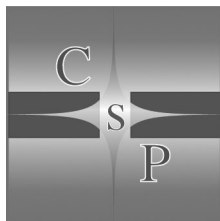


Essays on Lexicon, Lexicography, Terminography
in Russian, American and Other Cultures

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Edited by

Olga Karpova and Faina Kartashkova



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INTRODUCTION

International lexicographic school-seminars at Ivanovo State University date back to 1995 and are held every two years between EURALEX congresses. The idea was to bring together experienced scholars and young researchers. Famous Russian and foreign guest-lecturers were invited to Ivanovo. Since then six schools have been organized:

- 1995 *Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Lexicography*, guest-lecturer Reinhard R.K. Hartmann (UK);
- 1997 *Problems of Bilingual Lexicography*, guest-lecturer Krista Varantola (Finland);
- 1999 *Dictionary in Contemporary World*, guest-lecturer Ruth Vatvedt Fjeld (Norway);
- 2001 *Language. Culture. Dictionaries*, guest-lecturers Svetlana G. Ter-Minasova (Russia) and Kenneth A. Haseley (USA);
- 2003 *Theoretical Lexicography: Modern Tendencies of Development*, guest-lecturers Dmitry O. Dobrovolsky (Russia) and Bertha M. Toft (Denmark);
- 2005 *Lexicon, Lexicography and Terminography in Russian, American and other cultures*, guest-lecturers Heribet Picht (Germany) and Kenneth A. Haseley (USA).

Nowadays Ivanovo Lexicographic School-seminar has gained the status of an international conference which gives young researchers a unique opportunity to learn the leading achievements in theoretic and applied lexicography and linguistics and present their own research to the most experienced and competent listener.

Abstracts of all the schools were published.

Present collection of works covers main topics discussed at VI International School-Seminar *Lexicon, Lexicography, Terminography in Russian, American and Other Cultures* and is divided into four parts: I. Cultural Aspects in Different Linguistic and Lexicographic Traditions, II. User's Perspective and Dictionary Use, III. Terminology and Terminography, IV. New Dictionary Projects.

Part I *Cultural Aspects in Different Linguistic and Lexicographic Traditions* deals with analysis of cultural aspects of language and lexicography in modern situation of cross-cultural communication with special reference to English, Russian, German, French, Arabic and other languages.

Words of every national language make up the language picture of the world specific to the nation. Dealing with other languages implies an opposition with the mother's tongue, hence linguistic and socio-cultural difficulties that people face in communication and teaching. The lexicographic treatment of the problem is of paramount importance.

Taking in consideration the fact that any dictionary is a snapshot of the of the society's life reflecting the culture and the system of values existing within the society, the significance of the problem of expressing gender aspects in dictionaries is beyond doubt (A. Grigoryan). For the gender component to be properly codified and reflected in dictionaries the linguists must define the criteria of different types and genres of dictionaries selection. Of no less importance is the treatment of etymological dictionaries and the dictionaries which reflect contacts of different languages.

Characteristic features of modern languages and culture as reflected in the dictionaries (S. Ter-Minasova) along with depiction of peculiarities of artistic writers' world referring to Jean-Paul Sartre's creative activity (A. Taganov) are in the centre of attention in this part of the book. Cultural study of Austrian phraseology displaying self-developing of German in Austria (V. Malygin) and research of different intercultural influences contribute to the investigation of intercultural aspect of dictionaries.

Russian-Arabic contacts and the cultural, political, commercial and religious bridges and channels through which the two languages have interacted since the XVII century, directly and indirectly through Oriental, Slavic and European languages, add valuable material to this field of research (N. Kassis). At the same time new approaches to problems of developing skills in effective professional communication and exchange of special information are also in close connection with culture and language (K. Haseley).

Part II *User's Perspective and Dictionary Use* is devoted to discussion of research results obtained in the field of user's needs and demands studied from different angles.

The new updated student dictionaries are aimed at paving the path to better understanding and at the same time to an easier acquisition of the target language. A proper dictionary is the one which is compiled on the analysis of the questionnaire design results.

These forms are filled by teachers and students who instruct lexicographers to assist them in compiling an ideal dictionary. Lexicographers take into account the requests to the dictionary entry structure, symbols

convenient for perception. A dictionary is known to be a reliable reference book which helps students to learn a foreign language. Good learner's dictionaries give real help with correct pronunciation, clearly explained grammar patterns, usage, register labels and illustrative examples. Scholars warn against taking for granted the student's ability to use the dictionary efficiently; they call for the promotion of activities that give students insight into how the dictionary should be used.

In spite of the fact that modern dictionaries are a valuable source of relevant information they lack adequate reflection of collocations. Hence, it is important to investigate why, how, for whom and in which dictionaries collocations are described, so the problem of investigating lexicographical description of collocations comes to the fore. Another interesting problem is the problem of phonetic inconsistencies in the English dictionaries used by English language learners. In the era of the global spread of the English language there is a great need for dictionaries giving standard pronunciation patterns for EFL and ESL learners.

