

**Description of Loan Words in French School Dictionaries:
Treatment of Words of Foreign Origin in *Dictionnaire Hachette junior* (2006)
and *Le Robert junior illustré* (2005)**

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French children learn to use dictionaries at the very beginning of their schooling. Between the ages of eight and twelve, they have access to general-purpose dictionaries which may deal with certain loan words. Our study analyses borrowings which are dealt with in a selection of this type of dictionaries: two French general dictionaries for cycle 3 which have substantial etymological content-Dictionnaire Hachette junior (2006) and Robert junior illustré (2005). The four leading general children's dictionaries for eight- to twelve-year-olds note between 116 and 619 borrowings from a selection of 4 to 52 languages. Like the dictionaries for cycle 2-students between the ages of five and eight, they may provide information about the phonographic features of the borrowings indicated as such, but as cycle 3 children are supposed to read alone and be at an age when the thirst for new knowledge is very strong, it is logical that dictionaries designed for them should offer more substantial entries in terms of the nature and relative systematization of the information they provide. According to each dictionary's individual structure this information might be presented in a single entry zone-as in Larousse junior (2003)-or three zones-in Robert junior illustré and Dictionnaire Hachette junior. Like the number of zones used, associated information types also vary: the information given is most often metalinguistic-phonographic, lexical, morphological, etymological, etc.-and sometimes cultural. In this analysis of the treatment of anglicisms in French dictionaries for eight- to twelve-year-olds, I propose to build a typology of etymology associated information and to examine how and where this information is given in Dictionnaire Hachette junior and Robert junior illustré, the two dictionaries which have a consistent etymological approach: 619 loan words identified in the first one and 495 in the second one.

1. Introduction

In France, schoolchildren have access to dictionaries that are graded according to their reading skill levels. The best of these books designed for beginning readers (5 - 8 years old) cover about 6,000 words chosen to reflect the fundamental lexicon, while those for more advanced readers (8 - 12 years old) cover some 20,000 words, including many that are imagined to be less well-known to schoolchildren and deemed to be useful both in class and for children reading a variety of texts on their own.

A large proportion of the French lexicon is made up of words which have, at different times, been borrowed from other languages. Some (like *week-end*) are easily identifiable as loan words, while others (like *armistice* or *amiral*) have been more completely assimilated and are no longer immediately perceived as coming from foreign sources.

This paper looks at the treatment of words of foreign origin in the two reference works designed for pupils aged 8 - 12 which have a substantial etymological dimension, namely the *Dictionnaire Hachette junior* (2006 – DHJ) and *Le Robert junior illustré* (2005 – RJI).

An account of their editorial history is given in § 1. In order to establish a typology of information relating to borrowings, it is necessary to identify which entry zones can carry such information and whether or not these zones are dedicated to the foreign origin of the words concerned: this structural analysis is presented in § 2. Once this framework has been set out, information relating to foreign origin is examined in § 3.

2. Editorial history

Though the latest editions of the two dictionaries were published quite close together (the RJI in 2005 and the DHJ in 2006), their content is not in fact of the same age. They must be considered as the results of textual changes that have taken place at different rates:

The 1998 edition of DHJ, whose content did not change significantly in the 2002, 2004 and 2006 editions, is a revised and augmented version of the *Dictionnaire Hachette juniors. Langue française* (1993) with much greater emphasis laid on etymology: in 1993, 280 items originating from 9 different languages were flagged with information such as “(mot GLOSSONYM)” (e.g. “(mot anglais)"); in 1998, 619 items from 31 languages or language groups were given etymological extensions.¹

Similarly, the 1993 edition of RJI was slightly revised in 1994, 1999 and 2003, then extensively reworked in 2005, even though, in spite of these enrichments, the declared size of its headword list remained the same. The 2005 revision significantly affected etymological information: compared to the 2003 edition, (i) the number of items flagged as originating from a foreign language (including some new headwords) increased threefold (495 compared to 165), (ii) the number of languages or language groups mentioned increased sevenfold (50 as against 7) and (iii) the formulation of linguistic origin was enhanced² and relocated to a zone at the end of the entry designed to accommodate a range of remarks. Moreover, since 2003, the dictionary has included a separate etymological supplement (“Cahier d’étymologie”).³ In 2005 the lexical extent of this supplement doubled⁴. It is clear, then, that this dictionary’s editorial profile has both recently and significantly evolved.

