Translation in Bilingual Lexicography: Editing a New English-Greek Dictionary

Dionysis Goutsos

1. Bilingual Lexicography and Translation

The process of translation is intricately linked with the practice of bilingual lexicography. According to Hartmann, both lexicography and translation are motivated by "an urge to help people in communicative conflict situations" (1989: 14). The difference between them lies in the design of their effect: translation is usually employed for "*ad hoc* acts of mediation" (id.), whereas lexicography is designed to have a long-term impact. For this reason, every application of bilingual lexicography is an intensive exercise in translation, involving numerous individual 'acts of mediation' by — usually — several bilingual speakers who act as translators of particular word forms (dictionary lemmas), phrase or sentence units (examples etc.).

The lemmas of bilingual dictionaries constitute, in practice, ready-made instances of lexical equivalents in the two languages involved. Translation in this case applies not only to the independent creative intervention of the translator but also to the collective practice of mediation in the everyday contact of the two languages. Bilingual dictionaries both suggest original equivalences and reflect actual practice in establishing such equivalences, thus combining descriptive and prescriptive concerns. As a result, "the bilingual dictionary as handed down to us can be regarded as the result of many separate translations fossilized into lexical equivalents" (Hartmann 1989: 10). Dictionary examples, on the other hand, are meant to illustrate typical uses of lemmas in their immediate contexts and, thus, establish suggested equivalences above the word level.

In principle, bilingual dictionaries are not only created *by* translators, both professional translators, working as members of a lexicographic team,

and (monolingual or bilingual) users, as their everyday practice is captured by lexicographers. They are also created *for* translators, again both as "primary working tools" (Roberts 1990) for professionals and as useful places "where the user would look for suggestions as to how to convey a given idea in the other language" (Tomaszczyck 1983: 51).

It would be commonplace to observe that bilingual dictionaries often fall short of these promises. We have all experienced feelings of frustration when we could not find in a bilingual dictionary what we were looking for or when what we found 'does not sound right'. Meyer (quoted in Roberts 1990) identifies several major weaknesses of general bilingual dictionaries, including the absence of source language items or their target language equivalents and the inadequate semantic and stylistic discrimination between the various target language equivalents proposed.

The lack of natural data is a major stumbling block in our use of a bilingual dictionary. The presence of 'translationese' (Newmark 1981:21) is all too evident in dictionaries, which often include words or phrases that no user has ever employed in a natural context. According to Sinclair, naturalness is pre-eminently a discourse concept, referring to "the well-formedness of sentences *in text*" (1984: 10). Sinclair argues that many (grammatically) well-formed sentences do not appear natural to a native speaker, because they violate the parameters of isolation, idiomaticity and neutrality. Isolation refers to the degree to which a sentence depends for its naturalness on its co-text and/or context, idiomaticity to the agreement between mutual expectations of structures and neutrality to the fulfillment of expectations about collocation in the sentence. Both dictionary lemmas and examples may display increased isolation with little idiomaticity or neutrality.

The above weaknesses of dictionaries are present to a larger extent in Greek bilingual dictionaries, due to the lack of a long tradition in modern lexicography, similar to that found for other European languages such as English, French or German. The peculiar socio-linguistic conditions of Greek diglossia (see Browning 1982) have made standardization a problematic endeavor. The influence of the founding fathers of modern Greek linguistics is still acutely felt throughout applied linguistic areas such as lexicography. Chatzidakis, the most prominent of them, would insist as late as 1912 that "the lexicological examination of almost every word of Modern Greek requires the knowledge of the ancient language and literature, in order to appropriately comprehend and interpret its relations and changes of mean-

ings" (Chatzidakis 1912: 130, *my translation*). As a result, Greek lexicography has largely remained a distinctly philological enterprise, aimed at demonstrating the 'richness' and continuity of the language rather than providing useful advice to the users of Greek.
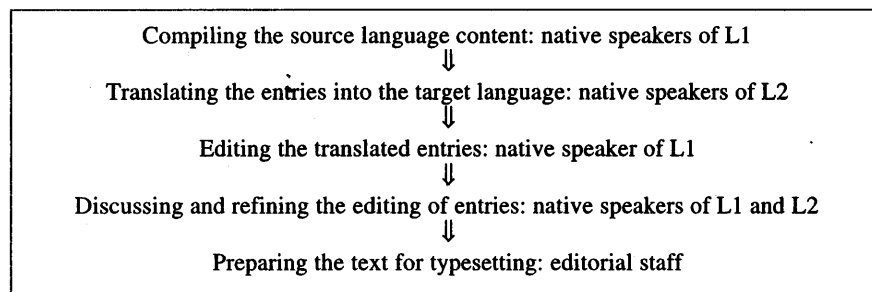
The effect of this peculiarity has been especially detrimental to Greek bilingual lexicography, so that Greek bilingual dictionaries are still characterized by massive absence of modern language items and their target language equivalents, inadequate semantic and stylistic discrimination between the various equivalents proposed and appalling lack of naturalness. It is surprising that this should be the case with English-Greek dictionaries, for which there is a huge market. The most widely-used dictionary, Stavropoulos and Hornby (1977), is teeming with instances of these problems. A casual glance reveals a disturbing preponderance of obsolete and archaic lemmas and translations (*abnegation, acetylene, adage* are included, *budgie, bed and breakfast, fax* are not; εν εκκρεμότητι, λάμπων, νήψις are among the translation equivalents given); an indiscriminate listing of alternatives without any indication about their use in Greek (*abashed* is translated as ζαλισμένος, πτοημένος, σα χαμένος, *abate* as ελαττώνω/-ομαι, κοπάζω, μετριάζω); and a glaring lack of naturalness in both original examples and their translation (*I can't abide him, I acknowledge receipt of your letter,* υπήρχαν πενήντα πρόσωπα επί του αεροπλάνου, γνωρίζω λήψιν της επιστολής σας). All these problems are particularly significant when we deal with what purports to be a 'learner's dictionary'.

