INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

Université d'Ottawa · University of Ottawa

THE PRESENCE AND TREATMENT OF TERMS IN GENERAL DICTIONARIES

By

Annette Jessen

School of Translation and Interpretation
University of Ottawa

Supervised by

Roda P. Roberts, PhD
School of Translation and Interpretation

Thesis submitted to the
School of Graduate Studies and Research
of the University of Ottawa
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of M.A. in Translation

ABSTRACT

Languages for special purposes are represented in general dictionaries through the terms that belong to each, along with the words that belong to language for general purposes. Terms are presented in general dictionaries as technical or specialized senses of lexical items. However, terms are not always easy to recognize in general dictionaries which present entries for lexical items and not terms, although subject field labels are often used to identify the technical senses corresponding to terms. This thesis examines the presence and treatment of terms in general dictionaries. It also analyzes the policies and guidelines on the inclusion of terms and indication of their field in selected unilingual and bilingual general dictionaries. Finally, it examines the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary's policies on the inclusion of terms and indication of their field and analyzes their application in examples taken from the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary lexicographic database.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I am indebted to my thesis director, Dr. Roda P. Roberts, for her insightful advice and encouragement in writing this thesis. The level of commitment that she has for her students and research assistants is exceptional. I would also like to sincerely thank her for every opportunity she has offered me at the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary (BCD) Project, a place where I feel I have found my niche. My involvement there has been an invaluable learning experience.

Second, I would like to thank my fellow lexicographers at the BCD, especially Michael Toope for his words of advice. The entire BCD family created a warm and supportive environment in which to work and grow. Special thanks to Béatrice Baffert for translating the abstract of this thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank my family for their love, encouragement and patience. But I must also reserve a special acknowledgment for my husband Michael Gangl, Mickey and "Egbert" for continually putting things into perspective and reminding me of the lighter side of life.

RÉSUMÉ

Les mots de la langue générale sont accompagnés, dans les dictionnaires généraux, des termes appartenant à des langues de spécialité. Dans ces mêmes dictionnaires, les termes correspondent aux sens techniques ou spécialisés d'unités lexicales. Cependant, il n'est pas toujours facile de repérer les termes dans les dictionnaires généraux qui mettent comme entrées des unités lexicales et non des termes, même si des marques de domaines sont souvent utilisées pour signaler les sens techniques correspondant aux termes. La présente thèse étudie la présence et le traitement des termes dans les dictionnaires généraux. En outre, elle analyse les politiques et lignes directrices concernant l'inclusion de termes et l'indication de leur domaine dans des dictionnaires généraux unilingues et bilingues. Elle étudie, enfin, la politique adoptée par le Dictionnaire canadien bilingue quant à l'inclusion des termes et à l'indication de leur domaine et analyse la mise en application de cette politique grâce à l'étude d'exemples tirés de la base de données lexicographique du Dictionnaire canadien bilingue.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

0.1 TOPIC

This thesis deals with the presence and treatment of terminology in general dictionaries. The concept of terminology and that of general dictionaries appear at first sight to be mutually exclusive. Terminology is normally seen as the object of specialized dictionaries, while the so-called "general language" is considered the focus of general dictionaries. However, in some of the earliest English and French general dictionaries dating back to about the seventeenth century, terms were included, much to the consternation of certain language specialists or groups. Moreover, this trend has continued and become even more marked over time. Hence, terminology in general dictionaries is a valid subject of study.

0.2 OBJECTIVES

This thesis has two primary objectives:

i) to examine the presence of terms in general dictionaries; and

ii) to analyze the treatment of terms in general dictionaries.

In order to fulfill these primary objectives, three secondary objectives need to be met:

i) to examine the similarities and differences between general language and specialized language;

ii) to examine the similarities and differences between words and terms; and

iii) to examine how terms are "marked" in general dictionaries.

0.3 METHODOLOGY

In order to achieve these objectives, three methods of research have been used:

i) analysis of the theoretical literature on languages for special purposes (LSPs) and language for general purposes (LGP), words and terms, terms in general dictionaries and field labelling;

ii) analysis of the treatment of technical and specialized lexical items in recent general dictionaries; and

iii) analysis of the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary (BCD) Project's policies and practices related to terms and field labelling.

0.4 PARTICULAR PROBLEMS

One major problem I faced in the analysis of dictionaries was the very identification of terms. A given linguistic form can have several different senses. That form along with one technical or specialized sense is considered a term. General dictionaries, which adopt a semasiological approach, work from form to senses, and therefore present one entry for any given form. In other words, they do not isolate the technical or specialized sense in a separate entry and therefore do not make a clear distinction between words and terms, LGP and LSP. While general unilingual dictionaries (GUDs) do usually present each sense (including technical and specialized senses) in a separate sense division, general bilingual dictionaries (GBDs) often do not. Moreover, although technical or specialized senses are "isolated" in GUDs, they are often not marked for field. Hence, the problem of identification of terms.

Another major problem is related not to the analysis of the topic, but to its linguistic presentation. GUDs present entries for *lexical items* and not terms. However, they do include technical senses and the items in those senses can be called *terms*. The terminology of the thesis thus becomes confusing and needs to be clarified here. Presented below is a list of the problem terms and the way they have been used in this thesis:

Lexical item:	Lexical items are represented in general dictionaries as headwords or subheadwords that may cover both general senses and technical or specialized senses.
Word:	A word is a lexical item that functions in general reference, i.e. that has general senses.
Technical sense:	A technical sense is the technical or specialized meaning of a lexical item in a dictionary; that is, the meaning of a lexical item restricted to a field of discourse. In general dictionaries, technical senses are typically identified by field labels. A given headword or subheadword in a given technical sense in a general dictionary corresponds to a term.
Term:	A term is any conventional symbol representing a concept defined in a subject field. A term may share the same linguistic form as a word.

0.5 SUMMARY OF THE THESIS

This thesis, which analyzes lexical items in their technical senses, consists of three chapters.

Chapter 1, LSPs, Terms and Field Labels, examines (a) the definitions of LGP and LSPs, and the similarities and differences between them, in order to illustrate the permeability between the two, which occurs especially on the lexical level; (b) the definitions of words and terms, and the similarities and differences between them, to illustrate the fact that the

frontier between them is often vague; and (c) the role of field labels as a type of usage label in dictionaries and the use of field labels to identify technical or specialized senses (i.e. to identify terms).

Chapter 2 discusses the inclusion of terms in general dictionaries since the earliest publications, as well as the types of fields covered in such dictionaries. It also analyzes the treatment of terms in general unilingual and bilingual dictionaries from two points of view: their inclusion and indication of field. This chapter also draws conclusions regarding the inconsistencies found with respect to these two aspects in general dictionaries.

Chapter 3 presents the BCD's policy regarding the inclusion of terms. It also covers the BCD's process for systematically selecting what dictionary elements should be marked for field, determining how they should be marked, as well as how field labels should be selected and used. Finally, this chapter analyzes a number of examples of the representation of field in BCD entries.

There are three appendices:

> Appendix A includes the lists of field labels used in the dictionaries examined for the analysis in chapter 2. The purpose of this appendix is to illustrate the inconsistencies that exist from dictionary to dictionary with respect to fields covered and field labels chosen.

Appendix B includes a provisional list of fields that may be covered by the BCD, as well as a four-level hierarchical classification of these fields to help lexicographers and users see how the fields are related to one another.

Appendix C consists of an alphabetical list of source code abbreviations used by the BCD when preparing entries. The abbreviations are used in the analysis in section 3.4.

I hope that this thesis will not only clarify the presence and treatment of terminology in general dictionaries, but will also contribute to the BCD's ongoing research by testing its policies and guidelines through the analysis of examples.

CHAPTER 1: LSPs, TERMS AND FIELD LABELS

Terminology, the topic of this thesis, is generally considered an element of LSPs rather than of LGP. Since the vocabulary of LSPs is presented mainly in specialized dictionaries and this thesis focusses on general dictionaries, discussing terminology in general dictionaries may seem like an oxymoron. In this chapter, we will study the relationship between LSP and LGP and between words and terms and examine the role of field labels in marking terms of various LSPs in general dictionaries.

1.1 LSP VERSUS LGP

LSP cannot be entirely dissociated from LGP,[1] although most linguists do make some distinction between the two. (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995:16; Durocher, 1989:33)

1.1.1 Definition of LGP

Guy Rondeau (1984:24) gives a simplified definition of LGP: "On entend par langue commune ... l'ensemble des mots et expressions qui, dans le contexte où ils sont employés, ne se réfèrent pas à une activité spécialisée." Bo Svensén (1993:48) proposes that "*general language* can be defined as the sum of the means of linguistic expression encountered by

[1] Picht and Draskau (1985:3) state that LGP and LSP do "not constitute an opposition," although they may be represented as "discrete varieties." Sager *et al.* (1980:1), on the other hand, refer to "special languages in opposition to general language."

most speakers of a given language."[2] Juan Sager, David Dungworth and Peter McDonald (1980:64) describe LGP as "an abstraction derived from a society's division of knowledge into general and special."

LGP, which is typically referred to as common or general language, has, by definition, a "zero-level of specialization" according to Heribert Picht and Jennifer Draskau (1985:6). LGP may also be seen as the general reservoir on which the LSP of the various areas draw. (Picht and Draskau, 1985:3)

1.1.2 Definition of LSP

Language is related to knowledge-experience. Since no individual[3] can possibly possess the whole of a linguistic community's knowledge, knowledge is divided into disciplines or subjects. Much of this knowledge is considered common to all, or general, and can be discussed using LGP. However, special knowledge is developed on the basis of general knowledge, as are the special languages that are used to present this special knowledge. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:4, 72)

LSP is often thought of as "the means of expression of highly qualified subject specialists like engineers, physicians, lawyers, etc." However, special areas of human interest, such as

---

[2] Svensén (1993:48-49) further develops his definition by stipulating that general language "involves not only the words, expressions, and syntactic patterns which come within the active range of most users of the language, but also what falls within their passive range, i.e. what most language users recognize and understand in certain given communication situations."

[3] Or group of individuals.

nursing, book-keeping, even hobbies, also require and have their own special language. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:3)

As yet, there is no general agreement either on the scope of LSP or on its definition. However, many definitions of it have been formulated. According to Picht and Draskau (1985:3):

> LSP is a formalized and codified variety of language, used for special purposes and in a legitimate context — that is to say, with the function of communicating information of a specialist nature at any level — at the highest level of complexity, between initiate experts, and, at lower levels of complexity, with the aim of informing or initiating other interested parties, in the most economic, precise and unambiguous terms possible ... LSP is LGP-dependent.

According to Lothar Hoffmann (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:20):

> LSP — is the totality of linguistic means[4] used in a specific area of communication[5] in order to assure the communication of people working in this field.

Finally, according to Sager *et al.* (1980:69), LSPs, which they call special subject languages, are "semi-autonomous, complex semiotic systems based on and derived from general language; their use presupposes special education and is restricted to communication among specialists in the same or closely related fields."

---

[4] By "totality of linguistic means," Hoffmann refers to the functional interaction of phonetic, morphological, and lexical elements and syntactic rules in all possible acts of communication in a specific field of work. Hoffmann stipulates that these linguistic means are drawn from the total of all linguistic means as presented in general language. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:20)

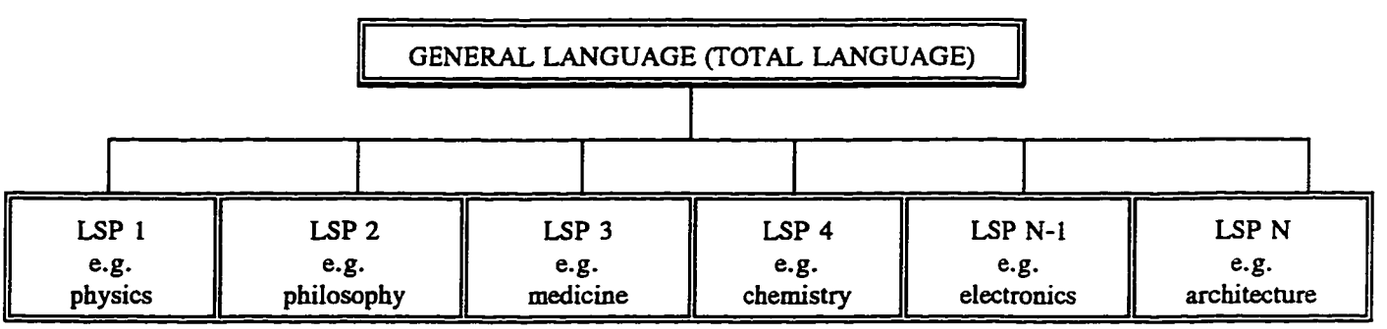
[5] The "areas of communication," and therefore the distinction between the different LSPs according to Hoffmann, are difficult to delimit since areas of LSPs often overlap as a result of the formation of whole new sciences. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:20)

What is clear from the definitions of LSP presented above is the fact that LSP is used for communication among people working in a specialized area. What also emerges from these definitions is a) that LSP is not a monolithic block; b) that LSP is a "variety of language," one type of "special language"; and c) that LSP is LGP-based.

1.1.3 Varieties and Levels of LSP

Picht and Draskau (1985:1) raise the question as to whether it would be more accurate to speak of LSP or LSPs. They prefer to refer to a "variety" of LSP, since, for them, LSP varieties from various areas of specialism have many shared characteristics. (Picht and Draskau, 1985:5)[6]

Hoffmann has presented a horizontal classification of LSPs:



In order to examine the increasing "precision of language" in specialized areas of communication, Hoffmann proposes that a vertical classification may also be established for each sublanguage. Generally speaking, the vertical levels could be named A, B, C, D, E and commented on, for example, as follows (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:21-22):

---

[6] For clarity and concision, I have used the singular form, LSP, to refer to all LSPs taken collectively.

A = highest level of abstraction
B = very high level of abstraction
C = high level of abstraction
D = low level of abstraction
E = very low level of abstraction

Hoffmann's description brings out two aspects of LSPs: i) each LSP needs to be marked off from other LSPs; and ii) each LSP consists in itself of several layers. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:22)

Sager *et al.* (1980:183) interpret Hoffmann's vertical levels (or text levels) of LSP as follows:

i) the language of theoretical basic sciences;

ii) the language of experimental and technical sciences;

iii) the language of applied sciences and technology;

iv) the language of material production; and

v) the language of consumption.

LSPs may also be partitioned into three broader categories according to Galisson and Coste (1976:511): "les langues techniques," "les langues scientifiques," and "les langues professionnelles." They describe these three categories as follows (1976:511):

a) les langues techniques, qui réfèrent à des champs d'expérience concernant les applications de la connaissance théorique dans le domaine de la production, de l'économie (ex. : les langues de la pétrochimie, de la fonderie);

b) les langues scientifiques : qui rendent compte des champs d'expérience caractérisés par un objet et une méthode d'investigation déterminés et de

connaissances fondées sur des relations objectives vérifiables (ex. : les langues de la physique, des mathématiques); and

c) les langues professionnelles ou de métiers, qui s'appliquent à des champs d'expérience relatifs aux genres d'occupations manuels ou mécaniques dont les individus tirent leurs moyens d'existence (ex. : les langues de la boucherie, de la menuiserie).

Hoffmann explains the development of such a variety of LSPs. According to him, there is a direct correlation between productivity and the economic situation of a society and the development of language, which is typically evident in vocabulary as new concepts and newly discovered or created objects must be named. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:6) The formation of an LSP can be ascribed to labour division and specialization: as instruments and processes in production are developed and improved, labour division and specialization is accelerated. The more specialized a society becomes, the more distinct the LSP will be. Specialization can be traced to very early periods when hunting and farming were the main occupations. It increased with the growth of production and the formation of trades. The industrial revolution of the eighteenth century marked a rapid development leading to industry and substantial progress in science and technology. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:6) Effectively, each division of labour and specialization constitutes an LSP.

1.1.4 LSP and Special Languages

Not only are there a number of LSPs, but these LSPs are one variety of what are called "special languages" or "sublanguages". Sager *et al.* and Svensén specifically relate LSP to special languages. Svensén (1993:49) postulates that the concept of *special language* has two

aspects: one socio-linguistic (*group language*) and one subject-related (*technical language*). Group language serves the purpose of marking a social group and distinguishing it from the surrounding world. Technical language derives from the ongoing development and specialization in the fields of science, technology, and sociology, as new concepts are constantly being defined. The latter corresponds more directly to Picht and Draskau's and Hoffmann's definition of LSP. However, as Svensén points out, the two aspects of special language are not mutually exclusive: group languages may also, at times, be technical languages (i.e. technical group languages).

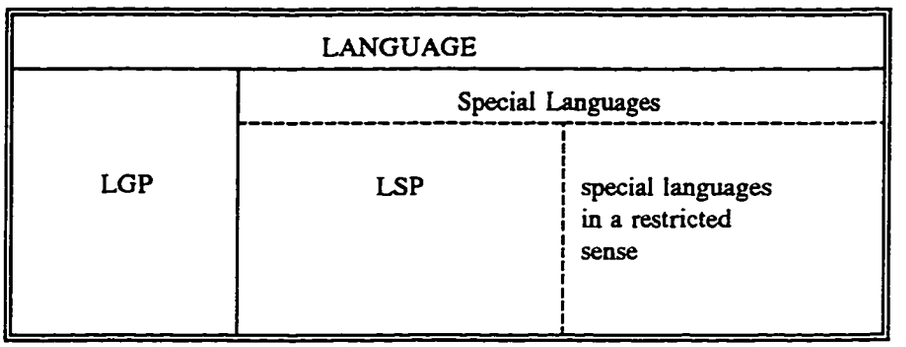
According to Sager *et al.* (1980:63), there are three types of sub-languages (i.e. special languages) in the language system: dialects, sociolects[7] and subject languages. Each sublanguage is determined by a social norm and forms part of the linguistic norm of the whole system. Within each linguistic community, there is the tendency for small groups (geographical, social or professional) to differentiate themselves. This tendency explains the development of sub-languages, such as special subject languages, which "arise from the special needs of particular groups to communicate about topics outside general situations and of exclusive interest to themselves." (Sager *et al.*, 1980:35-36) Special subject languages, i.e.

---

[7] Sager *et al.* (1980:63) state that "Dialects form a contrasting set of sub-languages used by geographically determined speech communities. They are comparable linguistically by formal similarities, pragmatically by mutual intelligibility, historical and political criteria ... Sociolects form contrasting sets within dialects or a national language. They reflect the social structure of a speech community and can be described with regard to their distance from or proximity to the sociolinguistic concept of 'standard' language, which is a norm based on a single or an amalgam of sociolects." And special subject languages can have dialectal or sociolectal variants.

LSPs, "form mutually exclusive, though overlapping sets of sub-languages based on the division of knowledge of a speech community". (Sager *et al.*, 1980:63)[8]

Picht and Draskau, who, like Sager *et al.*, also group LSP under the generic *special languages*, make a distinction between LSP proper and "special languages in a restricted sense." The former is essential for the professional in his field and is acquired subconsciously; the latter is optional and is often acquired through interests or hobbies. They see the relationship of LSP to other special languages and to LGP as follows (1985:14):



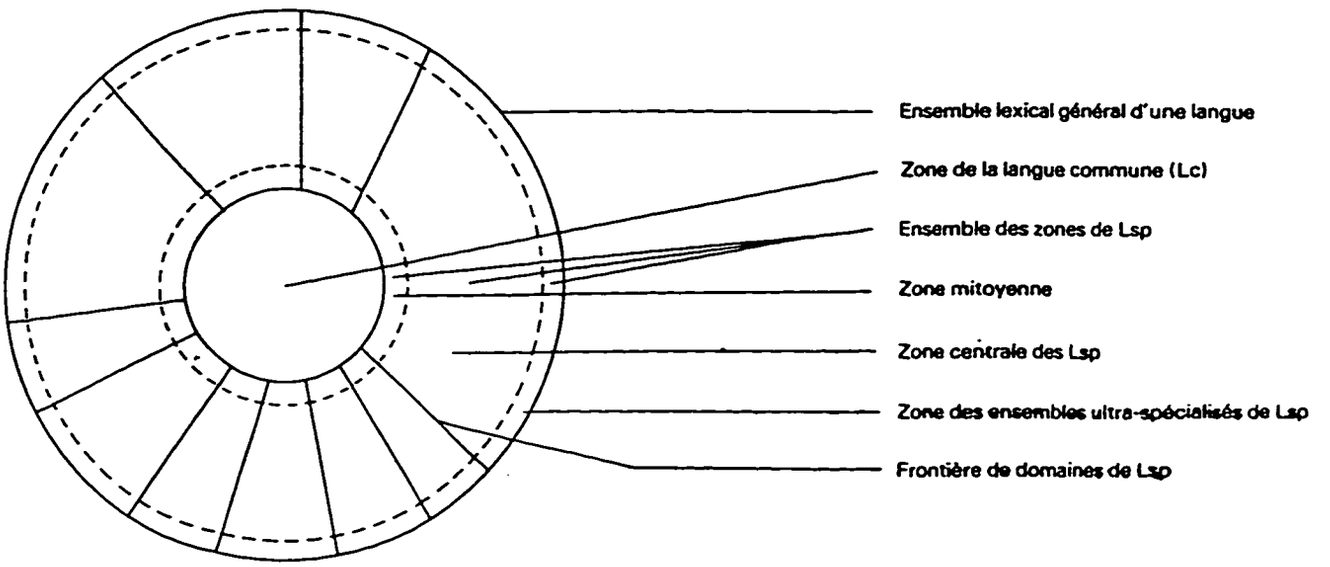
1.1.5 Different Ways of Relating LSPs to LGP

All special languages, including special subject languages, are LGP-based. Indeed, as Sager *et al.* (1980:39) point out, "all LSPs are developed from the basis of the general language or one of its geographical or social variants." However, as indicated above, most linguists do make a distinction between LSPs and LGP. But, since there does not appear to be a "clear-cut line of demarcation" between them, opinions vary as to the precise relationship between the LSPs and LGP. (Picht and Draskau, 1985:1)

---

[8] Hoffmann also refers to LSPs as sublanguages. However, instead of comparing them with dialectal and sociolectal sublanguages, he classifies them as sublanguages of total or general language. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:14, 18)

Rondeau (1984:25) views language as a circle composed of a system of concentric circles or zones. The innermost circle represents common or general language (LGP) and each of the circles moving away from the inner circle towards the outer circumference represents zones of more and more specialized language (LSP). The outer circles are also divided into fields, one for each LSP.



Rondeau (1984:24) explains the relationship between the LGP zone and the LSP zones in the following terms:

> L'ensemble des zones de Lsp se répartit sur trois cercles concentriques allant de la *zone mitoyenne*, la plus rapprochée de la langue commune, jusqu'à la *zone des ensembles ultra-spécialisés*. La représentation en bandes plus étroites de ces deux zones illustre qu'en général, mais cela varie d'un domaine à l'autre, le nombre de termes est moins élevé dans ces zones que dans la *zone centrale des Lsp*.

Rondeau (1984:24) indicates that terms such as *phase, moyenne, structure, atome, mesure, degré*, etc. occur in the "zone mitoyenne" since they do not generally belong to a particular

field or domain. In fact, the concepts they represent often resemble senses that the same linguistic forms have in LGP. On the other end of the scale is highly specialized vocabulary relating to the latest techniques and research and development; it is used only by a restricted number of experts in a given field and falls into the *zone des ensembles ultra-spécialisés*. Neologisms tend to unfold in this zone.

