. Exp: **perk up col** (animarse, repuntar, mejorar ◊ *Business is perking up*)].

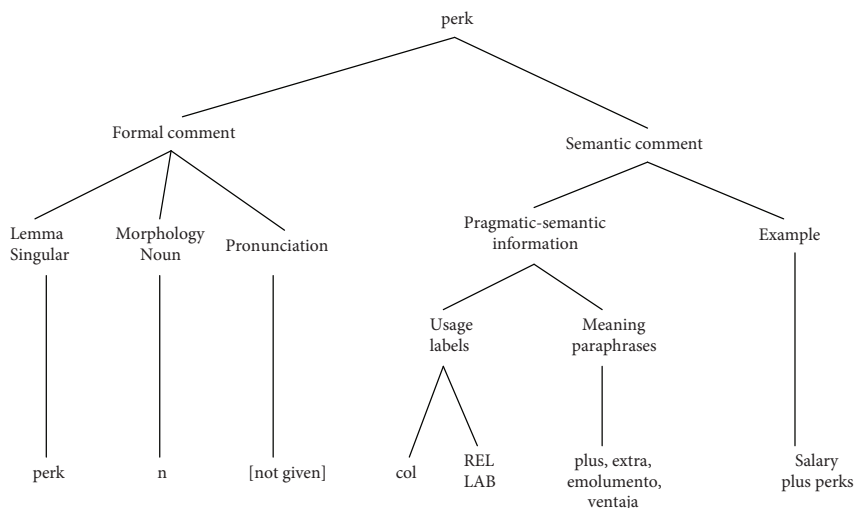


Figure 3. Application of the model to the entry *perk* in Ariel Economía 2002

### 3.2 Definitions in business dictionaries

In its application to the microstructure of the dictionary, the term *meaning* refers to two realities. On the one hand, it refers to the different “senses” of a word (cf. Section 1.1). On the other hand, “meaning” is the systematic structure which relates items in a variety of ways, as occurs when the sense relations of polysemy, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, or hyperonymy are established among lexical units (Van der Meer and Sansome 2001). In this book we will consider meaning from the first of these viewpoints.

In the last two decades an important change has been observed – possibly as a consequence of the growth of pedagogical lexicography – promoting the idea that the dictionary is becoming a work of integral reference for the student of L2, which means that the traditional concept of the dictionary is amplified to make room for syntactical, phraseological, pragmatic, cultural information, etc. For example, the DAFA offers an innovative type of argumental definitions and means to differentiate synonyms and antonyms. Bogaards (2002) comments that the definitions in the DAFA are given in an explicit and standardised way, that all definitions are followed by examples, that many definitions are preceded by indications about the use of the word in a particular meaning, and that whenever possible, synonyms or antonyms are added. This new role of the dictionary can be observed by analysing different definitional styles.

**Table 11.** Methods of explanation of meaning used

	Definition	Exemplification	Equivalent	Expansion of abbreviated forms	Encyclopaedic information
Alianza Economía 1994	•				•
Management 2003	•				•
Longman Business 1989	•	•			
Oxford Business 1993	•	•			
Peter Collin Business 2001	•	•			•
Business Spanish 1997					
Spa- Eng		•	•		
Eng. Spa.		•	•		
Pirámide Economía 2001					
Eng. Spa		•	•		
Spa. Eng.		•	•		
Ariel Economía 2002					
Eng. Spa.		•	•		•
Spa. Eng.			•		

Lexicographers have at their disposal various methods for the explanation of meaning, although it is true that the definition is the most widely used (Steiner 1984; Wiegand 1999). Ilson (1986, 1990, 1992, 1999a, b) enumerates and characterises in detail the

different methods. His taxonomy comprises exemplification, expansion of abbreviated forms, discussion on the use of grammatical words, definition by paraphrase, by synonym and illustrations. The dictionaries of our sample use some of these methods, as shown in Table 11.

Given the importance of these methods for giving an explanation of the meaning of a word, phrase, or term, we distinguish three kinds of definitions: terminological, encyclopaedic and semantic definitions.

### **3.3 The terminological definition versus the semantic and the encyclopaedic definition**

In spite of the similarity between lexicography and terminology, it is common to differentiate between the “semantic definition” and other types, such as the terminological and the encyclopaedic definition. Although there is no agreement about what “terminological definitions” are or how they are formulated, most scholars (for example, de Bessé 1990: 259) recognise that the majority of the so-called terminological definitions are not very useful.

#### **3.3.1 Terminological definitions**

The question of definition in terminology has been approached from very different angles by a large number of scholars: (i) from the perspective of what distinguishes terminological definition from semantic and encyclopaedic definitions (Chukwu 1993; Cabré 1993); (ii) from the point of view of content (ISO 1087); (iii) from the point of view of its structure (de Bessé 1990, 1997; Sager 1990; Tutin 1993). Most authors describe the terminological definition as “a brief statement that provides a clear understanding of the meaning of a specialised term presented in lexicographical or dictionary-like format.” (Sager 1990: 39) Others (see de Bessé 1997), however, oppose this approach and claim that the intension of the term diverges in each of the disciplines, thus opposing the harmonising view already mentioned.

Regarding contents, the object of the terminological definition is to determine by means of a linguistic formulation the constituent characteristics of the concept in order to establish how it converges or diverges from related concepts. Thus a concept is situated in a system or more specifically in the subject field it belongs to. Following this approach, scholars such as Sager (1990: 45–51) claim that the terminological definition has three functions.

1. The verification of the existence of a given term.
2. The vinculation of term and concept. Sager (1990) proposes defining the close relationship which exists between the definition and the operation of conceptual analysis as the basis of any terminological definition because this aims at both

providing a unique identification of a concept with reference to the conceptual system of which it forms part and classifying the concept within the system.

3. The explanation of a concept in agreement with several levels of knowledge. In other words, terminological definitions only claim to describe a concept within a particular subject field, thus admitting that concepts may have other definitions in other subject fields.

Although some minor variations are acknowledged (see Abbreviated Glossary of Terminology, ISO 1087), most traditional terminologists accept these characterisation as pertaining to such definition types known as traditional, analytical, logical, classical, Aristotelian, or intensional definitions. These are based on a logical or ontological classification consisting of a hyperonym and the necessary and sufficient characteristics which differentiate the concept from other related ones in the same field. (Temmerman 1997)

However, more modern approaches to terminology (Temmerman 2000), point out the manifest insufficiency of the definitional techniques imposed by tradition to detail the nature of certain concepts and certain fields of knowledge, especially those of an inter- or multidisciplinary nature, as well as its incapacity to transmit knowledge efficiently. She adds that in certain fields there exist a great number of what the GTT denominates *concepts* whose structure is not governed by logical or ontological principles. Hence, in her Sociocognitive Theory of Terminology, Temmerman (2001) proposes to replace the traditional definition by a template representation that allows describing the flexible aspects of the term. In this way, while the integrating categories of a field responsive to a logical or ontological structuring can be defined in agreement with principles of definition by intension proposed by the GTT, those which present a prototypical structuring will be described preferably as a function of the template, which she herself defines as “a blank element which contains formats of repeating elements.” (Temmerman 2000: 73)

In her catalogue of definitions, Larivière (1996) uses different parameters which we shall employ as classification axes of the definitions used in the monolingual business dictionaries we are examining. Our analysis deals with the articles beginning with the sequence *pe-*.

1. Considering the nature of the reference work, three types of definition are distinguished: (i) “lexical” or “semantic definition”, which, in the form of a synonym, is presented in language dictionaries in order to distinguish the senses and uses of lexical units;. (ii) “conceptual definition”, which coincides with the intensional definition characteristic of the GTT and which appears in terminological vocabularies; (iii) “referential” or “encyclopaedic definition”, which comprises either a lexical definition, or a conceptual definition of the *definiendum* accompanied by a description of accessory features, and which forms a part of works of an encyclopaedic origin. Regarding the semantic and conceptual definitions, de Bessé (1997) disagrees with the previous claims. In his view neither type of definition can involve a synonym, an antonym, a cross-reference, or a morpho-semantic definition

because they do not adequately describe the concept denoted by the term. He insists that, in spite of some criticism, the conceptual definition is the most appropriate for terminological purposes. Table 12 shows the results of our analysis of the type of definition employed by the monolingual business dictionaries studied.

**Table 12.** Types of definition used according to the nature of the dictionaries

	Lexical/Semantic definition	Conceptual definition	Referential/encyclopaedic definition
Alianza Economía 1994			•
Management 2003		•	•
Longman Business 1989	•	•	•
Oxford Business 1993		•	
Peter Collin Business 2001		•	

2. Considering the contents of the definition, we differentiate between three types of terminological definitions whose relevance is acknowledged by the GTT: (i) definition by intension, which Temmerman (2000: 58) calls *generic*; (ii) definition by extension, which frequently is accompanied by the definition by intension (intensional definition); (iii) partitive or meronymic definition, which describes the relationships of meronymy. In spite of the potential usefulness of these last two types of definition, they are rarely used because of the difficulty involved in exhaustively describing the range of the concepts along these two axes. Larivière (1996) also considers a fourth type of definition. For her a categorical definition is used for signalling the relationship between a notion and a category of thought or a class of objects. In this book, we have not considered this fourth type because it is subsumed under one or the other three types (see Table 13).

**Table 13.** Types of definitions used according to the contents of the dictionaries

	Definition by intension	Definition by extension	Partitive definition
Alianza Economía 1994	•		
Management 2003	•	•	
Longman Business 1989	•		
Oxford English 1993	•		
Peter Collin Business 2001	•		

3. Considering user needs, agreeing with Sager (1990), Temmerman (2000) distributes the terminological definitions on three levels which correspond to the necessities of three groups of users: (i) a conceptual definition which describes the

intension of the concept; (ii) a relational definition, similar to the definition by synthesis proposed by Sager (1990: 42), which comprises the superordinated terms, the hyponyms and the co-ordinated terms of the notion; (iii) a functional definition which permits the user with a lower knowledge of the field to employ the concept. This is similar to the encyclopaedic definitions; as we will observe below. Blanchon (1997) also differentiates between definitions which appear in mono- and bilingual dictionaries. We have not considered this distinction, as we are studying only monolingual dictionaries in this chapter (see Table 14).

**Table 14.** Types of definitions according to the users' needs

	Conceptual definition	Relational definition	Functional/encyclopaedic definition
Alianza Economía 1994			•
Management 2003	•	•	•
Longman Business 1989		•	•
Oxford Business 1993		•	
Peter Collin Business 2001		•	

In synthesis we observe that the dictionaries of the sample employ recognised and varied definitional models. This lends support to Rousseau's (1983) claim that the contents and structure of definitions depend on such factors as: (i) the various perspectives from which definitions can be approached; (ii) the ontological nature of the field; (iii) the type of terminological reference work; and (iv) the level of the user's knowledge. Taking the user into account represents a point of convergence with the lexicographical work and the importance of communicative factors in terminology.

The first scholar to carry out a detailed study of the user's needs in specialised reference works as far as the definition is concerned is Sager (1990: 49), who employs the notion of "levels of understanding" for establishing the following typology of users: (i) specialised translators, who require a definition only in those cases in which the equivalent given in the dictionary seems unsatisfactory; (ii) specialists who need the definition in order to situate the notion in the corresponding system of concepts; (iii) non-initiates, who, given their level of knowledge, need a definition of an encyclopaedic character. So, at present the user's communicative needs and requirement of specialised knowledge has been incorporated as another parameter at the moment of formulating terminological definitions. The preparation of terminological compendia thus tends to coincide with the approaches and methods taken by general lexicography.

Regarding differences between terminology and lexicography, Sager (1990) and Meyer and Mackintosh (2000), for example, state that the terminological definition possesses a high informative value, especially because it is eminently referential and its principal function is the specification of a concept in the core of a system. That is to say,

the terminological definition shows a high degree of specialisation, refers to an object denoted by the linguistic sign and conceptual reality, and tends to have a normative/prescriptive value. The semantic definition, on the contrary, is less precise, tends to explain the meaning of a word, and emphasises the linguistic nature of the term, proved by the fact that, instead of an explanation of the meaning of the lexical unit in question the lexicographer recurs to glosses, paraphrases or synonyms in the case of the monolingual dictionary, or equivalents in the case of the bilingual dictionary.

In order to verify the truth of these observations, we have analysed the lemma *public relations* / *relaciones públicas* [Example (7)] in the monolingual business dictionaries studied, in a terminological database (TERMIUM Plus®), and in two general monolingual dictionaries (Oxford Dictionary 1998 and Diccionario de uso 2001).

(7) Definitions

(a) Longman Business 1989

**public relations** ADVTG. the business of forming and preserving in the eyes of the public an attractive image of a person or organization. Cf. publicity. *Abbr.* P.R.

(b) Oxford Business 1993

<p><b>public relations</b>     <i>noun</i>     (advertising)</p> <p>1 the work of presenting a good image of an organization to the public, esp by providing information: <i>She works in public relations.</i></p> <p>2 the relationship between an organization and the public: <i>It is important for a company to maintain good public relations.</i></p>	<p>/, pʌblɪk rɪˈleɪʃnz/</p> <p><b>note</b> plural noun, used with a plural verb</p> <p><b>abbr</b> PR</p> <p>▶◀ a <b>public relations</b> agency, campaign, manager, officer</p> <p>▶ <b>press release</b></p>
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(c) Peter Collin Business 2001

**public relations (PR)** [ˈpʌblɪk rɪˈleɪʃnz]  
*plural noun* keeping good relations between a company or a group and the public so that people know what the company is doing and can approve of it; *a public relations man explained the company's decision; he works in public relations; a public relations firm handles all our publicity; a public relations exercise* = a campaign to improve public relations; **public relations officer (PRO)** = person in an organization who is responsible for public relations activities

## (d) Oxford Dictionary 1998

**public relations** ► plural noun [*also treated as sing.*] the professional maintenance of a favourable public image by a company or other organization or a famous person.

- the state of the relationship between a company or other organization or a famous person and the public: *companies justifies the cost in terms of improved public relations.*

## (e) Diccionario de uso 2001

**R. públicas.** 1 Actividad profesional destinada a promocionar a una persona, institución o entidad mediante la gestión personal o empleando otras técnicas de comunicación. 2 Persona que ejerce dicha profesión. ≈ Relacionista

## (f) Alianza Economía 1994

**RELACIONES PÚBLICAS.** El «Instituto de Relaciones Públicas de EE.UU.» las define como el «conjunto de medios a través de los cuales una organización aspira a desarrollar un entendimiento recíproco entre ella misma y su público». Si bien se refieren con frecuencia a actividades del tipo de conferencias de prensa, comunicados a los medios de información pública, etc., cubren un área de actividades mucho más amplia en relación con las administraciones públicas, grupos de consumidores, sindicatos, etc. Véase también *gin and tonic brigade*. E.i.: *public relations*.

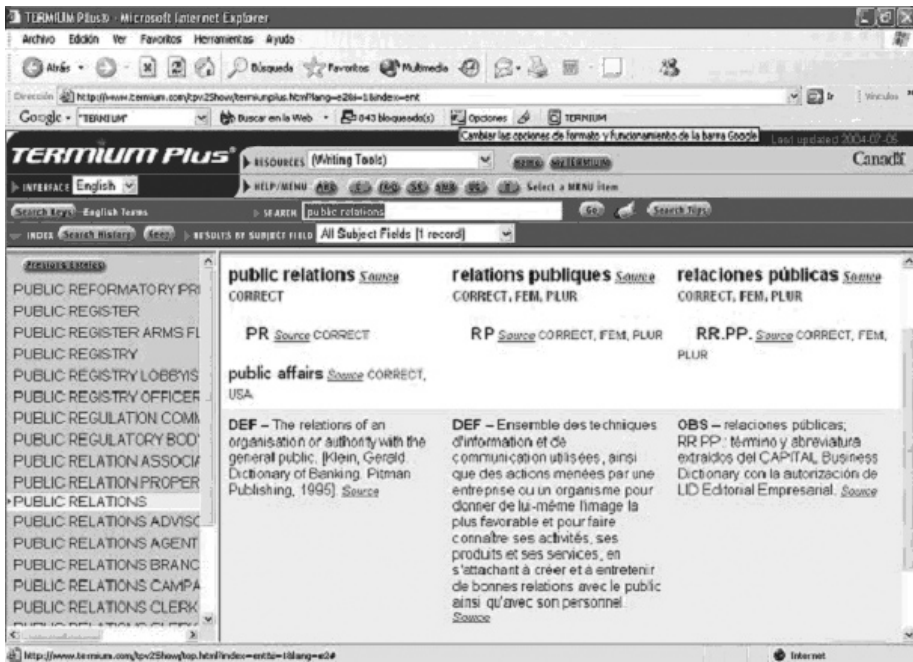
## (g) Management 2003

**PR abbr Mktng** public relations: the presentation of an organization and its activities to target audiences with the aim of gaining awareness and understanding, influencing public opinion, generating support, and developing trust and co-operation. Public relations programmes aim to create and maintain a positive *corporate image* and enhance an organisation's reputation. The work of a public relations department includes research into current perceptions of the organisation, the pro-



duction of publicity material, the organisation of events and *sponsorship* programmes, and the evaluation of responses to these activities. Target audiences include the media, government bodies, customers and suppliers, investors, the wider community, or an organisation's own employees. Public relations practice originated in the United States in the mid 19th century. Public relations forms part of an organisation's overall *external communication* strategy.

(h) T ERMIUM Plus®



All the works analysed use analytical definitions. This finding indicates, firstly, that there are no notable formal differences between the semantic definition and the purely terminological one. Secondly, that both in dictionaries of lexicographic and terminological orientation the prevailing type of definition is intensional.

Having found no formal differences, we want to examine whether there are any differences in content since terminologies are said to contain more conceptual information and more rigorous definitions.

Table 15 shows the results of our analysis regarding the conceptual features of the term *public relations* / *relaciones públicas*.

Table 15. The conceptual features of the term *public relations/relaciones públicas*

	<i>(genus)</i>	<i>(differentiae)</i>
Oxford Dictionary1998	maintenance	professional // of a favourable public image // by a company or other organisation or a famous person
Diccionario de uso 2001	actividad*	profesional // destinada a promocionar a una persona, institución o entidad // mediante la gestión personal o empleando otras técnicas de comunicación**
Alianza Economía1994	(conjunto de) medios***	a través de los cuales una organización aspira a // desarrollar un entendimiento recíproco entre ella misma y su público
Management2003	presentation	of an organisation and its activities // to target audiences // with the aim of (a) gaining awareness and understanding, (b) influencing public opinion, (c) generating support, and (d) developing trust and cooperation
Longman Business 1989	business	of forming and preserving // in the eyes of the public // an attractive image // of a person or organization
Oxford Business1993	work	of presenting // a good image // of an organisation // to the public // esp. by providing information
Peter Collin Business 2001	–	keeping good relations // between a company or a group and the public // so that people know what the company is doing and approve of it
TERMIUM Plus®	relations	of an organisation or authority // with the general public

\* activity (our translation)

\*\* professional // aim at promoting people, institutions or organizations // through personal activity or using other communication techniques (own adaptation).

\*\*\* different means through which an organization aims at establishing a sort of understanding between public and itself (own adaptation)

Independently of the work chosen, in the majority of the cases (Oxford Dictionary 1998; Diccionario de uso 2001; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993) the selected hyperonym denotes a type of activity (*maintenance, actividad, presentation, business and work*). At the same time, the only real terminological compendium of the sample differs from the rest by giving *relations* as a superordinate term. Very broadly, the analysis shows that the term under investigation is an activity:

1. of professional character (Oxford Dictionary 1998; Diccionario de uso 2001);
2. which permits a physical or legal person, or an institution (Oxford Dictionary 1998; Diccionario de uso 2001; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993; Peter Collin Business 2003);
3. to present, maintain or promote their/its image (Oxford Dictionary 1998; Diccionario de uso 2001; Management 2003; Longman 1989; Peter Collin Business 2001);
4. for winning the favour or support of public opinion (Oxford Dictionary 1998; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993; Peter Collin Business 2001);
5. augmenting the degree of public recognition of the company (Management 2003);
6. and winning the confidence and co-operation (Management 2003);
7. by means of the furnishing of information (Oxford Business 1993); and
8. certain means of personal management, among others (Diccionario de uso 2001) (see Table 16).

Table 16. Conceptual features of *public relations/relaciones públicas*

	<i>Professional</i>	<i>Institution, physical or legal person</i>	<i>Present, promote or maintain images</i>	<i>Win support/favour of public opinion</i>	<i>Public recognition</i>	<i>Win confidence and cooperation</i>	<i>Furnishing information</i>	<i>Personal management</i>
Oxford 1998	•	•	•	•				
Diccionario uso 2001	•	•	•					•
Alianza Economía 1994								
Management 2003		•	•	•	•	•		
Longman Business 1989		•	•	•				
Oxford Business 1993		•	•	•			•	
Peter Collin Business 2001		•	•	•				

Table 16 shows that the dictionary which includes the greatest number of characteristics is the Management 2003, followed very closely by the Oxford Dictionary 1998, the Diccionario de uso 2001 and the Oxford Business 1993. These data are surprising if we consider the nature of these dictionaries. Thus, while the Management 2003 and the Oxford Business 1993 coincide in being works of a terminological vocation (although aiming at different groups of users), both the Oxford Dictionary 1998 and the Diccionario de uso 2001 are lexicographical inventories of a general character. On the other hand, the dictionaries coincide in the attribution of what are presupposed to be the essential characteristics of the concept: “it is a question of an activity that is carried out by a person (physical or legal) or an institution with the purpose of presenting, maintaining or promoting its image and winning favour in that way in public opinion.” In our study we have not included the definition of the term which is provided by TERMIUM Plus®; its conceptual content is radically different and considerably poorer, not only in the selection of the hyperonym, but also, perhaps more importantly, in the selection of the conceptual characteristics. Therefore, at least in what refers to the sub-sample selected, it cannot be concluded that the terminological definition differs essentially from the lexicographical one. Pearson states that:

While terminography and general language lexicography operate as two separate disciplines, there are principles which are applied in each of these disciplines which could usefully be adopted in the other. In the case of definitions, general language lexicographers could benefit from the very strict approach adopted by terminologists particularly in relation to the naming of superordinates, and terminologists may have something to learn from certain lexicographical principles in relation to phrasing of definitions. (Pearson 1998: 6)

### 3.3.2 Encyclopaedic definitions

Regarding encyclopaedic definitions some authors believe that they do not exist. In very plain words, de Bessé (1990: 253, 1997: 64) refers to the “fallacy of the encyclopaedic definition” and proceeds to refute the status of definition which traditionally has been attributed to encyclopaedic information. He claims that unlike lexicographical reference works, encyclopaedias do not possess any specific linguistic character, notwithstanding the existence of some type of discourse which might be considered typical of an encyclopaedia; in other words, what has come to be designated as an encyclopaedic definition is no more than a compendium of extra-linguistic knowledge of a reality, this being an aspect on which it converges with the terminological definition. (de Bessé 1990: 254; 1997: 65) In the case of the terminological definition, the bond is established between the term and the concept, while in the encyclopaedic definition the links are established between what is defined and the object of the reality which it designates, in such a way that the encyclopaedic definition has an eminently referential character. Overlooking trivial formal differences which concern, *inter alia*, the greater

extension of the encyclopaedic definition, we can state that the disagreement between the encyclopaedic definition and the terminological one rests primarily on the eminently conceptual nature of the latter. (de Bessé 1990: 254; 1997: 66)

To have a clearer picture, we have analyzed the definitions corresponding to the term *poison pill* / *píldora venenosa* (Example 8), both quantitatively (Table 17), and qualitatively (Table 18). The analysis compares four encyclopaedic definitions and one conceptual definition. The encyclopaedic definitions are found in the following dictionaries: Alianza Economía 1994; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; and Peter Collin Business 2001. The conceptual definition is found in the pedagogical business dictionary Oxford Business 1993.

## (8) Definitions

### (a) Alianza Economía 1994

**PÍLDORA VENENOSA.** Expresión cargada de ironía, procedente de las finanzas inglesas y norteamericanas, para aludir a una operación defensiva destinada a desanimar una OPA hostil. La sociedad amenazada puede conceder a los actuales accionistas derechos a comprar bonos o acciones preferentes. En caso de adquisición, tales títulos serían convertibles en acciones de la empresa adquiriente, o deberían ser repagados por ésta. E.i.: *poison pill*.

### (b) Management 2003

**poison pill** *Fin* a measure taken by a company to avoid a hostile takeover, for example, the purchase of a business interest that will make the company unattractive to the potential buyer (*slang*)

### (c) Longman Business 1989

**poison pill** FIN. & STK. EXCH. (*colloq.* mainly U.S.A.) a form of action taken by the directors of a company to defend their position when expecting a takeover battle. The directors are given power, e.g. to issue special warrants which shareholders can use if someone gets possession of 20% or more of the company's shares and which also gives the shareholders the right to buy (a) their company's shares at three or more times the current market price and (b) the opposing company's shares at only half their market price. The result is that, for a merger to take place, the

opposing company must honour the terms of the special warrants, which it can do only at far too great a cost.