2. Editing a Bilingual Dictionary

The new Collins English-Greek Dictionary (1997) has been designed to avoid the pitfalls of Greek bilingual lexicography mentioned above and provide a usable and authoritative companion for learners of English and Greek. The development of the dictionary has followed the established practice in Collins Bilingual Dictionaries, using a database of authentic English material as their starting point and involving the close cooperation of speakers from both source and target languages. In particular, the dictionary was compiled by referring to the Bank of English, the largest database of the English language with examples of over 300 million words. This is the development of the original database used for the revolutionary lexicographic Cobuild project (Sinclair 1987). The English framework, as a result, has been

compiled with particular attention to the issues of lemma selection and specification, on the one hand, and naturalness, on the other. In addition, in all stages of compilation native speakers of both English and Greek were involved, as can be seen in Table 1, which illustrates the process of creating a Collins bilingual dictionary.

Table 1: Phases of creating a Collins bilingual dictionary

Compiling the source language content: native speakers of L1
⇓
Translating the entries into the target language: native speakers of L2
⇓
Editing the translated entries: native speaker of L1
⇓
Discussing and refining the editing of entries: native speakers of L1 and L2
⇓
Preparing the text for typesetting: editorial staff

It must be stressed that the process illustrated in Table 1 is idealized: the actual practice involved repeated loops through the whole procedure, allowing native speakers of both languages to check and edit the outcome at all stages.

Finally, the editorial policy explicitly addressed the problems of lexical choice and under-specification of translation equivalents, as well the issues of standardization and naturalness, which were noted to be particularly conspicuous in Greek dictionaries. For instance, special emphasis was put on avoiding to give near-synonyms or other equivalents as translations, by closely specifying the range of use for each one of them in the target language.

In this paper, I discuss issues of translation arising from the compilation of the new Collins English-Greek Dictionary (1997) from the perspective of my involvement as a contributor in several phases of the project. My aim is not to discuss the project as a whole but address the specific problems arising from English to Greek translation and their implications for bilingual lexicography. I would also like to make clear here that the problems raised and the suggested solutions are not directly reflected in the final outcome, since my contribution was only limited to some stages of the long and laborious editorial process.

The following discussion identifies problems of translation that required editing care in more than one level of equivalence. In particular, both lexical and grammatical aspects of the two languages raised significant questions of equivalence between English and Greek. These aspects rely on issues of textual presentation and contextual interpretation, with the effect that all areas of lexis, grammar and discourse interact with each other. To simplify matters, however, these areas will presented separately in what follows.

3. Lexical Equivalence

The editing of translations was necessary in cases where obsolete or rare word equivalents were given. This includes e.g. the translation Ολλανδή rather than Ολλανδέζα for *Dutchwoman*, δάκτυλος and δάκτυλο rather than δάχτυλο for finger or lexical items such as έμετος, φρικτός, δένδρο, κογχύλι. The same applied to collocations or phrases for which not very natural or typical equivalents were given e.g. συλλέγω rather than μαζεύω φρούτα for *to pick fruit*, μη χρονοτριβείς! rather than μην αργείς! or βιάσου! for *don't be long!*

The above examples are related to cases of register variation but should not be confused with them. Their exclusion from the dictionary was dictated by considerations of usefulness for the user, who needs information on unmarked rather than exceptional equivalents. By contrast, in the case of register couplets like: λίστα – κατάλογος for *list*, λευκός – άσπρος for *white*, ρόδα – τροχός for *wheel*, ξερός – ξηρός for *dry*, υπέρθυρο – πρέκι for *lintel*, δείπνο – βραδυνό for *dinner* etc., the English user needs specific advice on where and how to use them, since both terms are equally usable. Careful lemma arrangement and the use of indicators helped to give this information to users.