The amount of etymological information provided gives both books a clear edge over the other dictionaries for 8 to 12 year olds which also include such information⁵, namely *Fleurus junior* (2004) and *Larousse junior* (2003)⁶.

3. Structural analysis

Fleurus junior and *Larousse junior* bundle their (somewhat sparse and insubstantial) etymological information along with phonographic information, variants, derivatives and indication of brand name in a multi-purpose entry zone. The way entries are structured in DHJ and RJI-D is rather more consistent, as they have recourse to three distinct entry zones to provide different types of information, as seen *s.v. week-end*⁷.

¹ The statistics on languages cited in each dictionary are taken from Gasiglia (2008: 172-176).

² The template “Ce mot vient de GLOSSONYM” or a variant of this is still used for about half the items, cf. Gasiglia (2008: 193 and 211).

³ Hereafter, when it is useful to distinguish between the two texts, RJI-D will refer to the main body of the dictionary and RJI-CE to the “Cahier d’étymologie”.

⁴ In 2003 the front cover of the “Cahier d’étymologie” announced 200 word histories, in 2005 the front cover of this supplement announce 400 word histories and the general index list all words. The index of languages of origin in each of these “cahiers” indicates that 174 and 310 items respectively in the main headword list come from 22 and 23 languages or groups of languages respectively.

⁵ Neither the *Dictionnaire Maxi débutants* (1999), nor the *Dictionnaire Auzou junior* (2005) give etymological information. However the scale of etymological treatment in dictionaries designed for children entering secondary education (*Le Grand dictionnaire de français* (2004), *Larousse super major* (2004), *Dictionnaire scolaire Hachette* (2002)) is greater than in DHJ and RJI, which means they will have to be studied separately.

⁶ *Fleurus junior*: 200 items from 9 languages; *Larousse junior*: 120 items from 4 languages.

⁷ In the entries below, nothing indicates explicitly that, because of its English origin, the word *week-end* does not obey French phonological rules: it is up to the reader, if he is observant enough, to articulate the

Unlike the structural symmetry which seems to emerge in the *week-end* entries (cf. note 7), the end-of-entry note in RJI-D which has, since 2005, given etymological information is not dedicated solely to such information⁸. Moreover, the orthographic note on the plural form is introduced *s.v. week-end* by a hyphen and located at the end of the description of meaning, whereas *s.v. amiral* it is given in parentheses after the part of speech.⁹

S.v. week-end in DHJ, as well as the indication of language origin, we find information relating to the etymon and to a French-speaking area where the loan word is not used¹⁰. Information given in this zone can thus extend beyond word origin alone. In other entries in *DHJ*, information given in the three zones is more textually articulated but it does not strictly respect the principle of distribution into zones dedicated solely to remarks on phonetics, spelling and grammar or etymology respectively: *s.v. bungalow*, etymological information appears partly in the pronunciation zone and partly in the etymology zone¹¹; *s.v. yaourt*, it concerns an allomorph of the headword and appears (with its pronunciation) in the spelling and grammar zone¹².

These structural particularities have led us adopt the following methodological strategies: (I) extending our enquiry beyond the zone that regularly contains etymological data to include entries in which distribution of this information across more than one zone might mask their actual complementarity, and (II) examining variations in distribution of word-origin information across these complementary zones.

4. Information associated with indication of foreign origin

The above analysis shows that the editorial orientation of the DHJ and RJI is partly reflected in the structural division of entries into distinct sections, even if this does not constitute a rigid constraint: in DHJ, the three zones mentioned can contain etymological information alongside other types of information, with modulations specific to each entry section; in RJI, this infor-

information given and guess that the fact that these three optional components are given together is no accident.

DHJ: **week-end** (nom masculin)
 Congé de la fin de la semaine, le samedi et le dimanche. *On a passé le week-end à la mer.* ↗ Prononciation [wikend]. ↻ Pluriel : des week-ends.
 ↗ Week-end est un mot anglais formé de *week* qui signifie « semaine » et de *end* qui signifie « fin ». On n'emploie pas ce mot au Québec : on dit « fin de semaine ».