According to Rondeau (1984:24), the frontier between LGP and LSPs is permeable, so that, in theory, nothing prohibits a linguistic form from existing in more than one zone. For example, "colique" occurs simultaneously in two zones: in the LSP zone of the medical field, referring to a single concept; and in the LGP zone, having several senses. With the passage of time, there may even be a certain amount of change in the meaning of words, a semantic shift. There are at least two types of shifts that have been identified in historical semantics (McArthur, 1992:913):

i) specialization, in which the meaning of a word narrows over the years (LGP to LSP); for example, *mouse* which has developed a specialized meaning in computing; and

ii) generalization, in which the meaning and reference of a word widen over the years (LSP to LGP); for example, the originally specialized term *neurotic* is now used to designate any excessively anxious person.

Picht and Draskau (1985:6-7) adopt two congruent models[9] that graphically illustrate the relationship between LGP and LSPs.[10] The models are very similar to Rondeau's in that they also feature concentric circles with the central area representing LGP, and the peripheral

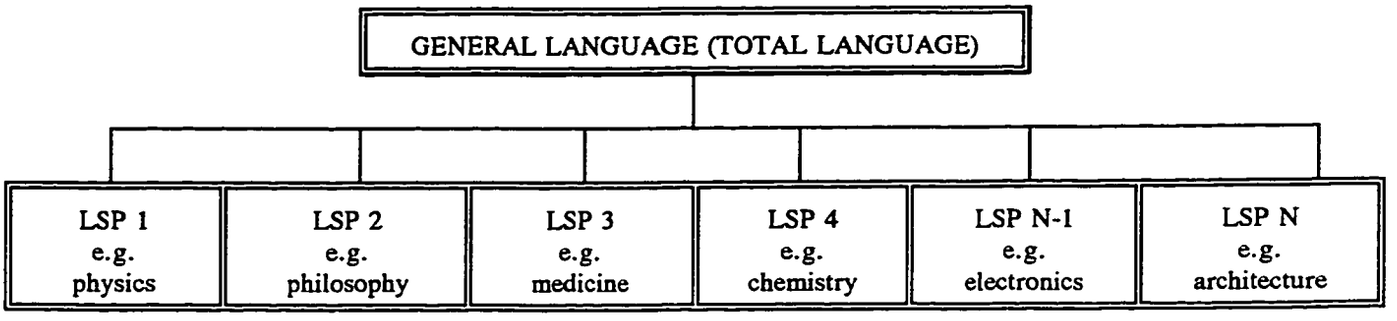
---

[9] The models are those of Baldinger and Reinhard.

[10] Although the two models illustrate the relationship between the lexis of LGP and that of LSP, Picht and Draskau (1985:7) claim that they are also generally applicable to the language as a whole.

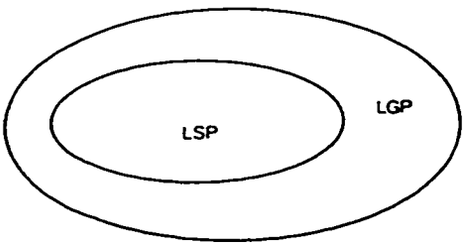
circles segmented into distinct fields of knowledge or LSPs, indicating increasing degrees of specialization.

Hoffmann undertakes his own delimitation of the LSP-LGP relationship. He describes LSPs and LGP as having a part-whole relationship, in that an LSP is a part of LGP since LGP consists of the total of all linguistic means from which the LSPs "take their material for the actualized acts of communication" and an LSP consists of the choice and arrangement of such linguistic means for a special purpose rather than the linguistic means themselves. In addition, according to Hoffmann (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:18), since each act of communication "will take place in one specific area of human communication, the general language becomes an abstraction. The [LSPs] are thus in a concrete/abstract relation to the general or total language. The latter can easily be identified with 'langue' whereas the [LSPs] become thematically or functionally limited extracts of 'parole.'" Hoffmann illustrates this relationship using the following diagram (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:18):

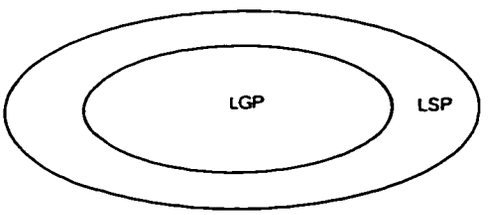


Other linguists envision different variations on the relationship between LSP and LGP. What follows are five theories (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995:16-18) on the differentiation between

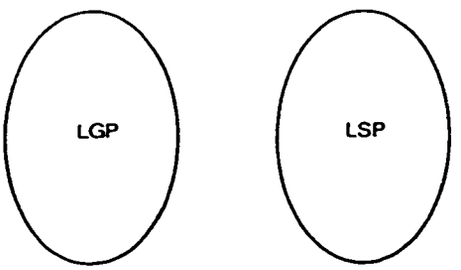
LSP and LGP. Firstly, all LSPs are regarded as elements of general language and, therefore, make use of the general-language system:



The second theory is diametrically opposed to the first. LGP is seen as a subset of LSP since all general-language expressions are found in special language which also includes all the LSP expressions characterizing the different specialized segments of LSP:

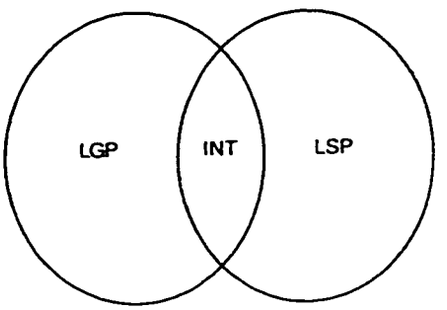


Thirdly, LGP and LSP are considered equal, yet distinct, since they are used in completely different communication situations, with LSP restricted to experts communicating within their field of knowledge:



Fourthly, the existence of LGP as a phenomenon in its own right is dismissed completely, since all language usage is considered specific to a certain situation. This implies that every language variety is an LSP; for example a medical novel, a cycling magazine and a law textbook represent different LSPs.

However, a fifth and more realistic approach is based on the assumed existence of an LGP which consists of basic language structures and elements including words,[11] understood or used by the majority of native speakers in a number of situations. LSP uses part of general language, such as grammatical constructions and some general-language words. However, in addition, LSP uses technical terms. The intersection (INT) between LGP and LSP is then made up of the structures and elements occurring in both LGP and LSP:[12]



It is obvious from the above that there is little consensus on the relationship of LGP and LSPs.

---

[11] These elements are covered in elementary grammars and learners' dictionaries (e.g. *Collins Cobuild*).

[12] Logically, it would therefore be conversely true that technical and specialized terms occur in LGP.

1.1.6 Similarities between LGP and LSPs

However, based on the definitions of LGP and LSP, it can be stated that "le discours général et le discours spécialisé font appel à un même fonds linguistique, les langues de spécialité ne pouvant, de toute évidence, fonctionner sans le système linguistique qui sous-tend la langue générale." (Duquet-Picard, quoted in Durocher, 1989:33) Consequently, LGP and LSP have a number of elements in common on several linguistic levels: morphology,[13] syntax, discourse and lexis.

With respect to the formation of words, there do not appear to be any clear, definitive criteria for distinguishing between LGP and LSPs (Picht and Draskau, 1985:8), although it may be argued that LSPs do in fact use a more limited morphology than LGP. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:40)

From a structural point of view, although LSPs may use a restricted syntax (Sager *et al.*, 1980:40), there are no syntactic structures present in LSPs which are not also encountered in LGP. (Picht and Draskau, 1985:9) Non-specialist readers of an LSP text recognize grammatical forms as those normally used in LGP texts. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:230) Therefore, LSPs do not generally "redesignate syntactic forms or evolve quite separate ones." (Sager *et al.*, 1980:40)

---

[13] As well as the morphological level, Picht and Draskau (1985:8) indicate a morphemic/graphemic level. For the purposes of this thesis, I shall consider the morphemic and morphological levels to be equivalent, and shall treat them as one level, referring to it as the morphological level.

LSPs and LGP are also similar in that their discourses are essentially based on the same morphological and syntactic systems. Discourse can be defined as the production of language, oral or written, addressing a certain topic and presenting meaning.

Obviously, there are different types of discourse, such as medical discourse, journalistic discourse, legal discourse, technical discourse, administrative discourse, etc., each of which is divisible into sub-types. For example, administrative discourse consists of business letters, minutes of meetings, annual reports, job descriptions, etc. Each type or sub-type of discourse involves its own choice of lexical items, phraseology, themes, and rules of composition. In other words, discourse consists of an entire generic system that allows the user to identify a text as belonging to a certain type of discourse. (Brisset, 1991:2)

While, in general, value judgements of a society restrict discourse from being a mixture of genres (for example, it is generally believed that literature should not be politicized), subtle transgressions do occur and are noticed. Mechanisms of interdiscursive transposition are operating; there are "migrations" of rhetorical features from one genre to another. (Angenot, 1989:102) They are adapted to the target discourse and its set of norms. In other words, the borders of the different types of discourse are not impenetrable.

As a result of the similarities, indeed the overlapping, between the various types of discourses, LSPs and LGP share another element: lexical items. According to Hoffmann, LSPs, as sublanguages of LGP, use linguistic means, such as lexical elements, which derive

from LGP. For example, the lexicon of special subjects includes "general language words used in all disciplines without distinction" (*note, observe, demonstrate, prove*, etc.) as well as "general language words appropriate to a particular discipline" (*stir, shake, boil, freeze* in chemistry). General language words may also be used "specifically with some restriction or modification of meaning" in a particular LSP (*segregate, precipitate, suspend* in chemistry; *current* in electrical engineering). (Sager *et al.*, 1980:242)

Since LGP and LSP discourses draw from the same linguistic basis and different types of discourses tend to overlap, they thus share a number of similarities, such as morphology, syntax, discourse features and lexis.

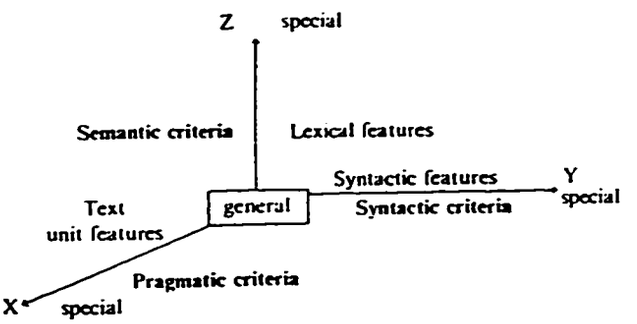
1.1.7 Differences between LGP and LSPs

Despite these similarities, however, there are also a number of tendencies observed in LSP and LGP discourses that may help to differentiate them.

On the morphological level, LSPs may, for example, use certain derivations more frequently than LGP. (Picht and Draskau, 1985:8) In medical terminology, for instance, suffixes such as *-algia, -iasis, -itis, -oma, -osis*, which are not common in LGP, are added to the name of the organ or affected part of the body to indicate the causes of diseases.

On the syntactic level, LSPs seem to experience a slightly more restricted syntax than LGP. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:40) For example, the frequency of structures such as exclamations and interjections are minimal, indeed rare, in LSPs. (Picht and Draskau, 1985:8)

However, these tendencies do not necessarily establish universal criteria for delimiting LSPs and LGP. The syntactic approach to distinguishing LSPs from LGP must be guided by pragmatic and semantic criteria. Sager *et al.* (1980:9) have developed a model that incorporates such criteria and illustrates that LSPs consist of features, which, although similar to LGP, differ from LGP by degree:



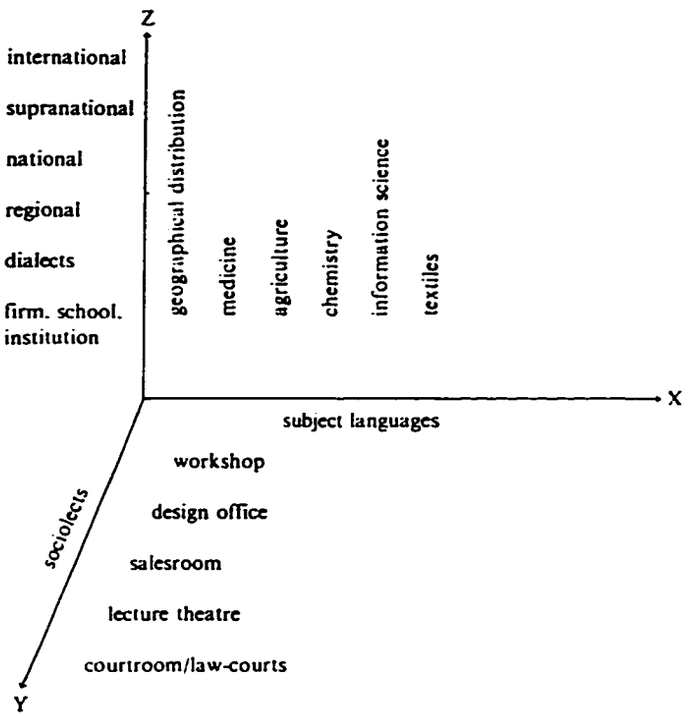
X axis represents categories such as reports, handbooks, contracts, etc., according to their distance from LGP forms;

Y axis gives sentence and phrase structures as they occur in LSPs; and

Z axis indicates increasing specialization of lexical items.

Elements of language on the pragmatic level and semantic level may help illustrate the difference between LGP and LSPs.

The pragmatic approach to distinguishing LSPs from LGP, which is user-oriented, requires exploration of the situations under which individuals use language, and more particularly LSPs (Sager *et al.*, 1980:7):



X axis exemplifies the various areas or fields of knowledge and activity which can have LSPs;

Y axis exemplifies areas of use which can be established for LSPs; and

Z axis exemplifies physical areas of distribution of LSP usage.

In those fields of knowledge (X axis) and settings (Y axis) in which LSPs are used, Sager *et al.* (1980:5) identify special types of text units which may differentiate LSPs from LGP in that LSPs develop particular forms of language units deriving from different forms of speech acts. They claim, for example, that medical reports, wills and testaments, market surveys or invoices are special formats and units of text associated with particular subjects like medicine, law, economics and commerce, respectively. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:5)

Special text units on the pragmatic level are characterized by specific semantic features manifested through the lexicon. To the non-specialist, many of the lexical items that he may encounter in an LSP text are likely to be either completely new or, at least, used with a meaning with which he is unfamiliar. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:230) Indeed, LSP text units are characterized by the frequency and type of "special designation" they contain. Sager *et al.* (1980:232) provide the following examples:

a) patents and contracts must contain fully terminologized designations and must define all terms which do not have an acknowledged designation and definition recorded in an authoritative schedule to which reference can be made;

b) production memoranda or discussions contain many shortened designations, ad hoc abbreviations or popular synonyms;

c) essays and reports on new developments contain many tentative terms together with established terms;

d) some special languages do not have a popular set of designations (legal language); and

e) subjects, like crafts of hobbies, may require neither an authoritative fixation of terminology nor the varieties of designation of engineering, for instance.

The range of designations necessary for an LSP is determined by the diversity of text forms required in any special language community. (Sager *et al.*, 1980:232)

On the lexical level, the primary difference between LSPs and LGP occurs with respect to reference: LSP disciplines require more "rigorous constraints on the delineation of items of knowledge" in comparison with the less 'disciplined' structure of general knowledge. (Sager, 1990:19) Consequently, the reference function of LGP is classified as general

reference and that of LSP as special reference. Furthermore, "the lexical level of special languages must be defined as including all items which have special reference, regardless of whether they have general reference or not." (Sager *et al.*, 1980:230)

In fact, LSPs use three types of lexical items (Sager *et al.*, 1980:242): a) a large number of general language words found in all disciplines without distinction; b) general language words appropriate to a particular discipline; and c) lexical elements not typically found in LGP: "the terms specific to a discipline which are normally used only by specialists."

Despite the fact that LSPs use numerous general language words, Sager *et al.* (1980:238) contend that statistical data confirms that LSPs have a higher rate of lexical repetition than LGP:

> While the 10 most frequent words [of a total language] constitute approximately 25% of the vocabulary of any sample of general and special language, the 100 most frequent words constitute 60% of texts in general language but only 50% of texts in special language. The 1 000 most frequent words in general language constitute 85% of all text but only 80% in special language, which indicates that the basic special vocabulary of special languages is larger than that of general language.

These numbers indicate that LSPs and LGP differ on the lexical level. In fact, it is generally agreed that the particularity of LSPs that distinguishes them most significantly and obviously from LGP is their lexicon.[14]

---

[14] While many linguists approach LSPs only from the lexicological point of view, Hoffmann proposes two main approaches to the classification of LSPs: the stylistic approach and the lexicological approach. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:10) In the stylistic approach, LSPs are not regarded as special subject languages, but rather as a special style, the "scientific" style, which is one of five styles identified by Budagov and referred to by Hoffmann (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:12):

1. style of public communication
2. scientific style

1.1.8 LSPs and Terms

Special terminology is considered the main characteristic of LSPs. Terminology plays a significant role in LSPs as it "permet de saisir toute la complexité de la discipline à laquelle elle se rattache." (Durocher, 1989:34) Terminology is not simply a set of words; it is a system of words and groups of words linked in a specific manner. Terms of an LSP are hierarchically organized in conceptual networks.

The following model by Picht and Draskau (1985:22) shows the relationship between LSPs and terminology: it illustrates that a large portion of LSP comprises special lexis or terminology:

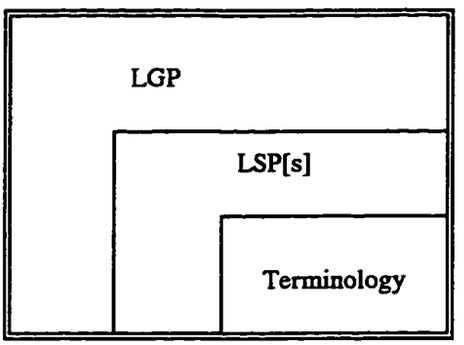
---

3. style of journalism and the press
4. style of everyday communication
5. literary style

Hoffmann points out that, in recent years, the term "scientific style," or "technical style," has been replaced more and more by other terms in which the node "style" is often replaced by "language": sublanguage, restricted language, language for special purposes, the language of science and technology, the language of science, the language of technology, scientific languages, scientific discourse, technical language, technical literature, scientific writing, etc. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:14) An LSP represents the scientific style.

The characteristics of the scientific style include:

1. precision, simplicity and clarity;
2. logical rigour;
3. continuous exchange with the common language;
4. rigorous determination of carefully evaluated terms;
5. the extensive use of distinct stylistic means; and
6. use of necessary numbers, symbols, and signs. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:11)



Hoffmann brings out three important aspects of the terminologies of LSPs (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:31):

1. The terminology of a[n] LSP is part of a vocabulary of certain areas of productive human activity.

2. The terminology of a[n] LSP forms within the lexicon of a language a particular layer.

3. The terminology of a[n] LSP is more easily manipulated than the rest of the vocabulary. It owes its existence in part to a conscious language creating process.

1.1.9 LSPs, LGP and General Dictionaries

LSPs are represented in general dictionaries through the terms that belong to each, along with words that belong to LGP. However, the distinction between terms and non-terms is often vague.

1.2 TERMS

1.2.1 Terms versus Words

Pál Heltai (1985:1) clearly states that terms are "in one way or another, different from other kinds of words." Patricia Thomas (1993:43) explains this difference by indicating that "terms used to describe a subject domain form part of [LSP], in contrast to [LGP], which does not relate to any particular domain."

However, as has been indicated above, LSP discourse combines words and terms, with LSPs also using general language words. While terms are specifically related to subject fields, general language words can be used either in all fields without distinction, or in a particular field, with or without some restriction or modification of meaning. There may also be instances in which words and terms are used in parallel with one another in the same conversational discourse; for example, between an expert in a field and a layperson. Moreover, when a new discipline such as computer science is formed, the LSP often uses some general words such as *mouse*, *compatible* and *floppy*, which become closely associated with the field in which they are used and acquire some restriction or modification of meaning.

The distinction between *term* and *word* is thus not as clearcut as some terminologists would like to believe. The similarities and differences between them will be explored in the following subsections.

1.2.2 Definition of a Word

According to Hoffmann, there are many different ways to define *word*. For example, *word* can be defined as "the phonetic, graphic, lexical, grammatical, or the so-called 'complete' word which includes all of the foregoing levels." (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:38) Depending on the point of view, definitions of *word* typically fall into three categories: definition by form, definition by function and definition by use.

1.2.2.1 Definition by Form

Picht and Draskau (1985:96) adopt a formal point of view by defining a *word* as "the sequence of letters between two blank graphic spaces." Hoffmann's definition of *word* also stresses its form: a "relatively independent sequence of graphemes." (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:29) The *word* defined in this way is referred to as the orthographic word or word form.

Other linguists also define word by form, but they stress its phonological aspect rather than its orthographic form. Instead of referring to graphemes, they refer to sets of phonemes, or units of sound, that make up the phonological word.

Another definition of word by form takes the morphological level into consideration. According to Hoffmann (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:29), the orthographic word, or sequence of graphemes, consists of "joined morphemes" that are indivisible meaningful elements, also referred to by Robert Ilson (1991:291) as a "set of units of form." Tom McArthur (1992:1120) states that the morphological word "in terms of form lies behind both the

orthographic and the phonological word" and is independent of both the spelt-out realization of a word and its spoken realization.

1.2.2.2 Definition by Function

While all words are grammatical units "of the same theoretical kind as MORPHEME and SENTENCE" (Crystal, 1991:380), many linguists differentiate between grammatical words and lexical words on the basis of function.

McArthur (1992:1121) refers to the grammatical word as a "*form word, function word, structure word*, and in some theories a subvariety of *morpheme*." The grammatical word fulfills a syntactic function by linking lexical words. Examples of grammatical words are determiners, pronouns and conjunctions such as *for* and *because*.

The lexical word, also referred to as a *lexeme, lexical item, full word* or *content word*, consists of one or more morphemes or morphological words which represent "a set of units of content, sememes" (Ilson, 1991:291) which, in turn, relate to "things, actions and states in the world." (McArthur, 1992:1120) The lexical word, or lexeme, may be simple in structure (*cat, mouse*) or complex (*cold-bloodedness, natural selection, put up with*). (McArthur, 1992:1120-1121)

Essentially, lexemes are orthographic, phonetic and morphological words, but are contrasted with grammatical words.

1.2.2.3 Definition by Use

Heltai (1985:1) considers words to consist of "everyday or natural vocabulary." According to Rey-Debove (Gilbert, 1973:33), the "lexique commun représenterait les mots utilisés par tous." However, a difficulty arises with this broad definition: what is meant by "utilisés par tous"? Does this imply active use or passive knowledge? Does "tous" include the uneducated?

Henri Béjoint (1988:355) contends that `common' or `general' words, apart from the category of function or grammatical words, can only be defined by the fact that they are not specialized. Sager *et al.* (1980:75) specify that lexical items that "function in general reference over a variety of codes" are simply called *words*, in contrast to *terms* which are characterized by special reference within a discipline.

1.2.3 Definition of a Term

Earlier definitions of terms did not distinguish them clearly from words. For instance, Rondeau (1984:19) defines *term* in the same way as Ferdinand de Saussure defined sign. Essentially, for Rondeau, a *term* is a "unité linguistique comportant un signifiant et un signifié." In accordance with Saussure's definition of *sign*, the signifier denotes "dénomination" or designation, and the signified, concept or designated. This earlier definition of *term* has been improved upon in subsequent definitions.

