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**EXAMPLES IN DICTIONARIES OF BUSINESS
TERMS**

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ABSTRACT

The present paper explores the peculiarities of example used in dictionaries of business terms. The context in which a term is used can be understood by providing an example which illustrates the exact use of the word. Words used in a specific field can be completely unknown for people who are not related to the field. Therefore, it is important to analyze the patterns of example use in dictionaries of business terms.

In the present research comparative analysis and quantitative research were carried out. The results of the analysis reveal that corpus-based examples were most frequently used. The use of examples depends on the dictionary's target audience. Finally, the amount of examples provided varies if a dictionary is targeted to field experts or semi-experts.

Key words: dictionary, examples, dictionary users, comparative analysis

ANOTĀCIJA

Šajā bakalaura darbā tiek izpētīta piemēri un to lietošanas īpatnības biznesa terminu vārdnīcās. Vārdi, kurus izmanto noteiktu jomu pārstāvji, var būt pilnībā nezināmi cilvēkiem, kuri nav saistīti ar šo nozari. Tāpēc ir nozīmīgi analizēt piemēru izmantošanu vārdnīcās, it īpaši vārdnīcās, kuras sastāv no biznesa vidē izmantotiem jēdzieniem.

Šajā darbā tika veikta salīdzināšanas un kvantitatīva analīze. Pētījuma rezultāti liecina, ka biznesa terminu vārdnīcās visbiežāk tiek izmantoti piemēri, kuri tika izveidoti, ņemot pamatā autentisku tekstu. Piemēru izmantošanas daudzums lielā mērā ir atkarīgs no vārdnīcas mērķauditorijas. Piemēru izmantošanas daudzums mainās no tā vai vārdnīcas mērķauditorija ir biznesa nozares eksperti vai cilvēki, kuriem ir tikai priekšzināšanas par biznesa sfēru.

Atslēgvārdi: vārdnīca, piemēri, mērķauditorija, salīdzināšanas analīze

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INTRODUCTION

Dictionaries have been around for centuries. Lexicography is an on-going study, because the language changes constantly. In order to understand the peculiarities of a language, dictionaries are a useful tool to understand words used in a language - their meaning, pronunciation, part of speech, spelling or etymology (Hartmann, 2001: 12). Lexicographers have been compiling dictionaries which would be useful for numerous groups of people: foreign language learners, teachers, students, field specialists, etc. Especially, specialized dictionaries have been beneficial for field experts and learners because it is a tool for fostering the communication between both parties. An essential part of a dictionary's entries are examples which illustrate the context of the word which has been looked up in a dictionary. More specifically, examples in business-related dictionaries provide additional information of the context in which a specific word has been used; therefore the user can acquire more precise knowledge of the usage of the word. Print format of these dictionaries are widely available either in libraries or book stores. There is a problem that examples are less commonly used in specialized dictionaries than in general purpose dictionaries, which mean that specialized dictionary users will not be exposed to a variety of contexts in which a specific word has been used (Zgusta, 1971: 263). The lack of examples may result in a way that the dictionary user will not fully understand the meaning or the usage of a specific word.

The **goal** of the present research is to identify and categorize examples in business-related print dictionaries and to analyze the peculiarities of these examples.

The following enabling **objectives** were introduced in order to achieve the research goal:

1. to collect and study the theoretical literature on field of lexicography, dictionaries and examples
2. to select and analyze a corpora of dictionary entries
3. to evaluate examples identified in the selected corpora
4. to analyze the findings and draw conclusions.

The research questions:

1. How frequently examples are used in entries of business-related print dictionaries?
2. What are the similarities and the differences or other peculiarities in the use of examples in different business-related print dictionaries?

Both theoretical and practical **research methods** were used in the present paper. Firstly, theoretical information about English lexicography, dictionaries in general and different types

of dictionaries was studied. In order to find out the patterns of example use in business-related print dictionaries quantitative analysis and comparative analysis were carried out. It was aimed to detect the most commonly used type of examples and to distinguish the peculiarities of their use in dictionaries of business terms.

Outline of the chapters:

Chapter 1 explains the history and the development of English lexicography.

Chapter 2 gives an overview of dictionaries and their types. It also explains the concept of specialized dictionaries.

Chapter 3 explains the concept of example, different types of examples and their source.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the quantitative and comparative analysis of dictionaries of business terms,

1 LEXICOGRAPHY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The present paper provides an overview of the field of lexicography of English language. This chapter discusses the history of lexicography and outlines the concept of lexicography.

1.1 History of lexicography

Dictionaries and lexicography were not born in a day; the history of these concepts can be traced back to ancient times. One of the first traces of dictionaries dates back 3 - 2 century BC when Indians composed glossaries. Through the years these glossaries grew into dictionaries. Alongside with Indians, Persians, Egyptians, Chinese and Arabs have contributed greatly to the study of dictionaries. All of these cultures have assembled dictionaries from as early as 1750 BC and in all of previously mentioned civilisations monolingual dictionaries were compiled before the bilingual dictionaries. (Halliday, Yallop 2007: 16). The reason behind this is simple – these powerful civilisations had their own traditions and they were not particularly interested in other cultures. It has to be mentioned that religion and pedagogy enforced the development of dictionaries as early as in the second millennium BC (Sterkenburg, 2003: 9).

In Europe, similarly to India, the development of lexicography started with glossaries which were a collection of different volumes of glosses. It was only 8th and 9th century when lexicographers established alphabetical order. It was just the 13th century when people started to use the word ‘dictionary’ (Halliday, Yallop, 2007: 19). More specifically dictionaries of vernacular words (words of one’s mother tongue) translated to Latin were very widely published in the majority of European languages. One of the oldest examples of dictionaries of vernacular words was *Promptorium Parvulorum, sive Clericorum* composed in 1440 by Galfridus Grammaticus. This dictionary consisted of 12,000 English words which were arranged in alphabetical order. Eventually the need of bilingual dictionaries between two languages arose. *A Dictionary in Englyshe and Welshe* (1547) by William Salesbury was the first one of this kind printed in England; even though, there was a greater interest of English-French and French-English dictionaries. Alongside with French, dictionaries were also made with other European languages. In the 16th century it was the monolingual dictionaries which were on demand because people saw the need of them for their intellectual development and their career (Durkin, 2016: 10). In 1530 the first modern English-French bilingual dictionary was compiled by John Palsgrave. Later on English-Spanish and English-Italian bilingual dictionaries were produced. In 1604 the first monolingual English dictionary was born. In

total 2,500 terms were explained by Robert Cawdrey in this dictionary named *A Table Alphabetical! of Hard Usual English Wordes* (Halliday, Yallop, 2007: 20). As more and more words were added to monolingual dictionaries they developed to be quite general. The aim for general dictionaries was to showcase the richness and the superiority of that language. Even though, the compilation of dictionaries was very costly and time consuming, in the seventeenth and eighteenth century European language academies started to sponsor the making of standardised dictionaries. In 1702 the first English language dictionary *A New English Dictionary* was compiled by John Kersey. This dictionary was considered to have the fullest word stock of English language (Durkin, 2016: 12). Another milestone of the development of lexicography is *Dictionary of the English Language* which was compiled by Samuel Johnson in 1755. As Halliday and Yallop states that 'Johnson's dictionary was a landmark not only in setting high professional standards in lexicography but also in establishing the role of the lexicographer as an authority on the 'correct' spelling, pronunciation and definition of words' (2007: 20). Another lexicographer Piet von Sterkenburg has expressed that to Johnson it was important 'to record and preserve the purity of the English language' (2003: 13). Description of word meanings in Johnson's dictionary was arranged in the following way: literal meaning was preceded by figurative, stylistic and metaphoric meanings. Moreover, he provided 114,000 citations to validate his definitions (ibid.).

In the 19th century American English became an actual topic; especially Webster has made a great contribution in establishing American English as a separate English language. Webster's dictionary *An American Dictionary of the English Language* published in 1828 identified American English spelling varieties which were proposed as being a standard for the language (Halliday, Yallop, 2007: 21). His dictionary was published in England; however, Webster's dictionary also contained American words and words with American English spelling (Durkin, 2016: 15).

The amount of Europeans who were interested in reading strongly increased in the 18th and 19th century. That was the time when more and more authors published their works for the public. The importance of education grew among the middle class. One way how to improve people's class was to read books which would educate them and hopefully increase their social status (Durkin, 2016: 14). It was the 20th century when dictionaries were widely published in English-speaking countries. Lexicography continued to develop by expanding its field of study. At that time the three fields of study were dictionaries of varieties in English, learner's dictionaries of English as a foreign language and technical dictionaries (Halliday, Yallop, 2007: 22). The development of lexicography in the 20th century was greatly

influenced by the growing presence of the new technologies. The electronic format has speeded up the process of dictionary compilation and has provided an outlet of more sufficient material storage. In 1983 12 volumes of the first edition of *Oxford English Dictionary* was converted in electronic format. This was the first step in digitalizing dictionaries which now are available on CD-ROM and online on the Internet (Sterkenburg, 2003: 16). Because of the digitalization nowadays it is possible to detect and monitor neologisms which have always been a great interest of lexicologists.

To conclude, it can be said that the development of dictionaries has been a long process. Moreover, lexicography is an on-going study of change and improvement. In the subchapter 1.2 the author of the present research paper determines the main concepts of lexicography to fully understand the importance of this field of study.

1.2 Concept of English lexicography

Lexicography could imply various associations in the minds of these professionals', for example, some might think that it is the study of dictionaries or lexicography only deals with the making of dictionaries (Hartman, 2001: 3). Lexicographer Hartmann has pointed out the definition of lexicography from *American Heritage Dictionary of English Language* published in 1992, and the definition states that 'lexicography is the process or work of writing or compiling a dictionary' (2001: 10). Nowadays this definition could be considered as not being descriptive enough. Svensén has formed a slightly more explicit definition - 'lexicography is an activity which consists in observing, collecting, selecting, analysing and describing, in a dictionary, a number of lexical items [...] belonging to one or more languages' (2009: 2). More complex and descriptive definition has been developed by Wiegand (1998: quoted in Hartmann, 2001: 11) lexicography is 'a calculable, analysable, checkable, manageable, testable and teachable practical process, or 'cultural practice', aimed at producing dictionaries to satisfy the reference needs of their users' (2001: 11). By reviewing these three definitions one can conclude that lexicography is a complex practical process which involves not only the compilation of words that will be in the dictionary, but also – the consideration of the needs of the dictionary user.