The questionnaires aimed at adjusting dictionaries to the needs of their users should focus their attention on the background of the student's dictionaries, student's use of the dictionary and dictionary characteristics.

Details and rules of dictionary use in second language acquisition based on a survey of Russian students mastering English as a foreign language are analysed by O. Uzhova.

Other users' comparative survey of questionnaires offered to Russian and Korean University freshmen gives interesting results to the theory and practice of user's perspective (L. Devel). Users' guide among online dictionaries of Russian poetic language helps to solve the task of dictionary choice and contributes to international users' perspective study (L. Shestakova).

Problems of dictionary compilation and use must be considered in close connection with repertoire of labels, that's why the lexicographic and pedagogical issues of phonetic transcription (and markers) are discussed by G. Vishnevskaya in view of the foreign language pronunciation acquisition pitfalls, in the situation of artificial (classroom) bilingualism (English/Russian language contact).

According to users' surveys, students also underline lexicographic presentation and description of collocations among the most difficult problems in dictionary microstructure and learner's dictionaries in particular (M. Vlavatskaya).

Part III *Terminology and Terminography* reveals the latest tendencies in modern terminology formation, scientific knowledge engineering in languages for special purposes and professional communication.

Professional communication implies special knowledge not necessarily accessible to a community as a whole. This accounts for the fact that performers of a profession are part of one or more linguistic communities. A central and immediately recognizable element of professional communication is terminology, that is why to investigate the problem of inefficient professional communication we must go into terminology research. As terminologies are the carriers of conceptual knowledge, scholars began with studying terms and their meanings. But later on linguists became aware of the fact that it would be more correct to discriminate between language for general purposes and language for special purposes. The most significant part of the latter is studying a subject field terminology.

Problems of LSP teaching in Russian classroom which requires individual differentiation of LSP learners are very important for modern terminology study. LSP learning for subject field specialists is based on their knowledge of the subject field, its logic, its concept system and its isomorphous terminology, while for a linguist-terminologists the corner stone is general linguistic knowledge and basics of terminology. LSP learning correlates with necessity to deliver pragmatically oriented course of LSP lexicology, stylistics, basics of terminography, methods of terminology regulation and standardization and linguistic statistics. Combination of theoretical and practical skills obtained during terminographic description of a certain layer of terminological lexical units and business games on compiling terminological standard for a given subject field, turns out to be very important in the process of LSP teaching (K. Averboukh, O. Karpova).

When teaching LSP it is also important to show term building from the point of view of individual creativity. An attempt to overcome the assumption that the term is born and functions within the frames of a certain system is demonstrated with special reference to various scientific texts and focused on the individual ways of scientific knowledge transfer (L. Alexeeva).

Terminology study and non-verbal presentation of special knowledge teaching has come to the fore of modern linguistics (H. Picht).

Analysis of terminological Shakespeare dictionaries in English author's lexicography is given with special reference to naval terms, plant names, etc. showing their esthetic function in writer's literary works (O. Karpova).

Part IV *New Dictionary Projects* presents models of new reference works. The variety of special dictionaries in modern lexicography is very rich, but following the users' needs and demands lexicographers continue to compile new ones. Among them is the functional model of scientific bilingual dictionary (V. Tabanakova, M. Kovyazina). The necessity of discussing the lexicographic means used in presenting typological dictionary functions and outline the functional model of the Scientific Bilingual Dictionary is predetermined by the

fact that bilingual special dictionaries are much more functionally determined than monolingual explanatory dictionaries. The functional model of a bilingual dictionary is said to be based upon its functional variability and aim at synthesizing adequate lexicographic means to carry out the functions.

The Naval sublanguage is known to be the language used by professional sailors. The task set by the author of the project M. Solnyshkina is to reveal the principles of Russian Naval sublanguage vocabulary fixation in a monolingual printed dictionary. The dictionary aims at supplying the users with Russian sailors' "world picture", i.e. to help them to comprehend the way the Russian Naval sublanguage mirrors the world and provides the user with an in-depth treatment of the language used within the selected subject field. The emphasis is on the macro- and microstructure of the dictionary.

Taking into consideration the fact that a dictionary can never be full linguists admit the necessity to make parallel multi-dictionary access possible which presupposes an unlimited number of lexical resources available for the user at the moment. The ways to make an electronic dictionary useful for people in their task of processing language are various. Lexicographers who are engaged in Reference Science try to incorporate truly intelligent easy-to-use terminology products into the user's daily working environment. E. Shaposhnikova describes what a new intelligent electronic dictionary should be.