(d) Oxford Business 1993

<p><b>poison pill</b> <i>noun</i> (<i>informal</i>) a form of defence used by a company to prevent or weaken the effect of an unwanted takeover bid, eg by selling off important assets: <i>use poison pill tactics to stave off unwelcome takeover bids</i></p>	<p>/, pɔɪzn 'pɪl/ pl poison pills ▶◀ a <b>poison pill</b> defence, option, tactic ▶ <b>asset stripping, scorched earth policy</b></p>
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(e) Peter Collin Business 2001

**poison pill** ['pɔɪzn 'pɪl] *noun* action taken by a company to make itself less attractive to a potential takeover bid

COMMENT: in some cases, the officers of a company will vote themselves extremely high redundancy payments if a takeover is successful; or a company will borrow large amounts of money and give it away to the shareholders as dividends, so that the company has an unacceptable high level of borrowing

**Table 17.** Absolute and relative number of words in encyclopaedic and conceptual definitions

	Number of words per article	Words by definition	Words by definition (relative terms)
Alianza Economía 1994	62	44	70'97%
Management 2003	31	29	93'55%
Longman Business 1989	118	110	93'22%
Oxford Business 1993	50	25	50%
Peter Collin Business 2001	65	65	100%

Table 17 shows that there is an appreciable quantitative difference between the two types of definitions. In relative terms, we observe that the encyclopaedic definitions occupy between 70 and 100% of the total number of words, while this figure is situated about 50% in the conceptual definition. Contrasting with the rest of the monolingual dictionaries, the Oxford Business 1993 is the only dictionary which, more or less, accords with methods and practices of pedagogical monolingual dictionaries and incorporates information belonging to all the levels of the linguistic dictionary. The other dictionaries of the sample, however, resort to more words and produce more

encyclopaedia-oriented definitions, perhaps because they aim primarily at transferring information of an eminently factual character to learners.

Our qualitative analysis studies the articles reproduced above in order to determine whether the fundamentally conceptual character of the terminological definition can be employed as a differentiating parameter from the encyclopaedic definition. We have classified the information according to its nature (Table 18).

Table 18 shows that all the definitions of the dictionaries coincide, independent of their nature, in assigning the lemma to a hyperonym of a similar meaning (*operation, measure, form of action, form of defence and action*). The only article which incorporates a semantic feature “defence” in the *genus* – the Oxford Business 1993 – is precisely the one that contains an eminently conceptual definition. As for the characteristics of the concept (*differentiae*), these comprise:

1. the defensive nature of the action (Alianza Economía 1994);
2. its character of company strategy (Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993 and Peter Collin Business 2001);
3. the purpose, namely, to avoid hostile takeover bids (Alianza Economía 1994; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993 and Peter Collin Business 2001).

So, the conceptual features which are covered by all the definitions are comparable. In other words, the encyclopaedic definitions do not differ from the purely conceptual ones except in the addition of factual information, which, besides, is usually distinguishable:

1. by graphic means (three dots in the case of the Alianza Economía 1994 and Longman 1989).
2. by linguistic expressions which denote the additional characteristics (*for example* and *e.g.* in the case of the Management 2003 and Oxford Business 1994 respectively).
3. or by parallel typographical means (the use of a box in the case of the Peter Collin Business 2001).

Focussing on the purely encyclopaedic information, we see how in all cases it only illustrates the concrete forms that can be acquired by the *poison pill* (*píldora venenosa*). In sum, our analysis shows that there is no clear distinction between both types of definitions, and that some dictionaries seem to resort to encyclopaedic definitions to comply with lexicographical practices that require meeting the users’ needs in the design of the compendia.

Table 18. Conceptual and encyclopaedic definitions

	Hyperonym /Genus	Differentia(e)	Encyclopaedic data
Alianza Economía 1994	operación*	defensiva // destinada a desanimar una OPA hostil	la sociedad amenazada puede conceder a los actuales accionistas derechos a comprar bonos o acciones preferentes. En caso de adquisición, tales títulos serán convertibles en acciones de la empresa adquirente, o deberían ser repagados por ésta.
Management 2003	a measure	(taken by a company) to avoid a hostile takeover	(for example), the purchase of a business interest that will make the company unattractive to the potential buyer
Longman Business 1989	a form of action	(taken by the directors of a company) to defend their position when expecting a takeover battle	The directors are given power, e.g. to issue special warrants which shareholders can use if someone gets possession of 20% or more of the company's shares and which also give the shareholders the right to buy (a) their company's shares at three or more times the current market price and (b) the opposing company's shares at only half their market price. The result is that, for a merger to take place, the opposing company must honour the terms of the special warrants, which it can do only at far too great a cost.
Oxford Business 1993	a form of defence	(used by a company) to prevent or weaken the effect of an unwanted takeover bid	e.g., by selling off important assets
Peter Collin Business 2001	action	(taken by a company) to make itself less attractive to a potential takeover bid	in some cases, the officers of a company will vote themselves extremely high redundancy payments if a takeover is successful; or a company will borrow large amounts of money and give it away to the shareholders as dividends, so that the company has an unacceptably high level of borrowing.

\* action (*genus*) taken to fight off a hostile takeover bid (*differentiae*). The targeted corporation can grant its shareholders the right to acquire more shares or preference shares. If the acquisition is completed, such shares will be part of the equity of the new society or will be repurchased by the new corporation (encyclopaedic data) (own adaptation).



### 3.3.3 Semantic definitions

The semantic definition is a metalinguistic operation which has its origin in the flexibility of the language for referring to itself. It constitutes, together with the equivalent in the bilingual dictionary, the information category *par excellence* of the lexicographical work. Ilson (1987), for example, awards the definition an outstanding place when pointing out the technique the dictionary employs in order to explain meaning. In recent years compilers of pedagogical dictionaries have developed a series of definitional vocabularies intended for the formulation of clear, understandable definitions. In spite of this, some dictionaries continue using definitions which are difficult to grasp and do not transmit proper syntactical and/or collocational information. They seem to adhere to a lexicographical tradition which tends to ignore new developments, especially those which avoid the analytical definition.

It is true, however, that more and more authors propose new definitional formulae based on mechanisms of acquisition and processing of meaning. (McFarquhar and Richards 1983; Cummings et al. 1994) This movement runs counter to the lexicographical tradition, started in the 18th century, which saw the consolidation of two tendencies in analytical definitions: (i) reductionism; and (ii) the principle that the definition is equivalent to the necessary and sufficient conditions of the *definiendum*. Since then different formulae have appeared and given rise to diverse definitional styles, permitting the establishment of different taxonomies. Svensén's model (1993) probably enjoys the widest acceptance.

1. Definition by paraphrase. Use of synonyms of the lemma of the article. Weinreich states (1962: 40) that it is not a definition in the true sense, as "it is used because it is economical, but it only sends the user back to another entry." Although this type of definition permits the liberation of space, it has the inconvenience that perfect synonyms do not exist, something which complicates the definition itself. This style is only suitable when the user does not require a high degree of semantic precision and the synonyms in question are not polysemous. The only rule that must be taken into account is that the synonym must fulfil the principle of substitution, and must not have more connotations than the lemma itself.
2. The traditional, analytical, referential, classical, formal, logical, Aristotelian definition comprises both the definitions by intension and the definitions by extension. The first of these, as we have just seen, has become the archetype of the semantic definition. This type of definition obeys the formula "X is a member of the class Y distinguished from other members by the feature(s) N" (Hartmann and James 1998: 36), and is the object of a great amount of criticisms. Hanks (1979) believes that this type of definition is absurd because of its distance from reality and its lack of any communicative value. Alvar Ezquerro (1993) reminds us that not all the lexis is structured in agreement with logical relationships of inclusion. Finally, Béjoint (2000) states that it is not empirically demonstrated that this is the

optimum method for the transmission of meaning; principally because meaning is not usually perceived in a fragmentary way.

3. Combined definition. It combines the two previous types (Benson et al. 1986), consisting of an intensional definition supported by one or more synonyms.
4. Description of the use of the lexical unit, which is reserved for the explanation of the meaning of grammatical words.<sup>1</sup>

Table 19 covers the analysis of the monolingual dictionaries of the sample. It shows the definitional style used by each one of the dictionaries, as observed from all the articles that begin with the sequence *pe-*.

**Table 19.** Definitional style used in the monolingual business dictionaries

	Definition by paraphrase	Analytical definition	Combined definition
Alianza Economía 1994		•	
Management 2003		•	
Longman Business 1989	• (occasionally)	•	
Oxford Business 1993	• (occasionally)	•	
Peter Collin Business 2001	• (occasionally)	•	•(occasionally)

Table 19 shows that the analytical definition predominates in the monolingual dictionaries of the sample. Besides, when the lemmas are terms in the fields of economy and business, an intensional definition is mostly preferred for explaining their contents. From a didactic point of view, this definitional style is considered the most suitable for conveying the meaning of a noun-term to a student of the field, whether it be in L1 or in L2. Example (9) shows the unsuitability of the definition by paraphrase in the contexts of teaching-learning business English and/or Spanish.

(9) Definition by paraphrase in the Peter Collin Business 2001

**payoff** ['peɪɒf] *noun* (a) money paid to finish paying something which is owed, such as money paid to a worker when his employment is terminated (b) profit or reward; *one of the payoffs of a university degree is increased earning power*

What we have just pointed out obliges the compilers of pedagogical dictionaries to seek a new concept of definition. As a starting point, they can consider the deficiencies

1. In Hartmann and James (1998) appears a much more elaborate taxonomy, although in some degree it may be subjected to the previously mentioned type. (Béjoint 2000) Among others, Hartmann and James refer to definitions which are contextual, encyclopaedic, popular, formulaic, humorous, implicit and, finally ostensive.

observed and commented on in the previous section and in the results of different empirical works which allow us to draw the following conclusions: (i) the definition by synonym is insufficient for the transmission of the meaning of a lexical unit to non-native speakers (Hornby 1965); (ii) such definitions are more complicated than the lemma to be defined.

Compilers of pedagogical monolingual dictionaries mistrust the usefulness of traditional definitional styles and propose a new type based on the use of complete sentences and of a controlled vocabulary with which they hope to satisfy the needs of the users. In the specialised monolingual dictionaries of the sample, we have analysed evidence of this new definitional style (Table 20). In particular, we have analysed their prefaces, usage notes and promotional material.

Table 20 shows that in three of the monolingual dictionaries of the sample, the group of users to which the works are directed seems clear: Alianza Economía 1994; Longman Business 1989 and Oxford Business 1993. In the Longman Business 1989, the method followed is declared, and it is the one proposed by West (1953).

The Cobuild 1987 presents definitions which are complete sentences, divided into two parts: the first of them – a clause with some circumstantial shading – shows the grammatical and lexical environment in which the lemma of the discourse typically appears; the second part – the principal clause – follows the example of traditional definitions and specifies the particular meaning of the lemma in the context established in the first part of the definition. In the words of Hanks (1987: 127): “the first part of each COBUILD explanation shows the use, while the second part explains the meaning.”

The first part specifies the phraseological, idiomatic pattern in which the lemma typically appears, but overall it has the disadvantage that there is at times redundancy and a lack of precision, especially in highly technical terms. This weakness can be observed in the definition of the term *pension* of which we offer a detailed study comparing the definitions which appears in the Cobuild 2001 and in the monolingual dictionaries of the sample (Example 10; Tables 21 and 22).

(10) Definitions

(a) Cobuild 2001

**pension pensions** Someone who has a **pension** receives a regular sum of money from the state or from a former employer because they have retired or because they are widowed or disabled  
 ... *struggling by on a pension*  
 ... *if you are not a member of a company scheme*

**Table 20.** Information on definitions in prefaces, usage notes and promotional materials

Dictionaries	Information on Definitions
Alianza Economía 1994	“(…) en la línea de facilitar una aproximación sucesiva a los temas [económicos], me pareció interesante que todos los términos fuesen explicados de manera sencilla, directa y no demasiado extensa” (author’s note to 1st edition, p.xvii)*.
Management 2003	“Each term in the dictionary has been given a clear, jargon-free definition” (User’s Guide, p. vii).
Longman Business 1989	“All the words and phrases listed are defined in simple English, in a restricted vocabulary of about 2000 words, based on Michael West’s <i>A General Service List of English Words</i> (...). This means that anyone who has studied English to intermediate level will be able to understand all the definitions in the dictionary” (Preface, p. v). “The definition gives the meaning of the main entry in simple sentences or phrases. (...) All the definitions are written using a 2000 word vocabulary based on West’s <i>General Service List of English Words</i> ” (Explanatory note, p. x-xi).
Oxford Business 1993	“(…) clear and helpful in its explanations of the meanings” (Preface, p. iii). “Business words and phrases are presented clearly and simply, but in enough detail to make this dictionary a valuable resource for students of business and experienced business people alike” (User’s Guide to the Dictionary). “Clear explanations of business words and phrases that are easy to understand (...)” (blurb).
Peter Collin Business 2001	“Each word is clearly defined in very simple English (only 470 words are used in the definitions which do not appear in the dictionary as main words)” (Preface to the first edition). “Over 12,500 business terms clearly defined in simple English” (blurb).

\* “(...) in order to allow users to come into contact with economic concepts I considered it useful to explain all the terms in a clear, straightforward and simple way.” (author’s comment in the 1st edition). (our translation).

(b) Alianza Economía 1994

**PENSIONES.** Cantidades que la *Seguridad Social* asigna al asegurado, o a sus beneficiarios, en una serie de situaciones concretas como jubilación, invalidez, viudedad, orfandad, etc. La evolución de la pirámide de población (véase *bomba de relojería demográfica*) y de la capacidad

financiera de la Seguridad Social, hace prácticamente imposible asegurar una pensión adecuada a todo trabajador en el futuro; por lo que han surgido los *fondos de pensiones* y los *planes de pensiones*. E.i.: *pensions*.

## (c) Longman Business 1989

**pension** *n.* (1) a regular weekly or monthly payment, usu. of a fixed sum of money, made to a person in return for past services, starting from the time of retirement from regular full-time work, and continuing until death. (2) a similar payment to a disabled person or to a widow.

## (d) Management 2003

**pension** *Fin* money received regularly after *retirement*, from a *personal pension* scheme, *occupational pension scheme*, or state pension scheme. Also known as *retirement pension*

## (e) Oxford Business 1993

**pension** *noun* (finance)  
a sum of money paid regularly by the State to people above a certain age, and to widowed or disabled people, or by an employer to an employee who has retired: *After working for the company for twenty years, he was offered a good retirement pension.* ○ *She finds it difficult to live on her state pension.* ○ *He was granted a small disablement pension after the accident.*

/ˈpenʃn/

pl pensions

▶◀ draw, pay, receive a **pension**; an old-age, a retirement **pension**

▶ retire, superannuation

## (f) Peter Collin Business 2001

**pension** [ˈpenʃən] 1 *noun* (a) money paid regularly to someone who no longer works; **retirement pension** or **old age pension** = state pension given to a man who is over 65 or a woman who is over 60; **government pension** or **state pension** = pension paid by the state; **occupational pension** = pension which is paid by the company by which a worker has been employed; **portable pension** = pension entitlement which can be moved from one company to another without loss (as a worker changes jobs); **pension contribu-**

**tions** = money paid by an employer or worker into a pension fund (b) **pension plan** or **pension scheme** = plan worked out by an insurance company which arranges for a worker to pay part of his salary over many years and receive a regular payment when he retires; **company pension scheme** = pension which is organized by a company for its staff; *he decided to join the company's pension scheme*; *contributory pension scheme* = scheme where the worker has to pay a proportion of his salary; **graduated pension scheme** = pen-

sion scheme where the benefit calculated as a percentage of the salary of each person in the scheme; **non-contributory pension scheme** = scheme where the employer pays in all the money on behalf of the worker; **occupational pension scheme** = pension scheme where the worker gets a pension from a fund set up by the company he or she has worked for, which is related to the salary he or she was earning; **personal pension plan** = pension plan which applies to one worker only, usually

a self-employed person, not to a group; **portable pension plan** = pension plan a worker can carry from one company to another as he changes jobs (c) **pension entitlement** = amount of pension which someone has the right to receive when he retires; **pension fund** = fund which receives contributions from employers and employees, being the money which provides pensions for retired members of staff 2 *verb* **to pension someone off** = to ask someone to retire and take a pension

**Table 21.** Concepts used in the definitions

	Hyperonym ( <i>genus</i> )	Characteristics ( <i>differentiae</i> )
Cobuild 2001	sum of money	received by someone // regular(ly) // from the state // or from a former employer // because they have retired // or because they are widowed // or because they are disabled
Alianza Economía 1994	cantidades*	que la Seguridad Social asigna // al asegurado // o a sus beneficiarios // en una serie de situaciones concretas como // jubilación // invalidez // viudedad // orfandad
Management 2003	money	received regularly // after retirement // from a personal pension scheme // occupational pension scheme // or state pension scheme
Longman Business 1989	(1) a payment (usu. of a fixed sum of money)  (2) a (similar) payment	(regular) weekly or monthly // made to a person // in return for past services // starting from the time of retirement from regular fulltime work // and continuing after death to a disabled person // or to a widow
Oxford Business 1993	a sum of money	paid regularly // by the State // to people above a certain age // and to widowed // or disabled people // or by an employer // to an employee who has retired
Peter Collin Business 2001	(a) money	paid regularly to someone // who no longer works

\* Sum of money (hyperonym) paid by the Social Security to a person or their heirs as state pension plan. It covers situations such as retirement, sickness, widowhood, orphanage, etc. (own adaptation).

The business dictionaries opt for a traditional definitional style. Cobuild 2001 uses complete sentences divided into two parts: (i) the first is made up of the subject and the principal verb, that is, *someone who has a pension*, which informs us, by means of a relative subordinate clause, of the grammatical and semantic conditions, of the contextual conditions, which together govern the use of the lemma, an element which is absent in the remainder of the definitions; (ii) the second part is made up of the syntactical predicate of the subject; here appears the meaning of the lemma. The comparison permits us to discover that the definitions in the monolingual business dictionaries are similar to this second part of the definition in the Cobuild 2001. That is to say, the definitions are comparable because the monolingual business dictionaries studied coincide in indicating that *pension* is money, (Management 2003; Peter Collin Business 2001); a sum of money (Cobuild 2001; Oxford Business 1993), a quantity (Alianza Economía 1994) which has the following characteristics:

1. the state (Cobuild 2001; Alianza Economía 1994; Management 2003);
2. a company (Cobuild 2001; Management 2003; Oxford Business 1993);
3. or a pension plan (Management 2003; Oxford Business 1993);
4. makes the said payment to a series of persons who are in the situation of;
5. in pension (Cobuild 2001; Alianza Economía 1994; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989, Oxford Business 1993, Peter Collin Business 2001);
6. widowed (Cobuild 2001; Alianza Economía 1994; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993);
7. handicapped (Cobuild 2001; Alianza Economía 1994; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993);
8. or orphaned (Alianza Economía 1994);
9. in a regular form (Cobuild 2001; Management 2003; Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993; Peter Collin Business 2001) (Table 22).

Table 22 points out that the definitions of Cobuild 2001 and Oxford Business 1993 offer more conceptual information than the rest of the monolingual business dictionaries studied; both are pedagogical dictionaries (learners' dictionaries). Consequently, the data of our analysis show that the criticism of the definitional style of Cobuild has not prevented its style being copied by other publishers.

Following Pearson (1998) we also consider using the Cobuild definitional patterns because of the simplicity of their formulation, the high amount of information communicated, and the incorporation of the linguistic and situational environment into the definition.

Table 22. Concepts covered in the definitions of *pension/pensión*

	paid by the state	paid by a company	paid by a pension plan	on pension	widowed	handicapped	orphaned	regularly
Cobuild 2001	•	•		•	•	•		•
Alianza Economía 1994	•			•	•	•	•	
Management 2003	•	•	•	•				•
Longman Business 1989				•	•	•		•
Oxford Business 1993		•	•	•	•	•		•
Peter Collin Business 2001				•				•

### 3.4 Conclusion

After a brief survey of the structure of the dictionary article, we have studied the definition, the category most closely associated to the concept of “meaning” which has been understood in this book as the set of conditions which must be satisfied by a lexical unit in order to denote the extralinguistic reality/ies which correspond(s) to each of its senses. We have also stated that the representation of meaning in LSP dictionaries must adapt to the use of dictionaries as pedagogical tools in as much as they are becoming an integral reference work for the student of an L2.

In our view, this new role will have an impact on the definitional style of LSP dictionaries. Hence, we have analysed the definitional style of the monolingual business dictionaries of the sample in order to see how they cope with three kinds of definitions – terminological, encyclopaedic, and semantic – that can be found in LSP dictionaries. Our analysis intended, firstly, to look for quantitative and/or qualitative differences in the dictionaries sampled, and, secondly, to present our case in favour of using a definitional style similar to the one employed in monolingual learner’s dictionaries.

The question of terminological definition has been approached from different perspectives. The one we are most interested in considers that terminological definitions are different from encyclopaedic (for some scholars, e.g. de Bessé (1990), this type of definition does not even exist) or semantic definitions. Terminological definitions provide a brief but unmistakable definition of a concept, thus allowing the user to place it in the conceptual structuring of the field.

Comparing the definitions of the monolingual business dictionaries sampled with those of two general dictionaries (one Spanish; one English), and a terminological



database, we have found that there are no formal differences among the definitional styles of these compendia, that all of them resort to similar (even the same) basic concepts, and that the pedagogical dictionaries included in the sample use the large number of conceptual characteristics in the definition of the term studied. In sum, our data do not support those scholars who argue not only that these three types of definitions show different features, but also that terminological definitions tend to be more precise and adequate.

We have established that encyclopaedic definitions do not define the terms conceptually but referentially. They are perfectly adequate for relating the conceptual field of a domain to its extralinguistic reality.

Our analysis on the use of encyclopaedic definitions in the dictionaries sampled show two interesting findings. First, encyclopaedic definitions tend not to be used by pedagogically-oriented dictionaries, perhaps because they do not transmit conceptual knowledge, but factual information. Second, encyclopaedic definitions do not differ much from the purely conceptual ones, except in the addition of factual information, usually given by using graphic, linguistic, and/or typographical means.

Finally, in recent years semantic definitions have become a subject of interest. There are more and more authors who propose new definitional formulae based on mechanisms of acquisition and processing of meaning. Within this new theoretical framework, this book proposes that LSP dictionaries adopt simpler definitional styles which favour students' encoding and decoding. Our analysis has shown that business dictionaries tend to ignore the user by continuing to employ traditional definitional styles. This offers less conceptual information (for example, in our study we observe that pedagogical dictionaries used more concepts in their definitions of the terms studied), and made them very complex and difficult for students to use.

As a final conclusion, following Pearson (1998), our findings indicate that LSP dictionaries might conveniently adopt the Cobuild definitional formula because of the simplicity of its formulation, the high amount of information communicated, and the incorporation of the linguistic and situational environment into the definition. This lends support to offering more and better syntactical and collocational information, and being of more help to students of specialised languages.

## Equivalence in business dictionaries

### 4.1 Introduction

The concept of “bilingual lexicography” has become the subject of controversy. Tarp (2005c: 39), for example, suggests that bilinguality is a gradual phenomenon and that the concept of a bilingual dictionary “embraces a whole variety of dictionaries with different relations between the material written in the two languages.” In spite of it, the relationship between translation and bilingual lexicography is very close. On the one hand, translation is directly responsible for the process of codification of lexical equivalents in the articles of the bilingual dictionary. On the other hand, the bilingual dictionary becomes a lexical compendium that provides translators with the necessary equivalents for their concrete task. In this book we are going to pay attention only to the first of these relationships. “Equivalence” is described as the relationship between lexemes from two or more languages which share or are supposed to share the same meaning. In other words, dictionaries use equivalents in order to explain meaning. (Ilson 1992)

The equivalent which is established between translinguistic lexical units may be total or partial, and even anisomorphic, i.e. a lack of correspondence of the languages. While this lack of correspondence is manifest at all linguistic levels, we will focus on the lack of symmetry which is established between the semantic fields of different languages, which, besides, is proportional to the degree of linguistic and/or cultural parentage which unites or separates them. In the cases of equivalence which is partial, approximate, non-literal or asymmetrical, the lexicographer provides the user with explanatory equivalents, i.e. paraphrases of the cultural or semantic content of the lemma.

### 4.2 Culture and lexicography

In practice the lexicographer meets several problems such as: (i) the proper nature of the referents; (ii) the perception of referents by a given culture; (iii) the verbalisation of the conceptualisations of reality which a particular language carries out, undoubtedly influenced by the linguistic means at its disposal. In the opinion of Duval (1990, 1991), there are three possible situations:

1. A cultural element exists in both realities and is named by means of a monosemous lexical unit in both languages.

2. Both languages have a monosemous lexical unit which names a recognisable cultural reality in one language that does not exist in the other. Although there is a relationship of equivalence between one and the other at a lexical level, the cultural referent does not exist in the target language.
3. The cultural referent and the lexical unit which names it only exist in one language. In the bilingual dictionary an equivalent is established by means of a definition which, although having a lexicographical form, is of an encyclopaedic nature.

These situations have important repercussions for the bilingual dictionary. They are motivated by the following factors: (i) divergent conceptual structures produce overlaps in the lexical systems of the two languages; (ii) a greater or lesser lexical richness in one language.

### 4.3 Terminology and translation

The paradigmatic example of anisomorphism occurs when a special language assembles in a hyperonym a conceptual division of reality that is broken up into a series of hyponyms in another language. This is particularly the case in areas like economics and law. It is convenient, therefore, to analyse whether the concept of translation and, therefore, of equivalence is applicable in terminology. By “terminological and comparative equivalence”, Cole (1987) and Pavel and Nolet (2001) refer to the designation of a common concept by two terms in different languages.

In the case of terminology, then, the translation unit is the term itself, and, methodologically, the terminologist has to establish the degree of correspondence between the conceptual content of the terms in question. Only after having certified the correspondence between the concepts of the terms used in different linguistic systems can one speak about terminological equivalence. The condition of equivalence is, therefore, that of conceptual identity. As a result conceptual analysis of the definitions produces different grades of correspondence that oscillate between full correspondence – frequent in terms belonging to LSP fields with more developed taxonomies – and absolute lack of correspondence – typical of denominations belonging to domains with a less systematic structure.