RJI-D: **week-end** [wikend] n. m. ↗ Congé de fin de semaine comprenant le samedi et le dimanche. *Ils partent en week-end à la campagne.* — Au pl. *Des week-ends.*
 ● Ce mot vient de l'anglais.

In extracts from DHJ below, the original pictograms will be replaced by: “↗”, “↻” and “●”.

⁸ *S.v. fusil*, for instance, it consists of a piece of phonetic information which partly repeats what is given in the transcription following the headword (“**fusil** [fyzi] [...] ● On ne prononce pas le l final.”); *s.v. chrysanthème*, the information is orthographical (“● Il y a deux h et un y dans ce mot.”); *s.v. wassingue*, it is geolinguistic (“● Ce mot est utilisé dans le nord de la France et en Belgique.”).

⁹ *S.v. amiral*: “**amiral** n. m. (pl. **amiraux**)”. These presentational variations could already be observed in the last edition before the reworked version (2003) but with square brackets instead of parentheses. *S.v. agenda* the remark presenting the plural form previously preceded by a hyphen was removed, and the contextualized example that was introduced seems to have been designed to replace it (“Il garde tous ses agendas.”).

¹⁰ The normative interpretation of the localization of non-usage is based on the fact that the dictionary is sold in Quebec (<http://www.hachette.qc.ca/pedago/hd.html>) and on observations by Boulanger (1994: 272).

¹¹ “↗ Bungalow est un mot anglais: on prononce [bœgalo]. ● À l’origine, un bungalow c’était une maison du Bengale, région de l’Inde.” (DHJ, *s.v. bungalow*).

¹² “↗ On dit aussi yogourt [jogurt] qui est la forme turque de ce mot.» (DHJ, *s.v. yaourt*).

mation can be distributed between specialized entries in RJI-CE and the end-of-entry ‘remarks’ zone in RJI-D, which presents etymological information alone or alongside other data¹³, although distribution is not strictly complementary across the two volumes¹⁴.

Etymological information can, (i) in RJI-D alone, be confined to an indication of the language of origin (cf. n. 2)¹⁵ or be extended to the etymon¹⁶ and related phonographical information¹⁷. (ii) In DHJ, RJI-D and RJI-CE, the relevant zone may include information that is morphological (inflections¹⁸ or constructions¹⁹), semantic²⁰, etymological (word’s journey²¹ or etymological kinship²²), referential²³, historical²⁴, or cultural²⁵. Etymons derived from a proper noun may be

¹³ The structure of RJI-D is comparable to that of *Fleurus junior* and *Larousse junior* (cf. § 2), but the information given is more varied and consistent.

¹⁴ 47 items have remarks in RJI-D and an entry, which is often more substantial, in RJI-CE.

¹⁵ S.v. *zéro*: “● Ce mot vient de l’arabe.” (RJI-D).

¹⁶ S.v. *corridor*: “● Ce mot vient de l’italien *corridore*.” (RJI-D).

¹⁷ S.v. *fioul*: “● *Fioul* est la forme française de l’anglais *fuel* [fju].” (RJI-D).

¹⁸ S.v. *agenda*, whereas DHJ is implicit (“◆ En latin, *agenda* signifie «les choses qu’il faut faire».”), RJI-CE is more explicative (“Ce mot latin veut dire «ce qui doit être fait, choses à faire». C’est une forme du verbe *agere* signifiant «faire, s’occuper de», verbe qui est à l’origine du verbe *agir*.”). Cf. also s.v. *drakkar* in RJI-CE, n. 25.

¹⁹ S.v. *pop-corn*: “◆ *Pop-corn* vient des mots anglais *to pop* qui signifie «éclater» et *corn* qui signifie «maïs».” (DHJ); “Ce mot vient de l’anglais d’Amérique *popcorn*, forme abrégée de *popped corn* qui signifie «maïs (corn) qu’on a fait éclater (to pop) par l’effet de la chaleur.»” (RJI-CE).