Genuine progress in modern linguistics presupposes a thorough and adequate formalization of its own scientific language. As the majority of phonetic terms have many different meanings it is necessary to create a unified formal language in phonetics. Creation of a new universal standardized systematic model of a new phonetic data bank in the form of a specialized terminological dictionary (K. Denisov) is sure to contribute to efficiency of a global scientific community development. The unity of a systematic method in terminology has become a practical demand to any coherent metalanguage dictionary and undoubtedly simplifies professional communication on every stage of disseminating knowledge.

More and more often explanatory dictionaries appear to acquire encyclopedic orientation which is treated not only as a universal reference book on a definite language but also on the life of modern society and world. A dictionary of phraseological units with special reference to non-verbal components of communication (F. Kartashkova, M. Mayakina) is aimed at showing interaction of language and non-language units in the process of communication. The dictionary project is based on the principles of integral description of the language units in the dictionary developed by J.D. Apresjan. An explanatory dictionary is aimed at serving certain educative goals. The purpose of the planned dictionary is to create a reference book containing the most important information about the non-verbal components of communication

accepted in the English society and to make a practical textbook reflecting the variety of English-speaking non-verbal behaviour.

Being a part of lingua-cognitive concepts inherent in all members of any national linguistic society, feature concepts possess larger degree of individuality specific and sometimes unique nature. Consequently, lexical representation of individual feature concepts helps us to understand the author's inward creative world better. For this purpose it is necessary to present the means for the comprehension of the author's individual feature concepts in a form of a structured vocabulary article. Vocabulary of key-words of Georgiy Ivanov's poetry is presented in I. Tarasova's work.

Prof. Olga Karpova,
Prof. Faina Kartashkova

PART I

**CULTURAL ASPECTS IN DIFFERENT
LINGUISTIC AND LEXICOGRAPHIC
TRADITIONS**

CHAPTER ONE

ON GENDER ASPECT IN LEXICOGRAPHY

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Despite all the usual claims by lexicographers at large concerning their own as well as their branch of humanities purely descriptive and objective nature it does seem evident that the results of their painstaking efforts and hard work are far from being just neutral and descriptive. Prescriptive and sometimes even biased seem to be more suitable words to characterize the real state of art in lexicography as it is and – much more so – as it used (not at all so long ago) to be. The article presented here is an attempt to ponder about some of the reasons for that as well as to talk about ways and tendencies of expressing gender aspect while presenting words in dictionaries.

The fact of the matter is that any dictionary – however “objective” and “bias-free” its author/authors – is in a way a picture, a snapshot of a given moment in a society’s life thus reflecting the society’s culture and system of values, relationships existing within the culture under study at that point. Since the vast majority of languages – English, French, German, Russian, Spanish, etc. – belonging to the so-called “civilized” countries of the world function within the societies governed by predominantly patriarchal principles any systematic description of such languages cannot but reflect those basic dominant values. In other words, such systematic descriptions of languages are inevitably not just anthropocentric (i.e. focused on a human being in general) but also androcentric / androcratic (i.e. focused on males only). To put it mildly one could say that a certain level of bias in the field of dictionary making/compiling undoubtedly has existed and that it has contributed to the exclusion of women from the mainstream of lexicography.

The practice of suppressing words and notions important for women as well as substituting male standards for female ones and giving explanations of a woman’s behaviour from a man’s belfry is but a way of discrimination. Taking this into consideration it is no wonder that some women (especially those with feminist inclinations) believe that no real changes in any society are possible as

long as women go on using languages that function according to the rules invented and supported by men. From the point of view of those scholars, in order to symbolically as well as really liberate themselves and become independent of men, women have to at least stop making use of male linguistic standards. Feminists believe that our world would have been quite different if women have had the power to name things and to define words for these nominations. This has logically led to the realization of the necessity to teach women to conceptualize and construct the objective reality from their own point of view just as they have been taught to do it from the men's perspective. One of the outcomes of this realization was the publication in different countries of the world of quite a few dictionaries written from women's standpoint. Many familiar words and concepts get redefined in these lexicographic reference books; quite a few new words are invented/reinvented or just coined so that a new – worthy of women – language can be created. It is not by chance that a feminist scholar Mary Daly gave her lexicographic work a title *Webster's First New Intergalactic Wickedary of the English Language* (Daly 1987). It is worth mentioning here that besides making an interesting reference to the initial meaning of the word “webster” (i.e. *a weaver, someone creating his/her own fabric, his/her own story through coining new words or discovering/rediscovering old and half-forgotten meanings*) the researcher also refers to the name of the outstanding American lexicographer that has become a common name in dictionary world. It becomes obvious that besides creating new feminist dictionaries gender-sensitive scholarship is very much interested in gender aspects of a language finding their way into the pages of widely-acknowledged lexicographic reference books and being adequately reflected there. To achieve this goal becomes even more important if we take into consideration the fact that modern dictionaries more and more become not just a collection of lexicon but also include a large part of more general culture background of the language. This tendency is evident even in dictionaries that do not contain the word “culture” as part of their title (e.g. *Cambridge International Dictionary of English, Concise Oxford English Dictionary, Longman Advanced American Dictionary* and many others).

