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**IDIOMS IN GENERAL ENGLISH-LATVIAN  
DICTIONARIES**

**IDIOMAS VISPĀRĪGAJĀS ANĢĻU-LATVIEŠU VĀRDNĪCĀS**

MASTER THESIS

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## **Anotācija**

Idiomu iekļaušana un atveide vārdnīcās ir nozīmīgs jautājums, kuram leksikogrāfi nav pievērsuši pietiekami daudz uzmanības. Šī pētījuma mērķis ir izpētīt idiomu iekļaušanu un atveidi vispārīgajās angļu-latviešu vārdnīcās, analizējot tipisku angļu-latviešu vārdnīcu, kas pārstāv tradīciju. Vispārīga angļu mācību vārdnīca ir izvēlēta, lai salīdzinātu dažus idiomu iekļaušanas un atveides aspektus. Ir izveidoti korpusi ar idiomām no abām vārdnīcām, kas tiek analizēti, izmantojot aprakstošās un salīdzinošās analīzes metodes. Tiek pētīts idiomu novietojums, forma un ekvivalence. Pētījuma rezultāti rāda, ka idiomu atveide un iekļaušana angļu-latviešu vārdnīcā ir jāuzlabo, īpašu vērību pievēršot idiomu pieejamībai, izvietojumam un atveidei šķirkļī, un ekvivalencei.

**Atslēgvārdi:** frazeoloģija, idiommas, vārdnīcas, mijnorādes, ekvivalence

## **Abstract**

The treatment of idioms in dictionaries is an important issue that has been overlooked by the lexicographers. The goal of the research is to examine the treatment of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries by analysing a typical English-Latvian dictionary which represents the tradition. A general English dictionary for learners is selected to compare some aspects of treatment of idioms. Corpora of idioms found in both dictionaries are built, compared, and analysed by descriptive and comparative methods. The location of idioms, their form and equivalence are examined. The research results show the treatment of idioms in ELD has to be improved and special attention has to be paid to accessibility of idioms, their presentation in the entry, and equivalence.

**Key words:** phraseology, idioms, dictionaries, cross-references, equivalence

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## **List of Abbreviations and Acronyms**

### **Dictionary titles**

ELD – *English-Latvian Dictionary = Angļu-latviešu vārdnīca*

LDOCE5 – *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition.*

OALDOCE7 - *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. 7<sup>th</sup> Edition.*

ODOEI3 – *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms. 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition.*

### **Other abbreviations**

AmE – American English

BrE – British English

FEI – fixed expression and idiom

L1 – first language

L2 – second language

MWE – multiword expression

sb – somebody

SL – source language

sth – something

TL – target language

## Introduction

Idioms are not easy to use, especially for a non-native speaker, yet they constitute an important part of language. Despite their importance, there is still disagreement about this concept and a generally accepted definition of idiom has still not been coined. This is reflected in dictionaries as well, as the understanding of an idiom may differ among various dictionaries. It is not only the question of what is treated as idiom, but also – how idioms are represented in the dictionary. Since idioms are multiword expressions (MWEs), their inclusion in the dictionary causes several problems. Therefore, idioms have been overlooked both by the dictionary compilers and the metalexigraphers.

The non-native speaker needs some help with idioms, in order to be sure they are used properly and the speaker sounds natural while using them. A good dictionary is needed to get some help with idioms. Not all the problems related to idioms and their treatment in the dictionary have been acknowledged; thus, there is a need for more research to understand what the main issues are and how to solve them. Considerable amount of research has been performed on idioms, but their treatment in general dictionaries has not been studied properly.

The novelty and topicality of the present research is determined by the fact that there is not much research carried out on the idioms in contemporary English-Latvian dictionaries. The phraseology and idioms of the English and Latvian language have been investigated, e.g., by Andrejs Veisbergs (2007) and Anita Naciscione (2001; 2010), however, idioms are not well-researched from the lexicographical perspective. The practical significance of the research rests in the fact that it could be used by the compilers of the future general English-Latvian dictionaries in order to improve the representation of idioms.

The **goal** of the thesis is to examine the treatment of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries in order to find out the strong points and weaknesses of their lexicographical presentation.

The **enabling objectives** are the following:

1. To examine the theoretical literature on phraseology and idioms.
2. To produce a working definition of the idiom.
3. To examine the theoretical literature on the treatment of idioms in general dictionaries.
4. To build a corpus of the English idioms found in the entries of the headwords that are found in the selected pages of the English-Latvian dictionary, and to collect a corpus

of idioms found in the corresponding entries of a corpus-based, recently published English monolingual dictionary; to make a comparison between these two corpora.

5. To examine the location of idioms and the lexicographical solutions employed by the English-Latvian dictionary to help the user to find idioms, and to make a comparison with the monolingual English dictionary.
6. To collect a corpus of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms and to evaluate them.

To reach the goal, the following **research questions** are stated:

1. What the compilers of the English-Latvian dictionary treat as an idiom?
2. Does the particular English-Latvian dictionary include the idioms that are used in the contemporary English language?
3. How idioms are represented in the entries and how accessible they are?
4. What kind(s) of Latvian equivalents are provided to the English idioms in the English-Latvian dictionary?

The primary sources of research are:

1. *English-Latvian Dictionary = Angļu-latviešu vārdnīca* (2007) Rīga: Avots.
2. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2009) Harlow: Pearson Education Limited. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition.
3. *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms* (2009) Oxford Reference Online. Oxford University Press. 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition.

This *English-Latvian Dictionary* (ELD)<sup>1</sup> is selected as it is a typical representative of the contemporary English-Latvian lexicographical tradition, so it reflects the characteristic features of the treatment of idioms in all contemporary general English-Latvian dictionaries. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE5) is selected to compare the sets of idioms and their meanings included in both dictionaries and the presentation of idioms in the entries of the dictionaries. *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms* (ODOEI3) is selected to compare the meanings of the samples of idioms found in ELD and LDOCE5.

The secondary sources of research are the theoretical works of phraseologists and lexicographers in which several aspects of phraseology and lexicography are discussed. Special attention is paid to the works that discuss idioms from the lexicographical perspective, since they provide the most relevant information for the particular research. The theoretical framework of the research comprises the classification of lexical items by B. T. Sue Atkins

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<sup>1</sup> In this research, the full dictionary titles and idioms are given in italics, and the headwords are given in bold.

and Michael Rundell (2008); the typology of variations of FEIs by Rosamund Moon (1998); the theoretical framework of Bo Svensén (2009) and Rufus Gouws (2010) of entry structure and cross-reference structure; the factors of the evaluation of equivalence by Atkins and Rundell (2008); the distinction between explanatory and functional equivalents, as described by Ladislav Zgusta (2006), Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak (2006, 2010), and Svensén (2009).

The **subject** of the research is the idioms of the English and Latvian languages. Two printed dictionaries are the **object** of the research: a general (English-Latvian) dictionary (ELD) and a general (English) dictionary (LDOCE5), as well as one special purpose English dictionary (ODOEI3).

In the research, the following methods of research are applied: descriptive analysis is applied to analyse the treatment of idioms in ELD, and comparative analysis is used to examine the meanings of the samples of idioms found in ELD, LDOCE5, and ODOEI3. Quantitative data is collected from 21 pages (pp. 646-666) of ELD which include 1225 entries from **metric** to **multigenerational**. Idioms and their variations found in these entries are considered and examined, and compared with idioms and their variations found in the corresponding entries of LDOCE5. The data is analysed according to the theoretical framework worked out as a result of literature review. The conclusions concerning the treatment of idioms in ELD are drawn as a result of the analysis of idioms found in the ELD.

The first chapter takes a broader look on phraseology and idioms: the scope of phraseology is discussed in Subchapter 1.1, the concept of idiom is considered in Subchapter 1.2, and different approaches to phraseology are given a brief discussion in Subchapter 1.3. Subchapter 1.4 discusses the lexicographical approach to idioms, and, to set the borders of the subject of the research, some MWEs that may be confused with idioms are considered in Subchapter 1.5. At the end of the first chapter, a working definition of idiom for the present research is produced.

The focus of the second chapter is the treatment of idioms in general dictionaries, and several important issues are discussed: the form and variations of idioms are described in Subchapter 2.1, the location of idioms in the dictionary is considered in Subchapter 2.2, and the issue of equivalence of idioms as well as several strategies of dealing with non-equivalence are discussed in Subchapter 2.3. The second chapter aims to find out what kind of challenges idioms pose to the lexicographers and how they are solved.

In the third chapter, the corpora of idioms from ELD and LDOCE5 and the corpus of equivalents from ELD are studied and used to answer the research questions. The methodology is described in Subchapter 3.1, which is followed by four subchapters each of

which deals with the particular research question. The main problems of the treatment of idioms in ELD are discussed, and possible improvements of the treatment of idioms in English-Latvian dictionaries are proposed.

The corpora of idioms can be found in Appendices. Appendix 1 and Appendix 2 deal with the syntagmatic-pragmatic sections of entries of ELD: in Appendix 2 idioms found in this section of the entry are listed, while in Appendix 1 other MWEs which are not idioms are classified. Appendix 3 represents the corpora of idioms and their variations found in ELD and LDOCE5, grouped according to the respective entries. In Appendix 4, classification of variations of idioms from ELD can be found. Appendix 5 lists idioms which are included only in ELD, but are not found in LDOCE5. In Appendix 6, the meanings of the samples of idioms found in ELD, LDOCE5, and ODOEI3 are compared. In Appendix 7 two samples of the entries from ELD can be found. The last three appendices deal with the Latvian equivalents. In Appendix 8, a corpus of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms found in ELD is collected. In Appendix 9, the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms found in ELD are evaluated according to the criteria of equivalence proposed by Atkins and Rundell (2008). In Appendix 10, the classification of the Latvian equivalents into functional and explanatory equivalents can be found.

# 1 Phraseology and Idioms

The aim of the first chapter is to understand the scope of phraseology and the nature of idiom, as well as find out what is understood by idiom in lexicography. The scope of phraseology is vast, and in order not to get lost in the various concepts and definitions used by the theoreticians, it is important to discuss two issues. Firstly, it has to be examined what is the interest of phraseology. Secondly, one particular type of phraseological unit – the idiom – has to be investigated, as it is relevant for the particular research. There are many fields of study that are interested in idioms, and lexicography is one of them. Therefore, it is important to see how idioms are seen from the lexicographical perspective, and to define what exactly is understood by idiom in lexicographical context.

## 1.1 Phraseology

Phraseology is an important part of a language, and different types of phraseological units are used in many fields and language registers. Jean Pierre-Colson points out that it might be too early to claim that phraseology exists in all languages; however, contrastive studies of phraseology of different languages show that there are lexical units which satisfy the general criteria of phraseological units. Nevertheless, the phraseology as known in European languages may not be the same as in the other languages that do not belong to the Indo-European language family (Colson, 2008: 193).

Phraseology exists in the Latvian language as well - as Veisbergs observes, in the Latvian phraseological system there are about 20 000 units and their variations (Veisbergs, 1999: 6). Therefore, it is important both for the learner of a language and its native speaker to recognise them and understand their meaning.

The science that studies phraseological units is called phraseology. From being a marginalized field of study in 1980s, it has developed and become an interest of many linguists. However, phraseology is still on its way to fully developed and unified terminology and understanding of concepts. ‘Fuzziness’ is a common word used to describe the state of terminology of phraseology and different typologies and understandings of its main concepts (Altenberg, 1998; Burger, Dobrovol’skij et al., 2007; Granger and Paquot, 2008). Since phraseology is a relatively new field of study, there is no established and unified terminology of phraseology which is a problem several authors point to (Nuccorini, 2003; Burger, Dobrovol’skij et al. 2007; Granger and Paquot, 2008; Naciscione, 2010, to mention few of

them), which consequently leads to many understandings of what exactly falls under the scope of phraseology. Indeed, most of the authors who study phraseology start with their own understanding of different typologies of phraseological units and have various approaches to phraseology, which is a result of different scholarly interests. As Anthony Paul Cowie aptly characterises the situation, phraseology is ‘bedevilled by the proliferation of terms and by conflicting uses of the same term’ (Cowie, 1998: 210). There have been around 70 different terms used in different fields to describe the units related to phraseology and fixed phrases (Dobrovol’skij, 2006: 514). Sylviane Granger and Magali Paquot note that sometimes the same term can be used to denote quite different phraseological units – and various phraseological units may be labelled by the same term, despite their differences (Granger and Paquot, 2008: 28).

In addition to arguments and differences in opinions on how to term different phraseological units and how to classify them, there is no agreement even about the basic terms – namely, what the generic term for the linguistic unit is that phraseology investigates? According to Harald Burger, Dmitrij Dobrovol’skij et al. (2007: 11-12), the national traditions of phraseology influence terminology to a large extent, therefore, the linguistic unit might be termed as ‘phraseologismus’, ‘phraseologism’, ‘phraseme’, ‘set phrase’, and even ‘idiom’ and ‘collocation’ (which may be used to denote subcategories as well), which are used as generic terms. Moon uses the term ‘fixed expressions and idioms’ (FEIs), while admitting this is ‘unsatisfactory as a term’ (Moon, 1998: 2), but keeping it for the sake of simplicity. To avoid terminological confusion or ‘chaos’ (Burger et al., 2007: 10), in this research, ‘phraseological unit’ is used as a generic term to denote the subject of interest of phraseology. Several linguists have accepted this term: the Russian linguist Victor Vladimirovich Vinogradov (Виктор Владимирович Виноградов) uses this term in his influential theory on phraseology (1986). It is a term used by Rosemarie Gläser (1998) and Naciscione (2010). In the Latvian language, this term is also used (‘frazēoloģiska vienība’) along with, probably, more common term ‘frazēoloģisms’ (phraseologism) as used by Alise Laua (Laua, 1992: 5, 20) and Arturs Ozols (Ozols, 1959: 201).

First of all, it is useful to understand what exactly falls within the scope of phraseology, or, to use Gläser’s (1998: 126) term, what belongs to the ‘phrasicon’ of a language. A good starting point is Igor Mel’čuk’s theory (1998), as it is important to understand the difference between ‘set phrases’ and ‘free phrases’ (in Mel’čuk’s terminology), since phraseological units belong to set phrases of the language.

Set phrases (or ‘phrasemes’, to use Mel’čuk’s term, or ‘phraseological units’ in the context of this research) are an important part of language - as Mel’čuk notes, ‘people speak in set phrases, rather than in separate words’ (1998: 24), and the lexicographers have to take this into account when compiling dictionaries. Therefore, the words themselves are not as important as the phrases they make up – Mel’čuk claims, that in every language there are more phrasemes than words (1998: 24), which is an important reason to pay close attention to set phrases.

Mel’čuk uses Ferdinand de Saussure’s concept of sign when speaking of set phrases; Mel’čuk treats phraseme as a linguistic sign (AB) that has its signifier (or phonetic form, labelled as /X/) and signified (or meaning, labelled as X) (Mel’čuk, 1998: 26). These notions are important to distinguish between set phrases and free phrases, and, therefore, crucial in understanding the concept of phraseological unit and its different sub-categories. He describes two conditions that free phrases have to satisfy in order to be called free phrases (Mel’čuk, 1998: 25-27). To sum up, for free phrases there exists freedom of selection of its signified and freedom of combination of its components, certainly, taking into account the general combination rules of language and the signifieds, and syntactics of a phrase (Mel’čuk, 1998: 28).

Other definitions of a phraseological unit help to understand this concept better. Naciscione defines phraseological unit as ‘a stable, cohesive combination of words with a fully or partially figurative meaning’ (Naciscione, 2010: 8). More explicit definition is offered by Gläser who defines phraseological unit as a

lexicalized, reproducible billexemic or polylexemic word group in common use, which has relative syntactic and semantic stability, may be idiomatized, may carry connotations, and may have an emphatic or intensifying function in a text (Gläser, 1998: 125).

Gläser’s definition gives some idea what may cause the greatest trouble for a learner of a foreign language when facing a phraseological unit. Let us consider the example *the salt of the earth*. Firstly, it is a polylexemic (multiword) expression, consisting of more than two words, which have their own conventional meaning, but the meaning of the whole expression cannot be deduced from the meaning of its component words. In this particular case, the meaning has nothing to do either with salt or the earth, rather, it has to be understood as ‘someone who is ordinary but good and honest’ (*LDOCE5*, 2009: 1543), so this phrase is used to refer to human beings. This unit has its own rules of syntax that have to be observed. Moreover, its meaning and connotations may be known only to the native speakers, as particular phraseological units may be known only within one culture and language. In this

case, there is an equivalent in the Latvian language (*zemes sāls*), while there might be phraseological units that are unique and are used only in one language. This particular phraseological unit has its origins in the Bible, and in some contexts it might be important to know this to use it properly. Phraseological units are not just about the words – they are closely tied with the culture, as they ‘rely heavily on images, traditions or habits’ of a particular culture (Colson, 2008: 193). To conclude, the use of phraseological units requires knowledge of their syntax, semantics, connotations, origin, etc.

Despite all these difficulties, different phraseological units are used – and have to be used if one wants to make the language copious and natural. This is why phraseological units have to be included in dictionaries to help the users of the language to use them properly. Therefore, ‘the lexicographical approach’ (Moon, 1998) to phraseology is applied in this research to examine the treatment of one type of phraseological units - idioms - in dictionaries. The inclusion of phraseological units in the dictionary poses many challenges to the lexicographers. Some lexicographers, for instance, Moon (1998: 17-18) and Alenka Urbinc (2010: 139) point out that in practice Anglo-American dictionaries are atheoretical, meaning that they rarely pay attention to different phraseological units and do not attempt to categorize them, labelling different types of phraseological units as ‘idioms’ and ‘phrases’. But it does not mean it is a common practice; Moon (1998: 17) observes that the situation is different in the European tradition of dictionary compiling. In order to have a consistent approach to dictionary-making and represent contemporary language, the lexicographer has to have an understanding of what should be included in the dictionary. Therefore, for the lexicographer it is valuable to understand the difference between various phraseological units, in order to develop a consistent approach to inclusion and presentation of phraseological units in the dictionary.

## **1.2 Idioms**

There are several different types of phraseological units, but, according to Gläser, idiom is the dominant one (Gläser, 1998: 125). However, even the dominant status does not guarantee a uniform and clear understanding of the concept. As mentioned above, ‘idiom’ may be used as a generic term to denote the linguistic item of interest in phraseology, as well as a subtype of phraseological unit. But it is not the only confusion that the use of this term may cause. Moon points out to inconsistency of terms used when referring to idioms and other MWEs. She considers the word ‘idiom’ as ambiguous because it is used to refer to two distinct things. In

English, 'idiom' can refer to the way things are expressed (a lexical and syntactical patterning of a language), and also to a particular string of words – or MWE (Moon, 1986: 108; Moon, 1998: 3). In this research, 'idiom' is used to refer to a subtype of phraseological unit, a type of multiword combination which deserves a special attention of the lexicographers.

The difference in terminology has its practical outcome as well, and one can say that even the learners of a language, while being far from the theoretical discussions on idioms and phraseology, may be affected by different theoretical perspectives. Although the users of the dictionary might be more interested in the meaning, use, translational/functional equivalents (if they exist), or in the origin of an idiom, rather than in the exact definition of the concept, they also may become some kind of 'victims' of the uncertainty which characterises phraseology. For example, even if the learners know it is an idiom they have come across (as sometimes idioms are hard to identify as one unit for a non-native speaker of a language) and aim to find its meaning, they may have troubles finding the right source of information due to different terms used. For example, Stefania Nuccorini takes a look at different phraseological dictionaries of many languages, pointing out that their titles reflect the 'national and/or scholarly tradition' of each lexicographical tradition: while the dictionaries of Russian and other Slavonic languages often include the word 'phraseology' in their titles, the English titles usually contain 'idioms', 'phrasal verbs' and 'proverbs' (Nuccorini, 2003: 366). Thus, a Latvian (or a Russian) learner of the English language may waste time finding information about a particular 'phraseologism'/'frazelogisms', while 'idiom' is the keyword they have to search for. But it is not only the matter of different culture; as Igor Burkhanov notes, the native speaker may also have trouble understanding how to classify a phraseological unit at hand:

If the users want to look up a multiple-word item and his general-purpose dictionary does not provide sufficient information, he has to decide whether the lexical unit in question is to be classified as a collocation, an idiom, or a phrasal verb in order to choose the right reference work. Nevertheless, his assumptions may differ from the lexicographer's beliefs, hence the need to try another dictionary. So, the number of reference works the user is to consult drastically increases (Burkhanov, 2003: 111).

So the question of terminology is a very important one both for the scholars and the learners (and even the native speakers) of a language. The literature on phraseology, phraseological units, multiword units, set phrases, phrasemes, idioms, collocations, etc., is vast, and it might be hard to understand what exactly an idiom is and where one should search information of its meaning. Moreover, different authors have different terms for the same concept of idiom, while the word 'idiom' itself may be used to refer to various things.

Perhaps, František Čermak has provided the best description of an idiom, saying that ‘in idioms, nothing is what it seems to be’ (Čermak, 2010: 179). To put this observation in other words, a simple definition of idiom could be ‘a set expression of two or more syntactically related words the meaning of which is not the sum of its compositional elements’ (Piet van Sterkenburg, 2003: 402). David Crystal defines the idiom as ‘a sequence of words which is semantically and often syntactically restricted’ (Crystal, 2008: 236). These definitions include two properties of idiom that usually appear in many other definitions of idioms: firstly, that the sum of the meanings of its parts is not equal to the whole meaning of idiom (this feature also is termed as non-compositionality); secondly, idiom may have some syntactic restrictions that have to be observed when using it.

However, to apply this definition to particular cases is not as easy as it may seem. The semantic criterion (non-compositionality) is a feature of various phraseological units, and it is rather a matter of the degree of non-compositionality of a phrase that classifies it as an idiom or non-idiom (Granger and Paquot, 2008: 31). Therefore, one can agree with Veisbergs who observes that ‘although there is a general feeling of what an idiom is, when it comes to individual cases the varied views often confuse’ (Veisbergs, 1999: 4). Sometimes it is easier to say what an idiom is not: for example, a metaphor or collocation differ from idiom. At the same time, what are the distinguishing features of a phraseological unit which clearly signal that it is an idiom?

According to Mel’čuk, idioms, or also called ‘full phrasemes’, can be described as expressions A+B, which have signified ‘C’, that is neither ‘A’ nor ‘B’ (Mel’čuk, 1998: 29). This brings us back to the definitions of idiom by Crystal and Sterkenburg. However, even though this gives us some broad understanding of idioms, there is a need to explain this concept further, as it seems to overlap with some other phraseological units. What is and what is not an idiom depends on how one approaches this concept; also, the national scholarly traditions have their impact. Therefore, the following subchapters will focus on various approaches to phraseology.

### **1.3 Different approaches to phraseology**

Phraseology deals with a very interesting and rich part of language and it is no wonder that there are scholars representing different branches of linguistics who are interested in it. Each approach has its own priorities to study: semanticists are interested in the meaning, psycholinguists are concerned with the processing of phraseological units, while syntacticians

examine the structure of phraseological units (Moon, 1998: 10). Therefore, each researcher has to understand which aspect of phraseological units is of the scholarly interest, in order not to get lost in the maze of terms and typologies of phraseology.

Granger and Paquot (2008: 28-29) distinguish two main approaches to phraseology: the traditional linguistic top-down approach and the recent corpus-driven bottom-up approach. Although they admit that these two approaches still stand quite apart, these authors believe that the linguists of each approach could benefit from one another. Therefore, Granger and Paquot attempt to reconcile these two approaches to phraseology. In traditional (or phraseological) approach, the scholars work on defining criteria to distinguish different types of phraseological units and establish terminology and classification. Corpus-driven (also called frequency-based or distributional) approach is not as much concerned about typology and definitions; the analysis of corpus has expanded the boundaries of phraseology, including new phraseological units which previously were not viewed as part of phraseology.

Thus, the combination of these two approaches seems to be very valuable for the lexicographer, as, on the one hand, theoretical insights can help to define and identify the phraseological units (and idioms among them) to be included in the dictionary; on the other hand, data on frequency can help to choose which of them to include in the dictionary to make sure they represent the language and are not so out-of-date and infrequent that they are not used at all and just take up the already limited space in a dictionary. Using the classification of Burger (1998) and integrating the aspects of the corpus-based approach, Granger and Paquot define idioms as ‘phrasemes that are constructed around verbal nucleus (..) characterized by their semantic non-compositionality, which can be the result of metaphorical process’ (Granger and Paquot, 2008: 43). Other features of idioms which they mention are ‘lack of flexibility and marked syntax’ (Granger and Paquot, 2008: 43).

As the differences in the theoretical approaches to idioms are caused by the national scholarly traditions as well, it is worth examining how idioms are understood in the Russian phraseology, since it has influenced phraseology a lot.