²⁰ S.v. *amiral*, DHJ and RJI-D provide the same gloss as part of a pattern GLOSSONYM ETYMON? GLOSS which is very frequent in DHJ: “◆ *Amiral* vient d’un nom arabe qui veut dire «chef», et que l’on retrouve dans *émir*.” (DHJ); for RJI-D, cf. n. 22. Moreover, when the gloss concerns several words and is synthetic, it may be less precise than when, as above, it only concerns one word, for example s.v. *armistice* in DHJ (“◆ *Armistice* est formé de deux mots latins qui signifient «les armes restent immobiles».”), which is more abstract than RJI-CE (“Ce mot vient du latin; il est composé à partir de *arma* qui signifie «arme» et du verbe *stare* qui veut dire «être immobile». L’*armistice* est donc un «arrêt des armes», tout comme le *solstice* est un «arrêt du Soleil».”).

²¹ They often concern “travelling words” whose forms changed as they travelled. S.v. *bungalow* in DHJ (cf. n. 11) the word’s journey is not mentioned, whereas in RJI-CE we find: “C’est un mot anglais qui vient d’un mot de l’Inde, *bangala*, qui signifie «(maison) dans le style du Bengale», c’est-à-dire une maison basse en bois entourée d’une véranda. Le Bengale, région qui s’étend autour de Calcutta et du delta du Gange, a été colonisé très tôt par les Britanniques. Une partie est indépendante sous le nom de Bangladesh qui signifie «pays du Bengale».”. The RJI-CE presentation may be connected to Höfler’s: he mentions a word in the *Dictionnaire des anglicismes* when its French form can be explained by the form of the English etymon (“On traitera ici du fr. *bungalow* et du fr. *curry* parce que leur forme ne s’explique que par l’influence de l’anglais: les mots hindi *bangala* et *kari* ont été transformés en *bungalow* et *curry* selon les règles spécifiquement anglaises de la relation entre la graphie et la prononciation» (Höfler 1982: VII)). Although formal variation can also motivate the localisation of two forms taken from different languages by the word *zéro* during its journey (“◆ *Zéro* vient de l’arabe *sifr* qui signifie «vide», par l’intermédiaire de l’italien *zefiro*.” (DHJ); for RJI-CE, cf. n. 24), this is not a systematic principle, since s.v. *canyon*, for example, DHJ and RJI-D use the Americanised form as the headword and mention the Spanish etymon *cañón*, but without mentioning its transit via American English: “✍ On écrit aussi *cañon*, comme en espagnol.” (DHJ); “● Ce mot qui vient de l’espagnol s’écrit aussi *cañon* [kanjɔn].” (RJI-D).

²² References to the fact that words belong to the same etymological family appear in DHJ (s.v. *amiral*, cf. n. 20, with cross-reference from *émir*: “◆ Voir *amiral*.”) and in RJI, but there are considerably more in RJI-CE (s.v. *zéro*, cf. n. 24, or s.v. *émir*: “En arabe, *amir* signifie «prince» et «chef militaire». Ce mot arabe a donné en français *émir* et *amiral* qui désigne celui qui commande en mer.”) than in RJI-D (s.v. *amiral*: “● Ce mot vient de l’arabe *âmîr* qui veut dire «chef», comme *émir*.”). They may concern etymons that have via different routes given rise to different words or which have been used (at different times) as components of compound words (s.v. *aqueduc*: “◆ Dans *aqueduc*, il y a le mot latin *aqua* signifiant «eau» que l’on retrouve dans *aquaculture*, *aquarelle*, *aquarium*, *aquatique*.” (DHJ); s.v. *confluent*: “Ce mot vient

explained with reference to the person²⁶ or place²⁷ whose name it was, or in *DHJ*, simply labelled “brand name”²⁸. When information on usage observed in French is given alongside

du latin confluere qui signifie «couler avec», «couler ensemble, en parlant de deux cours d’eau». Le verbe fluere est à l’origine de plusieurs mots français en relation avec le fait de couler: affluent, fleuve, fluide, flux et reflux, ainsi que affluence, affluer, afflux.” (RJI-CE)).