In 1969, the International Standards Organization (ISO) established an accepted definition of *term* (ISO/R 1087, 1969:10):

> Any conventional symbol[15] for a concept which consists of articulated sounds or of their written representation (= of letters). A term may be a word or a phrase.

While this definition stipulates indirectly that a term need not be a linguistic sign and stresses the importance of the concept in a term, it does not make the link between concept and field which is found in the definition provided by the Office de la langue française (OLF), Québec's standardization organization (OLF, 1994:20):

> Une unité signifiante (...) qui désigne une notion de façon univoque à l'intérieur d'un domaine.

The OLF's definition includes the notions of both concept and domain or field. However, while the ISO refers to *term* as "any conventional symbol," the OLF prefers to call it a "unité signifiante."

Perhaps the best definition of *term* has been formulated by Helmut Felber (1984:1): "any conventional symbol representing a concept defined in a subject field." Felber's definition combines aspects found in both the ISO's and the OLF's definitions. Like the ISO, Felber refers to conventional symbol and concept. However, like the OLF, Felber expands the ISO's definition by adding that *term* relates to a specific field of knowledge. According to Isabel Desmet and Samy Boutayeb (1994:307), what makes a word a terminological unit is the fact that it names a concept which belongs to a field of knowledge.

---

[15] A symbol does not necessarily constitute a linguistic sign (Desmet and Boutayeb, 1994:309); for example, it may be a symbol such as ♀, ♂, →, +, =, ≠, traffic signs, etc.

1.2.4 Similarities between Words and Terms

Despite the differences in their definitions, there are a certain number of similarities between words and terms.

In the section on similarities between LGP and LSPs (section 1.1.6), it was noted that, on the morphological level, there do not appear to be any clear, definitive criteria for distinguishing between LGP and LSPs. Logically, this statement holds true for words and terms as well. With respect to the formation of lexical elements, there appears to be quite a number of similarities: both words and terms are formed by derivation (including conversion), composition or compounding, and other means such as backformation, clipping, blends, acronyms, "loan words" and neological creation. Examples of similarities in formation are illustrated in the following table:

Formation Type	Word	Term
Derivation[16]	*arriv-al*	*hyper-tension*
Composition[17]	*bath-room*	*reinforced concrete*
Backformation[18]	*editor - to edit*	*automation - to automate*
Clipping[19]	*(tele)phone*	*lab(oratory)*
Blends[20]	*brunch (breakfast + lunch)*	*biodiversity (biological + diversity)*
Acronyms[21]	*NATO*	*radar*
"Loan words"[22]	*pizza*	*leitmotiv*
Neological creation[23]	*nylon*	*byte*

Another morphological similarity between words and terms, pointed out by Picht and Draskau (1985:96), is that, like a word, a term may contain one morpheme only (e.g. "wheat") or it may comprise several morphemes (e.g. "wheatflour"). From this, they deduce that (1985:96):

a) a word may be a term (e.g. "bill") or

---

[16] Derivation consists of "adding to a root or stem an affix or affixes." (McCarthy, 1991:318)

[17] Composition or compounding occurs when "two or more words combine into a morphological unit [and function] like single words." (McCarthy, 1991:319)

[18] Backformation occurs when a suffix is removed from a word or term.

[19] Clipping involves the deletion of initial morphemes or final segments of lexical elements.

[20] Blends occur when initial or terminal segments of two lexical elements are joined together to create new ones.

[21] Acronyms are words or terms formed from the initial letters of a fixed phrase or title.

[22] "Loan words" are words or terms borrowed from one language to another; once borrowed, loan words often demonstrate some adaptation in pronunciation or grammar.

[23] Neological creation is a less common type of word or term formation involving the invention of completely new lexical elements.

b) a group of words may form a term (e.g. "bill of sale, bill of lading, bill of rights").

Finally, another obvious characteristic shared by words and terms on the morphological level is their linguistic form. Many polysemous words have one specialized sense which has a terminological value in some subject field. A word may even have several specialized senses, each belonging to a different subject field. Essentially, the linguistic form of a term belonging to a field or domain corresponds to the linguistic form of a word having several senses, one of which is a specialized sense belonging to the same field or domain. (Zgusta, 1971:63-64)

Words and terms also share a number of similarities with respect to how they are defined. Both words and terms may be given an analytical definition in which "primary syntactic, semantic, and referential information is provided by one part of the definition, the genus, and secondary information by the rest, the differentiae." (Ilson, 1991:296) For example, the word *axe* may be defined as follows, with the genus indicated in bold letters:

> A **tool** for chopping and splitting wood, etc., consisting of a heavy metal head attached to a long wooden handle, the head having a blade, or cutting edge, parallel to the handle.

The term *side axe*, a special type of axe used in the fields of forestry and construction, may be defined as follows:

> An **axe** with one face bevelled and the other flat for hewing timber. (TERMIUM)

According to Juan Sager (1990:42), while "terminological theory can recognise only one type of definition: the analytical definition which fully and systematically identifies a concept with respect to all others in the particular subject field," terminological practice includes various alternative types of definitions which were once considered typical of words. He believes that "a more relevant theory of terminology will have to admit the full range of definitions currently being used both in lexicography and terminology." This range includes definitions by synonymy, by paraphrase, by synthesis, by implication, by denotation, and by illustration.[24] All these types of definitions are applicable equally to words and terms and can be summarized as follows:

[24] Definitions by illustration or demonstration, also known as ostensive definitions, include drawings, photographs, situational references, etc. (Sager, 1990:43) This type of definition is not presented in the following chart.

Definition Type	Word	Term
Synonymy[25]	*oblong = elliptical*[26]	*daisy = bellis perennis*
Paraphrase[27]	*whiteness* "the state of being white"	*hydrogen oxide* is "water which consists of two atoms of hydrogen and one atom of oxygen"[28]
Synthesis[29]	*burn*, "an injury caused by fire, heat, acid, electricity, or radiation"[30]	*metatarsalgia* "a painful neuralgic condition of the foot, felt in the ball of the foot and often spreading thence up the leg"
Implication[31]	*dial* "a clock or watch has a dial divided into segments for hours and minutes over which the hands move"	*dry air*: "in thermodynamics, air that contains no water vapour"[32]
Denotation[33]	*dog* "spaniels, poodles, pekinese, alsatians and similar animals"	*aircraft*: "balloons and airships, kites and gliders, and flying machines"[34]

[25] In this type of definition, "all the information is compressed into a single lexical unit." (Ilson, 1991:296)

[26] Most of the examples in this chart are taken from Sager (1990:43) and, therefore, are not referenced separately.

[27] In this type of definition, some element of a word or term is reproduced in the definition.

[28] Picht & Draskau, 1985:56.

[29] Definitions by synthesis include identification of relations between words or terms as well as description. (Sager, 1990:43) The relation that a word or term has to another word or term is usually based on the description of its purpose, function, use, origin, etc.

[30] GAGE, 1983:154.

[31] Definitions by implication incorporate the word or term being defined in an explicative context. (Sager, 1990:43)

[32] Picht & Draskau, 1985:59.

[33] Definitions by denotation or extension are based on the enumeration of examples.

[34] ISO/R 1087, 1969:10.

Moreover, in both lexicography and terminology, the methods of definition for words and terms may be combined. For example, description may supplement an analytical definition or a definition by synonymy. (Sager, 1990:43)

From what has been presented above, it is clear that words and terms are not only similar on the morphological level, but also share several methods of definition.

1.2.5 Differences between Words and Terms

Despite these similarities, there are also a number of tendencies observed in term formation and definition that seem to differentiate terms from words.

Picht and Draskau (1995:106, 111) contend that, although as a general rule term formation varies very little from word formation, derivation is more productive in LSP than in LGP, thus differentiating words and terms. For example, they state that "a large number of derivational elements exist which are peculiar to one specific subject field, e.g. -itis (= "inflammation") — appendicitis — in medical language." They also stipulate that compounding is "one of the most productive methods for the creation of new terms." (Picht and Draskau, 1985:108) Finally, according to them (1985:112), borrowing or importing of linguistic signs typically occurs "in response to a demand for the expression of a concept," and, therefore, is more common for terms than for words.

Rondeau (1984:19-20) also sees certain differences between term formation and word formation. He postulates that, unlike words, terms originate in the following ways:

- soit dans la spécialisation d'un mot de Lc [langue commune];
- soit dans la création néologique, à partir de racines de langues anciennes ou en faisant appel, de multiples manières, à différents éléments des langues contemporaines : contraction, juxtaposition, remise en usage d'un mot désuet, dérivation, etc.;
- soit dans le recours aux formes périphrastiques ou syntagmatiques plus ou moins complexes.

However, while the specialization of an LGP word is particular to term formation, the generalization of an LSP term is particular to word formation. Essentially, words and terms are similar, not different, by the fact that they may both undergo a change in meaning or semantic shift. And, it has already been established that neological creation and compounding apply not only to term formation but also to word formation. However, it is possible that these last two methods of word formation are more "conscious and deliberate" for terms than they are for words. (Sager *et al.* 1980:287)

In conjunction with specific elements of term formation, there is another aspect of terms that distinguishes them from words: the former have a significantly higher distribution of noun forms than the latter. While nouns constitute only 28% of LGP, they occupy up to 44% of LSP. (Sager *et al.* 1980:234) Since nouns are qualified by adjectives, the latter also figure predominantly in LSP texts. And when both nouns and adjectives are counted together, they make up as much as 60% of the vocabulary in many texts. (Sager *et al.* 1980:234; Alber-

Dewolf, 1980:30)[35] "Nominalisation" in LSP relegates the verb to the fourth position of frequency of use, giving it a lesser communicative value, whereas in LGP it ranks second before the adjective. (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:30) Adverbs, which modify verbs, are also much less frequent in LSP (4%) than in LGP (8%). (Sager *et al.* 1980:234) Therefore, terms tend to be nouns and adjectives rather than verbs or adverbs.

In the same vein, LSP terminology has a higher incidence of syntagmas than LGP. In fact, Duquet-Picard (quoted in Durocher, 1989:34) states that "la majorité des vocabulaires techniques et scientifiques prennent la forme de dénominations composées." According to Hoffmann, the "multi-word term is also classified as a **typical** word-form for designating concepts and phenomena."[36] (Alber-Dewolf, 1980:32) And Rondeau (1984:20) claims that it is characteristic for terms to originate "dans le recours aux formes périphrastiques ou syntagmatiques plus ou moins complexes"; for example *presse à plier à plateau ajustable et à bigorne*.

While words and terms share a number of methods of definition, there are certain types of definitions that seem to apply primarily to words, thus differentiating them from terms. These include definitions by negation (e.g. *impossible* that which can**not** be reached, done, or

---

[35] Both Sager *et al.* and Hoffmann indicate that when pronouns are included in these statistics, the figure may rise from 60% to 65%.

[36] Emphasis added.

fulfilled), formulaic definitions[37] (e.g. *gorgeous* of/having/that has striking beauty) and folk definitions[38] (e.g. *tired* is when you want to lie down).

Sidney Landau (1974:242) summarizes the approaches taken in lexicography and terminology for defining words and terms:

> General words are defined on the basis of citations illustrating actual usage: the meanings are EXTRACTED from a body of evidence ... The meanings of scientific entries, on the other hand, are IMPOSED on the basis of expert advice. The experts may have sources apart from their own knowledge and experience, but their sources are informative or encyclopedic rather than lexical, that is, they are likely to consist of authoritative definitions composed by other experts whose concern is maintaining the internal coherence of their discipline rather than faithfully recording how terms are used. Their goal is ease of accuracy of communication between those versed in the language of science.

In other words, regardless of the type of definition used for words or terms, the approach taken to define them is quite different. Words are typically defined by usage, while terms are defined by the essential characteristics of the concept they represent.

Thus, despite many similarities between words and terms on the morphological level and in the methods of definition, there are some differences on both of these levels.

---

[37] Ilson (1991:296) describes formulaic definitions as definitions "in which primary semantic and referential information is provided by one part of the definition, while the rest provides primary syntactic information together with secondary semantic and referential information."

[38] Term used by Ilson (1991:296) to describe definitions by "ordinary people," often found in children's dictionaries.

1.2.6 Characteristics of Terms

While there appears to be no clear-cut division between words and terms, terms have a number of characteristic tendencies, brought out by terminology scholars such as Rondeau, Robert Dubuc and Picht and Draskau.

Rondeau (1984:19-20) specifies five characteristics that are intended to distinguish terms from words. They can be summarized as follows:

1. [L]'extension sémantique [d'un terme] se définit par rapport au signifié plutôt que par rapport au signifiant;
2. [Un terme] se présente toujours comme relié à un ensemble sémantique qui peut être, soit une discipline ou une science, soit un domaine d'activités, soit une technique, etc. toujours dans un domaine spécialisé;
3. [Pour] une notion donnée, il y a, théoriquement, une dénomination et une seule.
4. Ses modes de formation;
5. [L]'homonymie n'y constitue pas un risque d'ambiguïté.

The first characteristic is equally applicable to words and, therefore, does not, in fact, constitute a distinguishing characteristic of terms. The fourth characteristic, that of term formation, has been previously discussed in section 1.2.4. It has been established that, in fact, there are more similarities than there are differences between words and terms on the morphological level. It is therefore Rondeau's second, third and fifth characteristics that more clearly separate terms from words.

The second characteristic outlined by Rondeau essentially states that a term belongs to a system of terms. Indeed, the network of terms corresponds to a network or hierarchy of concepts in a given field in which the meaning of each term is delimited with respect to each of the other terms of the network. Picht and Draskau (1985:97) confirm this when they state that: "As the term represents a concept which in its turn constitutes an element within the relevant system of concepts, the term constitutes an element in the corresponding system of terms — the "terminology" of the special subject field." Thus, terms are related to specialized fields or domains, in much the same way as LSPs are. In fact, given the strong links between terms and fields, some authors, such as Sager (1990:90), stipulate that, unlike words, terms do not depend on their textual context since the indication of the field in which the terms occur essentially acts as context: "Dire qu'on est dans un tel domaine c'est tout dire. On n'a plus besoin d'autre contexte." (Melby, 1991:22)

The third characteristic outlined by Rondeau and repeated by Dubuc is that of biunivocity. Biunivocity means that "le terme serait le seul à désigner une réalité donnée et que cette réalité ne pourrait être désignée que par lui." (Durocher, 1989:43) In other words, "synonymy is unwelcome in terminology." (Picht and Draskau, 1985:102)

To this characteristic can be added another, monosemy. Thus, according to Desmet and Boutayeb (1994:310), "the term must only be used in any given discipline with one meaning." Essentially, a term must be monoreferential within a particular field or domain, designating only one concept. Louis Guilbert (1981:192) believes that this characteristic of a

term is what truly distinguishes it from a word: "L'unité terminologique est, par essence, monosémique alors que le mot en tant qu'unité linguistique est voué à la polysémie, parce qu'il est appelé à se charger de diverses valeurs significatives."

Rondeau's fifth characteristic, that of homonymy, is based on the second characteristic that a term belongs to a system of terms in a given field. Thus, a term in another field which has the same linguistic form is considered a homonym (i.e. a different lexical item) rather than the same lexical item with multiple meanings (polysemy). According to Rondeau, homonymy does not lead to ambiguity in terminology because each term, whatever its form, is field-specific. However, Picht and Draskau (1985:116) and Sager (1990:89) are not in full agreement with Rondeau, for they all state that terms should ideally not have homonyms.[39]

While the second and third characteristics presented above seem to be the most generally accepted, Joanne Durocher (1989:43-44), using Dubuc as a starting point, synthesizes a number of other ideal characteristics of terms in the following statement: "le terme doit être précis,[40] économe[41] et motivé,[42] c'est-à-dire que l'on puisse en deviner au moins en partie le sens en analysant ses composants."

---

[39] This disagreement could, in part, be based on the distinction that each author makes between homonymy and polysemy, concepts which are not always defined in the same way by all terminology scholars.

[40] See Picht and Draskau (1985:116) and Sager (1990:90, 89).

[41] See Picht and Draskau (1985:116), Sager (1990:89) and Felber (1984:181).

[42] See Picht and Draskau (1985:113).

There are a number of other characteristics of terms upon which authors such as Picht and Draskau, Sager and Felber seem to agree. These can be briefly enumerated as follows:

- the formation of the term should be in accordance with the syntactic rules of the language (Picht and Draskau, 1985:113; Sager, 1990:89; Felber, 1984:182);
- the term should be potentially productive of derivations (Picht and Draskau, 1985:113; Sager, 1990:89; Felber, 1984:182);
- the term should not be pleonastic (Picht and Draskau, 1985:113; Sager, 1990:89); and
- the term should not have orthographical or morphological variations (Picht and Draskau, 1985:116; Sager, 1990:89).

It should be stressed that these characteristics are not all found in every term. Indeed, according to Guilbert (1981:181), "le terme pur est l'exception dans chaque langue." The aforementioned ideal characteristics of terms are not always realized in terminology. In fact, terms are subject to certain "deviations" from the ideal which can be itemized as follows (Durocher, 1989:44-45):

i) synonymy
ii) polysemy
iii) calque and inappropriate borrowings

Despite the fact that synonymy is unwelcome in terminology since "it makes communication more difficult by insinuating non-existent differences" (Picht and Draskau, 1985:102), synonymy does nevertheless occur in terminology; for example, according to the TERMIUM record for *side axe*, *hewing axe* and *broad axe* are considered alternate terms (i.e. synonyms) which are acceptable.

Similarly, while terms should avoid polysemy, it does seem to occur in terminology. Heltai (1985:1) points out that it is difficult to maintain monosemy in terminology because it is "subject to the same developmental processes as everyday vocabulary." In addition, as previously mentioned, a linguistic form may function as both a word and a term, therefore acting as a "polysemous lexical item with term-meaning and non-term meaning." (Heltai, 1985:1)

Finally, in certain technical fields in which discoveries are typically made in a single language, such as English, other languages tend to use inappropriate borrowings or calques to fill the terminological void. D.S. Lotte (1981:46) points out that "les termes étrangers sont souvent empruntés sans qu'il y ait pour cela de besoin réel, et de plus sans méthode aucune, ce qui est encore plus grave."

The above analysis reveals that, although terms have many "ideal" characteristics distinguishing them from words, in actual fact many terms do not possess all these characteristics, at least not to the extent that the ideals demand.

1.2.7 "Scientific" Terms versus "Technical" Terms

Whether "ideal" or not, terms are often considered "scientific and technical words." (Béjoint, 1988:355) Some authors make a distinction between scientific terms and technical terms. According to Landau (1974:241), a term is considered "scientific" if its meaning restricts it to a particular field of scientific inquiry; for example, taxonomic names, chemical terms and

physiological or medical terms. On the other hand, when a term is not related to an academic discipline or field of scientific inquiry, but it is restricted in use to special technical contexts, it is considered "technical." For the sake of simplicity, however, Landau groups the two categories of terms together and calls them "scientific."

Jean-Luc Descamps and André Phal distinguish between scientific vocabulary and technical vocabulary differently. According to them (1968:12):

> Le **vocabulaire technique** est spécifique (propre à une science ou à une technique donnée). C'est essentiellement un vocabulaire de désignation qui fournit les nomenclatures, les terminologies. (...) Le **vocabulaire scientifique** n'est pas spécifique d'une science ou d'une technique donnée. Il se situe entre le vocabulaire « usuel » de la langue quotidienne et le vocabulaire technique. Il comprend des mots de sens très général qui trouvent à s'employer dans toutes les spécialités à un niveau fondamental. (...)

On the basis of this definition, they consider *coefficient* as a scientific word, and *coefficient d'absorption totale linéaire* as a technical word. Thus, for Descamps and Phal, technical terms are more "specialized" than scientific terms, which is not Landau's opinion.

The scientific versus technical term distinction is made not only by terminology/lexicography scholars, but also by some dictionaries. Both the *Petit Robert* (PR) (1991:xxix) and the *Nouveau Petit Robert* (NPR) (1993:xxix, xxviii) distinguish between scientific and technical terms in the following way:

> Un mot *technique* est "un mot appartenant au langage technique, et peu ou mal connu de l'ensemble du public";
>
> Un mot *scientifique* est un "terme du langage scientifique et appartenant au domaine de plusieurs sciences."

Other dictionaries categorize scientific and technical terms from a different viewpoint. For example, the *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language* (WEB3) (1986:x) describes a nucleus of common words to which other categories of words, including scientific and technical, are linked:

> `Scientific` (...) words are the specially learned outposts of the literary language; `technical` (...) words blend with the common language both in speech and literature. `Slang` touches the technical terminology of trades and occupations, as in `nautical slang`, `university slang` ...

On the other hand, some dictionaries maintain that there is absolutely no clear-cut distinction between scientific words, technical words and slang, and therefore, there may be some overlapping between them.

For the purposes of this thesis, scientific terms will not be distinguished from technical terms. Terms will be referred to in general and considered to include both categories.

1.2.8 Terms and General Dictionaries

While, as indicated above, certain general dictionaries distinguish between different types of terms and others do not, the fact remains that they all include terms to a greater or lesser extent. However, terms are not always easy to recognize in general dictionaries since they are not placed in separate entries, as is the case in specialized dictionaries.

One of the main methods used to distinguish terms in general dictionaries is that of usage labelling, and more specifically field labelling. Thus, usage labels in general and field labels in particular will be discussed in the following section.

1.3 USAGE LABELS AND FIELD LABELS

1.3.1 Definition of Usage Labels

Many words and terms presented in a general dictionary, as well as other elements of a dictionary entry, are "labelled."[43] A usage label is a dictionary component that restricts these elements to some level or style or situation of usage and indicates that, unlike non-labelled elements, labelled elements are not to be regarded as generally acceptable and applicable in all contexts of use.[44]

1.3.2 Role of Usage Labels

The dominant function of usage labels[45] is to mark language variation. Language variation derives from the "concept of a `whole language' [that] is so vast and heterogeneous that it is not operationally useful for many linguistic purposes ..." (Catford, 1965:83) Essentially,

---

[43] In general unilingual dictionaries, labels can be applied to the following elements: headword, senses, free combination examples, collocations, compounds, and fixed expressions, as well as to spelling variants, grammatical forms and pronunciation. In addition to these elements, general bilingual dictionaries may label the following elements: equivalents, as well as translations of source language free combinations, collocations, compounds and fixed expressions.

[44] Labels are sometimes confused with, or included in, glosses. Hence, a distinction needs to be made between them. According to Zgusta (1971:270, Footnote 151), a gloss is used "in reference to what could be described as short comments, explanatory remarks, semantic characteristics or qualifications, etc." The scope of a gloss is thus very wide for Zgusta, as it is for Jacobsen *et al.* (1989:285), since it may cover, among other things, a definition, a meaning discriminator, an explanation, or a label.

Labels are thus seen as gloss devices. However, there are two basic differences that distinguish them. The first is formal. Zgusta (1971:332) states that "whereas the form of the glosses is free and can vary from [...] one entry to another," the form of labels is fixed. In fact, ideally a uniform system of labels, including their number and form, must be established before lexicographic work may begin.

The second difference between labels and glosses pertains to purpose. While glosses serve primarily to disambiguate meaning, labels, which may occasionally serve this purpose, are principally used to inform dictionary users about language use.

[45] The *Robert Méthodique* (RM) (1988:xi) refers to a usage label as a "marque de langue."

language is different from person to person and situation to situation. Therefore, there are two important factors that determine the variation of language in use: the **user** and the **use**. *Indicators* of the provenance of the *user* are normally termed *dialect* features. *Markers* of the *use* to which language is put are termed *register* features. (Bell, 1991:8) These dialect and register features, which will be detailed in section 1.3.4 are marked by labels.