Arntz (1993) proposes a typology of grades of equivalence. His idea is to distinguish between: (i) full conceptual equivalence, which occurs in a one-to-one, a one-to-various or a various-to-various relationship; (ii) conceptual overlapping, which depends on the degree of documented intersection; (iii) the inclusion of a concept in another concept; and (iv) absolute conceptual lack of equivalence. To overcome the problems that are derived from the lack of equivalence, three techniques are used most of the times by translators and terminologists alike: the use of loan words or calques; coining neologisms; the use of explanatory paraphrases. (Arntz 1993) For this reason

bilingual terminology tends to be directional and irreversible, particularly if the dictionaries in question are plurilingual.

#### 4.4 Semantic information in the bilingual dictionary

The bilingual dictionary poses numerous problems of a semantic nature. Svensén (1993), for example, deals with them in terms of the principle of “function”, according to which meaning is approached from two perspectives. In a dictionary for passive use, “meaning” is given by means of lexical equivalences accompanied by untranslated examples, or by means of translated collocations or idiomatic expressions. In a dictionary for active use, the treatment is similar, although along with lexical equivalents – in case there should exist more than one – the so-called *meaning discriminators* would appear. Then there are examples and collocations and translated idiomatic expressions. Table 23 shows how the bilingual dictionaries studied represent meaning.

**Table 23.** Approaches to the representation of meaning in the bilingual dictionaries

	Passive side			Active side			
	Equivalent	Untranslated example	Translated collocation/idiom	Equivalent	Meaning discrimination	Translated example	Translated collocation/idiom
Business Spanish 1997	•	• (translated)	•	•	•	•	•
Pirámide Economía 2001	•	• (translated)	•	•		•	•
Ariel Economía 2002	•	•	•	•	•		•

The Business Spanish 1997 is the only bi-directional and bi-functional dictionary in the sample; the Pirámide Economía 2001 and the Ariel Economía 2002 are uni-directional dictionaries, with a different function corresponding to each of its two parts. Taking into account that these dictionaries target Spanish speaking students of business English, we will pay more attention to the use of the Business Spanish 1997 in the active part, accepting, however, that this dictionary makes use of the two functions which are attributed to each part of the dictionary. The bi-directionality of the Business Spanish 1997, together with its bi-functionality, ensures that in each one of its parts the full range of meaning is covered so that the user in the active mode does not lose information. Table 23 shows that the active part of the Business Spanish 1997

(Spanish-English) has a better representation of meaning, as it uses meaning discriminators, translated examples, and translated collocations/idioms. In the passive part (English-Spanish) there is more information than is strictly necessary for use of the dictionary in a receptive mode (i.e., the examples appear translated). This seems to be a concession to the English speakers who use this part in an active mode, confirming our previous observation that this dictionary is bi-directional and bi-functional.

In the passive part of the *Pirámide Economía 2001* the examples are once more translated, which is of no use in the passive part of a uni-directional dictionary except for the fact that it transmits supplementary information about the equivalent. In the active part the treatment of meaning seems to be adequate, although we may miss the presence of semantic discrimination.

Finally, in its passive part the *Ariel Economía 2002* is efficient, given that, together with the equivalents, there are translated collocations and idiomatic expressions, and many untranslated examples. The active part of the dictionary, together with equivalents and mechanisms for discriminating them, translates collocations and idiomatic expressions, but lacks examples.

Regarding equivalence we consider that the subdivision of the semantic space of the lemma is another interesting problem that has not received proper attention. This subdivision is reflected in the left-hand part of the lexicographical equation in those cases in which the semantic structures of the lexical units in L1 and L2 (lemma and equivalent(s)) do not coincide. Jarošová (2000) has systematically dealt with this question. She establishes that in structuring the article in the bilingual dictionary, criteria can be employed, based either on the meaning of the lemma (meaning-based), or on its equivalents in the target language (equivalent structured).

In the article by Shcherba (1940), which lays the basis of the discussion, the author proposes structuring the article in the bilingual dictionary for active use by resorting to the equivalents of the lemma, while in the dictionary for passive use the meaning of the lemma would be employed as criterion in the structure. This being so, the article in the dictionary for active use would be subdivided by the semantic space of the target language, while in the case of the dictionary for passive use, it is the semantic space of the source language which is employed as a basis for the structuring of the meaning. The great majority of bilingual dictionaries, independent of their function and directionality, have applied the first of these principles, which may not always suit the needs of the user.

The dictionaries of the sample, with the exception of the *Pirámide Economía 2001*, which does not subdivide the semantic space of the lemma, subdivide the semantic space in various ways. Example (11) shows the subdivisions of the semantic space of the lemmas *paquete*, *pack*, *package*, *packet*, and *parcel* in two dictionaries: the *Business Spanish 1997* and the *Ariel Economía 2002*.

## (11) The subdivision of the semantic space

## (a) Spa-Eng side of the Business Spanish 1997

**paquete** *nm* (a) (*artículos empaquetados para la venta*) packet *o* pack; **paquete de cigarrillos** = pack *o* packet of cigarettes; **paquete de fichas** = packet of filing cards; **paquete de galletas** = pack *o* packet of biscuits; **paquete plano** = flat pack; **paquete de sobres** = pack of envelopes; **el paquete lleva las instrucciones impresas** = instructions for use are printed on the package; **artículo vendido en paquetes de 20 unidades** *o* **artículos vendidos en paquete de 200 unidades** = item sold in packets of 20 *o* items sold in packs of 200; **faltan veinte gramos en el paquete** = the pack is twenty grams underweight (b) (*bulto*) parcel *o* package; **paquete postal** = parcel *o* postal packet; **atar un paquete** = to tie up a parcel; **oficina de paquetes** = parcels office; **servicio de entrega de paquetes** = parcel delivery service; **servicio de paquetes postales** = parcel post; **enviar una caja por el servicio de paquetes postales** = to send a box by parcel post;

**tarifas de paquetes** = parcel rates; **la oficina de correos no acepta paquetes voluminosos** = the Post Office does not accept bulky packages (c) **paquete de acciones** = block *o* parcel of shares; **vender un paquete de acciones** = to sell a block *o* lot of shares; **las acciones se ofrecen en paquetes de 50** = the shares are on offer in parcels of 50; **compró un paquete de 6.000 acciones** = he bought a block of 6,000 shares (d) (*acuerdo o transacción global*) package deal; **paquete de indemnización por despido** = redundancy package; **paquete de medidas económicas** = package of financial measures; **paquete de negociación** = negotiating package; **paquete de retribuciones** = pay package *o* salary package; **US compensation package** (e) (*informática*) **paquete de autoedición** = desk-top publishing package

## (b) Eng-Spa side of the Business Spanish 1997

**pack** [pæk] 1 *noun* **pack of times** = lote *m* de artículos; **pack of cigarettes** = paquete *m* *or* cajetilla *f* de cigarrillos; **pack of biscuits** = paquete de galletas; **pack of envelopes** = paquete de sobres; **items sold in packs of 200** = artículos vendidos en paquetes de 200 unidades; **blister pack** *or* **bubble pack** = embalaje de plástico tipo burbuja; **display pack** = embalaje de exposición; **dummy pack** = embalaje vacío *or* ficticio; **tour-pack** *or* **six-pack** = embalaje *or* caja de cuatro *or* seis unidades 2 *verb* **embalar** *or* **envasar** *or* **empaquetar**; **to pack goods into cartons** = embalar mercancías en cajas de cartón; **your order has been packed and is ready for shipping** = su pedido está servido y listo para el envío; **the biscuits are packed in plastic wrappers** = las galletas se presentan en envoltorios de plástico; **the computer is packed in expanded polystyrene before being**

**shipped** = el ordenador se embala en poliestireno expandido antes de ser expedido ◇ **package** ['pækɪdʒ] 1 *noun* (a) (*wrapping*) paquete *m* *or* embalaje *m* *or* envase *m*; **the Post Office does not accept bulky packages** = la oficina de correos no acepta paquetes voluminosos; **the goods are to be sent in airtight packages** = las mercancías deben enviarse en envases herméticos; **instructions for use are printed on the package** = el paquete lleva las instrucciones impresas (b) (*items joined together in one deal*) paquete *m* *or* conjunto *m* de medidas *or* conjunto *m* de medidas *or* acuerdo *m* global; **pay package** *or* **salary package** *US compensation package* (...) 2 *verb* (a) **to package goods** = embalar mercancías (b) **to package holidays** = vender viajes con todos los gastos incluidos

◇ **packaging** ['pækɪdʒɪŋ] *noun* (a) (*action*) embalaje *m* or envase *m* (b) (*wrapping*) embalaje; **airtight packaging** = embalaje hermético; **packaging material** = material de embalaje  
 ◇ **packer** ['pækə] *noun* embalador, -ra or empaquetador, -ra

◇ **packet** ['pækɪt] *noun* paquete *m* or cajetilla *f*; **packet of cigarettes** = paquete or cajetilla de cigarrillos; **packet of biscuits** = paquete de galletas; **packet of filing cards** = paquete de fichas; **item sold in packets of 20** = artículo vendido en paquetes de 20; **postal packet** = paquete postal

## (c) Eng-Spa side of the Business Spanish 1997

**parcel** ['pɑ:sl] 1 *noun* (a) (*goods wrapped up*) paquete *m*; **to do up goods into parcels** = empaquetar mercancías; **to tie up a parcel** = atar un paquete; **parcel delivery service** = servicio de entrega de paquetes; **parcels office** = oficina de paquetes; **parcel post** = servicio de paquetes postales; **to send a box by parcel post** = enviar una caja por el servicio de paquetes postales; **parcel rates** = tarifa de paquetes (b) **parcel of shares** = paquete de acciones; **the shares are on offer in parcels of 50** = las acciones se ofrecen en paquetes de 50 2 *verb* empaquetar or envolver or embalar; **to parcel up a consignment of books** = empaquetar una partida de libros (NOTE: **parcelling** – **parcelled** but US **parceling** – **parceled**)

## (d) Spa-Eng side of the Ariel Economía 2002

**paquete** *n*: packet, pack<sup>1</sup>; package<sup>2</sup>; parcel; S. *bulto, lote*. [Exp: **paquete accionario** o **de acciones** (STK EXCH block of shares, parcel of shares; security/stock holdings, batch of shares), **paquete de beneficios laborales** (IND REL industrial package, pay deal, wage deal), **paquete de medidas [de reactivación económica]** (package<sup>2</sup>; financial package, recovery package), **paquete de medidas de reactivación económica** (recovery package), **paquete de medidas salariales** (IND REL wages deal, salary package US; S. *acuerdo salarial*), **paquete de negociaciones** (negotiation package), **paquete hermético** (TRANSPT airtight package), **paquete postal** (parcel for mailing; parcel post), **paquete retributivo** (compensation package), **paquete ventilado** (TRANSPT breathing package)].

## (e) Eng-Spa side of the Ariel Economía 2002

**pack**<sup>1</sup> *n/v*: embalaje, envase, paquete, fardo, bulto, lio; lote; embalar, envasar, enlatar, empaquetar; V. *crate*; *picking pack services*; *blister/bubble pack*. [Exp: **pack**<sup>2</sup> (TRANS MAR campo de hielo), **pack**<sup>3</sup> (medida de capacidad; equivale a 109 kilos), (...)]

## (f) Eng-Spa side of the Ariel Economía 2002

**package**,<sup>1</sup> **pkge** *n/v*: embalaje, envase; bulto, paquete, carga embalada; lote, conjunto; embalar, envasar ◇ *Packages must be marked*; V. *absorbent package*, *cushioning*, *close cases*, *parking*; *repackage*. [Exp: **package**<sup>2</sup> (ECO, REL LAB condiciones, propuesta; «paquete»), paquete de beneficios laborales, conjunto o programa de medidas económicas, también llamado *financial package*; conjunto/serie de disposiciones, proyectos, actividades, servicios, etc., ofrecidos a un precio unitario o global; V. *negotiation package*), **package**<sup>3</sup> (MERC PROD presentar un producto, crear la imagen de un producto ◇ *Attractive packaging of a product/idea*; V. *repackage*), (...)]

## (g) Eng-Spa side of the Ariel Economía 2002

**parcel**<sup>1</sup> *n/v*: paquete, bulto; empaquetar. [Exp: **parcel**<sup>2</sup> (parcela de terreno, partida; V. *plot*,<sup>2</sup> *building land/plot*), **parcel list** (lista de aduana), **parcel of shares** (BOLSA paquete de acciones; V. *block of shares*; *batch of shares*), **parcel out** (parcelar; repartir, dividir), **parcel post** (servicio de paquetes postales), **parcel post policy** (SEG póliza de seguros de paquetes postales), **parcel rate** (TRANS tarifa para paquetes pequeños), **parcel up** (empaquetar)]

In the Business Spanish 1997, the equivalents of the Spanish-English part are structured according to the semantic space of the lemma. Spanish speakers will have to use the different individual senses of the lemma in their language for selecting the English-language equivalent which they require in a particular context. The semantic space of the Spanish terms is taken from the English-Spanish part of the dictionary in various articles, namely, *pack*, *package*, *packet* and *parcel*. In the subarticle corresponding



to *package*, the sub-lemma is structured according to the meaning of the English term. This makes it particularly useful for those Spanish speakers who employ the dictionary as a tool of comprehension of the English special language.

As far as the Ariel Economía 2002 is concerned, the equivalents in the Spanish-English part, meant for those Spanish speakers who want to make active use of the dictionary, are equally structured in agreement with the semantic space that the lemma occupies in Spanish. Referring to the English-Spanish part, the sense of the lemma in Spanish is covered by means of four equivalents, namely, *pack*, *package*, *packet* and *parcel*. The senses are divided by means of punctuation. The link between the active and the passive part of the dictionary can be improved. For example, while in the passive part of the dictionary, *packet* has three different senses, there is an indiscriminate reference to *packet* in the active part. In the same line we also observe that *pack* makes reference to certain senses of the term and does not refer to the sense in which *parcel* can be used in English as an equivalent of Spanish *paquete*.

In sum, in the bilingual dictionary both methods of structuring – based on the meaning of the lemma or its equivalent – may be applied when structuring the semantic space on the left-hand side of the lexicographical equation. Following Shcherba (1940), the method for subdividing the semantic space of the dictionary for active and passive use consists in adopting the “explanatory principle” (giving the meaning of the lemma), and making use of the equivalents (“translation principle”) respectively.

#### 4.5 The notion of equivalence and the bilingual dictionary

In general, we can say that a lexical equivalent is a lexical unit in the target language which possesses a lexical content similar to a lexical unit in the source language, and which is also comparable from the pragmatic point of view, ensuring the compatibility of use in context. Nevertheless, the analysis of the dictionaries of the sample seems to invalidate this criterion of equivalence (see Table 24), since it reveals the employment of usage markers referring to the noun-lemma or to some of its equivalents. Our analysis consists of studying all the lemmas beginning with the sequence *pa-* in the bilingual dictionaries analysed. The figures of Table 24 indicate the number of lemmas accompanied by usage markers.

Table 24 shows that, with the exception of the Ariel Economía 2002, there are very few lemmas and/or equivalents which are accompanied by a usage marker. The policy of the Ariel Economía 2002 is noteworthy, as it represents a step in the direction of an authentic pedagogical bilingual lexicography. The other two dictionaries hardly use usage markers, inasmuch as the semantic equivalent is the only concept of equivalence which they present.

After the quantitative study, we undertake a qualitative analysis of the lemmas and equivalents accompanied by pragmatic markers in order to determine to what point the Ariel Economía 2002 has incorporated an ample concept of equivalence. In general,

the number of lemmas and/or equivalents with pragmatic markers in the Ariel Economía 2002 is considerable.

**Table 24.** Application of usage markers

	Usage markers referring to the noun-lemma	Usage markers referring to equivalent(s)
Business Spanish 1997		
Spa-Eng.	1	0
Eng-Spa	0	0
Pirámide Economía 2001		
Eng-Spa	0	0
Spa-Eng	0	0
Ariel Economía 2002		
Eng-Spa	7	4
Spa-Eng	4	10

#### 4.5.1 The fiction of lexical equivalents

The idea of lexical equivalence is a triple fiction (Neubert 1992), or a fallacy (Duval (1990), especially because this idea rests on the notion that the lexical unit is a basic unit of translation. (Szende 1996) These opinions are rather utopian. At a practical level, we must say that the equivalent in the bilingual dictionary is necessary and it fulfils a function of the work and for the user for whom it is meant. (Tarp 2005c) In the following, we will try to demonstrate how the specialised bilingual dictionary presents the problems of lexical equivalence at each of the three types of fiction. Our analysis is concerned with the articles of the lemmas *payment/pago*. Examples (12) and (13) show the articles corresponding to these two lemmas in the three bilingual business dictionaries studied.

#### (12) Lexical equivalents in the English-Spanish side of dictionaries

##### (a) Business Spanish 1997

◇ **payment** ['peɪmənt] *noun* (a) (*living money*) pago *m* or *retribución f*; **payment in cash** or **cash payment** = pago en metálico or al contado or en efectivo; **payment by cheque** = pago mediante cheque or talón; **payment of interest** or **interest payment** = pago de intereses; **payment on account** = pago a cuenta; **full payment** or **payment in full** = pago total or íntegro;

**payment on invoice** = pago contra presentación de la factura; **payment in kind** = pago en especie; **payment by results** = pago según resultados *or* según producción *or* a destajo (b) (*money paid*) pago; **back payment** = pago atrasado; **deferred payments** = pagos aplazados; **the company agreed to defer payments for three months** = la compañía acordó aplazar los pagos durante tres meses; **down payment** entrada *f* *or* depósito *m*; **repayable in easy payments** = a pagar en cómodos plazos; **incentive payments** = prima *f* de producción; **balance of payments** = balanza *f* de pagos (c) (*benefit*) prestación *f*

## (b) Pirámide Economía 2001

**payment (settlement)** (n.)  
Pago, liquidación.

## (c) Ariel Economía 2002

**payment**<sup>1</sup> *n*: pago, abono, desembolso; ingreso; remuneración; plazo  $\diamond$  *Monthly payment*; *V. ex gratia payment*), **payment**<sup>2</sup> (soc pago parcial del dividendo pasivo, también llamado *instalment* *o instalment payment*; *V. call*<sup>6</sup>), (...)

## (13) Lexical equivalents in the Spanish-English side of dictionaries

## (a) Business Spanish 1997

**pago nm** (a) (*reintegro*) paying *o* payment; **pago por adelantado** = prepayment; **pedir el pago de honorarios por adelantado** = to ask for prepayment of a fee; **pago anticipado** = advance payment; **pagos aplazados** = deferred payments; **la compañía acordó aplazar los pagos durante tres meses** = the company agreed to defer payments for three months; **pago atrasado** = back *o* late payment; **pago dividido** = split payment; **pago en exceso** = overpayment; **pago íntegro** = full payment *o* payment in full; **pago parcial** = part payment; *o* US partial payment; **un pago a prorrata** = a pro rata payment; **pago simbólico** = token payment; **hay un pago simbólico por la calefacción** = a token charge is made for heating; **pago total** = full payment *o* payment in full; **pago único** = lump sum (b)

**pago de acciones a plazo** = rolling settlement; **pago de una cuenta** = settlement; **pago de una deuda** = payment *o* paying of a debt *o* clearing of a debt; **pago total de una deuda** = full discharge of a debt; **en pago total de una deuda** = in full discharge of a debt; **se ha retrasado en el pago de los plazos de la hipoteca** = he has fallen behind with his mortgage repayments; **pago de intereses** = payment of interest *o* interest payment; **pago contra presentación de la factura** = payment on invoice; **pago de la factura presentada** = payment for account rendered; **pagos que vencen** = payments which fall due; **el pago del préstamo vence el año que viene** = the loan is due for repayment next year (c) **aviso de pago** = reminder; **efectuar un pago** = to make a payment; **realizar un**

**pago** = to effect a payment; **supeditar el pago de bonificaciones a la productividad** = to link bonus payments to productivity; **condiciones de pago** = terms of payment *o* payment terms; **facilidades de pago** = easy terms; **pronto pago** = rapid settlement *o* prompt payment; **hacemos un descuento del 5% por pronto pago** = we give 5% off for quick settlement; **nuestro descuento normal es de un 20% pero ofrecemos un 5% adicional por pronto pago** = our basic discount is 20% but we offer an extra 5% for rapid settlement; **el quinto pago a cuenta debe hacerse en marzo** = the fifth progress payment is due in March; **último requerimiento de pago** = final demand; **entregar el coche antiguo como pago parcial de uno nuevo** = to give the old car as a trade-in (d) **pago a cuenta** = payment on account; **pago al contado** *o* **en efectivo** *o* **en metálico** = payment in cash *o* cash payment *o* settlement in cash

*o* cash settlement; **condiciones de pago al contado** = cash price *o* cash terms; **ofrecemos un 5% de descuento por pago al contado** = we offer 5% discount for cash settlement; **pago mediante cheque** *o* **talón** = payment by cheque; **el banco tardó diez días en tramitar el pago del cheque** = the cheque took ten days to clear *o* the bank took ten days to clear the cheque; **pago en especie** = payment in kind (e) **día de pago** = pay day; **pago según resultados** *o* **según producción** *o* **a destajo** = payment by results (f) **sociedad sujeta al pago de impuestos** = corporate taxpayer; **resultado después del pago de impuestos** = profit after tax; **las organizaciones sin fines de lucro** *o* **no lucrativas están exentas del pago de impuestos** = non-profit-making organizations are exempted from tax; **cheque en pago de dividendos** = dividend warrant (g) (*comercio internacional*) **balanza de pagos** = balance of payments *o* current account

(b) Pirámide Economía 2001

**pago** (m.). Pay. Payment. Discharge of a debt. Satisfaction. Acquitement. Return. Retribution. Disbursement. Requit-al. Hono(u)ring. Moneys paid out. Settlement. Repayment. (...)

(c) Ariel Economía 2002

**pago** *n*: payment<sup>1</sup>; disbursement/disbursing; consideration; settlement, satisfaction; liquidation; honouring; act of honour; *S. abono, desembolso*. (...)

The first of Neubert's fictions consists in considering the bilingual dictionary article as a text which tacitly obliges the user to employ an equivalent, that is a *Sprachinstruktionstext* (Wiegand 1983), without any direct relationship with a text. Such a reference work would establish a direct relationship between lexical units belonging to different languages, thus giving rise to a rather artificial communicative situation. Contrasting with this opinion Neubert (1992) sustains that the multiplication of equivalents that exists in bilingual dictionaries is just the result of the attempts to contextualise the equivalent by the lexicographer who, in their desire to provide lexical equivalents that can be inserted in different contexts, ends up by making very subtle distinctions of meaning which on occasion turn out to be simply collocations or different lexical materializations.

The analysis of the English-Spanish part clearly shows that the objective of the specialised bilingual dictionary which we are considering is not the translation of texts of L2 into L1, but rather their simple understanding. This fact has considerable importance; what the user needs in these circumstances is an equivalent with a cognitive value more than a linguistic or functional one. In the *Business Spanish 1997*, the term *payment* appears as a sub-lemma of *pay* which is divided into three senses, each of which with one or two translation equivalents, namely: (i) *pago* or *retribución*; (ii) *pago*; and (iii) *prestación*. In the *Pirámide Economía 2001* no subdivision of sense is carried out, and the only translation equivalents that are offered to the user are the terms *pago* and *liquidación*. The *Ariel Economía 2002* recognises the role of the context in determining the lexical materialisation of the equivalent. For this reason it considers four different senses: (i) *pago, abono, desembolso*; (ii) *ingreso*; (iii) *remuneración*; and (iv) *plazo*.

The treatment of the equivalent in the active part of the dictionary is different. The user requires a lexical materialisation of the source term which is quite precise and appropriate for the context. Without any doubt, this is one of the reasons why the treatment of the lemma *pago* should be more extensive than the treatment it receives in the passive part, as can be observed in the articles of Example (13). The *Business Spanish 1997* does not seem to have any clear theoretical basis. It proceeds to divide the semantic space occupied by the lemma in the language of origin into a total of seven senses. Actually, each of the senses just gives rise to a succession of complex terms or examples containing *pago* that do nothing more than transmit information of a collocational nature, or, in the best cases, translation variants determined by the context, but which the user cannot attribute to any sense. The article corresponding to *pago* in the *Pirámide Economía 2001* is also deficient because there is a succession of up to thirteen equivalents about whose semantic contours we are not informed, which reveals the considerable lack of attention of this dictionary to users who do not receive the precise semantic indications for permitting them to decide clearly which equivalent is most suitable in each meaning of the lemma or in each context. Finally, the *Ariel Economía 2002* offers eight equivalents distributed into seven senses, although with rather scarce contextual information.

The second of Neubert's fictions is the belief that, in line with the principle of bidirectionality, the bilingual dictionary contains information which can be useful both for speakers of L1 and L2. (Tarp 2005c) Once again it is the equivalence which creates this illusion. At the moment of dealing with the problems of meaning of the lexical units, the lexicographer can opt for either defining the meaning of the lemma in L2 ("explanatory principle"), or providing equivalent lexical units in L1 ("translation principle").

Neubert (1992) declares himself in favour of the explanatory principle. The definitions help to avoid the fiction of lexical equivalence and offer factual information. This turns out to be a compromising situation for the lexicographer, because the definition includes a considerable degree of abstraction which can be an obstacle at different levels of comprehension. By contrast, the equivalent must be concrete. Presently most publishing firms develop bilingual dictionaries with lexical equivalents. Our analysis

(see Table 25) shows that they have adopted a traditional approach to the (re)presentation of meaning. Independently of the specific function of each of the parts of the work, the dictionaries implement the principle of equivalence at the level of the lexical unit, thus situating the equivalent on a similar plane to that occupied by the synonym in monolingual lexicography for native speakers.