The Russian theoretical approach to phraseology has had a major impact on phraseology in other countries; as Cowie observes, ‘the flow of ideas in phraseology since the late 1960s has been almost entirely from East to West’ (Cowie, 1998: 209). According to Cowie, the Russian theory of phraseology is probably the most influential one, especially in the design and compilation of dictionaries (Cowie, 1998: 2). The Russian linguist Vinogradov has influenced the understanding of idiom a lot, and Laua describes him as the founder of phraseology in the Russian linguistics (Laua, 1992: 8). Vinogradov (1986: 27-33)

uses the term 'phraseological unit' ('фразеологическая единица') as a basic unit to refer to a string of words ('словосочетание') with a non-motivated use. He divides phraseological units in three categories (Cowie's translation of Vinogradov's terms in English is used, 1998: 214-215). The first category is the phraseological fusion/idiom ('фразеологическое сращение'), which is 'absolutely undividable', and the meaning of the whole unit is completely independent from the meaning of its constituting elements. Phraseological fusion/idiom is conditioned and unmotivated from the point of view of the contemporary language norms. Moreover, a historical explanation on the meaning is needed to understand why such an expression is being used (Vinogradov, 1986: 28-29). Cowie calls this a common approach to idioms in Britain and the USA (Cowie, 1998: 214).

The second category is the phraseological unity ('фразеологическое единство'). It is a unit in which at least one of the constituting elements gives some hint on the motivation of the whole meaning of phraseological unit. The meaning of the whole phraseological unity is connected with the meaning of its inner figurative core. Contrary to the previous category, there can be cases when the constituting elements can be separated or replaced with synonyms, as not all of the phraseological unities are 'a frozen mass of inseparable elements' (Vinogradov, 1986: 30).

The third category is the phraseological combination ('фразеологическое сочетание'), which is analytical, and it allows replacement of its constituting elements with synonyms. Also, the meaning of the phraseological combination can be identified (Vinogradov, 1986: 32-33). Laua claims that despite the efforts of Vinogradov to describe this group (as it constitutes the biggest part of phraseological units), this is the most problematic and most disputed group in his classification (Laua, 1992: 11).

Research on the Latvian phraseology has been influenced by the Russian phraseology and the works of Vinogradov as well. The first linguist to research the Latvian phraseology was Ozols, who used Vinogradov's theory as a basis to develop his own theory (Laua, 1992: 17-18).

Like Mel'čuk, Ozols divides between free and unfree collocations ('brīvas un nebrīvas vārdkopas'). Unfree collocations are inseparable and stable, their use is seemingly non-motivated, and, contrary to free collocations, the meaning of unfree collocations is not the sum of the meanings of its lexical words. Therefore, the task of phraseology is to examine unfree collocations (Ozols, 1959: 203).

A Latvian phraseologist Laua has researched phraseological units a lot and has taken part in the compilation of several dictionaries of phraseology. According to her, in the Latvian

language, phraseologisms are divided in two subcategories: idioms ('idiomas') and phrasemes ('frazēmas') (Laua, 1992: 24). To compare this classification with that of Vinogradov's, idioms correspond to phraseological fusions, as none of their component words keep their meaning. Phrasemes correspond to phraseological combinations, as some of its component words retain their meaning. It is only a brief review of idioms as understood in the Russian (and Latvian tradition), however, it shows the place of idioms among other phraseological units.

#### **1.4 Idioms and dictionaries**

Although idioms have been researched a lot, Heming Yong and Jing Peng claim that 'from the lexicographic perspective, the study of idioms is extremely limited' (Yong and Peng, 2007: 175). According to Gouws, the lexicographers have 'word-bias' in compiling process, which means that the compilers tend to focus exclusively on the words as the units to be represented in macrostructure of the dictionary, and the multiword combinations that consist of more than one word (which is the case of idioms as well) are overlooked (Gouws, 2003: 39). Gouws criticizes this biased approach, saying that:

These multiword combinations function as fully-fledged lexical items and a dictionary that endeavours to reflect the lexicon of a given language should not fail to make provision for their inclusion and treatment (Gouws, 2010: 51).

When it comes to what should be considered as an idiom in the process of dictionary making, the typologies designed by the lexicographers are worth considering, as they deal with real life cases of classifying different set expressions to be included in the dictionary. Therefore, some classifications related to idioms and dictionaries are discussed.

The first classification is designed by Atkins and Rundell. First of all, it is has to be mentioned what they advise to include in the dictionary. The scholars define the lexical item as 'any word, abbreviation, partial word, or phrase which can figure in a dictionary (often as the headword of an entry) as the 'target' of some form of lexicographical description, most commonly a definition or a translation' (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 163). A chart with the classification of lexical items is provided, and each of lexical items is explained and exemplified in turn. The lexicographer has to take into account that people use not only words, but phrases as well. Atkins and Rundell consider this as well, and one of the four subtypes (the rest of them are simple words, abbreviations, and partial words) to be included in the dictionary, according to their approach, is MWEs.

Their classification of MWEs is the following (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 164):

Multiword expressions:

- 1) Fixed & semi-fixed phrases (phrasal idioms; compounds; and phrasal verbs);
- 2) Support verb constructions.

Even though the aim of the scholars is to make the picture as clear as possible, and the arguments they provide are consistent with one another and some examples are provided to support them, there are some things in this classification that are not explained well enough and cause confusion.

To start with, this classification gives a very clear understanding of the place of phrasal idioms. However, as the authors start to discuss their classification in detail and give examples, their approach questions the clearness of their arguments and the use of terms. At first, many types of fixed and semi-fixed phrases are listed, such as transparent collocations, fixed phrases, similes, catch phrases, quotes, proverbs, quotations, greetings, and phatic phrases, which are described as ‘important and worth recording during the analysis process of dictionary writing’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 167). However, only transparent collocations are defined (these are phrases that seem to have no idiomatic meaning, although they are frequent in corpus). Other types of these fixed and semi-fixed phrases are explained only with the help of few examples, and no definition or description is given for them. Some types of the phrases do not require it – presumably, one can tell what a greeting is and what a quotation is, and there should not be trouble with mixing them with idioms. However, with other types of these fixed and semi-fixed phrases the borderline between them and idioms is not so clear, and the examples these scholars provide do not help to understand the difference completely.

Then Atkins and Rundell start to discuss something they term ‘other phrasal idioms’ that seems to be defined as something that does not belong to the types of phrases they mention before. Therefore, these authors do not give a full account of other types of phrases that are not idioms; as a result, it is quite hard to understand what exactly should not be mistaken for an idiom. Moreover, some of the examples of fixed and semi-fixed phrases could be considered as phrasal idioms, as they seem to have the characteristics of them. For example, the authors give a phrase *horses for courses* as an example of a catch phrase; later on, when they discuss phrasal idioms, they give such examples of idioms as *hit or miss*, *step and jump*, and *chicken and egg*. The difference between the catch phrases and idioms is not totally clear, as *horses for courses* might as well be considered as an idiom (and some other sources indeed consider it as an idiom). Therefore, these examples alone are not enough to distinguish among different types of fixed and semi-fixed phrases.

To be true, the authors admit that it is almost ‘impossible’ to be ‘wholly consistent’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 168) but it would be good if they provided more explanation to validate their arguments. Atkins and Rundell presuppose that other types of fixed and semi-fixed phrases, such as proverbs, similes etc., should not be considered as idioms, but this view on idioms is not explained in detail. Therefore, this classification needs more description to draw clear boundaries between idioms and other types of MWEs.

The second classification is provided by Yong and Peng (2007). Contrary to Atkins and Rundell, these scholars do not put idioms in a broader classification of other lexical items which can be included in the dictionary. Rather, their main focus is idioms that are classified as follows:

1. Phrasal idioms – fixed combinations (e.g. verb+noun, preposition+noun) that do not display the characteristics of sentences, such as subject-verb agreement or verb inflections.
2. Sentence idioms – complete sentences (*Fine feathers make fine birds*) or conventionalized elliptical sentences (*no pain, no gain*) (Yong and Peng, 2007: 177).

It is obvious, that these authors presuppose that sentence idioms is a separate type of idioms – it is a rather unusual approach, as other authors do not consider these sentence idioms as a type of idioms; if we return to the classification by Atkins and Rundell, it is clear that sentence idioms are considered as a type of fixed and semi-fixed phrases, such as proverbs. Also, further Yong and Peng give examples of sentence idioms that resemble sayings, proverbs, or even quotations. Due to this understanding of idiom, their approach differs from that of Atkins and Rundell. Also, phrasal verbs, which in typology of Yong and Peng are considered as idioms, are not viewed as idioms in this research. Rather, this research treats phrasal verbs as another type of fixed and semi-fixed phrases, following the typology of Atkins and Rundell who define phrasal verb as ‘a multiword expression consisting of a verb plus one or more particle(s)’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 171).

Another approach how to classify idioms and other phraseological and multiword expressions is offered by Moon (1998), who has designed a typology of FEIs based on the corpus of contemporary English. Her typology is selected for discussion because this scholar deals with corpus data; therefore, Moon’s insights are valuable for the lexicographer. Moon notes that she has designed her own typology, as the typologies of other authors did not account adequately for the data she had studied (Moon, 1998: 19).

According to Moon, there are three macrocategories of FEIs, depending on type of problems each expression has: anomalous collocations (problematic in lexicogrammatic terms), formulae (problematic on pragmatic terms), and metaphors (problematic on semantic

terms) (Moon, 1998: 19-22). The first two macrocategories are not of interest in this research, therefore, only metaphors are discussed in detail.

Depending on the degree of transparency, Moon divides metaphors in transparent, semi-transparent, and opaque metaphors. According to Moon, such classification is ‘subjective’, and one should view this categorization as a continuum, not as discrete categories (Moon, 1998: 22). Therefore, at one end there are opaque metaphors (=pure idioms), where the interpretation of the meaning of the expression is almost impossible if there is no knowledge on the historical origin of the expression. Moon uses *red herring* and *shoot the breeze* as examples of pure idioms (Moon, 1998: 23).

Semi-transparent metaphors require some knowledge to understand their meaning. These expressions allow two or even more interpretations; therefore, the user may understand them incorrectly. For example, *not be playing with a full deck* means stupidity, but someone might interpret it as dishonesty (Moon, 1998: 22-23).

Transparent metaphors do not require special knowledge to be interpreted correctly. Their image is clear enough so the language users most probably will have no trouble understanding them. Some examples of transparent metaphors are *behind someone’s back*, *pack one’s bags*, and *breathe life into something* (Moon, 1998: 22). However, at the same time Moon draws attention to the fact that there often are FEIs which cannot be put under single category, as they have features of two different types of FEIs. This is why Moon in her research has assigned two or even three classifications for one FEI (Moon, 1998: 23-24).

These are just three of the many classifications which are related to the lexicographical treatment of idioms, and obviously, the place of idioms in various classifications and their relations to other categories differ.

There is a continuum between what an idiom is and what it is not. This makes it hard for the lexicographers to draw precise lines, as ‘idioms are highly complex’ (Moon, 1986: 115). Moon claims that one cannot distinguish a clear set of idioms; as for the lexicographers, it is worth considering what is included in dictionaries as idioms, and whether the items included are really representative, useful and are not out of date or ‘antiqued’ (Moon, 1986: 115). Obviously, to do so, there is a need for both the corpus studies and the theoretical studies of idioms – in order to know what to look for when searching for idioms and where and how to find them.

## 1.5 Proverbs, compounds, and routine formulae

For the lexicographers, it is important to find out whether proverbs should be regarded as a type of phraseological unit. Firstly, it is a matter of the space in the dictionary, secondly, it is a question of a consistent approach – if a decision is made not to consider them as belonging to phraseology, proverbs should not be included in general monolingual or bilingual dictionaries (the dictionaries of proverbs is a matter of another discussion). However, in the context of this research, where idioms are the main focus, another question arises: whether proverbs should be regarded as idioms?

To answer the first question on whether proverbs fall under the scope of phraseology, it has to be noted that there exists another field in linguistics called paremiology which studies proverbs. Charles Clay Doyle makes a clear distinction between paremiology and phraseology, pointing out to the long history of paremiology, which dates back into antiquity, as opposed to phraseology which is a relatively new field of study (Doyle, 2007: 181). Therefore, in this research, proverbs are not regarded as belonging to other phraseological units.

It might seem that this answers the second question, namely, whether proverbs should be regarded as a type of idioms. However, the typologies of lexicographers which are discussed above reflect different views on proverbs.

Yong and Peng distinguish ‘sentence idioms’ as a subtype of idioms, and they place proverbs under this subcategory. Dobrovol’skij (2006: 515) mentions ‘sentence idioms’, but this scholar draws a clear line between proverbs and idioms with sentence structure (which thus might look similar to proverbs). Yong and Peng do not differentiate between these two concepts and consider them all as sentence idioms. Moon places proverbs under the category of formulae, therefore, according to her, proverbs should not be considered as idioms. Moon also admits problems of dual classification that exists when trying to put individual items under single category (Moon, 1998: 22-23), which, consequently, has some impact on proverb-idiom issue as well. Atkins and Rundell distinguish between phrasal idioms and proverbs, so in their approach, idioms and proverbs should not be treated as the same phenomenon. Svensén also does not think that proverbs belong to idioms; rather, they are considered as a different type of fixed expressions (Svensén, 2009: 192).

This short review of the understanding of several scholars of this issue reveals that proverbs should not be labelled as idioms (or phraseological units) when compiling a dictionary. Proverbs and idioms have their own characteristic features which affect their form

(or fixedness) and meaning; therefore, idioms and proverbs have their own specific problems of their lexicographical treatment. In this research, the attention is paid to idioms and not to proverbs.

Compounds may be mistaken for idioms, since they can have figurative meaning. Crystal defines compound as ‘a linguistic unit which is composed of elements that function independently in other circumstances’ (2008: 96). Compounds are not of interest for this particular research, so they will not be discussed in detail. However, a good account of compounds is provided by Atkins and Rundell (2008: 169-171), which can be applied to distinguish between compounds and idioms.

Another fixed word combination which may be mistaken for an idiom, is a routine formula. Svensén defines routine formulae as ‘stereotyped word combinations’ which can appear in the form of a short sentence, clause, or word combination (or even just a single word) and which are used in ‘frequently occurring communication situations’ (Svensén, 2009: 191-192). In this research, routine formulae are not considered as idioms.

To sum up, the idiom can be defined as a type of phraseological unit with an institutionalized meaning which is not equal to the sum of the meanings of its lexical words. Although it consists of at least two words, it should be seen as one unit in terms of its semantics and syntax. As it might be hard to decide how to classify individual cases, the definition of idiom should list its most important properties.

A working definition of idiom to be applied in this research is the following: the idiom is a multiword expression (consisting of at least two words), in which at least one of the components has a figurative meaning; thus, the meaning of the whole expression is not equal to the sum of the meaning of its components. The idiom has a fixed form, but some variations in form are possible, that do not change its meaning completely. In the context of this research, phrasal verbs (phrasal idioms), compounds, proverbs, sayings, routine formulae or any other fixed expressions with no idiomatic meaning are not viewed as idioms.

It is obvious that idioms are not easy to understand and use, especially for the non-native speakers. A good dictionary should help the user to cope with them. Therefore, the next chapter will focus on idioms and different issues related to their representation in general dictionaries.

## **2 Treatment of Idioms in General Dictionaries**

In the context of this research, general dictionaries can be defined according to Gouws as ‘monolingual and bilingual dictionaries with the general lexicon of a given language or a pair of given languages’ (Gouws, 2010: 53). The focus of this research is general bilingual dictionaries. Bilingual dictionaries have to deal with the issue of equivalence of idioms. Also, the problems that arise when including idioms in a monolingual dictionary differ from the ones encountered in a bilingual dictionary.

In the previous chapter, several typical features of idioms were stated. It is important not only to discuss them to get a better understanding of the subject of the study, but also to understand how these properties pose challenges to the lexicographers in the process of compilation of general dictionary. Veisbergs (1999: 5), who is a practicing lexicographer and the author of several English-Latvian dictionaries, lists three properties of idioms, and from each of them there follows a particular question about their treatment in a bilingual dictionary:

1. ‘An idiom consists of at least two components (words) (Veisbergs, 1999: 5)’ – where the lexicographer has to place the idiom?
2. ‘at least one component of the idiom, or all of it, is used with a figurative meaning (Veisbergs, 1999: 5)’ – how can the lexicographer explain its meaning?
3. ‘an idiom is a relatively stable formation (relative, because it undergoes both diachronic change, and can be modified synchronically (Veisbergs, 1999: 5)’ – which variation of the idiom the lexicographer has to include in the dictionary?

In the following subchapters, these features of the idiom are discussed, as each of them refers to the problem on what to include in the dictionary, where exactly, and how to explain the meaning of idioms to the user.

### **2.1 Form of idioms**

Once the lexicographer has decided what an idiom is, there is the next task – which of the many variations some idioms have should be entered in the dictionary as the most basic and common one? It is a question on fixedness of idioms. The relative fixedness of idioms is one of the most disputed issues. Indeed, sometimes idioms are not as ‘dead’, ‘frozen’ or ‘fossilized’ as they are claimed to be. Moreover, studies show that idioms and other fixed expressions vary in many languages (Moon, 1998: 120). Of course, it is important to understand the difference between institutionalized (and widely used) variations, and

‘exploitations’ (Moon, 1998: 170), which is an intentional variation for stylistic effect, for example, in journalism, which also may become institutionalized after some time.

Yong and Peng offer to look at MWEs in terms of substitutability of their components. When dealing with a potential idiom, the lexicographer has to consider its degree of substitutability. Depending on a degree of substitutability, Yong and Peng (2007: 178-180) propose three ways of treatment:

1. Combinations of strong substitutability have to be treated as open combinations (similar to Mel’čuk’s free phrases), and should not be presented as idioms.
2. Combinations of no substitutability are ‘pure’ idioms, and the authors claim these are the expressions that cause no trouble to the lexicographers, as they obviously are idioms, or ‘pure idioms’.
3. Combinations of limited substitutability are ‘borderline’ combinations, when the lexicographer has to decide whether to treat them as idioms or not. Yong and Peng note that consistency in treating them throughout the dictionary is very important. Also, they suggest that instead of representing them as idioms they can be explained or reflected in examples to save space.

This reveals that the lexicographer cannot rely on fixedness of idioms. After the studies of corpora and texts, Moon has come to a conclusion that idioms ‘often do not have fixed forms, and are formally unstable’ (Moon, 1996: 245). Her studies show, that approximately 40% of different categories of fixed expressions (idioms included) regularly vary in form, or, in other words, they have ‘canonical’ variations (Moon, 1996: 246). Despite possible variations, Moon also notes that ‘in extreme cases there still remains some kind of fixedness, symmetry, or integrity’ (Moon, 1998: 122). So it seems that the lexicographer should be able to find one basic form to enter in the dictionary. It also looks that the decision taken by the lexicographer might be subjective. Therefore, an overview of possible variations is useful to understand the scope of this problem. The division of phrases by their degree of substitutability, as proposed by Yong and Peng (2007), is a good starting point for the lexicographer. However, as variations may be very different, it is useful to examine a corpus-based division of different possible variations of phrases, as proposed by Moon (1996; 1998).

The scope of variations of fixed phrases and expressions were revealed only by the studies of large corpora. Moon (1998) gives a very detailed, corpus-based account on variations of FEIs: very broadly, one can distinguish between lexical and systematic variations.

Lexical variation is variation of individual words within FEIs. Moon lists thirteen subtypes of lexical variation. According to her studies, variation of verb is the most common. Although sometimes it does not affect the meaning of the idiom, in other cases there might be differences in focus or degree, for example, *play/keep one's cards close to one's chest* (Moon, 1998: 25). Variation of noun is almost as common as variation of verb, and it concerns synonyms, singular and plural forms, male and female equivalents – however, the replaced nouns might not be synonyms at all, such as *burn one's boats/bridges* (Moon, 1998: 127). Other types of lexical variations that Moon (1998: 128-138, examples provided by Moon) lists are:

- a) adjective and modifier variation - *hard/close/hot on the heels of someone/something*;
- b) particle variation - *out of thin air* and *from thin air*;
- c) conjunction variation - *when/while cat's away, the mice will play*;
- d) specificity and amplification - differences due to some inserted or suppressed material in FEIs – *put flesh (and bone) on something*;
- e) truncation – reduced forms of proverbs and sayings – *make hay (while the sun shines)*;
- f) reversals – *you can't eat your cake and have it* and *you can't have your cake and eat it*;
- g) register variation - differences in the degree of formality – *beat one's breast* (more formal) and *beat one's chest*; also, a colloquial presentation of one variation – *knock someone dead* (more formal) and *knock 'em dead*;
- h) variations between British English and American English – these include variations of verb, noun or noun modifier, cultural and lexical distinctions - *have green fingers* (BrE) and *have a green thumb* (AmE);
- i) spelling, homophonous, and erroneous variations – these include American and English spelling variations, as well as spelling variations due to historical or etymological developments, deviations of spelling – *with flying colors/colours* and *dull as a ditchwasher/dishwasher*;
- j) calques and non-naturalized FEIs – these are FEIs from Latin and French languages that are used in English alongside their translations and calques - *cri de coeur* and *a cry from the heart*;
- k) false variations – pairs of FEIs that seem to be variations of one another, but actually have totally different meanings – *get one's hands dirty* (to get involved) and *have dirty hands* (be guilty).

In sum, there are different types of lexical variations, and decisions on their inclusion in the dictionary have to be made as the space in the printed dictionary is limited. Also, the last type of lexical variation – the false variations – may cause some problems to the non-native speaker; therefore, some indications in the dictionary should be provided to show the differences in the meaning.

Systemic variations are both lexical and syntactic, and they concern pairs of clusters of FEIs with deeper grammatical systems and relationships of concepts (Moon, 1998: 139). They are divided as follows (Moon, 1998: 139-145, examples provided by Moon):

- a) notions of possession – variation of verbs ‘have’, ‘get’, ‘give’, ‘take’ and other verbs, as well as prepositions ‘with’ and ‘without’ – *get/keep/have one’s eye in, stick one’s nose in the air* and *with one’s nose in the air*;
- b) causative and resultative structures – according to Moon (1998: 140), ‘one variation denotes a state, process, or action, and another variation explicitly mentions the cause or result of the state, process, or action’ – *one’s blood boils* and *make someone’s blood boil*;
- c) aspect – when one variation is continuative – *cross one’s fingers* and *keep one’s fingers crossed*;
- d) reciprocity – reciprocal structures of FEIs – *show one’s true colours, reveal one’s true colours*, and *see someone in someone’s true colours*;
- e) other case relationships – those FEIs that involve beneficiaries and have ditransitive or prepositional structures – *promise someone the earth* and *promise the earth to someone*;
- f) delexical structures – according to Moon (1998: 145), these are the cases when ‘a verb in one variation corresponds to a cognate noun or adjective and (often) delexicalized or support verb in the other variation’ – *feel something in one’s bones* and *have a feeling in one’s bones*.

To conclude, systemic variations are important to consider, as the user has to know that the differences in the wording of an idiom involve differences in its use and meaning. Probably, different systemic variations can be reflected in examples (if it is necessary) in order to save space.

Another issue is the idiom schema, when FEIs have a common metaphor, but not a fixed structure (Moon, 1998: 163). Idiom schemas may cause many difficulties when a decision has to be made which of the variations has to be included in the dictionary. One example to consider is *wash/air your dirty laundry/linen in public; do your dirty washing in*

*public; dirty washing/linen/laundry; wash/air your (dirty) laundry/linen (in public)* (Moon, 1996: 252) which Moon uses to exemplify the difficulty. According to Moon, ‘from a lexicographic viewpoint, they are simply nightmares’ (1996: 252). Another issue to deal with are antonymous and parallel FIEs, where different variations also mean different semantic contrasts, such as *swim with the tide/swim against the tide* (Moon, 1998: 156).

To conclude, the search of the canonical form – the most basic form to enter in the dictionary as defined by Atkins and Rundell (2008: 362) – of an idiom is a complicated task, and sometimes even corpus cannot help to find the most typical variation. Nevertheless, these days corpus evidence is taken into account to decide which variation has to be included in the dictionary; however, it is not practised in the English-Latvian lexicography. These different variations show that the changes in the structure or lexical words of an idiom may have an important effect on its meaning and its use. Therefore, the lexicographer has to consider the existing variations to decide which of them are the most typical in a given language, and how to make sure the user will understand the slight (but sometimes very important) differences.

## 2.2 Location of idioms

Words usually are not hard to find in the dictionary. As Jon Hilmar Jonsson observes, they are treated as the basic unit of dictionary (‘word-bias’ mentioned by Gouws); therefore, the work of the lexicographer is mainly describing the meaning of individual words and arranging them in an appropriate order (Jonsson, 2009: 258). However, not only single words can be given the headword status: according to Atkins and Rundell (2008: 164), there are four types of lexical items that can be entered as headword/lemma<sup>2</sup>: simple words, abbreviations, partial words, and MWEs (according to the scholars, idioms belong to the last type of lexical items).