1.3.2.1 Descriptive and Prescriptive Roles

The extent to which language variations are labelled in dictionaries depends on the dictionary's approach. Ali Al-Kasimi (1977:83) states that dictionaries usually follow one of two traditions in recording language usage: **prescription** or **description**.

The role of usage labelling in prescriptive dictionaries is to impose on a whole linguistic community language use that is deemed correct or proper by the lexicographer who considers himself an authority. (Al-Kasimi, 1977:83; Crystal, 1992:312) According to Jean-Pierre Beaujot (1989:81), labelling is often used to "contraindre les usagers à respecter une norme socio-culturelle, linguistiquement discutable." The reason why this "socio-cultural standard" is often debatable is because prescriptive labelling is based too closely on the value judgements or bias of the lexicographer. Al-Kasimi (1977:84-85) points out clearly that "correctness cannot be established by an authority, [instead], correctness should be based on actual usage."

Recording actual usage is the goal of descriptive dictionaries. This does not mean, however, that dictionaries should record all forms of usage equally without comment. Usage labels are certainly found in such dictionaries, but they tend to reflect actual use rather than prescriptive usage: descriptive labelling allows lexicographers to comment on the use of lexical items in discourse, their appropriateness and their frequency using more objective criteria for their decisions.

However, even if, from the lexicographer's point of view, labels are used to describe usage, from the user's point of view, labels are often seen as prescribing proper usage of lexical items. (OLF, 1994:6-7) Consequently, in reality, usage labels play both a descriptive and prescriptive role. While reflecting the language usage of a linguistic community, the presence of usage labels prescribes, in essence, a social norm. Labelling is therefore one of the essential aspects in creating linguistic standards. (OLF, 1994:7)

1.3.2.2 Semantic and Pragmatic Roles

In marking language variation, usage labels play two important roles in dictionaries: a **semantic** role and **pragmatic** role.[46] The semantic role provides conceptual information about a lexical item, that is the relationship of signs to referents. The pragmatic role, on the other hand, relates to the item's use in a communicative situation, that is the relationship of signs to interpretations. (McArthur, 1992:800) Since language varies from person to person

---

[46] Girardin (1987:77) seems to equate the semantic and pragmatic aspects with content and expression, respectively. In his structural linguistic theory of glossematics, Louis Hjelmslev equates two planes of language, content and expression, with the two sides of Ferdinand de Saussure's sign model, the signified (concept) and the signifier (referent). (Nöth, 1990:66)

and situation to situation, the pragmatic dimension thus indicates when a given lexical item is used, by what kind of person, in what situation.

According to Alain Rey (1987:16), both the semantic and pragmatic aspects of usage labels communicate cultural "judgements" about the elements to which labels are applied. No matter how impartial a dictionary may aspire to be, lexicographic discourse does not usually succeed in remaining entirely neutral: it tends to incorporate cultural references and value judgements. Therefore, usage labels may be considered an "image simplifiée des protocoles sociaux réglant les discours."

Both the semantic and pragmatic roles underlie the various typologies of usage labels found in dictionaries, although few dictionaries specifically mention these roles.

1.3.4 Typologies of Labels

There are a number of different types of classificatory labels that outline a system of usage in language. For example, usage labels may be spatial, temporal, stylistic, or relate to a specific domain or field of activity or knowledge. According to Ladislav Zgusta (1971:332), these types of classificatory usage labels cover the whole sphere of the variation of language.

Using Bell's classification of user- and use-related language variations,[47] one can attempt to systematize the variety of features marked by classificatory labels as well as the classificatory and specific labels themselves:

	Feature	Classificatory Label	Example of Specific Label
User-related variation of language: **Dialect**	Temporal	Currency	*Archaic*
	Regional	Geographic	*Canada*
	Social	Social class	*Populaire*
Use-related variation of language: **Register**	Tenor	**Register**[48]	*Informal*
	Mode	**Register**	*Colloquial*
	Domain	Field	*Medicine*

Most dictionaries and lexicographers recognize various features of language variation. However, they do not always agree on the number of features, their classifications or their labels.

For example, Rey (1987:17-18) lists ten general "judgements" on the semantic and pragmatic axes that represent language usage. These judgements constitute what has been termed "classificatory labels" above. Under each "judgement," he groups a number of specific labels:

---

[47] Bell's classication of user- and use-related language variations are clearly adopted from the concepts put forth by M.A.K. Halliday, Angus McIntosh, and Peter Strevens (1968:75-110).

[48] To avoid confusion, the terms "register" and "register label" must be distinguished. In this thesis, "register" refers strictly to the features of use-related variations of language. "Register label," on the other hand, refers to the type of usage label relating to the level of language (formal versus informal) or language medium (spoken versus written).

(1) jugements sociaux (ex. : *populaire, rural, argot*);

(2) jugements quant à la nature discursive, parfois stylistique (ex. : *littéraire, archaïque, vulgaire, familier*). À ces jugements, se rattachent ceux qui attribuent une unité à une situation pragmatique de communication (termes d'adresse; injures et insultes);

(3) l'usage oral ou écrit;

(4) jugements quant au contenu et à l'expression concernant surtout les tabous (ex. : *obscène, érotique*);

(5) jugements quant au caractère **général** ou au contraire **spécialisé** de l'utilisation d'une unité en discours (ex. : *technique, médecine, botanique, didactique, scientifique*);

(6) jugement quant à l'extension géographique;

(7) jugement de fréquence (ex. : *rare, courant, usuel*);

(8) jugements quant à l'appartenance normale au "chronolecte" contemporain de la description (*vieux, vieilli; archaïque*);[49]

(9) jugement quant à la pertinence dans un modèle d'apprentissage et d'usage en discours; and

(10) jugement de statut particulier (marques déposées, termes officiels, recommandés par une Administration, normalisés par un organisme reconnu).

Landau (1989:175) lists nine categories of usage information (i.e. nine classificatory labels), as opposed to Rey's ten "judgements." For Landau, the most common types of usage information given by general dictionaries, along with corresponding specific labels, are as follows:

---

[49] Rey's classification of usage labels involves some overlap since at least one specific label, *archaïque*, is applicable to more than one type of "judgement" (2 and 8 above).

(1) currency or temporality (*archaic, obsolete*);

(2) frequency of use (*rare*);

(3) regional or geographic variation (*U.S., British, Canadian, Australian*);

(4) technical or specialized terminology (*astronomy, chemistry, physics*, etc. -- these are called **field labels**);

(5) restricted or taboo usage (*vulgar, obscene*);

(6) insult (*offensive, disparaging, contemptuous*);

(7) slang (*slang*);

(8) style, functional variety, or register (*informal, colloquial, literary, poetic, humorous*); and

(9) status or cultural level (*nonstandard, substandard, illiterate*).

While some of Rey's classificatory labels correspond to those of Landau (temporality, frequency, geography, field), it is evident that there are a number of discrepancies; for example, Rey's axes Nos. 3 and 9 do not correspond to any of Landau's classifications. And, while Rey considers the label *vulgar* to fall under stylistic usage, Landau categorizes it as taboo usage.

Unlike Rey and Landau, Chantal Girardin (1987:77) outlines only four broad classificatory labels:

(1) époque (*archaïsme, vieux/langue classique, vieilli*);

(2) aire géographique (*régionalismes, belgicismes, canadianismes, helvétismes*);

(3) milieu, style, situation de discours (*populaire, argotique, familier, soutenu*, etc.); and

(4) **thématique** (*domaines de connaissance, théories, sciences ou pratiques réglées*).

Girardin states that although her classification may seem rather rudimentary it is intended to cover both the semantic and the pragmatic roles of usage labels. The BCD Project uses the same four basic classificatory labels as Girardin, adding, however, a fifth for commentary, akin to Landau's usage information relating to insult and restricted taboo usage.

Each of the BCD's classifications of usage labels can be found among those of Rey, Landau or Girardin (BCD, 1996:60-61):

(1) register label (*literary, formal, informal*);

(2) geographical and regional variations (*Canada, United States, France, Great Britain, North America*);

(3) **field label** (*Medicine*);

(4) currency label (*courant, vieilli*); and

(5) commentary label (*offensive, pejorative, criticized*).

Thus, the various typologies of usage labels, however simple, appear to cover the whole spectrum of the user- and use-related variations of language.

1.3.4.1 Field Labels in this Typology

Among the many user-related and use-related varieties of language, what is relevant to this study of terms in general dictionaries is **register** as limited to differences of vocabulary (Hatim and Mason, 1990:46), and, more specifically, one aspect of register, which is **domain**. Domain, 'field' or 'field of activity' or knowledge covered by a text, is the "variation of language according to the use to which it is put in various professional and

social settings" (Hatim and Mason, 1990:241); for example, scientific discourse, legal discourse, medical discourse, etc. Rey (1985:5) indicates that terms belong to "un registre d'usage marqué (comme technique, scientifique, didactique," and are labelled "éventuellement par une marque plus précise — nom d'une technique ou d'une science)."

The use of lexical items in a given domain is generally indicated by field labels in lexicographic documentation. Based on the typologies outlined by Rey, Landau, Girardin and the BCD Project, it is evident that domain or field is a distinct category of usage label.

However, not all lexicographers and dictionaries use the term *field label* to distinguish vocabulary used in a specific domain. For example, in his preface to the 1972 edition of the PR (1972:xx-xxi), Rey writes:

> [ces marques d'usage] précise[nt] la valeur de l'emploi soit dans le **temps** (*vx. : vieux, vieilli*), soit dans **l'espace** (*région. : régional*), soit dans la **société** (*fam. : familier* ...), soit dans la **fréquence** (*rare :* peu employé dans l'ensemble des usages ...), soit enfin dans le **style**. Pour ce dernier classement, on a signalé ce qui n'était pas connu, employé ou compris par l'ensemble des usagers cultivés, sauf quand la notion même et sa définition montraient qu'il s'agissait d'un mot spécialisé (*ex. :* nom de familles de plantes ou d'animaux, noms de sciences, mots définis par : « nom savant de ... »). Mais dans la majorité des cas, la nature de l'emploi du mot est donnée. [Les] abréviations des divers noms de sciences ont la même valeur, mais restreignent l'usage normal du mot à un domaine précis.[50]

Under the generic title of *style*, Rey includes a specialized register, thereby distinguishing the non-specialized lexicon (without a label) from technical terms belonging to specific activities

---

[50] I have bolded "temps," "espace," "société," "fréquence" and "style."

and used by specialists (Lépinette, 1990:489). Style, for Rey, therefore includes the concept of field label.[51]

While P.A. Messelaar (1990:63), contrary to Rey (PR, 1972), does distinguish field labels from stylistic usage labels, he gives two examples of stylistic labels which may, in certain instances, be considered field labels (*litt.* for *littérature*, and *poét.* for *poétique*).

In the preface to the *Dictionnaire québécois d'aujourd'hui* (RQ2) (1993:xviii-xix), which outlines a number of "social judgements" and their corresponding usage labels, Jean-Claude Boulanger indicates that technical and scientific terms are "signalés comme tels par le texte même de la définition ou par une remarque préalable (« médecine », « sciences », « informatique », « musique », etc.)." Although the "preliminary remarks" are in fact field labels, Boulanger only refers directly to domain or field when he contrasts technical and scientific terms to didactic terms: didactic terms take the label *didact.* when they are not "spécialisés dans un **domaine** précis."

The *Collins English Dictionary* (COLL) (1986) is one of the few dictionaries that clearly categorizes field labels among its "restrictive" labels. It identifies the following classificatory labels: temporal labels (*Archaic, Obsolete*), usage labels[52] (*Slang, Informal, Taboo, Ironic,*

---

[51] In subsequent PR editions, the category of **style** has disappeared, although the concept of field label remains, and stands by itself.

[52] The COLL (1986:xi-xii) uses the classification "restrictive labels" for what has been defined in this thesis as usage labels, and the term "usage labels" for one particular category of this classification.

Not standard, etc.), connotative labels (*Derogatory, Offensive*), and **subject-field labels** (*Astronomy, Philosophy*, etc.).

No matter what the designation for field labels, most lexicographers and dictionaries do isolate them from other usage labels.[53]

1.3.5 Definition of a Field Label

However, dictionary prefaces and lexicography manuals generally fail to provide the user with a satisfactory definition of what constitutes a field label. Where definitions do exist, they tend to be cursory and unclear. The *Grand Robert* (GR) (1987:xl), for instance, describes field labels as relating to usage in specialized discourse such as professional, pedagogical, didactic, scientific and technical. Messelaar (1990:63) observes that, in dictionaries, field labels may indicate the use of a term in scientific or technical fields, in opposition to common language.

We define a field label in lexicography as a usage marker or classificatory label that generally "serves to indicate the division of human experience into sectors" (Roberts, 1994:1), and, more specifically, to indicate the restriction of a lexical unit to a domain or field of discourse.

---

[53] In its description of restrictive labels, the COLL (1986:xi-xii) makes subject-field labels a separate category from usage labels.

1.3.6 Role of Field Labels

The very definition of field label presented above gives some indication of its function. However, the precise roles that field labels can play are far more complex than a simple definition can cover. These will be examined in this section, first through a literature review, then through an analysis of dictionary front matter.

1.3.6.1 Role of Field Labels According to Lexicographic Literature

Basically, field labels identify specific, specialized meanings of words. (van Scherrenberg, 1990:44) Essentially, they inform dictionary users that certain lexical items, and any other element to which these labels may be applied, do not belong to the common core of vocabulary, to general language, but rather are restricted to a technical or specialized field of knowledge or activity. (Jackson, 1988:154)

While the identification of words restricted to a specific field of knowledge is generally considered the primary role of field labels, Béjoint (1988:360), points out that their function in general dictionaries[54] is typically unclear. He outlines two broad purposes for them. Firstly, field labels sometimes seem to be there to enable the users to draw up lists of all the words that belong to the same domain.[55] Secondly, most of the time they seem to be used

---

[54] Béjoint's reference to general dictionaries seems to be to general unilingual dictionaries, such as the *Grand Robert, Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*, etc.

[55] In my opinion, this would require inordinately extensive use of one particular dictionary on the user's part.

by lexicographers only to make the specialized subsense stand out more clearly from other senses of a polysemous headword. In other words, they are used as meaning discriminators.

Brigitte Lépinette (1990:484-485) develops Béjoint's second point by indicating that field labels in bilingual dictionaries help to distinguish not only between senses of headwords in the source language, but also between their equivalents in the target language. She presents these two roles as follows:

> (1) [le rôle] d'indication de l'existence de plusieurs sens pour l'entrée; and
>
> (2) [le rôle] d'adjuvant pour l'utilisateur devant choisir entre plusieurs équivalences en [langue cible].

The first role of field labels therefore relates to meaning discrimination, a role which is more important in bilingual dictionaries since meanings in such dictionaries are not usually presented by means of definitions. However, Lépinette notes that bilingual dictionaries also tend to label headwords which are monosemic and are therefore not in need of meaning discriminators. In the latter case, the field label serves as "spécification d'appartenance à un lexique de spécialité."[56] (Lépinette, 1990:501) In fact, Lépinette (1990:502) concludes that there is confusion in the various roles of field labels, because they can not only have the functions indicated above, but can also be used merely as "la spécification d'un domaine de référence."

---

[56] This role is the same as for monolingual dictionaries. (Lépinette, 1990:501)

Danielle Candel also distinguishes two important roles, albeit somewhat different ones, for field labels. According to her, field labels, like all usage labels, have a **semantic** role and **pragmatic** role. She makes the following distinction between the two roles for field labels (1979:100):

> [La] marque de domaine peut signifier que la définition du terme implique une appartenance thématique : c'est là un critère **sémantique**, lié à la notion (concept) et à la classe d'objets auxquelles correspond le mot; ou bien renvoyer à une situation qui peut concerner les signifiés ou les référents, en indiquant que l'emploi du terme est lié à un milieu : c'est là un critère **pragmatique**.

Through its semantic role, the field label provides information tied to the concept and makes thematic links to a given field of knowledge or activity. (Roberts, 1994:1; Candel, 1979:100) Through its pragmatic role, on the other hand, the field label refers to a situation or setting in which the concept designated by the lexical item may be used,[57] and links the word to a given field or domain. (Roberts, 1994:1; Candel, 1979:100)

1.3.6.2 Role of Field Labels According to Major Dictionaries

While some dictionaries, such as Larousse's *Grand dictionnaire français-anglais anglais-français* (LAR2) (1993),[58] make no mention in their front matter of the role that field labels play in the dictionary, many do offer some information on this subject. (Roberts, 1994:1)

---

[57] The pragmatic dimension indicates that a lexical item is not necessarily used by every person in every situation.

[58] The LAR2 only provides a list of field labels in its front matter.

In some cases, the information provided is very limited. The *Gage Canadian Dictionary* (GAGE) (1983:xxiv), for instance, merely stipulates that field labels are "used to show that a word or meaning is used with reference to a specialized field of knowledge or activity." According to the COLL (1986:xii), subject-field labels restrict a word or sense to a "particular specialist or technical field." Similarly, the *Random House Webster's College Dictionary* (RHWEB) (1991:xxii) states that field labels are applied to "some entries and definitions restricted in use to a particular field."

Other dictionaries provide the user with a slightly more precise idea of the role of field labels. This is the case for the *Houghton Mifflin Canadian Dictionary of the English Language* (HMIF) (1982:xxvii) which, while indicating that field labels identify elements of primary concern within a particular field, clearly stipulates, contrary to the dictionaries cited above, that the application of a field label or field labels to a lexical item does not mean that the lexical item cannot be used outside the field or fields indicated. Indeed, while most dictionaries indicate that field labels restrict usage, they do not categorically state that the elements to which field labels have been applied are never used in contexts other than those governed by a particular field or domain.

Among published dictionaries, the *Robert & Collins Senior* (RCS) (1993:xxvii) is probably the one that indicates most clearly, in its guide to using the dictionary, the roles field labels play in it and gives specific examples to illustrate each role. According to the RCS, field labels serve

(1) "to differentiate various meanings of the headword": for example,

> **cuirasse** ... *nf (Hist) [chevalier]* breastplate; *(Naut)* armour(-plate *ou* -plating); *(Zool)* cuirass; and

(2) "when the meaning in the source language is clear but may be ambiguous in the target language": for example,

> **comprimé** ... *nm (Pharm)* tablet.

However, the roles indicated by all these dictionaries do not cover the multiple uses of field labels in unilingual and bilingual dictionaries. The BCD Project has therefore outlined, for its purposes, a more exhaustive list of uses to which field labels can be put (Roberts, 1994:2), and these will be presented in Chapter 3.

What can be said at this point is that all the multiple uses of field labels contribute to the overall goal of helping the user better understand a terminological unit in a general dictionary entry or better use equivalents or translations of any terminological unit in a bilingual dictionary entry. (Roberts, 1994:4)

Obviously, since field labels are attached to terms, their role will increase in direct proportion to the number of terms found in a given general dictionary.

CHAPTER 2: COVERAGE AND TREATMENT OF TERMS IN DICTIONARIES

While it is obvious from the preceding chapter that terms do occur in general dictionaries, the coverage and the treatment they are granted therein remains to be analyzed. That is the purpose of this chapter.

2.1 COVERAGE OF TERMS IN GENERAL DICTIONARIES

2.1.1 Desirability of Terms in General Dictionaries

Gilbert (1973:35) poses an important question: "où et comment peut-on observer la pénétration de mots scientifiques et/ou techniques dans le lexique commun?" For him, the answer lies in general dictionaries: "le champ d'observation qui semble à première vue le plus accessible au chercheur est constitué par les dictionnaires de langue, ou dictionnaires « généraux », par opposition aux dictionnaires scientifiques ou techniques." (Gilbert, 1973:35)

While Gilbert sees the usefulness of including terms in general dictionaries from the point of view of the researcher, many lexicography scholars feel that the inclusion of terms in general dictionaries, unilingual or bilingual, is desirable for all users of such dictionaries.

In reference to the *Grand dictionnaire encyclopédique Larousse* (10 volumes) (GL10), Dubois (1989:1579) indicates that terms should be included in order to give an accurate reflection of the modern French language:

> Cherchant à donner du français contemporain une description aussi complète que possible, un dictionnaire tel que le GL10 ne pouvait se limiter aux mots et aux sens de la langue dite "commune". Une large place devait être réservée aux principaux vocabulaires techniques et scientifiques.

While the GL10 is an encyclopedic dictionary, a type of dictionary that is generally richer in terms than language dictionaries, the GR (1987), which is clearly a language dictionary, is also considered by Rey as terminologically valuable. Rey says (1985:6) it is "[un] dictionnaire général [qui] apporte aux terminologues une information supplémentaire, qui concerne l'insertion des unités employées par les 'langues de spécialités' dans l'usage social." The inclusion of terms in such a dictionary directly relates to the "fonctionnement social qui est le critère premier" for such a dictionary: language dictionaries are able to illustrate the "va-et-vient entre les termes et la circulation sociale de leur expression linguistique." (Rey, 1985:6)

The PR (1991:x) also indicates that terms should be included: "On trouvera ici tous les **termes courants** du français contemporain et les très nombreux mots **techniques, scientifiques** ou **spéciaux** *indispensables* à l'expression de la pensée moderne."[1]

Clearly, the inclusion of terms in general dictionaries is important to illustrate accurately the social usage of such terms as they penetrate general language.

---

[1] Emphasis on "indispensables" added.

2.1.2 History of Terms in General Dictionaries

The inclusion of terms in general dictionaries is by no means a recent phenomenon, although there was some resistance to this trend in the earlier French and English general dictionaries.

The French Academy, founded in 1635 by Richelieu to codify the "correct" usage of the French language, refused to record scientific and technical words in its first dictionary (1694). The doctrine of the Academy's dictionary was to "définir, par des choix dictés par le bon goût, un usage du français excluant les variétés régionales — surtout méridionales —, les archaïsmes, les vulgarismes, ainsi que les termes «d'art», c'est-à-dire scientifiques et techniques." (GR, 1987:xviii) According to Guilbert (1973:5), "cette décision reflétait l'idéologie dominante dans la société monarchique; il y avait d'une part le langage de la cour et des écrivains bien en cour, d'autre part le langage des métiers et des sciences qui ne relevait pas de la culture de « l'honnête homme. »"

However, Antoine Furetière, a member of the Academy until 1685, insisted that technical and scientific words be included in a general dictionary of French. In 1690, he published his own dictionary entitled *Dictionnaire universel, contenant généralement tous les mots français tant vieux que modernes et les termes des sciences et des arts*, which included terms from fields such as "Astronomie," "Blason," "Chasse (et vénerie)," "Fauconnerie," "Guerre (et artillerie, fortifications, duels)", "Médecine (anatomie, physiologie, chirurgie)" and "Physique." Furetière was interested as much in the transmission of knowledge as of

language: "son discours de lexicographe transmet de manière critique les connaissances «populaires» ... avec les vocabulaires techniques de son temps." (GR, 1987:xix)

In English, the tradition of including terms in general dictionaries appears to date back to Bullokar's *An English Expositor* (1616). Bullokar, a "doctor of physic (medicine)," included technical terms from medicine, as well as logic, philosophy, law, astronomy and heraldry. He occasionally specified the field of such terms, for example "a term in Herauldrie." (Landau, 1989:41)

In 1623, Henry Cockeram published *The English Dictionarie: or, An Interpreter of Hard English Words*, in which he included many terms that had probably never been used in English. (Landau, 1989:41-42) He was criticized for this, perhaps because technical terms were associated with "hard words,"[2] which required deciphering for those users with limited schooling.[3]

While the English did not have a linguistic Academy the way the French did, they too were concerned about the proper language usage. However, there does not appear to be any explicit admonition, in the manner of the French Academy, of the inclusion of terms in earlier English dictionaries.