Although the existence of such couplets may be due to the historical function of diglossia mentioned above, their synchronic use relates to parameters of register such as mode (spoken – written), tenor (formal – informal) and field (technical, literary etc.). In fact, what, at first glance, seem to be instances of free or register variation may turn out to correspond to systematic collocational or even meaning distinctions: e.g. whereas both λευκός and άσπρος correspond to *white* as a general color, only the former applies to such collocates as *person* or *complexion*; δείπνο is restricted to the '*banquet*' meaning of *dinner*, by contrast to βραδυνό.

Considerations of typical contexts are also relevant in choosing between target register equivalents. For instance, distinguishing between *tu* and *vous* forms depends on contextual considerations; that is why *Καθαρίστε και λαδώστε τη βαλβίδα* is a preferable equivalent to *Να καθαρίζεις και να λαδώνεις τη βαλβίδα* for *Clean and grease the valve*. The translator needs to be aware of the typical contexts and text types associated with specific linguistic expressions, in order to achieve useful and valid equivalences. This contextual awareness must be the guiding principle in choosing between *ο Σμιθ και το συνάφι του* and *Σμιθ και σία* for *Smith and Company*, *το γρασίδι του οπωρώνα* or *το χορτάρι του περιβολιού* for *the grass of the orchard*, *η σύγκρουση παρεμπόδιζε* ... and *το τρακάρισμα μπλόκαρε το δρόμο...* for *the crash obstructed the road for several hours*.

A special case concerns grammatical couplets such as *μία – μια* for the feminine form of *a/one* or double endings such as *-άω* and *-ώ* for the second conjugation of Greek verbs. For the former, prescriptive decisions should be taken (e.g. *μία* for the numeral, *μια* for the article). For the latter, considerations of typical and natural contexts also play a role; thus, *γελώ, κτυπώ, ρουφώ, πωλώ, ξερνώ* are particularly non-natural and the same holds for *μιλώ* rather than *μιλάω* in phrases such as: *I can speak six languages.*

Straightforward equivalence is also hard to achieve in cases of 'false friends' (Baker 1992: 25). A study of the use of such items as *panorama, phenomenon, orthodox, tragedy, paradox, paroxysm, sceptic, meteoric, epic, metropolitan, pathos* in their natural or most typical contexts in English would show that they do not correspond neatly to their Greek parallels. For example, whereas *ironic(al)* seems to be a neat equivalence of *ειρωνικός* in abstract, the consideration of phrases such as *it is ironic that ...*, which constitute typical collocational frames for the word, would show that this is not the case.

4. Grammatical Categories

A well-known area of divergence between languages is that of grammatical categories (Baker 1992: 83 ff.). Such categories as countability, definiteness and verbal aspect are known to be expressed in different ways in languages like English and Greek. A number of problems are thus expected to arise in translation with reference to these. For instance, uncountable nouns in English are only found in the singular, while in Greek the closest equivalent

cannot but be in the plural. Some of the meanings of *trouble* show this discrepancy in number (e.g. *the police had orders to intervene at the first sign of trouble*) and so do some less well-known examples like *you expect me to read tripe like that?* or even *private tuition*, for which the equivalent is *ιδιαίτερα μαθήματα* [= private classes].

A well-known area in which discrepancies are expected to occur between English and Greek is that of definiteness. This applies to a wide range of linguistic features such as the presence of indefinite article, whose use is controlled by different principles in the two languages, as we can see in examples (1) and (2):

(1) there's a risk that I'll be caught...
    *υπάρχει ένας κίνδυνος ..../ υπάρχει κίνδυνος να ...
    'there is   *a risk/   there is   risk to...'

(2) ... the metallic click of a door handle
    ...ο μεταλλικός ήχος   *ενός χερουλιού πόρτας
    '...the metallic sound of *a handle   of-door
    /του χερουλιού μιας πόρτας
    /of the handle   of-a door

A full discussion of this divergence would require looking at the interaction of definiteness with focus considerations (see below). For instance, in (1) above, the existential verb (*there's*: *υπάρχει*) is used for a presentational, Theme-Rheme clause arrangement. The use of the article in Greek would change the focus, giving emphasis to the number (as in *there is one danger*) rather than the possibility of risk.