²³ Information can be more extensive in *DHJ* than in *RJI-D* (*DHJ*, s.v. blue-jean: “↖ Blue-jean est un mot anglais: on prononce [bludʒin]. [...] ↗ Blue-jean est la déformation de bleu de Gênes, car les Américains importaient de la toile de Gênes, port d’Italie, pour faire les pantalons des cow-boys.»; *RJI-D*, s.v. jean: “● Ce mot vient de l’américain blue-jean qui veut dire «bleu de Gênes», nom d’une toile très solide d’abord fabriquée à Gênes.”), but the extra information is more encyclopedic in *RJI-CE*, for example s.v. bungalow (cf. n. 21), where the scope of the information given is quite broad, which makes it easier to understand for readers than that given in *DHJ* (cf. n. 11).

²⁴ It may concern geopolitical history (s.v. angora, cf. n. 27) or the history of science and technology (s.v. zéro: “Le zéro est bien utile en mathématiques. Ce chiffre, apparu en dernier, est pourtant un chiffre à part entière (le dixième). Les Indiens savaient écrire tous les nombres à l’aide de dix signes; le dixième était un point représentant «le vide». Les Arabes adoptent le système indien; ils remplacent le point par un petit cercle qu’ils nomment sifr, traduction arabe signifiant «vide, néant». L’usage du zéro apparaît en Occident au 12^e siècle, avec la traduction de traités de mathématiques. En latin du Moyen Âge, sifr devient zephirum, puis en italien zefiro, qui sera abrégé en zéro. L’arabe sifr est à l’origine d’un autre mot français: chiffre, qui apparaît au 13^e siècle avec le sens de «zéro». Il prend son sens actuel au 15^e siècle, au moment où le français emprunte zéro à l’italien. (→ chiffre)” (*RJI-CE*)). The historical information in *DHJ* and *RJI-D* is more allusive than that given in *RJI-CE*, which gives data that is as precise as its editorial scope will allow.

²⁵ S.v. bluff, both dictionaries give information of similar scope: “↖ Bluff est un mot anglais: on prononce [blœf]. ↗ En Amérique, bluff était le nom du jeu de poker où l’on doit mentir pour impressionner ses adversaires.” (*DHJ*); “● Mot américain qui vient du jeu de poker. Le bluff, c’est l’attitude du joueur qui fait croire à l’adversaire qu’il a les cartes les plus fortes, même si c’est faux.” (*RJI-D*). S.v. drakkar, *RJI-CE* gives more cultural information than *DHJ*: “↗ Drakkar est un mot suédois qui signifie «dragon», car la proue de ces bateaux était ornée d’une tête de dragon.” (*DHJ*); “La proue de ces bateaux scandinaves était ornée d’un dragon. Cet animal fabuleux de la mythologie nordique, symbole de force et de courage, protégeait des mauvais esprits de la mer et terrorisait les populations envahies. Le mot drakkar vient du suédois; c’est le pluriel de drake qui veut dire «dragon».” (*RJI-CE*).

²⁶ S.v. boycott the dictionaries give comparable information: “↖ Boycott est un mot anglais: on prononce [bojkot]. [...] ↗ Boycott était le nom d’un propriétaire irlandais qui voulait louer ses terres trop cher et qui fut mis en quarantaine par les paysans mécontents.” (*DHJ*); “● Ce mot vient de l’anglais. Boycott était un propriétaire irlandais mis en quarantaine par les paysans mécontents.” (*RJI-D*). But s.v. sandwich *RJI-CE* offers more information than *DHJ* and *RJI-D*: “↖ Sandwich est un terme anglais: on prononce [sãdwitʃ]. [...] ↗ Sandwich vient du nom du comte de Sandwich, dont le cuisinier inventa ce repas sommaire pour lui éviter de quitter sa table.» (*DHJ*); “C’est un mot anglais, qui vient du nom du comte de Sandwich.” (*RJI-D*); “Ce mot vient d’un nom propre. Un Anglais du 18^e siècle, John Montagu, 4^e comte de Sandwich, était passionné par le jeu. Il ne souhaitait même pas interrompre la partie en cours pour prendre un repas! Son cuisinier glissa de la viande entre deux tranches de pain et ce repas sommaire devint à la mode sous le nom de sandwich. Le nom de ce même personnage est attaché à un archipel. En effet, l’explorateur James Cook est le premier Européen à aborder les îles Hawaii et il les baptise îles Sandwich en l’honneur de son protecteur qui était premier lord de l’Amirauté (ministre de la Marine Britannique).” (*RJI-CE*).