---

[2] "Hard words" are difficult words of foreign origin. (McArthur, 1992:461)

[3] Landau (1989:195) cites Edward Philipp's *The New World of English Words* (1658), which used symbols to mark certain words considered "hard words" or technical.

According to Guilbert (1973:5), since the seventeenth century "s'est instauré une tradition lexicographique qui oscille entre l'inclusion des termes scientifiques et techniques et leur exclusion à des degrés divers, selon que le dictionnaire général qui tend à une description globale du lexique relève du modèle encyclopédique ou du modèle « dictionnaire de langue. »"

However, in general, there has been a progressive acceleration of the inclusion of terms in general dictionaries: "un enrichissement terminologique constant." (Rey, 1985:6) "The attention [now] given scientific entries [in general dictionaries] reflects the importance our society currently gives to science and technology," states Landau (1974:242).

2.1.3 Presence of Terms in General Dictionaries

A number of lexicography scholars have made "guestimates" about the number of terms in general dictionaries and made statements regarding their importance. Dictionaries also sometimes detail the number of terms added to new editions.

2.1.3.1 Presence of Terms in General Dictionaries According to Scholars

Landau (1974:241) conservatively estimates that at least forty percent of entries in unabridged dictionaries such as the WEB3 are for scientific and technical terms, while between twenty-five and thirty-five percent of entries in college and desk-sized dictionaries, such as the *Webster's Collegiate* series, are devoted to terms. These figures clearly illustrate the importance of scientific and technical words in general dictionaries.

A 1960 lexicographic study, reported by Gilbert (1973:35), details the increase in number of terms from the 1949 edition to the 1960 edition of the *Petit Larousse*. The study indicates that 3,973 words were added to the newer edition, 963 of which belonged to the "lexiques des différentes techniques," another 668 to biology and medicine, 193 to zoology and animal physiology, 171 to botany and plant physiology, 141 to physics, astronomy and electricity, 136 to geography and climatology, 110 to psychology and psychiatry, and so on.[4]

While these figures are impressive, Gilbert (1973:35-36) concludes, however, that "la présence de tous ces mots dans un « dictionnaire d'usage » ne prouve pas nécessairement qu'ils sont tous « passés dans l'usage » et font partie du lexique commun."

2.1.3.2 Presence of Terms in General Dictionaries According to Front Matter

Dictionary editors, while generally boasting about the number of terms they have included, are often vague about precise figures. In fact, the editors of the *Grand Larousse de la langue française, en sept volumes* (GL7) (1986:ii) admit that, while many terms are included, they are not sure exactly how many figure in the nomenclature:

> Nous ne saurions, dès ce premier volume, donner exactement le nombre de termes enregistrés. Le total dépasse largement celui de la partie lexicale du *Petit Larousse*, qui est de 44 500. Le *Grand Larousse de la langue française* comprend, en plus, de nombreux termes techniques, dont le choix est déterminé soit par l'intérêt linguistique que présente leur formation, soit par leur emploi courant dans un vocabulaire spécialisé.

---

[4] It should be noted that, while Gilbert indicates that 3,973 words have been added to the newer edition, only 2,382 terms are itemized by field. The "etc." could indicate that the list is incomplete, and that terms belonging to other lesser known fields have not been itemized. However, since Gilbert refers to 3,973 "mots," it is not clear whether or not the remaining lexical items refer to the "mots scientifiques et/ou techniques" he has mentioned previously or to general words.

The GR (1987:xxii) situates the terms it includes, in its nomenclature of approximately 75,000 entries, in terms akin to Rondeau's concentric circles:

> On considérera pour le français plusieurs zones concentriques dont la plus centrale est formée des mots les plus indispensables, les plus disponibles ... et aussi les plus fréquents [c'est-à-dire environ 3 000 entrées] ...
>
> La zone suivante, qui ajoute à ces 3 000 entrées une dizaine de milliers d'unités, correspond à la «compétence» réelle d'un adulte ...
>
> Un cran plus haut dans la description, se trouve une nomenclature normative et générative ... : elle représente de 25 000 à 30 000 unités. A partir de ces chiffres, on entre soit dans le domaine des vocabulaires spéciaux, soit dans l'univers des mots rares, pour une raison ou pour une autre : archaïsmes, usages littéraires ou poétiques, termes propres à un milieu, etc. Les dictionnaires généraux de langue française, lorsqu'ils intègrent ces éléments, atteignent de 40 000 à 70 000 «entrées», selon leurs dimensions et selon les options.

Based on the GR's figures, as many as 30 000 of its 75 000 entries belong to the categories of terms, rare words or literary words. As a result, the number of terms included in this general unabridged French dictionary is rather significant, perhaps almost as high a percentage as indicated by Landau for English unabridged dictionaries.

Like the GR, the PR (1991:xvii-xviii) presents rough estimates of the number of lexical items falling into various categories of its nomenclature:

> Autour des quelques milliers de mots des vocabulaires de base [...], plus de 30 000 mots moins fréquents amenaient la première édition de ce dictionnaire à dépasser les 50 000 entrées. Plusieurs milliers de néologismes ou de termes spéciaux récemment diffusés s'y ajoutent dans la présente édition, ainsi que des acceptions et des expressions nouvelles.

However, these figures do not provide the user with an accurate number of terms in the dictionary.

For the most part, instead of "guestimating" the number of terms included in a particular dictionary, both dictionary editors and lexicography scholars tend to discuss the types of fields and terms covered.

2.1.4 Types of Fields and Terms in General Dictionaries

Since the first appearance of terms in general dictionaries, many lexicography scholars and dictionaries have identified the types of fields and terms covered and described the reasons for their inclusion.

2.1.4.1 Types of Fields and Terms in General Dictionaries According to Scholars

Quemada (1967:306) points out that Furetière's dictionary of 1690 already included "les références à plus de 250 professions ou activités différenciées." In fact, Furetière covers "tous les domaines des Arts (= techniques) et des Sciences," including "activités et discours traditionnels (blason, vénerie, fauconnerie, etc.), les techniques que l'on dirait « de pointe » (art de la guerre, marine, industries ...), les sciences pures comme les pratiques et les applications (la médecine)." (Rey, 1978:85) According to Furetière, "il est certain [...] qu'un architecte parle aussi bon français, en parlant de plinthes et de stilobates ..., qu'un courtisan en parlant d'alcôves, d'estrades et de lustres." (Matoré, 1968:79)

Since the seventeenth century, some of these fields have been excluded from general dictionaries due to disuse, while others are still covered, although they have been updated from edition to edition and dictionary to dictionary. In fact, "the historical bent of the

editors is seen in the differentiation and relevance of fields like Heraldry, Greek Antiquities, Roman Antiquities, etc." (Finkenstaedt and Wolff, 1973:102)

In addition, new fields have been added in response to new developments. For example, since the publication of Furetière's and Bullokar's dictionaries, the industrial revolution, which involved the mechanization of industry during the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, significantly altered civilization, beginning in France and England. Consequently, there were many changes in social and economic organizations. These changes ultimately affected language use and vocabulary. Jacques Leclerc (1986:419) explains that, following the Second Empire in France, there was an important "enrichissement du vocabulaire." In fact, in addition to "le vocabulaire libéral, socialiste, communiste, voire anarchiste," terms began to proliferate in new fields:

> Les applications pratiques des découvertes en sciences naturelles, en physique, en chimie et en nouvelles sciences sont apparues, avec leur lexique: l'archéologie, la paléontologie, l'ethnographie, la zoologie, la linguistique, etc. Les ouvrages de vulgarisation, les journaux, les revues, et une nouveauté, la publicité, diffusent partout les néologismes. Littré et Larousse consignent chacun ces nouveautés dans leur dictionnaire.

Finkenstaedt and Wolff (1973:102) point out that, in the *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*, the advances of nineteenth century science are clearly reflected in fields like chemistry or mineralogy.

In his analysis of the GL10, Dubois (1989:1583) indicates that fields, and therefore terms, in general dictionaries reflect not only technological advances that occur in the time period in which dictionaries are published, but also lexicographic decisions:

> Quant à la proportion des diverses disciplines entre elles, elle dépend tout à la fois des facteurs culturels dominants à la période où l'ouvrage est publié et du souci des éditeurs de privilégier tel ou tel domaine en fonction du public souhaité.

At the time that the 1982 edition of the GL10 was published, general words made up 8% of the nomenclature, history 20%, geography 10%, technology 8%, art 7%, literature 6%, general biology and medicine 5%, physics and chemistry 4%, etc. (Dubois, 1989:1584)

Svensén (1993:50) states that "certain technical terminologies are more strongly represented in general language than others" and are therefore more likely to be found in general dictionaries. Usually, they belong to technologies or fields which have more significance in society in general and in everyday life. (Svensén, 1993:50) Petermann (quoted in Svensén, 1993:50) summarizes the following types of areas whose technical terms tend to be found in general language:

- Those which everyone encounters in the course of education and as a member of society and is constantly kept informed of through the mass media, primarily through radio and television, newspapers, magazines, and popular scientific literature. These areas include politics, history, natural sciences, technology, economics, and information processing.

- Those which everyone encounters as a consumer of goods and services. These include the technologies of food, clothing, and building, vehicle and transport technology, home electronics, commerce, law and medicine.

- Those which everyone encounters in the leisure sector, e.g. sports and exercise, art, literature, music, drama, and all kinds of hobbies; and

- Those which suddenly and often briefly attract extensive attention from the mass media. This could be either a completely new area or an established area in which something remarkable occurs.

According to Dubois (1989:1583-1584), the increasing number of "disciplines" or fields and higher degree of specialization may necessitate the identification of a certain number of "grands domaines" or superordinate fields. This was the case for the GL10 whose superordinate fields have been listed as follows by Dubois:[5]

> *agriculture, armée et histoire militaire, arts ménagers, astronomie, beaux-arts, biologie générale, droit, géographie et géologie, histoire, linguistique, mathématiques, médecine, musique, philosophie, physique et chimie, psychologie, religions, sciences économiques, sciences humaines, sciences naturelles, sciences sociales, spectacles (cinéma, théâtre, chorégraphie, music-hall, etc.), sports, technologies.*

2.1.4.2 Types of Fields and Terms in General Dictionaries According to Front Matter

While lexicographic scholars have identified the types of fields and therefore of terms covered in general dictionaries and have described the reasons for their inclusion, many general dictionaries also explain what types of fields and terms they include. This has been the case ever since Furetière. The unabridged title of Furetière's dictionary includes a detailed inventory of the specialities or fields covered by his nomenclature:

---

[5] The front matter of the GL10 itself does not specifically identify any superordinate fields. In fact, the fields *armée et histoire militaire, arts ménagers* and *sciences naturelles* do not even appear in the list of (field) abbreviations in the dictionary. Also, *Biologie* is given as a field, instead of *biologie générale*. And *géographie* and *géologie* as well as *physique* and *chimie* are indicated as separate fields; they are not grouped together. However, it is clear from GL10's list that, for example, *chimie* is a superordinate field since the following subfields are indicated: *Chimie analytique, Chimie ancienne, Chimie minérale, Chimie organique* and *Chimie physique.*

> *Dictionnaire universel, contenant généralement tous les mots françois tant vieux que modernes et les termes de toutes les Sciences et des Arts, sçavoir la Philosophie, Logique et Physique; la Médecine, ou Anatomie; Pathologie, Terapeutique, Chirurgie, Pharmacopée, Chymie, Botanique ou l'Histoire naturelle des Plantes, et celle des Animaux, Minéraux, Metaux et Pierreries, et les noms des Drogues artificielles : La Jurisprudence civile et canonique, feodale et municipale, et sur tout celle des Ordonnances : les Mathematiques, la Geometrie, l'Arithmetique et l'Algebre; la Trigonometrie, Geodesie, ou l'Arpentage, et les Sections coniques; l'Astronomie, l'Astrologie, la Gnomonique, la Geographie; la Musique, tant en théorie qu'en pratique, les Instruments à vent et à cordes; l'Optique, Catoptrique, Dioptrique et Perspective; l'Architecture civile et militaire; la Pyrotechnie, Tactique et Statique : Les Arts, la Rhetorique, la Poësie, la Grammaire, la Peinture, Sculpture, etc. La Marine, le Manege, l'Art de faire des armes, le Blason, la Venerie, Fauconnerie, la Pesche, l'Agriculture ou Maison Rustique, et la plus part des Arts mechaniques : Plusieurs termes de Relations d'Orient et d'Occident, la quality des Poids, Mesures et Monnoyes*

However, this inventory is not exhaustive. Indeed, Furetière includes many more fields, and terms found in each field are listed in an extensive "index thématique" to his *Dictionnaire universel*; for example the field "Alimentation," and its subfield "(cuisine)," covers terms such as *citronat* and *coriandre*.

The example set by Furetière to discuss the fields and terms included in a general dictionary has been followed by many contemporary French general unilingual dictionaries, English general unilingual dictionaries, and general bilingual dictionaries, which generally address these issues in their front matter.

The GL7 (1986:II), an encyclopedic dictionary, explains that, in general, to reflect usage, terms recognizable by the layperson are included:

> Le lexique recensé comprend tous les mots qui peuvent être rencontrés dans la presse contemporaine non étroitement spécialisée, où sont dosés les vocabulaires techniques et le vocabulaire général.... Ce lexique comprend une gamme très étendue de termes

> techniques et scientifiques, tenant compte ainsi de la réalité linguistique de notre époque, caractérisée sociologiquement par la pénétration des vocabulaires techniques dans le lexique de la langue générale, qui se renouvelle ainsi à un rythme accéléré.

However, the GL7 does not detail the specific types of fields and terms covered. The *Grand Larousse en 5 volumes* (GL5) (1987:III), on the other hand, which claims that "tous les domaines de la connaissance et de l'activité humaines y sont soigneusement explorés," does explain more precisely what is included. It outlines the following superordinate fields and subfields:

- **sciences physiques** : physique et chimie;
- **sciences de la Terre et de l'Univers** : géologie, géographie physique, astronomie;
- **sciences de la vie** : biologie, médecine, psychiatrie, médecine vétérinaire, botanique, zoologie;
- **mathématiques** et **logique, statistique**;
- **économie**;
- **histoire** de la France et des autres pays du monde;
- **religions**;
- **arts** : littérature, musique, cinéma, arts plastiques, arts décoratifs, photographie, chorégraphie, théâtre;
- **techniques et industries** : agriculture, agroalimentaire, productions énergétiques, textile, sidérurgie, métallurgie, produits chimiques, travaux publics, marine, aéronautique et astronautique, transports, électronique et électrotechnique, informatique, industries graphiques, télécommunications;
- **sciences humaines** : psychologie, psychanalyse, sociologie, linguistique, droit et sciences politiques, anthropologie, sciences de la communication;
- **armées et armements**;
- **sports et loisirs**.

The *Petit Larousse illustré* (PL) (1996:7), another encyclopedic dictionary, stipulates that, of the 59,000 lexical items in its nomenclature, there are "de nombreux termes spécifiques des sciences et des techniques d'aujourd'hui, notamment en médecine, informatique, biologie, sciences de l'ingénieur." While fields such as medicine and biology were included in earlier dictionaries, the types of terms in these fields have obviously changed and new ones have been added. Terms from fields that are considered more contemporary, such as computers and engineering, are also included.

Although encyclopedic dictionaries such as the GL5, the GL7 and the PL, are generally richer in terms than language dictionaries, the latter also claim to cover many types of fields and terms.

The PR (1991:xviii), a well-known language dictionary, notes that a review of its "vocabulaires scientifiques" revealed that a number of changes needed to be made "portant soit sur des termes déjà anciens, dans la spécialité, mais dont l'emploi s'est précisé ou est devenu plus fréquent, soit sur des termes apparus depuis une dizaine d'années." Two striking areas required updating: "l'informatique et l'automatique; et l'ensemble des sciences biologiques et de leurs applications."

The addition of new terms to the PR's "vocabulaires techniques" is directly related to the importance of the field to which they belong. Since "la richesse des terminologies ne peut être reflétée que dans la mesure où la diffusion des termes est socialement importante" (PR,

1991:xviii), the "techniques de pointe" are favoured. However, the "vocabulaires traditionnels (artisanats, etc.)" are still retained as they constitute "une richesse lexicale précieuse."

While the NPR (1993:xi) does not specify the types of fields covered, it does itemize a number of terms that have been added since the previous edition:

> Les entrées nouvelles sont des néologismes représentatifs de tous les usages de la société en conformité avec le programme déjà mis en place en 1967. On y trouvera [...] des mots scientifiques, essentiellement des sciences de la vie (*agrobiologie, algothérapie, autotransfusion, déambulateur, krill, liposuccion, déchetterie, fibroscopie, immunodéficience, AZT, lithotriteur, mammectomie, polytransfusé, transaminase,* etc.)

Many fields can thus be identified by the nature of the terms mentioned.

The front matter of the *Lexis. Dictionnaire de la langue française* (LEX) (1987:vii) clearly indicates that not every "domaine de la connaissance" could be included. Like the PR, the LEX indicates that more relevant contemporary fields relating to new developments have been given preference over others that have perhaps become more antiquated: "... le contemporain a été privilégié par rapport à l'ancien." However, the LEX does not enumerate the various new fields or changes in fields included.

While it states that a plethora of terms in certain fields have, in fact, been excluded from the second edition, the LEX (1987:vii) indicates only indirectly the type of terms retained:

> En ce qui concerne les vocabulaires scientifiques, on a fait une distinction entre les mots qui permettent de décrire le fonctionnement de la science et les mots qui appartiennent à des énumérations ouvertes : on ne pouvait raisonnablement envisager,

> dans le cadre d'un seul volume, de recenser, en botanique et en zoologie, les innombrables animaux et plantes exotiques, en géologie les noms de tous les minéraux, roches et fossiles.

Like the LEX, the RQ2 (1993:x) remains vague about the types of fields and terms that are included: all it indicates is that its nomenclature of 40,000 entries satisfactorily covers "la langue générale" et "des langues de spécialités les plus répandues ou les plus accessibles," thereby including "tous les mots usuels de la langue contemporaine ainsi que les mots didactiques et les termes spécialisés jugés indispensables pour la pédagogie."

The *Dictionnaire du français Plus* (PLUS) (1988:xxiv) claims to devote "une place importante à des mots qui ne sont pas d'usage quotidien, mais dont l'emploi, lié au développement accéléré des sciences et des techniques, se répand dans tous les milieux." This is because "les terminologies spécialisées occupent une place de plus en plus importante dans les milieux de travail, dans les media et dans les communications quotidiennes" (PLUS, 1988:xvi): in fact, certain terms such as "amiantose" and "câblodistribution" are used to such an extent that their technical character is forgotten.

Many of the PLUS entries for specialized vocabulary contain encyclopedic notes which provide the user with information on the usage of a word or term and the values associated with it. It is in reference to these notes that the PLUS (1988:xvii) indicates what types of fields and terms are covered: "[ces] textes portent non seulement sur des questions relevant des sciences pures (V. atome, nerf, plomb, etc.) mais s'intéressent également à l'histoire, à

la géographie, à la politique, à la vie en société (V. acadien, bande 2, bleuet, coroner, éducation, paroisse, seigneurie, etc.)." However, while the front matter of this general dictionary mentions a few broad fields, it does not expressly enumerate any new fields that it particularly focusses on.

Even the *Dictionnaire du français contemporain* (DFC) (1966), a learner's dictionary, indicates that it contains terms. However, the front matter (1966:iii) specifies that the types of terms included are limited to "tous les mots qui entrent dans l'usage écrit ou parlé du français le plus habituel"; in other words, terms found in the DFC are those that are common enough to appear in "la presse et les conversations." Terms "qui sont restreints à des milieux professionnels étroitement spécialisés ou qui appartiennent à une terminologie proprement scientifique" have been excluded.

The new edition of this dictionary, the *Nouveau dictionnaire du français contemporain* (NDFC) (1986:v), adds that since "le lexique, qui se modifie sans cesse, s'est élargi à de nouveaux domaines," new words have therefore been added while others have been omitted. In fact, as many as 3,200 new "termes techniques vulgarisés, comme les dénominations usuelles des animaux, des plantes, des appareils, etc." have been incorporated into the dictionary's "vocabulaire fondamental." Therefore, the NDFC consists of "le lexique usuel du français contemporain à partir duquel se développent les terminologies scientifiques et techniques."

The above review of front matter in French unilingual general dictionaries reveals a wide range of approaches to fields and terms: while some discuss in detail the various types of fields and terms included, others merely state that terms relating to fields that are deemed to be contemporary, that is "de pointe," have been covered. However, on the whole, the French unilingual dictionaries provide more information on these points than do the English unilingual general dictionaries.

Even an unabridged dictionary like the WEB3 gives few details apart from the fact that the vocabulary is designed to include "all words in regular literary and colloquial use, together with a selection of those which belong to the terminology of the arts and sciences." (WEB3, 1986:ix-x) Although this dictionary indicates that terms are indeed included in its nomenclature, it neglects to mention the specific selection of fields within the arts and sciences in which such terms appear.

Among the collegiate dictionaries, the RHWEB provides the most details on the fields and terms covered. It claims to include "words from more than 150 subject categories, covering [...] diverse fields from aeronautics to zoology." (1991:xi) In fact, it states that, as a micro-encyclopedia, it also has numerous entries in the fields of biography, geography, government, history, literature and Native American peoples and their languages. Many contemporary fields represented in this dictionary, such as popular culture, science and technology, as well as journalism and sports, also prove to be "the most fruitful areas for the invention of new words and expressions," which leads one to expect terminological

neologisms in this dictionary. The RHWEB thus indicates both the fields and terms that it includes.

The COLL (1986:vii) indicates that a "comprehensive treatment of modern science and technology" was undertaken. In fact, the editor claims that computer technology made it possible to "survey *every* field of human activity subject by subject."[6] While this reveals the ambitious objective of the dictionary, it does not clearly enumerate the fields to which the technical and specialized terms covered in the COLL belong.

Like the COLL, the *American Heritage* (AH) (1976:xx) indicates that, since "scientific and technical terminology [has] become increasingly important in public discussion," it has been included in the nomenclature. In addition, new words have been drawn from the language of particular domains such as new social movements (*lifestyle*), publicity (*legend*), and technology (*input* and *access*). However, again like the COLL, the AH does not specifically itemize the fields to which such terms belong.

While the *Penguin Canadian Dictionary* (PEN) (1990:ix) provides no indication of its coverage of fields or terms, it does mention that "special attention has been paid to the new vocabulary of North American English that has not yet found its way into the major dictionaries." Among the hundreds of new words and expressions that have been included, some are easily identifiable as terms: *cellular phone, compact disc, downstream* (business

---

[6] Emphasis added.

sense), *hypertext, leveraged buyout, negative option, risk arbitrage, user-friendly*, (computer) *virus*, etc. The fields of these terms are also readily identifiable. Since the PEN has used electronic databases such as Info Globe and Mead's Nexis for lexicographical evidence, the terms found therein are probably those used in general language.

In its nomenclature of 56,000 words and phrases, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LONG) (1987:F8), a learner's dictionary, includes "scientific and technical language, business and computer terms." Although the LONG does not specifically indicate any fields other than these, it does indicate that the words and terms included in its nomenclature have been researched in a corpus (of approximately 27.5 million words) consisting of current British and American newspapers, as well as citations of neologisms. Therefore, the terms, and the fields in which they are found, covered in this dictionary are presumably those used in general language.