Finally, aspect is an important grammatical category of the verb in the two languages. Divergence between them appears because Greek always marks aspect in the past by morphological means (different verb stem for perfective and imperfective), whereas English relies more on contextual features for aspect discrimination. Thus, the translator into Greek should be careful to choose the right aspect in every case, e.g.:

(3) At first he thought he had mistaken the address.
    Στην αρχή *νόμιζε/νόμισε ότι είχε κάνει λάθος τη διεύθυνση
(4) They travelled in a fleet of huge vehicles.
    *Ταξίδεψαν/Ταξίδευαν σε μια πομπή από τεράστια οχήματα
(5) She sucked a gum while she listened.
    *Εγλειψε/Εγλειφε ένα ζελέ ενώ άκουγε

As we can see from (3)-(5), contextual linguistic elements such as *at first* or *while* work to clarify the aspect. In cases like *the neighbours complained to the police about the noise,* or *small groups of women banded together,* however, where there are no such clues, the translator has to rely on his/her world knowledge to find out the most typical contexts in which these may occur and thus select the appropriate translation for the dictionary (here, perfective διαμαρτυρήθηκαν rather than διαμαρτύρονταν, for the former, and imperfective συγκεντρώνονταν rather than συγκεντρώθηκαν, for the latter).

5. Noun and Verb Complementation

Individual lexical items, as argued above, are not always easily transferable from English to Greek by simple, word-for-word translation. The same is true for larger linguistic elements such as nominal or verbal groups, especially as regards noun modification or verb complementation. These are areas in a bilingual dictionary that require extra attention on the part of the translator. For instance, noun modification in English nominal groups may be transferred into Greek by the use of an adjective modifier, genitive case or a modifying prepositional phrase, so that *mother fixation* could be translated as μητρική καθήλωση, καθήλωση της μητέρας or καθήλωση στη μητέρα, respectively. However, only the third pattern is an appropriate equivalent for the original, since the first two mean *'the mother's fixation'* rather than *fixation on the mother*. This is not a generalizable solution. For phrases like *enemy positions, criminal conspiracy* and *fuel allowance,* the use of genitive is appropriate in Greek (the use of adjective modification would render a meaning like: *hostile positions* and *illegal conspiracy* for the first two, and would be impossible for the third). By contrast, an adjective like διεθνής (meaning *international*) could be used in translating the modifier of the nominal group *world leaders,* for which the use of genitive or prepositional phrase is awkward. An adverbial phrase may be also used in translating nominal groups such as *the lower bunk.*

On the other hand, English nominal groups of the type *(article) – noun – of – noun,* which were traditionally analyzed as an instance of the English genitive case, cannot be straightforwardly rendered by the Greek genitive. This is mostly due to the distinction between genitive and accusative case modifiers, which corresponds to a change of meaning in Greek. Thus, for the

nominal group *a can of beer,* the modifier in the genitive case (ένα κουτί μπύρας) would be used for the sense: *a can made of beer,* in contrast to a modifier in the accusative (ένα κουτί μπύρα). For this reason, the accusative modifier is always to be used in phrases like *piles of wooden boxes,* and phrases with numerals like *two changes of underwear, two lots of pamphlets, dozens of people, two of the burglars.* This is more so the case in nominal groups in which the 'genitive' meaning is even further removed, e.g. *a load of rubbish, an act of aggression, a burst of laughter/applause, a bunch of grapes, this sort of work* (cf. Sinclair's 1991 discussion). For these phrases, the use of the genitive in Greek translation e.g. ένα φορτίο σκουπιδιών, μια πράξη επιθετικότητας, ξέσπασμα γέλιου/χειροκροτημάτων, τσαμπί από σταφύλια, αυτό το είδος δουλειάς is clearly unacceptable. Other patterns such as adjective modifiers or the accusative case must be used instead.

Similarly, where English uses adjectives and prepositional phrases for the expression of dimensions, Greek has to employ paraphrases employing nouns. Thus, for *a hole 200 km across,* we must have μια τρύπα πλάτους/με πλάτος 200 χλμ. [= a hole of 200 km width], for *it was about 50 sq. km in area,* we should have είχε έκταση περίπου 50 τ.χλμ. [= it had an extension of about 50 sq. km] and for *the road was some 40 miles long,* we must have ο δρόμος ήταν κάπου 40 μίλια [= the road was some 40 miles] or το μήκος του δρόμου ήταν κάπου 40 μίλια [= the length of the road was some 40 miles], depending on the intended emphasis.

Verb complementation is also an area in which word-for-word equivalence is impossible, since Greek lacks a real infinitive or gerund. To complicate matters, Greek has verbal forms that morphologically look like infinitives (να + verb) or participles (-οντας, -ώντας) — and are still called in traditional grammars, with disastrous effects — but have a fundamentally different function (that of a complement clause and an adverbial, respectively). The morphological similarity accounts for choosing the easy solution of word-for-word translation in sentences like: *they are busy giving out pamphlets, she turned to look back at her parents waving on the platform, he stood surveying his work from aloft, that was a really lousy thing to do, it was too dark to see the house numbers,* which could be wrongly translated as είναι απασχολημένοι μοιράζοντας φυλλάδια, γύρισε να δει τους γονείς της χαιρετώντας στην αποβάθρα, στάθηκε επιτηρώντας τη δουλειά του από ψηλά, αυτό ήταν ένα πραγματικά άθλιο πράγμα να κάνω, ήταν πολύ σκοτεινά για να δούμε τους αριθμούς.