²⁷ S.v. angora: “↗ Angora vient du nom d’Ankara, ville de Turquie, qui était une étape sur la route des caravanes qui rapportaient cette laine d’Orient.” (*DHJ*); “Ce mot vient d’un nom propre. On a dit d’abord chat d’Angora car les premiers chats à poil long connus en Europe venaient d’Angora. Angora est une ville de Turquie qui devient la capitale du pays en 1923; elle prend le nom d’Ankara en 1930.” (*RJI-CE*). As well as sense 1., “Qui a des poils longs et doux”, for which *RJI-D* gives a similar formulation, *DHJ* has sense 2., “Qui est fait de poils de chèvre ou de lapin angora”, on which the etymology implicitly relies.

²⁸ S.v. klaxon: “↖ Klaxon est un mot anglais: on prononce [klaksɔ̃]. ↗ Klaxon est le nom d’une marque.” (*DHJ*).

indications of origin, it may be in the form of normative markers (supposedly designed for all readers²⁹ (in the case of RJI) or those of a particular French-speaking country (in DHJ, cf. nn. 7 and 10). These markers can indicate Gallicized spelling³⁰, variants (abbreviations³¹, allomorphs³² or concurrent forms³³), date³⁴ or geographical area of usage³⁵. When the information concerns the forms of the French item, they appear in the dictionaries but not in the *RJI-CE* and they can cover pronunciation³⁶, usual spelling³⁷ or inflection³⁸.

²⁹ S.v. caméraman: “● Ce mot vient de l’anglais. Il vaut mieux dire cadreur.” (RJI-D). Normative remarks such as this are rare and not always explicit (cf. n. 33).

³⁰ S.v. fioul: “◆ Fioul est la forme francisée de l’anglais fuel.» (DHJ); for RJI-D, cf. n. 17.

³¹ S.v. football, the fact that the shorter form is colloquial is mentioned: “✍ Ce mot s’abrège familièrement «foot». ◆ Football vient de l’anglais foot qui signifie «pied» et de ball qui signifie «balle.»” (DHJ); “● On dit familièrement foot [fut]. Ce mot vient de l’anglais.” (RJI-D). S.v. pull-over, the colloquial nature of the form is not mentioned: “✍ Pluriel: des pull-overs. On dit aussi un pull. ◆ Pull-over vient de l’anglais to pull over qui signifie «tirer par dessus» (la tête).” (DHJ); for RJI-D, cf. n. 38.

³² For jerrican(e) or jerrycan, DHJ and RJI-D permutate the forms of the headwords and variants: DHJ, s.v. jerrican: “↵ Jerrican est un mot anglais: on prononce [ʒɛrikɑ̃]. ✍ On écrit aussi jerrycan.”; RJI-D, s.v. jerrycan: “● On peut aussi écrire jerrican ou jerricane. Ce mot vient de l’anglais.”. S.v. canyon (cf. n. 21) and yaourt (cf. nn. 12 and 36, and Gasiglia (2008: 194 and 199)), the variants introduced are etymological forms.

³³ S.v. start-up in RJI-D, the variant presented as free (“● C’est un mot anglais; on peut dire jeune pousse.”) seems to be in actual fact an implicit normative remark (cf. n. 29). S.v. boycott in DHJ, the alternative offered (“↵ [...] ✍ On dit aussi boycottage. ◆ [...]»), cf. n. 26) masks the semantic variation observed by Rey-Debove & Gagnon (1980: 88) [“boycottage semble être un dérivé français de boycotter, et l’américain boycottage d’origine française. Comme en américain, boycott s’emploie plutôt en français pour le procédé et boycottage pour l’opération.”] which is consistent with the presence of a suffix typical of action nouns (-age).

³⁴ S.v. zéro, cf. n. 24. The RJI-CE is alone in dating usage.

³⁵ S.v. bourgmestre: “● Ce mot est employé en Belgique. Il vient du vieil allemand Burgmeister qui veut dire «maître de bourg.»” (RJI-D). This geolinguistic information can also appear in remarks containing no etymological data (s.v. wassingue, cf. n. 8). The RJI-D is alone in locating usage.