It is common knowledge that lexicographic materials and publications are trustworthy sources for doing linguistic research. That is no wonder since dictionaries are primarily just books, written texts in which any society's and culture's memory is kept, preserved, produced and reproduced. Gender is one of the basic most important parts of any human being's identity. It would have been only natural to expect the gender component to be properly codified and reflected in dictionaries. Unfortunately, as far as we know, the questions of the place the gender component should occupy, the problems connected with its

codification and fixation in dictionaries have not yet become the focus of lexicographic research.

Just as is true for any linguistic research the reference to lexicographic works should be based on certain principles. It seems important to look into the criteria of different types and genres of dictionaries selection as well as into principles of dictionary analysis. If these factors are not taken into consideration the results gained from such a research could be disputable and questionable. Russian philologists D. Dobrovolsky and A. Kirilina devoted one of their joint articles to the discussion of scholarly parameters in linguistic research in general and in gender studies – in particular (Dobrovolsky, Kirilina 2000). According to them one of the most important points is the necessity for the linguistic empirical material to be representative. Besides, the sources and the composition of the material should be specifically mentioned (Ibid). The researchers point out that unless this requirements are fulfilled “any (even most interesting and non-trivial) conclusions made on the basis of the interpretation of a few facts that accidentally caught researcher’s attention, prove nothing except the mere fact that those linguistic features of the languages are constructed in that way. On the basis of this no generalizations are possible: neither concerning the structure of the language, nor (and even more so) concerning the structure of the consciousness of people speaking that language” (the interpretation is ours – A.G.) (Dobrovolsky, Kirilina 2000: 22). It follows that dictionaries used as sources of materials to study the gender component of languages should be socially and culturally significant as well as trustworthy. One of the basic distinctions to be made between different types of lexicographic sources is that between normative explanatory and various types of special dictionaries. That distinction lies (among other things) in the completeness and the way of presenting the extra-linguistic reality in them.

Normative explanatory dictionaries of English are fully-indexed books based on millions of word usages in various texts registered and kept in electronic corpora of the language. Obviously it is these dictionaries that offer many opportunities for exploration of the gender component reflection in the language. The research based on such dictionaries could be especially promising and productive for the studies of gender stereotypes, gender asymmetries and so-called semantic lacunae (i.e. semantic gaps – the situation when the language lacks a special name/word for this or that gender relevant concept). As opposed to the normative dictionary, the collection of words in a special one will always contain some sort of restrictions. Academician L.V. Scherba wrote “From a purely linguistic point of view only normative or academic type of dictionaries must be considered scholarly since their subject matter is linguistic reality – i.e. the lexical system of the language in its totality and complexity. Any special reference book in the end will always be a collection of words chosen according

to some set of principles. That collection never depicts the linguistic reality at whole but always is a smaller or larger fragment of it" (the interpretation is ours – A.G.) (Scherba1974: 276). This does not mean that special reference books (such as dictionaries of idioms, proverbs and sayings, word collocations etc) should not be studied as to the reflection of the gender component in them. On the contrary: sometimes this must be done and can potentially provide very interesting and thought-provoking results. It only follows that a preliminary to the research description of a particular lexicographic work should be a must, a necessary part of the following study. That preliminary will caution one against unnecessary and sweeping generalizations. For example, the comparative analysis of *Cambridge International Dictionary of Idioms* and *Big English-Russian Phraseological Dictionary* shows that in the Russian language there exist a lot more idioms containing the concept *woman* than in English. The same type of correlation was stated by a Russian researcher A. Kirilina who compared German and Russian phraseological units. According to her findings there are less than 400 phraseological units in German and more than 1800 phraseological units in Russian containing the component *woman* (Kirilina 1999: 138). J. Lakoff's stated that there is a direct correlation of the number of certain concept's nominations with that concept's importance in the culture of a certain ethnic group (Lakoff 1988). The agreement with this idea means that the concept of *woman* is somewhat more important in Russian culture than it is in English or German ones. That – in its turn – is another proof for the hypothesis about Russian culture and language being less androcentric in comparison with the English one. Indeed, in the Russian language there are a lot of words used to describe woman fulfilling different kinds of social roles and designating different levels of kinship: *mat'*, *babushka*, *sestra*, *zhena*, *nevesta*, *khozyaika*, *tyoscha*, *svekrov'*, *nevestka*, *snokha*, *machekha*, *svakha*, *zolovka*, *kuma* etc. Not all of these Russian words have their English counterparts: e.g. two Russian words, *tyoscha* and *svekrov'* (meaning – in a way – almost directly opposite things) are both translated into English as *mother-in-law*.