After realizing the concept of lexicography one can make a further research in this field. It is possible to distinguish several aspects of lexicography. For example, a compilation of dictionaries is called practical lexicography or dictionary-making. Metalexicography or theoretical lexicography deals with analysing the theories that mainly is concerned with describing the use of dictionaries. It is also possible to classify lexicography into general-

language and technical lexicography. General-language lexicography deals with general vocabulary but also technical terms which are familiar to everyone. Technical lexicography deals only with terminology used by different specialist fields (Svensén, 2009: 3). Hartmann (2001) has characterized the concept of lexicography in a broader sense. First generalisation that Hartmann has made is that ‘lexicography is a growing field, with a practical (dictionary making) and a theoretical branch (dictionary research)’ (ibid. 4). Furthermore, dictionaries have been made and are made in different time periods to be used in various contexts, and lexicography should be considered in a wider sense, meaning, by realizing the relationship between the theoretical background and the practical point of view (ibid.). To visualize and fully realize the relationship between the ‘practice’ and the ‘theory’ Hartmann (2001: 5) has drawn up a ‘map of lexicography’. *Figure 1* illustrates how theory and the practise interact and what are the steps of compiling a dictionary. The relationship begins from the ‘Reference Science’, which is yet to be developed. The next step is to carry out ‘Dictionary Research’, which is a theoretical and complex process that includes several stages. ‘Metalexigraphy’ is a fundamental step where lexicographers decide what kind of reference works it is purposeful to compile. The decision process has been done by figuring out working methods and by consulting with the possible users, teachers and other researchers. The compilers have to consider the history of dictionaries, in a sense of how other compilers have worked in the past and how the works have compiled in different countries and languages. Another thing that compilers have to consider is the dictionary criticism, which is an evolution of lexicographic products. More specifically, one has to access different products and realize people’s perception of them. Moreover, dictionary structure has to be kept in mind because there are various possibilities of what information can be included in dictionaries. One of the final steps is to realize dictionary typology. *Figure 1* illustrates the classification that has been made among ‘dictionary’, ‘thesaurus’, ‘encyclopaedia’ genres that each have their genre peculiarities. Finally, dictionary use has to be considered; how people are using reference works, and how these practices can be taught to the users. According to *Figure 1* non-lexicographic reference works are considered to be various atlases, telephone dictionaries or CD-ROM bibliographies; however, Hartmann (2001: 5) has implied a fact that there is a thin line between lexicographic and non-lexicographic works. The main influencer is the development of technologies, more specifically, computers and the Internet.

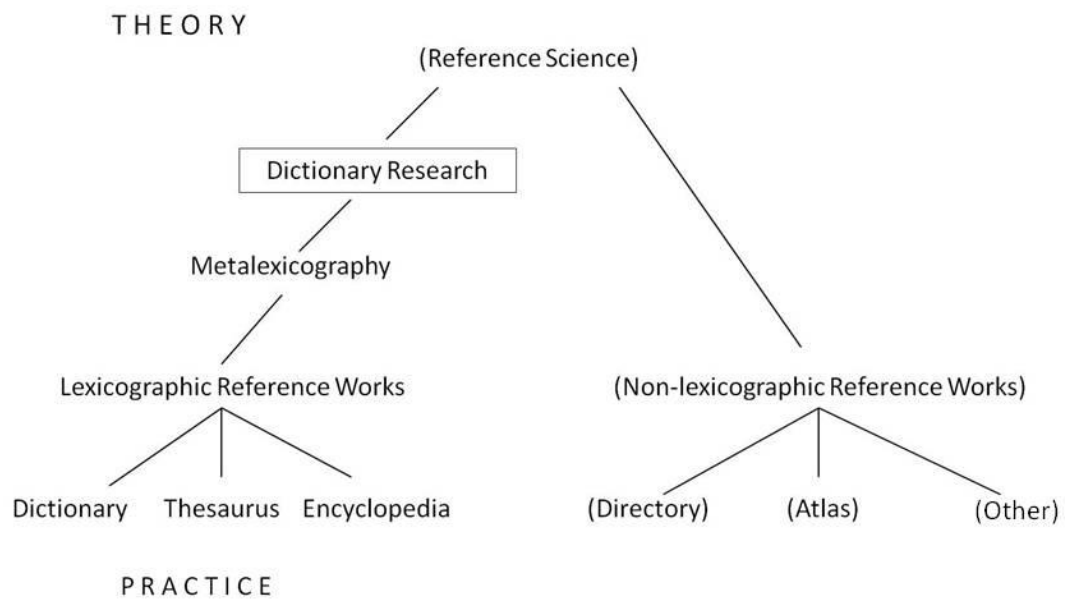


Figure 1 Mapping of lexicography

To sum up this chapter, it can be said that the field of lexicography can be traced back to ancient times. Through the centuries, lexicography has developed to a complex practice. Lexicography cannot be referred only as ‘making of dictionaries’; in addition, the lexicographer has to highly consider the specifications of the type of dictionary. Furthermore, there are a lot of details for a lexicographer to consider when it comes to metalexigraphy.

2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON DICTIOANRIES

The second chapter presents a detailed theoretical background of dictionaries. As the present research is concentrated on a specific type of dictionaries, the theoretical overview of print and specialized dictionaries is covered in separate subchapters.

2.1 Theoretical concept of dictionaries

It can be said confidently that every family has at least one dictionary at their household. This assumption can be made because dictionaries are commonly used in schools. They are constantly used in study process in schools and universities. In addition, it is common to quote dictionaries in courts. Furthermore, people generally accept the content of dictionaries of being the ‘truth’ (Jackson, 2002: 21). Undoubtedly dictionaries have a high degree of influence in our lives; therefore, it is important to analyze the concept of dictionary to gain more knowledge about this topic.

People usually use dictionaries to find some word meaning; therefore, general dictionaries can be viewed as reference books. However, Jackson argues that dictionaries have more functions, not only reference function because every dictionary consists of a lot of entries containing a vast amount of information about the language, for example, sample sentences where a specific word is used in context. For some dictionary users this information could be irrelevant (Jackson, 2002: 22). An explicit definition of dictionaries has been provided by Zgusta who argues that

dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialised linguistic forms compiled from the speech-habits of a given speech community and commented on by the author in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate form, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community. (1971: 17)

However, Sterkenburg (2003: 4) considers Zgusta’s (1971) definition as being outdated because in the 1970s there were only print dictionaries; electronic dictionaries were not developed yet. Another definition of dictionaries has been given in *New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (1993) stated by Hartmann: ‘Dictionary is a book explaining or translating, usually in alphabetical order, words of a language or languages, giving their pronunciation, spelling, meaning, part of speech, and etymology, or one or some these’ (2001: 12). This definition implies quite general meaning of dictionary; however, it also comprises a lot of dictionary’ functions.

Furthermore, Scholfield (1999: 13-14 mentioned in Jackson, 2002: 78) has identified five main steps that language learners make while consulting a dictionary:

1. Unknown word or word phrase is recognized
2. The decision to use a dictionary is made to solve the problem
3. The learner has to find the dictionary's entry for the unknown word or word phrase
4. The right dictionary's entry has to be found
5. The information of the entry has been observed and obtained.

For more comprehensive and efficient use of dictionaries they have to be structured. According to Jackson dictionaries consist of microstructure and macrostructure. Jackson has stated that a macrostructure 'refers to what constitutes an entry in a dictionary and how the entries are arranged.' The same author refers to a dictionary's microstructure as '[...] the layout and organisation of the individual entry' (2002: 79). Dictionary users have to understand the conventions of dictionary microstructure, in order to make their search more efficient. This idea has been argued by Jackson who believes that the user has to know

what a headword is, normally a transcription of pronunciation, irregular inflections, division of the entry into word classes if relevant, identification of different senses, the wording definitions, the placement of derivatives, phrases and idioms, etymology usually in square brackets at the end. (ibid. 81)

Furthermore, the user has to be familiar with abbreviations which are used in dictionaries. For example, *O.E.* is an abbreviation for 'Old English'. The Previously mentioned reference skills have to be obtained to provide more efficient search. For deeper understanding of dictionary structure one has to see how the information has been arranged in macrostructure. According to Jackson (ibid. 25) dictionary macrostructure consists of three parts which are the front matter, the body, and the appendices. It has to be mentioned that most dictionaries have the front matter but could exclude appendices. The body part consists of all the headwords which are listed in alphabetic order. The headwords consist of information which all together makes the 'entry'. The dictionary's editor has the power to decide what part of the vocabulary and other elements the headword represents. Furthermore, the editor's choice is influenced by the purpose and the size of the dictionary (Jackson, ibid. 25). Moreover, Jackson (ibid. 81) explains that the majority of dictionary users do not pay attention to the front matter of the dictionary where all the information about the dictionary's structure is presented. In the front matter one can find abbreviation explanations and other information that could be beneficial in one's search. In general, the user has to have a set of skills which have been developed to find the appropriate headword.

It is possible to classify dictionaries in many categories. For example, one could categorize dictionaries by quantitative characteristics, according to structural characteristics, etc. (Svensén, 2009: 25). Sterkenburg (2001: 3) argues the same idea – there are a vast number of dictionary types. For example, there are dictionaries of slang, learner's dictionaries, children's dictionaries, illustrated dictionaries, on-line dictionaries, technical dictionaries, and many more that can be added to this list. Furthermore, Jackson (2002: 24) states that dictionaries can vary in terms of their target audience. Moreover, one can classify dictionaries by their size: desk-size dictionaries, pocket dictionaries or even smaller than pocket dictionaries. These dictionaries vary according to the number of pages, language coverage and dimension.

Svensén (2009: 22) has developed a typology according to general characteristics. The first type that Svensén (*ibid.*) distinguished is that there are reference works with different purposes, for example, language dictionaries (give information about languages), dictionaries on things (gives information about the world), and encyclopaedic dictionaries (combination of dictionaries on things and language dictionaries). Second type comprises dictionaries that vary according to the linguistic sign. These are semasiological and onomasiological (or thematic) dictionaries. As Svensén described it, semasiological dictionaries are the ones 'where the macrostructure is based on the expression-side characteristics of lexical items' (*ibid.* 22). Example of semasiological dictionary is general purpose dictionaries. Onomasiological or thematic dictionaries Svensén described as 'dictionaries where the macrostructure is based on the content-side characteristics of lexical items' (*ibid.*). Example of onomasiological dictionary is thesaurus. The third type of dictionaries is distinguished by the language use in time. In this category are synchronic, diachronic and historical dictionaries. Language used during some set period of time is collected in synchronic dictionaries; however, the development of a language used within a longer period of time is collected in diachronic dictionaries. Historical dictionaries are compiled with the language used in an earlier period of time. Fourth type of dictionaries is the ones that have a relation with a linguistic norm. Two of these dictionaries are descriptive and normative dictionaries. The purpose of descriptive dictionaries is to showcase usage; however, the purpose of normative dictionaries is to in some way influence the usage of the language. Fifth type of dictionaries is measured of how general or how specialized they are. Specialized dictionaries will be discussed in more detail in the subchapter 2.3. Sixth type is categorized by the number of languages a dictionary consists of. It is possible to have monolingual dictionaries (dictionary consists of one language), bilingual dictionaries (dictionaries consist of two languages) or even multilingual dictionaries (dictionary that consists of more than two

languages). The final type of general categorization is the dictionaries that contain some degree of illustrative material. These are illustrated and pictorial dictionaries. Svensén states that a dictionary can be considered as an illustrated dictionary '[...] if only a selection of the lexical items included is accompanied by pictures, and if the function of the pictures only consists in supporting the verbal meaning description' (ibid. 25). In pictorial dictionaries pictures describe the lexical meaning, and the description only supports the meaning implied by the picture. Another way how to classify dictionaries is by the medium of storage and distribution. Svensén (ibid. 25) has identified two types of dictionaries in this category: print and electronic dictionaries.

It can be concluded that there are a variety of dictionary types which are targeted towards a specific audience; therefore, the information provided in these dictionaries vary. The present research paper is concerned mostly with print dictionaries; however, it is also important to make a comparison between print and electronic dictionaries. This comparison is explained in the following subchapter.

2.2 Print dictionaries versus electronic dictionaries

As it was mentioned in subchapter 2.1, there are several options of how to classify dictionaries. One of the possibilities stated by Atkins and Rundel is that there are three dictionary mediums: print, electronic and web-based (2008: 24). The present paper is primarily concerned with print dictionaries and their characteristics; however, it is essential to briefly present the peculiarities of electronic dictionaries in order to compare and spot advantages and disadvantages of these mediums.

