

Collocations in a New Bilingual Print and Electronic English-German/German-English Dictionary: Their Function and Presentation

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Abstract

This paper looks at the role that lexical collocations have in bilingual lexicography and shows how this concept has been applied to a newly developed English-German dictionary. We will show that collocations -- because they are vitally important units for learners to learn -- must be given in their full form and be fully translated in general bilingual dictionaries. This breaks with traditional lexicographic practice in which very often only collocates are given and the collocation is thus only partially translated. We will also look at specific characteristics of particular parts of speech as well as the most appropriate use of collocates for meaning discrimination.

Introduction

PONS Dictionaries

PONS was established in 1978 as the dictionary imprint of Ernst Klett Publishing, Germany's largest textbook publisher situated in Stuttgart, Southern Germany. Beginning from two already existing, highly successful school dictionariesⁱ, the aim was to build up a full range of authoritative dictionaries reflecting contemporary language and technology. This has meant adherence to the following principles from the start: work according to the native speaker principleⁱⁱ, observation of the language, e.g. in the form of reading programs, and the compilation of structured data. For the dictionary we are discussing here, the latest metalexicographic research was taken into consideration, and German and English language corpora (COSMAS: corpus of the Institut für deutsche Sprache, Mannheim and the British National Corpus) were used in editing work and to complete the headword list, as well as to find additional collocations.

The PONS dictionary range now includes some 150 titles combining about 30 languages with German. The expertise at PONS lies in bilingual lexicography and recently dictionaries combining foreign languages with English have been published under the Cambridge-Klett imprint for international markets. A range of reputable monolingual and learner's

dictionaries from publishing houses such as Cambridge University Press, Le Robert and Zanichelli is also available under the PONS imprint.

The new line of large-scale corpus-validated German-English PONS dictionaries was compiled by an international team of some 60 experts and published in the late summer of 2001. In our paper we will refer to the largest one: PONS Großwörterbuch Englisch [PGE 2001], a general bilingual dictionary with some 350,000 headwords and phrases. Our examples all stem from the English-German side because we are looking at the production aspect for speakers of English in order to reach a larger public. The same principles would apply to a view of the German-English side from the point of view of production by the German user. We are basing our definition and general view of collocations on the work of Franz Josef Hausmann [as resummarized in 1997]. The specific view of collocations in bilingual lexicography is based on Cop [1990; 1991].

Multi-word Units in PGE Typography

Because each kind of multi-word unit has a different status, it makes sense to treat each type differently on a typographic level. Thus, phrasal verbs each begin a new line and are preceded by a black lozenge. The symbol ∞ indicates that the sequence of object and complement is interchangeable.

♦ **dry off**...*vt* ... **to dry sth/sb/oneself** ∞ **off** jdn/etw/sich *akk* abtrocknen;

Grammatical constructions, as the following examples show, are in semi-bold and identified by a preceding shaded square:

glance ... *vi* ... ■ **to ~ at sth** auf etw *akk* schauen;

hold ... *vt* ... ■ **to ~ sb/sth** jdn/etw tragen;

Lexical and grammatical collocations are generally given in full and in semi-bold. We will discuss exceptions to this later on in the paper.

nose ... *n* ... **to blow one's ~** sich die Nase putzen;

utter ... *vt* ... **to ~ a curse/threat** einen Fluch/eine Drohung ausstoßen; **to ~ a diatribe** eine Schmäherei halten; **to ~ a falsehood** eine Unwahrheit sagen; **to ~ an incantation** einen Zauberspruch aufsagen; **to ~ an oath** einen Eid schwören; **to ~ a prayer** ein Gebet sprechen; **to ~ a warning** eine Warnung aussprechen; **without ~ing a word** ohne ein Wort zu sagen;

Example sentences appear in semi-bold italics.

picture ... *n* ... *I hate having my ~ taken* ich hasse es, fotografiert zu werden;

coincidence ... *n* ... *What a ~!* was für ein Zufall!;

Idioms are listed under the heading "PHRASES:" at the end of the relevant part of speech category for the headword under which they are entered. The base word of the idiom is underlined for quicker access.

miss ... vt ... PHRASES: **to ~ the boat** (*inf: not take advantage*) den Anschluss verpassen (*fail to understand*) etw nicht mitbekommen; **to ~ the bus** den Anschluss verpassen; **to ~ the mark** das Ziel [o den Zweck] verfehlen; **to ~ the point** nicht verstehen, worum es geht; **to not ~ a trick** alle Register ziehen;

Collocations within the Framework of Multi-Word Units

Collocations are only one type of multi-word unit (MWU), which also includes free combinations and compounds. Thus, examining collocations within the context of MWUs in general sheds light not only their role for the foreign language speaker but also their treatment in the bilingual dictionary. As an ambiguous term, we would like to define and contrast collocations with other MWUs by describing the defining features of each, based on the work of Hausmann and Günthner/Blanco, as summarized below.