The front matter of the *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (COCO) (1988:xix), a learner's dictionary, states that, although "the texts from which this dictionary is derived are nearly all in ordinary everyday English," the nomenclature does include hundreds of words which are "technical in origin but which are regularly used in the central vocabulary - words like *hearsay, gynaecology, debug*." However, none of the fields in which such terms occur is indicated.

The *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (CAMBR) (1995:viii), a learner's dictionary like the COCO, indicates that its nomenclature includes British and American variants that are "common in fields such as tools, cars or aircraft." In addition, the CAMBR specifies that experts have been consulted for specialist fields such as law, economics, medicine and engineering, a practice that it claims is not common in learner's dictionaries, but rather in large dictionaries for native speakers.

The above review of front matter in English GUDs reveals that, in general, the aforementioned dictionaries provide less information on fields and terms than do the French GUDs. While all of the English GUDs, including the learner's dictionaries, indicate that terms are included in their nomenclature, few of them stipulate the various types of fields covered. However, the learner's dictionaries make it clear that the terms covered are those that a reader would encounter in general language.

The GBDs provide, on the whole, even less information than the English GUDs. In fact, the only major French-English dictionary to even discuss the presence of fields and terms in the front matter is the *Harrap's Standard French and English Dictionary* (HA) (1972).

This dictionary clearly states that contemporary fields, and therefore the terms belonging to them, are included (HA, 1972:vi):

> The new material that has been added [to this edition] pays particular attention to modern technical and scientific developments, including the fields of atomic physics, space travel and data processing, together with recent terms in connection with

> industries such as aircraft, automobiles, civil engineering, etc. The natural sciences, economics and finance have not been neglected ...

Since, in general, dictionaries claim that terms and fields are indeed represented in them, the presence of terms, as well as an indication of their fields, shall be analyzed in dictionaries in the following manner:

i) comparison of three French GUDs;

ii) comparison of the same lexical items in the French-English sections of four GBDs;

iii) comparison of three English GUDs;

iv) comparison of the same lexical items in the English-French sections of four GBDs; and finally

v) comparison of the results of i) and iii) with ii) and iv) above.

2.2 TREATMENT OF TERMS IN GENERAL DICTIONARIES

2.2.1 Comparison of the Presence of Terms in GUDs and GBDs[7]

According to Béjoint (1988:360), "in order to pick [scientific and technical words] out quickly from a nomenclature, it is possible to use the field labels attached to them." For the purposes of this thesis, this method was used for selecting a sample of lexical items having at least one technical or specialized sense in general dictionaries.[8]

On the basis of the presence of some field indication, thirty lexical items were randomly chosen from the PR (1991), and an additional five from the PLUS (1988). The thirty-five lexical items are the following:

> aberration, ablation, accent, accommodation, affinité, agglutination, absolu (*adj*), architrave, armature, augite, ascendance, arythmie, ascension, abri-sous-roche, abscisse, accaparer, accéléromètre, accrochage, accrétion, adénocarcinome, adenine, affixe, aiguille, aileron, allumage, alluvion, amaurose, asymptote, ataraxie, atavisme, acoustique, acculement, acupuncture, artériosclérose, and amétropie.

In order to select comparable lexical items from the English GUDs, some items similar in form to the French ones and having at least one technical or specialized sense were chosen:[9]

---

[7] Commonly used general dictionaries (three French unilingual, three English unilingual and four bilingual) were selected for this analysis.

[8] Béjoint (1988:360) does caution against this method by stating that "the use of field labels in dictionaries is marked by a certain confusion" for the following reasons:

a) different dictionaries use different field labels;
b) some dictionaries use labels for some scientific and technical words but not for all;
c) some give labels to words that are not really specialized; and
d) some do not use labels at all etc.

However, despite the pitfalls of this method, it is suitable as a starting point for the following analysis.

[9] This method of selecting comparable English terms was used because terms are often similar in form in English and French.

aberration, ablation, accent, accommodation, affinity, agglutination, absolute (*adj*), architrave, armature, augite, arrhythmia, ascension, abscissa, accelerometer, accretion, adenocarcinoma, adenine, affix, aiguille, aileron, alluvion, amaurosis, asymptote, ataraxia, atavism, acoustics, acupuncture, arteriosclerosis, and ametropia.

Since this procedure yielded only twenty-nine English lexical items, compared to the thirty-five French lexical items identified earlier, another six were chosen: two of these, *alluvium* and *airfoil*, were given as equivalents of the French lexical items *alluvion*, and *aileron*, respectively; and the remaining four, *amitosis, alveolus*, *algorithm* and *astrophysics*, were randomly chosen based on the presence of some indication of field in the GAGE (1983).

The following analysis will be carried out bearing in mind two primary aspects: presence of the lexical items and indication of field.

2.2.1.1 Comparison of Three French GUDs

All thirty lexical items chosen from the PR were searched in the PLUS and the LEX (1987). The remaining five lexical items chosen from the PLUS were, in turn, searched in the PR and the LEX.

The presence of the aforementioned lexical items, having at least one technical or specialized sense, was compared from one French GUD to the other:[10,11]

FRENCH	PR		PLUS		LEX	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
aberration	✓	1 ◇[12] *Astron* 1 - *Opt* 1 - *Biol* ... manifestations pathologiques	✓	1 *Astro & Phys* ? 2 *Med* Anomalie d'ordre anatomique, physiologique ou psychique	✓	4 *Astron* 5 *Opt* 6 *Biol* 3 *Pathol* 2 *Psychol*
ablation	✓	1 *Chir* 2 *Géol* 3 *Sc., Techn*	✓	1 *Chir* 3 *Geomorph* 2 *Esp*	✓	I.1 ... par voie chirurgicale I.2 *Géogr* 2 *Techn* 2.1 & 2.2
accent	✓	I.1 - *Mus* II.2 *Littér*	✓	I.1 ◇ *Mus* I.1 ◇ *litt.*	✓	I.1 — I.4 *Poét*
accommodation	✓	2 *Physiol* 3 *Psychol*	✓	2 — X	✓	2 *Physiol* 3 *Biol*
affinité	✓	1 *Dr* 2 *Chim* 4 *Biol* 4 - *Ling* 4 - *Math* 4 - *Phys*	✓	1 — 3 *Chim* X X 4 *Geom* X	✓	5 *Dr* 3 *Chim* 2 *Biol* ? 6 *Ling* 4 *Math* X
agglutination	✓	◇ *Biol* ◇ *Ling* ◇ *Phonét*	✓	◇ *Biol* * X X	✓	3 *Biol* 2 *Ling* 2 *Ling*
absolu *adj*	✓	1 — X 4 ◇ *Math* * X 4 ◇ *Milit* * 4 ◇ *Gramm* *	✓	2 ◇ *Chim* 4 ◇ *Phys* * 4 ◇ *Math* * X X X	✓	I.1 *Chim* I.4 *Phys* I.6 ◇ *Math* * I.5 *Métrol* I.6 — * III En grammaire

[10] In the presence column, I have used the ✓ symbol to indicate that the lexical item searched is present in the dictionary, and the X symbol to indicate the absence of the lexical item.

[11] In the field indication column, I have used the symbol — to mean that a technical or specialized sense is present in the dictionary, but there is no field indicator. I have also used the ? symbol to indicate that it is difficult to determine whether or not a sense, marked or unmarked, corresponds to a technical or specialized sense given in another dictionary. I have added the symbol * to denote the dictionary's use of an actant, referent or "example."

[12] The ◇ or - symbol found in the field indication column is used in certain dictionaries to indicate the presence of a technical or specialized subsense of a lexical item.

FRENCH	PR		PLUS		LEX	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
architrave	✓	1 *Archit* 2 *Mar* X	✓	*Archi* X X	✓	1 *Archit* 3 *Mar* 2 *Constr*
armature	✓	1 - *Phys* ? 3 *Mus* 1 —	✓	3 *Electr* ? 4 *Mus* 1 *Constr*	✓	3 *Électr* 4 *Phys* 5 *Mus* 2 *Constr*
augite	X	X	✓	*Miner*	X	X
ascendance	✓	1 *Astron*	✓	2 *Astro*	✓	*Météor*
arythmie	✓	*Physiol*	✓	*Méd*	✓	—
ascension	✓	1 *Théol* 2 *Astron* •	✓	III.1 *Théol* II *Astro* •	✓	3 *Théol* 6 *Astron* •
abri-sous-roche	✓	*Géol, paléont*	✓	—	✓	—
abscisse	✓	*Math*	✓	*Math*	✓	*Math* 1, 2
accaparer	✓	1 *Écon*	✓	1 *Écon*	✓	—
accéléromètre	✓	*Techn*	✓	—	✓	—
accrochage	✓	I. 2 *Min* I. 4 *Pub* II.2 *Mil* —	✓	X X 3 *Milit* 4 *Électron*	✓	X ? X X
accrétion	✓	*Sc* X	✓	*Astro, Météo* X	✓	2 *Techn* 1 *Astron*
adénocarcinome	✓	*Pathol*	X	X	X	X
adenine	✓	*Chim, Biol*	✓	*Biochim*	✓	—
affixe	✓	I — II *Math*	✓	*Gram* X	✓	I *Ling* II *Math*
aiguille	✓	I. 2 - *Chir* X X I.4 — X II.3 — X	✓	I.3 — II.3 *Constr* II.4 *Trav Publ* II.5 *Ch de F* II.6 *Tech* II.8 — X	✓	I.4 *Chir* X I.8 *Constr* II — X I.7 *Zool* I.5 *Techn*
aileron	✓	2 *Mar* 4 *Anat* 2 ◇ — 3 —	✓	3 *Mar* 4 *Anat* 2 *Aviat* X	✓	4 *Mar* 1 *Anat* 6 *Aéron* 2 *Archit*
allumage	✓	1 ◇ *Autom*	✓	1 *Tech*	✓	2 *Mécan*
alluvion alluvions *pl*	✓	1 ◇ *Dr* 2 —	✓	2 *Dr* 1 ◇ *Géol*	✓	*Dr* *Géogr*

FRENCH	PR		PLUS		LEX	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
amaurose	✓	*Méd*	X	X	✓	—
asymptote *nf*	✓	1 *Math*	✓	1 *Geom*	✓	1 *Math*
ataraxie	✓	*Philo*	✓	*Philo*	✓	*Philos*
atavisme	✓	*Biol*	✓	1 *Biol*	✓	1 *Biol*
acoustique	✓	Partie de la physique (en relation avec la physiologie, la psychologie et la musique) qui ...	✓	Branche de la physique qui ...	✓	Science qui traite ...
acculement	X	X	✓	Chez le cheval ...	✓	*Équit*
acupuncture	✓	Thérapeutique	✓	Procédé médical	✓	Traitement médical
artériosclérose	✓	État pathologique	✓	*Méd*	✓	Maladie
amétropie	✓	Défaut dans la constitution optique de l'oeil ...	✓	*Physiol*	✓	*Pathol*

Presence of terms

The above chart reveals that French GUDs appear to cover the items chosen in most cases. For instance, of the thirty-five selected lexical items, thirty-three are present in each of the dictionaries: of the two not present in the PR (*augite, acculement*), both are found in the PLUS, but only one of them in the LEX (*acculement*); of the two not present in the PLUS (*adénocarcinome, amaurose*), both are found in the PR, but only one of them in the LEX (*amaurose*); and of the two not present in the LEX (*augite, adénocarcinome*) one is found in the PR (*adénocarcinome*) and the other in the PLUS (*augite*).

Moreover, all the dictionaries cover at least one technical or specialized sense of the items they include.[13] However, the number and type of technical senses of a lexical item found in more than one dictionary do not always correspond from one dictionary to another. For example, the lexical item *architrave* has three senses in the LEX, all considered technical and labelled *Archit, Constr* and *Mar*; the PR includes only two senses in the entry, both considered technical and labelled *Archit* and *Mar*; however, the PLUS identifies only one technical sense for this term, labelling it *Archi*. Therefore, not all technical senses appear in every dictionary.

Even when the same technical senses are found in several dictionaries, the user may have the impression that they do not correspond from one dictionary to another, because some dictionaries combine such senses. For example, the PR gives two senses and two labels, *Ling* and *Phonét*, for *agglutination*, while the LEX groups the same two senses together and gives only one label, *Ling*:[14]

PR

Ling Addition d'affixes aux mots-bases (ou thèmes), exprimant des rapports grammaticaux.

Phonét Réunion d'éléments phonétiques appartenant à des morphèmes différents en un seul élément morphologique.

LEX

Ling Phénomène caractéristique des langues agglutinantes; réunion de deux groupes de phonèmes originairement distincts.

---

[13] For brevity, I shall refer to "technical and specialized" or "technical and scientific" senses as only "technical" hereafter.

[14] This term does not occur in the PLUS.

The second half of the definition in the LEX, after the semi-colon, does in fact correspond to the sense labelled *Phonét* in the PR; therefore, despite its presentation, the LEX does present two terms.

In some instances, the technical sense is presented in some dictionaries as a subsense rather than a sense. This is the case for the technical sense of *aileron*, which is presented as a distinct sense in the PLUS and the LEX but as a subsense in the PR:

aileron

PLUS
2 *AVIAT* Volet mobile, à incidence variable, situé sur le bord de fuite de l'aile.

LEX
6 *Aéron.* Volet articulé placé à l'arrière des ailes d'un avion et dont la manoeuvre permet l'inclinaison ou le redressement latéral de l'appareil.

PR
2 *Mar. (vx)* Panneau amovible servant à augmenter la surface d'un gouvernail. - Pièce prolongeant la quille et formant plan de dérive. ◇ Volet articulé placé à l'arrière de l'aile d'un avion, commandé par le manche à balai, servant à virer.

The underlined elements indicate clearly that the same sense is being dealt with in the three dictionaries, despite the fact that the PLUS and the LEX use different labels and the PR uses no label at all for the subsense.[15]

[15] While it may appear as if the entire sense is labelled *Mar. (vx)*, this is not the case since the symbol "◇" is a "signe de subdivision qui sépare les nuances de sens ou d'emploi à l'intérieur d'un sens, suivi ou non d'une nouvelle définition." (PR, 1991:xxiii)

In many instances, the subsense does not relate to the headword taken by itself but to an "example" in which the headword figures.[16] For example, the technical subsenses of the lexical item *absolu* are found in the following compounds in the French GUDs examined: *valeur absolue* labelled *Math* in the PR and the PLUS; *arme absolue* labelled *Milit* in the PR, but unlabelled in the LEX; *ablatif absolu* and *génitif absolu* labelled *Gramm* in the PR; and *zéro absolu* labelled *Phys* in the PLUS.

Despite the differences noted above, it can be stated that, in general, French GUDs appear to cover technical senses. In other words, terms are found in these dictionaries although they are not always presented clearly as such.

Indication of field

As indicated in section 1.2.3, a term necessarily belongs to a given field. Hence, field indication is an essential element of lexicographic information in any dictionary. The manner in which the field is indicated for each of the terms identified thus needs to be analyzed in the three French GUDs.

---

[16] For the purposes of this thesis, an "example" covers free combinations, collocations and compounds, but not fixed expressions. Free combinations are "sentences or phrases where the headword is used without any special syntactic or semantic constraints (i.e. the structure can be changed, other words substituted, etc.)." (BCD, 1996:30) Collocations are common word combinations in which some words almost automatically "go together" with certain words, but resist combination with others. (BCD, 1996:31) Compounds are complex words; that is they are multi-word units that function like simple words. (BCD, 1996:34) Fixed expressions are not considered here since field labels and field indicators do not generally apply to them.

While the most obvious method of field indication is the use of field labels, discussed in Chapter 1, another method that is often employed in these dictionaries is that of using field-related words in the definition. For example, while the PR and the PLUS use the field label *Chir* for one sense of *ablation*, the LEX uses a field-related word within the definition of this sense: "Enlèvement d'un organe, d'une tumeur par voie *chirurgicale*." The word *chirurgicale* is obviously related to the field *Chir(urgie)*.

In some cases, the field-related word contained in the definition of the term is not as obviously related form-wise to the field label. For instance, while the LEX uses the label *Équit* for the term *acculement*, the PLUS gives an indication of field using the words "Chez le cheval ..." Instead of including a word formally related to *Équit* (équitation) in its definition, it uses a word, *cheval*, which is semantically related to *équitation*: "Art, action de monter à cheval." However, this still constitutes an indication of field.

Occasionally, unilingual dictionaries apply field labels to definitions that already contain field-related words. For example, the lexical item *aberration*, in the sense of "écart par rapport à l'espèce type," is not only labelled *Méd* in the PLUS, but its definition contains three field-related words: "Anomalie d'ordre anatomique, physiologique ou psychique."[17] However, this doubling of field indication occurs for only a few of the selected lexical items.

---

[17] The underlined elements relate to other fields covered by the PLUS: *Anatomie, Physiologie* and *Psychiatrie* or *Psychologie*.

While field-related words are found only in definitions, field labels can be applied to different elements of a dictionary entry, such as an entire entry, a sense division or subsense. For instance, they may appear at the beginning of an entire entry as in the case of the lexical item *abscisse*.[18] Field labels may also appear at the beginning of a sense division as in the case for *architrave*.

Field labels may also be found for terms presented as subsenses. For example, the term *allumage* meaning "inflammation du mélange gazeux" is labelled for field both in the PR, where it is presented as a subsense, and in the PLUS and the LEX, where it is given as an independent sense. In fact, a field indicator may be even more important for a term presented as a subsense to distinguish it from other subsenses.

In other instances, field labels may apply to "examples" such as free combinations, collocations or compounds within a sense division or subsense. For example, the PR gives the *Gramm* label for the compounds *ablatif absolu* and *génitif absolu* and the free combination example *emploi ~ d'un verbe transitif* which form a subsense for the term *absolu (adj)*.

The decision to include a field indication for a given term and the type of field indication used varies from dictionary to dictionary. A given term may be unmarked for field in one dictionary (that is, it may have neither a field label nor a field-related word), may have a field label

---

[18] Since the term *abscisse* is monosemic in both the PR and the PLUS, the field label automatically applies to the entire entry. However, while the term is polysemous in the LEX, the field label appears before the sense divisions and, therefore, remains applicable to the entry as a whole.

attached in another, and may have a field-related word in the definition in yet another dictionary. For example, the monosemic term *artériosclérose*, which is present in the LEX, has no indication of field for its sense, although it is labelled *Méd* in the PLUS and has the field-related words "État pathologique" in the PR.[19]

The selected items were carefully examined to see if there was any obvious reason for not including the use of field indication in specific cases. One such reason could be that the lexical item is monosemic; hence the technical sense does not need to be distinguished from other, general senses. Of the thirty-five selected lexical items, eleven of them, almost one third, are monosemic:

> augite (*Miner*), arythmie (*Physiol* or *Méd*), abri-sous-roche (*Géol, paléont*), accéléromètre (*Techn*), adénocarcinome (*Pathol*), adenine (*Chim, Biol* or *Biochim*), amaurose (*Méd*), ataraxie (*Philo(s)*), acupuncture (... *médical*), artériosclérose (*Méd*), amétropie (*Physiol* or *Pathol*)[20]

Of these eleven monosemic specialized lexical items, four of them, over one-third, occur in only one or two of the three French GUDs: *augite* (PLUS), *adénocarcinome* (PR), *amaurose* (PR and LEX) and *acculement* (PLUS and LEX). However, analysis of the dictionary entries for these eleven monosemic terms reveals that all have field labels or some field-related words

---

[19] The PR includes the field label *Pathol.* (terme de pathologie -> *Physiol., Méd.*) in its list of abbreviations, but chooses not to use it for the term *artériosclérose*.

[20] These lexical items are those that are presented as monosemic in all three of the unilingual French general dictionaries. There are some instances where lexical items which appear as monosemic in one of the dictionaries are presented as polysemous in one or the other of the dictionares; for example, *architrave* in monosemic in the PLUS but not in the PR or the LEX. These instances are not considered here.

attached to them in at least one of the dictionaries.[21] Hence, monosemy is obviously not a criterion for not including field indication.

Closer examination of terms accompanied by field labels reveals that the presence of the same or similar labels does not ensure the matching of senses from one dictionary to another. For example, while terms like *abscisse* and *ataraxie* are labelled *Math* and *Philo(s)*, respectively, for the same senses in all three French GUDs, a term like *armature* may have the same label, *Constr*, but the senses do not seem to correspond completely from one dictionary to another. In the LEX, the term *armature* is clearly labelled *Constr*:

> **2.** *Constr* Charpente cintrée sur laquelle on établit les arcades, les arches, les voûtes; ferraillage du béton armé.

The PLUS also contains a sense labelled *Constr*:

> **1.** *Constr* Ensemble d'éléments destinés à accroître la rigidité d'une pièce, d'un ouvrage ou d'un matériau. - ***Spécialt.*** Ensemble des éléments incorporés au béton armé pour accroître sa résistance à la traction et à la flexion.

In this case, the definition in the LEX is more specific than the one in the PLUS; that is, words such as "arcades," "arches" and "voûtes" in the LEX are more explicit than "pièce," "ouvrage" and "matériau" in the PLUS. While the definitions may seem dissimilar enough to cause confusion in the mind of a user attempting to match senses from one dictionary to another, use of the same label in the LEX and the PLUS certainly helps draw the user's attention to the fact

---

[21] This may be to inform users of the fields to which these monosemic terms belong.

that they cover more or less the same sense. In fact, the first part of the definition in the PLUS would be too vague without the field label.

In other instances, the field label used for a given term is not the same from one dictionary to another. In other words, different labels are sometimes used to mark the same or similar senses. For example, the PR uses a different label (*Phys*) than the PLUS and the LEX (*Électr*) to identify the same technical sense for the lexical item *armature*:

> PR
> **1.** - *Phys* Plaques, lames métalliques d'un condensateur électrique, d'un électroaimant.
>
> PLUS
> **3.** *Électr* Pièce CONDUCTRICE d'un électroaimant ou d'un condensateur.
>
> LEX
> **3.** *Électr* Corps CONDUCTEUR faisant partie d'un condensateur électrique.

The highlighted elements clearly indicate that the same sense is being dealt with in all three dictionaries, despite the fact that the PR uses a different label. The use of different labels may mislead the dictionary user who may be trying to match senses from one dictionary to another.

The labelling of the term *ablation* in the sense of "perte de substance subie par un relief" raises the question of cohyponyms.[22] This term, which occurs in the PR, the PLUS and the LEX is labelled *Géol, Geomorph* and *Géogr*, respectively, although all three labels are found in the list of abbreviations of each dictionary. *Géologie, Géomorphologie* and *Géographie* can be considered cohyponyms, which means that the fields and, therefore, their terms, are related

[22] Crystal (1992:177) defines cohyponyms as "lexical items which are included within the same superordinate term."

conceptually but not hierarchically.[23] The use of cohyponyms as labels could mislead the dictionary user into believing he is dealing with three distinct, although related terms, rather than a single term.

Another example of the use of different field labels for the same technical sense is found in the entry for the term *asymptote*, which is marked *Math* in the PR and the LEX (for *mathématiques*), but *Géom* (for *géométrie*) in the PLUS. This example raises the question of superordinate and subordinate fields.[24] All three French GUDs have both the superordinate *Math* and the subordinate *Géom* (for *géométrie*) in their lists of abbreviations, which include subject field label abbreviations. It is difficult to explain why the PR and the LEX have chosen to use the more general label *Math* for *asymptote*, while the PLUS has opted for the more specific label *Géom*. It appears that dictionaries tend to label terms according to their own point of view.