Until the beginning of the 20th century dictionary' production was completed by handwriting which soon was replaced by the typewriter. This invention made the collection and presentation of the lexical data more efficient. Although, from the last couple of decades of the 20th century the typewriter was no longer used as the primary tool for presenting lexical works. Even though, dictionaries were still published in print the computers became the main tool for editing the lexical data. It has to be mentioned that dictionaries in digital format appeared only in the 1990s; that was the time when the concept of electronic dictionaries became evident, and started to predominate print dictionaries (Svensén, 2009: 437). Nonetheless, dictionary medium is not the primary factor that determines if a use of a dictionary will be entirely useful. Regardless of the dictionary medium main factors are the user-friendliness of a dictionary and the user's reference skills (Online 1).

There are several types of electronic dictionaries which have been categorized by Svensén (2009: 438). The first type that Svensén distinguishes comprises the dictionaries that differ from the technical point of view. These are either off-line or on-line dictionaries. Off-line dictionaries have to be installed on one's personal computer, in an electronic pocket dictionary or other possible electronic devices from a CD-ROM, DVD, the Internet or chip card. In contrast with off-line dictionaries, on-line dictionaries do not have to be installed on a computer because these dictionaries are available on the Internet and mostly they can only be accessed via the Internet; however, there are wireless dictionaries which can be used on a mobile device.

In contrast with off-line dictionaries, which similarly to print dictionaries are finished works; on-line dictionaries can be improved and enhanced quickly. The other type that Svensén has identified is based on the lexicographic point of view. These are digitized print dictionaries which are digitalized versions of print dictionaries and purpose-built electronic dictionaries.

There are several peculiarities of electronic dictionaries which have made them different from print dictionaries. The main advantage of electronic dictionaries over print dictionaries is the amount of the available storage. There is a limitation for space in print dictionaries, whereas there are almost no limits for available space in electronic dictionaries (Svensén, 2009: 439). The size of an actually dictionary can be a disadvantage for print dictionaries, because it is common that people do not want to carry around large book; however, if the size of the print dictionary is reduced, it is possible that it will lack some information of a word, e.g. examples of usage in a context (Bowker, Pearson, 2002: 16). Furthermore, electronic dictionaries have a different structure than print dictionaries have. Electronic dictionaries have the access structure that does not have the same functionality as the structure of print dictionaries (ibid. 441). Both types of dictionaries have different features that indicate entry location and navigate them in the entries to identify the necessary information (Bergenholtz, Gouws 2007: 243, mentioned in Granger S., Paquot M. 2012: 320). Another benefit of a print format is that the user can easily spot various information included in the entry, e.g. images, text boxes. In addition, there is a possibility to mark useful information and make direct notes (ibid. 322). Moreover, the word searching process differs highly in electronic and print dictionaries. The alphabetical order present in print dictionaries indicates that when one wants to search a word, one has to flip the dictionary and find the page with the first letter of the word and then browse through the page when one spots the word (Online 2). Yet the search of a word by an alphabetical order is almost irrelevant in electronic dictionaries; even though, it is possible that some users may want to read through all the possible entries (Svensén, 2009: 441). The search process in electronic format is

simplified in comparison with the search in print dictionaries. One has to be ready to scan numerous entries before finding the one which were looking for (Granger, Paquot, 2012: 321). When a user wants to search a word in an electronic dictionary one will be redirected to a certain section in a dictionary where the information presented will be chosen by the user (Svensén, 2009: 441). There are several search options which are possible in various electronic dictionaries. Svensén (ibid. 442) distinguishes wildcard, incremental and fuzzy searching possibilities. It can be stated that print dictionaries are more reliable in a sense that electronic dictionaries, especially online dictionaries, heavily relies on one's computer abilities and the Internet. Users of electronic dictionaries may experience weak connection or slowness of the computer which eventually disrupts the search process (Online 2). Above all, electronic dictionaries require additional costs, such as, Internet subscription, new batteries for pocket dictionaries. In comparison to electronic dictionaries, print dictionaries do not have any additional costs after one purchase a copy (Online 3).

Finally, as the present research is concerned with specialized dictionaries, it has to be added that print dictionaries are the main resource for those people who are interested in acquiring knowledge of the specific specialized language. The one drawback is that print dictionaries over the years become outdated, because the language evolves and changes quickly. It does not mean that print dictionaries become completely useless but they might lack some knowledge of language of the specific field (Bowker, Pearson, 2002: 15).

By reviewing the comparison of print and electronic dictionaries, one might argue that nowadays electronic dictionaries are more effective and more credible; however, electronic dictionaries have not yet gained full respect from lexicographers. It is considered that print dictionaries are more respectable in the sense that electronic dictionaries can be produced and changed at any time, and it is even possible that no one will notice that some alteration has been made (Béjoint 2010: 375, mentioned in Granger, Paquot, 2012: 321).

To sum up, both electronic and print dictionaries have their advantages and disadvantages. The choice of using either one of them depends on the user-friendliness and the skills of the dictionary user. Both dictionaries are beneficial in their own way but they are intended for different types of users. One user can value up-to-date information, which is available in online dictionaries; another one can value credibility and physical format of a dictionary. As the present research paper is concerned with business-related dictionaries, it is important to describe the concept of specialized dictionaries. This information is provided in the subchapter 2.3.

2.3 Concept of specialized dictionaries

Linguists have made a consensus on the fact that there is a distinction between language for general purposes and language for special purposes. However, linguists do not have a common opinion about their relationship (Bergenholtz, Tarp, 1995: 16). Theory argued by Nielsen states ‘according to Western linguistic tradition, a national language may be divided into two broad types, namely general purpose language (LGP) and special purpose language (LSP)’ (1994: 1). Although, there are several other theories that explain the relationship among national language, general purpose and special purpose languages. Another theory developed by Nielsen (1994: 1) states that special purpose languages are a subdivision of national language which is the same as a general purpose language. This theory is based on the assumption that the general purpose language is understood by everyone in the nation. Furthermore, there are vast amount of people who do not understand different occupational varieties of some language. The third theory argued by Nielsen states ‘a national language is all special purpose languages, in that it consists of all the different language varieties in terms of register and field of discourse’ (1994: 1). The problem with this theory is that it is not commonly recognized that language varieties, e.g. dialect, are considered to be a form of a specialized purpose language; it is more recognized as being a regional variety of general purpose language. Even more popular theory than the previously mentioned ones is a theory that general purpose language and special purpose language overlap and are both considered to be a part of national language. In this case special purpose language differs from general purpose language with the fact that besides sharing the same general linguistic knowledge there are groups of people in a speech community who also have a field-specific knowledge. Some of the field-specific varieties that are present in languages are technical language, legal language and medical language (ibid. 2). Nevertheless, communication between experts of field specific varieties and the rest of the members of speech community is possible but at the same time it is difficult because of the shared language elements which is explained by Nielsen as ‘linguistic units and structures which are generally found in both general and special purpose languages, e.g. words having the same meanings, such as function words, and identical grammatical structures’ (ibid). In order to make the communication more efficient and record these language elements of general purpose and special purpose language dictionaries have been compiled.

General purpose language is collected in general purpose dictionaries (LGP) and special purpose language is compiled in special purpose dictionaries (LSP). According to Zgusta general purpose dictionaries ‘are concerned mainly with the general language, i.e. with

the standard national language as generally used' (1971: 209). The main aim for these dictionaries is to illustrate general purpose language according to words present in the language (Nielsen, 1994: 2). In contrast, specialized dictionaries are comprised by lexical units used in specific fields. Sterkenburg states that specialized dictionaries 'focus on language for special purposes (LSP), which consists of lexical items that are used to describe concepts in specific subject fields' (2001: 154). In order to separate words in general language from words in specialized language these specialized lexical items are commonly known as terms (*ibid.*). In addition, specialized dictionaries can be also named special field dictionaries or special domain dictionaries. Occasionally specialized dictionaries can be called terminological dictionaries or terminological glossaries because they are focused on terms (*ibid.* 155).

In the process of preparing specialized dictionary lexicographers have a choice to make monolingual, bilingual or multilingual dictionary; though, if a lexicographer has made a decision to compile a multilingual work, then it means that one will work on each language separately and only after that equivalence among these works will be carried out (*ibid.* 160). According to Sterkenburg the process of specialized dictionary compilation begins with 'mapping out the conceptual structure of that subject field and then describe all the concept-term units that fall within it' (*ibid.*). After the subject field has been analyzed, dictionary entries have to be formed. It is essential to mention that there are no set guidelines of what or how information has to be displayed in dictionary's microstructure. The information presented in each entry depends on two things: the target users and the purpose of the dictionary (*ibid.* 163).

In the field of lexicography there has been made a clear division between specialized and general purpose dictionaries. Nevertheless, there are situations when this division is not that obvious. This concept of general and specialized dictionary words has been well described by Sterkenburg who states that 'concepts that may once have been part of a highly specialized domain can filter down into our everyday lives, and the terms used to describe them also become part of our general vocabulary' (2001: 155). It is important to note that in general language dictionaries these specialized terms that have transformed to general vocabulary carry less information than they do in specialized dictionaries. Meanwhile, the information provided in specialized dictionaries can be targeted at a broad subject field, for example, medicine, or more narrow, for example, health care, or even targeted for a subfield, for example, plastic surgery. Furthermore, specialized dictionaries have two aims: maximizing and minimizing. If the aim is maximizing, then the terms in the particular field have been fully covered; however, if the aim is minimizing, then a limited amount of terms

have been covered. Maximizing aim usually is carried out for subfield specialized dictionaries and minimizing – broader subject field dictionaries (ibid. 156). Before setting the aim for the dictionary the lexicographer has to identify the native language of the possible users because it will impact the decision of language complexity used in the dictionary and linguistic information which will be included in the entries. There are cases when there is a need to communicate with native and non-native users and compose monolingual specialized dictionary for more complex user groups (Bergenholtz, Tarp, 1995: 20). The next difference between specialized and general purpose dictionaries is their target audience. Specialized dictionaries have a more narrow audience than general purpose dictionaries because specialized dictionary function is to improve the communication among people in a specific field (Sterkenburg, 2001: 156). According to Sterkenburg there are several types of specialists. The first type is true experts which are experienced people in the particular field; the second type is semi-experts which are specialists and students from a close field, and the final type is non-experts which are people who are responsible to develop texts for the experts. The lexicographer has to be familiar with the target audience's level of expertise in order to provide the appropriate amount of information in the specialized dictionary. For example, a specialized dictionary designed for non-experts has to have more information than a dictionary for field experts (ibid. 157). Another difference that distinguishes general and specialized dictionaries is dictionary macrostructure. The entries in general language dictionaries are always arranged in alphabetical order in contrast to specialized dictionaries which are most often arranged systematically. The systematic order appears to be more helpful for those users who use the dictionary to acquire knowledge of a concept in some specific field. The user is able to gain broader understanding of the field because of the term arrangement in the dictionary. More specifically, the arrangement depends on the relationship of the terms. It can be said that the user is more comfortable to use alphabetical order by assuming that the search will be more efficient. However, the downside of the alphabetical order is that the words are explained outside the context and it does not fully express concept relations (ibid. 157-158). Besides macrostructure there are also differences in microstructure. The information which is included in the individual entry is based on the purpose of the dictionary and the target audience. Therefore, it can be concluded that the specialized lexicographer decides what lexical information an entry will consist of, for example, will an entry include synonyms or only definitions. Moreover, the microstructure of monolingual and multilingual dictionaries varies. For example, monolingual specialized dictionaries commonly present a definition and some other information (ibid. 158). It is important to notice that specialized lexicography uses onomasiological approach which according to Sterkenburg 'is

concept oriented and because it deals with a specific subject field, there will typically be only one definition for a given concept within that field' (ibid.). The same author states that general lexicography uses semasiological approach which means that several definitions of a word have to be included because one word could be assigned to other concepts. Furthermore, if a dictionary is very specialized and has a narrow subject, then it contains less information. The reason behind it is that the dictionary is targeted to experts in that specific field. In comparison with specialized dictionaries, general dictionaries targeted to non-experts contain more information (ibid. 159). There are also different dictionary publishing mediums. Both general and special purpose dictionaries can be published either in print or electronically. It is possible that a print version of a dictionary is almost a duplicate of the electronic version of it; although, lexicographers adjust the information in the electronic version, e.g. add hyperlinks. The electronic format has made adjustments to the macrostructure of dictionaries by questioning the use of alphabetical or systematic order approach. Because in the electronic format entries can be accessed directly by searching the term or through hyperlinks; therefore, eliminating the need of use of the two approaches (ibid. 159-160). It can be concluded that there are several aspects that separate general and specialized dictionaries.