Alphabetical order is a common practice, and if the user knows the alphabet (and the right spelling), it should not be difficult to find the word needed. When the user wants to find an idiom or any other expression consisting of more than one word, there may be difficulties, as alphabetical order is not of much help when trying to access the right (multiword) expression. Alphabetical order is a key to an easy and understandable access to one word in macrostructure of a dictionary; however, it may not be as handy when the user has to find an idiom consisting of several words, which, moreover, can be placed somewhere in the microstructure of the entry. Clearly, one idiom should not be entered in two (or more) entries,

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<sup>2</sup> Due to differences in the terminology used by various authors, some terms are used interchangeably with no difference in meaning. In this research, words ‘lemma’ and ‘headword’ are used with the same meaning, while ‘headword’ is preferred; similarly, ‘sublemma’ and ‘secondary headword’ is used interchangeably, while the latter term is preferred to the first one.

as the printed dictionaries have to save space. Another option – idiom as a headword - is not the best solution as well. In the previous subchapter, variations of idioms were discussed: what if the user has only one particular variation in mind, while the dictionary has included another one (and they may start with a different word)? To sum up, the users may feel quite helpless when using a general purpose (either monolingual or bilingual) dictionary to search for idioms. Even worse, the users might not know that these are idioms they are looking for. Therefore, as idiom is a MWE, it may be difficult to find it in the dictionary, because the usual searching routes may not be effective. There is no use of idioms compiled in the dictionary if the users are not able to find them. So a user-friendly approach should be developed to guide the users to the idioms they need.

There is no wonder why Yong and Peng claim that location is one of the two fundamental problems that idioms cause to the lexicographer (translation being the other one, and it is considered in the next subchapter) (Yong and Peng, 2007: 212). No uniform way has been developed for the representation of idioms in the dictionary entry; rather, the lexicographer can choose among several options of their treatment.

Before considering various ways of locating idiom in the dictionary, it is useful to look at the structure of the entry – or at the microstructure of the dictionary. The division of different parts of the entry by Svensén (2009) is discussed. First of all, Svensén distinguishes between several parts of a typical entry: lemma section, formal section, semantic-pragmatic section (this section exists if the understanding of the headword and its definition does not depend on the context; if the headword cannot be understood out of the context, this section is excluded from the entry (Svensén, 2009: 234)), and contextual section.

The lemma section, of course, contains headword, and, as Atkins and Rundell observe, idioms usually are not given the headword status and do not appear in the lemma section (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 181). To find an idiom, the lemma section functions as an indicator. The formal section, according to Svensén, contains information about pronunciation, morphology and part-of-speech membership (2009: 346). In bilingual dictionaries, the semantic-pragmatic section includes semantically equal equivalents and different shades of meaning that may be indicated with the help of labels, glosses and information about the context of use (Svensén, 2009: 346-347). These two sections, apparently, are not of much interest for the users who try to find a specific idiom. Most probably they would be interested in the last section of the entry which is called the contextual section. In bilingual dictionaries, the contextual section usually includes ‘constructions, collocations and idioms presented as translated examples’ (Svensén, 2009:

347). This is where the users should try to find the idiom they need. However, it can be presented in various ways.

Gouws describes several ways how general dictionaries treat MWEs, idioms among them (Gouws, 2010: 53-55). As it is mentioned above, the common practice is to include MWEs within the entry of some headword. The headword (found in the lemma section) is used as a reduced guiding element of a MWE, as the expression itself does not have the status of headword. Instead, it is entered in the sub-entry of headword, being represented in the microstructure of the entry of the headword. To use Svensén's terminology, the expression (or idiom) is placed in the contextual section of the entry. According to Atkins and Rundell (2008), there are two options the lexicographer may choose if this approach is applied. The scholars point out that a dictionary may differentiate between various types of MWEs and group them in separate blocks (for example, idioms and phrasal verbs can be grouped separately), or it may have no differentiation between various types of MWEs (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 254). As Svensén notes, the lexicographer has to pay attention to the inner access structure of the entry, and dictionaries should distinguish between constructions, idioms and collocations to help the user (Svensén, 2009: 348).

Also, MWEs may have a special article slot. For example, all the phrases in which there is the particular headword are listed at the end of the entry. These MWEs are arranged alphabetically, depending on the words with which the headword combines and constitutes a fixed phrase (Gouws, 2010: 53-54). For example, to find the idiom *to spill blood*, the guiding element (headword) to this idiom would be the word **spill**, as found in the lemma section, and the idioms that contain this word are listed alphabetically. For example, for the idioms *spill the beans*, *spill blood*, and *spill your guts*, the words *beans*, *blood*, and *guts* could function as ordering words to help the users.

Lastly, in bilingual dictionaries, fixed expressions can be entered in entry with no special marking that indicates their status of a MWE. This is the case described by Gouws (2010: 55) as 'primitive microstructure', since it provides no systematic way for the users to find the necessary expression or idiom in the dictionary.

Therefore, idioms, most probably, are found in the contextual section of the entry, and various approaches may be used to represent them.

It does not mean that the lemma section may be the only guiding element for the user in the search of a particular idiom. Another option described (and advised) by Gouws is to list all MWEs in 'an integrated outer text' (Gouws, 2010: 53), which usually is found in the back matter section of the dictionary. Expressions form their own macrostructure with a specific

way of access to them. The user who is familiar with this searching system explained in the front matter of the dictionary can easily find the necessary idiom. This is rather an exception of a common practice of treatment of idioms, because not many dictionaries list idioms at the back matter.

It is not an easy task to determine which way of treating idioms in general dictionaries is the best one. The accessibility of idioms is in the hands of the users as well – they can either follow the instructions that explain how to use the dictionary, or ignore them. There are some general guidelines for the lexicographer to follow, for example, Yong and Peng advise to ‘treat them as closely together as possible and enter them as subentries arranged in alphabetic order’ (Yong and Peng, 2007: 212), which seems to be a common practice of treating idioms in dictionaries. Atkins and Rundell note that this is a normal practice to put idioms in the entry of one of their lexical words (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 181), thus making them ‘secondary headwords’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 253). However, even when the user knows or assumes that the idioms have to be found in the contextual section of the entry, there still exist different ways of presenting idioms. Gouws (2010) already described few of them, but, according to Svensén (2009), there might be some more possible ways of treatment of idioms.

Svensén describes several ways how idioms can be treated in the entry. One possibility is so-called integrated microstructure, where each idiom is assigned to an individual sense of the headword (Svensén, 2009: 353). However, Svensén also points out that both the compilers and the users of the dictionary may have trouble understanding which of the ‘normal’ senses of word is used in the idiom (2009: 357), therefore, this approach is not advisable for idioms. Unintegrated microstructure does not distinguish between individual senses of the word, but brings all the word combinations that contain the headword (such as idioms, phrases, etc.) in one syntagmatic block at the end of the entry (Svensén, 2009: 354). The third solution is some kind of middle way between these two approaches: all idioms are located in a syntagmatic block at the end of the entry; however, the polysemy structure of headword is copied on the block, so idioms have some connection to the individual, numbered senses of headword (Svensén, 2009: 355). Another option is partially integrated microstructure, where idioms to which it is hard to assign specific senses, are brought together in a syntagmatic block at the end of the entry with a heading such as ‘phrases’ or ‘phraseology’ (Svensén, 2009: 356). Svensén notes that this approach does not differ too much from integrated microstructure, because it just offers a ‘safer’ description of a language. From the user’s point of view, partially integrated microstructure may seem confusing, as the user might not be sure whether

the idiom is located at the syntagmatic block, or at the individual senses of the word. As it may be quite problematic to assign every particular idiom to a specific word sense, Svensén proposes to put them separately not only from the polysemy structure, but from the syntagmatic block as well, thus giving them a special idiom section; another option the scholar suggests is to give each idiom its own numbered sense (Svensén, 2009: 357-358). In this case, the compilers do not have to decide which sense of the word is used in the idiom, and the users do not have to search through the list of the headword, trying to understand which sense of the word is used in the particular idiom.

However, in Svensén's approach, idioms should still be entered at the level of microstructure. Gouws (2010), who believes in the independent status of idioms, advises an approach that may seem similar to that of Svensén's, but that differs very importantly because of the level at which idioms are treated – thus Gouws (2010) tries to fight the existing 'word-bias' that the lexicographers have in the compilation process and show that idioms have the status of independent lexical items.

Gouws believes that fixed expressions/idioms have to be entered at the level of macrostructure: they have to be given a clearly identifiable macrostructural slot, where fixed expressions are lemmatised entries. As there still is a need for a headword as a guiding element to these slots of expressions, they should be regarded as sublemmata (secondary headwords); however, this way expressions are given 'much more salient lexicographic presence' (Gouws, 2010: 55-56). Gouws terms this way of treatment as second level nesting. Therefore, a presentation of idioms in this way looks like a text block attached to a headword that functions as a guiding element, and that might include an infinite number of expressions. According to the author, the expressions are simply taken out of the microstructure and placed in the macrostructure, thus alphabetical order is not affected. This way it is easier to access the idioms, and it could be improved by giving the block some indicator, such as **IDIOM** (Gouws, 2010: 56).

Yong and Peng (2007: 212), as well as Atkins and Rundell (2008: 254) mention one more option – when idioms are treated just like other lexical items and are entered in the macrostructure according to alphabetical order; however, as it is mentioned at the beginning of the subchapter, this may not be the best solution. Even though idioms should be considered as independent lexical items and their status of secondary headwords lowers their importance, Svensén (2009: 347) notes, that their inclusion in macrostructure is too problematic. Instead, the lexicographers enter them at the level of microstructure, while trying to find some way of showing their independent status (Svensén, 2009: 347). Even though idioms are not entered as

headwords, they have to be noticeable in the entry: Svensén argues, that they have to ‘be given a high degree of typographical prominence’, which means they should be printed in semi-bold font (Svensén, 2009: 204).

To sum up, there may be several ways how to enter idioms in the dictionary, but one of the constituent words of the idiom still has to be the guide to the whole expression. Consequently, this leads to the next question – under which entry of its many (as idiom consists of more than one) lexical words the idiom should be placed, in other words, how to determine which word of the idiom is the one that could represent the whole expression and could be the access point for the users in their search of the idiom?

Alenka Vrbinc and Marjeta Vrbinc have examined how several monolingual English dictionaries treat idioms. Some dictionaries include idioms in the entry of their first lexical (content) word, or in the entry of the first noun they contain. However, the first content word may not be fixed; therefore, there is a need for cross-references to guide the user to the right entry (Vrbinc and Vrbinc, 2011: 251). The authors approve of a feature of *The Idiom Finder of Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (3<sup>rd</sup> edition). *The Idiom Finder* is located in the back matter, and it lists all long idioms (those containing three or more words) under each lexical word of the idiom. Each idiom is entered in several places, and the users can easily find where exactly in the dictionary it can be found (Vrbinc and Vrbinc, 2011: 251-252). Svensén (2009: 196) approves of idiom indexes, as they make the access to idioms much easier. Sidney I. Landau suggests including them in the main body of the dictionary as well. However, the scholar notes that not every user uses this kind of list of idioms (Landau, 2001: 107). Nevertheless, these ‘idiom finders’ offer a great help for the users who use them while searching for a particular idiom.

Yong and Peng (2007: 182-184) recommend a structural approach to the location of idioms. These scholars have developed a categorization of the English idioms, which depends on their formation. The lexicographer has to decide which component of the idiom (noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, or number) has the prominent role of the semantic configuration of the idiom, and then put the idiom in the respective entry. Although Yong and Peng praise their approach as being easy to follow for both the compiler of the dictionary and its user as well, one might doubt if the users would accept this approach, as it is quite complicated from the user’s perspective. Yong and Peng believe this approach makes cross-referencing unnecessary. However, it seems that the users would be left on their own trying to understand the proposed system and there would not be any cross-references to help in their search; therefore, this approach does not seem to be user-friendly.

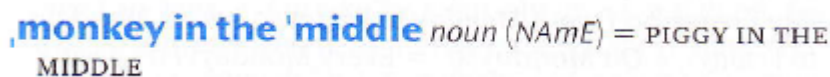
Regardless of the location of idioms, cross-references are very much needed, since idioms consist of more than two words. Firstly, cross-references save space, as one idiom does not have to be entered in two or more places; secondly, they guide the user to the right entry. Svensén (2009: 388) defines cross-reference structure (also called mediostructure) as the dictionary structure of indicators that guide the user between different places in the dictionary, or between places in the dictionary to the places outside the dictionary. It may be regarded as some kind of access structure (Svensén, 2009: 388). Since the accessibility of idioms is a major issue to deal with, it is important to consider cross-references.

According to Svensén (2009: 393-394), three types of cross-references can be used for idioms. The most common method is to give the full idiom, and an explicit cross-reference to the entry which contains the particular idiom (example: **to have the a** *see* A). The second method is indicating the entries where idioms can be found, but no idiom is given in cross-reference (example: *see also* B; *compare* C). The third method is when the full idiom is given, but the cross-reference is implicit – one component of the idiom is marked, for example, by asterisk, thus indicating the entry where the idiom can be found (example: **to have the \*d**, which means that the idiom is treated in the entry of **d**) (examples based on Svensén, 2009: 393-394, and Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 119).

Sven Tarp (2009: 51-52) proposes another (yet hypothetical) option of presenting idioms in the dictionary and cross-referencing to them. In this approach, idioms are entered in the dictionary as headwords (with an indication of their status as idioms), therefore, the users who know what they need to find in the dictionary (for example, the idiom *from the horse's mouth*), are able to go to the necessary entry very quickly and there is no time wasted trying to find the idiom somewhere in the entry of the single-word headword (since it may be found in the entry of **horse**, **mouth**, or maybe even **from**). For the users who are not sure what to look for (as they may not know it is a phrase – idiom – and not a single word they have to look for) and how to find it, the searching route starts from the entry of the single-word headword (one of the component of an idiom), where they are cross-referenced from the single-word headword to the multiword headword (the particular idiom). This approach, however, needs a very good system of cross-references (which also takes up space), and it might be argued whether it really speeds up the searching procedure, though Tarp believes this approach helps the user to find the idioms quickly and easily.

Well-crafted cross-references save space, as idioms do not have to be entered in two places. Apart from saving space, there is one more advantage of cross-references. Since there can be more than one variation of an idiom, cross-references can guide the users (who might

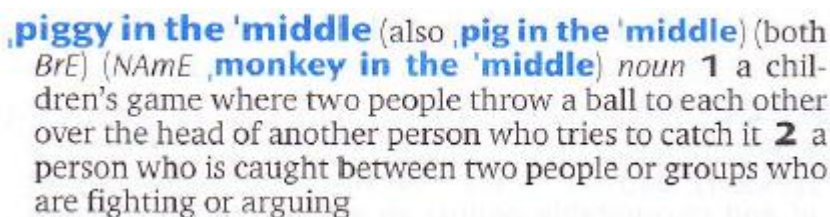
know only one variation) to the meaning they are looking for (Svensén, 2009: 195). An example of such situation can be found in *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (OALDOCE7). See Figures 2.1 and 2.2:



**monkey in the 'middle'** noun (NAME) = PIGGY IN THE MIDDLE

Figure 2.1 Entry of 'monkey in the middle' from OALDOCE7 (2005: 988)

The user may come across the idiom *monkey in the middle*, which has the variation *piggy in the middle*. The cross-reference in this dictionary guides the user to the entry with the other variation of this idiom, where the explanation of its meaning is found.



**piggy in the 'middle'** (also **pig in the 'middle'**) (both BrE) (NAME **monkey in the 'middle'**) noun **1** a children's game where two people throw a ball to each other over the head of another person who tries to catch it **2** a person who is caught between two people or groups who are fighting or arguing

Figure 2.2 Entry of 'piggy in the middle' from OALDOCE7 (2005: 1140)

In sum, the question of location of idioms has to take into account both the compiler and the user of the dictionary. The compiler has to have a consistent approach when treating idioms and the user has to be able to access idioms easily in the dictionary. One may argue about the status of idioms as independent lexical items and equal to single-word headwords, but, when looking from the perspective of the user, the easiness of access should be valued higher than the fight against so-called 'word-bias'. The argument here is that there is no use of idioms in the dictionary, if the user is not able to find them. The lexicographer, when considering the different methods of entering idioms in the dictionary at the level of microstructure and macrostructure, has to have the user's needs in mind. Apparently, some solutions, such as cross-references or 'idiom finder' take space, but this should not be the reason to ignore them.

### 2.3 Equivalence of idioms

In bilingual lexicography, equivalence is a term with many interpretations, and various types of equivalence can be distinguished. Before considering some possible types of equivalence, a clear definition of equivalence is needed. To start with, Piotrowski offers a very general definition of equivalence, as 'a manifestation of certain relation (or relations) obtaining between L1 and L2 lexical items' (Piotrowski, 1994: 127).

When considering dictionaries, the equivalence can be defined as relations that are possible between the lemmatized words and their equivalents. However, Adamska-Sałaciak notes that the talk of equivalents should be narrowed down to ‘lexical items equivalent in one of their senses’ (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2010: 389), and Atkins and Rundell have the same opinion as well (2008: 468). In their view, the equivalents are not regarded as the equivalents of the headword, but the equivalents of the headword in a single sense; Atkins and Rundell believe that this approach helps to avoid lengthy and ‘irrelevant’ discussions on possible relationships between the lemmatized words and their equivalents, as it is more precise and useful to consider separate senses (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 468). However, not all scholars see equivalence at the level of the senses of the words, but rather at the level of words. The authors discussed further in the subchapter do not share this view on equivalence; rather, they focus on other aspects of equivalence.

Bilingual dictionaries differ in their approach of giving equivalents of the headwords. A good starting point might be the division of explanatory and translational equivalence. This distinction, probably, is of great relevance to the user, as this difference concerns the use of equivalents, that is, whether are they ‘insertable’ in the text or no.

According to Margaret Cop, the distinction has to be made between explanatory and translatable bilingual dictionaries (Cop, 1991: 2776). Cop describes an explanatory bilingual dictionary as a foreign language-native language dictionary whose primary task is to decode the foreign language texts, and not to encode them in the native language. Although a dictionary of this type provides a small selection of equivalents in the native language, these equivalents are not ‘insertable’; rather, they are ‘prototypical’, and their main function is to convey the meaning. Translatable bilingual dictionaries, on the other hand, are encoding ones – they help the user to produce texts. The equivalents in these dictionaries convey meaning, and are usable (‘insertable’) in a text. Translatable bilingual dictionaries are further divided into active (native language – foreign language) and passive (foreign language - native language) dictionaries (Cop, 1991: 2776). Therefore, the equivalents of idioms that the user can find in a dictionary depend on the type of the particular dictionary.

These types of equivalence – explanatory and translational - are described by Zgusta and Svensén as well; however, their focus is not on the types of dictionaries, but on the form which equivalents may take in the dictionary. A translational equivalent has a high degree of insertability in the text, while an explanatory equivalent has to be provided with some additional information and thus have a lesser degree of insertability (Svensén, 2009: 256-257). Although the user, most probably, would prefer an equivalent which is insertable, the

advantage of an explanatory (or descriptive) equivalent is that it gives more information about the meaning of the source language (SL) unit than a translational equivalent (Zgusta, 2006: 233).

Adamska-Sałaciak describes explanatory equivalents as 'TL paraphrases (definitions, explanations) of SL lexical items' (2006: 104). According to the scholar, translational equivalents have to be evaluated within the context they are used. A translational equivalent is defined as an equivalent that 'has the same (or very similar) denotational meaning as the SL item as used on a particular occasion, and thus produces an adequate translation when substituted for it' (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2006: 104).

Another type of equivalence is cognitive equivalence, which presupposes a gradation of equivalence (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2010: 397). According to Piotrowski (1994: 174), X is considered as a cognitive equivalent of Y if two things hold true: X and Y are syntactically identical, and, if inserted in the same grammatical declarative sentence, the only difference between the sentences is the use of either X or Y. The equivalence between two units of the SL and the target language (TL) can be of three kinds: full, partial, and zero equivalence (Kromann et al., 1991: 2717). Thus, it is assumed that two lexical items of two different languages possess some degree of equivalence between them. The full equivalents correspond to interlingual synonyms, where both the words and their equivalents have the same denotative and connotative meanings (Kromann et al., 1991: 2718). As Zgusta observes, 'such absolute equivalents are rather rare', and the talk of equivalents is mainly the talk of partial equivalents (Zgusta, 2006: 230). However, it is rather hard to apply this type of equivalence to evaluate the equivalents of idioms.

The lexicographer in the search of equivalents of idioms has to remember that the lexical structure (semantic content) of two idioms in the SL and TL may differ, while the meaning (message) may be the same. Therefore, their attention should focus on the functions of idioms instead of their lexical form. This is another type of equivalence - the functional equivalence. Thus, it is not a question of finding an equivalent which has the same semantic content, namely, a direct translation. Rather, functionally adequate equivalents of idioms have to be found and offered to the user. Dobrovol'skij defines functionally adequate equivalents as 'lexical items of both source and target language (L1 and L2) which can be used in the same situations' (Dobrovol'skij, 2000: 169). Zgusta explains the idea of functional equivalence:

A translation should convey to its reader the same message with the same aesthetic and other values which are conveyed by the original text. Since languages differ in all

imaginable aspects, the translator-lexicographer must sometimes use means quite different from those used in the original in order to obtain the same results (Zgusta, 1983: 151).

According to Adamska-Sałaciak, functional and translational equivalents in practice are hard to distinguish (2006: 104-105). Adamska-Sałaciak characterises the functional equivalence as ‘the most marginal kind of equivalence’; however, she notes that it is increasing in its importance (2010: 399). Therefore, the notion of a functional equivalent of L1 unit should not be neglected, and it seems it is very useful when considering idioms, as their semantic content may differ greatly, while they may be used in the same contexts with the same meaning.

In sum, various typologies of equivalence can be applied, depending on the aspect chosen, and equivalence may be defined very differently.

Atkins and Rundell advise not to get lost into ‘all the panoply of relationships between one SL lemma and all its possible TL equivalents’ (2008: 468). Rather, the scholars advise to concentrate on the equivalence of single senses, as discussed above. When considering the equivalents of idioms, three things have to be taken into account: semantic content, vocabulary type, and message. The approach of Atkins and Rundell, two well-experienced, practicing lexicographers, is very valuable since it does not deal much with the theoretical discussions, but instead concentrates more on the practical side of lexicography and on idioms.

Atkins and Rundell define the semantic content as ‘the ‘literal’ meaning of an expression, together with its ‘connotations’ or any figurative meaning that may be associated with it’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 468-469). The lexicographer should match the semantic content of L1 and L2 items; however, it is not always possible. In that case, the message, or ‘the underlying meaning of a phrase’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 471) is the most important thing to consider. These authors note that for some idioms and sayings it is possible to find equivalents that match in the semantic content and message as well; however, if it is not possible, the lexicographer has to concentrate on the message of an idiom, since ‘only the message really matters when it comes to translating idioms’ (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 472). However, there may be no corresponding idiom in the TL, as the idea that is expressed by idiom in one language, may not be embodied in an idiom in the other language (Pecman, 2008: 208). The strategies of dealing with non-equivalence are discussed later in this subchapter.

Although there are cases when translational or functional (or even full equivalents) of idioms can be found both in L1 and L2, there is the third criterion of equivalence, as described

by Atkins and Rundell, which plays a great role. It is vocabulary type – such as ‘register, style, region, attitude and other vocabulary types’ that should be indicated to help the users sound natural when they are using a particular idiom (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 470-471).

Another point to consider is the fact that the same lexical structures of idioms do not necessarily indicate that the message they convey also are the same. Dobrovolskij (2008: 516) observes that a similar lexical structure and meaning do not exclude differences in semantic interpretations of idioms. The scholar believes that compilers have not paid enough attention to ‘nearly equivalent idioms’ (Dobrovolskij, 2008: 516). Svensén also advises to take into account the possible differences in meaning and the style level (Svensén, 2009: 202).

In sum, the question of equivalence can be approached from various angles. Although in the ideal case the user would find an equivalent of an idiom that matches in semantic content, message, vocabulary type, and is ready-made to be inserted in a text, in most cases, it is not possible. The semantic content, message and vocabulary type of idioms may differ, and there may be idioms in the SL that have only explanatory equivalents in the TL. In this case, the task of the lexicographer is to devise ways of revealing the meaning of idiom to the user as clearly as possible.

Adamska-Sałaciak (2006: 119-134) lists several strategies (of equivalence of lexical items in general) which are available for the lexicographer. The lexicographer may explain the meaning of the idiom, which sometimes may result in giving a descriptive or an explanatory equivalent, a definition or a lexical paraphrase in TL. As the scholar notes, this kind of explanation usually is printed in italics, thus warning the users that this explanation is not a translation which can be used in some context, but that the users have to find their own translation. Another strategy is providing a note that gives the information about usage or some pragmatic information. A cultural equivalent may be offered, when the lexicographer tries to find a local equivalent that is similar to the SL lexical item. The lexicographer may also provide a gloss, defined by the scholar as ‘additional information about the equivalent, placed immediately after it, formulated in the target language, and enclosed in parentheses’ (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2006: 128). A gloss is an option suggested by Atkins and Rundell as well (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 505). According to these scholars, the TL gloss explains the meaning to the user (Atkins and Rundell, 2008: 213).