---

[23] The definition of each of the terms corresponding to these labels can be extracted from these dictionaries to help determine the scope of each of these fields:

i) *Géol* is the abbreviation of *Géologie* which is defined in the PR as the "Science qui a pour objet l'histoire du globe terrestre, et *spécialt.* l'étude de la structure et de l'évolution de l'écorce terrestre." The definition also directs the user to the following fields: Minéralogie, paléontologie, pétrographie, stratigraphie; spéléologie.

ii) *Géomorph* in the PLUS is the abbreviation of *Géomorphologie* which is labelled Géol and defined as the "Science qui étudie les reliefs terrestres actuels et leur évolution." In turn *Géol* is the abbreviation of *Géologie* which is defined in the PLUS as the "Science qui étudie l'écorce terrestre, ses constituants, son histoire et sa genèse." This definition is followed by encyclopedic information.

iii) *Géogr* is the abbreviation of *Géographie* which is defined in the LEX as the "Science qui a pour objet la description de la Terre."

Each of the above definitions has the underlined element (*terre*) in common; therefore, the fields are essentially cohyponyms. However, according to the definition in the PLUS, the label *Géol* may actually be the superordinate of *Géomorph*, while it would be considered a cohyponym in the PR and the LEX.

[24] Although these dictionaries do not define the scope of each field label used, it is logical that a field such as Mathematics would be considered a superordinate field, including, in its scope, a subordinate field such as Geometry. In fact, *Géom* is defined in the PLUS as the "Branche des mathématiques qui étudie les propriétés de l'espace."

It may occasionally be difficult for the user to see the superordinate-subordinate link between fields. The term *allumage*, for instance, is labelled *Autom* in the PR, *Tech* in the PLUS and *Mécan* in the LEX. While the field label *Autom* is clearly a subordinate field label in relation to *Mécan* which is the superordinate label, the label *Tech* does not precisely indicate field of knowledge to the user. It may well be that the label *Tech* acts as a superordinate field to *Mécan* which, in turn, acts as a superordinate field to *Autom*.

The example of *allumage* raises the question of the usefulness of labels such as *Tech(nol)* and *Sc(ientif)*. All three French GUDs use these labels, which are briefly explained as follows:

Dictionary	Abbreviation	Field explanation	Abbreviation	Field explanation
PR	*Techn.* *Technol.*	*technique* *terme de technologie*	*Sc.*	*scientifique*
PLUS	*Tech.*	*Technologie, technique*	*Sc.*	*science*
LEX	*Techn.*	*technique*	*Scientif.*	*scientifique*

The PR is the only one of the three dictionaries to actually define these labels (1991:xxviii-xxix):

Techn technique (mot appartenant au langage technique, et peu ou mal connu de l'ensemble du public; quand il s'agit d'une technique particulière et très importante, TECHN. est remplacé par le nom de cette technique [AVIAT., ÉLECTR., PHOTOGR.])

Sc scientifique (LAT. SC. : latin scientifique); terme du langage scientifique et appartenant en général au domaine de plusieurs sciences.

However, even these definitions do not give users a clear understanding of when and to what extent such labels can be applied to lexical items.[25] Moreover, examples of their usage in the three dictionaries do not provide much clarification either. Of the thirty-five selected lexical items, only five are labelled *Tech* or *Sc*: *ablation, accéléromètre, accrétion, aiguille* and *allumage*. Moreover, these labels are not used for these terms in all three dictionaries.[26] For example, for the term *ablation*, the PR uses the labels *Sc, Techn* and the LEX *Techn* while the PLUS uses the field label *Esp* (espace) for the same sense.[27] Neither the PR nor the LEX have *Esp(ace)* on their list of abbreviations, although they do include *Aéron(aut)* (aéronautique), which may be a suitable field label in this case.

What is particularly interesting is that the PR, the only dictionary that specifically distinguishes between the labels *Tech* and *Sc*, applies both to the same term (*ablation*). However, this is not

---

[25] Danielle Candel classifies the labels *technique, technologie* and *technologique*, as "hyperdomains," used in the place of more specific professional labels such as *administration, biologie* or *musique*. According to Candel, the labels *techn.* and *technol.* are often used, with a generic role in mind on the one hand, to signify all technical fields. They may correspond, on the other hand, to a specific technical field which has not been included in the list of field labels or of abbreviations. Therefore, the labels *techn.* and *technol.* may be used instead of a specific field. According to Candel (1979:108-110), virtually anything that relates to machines, tools or instruments, or anything that does not relate to crafts may be labelled *technologie*.

[26] It was concluded in 1.2.7 that the distinction between "scientific" and "technical" terms is not always consistent from author to author or from dictionary to dictionary. Therefore, it is unlikely that labels applied to these terms would be consistent.

[27] The label *Espace* used by the PLUS is also very vague. If the user were to look up the lexical item *espace* in the PLUS to determine the scope, he would find the following information:

I.1. Étendue indéfinie contenant, englobant tous les objets, toutes les étendues finies;
I.2. Étendue dans laquelle se meuvent les astres. *Spécialt.* Milieu extra-terrestre;
I.3. **Math** *Géométrie dans l'espace*, qui étudie les figures dans un espace à trois dimensions;
I.4. **Phys** *Espace-temps*.

As a field label, *Espace* proves to be too vast, too all-encompassing by including four senses that may be considered technical or specialized, two of which are, in turn, labelled as distinct fields, *Math* and *Phys*.

usually the case.[28] For example, the term *accrétion* in the sense of "processus d'agglomération d'éléments (matériels) quelconques" is labelled only *Sc* in the PR.[29]

Conclusion

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that while technical terms seem to be well represented in the three French GUDs, the indication of their fields is not systematic. The inconsistencies in field indication can be summarized as follows:

i) some dictionaries use field labels, while others use field-related words, and still others use a combination of both;

ii) the dictionaries may have the same or similar field labels, but do not necessarily use them to tag the same items;

iii) some dictionaries use a generic or superordinate field label for a given item, others give a specific or subordinate one, while still others both a generic and a specific one; and

iv) some dictionaries use vague labels such as *Sc* or *Tech.*

The presence and indication of field for the same thirty-five lexical items will now be examined in the French-English sections of the GBDs.

---

[28] I searched the labels *Sc* and *Techn* on the NPR on CD-ROM (1996) and found the following results:
i) 3114 terms are labelled *Techn.*;
ii) 738 terms are labelled *Sc.*;
iii) 34 terms are labelled *Sc.*, *Techn.*; and
iv) 4 terms are labelled *Techn.*, *Sc.*

[29] It is labelled *Techn.* in the LEX.

2.2.1.2 Comparison of the Same Lexical Items in the French-English Sections of Four GBDs

The following four GBDs were chosen for this portion of the analysis: the HA (1972), the RCS (1993), the LAR2 (1993), and the *Oxford-Hachette French Dictionary* (OXHA) (1994).

The thirty-five lexical items examined in 2.2.1.1 were searched in the French-English sections of the four GBDs to determine the presence of these lexical items as well any indication of field applied to them:[30]

[30] The same symbols used for the French GUD chart are used here.

FRENCH - ENGLISH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
aberration	✓	1 *Astr: Biol: Mth: Opt:*	✓	*(Astron, Phys)*	✓	2 *Biol & Opt*	✓	2 *Astron, Phys* 3 *Biol*
ablation	✓	*Surg:* *Géol:* *Ph:*	✓	*(Méd), (SPÉC)* *(Géol)* X	✓	*Méd* *Géol & Tech* X	✓	? ? X
accent	✓	1b a. grammatical --- 5 *Art:*	✓	1b *(Orthographe)* 1c *(Phonétique)* X	✓	3 --- * 2 *Phon* X	✓	2 --- * 3 *Phon* * ? X
accommodation	✓	2 *Physiol:*	✓	*(Opt)*	✓	2 *Opt*	✓	*Physiol, Biol, Psych*
affinité	✓	c ◇ *Ch:* *	✓	---? (1 equivalent)	✓	2 *Chim*	✓	--- ? (1 equivalent)
agglutination	✓	2 ◇ *Bac:*	✓	*(Biol, Ling)*	✓	1 *Ling & Méd*	✓	--- ? (1 equivalent)
absolu	✓	1a ◇ *Mth:* * 1a ◇ *Ph:* * 1a ◇ *Mil:* * 1b * --- 1a ◇ * ---	✓	1c --- * 1c --- * X 1d *(Hist, Pol)* * 1e *(Ling)* *	✓	4 *Chim, Math & Phys* see 4 X 2 *Pol* * 5 *Ling* *	✓	5 *Math* * 3 --- * X 1 --- * 6 *Ling* *
architrave	✓	*Arch:*	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
armature	✓	1a ◇ *N.Arch:* * 1a ◇ *Metall:* * 1a ◇ *Mch:* * 3 *El:* 4 *E:* * 5 *Mus:* 6 *Geol:* X	✓	X X X c *(Phys)* * X b *(Mus)* X a ◇ *(Constr)*	✓	X X 3 *Cout* 4 *Phys* X 5 *Mus* X 2 *Constr*	✓	X X 1 ♦ * 6 * 5 *Électrotech* 4 *Mus* X X
augite	✓	*Miner:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
ascendance	✓	1 *Astr* 2 *Genealogy* 3 *Meteor* X	✓	b *Astro* 2 (généalogique) X b *Phys* *	✓	3 *Astron* 1 --- * 4 *Aéron & Météo* X	✓	1 *Astron* 1 (ligne généalogique) 3 *Aviat, Météo* X
arythmie	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---

FRENCH - ENGLISH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
ascension	✓	a *Oil Min* a *Astr* * a *Mch* * a *Av* a i) *Av* a ii) *Astr* a ii) *Ecc* * a ii) *Geogr* *	✓	X a *Astro* * X --- --- ? --- ? a *Rel* * ---	✓	X 5 *Astron* X --- X ? X ? 4 *Relig* X	✓	X X X X X X *Relig*[31] *Geog*
abri-sous-roche	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
abscisse	✓	*Mth*	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
accaparer	✓	---	✓	---	✓	*Écon*	✓	*Comm*
accéléromètre	✓	*Mec*	✓	---	✓	---	X	X
accrochage	✓	X 1.a ◇ *Box* 1.b *Rail* 1.d *El. E* 1.d *W.Tel* * 1.f *Sp* 1.g *Av* * 2 *El.E, W.Tel* 3.a *Min* * 3.b *Phot* * 4 *Aut, Cy* 5 *Mil* X X	✓	a *Aut* a *Boxe* X X X X X X X X X X a *Mil* X X	✓	--- 6 *Sport [en boxe]* --- X X X X X X X X X 5 *Mil* 7 *Métall* 1 *Bx-Arts*	✓	*Aut* X X X X X X X X X X X X X X
accrétion	✓	*Bot, Geol*	X	X	X	X	X	X
adénocarcinome	✓	*Méd*	X	X	X	X	X	X
adenine	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

[31] The OXHA gives Ascension as a separate headword (capitalized), with two senses: one is labelled *Relig*; the other contains an "example," **île de l'Ascension**, labelled *Géog*.

FRENCH - ENGLISH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
affixe	✓	*Ling* 1 *adj* 2 *nm* 3 *nf* 3 *Math*	✓	X? X?	✓	X ? X ?	✓	*Ling* X
aiguille	✓	--- 1 ◇ *Fish* * 1 ◇ *Surg* * 1 ◇ *Bot, etc* 2a ◇ *Geol* * 2a ◇ *Bot* * 2a ◇ *Ich* 2a ◇ *Mch* * 2a ◇ *Rail* * 5a *Civ.E* 5b *Const*	✓	a *Bot, Couture, Med* X X X b *Geol* a *Bot* X X b *Rail* X X	✓	1 *Coutl2 Méd* X X X 4 *Géog* 5 *Bot* X X 6 *Rail* X X	✓	--- 6 *Zool* --- * X 5 *Géog* * 4 *Bot* X X X X X
aileron	✓	--- 1.c *Ent* 2.b *Av* 2.c *Hyd:E* 2.e *Aut* 2.e ◇ *Av, etc* * 2.f *N.Arch* * --- X ?	✓	--- X X X *Aut* X X *(Archit)* X	✓	1 *Zool* X 2 *Aéron* X X X X X X	✓	--- X --- X --- X X 6 *Archit* 3 *Naut*
allumage	✓	c *I.C.E.* X ---	✓	b *Aut* X X	✓	3 *Aut & Mécan* 4 *Astronaut* 5 *Arm*	✓	1 *Aut* X X
alluvion	✓	*Geol* 1 2 *esp. Jur*	✓	--- X	✓	--- ---	✓	--- X
amaurose	✓	*Méd*	X	X	X	X	X	X
asymptote	✓	*Math* 1	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
ataraxie	✓	*Philo, Med*	X	X	✓	---	X	X
atavisme	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
acoustique	✓	..., (science of) sound	✓	*(science)*	✓	[science]	✓	*Phys*

FRENCH - ENGLISH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
acculement	✓	*Equit* *Nau* *N. Arch*	X	X X X	X	X X X	X	X X X
acupuncture	✓	*Med*	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
artériosclérose	✓	*Med*	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
amétropie	✓	*Med*	X	X	✓	---	X	X

Presence of terms

On the basis of the above chart, one broad statement can be made: GBDs do not appear to cover all of the items included in the French GUDs. For instance, of the thirty-five selected lexical items, only twenty-five are present in the OXHA, twenty-six in the RCS and twenty-eight in the LAR2. The HA, however, includes thirty-three of the thirty-five selected items.

Sometimes GBDs even exclude monosemic specialized lexical items that are found in unilingual dictionaries. For example, of the eleven such items identified among the thirty-five lexical items found in the French GUDs, the OXHA includes only three (*arythmie, acupuncture, artériosclérose*), the RCS four (*arythmie, accéléromètre, acupuncture, artériosclérose*), the LAR2 six (*arythmie, accéléromètre, ataraxie, acupuncture, artériosclérose, amétropie*), and the HA nine (*augite, arythmie, accéléromètre, adénocarcinome, amaurose, ataraxie, acupuncture, artériosclérose, amétropie*).

As in the French GUDs, the number and type of technical senses of the lexical items covered do not always match from one GBD to the next. For example, the lexical item *allumage* includes three technical senses in one GBD, and only one or two in each of the others:

LAR2	HA	RCS	OXHA
3. AUT & MÉCAN ignition ...	*(c) I.C.E:*	**b** *(Aut)* ignition	1 Aut ignition
4. ASTRONAUT ignition	X	X	X
5. ARM firing *(of a mine)*	*(b)* firing (of mine)	X	X

In addition, the number and type of technical senses do not always match those found in the unilingual dictionaries. Sometimes the GBDs present lexical items as monosemic, when, in fact,

they are polysemous in at least one of the French GUDs examined. For example, the lexical item *architrave*, which has up to three technical senses in the unilingual dictionaries, has only one sense in each of the GBDs. Furthermore, the GBDs present at least three other lexical items (*abscisse, accrétion, atavisme*) as monosemic, while they are polysemous in at least one of the French GUDs.[32]

On the other hand, where technical senses may be presented as subsenses in some French GUDs, they are often presented as distinct senses or compound examples in the GBDs. For example, the sense of "volet articulé" of the term *aileron*, found as a subsense in the PR, is presented as a distinct sense in each of the GBDs. The various technical senses of *absolu* presented as subsenses in the PR and the PLUS are found in the HA as compounds. For example, in the HA the entry for the lexical item *absolu* includes the following compounds:

> 1 ... *(a)* (unlabelled) **ablatif absolu** ...
> *Mth:* **valeur absolue** ... ; *Ph:* **température absolue** ...; **zéro absolu** ...; **alcool absolu** ...; *Mil:* **arme absolue** ...[33]

It can be stated that, in general, in comparison with the French GUDs examined, the French-English sections of the GBDs include fewer lexical items having at least one technical sense.

---

[32] Unilingual dictionaries sometimes make very fine sense distinctions (in subsenses) that may not be necessary in GBDs. For purposes of the BCD, if the equivalent is the same, it may not be necessary to divide the senses so narrowly as some unilingual dictionaries do. The subsense can be illustrated in a free combination. (BCD, 1996:22)

[33] Occasionally, the HA includes terms (often compounds) that do not even appear in the French GUDs. For example, the HA includes the following terms in the entry *armature*:

1. *(a)* ... *N. Arch:* **a. de l'étambot**, braces of the sternpost;
6. *Geol: (a)* framework (of volcano); *(b)* **méandre à a. rocheuse**, rock-defended meander.

These terms do not appear in the PR, the PLUS or the LEX. The HA tends to include many terms, especially compounds, that are not even found in unilingual dictionaries.

For the lexical items covered, GBDs also tend to cover fewer technical senses (i.e. terms), with the exception of the HA. GBDs also exclude many monosemic specialized lexical items found in unilingual dictionaries. Nevertheless, terms are covered in GBDs.

Indication of field

Since terms are covered in GBDs, and terms belong to fields, field indication is important in GBDs. In fact, since GBDs tend to group senses (including technical senses) together when the equivalent is the same, field indication is even more important in GBDs than in GUDs. However, as the following analysis reveals, the French-English sections of the GBDs tend to use fewer field labels and far fewer field-related words than do GUDs.

In general, the GBDs, with the exception of the HA, seem overall to use fewer field labels than the French GUDs for the same lexical items:

	LEX (53)	PR (50)	PLUS (46)
HA (83)[34]	LAR2 (40)	RCS (31)	OXHA (26)

One of the reasons for this is most likely because the GBDs do not cover all of the technical senses included in unilingual dictionaries.[35] Another reason for the fewer field labels in GBDs is the fact that, in general, the GBDs do not label monosemic specialized lexical items for field

[34] The HA is exceptional in that it gives an abundance of field labels; this figure is phenomenally high in comparison with the other GBDs. In fact, the HA even gives more field labels for the selected items than each of the unilinguals. The reason for this may be that the HA is the weakest in sense indications (having only one for the thirty-five selected lexical items).

[35] It was previously stated that the GBDs occasionally present terms as monosemic, when, in fact, they are polysemous in at least one of the unilingual dictionaries examined.

since there is no need to make a distinction between senses. In fact, the HA is the only GBD that assigns field labels to the monosemic items identified (labelling eight of the nine terms present). The other GBDs either do not cover these terms or provide no indication of field for those present. However, in section 2.2.1.1, it was determined that monosemy is not a criterion for eliminating field indication in the French GUDs and the same argument applies to GBDs.

Despite the more limited use of field labels in the GBDs, the same discrepancies in the application of labels noted in French GUDs can be found in the French-English sections of GBDs. For instance, the term *accommodation* in the sense of "modification de la courbure du cristallin de l'oeil" has at least two different labels, *Physiol* and *Opt*, applied to it in the different GBDs:

> HA
> **2.** *Physiol:* accommodation (of the eye)
>
> RCS
> *(Opt)* accommodation
>
> LAR2
> **2.** OPT focusing[36]
>
> OXHA
> Physiol, Biol, Psych accommodation

Another example of the use of different field labels for the same technical sense occurs for the term *aiguille* in the sense of "sommet effilé d'une montagne ou pointe rocheuse," which is

---

[36] Although the LAR2 gives "focusing" as an equivalent, it is essentially synonymous with the equivalent "accommodation" given by the other GBDs.

labelled *Géol* in the HA and the RCS, but *Géogr* in the LAR2 and the OXHA. This case raises the question of cohyponym labels in GBDs. Like the example of *ablation* labelled *Géol, Geomorph* and *Géogr* in the French GUDs, the labels *Géol* and *Géogr* can be considered cohyponym labels here. However, given that the GBDs present the same or similar equivalents, it may be easier for the user to realize that he is dealing with a single term rather than two terms distinguished by two different labels. Users can readily match meaning by the equivalents:

HA
2. *(a)* ... *Géol:* **a. (rocheuse)**,[37] needle, spine

RCS
1 a ... *(Géog) (pointe)* needle

LAR2
4. GÉOGR. needle, high peak

OXHA
5 Géog peak

The labelling of *ablation*, which is marked *Méd* in the RCS and the LAR2 (for *Médecine*), but *Surg:* in the HA (for *Surgery*),[38] raises once again the question of superordinate and subordinate fields.[39] While the LAR2 does not have the *Surg(ery)* label, the RCS does, but opts for the more generic label, *Méd*. The HA, which also has both the *Méd(ecine)* and the *Surg(ery)* labels,

---

[37] Where a. represents the headword *aiguille*.

[38] The OXHA gives similar target language equivalents ("excision, removal") to those found in the other GBDs (HA: "excision, ablation, removal (of part, tumour, etc.); RCS: removal, ablation *(SPÉC)*; and LAR2: removal, ablation *spéc*). However, the OXHA uses no indication of field.

[39] Although these dictionaries do not define the scope of each field label used, it is logical to assume that a field such as Medicine would be considered a superordinate field, including in its scope a subordinate field such as Surgery.

chooses, on the other hand, to use the more specific label. Like the French GUDs, the GBDs seem to label terms according to their own point of view.

When dictionaries use different labels for the same sense of a lexical item, it may be difficult for users to match the senses if they cannot see the superodinate-subordinate link between fields. For example, the term *allumage* has different subject field labels in each of the GBDs: *I.C.E.* (HA), *Aut* (RCS and OXHA) and *Aut & Mécan* (LAR2). While the field label *Aut* is clear in the RCS, the labels *I.C.E.* (for *internal combustion engines*) and *Mécan* in the HA and the LAR2, respectively, do not clarify the field of knowledge for the user since the former may be too specific and the latter too vague. The label *Mécan* may well act as a superordinate field to *Aut* which, in turn, acts as a superordinate to *I.C.E.*

Very vague labels such as *Sc* and *Tech*, used in the French GUDs, are also found in the GBDs. However, only one of the selected lexical items, *ablation* in the LAR2, has the label *Tech* attached to it (in conjunction with another label, *Géol.*). But the *Sc* and *Tech* labels, as well as an additional *spéc* label, are found in the GBDs and are explained as follows:

Dictionary	Abbreviation	Field explanation	Abbreviation	Field explanation
RCS	*Tech*	*technique, technical*	*Sci* *SPÉC, SPEC*	*science(s)* *terme de spécialiste, specialist's term*
LAR2	*Tech*	*technologie, technology*	*Sc(i)* *spéc*	*science* *terme ou sens spécialisé, specialized term or usage*
OXHA	*Tech*	*technology, technologie*	*Sci*	*sciences*
HA	*Tchn:*	*technical, terme technique, terme de métier*	—	—

Only two of the four GBDs, the RCS and the LAR2, include the label *spéc*. Both use it to mark the equivalent "ablation" for the term *ablation* in the medical or surgical sense. However, since this label does not appear on the LAR2's separate list of field labels, it is probably not considered a field label but another type of usage label. In fact, the *Robert Collins Super Senior* (RCSS) (1995), which separates its abbreviations of field labels from other abbreviations, places the label *spéc* on the list of "other" abbreviations, and not on the list of field labels. Therefore, this label shall not be considered a field label.

The problems of field labelling indicated above are similar to those found in the French GUDs. However, these problems are complicated in the GBDs by two facts:

i) in most GBDs, field labels are not replaced or supplemented by field-related words since most GBDs do not systematically include sense indications in their entries; and

ii) GBDs do not always separate senses clearly when the target language equivalent is the same.