There are several types of specialized dictionaries which have a specific purpose and have different focus regarding the language. Some of the types of dictionaries are synonym, slang, pronunciation dictionaries (ibid. 163). Svensén has distinguished three main specialized dictionary types. These three types are:

- syntagmatic
- paradigmatic
- restricted specialized dictionaries (2007: 30-36).

First type – syntagmatic specialized dictionaries – provides information among terms or words where a combination of those is possible. The second type – paradigmatic specialized dictionaries – provides information between terms and other terms or words which can be interchangeable with one another. There are two more subtypes for paradigmatic specialized dictionary: content-paradigmatic and expression-paradigmatic dictionaries. Examples of content-paradigmatic dictionaries are synonym, antonym, pictorial and concept dictionaries (thesauri). Synonym dictionaries collect words having the same or almost the same meaning where the dictionary user has the option to pick the word which fits to the situation. In contrast, antonym dictionaries collect words having opposite meaning and the user has the choice to choose the most fitting one for their case. Concept relations are collected in thesauri or concept dictionaries. Pictorial dictionaries are also based on concept relations, more specifically, concepts represented in pictures. The second subtype - expression-paradigm

specialized dictionaries - collect information about word spelling and pronunciation. Example of this type of dictionaries is reverse-order and rhyming dictionaries. As the name of the dictionary implies – reverse-order dictionary – entries are ordered by the last letter or the word. Rhyming dictionaries categorize words by their pronunciation; most often, by grouping words together which have similar pronunciation of their ending. Finally, restricted dictionaries are the ones that according to some criteria have a restricted collection of words. Specific lemma types, information or texts presented and language varieties which comprise a dictionary makes a dictionary specialized. There are various dictionaries of certain lemma types which Svensén has mentioned, for example, dictionaries of foreign languages, dictionaries of neologisms or abbreviations, idiomatic dictionaries, dictionaries of quotations and proverbs (ibid. 34). Besides the dictionaries of certain lemma types, there are several dictionaries which fall under the category of dictionaries of certain information types. Some examples of this type of dictionary are spelling, word-division dictionaries, pronunciation, etymological (explain the origin of the word), and frequency dictionaries (identify a word presence in a given corpus of text). Another important subtype of restricted dictionaries is dictionaries of certain language varieties. These are historical, dialect, technical, slang and group-language dictionaries. Two dictionaries can be mentioned as examples for the final subtype – dictionaries of certain texts. These two are dictionaries of text types and author's dictionaries (focused on texts composed by a writer) (ibid. 36).

To sum up, it can be said that general purpose and specialized dictionaries differ by various features; however, there are certain situations the two overlap and share similarities. It has to be mentioned that specialized dictionaries have a narrower target audience than general purpose dictionaries; therefore, the information included in specialized dictionary entries are more selective and specialized. The following Chapter 3 concentrates on examples – a component of dictionary entries.

3 EXAMPLES IN MONOLINGUAL DICTIONARIES

The present chapter contains information about the concept of example and its presence in dictionaries. As it was discussed in subchapter 2.1, dictionary macrostructure consists of three parts: the front matter, the body, and the appendices (the back matter) (Jackson, 2002: 25). The body of dictionaries is discussed in subchapter 3.1 focusing more on the information that is presented in the microstructure, more specifically in each *entry*. The concept of example and its functionality is described in subchapter 3.2; furthermore, the classification of examples is discussed in subchapter 3.3. Finally, the sources of examples are explained in subchapter 3.4.

3.1 Structure of dictionary entries

According to Jackson ‘the body of a dictionary contains an alphabetic list of *headwords*. Each headword is accompanied by a number of pieces of information, which together with the headword constitute the *entry*’ (2002: 25). It is important to notice that the term *headword* in the field of lexicography is called *lemma*, in plural - *lemmata* (Bergenholtz, Tarp, 1995: 15). The majority of dictionary entries are made up by general structure which has been stated by Yallop and Halliday (2007: 8). This structure consists of six parts. The first part is the lemma; the second part is the pronunciation of the lemma. It can be added that the pronunciation is indicated in most dictionaries. After that the word class (e.g. verb, adjective, noun, conjunction) is identified which is followed by etymological explanation. The language in which a word occurred or/and the oldest form of the word can be included in etymological explanation. Finally, a definition and example is added. Thus, this structure is more commonly used for general dictionaries. The definition can be presented in two ways, either by description or by synonymy. The description is comprised of words which are used less often than the lemma; normally this description can be seen in learner’s dictionaries. Finally, examples illustrate how the lemma is used in a specific context (ibid. 8-10). Nevertheless, there are other variations of this structure. Additionally to the structure components previously described, Jackson (2002: 26) offers five additional information groups which can be included in an entry. Jackson (ibid.) suggests that besides the pronunciation of the lemma an entry could contain information about its inflections (e.g. irregular forms or spelling changes). Furthermore, information about senses could be provided; more specifically, Jackson states that ‘where a lexeme has more than one meaning, each sense is usually numbered; where a sense, or group of senses belong to a different word class or subclass, this

is indicated before the sense(s) concerned' (ibid. 26). Finally, run-ons in a form of derivatives, idioms and phrasal verbs are also provided. Although, the information included in the entry which an editor chooses depends on the size and the purpose of the dictionary (ibid. 25). As it was discussed by Karpinska (2015: 84) literature on metalexigraphy provides several different explanations of dictionary example types; however, it is mostly agreed by the lexicographers that '[...] illustrative examples should be typical free word combinations illustrating the use of the headword or the equivalent' (ibid.).

To sum up, there are several variations of dictionary entry structures. General purpose dictionary structure usually consists of a headword, its pronunciation, word class, etymological explanation, definition and example. However, this structure is not commonly used in specialized dictionaries. The compiler of specialized dictionary decides what information to include in entries. As the present research paper is concentrated on examples, the importance of this component is described in subchapter 3.2.

3.2 Concept of example and its functionality

It is important to state that example which is a part of a dictionary entry has several meanings developed by the scholars in the field of lexicography. According to Svensén example 'comprises all types of indications consisting of word combinations (phrases, clauses, sentences) that contains a form of the lemma sign, irrespective of whether they are provided with an indication of meaning or not' (2009: 281). Other lexicographers Bergenholtz and Tarp have defined lexicographical example (in abbreviated form *example*) as '[...] an independent microstructural component illustrating the use of a word in context' (1995: 137). A well known lexicographer's - Johnson's - dictionary (1755) is considered to be the pioneer of using systematic analysis for evaluating the language data. In his dictionary quotations (from various sources) were used to describe word meaning, more specifically, quotations supported the meaning of the words (Atkins, Rundell, 2008: 453). It can be said that it is useful to include examples in order to illustrate a word in each of its senses because in many cases it can be too general; therefore, exemplification is a way how to add new and more concrete information (Zgusta, 1971: 264). Moreover, Zgusta suggests that 'the examples included in the entry should not be treated by the lexicographer as some additional material but as an integral part of the entry' (1971: 256). Furthermore, Zgusta (ibid.) argues that example inclusion is essential to compliment entry-words which are polysemous (words which carry various meanings) (ibid.). Finally, it can be added that examples give the possibility to illustrate a wide variety of concepts, for example, origins and first occurrence of the word,

various contextual nuances, differences with the word combinations with synonyms, etc. (ibid. 263).

In the previous paragraph it was mentioned that examples have an illustrative function within an entry, but there are more functions which have to be mentioned in order to understand the importance of examples. According to Adamska-Salaciak (2006: 155, quoted in Karpinska 2015: 83) example functions in bilingual and monolingual dictionaries are almost the same. Therefore, the information available on example functions can be used to analyze both types of dictionaries (ibid.). Atkins and Rundell (2008) have stated that example function ‘[...] is to support and illustrate every linguistic fact recorded there, and to provide editors at the ‘synthesis’ stage with the raw materials for constructing a dictionary entry’ (ibid. 452). This function of examples applies for unfinished dictionaries, whereas functions in finished dictionaries differ depending on the type and the complexity of the dictionary (ibid. 452). The following functions apply for examples present in monolingual dictionaries. The first function is attestation which implies that an example has been taken from an authentic text and has been quoted with no alterations. However, it is possible to shorten the quoted sentence in an entry (ibid. 453). The next function is described as elucidating meaning. This function implies that examples play a clarifying role in an entry because there are many cases when a full understanding of some more complex concept can be acquired only after reading the example. The next function is named - illustrating contextual features: syntax, collocation, register, etc. All contexts in which a word typically occurs beforehand have been collected in a database. After this collection of contexts it is possible to create entries in which examples have an essential part. It should be repeated again that examples are important because they illustrate all of the possible contexts. Furthermore, Atkins and Rundell emphasize that ‘if an example illustrates – as it should – a typical instance of a word in use, then it will often show the word in one of its frequent collocational pairings’ (ibid.454). Finally, an example has to be able to be good enough to indicate the setting a word is used in. For example, words can differ in style or register and the task of the example is to reflect the specific register style (ibid. 454). Another lexicographer Svensén (2009) has classified example functions by their information types. These functions are as follows: semantic, syntagmatic, connotative, encyclopaedic, pragmatic and documentary (ibid. 285). Typically, uncommented examples carry semantic function that according to Svensén ‘involves clarification of an immediately preceding indication of meaning’ (ibid. 285).

fatal [...] **1** causing or ending in death: *a fatal accident* ° *fatal injuries* **2** causing disaster: [...] *a fatal mistake* **3** fateful; decisive: *the fatal day/hour*

(OALD 4)

The second function – syntagmatic – points out collocations and constructions. Both commented and uncommented examples can show constructions (ibid. 285).

inject *v.t.*: ~ *sth* (into *sb/sth*); ~ *sb/sth* (with *sth*)

The third function - encyclopaedic examples - adds information which may benefit in providing more comprehensible meaning. This function is common for uncommented examples. The next function – pragmatic – suggests marking. As it is stated by Svensén (2009) ‘an example containing several marked words can give a hint as to the marking status of the lemma:’ (ibid. 286)

cool [...] excellent, very good; fashionable, attractive: *Hey, dig that dude: he’s real cool!*

The final function which the documentary function indicates is authentic examples because the aim is to indicate a particular word, word combination, meaning, etc. has been authentically used in a language (ibid. 287).

punctum, ī, n[...] vote of consent: *Omne tulit punctum, qui miscuit utile dulci*
He has gained every vote who has mingled profit with pleasure. Horace, *Ars Peotica* 343

In contrast to monolingual dictionaries, Al-Kasimi (1977: 91-92, quoted in Karpinska 2015: 83-84) states that illustrative examples in bilingual dictionaries have two main functions. The basic function is to ‘to show the headword in a real context and help the user grasp the “grammatical and semantic rules governing the usage of the word by showing these rules in action”’ (ibid. 91). Another function which was pointed out by Al-Kasimi (ibid. 92) is that these examples offer information about the foreign language’s culture.