Collocations and Free Combinations

A free combination consists of two lexical units, in which one modifies or restricts the other. They generally consist of words which Hausmann [1997] has called autosemantic elements, i.e. words which can easily be defined and understood without a co-text. In general, such combinations pose no trouble to the language learner as the translation from L1 to L2 can generally be literal, one word at a time.

1. Eng.: clean air, hands, water, face, shirt
Ger.: *saubere Luft/Hände, sauberes Wasser/Gesicht/Hemd*

Collocations, however, though also bipartite units, display an inner relationship between the individual lexical units, which may be broken down into two roles, the base and the collocator. The base of the collocation is the more transparent word, one that in and of itself can be understood and as such is easy to transpose into L2. The word that is more difficult to translate is called the collocator. Whereas the base is usually autosemanticⁱⁱⁱ, the collocator is usually synsemantic [Hausmann 1997]. This is a word that requires a context partner in order for it to be understood. Compare example 1 above with the following example:

2. Eng.: a clean driving license, to have a clean record.
Ger.: *ein Führerschein ohne Strafpunkte* and *nicht vorbestraft sein*.

In example 2, a beginning GFL speaker would probably translate the English collocator, *clean*, into the German equivalent, *sauber*. A more experienced speaker would probably suspect that *sauber* was not correct, but would still not be able to produce the correct phrase [see Hausmann 1993]. Example 1 does not belong in the bilingual dictionary - except for in the case of meaning differentiation and then only in an abbreviated version, whereas example 2 can't be done without.

Before continuing, it is important to note that some free combinations must be treated as collocations in the bilingual dictionary when they pose significant difficulties in production [Cop 1990]. On the other hand, some collocations are realized in L1 and L2 in the same manner. As such they are of secondary importance in bilingual dictionaries. This

qualification is apparent throughout the criteria for including collocations in PGE, with few exceptions which are noted later on in the paper.

An additional factor that distinguishes a collocation from a free combination concerns lexical function, which Günthner and Blanco describe in detail [2002]. A free combination can be expressed as a simple predication as in example 3:

3. complete set → set(complete), a set which has the quality of being complete.

4. complete fool → *fool(complete) a fool who has the quality of being complete ??.

The collocation in example 4 is obviously different from the free combination in example 3, in that “complete,” rather than having an explicit meaning, serves as an intensifier which can be expressed by the lexical function, intensity [Mel’cuk 1995]^v, which can be noted as follows: intensity(fool) => complete - when the lexical function, intensity, is applied to “fool” the collocation, *complete fool*, results^v. Because the lexical function and not the individual components of the collocation must be translated, the foreign language speaker requires a full translation of the collocation in the bilingual dictionary. Here are several similar examples:

complete ... *adj* ... ~ fool Vollidiot;

absolute ... *adj* ... to talk ~ nonsense kompletten Unsinn reden;

utter ... *adj* ... an ~ waste of time eine totale Zeitverschwendung;

Though, as mentioned above, relevance to the L2 speaker supercedes the systematic listing of lexical functions or collocations, these are often difficult for learners. Lexical functions appear to be especially notable in adverb collocations, which seem to have a very fixed, strongly pre-fabricated quality to them, or in Benson’s words, they “spring readily to mind” [Benson et al 1986]. They are often quite restricted, although semi-transparent.

conveniently ... *adv* ... ~ located günstig gelegen;

completely ... *adv* ... ~ certain absolut sicher;

commercially ... *adv* ... ~ available im Handel erhältlich;

accutely ... *adv* ... to be ~ aware of sth sich *dat* einer S. *gen* sehr bewusst sein;

adamantly ... *adv* ... to be ~ opposed to sth etw entscheidend ablehnen;

carefully ... *adv* ... to listen ~ aufmerksam zuhören;

Collocations, Compounds and Idioms

On the other hand, as multi-word expressions, collocations are not as fixed as idioms or compounds, which can be considered “lexically atomic” units [Günthner & Blanco 2002]. These are not analysable on any level nor can they be readily modified, as several examples from Günthner and Blanco [2002] show. In example 5 below, both the collocation and the free combination can be modified, whereas the compound cannot.