**Table 25.** Use of translation or explanatory principles

	Passive side		Active side	
	Translation principle	Explanatory principle	Translation principle	Explanatory principle
Business Spanish 1997	•	• (meaning discriminators)	•	
Pirámide Economía 2001	•		•	
Ariel Economía 2002	•		•	

The third of Neubert's fictions is concerned with translation equivalents because they present many drawbacks from the communicative point of view; and they are imposed on the user by the lexicographical text itself. Neubert (1992) considers, nevertheless, that the error of the dictionary does not so much lie in the existence of equivalents as in their indiscriminate use. In an initial application of the theory of prototypes and, by extension, of cognitive semantics to lexicography, Neubert (1992) suggests that users should approach the equivalents with the critical perspective their cognitive capacity offers them, and he advises the user, rather than to make the equivalent an act of faith, to assume it as a translated cognitive orientation.

This lexicographical approach suggests that there is a link between the equivalents which the dictionary offers and the effects of prototypicality which is proposed by, *inter alia*, Rosch (1978), and Lakoff (1987). Prototypes exhibit the essential meaning of a word by ignoring all non-salient features. Prototypes are seen as the access to the general and to the particular; rather than imposing the use of a given equivalent, they guide users in their search for an equivalent which adjusts well to the functional and pragmatic context of the situation. (cf. Section 4.7) This approach does not introduce a new lexicographical practice. Shcherba (1950) had already refused to overload the article with a lot of information in his application of the translation principle to the passive bilingual dictionary. In spite of this, lexicographers have tended to ignore his advice and have continued adding equivalents indiscriminately. This is precisely what the business bilingual dictionaries studied in this book have done, as can be deduced from analysing the articles shown, say, in Examples (12) and (13).

#### 4.6 Anisomorphism in the lexico-semantic structures of languages

We have already indicated that the existence of full equivalence between lexical units of different languages is either a fiction (Neubert 1992), or, in the words of Duval (1990), a fallacy. For this reason the problem of anisomorphism has been a historical constant in the development of semantics. This asymmetry, which appears to different degrees, occurs fundamentally on the lexical plane – among lexical units – and on the semantic plane – between structures of semantic fields. Al Kasimi (1977) sums up the problem by stating that while it is possible to find translation equivalents at the sentence level, it is more difficult at the level of lexical units. This difficulty has its origin in the cultural component which exists in every language and which causes words, which are dynamic and explicit symbols of that culture, not to have full and absolute equivalents in other languages. This fact strongly affects some fields of knowledge; for example business and economics, because they tend to be closely related to particular cultures.

In spite of the fact that linguistic anisomorphism has become a commonplace in the study of languages, there hardly exist any works of a lexicological or semantic nature which have faced this problem in depth. We believe for this reason, that in the concrete case of the bilingual dictionary, metalexicographers will have to consider this problem in greater detail as we are facing a quantitatively relevant problem. Rey (1991), for example, calculates that about 6.5% of articles of a bilingual dictionary are affected in some way by lack of equivalence. The lack of correspondence between the lexical niches of languages leads lexicographers to seek alternatives to (re)presentation of meaning. Perhaps the author who has approached the question most systematically is Svensén (1993), who proposes the use of one of three processes to deal with cultural inequivalence.

1. The first of them emphasises the expressive aspect, and is applied when there is a lexical unit in the target language which can serve as an approximate equivalent and is then usually accompanied by an explanatory paraphrase indicating its relativity. This leads to loan words and lexical calques, as Example (14) shows.

(14) The equivalent as a calque<sup>1</sup> in the Ariel Economía 2002

*pip*<sup>1</sup> *n*: MERC FINAN/PROD/DINER, BOLSA  
*pipo*; se aplica este término, calcado del inglés, a la fluctuación en un tipo de cambio, equivalente a 0,00001 unidades; en su origen, la palabra inglesa se refiere a cada uno de los puntos que aparecen en las fichas de dominó o de los dados; (...)

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1. “The term *pipo*, a calque from English, is applied to fluctuation in exchange rates. It is equivalent to 0.00001. In its origin, the English word referred to any of the spots on a dice, or domino.” (our translation)

2. In the second of the cases the procedure starts with the contents of the lexical unit. Lexicographers use it when there is no approximate equivalent. They paraphrase the meaning of the lexical unit by means of an explanation or description in the target language. This method is not very practical in dictionaries for active use (Example 15).

(15) The equivalent as a paraphrase in the Ariel Economía 2002

*programa n:* (...), *programa de apoyo/subvenciones a la economía nacional* (scheme to provide support for the country's economy, domestic support program US), (...)

3. When none of the previous procedures is feasible, an encyclopaedic definition becomes necessary, as Example (16) shows.

(16) The equivalent in the form of encyclopaedic definition in the Ariel Economía 2002

*pulpit n:* *plataforma elevada en los patios de contratación – pit/ring – de un mercado de futuros – futures exchange – donde se presentan las fluctuaciones de precios.*<sup>2</sup>

In spite of what has been indicated, many bilingual dictionaries do not pay attention to anisomorphism. For example, the Business Spanish 1997 and Pirámide Economía 2001 do not employ any of the three procedures analysed, but promote the existence of lexical equivalence. This is an important limitation in these works, especially considering that these dictionaries cover a LSP field with a high incidence of anisomorphism.

#### 4.7 Types of equivalence and the bilingual dictionary

Referring to the bilingual dictionary, Jarošová (2000: 19–20) states that there are two linguistic phenomena to which the models of interlinguistic equivalence must pay attention: (i) the two existential models of the word, which are the abstract value which it has in the system and its concrete presence in the text; (ii) anisomorphism in languages. The first of the phenomena refers to the different types of equivalence relevant for lexicography, whereas the second has more to do with the different degrees of equivalence which can appear between lexical units of divergent linguistic systems and their lexicographical treatment. We will begin by dealing with the first of these questions.

2. "A raised platform in pits or rings of a futures exchange market where price fluctuations are shown" (our translation).



Scholars tend to use different qualifiers to refer to the two types of equivalents relevant to lexicography. The first of them is defined by Al-Kasimi (1977: 60) as “one which cannot always be inserted into a sentence in the target language,” and is known as explanatory or descriptive (Al-Kasimi 1977), semantic (Zgusta 1987), systematic (Hausmann 1991), prototypical (Cop 1991), free of context (Martin 1992), or cognitive. (Piotrowski 2000) This type of equivalent can be characterised as an abstract equivalent situated at the level of the linguistic system. Used in the bilingual dictionary for passive use this type of equivalent permits generalisation, for which reason it only covers the meaning of the source lexical unit in all its dimensions. As we have already observed, this becomes one of the first applications of cognitive linguistics more specifically, (the theory of prototypes) to lexicography. The second type of equivalent is the lexical unit which can be inserted into a sentence in the target language. It is known as translation equivalent (Al-Kasimi 1977; Hausmann 1991; Piotrowski 2000), functional equivalent (Cop 1991), or context bound equivalent. (Martin 1992) The distinction between both types of equivalents has been developed on the basis of the most frequent typology in bilingual dictionaries and user needs. Our analysis shows that the dictionaries studied resort to using only translation equivalents in the passive and the active parts (Examples 17 and 18 respectively).

(17) Use of translation equivalents in the English-Spanish part of dictionaries

(a) Business Spanish 1997

**property** [ˈprɒpəti] *noun* (a) **personal property** = efectos *mpl* personales *or* propiedad *f* privada; **the storm caused considerable damage to personal property** = la tormenta causó numerosos daños materiales a la propiedad privada; **the management is not responsible for property left in the hotel rooms** = la dirección no se hace responsable de los objetos personales dejados en las habitaciones del hotel (b) (*land and buildings*) propiedad *f* *or* finca *f*; **property market** = mercado inmobiliario; **the commercial property market** = el mercado de propiedad comercial; **the commercial property market is booming** = el mercado de los locales comerciales está en auge; **damage to property *or* property damage** = daños materiales; **the office has been bought by a property company** = una sociedad inmobiliaria ha comprado la oficina; **property developer**

= promotor inmobiliario; **property tax** = impuesto sobre la propiedad; **private property** = propiedad privada *or* particular (c) (*a building*) inmueble *m* *or* edificio *m*; **we have several properties for sale in the centre of the town** = tenemos varios edificios en venta en el centro de la ciudad

(b) Ariel Economía 2002

**property** *n*: bien, posesión, bienes, pertenencias; bien raíz, inmueble, bienes inmuebles, propiedad; haberes. (...)

(c) Pirámide Economía 2001

**property** (n.). Propiedad, propiedades, bienes. (...)

The analysis of the articles corresponding to *property* shows that each dictionary has adopted a different policy. In the English-Spanish part of the Business Spanish 1997 the semantic space is distributed in three senses (*personal effects*, *private property*; *property* *or* *piece of land*; and *real estate* *or* *building*); in the Pirámide Economía 2001 the procedure is simplified to reflect a single sense; in the Ariel Economía 2002 there are three senses, differentiated by means of punctuation marks (concretely, a semi-colon). This distinction may not be necessary as this lemma has a single prototypical meaning.

As for the active part (see Example 18), the Business Spanish 1997 implements a minimalist approach to equivalence. The semantic space of the lemma *propiedad* is divided according to two senses conveniently discriminated and materialised in two translation equivalents, namely: (i) *ownership*; and (ii) *property*. The situation is quite different in the case of the Pirámide Economía 2001, where there are twelve translation equivalents. This fact, however, neither explains the semantic nor the pragmatic difference. Finally, the Ariel Economía 2002 covers four noun-terms which, judging by the use of the punctuation marks (semi-colon), correspond to a total of two senses. In general, we believe it necessary to offer a more precise differentiation in the active part of the dictionary.

(18) Use of translation equivalents in Spanish-English side

(a) Business Spanish 1997

**propiedad** *nf* (a) (*pertenencia*) ownership; **propiedad colectiva** = common *o* collective ownership; **propiedad conjunta** = multiple ownership; **la propiedad intelectual** = intellectual property *o* copyright; **ley sobre la propiedad intelectual** = copyright law; **propiedad en común** = joint ownership; **propiedad privada** *o* particular = (i) private ownership *o* property; (ii) personal property; (...)

## (b) Pirámide Economía 2001

**propiedad** (f.). Ownership. Property. Proprietary. Proprietorship. Estate. Right. Belonging. Holding. Real estate. Affection. Allowableness. Eminent domain. (...)

## (c) Ariel Economía 2002

**propiedad** *n*: property, premises; ownership, proprietorship; (...)

The second point which, according to Jarošová (2000), makes up any model of equivalence, namely, the degrees of interlinguistic equivalence, has two aspects, one semantic (denotation), and one pragmatic (connotation) which mediates between the meaning of a lemma in the source language and its equivalent in the target language.

## 4.7.1 Three Degrees of Equivalence

The examples are taken from the Ariel Economía 2002, the dictionary which indicates the degrees of equivalence that can exist between the diverse senses of the noun-terms.

1. Full equivalence. The two lexical units of each language have the same semantic and pragmatic properties. Full equivalence occurs fundamentally in the case of those LSP languages in which the cultural aspects hardly occur, that is, between the terms of the so called *hard sciences* (Example 19).

## (19) Full equivalence in the Ariel Economía 2002

**poder**<sup>1</sup> *n*: power, faculty; authority;<sup>1</sup> leverage; S. *potencia, energía, capacidad, potestad, facultad*. [Exp: **poder**<sup>2</sup> (power of attorney, proxy, procuration; S. *poder notarial*), (...)]

2. Partial equivalence. Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995) consider this the norm which governs the relationships between the meanings of the lexical units belonging to different linguistic systems. In these circumstances, the work of lexicographers is very important, as they must devise mechanisms which permit the user to discriminate between the given translation options. Many models have been formulated to account for phenomena of partial equivalence. The best constructed model is by Duval (1991), who distinguishes between partial equivalence which is the result of: (i) differences in the denotation and the connotation of the lexical units, perhaps the most frequent type; (ii) divergences in comprehension and extension, which give rise to convergence and divergence of lexical units and, consequently,

of superordination and interlinguistic (co)hyponymy<sup>3</sup> (convergence typically occurs in cases of partial translation equivalents when one word in one language corresponds to two or more words in another language); (iii) facts of language and facts of speech. In the cases of LSP languages, partial equivalence occurs in those terms which belong to disciplines closely related to particular cultures, as happens in Economics, as Example (20) shows.

(20) Partial equivalence in the Ariel Economía 2002

**papeleo** *col n*: red tape *col*; paperwork; bureaucracy; *S. trabajo administrativo, burocracia*. [Exp: **papeleo administrativo** / **burocrático** (red tape *col*; *S. rutina administrativa, burocracia*), **papele- ra** (waste paper basket/bin)]

In this example, we are offered three equivalents for the term *papeleo*, one of which appears with the marker *colloquial*. The first of the equivalents, that is *red tape*, appears accompanied by an identical marker, which tells us that between the two units there exists full equivalence at the level of usage. The same does not occur in the case of *paperwork* and *bureaucracy*, where the absence of a pragmatic marker tells us that the terms belong to the standard variety of the language and, in consequence, they only present a partial equivalence in respect of the lemma. Partial equivalence appears both in the pragmatic and in the semantic plane which we illustrate with the lemma *partner*. In the article of *partner* we find as derivative the sub-lemma *partnership*, about which, after offering a series of equivalents, we are warned explicitly that it constitutes a partial equivalent of the Spanish terms (Example 21).

(21) Partial equivalent in *partnership* in the Ariel Economía 2002

**partner** *n*: socio, asociado; partícipe; (...)  
**partnership** (SOC sociedad colectiva, sociedad comanditaria, entidad social; compañía «parternarizado»; la *partnership* es una organización comercial típica del mundo anglosajón; equivale parcialmente, en algunas ocasiones, a una sociedad colectiva, a una sociedad civil o a una comunidad de bienes en el derecho español<sup>4</sup>; *V. sole trader; company, corporation*)

3. Grinstead (1989) and Šarčević (1989) propose an alternative model of partial equivalence which only contemplates cases of inclusion and intersection, which later will be employed by Nielsen (1994: 162-178) in order to postulate three degrees of partial equivalence: near equivalence, partial (approximate) equivalence, and remote equivalence.

4. “The *partnership* is a typical Anglo-Saxon trade organization; sometimes it is partially equivalent to a *sociedad colectiva, sociedad civil* (“general partnership”) or *comunidad de bienes* (“joint ownership”) in the Spanish Law” (our translation)

; *deed of partnership, limited partnership, limited partnership by shares, special partnership; go into partnership with sb; company, corporation*), **partnership account** (...)

3. Absence of equivalence (non-equivalence or zero equivalence). This type of equivalence occurs in those lexical units which refer to cultural peculiarities of a linguistic community. This is the case of the lemma *pigs*, where the absence of an equivalent is compensated by means of an explanation of its content in Spanish, as suggested by Nielsen (1994).

(22) Absence of equivalence in *pigs* in the Ariel Economía 2002

*pigs* (acrónimo despectivo con que algunos periódicos llaman a los países mediterráneos de la Unión Europea: *Portugal, Italy, Greece, Spain*).<sup>5</sup>

#### 4.8 Discrimination of meanings in bilingual business dictionaries

The discrimination of meanings is a metalinguistic mechanism which reveals semantic or stylistic divergences between partial equivalents and permits the user to choose the equivalent which, semantically and pragmatically, is most suitable for the communicative context given or required.

One of the most frequent problems in the production of L2 is the great number of equivalents which are included in the article. In the active part of the bilingual dictionary the equivalents account for stylistic variation, small differences between partial synonyms and the fact that the article is conceived of as a compendium which should help in the process of learning a L2. This practice stems to a considerable extent from the definition by synonym. Nevertheless, a speaker of L1 who tries to make active use of the dictionary will derive scarcely any benefit from such an article, unless it is accompanied by some formula for the separation of meanings.

Al-Kasimi (1977) lists three problems related to discrimination of meaning which researchers must attend to: cases in which they must employ meaning discriminators; the preparation of a typology; and the language in which the discrimination must be offered. We will begin by dealing with the first of these. We intend to show that cases in which it is necessary to eliminate ambiguity, function is the preferred criterion of disambiguation. In the dictionary for active use meaning discriminators are not needed when both the lemma and its equivalent are monosemous. Discriminators are, however, required, in the following cases.

5. "A derogatory acronym used by some newspapers to refer to the Mediterranean Member States of the European Union: *Portugal, Italy, Greece and Spain*.

1. When the lemma is polysemous, but possesses a sole equivalent in a target language whose semantic structure is parallel. This is the case of the noun-term *poder* in the Business Spanish 1997 (Example 23).

(23) A polysemous lemma with a sole equivalent

**poder** 1 *nm* (a) (*fuerza*) power; **poder adquisitivo** = purchasing power *o* buying power; **el poder adquisitivo del mercado estudiantil *o* del mercado escolar** = the spending power of the student market *o* of the school market; **el poder adquisitivo de la peseta ha bajado durante los últimos cinco años** = the purchasing power of the peseta has fallen over the last five years; **poder ejecutivo** = executive power; **fue nombrado director gerente con plenos poderes ejecutivos para la operación europea** = he was made managing director with full executive powers over the European operation; **poder de negociación** = bargaining power; **poder reglamentario** = regulatory power; **dar poder** = to give authority *o* to empower; **el poder de un grupo de consumidores** = the power of a consumer group (b) **poder notarial** = power of attorney; **su abogado recibió poder notarial** = his solicitor was granted power of attorney (c) proxy; **firmar por poderes** = to sign by proxy; **voto por poderes** = proxy vote; **todos los votos por poderes eran a favor de la recomendación del consejo** = the proxy votes were all in favour of the board's recommendation (...)

First, the lemmatization policy adopted in this work, which immediately reminds us of the Cobuild 1987 and 2001, leads the compilers to combine in one article the nominal and verbal uses of a unit. This maximising policy of polysemy, which is justified in cases in which there exists a semantic link between the noun and the verb, does not seem to be advisable in those cases in which the coincidence of forms is not very reliable.

Second, the semantic space occupied by the English noun term has been divided into three senses, each one of which is indicated by a letter of the alphabet. Only in one case is there meaning discrimination in contrast to the Diccionario de uso 2001 (Example 24) which distinguishes three recognised meanings by means of numerical indices of polysemy: 1, 3 and 5.

## (24) Use of numerical indices of polysemy in the Diccionario de uso 2001

poder<sup>2</sup> (de «poder<sup>1</sup>»)

- 1 («Tener; de, para») m. \*Capacidad o \*facultad para hacer cierta cosa: 'Tiene poder para arruinar a la empresa.' ▫ Puede especificarse con un adjetivo o un complemento: 'Poder para [o de] perforar el hierro. Poder separador.'
- 2 («Tener; para») Capacidad para realizar un trabajo físico: 'Esta mula tiene poder para arrancar un árbol.' ► Energías, \*fuerza. ▫ Con referencia a máquinas, \*potencia: 'No necesitamos un calentador de tanto poder.'
- 3 Aplicado a medicamentos, remedios o cosa semejante, eficacia: 'La penicilina no tiene poder contra ese bacilo. Aquella medida tuvo el poder de apaciguar los ánimos.'
- 4 («Tener, Caer bajo») Con referencia a personas, agrupaciones o estados, fuerza para dominar a otros o dominio o influencia sobre otros: 'El poder de Inglaterra. Es un hombre que tiene mucho poder en la provincia. El dinero da poder.'
- 5 («Dar, Tener; para») \*Autorización dada a alguien por el que tiene autoridad para darla, para hacer cierta cosa. ▫ («Dar, Conceder, Otorgar, Exhibir, Ostentar, Tener») Autorización dada por una persona a otra para que la represente. ▫ Se usa mucho en plural: 'Tiene poderes amplios para dirigir la empresa.' ⇒ Procura, procuración. ► Apoderado, factor, institor, poderhabiente. ► Comitente, poderdante, principal. ► Apoderar, empoderar. ▫ \*Documento notarial en que consta esa autorización: 'Tiene un poder amplio [o poderes amplios] de su marido para comprar y vender.'
- 6 («Estar en el, Ocupar el») Posesión del mando en el \*gobierno de un país: 'El partido que ocupaba entonces el poder.' ⇒ Poder[es] público[s].
- 7 Cada uno de los aspectos de ese ejercicio: 'División de poderes. Poder ejecutivo.'

- 8 \*Propiedad o \*tenencia. Situación de la cosa poseída o tenida por alguien que se expresa: 'Esos territorios pasaron a poder de Alemania. Los documentos están en poder del abogado.'

The first sense includes distinct meanings of the noun-lemma which are not conveniently represented by the discriminator *fuerza* ('force'), necessarily infra-specific in this context. As for the second of the supposed senses, not only is there no apparent discrimination but it does not even offer us an equivalent. The only thing that is assigned is a complex term: *poder notarial* (power of attorney), in which *poder* is employed in the fifth of the senses covered in the *Diccionario de uso* 2001.

2. When the lemma is polysemous and has more than one equivalent (Example 25).

(25) The lemma *paro* in the *Business Spanish* 1997

**paro** nm (a) (*desempleo*) unemployment; **paro estacional** = seasonal unemployment; **paro de larga duración** = long-term unemployment; **paro masivo** = mass unemployment; **subsidio de paro** = unemployment pay *o* unemployment benefit; *US* unemployment compensation; **tiene derecho al subsidio de paro** = she qualifies for unemployment pay; **tasa de paro** = unemployment rate; **estar en paro** = to be unemployed *o* to be out of work; **darse de alta en el paro** = to sign on for the dole; **oficinistas en paro** = unemployment office workers (b) (*huelga*) strike *o* walk-out *o* shutdown; **paro general** = general strike; **paro técnico** = work-to-rule; **estar en paro técnico** = to work to rule (c) (*interrupción*) stoppage; **las entregas se retrasarán debido a los paros de la cadena de producción** = deliveries will be late because of stoppages on the production line

In this case the treatment of the lemma is systematic. The semantic space which the lemma occupies in the Spanish language is subdivided into a total of three senses, each of which appears conveniently discriminated.<sup>6</sup>

3. When several lemmas have a single polysemous equivalent. This is the case of the lemmas *provisión*, *suministro*, *aprovisionamiento*, or *disposición* (Example 26).

6. In spite of all this, a particular meaning of the term is still missing, namely, that which is employed in contexts of informal usage as a synonym of *unemployment benefits*.



## (26) Several lemmas have a single polysemous equivalent

- (a) Business Spanish 1997  
 provisión *nf* provision *o* supply; provisión de fondos = provision *o* reserve; provisión de clientes
- (b) Business Spanish 1997  
 ◇ suministro *nm* supply *o* sourcing;  
 ¿puede darnos el precio para el suministro de 20.000...
- (c) Business Spanish 1997  
 aprovisionamiento *nm* supply *o* procurement
- (d) Business Spanish 1997  
 disposición *nf* (a) (*arreglo*) provision *o* arrangement *o* disposition; tomar disposiciones = to make provision for; hemos tomado disposiciones al respecto = we have made provision to this effect; (b) (*normas*) order *o* regulation; disposiciones sobre la importación y exportación = regulations concerning imports and exports; las nuevas disposiciones gubernamentales sobre la normalización de viviendas = the new government regulations on housing standards

4. When the lemma has more than one equivalent which corresponds to lexical units which are superordinate (hyperonyms) or, especially, subordinates (hyponyms). For example, the intension of the term *publicidad* is covered in English by the terms *advertising*, referring to paid announcement, and *publicity*, which refers to institutional and/or non-paid announcement. However, although in the article which corresponds to *publicidad* in the Business Spanish 1997 both terms are covered, meaning discrimination is not used to call attention to their distinct conceptual ranges (Example 27).

(27) The lemma *publicidad* in the Spa-Eng side of the Business Spanish 1997

*publicidad nf* (a) publicity *o* advertising *o* exposure; trabaja en **publicidad** = she works in advertising; tiene un empleo en **publicidad** = he has a job in advertising; agencia de **publicidad** = advertising agency *o* publicity agency *o* publicity bureau; agente de **publicidad** = advertising agent *o* adman; campaña de **publicidad** intensiva

= saturation advertising; **dar publicidad** = to publicize; **estamos intentando dar publicidad a nuestros productos por medio de anuncios en los autobuses** = we are trying to publicize our products by advertisements on buses; **departamento de publicidad** = publicity department; **director de publicidad** = publicity manager; **gastos de publicidad** = advertising expenditure *o* publicity expenditure; **gastos de publicidad no incluidos** = below-the-line advertising; **hacer publicidad de un nuevo producto** = to advertise a new product; **jefe de publicidad** = advertising manager; **material de publicidad** = publicity matter; **presupuesto de publicidad** = advertising budget *o* publicity budget; **el presupuesto de publicidad ha sido suprimido** = the advertising budget has been reduced to zero; **nuestra campaña ha recibido más publicidad desde que decidimos anunciarla a escala nacional** = our company has achieved more exposure since we decided to advertise nationally; **habían esperado que la publicidad en la televisión les ayudaría a aumentar las ventas** = they had hoped the TV commercials would help sales (b) **publicidad colectiva** = association advertising; **publicidad agresiva** = knocking copy; **publicidad por correo** = direct-mail advertising; **publicidad exagerada** = hype; **publicidad en el punto de venta** = point of sale material; **publicidad sublimizar [sic]** = subliminal advertising

In the passive part of the bilingual dictionary meaning discrimination is less important, assuming users have a sufficient knowledge of the target language and can make inferences from the context. (Ianucci 1962) Besides, the multiplication of equivalents in the dictionary for passive use is, on many occasions, unnecessary, given that the supposed equivalents are no more than contextual variants which altogether offer a more or less exhaustive vision of the semantic space occupied by the lexical unit. In other words, from a semantic point of view many equivalents are superfluous and occupy a space in detriment of the clarity of the information. In the passive part of the dictionary the presence of meaning discriminators is necessary in the following circumstances.