Another strategy advised by Adamska-Sałaciak (2006: 129-130) is to provide several overlapping near-equivalents. Each of them explains some part of the SL item, and together they give the whole understanding of the SL concept. The strategy suggested for idioms is to extend the syntagmatic scope of the SL lexical item. That produces a functional equivalent.

The last strategy is innovation; basically, it is ‘borrowing from the source language’ (Adamska-Sałaciak, 2006: 133). Similar strategies are offered by other authors. For idioms ‘with a heavy cultural load’, Yong and Peng suggest a direct (literal) translation, and an explanation of its meaning as well (Yong and Peng, 2007: 189). For culture-bound words (which might be idioms as well in this case) Zgusta offers another solution: the lexicographer can create an equivalent either by coining a loan-translation, or a new expression in the TL (Zgusta, 2006: 234). Thus, several options are possible to solve non-equivalence of idioms.

The discussed issues prove that the treatment of idioms in the dictionary is a complicated matter. The problems start at the very beginning, since all variations of idioms cannot (and should not) be included in the dictionary. The next question concerns the location of idioms, since idioms consist of more than one word and thus cause problems to the traditional alphabetical order. Also, various means to relieve the process of search have to be considered, such as cross-references or the index of idioms. Lastly, bilingual dictionaries have to consider the equivalents of idioms very carefully to be sure the user understands the meaning of idiom and knows how and when to use it.

In the following chapter, the lexicographical treatment of idioms in ELD is considered, and the issues of the treatment of idioms that are discussed in the first two chapters are examined in relation to the particular bilingual dictionary. The theoretical frameworks of scholars, such as Moon, Svensén, Gouws, Atkins and Rundell, Adamska-Sałaciak, et al. are applied in the analysis of the treatment of idioms in ELD.

### **3 Treatment of Idioms in *English-Latvian Dictionary***

This chapter discusses the data that is gathered from the primary sources of research (ELD, LDOCE5, and ODOEI3), and examines it according to the theoretical framework discussed in the first two chapters. First, the methodology is described and the sources of data are introduced. It is followed by the discussion of the research results.

#### **3.1 Description of the methodology and data**

Idioms are not easy to study, since the boundaries of what is and what is not an idiom are still not clear-cut. Although much research on idioms has been carried out, it cannot be claimed that this area is well-researched from the perspective of lexicography. As idioms are culture-specific and might cause some trouble for a non-native speaker to understand and use them properly, it is important to include them in a dictionary and explain their meaning and use. Therefore, it is relevant to examine what is the best way of presenting idioms in dictionaries.

According to Gouws (2007: 62), who has examined lexical items and their presentation in dictionaries, idioms have not been paid as much attention as other lexical items – simply because idioms, due to their structure, cannot have the status of the headword in general dictionaries. Idioms lose the status of an independent lexical item and can be often overlooked by the lexicographers and the users. Yong and Peng (2007: 175) observe that the treatment of idioms in bilingual dictionaries has a very long tradition; however, they also point out that so far the lexicographers have not examined much how to handle idioms in the bilingual dictionaries. Nevertheless, idioms are used and have to be included in these dictionaries; it means that more research on their presentation in general bilingual dictionaries has to be conducted.

For the bilingual dictionaries, the question of equivalence of idioms is very important, since a translational or a functional equivalent is the best way how to reveal the meaning of the idiom. Unfortunately, not all idioms have translational or functional equivalents in the TL, however, it does not mean that the search of them should be neglected. Idioms that are used in some particular language can be detected with the help of a representative corpus of this language. When considering the Latvian language, Veisbergs points out that there is no comprehensive Latvian language corpus. Therefore, in the bilingual dictionaries there is a smaller amount of the Latvian entries as opposed to the English entries (Veisbergs, 2007: 71). Consequently, that has an effect on idioms. This problem affects the dictionaries compiled for

the Latvian users; for example, so far only two special purpose dictionaries (and one repeated edition) of the English and Latvian phraseology are published: in 1977 and in 2002. There is a voluminous collection of the Latvian phraseology by Laua et al., published in 1997.

Unfortunately, a comprehensive dictionary that includes both Latvian and English idioms with illustrative examples and usage labels has not been compiled yet. But neither of these dictionaries focuses only on idioms; rather, various types of MWEs with some degree of figurative meaning are included. Therefore, they are not offering too much help for the Latvian users who would like to know how a particular English idiom is translated into Latvian and how it should be used in the sentence.

Another relevant question is what the lexicographer means by idiom and how it is treated in the dictionary. What is considered as an idiom in the particular dictionary? How idioms are treated in the dictionary? For the users these questions are very important as well, since they determine what is included in the status of idioms, how easily idioms can be found in the dictionary, and how their meaning is revealed.

There might be arguments over the best lexicographical treatment of idioms. This research aims to examine the strong points and weaknesses of the lexicographical presentation of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries.

The dictionary that is selected for analysis is *English-Latvian Dictionary* (ELD), compiled by Dzintra Kalniņa, Edgars Kičigins, Kristīne Kvēle-Kvāle et al. and published by Avots in 2007. It is chosen for the analysis due to two reasons:

- 1) it is the largest recently published general English-Latvian dictionary which contains around 85,000 entries;
- 2) it is claimed in the annotation of ELD that the dictionary includes a wide range of phraseological units.

It might be considered to be the largest general English-Latvian dictionary for the Latvian users to consult when looking for idioms, as it could include lots of idioms. This dictionary is the most recent, but also a very typical representative of English-Latvian dictionaries. Thus, entries found in the selected pages of ELD are examined to see how idioms are represented in the entries. Also, the front matter and the back matter of the dictionary are considered to find out if idioms are mentioned in these parts of the dictionary.

Another important question to discuss is whether the idioms included in ELD are used in contemporary English. One possible way to find it out is to compare the set of idioms provided by ELD with the set of idioms found in a recently published monolingual English dictionary of a comparable size. The dictionary that is chosen for comparison is *Longman*

*Dictionary of Contemporary English* (5<sup>th</sup> edition). It is a learner's dictionary which contains 230 000 words, phrases and meanings (the number of headwords is not indicated). LDOCE5 is chosen for several reasons: it is recently published – the year of publication is 2009; it is corpus-based, so it attempts to present the actual usage of the language; and it includes idioms and phrases.

*Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms* (3<sup>rd</sup> edition) is selected to compare the meanings of the selected samples of idioms from ELD and LDOCE5. It is a special purpose dictionary of idioms that contains more than 6000 idioms. Since this dictionary focuses on idioms, it is presumed that ODOEI3 includes more senses of idioms and offers a more detailed explanation of meanings of idioms than the learners' dictionaries. Thus, it is suitable for the particular comparison of meanings of idioms. The online version of ODOEI3 (2009) is used.

The corpora of idioms found in both dictionaries are collected. Following the framework of Moon (1998) of variations of FEIs, the variations of idioms are counted in both dictionaries, for example, an idiom found in the monolingual dictionary *it/that is a load/weight off sb's<sup>3</sup> mind* is counted as having four variations (*it is a load off sb's mind*; *it is a weight off sb's mind*; *that is a load off sb's mind*; and *that is a weight off sb's mind*), and all of them are viewed (and counted) as separate idioms.

The **goal** of the thesis is to examine the treatment of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries in order to find out the strong points and weaknesses of their lexicographical presentation.

The **enabling objectives** are the following:

1. To examine the theoretical literature on phraseology and idioms.
2. To produce a working definition of the idiom.
3. To examine the theoretical literature on the treatment of idioms in general dictionaries.
4. To build a corpus of the English idioms found in the entries of the headwords that are found in the selected pages of the English-Latvian dictionary, and to collect a corpus of idioms found in the corresponding entries of a corpus-based, recently published English monolingual dictionary; to make a comparison between these two corpora.
5. To examine the location of idioms and the lexicographical solutions employed by the English-Latvian dictionary to help the user to find idioms, and to make a comparison with the monolingual English dictionary.

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<sup>3</sup> In ELD, the abbreviations 'smb' and 'smth' are used, however, in this research the shorter forms 'sb' and 'sth' are preferred and used.

6. To collect a corpus of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms and to evaluate them.

To reach the goal, the following **research questions** are stated:

1. What the compilers of the English-Latvian dictionary treat as an idiom?
2. Does the particular English-Latvian dictionary include the idioms that are used in contemporary English language?
3. How idioms are represented in the entries and how accessible they are?
4. What kind(s) of Latvian equivalents are provided to the English idioms in the English-Latvian dictionary?

In the research, the following methods of research are applied: descriptive analysis is applied to analyse the treatment of idioms in ELD, and comparative analysis is used to examine the meanings of the samples of idioms found in ELD, LDOCE5, and ODOEI3. Quantitative data is collected to examine the idioms and their treatment in ELD. A comparison of ELD with LDOCE5 is carried out in order to examine the sets of idioms included in both dictionaries, the meaning of idioms, and to compare how LDOCE5 represents idioms in its entries to find some solutions for the representation of idioms in the entries of ELD.

The theoretical framework for the research comprises:

- the classification of lexical items by Atkins and Rundell (2008);
- the typology of variations of FEIs by Moon (1998);
- the theoretical framework of Svensén (2009) and Gouws (2010) of entry structure and cross-reference structure;
- the factors of the evaluation of equivalence by Atkins and Rundell (2008);
- the distinction between explanatory and functional equivalents, as described by Zgusta (2006), Adamska-Sałaciak (2006, 2010), and Svensén (2009).

The **data** is collected from 21 pages (pp. 646-666) of ELD. The pages are chosen at random, and they include 1225 entries from **metric** to **multigenerational**. Idioms and their variations found in these entries are considered and examined, and compared with the idioms and their variations found in LDOCE5. In LDOCE5, the entries from **metric** to **multifunctional** (since the last headword analysed in ELD – **multigenerational** – is not entered as a headword in LDOCE5) are examined, and they can be found from page 1100 to page 1148. A special purpose dictionary of idioms - ODOEI3 – is used to compare the

meanings of certain idioms as found in ELD and LDOCE5. The collected data can be found in Appendices.

In the following subchapters, the research questions are examined and the results are discussed.

### **3.2 Idioms among other MWEs in ELD**

To answer the first research question (*What the compilers of the English-Latvian dictionary treat as an idiom?*), the front matter of ELD is examined to see if the compilers of ELD define what they mean by idiom. Also, the idioms found in the selected pages of ELD are collected and examined to understand what is labelled as an idiom.

Although it is claimed that the dictionary contains a wide range of phraseology (ELD, 2007: 4), no distinction is made among various types of phraseological units. All the information that concerns idioms is expressed in one sentence in the front matter, which says that ‘idiomatic expressions which do not belong with any of the given senses are placed at the end of the entry behind the rhomb ◇’ (Kalniņa et al., 2007: 7) – or in the contextual section of the entry, to use the terminology of Svensén (2009). It is not specified what kind of ‘idiomatic expressions’ can be found in the dictionary; however, the compilers distinguish between idiomatic expressions and phrasal verbs, and treat them separately. It is the only differentiation of MWEs used in this dictionary, since there is no differentiation made among various ‘idiomatic expressions’. It can be concluded that the compilers do not define what they mean by ‘idiom’, nor do they specify what is meant by different types of ‘idiomatic expressions’. Also, among all 182 abbreviations provided in the front matter, there is no abbreviation that refers to idioms, phraseology, phraseological unit, etc. The abbreviations such as ‘proverb’ (‘sakāmv.’) or ‘slang’ (‘sl.’) are used; however, none of them indicates the status of idiom of a particular multiword combination. Therefore, it can be concluded that idioms as a category is not given much attention.

A comparison with LDOCE5 reveals that idioms and phrases are treated together in this monolingual dictionary, and the user’s guide explains where and how they can be found in the dictionary. It is not specified what is understood by idioms and phrases (and what kind of phrases the compilers mean), but the user’s guide shows that they are treated separately from phrasal verbs (like ELD) and compound words (ELD does not make this distinction). Thus, idioms are not discussed much in the front matter of LDOCE5 and are treated together with

other types of phrases, but the compilers make a distinction among some types of MWEs and explain the location of idioms and phrases in the dictionary.

At the beginning, it was examined whether all idiomatic expressions (as they are called by the compilers) in ELD can be considered as idioms. To examine this, quantitative data on the number of 'idiomatic expressions' found in the contextual section of the entry (and marked by the rhomb) in ELD was collected. The contextual sections of idiomatic expressions were counted (since some entries have two sections of idiomatic expressions, depending on the part of speech the headword included in the particular idiomatic expression belongs to), and the total number of idiomatic expressions was established. It has to be noted, that some entries contain more than one variation of an idiomatic expression (for example *to go (pass) through the mill*), therefore, both idiomatic expressions as such and their variations were counted.

The data gathered is as follows: in 21 pages, there are 47 contextual sections of entries (marked by the rhomb) with idiomatic expressions which contain 113 idiomatic expressions and their variations. Thus, to follow the compilers of ELD, this is the number of idiomatic expressions found in the selected entries of ELD, however, it should be examined what exactly is treated as idiomatic expressions and whether all these idiomatic expressions can be considered as idioms.

The entries of headwords included in the selected pages of ELD were examined to see if they contain idioms or other types of fixed phrases. Clearly, sometimes it was hard to decide on particular cases – therefore, the results gained might be subjective. However, the entries were evaluated in terms of the working definition of the idiom which helped to find idioms. According to this definition, a MWE is an idiom if it meets certain criteria:

- 1) it consists of two or more words;
- 2) at least one word has a figurative meaning;
- 3) it has a fixed form, with some possible variations that do not affect the meaning of the whole expression;
- 4) it is not a phrasal verb, compound, proverb, saying, routine formula, or a fixed phrase with no idiomatic meaning.

Thus, the entries of ELD were examined once again with these criteria in mind to see if there are more idioms than there are 'idiomatic expressions', as treated by the compilers. At first, the idiomatic expressions that are located in the contextual sections of entries marked with the rhomb (◊) were examined, since, according to the information found in the front matter of the dictionary, this is the place where idioms should be located. After examining the

marked entry sections, the results gained are as follows: only **82** out of 113 idiomatic expressions can be categorized as idioms, based on the criteria stated above. However, the classification is still problematic, despite the criteria, since some cases are hard to classify. Thus, a certain degree of subjectivity cannot be excluded when considering these results.

There are 31 idiomatic expressions that are not classified as idioms, since they belong to the other types of MWEs (see Appendix 1). This classification is not undisputable. As it was discovered in the literature review, the borders in phraseology are vague and not clear-cut, and sometimes it is hard to decide how to classify a particular MWE. However, the data shows that around one quarter (27.4%) of the idiomatic expressions included in the contextual sections of entries and marked as ‘idiomatic expressions’ according to this definition, are not idioms, and no typographic or any other distinction is made among various types of MWEs found within this section.

Secondly, the headwords were examined and tested against the criteria of idiom, to see if there is any idiom entered as a headword. From all the 1225 headwords, those which could possibly be classified as idioms are only **7**: *Mickey Mouse*, *milk-and-water*, *milk run*, *money-spinner*, *monkey business*, *monkey tricks*, and *monkey-waggon*. These could be possible borderline cases, since they comply with the last three criteria. Although some of them are written with hyphens, their written form may vary, and they might be written separately, thus constituting an expression of two words. However, it is not indicated in any way that these are phraseological units. The dictionary labels these words as slang words, or colloquial words, or just specifies the part of speech.

Thirdly, MWEs that can be classified as idioms may be found in the entry of a headword with no special marking, or, to use Svensén’s (2009) terminology, they may be located in the semantic-pragmatic section of the entry. It is hard to locate them, since sometimes they are almost unnoticeable in the entry. In the selected pages, **28** idioms are found in the semantic-pragmatic sections of entries (see Appendix 2).

Thus, the total number of idioms found in the selected pages of ELD is **117** idioms (see Appendix 3 for the full list of idioms found in ELD).

It has to be reminded, that in the selected pages the variations of idioms were counted. The variations were evaluated, using Moon’s (1998) framework of different types of variations of FEIs. Since variations is an important issue to deal with (as variations take up the very valuable space in the printed dictionary, and the lexicographer has to decide which variation is the most typical one, and how many variations should be included), it is worth to

look briefly at the types of variations of idioms included in ELD. Out of 117 idioms, **17** have variations of different kinds (see Appendix 4 for the types of variations).

Like in the Moon's (1998) research, the most common types of variation are the variation of noun and verb, while there are only one or two examples for the other types of variation. However, the number of variations of idioms in general is not high – variations comprise only 14.5 % of idioms.

It may be concluded that ELD does not pay much attention to the idiom as a specific type of MWEs. There are several reasons for such a conclusion. Firstly, there is no abbreviation indicating the status of idiom. Secondly, idioms are treated together with other idiomatic expressions, as termed by the compilers, and only around three quarters of idiomatic expressions can be regarded as idioms according to the working definition of idiom. Other idiomatic expressions can be categorised as compounds, proverbs, sayings, routine formulae, or fixed phrases with no idiomatic meaning. Thirdly, idioms can be found in three places of the entry. In the analysed entries, only 70.1% of idioms can be found in the specially marked section (the contextual section), while nearly one quarter (23.9%) of idioms are included in the semantic-pragmatic section of the entry with no special marking, and seven idioms (6.0%) are entered as headwords in the lemma section, also, with no special marking.

A comparison with LDOCE5 reveals that the user's guide of LDOCE5 provides more information on the location of idioms and the difference between idioms and some other types of MWEs is made, even though the compilers of LDOCE5 treat idioms and phrases together, with no explanation what is meant by 'phrases'. Thus, LDOCE5 makes it easier for the users to find idioms than ELD. A good solution for ELD would be applying the feature of the user's guide, and LDOCE5 is a good example how to explain the location of the idioms to its users clearly and concisely.

### **3.3 Comparison of senses of idioms in ELD, LDOCE5, and ODOEI3**

To answer the second research question (*Does the particular English-Latvian dictionary include the idioms that are used in contemporary English language?*), the selected entries of LDOCE5 are examined. The working definition of idiom is used, according to which **186** idioms and their variations are selected (see Appendix 3). Cross-references with idioms which are found outside the particular pages are also taken into account, since it is important to compare which idioms are included in the monolingual dictionary, so their location in the

selected pages is not important as long as they are cross-referred from the corresponding entries.

The data shows, that LDOCE5 contains **69** more idioms, which is 60.0% more than in ELD. However, it is more interesting to compare what is included in ELD rather than what is left out. Surprisingly, but ELD includes idioms and their variations that are not found in LDOCE5: there are **61** idioms and their variations which can be found only in the ELD (for the full list of idioms, see Appendix 5). Among these idioms there are variations of idioms, where one of the variation is included in LDOCE5 (such as *good mixer*, which is found in both dictionaries, and *bad mixer*, which can be found only in ELD), as well as idioms that are not entered in LDOCE5 at all, such as *to milk the ram (bull)*, or *to throw out a minnow to catch a whale*.

Some idioms in the dictionaries have the same (e.g. *make a mountain out of the molehill*) or nearly the same form (e.g. *never (not) in a month of Sundays* in LDOCE5 and *month of Sundays* in ELD) and thus can be considered as the variations of the same idiom. However, sometimes there are some differences in meaning, or in ELD or in LDOCE5 there is an additional sense provided – this is the case with **19** idioms (or 23 idioms and their variations) in ELD and **19** idioms (or 25 idioms and their variations) in LDOCE5 (for the full list of idioms and their comparison, see Appendix 6; in the table, idioms and their variations are not treated separately). It means that 19.6% of idioms and their variations found on ELD have some difference in meaning in comparison to LDOCE5.

One more dictionary was chosen to compare the meanings of these 19 idioms provided by ELD, to see if the difference exists not only between ELD and LDOCE5 (which is a learner's dictionary and thus may not include all of the senses), but also between ELD and some other monolingual English dictionary. For this purpose, ODOEI3 was selected. The comparison of 19 idioms from ELD with **16** corresponding idioms from ODOEI3 reveals that in two cases there is no difference in meanings of idioms which are found between ELD and LDOCE5, and in two cases the difference between meanings of idioms found in ELD and ODOEI3 is a minor one. Therefore, it might be concluded that in some cases LDOCE5 provides a short definition on the meaning of idiom, and a special-purpose dictionary reveals the different shades of meaning in more detail. However, for the rest of the idioms there are some differences in meaning, and some senses of idioms are found only in one of the dictionaries. See Appendix 6 for the comparison of the samples of idioms from ELD, LDOCE5 and ODOEI3.

Sometimes there is only a slight difference in meaning, which can be seen in these three examples:

*the milk of human kindness* - the kind and sympathetic behaviour of most ordinary people (LDOCE5, 2009: 1106)

*the milk of human kindness* - care and compassion for others (ODOEI3<sup>4</sup>)

*milk of human kindness* - labsirdība; līdzjūtība [kind-heartedness; sympathy]<sup>5</sup> (ELD, 2007: 648)

Contrary to LDOCE5, ELD and ODOEI3 do not give any indication to what kind of people this idiom refers to or more detailed explanation of the meaning of this idiom. But there exists some slight difference between the equivalent of ELD and the definition of ODOEI3, since ELD do not refer to 'care' in the equivalent it provides. The following examples reveal a similar situation:

*move heaven and earth* - to try very hard to achieve something (LDOCE5, 2009: 816)

*move heaven and earth* – make extraordinary efforts (ODOEI3)

*to move heaven and earth* - laist darbā visus līdzekļus [to use all means] (ELD, 2007: 665)

It is obvious that definitions differ from the Latvian equivalent - the meaning of equivalent of ELD may implicit illegal means as well, while the definition of LDOCE5 rather emphasizes diligence. Likewise, the definition of ODOEI3 differs from the equivalent of ELD, since the emphasis is put on hard work. While someone may find these differences unimportant, there are cases when the meanings provided by the dictionaries differ to a larger extent. Let us consider the following examples:

*a monkey on your back* - a serious problem that makes your life very difficult, especially being dependent on drugs (LDOCE5, 2009: 1128)

*have a monkey on your back* - 1) have a burdensome problem; 2) be dependent on drugs; it can also mean 'experience withdrawal symptoms after ceasing to take a drug' (ODOEI3)

*to have a monkey on one's back* - 1) būt narkomānam; 2) neieredzēt kādu [1) to be a drug addict; 2) to hate someone] (ELD, 2007: 659)

In this case, ELD provides two senses of the idiom, and only the first sense partly corresponds to the senses provided by the monolingual dictionaries. The second sense of this particular idiom, as provided by ELD, is not found in the monolingual dictionaries. There is one more case when ELD provides an additional sense of idiom which is not found in LDOCE5:

*high and mighty* - talking or behaving as if you think you are better or more important than other people (LDOCE5, 2009: 826)

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<sup>4</sup> Since ODOEI3 is an online dictionary, page numbers are not indicated.

<sup>5</sup> The gloss in English is given in the square brackets after the Latvian equivalents.

*high and mighty* - 1) important and influential; 2) thinking or acting as though you are more important than others; arrogant (ODOEI3)  
*to be high and mighty* - 1) tēlot lielu vīru; 2) ieņemt ietekmīgu posteni (amatu) [1) to act like a bigwig; 2) to have an influential position (office)] (ELD, 2007: 648)

Compared to ELD, the second sense of the idiom is not found in LDOCE5, although the first sense which is found in ELD is the same as in the monolingual dictionaries. However, the second sense of the idiom provided by ELD corresponds to the second sense of the idiom provided by ODOEI3, but is not found in LDOCE5. This means that LDOCE5 does not include all the meanings of idioms which are used.

Surprisingly, there are idioms which have totally different meaning despite their similar form:

*be (right) on the money* - to be completely correct or right (LDOCE5, 2009: 1127)  
*on the money* - accurate; correct (ODOEI3)  
*on the money* - tieši laikā [on time] (ELD, 2007: 658)

In this case, there exists a remarkable difference in meaning; however, it is not the only case of such considerable difference:

*mop the floor with sb* - to completely defeat someone, for example in a game or argument (LDOCE5, 2009: 1132)  
*wipe the floor with* - inflict a humiliating defeat on (ODOEI3)  
*to mop the floor (the earth; the ground) with sb* - dancināt kādu pēc savas stabules [to make somebody do what you want him or her to do (ELD provides an equivalent that is an idiom in the Latvian language)] (ELD, 2007: 660)

To conclude, in the selected pages (including cross-references) of LDOCE5 there are more idioms than in the corresponding pages of ELD – the difference is 60.0% or 69 idioms. Out of 117 idioms found in ELD, there are 61 idioms which are not entered in LDOCE5. Thus, roughly half of idioms which are found in ELD are not included in LDOCE5, which may lead to the conclusion that ELD does not provide all idioms that are used in contemporary English, although part of them correspond.