In our opinion, the comparative study of proverbs and sayings (paremiology) using corresponding English, German and Russian dictionaries could be viewed as a good source of the gender component reflection analysis. That kind of research is by no means accidental: this branch of linguistics lies at the intersection of phraseology, lexicography and folklore. Such a research project could yield very interesting results from the modern language-culture interrelation point of view. Paremiology analysis could be indicative of existing cultural stereotypes that have found fixation in a language and its dictionaries.

One of the stereotypes concerning the comparison between English and Russian is that the former is considered by many scholars *a masculine* while the latter – *a feminine* language. In order to investigate that we propose to conduct a

comparative study of English and Russian proverbs and sayings having “gendered” character (i.e. those dealing with socio-cultural aspects of male-female interrelations).

One of the possible approaches to do that could be to subdivide the corresponding proverbs into various semantic fields and analyse them. The following groups could be proposed:

- a) wedlock;
- b) motherhood and mothering;
- c) fatherhood;
- d) girlhood; bride and bridegroom;
- e) social roles played in the society;
- f) qualities of females and males (appearance, personality, practicality, intellect, jobs done, responsibility, reliability, etc.).

In other words it is proposed to look thoroughly into males’ and females’ Weltansicht (making use of Wilhelm von Humboldt’s concept) and come to the conclusions how they are depicted and understood in the languages and cultures compared. I believe that to a certain (and I suspect quite a big one) extent the attitudes both cultures have to the above-mentioned issues are similar. At the same time, I am sure that there are differences, which are vital to take into consideration if one really wants to understand the respective cultures and languages.

Another important factor to consider – besides distinction between normative and special types of dictionaries – is conciseness or completeness of the dictionary, its abridged or unabridged character. It seems only natural that concise dictionaries due to the very nature of them cannot provide a complex and complete representation of the linguistic unit under study. It is worth mentioning that academician L.V. Scherba once wrote: “My teaching experience tells me one thing: any concise dictionary tends – in the end – to irritate any serious users because it inevitably proves to be insufficient in all the cases when one really needs a dictionary...” (the interpretation is ours – A.G.) (Scherba 1974: 289).

The parameter of chronology should be paid attention to in two respects: a) the date the dictionary was published; b) the chronological characteristics of the words reflected in the dictionary. This requirement seems important since that will make it possible to evaluate socio-cultural conditions under which the dictionary was prepared to publication. On the one hand, some dictionaries specifically mention the time period reflected in the dictionary (e.g. the country study dictionary *Great Britain* published in the Soviet Union included words denoting British realities covering the time period up to the

second half of the 1970-s). Consequently, any analysis based on this dictionary as a lexicographic source should take this fact into consideration: the conclusions reached should correlate with this particular period of time. On the other hand, equally important is the knowledge about the general extralinguistic context at the time of the dictionary publication. Thus one should not forget that during the USSR time the choice of words in a dictionary was to some extent influenced by ideological factors. In other words, certain entries in the dictionary could have been considered out of place for purely ideological reasons. This could be equally true about the dictionary entries in the reference books published in the West and describing something connected with the former socialist/communist countries. Thus the date of the dictionary publication could well be the reason for possible inadequate interpretation of the results achieved in the course of a particular linguistic study devoted to the reflection of various parameters within the word-structure (including the gender one).

Besides, the comparative study of the dictionaries published at different time periods could be productive and interesting not only from the point of view of chronological snapshots of the lexicon. It could also prove revealing from the point of gender component reflection dynamics in the context of socio-cultural features of a language and speech at different periods of a society's development. This makes the historical aspect of lexicographic studies especially interesting for researchers working in the gender-language relationship and interdependence field.

In our opinion, another type of a dictionary that could be of value for the study of the gender component is an ideographic thesaurus type of a dictionary. The divisions and subdivisions of ideographic dictionaries while representing the lexicon in time and space provide their users with the information about the role the gender component could play as well as about the dynamics of the category of gender social status reflection.

From the point of view of the lexicographic discourse both traditional definition analysis as well as complex and thorough study of dictionary entries prove to be interesting for modern gender and language studies. The first one of these approaches – the so-called “definition analysis” – according to Professor A. Ufimtseva is considered to be a method for linguistic studies and is more frequently used as a “special methodical tool to describe lexical semantics” (the interpretation is ours – A.G.) (Ufimtseva 1984). However, from the standpoint of the gender component reflection analysis it might be interesting to ponder not only over the definitions that could be found in the dictionary. The structure of a dictionary entry itself presents great interest. It is known that the structure is a combination of a language and speech parts thus including a formal semantic level alongside with illustrative sentences. The proper semantic characteristics

of a word assume the unity of the definition and combinability potential of a word. However, this does not exclude the possibility of additional commentaries (e.g. by enlisting the words that are semantically close to the entry word).