1. When the lemma is polysemous and has a sole equivalent which presents a parallel semantic structure. In this case, even when the noun-term in Spanish has a parallel semantic structure that is sufficiently endorsed by the division of senses and the examples, it is convenient to discriminate explicitly the two senses in which the term can be used in English (Example 28).

(28) The lemma *project* in the Business Spanish 1997

**project** [ˈprɒdʒekt] *noun* (a) (*plan*) *proyecto m*; **draft project** = *anteproyecto m*; **he has drawn up a project for developing new markets in Europe** = *ha elaborado un proyecto para crear nuevos mercados en Europa* (b) (*particular job of work*) *proyecto or obra f*; **we are just completing a construction project in North Africa** = *estamos terminando una obra de construcción en el norte de Africa*; **the company will start work on the project next month** = *la empresa empezará a trabajar en el proyecto el mes próximo*; **project analysis** = *análisis de proyectos*; **project engineer** = *ingeniero, -ra de proyectos*; **project manager** = *director, -ra de proyecto*

2. When the lemma is polysemous and has various equivalents, it may be possible to omit the discrimination, because the different meanings can be derived partially from the structure of the article, and the context can contribute to the user's decision taking (Example 29).

(29) The lemma *premium* in the Business Spanish 1997

**premium** [pri:mjəm] *noun* (a) **premium offer** = *obsequio m publicitario or oferta f especial* (b) **insurance premium** = *prima f de seguros*; **you pay either an annual premium of £360 or twelve monthly premiums of £32** = *se paga o bien una prima anual de £360 o bien doce primas mensuales de £32*; **additional premium** = *sobreprima f*; **risk premium** = *prima de riesgo* (c) (*lease*) **traspaso m**; **flat to let with a premium of £10,000** = *piso para alquilar con un traspaso de £10.000*; **annual rent: £8,500, premium: £25,000** = *alquiler anual: £8.500, traspaso: £25.000* (d) (*extra charge*) **agio m**; **exchange premium** = *agio del cambio*; **the dollar is at a premium** = *el dollar está por encima de la*

par; **shares sold at a premium** = acciones vendidas por encima de la par (NOTE: the opposite is **shares at a discount**) (e) GB **premium bonds** = bonos del gobierno con prima (f) **premium quality** = alta calidad

The article corresponding to *premium* is a good illustration of how the Business Spanish 1997 deals with this type of noun-term. The authors proceed to subdivide the semantic spaces occupied by the term in English and assign each of the subspaces to a sense which, except in the case of b), appears to be conveniently discriminated.<sup>7</sup> It would have been possible to discriminate the context of usage of the lemma with a simple encyclopaedic marker to indicate that this is the equivalent used in the insurance world.

3. When different lemmas present a same polysemous equivalent (Example 30).

(30)

(a) The lemmas *payment* in the Business Spanish 1997

◇ **payment** ['peɪmənt] *noun* (a) (*giving money*) **pago** *m* or *retribución* *f*; **payment in cash** or **cash payment** = pago en metálico or al contado or en efectivo; **payment by cheque** = pago mediante cheque or talón; **payment of interest** or **interest payment** = pago de intereses; **payment on account** = pago a cuenta; **full payment** or **payment in full** = pago total or íntegro; **payment on invoice** = pago contra presentación de la factura; (...) (b) (*money paid*) **pago**; **back payment** = pago aplazado; **deferred payments** = pagos aplazados; **the company agreed to defer payments for three months** = la compañía acordó aplazar los pagos durante tres meses; (...)

(b) The lemma *settlement* in the Business Spanish 1997

◇ **settlement** ['setlmənt] *noun* (a) (*payment*) **finiquito** *m* or **pago** *m*; **settlement date** = fecha de liquidación; **settlement day** = día de liquidación; **our basic discount is 20% but we offer an extra 5% for rapid settlement** = nuestro descuento normal es de un 20% pero ofrecemos un 5% adicional por pronto pago; **settlement**

7. We will not try at this point to evaluate the merits of the subdivision. We do anticipate, nevertheless, that in the case of senses a), b) and f), the term *premium* belongs to the grammatical category of adjectives, and, consequently, the structure of this article is not very systematic.

in cash or cash settlement = pago en efectivo; final settlement = liquidación; financial settlement = ajuste financiero (b) (agreement) acuerdo *m* después (...)

4. When the equivalents denote superordinate or subordinate concepts. Although meaning discrimination is discretionary in cases in which the equivalent denotes a superordinate (hyperonym), it is obligatory when the equivalents refer to subordinate concepts (Example 31).

(31) The lemma *partnership* in the Business Spanish 1997

◇ **partnership** [ˈpa:tnəʃɪp] *noun* (a) *sociedad colectiva* *f*; **to go into partnership with someone** = asociarse con alguien; **to join with someone to form a partnership** = formar una sociedad colectiva con alguien; **to offer someone a partnership or to take someone into partnership with you** = proponer una sociedad a alguien *or* tomar a alguien como socio; **to dissolve a partnership** = disolver una sociedad (b) **limited partnership** = sociedad en comandita *or* sociedad personal de responsabilidad limitada

The second problem is to establish a taxonomy of semantic discriminators. Although they have various forms (Ianucci 1962; Kromann et al. 1991), Al-Kasimi's model (1977) seems exhaustive. He sets up eight categories of elements which can contribute to meaning discrimination of the lemma or its equivalent, which we illustrate with articles from both the Business Spanish 1997 and the Ariel Economía 2002.

1. Punctuation. The use of commas and semi-colons which separate synonyms and different senses respectively. It is a method which the Ariel Economía 2002 resort to frequently, as Example (32) shows.

(32) The use of punctuation in the Ariel Economía 2002

**personnel** *n*: personal, empleados, plantilla de una empresa; gestión de personal; *V. labour, staff*. [Exp: **personnel hiring** (contratación de personal), **personnel manager/officer** (GEST jefe de personal), **personnel rating** (evaluación de la plantilla o personal de una empresa), **personnel rating scales** (REL LAB escalas de clasificación de personal), **personnel representatives** (REL LAB delegados laborales), **personnel roster** (relación o nómina de la plantilla)]

2. Definitions. This method consists in discriminating each of the equivalents by means of a definition. This particular method of discrimination is used by the Business Spanish 1997, as we see in the third of the senses which correspond to *puente*. In this case the meaning discrimination must acquire a rather paraphrastic form, because we are dealing with a concept which does not have an exact equivalent in English (Example 33).

(33) The use of definitions in the Business Spanish 1997

**puente** *nm* (a) bridge; **puente colgante** = suspension bridge; **báscula puente** o **puente-báscula** = weighbridge (b) **puente aéreo** = air shuttle (c) (*día laboral entre dos días festivos*) (i) extra day off between two public holidays; (ii) long weekend; **haremos puente ya que el jueves es fiesta** = we'll have a long weekend since Thursday is a bank holiday

3. Synonyms.<sup>8</sup> Each equivalent is accompanied by a synonym of the lemma which discriminates the meaning or sense in which it is used. This method has the advantage of being brief (Example 34).

(34) The use of synonyms in the Business Spanish 1997

**place** [pleis] 1 *noun* (a) (*site*) **lugar** *m* or *sitio* *m*; **to take place** = ocurrir or suceder or tener lugar; **the meeting will take place in our offices** = la reunión tendrá lugar en nuestras oficinas; **meeting place** = lugar de reunión; **place of work** = lugar de trabajo (b) (*position in a competition*) **lugar** or **posición** *f* or **puesto** *m*; **three companies are fighting for first place in the home computer market** = tres empresas luchan or compiten por el primer lugar en el mercado nacional de ordenadores (c) (*job*) **puesto** *m* or **empleo** *m*; **he was offered a place with an insurance company** = le ofrecieron un puesto en una compañía de seguros; **she turned down three places before accepting the one we offered** = rechazó tres empleos antes de aceptar el que le ofrecimos (d) (*position in a text*) **página** *f* or **punto** *m* or **lugar** *m*; **she marked her**

8. Cf. Ianucci (1957, 1962, 1985); Kromann et al. (1991). Besides, authors like Svensén (1993) add other related words such as hyponyms, antonyms, etc.

**place in the text with a red pen** = marcó la página hasta donde había llegado con un bolígrafo rojo; **I have lost my place and cannot remember where I have reached in my filing** = he perdido el hilo y no puedo recordar hasta dónde había archivado 2 *verb* (a) poner *or* colocar; (...)

4. Examples, usually in the form of sentences or clauses which illustrate the meaning of the lemma.<sup>9</sup> This technique occupies much space at the heart of the article (Example 35).

(35) The use of examples in the Ariel Economía 2002

**placement**<sup>1</sup> *n*: empleo, colocación; experiencia laboral, período de prácticas ◇ *Trainee managers doing work placements*. [Exp: **placement**<sup>2</sup> (BOLSA colocación institucional de una emisión nueva de acciones; en Gran Bretaña también se llama *placing of shares*; V. *investment*; *private placement*), **placement office** (oficina/ agencia de colocaciones), **placement memorandum** (soc folleto de emisión; V. *prospectus*), **placement services of personnel** (servicios de colocación de personal)].

5. Grammatical (sub)categorisation can be used for lemmas which belong to different parts of the sentence. This method is much more productive in the English-Spanish part of the dictionaries (Example 36).

(36) The use of grammar in the Ariel Economía 2002

**process** *n/v*: proceso, método, procedimiento; elaborar, procesar, transformar; tramitar, preparar. Exp: **process a claim**

6. Usage notes which ascribe the lemma to a knowledge field can also be used as meaning discriminators. It is of special importance for the specialised dictionary (Example 37).

(37) Usage notes in the Ariel Economía 2002

**premium**<sup>1</sup>, **pm** *n*: SEG prima; lo opuesto de *premium es discount* ◇ *Insurance premium*; V. *insurance premium*, *acceleration premium*, *earned premium*, *graded premium*, *prepayment premium*, *risk*

9. Svensén (1993: 145-148) prefers the term *examples of usage*, which in fact he finds similar to synonyms.

*premium*. [Exp: **premium**<sup>2</sup> (BOLSA prima de emission; diferencia del precio de un título en el mercado secundario con relación al de emisión o a la par; V. *face value*; *market value*), **premium**<sup>3</sup> (COMER prima; entrega a cuenta o depósito previo en un contrato de futuros o de productos, también llamado *margin*<sup>4</sup>), **premium**<sup>4</sup> (COMER prima; diferencia entre el precio inicial y el final de un producto divisa en un mercado de futuros), **premium**<sup>5</sup> (de primera categoría, de calidad ◊ *Premium grade/rate*), **premium**<sup>6</sup> ([prima por] traspaso), **premium, be at a**<sup>1</sup> (...)]

7. Context of appearance, usually in the form of lexical units and syntagmas which exemplify the different contexts. These are: (i) the subject or type of subject (*actor*) which demand a verb; (ii) the object or type of object (*actor*) which governs the verb; (iii) the meaning of an adjective may clarify ambiguity if it accompanies the noun or type of noun with which it usually occurs; (iv) in an analogous way, the meaning of a noun can be given by the adjective or type of adjective with which it usually appears in a given sense. This information usually overlaps with the collocational one (Svensén 1993) (Example 38).

(38) The use of context in the Ariel Economía 2002

**performance**<sup>1</sup> *n*: cumplimiento, actuación, desempeño, ejercicio, ejecución [de un contrato] ◊ *In the performance of his ...*

8. Encyclopaedic information is important when there are cultural distances between the lemma and its equivalent. The Ariel Economía 2002 is the only one which has incorporated this technique of meaning discrimination, as we have shown in the article corresponding to *partnership* (Example 39).

(39) The use of encyclopaedic information in the Ariel Economía 2002

**partner** *n*: socio, asociado; (...) **partnership** (SOC sociedad colectiva, sociedad comanditaria, entidad social; compañía «parternerizado»; la *partnership* es una organización comercial típica del mundo anglosajón; equivale parcialmente, en algunas ocasiones, a una sociedad colectiva, a una sociedad civil o a una comunidad de bienes en el derecho español;

In sum, Table 26 indicates, firstly, the methods of meaning discrimination employed in the bilingual business dictionaries of the sample; and, secondly, the level of



systematisation which these works have used when confronting the problem of equivalence. For example, it shows that the Pirámide Economía 2001 hardly uses elements of meaning discrimination, and so its treatment of equivalence is somewhat deficient. Both the Business Spanish 1997 and the Ariel Economía 2002 implement a much more systematic policy of discrimination of meaning of equivalents.

Table 26. Methods of meaning discrimination

Dictionaries	Punctuation	Definition	Synonyms	Examples	Grammar	Usage notes	Context of appearance	Encyclopaedic information
Business Spanish 1997	-	•	•	•	•	•	-	-
Pirámide Economía 2001	-	-	-	•	•	-	-	-
Ariel Economía 2002	•	-	-	•	•	•	•	•

The third and last of the problems concerning meaning discrimination is metalinguistic; it refers to the language in which the discrimination must be offered. Ianucci (1962) and Al-Kasimi (1977) document the existence of four practical approaches to the problem. Meaning discriminators can be offered: (i) in the target language in both parts of the dictionary; (ii) in the source language in both parts of the dictionary; (iii) in the same language in both parts of the dictionary; and, lastly; (iv) in both languages in one and the other part of the dictionary. The only viable solution to the question is to give priority to the criterion that each dictionary serves a unique purpose. Although this idea enjoys theoretical acceptance, it is rather difficult to put into practice, due to economic reasons and market pressure. Only in the framework of the uni-directional dictionary will it be possible to efficiently implement the concept of meaning discrimination by using the user's native language. Al-Kasimi (1977: 74) advises the discrimination formulas reproduced below.

1. In the case of the active dictionary:

$$S^* = (s) T; (s) T$$

$$S^* = T^*; (st) T^*$$

## 2. In the case of the passive dictionary:

$$S = (t) T^*$$

$$S^* = (ys) T^*; T^{*10}$$

Example (40) shows that both in the Business Spanish 1997 and the Ariel Economía 2002 the discrimination of the different meanings of the noun-term *plazo* are offered in Spanish.

## (40) The use of Spanish

## (a) Business Spanish 1997

**plazo** *nm* (a) (*tiempo*) time o period o term; (...) (b) (*término*) time limit; (...) (c) (*fecha tope*) (i) closing date; (ii) notice; (...) (d) (*pago*) instalment; US installment; (...)

## (b) Ariel Economía 2002

**plazo**<sup>1</sup> *n*: ACCTS term, time, period, period of time, life. [Exp: **plazo**<sup>2</sup> (deadline, time limit, final date; S. *fecha de vencimiento*), **plazo**<sup>3</sup> (instalment, payment, repayment; S. *pago parcial, entrega*), **plazo**<sup>4</sup> (respite, time, time to pay; S. *prórroga, respiro, aplazamiento*), (...)]

As for the English-Spanish part of both dictionaries (Example 41), the meaning discriminating elements of the Business Spanish 1997 appear in English, which seems to indicate that this part of the work has been conceived for the use of Anglophones who wish to make an active use of the dictionary. It does not seem, therefore, originally designed to be used by the Spanish speaker in receptive tasks, in spite of which the authors discriminate the polysemy of the equivalent which is given for the lemma in the second of its senses by means of its context in Spanish. Meanwhile, the approach of the Ariel Economía 2002 is more consistent with the intention of users. The English-Spanish part is specifically oriented towards Spanish speakers, and, consequently, the meaning discriminators appear in the target language, that is, in Spanish.

## 10. Where:

S = source lexical unit;

s = meaning discriminator of the source lexical unit presented in the source language;

T = target lexical unit;

t = meaning discriminator of the target lexical unit presented in the target language ;

\* = polysemy index;

st = cases in which it is usual to discriminate the meaning of the source language;

ts = cases in which it is usual to discriminate the meaning of the target language;

## (41) The use of English in the English-Spanish side of dictionaries

## (a) Business Spanish 1997

pit [pit] *noun* (a) (*mine or hole*) mina *f* or foso *m* (b) (*stock exchange*) US patio *m* (de operaciones de la bolsa) or corro *m* (NOTE: UK English is **trading floor**)

## (b) Ariel Economía 2002

pit<sup>1</sup> *n*: mina. [Exp: pit<sup>2</sup> US *col* (MERC FINAN/PROD/DINER patio/corro de operaciones financieras, especialmente las de los mercados de productos – *commodity markets* – donde las transacciones se efectúan por «voceo» o *in open cry* (...)]

As can be inferred from the formulas and the examples previously introduced, meaning discriminators usually precede translation equivalents, unless there is a reason which considers it inadvisable, as occurs in the case of the (types of) direct object governed by verbs. We conclude that the usefulness of the bilingual dictionary remains to a considerable degree dependent on the adequate implementation of meaning discrimination, and the LSP bilingual dictionary should not be an exception to this state of affairs.

#### 4.9 Conclusion

This chapter is concerned with the relationship between translation and bilingual lexicography. In particular, we have analyzed the concept of “equivalence” in three bilingual (English-Spanish/Spanish-English) business dictionaries. Regarding LSP lexicography, this concept depends on two axioms: (i) the cultural proximity or distance between languages; (ii) the presence of national traditions in the field the dictionaries cover.

The first issue is typically analysed within the theoretical framework of the so-called *Sapir-Whorf hypothesis*, that explains some of the problems lexicographers meet when compiling bilingual dictionaries: the proper nature of referents; the perception of referents by a given culture; and the verbalisation of the conceptualisation of reality which a particular language realises. In lexicographical terms, this means that lexicographers have to cope with three possible scenarios. First, the cultural element exists in both realities and it is named by means of a monosemous lexical unit in both languages. Second, in both languages there exists a monosemous lexical unit which names a cultural reality in the source language, which is recognisable but does not exist in the target language. Third, the cultural referent and the lexical unit which names it only exist in the source language.

The second issue is highly relevant as the field of business/economics has not developed accepted conceptual taxonomies, perhaps because it is mostly influenced by local and national traditions. Within this field, then, we come across four grades of

conceptual equivalence: full conceptual equivalence, conceptual overlapping, partial conceptual equivalence, and absolute conceptual inequivalence.

Both issues cause problems of a semantic nature. Three of them have been analysed in this book: function, direction, and the subdivision of the semantic space of the lemma and its reflection in the left-hand part of the lexicographical equation in those cases in which the semantic structures of the lexical units in L1 and L2 do not coincide. Our findings indicate that the *Business Spanish 1997* is the only bi-directional and bi-functional dictionary, that the *Pirámide Economía 2001* and *Ariel Economía 2002* are uni-directional dictionaries, that the three dictionaries have different functions corresponding to each of its two parts (active and passive), and that they subdivide the semantic space of the lemma in different ways. More specifically, our findings indicate that both *Business Spanish 1997* and *Ariel Economía 2002* have paid attention to some of the principles of pedagogical lexicography, whereas the *Pirámide Economía 2001* has ignored them completely. For example, the *Ariel Economía 2002* recognises the role of the context in the determination of the lexical materialisation of the equivalent.

Our analysis, however, has also shown that bilingual business dictionaries are still far from paying attention to some other important tenets of pedagogical lexicography. For example, neither of them uses the explanatory principle in the active part and only the *Business Spanish 1997* employs it in the passive part. All of them have opted for traditional practices of bilingual lexicography: the use of the translation principle without implementing the cognitive orientation. In sum, one of the main deficiencies observed from the point of view of pedagogical lexicography is, perhaps, that all the dictionaries have made an indiscriminate use of equivalents, thus rejecting the application of the theory of prototypes to bilingual lexicography. Moreover, the business dictionaries studied have not used meaning discriminators consistently and systematically.

The discrimination of meanings is a metalinguistic device which shows up semantic or stylistic divergences between partial equivalents and permits users to choose the equivalent which, semantically and pragmatically, is most suitable for the communicative context in which they find themselves. There are three problems related to discrimination of meaning which researchers must attend to: (i) when meaning discriminators should be used; (ii) which meaning discriminators should be used; (iii) which language should be used for the discrimination of meaning.

The accepted assumption is that meaning discriminators are only obligatory in the active side of the dictionary. In the passive side, the use of meaning discriminators is less necessary. As a general conclusion it can be stated that the use of meaning discriminators is always necessary in the active side and sometimes useful in the passive side, especially when the lemma covered is polysemous and has many different (and sometimes related) senses. Although neither of the dictionaries studied has given a proper solution to this lexicographical problem, it seems that the *Business Spanish 1997* has produced meaning discriminators more in line with the needs of students of business English and/or Spanish. The *Ariel Economía 2002* has also paid attention to

the needs of the Spanish students of business English. Finally, the *Pirámide Economía 2001* rarely uses meaning discriminators.

Eight elements which can contribute to meaning discrimination have been proposed: punctuation; definitions; synonyms; examples; grammatical categories; usage notes; context of appearance; encyclopaedic information. Our findings indicate that the *Business Spanish 1997* uses definitions, synonyms, examples, grammatical categories, and usage notes, whereas the *Ariel Economía 2002* employs punctuation, examples, grammatical categories, usage notes, context of appearance, and encyclopaedic information. The *Pirámide Economía 2001* only uses examples, and, sometimes, grammatical categories.

Finally, regarding the language in which the discrimination must be offered, four practices have been described in the literature: (i) in the target language in both parts of the dictionary; (ii) in the source language in both parts of the dictionary; (iii) in the same language in both parts of the dictionary; and (iv) in both languages in one and the other part of the dictionary. Our analysis has focused on the *Business Spanish 1997* and the *Ariel Economía 2002*, since the *Pirámide Economía 2001* only uses examples and grammar codes as meaning discriminators. The approach adopted by the *Ariel Economía 2002* is coherent from a pedagogical point of view.

## CHAPTER 5

# Examples in business dictionaries

### 5.1 Introduction

Jackson (2002) affirms that the “example” is a constituent element of the microstructure of a dictionary. Many authors acknowledge the lexicographical importance of this information category and the contribution it makes to the correct codifying of lexical units. (Martin 1990) Furthermore, in the last few years there has been an increasing awareness of the true value of examples in illustrating how lexical units are used. The outcome of this awareness has been the elaboration of a theory of examples which, although it is still awaiting systematisation, provides a wealth of information on this micro-structural element.

### 5.2 Semiotics in the dictionary: explicit and implicit information

The example affords a large amount of information. Authors such as Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995) and Toope (1996) establish a dichotomy between the information which the articles in the dictionary present explicitly and the type of information which appears in a more covert way. Examples give information about the lemma or equivalent within a typical context, whereas explicit statements present this information in an abstract way, divorced from any context of usage. (Toope 1996) The implicit nature of the information conveyed through the example contrasts with the large amount of abstract information which nowadays dominates the explicit contents of the dictionary.

Although some scholars (for example, Roberts 1996) believe that the veiled nature of the information transferred via the example reduces its importance, we maintain that both kinds of information, existing alongside each other in the same article, do not imply superfluity, but rather a variable degree of overlap which reinforces the explicitly-conveyed content, and complements new information concerning usage of the lexical unit. Example (42) shows the most common use of examples in specialised dictionaries.

## (42) The use of examples in the Oxford Business 1993

<p><b>purchasing power</b> <i>noun</i> (economics)</p> <p>1 the amount of money that a person, an organization or a country has to buy goods and services: <i>Increased incomes have led to increased purchasing power in the community.</i> 2 the value of a currency at a particular time: <i>an increase in the purchasing power of the yen</i></p>	<p>/ˈpɜːtʃæsɪŋ ˌpaʊə(r) /</p> <p><b>note</b> not used with <i>a</i> or <i>an</i>. No plural and used with a singular verb only.</p> <p>1, 2 ►◀ an increase, a reduction in <b>purchasing power</b></p> <p>►◀ the <b>purchasing power</b> of (a currency)</p> <p>► <b>parity</b></p>
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Regarding the semiotic status of the information presented in the dictionary article, Stein (1999) suggests that this be subdivided into a descriptive part – pronunciation, grammar, notes on usage, etc. – and a demonstrative part corresponding to the examples.

### 5.3 Towards an operative definition of the category “example”

The category “example” is also known as contextual example, verbal illustration, citation or quotation. In this book, the concepts “citation” and “quotation” are different categories.

Examples constitute an element of the microstructure presented in the form of phrases or sentences, the fundamental aim of which is to illustrate context of usage of the lexical unit in question. We adopt Szende’s definition (1999: 224) who considers that examples refer to “a given situation of communication and provide information about the semantic, morphological, syntactic, stylistic and cultural traits of the headword in the source language and of its equivalent in the target.” He adds that they are disambiguated segments of discourse which must be reduced to the elements which are strictly necessary for the comprehension of the description.

Regarding bilingual dictionaries, Jacobsen et al. (1991) enumerate a series of factors which account for the lack of specification with regard to the concept of “example”.

1. Whatever is not exactly explicit information about the lemma and/or its equivalent is often considered an example. However, this is not an example *strictu sensu*, given that it neither gives an illustration of the usage of the lemma or its equivalent, nor provides models from which generalisations can be made.
2. As one of the prime functions of the example is to give information about the collocation patterns of the lemmas and their equivalents, it is to some extent understandable that this type of information is confused with the contents of the sub-articles.
3. An empirical analysis has shown the indeterminate status of the example in the bilingual dictionary. Terminological confusion appears to be particularly striking in the case of “glosses” (elements discriminating meaning) and “sub-articles” (collocation information).

#### 5.4 The example in the contextualisation of lexical units

The most important function of the dictionary example is to offer a suitable contextualisation for the lexical unit or its equivalent. (Matoré 1968; Fox 1987; Delisle 1993; Szende 1999) The term context normally has two senses: the verbal context or co-text and the situational context, usage context or background. The second of these senses is used in lexicography.

Hanks (1987) argues that the de-contextualising trend of the dictionary reflects a lexicographical tradition interested in the isolated meaning of words. But no word has a meaning outside its context and it is through examples that the dictionary contextualises the lexical unit.