There exists some difference in the meanings of idioms which can be found in both dictionaries. Approximately one fifth of idioms found in ELD have some differences in their meaning as compared to LDOCE5. The comparison with ODOEI3 reveals a similar pattern, although there are four exceptions when the meanings between these two dictionaries do not differ, or the difference is a minor one. Sometimes only some particular aspect of meaning is not mentioned, but in some cases the meanings differ to a larger extent and do not coincide. In LDOCE5 and ODOEI3 there is one additional sense of idiom which is not found in ELD. In ELD, there are two additional senses of idioms which are not found in LDOCE5, and one

sense of idiom which is not included in ODOEI3. This may be the case when the particular senses are already out of date or not frequently used. These analysed samples of idioms might not be representative enough to draw general conclusions on the differences of meanings included in ELD and other corpus-based monolingual dictionaries. However, this comparison reveals that around one fifth of idioms of ELD have some difference in meanings as compared to the monolingual dictionaries which implies that in some cases there are differences in meanings that could cause the user some misunderstandings. A further research, based on a larger corpus, might reveal more information on the difference of meanings between the Latvian equivalents of English idioms in English-Latvian dictionaries and the definitions of English idioms as provided by the monolingual English dictionaries.

### **3.4 Representation and accessibility of idioms in ELD and LDOCE5**

The issue of accessibility is an important one, since there is no point in including idioms (or any words or phrases) in the dictionary, if the users cannot find them. Some information on the location of idioms in the particular sections of the entry was already provided while discussing the first research question. This subchapter discusses the issue of location and representation of idioms in more detail, and aims to answer the third research question (*How idioms are represented in the entries and how accessible they are?*). First of all, the structure of the ELD should be briefly discussed.

The front matter of ELD contains the foreword, the English alphabet, the pronunciation table, the instruction of pronunciation of some English letters and combinations of letters, the description of the structure of dictionary, and the list of abbreviations and labels. Although in the foreword it is said that the dictionary includes a wide range of phraseology, the front matter does not provide much information on it. In the description of the structure of dictionary it is only explained that the idiomatic expressions which do not belong to any of the given senses are placed at the end of the entry and marked by the rhomb. Thus, it is not quite clear from this description, where exactly the user may find idioms, and, as the data gathered (and discussed above) shows, idioms can be found not only in this marked section of the entry. As it is mentioned in Subchapter 3.2, there is also no indication whether a particular multiword unit is an 'idiom', 'phraseological unit' or belongs to some other kind of MWEs. Therefore, a more detailed description of the structure of the dictionary, or user's guide could be very helpful, since it could explain better where to look for idioms.

At the back matter of the dictionary there are seventeen appendices: the list of geographical names; the list of the languages and language families; commonly used short forms; the terminology used in the documentation of the European Union; irregular verbs, etc. Unfortunately, there is no list of idioms or idiom finder (as described by several authors in the literature review of the present thesis), which could help the user to find a particular idiom. In sum, the front matter and the back matter of ELD contain extremely little information on idioms that could help the user.

In ELD the headwords are arranged according to the alphabet; therefore, the dictionary has an alphabetical macrostructure. The headwords are not only simple words (e.g. **metro**), but also abbreviations (e.g. **MIDI**), partial words (e.g. **micro-**), and MWEs (e.g. **mother at home**).

ELD has a partially integrated microstructure: the idioms and other kinds of MWEs are assigned to the respective senses of headword, but those idioms (or idiomatic expressions, in the context of the particular dictionary) which cannot be assigned to particular senses, are placed at the end of the entry in a syntagmatic block, which is marked by the rhomb. Figure 3.1 is an example of such entry.

**mitt** [mit] *n* (*sais. no* mitten) 1. dūrainis; 2. *pl sl.* boksa cimdi; 3. *amer. sar.* roka; dūre; to tip smb.'s m. – 1) sarokoties (*ar kādu*); 2) uzminēt (*kāda*) nodomus; ◇ frozen m. – vēsa uzņemšana

Figure 3.1 Entry of 'mitt' from ELD (2007: 655)

Here the idiom *to tip sb's mitt* is assigned to one of the senses of the headword **mitt**, while the idiom *frozen mitt* is entered at the end of the entry, in the syntagmatic block, indicating, that it is an 'idiomatic expression'. This example shows that in ELD idioms might be found both in the semantic-pragmatic and contextual sections of the entry.

The idioms in the syntagmatic block are listed in alphabetical order as far as possible. See Figure 3.2 for the example:

**mitten** ['mitn] *n* 1. dūrainis; 2. *pl sl.* boksa cimdi; 3. *amer. sar.* roka; dūre; ◇ to get the m. – 1) noraidīt (*kā precinieku*); 2) atlaist no darba; to give the m. – atlaist no darba; to handle without ~s – rupji apieties

Figure 3.2 Entry of 'mitten' from ELD (2007: 655)

In total, **82** idioms (70.1%) from the corpus are located in the syntagmatic block.

In Gouws's (2010) terminology, there are cases when one might speak of so-called 'primitive microstructure', when there is no indication provided that helps the user to find an idiom. The example of it is seen in Figure 3.3.

**mothball** [ˈmɒθbɔːl] *n* naftalīna bumbiņa (*pret kodēm*); to put in ~s – 1) apstrādāt ar naftalīnu; 2) *pārn.* iekonservēt; you'll have to put this idea in ~s – jums nāksies šo ideju atlikt uz vēlāku laiku

Figure 3.3 Entry of 'mothball' from ELD (2007: 662)

Since there is no noticeable indication, the user may find it hard to locate the particular idiom. The entry for **mothball** is short, but in the longer entry this may cause lookup problems. Out of 117 idioms, **28** (23.9%) are entered this way – with no special marking.

In contrast, in LDOCE5 idioms are not inserted in a syntagmatic block. Instead, every idiom forms an individual sense of a headword, which is one of the ways of presenting idioms described by Svensén (2009: 357). Idioms are arranged in frequency order. See Figure 3.4 for the example:

**mi-cro-scope** /ˈmaɪkrəskəʊp \$ -skəʊp/ *n* [C] **1** a scientific instrument that makes extremely small things look larger: **under/through a microscope** *Abnormalities in the cells can be seen quite clearly under a microscope. | Each sample was examined through a microscope.* **2 put sth under the microscope** to examine a situation very closely and carefully: *Our prison system is being put under the microscope after an alarming number of suicides.*

Figure 3.4 Entry of 'microscope' from LDOCE5 (2009: 1102)

In ELD, the headword may contain several parts of speech. Each section that represents different part of the speech is marked by a special section mark, which is a Roman numeral in bold. The syntagmatic blocks with idioms ('idiomatic expressions') are grouped according to the part of speech. See Figure 3.5 for the example.

**milk** [mɪlk] **I** *n* **1.** piens; in m. – (*par govī*) slaucama; new m. – jaunpiens; artificial m. – piena aizstājējs; condensed m. – iebiezināts piens; evaporated m. – iebiezināts, sterilizēts piens bez cukura; ice m. – piena saldējums; imitation m. – diētisks piena aizstājējs; loose m. – izlejamais piens; skim[med] m. – piens ar mazu tauku procentu; sour m. – rūgušpiens; sweet m. – svaigs piens; whole m. – pilnpiens; **2.** *bot.* piensula; latekss; ◇ m. and honey – leiputrija; m. for babes – viegli saprotama literatūra; m. of human kindness – labsirdība; līdzjūtība; spilt m. – kaut kas nelabojams; **II** *v* **1.** dot pienu; **2.** slaukt; **3.** *pārn.* izsūkt; izmantot; iedzīvoties (*uz kaut kā rēķina*); **4.** *sl.* noklausīties (*telefona sarunu*); pārtvert (*sūtījumu*); ◇ to m. the bull (ram) – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezcerīgu (*bezjēdzīgu*)

Figure 3.5 Entry of 'milk' from ELD (2007: 648)

Figure 3.5 reveals that the idioms that contain the word 'milk' are grouped according to the part of the speech the headword **milk** belongs to. As a result, there are two syntagmatic blocks with idiomatic expressions (and idioms) in one entry. The same grouping of idioms is

used in LDOCE5: idioms and phrases are grouped according to the part of speech of the first important word.

The location of idioms in LDOCE5 was examined to make a comparison with ELD. Firstly, it was examined where in the entry idioms can be found. In LDOCE5, most of idioms (85.9%) from the selected sample are entered as secondary headwords and are assigned an individual numbered sense of the headword, as seen on Figure 3.4. In this dictionary, few idioms (9.4%) are entered with no numbering. The compilers treat them as collocations, and they can be found in the entry of one of the senses of the headword. Despite the fact that these idioms are printed in bold, they do not have the status of idioms, at least not in the context of the particular dictionary. See the example of the idiom *stubborn as a mule* in Figure 3.6:

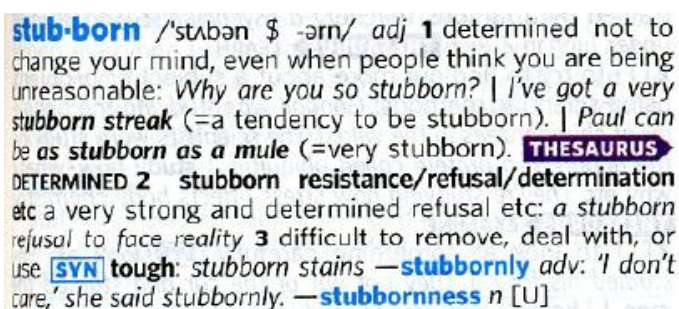


Figure 3.6 Entry of 'stubborn' from LDOCE5 (2009: 1753)

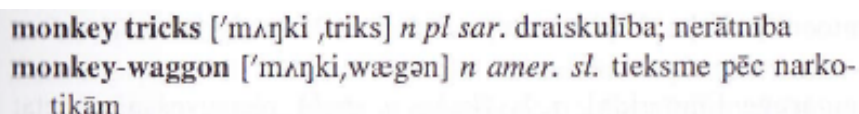
This example shows that LDOCE5 highlights MWEs. Despite the fact that *as stubborn as a mule* is not regarded as an idiom in this dictionary (but it is classified as an idiom according to the working definition), the compilers of LDOCE5 still make sure it is easy to find it: it is cross-referred from the entry of **mule** and printed in bold, and, although it is not defined, it is used in the example that reveals its meaning. ELD could learn from this example how to treat various types of MWEs and how to make them stand out in the entry.

These all are examples when an idiom is entered at the level of the microstructure of both dictionaries, thus being represented as a secondary headword, or, according to Gouws (2003), this way reflecting the word-bias. Out of 117 idioms found in the selected pages of ELD, **110** (94.0%) are entered at the level of microstructure – either in the syntagmatic-pragmatic section, or in the contextual section at the end of the entry – the syntagmatic block, marked by the rhomb.

Out of these ways of representing idioms in the entry, the option chosen by LDOCE5, where every idiom is assigned a separate sense of the headword, seems to be the best choice for two reasons: firstly, a headword as a guiding element to the whole expressions seems to be the less complicated way to access the idiom for the user, especially considering the fact that a good system of cross-references is provided (which is discussed further in the subchapter);

secondly, the organization of entry is very clear, since idioms are numbered, printed in bold and each numbered idiom is printed in a new line, which helps to find the necessary idiom in the entry.

In both dictionaries there is a small amount of idioms entered as headwords. In ELD, there are 7 idioms which are entered at the level of macrostructure. See Figure 3.7 for the example.

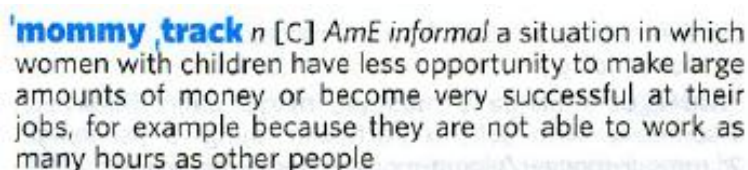


monkey tricks [ˈmʌŋki ˌtri:ks] n pl sar. draiskulība; nerātņība  
monkey-waggon [ˈmʌŋki,wæɡən] n amer. sl. tieksme pēc narkotikām

Figure 3.7 Entries of ‘monkey tricks’ and ‘monkey-waggon’ from ELD (2007: 659)

Figure 3.7 shows two examples of idioms which are entered as headwords. There is no label that indicates the status of idioms. The number of such cases is small - only 6.0% of idioms found in the selected pages have the status of the headword.

In LDOCE5, there are few idioms (4.3%) entered in the macrostructure as headwords. See the example of **mommy track** in Figure 3.8.

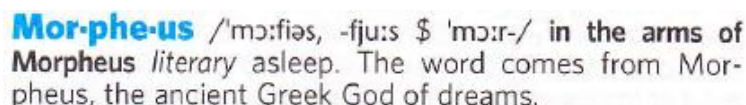


'mommy track' n [C] AmE informal a situation in which women with children have less opportunity to make large amounts of money or become very successful at their jobs, for example because they are not able to work as many hours as other people

Figure 3.8 Entry of ‘mommy track’ from LDOCE5 (2009: 1127)

These examples show that a small number of idioms are entered as headword. For the users it is important to identify the idiom as a whole expression in order to find it in the dictionary.

There is one more way of entering idioms in LDOCE5. There are nine idioms which are given in the entry of the headword without any numbering of senses, since the headword itself is used only in this idiom, and its literal meaning is not of importance. Thus it seems as some kind of middle way between entering idioms as headwords and as secondary headwords, since idioms are not entered in the macrostructure in their full form, and one word of the idiom is used as a guideword to the idiom. See Figure 3.9:



**Morpheus** /ˈmɔ:fiəs, -fju:s \$ 'mɔ:fi-/ in the arms of Morpheus literary asleep. The word comes from Morpheus, the ancient Greek God of dreams.

Figure 3.9 Entry of ‘Morpheus’ from LDOCE5 (2009: 1135)

Figure 3.10 is another example of such treatment of idioms in LDOCE5.

**grist** /grɪst/ *n* (all) **grist to the mill** *BrE*, (all) **grist for the mill** *AmE* something that is useful in a particular situation: *Any publicity is good – it's all grist to the mill.*

Figure 3.10 Entry of 'grist' from LDOCE5 (2009: 771)

These examples show that the meanings of 'Morpheus' and 'grist' are not important (the meaning of 'grist' is not even explained). Other idioms entered this way are: *take the mickey/ take the mickey out of sb, put the mockers on sth*, and *be much of a muchness*. It seems these idioms are too long (or have too many variations) to be entered as headwords. Thus, this solution is applied to enter these idioms in LDOCE5. ELD does not enter idioms this way, most probably, this option can be used for a few specific cases.

In ELD, most of the idioms have to be found in the microstructure, and one of the constituent words of an idiom has to be used as a guide that leads to the right entry and the right idiom. As idioms consist of at least two words, they can be entered in more than one place. However, it means that the space (which is limited) is taken up by the repetitions of the same idiom. To avoid this, cross-references usually are used in the dictionaries both to save space and to guide the user to the right entry which contains the particular idiom. However, when examining ELD, it reveals that cross-references are not used at all. Instead, the compilers have chosen to enter the same idiom in more than one entry. See Figures 3.11 and 3.12 for the example.

**molehill** ['məʊlɪhɪl] *n* **kumja rakums**; ◇ **to make a mountain out of a m.** – *taisīt no oda ziloni*

Figure 3.11 Entry of 'molehill' from ELD (2007: 657)

Since the same idiom is entered in two places, there is no need for cross-references. The user can find the same idiom with almost the same equivalent (difference is not relevant) in two places in the dictionary.

**mountain** ['maʊntɪn] *I n* **1.** *kalns*; **2.** *pām. liels daudzums; milzums; m. of debts – parādu kalns*; **3.:** *the M. vēst. – montaņāri*; **II.** *attr kalna-; kalnu-; ◇ m. dew sar. – skotu viskijs; to make a m. of a molehill – no oda taisīt ziloni*

Figure 3.12 Entry of 'mountain' from ELD (2007: 664)

These two entries are comparatively short; however, when such repetitions appear in bulkier entries, the space taken up is more noticeable. See Figure 3.13 and Figure 3.14 in Appendix 7 with examples of such situation, revealing how the idiom *to take the words out of somebody's mouth* is treated.

Figures 3.13 and 3.14 also reveal another problem – it is quite hard to notice idioms in the entries, especially when entries are as long as the ones as these examples. These two

examples, as well as other entries of ELD reveal that the ‘typographical prominence’ (as advised by Svensén (2009)) is not given to idioms. The printing of each idiom in a separate line most probably would take up too much space (though it definitely could help to find the idioms more quickly and easily, and this is done in LDOCE5); however, the semicolon (;) as a separator between idioms is not of much help, since it is quite hard to understand where one idiom starts and another one ends. Thus, some typographic devices highlighting idioms in the entry, e.g. bold letters for idioms as used in LDOCE5, could be very valuable and helpful.

In this respect LDOCE5 presents idioms better, since they are printed in bold, no matter if they are assigned the status of idiom, phrase, or collocation. Also, the numbered idioms are printed in a separate line. Even if the idiom is not assigned a numbered sense of the headword, it is still easily noticeable in the entry. See Figure 3.6, where *as stubborn as a mule* is still highlighted despite the fact this idiom is not assigned an individual sense of the headword.

To return back to the lack of cross-references in ELD, it has to be admitted that to some extent for the user this solution might seem even better. This approach certainly relieves the searching process for the users – since they do not have to guess under which entry the idiom can be found. On the other hand, the repetitions take up the space of the dictionary, and the lengthy entries are not clear as well. A well-structured cross-referencing system could help to save space and would not make the use of the dictionary more complicated.

Contrary to ELD, LDOCE5 uses cross-references. The cross-references of LDOCE5 are discussed, since it is a feature that relieves the search process for the user, and the use of cross-references would be advisable in the English-Latvian dictionaries. See Figure 3.15:

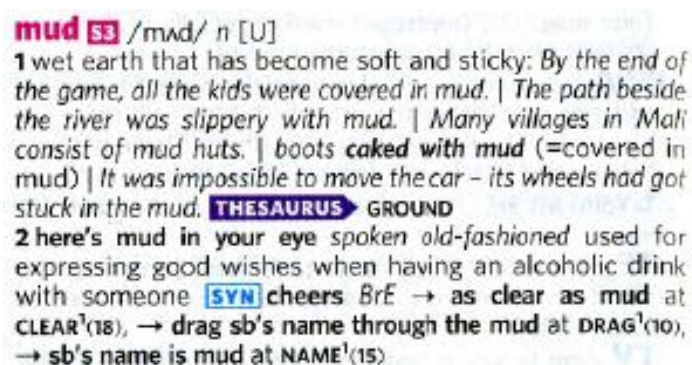


Figure 3.15 Entry of ‘mud’ from LDOCE5 (2009: 1146)

Cross-references in LDOCE5 are very informative, because they show which part of speech and which particular sense of the headword the user has to find. In this example, cross-references are put in this form: → (variation of idiom) at HEADWORD<sup>x</sup>(y), where x indicates the part of speech, while y points out to the numbered sense of the headword that contains the particular idiom, and also other possible variations of it.

Depending on the location of idiom, the cross-references may take other form. See

Figure 3.16:

**mill**<sup>1</sup> /mɪl/ n [C]  
**1 GRAIN** a building containing a large machine for crushing grain into flour  
**2 COTTON/CLOTH/STEEL** a factory that produces materials such as cotton, cloth, or steel: **cotton/steel/paper etc mill** *an old Victorian cotton mill*  
**3 coffee/pepper mill** a small machine for crushing coffee or pepper  
**4 go through the mill** to go through a time when you experience a lot of difficulties and problems: *He's really been through the mill recently.*  
**5 put sb through the mill** to make someone answer a lot of difficult questions or do a lot of difficult things in order to test them: *It was a three-day course and they really put us through the mill.*  
**6 MONEY** *AmE* a unit of money equal to 1/10 of a cent, used in setting taxes and for other financial purposes  
**7 MILLION** *spoken* a million: *Are you saying they paid a quarter of a mill for that house?* → **RUN-OF-THE-MILL**, → **(all) grist to the mill** at **GRIST**

Figure 3.16 Entry of 'mill' from LDOCE5 (2009: 1107)

Since the idiom **run-of-the-mill** is entered as a headword, the cross-reference takes the following form: → **IDIOM IN ITS FULL FORM.**

The system of cross-references in LDOCE5 saves space and is easy to use, but it has some shortages and imprecisions. See Figures 3.17 and 3.18:

**14 be all mouth** *BrE spoken* if someone is all mouth, they talk a lot about what they will do but are not brave enough to actually do it → **be born with a silver spoon in your mouth** at **BORN**<sup>2</sup>(8), → **by word of mouth** at **WORD**<sup>1</sup>(13), → **be foaming at the mouth** at **FOAM**<sup>2</sup>(2), → **put your foot in your mouth** at **FOOT**<sup>1</sup>(15), → **put your money where your mouth is** at **MONEY**(18), → **put words into sb's mouth** at **WORD**<sup>1</sup>(21), → **shut your mouth** at **SHUT**<sup>1</sup>(2), → **shoot your mouth off** at **SHOOT**<sup>1</sup>(12), → **FOUL-MOUTHED**, **MEALY-MOUTHED**

Figure 3.17 Cross-references at the end of the entry of 'mouth' from LDOCE5 (2009: 1140)

According to the cross-reference, the user can find the meaning of *put words into sb's mouth* at the entry of **word**, numbered as sense 21. However, the corresponding sense of the headword is different, because the idiom *take the words (right) out of sb's mouth* is entered in its place. This idiom also contains the word 'mouth', even though it is not cross-referred from the entry of **mouth**.

**21 take the words (right) out of sb's mouth** *spoken* if someone takes the words out of your mouth, they have just said what you were going to say  
**22 put words into sb's mouth** *spoken* to tell someone what you think they are trying to say, in a way that annoys them: *Will you stop putting words into my mouth - I never said I disliked the job.*

Figure 3.18 Senses 21 and 22 of the entry of 'word' from LDOCE5 (2009: 2020)

These examples show that, firstly, the cross-reference is not precise, and secondly, the idiom *take the words (right) out of sb's mouth* is somehow neglected, as it is not in the entry of **mouth** or in the cross-references.

The example of *sth is sb's middle name* proves that it might not be easy to find some idioms in LDOCE5. The particular idiom is entered under the headword of **middle name**, and there is no cross-referencing to this idiom in the entry of **middle**. Similarly, there is no cross-reference to *milch cow* (which is entered as a headword) in the entry of **cow**, even though there are cross-references to other entries containing the word 'cow'. See Figure 3.19:

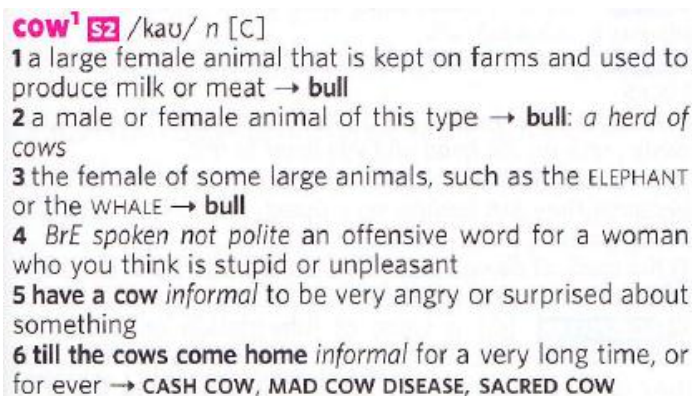


Figure 3.19 Entry of 'cow' from LDOCE5 (2009: 391)

It may be concluded, that even cross-references are not enough in some cases to find idioms, and the user cannot rely on them completely. However, the ELD could learn from these imprecisions found in LDOCE5 to devise a better system of cross-references that would not suffer from these shortages.

To conclude, most of the idioms (70.1%) in ELD are located in the syntagmatic block at the end of the entry which is marked by the rhomb. However, some of the syntagmatic blocks are literally packed with idioms, and no typographical distinction of idioms is applied. Therefore, it is quite hard to find a particular idiom, especially in the lengthy entries. Almost a quarter (23.9%) of the idioms is found in the pragmatic-semantic section of the entry with no special marking, and they are very hard to notice. In total, most of the idioms (94.0%) are entered at the level of microstructure, and have the status of secondary headwords. 6.0% of idioms found in the selected pages of ELD are entered at the level of macrostructure – they are given the status of headword. However, they are not labelled as idioms. There are three places where the user might look to find idioms and the description of the structure of the dictionary (which can be found in the front matter of ELD) does not state clearly how to find them. There is no list of idioms at the back matter of the dictionary. Therefore, it might be said that the treatment of idioms is not consistent throughout the dictionary, and it is not so

easy to access them. Thus, it seems that they are overlooked by the compilers of the dictionary.

Similarly to ELD, LDOCE5 does not have any list of idioms in the back matter; however, the user's guide of LDOCE5 explains how to find idioms in the dictionary. The cross-references help to guide the user as well. Although the cross-references give precise instructions how to find idioms, there are some shortages and imprecisions, for example, the user is cross-referred to some other idiom or there are no cross-references to some idioms. The total number of such imprecisions is not estimated, however, these cases prove that the cross-references alone do not solve the problem of finding idioms.