Commentaries and additional references to and about the gender component are not considered to be a strict must by dictionary compilers/makers. As a result these commentaries are not used consistently which – in our opinion – is a pity since these commentaries could have been very helpful for the dictionary users. For instance, *Longman Advanced American Dictionary* (2001) defines this adjective in the following way: *a man who is effeminate looks or behaves like a woman* (Longman 2001: 459). This kind of definition seems to me biased since it assumes that to look or behave like a woman is some sort of deviation and hence could hardly be connected with anything positive and because it does exclude women from the scope of meanings covered by the generic meaning of *man*. The same kind of commentary goes to another word at the same page of the same dictionary *effete*. To my mind, both these entries deserve a special gender commentary. The electronic version of Cambridge International Dictionary of English (CIDE) defines the word *effeminate* in the following way: *adjective disapproving (of a man) behaving or appearing in a way that is similar to a woman and lacking in manly qualities* and provides the following example sentence – *He's got a very effeminate manner/voice/walk*. These definitions as well as the illustration provided speak for themselves: they are not gender-neutral and should be commented on.

Thus, the inclusion of different functional parameters into the composition of a dictionary entry could be considered gender relevant. However, the inclusion of the so-called “negative language material” (in Prof. Scherba’s words) is also very important. The scholar defined “negative language material” in the following way: “It is the language material as though marked by special notes saying “wrong usage”. This language material gets its realization in various ways: for younger people – in receiving reprimands from their elders, for more grown-up ones – in receiving other people’s mockery. In real language life this negative material is far from being dangerous. On the contrary, it plays a great role in building-up the language system within the members of a particular language community. Realization of the role it plays in the process of natural acquisition of the language is very important – among other things – for theoretical approaches to the methods of foreign language teaching...” (the interpretation is ours – A.G.) (Scherba 1974: 288). We would like to underline that these comments could refer to the gender characteristics of words. These parameters/restrictions are especially to the point in special kinds of dictionaries (e.g. idioms, slang, proverbs and sayings, etc.).

Gender component reflection in lexicography has already been the focus of research of E. Piirainen who worked with German language material (Piirainen 1999). The scholar – in particular – has worked out a typological description of gender connected limitations in phraseological units. She points out three groups of shortcomings of gender component marking in lexicography (in German phraseological dictionaries that she analyzed, to be precise). The researcher mentions the absence of indications about gender restrictions, then she points out inadequate usage labels and the last but not the least – talks about somewhat artificial character of some illustrative sentences. We believe that this classification could be of value both for other linguistic units and for other languages. It is very important to take these observations into consideration in the process of lexicographic presentation of the units. That could be particularly important for foreigners who – unlike native speakers – due to understandable reasons cannot trust their own language intuition and introspection. In other words, it is very useful to point out, for instance, the artificial character of a Russian sentence like *Одна моя хорошая студентка учит английский* which I heard at the 2nd IGALA conference at Lancaster University.

Summing it all up, we would like to say that from a lexicographic point of view it is necessary to study gender as a cognitive phenomenon reflected, according to A. Kirilina, in “both the stereotypes fixed in a language and the speech behaviour of the individuals who, on the one hand, see themselves as men or women and, on the other hand, experience certain pressure on the part of axiologically non-neutral language structures, reflecting the understanding of gender (the interpretation is ours – A.G.) (Kirilina 1999: 30). The practical realization of this approach presents certain difficulties. However it is quite a feasible task from the point of view of cognitology: to correlate language structures with their mental representations as well as to describe cultural and symbolic component of gender while studying lexicographic discourse.

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CHAPTER TWO

WAR AND PEACE OF LANGUAGES AND CULTURES

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The language barrier has been known since the time of the Tower of Babel when people were punished by the loss of possibility to communicate. It is quite obvious that nations are separated by their languages. Every language guards its people like a three-headed dragon in a fairy tale. You cannot outwit, bribe, deceive the guard but you can l e a r n it. Millions of people shatter the barrier. Many more millions are trying to do so.

However, learning a language does not guarantee the luxury of communication because the cultural barrier is looming large behind the language one.

Thus, nations are separated by two barriers (walls, fences) interfering with their communication.

The two guards defend their subjects from numerous intruders trying to penetrate into the domain of the nation. They do not let peoples work, study, build, live together in peace and friendship. However, the language and the culture of a nation are not just guards fighting anybody approaching it; they can also be regarded as shields protecting the nation, saving it from the loss of national identity.

Interestingly, the threat of globalization has given rise to a burst of national self-consciousness which generates a growing public interest in national values – first and foremost, in the national language and culture.

This, in its turn, raises some doubts whether the Tower of Babel incident was actually a punishment or a blessing in a very clever disguise: we are having multicoloured meadows of various languages with specific visions of the world instead of a neatly cut green lawn of just one common (global?) language.