Compound:	Big Business
Free Combination:	big house
Collocation:	big decision
5. (modification)	*very Big Business very big house very big decision
6. (coordination)	*Big and important Business big and spacious home big and important decision

Analogous to the distinction between compounds and free combinations and collocations, is the difference between idioms and collocations. As above, idioms cannot be modified [see Schenk 1992], whereas the collocation can.

Idiom:	to kick the bucket
Collocation:	to kick a habit
7. (passivization)	*the bucket was kicked the habit was kicked
8. (topicalization)	*the bucket she kicked ... the habit she kicked ...

These selected examples of modification tests that can be applied to both compounds and idioms showing that they encompass one single unit should suffice to demonstrate their distinction from collocations. In PGE, compounds are given headword status, while idioms are treated separately in "phrases" section at the end of the entry as described in section 1. above.

Criteria for Including Collocations in the Dictionary

Units to Learn

Hausmann [1993] has shown that collocations must be learned as a whole and calls them, together with constructions and idioms "Formulierungen" ("formulations"). They are a common source of error in L2 because learners tend to transpose L1 collocations directly into L2. This assumes that each element is autosemantic, but collocations, as we have seen, consist of a synsemantic and an autosemantic component. They must be identified as items to be learned especially for encoding purposes because understanding a collocation is easier than reproducing it from memory. Collocations that are difficult to translate must be included in bilingual dictionaries.

possess ... *vt* ... **to ~ charm** Charme haben [o besitzen]; **to ~ dignity** voller Würde sein; **to ~ magical powers** über magische Kräfte verfügen; **to ~ special skills** besondere Fähigkeiten besitzen;

produce ... *vt* ... **to ~ antibodies/red blood cells** Antikörper/rote Blutkörperchen produzieren; **to ~ coal/oil** Kohle/Erdöl fördern; **to ~ electricity** Strom erzeugen; **to ~ ideas/thoughts** Ideen/Gedanken entwickeln; **to ~ an illusion** eine falsche Vorstellung erwecken; **to ~ noise** Lärm verursachen; **to ~ a novel/report** einen Roman/Bericht schreiben [o verfassen]; **to ~ an odour** einen Geruch absondern; **to ~ a shadow** einen Schatten werfen; **to ~ a state of hypnosis** einen Hypnosenzustand herbeiführen;

Other collocations have an idiomatic feel to them but are very easy to translate. We include a selection of these in the dictionary:

produce ... *vt* ... **to ~ top artists** Spitzenkünstler[innen] produzieren; **to ~ a record/CD** eine CD/Schallplatte produzieren;

piece ... *n* ... **to break/smash/tear sth in [or into] [or to] ~s** etw in Stücke brechen/schlagen/reißen;

questioning ... *adj* ... **a ~ look** ein fragender Blick;

Degree of Restrictedness

Collocations can be more or less restricted: *moot question*, *confirmed bachelor*, *adamantine will*, *addled eggs/brain* are far more restricted than *utter nonsense*, *high hopes*, *assorted flavors* or *healthy lifestyle* which have a larger collocational range. The more restricted a collocation is, the more important it is to include it.

wound ... *adj* ... **a gaping/open** ~ eine klaffende/offene Wunde; (**a bleeding/infected/old** ~ all not included)

confirmed ... *adj* ... **a ~ alcoholic** chronischer Alkoholiker; **a ~ atheist** ein überzeugter Atheist; **a ~ bachelor** eingefleischter Junggeselle; (**a ~ reservation** is not included)

recover ... *vt* ... (*get back*) **one's health** etw zurückerlangen; *sth lent* etw zurückbekommen; *one's appetite* etw wiedergewinnen; *stolen goods* etw sicherstellen; **to ~ one's balance/composure** sein Gleichgewicht/seine Selbstbeherrschung wieder finden; **to ~ consciousness** das Bewusstsein wiedererlangen, wieder zu Bewusstsein kommen; **to ~ one's costs** seine Kosten decken; **to ~ data/a directory/file** COMPUT Daten/ ein Verzeichnis/ eine Datei wiederherstellen; **to ~ one's health** wieder gesund werden; **to ~ one's hearing/sight** wieder hören/sehen können; **to ~ one's strength** wieder zu Kräften kommen;

The example, recover, shows various degrees of restrictedness and their representations in PGE. Whereas lexical fields are written in italics after a short definition at the beginning of the article, more restricted collocations are listed explicitly in semi-bold.