Despite some shortages of the cross-references in LDOCE5, it has to be noted that they save space and (in most cases) guide the user very precisely. Unfortunately, in ELD the advantages the cross-references provide are not used at all – instead, the same idiom is entered in its full form with practically the same equivalent in two places. The user may view it as an advantage, since there is no need to turn the pages trying to find the entry indicated at the cross-reference. However, this practice is a waste of space of the dictionary, because the space taken up by the repetitions might as well be used for better purposes. For example, the arrangement of idioms in the entry could be planned better to avoid the accumulation of idioms which sometimes seems boundless in the lengthy entries. The solution used in LDOCE5 to highlight idioms is printing them in bold, which is very convenient and could be applied to ELD as well. The printing of each idiom in a separate line, as it is done in LDOCE5, is also an option of organizing the entry better. In sum, both dictionaries have their strengths and weaknesses as regards the treatment of idioms. However, LDOCE5 is more user-friendly and presents idioms in a better way: the user's guide explains how to find them, they are easy to notice in the entry due to bold letters, and the cross-references help to avoid repetitions. Taking into account the shortages of the cross-reference system, ELD could learn from LDOCE5 how to improve the representation of idioms in the entries.

### **3.5 Equivalence in ELD**

For the users of the general bilingual dictionary, it is important to find an equivalent of a given word, idiom, etc., in their native language. However, the question of equivalence is more complicated in the case of idioms. This subchapter aims to find the answer to the last research question: *What kind(s) of Latvian equivalents are provided to the English idioms in the English-Latvian dictionary?*

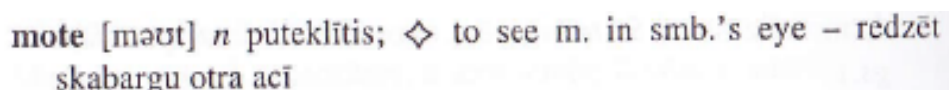
Since equivalence can be viewed from various aspects (as discussed in Subchapter 2.3), it is important to choose how to evaluate or categorize the equivalents of idioms. It is rather hard to categorize equivalents of idioms into full, partial, or zero equivalents. The reason is that idioms are culture-specific and may have different connotative meanings, and their form might differ while their meaning may be the same. Therefore, it seems that the meaning of the idiom (and not its form) should be in focus when evaluating equivalence. In this subchapter, the Latvian equivalents are evaluated according to the criteria of equivalence proposed by Atkins and Rundell (2008). Later, they are categorized into functional and explanatory equivalents as described by Zgusta (2006), Adamska-Sałaciak (2006, 2010), and Svensén (2009).

First of all, the corpus of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms was built (see Appendix 8). The counting of equivalents is difficult, since in some cases it is not appropriate to rely only on the enumeration of senses by the compilers, which means counting only the numbered senses. Consider the example of *to bring in (to drag through) the mire – apliet ar dubļiem; publiski apkaunot* (ELD, 2007: 652) - here two Latvian equivalents are provided: one of them is an idiom, while the other one is an expression with no idiomatic meaning. Therefore, it seems to be better to count them as two separate equivalents. As a result, the total number of equivalents is established as **131**.

The most practical approach of evaluation of equivalents seems to be the approach of Atkins and Rundell (2008; see pages 34-35 of Chapter 2). According to these scholars, the equivalents are evaluated according to the criteria of semantic content, message, and vocabulary type (see Appendix 9 for the detailed results). It is examined, whether the particular equivalents meet these criteria. As concerns the criterion of message, all equivalents fulfil it, since all idioms are provided with an equivalent of some kind which explains the underlying meaning of the English idiom. However, not all equivalents match in the semantic content: only **4** idioms can be considered as having the same semantic content, and they are: *minion of fortune – laimes luteklis; to take the words out of sb's mouth – izņemt kādam vārdus no mutes; to put words into sb's mouth – ielikt kādam vārdus mutē; and to fling (throw) mud at sb – apmētāt kādu ar dubļiem*.

As concerns the third criterion of equivalence – vocabulary type – the data shows that it is met only by **12** equivalents, since the rest of them have no indication on register, style, attitude, etc. As there are so many English idioms which have only non-metaphorical equivalents, the users should be provided with more information on how to use the English idioms properly, as they might not be aware of connotations the particular idiom carries. It is

also true for idioms which are provided with the Latvian idioms as equivalents. For example, some indication of attitude should be provided for the idiom which is seen in Figure 3.20.



mote [məʊt] *n* puteklītis;  $\diamond$  to see m. in smb.'s eye – redzēt  
skabargu otra acī

Figure 3.20 Entry of 'mote' from ELD (2007: 662)

Since the Latvian idiom carries certain connotations, the user might want to know if the English idiom is also used to disapprove of someone's behaviour or not; unfortunately, this is not explained in ELD. This example shows that sometimes it is not enough just to provide a (functional) equivalent in the TL of an idiom with no explanation, since there might be doubts in which context it is appropriate to use a particular idiom.

However, to get more information about the equivalents found in ELD, something more has to be considered. It has to be evaluated whether the idioms are provided with functional or explanatory equivalents. Adamska-Sałaciak notes that it is hard to distinguish between functional and translational equivalents (2006: 104-105). In this research, the term 'functional equivalent' is used, as it implies that the equivalent of idiom could also function as an idiom (or it has some idiomatic meaning). This aspect of evaluation is chosen, since the user of the bilingual dictionary, most probably, is looking for an equivalent of an idiom that can be used (is 'insertable') in a text rather than an explanation. Of course, the 'insertability' of an equivalent is context-dependent; however, the main criterion of the selected equivalents to qualify as functional equivalents is to determine whether they have an idiomatic meaning. Thus, a functional equivalent differs from an explanatory equivalent because it is a lexical item which could possibly be inserted in a particular text as an idiom.

Thus, the equivalents are classified into explanatory (also can be called descriptive, non-metaphorical) equivalents and functional equivalents (see Appendix 10). The number of functional equivalents is not high - only **26** functional equivalents can be found in the selected pages of ELD.

Explanatory equivalents constitute the greatest part of all the equivalents – in the selected pages, there are **105** explanatory equivalents. Finding the functional equivalents of English idioms is not an easy task, and there are idioms that are too culture-specific to have a functional equivalent. However, some other lexicographical means could be used in ELD to reveal the meaning of a particular idiom better. As it is mentioned above, only small amount of equivalents are provided with the vocabulary type. For idioms that have only explanatory equivalents, some more information on attitude, register etc., or a short gloss that explains the meaning of an idiom is advisable.

More explanation of the meaning of equivalents (a gloss) is provided in **nine** cases, which helps to understand their meaning better. See Figure 3.21 and Figure 3.22:

**Monday** [ˈmɑːndi] *n* pirmdiena; ◇ Black M. *skoln. sl.* – pirmā mācību diena pēc brīvdienām; M. feeling – nevēlēšanās strādāt (*pēc brīvdienas*)

Figure 3.21 Entry of ‘Monday’ from ELD (2007: 658)

This short gloss and labels that specifies the meaning of the equivalent *nevēlēšanās strādāt* helps the user of the dictionary to use the particular idiom in a correct context and to sound natural.

**moonlight** [ˈmuːnlait] **I** *n* mēness gaisma, mēnessnīca; by m. – mēness gaismā; m. flit[ing] – slepus izvākšanās no dzīvokļa naktī (*lai izvairītos no īres maksas*); **II** *v sar.* piepelnīties (*pa vakariem*); strādāt, apvienojot amatus

Figure 3.22 Entry of ‘moonlight’ from ELD (2007: 660)

Similarly, the explanation for *slepus izvākšanās no dzīvokļa naktī* indicates the user in which situations it is appropriate to use the particular English idiom. Since these two idioms exist only in the English language, the Latvian user might need some more information on their meaning than just an explanatory equivalent. Unfortunately, there are just a few entries which provide the information of this kind.

Although the aim of the thesis is not to look for the possible Latvian equivalents of the English idioms, at least for two idioms a functional equivalent seems to be possible: in ELD, the idiom *blind as a mole* has an equivalent *pilnīgi akls* (2007: 657), although *akls kā kurmis* seems to be a better choice in this case. Also, *in the middle of nowhere* is explained by ELD as *nesaprotams, kurā vietā; nezināms, kur* (2007: 647), while *nekurienes vidū* also seems to be an appropriate equivalent of this English idiom. Other possible suggestions for idioms that in ELD have no functional equivalent in the Latvian language could be *milch cow – slaucama govjs*; *to stick (stand) out a mile – durties acīs*; *to get the mitten – saņemt vilka pasi*; *to throw good money after bad – sēt naudu vējā*, etc. Of course, all possible equivalents should be evaluated carefully to see if their meanings (message) are the same as for the English idioms. Nevertheless, after evaluating the equivalents included in ELD, it seems that the full potential of the Latvian phraseology sometimes is not used.

It has to be noted, that ELD does not employ all the methods of dealing with idioms described by the lexicographers. For example, the direct (literal) translation together with an explanation (as suggested by Yong and Peng, 2007: 189), or invention of a new expression

(Zgusta, 2006: 234) are not used in the selected pages of ELD, but at least in one case it seems to be possible. Consider the example of the idiom *in the arms of Morpheus* in Figure 3.23.

**Morpheus** ['mɔ:fju:s] *n* *sengr. mit.* Morfejs (*miega un sapņu dievs*); *in the arms of M.* – guļošs

Figure 3.23 Entry of 'Morpheus' from ELD (2007: 661)

Here a possible equivalent could be *Morfeja skavās/rokās*, thus the user could have an equivalent that captures the essence of the original idiom. Since the explanation of *Morpheus/Morfejs* is provided in the gloss, most probably, there should not be any misunderstanding concerning the meaning and the use of the particular idiom and its equivalent.

In sum, most of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms (80.2%) are explanatory equivalents. The functional equivalents make up 19.8% of all equivalents. The equivalents that match in semantic content constitute only 3.0% of all equivalents. Thus, the user of ELD may have trouble to find an equivalent of an idiom that would still be an idiom. It is hard to find functional equivalents of idioms due to differences in language and culture, but it does not mean that the search of functional equivalents should be given up. It is rather a matter of more research into Latvian idioms and their comparison with the English ones – a proof of this is that some English idioms found in the selected pages of ELD may have a functional equivalent in the Latvian language which is not provided in ELD.

Some idioms are too culture-bound and exist only in a particular language. There are not many idioms that have the same form and meaning in several languages, for example, only 4 equivalents and idioms from the analysed corpus match in semantic content. Nevertheless, ELD does not use various possible ways of revealing the meaning of the idiom and finding a functional equivalent of it. No loan-translations or literal translations with explanations are used in the analysed pages of the dictionary, although the user might benefit from these methods. Also, there should be provided more information about vocabulary type (as only 9.2% of equivalents meet this criterion), and more glosses are needed for some idioms (since only 9 equivalents have them now). As idioms can be complicated for the non-native speakers, this could help the users of ELD to understand their meaning better and use them properly.

## Conclusions

The goal of the thesis was to examine the treatment of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries in order to find out the strong points and weaknesses of their lexicographical presentation. At the beginning of the research, the following research questions were stated:

1. What the compilers of the English-Latvian dictionary treat as an idiom?
2. Does the particular English-Latvian dictionary include the idioms that are used in contemporary English language?
3. How idioms are represented in the entries and how accessible they are?
4. What kind(s) of Latvian equivalents are provided to the English idioms in the English-Latvian dictionary?

A typical general English-Latvian dictionary (ELD) was selected as a representative example to examine the treatment of idioms in the English-Latvian lexicographical tradition. A corpus-based general English dictionary was selected to compare the idioms included in both dictionaries and certain points of their treatment. The most important findings of the research and the related conclusions are the following:

Firstly, the compilers of ELD do not distinguish idiom as a separate type of MWEs. Instead, it is treated under the label 'idiomatic expressions' together with other types of MWEs, such as proverbs, compounds, etc. To collect a corpus of idioms, a working definition was coined and applied. According to this definition, the number of idioms and their variations found in the selected entries of ELD is 117. The description of the structure of the dictionary that is found in the front matter of ELD does not provide clear instructions where to find idioms and is not user-friendly. On the contrary, the user's guide which is found in LDOCE5 is more user-friendly since it gives concise information on the location of idioms and phrases, and distinguishes among several types of MWEs. This kind of a user's guide would be more appropriate for ELD.

Secondly, a corpus of idioms found in corresponding entries of LDOCE5 was collected for a comparison with the corpus of idioms from ELD. The aim of the comparison was to find out whether ELD provides idioms that are used in contemporary English. Unlike ELD, LDOCE5 is a corpus-based dictionary that reflects the frequency of usage of idioms. The corpus of idioms which was selected from the corresponding entries of LDOCE5 comprises 186 idioms and their variations (60.0% more than in ELD). The comparison of the two corpora reveals that ELD includes 61 idioms which are not found in LDOCE5. Almost one

fifth of idioms in ELD have some differences in meanings of idioms compared to LDOCE5, which sometimes are minor ones, but in some cases the meanings do not coincide at all. The samples of the English idioms that differ in their meanings were collected from ELD and LDOCE5 and compared with a dictionary of English idioms (ODOEI3). The comparison with ODOEI3 reveals a similar pattern, although there are few exceptions. A larger sample of idioms is needed to draw conclusions on the meanings of idioms and their differences found in general English- Latvian and English dictionaries. However, some cases of different meanings prove there is a risk that the users of ELD may misunderstand the meaning of the idiom.

Thirdly, idioms are found in three sections of the entry of ELD. Most of idioms (110 idioms) are entered at the level of the microstructure. ELD has a partially integrated microstructure: almost one quarter of idioms (23.9%) are assigned to the respective senses of headword and can be found in the semantic-pragmatic section of the entry. Most of idioms (70.1%) are located in the contextual section of the entry marked by the rhomb, together with other types of MWEs. There are a few idioms (6%) entered at the level of macrostructure – in the lemma section of the entry. It has to be noted, that there are some problems of accessing idioms in ELD. There is no label showing the status of idioms. Idioms are practically invisible in bulky entries, since no typographical highlighting is used. A semicolon is used to separate idioms, and it is not enough to separate idioms clearly and noticeably. Cross-references are not used at all; instead, the same idiom is entered in two places in its full form.

A comparison with LDOCE5 on the representation of idioms in the entry provides several solutions for improvement of the treatment of idioms in ELD. In LDOCE5, most of idioms (85.9%) are assigned a separate sense of headword; thus, they are numbered, located in a separate line, and printed in bold. Even if the idiom is not assigned a separate sense of headword (4.9%), it is printed in bold and can be found easily in the entry. ELD could improve the treatment of idioms by using some of these solutions, such as numbering of idioms, printing them in bold, or locating each idiom in a separate line. The cross-reference system is very clear and understandable in LDOCE5 (albeit there are some imprecisions found in the analysed entries). The use of cross-references in ELD could save space, help the users to find idioms more easily, and reduce the bulky entries.

Lastly, the issue of equivalence in ELD was examined. A corpus of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms found in the selected entries of ELD was collected, and the total number of equivalents was established as 131. The analysis of corpus according to the criteria of equivalence proposed by Atkins and Rundell (2008) reveals that only four idioms

match in the semantic content. 12 idioms are provided with information on vocabulary type, and 9 idioms are provided with a gloss to explain their meaning better. For idioms that are culture-specific, more indication on the vocabulary type or a gloss is needed to help the users to understand the meaning. The classification of equivalents into functional equivalents (that retain some kind of idiomatic meaning) and explanatory equivalents (with no idiomatic meaning) reveals that most of the Latvian equivalents of the English idioms are explanatory equivalents (80.2%), while only one fifth of equivalents (19.8%) are functional equivalents. It means that in most cases the users find an equivalent of the English idiom that is not a Latvian idiom, but some explanation of the meaning. The comparison of the English idioms and their Latvian equivalents leads to an observation, that the full potential of the Latvian phraseology is not used in some cases.

This summary of findings and conclusions shows that the compilers of the future English-Latvian dictionaries should improve several aspects of the treatment of idioms, namely, the location of idioms and their presentation in the entry, introduce a user's guide with clear instructions on finding idioms, the use of cross-references, and the ways of improving equivalence, both by trying to provide more functional equivalents than explanatory equivalents, and by providing more information on vocabulary type or explanatory glosses. LDOCE5 can be used as a good example on the treatment of idioms, especially on the representation of idioms in the entry, which is clear and well-organized. The use of an idiom index should be considered – as the examination of cross-references in LDOCE5 reveals, cross-references sometimes may be imprecise, and may not guide the users to all idioms which can be found in the dictionary.

The weakness of the particular research is also the weakness of the present state of phraseology in general – in the absence of clear and undisputable criteria of idiom it is hard to define and detect idioms in the dictionary. However, the corpus of idioms compiled during the research might as well be considered as the strength of this research, since the selection process of idioms was very careful, and a detailed analysis was performed on idioms and their location, a careful comparison with LDOCE5 was carried out, and the equivalents provided by ELD were examined and evaluated. Further researches on the treatment of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries should consider the accessibility of idioms, namely, the location of idioms in microstructure or macrostructure, detailed instructions for the user on the structure and use of dictionary, and idioms found in it, the use of cross-references, and an idiom index. Contrastive studies of idioms of the English and Latvian language is needed to find functional equivalents of English idioms.

## Theses

1. The understanding of idiom varies among the scholars, thus one universal definition of idiom has not been coined yet, which means it is hard to set clear and undisputable borders of the subject of the research.
2. Lexicographical approach to idioms considers their treatment in dictionaries, yet idioms have not been researched enough by metalexigraphers, because they often are seen as lexical items of secondary importance.
3. For the compilers of general bilingual dictionaries, the inclusion of idioms is complicated due to their structure which does not conform to the traditional alphabetical order, and figurative meaning, which cannot be translated word by word.
4. The equivalence of idioms has to be considered carefully, since idioms are culture-specific and carry certain connotations of which a non-native speaker might not be aware.
5. In general English-Latvian dictionaries, there is no clear distinction drawn between idioms and other types of multiword expressions; instead, the compilers treat different types of multiword expressions together, separating only phrasal verbs.
6. General English-Latvian dictionaries have to revise the set of idioms included to make sure the idioms represent the contemporary English language, since the comparison with the corpus-based English dictionaries reveals there are some idioms that differ in their meaning.
7. The organization of the entries in English-Latvian dictionaries has to be improved to highlight idioms and make them noticeable within the entry. Some of the possible solutions could be numbering of idioms, printing them in bold, and locating each idiom in a new line.
8. The accessibility of idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries could be improved by the introduction of a clear and concise user's guide, a well-designed system of cross-references, and an index of idioms.
9. There is a need for more functional equivalents of the English idioms in general English-Latvian dictionaries, which requires contrastive studies of idioms in both languages.

10. Explanatory equivalents of the English idioms should be provided with glosses and indications of vocabulary type in order to help the users to understand and use idioms correctly.

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## Appendix 1

### MWEs in Syntagmatic-Pragmatic Sections of ELD

*Table 1 Classification of MWEs which are not idioms, found in the syntagmatic-pragmatic sections of entries of ELD (2007: 646-666)*

Type of MWE	Examples from ELD
Fixed phrase with no idiomatic meaning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. with might and main</li> <li>2. miles better</li> <li>3. miles easier</li> <li>4. the minute that</li> <li>5. to give somebody/something a miss</li> <li>6. it is a bargain for the money</li> <li>7. all the more so</li> <li>8. more or less</li> <li>9. neither more nor less than</li> <li>10. the more so, as</li> <li>11. the more the better</li> <li>12. what is more</li> <li>13. at most</li> <li>14. ten at most</li> <li>15. this is at most a makeshift</li> <li>16. to be up to every move</li> <li>17. up-to-the-minute</li> </ol>
Proverb or saying	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>18. misfortunes never come alone</li> <li>19. misfortunes never come singly</li> <li>20. a miss is as good as a mile</li> <li>21. money makes the mare (to) go round</li> <li>22. money makes money</li> <li>23. money begets money</li> <li>24. time is money</li> <li>25. money will have more</li> </ol>
Compound	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>26. Black Monday</li> <li>27. mortal sin</li> <li>28. people mover</li> <li>29. prime mover</li> </ol>
Routine formula	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>30. where the mischief have you been?</li> <li>31. the more fool you</li> </ol>

## Appendix 2

### Idioms in Syntagmatic-Pragmatic Sections of ELD

Table 2 Idioms found in the semantic-pragmatic sections of entries of ELD (2007: 646-666)

No.	Idiom
1.	be on one's mettle
2.	to put sb on his mettle
3.	to be high and mighty
4.	milch cow
5.	to get mileage out of sth
6.	to give a piece of one's mind
7.	give a bit of one's mind
8.	the mind's eye
9.	to mind the shop
10.	mine of information
11.	minion of fortune
12.	to tip sb's mitt
13.	good mixer
14.	bad mixer
15.	man of the moment
16.	bad money
17.	queer money
18.	to coin money
19.	to be in the money
20.	to get one's monkey up
21.	to put sb's monkey up
22.	moonlight flit
23.	moonlight flitting
24.	in the arms of Morpheus
25.	to put in mothballs
26.	man of mould
27.	people of a special mould
28.	to say a mouthful

### Appendix 3

#### Corpora of Idioms from ELD and LDOCE5

*Table 3 Idioms and their variations found in the pages of ELD (2007: 646-666) and LDOCE5 (2009: 1100-1148), grouped according to the respective entries*

Idioms in ELD	Idioms in LDOCE5
<b>mettle</b>	<b>mettle</b>
1. to be on one's mettle	1. on your mettle
2. to put sb on his mettle	2. keep sb on their mettle
	3. put sb on their mettle
<b>mickey</b>	<b>mickey</b>
3. to take the mickey out of sb	4. take the mickey
	5. take the mickey out of sb
<b>Mickey Mouse</b>	<b>Mickey Mouse</b>
4. Mickey Mouse	6. Mickey mouse
	<b>microscope</b>
	7. put sth under the microscope
	<b>Midas touch</b>
	8. the Midas touch
<b>middle</b>	<b>middle</b>
5. in the middle of nowhere	9. piggy in the middle (cross-reference)
6. the middle way	10. in the middle of nowhere
	11. middle course
	12. middle way
	<b>middle name</b>
	13. sth is sb's middle name
<b>midnight</b>	<b>midnight</b>
7. to burn the midnight oil	14. burn the midnight oil (cross-reference)
<b>mighty</b>	<b>mighty</b>
8. to be high and mighty	15. high and mighty (cross-reference)
<b>milch</b>	
9. milch cow	
	<b>milch cow</b>
	16. milch cow
<b>mile</b>	<b>mile</b>
10. not a hundred miles away	17. go the extra mile
11. to stick out a mile	18. stick out a mile
12. to stand out a mile	19. stand out a mile
	20. can see sth a mile off
	21. can spot sth a mile off
	22. can tell sth a mile off

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
	23. be miles away
	24. join the mile high club
	25. run a mile (cross-reference)
<b>mileage</b>	
13. to get mileage out of sth	
<b>milk</b>	<b>milk</b>
14. to milk the ram	26. the milk of human kindness
15. to milk the bull	27. cry over spilt milk (cross-reference)
16. milk for babes	28. land of milk and honey (cross-reference)
17. milk of human kindness	29. milk sb/sth for something
18. spilt milk	
19. milk and honey	
<b>milk-and-water</b>	
20. milk-and-water	
<b>milk run</b>	<b>milk run</b>
21. milk-run	30. milk run
<b>mill</b>	<b>mill</b>
22. to go through the mill	31. go through the mill
23. to pass though the mill	32. put sb through the mill
	33. grist to the mill (cross-reference)
	34. all grist to the mill (cross-reference)
	35. grist for the mill (cross-reference)
	36. all grist for the mill (cross-reference)
	37. run-of-the-mill (cross-reference)
	<b>million</b>
	38. look like a million dollars
	39. look like a million bucks
	40. feel like a million dollars
	41. feel like a million bucks
<b>millstone</b>	<b>millstone</b>
24. between the upper and the nether millstone	42. a millstone round sb's neck
25. to see far into the millstone	43. a millstone around sb's neck
26. to look through a millstone	
27. to have a millstone about one's neck	
28. to fix a millstone about one's neck	
<b>mince</b>	<b>mince</b>
29. not to mince matters	44. not mince words
	45. not mince your words
<b>mincemeat</b>	<b>mincemeat</b>
30. to make mincemeat of sb	46. make a mincemeat of sb/sth