Thus, the double fence of language and culture protects its subjects from any intruders (foreign language learners, interpreters, translators, spies)

regardless of their goals: languages and cultures fight both friends and enemies with the same enthusiasm and the same weapons.

Developing the metaphor with “War and Peace” (mostly – alas! – war), the aim of this paper is to register and investigate various kinds of linguistic and cultural weapons and military tricks: traps, ambushes, pitfalls, false routes, false friends, open enemies and smart spies.

Speaking our usual language, the paper deals with linguistic and socio-cultural difficulties we are confronted with while communicating, translating, interpreting, teaching and learning foreign languages.

All these difficulties may be divided by the following parameters: 1) linguistic and socio-cultural ones, 2) open and hidden ones.

Open linguistic pitfalls have been studied for millennia, so they will be just mentioned here in order to present a more complete picture.

1. Phonetics and spelling.
2. Grammar.

The problems and difficulties of pronunciation, spelling and grammatical categories may be labeled “open” only in the sense that they are obvious from the very start to anybody approaching the domain of a foreign language.

This paper deals with “lexical weapons”, that is, with learning and using vocabulary.

Words of every national language, taken together, create the language picture of the world specific to the nation. If we present the picture as a mosaic, then every word and its equivalent may be compared to a piece of it.

Dealing with other languages implies an opposition, a contrast with one’s mother tongue. Actually, the very idea of both – a native and a foreign language arises only in this opposition.

Lexical “weapons” used by language to fight the intruders are mostly hidden, that is why they are so efficient and dangerous.

Hidden linguistic pitfalls may be presented as follows.

1. The volume of semantics.

Pieces of language mosaics often differ in size, they cover different bits of reality.

For example, the Russian word *dom* has a broader meaning than its supposed “equivalent” – *house*: it includes *home*, *building*, *block of flats*, *mansion*. There are very many examples of this kind in any two languages.

The Russian word *perevodchik* covers both *translator* and *interpreter*, *nauka* stands for *science*, *humanity*, *branch of knowledge*. Any bilingual dictionary gives numerous and various examples of this kind.

2. Stylistic connotations.

Pieces of language mosaics may differ in shades of colour. For example the word *crimson* (English) and *bagrovyy* (Russian) are semantically equivalent but the Russian adjective has strong inherent negative connotations, unlike the English word.

In a letter from China (an invitation to a linguistic conference) the venue of the conference is described in the following way: *With its picturesque landscape, Hangzhou has ever been praised as "Paradise on the Earth". In the XIII century, Marco Polo, a famous Italian tourist praised Hangzhou as "The most beautiful and magnificent city in the world.* The word *tourist* used to describe Marco Polo's visit to China may be correct semantically but it is stylistically unacceptable and produces a comic effect.

In the same way a Soviet Russian cliché *nerushimoe edinstvo* translated into English as *an unbreakable and indestructible unity* sounds wrong stylistically because it violates the stylistic tendencies of the English language which, by the witty words of Robert Daglish, "prefers" to whistle in the dark where the Russian language shouts in the broad daylight." (Daglish, Taube 2001)

3. Collocability.

Collocational, or lexical-phraseological constraints on speech production are the most concealed and the most dangerous linguistic weapons.

This means that any word in any language has its own, characteristic only of the language in question, set or reserve of words with which it is compatible. That is to say, it is 'friends' and collocates with certain words and is not 'friends', and therefore does not collocate with others. Why does the English verb *to pay* (give somebody money for goods, services, etc..) collocate with such incompatible – from the Russian point of view – nouns as *attention*, *visit*, *compliments*? Why are the Russian word combinations *высокая трава* (lit., *high grass*), *крепкий чай* (lit., *firm tea*), *сильный дождь* (lit., *strong, powerful rain*) translated into English as *long grass*, *strong tea* and *heavy rain*?

There is only one answer to this: each word has its own collocability (or valency). And collocability is nation-specific (not universal) in the sense that it is characteristic only of a given word in a given language. The specific character of a collocation becomes evident only in juxtaposition to other languages much as one becomes aware of one's own culture through coming into contact (clashing) with an alien culture. Thus, native speakers of a language

remain oblivious to the pitfalls confronting the student: it never occurs to Russian students that in a certain language *tea* can be *strong* and *compliments – paid*.

And, for this reason, the student of a foreign language should learn not individual words and their meanings but the common and more or less fixed collocations in which these words occur in a language under study.

Lexical collocation undermines the foundations of translation and interpretation. Bilingual dictionaries are a case in point. The translation of words with the help of a dictionary that gives “equivalents” of their meanings in another language can lead students astray and encourage them to use foreign words in collocational contexts typical of their own language.

It is not surprising, therefore, that most numerous and common mistakes are made by foreign language learners when they are translating from their mother tongue into the language under study.