³⁶ In RJI-D, s.v. canyon (cf. n. 21) or yaourt (“yaourt [jaurt] [...] ● On dit aussi yogourt [jogurt]. Ce mot vient du turc.»), the item offered as a variant is associated with a phonetic transcription. The final remark in RJI-D is not however designed to give transcriptions of French items, which are mentioned, for a selection of items, after the headword, eg s.v. yaourt below. Although DHJ quite often abandons expected distribution of pronunciation and etymology in their dedicated zones (s.v. canyon: “↵ Prononciation [kanʒɑ̃]. ✍ [...]”, cf. n. 21) and instead inserts indication of origin in the pronunciation zone (s.v. bungalow, cf. n. 11), it does not include phonetic transcriptions in the etymology zone, and only occasionally presents them in the spelling and grammar zone (for variants, eg s.v. yaourt, cf. n. 12).

³⁷ In RJI-D, the entry mammoth combines information on orthographic particularity with the foreign origin of the item (“● Ce mot prend un h à la fin. Il vient du russe.”). The entry for drakkar, however, only gives information on spelling (“Drakkar prend deux k.”) and it is necessary to consult RJI-CE to find out its etymology, cf. n. 25. The RJI-D is alone in offering usual spelling.

³⁸ In DHJ, explicit inflectional information appears in the relevant zone: “✍ Pluriel: des pop-corn. ◆ [...]”, s.v. pop-corn (cf. n. 19); cf. also pull-over, n. 31. In RJI-D, unusual plurals of headwords are presented in a specific zone (cf. § 2 and s.v. pull-over below), which is consistent with the way the entries are structured; on the other hand, indication of obligatory usage in the singular (s.v. pop-corn: “● Ce mot s’emploie toujours au singulier. Il vient de l’anglais.”) as well as plurals of variants (s.v. pull-over: “– Au pl. Des pull-overs. ● On dit aussi un pull [pyl], des pulls. Ce mot vient de l’anglais.”) appear in the final remark alongside information on word origin.

5. Conclusion

Although this overview highlights the diversity of information types and identifies where they may appear in the dictionaries studied, it does not cover all possible aspects of the analysis. Further work might closely examine the relative frequency of each information type and identify textual variants, in order to define each dictionary's profile in terms of treatment of word origin, looking at how the latter is articulated with other features that describe lexical items and their usage. Some tendencies can, however, be observed at this stage. DHJ, which in 1998 initiated the enrichment of etymological information in French dictionaries for older primary school pupils, gives quite extensive information³⁹, but in spite of its fairly systematic formal entry structure, it does not hesitate to distribute this information across different entry zones if it means making the entry more fluid. RJI-D (2005) avoids scattering information in this way, and the information⁴⁰ given has been considerably enhanced, but many entries continue to suffer from the relative sparseness of previous editions. The doubling-up of etymological information in RJI-D and RJI-CE⁴¹ may also have contributed to this by focusing editors' efforts on a small selection of items for which more substantial information has been provided. Despite the way DHI and RJI have evolved, their approach to the history of the French lexicon still appears somewhat scanty and unsystematic, designed to spark young pupils' interest in word history rather than to provide them with a reference tool appropriate to their skills and needs. In this respect, dictionaries for pupils just reaching secondary school age (cf. n. 5) are more advanced, if only in quantitative terms.

Acknowledgments

I want to thank P. Corbin and M. J. Back.

³⁹ Both DHJ and RJI give (i) concerning etymons: morphological, semantic, etymological, referential, historical or cultural information and, for derivatives of proper nouns, a reference to the person or place in question, (ii) concerning usage: Gallicized spelling, abbreviations, allomorphs or concurrent forms and (iii) concerning French items: pronunciations and inflections. The DHJ is alone in indicating that borrowings are brand names and in giving normative information designed for users in a particular French-speaking country, reflecting a desire to take into account the diversity of the French language.

⁴⁰ Apart from the types of indications it shares with DHJ, RJI-D offers phonographic information relating to etymons and orthographic information (on usage) relating to borrowings, localisation of usage and, like RJI-CE, normative material ostensibly aimed at all readers.

⁴¹ The RJI-CE is alone in dating usage.

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