It can be concluded that examples are an essential component of entry structure because they illustrate the use of a word in a context. In addition, if examples are provided in an entry, that adds new and more concrete information about the headword. In order to fully understand the concept of example, various classifications of examples have been provided in subchapter 3.2.

3.3 Classification of examples

For the present research it is essential to clarify example types and their sources of origin. Various lexicographers have classified examples of various types. In the majority of monolingual dictionaries examples are indicated. Zgusta (1971) argues that ‘the bigger the dictionary the more examples it generally contains. Only very small dictionaries can afford

not to indicate them; but absolute absence of examples is usually accompanied by a severe lowering of the standard of the dictionary [...]’ (ibid. 263). Lexicographer Svensén (2009) has distinguished two types of examples: commented and uncommented examples. Commented examples provide indication of meaning; however, uncommented – no indication of meaning. All of the examples provided below have been taken from Svensén (ibid. 281-287). Two examples below are examples of commented and uncommented examples:

house *n.*: **on the** ~ paid for by the pub (firm, etc.)

confirmed *adj.*: firmly settled in a particular way of life and unlikely to change: *a confirmed bachelor*

Furthermore, there are two kinds of commented examples: defined and translated examples. Defined examples are present in monolingual dictionaries and translated – in bilingual dictionaries (ibid. 281).

deep *adj.*: **go off the ~ end** suddenly become very angry

Frage *f.*: das steht außer ~ there is no doubt about that

According to Svensén ‘an uncommented example is often addressed to an indication of meaning, a construction of an idiom, and as a rule it is immediately preceded by its address’ (ibid. 281). Most often it is possible to paraphrase or make a translation of this kind of an example because of the information that was given beforehand. Moreover, it supports previously provided information. In contrast with uncommented examples, it is common that defined examples cannot be translated or paraphrased because of the information that was given beforehand. Even more, it does not support the information given previously; these examples are put there to expand or derivate the information given. It can be said that within an entry the defined examples have a more independent stand because of the fact that mostly it is identified as one group of meaning:

head *n.*: **15 bring to a** ~ bring to a point where something must be done

prise *f.*: 4 (Electr.) ~ **de courant** electrical socket

Furthermore, construction of idioms is presented in a form of defined (translated) examples.

four determiner, *n., pron.*: **on all** ~s with one’s hands and knees on the ground: *She was crawling around on all ~s*

Dictionary examples can also be classified on the basis of their degree of authenticity.

Svensén (2009) has classified four types of examples:

- Authentic examples – exact quotation from a text
- Adapted examples – modification of authentic example

- Invented examples – solely created by a lexicographer
- Editorial examples – (non-authentic examples) which are either adapted or invented (ibid. 283).

Svensén's classification can be further explained by specifying the classification of dictionary examples by their source. The three basic types are:

- Textual quotations
- Corpus-based examples
- Made-up examples (ibid.).

In this classification by Atkins and Rundell (2008: 238, discussed in Karpinska 2015: 87) describes *made-up examples* as being invented by the author of the dictionary; however, *textual quotations* and *corpus-based examples* are *authentic examples* (ibid.). Another possibility how Svensén (2009: 283) has classified examples is into *live* and *dead examples*. This is the basic typology of examples described by Palmer (1936) (discussed in Karpinska 2015: 85). However, Palmer prefers terms *sentence-sample examples* and *skeleton-type examples*. Svensén has stated that in a dictionary a *dead example* '[...] is an invented example that contains only elements that are indispensable for conveying the grammatical information' (ibid. 283). Furthermore, Cowie (2002: 76-78, mentioned in Karpinska 2015: 85) described that *skeleton examples* or *dead examples* are 'as minimal lexicalized patterns devised by implementing simplification, abstraction and listing techniques' (ibid.). Moreover, *sentence examples* (live examples) have been defined by Cowie (ibid. 77, quoted in Karpinska 2015: 85) as 'approximated to natural utterances, even where a possible quotation has had to be edited to make it easier to understand when removed from its context' (ibid.). In contrast with general purpose dictionaries examples can be omitted in specialized dictionaries with technical terms. However, if a term has several meanings in different branches of science, it is advised to provide examples (ibid. 263). Lexicographers Bergenholz and Tarp (1995) suggest that terms should be illustrated with examples; therefore, they have distinguished three types of examples present in specialized dictionaries: citations, citation examples and competence examples. The first type – citations – implies that lexicographers take citations from authentic texts without adapting them; however, one has the option to indicate the source of the citation or not to. This decision depends on the function of the dictionary. The next type is citation examples which are citations that are abbreviated and simplified in order to exclude irrelevant information. This citation adaptation is more time consuming; although, it is beneficiary because it saves space in places where more useful or important information can be included. The final example type is competence examples which are examples that are created on the basis on a lexicographer's competences. If the lexicographer is an expert in the variety of

language for specific purpose (LSP), it will take him/her less time to come up with competence examples than it will to search for the most appropriate example in some texts (ibid. 137).

Finally, it can be said that various example types have been distinguished by different lexicographers, thus the use of a specific example type depends on the dictionary's compiler. The compiler decides which type of example would be most useful for the target audience and the purpose of the dictionary. Depending on the dictionary a compiler can invent examples, use authentic examples or adapt them. If a compiler decides to use authentic examples, then one has to find a trustable source. Therefore, subchapter 3.4 describes possible sources for examples.

3.4 Sources of examples

There is an important question for lexicographers to decide: from where to take the examples? There are several possibilities from where lexicographers can obtain examples; therefore, the present subchapter discusses different lexicographer theories on this topic. One option from where a lexicographer can take examples is citation banks. For example, examples in *Oxford English Dictionary* generally have been collected from these banks. These examples usually are attributed, meaning, the date and the source of the quotations have been provided; it is especially common in historical dictionaries. In other types of dictionaries this source of quotations is not indicated often because there are different forms of examples, for example, full sentence or fragmentised examples (Atkins, Rundell, 2008: 455). Other example sources are, for example, authentic texts or examples invented by lexicographers. There are quoted examples or authentic examples which are taken from authentic texts and the examples have a factual character, meaning, there is a proof that a certain word was mentioned by a certain author in his/her work. Furthermore, quoted examples are favoured in philological dictionaries, more specifically, in ones that describe a dead language or some earlier stage of a living language (Zgusta, 1971: 256). In this situation Zgusta suggests that quoted examples are used because '[...] there is an ex definition no native speaker of such a language and therefore no possibility of producing new texts and consequently also no possibility of constructing really authentic examples' (ibid. 256). In contrast with historical dictionaries, examples in other dictionaries, especially in learners' dictionaries, preferably should be invented by a lexicographer who would construct examples which the lexicographer or his/her informant would consider to be more helpful in illustrating the meaning of a word. However, some might argue that it is better to show authentic

examples in learners' dictionaries to show the word in a natural setting (Atkins, Rundell, 2008: 456; Zgusta, 1971: 267). These constructed examples sometimes could be kept short, for example, verb and its object could be presented. Another argument why especially learners' dictionaries should avoid authentic examples is that they are usually only understood by a fluent speaker of the language. The appeal for authentic examples is high because they imply some degree of authenticity; however, it has been noted by Atkins and Rundell that when one learns a language it '[...] involves all sorts of 'unnatural' uses of language. [...] a dictionary example is an inherently unnatural object because it has been removed from the context which would (in real life) surround it [...]' (2008: 457). To summarize, lexicographers have to be careful not to be too informative in presenting an example because it could create a misleading image of how a language functions, and being not informative enough does not help in the learning process (ibid.). The choice between previously described positions - authentic examples (taken from texts) or invented examples (invented by a lexicographer) - has been complimented with another option which is a mix of the two positions. It is rare that a lexicographer takes an example straight from an authentic text and does not make some alterations to it. What lexicographers actually do is that they find a core example which could be a sentence or few words that represent the typical context of the headword. After that adjustments, such as, a shortening of a clause, switching a proper name to a pronoun, have been made to it (ibid.). This implies that irrelevant parts of the example are omitted and only the core context has been kept in the example. It is also possible but not obligatory that the omitted words are identified by dots. Nonetheless, quoted examples taken from authentic texts have to be grammatically complete. For example, if the subject of the sentence has been omitted, it has to be identified by brackets (Zgusta, 1971: 266):

(They) started lectures and secure a large following.

The indication of the source of the quotation also could vary. Especially dictionaries that are bigger in size can be very precise in indicating the source: the author, the work, the line. Even if only the author of the quotations is mentioned, in a sense it is valuable that it indicates the time when the headword was or is used (ibid.). In addition, there may be cases when the source of the quoted example is indicated in parenthesis. Meaning, the reference to the source and the page number of the quoted work has been put into parenthesis after the quotation. Afterwards if one is interested in the full origins and the context of the source, one can turn to the bibliographical information which can usually be found in the back matter of the dictionary. Furthermore, it is possible to make a distinction between examples which provide explicit and implicit information. It can be said that explicit information is provided by collocations, grammar notes and encyclopaedic notes (Bergenholz, Tarp, 1995: 138-139).

The placement of implicit and explicit information and examples can differ; therefore, authors Bergenholz and Tarp suggest that ‘examples may occur after the explicit information and thus be placed towards the end of the dictionary article, or they may be placed immediately after the encyclopedic note and before the collocations, if any’ (ibid. 139). It should be mentioned that this is not the only possible placement option; however, there should be a consistency of information and example placement within a dictionary to ensure a uniform dictionary’s microstructure (ibid.).

To sum up, examples in dictionary entries have an illustrative role which indicates the headword’s use in a context. Furthermore, there are various classifications of examples developed by lexicographers. These examples have different functions within a dictionary, and it is the job of the lexicographer to implement examples that fit the best in a specific dictionary.

4 ANALYSIS OF EXAMPLES IN DICTIONARIES OF BUSINESS TERMS

The goal of the present paper is to identify and categorize examples in dictionaries of business terms and to analyze the peculiarities of these examples. Comparative analysis and quantitative analysis were chosen as research methods in order to achieve the goal. The following 3 business-related monolingual print dictionaries were chosen for the analysis: *Dictionary of Business* (2004) by A & C Black publishing, *The Ultimate Business Dictionary* (2003) Bloomsbury Publishing, and *Dictionary of Banking and Finance* (2010) by A & C Black publishing. These dictionaries were chosen because they cover terms in the field of business and they have been recently published; furthermore, the entries of these dictionaries contain various types of examples which would make the analysis of examples more varied.

The following Subchapter 4.1 presents detailed description of the methodology of the present research.

4.1 Methodology

The research consisted of several steps. The first step of the analysis was to find and to select print monolingual business-related dictionaries for the analysis. Several dictionaries were considered for the analysis; however, during the selection process it was revealed that the majority of dictionaries which were found did not contain any examples in their entries. The following dictionaries were also considered for the analysis but the entries did not contain any examples: *The Concise Dictionary of Business Management* (1999) by David A. Statt, *Dictionary of Accountancy Terms* (2000) by J.G. Siegel, J.K. Shim, and *The Dictionary of Transportation and Logistics* (2002) by D. Lowe. The process of identifying whether a dictionary contains examples was to check the dictionary's *Preface* which usually contains information on structure of the dictionary and the structure of its entries. The *Prefaces* of the rejected dictionaries did not indicate that the entries will be supported with examples. After that the entries within these dictionaries were checked in order to make sure that there are no examples provided. It can be said that these dictionaries are not user-friendly because they do not provide illustrative examples.