On the one hand, context is an aid to outlining the meanings of polysemic lexical units; on the other, it is used as a source of examples which illustrate the varied linguistic nature of words. (Szende 1999) In this way, the example helps to set the lemma within given spatio-temporal co-ordinates, updating its semantic, grammatical, pragmatic, etc., potential.

Our analysis shows: two of the dictionaries studied do not provide examples (Table 27); others make poor use of examples, ignoring the concept of “semiotaxis” developed by Hausmann (1990a, b, c, d, 1997) which emphasises the key role the “idiom principle” plays in any language.

**Table 27.** The use of examples in the business dictionaries analysed

Dictionaries	Use of examples
Alianza Economía 1994	
Management 2003	
Longman Business 1989	•
Oxford Business 1993	•
Peter Collin Business 2001	•
Business Spanish 1997	
Spa – Eng-	•
Eng-Spa	•
Pirámide Economía 2001	
Eng-Spa	•
Spa-Eng	•
Ariel Economía 2002	
Eng-Spa	•
Spa-Eng*	

\* In the Introduction it is claimed that examples are omitted to save space. Users are cross-referenced to the English-Spanish side.



Table 27 shows that encyclopaedic dictionaries do not use lexicographical examples. They are not examples of usage, but rather notes which provide clarification or explain the concept in the way of an encyclopaedia, as is evidenced by the articles we reproduced below (Example 43).

(43)

(a) Examples as notes in the *Alianza Economía* 1994

**PROGRESIVIDAD.** Principio según el cual cuando crece una determinada variable, aumenta más que proporcionalmente un determinado coeficiente aplicable a la misma; p.e.: el impuesto sobre la renta de las personas físicas, tiene carácter progresivo, pues, sus tipos impositivos van creciendo más que proporcionalmente, a medida que se pasa de unos intervalos a otros de la base liquidable del contribuyente. E.i.: progressivity.

(b) Examples as notes in the *Management* 2003

**price-earnings ratio** *Fin* a company's share price divided by earnings per share (EPS).

**EXAMPLE** While EPS is an actual amount of money, usually expressed in pence per share, the P/E ratio has no units, it is just a number. Thus if a quoted company has a share price of £100 and EPS of £12 for the last published year, then it has a historical P/E of 8.3. If analysts are forecasting for the next year EPS of, say, £14 then the forecast P/E is 7.1

The P/E ratio is predominantly useful in comparisons with other shares rather than in isolation. For example, if the average P/E in the market is 20, there will be many shares with P/Es well above and well below this, for a variety of reasons. Similarly, in a particular sector, the P/Es will frequently vary from the sector average, even though the constituent companies may all be engaged in similar businesses. The reason is that even two businesses doing the same thing will not always be doing it as profitably as each other. One may be far more efficient, as demonstrated by a history of rising EPS compared with the flat EPS picture of the other over a series of years, and the market might recognise this by awarding the more profitable share a higher P/E.

Furthermore, we have also observed that dictionaries which use examples vary as regards their lexicographical policy. In certain cases the use of examples is unsystematic, and in others some grammatical categories are more likely to be accompanied by examples than others, as seen in the analysis of lemmas beginning with the sequence **po-** in the six business dictionaries with lexicographical examples (Table 28).

**Table 28.** Number of lemmas with examples

	Number of lemmas	Absolute number of lemmas with examples	Relative number of lemmas with examples
Longman Business 1989	111	9	9.99%
Oxford Business 1993	27	24	88.88%
Peter Collin Business 2001	49	38	77.55%
Business Spanish 1997			
Spa-Eng	53	26	49.05%
Eng-Spa	45	29	64.44%
Pirámide Economía 2001			
Eng-Spa	74	4	5.4%
Spa-Eng	70	7	10%
Ariel Economía 2002			
Eng-Spa	33	11	33.33%
Spa-Eng	–	–	–

Despite the differences in their number, all the specialised business dictionaries studied employ examples, as shown by the analysis of the noun-terms of the sequence **po-** (Table 29).

Table 29 shows that the figures are consistent. Two of the dictionaries are very systematic in terms of illustrating the usage of noun-terms in context (Oxford Business 1993; Peter Collin Business 2001). We believe that the example of the Oxford Business 1993 could serve as a model for any specialised dictionary.

Table 29. Number of noun terms and noun-terms with examples

	Number of noun-terms	Absolute number of noun-terms with examples	% of noun-terms with examples
Longman Business 1989	–	–	
Oxford Business 1993	19	17	89
Peter Collin Business 2001	32	25	78
Business Spanish 1997			
Spa-Eng	34	17	50
Eng-Spa	28	16	57
Pirámide Economía 2001			
Eng-Spa	61	4	6
Spa-Eng	45	5	11
Ariel Economía 2002			
Eng-Spa	25	7	28
Spa-Eng	–	–	–

### 5.5 The multi-functional nature of the example

It is not clear whether the functional criterion will serve to provide a definitive typology of examples, given their overlap with explicit information in the article. The fact that repetition exists, should not, however, lead us to the conclusion that the example makes this information superfluous, since, besides helping to reinforce explicitly-conveyed information, examples should at all times contribute something new. In this regard, Cowie (1989) claims that examples have several functions, normally as a result of the lexicographer's wish to adhere to economic parameters set down by the publishing houses. Very often the example is the only possible means of conveying information the (re)presentation of which would prove difficult lexicographically.

Al-Kasimi (1977) and Sinclair (1987) claim that examples have two basic functions in the monolingual pedagogical dictionary: providing explanations and serving as models for speaking and writing. Similarly, Béjoint (2000) argues that the lexicographical example carries out a dual semantic and syntactic role. These and other studies have added detail to the descriptions; consequently, a modern-day appraisal includes, *inter alia*, the following functions, which we shall illustrate with examples taken from the dictionaries studied.

1. Illustration of the meaning of the lemma in the corresponding sense (Example 44).

## (44) Peter Collin Business 2001

**policy** [ˈpɒlɪsi] *noun* (a) decisions on the general way of doing something; *the association attacked the government policy on wages or the government's wages policy; the government's prices policy or incomes policy has been often mentioned in the press; the country's economic policy seems to lack any direction; the government made a policy statement or made a statement of policy* = the government declared in public what its plans were; **budgetary policy** = policy of expected income and expenditure (b) (...)

## 2. Illustration of grammar aspects, either morphological or syntactic (Example 45)

## (45) Longman Business 1989

**pence** *pl. of penny*, esp. in expressing a value: *The railway charges fifty pence a day for parking a car in the station car park.* But when separate penny coins are meant, the *pl.* form *pennies* is used: *The boy collected a box full of pennies.* *Abbr. p.*

## 3. Illustration of phraseology, particularly with regard to collocational information on the lexical units (Example 46)

## (46) Ariel Economía 2002

**pedido** *a/n:* COM ordered, on order; order, purchase order; S. *hacer/cursar/despachar un pedido*. [Exp: **pedido abierto** (open indent; blanket order), **pedido al contado** (cash order), **pedido cerrado** (closed order), **pedido en blanco** (blank-check buying), **pedido en firme** (firm order), **pedido general para la temporada** (blanket order US), **pedido pendiente** (open order,<sup>1</sup> back order), **pedido regular o permanente** (regular or standing order<sup>3</sup>), **pedido suplementario** (repeat/extra/ further/additional order), **pedido urgente** (rush order), **pedidos atrasados** (back orders, backlog of orders), **pedidos no despachados** (unfilled orders, backlog), **pedidos recibidos** (incoming orders)].

## 4. Illustration of stylistic and, more generically, pragmatic aspects (Example 47).

(47) Ariel Economía 2002

**packet**<sup>1</sup> *n*: paquete, cajetilla. [Exp: **packet**<sup>2</sup> *col* (montón, riñón ◇ *Cost a packet*), **packet**<sup>3</sup> (TRANS MAR buque de línea regular; buque correo, también llamado *packet boat* o *mail boat*), **packet-switch transmisión services** (servicio de transmisión de datos con conmutación por paquetes)].

## 5. Illustration of cultural and encyclopaedic aspects, the latter being of particular importance in the case of specialised dictionaries (Example 48).

(48) Oxford Business 1993

**pyramid selling** *noun* (sales)

a method of selling using a hierarchy of workers. A central distributor sells a **FRANCHISE** to regional sellers who recruit district distributors who recruit door-to-door salespeople who sell the stock. This system is illegal in the UK: *Pyramid selling tends to benefit the central distributor rather than someone further down the system who might be left with unsellable stock.*

/ˌpɪrəˈmɪd ˈselɪŋ/

**note** not used with *a* or *an*. No plural and used with a singular verb only.

▶ **selling**

## 6. Conveyance of ideological elements, principally in the philological dictionary (Example 49).

(49) Oxford Business 1993

**public spending** *noun* (public finance)

spending by governments and local authorities on public services: *Higher than expected inflation has led to public spending cuts of over £400 million in key areas like railways, schools, hospitals and the environment.*

/ˌpʌblɪk ˈspendɪŋ/

**note** not used with *a* or *an*. No plural and used with a singular verb only.

▶ ◀ **control, cut, increase public spending**▶ **public finance**

We have observed the role that examples have in specialised bilingual dictionaries. Experience shows that students of business English and/or Spanish tend to rely more on bilingual than monolingual dictionaries. We also note that specialised monolingual business dictionaries (the Oxford Business 1993) are already incorporating into their articles some of the practices and methods of the learner's dictionaries. In addition to providing an indication of the linguistic features of the lemma or its equivalent, examples should, if possible, facilitate translation because, as Jacobsen et al. (1991) argue, in the bilingual dictionary for active use only the equivalents need to be exemplified, since the person consulting the dictionary is a native speaker of the original language.

On the other hand, users of the passive bilingual dictionary require no illustration of the equivalent, given their condition of native speaker of the target language. Nonetheless, what may be needed are contextual variants of the equivalent, and it is in the example where this information finds its most suitable mode of expression.

Our analysis looks at whether the criterion of function has been taken into consideration in the selection of examples. We begin by indicating the different types of users of the dictionaries in our sample (Table 30). The texts cited are taken from the introduction and/or prefaces.

**Table 30.** Type of users

Dictionary	Users of the sampled bilingual dictionaries
Business Spanish 1997	Provides a specialist business vocabulary for translators, business people, secretaries and students (blurb).
Pirámide Economía 2001	In the Spanish literature there is a lack of economic dictionaries. This dictionary has been compiled to meet the needs of different types of users: professionals, students of the Economics science. Also for exporters and those working in the domain of international trade, international organizations, mainly the institutions of the European Union (our adaptation of the information covered in the blurb and prologue)
Ariel Economía 2002	The dictionary aims at meeting the needs of translators, professionals and students of Business and Economics. Also for those engaged in international trade, and for journalists reporting on economic/business affairs. (our adaptation of the information covered in the blurb and prologue)

Table 30 shows that the three dictionaries claim to cover a wide user spectrum: translators, professionals in the various branches of economic and business sciences, economists, journalists and, what is more relevant for our purposes, LSP students. Furthermore, the Pirámide Economía 2001 and the Ariel Economía 2002 are mono-directional specialised bilingual dictionaries with two functions: one passive, embodied in the English-Spanish part, and the other active, represented by the Spanish-English part. The Business Spanish 1997, however, is a bi-directional dictionary in which each part has an active and passive function (Table 31).

Table 31. Directionality and Functions

Dictionary	Direction	Functions
Business Spanish 1997	Bidirectional (Spanish and English speakers)	Active(Spa-Eng; Eng-Spa) and passive (Eng-Spa, Spa-Eng) for Spanish and English speakers
Pirámide Economía 2001	Mono-directional (Spanish speakers)	Active (Spa-Eng) and passive (Eng-Spa) for Spanish speakers
Ariel Economía 2002	Mono-directional (Spanish speakers)	Active (Spa-Eng) and passive (Eng-Spa) for Spanish speakers

We have studied the articles corresponding to the noun-term *póliza* and *policy*. Our analysis shows that in the Business Spanish 1997 there is only one example, contrary to the lexicographical principles, that there should be multiple examples for the active use. We conclude that the illustrative policy of the dictionary is inadequate, because the number of examples provided is insufficient. Also, few examples are given in the article relating to *póliza* (example 50) in the case of the Ariel Economía 2002 and the Pirámide Economía 2001. As regards the English-Spanish section (*policy*), we can observe a considerable improvement in the three dictionaries (Example 51).

(50) Use of examples in the Spanish-English side of dictionaries

(a) Business Spanish 1997

**póliza** *nf* (a) (*seguros*) insurance policy *o* insurance certificate; **póliza de accidentes** = accident policy; **póliza dotal** = endowment policy; **póliza general** *o* **integral** = blanket policy; **póliza para imprevistos** = contingent policy; **póliza provisional** = cover note; *US* binder; **póliza de seguros** = insurance policy; **póliza de seguros normativa** = insurance policy which covers a named person; **póliza de seguro de la vivienda** = household insurance policy; **póliza a todo riesgo** = all-risks policy; **extender una póliza** = to issue a policy; **tenedor** *o* **titular de una póliza de seguros** = holder of an insurance policy *o* policy holder (b) (*préstamo*) **póliza de crédito** = loan agreement (...)

(b) Pirámide Economía 2001

**póliza** (f.). Policy. Warrant. Script. Draft. Paybill. Custom-house voucher. *Adelanto* *o* *préstamo sobre una poliza*: policy loan. *Adición a una póliza*: Endorsement on a

policy. *Agente de seguros sin derecho a contratar póliza* [Ins]: Application agent. (...) *Opciones que se ofrecen al tenedor de la póliza respecto de los dividendos que ha de recibir* [Life insurance]: Dividend options. *Periodo anual que se inicia con la fecha de la póliza*: Policy year. *Persona que recibe el beneficio de la póliza si el beneficiario principal fallece antes que el asegurado* [Ins.]: Contingent beneficiary. (...) *Riesgos cubiertos por la póliza*: Risks covered by the policy. *Seguro bajo dos o más pólizas que se diferencian en datos distintos del asegurador, importe del seguro y fechas*: Non-concurrent insurance.

(c) Ariel Economía 2002

**póliza** *n*: INSCE policy,<sup>2</sup> insurance policy/certificate, scrip; charter; contract; notarized agreement. [Exp: **póliza a prima fija** (fixed-premium policy; block policy), **póliza abierta** (floating policy, open policy, open cover, declaration policy; permanent cover; *S. póliza general o flotante*), **póliza abierta o general** (blanket policy<sup>1</sup>), **póliza adicional** (extra policy or cover), **póliza al portador** (bearer policy), **póliza aplazada a favor de un menor** (child's deferred policy), **póliza base** (SEG master policy), **póliza blindada** (INSCE bullet- / bomb-proof policy *col*; armour plated policy, policy providing every conceivable safeguard), **póliza caducada** (lapsed policy), **póliza combinada** (SEG combined policy), **póliza conjunta** (joint policy), **póliza contra la responsabilidad civil del depositario** (bailee policy), **póliza contra pérdida de equipaje** (baggage insurance policy), **póliza de cobertura retroactiva** (back coverage policy), **póliza de compra** (stock certificate), **póliza de crédito** (loan agreement), **póliza de crédito personal** (personal loan policy), **póliza de doble** (TRANSPT, INSCE mixed policy; *S. póliza mixta*), **póliza de doble protección** (double protection policy), **póliza de favor** (accommodation line<sup>4</sup>; *S. seguro por acomodación*), **póliza de fidelidad** (fidelity guarantee policy), **póliza de fletamento**

(TRANSPT charter party, C/P), **póliza de fletamento para viajes consecutivos** (TRANSPT consecutive voyage charter-party), **póliza de fletamento de azúcar a granel** (bulk sugar charter), **póliza de fletamento con indicación del muelle** (dock charter), **póliza de fletamento con mención expresa del puerto de arribada** (port charter), **póliza de garantía de la solvencia del contratista** (contract guarantee insurance), **póliza de indemnización** (indemnity policy), **póliza de mercancías transportadas** (shipping/transport insurance/policy), **póliza de muelle** (berth charter), **póliza de prima única** (single premium assurance/policy, income bond,<sup>1</sup> guaranteed income bond), **póliza de renta anual o vitalicia** (annuity insurance, life income insurance/policy), **póliza de responsabilidad por incomparecencia** (abandonment policy), **póliza de seguro de vida** (life assurance/insurance policy; endowment policy), **póliza de seguro de transporte marítimo** (cargo policy), **póliza de seguro de vida vinculada a un fondo de valores** (unit-linked policy), **póliza de seguro por lucro cesante** (business interruption policy, consequential loss policy, loss-of-profits policy), **póliza de seguro con primas escalonadas o variables** (stepped-rate premium insurance), **póliza de seguro**



contra pérdidas personales (personal property floater), **póliza de seguro contra la deslealtad de los empleados** (banker's blanket bond; S. *póliza de fidelidad*), **póliza de seguro de vida con participación en los beneficios** (participating life insurance policy), **póliza de seguros varios** (schedule policy), **póliza de seguros provisional** (cover note, binder<sup>2</sup>; S. *documento acreditativo de cobertura de seguro*), **póliza de seguros mixta** (endowment policy; S. *seguro de pensión, seguro de vida y/o de capitalización, seguro mixto*), **póliza de seguros combinada** (combination policy), **póliza de vida entera** (whole life policy), **póliza del cons-**

**tructor de buques** (shipbuilder's policy), **póliza general o flotante** (floating policy, open policy, declaration policy, floater policy, master policy; S. *póliza abierta*), **póliza general** (master policy), **póliza general de fletamento para minerales** (TRANSPT general ore charter party, genorecon), **póliza liberada** (paid-up policy), **póliza mixta** (TRANSPT, INSCE mixed policy; S. «*póliza de doble*»), **póliza para imprevistos** (contingency policy), **póliza para riesgos múltiples** (multiple coverage policy), **póliza provisional** (INSCE, TRANSPT cover note; S. *nota de cobertura; resguardo de seguro*)].

(51) Use of examples in the English-Spanish side of dictionaries

(a) Business Spanish 1997

policy ['pɒlɪsi] (...) (c) insurance policy = póliza de seguros; **an accident policy** = una póliza de accidentes; **all-risks policy** = póliza a todo riesgo; **a comprehensive or an all-in policy** = póliza a todo riesgo; **contingent policy** = póliza para imprevistos; **endowment policy** = póliza total; **policy holder** = tenedor, -ra de una póliza de seguros; **to take out a policy** = hacerse un seguro; **she took out a life insurance policy or a house insurance policy** = suscribió un seguro de vida or un seguro de su casa; **the insurance company made out a policy or drew up a policy** = la compañía de seguros extendió una póliza.

(b) Pirámide Economía 2001

policy (n.). Política, medida, norma, principio. Póliza. *Accommodating policy*: Política permisiva, política complaciente. *Adjustable policy*: v. «reporting policy». *Advertising policy*: Política publicitaria. *Advisory committee on labor-management policy*: Comisión asesora sobre política laboral. (...) *Governmental housing policy*: Política del gobierno sobre vivienda. *Grant a loan on the security of a policy*: Conceder un préstamo con garantía de póliza. (...)

## (c) Ariel Economía 2002

**policy**<sup>1</sup> *n*: política, programa, directrices,  
normas de actuación, líneas de conducta.

[Exp: **policy**<sup>2</sup> (SEG póliza ◊ *The policy only  
covers us against third-party, fire and theft*;  
V. *abandonment policy*; (...)]

In the Business Spanish 1997 there is a subdivision of the semantic space occupied by the lemma in three senses, each of which is equipped with its example. Although this may be unnecessary for the Spanish speaker consulting the dictionary for receptive purposes, this approach is of practical application for the active use by speakers of English. It also indicates that in the Pirámide Economía 2001 more examples are provided in the English-Spanish part than in the Spanish-English part, which is somewhat surprising given its receptive vocation. This is inappropriate since in the case of the passive dictionary – or, alternatively, of the passive part of a mono-directional bilingual dictionary – the use of examples is by no means so decisive, unless there is a desire to show contextual translation variants. Finally, the Ariel Economía 2002 also divides the semantic space occupied by the lemma in the original language. Nonetheless, it limits itself to one example to illustrate this policy. We have already argued that the importance of the example in the passive part of any lexicographical compendium is marginal, and that it demonstrates first and foremost the convenience of certain equivalents in particular contexts.

In sum, it appears that the functional criterion has been rather neglected by the authors of the dictionaries. This is an area where we believe change will take place.

## 5.6 Towards a typology of lexicographical examples

With a view to establishing a typology of lexicographical examples, it is necessary to differentiate between “quotation” and “example”. Although both are used for illustration, we should remember that they serve different purposes. Stein (1999: 45) believes that the prime function of the quotation is one of documenting, as it serves “as textual/authentic evidence to document the use of a specific sense or construction by a specific writer at a specific time”. Examples, on the other hand, are not concerned with attesting the source. Gross (1981) claims that the quotation is typical of the philological dictionary in that it gives it historical and ideological interest, whereas the example is simply meant to contextualise the lexical unit which stands as the lemma or, alternatively, the equivalent.

In this section we analyse whether there is any real difference between quotations and examples. Examining the prefaces and promotional materials of the Peter Collin Business 2001 and the Business Spanish 1997, both of which belong to the same family of dictionaries, we note that they do not seem to differentiate between examples and quotations (Table 32).

Table 32. References to quotations and examples

Dictionary	Blurb and Preface
Peter Collin Business 2001	<p>Many examples are used to show how the word is used in normal contexts (preface).</p> <p>Example sentences show how words are used in context (blurb).</p> <p>Because English is a world language of business, we have included short quotations to show how it is used in various countries around the world. These quotations are from newspapers and magazines published in England, the United States, Canada, Australia, Hong Kong and Nigeria (preface).</p> <p>Quotations from current newspapers and business magazines from around the world to show how terms are used (blurb).</p>
Business Spanish 1997	<p>The dictionary gives many examples of usage, both to show how the words are used in context and how they can be translated (...) (preface).</p> <p>An innovation in this dictionary: it includes many examples and their translation in context (preface) (our adaptation of the Spanish original).</p> <p>(...) these examples are supplemented by short quotations in both languages from newspapers and magazines from all over the world: these show the worldwide applications of the two languages (preface).</p> <p>Examples are accompanied by short quotations extracted from newspapers and magazines in both English and Spanish, thus allowing for a correct illustration of the word in both languages. (prologue) (our adaptation of the Spanish original)</p> <p>Includes example sentences showing how each word is used (blurb).</p> <p>Includes quotations from magazines and newspapers to show how words are used (blurb).</p>

According to Table 32, the only purpose of the example is to illustrate the usage of the lemma or its equivalent in context. As regards quotations, the authors claim that they are supplements of the example indicating usage of the noun-term in either English or Spanish. Use of the lexicographical term *quotation* is misleading as is shown by a study of the articles *package/paquete*: they illustrate the use of quotations in the Peter Collin Business 2001 and Business Spanish 1997 (Examples 52 and 53).

## (52) The use of “quotations” in the Peter Collin Business 2001

**package** [ˈpækɪdʒ] 1 *noun* (a) goods packed and wrapped for sending by mail; *the Post Office does not accept bulky packages; the goods are to be sent in airtight packages* (b) box or bag in which goods are sold; *instructions for use are printed on the package* (c) group of different items joined together in one deal; *pay package or salary package* US *compensation package* = salary and other benefits offered with a job; *the job carries an attractive salary package*; *package deal* = agreement where several different items are agreed at the same time; *we are offering a package deal which includes the whole office computer network system, staff training and hardware maintenance*; *package holiday or package tour* = holiday or tour where the hotel, travel and meals are all included in the price; *the travel company is arranging a package trip to the international trade fair* (d) different items of software sold together; *the computer is sold with accounting and word-processing packages*; *the company's area of specialization is accounts packages for small businesses* 2 *verb* (a)

**to package goods** = to wrap and pack goods in an attractive way (b) **to package holidays** = to sell a holiday package including travel hotels and food

---

airlines offer special stopover rates and hotel packages to attract customers to certain routes

*Business Traveller*

---

the remuneration package will include an attractive salary, profit sharing and a company car

*Times*

---

airlines will book not only tickets but also hotels and car hire to provide a complete package

*Business Traveller*

---

in today's fast-growing packaged goods area many companies are discovering that a well-recognized brand name can be a priceless asset

*Duns Business Month*

Example (52) shows that in the Peter Collin Business 2001 three of the quotations illustrate nominal usage of the lemma and one of them a verbal usage. Although the first three quotations coincide in their illustration of only one of the lemma's senses (c), they do not provide an explicit indication of the connection, making them less useful. What is more, there is a certain overlap with regard to complex terms and actual examples shown for the corresponding sense of the lemma, with the result that the quotations add no further information on contextual usage of the term. Also, despite the reference to the source of the quotations, there is no indication of the place of publication, which goes against the supposed spirit of the quotation, that is, to provide information on the usage of the lemma in different geographical contexts.

Example (53) shows a similar performance in the Business Spanish 1997.

(53) (a) The lemma *package*

◇**package** [ˈpækɪdʒ] 1 *noun* (a) (*wrapping*) paquete *m* or embalaje or envase *m*; **The Post Office does not accept bulky packages** = la oficina de correos no acepta paquetes voluminosos; **the goods are to be sent in airtight packages** = las mercancías deben enviarse en envases herméticos; **instructions for use are printed on the package** = el paquete lleva las instrucciones impresas (b) (*items joined together in one deal*) paquete *m* or conjunto *m* de medidas or acuerdo *m* global; **pay package or salary package** *US* **compensation package** = paquete or conjunto de retribuciones; **the job carries an attractive salary package** = el puesto lleva aparejado un atractivo conjunto de retribuciones; **package deal** = acuerdo or transacción global or paquete; **we are offering a package deal which includes the whole office computer system, staff training and hardware maintenance** = se trata de una oferta global que incluye el sistema complete de ordenadores, la formación de personal y el mantenimiento del equipo; **package holiday or package tour** = viaje organizado or de turismo; **the travel company is arranging a package trip to the international computer exhibition** = la agencia de viajes está programando un viaje organizado a la feria internacional de ordenadores 2 *verb* (a) **to package goods** = embalar mercancías (b) **to package holidays** = vender viajes con todos los gastos incluidos (...) (...)