Collocational Symmetry

Another good reason for including full collocations is to disambiguate in the target language, thus giving the non-native a greater sense of security. Under "cavernous", it could be typical traditional lexicographic practice to include the collocate, *hole*, and translate *cavernous* in this context as *gähnend*. However, the autosemantic *Loch* is required here to show the learner the correct selection and natural context of *gähnend* ("yawning"). It also makes very much sense to have symmetry in the entry: a full collocation translated by a full collocation [Cop 1990]. This way, it is easier to anchor the collocation in the learner's memory.

cavernous ... *adj* ... ~ **hole** gähnendes Loch;

Morphological Variants in L1 Collocations

Often a collocation will carry throughout a word family. In such cases, Bahns [1996] in his evaluation of learner's dictionaries considers it sufficient to include the collocation only under one member of the family, arguing that an advanced learner can be expected to recognize the relationship between word forms. In bilingual dictionaries however, the relationship which exists so neatly in L1 often does not occur at all in L2. The first two examples are from Bahns, the others are additional:

forgive ... *vt* ... **to ~ a sin** eine Sünde vergeben;

forgiveness ... *n* ... **~ of one's sins** Vergebung *f* seiner Sünden;

unforgivable ... *adj* ... **an ~ sin** eine Todsünde;

boost ... I. *n* ... **to give a ~ to sth** etw Auftrieb *dat* geben [o verleihen]; ...II. *vt* **to ~ morale** die Stimmung heben;

booster ... *n* ... **to be a morale** ~ die Stimmung heben; (and not *ein Stimmungsheber sein, even tough this is a possible syntactic pattern in German!)

assume ... *vt* ... **to ~ power** die Macht ergreifen;

assumption ... *n* ... **the ~ of power** Machtübernahme;

love ... *n* ... **a ~ of books** Liebe zu Büchern;

lover ... *n* ... **a ~ of books** Buchfreund[in]

Grammatical Collocations

Benson et al [1986] divide collocations into two categories, lexical and grammatical. Though lexical collocations require far more attention in bilingual dictionaries, grammatical collocations play an important role in learning a language and speaking it properly. Most commonly, these combinations appear in the form of prepositional phrases:

astonishment ... *n* ... **to sb's ~** zu jds Verwunderung [o Staunen];

authority ... *n* ... **on one's own ~** in eigener Verantwortung;

background ... *n* ... **with a ~ in ...** mit Erfahrung in ...;

L1 Collocations as L2 compounds

In many cases an English collocation is translated into German with a one-word compound. This also justifies giving the full collocation

clothing ... *n* ... **a piece of ~** Kleidungsstück;

population ... *n* ... **civilian ~** Zivilbevölkerung;

The Presentation of Collocations

The Base as Subject of the Verb

Many *n + v* collocations consist of the subject as the base and the verb as the collocate. Here, the collocate expresses the basic action [Benson, 1985] of the verb. A full collocation in the article, however, would look strange:

- ***bark** ... *vi* ... **dogs** ~ Hunde bellen;
- ***explode** ... *vi* ... **bombs** ~ Bomben explodieren;

The autosemantic base doesn't generally pose a significant challenge, neither in reception nor production, but in order to maintain a natural style, such combinations appear as follows

- bark** ... *vi* ... *dog* bellen;
- explode** ... *vi* ... *bomb* explodieren;
- screech** ... *vi* ... *person* schreien; *animal* kreischen; *brakes, tyres* quietschen;

There are additional categories of verbs, in which the base is their only argument. Many of these can be described using Mel'cuk's lexical functions such as Func, Incep, Fact and Degrad [Mel'cuk 1995]. When relevant to the L2 speaker, these are handled in the same manner in PGE.