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
<b>mind</b>	<b>mind</b>
31. to give a piece of one's mind	47. it is a load off sb's mind
32. to give a bit of one's mind	48. it is a weight off sb's mind
33. the mind's eye	49. that is a load off sb's mind
34. to mind the shop	50. that is a weight off sb's mind
35. to mind one's P's and Q's	51. prey on sb's mind
	52. play on sb's mind
	53. in your mind's eye
	54. mind the shop
	55. mind the store
	56. mind your p's and q's
<b>mine</b>	<b>mine</b>
36. mine of information	57. a mine of information about sth
	58. a mine of information on sth
<b>minion</b>	
37. minion of fortune	
<b>minnow</b>	
38. to throw out a minnow to catch a whale	
39. Triton among the minnows	
40. Triton of the minnows	
<b>mire</b>	<b>mire</b>
41. to bring in the mire	59. drag sb's name through the mire
42. to drag through the mire	
43. to stick in the mire	
44. to find oneself in the mire	
<b>mirror</b>	<b>mirror</b>
45. to hold a mirror up ( <i>to</i> )	60. a mirror of sth
<b>miss</b>	<b>miss</b>
46. to miss the bus	61. miss the boat
47. to miss the boat	62. without missing a beat
	63. sb's heart misses a beat
	<b>mission</b>
	64. woman with a mission
	65. man with a mission
	<b>mist</b>
	66. lost in the mists of time
<b>mitt</b>	
48. frozen mitt	
49. to tip sb's mitt	

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
<b>mitten</b>	
50. to get the mitten	
51. to give the mitten	
52. to handle without mittens	
	<b>mixed</b>
	67. a mixed bag
	68. mixed blessing
<b>mixer</b>	<b>mixer</b>
53. good mixer	69. good mixer
54. bad mixer	
<b>mixture</b>	
55. the same mixture as before	
	<b>mockers</b>
	70. put the mockers on sth
<b>mole</b>	
56. blind as a mole	
<b>molehill</b>	<b>molehill</b>
57. to make a mountain out of a molehill	71. make a mountain out of a molehill (cross-reference)
<b>moment</b>	<b>moment</b>
58. man of the moment	72. of the moment
	73. of great moment
	74. the moment of truth
	<b>mommy track</b>
	75. mommy track
<b>Monday</b>	
59. Monday feeling	
<b>money</b>	<b>money</b>
60. bad money	76. have money to burn
61. queer money	77. be in the money
62. to throw good money after bad	78. for my money
63. money for jam	79. money for old rope
64. for love or money	80. put your money where your mouth is
65. it is a bargain for the money	81. money talks
66. to coin money	82. be on the money
67. to be in the money	83. be right on the money
68. money for old rope	84. marry money
69. on the money	85. marry into money
	86. blood money (cross-reference)
	87. hush money (cross-reference)
	88. give sb a run for their money (cross-reference)

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
	89. give sb a good run for their money (cross-reference)
	90. have a run for your money (cross-reference)
	91. have a good run for your money (cross-reference)
	92. throw money at sth (cross-reference)
<b>money-spinner</b>	<b>money-spinner</b>
70. money-spinner	93. money-spinner
<b>monkey</b>	<b>monkey</b>
71. to get one's monkey up	94. make a monkey of sb
72. to put sb's monkey up	95. make a monkey out of sb
73. to make a monkey of sb	96. monkey business
74. to have a monkey on one's back	97. not give a monkey's
	98. a monkey on your back
<b>monkey business</b>	
75. monkey business	
<b>monkey tricks</b>	
76. monkey tricks	
<b>monkey-waggon</b>	
77. monkey-waggon	
<b>monkey wrench</b>	<b>monkey wrench</b>
78. to throw a monkey wrench into sth	99. throw a wrench in sth (cross-reference)
	100. throw a monkey wrench in sth (cross-reference)
<b>month</b>	<b>month</b>
79. month of Sundays	101. never in a month of Sundays
	102. not in a month of Sundays
	<b>monument</b>
	103. be a monument to sb/sth
<b>moon</b>	<b>moon</b>
80. to bay the moon	104. ask for the moon
81. to shoot the moon	105. cry for the moon
82. to cry for the moon	106. over the moon
83. to be over the moon	107. many moons ago
84. over the moon	108. once in a blue moon (cross-reference)
85. once in a blue moon	109. promise sb the moon (cross-reference)
<b>moonlight</b>	<b>moonlight</b>
86. moonlight flit	110. do a moonlight
87. moonlight flitting	111. do a moonlight flit

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
<b>mop</b>	<b>mop</b>
88. to mop the ground with sb	112. mop the floor with sb
89. to mop the earth with sb	113. wipe the floor with sb
90. to mop the floor with sb	
<b>moral</b>	<b>moral</b>
91. the very moral of sb	114. moral victory
	115. take the moral high ground
	116. claim the moral high ground
	117. seize the moral high ground
	118. moral compass
	<b>morgue</b>
	119. be a morgue
	120. be like a morgue
<b>Morpheus</b>	<b>Morpheus</b>
92. in the arms of Morpheus	121. in the arms of Morpheus
	<b>mortgage</b>
	122. mortgage the future
	123. mortgage sb's future
<b>mote</b>	
93. to see mote in sb's eye	
<b>mothball</b>	<b>mothball</b>
94. to put in mothballs	124. into mothballs
	125. in mothballs
<b>mother</b>	<b>mother</b>
95. every mother's son	126. like a mother hen
96. mother wit	127. learn sth at your mother's knee
	128. be taught sth at your mother's knee
	129. the mother of sth
	<b>mother lode</b>
	130. hit the mother lode
	<b>motion</b>
	131. go through the motions
	132. go through the motions of doing sth
<b>mould</b>	<b>mould</b>
97. man of mould	133. fit a mould
98. people of a special mould	134. fit into a mould
	135. in the same mould
	136. in the same mould as sb/sth
	137. in the mould of sb/sth
	138. break the mould
<b>mountain</b>	<b>mountain</b>
99. mountain dew	139. make a mountain out of a molehill

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
100. make a mountain out of a molehill	140. a mountain to climb
	141. have a mountain to climb
	142. move mountains
	<b>mouse</b>
	143. quiet as a mouse
	144. play cat and mouse (cross-reference)
	145. play a game of cat and mouse with sb (cross-reference)
<b>mouth</b>	<b>mouth</b>
101. to take the words out of sb's mouth	146. keep your mouth shut
102. to have a good mouth	147. big mouth
103. to have a bad mouth	148. mouth to feed
104. to give mouth	149. hungry mouth
105. to laugh on the wrong side of one's mouth	150. down in the mouth
106. to open one's mouth too wide	151. out of the mouths of babes
107. to keep one's mouth shut	152. out of the mouths of babes and sucklings
108. down in the mouth	153. be all mouth
109. to put one's money where one's mouth is	154. be born with a silver spoon in your mouth (cross-reference)
110. to put words into sb's mouth	155. be foaming at the mouth (cross-reference)
	156. put your foot in your mouth (cross-reference)
	157. put your money where your mouth is (cross-reference)
	158. put words into sb's mouth (cross-reference)
	159. take the words out of sb's mouth (cross-reference)
	160. take the words right out of sb's mouth
	161. shoot your mouth off (cross-reference)
<b>mouthful</b>	<b>mouthful</b>
111. to say a mouthful	162. a bit of a mouthful
	163. give sb a mouthful
	164. say a mouthful
<b>move</b>	<b>move</b>
112. to move heaven and earth	165. move with the times
	166. move the goalposts (cross-reference)

Continuation of Table 3

<b>Idioms in ELD</b>	<b>Idioms in LDOCE5</b>
	167. shift the goalposts (cross-reference)
	168. move heaven and earth (cross-reference)
	169. when the spirit moves you (cross-reference)
	170. as the spirit moves you (cross-reference)
	171. make the first move
	172. put a move on sb
	173. make a move on sb
<b>mover</b>	<b>mover</b>
113. movers and shakers	174. mover and shaker
	<b>moving</b>
	175. a moving target
	176. the moving spirit
<b>much</b>	<b>muchness</b>
114. much of a muchness	177. be much of a muchness
	<b>muck</b>
	178. make a muck of sth
	179. as common as muck
<b>mud</b>	<b>mud</b>
115. to fling mud at sb	180. as clear as mud (cross-reference)
116. to throw mud at sb	181. drag sb's name through the mud (cross-reference)
	182. sb's name is mud (cross-reference)
	<b>muddy</b>
	183. muddy the waters
	184. muddy the issue
<b>mug</b>	<b>mug</b>
117. that's a mug's game!	185. be a mug's game
	<b>mule</b>
	186. stubborn as a mule (cross-reference)

## Appendix 4

### Variations of Idioms in ELD

*Table 4 Types of variations of idioms found in ELD (2007: 646-666)*

Type of variation of idiom	Variations of idioms
Variation of verb	1. to fling mud at sb/to throw mud at sb 2. to stick out a mile/to stand out a mile 3. to go through the mill/to pass though the mill 4. to see far into the millstone/to look through a millstone 5. to bring in the mire/to drag through the mire
Variation of noun	6. to milk the bull/to milk the ram 7. money for jam/money for old rope 8. to miss the boat/to miss the bus 9. to mop the floor with sb/to mop the earth with sb/to mop the ground with sb
Particle variation	10. Triton among the minnows/Triton of the minnows
Reciprocal structures	11. to put words into sb's mouth/to take the words out of sb's mouth 12. to get one's monkey up/to put sb's monkey up
Causative and resultative structures	13. to stick in the mire/to find oneself in the mire
Notion of possession	14. to have a millstone about one's neck/to fix a millstone about one's neck
Specificity and amplification	15. over the moon/to be over the moon
Antonymous variation	16. to have a good mouth/to have a bad mouth 17. good/bad mixer

## Appendix 5

### Idioms Included Only in ELD

*Table 5* The list of idioms which are included in ELD (2007), but are not included in LDOCE5 (2009)

No.	Idiom
1.	not a hundred miles away
2.	to get mileage out of sth
3.	to milk the ram
4.	to milk the bull
5.	milk for babes
6.	milk-and-water
7.	to pass though the mill
8.	between the upper and the nether millstone
9.	to see far into the millstone
10.	to look through a millstone
11.	to give a piece of one's mind
12.	give a bit of one's mind
13.	minion of fortune
14.	to throw out a minnow to catch a whale
15.	Triton among the minnows
16.	Triton of the minnows
17.	to bring in the mire
18.	to drag through the mire
19.	to stick in the mire
20.	to find oneself in the mire
21.	to hold a mirror up
22.	to miss the bus
23.	to tip sb's mitt
24.	frozen mitt
25.	to get the mitten
26.	to give the mitten
27.	to handle without mittens
28.	bad mixer
29.	the same mixture as before
30.	blind as a mole
31.	man of the moment
32.	Monday feeling
33.	bad money
34.	queer money
35.	to throw good money after bad
36.	money for jam
37.	for love or money

Continuation of Table 5

No.	Idiom
38.	it is a bargain for the money
39.	to coin money
40.	to get one's monkey up
41.	to put sb's monkey up
42.	monkey tricks
43.	monkey-waggon
44.	to bay the moon
45.	to shoot the moon
46.	to mop the ground with sb
47.	to mop the earth with sb
48.	the very moral of sb
49.	to see mote in sb's eye
50.	every mother's son
51.	mother wit
52.	man of mould
53.	people of a special mould
54.	mountain dew
55.	to have a good mouth
56.	to have a bad mouth
57.	to give mouth
58.	to laugh on the wrong side of one's mouth
59.	to open one's mouth too wide
60.	to fling mud at sb
61.	to throw mud at sb

## Appendix 6

### Comparison of Meanings of Idioms in ELD, LDOCE5, and ODOEI3

*Table 6* The idioms in ELD that have differences in meaning or provide additional senses to the idioms as compared to the idioms found in LDOCE5 and ODOEI3

Idiom(s) in ELD	Idiom(s) in LDOCE5 (examples not included)	Difference in meaning from LDOCE5	Idiom(s) in ODOEI3 (examples not included)	Difference in meaning from ODOEI3
1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. to be on one's mettle – izrādīt dedzību	1. on your mettle <i>BrE</i> – if you are on your mettle, you are ready to try as hard as possible because your abilities are being tested	yes	1. be on your mettle - be ready or forced to prove your ability to cope well with a demanding situation	yes
2. Mickey Mouse – <i>amer. sar.</i> blēņas; nieki	2. Mickey Mouse – <i>adj informal</i> – small and not at all important	yes	<i>no idiom found</i>	-
3. in the middle of nowhere – nesaprotams, kurā vietā; nezināms, kur	3. in the middle of nowhere – a long way from the nearest big town	yes	2. the middle of nowhere <i>informal</i> - somewhere very remote and isolated. This is one example of several derogatory expressions concerning rural life as viewed from an urban perspective	yes (ODOEI3 provides more specific meaning)

Continuation of Table 6

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
4. to be high and mighty - 1) <i>niev. tēlot lielu vīru</i> ; 2) ieņemt ietekmīgu posteni (amatu)	4. high and mighty – talking or behaving as if you think you are better or more important than other people	yes + additional sense in ELD	3. high and mighty <i>informal</i> - 1) important and influential; 2) thinking or acting as though you are more important than others; arrogant	yes (between the first sense of ODOEI3 and the second sense of ELD there is difference in meaning)
5. milch cow - <i>pārn. (par cilvēku, no kura viegli dabūt naudu) izmantojams</i>	5. milch cow – sth that provides a lot of money for sth else	yes	<i>no idiom found</i>	-
6. milk of human kindness - <i>lābsirdība; līdzjūtība</i>	6. the milk of human kindness – <i>literary</i> the kind and sympathetic behaviour of most ordinary people	yes	4. the milk of human kindness - care and compassion for others	no
7. milk-run - <i>parasts maršruts; ikdienas ceļš</i>	7. milk run – <i>informal</i> 1) <i>BrE</i> a familiar easy journey that you do regularly 2) <i>AmE</i> a train journey or regular plane flight with stops in many places	+ additional sense in LDOCE5 (the second sense)	<i>no idiom found</i>	-
8. to have a millstone about one's neck/ to fix a millstone about one's neck - <i>uzkārt sev akmeni kaklā</i>	8. a millstone round sb's neck/ a millstone around sb's neck – sth that causes a lot of problems for someone, and that they cannot get rid of	yes	5. a millstone round your neck - a very severe impediment or disadvantage	yes

Continuation of Table 6

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
9. the mind's eye - <i>iztēle</i>	9. in your mind's eye – if you see sth in your mind's eye, you imagine or remember clearly what it looks like	yes (the equivalent of ELD excludes the notion of <i>memory</i> which is present in the definition of LDOCE5)	6. in your mind's eye in - your imagination or mental view	yes (the equivalent of ELD excludes the notion of <i>memory</i> which is present in ODOEI3)
10. to mind the shop - <i>pārņ.</i> pārzināt lietas	10. mind the shop ( <i>BrE</i> )/mind the store ( <i>AmE</i> ) – <i>informal</i> to be in charge of sth, while the person who is usually in charge is not there	yes	7. mind the shop - be temporarily in charge of affairs	yes
11. to be in the money - veiksmīgi pelnīt naudu	11. be in the money – <i>informal</i> to have a lot of money suddenly, or when you did not expect to	yes	8. be in the money <i>informal</i> - have or win a lot of money	yes
12. on the money - tieši laikā	12. be on the money/ be right on the money – <i>AmE spoken</i> to be completely correct or right	yes	9. on the money <i>chiefly North American</i> - accurate; correct	yes

Continuation of Table 6

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
13. to have a monkey on one's back - 1) būt narkomānam; 2) neieredzēt kādu	13. a monkey on your back – <i>AmE informal</i> – a serious problem that makes your life very difficult, especially being dependent on drugs	yes +additional sense in ELD (the second sense)	10. have a monkey on your back <i>informal US slang</i> - 1) have a burdensome problem; 2) be dependent on drugs; it can also mean 'experience withdrawal symptoms after ceasing to take a drug'	yes +additional sense in ELD (the second sense) +additional sense in ODOEI3 (first sense)
14. moonlight flit/ moonlight flitting - slepus izvākšanās no dzīvokļa naktī ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres maksas</i> )	14. do a moonlight/ do a moonlight flit – <i>BrE</i> – to leave a place secretly in the middle of the night in order to avoid paying more money that you owe	yes (LDOCE5 does not specify the meaning as much as ELD does)	11. do a moonlight flit/do a moonlight <i>informal</i> - make a hurried, usually nocturnal, removal or change of abode, especially in order to avoid paying your rent	yes (a minor one)
15. to mop the ground with sb/ to mop the earth with sb/ to mop the floor with sb - dancināt kādu pēc savas stabules	15. mop the floor with sb ( <i>AmE</i> )/ wipe the floor with sb ( <i>BrE</i> ) – to completely defeat someone, for example in a game or argument	yes	12. wipe the floor with <i>informal</i> - inflict a humiliating defeat on	yes
16. to put in mothballs - 1) apstrādāt ar naftalīnu; 2) <i>pār.</i> iekonservēt; you'll have to put this idea in mothballs – jums nāksies šo ideju atlikt uz vēlāku laiku	16. in mothballs/ into mothballs – kept but not used for a long time	yes	13. in mothballs - unused but kept in good condition for future use	yes (a slight difference)

Continuation of Table 6

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
17. to say a mouthful - pateikt kaut ko ļoti svarīgu	17. say a mouthful – <i>AmE informal</i> – to say a lot of true and important things about sth in a few words	yes (LDOCE5 is more specific)	14. say a mouthful <i>informal North American</i> - make a striking or important statement; say something noteworthy	no
18. to move heaven and earth - laist darbā visus līdzekļus	18. move heaven and earth – to try very hard to achieve sth	yes	15. move heaven and earth - make extraordinary efforts	yes
19. that's a mug's game! - nemeklē muļķi!	19. be a mug's game <i>BrE spoken</i> – to be sth that only stupid people do because it is not likely to be successful or to bring you money	yes	16. a mug's game <i>informal</i> - an activity which it is stupid to engage in because it is likely to be unsuccessful or dangerous	yes
<b>Total</b>	-	difference in meaning for 18 idioms; 2 additional senses in ELD; 1 additional sense in LDOCE5	-	difference in meaning for 14 idioms; 1 additional sense in ELD; 1 additional sense in ODOEI3

## Appendix 7

### Examples of Entries from ELD

**mouth** [maʊθ] **I** *n* (*pl* mouths [maʊðz]) **1.** mute; by [word of] *m.* – mutiski; from *m.* to *m.* – no mutes mutē (*elpināšana*); **2.** ēdājs; useless *m.* – liekēdis; **3.** atvere; (*krāsns*) mute; stobra atvere; ieeja (*alā, līcī*); *m.* of a cave – ieeja alā; **4.** (*pudeles*) kakls; **5.** (*upes*) grīva; ieteka; **6.** *tehn.* īscaurule; rupors; **7.** grimase; to make ~s – vaibstīties; **8.** *sl.* nekaunība; **9.** *sl.* pļāpība; ◇ down in the *m.* – nomākts; sašļucis; to keep one's *m.* shut – turēt muti; to laugh on the wrong side of one's *m.* – smieties tik ilgi, kamēr jāsāk raudāt; to open one's *m.* too wide – 1) cerēt uz lielām lietām; 2) prasīt pārāk augstu cenu; to put one's money where one's *m.* is – pierādīt savus vārdus ar darbiem; to put words into smb.'s *m.* – ielikt kādam vārdus mutē; to take the words out of smb.'s *m.* – izņemt kādam vārdus no mutes; to have a good (bad) *m.* – labi (slikti) klausīt grožiem (*par zirgu*); to give *m.* – riet; **II** *v* **1.** svinīgi runāt; sludināt; **2.** ņemt ar lūpām; **3.** vaibstīties; **4.** iebraukt (*zirgu*); **5.** (*par upi*) ietecēt; **6.** izrunāt skaidri un skaļi

Figure 3.13 Entry of 'mouth' from ELD (2007: 664)

**word** [wɜ:d] **I** *n* **1.** vārds; by *w.* of mouth – mutiski; in a (one) *w.* – vārdu sakot; *w.* for *w.* – vārds vārdā; burtiski; he hasn't a *w.* to throw at a dog – no viņa nevar izspiest ne vārda; ~s fail me – man trūkst vārdu; to be as good as one's *w.* – turēt vārdu; to break one's *w.* – neturēt vārdu; to eat (swallow) one's ~s – ņemt atpakaļ savus vārdus; to hang on smb.'s ~s – uzmanīgi uz klausīt kādu; to have a *w.* with smb. – aprunāties ar kādu; to have the last *w.* on smth. – teikt pēdējo (izšķirošo) vārdu kādā jautājumā; to keep one's *w.* – turēt vārdu; to put (*smth.*) into ~s – izteikt (*kaut ko*) vārdos; to say (put in) a [good] *w.* for smb. – aizlikt [labu] vārdu par kādu; **2.** ziņa; vēsts; informācija; to receive *w.* – saņemt ziņu (vēsti); to send smb. *w.* – paziņot kādam; **3.** vārds; solījums; to give smb. one's *w.* – paziņot kādam; to take smb. at his *w.* – turēt kādu pie vārda; upon (on) my *w.*! – goda vārds!; to be better than one's *w.* – izdarīt vairāk, nekā solīts; **4.** pavēle; norādījums; to say the *w.* – dot pavēli (norādījumu); **5.** parole; lozungs; **6.** piezīme, aizrādījums; **7.** (the *W.*) Evaņģēlijs; ◇ at a *w.* – uzreiz; from the *w.* go – no sākuma; in a *w.* – īsumā; in so many ~s – tieši šādos vārdos; take the ~s out of smb.'s mouth – izņemt vārdus otram no mutes; my *w.*! – *izsaka pārsteigumu vai apbrīnu*; big ~s – liekulība; damaging ~s – aizvainojoši vārdi; fair ~s – komplimentī; hot (high) ~s – lamās; mum's the *w.*! – ne vārda par to!; klusu!; to come to ~s

with smb. – sastrīdēties ar kādu; to have ~s with smb. – strīdēties ar kādu; **II** *v* izteikt vārdos

Figure 3.14 Entry of 'word' from ELD (2007: 1147-1148)

## Appendix 8

### Corpus of the Equivalents of the English Idioms from ELD

*Table 8* Equivalents of idioms found in ELD (2007: 646-666), grouped according to the respective entries

<b>mettle</b>
1. to be on one's mettle – izrādīt dedzību
2. to put sb on his mettle – pārbaudīt kāda drosmi
<b>mickey</b>
3. to take the mickey out of sb - izsmiet kādu
<b>Mickey Mouse</b>
4. Mickey Mouse – <i>amer. sar.</i> blēņas; nieki
<b>middle</b>
5. in the middle of nowhere – nesaprotams, kurā vietā; nezināms, kur
6. the middle way -zelta vidusceļš
<b>midnight</b>
7. to burn the midnight oil - strādāt (mācīties) līdz vēlai naktij
<b>mighty</b>
8. to be high and mighty – 1) <i>niev.</i> tēlot lielu vīru; 2) ieņemt ietekmīgu posteni (amatu)
<b>milch</b>
9. milch cow – <i>pārn.</i> ( <i>par cilvēku, no kura viegli dabūt naudu</i> ) izmantojams
<b>mile</b>
10. not a hundred miles away – tuvumā; netālu
11. to stick (stand) out a mile - 1) būt acīm redzamam; 2) būt pašam par sevi saprotamam
<b>mileage</b>
12. to get mileage out of sth – gūt labumu no kaut kā
<b>milk</b>
13. to milk the bull (ram) – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezcerīgu (bezzēdzīgu)
14. milk for babes – viegli saprotama literatūra
15. milk of human kindness – labsirdība; līdzjūtība
16. spilt milk – kaut kas nelabojams
17. milk and honey - leiputrija
<b>milk-and-water</b>
18. milk-and-water - 1. ( <i>par sarunu, grāmatu u.tml.</i> ) tukšs; bezsaturīgs; 2. bezgribas-; bezsatura-; 3. neizteiksmīgs; bezgaršīgs; ūdeņains
<b>milk run</b>
19. milk-run – parasts maršruts; ikdienas ceļš
<b>mill</b>
20. to go (pass) through the mill - iziet bargu dzīves skolu

<b>millstone</b>
21. between the upper and the nether millstone - bezizejas stāvoklī
22. to see far into the millstone (to look through a millstone) – <i>iron.</i> būt pārlietu vēriņam (acīgam)
23. to have (fix) a millstone about one's neck – uzkārt sev akmeni kaklā
<b>mince</b>
24. not to mince matters – runāt bez aplinkiem
<b>mincemeat</b>
25. to make mincemeat of sb – samalt kādu miltos
<b>mind</b>
26. to give a piece (bit) of one's mind – izteikt savas domas
27. the mind's eye - iztēle
28. to mind the shop – <i>pārn.</i> pārzināt lietas
29. to mind one's P's and Q's – runāt (izturēties) piesardzīgi
<b>mine</b>
30. mine of information – informācijas avots
<b>minion</b>
31. minion of fortune – laimes luteklis
<b>minnow</b>
32. to throw out a minnow to catch a whale - gandrīz neko neriskēt lielas peļņas iegūšanai
33. Triton among (of) the minnows - milzis pigmeju vidū
<b>mire</b>
34. to bring in (to drag through) the mire – <i>pārn.</i> apliet ar dubļiem; publiski apkaunot
35. to stick (to find oneself) in the mire - iekļūt ņezā
<b>mirror</b>
36. to hold a mirror up ( <i>to</i> ) - patiesi attēlot
<b>miss</b>
37. to miss the boat (bus) – palaist garām izdevību
<b>mitt</b>
38. frozen mitt - vēsa uzņemšana
39. to tip sb's mitt – 1) sarokoties ( <i>ar kādu</i> ); 2) uzminēt ( <i>kāda</i> ) nodomus
<b>mitten</b>
40. to get the mitten - 1) noraidīt ( <i>kā precinieku</i> ); 2) atlaist no darba
41. to give the mitten – atlaist no darba
42. to handle without mittens – rupji apieties
<b>mixer</b>
43. good mixer – sabiedriska cilvēks
44. bad mixer – nesabiedriska cilvēks
<b>mixture</b>
45. the same mixture as before - tāpat kā līdz šim