QUOTE the remuneration package will include an attractive salary, profit sharing and a company car

Times

QUOTE airlines will book not only tickets but also hotels and car hire to provide a complete package

Business Traveller

QUOTE the consumer wants to be challenged by more individual products and more innovative packaging

Marketing

QUOTE in today's fast-growing packaged goods area many companies are discovering that a well-recognized name can be a priceless asset

Duns Business Month

(b) The lemma *paquete*

**paquete** *nm* (a) (*artículos empaquetados para la venta*) packet *o* pack; **paquete de cigarrillos** = pack *o* packet of cigarettes; **paquete de fichas** = packet of filing cards; **paquete de galletas** = pack *o* packet of biscuits; **paquete plano** = flat pack; **paquete de sobres** = pack of envelopes; **el paquete lleva las instrucciones impresas** = instructions for use are printed on the pack-

age; **artículo vendido en paquetes de 20 unidades** *o* **artículos vendidos en paquete de 200 unidades** = item sold in packets of 20 *o* items sold in packs of 200; **faltan veinte gramos en el paquete** = the pack is twenty grams underweight (b) (*bulto*) parcel *o* package; **paquete postal** = parcel *o* postal packet; **atar un paquete** = to tie up a parcel; **oficina de paquetes** = parcels

office; **servicio de entrega de paquetes** = parcel delivery service; **servicio de paquetes postales** = parcel post; **enviar una caja por el servicio de paquetes postales** = to send a box by parcel post; **tarifas de paquetes** = parcel rates; **la oficina de correos no acepta paquetes voluminosos** = the Post Office does not accept bulky packages (c) **paquete de acciones** = block o parcel of shares; **vender un paquete de acciones** = to sell a block o lot of shares; **las acciones se ofrecen en paquetes de 50** = the shares are on offer in parcels of 50; **compró un paquete de 6.000 acciones** = he bought a block of 6,000 shares (d) (*acuerdo o transación global*) package deal; **paquete de indemnización por despido** = redundancy package; **paquete de medidas económicas** = package of financial measures; **paquete de negociación** = negotiating package; **paquete de retribuciones** =

pay package o salary package; *US compensation package* (e) (*informática*) **paquete de autoedición** = desk-top publishing package

la patronal CEOE no está totalmente satisfecha con el paquete de medidas económicas aprobadas por el Gobierno. Por ello, ayer pidió cambios de 'mayor calado', que generen empleo estable

El País

el paquete de medidas aprobado por el Gobierno contribuye a movilizar recursos sin dañar los ingresos fiscales y la estabilidad de precios

El País

In the Spanish-English part, quotations appear in Spanish. If we assume that the objective is to illustrate the behaviour of the noun-term in different geographical settings, we may conclude that in this part of the dictionary priority is given to its passive use by native speakers of English. The fact that the quotations are not translated confirms our belief. Examining the quotations, we can see that each has been taken from the same source, and the context is, therefore, similar. In fact, in both cases the quotations exemplify one and the same complex term which, moreover, also figured as a sub-lemma in one of the senses attributed to *paquete* (d). As a consequence, the quotations are not very useful. At the end of the article we find four quotations in English also untranslated, which once again leads us to the conclusion that this part is designed to make native Spanish speakers aware of theoretically divergent geographical usages. Nevertheless, the fact that there is no acknowledgement of where the sources were published challenges the integrity of these quotations, which, not being translated, have no other use.

In addition, three of these quotations are reproduced in the Peter Collin Business 2001, revealing that the latter was produced with the help of the Business Spanish 1997. Finally, we have also found that three of the four quotations illustrate nominal usages of the term, and two of them in particular illustrate complex terms with *package* as the nucleus. Nonetheless, here the dictionary also lacks an explicit or implicit connection with the one illustrated sense of the term, namely (b). This leads us to the conclusion that it is an information category which may be left out.

Regarding the form, most scholars maintain that examples should take the form of sentences and phrases/clauses. Only a minority of them propose forms such as words, co-texts, glosses, and translations (Table 33).

Table 33. Proposals defended for coding lexicographical examples

	Words (actants)	Phrases / clauses	Sentences	Co-texts	Glosses	Translations
Zgusta (1971)	•					
Al-Kasimi (1977)		•	•			•
Creamer (1987)		•	•			
Martin (1990)		•	•	•		
van Scherrenburg (1990)		•	•			•
Jacobsen et al. (1991)	•					
Lemmens and Wekker (1991)		•	•			
Svensén (1993)		•	•			
Toope (1996)		•	•			•
Rundell (1998)		•	•		•	
Cowie (1999a)		•	•			
Stein (1999)		•	•			
Szende (1999)			•	•		

As regards clauses, lexicographical tradition considers them “dead examples” (Svensén 1993: 91), since they have undergone a neutralising process consisting of the use of pro-forms and the presentation of the verbal forms in the infinitive. Perhaps the main advantage is that it allows the user to see the different degrees of internal variation in the phrase or clause. Cowie (1999a: 7), for example, argues that “they could indicate which elements in a sentence were fixed, which optional and which substitutable”.

This type of example has an eminently grammatical function, although certain authors – notably Zgusta (1971) and Roberts (1992)– claim that they transform idiosyncratic linguistic structures, that is, fixed expressions and collocations. Others, however, disagree on this point, considering that collocations themselves constitute an information category. (Jacobsen et al. 1991) This is also our view, and we believe, like Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995), that examples offering information on combinations should be considered “collocations” rather than lexicographical examples. Sentences, on the other hand, are called “live examples” (Svensén 1993: 91), as they employ either personal pronouns or nominal phrases with the verbs appearing in the personal form. According to Jacobsen et al. (1991), sentences become authentic examples due to their generative power. Our analysis corresponds to the articles beginning with the consonant group *pr-* (Tables 34 and 35). For the sake of clarification we indicate that the bilingual business dictionaries were not included in the analysis because examples in these dictionaries possess specific functions and we will deal with them in section 5.9.

**Table 34.** Number and types of examples used

Dictionary	Total number of examples	Examples in the form of clauses	Examples in the form of sentences
Longman Business 1989	56/100%	21/37.5%	35/62.5%
Oxford Business 1993	162/100%	21/12.96%	141/87.03%
Peter Collin Business 2001	172/100%	41/23.3%	131/76.16%

**Table 35.** Functions of the examples

Dictionary	Number of examples	Examples illustrating meaning
Longman Business 1989	56	35 / 62.5%
Oxford Business 1993	162	143 / 88.27%
Peter Collin Business 2001	172	124 / 72.09 %

Our analysis of the monolingual business dictionaries indicates three interesting findings. First, these dictionaries use many more sentences than clauses. Second, there are significant divergences in the total number of examples between the Longman Business 1989 and the other two dictionaries. Third, the model followed in all cases is similar and there are a large number of examples preferentially illustrating the meaning of the lemma. Hence, we may deduce that this is a suitable method for transmitting information of a semantic nature. Interestingly, in the pedagogical dictionary Oxford Business 1993, the number of examples used for illustrating meaning is 25% higher than in the Longman Business 1989, a typical and traditional monolingual business dictionary. In sum, from a pedagogical point of view, two conclusions can be drawn: (i) the presence of examples is a defining feature of pedagogical lexicography; (ii) examples in the form of sentences are typically used for illustrating meaning.

### 5.7 Criteria for the arrangement of examples in the lexicographical article

Up till now, there is no widely recognised principle as regards how examples are arranged.

One of the first aspects analysed is that of typography: All the mono- and bilingual business dictionaries studied use typographical marks to indicate examples (Table 36).



Table 36. Typographical marks

Dictionary	Use of typographical marks	Type of typographical mark
Longman Business 1989	•	italics
Oxford Business 1993	•	italics
Peter Collin Business 2001	•	Italics and bold in the sentences; Normal and bold in the clauses
Business Spanish 1997	•	bold
Pirámide Economía 2001	•	italics
Ariel Economía 2002	•	italics

We observe that the dictionaries have now begun to use different types of letters for the examples appearing in the lexicographical articles. In the samples, however, we perceive a discrepancy with regard to the kind of mark employed. Of particular note are the cases of the Peter Collin Business 2001 and Business Spanish 1997, given that, despite belonging to the same family of dictionaries, their policies are different. For instance, whilst the Business Spanish 1997 uses bold letters only to distinguish examples from other types of relevant information, we find that the Peter Collin Business 2001 employs italics as well as bold letters to differentiate between sentences and clauses. This procedure permits a greater differentiation of the various types of example; it may also be recommendable if, as it appears, a difference exists between the function of the clause and the sentence.

A specific ordering of examples within the article varies depending on certain parameters. Stein (1999) maintains that in Anglo-Saxon lexicography the example is normally placed after the explicit information. French lexicography, however, seems to prefer a different type of arrangement, as the implicitly-presented information tends to precede that of an explicit nature. Up to the present time, there is no empirical evidence to support the use of either approach. Hausmann (1988) made a more detailed analysis of how examples are arranged in the dictionary and established three criteria: (i) semantic: examples should be placed in the sense of the lexical unit they attempt to illustrate; (ii) morphosyntactic: they should be in their corresponding grammatical category if they belong to more than one; (iii) alphabetic: following the application of these two criteria, the third purely mechanical type ensures that the internal ordering of the examples is alphabetic, given that there are normally more than one. Table 37 shows the result of our study on the criteria adopted by the monolingual and bilingual business dictionaries studied. As on other occasions, our analysis corresponds to articles beginning with the consonant group *pr-*.

Table 37. Criteria used in the arrangement of examples

Dictionary	After explicit information	Semantic criteria	Morphosyntactic criteria	Alphabetical criteria
Longman Business 1989	•	• (2)	• (1)	
Oxford Business 1993	•	• (2)	• (1)	
Peter Collin Business 2001	•	• (2)	• (1)	
BusinessSpanish 1997				
Spa-Eng	•	• (2)	• (1)	
Eng-Spa	•	• (2)	• (1)	
Pirámide Economía 2001				
Eng-Spa	•		•	•
Spa-Eng	•		•	•
Ariel Economía 2002				*_
Eng-Spa	•	•	–	
Spa-Eng	–	–		

\* The number of examples is small; hence, we have not considered adequate to analyse if this criterion is being used or not.

Table 37 shows that the arrangement of the monolingual dictionaries is in keeping with the postulates put forward by Hausmann (1988). The Business Spanish 1997 follows more closely the line of the monolingual dictionaries. In other words, as is the case with the general dictionary, monolingual specialised dictionaries have been the first to take up the proposals of pedagogical lexicography for the arrangements of examples. It can be expected that the new generation of bilingual dictionaries will take a similar stance.

On the other hand, in all cases the explicit information categories precede the example. The Longman Business 1989, Oxford Business 1993, Peter Collin Business 2001 and Business Spanish 1997, coincide in arranging the examples morphosyntactically, situating each one in the corresponding article or division of the article in accordance with the grammatical category to which it belongs, as Example (54) shows.

(54) Examples arranged morphosyntactically in the Peter Collin Business 2001

**promise** [ˈprɒmɪs] 1 *noun* saying that you will do something; **to keep a promise** = to do what you said you would do; *he says he will pay next week, but he never keeps his promises*; **to go back on a promise** = not to do what you said you would do; *the management went back on its promise to increase salaries across the board*; **a promise to pay** = a promissory note 2 *verb* to say that you will do something; *they promised to pay the last instalment next week*;

*the personnel manager promised he would  
look into the grievances of the office staff*

Secondly, the dictionaries apply a semantic criterion allowing the example to be placed in the meaning or sense illustrated, as Example (55) indicates.

(55) Examples arranged semantically in the Oxford Business 1993

**promotion** *noun*

1 (*advertising*) (a) advertising or other activity intended to increase the sales of a product: *Television advertising is an expensive but effective method of promotion.* (b) an advertising or publicity campaign for a particular product: *We are doing a special promotion of our new range of baby foods.* ○ *We are giving away free pens and T-shirts as part of the promotion.* 2 (*personnel*) (a) (the giving or receiving of) a higher position or a more important job: *The job offers a good salary and excellent chances of promotion.* (b) an instance of this: *The new job is a promotion to her.*

/prə'məʊʃn/

1 a **note** not used with *a* or *an*. No plural and used with a singular verb only.

▶◀ sales **promotion**

▶ **campaign**<sup>1</sup>, sales **campaign**

1 b **pl** promotions

▶◀ a special **promotion**; do, run a **promotion**

2a **note** not used with *a* or *an*. No plural and used with a singular verb only.

▶◀ be due for, be in line for **promotion**

2b **pl** promotions

▶◀ to get a **promotion**

With regard to the alphabetical criterion, the dictionaries in the sample do not seem to favour its application. The Pirámide Economía 2001 is an exception as it uses it for a few examples, although intertwined with complex terms. This lacks terminological consistency, as Example (56) shows.

(56) Examples arranged alphabetically in the Pirámide Economía 2001

**price** (n.). Precio, cotización. *Acceptable price*: Precio aceptable. *Accounting price*: Precio contable. *Actual price*: Precio real. *Adjust prices*: Ajustar los precios. (...) *All round price*: Precio, incluidos otros gastos. *American selling price*: Arancel protector [EEUU.] sobre productos químicos. (...) *Buy at a high price*: Compar caro. *Buying price*: Precio de compra. *Buying in price*: Cambio de rescate. (...)

Our analysis shows that bilingual specialised dictionaries have not incorporated the advances of monolingual specialised dictionaries, although lexicography has developed various practices which should be taken into consideration in the future. For example, the Van Dale dictionaries present the examples in a section independent from the article, relating it to the other information categories by means of two numbers: the first links the example with the grammatical category to which the lemma in question belongs; the second refers to the meaning of the lexical unit (Martin 1992). This dictionary also follows some of the principles referred to by Hausmann (1988).

## 5.8 Examples and corpus

Alvar Ezquerro (1993) believes that one of the greatest advantages of using a corpus in lexicography is that it is possible to extract illustrative examples of the meaning and usage of the lemma. There is no doubt that the corpus has been an aid for lexicographers in dealing with the example as a category of information. This is inherent in the lexicographical tradition of having recourse to manual archives to collect authentic quotations. The use of the corpus for selecting lexicographical examples is, however, a controversial matter. Cowie (1999a: 134) indicates that different attempts have been made to determine whether teachers can “distinguish between unidentified and constructed examples and which they prefer (Maingay and Rundell 1987); and also to decide which type of example provides better support in the production and comprehension of new words.” (Laufer 1992)

As for the nature of the example, there are three documented trends in modern-day lexicography (Zöfgen 1986; Martin 1990; Toope 1996; Stein 1999): (i) examples invented by lexicographers themselves; (ii) examples taken from the corpus; (iii) examples extracted from the corpus and modified to varying degrees by the lexicographer on the basis of native-speaker intuition. The first type is favoured by lexicographers such as Cowie (1999a), who follows Hornby (1965) and Martin (1962), for whom a good example constructed by an expert lexicographer has many advantages, above all as regards the active use of the dictionary. It is particularly advantageous, according to Al-Kasimi (1977), because: (i) it can be adjusted to better suit illustration of the features relating to the lexical unit; and (ii) it is usually short and the user has hardly any trouble understanding it (see Kernerman 2007).

The availability of corpora for use in lexicography represents a substantial shift towards authentic examples, away from invented examples, which, in Sinclair’s (1987) opinion served to explain meaning rather than usage. Zgusta (1971), Fox (1987), Sinclair (1987), Jacobsen et al. (1991), Herbst (1996), Humblé (2001), and Landau (2001), for example, favour the use of examples extracted from the corpus, because of the authority of real language.

Many also concede that the corpus example may be modified by leaving out words, simplifying the syntax, etc. Cowie (1999a) and Szende (1999) advocate a compromise in which the example, whether invented or not, is always checked against the reality of the linguistic data emerging from an analysis of the corpus.

Our analysis of the monolingual and bilingual business dictionaries indicates that, until now, the availability of corpora has had little impact (Table 38). However, two pedagogically oriented dictionaries resort to authentic examples: one of them – the Oxford Business 1993 – indicates in the blurb that there are over 5,000 authentic examples based on the Oxford Corpus. The Ariel Economía 2002 also uses many authentic examples, but without indication of a source.

Table 38. Types of examples used

Dictionary	Invented examples	Examples from corpus without edition	Examples from corpus with edition
Longman Business 1989			
Oxford Business 1993		•	
Peter Collin Business 2001			
Business Spanish 1997			
Pirámide Economía 2001			
Ariel Economía 2002	•	•	

### 5.9 The example in bilingual lexicography

Our analysis of the lemmas with examples of the articles in the sequence *pa-* (Table 39), shows the use made of examples.

Table 39. Number of lemmas with examples

Dictionary	Number of lemmas	Absolute number of lemmas with examples	% of lemmas with examples
Longman Business 1989	207	23	11
Oxford Business 1993	75	54	72
Peter Collin Business 2001	78	44	56
Business Spanish 1997			
Spa-Eng	73	54	73
Eng-Spa	47	31	66
Pirámide Economía 2001			
Eng-Spa	130	13	10
Spa-Eng	116	13	11
Ariel Economía 2002			
Eng-Spa	58	11	19
Spa-Eng	–	–	–

Table 39 shows a clear distinction between the illustration policy of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. The exception is the Longman Business 1989 which perhaps does not give many examples on account of its large nomenclature. It is also clear that it is the pedagogical dictionaries – that is, the Oxford Business 1993 and Peter Collin Business 2001 – which have most examples. If we limit the study to the noun-term, we

find a similar situation despite certain obvious differences, such as the almost five-point increase in the Ariel Economía 2002 (Table 40).

While the example in the bilingual dictionary has the same functions as in other lexicographical works, they may encounter difficulties of a semantic, grammatical, stylistic and cultural nature. This demonstrates the relationship between examples in the bilingual dictionary and the category of equivalents. (Szende 1999) We shall attempt to show these relations, which are apparently tri-directional, with examples from the Business Spanish 1997.

1. Information on the meaning and usage of the equivalent: According to Piotrowski (2000), examples in the bilingual dictionary are more suitable for illustrating equivalent usage than meta-linguistic explanations, as Example (57) indicates.

(57) Meaning and usage in the Business Spanish 1997

◇ **prospectus** [prə'spektəs] *noun* (a) (*to attract buyers*) *prospecto m or folleto m*; **the restaurant has girls handing out prospectuses in the street** = el restaurante emplea a chicas que distribuyen folletos publicitarios en la calle (b) (*for new company*) *presupuesto m sobre emisión de acciones* (NOTE: plural is **prospectuses**)

Table 40. Number of noun-lemmas with examples

Dictionary	Number of noun-lemma	Absolute number of noun-lemma with examples	% of noun-lemma with examples
Longman Business 1989	199	19	8
Oxford Business 1993	60	44	73
Peter Collin Business 2001	56	33	59
Business Spanish 1997			
Spa-Eng	53	38	72
Eng-Spa	35	22	63
Pirámide Economía 2001			
Eng-Spa	106	12	11
Spa-Eng	75	7	9
Ariel Economía 2002			
Eng-Spa	47	11	23
Spa-Eng	–	–	–

In (57) we observe that the example does not offer only semantic information (a *prospectus* is a thing which is distributed freely in the street in order to promote, for instance, a restaurant), but also grammatical information; the example and its translation tell us about the plural form of *prospectus*, to which it also draws attention at a later stage in a note concerning usage.

2. Contextualisation of the equivalent. The example shows us that if there is a change in the lexical or syntactic context then a different translation appears in the entry. In other words, examples in the bilingual dictionary function as equivalents. In this way, the distances separating both information categories are reduced; in effect, the example is a sort of “extended equivalent” (Piotrowski 2000: 23) which acts as a psychological aid to bringing the user closer to the target language, and considerably lightens the load in the equivalents section. In addition, this system reveals the sensitivity of lexical equivalents to the context in question, as well as contributing to rid them of their dogmatic overtones, inevitable in the bilingual dictionary (Example 58).

(58) Contextualisation of the equivalent in the Business Spanish 1997

**puesto**, -ta 1 m (a) (*cargo*) job o place o position o post; **pérdida de puestos de trabajo** = job losses; (...) (b) (*posición*) position; **la empresa ha conseguido el primer puesto en el mercado** = the company has climbed to number one position in the market (c) (*espacio*) **puesto en el mercado** = market stall; (*exposición*) **puesto de exposición** = stand o place; (...) (d) (*operador de informática*) **puesto de trabajo** = Workstation (e) **puesto aduanero** = customs entry point o customs post 2  
pp de PONER

Centring our attention on the first sense of the lemma's nominal usage, we can appreciate how in each example the lemma *puesto* is translated as *job*, *place*, *post* or *position*, depending on the context. In fact, in the third example we are offered an alternative translation in which not one of the terms proposed as equivalents of *puesto* appears.

3. Equivalent substitution. Svensén (1993) and Szende (1999) maintain that in the cases of total lack of equivalence the lexicographer should resort to examples instead of isolated lexical equivalents which are bound to be approximate. Example 59 illustrates this point, given that the equivalent of the lemma *pack* varies fundamentally in accordance with the context in which it appears.

## (59) Equivalent substitution in the Business Spanish 1997

**pack** [pæk] 1 *noun* **pack of times** = lote *m* de artículos; **pack of cigarettes** = paquete *m* or cajetilla *f* de cigarrillos; **pack of biscuits** = paquete de galletas; **pack of envelopes** = paquete de sobres; **items sold in packs of 200** = artículos vendidos en paquetes de 200 unidades; **blister pack or bubble pack** = embalaje de plástico tipo burbuja; **display pack** = embalaje de exposición; **dummy pack** = embalaje vacío or ficticio; **tour-pack or six-pack** = embalaje or caja de cuatro or seis unidades 2 *verb* **embalar or envasar or empaquetar**; **to pack goods into cartons** = embalar mercancías en cajas de cartón; **your order has been packed and is ready for shipping** = su pedido está servido y listo para el envío; **the biscuits are packed in plastic wrappers** = las galletas se presentan en envoltorios de plástico; **the computer is packed in expanded polystyrene before being shipped** = el ordenador se embala en poliestireno expandido antes de ser expedido

## 5.10 Conclusion

In this chapter we have acknowledged the lexicographical importance of the example. Examples are said to demonstrate information about the lemma or equivalent within a typical context. Hence, they offer implicit information on grammar, usage, meaning, and phraseology, and place the lemma within given spatio-temporal co-ordinates, updating its semantic, grammatical, pragmatic, etc. potential.

Regarding LSP lexicography our analysis has found that the use of examples for contextualising lexical units is still rather limited: the encyclopaedic dictionaries studied do not use lexical examples, but notes; most of the dictionaries do not pay attention to the concept of “semiotaxis” and they tend to adhere to very unsystematic lexicographical practices.

Regarding the function and orientation of the bilingual dictionaries studied, we have found that some of them are more adequate for use by students, particularly the Business Spanish 1997 and Ariel Economía 2002. The Pirámide Economía 2001 follows more traditional approaches. In particular, we have found that although the three dictionaries tend to meet the needs of students and translators, their lemmas do not contain many examples, and those found tend to be invented examples, sometimes based on an ad-hoc corpus. Our analysis also shows that they follow different



orientations: the Business Spanish 1997 is bi-directional and bi-functional whereas the Pirámide Economía 2001 and Ariel Economía 2002 are mono-directional and bi-functional. In sum, it may be concluded that the function criterion has been rather neglected. Change will come with the gradual introduction of the principles of modern lexicography.

We also recommend that LSP dictionaries establish a typology of lexicographical examples and adopt some practices of pedagogical lexicography which distinguish between examples and quotations.

Second, they should make a distinction between “dead examples” coded as phrases and/or clauses and “live examples” coded as sentences. Our analyses of the monolingual business dictionaries indicate mixed results. On the one hand, the three dictionaries use more sentences than clauses/phrases for coding examples. On the other hand, one of the dictionaries – the Longman Business 1989 – is far from following modern approaches, not only because around 38% of the examples do not illustrate meaning but also because the number of examples is very low: it uses five times fewer examples than the Oxford Business 1993, a pedagogical dictionary.

Third, they should be more systematic in the use of typography indicating examples and in their ordering. Although the Peter Collin Business 2001 and the Business Spanish 1997, for example, belong to the same publisher, they use different typographical conventions to indicate that an example is being used. For instance, while the Business Spanish 1997 uses bold letters only to distinguish examples from other types of relevant information, we find that the Peter Collin Business 2001 employs italics as well as bold letters to differentiate between sentences and clauses. This fact, however, should be highlighted as it differentiates the various types of examples used. Regarding the ordering of examples, we have also found that the dictionaries studied tend to adhere to the principles of learners’ dictionaries, but rather more in theory than in practice.

Fourth, the business specialised bilingual dictionaries studied should upgrade the use of examples: examples are suitable for illustrating equivalent usage; examples function as equivalents; examples can be used as equivalent substitutes in cases of total lack of equivalence.

## CHAPTER 6

# Conclusions

### 6.1 Introduction

In this final chapter, we present the results and conclusions of our study. These concern three areas to which this research has aimed to make a contribution, namely: (i) the representation of meaning in some monolingual business dictionaries; (ii) in some bilingual English-Spanish / Spanish-English business dictionaries; and (iii) the construction of pedagogical LSP dictionaries.

In section 6.2, we summarise our findings on how the business dictionaries studied represent meaning. It also prepares the ground for formulating our recommendations on how business dictionaries should represent meaning in terms of the accepted lexicographical practices of pedagogical dictionaries. In section 6.3 we state the results of our second research objective based on the facts and beliefs we have acquired from our analysis. We believe that LSP lexicography must incorporate some of the tenets of pedagogical lexicography into its working practices.