The selected corpus for the analysis was 50 pages within each of the dictionary. For the execution of the first step of the analysis the author of the present research paper created tables where each headword with its examples is recorded. All of the tables which can be found in subchapters 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 are organized in four columns: *Number*, *Entry*, *Example*,

Type of Example. The purpose of the first column is to numerate the entries. In the second column all of the analyzed entries are recorded. Examples which were provided for entries are recorded in the third column. Finally, the types of these examples have been identified and provided in the fourth column. The second step was carried out by analyzing each example and then matching it to the corresponding category of examples. The analysis for detecting the type of example was not carried out only by using one lexicographer's classification of examples. In order to make the analysis more detailed and varied the author of the present research paper has combined various lexicographers' classifications. The examples in the present analysis will be categorized by the classification which is a combination of classifications developed by Bergenholz and Tarp (1995), Svensén (2009), Palmer (1936), and Atkins and Rundell (2008). There have been distinguished two main types of examples:

- Authentic examples – examples taken from authentic texts; the examples can be modified by the lexicographer.
 - Citations – lexicographers have taken citations from authentic texts without adapting them; however, there is an option to indicate the source of the citation or not to.
 - Corpus-based examples – examples are taken from authentic texts but they are modified in order to represent the exact context in which a term is used.
- Made-up skeleton example – example which are invented by the lexicographer. If the lexicographer is an expert in the variety of language for specific purpose (LSP), it will take him/her less time to come up with examples than it would to search for the most appropriate example in some texts. These examples are abbreviated and simplified in order to exclude irrelevant information.

The third step - the frequency of example use - was calculated by quantitative analysis, more specifically, by counting the examples present in the selected corpora and calculating the average number of examples provided per entry. The average number of examples per entry was calculated by summing up the number of entries present on one page and then dividing the sum by 50 which is the amount of pages chosen for the analysis. The average amount of each of the example types used in the entries were calculated by summing up the number of examples present in an entry and then dividing the sum by 50. The results of the quantitative research are presented in subchapters 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 and the tables with all of the results of quantitative analysis are presented in Appendix 1, 2, 3, 4. The final step was accomplished after all 3 of the previously described steps were executed; the author commented on the similarities, differences and some peculiarities which were revealed among all of the examples detected in each of the dictionaries selected for the analysis. In addition, before

starting the analysis a short description and an example of an entry of the analyzed dictionary have been provided.

Following subchapters 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 present the results of the data and quantitative analysis related to each of the dictionaries of business terms chosen for the analysis.

4.2 Analysis of *Dictionary of Business*

The first dictionary which was analyzed was the 4th edition of *Dictionary of Business* (2004) by A & Black. This dictionary consists of 481 pages. As it was mentioned in the dictionary's preface 'this dictionary provides the user with the basic vocabulary used in business in both British and American English' (2004: v). Furthermore, in the *Preface* it was stated that this dictionary is intended for anyone; therefore, it can be said that the target audience of this dictionary is broad. In order to show how the entries generally look like in the present dictionary the following entry example has been provided:

air /eə/ *noun* a method of travelling or sending goods using aircraft **to send a letter or a shipment by air verb* **to air a grievance** to talk about or discuss a grievance **The management committee is useful because it allows the workers' representatives to air their grievances.*

This entry's microstructure consists of pronunciation, an indication to a word group, definition, examples and an idiom where the certain entry word is used. All the entries within the selected corpus for analysis were recorded in a table. Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 present a selection of the results of the analysis. Those entries which were not supported by examples were also recorded in the table. This was done in order to detect how many entries are provided on one page and count how many entries on each page are supported with examples. Every entry of the first page has been recorded in Table 4.1. The author of the present paper considered that the 1st page of the dictionary contained a variety of interesting examples. Furthermore, it shows that a lot of entries are not supplemented with examples.

Table 4.1 Example analysis of the 1st page of Dictionary of Business

No	Headword	Example	Type of example
1	A (AA,AAA)	These bonds have an AAA rating.	Corpus-based example
		'...the rating concern lowered its rating to single-A from double-A, and its senior debt rating to triple-B from single-A' [<i>Wall Street Journal</i>]	Citation
2	A1	We sell only goods in A1 condition.	Corpus-based example

3	abandon	1) We abandoned the idea of setting up a New York office. 2) The development programme had to be abandoned when the company ran out of cash.	Corpus-based example
	to abandon an action	The crew abandoned the sinking ship.	Corpus-based example
4	abandonment	-	
5	abatement	-	
6	abbreviated accounts	-	
7	above par	-	
8	above the line	Exceptional items are noted above the line in company accounts.	Corpus-based example
9	above-the-line advertising	-	
10	abroad	1) The consignment of cars was shipped abroad last week. 2) The chairman is abroad on business. 3) He worked abroad for ten years. 4) Half of our profit comes from sales abroad.	Corpus-based example
11	absence	-	
	in the absence of	In the absence of the chairman, his deputy took the chair.	Corpus-based example
12	absent	1) He was absent owing to illness. 2) Ten of the workers are absent with flu. 3) The chairman is absent in Holland on business.	Corpus-based example

As it is shown in Table 4.1 the page consists of 12 entries. 7 out of 12 entries are complimented with examples. Furthermore, Table 4.1 shows that entries can have various examples, not only one per each entry. For example, the first entry *A (AA,AAA)* is complimented with two examples:

- 1) These bonds have an AAA rating.
- 2) ‘...the rating concern lowered its rating to single-A from double-A, and its senior debt rating to triple-B from single-A’ [*Wall Street Journal*].

First example is corpus-based example which has been modified from an authentic text. The second example is a citation taken from well know business journal - *Wall Street Journal*. It is also possible that the headword is not complimented with an example but the secondary headword (e.g. an idiom) is. This case corresponds to the noun *absence* where an example has not been provided; however, a corpus-based example *in the absence of the chairman, his deputy took the chair* has been provided for an idiom *in the absence of*. Moreover, there are entries which are supported with 3 or even more examples. Headwords *abroad* and *absent*

have been provided with 4 and 3 examples each. Term *abroad* has been complimented by the following examples:

- 1) The consignment of cars was shipped abroad last week.
- 2) The chairman is abroad on business.
- 3) He worked abroad for ten years.
- 4) Half of our profit comes from sales abroad.

The following examples have been provided for the term *absent*:

- 1) He was absent owing to illness.
- 2) Ten of the workers are absent with flu.
- 3) The chairman is absent in Holland on business.

These terms are quite broad and they can be used in various contexts within the field of business; therefore, the authors of the dictionary have provided more than one example for each term. 14 out of 15 examples present in the analyzed page are corpus-based examples. They have been taken and modified from an authentic text by the lexicographer in order to illustrate the context in which a term is used but has decided not to provide their source. It is the lexicographer's choice to indicate the source or not.

The following Table 4.2 contains entries of the 3rd page of the dictionary. This page contained a variety of different examples and entries which were not supported by examples. Overall the page was compiled of 15 entries from which 7 entries were complimented by 1 - 6 examples. 6 out of 7 entries with examples were supported by 2 or more examples each which indicate that the author of the dictionary considered that these entries can be used in various contexts which should be supported by an illustrative example. The entry *account* has been supported by 6 examples from which 2 were made-up skeleton examples and 4 – corpus-based examples. The term *account* has been complimented by the following examples:

- 1) Please send me your account or a detailed or an itemised account.
- 2) They are one of our largest accounts.
- 3) Smith Brothers is one of our largest accounts.
- 4) Our sales people call on their best accounts twice a month.
- 5) put it on my account or charge it to my account.
- 6) to have an account or a charge account or a credit account with Harrods.

However, the made-up skeleton example *to have an account or a charge account or a credit account with Harrods* has been localized by the author of the dictionary. This example has been localized because of the word *Harrods* which can be only understood by someone who

has visited London, United Kingdom. More specifically, *Harrods* is a department store located in London. Therefore, it can be said that this example was not successfully chosen because, as it was mentioned previously, the target audience for this dictionary is broad – not targeted to a specific group of people. A suggestion would be that the word *Harrods* is substituted with some more international term. Moreover, it can be said that the majority of the examples provided in this page were corpus-based examples which indicates that the authors of the dictionary used their knowledge and competences to modify examples from authentic texts. It is worth mentioning that 3 citation examples were provided which points out that the specific term is used in specific contexts which were worth mentioning in a form of citation. Furthermore, the lexicographer took the time to search for a citation; therefore, it may indicate that the context of the term has to be carefully considered.

Table 4.2 Example analysis of the 3rd page of Dictionary of Business

No	Entry	Example	Type of example
1	Accepting Houses Committee	-	
2	Access	1) She has access to large amounts of venture capital. 2) She accessed the address file on the computer.	Corpus-based example
3	accession	-	
4	access time	-	
5	accident	-	
6	accident insurance	-	
7	accident policy	-	
8	accommodation	1) Visitors have difficulty in finding hotel accommodation during the summer.	Corpus-based example
		2) ‘...any non-resident private landlord can let furnished or unfurnished accommodation to a tenant’ [Times] 3) ‘...the airline providing roomy accommodations at below-average fares’ [Dun’s Business Month]	Citations
9	accommodation address	-	
10	accommodation bill	-	
11	Accompany	1) The chairman came to the meeting accompanied by the finance director. 2) They sent a formal letter of	Corpus-based example

		complaint, accompanied by an invoice for damage.	
12	Accordance	1) In accordance with your instructions we have deposited the money in your current account. 2) I am submitting the claim for damages in accordance with the advice of our legal advisers.	Corpus-based example
13	Accordingly	We have received your letter and have altered the contract accordingly.	Corpus-based example
14	according to	The computer was installed according to the manufacturer's instructions.	Corpus-based example
		'...the budget targets for employment and growth are within reach according to the latest figures' [Australian Financial Review]	Citation
15	account	1) Please send me your account or a detailed or an itemised account. 2) They are one of our largest accounts. 3) Smith Brothers is one of our largest accounts. 4) Our sales people call on their best accounts twice a month. 5) put it on my account or charge it to my account. 6) to have an account or a charge account or a credit account with Harrods.	1) Corpus-based example (1 - 4) 2) Made-up example: skeleton-type (5 - 6)

The author of the present research paper decided to present the entries from the 1st and 3rd page because in these entries there are various variations of example use. More specifically, an entry can be supported with more than one example. Furthermore, an entry can be complimented with examples of various types, and one entry can be supported by 2 citation examples to indicate its contextual variations. Nevertheless, there were not many cases when an entry has been supported by 2 or more citation examples. The following citations were chosen to support the entry *accommodation*:

- 1) '...any non-resident private landlord can let furnished or unfurnished accommodation to a tenant' [Times].

- 2) ‘...the airline providing roomy accommodations at below-average fares’ [Dun’s Business Month].

After analyzing the corpus it was concluded that 12 – 26 entries were present within one page of the dictionary. The average number of entries on a page was 17. The exact calculations of the average number of entries can be found in Appendix 1. After the analysis of the corpus it can be concluded that the most used example type was corpus-based examples. The average number of corpus-based examples used in the entries was 12, made-up skeleton examples – 4, citations – 1. The complete table of calculations can be found in Appendix 1. It can be said that the authors of the dictionary are competent and they are experts of the field of business because in order to find and modify examples which are trustable and represent the context in which a term is used one has to have a vast knowledge and understanding of the field.

The following subchapter 4.3 present the results of the data and quantitative analysis of the second dictionary chosen for the analysis.

4.3 Analysis of *The Ultimate Business Dictionary*

The second dictionary analyzed was *The Ultimate Business Dictionary* (2003) by Perseus Publishing. This dictionary consists of 663 pages from which 342 pages is a business dictionary and the rest is a multilingual glossary. Only the business dictionary part was analysed in the present paper. The dictionary did not have the *Preface* but it contained *User’s Guide* which stated that the dictionary consists of terms of international business and management. These terms are compiled from the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, India, Singapore, and the Caribbean; as well there is included business slang and jargon. However, the target audience was not mentioned. In order to show how the entries generally look like in the present dictionary the following entry example has been provided:

acquirer or acquiring bank *E-com* a financial institution, commonly a bank, that processes a merchant’s credit card authorizations and payments, forwarding the data to a credit card association, which in turn communicates with the issuer.