The following examples of collocations translated from Russian into English illustrate this point as they reflect Russian collocational patterns:

to create a commission (instead of *to set up a commission*)
closed arena (*canopied arena*)
to visit lessons (*to attend classes*)
light athletics (*track-and-field athletics*)
constant residence (*permanent residence*)
mistakes repeat themselves (*mistakes recur*)
to wash one’s head (*to wash one’s hair*)

Every non-native teacher of foreign languages has huge collections of this kind of mistake.

Developing the metaphor with war, collocations are a barbed wire strung upon a language barrier.

4. “False friends” (deceptive cognates).

This is a well-known and well-investigated linguistic fact – a good old trap “for tricking unsuspecting people” (The BBI Combinatory Dictionary 1986: 259).

Therefore just one example will suffice.

The Russian *nationalnost* and the English word *nationality* look deceptively close but the former means ethnic origin, belonging to a group of people of the same race, the same physical anthropological characteristics while the latter means citizenship. Consequently, Russian students of English are

puzzled by such phrases like *former nationality, he's applied for British nationality*.

All the devices described above are properly linguistic, they are components of what is called “language barrier”, language weapons of fighting intruders and defending its own people.

However, **extralinguistic aspects of communication** must be taken into consideration too.

Language is inseparable from its User who is both its master and its servant. The User is inseparable from the real World surrounding him/her. Correspondingly, Language is inseparable from the User's inner and outer Worlds. Language reflects the Worlds and moulds the User.

The main and most evident connection of language with extralinguistic reality is through **lexis**, through the **meaning** of language units of which **Word** is the main one.

The meaning of the word, defined as referring a sound or graphic complex to an object, is a thread connecting the world of language with the world of reality or, rather, a path leading from one world to the other.

The meaning of a native word is leading to the native world reflected by the native language and imposed on its users.

The meaning of a foreign word leads to a foreign, strange and alien world and the same sort of culture.

The difficulties of communication in a foreign language, determined by the cultural background of a language, may be called linguocultural. In this case language and cultural barriers unite to put up a strong defense – sometimes open, more frequently – secret. Consequently, overwhelming the defenses requires special efforts.

Open linguocultural pitfalls

The only case of “openness” in this sphere I could think of is: nation-specific words that have no equivalents in other languages because they denote things that do not exist in other cultures. These words are usually borrowed by other languages. For example, *whisky, vodka, esquire, Bolshevik, etc.*

Hidden linguocultural pitfalls

Thus, there are different worlds behind words of different languages. Words of a language are a veil over the real world and real life. Therefore a foreign language user must remember to have a look behind the veil, behind the curtain of words, in order to realize where paths of word meanings are leading to. It becomes especially clear and vivid in the process of translating from one

language into another one. The translator has to translate not just **words** but also **underlying worlds**, merge them, bring them together. It is a very difficult and complicated task, especially when language and culture barriers are united as a double shield of national identity.

Hidden linguocultural pitfalls may be presented in the following way.

1. Deceptive equivalence.

Linguistic communication based on the shared code of its participants implies equivalence of language units as its pivot. No established equivalence – no shared code – no communication. As simple as that.

However, nothing is simple in the natural human language, and the notion of equivalence is quite relative because absolute equivalence may be possible only on condition that the worlds reflected by the languages are equivalent too. But the worlds (both inner and outer) are different, therefore the question of word equivalence is relative and doubtful.

For example, the Russian word *dom*, as has been mentioned above, is broader in meaning than its English counterpart *house*, i.e. they differ in semantic scope. They also differ in their valency and their use in speech. For instance, *dom* is obligatory in a Russian address while its counterpart is absent from an English address. The only way to present *10 Downing St* in Russian is *Downing St, dom 10*.

But, even when/if the Russian *dom* and English *house* coincide semantically and collocationally in certain speech situations and, consequently, may be regarded as equivalent (and easy to translate), one has to make allowances for **cultural differences** at the level either of the real object itself or of concepts and ideas about it.

In order to understand the English sentence: *That morning she had a headache and stayed upstairs*, one should know the lay-out of a typical English house, the structure and social functions of its interior. A word-for-word translation of the sentence will mean very little (or nothing) to Russian speakers. Indeed, most of them do not know the notions *upstairs* (bedrooms) and *downstairs* (the dining room, sitting room, kitchen) because these notions imply a certain life style and house plan designated by the English word *house* which sets apart a typical English house from the Russian concept of *dom*. Both concepts expressed by the words *house* and *dom* have been developed over the countries in response to life style, climate, geographical features and many other factors. In Northern Russian villages (Arkhangelsk Region) the ground floor of a house (“downstairs”) is for people, while “upstairs” is for their cattle. A very thrifty and peaceful idea: on the one hand, you do not waste money and effort