A similar point with regard to verbal groups concerns the translation of delexical verbs (see Sinclair 1991), for which there is often no equivalent periphrastic expression in the target language. For instance, for *he gave her a welcome,* there is no corresponding delexical expression such as *της έδωσε ένα καλοσώρισμα* in Greek. At the same time, the most natural translation of an English verb might be a verbal group with a delexical verb in Greek. This happens with the intransitive verbs *to compete, to bike, to row,* for which the corresponding verbs *συναγωνίζομαι, ποδηλατώ* and *κωπηλατώ* are not as common and natural in Greek as the related expressions with delexical verbs: *παίρνω (μέρος σε διαγωνισμό)* [= take (part in a competition)] and *κάνω (ποδήλατο, κουπί)* [= do (bicycle, oar)]. The avoidance of delexical verbs in Greek translations is one of the most important causes of the felt lack of naturalness.

6.   Aspects of Thematic Structure

It is obvious that word-for-word equivalences are even more difficult to achieve without concession to naturalness as regards larger clause or sentence patterns. The thematic structure of sentences is considered to be one of the major sources of difficulty in translation, in general (e.g. Baker 1992: 119 ff.) and in particular for English and Greek, as Goutsos (1992) shows. In a few words, whereas English seems to put more importance into the first position in clause (what is thematized, in Halliday's terms), Greek shows a greater freedom in manipulating word order with the aim of achieving a natural Theme-Rheme progression (in Firbas' terms). That is why sentences with a Rheme-Transition-Theme structure, like:

(6)   A slight fever often accompanies a mild infection

cannot be translated by keeping the same word order in Greek, as in:

- Ένας χαμηλός πυρετός συχνά συνοδεύει μια ελαφριά μόλυνση

but have to change into a more natural Theme-Transition-Rheme structure:

- Μια ελαφριά μόλυνση συχνά συνοδεύεται από χαμηλό πυρετό.
'a mild infection is often accompanied by slight fever'

The same is true for thematic patterns above the clause level as in the sentence:

(7)   A report   will be   made
       Rheme   Transition   Theme
       as soon as all the relevant facts are known.
       Setting

which is rendered more naturally in Greek as:

   Μόλις τα σχετικά γεγονότα γίνουν γνωστά,
   'when the relevant facts become known,
   Setting
   Θα γίνει   αναφορά.
   will be made   report'
   Theme   Rheme

In addition, as Sasse has observed, Greek uses the opposition between Verb-Subject and Subject-Verb word order to differentiate between thetic and categoric statements, i.e. "simple, nondescriptive assertions of states of affairs" and "sentences containing a predication base about which some state of affairs is predicated" (1987). Thus, sentences like *the all clear sounded* cannot be translated as *η λήξη συναγερμού ακούστηκε* [= SV], because they convey thetic expressions, presenting a state of affairs as a whole and not predicating something about an entity (e.g. *the all clear*). Similarly, a sentence like

(8)   Abortions are offered to women who need them

cannot be translated word-by-word as:

   Οι εκτρώσεις προσφέρονται στις γυναίκες που τις χρειάζονται

but has to be translated with a VS pattern:

   Προσφέρονται εκτρώσεις στις γυναίκες που τις χρειάζονται.

Notice that in sentences like (7) or (8), there is a change in the article used in Greek. The use of the definite article is a further reason why the translation of the following sentences is not natural in Greek:

(9)   Beggars crowded in every marketplace.
      Οι ζητιάνοι συνωστίζονταν σε κάθε αγορά.

(10) Shops were looted and wrecked in London.
      Τα καταστήματα λεηλατήθηκαν και καταστράφηκαν στο
      Λονδίνο.

In a similar way, a sentence like *the same tests were carried out in a control group* is likely to have a categorical rather than thetic interpretation, so that a translation with a VS word order pattern like *έγιναν τα ίδια τεστ σε μια ομάδα ελέγχου* should be avoided.

For the same reason, presentational constructions like *here is a contemporary account of the execution, there was a strong light coming from the left, there is quite a lot of work involved, this is an age of high technological automation* cannot have word-for-word equivalent patterns, and so other devices must be employed in the Greek translation. One such device is the use of verbs like *ακολουθεί* [= it follows], *αποτελεί* [= it constitutes], *πρόκειται για* [= it concerns] that allows the construction of VS patterns in Greek and thus helps achieving a more natural thematic structure.

Similarly, considerations of focus require that expressions including linguistic elements like *one, people, man*, which are used for cohesive purposes in English with no definite referent, should not be translated word-for-word. For instance, a sentence like (11):

(11) One always thinks of Majorca as being very commercialized

is not natural when closely translated as:

       Κάποιος θεωρεί ότι η Μαγιόρκα είναι πολύ
       εμπορευματοποιημένη.