- break out** ... *vi* ... *storm* losbrechen;
- rise** ... *vi* ... *sun, moon* aufgehen; ... *mood, spirit* steigen; ... *voice* höher gehen;
- wear off** ... *vi* ... *effect* nachlassen;

The Base as a Range of Lexical Items

In some cases, a collocator can combine with a range of lexical items which represent a lexical field. Cowie [1978]^{vi}, in his analysis of the possibilities for representing such phenomena, concludes that the only practical solution is to pick a representative selection of bases and list these (see also section 4.6). This appears in PGE as follows:

- assault** ... *n* ... *an* ~ on **racism/sexism** ein Feldzug gegen Rassismus/Sexismus;
- burst** ... *vi* ... *to* ~ with **anger/curiosity/joy/pride** vor Wut/Neugier/Freude/Stolz platzen; **to with energy/health/joie de vivre** vor Kraft/Gesundheit/Lebensfreude [nur so] strotzen; **to ~ with excitement/happiness** vor Aufregung/Glück ganz außer sich *dat* sein;
- bruise** ... *vt* ... *to* ~ **sb's ego/feelings/pride** jds Ego *nt*/Gefühle *fpl*/Stolz *m* verletzen;

Collocations and Sentence Mode

In most cases, a collocation will retain its translation, regardless of the sentence mode. However, pragmatics and sentence mode can both have an effect on the L2 translation, in which case the collocation is first shown in standard form, followed by an example sentence, illustrating either the sentence mode or the pragmatic circumstance which causes the deviation in translation.

step ... *vi* ... **to step on the accelerator/brakes** aufs Gaspedal/auf die Bremse treten; ~ **on it** gib Gas!
fam;

resort ... *n* ... **as a last** ~ als letzten Ausweg [o Möglichkeit]; **you're my last** ~! du bist meine letzte Hoffnung;

lid ... *n* ... **to put a ~ on sth** mit etw Schluss machen [o aufhören]; **put a ~ on it!** jetzt hör doch mal auf [damit]!;

The Interplay between L1 and L2

Although a collocation occurs within an individual language, it cannot always be translated in a syntactically identical way. This includes such phenomena as English *v + n* as German *v + adv*, among various other structural discrepancies

attention ... *n* ... **to pay** ~ aufpassen; (*v + n* → *v*)

ajar ... *adv* ... **to leave sth** ~ etw einen Spalt offen stehen lassen; (*v + adv* → *v + n*)

auction ... *n* ... **to sell sth by [or at]** ~ etw versteigern; (*v + PP* → *v*)

audition ... *n* ... **to hold an ~ [or ~s] for actor** vorsprechen lassen; (*v + n* → *v*)

authority ... *n* ... **to be in** ~ verantwortlich sein; (*v + PP* → *v*)

ban ... *n* ... **to place a ~ on sth** etw verbieten [o untersagen]; (*v + n + PP* → *v*)

abroad ... *adv* ... **to go** ~ ins Ausland fahren; (*v + adv* → *v + n*)

across ... *adv* ... **to look ~ at sb** zu jdm hinüber/herübersehen; (*v + adv + PP* → *v + PP*)

Furthermore, sometimes a verb or a preposition must be added to an English collocation in order for it to be translated into German.

utter ... *adj* ... **to be** ~ bliss eine ungeheure Wohltat sein; **in** ~ **despair** in völliger Verzweiflung, völlig verzweifelt;

clean ... *adj* ... ~ **driving license** Führerschein *m* ohne Strafpunkte; **to have a ~ record** nicht vorbestraft sein;

queasy ... *adj* ... **with a ~ conscious** mit Gewissensbisse;

Though the English collocations above would still be considered complete in their simple bipartite form, they would not be translatable into idiomatic German without “to be,” “in,” “to have” and “with” respectively. In this way, PGE tries to combine the features and idiosyncronicities of both L1 and L2 to the FL speaker’s advantage.

Upon occasion, the two languages diverge to such a great extent, that the English collocation can only be shown with an explanation in German, though usually an example sentence will suffice. More will be said on example sentences in the following section.

lip ... *n* ... **don't give me any of that** ~ spar die deine Unverschämtheiten;

funny ... *adj* ... **there's something ~ going on here** hier ist doch was faul *fam*;

stewed ... *adj* ... BRIT, AUS (*overdone*) ~ **tee Tee, der zu lange gezogen hat**;

Collocations as Example Sentences

Occasionally, a collocation cannot be shown neutrally, due either to its complex structure (in either L1 or L2), awkwardness in translation or the position of the base (see section 4.1) or when the collocation is only used in a certain sentence mode. In these cases, the collocation is shown in an example sentence as the following examples show:

not:

***bulge ... to ~ in sth**

***bulge ... to ~ in surprise**

but rather

bulge ... v ... her eyes ~d in surprise vor Überraschung fielen ihr die Augen fast aus dem Kopf *fam*;

not:

***behave ... to ~ someway towards sb** sich irgendwie jdm gegenüber verhalten;

but rather:

behave ... vi ... How did he ~ towards you? Wie hat er sich die gegenüber verhalten?;

not:

***asking ... to be sb's for the ~:** jemand kann etwas haben wenn er möchte;

but rather

asking ... n ... it's yours for the asking du kannst es haben, wenn du möchtest;

Space-Saving Devices

In print products, one must deal with the problem of limited space for a phenomenon as vast as equivalence. When the base has been judged to be easy to translate into L2 either on the basis of the user's language competence or a look-up under the appropriate headword, the base is given in italics and only the collocate translated:

abortive ... adj ... (not successful) *attempt* gescheitert; *plan* misslungen;

accusing ... adj ... look anklagend *attr*; *tone* vorwurfsvoll;

record ... vt ... (for later reproduction) 4 **to ~ sth** FILM, MUS etw aufnehmen; *event* etw dokumentieren; **to ~ a speech** eine Rede aufzeichnen;

In the example, record, the only collocation deemed worth the space of listing it explicitly was "to record a speech." The first translation is illustrated with a specialized field as the collocational range is very wide (see section 3.2.). The second translation is disambiguated with the lexical field, event, as there are many types of events which could not all possibly be listed. Though these two methods of illustrating collocations have been deemed inadequate or perhaps inappropriate by Cowie^{viii} [1978], they can be very useful in the bilingual dictionary, in which the L2 speaker understands the collocation he or she wants to use and requires only an identifying factor to point him or her towards the correct translation. These devices save space for true collocations which pose the greatest challenge to the L2 speaker.

The Function of Collocations

We have shown that, because of the syntactic and semantic dimension that collocations display, they must be listed and translated fully in their function as important syntactic units to learn. Also, bases of collocations can be more effective meaning discriminators than synonym glosses, which can be too vague. If the base is easy to translate or if it is the superordinate for a whole range of collocates (e.g. *person*, *building*, etc.) then the full collocation need not be listed. Restrictedness is therefore also a criterium for the way in which collocations are shown. The way collocations are included is also subject to space-saving criteria in print dictionaries. In addition L1 and ease of translation into L2, and aesthetic criteria such as a dictionary style that is as natural as possible will be influential.

Accessing Collocations in Dictionaries

Because of the dual dimension of collocations, they must be accessible both under base and collocator headwords in a general bilingual dictionary [see Cop 1991, 2777]. We therefore disagree with Hausmann's view that collocations should be cross-referred from collocator to base entries [Hausmann 1988, 151] where they are needed for text production, firstly because this would cause a cross-reference inflation which is not user-friendly. Secondly, they are equally needed in collocator entries to help illustrate the sense of the collocator being treated. Luckily, this has become possible with the advent of electronic dictionaries [Petelenz 2001, 188 f. and Heid 1998].

The electronic version of PGE, Lexiface Professional [PLP], shows the content of PGE in electronic form and includes a pop-up function. It is a first project on the road to the realization of a fully electronic dictionary.

Endnotes

ⁱ German-English: Schöffler Weis Taschenwörterbuch der englischen und deutschen Sprache (1950); German-French: Weis Mattutat: Taschenwörterbuch Deutsch-Französisch (1951)

ⁱⁱ For the combination English-German, this means that only English native speakers work on the English material while only German natives work on the German.

ⁱⁱⁱ The word *clean* is autosemantic in its main meaning – "not dirty". This can be demonstrated by the fact that it is fairly easy to guess the word from its definition. In other senses, however, it is also synsemantic. If someone supplied a definition such as "free from previous criminal offence" one would probably not come up with the word in question, i.e. *clean* [Hausmann 1997].

^{iv} In Mel'cuk's terminology Magn(x).

^v Other common lexical functions, apparent in adverbs are praise, e.g. *cordially* invite, to perform *beautifully*, think *creatively*, and diminishers, e.g. *barely* visible, *hardly* ever, *rarely* seen, to perform *poorly*.

^{vi} Cowie's three possibilities include using semantic characteristics (e.g. + film or + music), an archilexeme - a word covering a lexical field (e.g. event) or listing a representative selection of bases as here shown.

^{vii} Cowie set his criteria with monolingual L2 dictionaries in mind. Acknowledging this, we would like to illustrate in this paper that Cowie's three possibilities all have a place in the bilingual dictionary.

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