This entry’s microstructure consists of an abbreviation that indicated the field where the term is used and a detailed definition.

It has to be mentioned that all of the pages of the business dictionary were analyzed; not only 50 as it was done in the other two dictionaries chosen for the analysis. This dictionary is an exception in a way that only a hand-full of entries were supported by

examples; examples where not provided on every page. More specifically, only entries which described financial ratios were supplemented with examples. Table 4.3 contains 4 examples which display the various structures of examples provided in the dictionary. All of the 48 examples which were present in the dictionary were lengthy; in order to save space and show the most relevant cases of examples, it was decided only to present 4 examples. This is a sufficient amount of examples to present because all of the examples were comprised with a formula and some additional illustrative explanation of how to apply it for the calculations.

Table 4.3 Example analysis of The Ultimate Business Dictionary

No	Entry	Example	Type of example
1	average collection period	Its formula is: $\text{Accounts receivable} / \text{Average daily sales} = \text{Average collection period}$ For example, if accounts receivable are \$280,000, and average daily sales are 7,000, then: $280,000 / 7,000 = 40$	Corpus-based example
2	book value	It is calculated by subtracting a company's liabilities and the value of its debt and preferred stock from its total assets. All of these figures appear on a company's balance sheet. For example: Total assets \$1,300 Current liabilities -\$400 Long-term liabilities, preference shares -\$250 Book value = 650 Book value per share is calculated by dividing the book value by the number of shares in issue. If our example is expressed in millions of dollars and the company has 35 million shares outstanding, book value per share would be \$650 million divided by 35 million: $650/35 = \$18.57$ book value per share. Book value represents a company's net worth to its shareholders.	Corpus-based example
3	inventory turnover	It is calculated as follows: $\text{Cost of goods sold} / \text{Inventory}$ If COGS is \$2 million, and inventory at the end of the period is \$500,000, then: $2,000,000 / 500,000 = 4$.	Corpus-based example
4	working capital	Working capital comprises the total net current assets of a business minus its creditors. $\text{Current assets} - \text{current liabilities}$ Current assets are cash and assets that can be converted to cash within one year or a normal operating cycle; current liabilities are money owed that are due within one year. If a company's current assets total £300,000 and its current liabilities total £160,000, its working capital is:	Corpus-based example

		\$300,000 – \$160,000 = \$140,000	
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For example, the entry *average collection period* is exemplified by providing a formula for calculations and short calculations example. Most likely, the formula for the calculations is not made-up by the authors of the dictionary but it has been taken from some reliable source – authentic text. However, it can be mentioned that the original source for the formula was not mentioned. The calculation’s example can be considered as modified corpus-based examples but the formula itself cannot be because it is not modified and it has been invented and used by some other author; formula can be considered as a kind of a citation. Formulas are set and their modification will change the end result which is not preferable in order to calculate a certain ratio. Even though, the authors of the dictionary decided not to provide any sources for the formulas. Therefore, this example is a case of mix of two example types: citation and corpus-based example. Depending on the complexity of a term it may be supported by a lengthy explanation of the calculation and its practical use. If only the formula of the calculation is provided, it would not make it clear how to use the term in context – practically application of the term.

Another example worth mentioning is the entry *book value* where it can be seen that a lengthy description. This description is detailed and it explains how the term is calculated and how it is applied in business operations. All of the examples provided in the dictionary consisted of detailed description which is useful for the dictionary’s user because it provides more information about the context in which a term is used. The reason to only include 48 examples within the dictionary could be as follows – the author of the dictionary only wanted to concentrate on exemplifying the calculations which would be beneficiary for the user to understand some complicated business terms. If it is considered to be the reason for only providing formulas for terms which can be calculated, then it can be assumed that the target audience for this dictionary is semi-experts of the field of business. Semi-experts have already some previously gained knowledge about this field; however, they may not have the understanding of how to calculate some more complex business-related concepts.

In the quantitative analysis it was revealed that the average number of entries per page was 20. Furthermore, the average number of examples on a page is 0. As it was previously mentioned only 48 examples were identified in the dictionary’s 342 pages. After analyzing the corpus it can be concluded that all the examples provided in the entries were modified corpus-based examples. These examples contained formulas which in a way can be considered to be citations. However, the source or the author of the citation was not mentioned. All of the results of the calculations are presented in Appendix 2. It is possible

that the authors of the dictionary chose only to provide this type of examples keeping in mind the target audience – semi-experts. In addition, this dictionary is one example which indicates that specialized dictionaries – dictionaries of business terms - may contain limited amount of examples.

The following subchapter 4.4 presents the main findings and detailed results of the 3rd dictionary chosen for the analysis.

4.4 Analysis of *Dictionary of Banking and Finance*

The 3rd dictionary analyzed was the 4th edition of *Dictionary of Banking and Finance* (2010) published by A & C Black. This dictionary consists of 395 pages. The *Preface* of this dictionary indicated that the entries will be supported with examples. In order to show how the entries generally look like in the present dictionary the following entry example has been provided:

fax /fæks/ *noun* **1.** a system for sending the exact copy of a document via telephone lines **Can you confirm the booking by fax?* **2.** a document sent by this method **We received a fax of the order this morning*

This entry's microstructure consists of pronunciation, indication to the word group, two definitions, and two examples.

The analysis has been continued with illustrating a variety of examples present in the dictionary. All the entries within the selected dictionary's corpus were recorded in a table. The author recorded also those entries which were not supported by examples. This was done in order to detect how many entries are written on one page and count how many entries within each page are supported by examples. Table 4.3 presents the results of the analysis; more specifically, the entries from the 4th page of the dictionary; it consists of 16 entries from which 8 entries were supported by examples. The analyzed page was considered to be interesting because it contained various examples of different types and illustrated that a lot of entries are not supported by examples. It can be said that the authors of the dictionary has considered all types of examples to be useful in conveying some contextual meaning of the terms. However, the majority of examples provided where corpus-based examples. More specifically, 12 out of 15 examples were corpus-based examples. Furthermore, there were only 2 cases of made-up skeleton examples and 1 case of citation. For example, the term *activity* was supported by 3 examples from which 2 were corpus-based examples and 1 citation. The following examples have been provided for the term *activity*:

- 1) A low level of business activity.
- 2) There was a lot of activity on the stock exchange.

- 3) ‘...preliminary indications of the level of business investment and activity during the March quarter will provide a good picture of economic activity in the year’ [Australian Financial Review].

The term was supported by several examples because even in the field of business and finance it can be used in several contexts.

Table 4.3 Example analysis of Dictionary of Banking and Finance

No	Entry	Example	Type of example
1	across-the-board	An across-the-board price increase or wage increase.	Made-up example: skeleton
2	across-the-board tariff increase	1) He has agreed to act as an agent for an American company. 2) The solicitor is acting for us or on our behalf.	Corpus-based example
3	ACT	-	
4	action	You must take action if you want to stop people cheating you.	Corpus-based example
	to take legal action	1) An action for libel or a libel action 2) She brought an action for wrongful dismissal against her former employer.	1) Made-up example: skeleton 2) Corpus-based example
5	active	1) An active demand for oil shares. 2) Computer shares are very active.	Corpus-based example
6	active account	-	
7	active partner	-	
8	activity	1) A low level of business activity. 2) There was a lot of activity on the stock exchange. 3) ‘...preliminary indications of the level of business investment and activity during the March quarter will provide a good picture of economic activity in the year’ [Australian Financial Review]	1) Corpus-based example (1 – 2) 2) Citation
9	activity chart	-	
10	act of God	-	
11	actual	1) What is the actual cost of one unit? 2) The actual figures for directors’ expenses are not shown to the shareholders.	Corpus-based example
12	actual price	-	
13	actuals	The figures are the actual for last year.	Corpus-based example
14	actuarial	The premiums are worked out	Corpus-based example

		according to actuarial calculations.	
15	actuarial tables	-	
16	actuary	-	

After analyzing the corpus and calculating the number of each example type used in the entries, it can be concluded that the most often used example type was corpus-based example. The average number of corpus-based examples used within the entries was 7, made-up skeleton examples – 3, citations – 2. The number of entries per page varied from 13 – 24. The average number of entries within a page was 18. The exact calculations of the average number of entries can be found in Appendix 3. It can be considered that even though many entries are supported by examples the full contextual meaning of a term cannot be understood only by referring to the term’s examples. Therefore, the definition of the term and its examples together contribute to a deeper understanding of the term. Although, it depends on the dictionary’s audience of how easily the term is understood. The author of the present research paper has concluded that the target audience for this dictionary is semi-experts or even non-experts. This conclusion is supported by the fact that a great amount of entries on a page have been supported by examples. If the target audience of this dictionary would be experts of banking and finance, then the amount of provided examples would be much lower. Most likely, there would not be any examples provided because experts are knowledgeable of the field; they use the dictionary for consultative reasons.

To sum up, the data and quantitative analysis of all 3 dictionaries analyzed revealed a variety of results. The most commonly used example type in all 3 of the analyzed dictionaries was corpus-based examples. On average the total amount of entries within a page was 18. Furthermore, the average amount of corpus-based examples provided in an entry – 6; made-up skeleton examples – 2; citations – 1. The table of the calculations are presented in Appendix 4. These results imply that dictionaries which are targeted for semi-experts in the field of business contain examples. Even though, the dominant type of examples present in dictionaries are corpus-based examples, other types of examples are also used; however, not that frequently. It can also be concluded that approximately half of the entries on a page are supported by examples. Nonetheless, the analysis of the 2nd dictionary presented results which indicated that examples can be used only for a chosen set of terms, for example, financial ratios.

The subchapter 4.5 presents the results of the comparative analysis of all 3 dictionaries chosen for the analysis. The following subchapter reveals the similarities, differences and peculiarities of example use in dictionaries of business terms.

4.5 Comparative analysis of the dictionaries of business terms

After doing data and quantitative analysis it is possible to carry out a comparative analysis of all 3 analyzed dictionaries. The analysis is focused on identifying the similarities, differences and some peculiarities in examples use.

One of the similarities of example use is that dictionaries of business terms contain examples; however, the amount of examples present in the entries differs. The amount of examples provided in a dictionary depends on the dictionary's author and the dictionary's target audience. Nonetheless, there are business-related dictionaries which are targeted to semi-experts or even non-experts. Overall these dictionaries contain a variety of examples. The entries in these dictionaries are supported by different types of examples or even a mixture of example types. In all of the 3 analyzed dictionaries the most commonly used example type was corpus-based examples. This type of example is created from an authentic text which the author of the dictionary has chosen to be the most accurate in conveying the contextual meaning of a term. In most cases, the author of the authentic text has not been provided which indicates that the author of the dictionary has modified the example but did not consider referring to the source or the author of the original text. Furthermore, the author has to be competent in the field of business in order to modify examples which would convey contextual meaning of terms.

It was concluded that the 2nd dictionary analyzed was targeted for experts and semi-experts. In comparison, 1st and the 3rd dictionary were compiled for semi-experts and non-experts. As semi-experts and non-experts do not have as high level of knowledge in the field of business as experts have, it is essential to provide more detailed and illustrative information in the specialized dictionary which the 1st and the 3rd dictionaries had. Examples provide more detailed information about the context in which a certain term is used; therefore, the user can acquire the knowledge more efficiently. In these two dictionaries the average number of entries per page was almost the same – 17 and 18. By looking at both dictionary entry microstructures and this average number of entries it can be concluded that the both dictionary entry structures are very similar. However, the average number of entries per page in the 2nd dictionary was 20 which indicate that there were more entries per page and they were mostly supported only by definitions.