Instead, an impersonal construction should be used:

       Θεωρείται ότι η Μαγιόρκα είναι πολύ
       εμπορευματοποιημένη.
       'it is considered that ...'

In most cases, words like *people* or *man* have an indefinite reading and should not be rendered with their obvious equivalents (*οι άνθρωποι, ο άνθρωπος/ άντρας*) but with a relevant indefinite item such as *ο κόσμος* (*People should let their MPs know of their opinions*), pronouns like *αυτός που (the man*

whom I saw), κάποιος (I wondered how a man as old as he...) or even with no explicit item at all (*People either smoke or mainline the stuff*).

Finally, differences in the degree to which nominalization is allowed in translation is related to considerations of thematic structure below the clause level. Such considerations explain why a verbal group is preferred in translating nominals like *other methods of persuasion* or *Labour's adoption of a radical policy* in Greek. In some cases, nominalization is impossible in Greek (e.g. *they required her affirmation of the fact, she accepted the offer of a cigarette, the insertion of a needle, the collection of mail, the remoteness of the country*).

7.   Constructing the Lemma

Such considerations of problems in achieving lexical, grammatical or discourse equivalence in translation from English to Greek have dominated my contribution to the process of editing the new Collins English-Greek Dictionary (1997). Every lemma, as finally appeared in the dictionary, was shaped by a multitude of decisions taken on the levels discussed above. These decisions account for the differences with other dictionaries, as well as the progress from earlier to later drafts.

The differences are considerable even for a word like *arm*, which seems to be ordinary and straightforward. In the older generation of Collins Greek concise dictionaries, the lemma for *arm* looked like below:

(12)   **arm** βραχίων, μπράτσο
       (hand) χέρι
       (weapon) όπλον
       -s npl όπλα
       (Collins 1977)

Apart from the little evidence of the range of meanings and their corresponding translations and the absence of phrases or examples, the real problem with (12) is that no indication is given on how to choose between the first three translations. Furthermore, at least from the encoder's point of view, it is not clear to what the first two translations correspond if not to "hand".

Dictionaries like Stavropoulos and Hornby (1977) are not much helpful at this point:

(13) ¹**arm** ουσ. βραχίων, μπράτσο, χέρι (από τον ώμο ως τον καρπό): with folded -s, με σταυρωμένα χέρια. She took the baby in her -s, πήρε το μωρό στην αγκαλιά της. **a babe in -s**, μωρό (που δεν περπατάει ακόμα). (welcome sb) **with open -s**, (δέχομαι κπ) με ανοιχτές αγκάλες. (walk) **arm-in-arm**, (περπατώ) αγκαζέ. **keep sb at -'s length**, κρατώ κπ σε απόσταση. **the — of the law**, το χέρι του νόμου
²**arm** ουσ. όπλον (στρατ. κλάδος). – ουσ. πληθ. όπλα, οικόσημον
(Stavropoulos and Hornby 1977)

As we can see, the same translations are given here, with no explanation about their use, apart from the phrase *από τον ώμο ως τον καρπό* [= from the shoulder to the wrist], which is rather confusing at least to the English user of the dictionary, who is concerned with encoding. Furthermore, the usefulness of the English phrases is doubtful and the arrangement of the lemma is unclear. Finally, the choice of having a separate lemma for the 'army' meaning of the word, although justifiable, actually obscures the systematic way in which meaning changes across the inflected forms of the lemma (cf. Stubbs 1993). These problems are dealt with in the much more rationally organized English framework of the new Collins dictionary.

(14)　a.　**arm** 1 N (a) βραχίονας M, μπράτσο NT, χέρι NT *She put her arm around his neck* τον αγκάλιασε

　　b.　(of jacket etc) μανίκι NT *The arm of his jacket was torn* Το μανίκι του σακακιού του ήταν σκισμένο.

　　c.　(of chair) μπράτσο NT

　　d.　(of organization etc) όργανο NT ... *the political arm of an established trade union movement* ... το πολιτικό όργανο ενός καθιερωμένου συνδικαλιστικού κινήματος
　　　= in sb's arms στην αγκαλιά κου *She was weeping in my arms* Έκλαιγε στην αγκαλιά μου
　　　= arms NTPL όπλα NTPL
　　　= arm in arm αγκαζέ INV
　　　(Collins 1997, before first editing)

It is obvious that many more senses are covered here, accompanied with representative, natural examples of English use, showing typical collocation

patterns. The lemma arrangement is also lucid, concise and helpful. However, there still is no clear guidance on the difference between the three Greek translations suggested. After the first editing, the lemma appeared like this:

(15)　**arm** 1 N (a) χέρι NT *They took me by the arm* Με πήραν από το χέρι *He broke his arm and leg* Έσπασε το χέρι του και το πόδι του

　　b.　(upper arm) μπράτσο NT, βραχίονας M (fml) *Blood is taken through a needle in the arm* Παίρνουν αίμα από μια βελόνα στο μπράτσο OR στον βραχίονα *The athlete's arm should be totally relaxed* Ο βραχίονας του αθλητή πρέπει να είναι τελείως χαλαρός *He tucked the book under his arm* Έχωσε το βιβλίο κάτω από τη μασχάλη του

　　c.　(of jacket etc) μανίκι NT *The arm of his jacket was torn* To μανίκι του σακακιού του ήταν σκισμένο.

　　d.　(of chair) μπράτσο NT

　　e.　(of organization etc) σκέλος NT ... *the political arm of an established trade union movement* ... το πολιτικό σκέλος ενός καθιερωμένου συνδικαλιστικού κινήματος
　　　= in sb's arms στην αγκαλιά κου *She was weeping in my arms* Έκλαιγε στην αγκαλιά μου
　　　= arms NTPL όπλα NTPL
　　　= arm in arm αγκαζέ INV
　　　= she put her arm around his neck τον αγκάλιασε
　　　(Collins 1997, after first editing)

(15) is a marked improvement, taking into consideration issues of equivalence, as discussed above. The three, apparently equivalent, Greek translations are clearly differentiated in terms of typical use and register variation. The most general, unmarked translation (*χέρι*) comes first, separating cases in which there is no focus on the particular part of the arm. The examples introduced show this typical use and natural translation patterns (e.g. *his arm and leg* is naturally rendered as *το χέρι του και το πόδι του* rather than *χέρι και πόδι του*). The immediately following sense is the one focusing on a specific part of the arm (the upper arm), for which two different Greek translations are given, differentiated according to register (*βραχίονας* has an indicator *fml*, which stands for *formal*). The indicators used are clear from both the encoder's and the decoder's point of view. Again, natural English examples are introduced to

illustrate the meaning difference and possible exceptions (as in the sentence *he tucked the book under his arm* for which the translation μασχάλη [= armpit] should be used). A further exception is given at the end of the lemma as a separate phrase (*she put her arm around his neck*) to show a systematic lack of equivalence in the Greek translation. Finally, a small but important adjustment is made in the translation of the last sense (*of organization etc.*), choosing the appropriate Greek word (σκέλος rather than όργανο).

8.   The Help from Electronic Corpora

Modern lexicography has become almost unthinkable without the use of computers, as applied to the stages of data collection, lemma sorting and preparation, editing and printing. In particular, the collection of vast amounts of language data in corpora stored and processed in electronic form has become common practice in the creation of bilingual dictionaries. In Mejis' (1996) summary, applications of corpora to lexicographic practice refer to providing lexicographers with real-life material, e.g. as examples, helping them decide on sense distinctions to be made, providing information on grammatical patterns or register use, as well as providing frequency information and information on new words, new combinations of words and collocations.

The new Collins English-Greek Dictionary (1997) has been created by recourse to electronic corpora both at the design level and the level of translation. All information on English data (including examples) comes from the Bank of English database developed at the University of Birmingham, as described at the beginning. The same English framework has also been used in the compilation of other Collins Bilingual dictionaries (e.g. French, Spanish etc.), making thus possible the study of vocabulary across a number of languages.

At the same time, issues of translation that were mentioned above were referred to Greek electronic corpora for useful information. The main applications of corpus were:

a.   in defining the degree of naturalness for each translation; considerations of frequency and use across genres have been paramount at many points in the translation and have influenced lemma selection and arrangement, as was shown above for *arm*,

b.   in helping decide between alternative forms and differentiating between stylistic variants or couplets, according to their collocation, with reference to authentic data; corpus data can play a central role in issues of standardization, as those discussed above,

c.   in identifying grammatical patterns: this required more complicated searches e.g. for items correlating with a certain aspect of a verb, functioning as signals of it, or for the use of gerund-like forms in -ώντας/-όντας, and

d.   in determining word order distribution patterns, helping to define aspects of the thematic structure; this certainly requires larger-scale projects for safer results.

The development of parallel corpora is undoubtedly going to multiply these applications. A detailed discussion of the use of electronic corpora in the editing of both the English-Greek and the Greek-English (in preparation) sides of the dictionary is reserved for another paper.

9.   Conclusions and Implications

Tomaszczyck has argued that any bilingual dictionary is an exercise in bilingual lexicology. In her words, "some semantic and syntactic properties of words do not become quite apparent until one has combined them with their counterparts in another language" (1983: 45).The discussion of translation problems in the creation of the new Collins English-Greek Dictionary (1997) has certainly borne out this observation by indicating some areas of divergence — and by implicitly pointing to areas of convergence — between the two languages. These areas include aspects of lexical equivalence, grammatical categories, noun and verb complementation and thematic structure.