### 6.2 The representation of meaning in business dictionaries

All the dictionaries studied covering the broad area of the English and Spanish languages of business in fact deal with more than one subject field. Our decision to focus on the noun term was based on both quantitative and qualitative reasons. LSPs tend to show nominal styles which prove the terminological relevance of the noun term. Similarly, in quantitative terms, nouns predominate in the vocabulary of any LSP. Data extracted from analysing the consonant sequence **pr-** in a sample of the dictionaries studied show that nouns account for between 45% and 79% of the terms included.

Our initial analysis was concerned with homonymy, the form of the lexicographical article, and polysemy. Our study of the macrostructure, access structure and mediostructure of the business dictionaries has shown that these three components (homonymy, polysemy, the form of the lexicographical article) have been neglected by LSP metalexicography.

We have analysed macrostructure with a view to determining the treatment of homonymy in the dictionaries studied. Only in a pedagogical dictionary – the Oxford Business 1993 – is homonymy given any prominence (around 12% of the entries). In the rest of the dictionaries studied, the compilers consider all the lexical items with the

same spelling but different meaning to be polysemous. These findings show that there is little affinity between LSP theory and practice, especially in two dictionaries: the *Alianza Economía 1994* and *Management 2003*. These two dictionaries do not give LSP students, instructors and translators much help in understanding the conceptual structure of the business domain.

More specifically, our findings show that the *Alianza Economía 1994* and *Management 2003* follow very traditional arrangements and are not recommendable from a pedagogical point of view. Lexicographers should adhere to the publishing policy of the Oxford University Press, as the application of the principle of homonymy tries to satisfy the needs of students, instructors, and translators. For example, in the *Oxford Business 1993*, we have observed that homonymy is arranged in terms of the different grammatical categories of lemmas that are formally identical but have different meanings.

The lexicographical article explains the representation of meaning of each entry in terms of the relationship between the form and the content(s). Our analysis shows two interesting findings. First, all the dictionaries arrange lemmas semasiologically, which, from a pedagogical point of view, is in part satisfactory because it facilitates the process of looking up, but in part it is negative because it makes it more difficult to uncover the conceptual structure of the field. This issue, however, deserves more attention and will be discussed in the future (Fuertes-Olivera submitted). Second, monolingual business dictionaries use an analytical structure, whereas bilingual dictionaries use a synthetic one. Pedagogically, this is sound when dictionaries are used in receptive tasks, but it is inadequate if they are used in productive tasks as it disrupts the natural thematic grouping of complex terms in which the lemma in question is used attributively.

We have examined the lexicographical techniques used to structure meanings and senses in the structure of entries. Our analysis has found that the business dictionaries studied use a traditional arrangement: definitions or equivalents always precede examples, which are given lexicographical prominence in both the monolingual and bilingual pedagogically oriented dictionaries. This method should be used regularly, for example, numbers instead of letters for performing both sense differentiation and sense arrangements.

We have also considered the microstructural components “definition”, “equivalent” and “example”. Definitions play a key role in any monolingual dictionary. In our study meaning was understood as the set of conditions which must be satisfied by a lexical unit in order to denote the extralinguistic reality/(ies) which correspond(s) to each of its senses. In the last two decades lexicographical definitions have undergone important changes due to the influence of pedagogical lexicography. Terminological, encyclopaedic, and semantic definitions coexist. We have found that there are no formal differences among the definitional styles, that all of them resort to similar (even the same) basic formulae, and that the pedagogical dictionaries included in the sample used the greatest number of conceptual characteristics in the definition. In sum, based on our analysis, we do not accept the contention that these three types of definitions show different features and that terminological definitions tend to be more precise.

Therefore, we suggest (see 6.3) that monolingual LSP dictionaries adopt definitional styles favouring users' encoding and decoding.

Similarly, equivalents illustrate the relationship between translation and bilingual lexicography. Our analysis has been conditioned by two ingrained beliefs about LSP bilingual lexicography: the cultural proximity or distance between the speakers of the languages covered; the presence or absence of national traditions in the field the dictionaries cover. For example, in the field of business/economics, we are faced with two opposing forces, one emphasising the importance of diversity due to specific national traditions and the other promoting globalisation and uniformity.

Both issues cause some semantic problems, as the analysis of three bilingual dictionaries – Business Spanish 1997, Pirámide Economía 2001, and Ariel Economía 2002 – shows. Our findings indicate that one of the dictionaries has completely ignored the needs of LSP students, instructors, and translators, whereas the other two are more user-friendly. For example, the Ariel Economía 2002 recognises the role of context in determining the linguistic materialisation of the equivalent.

Our analysis, however, has also shown that bilingual business dictionaries are still far from paying attention to some other important tenets of pedagogical lexicography. For example, neither of them uses the “explanatory principle” in the active side and only the Business Spanish 1997 employs it in the passive side. All of them follow traditional practices of bilingual lexicography: the use of the “translation principle” without implementing the cognitive orientation of pedagogical lexicography. In sum, one of the main deficiencies is that all the dictionaries have made an indiscriminate use of equivalents, thus ignoring the relevance of the theory of prototypes to bilingual lexicography. Moreover, the business dictionaries have not consistently and systematically used meaning discriminators.

Regarding meaning discriminators, our analysis indicates that none of the dictionaries studied has given a proper solution to this lexicographical problem. The Business Spanish 1997 has produced meaning discriminators more in line with the needs of students of Business English and/or Spanish. The Ariel Economía 2002 has only paid attention to the needs of the Spanish students of Business English. Finally, the Pirámide Economía 2001 has largely ignored the use of meaning discriminators. On most occasions, they are not used at all.

Scholars have proposed a total of eight categories of elements which can contribute to meaning discrimination of the lemma or its equivalent: punctuation, definitions, synonyms, examples, grammatical categories, usage notes, context of appearance, encyclopaedic information. Our findings indicate that the Business Spanish 1997 uses definitions, synonyms, examples, grammatical categories, and usage notes, whereas the Ariel Economía 2002 employs punctuation, examples, grammatical categories usage notes, context of appearance, and encyclopaedic information. The Pirámide Economía 2001 only uses examples, and, sometimes, grammatical categories.

The literature describes four practices regarding the language in which the discrimination of meaning should be expressed: in the target language in both parts of

the dictionary. Our analysis has focused on the Business Spanish 1997 and the Ariel Economía 2002, since the Pirámide Economía 2001 only uses examples and grammar codes as meaning discriminators. Our findings indicate that the approach adopted by the Ariel Economía 2002 is coherent from a pedagogical point of view. Since this dictionary targets Spanish students of Business English, the language used is Spanish.

Examples are meant to demonstrate information about the lemma or equivalent within a typical context. Hence, they offer implicit information on grammar, usage, meaning, and phraseology. Our analysis has found that the use of examples for contextualising lexical units is still unsystematic: two of the monolingual dictionaries (Alianza Economía 1994 and Management 2003) use quotes; most of the dictionaries do not pay attention to the concepts of “semiotaxis;” The Longman Business 1989 only uses examples in 10% of its lemmas, whereas the Oxford Business 1993, a pedagogical dictionary, contains examples, extracted from the Oxford Corpus in 90% of its lemmas.

Our study has also made a distinction between “dead examples” that are coded as phrases and/or clauses and “live examples” that are coded as sentences. The analysis of the monolingual pedagogically-oriented business dictionaries shows varied usages. On the one hand, the three dictionaries (Longman Business 1989; Oxford Business 1993; and Peter Collin Business 2001) use more sentences than clauses/phrases for coding examples, in line with the principles of pedagogical lexicography that favours the use of sentences for illustrating meaning. On the other hand, one of the dictionaries – the Longman Business 1989 – is far from fulfilling these principles, not only because around 38% of the examples used do not illustrate meaning but also because the number of examples is very small. Finally, one of the dictionaries – the Peter Collin 2001 – employs italics as well as bold letters to differentiate between sentences and clauses. In our view, this should be pointed out as it signals a change in the direction of pedagogical lexicography that recommends a greater differentiation of the various types of examples used.

### 6.3 Towards the construction of pedagogical LSP dictionaries

As previously indicated, the theoretical focus of this work has been motivated by the perception that research on specialised dictionaries needs to consider recent lexicographical approaches aiming at developing better reference works which should solve the needs of LSP students. In this book, therefore, we have maintained that there are five types of users, each of which needs conceptual and linguistic information in L1 and/or L2: experts, semi-experts, laypeople and beginners, translators and interpreters, and, finally, LSP students. To meet their needs, pedagogically oriented dictionaries should incorporate new developments in language theory (for example, the use of “prototypes”); pay attention to the user’s needs (for example, distinguishing clearly among the different functions of any dictionary); use corpora in the compilation of the

dictionary, and not forget to present users with a brief introduction to the conceptual domain the dictionary deals with.

In addition, we have also confirmed that the lexicographical approach to the construction of pedagogical LSP dictionaries implies that the often-quoted distinction between LSP lexicography and terminology is of no practical use. (Sager 1990) The connection between lexicography and terminology is more or less accepted by a large number of scholars who do not opt for compartmentalization (Lerat 1988; Bejoint 1989; de Bessé 1990, 1997), and do not seem to find clear frontiers or separation between the two disciplines. (Bergenholtz and Kaufmann 1997; Dubois 1979) For this reason, we believe that there are no real internal differences. On the one hand, although terminography functions in thematically circumscribed fields, lexicography can equally function in the framework of independent semantically restricted fields. On the other hand, the General Theory of Terminology (GTT) has had a marked unifying and normalising orientation (prescriptive terminology) which, however, conflicts with a firm descriptive point of view (descriptive terminology).

The construction of pedagogical LSP dictionaries should aim at helping LSP instructors, students, and translators to learn. (Bogaards 1994; Binon and Verlinde 1998; Tarp 2005a):

1. completely new lexical units, i.e. new forms with unknown meanings.
2. new meanings for forms with which they are already acquainted, i.e. new senses for familiar words, or particular meanings of combinations of familiar words, that is compounds, verbal phrases, idioms and the like.
3. relations between lexical units, in terms of form (i.e. morphological relations), but above all in terms of meaning: they have to learn to discriminate lexical units with approximately the same meaning, and to structure lexical fields.
4. the correct and appropriate uses of lexical units at the levels of grammar, collocation, pragmatics and discourse.
5. some knowledge about the subject field in question.

Within this theoretical framework, we formulate our proposals for the construction of pedagogically-oriented monolingual and bilingual LSP dictionaries.

### 6.3.1 The construction of pedagogically oriented monolingual LSP dictionaries

Regarding monolingual works, we recommend using some of the defining characteristics of dictionaries such as DAFA 2000 which: (i) combines an alphabetical/semasiological macrostructure and an onomasiological/conceptual microstructure, each article being a kind of semantic field or microsystem; (ii) treats the words in the alphabetical list in more detail in the context of one of 135 word families describing central concepts; (iii) arranges collocations for combinations with different parts of speech, which are sometimes explicitly explained, and mostly illustrated by means of examples. This dictionary pays attention to the syntagmatic potential of its components,

something very useful for encoding purposes needed by advanced learners and translators who also need onomasiological information; (iv) consists of both a paper version and an electronic one (DAFA 2001); (v) is based on a corpus.

In addition, the representation of meaning in pedagogically oriented LSP dictionaries will be upgraded if they follow the tradition started in the 1930s by such influential learner's dictionaries (ISED 1942; Oxford Learner's 1948; Longman Dictionary 1978; Cobuild 1987; Cambridge International 1995; MEDAL 2002) (See Kernerman 2007). In very general terms, this implies adopting the following lexicographical principles:

1. Paying particular attention to all the lexical units currently found in LSP texts. Many of them are polysemous, appear with great frequency and give rise to a large number of derivatives, compound nouns and idiomatic expressions.
2. Formulating definitions in the framework of controlled vocabularies, respecting the lexicographical principle that these should be made by employing simpler lexical units than those to be defined, and by complete sentences.
3. Giving grammatical information a hitherto unknown central role. This is the aspiration of information on grammar, with an increasing degree of transparency implicitly observed in the very large number of examples incorporated into this type of work, and clearly exemplified in the definitions.
4. Paying attention to the treatment of collocations and synonyms – the “idiom principle” – and, if necessary, to pronunciation, and spelling rules.
5. Relying on corpus linguistics, using electronic forms of processing.
6. Including a kind of conceptual introduction to the subject matter in question.

Finally and more specifically, on the basis of our study, we make the following observations:

7. Homonymy is preferable in the establishment of the nomenclature.
8. For overcoming problems related with the organization of the lemmas, it is advisable to introduce slight modifications in the arrangement criteria of lemmas; for example by using an alphabetical ordering together with an analytical macrostructure and a better system of cross-references.
9. Reinforcing the value of explicit information.
10. Making definitions adjustable to the user's needs.
11. Using examples and/or quotations in order to fulfil two main functions: providing explanations and serving as models for speaking and writing. This implies that examples in LSP dictionaries, if properly selected, should illustrate collocational, stylistic, syntactic, morphological, cultural, ideological, and conceptual features of words and phrases.
12. Differentiating between the types of examples used.

### 6.3.2 The construction of pedagogically oriented bilingual (English-Spanish / Spanish-English) LSP dictionaries

The situation is also improving in bilingual LSP lexicography, although at a much slower pace. Together with providing lexical equivalents, there is nowadays a tendency to provide communicative and knowledge information. Although bilingual dictionaries can be mono-directional, there is a trend to produce bi-directional dictionaries. (Desmet 2006) We support the construction of monodirectional bilingualised dictionaries. This proposal may be adjusted to the distinction between cultural-dependent and cultural-independent fields of knowledge. Intuitively, it seems easier to argue that attaining bi-directionality will be less problematic in cultural-independent fields than in cultural-dependent ones. As these dictionaries should incorporate a detailed introduction to the subject field in question, we suggest that this introduction should be written in English with terminological equivalents in Spanish (in brackets). Our contention is that most texts are originally published in English and thus most terms are created in English and then sometimes adapted to other languages.

At the level of metalexicography, we note a convergence between monolingual and bilingual/multilingual lexicography which implies designing and producing pedagogically motivated specialised dictionaries, and paying attention to both the knowledge-orientated functions and the communication-orientated functions. A modern user-oriented lexicography is focused on the learner as dictionary user who needs not only phonetical, (ortho)graphic, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic data (i.e. communication-orientated functions), but also conceptual information (i.e. knowledge-orientated information). For example, the Gene Technology (1998) offers an introduction to Molecular Biology in English and Spanish. This introduction allows users to acquire the basic principles and terminology of this specific subject field.

A bilingual English-Spanish / Spanish-English business dictionary for Spanish students of Business English is monodirectional and bilingualised and will help users in decoding and encoding texts. The macrostructure should organise homonyms according to formal criteria. The ordering of the macrostructure should be analytical in the passive side because it favours a strict-alphabetical lemma arrangement, and synthetic in the active side thus allowing compilers to adhere to the principle of either a non-strict alphabetical arrangement or a niche alphabetical one. Sub-lemmas should be considered derivatives, compounds or complex terms related to the lemma or hyponym.

The “explanatory principle” should also be used in bilingual lexicography. The meaning of the lemma should be presented through a combination of definitions and equivalents. The passive side uses simple “semantic definitions” together with equivalents, whereas in the active side only equivalents should be used. Finally, examples are also considered key elements for representing meaning. In the passive side, some examples in L2 can be translated into L1 when they show contextual variations. In the active side, examples in L1 are translated into L2. Our proposal is illustrated in Figures



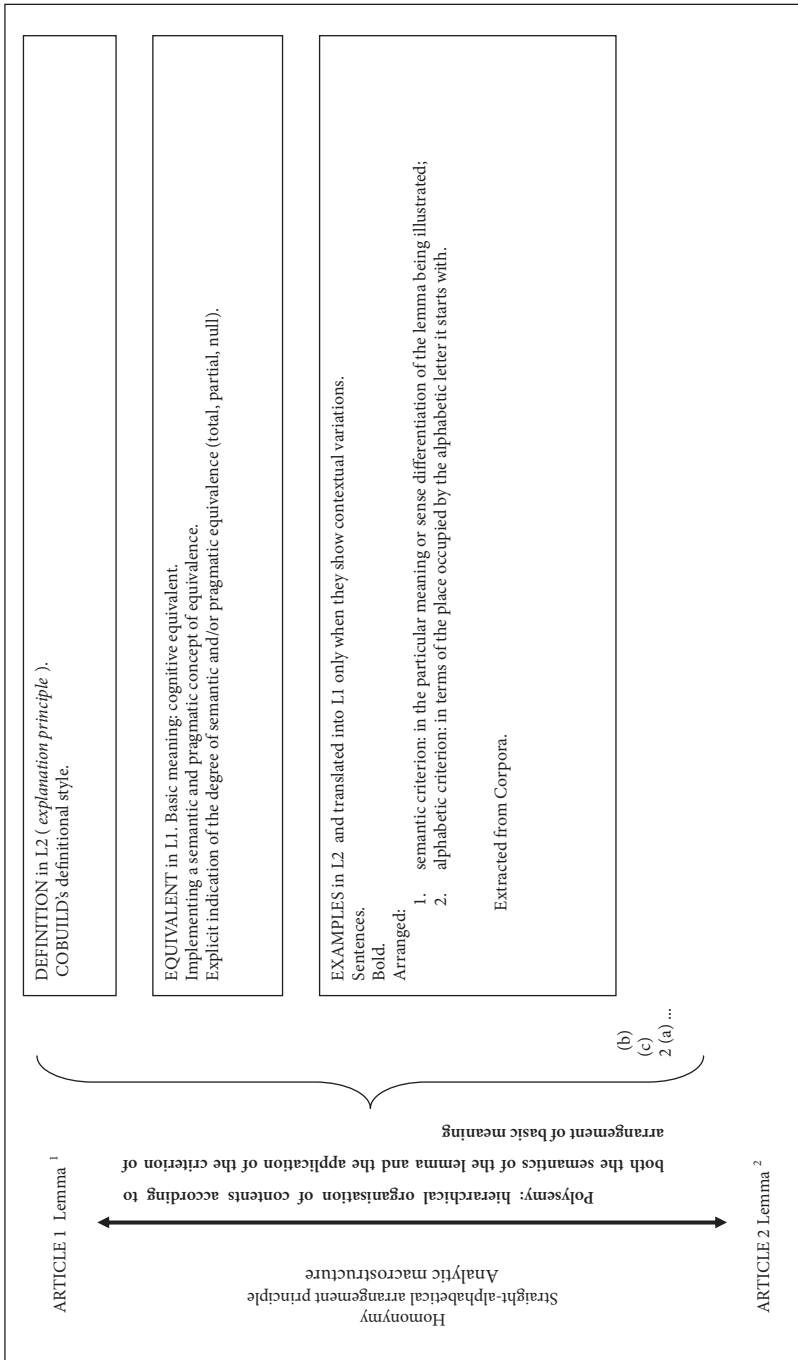


Figure 4. Proposal of the representation of meaning in the passive side of the LSP Dictionary

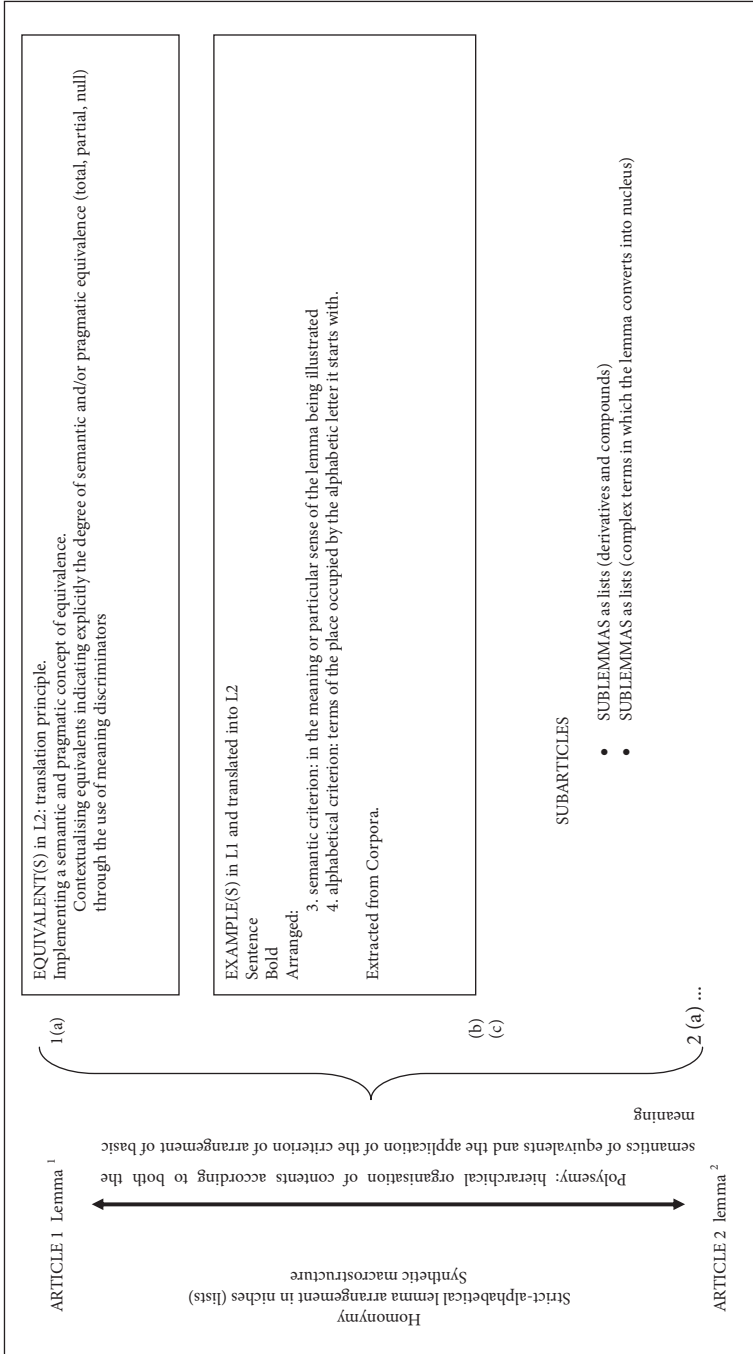


Figure 5. Proposal of the representation of meaning in the active side of the LSP Dictionary

4 and 5 and Example (60). They represent graphically the article of the monodirectional bilingualised business dictionary as envisaged in this book targeting Spanish students of business English.

To sum up, Example (60) illustrates the structure of an entry in a bilingual dictionary for Spanish students of Business English.

(a) The passive side

**growth**  $\Delta^{11}$  /grəʊθ/ *nun*<sup>12</sup>. **1a** (MACROECONOMÍA)<sup>13</sup>. Se denomina **crecimiento**<sup>14</sup> al aumento de la cantidad de bienes y servicios producidos por una economía<sup>15</sup>.  $\diamond^{16}$  ~ **accounting** *nun* contabilidad del crecimiento; (...)<sup>17</sup> **Its economic growth rate is second to none in the world** Su tasa de crecimiento económico es la mayor del mundo; **pundits predicted less growth for the computing industry**<sup>18</sup>. (b) (DESARROLLO) (fig.)<sup>19</sup>.

**Growth zones** o **growth areas** “áreas de desarrollo”  $\approx^{20}$  o “zonas de desarrollo” promovidas por el gobierno.  $\square^{22}$  **development areas** o **development zones** (...).

11. The symbol  $\Delta$  cross-refers to the part of the dictionary which contains a conceptual introduction to the field in question. For this lemma, for example, we will refer users to the MACROECONOMIC concept “growth theory” {*teoría del crecimiento*}, which explains how the value of goods and services (*bienes y servicios*) produced by an economy does or does not increase. Economists use the terms GDP (*PIB*) or GNP (*PNB*) to measure growth, usually calculated in real terms (*términos reales*), i.e. inflation-adjusted terms (*descontando la inflación*), in order to net out the effect of inflation (*inflación*) on the price of the goods and services produced. Different theoretical models (classical, keynesian, monetarist, etc.) explain this concept differently. For example, Keynesians claim that increasing demand (*demanda*) leads to higher growth and defend governments’ intervention to avoid slumps (*recesiones*) or periods of poor or negative growth, usually by increasing spending (*gasto*) or lowering taxes (*impuestos*).

12. This grammatical information differentiates between countable (nc) and uncountable nouns (n and nun respectively)

13. Capital letters indicate BASIC CONCEPTS in the field.

14. The term in bold is the cognitive equivalent of the lemma.

15. It is included a simple definition of the term in the target language. The cognitive equivalent, if possible, should be included in the definition.

16. Collocations.

17. Examples.

18. Two examples: one translated into the target language because it offers contextual variation.

19. (Fig.) means that the second sense is a metaphorical extension of the first one. Included when it is mainly used in a different sub-domain (here DEVELOPMENT).

## (b) The active side

**crecimiento** Δ. 1. growth /grəʊθ/ *nun* (MACROECONOMICS). ◇ **de rápido** ~ fast-growing *adj.* **economías con ~s negativos** negative-growth economies (...). • **El crecimiento económico es una las metas de toda sociedad** obtaining economic growth is an aspiration of every society. 2. increase /ɪnˈkriːs/ *nc* increases; rise /raɪz/ *nc*; raise /reɪz/ *nc* (POLITICS; MANAGEMENT) ◇ ~ **del desempleo** rise in unemployment • **At the meeting with management trade unions demanded an increase in wages** Las centrales sindicales exigieron un aumento salarial en las negociaciones con la patronal

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20. This symbol indicates approximate equivalence.

21. Quotation marks indicate that the concept is being explained in the general conceptual introduction.

22. The symbol □ indicates synonyms.



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