<b>mole</b>
46. blind as a mole – pilnīgi akls
<b>molehill</b>
47. to make a mountain out of a molehill – taisīt no oda ziloni
<b>moment</b>
48. man of the moment – pašreizējā autoritāte
<b>Monday</b>
49. Monday feeling – nevēlēšanās strādāt ( <i>pēc brīvdienas</i> )
<b>money</b>
50. bad (queer) money – viltota nauda
51. to throw good money after bad – bezjēdzīgi tērēt naudu
52. money for jam (old rope) – par nieka darbu iegūta nauda
53. for love or money – par katru cenu
54. it is a bargain for the money – ienesīgs pasākums
55. to coin money – kļūt bagātam, iedzīvoties naudā
56. to be in the money – veiksmīgi pelnīt naudu
57. on the money – tieši laikā
<b>money-spinner</b>
58. money-spinner – 1. laimes zirneklis; 2. <i>sar.</i> naudas avots; ienesīgs pasākums
<b>monkey</b>
59. to get one's monkey up - sadusmoties
60. to put sb's monkey up – saniknot kādu
61. to make a monkey of sb – likt kādu apsmieklā
62. to have a monkey on one's back – 1) būt narkomānam; 2) neieredzēt kādu
<b>monkey business</b>
63. monkey business - <i>sar.</i> ākstīšanās; muļķošana
<b>monkey tricks</b>
64. monkey tricks – <i>sar.</i> draiskulība; nerātnība
<b>monkey-waggon</b>
65. monkey-waggon - <i>amer. sl.</i> tieksme pēc narkotikām
<b>monkey wrench</b>
66. to throw a monkey wrench into sth – bāzt sprungulus ritenī
<b>month</b>
67. month of Sundays – ilgs laiks; vesela mūžība
<b>moon</b>
68. to bay the moon – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezjēdzīgu
69. to shoot the moon – slepus aizlaisties ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres parāda nomaksas</i> )
70. to cry for the moon – prasīt neiespējamo
71. to be over the moon – būt sajūsmā

72. over the moon - sajūsmā
73. once in a blue moon – tikpat kā nekad
<b>moonlight</b>
74. moonlight flit[ing] – slepus izvākšanās no dzīvokļa naktī ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres maksas</i> )
<b>mop</b>
75. to mop the floor (the earth; the ground) with sb – dancināt kādu pēc savas stabules
<b>moral</b>
76. the very moral of sb – precīza kopija; portrets
<b>Morpheus</b>
77. in the arms of Morpheus - guļošs
<b>mote</b>
78. to see mote in sb's eye – redzēt skabargu cita acī
<b>mothball</b>
79. to put in mothballs – 1) apstrādāt ar naftalīnu; 2) <i>pārn.</i> iekonservēt; you'll have to put this idea in mothballs – jums nāksies šo ideju atlikt uz vēlāku laiku
<b>mother</b>
80. every mother's son – visi kā viens
81. mother wit – veselais saprāts; iedzimta atjautība
<b>mould</b>
82. man of mould – parasts mirstīgais
83. people of a special mould – sevišķa kaluma ļaudis
<b>mountain</b>
84. mountain dew – <i>sar.</i> skotu viskijs
85. make a mountain out of a molehill – no oda taisīt ziloni
<b>mouth</b>
86. to take the words out of sb's mouth – izņemt kādam vārdus no mutes
87. to have a good (bad) mouth – labi (slikti) klausīt grožiem ( <i>par zirgu</i> )
88. to give mouth - riet
89. to laugh on the wrong side of one's mouth – smieties tik ilgi, kamēr jāsāk raudāt
90. to open one's mouth too wide - 1) cerēt uz lielām lietām; 2) prasīt pārāk augstu cenu
91. to keep one's mouth shut – turēt muti
92. down in the mouth – nomākts; sašļucis
93. to put one's money where one's mouth is - pierādīt savus vārdus ar darbiem
94. to put words into sb's mouth – ielikt kādam vārdus mutē
<b>mouthful</b>
95. to say a mouthful – pateikt kaut ko ļoti svarīgu
<b>move</b>
96. to move heaven and earth - laist darbā visus līdzekļus

**Continuation of Table 8**

<b>mover</b>
97. movers and shakers – šīs pasaules varenie
<b>much</b>
98. much of a muchness – gandrīz viens un tas pats
<b>mud</b>
99. to fling (throw) mud at sb – apmētāt kādu ar dubļiem
<b>mug</b>
100. that's a mug's game! - nemeklē muļķi!

## Appendix 9

### Evaluation of Equivalents According to Three Criteria

Table 9 The evaluation of the equivalents of English idioms found in ELD, based on the criteria proposed by Atkins and Rundell (2008: 468)

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Criteria		
	Semantic content	Message	Vocabulary type
<b>mettle</b>			
1. to be on one's mettle – izrādīt dedzību		x	
2. to put sb on his mettle – pārbaudīt kāda drosmi		x	
<b>mickey</b>			
3. to take the mickey out of sb - izsmiet kādu		x	
<b>Mickey Mouse</b>			
4. Mickey Mouse – <i>amer. sar.</i> blēņas; nieki		x	x
<b>middle</b>			
5. in the middle of nowhere – nesaprotams, kurā vietā; nezināms, kur		xx	
6. the middle way - zelta vidusceļš		x	
<b>midnight</b>			
7. to burn the midnight oil - strādāt (mācīties) līdz vēlai naktij		xx	
<b>mighty</b>			
8. to be high and mighty – 1) <i>niev.</i> tēlot lielu vīru; 2) ieņemt ietekmīgu posteni (amatu)		xx	x
<b>milch</b>			
9. milch cow – <i>pārn.</i> ( <i>par cilvēku, no kura viegli dabūt naudu</i> ) izmantojams		x	x
<b>mile</b>			
10. not a hundred miles away – tuvumā; netālu		xx	
11. to stick (stand) out a mile - 1) būt acīm redzamam; 2) būt pašam par sevi saprotamam		xx	
<b>mileage</b>			
12. to get mileage out of sth – gūt labumu no kaut kā		x	
<b>milk</b>			
13. to milk the bull (ram) – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezcerīgu (bezjēdzīgu)		xx	
14. milk for babes – viegli saprotama literatūra		x	
15. milk of human kindness – labsirdība; līdzjūtība		xx	
16. spilt milk – kaut kas nelabojuams		x	
17. milk and honey - leiputrija		x	

Continuation of Table 9

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Criteria		
	Semantic content	Message	Vocabulary type
<b>milk-and-water</b>			
18. milk-and-water - 1. ( <i>par sarunu, grāmatu u.tml.</i> ) tukšs; bezsaturīgs; 2. bezgribas-; bezsatura-; 3. neizteiksmīgs; bezgaršīgs; ūdeņains		xxxxxxx	
<b>milk run</b>			
19. milk-run – parasts maršruts; ikdienas ceļš		xx	
<b>mill</b>			
20. to go (pass) through the mill - iziet bargu dzīves skolu		x	
<b>millstone</b>			
21. between the upper and the nether millstone - bezizejas stāvoklī		x	
22. to see far into the millstone (to look through a millstone) – <i>iron.</i> būt pārlietu vērīgam (acīgam)		xx	x
23. to have (fix) a millstone about one's neck – uzkārt sev akmeni kaklā		x	
<b>mince</b>			
24. not to mince matters – runāt bez aplinkiem		x	
mincemeat			
25. to make mincemeat of sb – samalt kādu miltos		x	
<b>mind</b>			
26. to give a piece (bit) of one's mind – izteikt savas domas		x	
27. the mind's eye - iztēle		x	
28. to mind the shop – <i>pārn.</i> pārzināt lietas		x	x
29. to mind one's P's and Q's – runāt (izturēties) piesardzīgi		xx	
<b>mine</b>			
30. mine of information – informācijas avots		x	
<b>minion</b>			
31. minion of fortune – laimes luteklis	x	x	
<b>minnow</b>			
32. to throw out a minnow to catch a whale - gandrīz neko neriskēt lielas peļņas iegūšanai		x	
33. Triton among (of) the minnows - milzis pigmeju vidū		x	
<b>mire</b>			
34. to bring in (to drag through) the mire – <i>pārn.</i> apliet ar dubļiem; publiski apkaunot		xx	x

Continuation of Table 9

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Criteria		
	Semantic content	Message	Vocabulary type
35. to stick (to find oneself) in the mire - iekļūt ķezā		x	
<b>mirror</b>			
36. to hold a mirror up (to) - patiesi attēlot		x	
<b>miss</b>			
37. to miss the boat (bus) – palaist garām izdevību		x	
<b>mitt</b>			
38. frozen mitt - vēsa uzņemšana		x	
39. to tip sb's mitt – 1) sarokoties ( <i>ar kādu</i> ); 2) uzminēt ( <i>kāda</i> ) nodomus		xx	
<b>mitten</b>			
40. to get the mitten - 1) noraidīt ( <i>kā precinieku</i> ); 2) atlaist no darba		xx	
41. to give the mitten – atlaist no darba		x	
42. to handle without mittens – rupji apieties		x	
<b>mixer</b>			
43. good mixer – sabiedrīks cilvēks		x	
44. bad mixer – nesabiedrīks cilvēks		x	
<b>mixture</b>			
45. the same mixture as before - tāpat kā līdz šim		x	
<b>mole</b>			
46. blind as a mole – pilnīgi akls		x	
<b>molehill</b>			
47. to make a mountain out of a molehill – taisīt no oda ziloni		x	
<b>moment</b>			
48. man of the moment – pašreizējā autoritāte		x	
<b>Monday</b>			
49. Monday feeling – nevēlēšanās strādāt (pēc brīvdienas)		x	
<b>money</b>			
50. bad (queer) money – viltota nauda		x	
51. to throw good money after bad – bezjēdzīgi tērēt naudu		x	
52. money for jam (old rope) – par nieka darbu iegūta nauda		x	
53. for love or money – par katru cenu		x	
54. it is a bargain for the money – ienesīgs pasākums		x	
55. to coin money – kļūt bagātam, iedzīvoties naudā		xx	

Continuation of Table 9

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Criteria		
	Semantic content	Message	Vocabulary type
56. to be in the money – veiksmīgi pelnīt naudu		x	
57. on the money – tieši laikā		x	
<b>money-spinner</b>			
58. money-spinner – 1. laimes zirneklis; 2. <i>sar.</i> naudas avots; ienesīgs pasākums		xxx	x
<b>monkey</b>			
59. to get one's monkey up - sadusmoties		x	
60. to put sb's monkey up – saniknot kādu		x	
61. to make a monkey of sb – likt kādu apsmieklā		x	
62. to have a monkey on one's back – 1) būt narkomānam; 2) neieredzēt kādu		xx	
<b>monkey business</b>			
63. monkey business - <i>sar.</i> ākstīšanās; muļķošana		xx	x
<b>monkey tricks</b>			
64. monkey tricks – <i>sar.</i> draiskulība; nerātība		xx	x
<b>monkey-waggon</b>			
65. monkey-waggon - <i>amer. sl.</i> tieksme pēc narkotikām		x	x
<b>monkey wrench</b>			
66. to throw a monkey wrench into sth – bāzt sprunguļus ritenī		x	
<b>month</b>			
67. month of Sundays – ilgs laiks; vesela mūžība		xx	
<b>moon</b>			
68. to bay the moon – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezjēdzīgu		x	
69. to shoot the moon – slepus aizlaisties ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres parāda nomaksas</i> )		x	
70. to cry for the moon – prasīt neiespējamo		x	
71. to be over the moon – būt sajūsmā		x	
72. over the moon - sajūsmā		x	
73. once in a blue moon – tikpat kā nekad		x	
<b>moonlight</b>			
74. moonlight flit[ing] – slepus izvākšanās no dzīvokļa naktī ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres maksas</i> )		x	
<b>mop</b>			
75. to mop the floor (the earth; the ground) with sb – dancināt kādu pēc savas stabules		x	

Continuation of Table 9

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Criteria		
	Semantic content	Message	Vocabulary type
<b>moral</b>			
76. the very moral of sb – precīza kopija; portrets		xx	
<b>Morpheus</b>			
77. in the arms of Morpheus - guļošs		x	
<b>mote</b>			
78. to see mote in sb's eye – redzēt skabargu cita acī		x	
<b>mothball</b>			
79. to put in mothballs – 1) apstrādāt ar naftalīnu; 2) <i>pārn.</i> iekonservēt; you'll have to put this idea in mothballs – jums nāksies šo ideju atlikt uz vēlāku laiku		x	x
<b>mother</b>			
80. every mother's son – visi kā viens		x	
81. mother wit – veselais saprāts; iedzimta atjautība		xx	
<b>mould</b>			
82. man of mould – parasts mirstīgais		x	
83. people of a special mould – sevišķa kaluma ļaudis		x	
<b>mountain</b>			
84. mountain dew – <i>sar.</i> skotu viskijs		x	x
85. make a mountain out of a molehill – no oda taisīt ziloni		x	
<b>mouth</b>			
86. to take the words out of sb's mouth – izņemt kādam vārdus no mutes	x	x	
87. to have a good (bad) mouth – labi (slikti) klausīt grožiem ( <i>par zirgu</i> )		xx	
88. to give mouth - riet		x	
89. to laugh on the wrong side of one's mouth – smieties tik ilgi, kamēr jāsāk raudāt		x	
90. to open one's mouth too wide - 1) cerēt uz lielām lietām; 2) prasīt pārāk augstu cenu		xx	
91. to keep one's mouth shut – turēt muti		x	
92. down in the mouth – nomākts; sašļucis		xx	
93. to put one's money where one's mouth is - pierādīt savus vārdus ar darbiem		x	
94. to put words into sb's mouth – ielikt kādam vārdus mutē	x	x	
<b>mouthful</b>			
95. to say a mouthful – pateikt kaut ko ļoti svarīgu		x	

Continuation of Table 9

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Criteria		
	Semantic content	Message	Vocabulary type
<b>move</b>			
96. to move heaven and earth - laist darbā visus līdzekļus		x	
<b>mover</b>			
97. movers and shakers – šīs pasaules varenie		x	
<b>much</b>			
98. much of a muchness – gandrīz viens un tas pats		x	
<b>mud</b>			
99. to fling (throw) mud at sb – apmētāt kādu ar dubļiem	x	x	
<b>mug</b>			
100. that's a mug's game! - nemeklē muļķi!		x	
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>12</b>

## Appendix 10

### Functional and Explanatory Equivalents in ELD

*Table 10* The classification of the equivalents of English idioms found in ELD (2007: 646-666) into explanatory and functional equivalents

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Explanatory equivalent	Functional equivalent
<b>mettle</b>		
1. to be on one's mettle – izrādīt dedzību	x	
2. to put sb on his mettle – pārbaudīt kāda drosmi	x	
<b>mickey</b>		
3. to take the mickey out of sb - izsmiet kādu	x	
<b>Mickey Mouse</b>		
4. Mickey Mouse – <i>amer. sar.</i> blēņas; nieki	x	
<b>middle</b>		
5. in the middle of nowhere – nesaprotams, kurā vietā; nezināms, kur	xx	
6. the middle way -zelta vidusceļš		x
<b>midnight</b>		
7. to burn the midnight oil - strādāt (mācīties) līdz vēlai naktij	xx	
<b>mighty</b>		
8. to be high and mighty – 1) niev. tēlot lielu vīru; 2) ieņemt ietekmīgu posteni (amatu)	x	x
<b>milch</b>		
9. milch cow – <i>pārn.</i> (par cilvēku, no kura viegli dabūt naudu) izmantojams	x	
<b>mile</b>		
10. not a hundred miles away – tuvumā; netālu	xx	
11. to stick (stand) out a mile - 1) būt acīm redzāms; 2) būt pašam par sevi saprotāms	xx	
<b>mileage</b>		
12. to get mileage out of sth – gūt labumu no kaut kā	x	
<b>milk</b>		
13. to milk the bull (ram) – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezcerīgu (bezjēdzīgu)	xx	
14. milk for babes – viegli saprotama literatūra	x	
15. milk of human kindness – labsirdība; līdzjūtība	xx	
16. spilt milk – kaut kas nelabojams	x	
17. milk and honey - leiputrija		x
<b>milk-and-water</b>		
18. milk-and-water - 1. (par sarunu, grāmatu u.tml.) tukšs; bezsaturīgs; 2. bezgribas-; bezsatura-; 3. neizteismīgs; bezgaršīgs; ūdeņains	xxxxxxx	

Continuation of Table 10

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Explanatory equivalent	Functional equivalent
<b>milk-run</b>		
19. milk-run – parasts maršruts; ikdienas ceļš	xx	
<b>mill</b>		
20. to go (pass) through the mill - iziet bargu dzīves skolu		x
<b>millstone</b>		
21. between the upper and the nether millstone - bezizejas stāvoklī		x
22. to see far into the millstone (to look through a millstone) – iron. būt pārlietu vēriņam (acīgam)	xx	
23. to have (fix) a millstone about one's neck – uzkārt sev akmeni kaklā		x
<b>mince</b>		
24. not to mince matters – runāt bez aplinkiem	x	
<b>mincemeat</b>		
25. to make mincemeat of sb – samalt kādu miltos		x
<b>mind</b>		
26. to give a piece (bit) of one's mind – izteikt savas domas	x	
27. the mind's eye - iztēle	x	
28. to mind the shop – <i>pārn.</i> pārzināt lietas	x	
29. to mind one's P's and Q's – runāt (izturēties) piesardzīgi	xx	
<b>mine</b>		
30. mine of information – informācijas avots		x
<b>minion</b>		
31. minion of fortune – laimes luteklis		x
<b>minnow</b>		
32. to throw out a minnow to catch a whale - gandrīz neko neriskēt lielas peļņas iegūšanai	x	
33. Triton among (of) the minnows - milzis pigmeju vidū		x
<b>mire</b>		
34. to bring in (to drag through) the mire – <i>pārn.</i> apliet ar dubļiem; publiski apkaunot	x	x
35. to stick (to find oneself) in the mire - iekļūt ķezā	x	
<b>mirror</b>		
36. to hold a mirror up (to) - patiesi attēlot	x	
<b>miss</b>		
37. to miss the boat (bus) – palaist garām izdevību	x	
<b>mitt</b>		
38. frozen mitt - vēsa uzņemšana	x	

Continuation of Table 10

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Explanatory equivalent	Functional equivalent
39. to tip sb's mitt – 1) sarokoties (ar kādu); 2) uzminēt (kāda) nodomus	xx	
<b>mitten</b>		
40. to get the mitten - 1) noraidīt (kā precinieku); 2) atlaist no darba	xx	
41. to give the mitten – atlaist no darba	x	
42. to handle without mittens – rupji apieties	x	
<b>mixer</b>		
43. good mixer – sabiedriska cilvēks	x	
44. bad mixer – nesabiedriska cilvēks	x	
<b>mixture</b>		
45. the same mixture as before - tāpat kā līdz šim	x	
<b>mole</b>		
46. blind as a mole – pilnīgi akls	x	
<b>molehill</b>		
47. to make a mountain out of a molehill – taisīt no oda ziloni		x
<b>moment</b>		
48. man of the moment – pašreizējā autoritāte	x	
<b>Monday</b>		
49. Monday feeling – nevēlēšanās strādāt (pēc brīvdienas)	x	
<b>money</b>		
50. bad (queer) money – viltota nauda	x	
51. to throw good money after bad – bezjēdzīgi tērēt naudu	x	
52. money for jam (old rope) – par nieka darbu iegūta nauda	x	
53. for love or money – par katru cenu		x
54. it is a bargain for the money – ienesīgs pasākums	x	
55. to coin money – kļūt bagātam, iedzīvoties naudā	xx	
56. to be in the money – veiksmīgi pelnīt naudu	x	
57. on the money – tieši laikā	x	
<b>money-spinner</b>		
58. money-spinner – 1. laimes zirneklis; 2. sar. naudas avots; ienesīgs pasākums	x	xx
<b>monkey</b>		
59. to get one's monkey up - sadusmoties	x	
60. to put sb's monkey up – saniknot kādu	x	
61. to make a monkey of sb – likt kādu apsmieklā	x	
62. to have a monkey on one's back – 1) būt narkomānam; 2) neieredzēt kādu	xx	

Continuation of Table 10

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Explanatory equivalent	Functional equivalent
<b>monkey business</b>		
63. monkey business - <i>sar.</i> ākstīšanās; muļķošana	xx	
<b>monkey tricks</b>		
64. monkey tricks – <i>sar.</i> draiskulība; nerātība	xx	
<b>monkey-waggon</b>		
65. monkey-waggon - <i>amer. sl.</i> tieksme pēc narkotikām	x	
<b>monkey wrench</b>		
66. to throw a monkey wrench into sth – bāzt sprunguļus ritenī		x
<b>month</b>		
67. month of Sundays – ilgs laiks; vesela mūžība	xx	
<b>moon</b>		
68. to bay the moon – nodarboties ar kaut ko bezjēdzīgu	x	
69. to shoot the moon – slepus aizlaisties ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres parāda nomaksas</i> )	x	
70. to cry for the moon – prasīt neiespējamo	x	
71. to be over the moon – būt sajūsmā	x	
72. over the moon - sajūsmā	x	
73. once in a blue moon – tikpat kā nekad	x	
<b>moonlight</b>		
74. moonlight flit[ing] – slepus izvākšanās no dzīvokļa naktī ( <i>lai izvairītos no īres maksas</i> )	x	
<b>mop</b>		
75. to mop the floor (the earth; the ground) with sb – dancināt kādu pēc savas stabules		x
<b>moral</b>		
76. the very moral of sb – precīza kopija; portrets	xx	
<b>Morpheus</b>		
77. in the arms of Morpheus - guļošs	x	
<b>mote</b>		
78. to see mote in sb's eye – redzēt skabargu cita acī		x
<b>mothball</b>		
79. to put in mothballs – 1) apstrādāt ar naftalīnu; 2) <i>pārn.</i> iekonservēt; you'll have to put this idea in mothballs – jums nāksies šo ideju atlikt uz vēlāku laiku	x	
<b>mother</b>		
80. every mother's son – visi kā viens	x	
81. mother wit – veselais saprāts; iedzimta atjautība	xx	
<b>mould</b>		
82. man of mould – parasts mirstīgais	x	
83. people of a special mould – sevišķa kaluma ļaudis		x

Continuation of Table 10

English idioms and their Latvian equivalents	Explanatory equivalent	Functional equivalent
<b>mountain</b>		
84. mountain dew – <i>sar. skotu viskijs</i>	x	
85. make a mountain out of a molehill – <i>no oda taisīt ziloni</i>		x
<b>mouth</b>		
86. to take the words out of sb's mouth – <i>izņemt kādam vārdus no mutes</i>		x
87. to have a good (bad) mouth – <i>labi (slikti) klausīt grožiem (par zirgu)</i>	xx	
88. to give mouth - <i>riet</i>	x	
89. to laugh on the wrong side of one's mouth – <i>smieties tik ilgi, kamēr jāsāk raudāt</i>	x	
90. to open one's mouth too wide - 1) <i>cerēt uz lielām lietām</i> ; 2) <i>prasīt pārāk augstu cenu</i>	xx	
91. to keep one's mouth shut – <i>turēt muti</i>	x	
92. down in the mouth – <i>nomākts; sašļucis</i>	xx	
93. to put one's money where one's mouth is - <i>pierādīt savus vārdus ar darbiem</i>		x
94. to put words into sb's mouth – <i>ielikt kādam vārdus mutē</i>		x
<b>mouthful</b>		
95. to say a mouthful – <i>pateikt kaut ko ļoti svarīgu</i>	x	
<b>move</b>		
96. to move heaven and earth - <i>laist darbā visus līdzekļus</i>		x
<b>mover</b>		
97. movers and shakers – <i>šīs pasaules varenie</i>		x
<b>much</b>		
98. much of a muchness – <i>gandrīz viens un tas pats</i>	x	
<b>mud</b>		
99. to fling (throw) mud at sb – <i>apmētāt kādu ar dubļiem</i>		x
<b>mug</b>		
100. that's a mug's game! - <i>nemeklē muļķi!</i>	x	
<b>Total</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>26</b>