The main problem in bilingual dictionary editing was identified to be the achievement of natural translations and the avoidance of translationese. This is a particularly sore point, since the translator who works in a bilingual dictionary has to face, mainly, decontextualized instances of language, as they appear in the lemma. Examples, by re-contextualizing isolated words, may be used to aid the translator in finding their most appropriate translation, but linguistic and cultural knowledge also have to come into play in the identification of the right context. The practice of discussing and refining the editing of entries, followed in the compilation of Collins bilingual dictionar-

ies certainly helps this process. Furthermore, emphasis must be given to the fact that, as Sinclair (1991) puts it, words carry their own context. Electronic corpora may be referred to in order to help us identify this link between word and context.

For Greek bilingual dictionaries, in particular, in which a glaring lack of naturalness can be noted, considerations of lexical, grammatical and discourse equivalence, like those discussed above, are of paramount importance. Here, the help from corpora can be indispensable at defining the parameters of isolation, idiomaticity and neutrality that define naturalness, for each lemma, according to Sinclair (1984), and at solving problems of standardization by re-addressing the issue of Greek diglossia in a constructive way. The detailed study of translation issues and the help of corpora can thus bring out revolutionary changes in Greek dictionary writing and language description.

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About the Author:

Dionysis Goutsos is Lecturer in Linguistics at the University of Cyprus. He studied linguistics at the University of Athens and has a Master in Literary Linguistics from the University of Strathclyde (Glasgow) and a Ph.D. from the University of Birmingham. He has lectured and published on text-linguistics, translation and corpus linguistics. He has recently published two books, *Modeling Discourse Topic: Sequential Relations and Strategies in Expository Text* (1997) Norwood, NJ: Ablex, and *Discourse Analysis: An Introduction* (co-authored with Alexandra Georgakopoulou) (1997), Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Address: Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures. University of Cyprus P.O. Box 20537, CY 1678 Nicosia

Abstract

Greek bilingual dictionaries have long been marked by lack of naturalness and inadequate semantic and stylistic discrimination between the various equivalents suggested in translation. Although this is a general problem of bilingual dictionaries, which necessarily deal with decontextualized instances of language in the construction of the lemma, translationese is common in English-Greek dictionaries as a result of the idiosyncratic history of Greek applied linguistic practice.

The paper discusses issues of translation equivalence that came into view in the editing of the new Collins English-Greek Dictionary (1997). Specific problems relating to the translation from English to Greek are pointed out, with reference to the areas of lexical, grammatical and discourse equivalence. In particular, the occurrence of 'false friends' and register couplets, the categories of definiteness, countability and verb aspect and the varying Theme-Rheme structures constitute points of divergence between the two languages.

The word-for-word translation of these linguistic aspects is mainly accountable for the lack of naturalness. Dictionary editing involves a multitude of detailed decisions along these parameters, which shape the lemmas and influence the quality of the final text. The
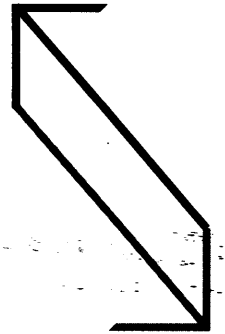
help from both English and Greek corpora has been indispensable at defining the parameters of naturalness for each lemma and at solving problems specific to Greek bilingual lexicography.

Résumé

Les dictionnaires bilingues grecs ont été longtemps marqués par un manque de naturel, par une discrimination sémantique et stylistique inadéquate entre les différentes équivalences suggérées dans la traduction. Bien qu'il s'agisse d'un problème général propre aux dictionnaires bilingues, qui, nécessairement se fondent sur des exemples hors de leur contexte linguistique lors de la construction du vocable, des traductions trop influencées par la langue de sortie sont communes dans les dictionnaires anglais-grec à la suite de l'histoire idiosyncratique de la pratique de la linguistique appliquée grecque.

L'article se penche sur les problèmes de l'équivalence traductionelle lors de la rédaction du nouveau dictionnaire anglais-grec (Collins – 1997). Des problèmes spécifiques relatifs à la traduction de la langue anglaise à la langue grecque sont mis en évidence relativement aux domaines de l'équivalence lexicologique, grammaticale et du discours. Plus spécialement, l'émergence de "faux amis" et de couples dans le registre, les catégories de précision, la comptabilité des substantifs et l'aspect des verbes ainsi que les structures variables thème-rhème constituent des points de divergence entre les deux langues.

La traduction mot-à-mot de ces aspects linguistiques est surtout due au manque de naturel. La rédaction de dictionnaires implique une multitude de décisions détaillés suivant ces paramètres, qui régissent les vocables et influencent la qualité du texte final. L'aide des corpus anglais et grecs a été indispensable lors de la définition des paramètres du naturel pour chaque vocable et lors de la solution des problèmes spécifiques à la lexicographie bilingue grecque.