Furthermore, it is possible to compare the amount of examples provided by looking on how broad is the topic of the dictionary. For example, the 1st dictionary *Dictionary of Business* covers terms in a very broad field – business. In comparison, the 3rd dictionary

Dictionary of Finance and Banking has a narrower field to cover – only finance and banking. Therefore, it can be concluded that dictionary entries which covers a broader field are supported with more examples. This statement can be supported by the results of the data analysis. On average there were more examples present in the *Dictionary of Business* than in the *Dictionary of Finance and Banking*. More specifically, the average number of corpus-based examples present in the 1st dictionary was 12 but in the 3rd dictionary the number was 7. The average number of made-up skeleton type examples also was greater in the 1st dictionary than in the 3rd dictionary analyzed. Nonetheless, this conclusion does not apply to all cases. For example the 2nd dictionary analyzed *The Ultimate Business Dictionary* covers terms in quite broad field – international business and management; however, the dictionary does not contain as much examples as other 2 analyzed dictionaries do. It should be added that the authors of the dictionary made the decision only to provide examples which support financial ratios. Furthermore, it can be concluded that the amount of example provided in a dictionary mostly depends on 2 things: how broad or narrow is the field the dictionary covers and the dictionary's author's choice of what kind of terms to support with examples.

CONCLUSIONS

For centuries dictionaries have been a useful tool for finding some unknown information. Furthermore, almost every family has at least one dictionary in their household because in general people accept dictionaries as trustworthy sources of word explanation. Moreover, these dictionaries can be of various types, and they can be intended for different target audiences.

As the present research paper is concentrated on print dictionaries, it can be stated that the target audience for print dictionaries are people who value credibility and physical format of a dictionary. More specifically, specialized print dictionaries are considered to be the main resource for people who want to acquire knowledge of special purpose language. However, there are reliable online dictionaries but they are not that easily available. The amount of information about terms available in the dictionaries targeted for non-experts is greater than the amount of information targeted for field experts. Furthermore, if a dictionary has a narrower subject, then it will contain less information, as it is, again, targeted for experts.

As the amount of information presented in a dictionary may vary, the structure of dictionary entries also can differ. It depends on the author of the dictionary of what information to include in the entries. Examples are a component of entry structure which illustrates the contextual use of the term. Examples are provided because the term may be too general and its definition may not provide information which is concrete enough. Furthermore, various types of examples have been developed by different lexicographers; the use of a specific type of example depends on the dictionary's compiler. Compilers have various choices either to invent, take already existing examples or adapt them.

It should be restated that the goal of the present research paper was to identify and categorize examples in dictionaries of business terms and to analyze the peculiarities of these examples. It can be said that the goal was reached because the author of the present research paper identified and categorized examples within the selected corpora. The examples were identified in dictionaries which were targeted to experts, semi-experts and non-experts of the field of business. Even though, the author analyzed business-related dictionaries, they were supported with different types of examples. After carrying out the data and quantitative analysis it can be concluded that corpus-based examples were the most commonly used example type in all of the analyzed dictionaries. More specifically, the average number of corpus-based examples present in entries was 6.

Furthermore, the author can provide answers for previously suggested research questions. The amount of examples used in the entries of the dictionaries selected for the

analysis can vary according to the number of the entries on a page because there is different number of entries per page. The analysis revealed that, on average, a page consists of 18 entries; the average number of corpus-based examples present in entries were 6, made-up skeleton examples – 2, and citations - 1. The other difference of example use in dictionaries of business terms was noticed in dictionaries which cover fields of different scope. More specifically, dictionary entries which cover a broader field, such as, business are supported with more examples, in comparison with those, such as, banking and finance which cover narrower field.

The similarity which all of the analyzed dictionaries had was the use of corpus-based examples which were the most commonly used type of example. It can be concluded that they were so extensively used because the dictionary authors use authentic texts to modify examples not necessarily invent them. It can be said that the authors consider authentic texts to be the most accurate in conveying the contextual meaning of a term. The one peculiarity of examples use is that the dictionary authors decide of the amount and the type of examples used in a dictionary.

The development of dictionaries is an on-going process which can be researched from various aspects. The strength of the present research paper is that it highlighted the importance of example use in business-related dictionaries. Furthermore, in specialized dictionaries semi-experts highly benefit from the presence of examples. In future, the analysis of examples present in electronic dictionaries which are available either online or in CD ROM format could be carried out, in order to compare the similarities and differences between the use of examples in print and electronic dictionaries.

THESES

1. The study of lexicography originated in the ancient times and is still developing. The one of first who highlighted the importance of exemplification in dictionaries was Samuel Johnson (1755). His dictionary was considered to start the use of citations to validate definitions.
2. Dictionaries have a long history and for centuries people have consulted them to find some information about unknown words. Therefore, through the years dictionaries gained trust as being a credible source of information.
3. There are different types of dictionaries that may vary according to their target audience. While compiling dictionaries, lexicographers have to take into an account the competences and needs of the target audience.
4. The audience who is interested in acquiring terms of special purpose language tend to use print dictionaries instead of electronic dictionaries. It is considered that print dictionaries are valued as being more credible.
5. There are various entry structures developed by different lexicographers. However, the final decision of how a dictionary will be structured depends on the choice of the dictionary's editor.
6. Examples can be considered as an essential part of the entry structure. If a lexicographer supplements an entry with an example, then it adds more concrete information about the use of the term.
7. Specialized dictionaries can be supported by two main types of examples: authentic examples and made-up skeleton examples.
8. The entries in dictionaries of business terms are supported by different types of examples or even a mixture of example types. In business-related dictionaries the most commonly used example type is corpus-based examples.
9. Dictionaries of business terms contain examples; however, the amount of examples present in the entries varies.
10. Business-related dictionaries targeted to semi-experts and non-experts provide more detailed and illustrative examples than dictionaries targeted to experts of the field.
11. Dictionaries which cover a broad field, such as business in general, are supported with more examples than dictionaries which cover a narrower field, for example, finance.

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Dictionaries

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- 2) *The Ultimate Business Dictionary* (2003) Suffolk: Perseus Publishing
- 3) *Dictionary of Banking and Finance* (2010) London: A & C Black

Appendix 1

The amount of entries per page, type of example, and the average number of types of examples and entries in Dictionary of Business

Page No	Entries per page	Corpus-based example	Made-up skeleton	Citation
1	12	14	0	1
2	20	8	1	1
3	15	14	3	3
4	18	1	3	1
5	23	17	1	1
6	21	13	9	1
7	19	17	7	3
8	20	16	7	0
9	14	11	7	0
10	24	14	3	1
11	13	6	3	1
12	16	12	1	3
13	15	13	2	0
14	18	10	5	0
15	23	11	6	1
16	21	15	7	1
17	13	9	4	2
18	21	10	5	1
19	18	16	1	1
20	14	11	3	1
21	19	10	3	3
22	19	5	9	0
23	20	14	7	0
24	14	10	7	1
25	17	13	5	1
26	14	10	6	2
27	16	9	7	2
28	18	10	4	2
29	20	16	5	1
30	23	13	3	0
31	21	18	3	0
32	19	17	1	0
33	20	10	2	1
34	13	11	4	1
35	21	15	5	3
36	18	12	3	0
37	14	10	3	0
38	13	14	1	1
39	21	6	1	0

40	18	12	3	0
41	21	13	1	1
42	20	10	2	1
43	14	9	4	1
44	23	18	5	1
45	13	10	3	3
46	21	18	3	0
47	18	11	1	2
48	14	10	9	1
49	21	15	7	1
50	18	16	2	1
Average number	18	12	4	1

Appendix 2

The amount of entries per page, type of example, and the average number of types of examples and entries in *The Ultimate Business Dictionary*

Page No	Entries per page	Corpus-based example	Made-up skeleton	Citation
1	25	0	0	0
2	26	0	0	0
3	23	1	0	0
4	26	0	0	0
5	12	1	0	0
6	24	0	0	0
7	24	0	0	0
8	17	0	0	0
9	28	0	0	0
10	21	0	0	0
11	19	0	0	0
12	23	0	0	0
13	25	0	0	0
14	16	1	0	0
15	14	0	0	0
16	16	0	0	0
17	22	1	0	0
18	24	0	0	0
19	22	0	0	0
20	21	0	0	0
21	20	1	0	0
22	25	0	0	0
23	20	0	0	0
24	19	0	0	0
25	13	1	0	0
26	22	0	0	0
27	23	0	0	0
28	19	0	0	0
29	14	0	0	0
30	16	0	0	0
31	22	0	0	0
32	20	0	0	0
33	19	0	0	0
34	15	0	0	0
35	23	0	0	0
36	22	0	0	0
37	22	1	0	0

38	16	1	0	0
39	19	0	0	0
40	18	0	0	0
41	16	0	0	0
42	22	0	0	0
43	20	0	0	0
44	19	0	0	0
45	16	0	0	0
46	22	0	0	0
47	24	0	0	0
48	20	0	0	0
49	13	2	0	0
50	20	0	0	0
Average number	20	0	0	0

Appendix 3

The amount of entries per page, type of example, and the average number of types of examples and entries in *Dictionary of Banking and Finance*

Page No	Entries per page	Corpus-based example	Made-up skeleton	Citation
1	15	3	0	1
2	15	8	1	0
3	13	8	1	2
4	16	12	2	1
5	22	7	6	3
6	24	5	4	1
7	20	7	6	1
8	19	3	1	8
9	20	9	5	0
10	21	8	1	0
11	15	12	1	2
12	17	7	6	1
13	14	5	4	3
14	17	7	3	1
15	20	5	0	4
16	13	3	1	0
17	21	8	1	2
18	18	8	1	1
19	14	10	6	1
20	19	7	4	3
21	20	11	5	1
22	13	7	3	1
23	16	5	3	4
24	18	10	2	0
25	20	9	1	2
26	15	11	0	1
27	22	9	3	1
28	19	5	3	3
29	21	9	2	1
30	15	3	1	4
31	17	8	1	1
32	14	8	1	3
33	16	10	5	1
34	18	7	4	0
35	20	10	3	0
36	13	8	0	1
37	21	10	3	3
38	18	7	0	2

39	14	9	1	0
40	15	10	1	0
41	17	9	1	2
42	14	2	5	1
43	17	9	3	1
44	20	8	4	3
45	13	5	6	2
46	21	7	1	0
47	18	3	5	2
48	21	9	4	2
49	18	10	3	1
50	14	7	2	0
Average number	17	7	3	2

Appendix 4

The average number of entries and types of examples in all 3 of the analyzed dictionaries

	Average number of entries per page	Average number of corpus-based examples	Average number of made-up skeleton examples	Average number of citations
1 st dictionary	18	12	4	1
2 nd dictionary	20	0	0	0
3 rd dictionary	17	7	3	2
In all of the dictionaries	18	6	2	1

Appendix 5

Dokumentārā lapa

Bakalaura darbs „Examples in Dictionaries of Business Terms” (Piemēri biznesa terminu vārdnīcās) izstrādāts LU Humanitāro zinātņu fakultātē.

Ar savu parakstu apliecinu, ka pētījums veikts patstāvīgi, izmantoti tikai tajā norādītie informācijas avoti un iesniegtā darba elektroniskā kopija atbilst izdrukai.

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23.05.2017

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23.05.2017

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Darbs iesniegts

Darbu pieņēma:

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