The use of multiple field labels is a partial solution to the latter problem and can help the user differentiate various technical meanings of the headword. The term *accommodation*, for instance, has three technical senses as seen in two of the unilingual dictionaries:[40]

> PR
> **2.** PHYSIOL. Aptitude de l'oeil à accommoder ...
> **3.** PSYCHOL. Modification des activités mentales (surtout chez l'enfant), en vue de s'adapter au milieu, à des situations nouvelles.
>
> LEX
> **2.** *Physiol.* Modification de la courbure du cristallin de l'oeil, qui permet la formation d'images nettes sur la rétine à partir d'objects rapprochés.
> **3.** *Biol.* Ensemble des modifications morphologiques et physiologiques non héréditaires permettant la survie d'un être vivant dans un nouveau milieu.

Although the OXHA does not present separate sense divisions for each of these senses, its application of multiple field labels (*Physiol, Biol, Psych*) helps to indicate polysemous meaning:

> OXHA
> Physiol, Biol, Psych accommodation

Although GBDs often use field labels in conjunction with other field labels, as in the example of *accommodation* above, to indicate that a number of senses are amalgamated because the target language equivalent is the same for all senses, there are instances in which GBDs use multiple labels to mark only one sense. For example, the term *allumage*, which has only one label in most of the GBDs, has two in the LAR2, *Aut & Mécan*, which may be superordinate and subordinate labels. For the selected lexical items, there are other instances in which the LAR2

---

[40] One sense is labelled *Physiol* in both dictionaries, and the other two senses are labelled *Psychol* (in the PR) and *Biol* (in the LEX).

gives multiple labels. For example, for the term *ablation* in the sense of "perte de substance subie par un relief," the LAR2 uses two labels, *Géol & Tech.* There is no clear explanation for the LAR2's combination of labels. Aside from the LAR2, the GBDs do not tend to use multiple labelling unless two distinct technical senses are involved.

It has been mentioned above that sense indications are not frequently used to indicate field in GBDs. In the few cases where sense indications are used, some GBDs still choose to apply field labels to them, perhaps because the sense indications often do not contain obvious field-related words because of their brevity. Consider the term *accrochage*:

> OXHA
> **2** Aut (légère collision)
>
> RCS
> **a** *(Aut: collision)*

Generally field labels do not need to be attached to other indicators of meaning such as actants, referents[41] and "examples." However, sometimes field labels are attached to them as well. Consider the following entries:

---

[41] The BCD (1996:56) defines *actant* as a word which, used with the headword, determines the headword's target language equivalents." A *referent indicator*, on the other hand may be considered an extension of a sense indication since "the equivalent is determined by the object to which the word refers — its referent." (BCD, 1996:58) According to the BCD (1996:59), the distinction between actants and referents is as follows:

> Actants can be considered "context words" i.e. a typical subject, typical object of a headword, which acts in the immediate structure in which the word is used and is able to fit into the structure of the sentence. Referents, on the other hand, add more precise information to the sense indication; a referent situates the equivalent in a general context.

absolu

LAR2	OXHA	RCS
2. POL [pouvoir, monarque, majorité]	—	**1d** *(Hist, Pol) majorité, roi, pouvoir*
5. LING [ablatif, construction]	**6.** Ling *[construction, forme]*	**1e** *(Ling) construction*

accrochage

HA	RCS	LAR2
1 *(a)* ... *Box*:	**a** ... *(Boxe)*	**6.** SPORT [en boxe][42]

Field-labelled compound examples are found in the HA entry for the same word *absolu*:

> HA
> **1** ... *(a)* (unlabelled) **ablatif a.** ...
> *Mth:* **valeur absolue** ... ; *Ph:* **température absolue** ...; **zéro a.** ...; **alcool a.** ...; *Mil:* **arme absolue** ...[43]

A free combination example of the term *affinité* is also labelled:

> HA
> *(c)* ...; *Ch:* **a. pour un corps** ...[44]

The tendency to give field labels for examples is most marked in the HA. However, while the other GBDs usually apply the labels to the entire sense division rather than to an individual dictionary element within a sense division, some of them do apply field labels directly to compounds and other types of "examples." For example, the RCS labels compounds (*(Phys)* ascendance thermique; *(Astron)* ascension droite), and the LAR2 labels free combination examples (*Écon*: accaparer des marchandises).

---

[42] This is an instance of a field label which is a superordinate and a referent which is a subordinate.

[43] Where a. represents the headword *absolu*.

[44] Where a. represents the headword *affinité*.

Like the French GUDs, the decision to include field indication for a given term in the GBDs varies from dictionary to dictionary. A given term may be unmarked for field in one dictionary, may have a field label attached in another, and may have a field-related word in yet another dictionary. For example, the term *accent* is marked or unmarked in the GBDs as follows:

RCS	OXHA
b *(Orthographe)*	**2** (sur une lettre)
LAR2	HA
3. [signe graphique]	**a. grammatical**[45]

As seen from this example, indication of field does not always appear as clearcut field labels or field-related words in sense indications in GBDs. In the absence of sense indications, field-related words may appear in the form of actants, referents and "examples." While the RCS uses the field label *Orthographe*, both the OXHA and the LAR2 use referents ("lettre" and "graphique") and the HA uses an example ("grammatical") with field-related words to illustrate field.

Conclusion

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that not all lexical items covered in the French GUDs are present in the GBDs and the indication of their fields is not systematic. The inconsistencies in field indication can be summarized as follows:

i) like the GUDs, some GBDs use field labels, while a few use field-related words, and still others use a combination of both;

ii) unlike the GUDs, the GBDs use field labels to help the user differentiate various meanings of the headword since few sense indications are given;

[45] Where a. represents the headword *accent*.

iii) like the GUDs, the GBDs may have the same or similar field labels, but do not necessarily use them to tag the same items;

iv) unlike the GUDs, the GBDs may combine field labels when the target language equivalents are the same for different senses;

v) like the GUDs, some GBDs give a generic or superordinate field label, others give a specific or subordinate one, still others both a generic and a specific one; and

vi) the GBDs use fewer vague labels such as *Sc* or *Tech*.

2.2.1.3 Comparison of Three English GUDs

The twenty-nine lexical items similar in form to the French ones examined and the two given as equivalents of two French lexical items were searched in three English general unilingual dictionaries: the RHWEB (1991), the COLL (1986) and the GAGE (1983). The remaining four lexical items chosen from the GAGE were, in turn, searched in the RHWEB and the COLL.

The presence of the aforementioned lexical items, having at least one technical sense, were compared from one English GUD to the other:[46]

[46] The same symbols used for the French GUD chart are used here.

ENGLISH	RHWEB		COLLINS		GAGE	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
aberration	✓	6 — 5 —	✓	2 *Optics* 5 *Astronomy*	✓	4 *Optics* 5 *Astronomy*
ablation	✓	2 The removal of organs ... as by surgery 3 — X	✓	1 The surgical removal ... 2 — 3 —	✓	1 The removal ... by surgery 2 *Geology* 3 *Astronautics*
accent	✓	7a musical notes 7b — 7c — 12a mathematical 12b — 12c calculus 4a —	✓	7a *Music* X 7b *Music* X 8 *Maths* X 6 —	✓	7a *Music* 7b *Music* 7c *Music* X X X 6 *Prosody*
accommodation	✓	8 — 7 —	✓	4 *Physiol* 6 *Commerce*	✓	7 — 3 —
affinity	✓	6 — X	✓	6a *Chemistry* 6b *Chemistry*	✓	2 *Chemistry* X
agglutination	✓	4 — 5 —	✓	3 ? 4 *Linguistics*	✓	4 *Bacteriology* 5 *Linguistics*
absolute *adj*	✓	9a *Physics* 9b *Physics* 9c *Physics* 10 *Math* 8a — 8b — 8c — X X	✓	10a *Physics* 10b *Physics* ? X 11a-b *Maths* 7 (of a grammatical construction) 8 *Grammar* 9 *Grammar* 12 *Law* 13 *Law*	✓	X X 9 *Physics* X 8a *Grammar* 8b *Grammar* 8c *Grammar* X X
architrave	✓	1 — 2 —	✓	*Architect* 1 *Architect* 2	✓	*Architecture* 1 *Architecture* 2
armature	✓	3 —	✓	5 *Sculpture*	✓	7 *Sculpture*
augite	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
arrhythmia	✓	—	✓	—	X	X
ascension	✓	X	✓	*Astronomy*	✓	X
abscissa	✓	—	✓	—	✓	*Mathematics*
accelerometer	✓	—	✓	—	X	X
accretion	✓	5 *Law* ? ? X	✓	4 *Law* 5a *Pathol* 5b *Pathol*	✓	3 ? ? X
adenocarcinoma	✓	—	✓	—	X	X
adenine	✓	—	✓	—	X	X

ENGLISH	RHWEB		COLLINS		GAGE	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
affix	✓	—	✓	A linguistic element ...	✓	—
aiguille	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
aileron	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
alluvium	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
alluvion	✓	1 *Law*	✓	2 *Law*	X	X
amaurosis	✓	—	✓	*Pathol*	X	X
asymptote	✓	*Math*	✓	—	✓	*Mathematics*
ataraxia	✓	—	✓	—	X	X
atavism	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
acoustics	✓	The branch of physics ...	✓	The scientific study of sound ...	✓	The scientific study of sound
acupuncture	✓	A Chinese medical practice ...	✓	Originally Chinese, this method of treatment ...	✓	A method of relieving pain and treating disease ...
arteriosclerosis	✓	—	✓	A pathological condition ...	✓	—
ametropia	✓	—	✓	—	X	X
airfoil (aerofoil *GB*)	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
amitosis	✓	—	✓	—	✓	*Biology*
alveolus	✓	— X	✓	— X	✓ (oft pl.)	*Anatomy* *Phonetics*
algorithm	✓	1 — 2 ... for programming a computer X	✓	1 A logical arithmetical or computational procedure X 2 *Logic, Math*	✓	1 *Mathematics* X X
astrophysics	✓	The branch of astronomy that deals with the physical properties ...	✓	The branch of physics concerned with the physical and chemical properties ...	✓	The branch of astronomy that deals with the physical and chemical characteristics ...

Presence of terms

The above chart reveals that the English GUDs cover the items chosen in most cases. For instance, of the thirty-five selected lexical items, all are present in the RHWEB and the COLL, and twenty-seven of them are present in the GAGE.

Moreover, all the English GUDs cover at least one technical sense of the items they include.[47] However, as in the case of the French GUDs, the number and type of technical senses of lexical items found in more than one dictionary do not always correspond from one dictionary to another. For example, the lexical item *accent* appears to have two technical senses in the COLL, labelled *Music* and *Maths*, and two in the GAGE, labelled *Music* and *Prosody*.[48] While the sense marked *Music* appears in both dictionaries, the senses marked *Maths* and *Prosody* only occur in one or the other. Therefore, not all technical senses appear in every dictionary.

In some instances, the technical and specialized information is presented as a subsense rather than a sense in some English GUDs. Thus, the "mathematical" meaning of *accent*, which is

---

[47] Since many lexical items in the English GUD chart do not have any indication of field, i.e. either field labels or field-related words contained in the definitions, the justification for their selection as lexical items having at least one technical sense must be explained. Each of the selected lexical items was searched in TERMIUM. The few that were not found in TERMIUM (i.e. *accent* in the sense of music, math, and prosody; *accommodation* in the sense of commerce; *agglutination* in the linguistics sense; *absolute* in the grammatical sense; *armature* in the sense of sculpture; *ascension* in the sense of astronomy; and *accretion* in the sense labelled *Law* in the COLL), were in fact identified as technical by their labels in the English GUDs. Only one term, *arrhythmia*, was neither found in TERMIUM nor identified as technical in the English GUDs. This term, however, was found in a medical dictionary, *Taber's Cyclopedic Medical Dictionary* (1989), and, therefore, its selection is justified.

[48] The RHWEB covers both of these senses, but they are unmarked for field.

a distinct sense in the COLL, is found as a subsense in the RHWEB:[49]

> COLL
> **8.** *Maths*. either of two superscript symbols indicating a specific unit, such as feet (′), inches (″), minutes of arc (′), or seconds of arc (″).
>
> RHWEB
> **12. b.** a symbol used to indicate a particular unit of measure, as feet (′) or inches (″), minutes (′) or seconds (″).

The underlined elements clearly indicate that the same sense is being dealt with in both dictionaries, despite the fact that the sense is labelled and the subsense is not.[50]

In spite of the differences noted above, it can be stated that, in general English GUDs appear to cover technical senses. In other words, terms are found in these dictionaries although they are not always presented clearly as such.

Indication of field

Since terms are covered in the English GUDs, and terms belong to fields, it is important to analyze the manner in which field is indicated in these dictionaries. As in the French GUDs, the two primary methods of field indication seem to be the use of a field label or the use of field-related words.

---

[49] A "mathematical" sense or subsense does not occur in the GAGE.

[50] There is no label for any part of sense 12 in the RHWEB, that is, no label to mark the entire sense and no label for any subsense.

Field labelling for the term *accent* has already been discussed above, and can serve as an example of the use of this device. An example of the use of field-related words is found in the entry for *ablation*:

> RHWEB
> **2.** the removal of organs, abnormal growths, or harmful substances from the body by mechanical means, as by surgery.
>
> COLL
> **1.** the surgical removal of an organ, structure or part.
>
> GAGE
> **1.** the removal of an organ or body part by surgery.

All three dictionaries analyzed have chosen, in this case, to use field-related words within the definition instead of applying a general field label, such as *Medicine*, or a specific one, *Surgery*.[51] Since these dictionaries do not provide the user with lists of abbreviations including field labels or a separate list of field labels[52] and since the suggested labels, *Medicine* and *Surgery*, are not applied to any of the other thirty-five lexical items, it cannot be determined whether or not these English GUDs actually use the proposed labels.

While *ablation* was marked by field-related words in all the dictionaries examined, in other cases one dictionary chooses to use field labels and another field-related words for the same senses. For example, the lexical item *agglutination* has two distinct senses considered

---

[51] In fact, a number of the lexical items that would seem to warrant a field label such as *Medicine* (*arrhythmia, adenocarcinoma, arteriosclerosis*), do not have any labels applied to them.

[52] The RHWEB (1991:xxxii) has an "abbreviation key" which lists the abbreviations used in the dictionary. However, there are only approximately five to six abbreviations (out of 253) on the list that appear to relate to subject field labels: *Bot.* for Botany; *Ling.* for Linguistics; *Mach.* for Machinery; *Mech.* for Mechanics; *Pros.* for Prosody; and perhaps *Ch.* for Church. Since none of these labels are applied to the selected lexical items, I discounted the list as being useful and relevant for this analysis.

technical or specialized, which are clearly labelled in one English GUD, but unlabelled in another:[53]

> GAGE
> **4.** *Bacteriology* the massing together of cells, etc.; and
>
> **5.** *Linguistics* the forming of words by joining separate words, or words and affixes, together.
>
> RHWEB
> **4.** the clumping of bacteria, red blood cells, or other cells, due to the introduction of an antibody; and
>
> **5.** a process of word formation in which morphemes, each having a relatively constant shape and meaning, are combined without fusion or morphophonemic change.

In the RHWEB, field labelling is often replaced by more extensive definitions that include more than one field-related word, thus clearly revealing the field to which a term belongs.

Occasionally, English unilingual dictionaries, like the French ones, apply field labels to definitions that already contain field-related words. For example, the lexical item *accent*, in the sense of "a stress on musical notes," is not only labelled for field in both the COLL and the GAGE, but the definitions also contain very obvious field-related words:[54]

> COLL
> **7.** *Music.* **a.** stress placed on certain notes in a piece of music, indicated by a symbol printed over the note concerned.

---

[53] The COLL which only presents the linguistic sense and labels it, will not be considered here.

[54] While the RHWEB uses no field label, the definition for the term *accent* does contain a field-related word: "a stress or emphasis given to certain musical notes."

> GAGE
> **7.** *Music.* **a.** emphasis given to certain notes or chords in a piece of music, indicated by a symbol above the note or chord concerned. ... **c.** the regularly recurring emphasis that determines the rhythm of a piece of music.

However, this doubling of field indication occurs for only a few of the selected lexical items.

While some senses may be divided into subsenses, as in the case of *accent* above, it appears that, in the English GUDs examined, all parts of a sense, including all subsequent subsenses, are generally considered technical and specialized. In other words, a subsense does not usually have its own label applied to it. A subject field label tends to appear at the beginning of a sense division, and is applied to each and every subsense of that sense.

Unlike the French GUDs, the English GUDs do not tend to mark "examples" such as free combinations, collocations or compounds directly, although the sense division in which they occur might be labelled.

In section 2.2.1.2, the question regarding the omission of field labels in specific cases was raised. It was hypothesized that one reason for this was that a lexical item, if monosemic, would not require labelling to distinguish the technical sense from other general senses. Since fifteen (almost half) of the thirty-five English lexical items are monosemic according to all three of the English GUDs, it is important to examine if or how they are marked for field. The fifteen items are:

> augite, arrhythmia, abscissa, accelerometer, aileron, amaurosis, asymptote, ataraxia, acupuncture, arteriosclerosis, ametropia, airfoil, adenine, amitosis, astrophysics.

Only four of these fifteen monosemic specialized lexical items have subject field labels attached to them: abscissa *Math* in the GAGE; amaurosis labelled *Pathol* in the COLL; asymptote labelled *Math(ematics)* in the RHWEB and the GAGE; and amitosis labelled *Biology* in the GAGE. However, another three have field-related words in their definitions: *astrophysics* ("the branch of astronomy/physics ..."), *acupuncture* ("medical practice" or "method of treatment ..."), and *arteriosclerosis* ("a pathological condition ..."). Thus almost half of the monosemic terms have some indication of field attached to them in at least one of the dictionaries, which indicates that monosemy cannot be considered an obvious criterion for not including field indication.

There are some instances in which technical senses that occur in the English GUDs are not marked in any way for the users to identify them as belonging to a subject field. For example, the lexical item *armature* has two technical senses that are presented in all three dictionaries but are not marked for field:[55]

> RHWEB
> **2. a.** the part of a generator that includes the main current-carrying winding, in which the electromotive force is induced.
> **2. b.** the moving part in an electrical device, as a buzzer or relay, that is activated by a magnetic field.
>
> COLL
> **1.** a revolving structure in an electric motor or generator, wound with the coils that carry the current.
> **2.** any part of an electric machine or device that vibrates under the influence of a magnetic field or within which an electromotive force is induced.

[55] Since both of these senses appear as separate records in TERMIUM, it is highly likely that they are, in fact, technical or specialized, although they are unmarked in the English GUDs.

GAGE
5 a revolving part of an electric motor or generator.
6 a movable part of an electric relay or buzzer.

The absence of indication of field may either lead the user to believe that the sense is not, in fact, technical or specialized, or leave the user with a general feeling of ambiguity since he cannot determine the precise subject field to which the term may belong.

As in the French GUDs, the decision to include a field indication for a given term and the type of field indication used varies from dictionary to dictionary. Consider the term *algorithm*: it is unmarked in the RHWEB, marked in the GAGE with the field label *Mathematics*, and in the COLL with the field-related words "a logical arithmetical or computational procedure."

There are instances in which the use of the same or similar field labels may nevertheless cause confusion for the dictionary user in that the definitions of the labelled senses do not seem to correspond. For example, the lexical item *accretion* has, in the COLL and the RHWEB, a sense identified as technical or specialized by its label, *Law*:

COLL
5. *Law.* an increase in the share of a beneficiary in an estate, as when a co-beneficiary fails to take his share.

RHWEB
5. *Law.* increase of property by gradual natural additions, as of land by alluvion.

Although both the senses presented above are labelled *Law* they do not seem to match. In fact, the sense labelled *Law* in the RHWEB seems closer to the following unlabelled sense in the GAGE:

GAGE
3. an increase in size by gradual external addition: *the accretion of land by deposits of alluvial soil.*

The underlined elements indicate that the same sense is being dealt with in the RHWEB and the GAGE. Clearly, the use of the same label in more than one dictionary does not guarantee the user that the same sense is being covered.

In other instances, different field labels or field-related words are used to mark the same or similar sense of a given term. For example, the term *astrophysics* is defined using the following field-related words (which are double underlined):

RHWEB
the branch of astronomy that deals with the physical properties of celestial bodies and with the interaction between matter and radiation.

COLL
the branch of physics concerned with the physical and chemical properties, origin, and evolution of the celestial bodies.

The double underlined elements may initially lead the dictionary user to believe that this term belongs to two different fields: Astronomy and Physics.[56] However, when the definitions are compared in all three English GUDs, the user can see that the same or similar technical sense is being dealt with. Compare the above definitions with the one in the GAGE:

GAGE
the branch of astronomy that deals with the physical and chemical characteristics of heavenly bodies.

---

[56] Since the term *astrophysics* is a blending of two other terms (*astronomy* and *physics*), the dictionary editors appear to have used their prerogative to select either field as the genus differentia in the definition of *astrophysics*. This explains why one dictionary defines the term as "the branch of physics" and the other two as the "the branch of astronomy."

The single underlined elements confirm the fact that the user is dealing with the same term in all three dictionaries.

Despite the example of *astrophysics*, the English GUDs appear, in general, to use the same or similar field labels or field-related words for the selected lexical items. This seems to apply even to superordinate and subordinate labels in these dictionaries. For example, if the superordinate field label *Math(s)* is used in one dictionary for one of the selected lexical items, the same superordinate label tends to be used in the other dictionaries rather than a subordinate one such as *Geom(etry)*.

The question of cohyponyms as field labels will not be discussed in the context of the English GUDs since there do not appear to be any cohyponym labels applied to the selected lexical items.

Nor have labels such as *Sc* or *Tech* been applied to any of the selected lexical items in the three English GUDs. Since there is no list of field labels or field label abbreviations in any of these dictionaries, there is no efficient way of determining whether or not these labels are actually applied to other lexical items in their respective nomenclatures. Therefore, an examination of this type of label cannot be carried out in this part of the analysis.

Conclusion

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that not only are technical terms represented in the three English GUDs, but their indication of field is more systematic than in the French GUDs. For example, the English GUDs consistently apply field labels to an entire sense rather than subsenses and "examples." However, some inconsistencies in field indication do exist and can be summarized as follows:

i) some dictionaries use field labels, while others use field-related words, and still others use a combination of both;

ii) the dictionaries do not always label the same information; and

iii) the dictionaries may apply the same field labels to different senses of a lexical item.

The presence and indication of field for the same thirty-five lexical items will now be examined in the English-French sections of the four selected GBDs.

2.2.1.4 Comparison of the Same Lexical Items in the English-French Sections of Four GBDs

The same four GBDs used in section 2.2.1.2 were chosen for this portion of the analysis. The thirty-five lexical items examined in 2.2.1.3 were searched in the GBDs to determine their presence as well as any indication of field applied to them:[57]

[57] The same symbols used for the French GUD chart are used here.

ENGLISH - FRENCH	IIA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
Lexical item (Term)	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication	Presence	Field Indication
aberration	✓	2a ◇ *Jur:* 3 *Astr: Mth: Opt: etc.* 3 ◇ *Opt:* * 4 *Biol:*	✓	— ? (1 equivalent)	✓	— ? 2 *Astron & Opt* X X	✓	X X ? X X
ablation	✓	*Geol: Surg:* *attrib. Geol:* *	X	X X	✓	— ? (1 equivalent) X	✓	*Med* X
accent	✓	2a *Pros:* 2a ◇ *Ling:* * 2b *Mus:* 4 *Art:*	✓	X 1a * ? X X	✓	X 2 *Gramm & Mus* * see 2 — ?	✓	X *Ling, Mus* see above X
accommodation	✓	1a ◇ *Bot: Z:* 1a ◇ *Physiol:* 3a ◇ *Com:* * 3a ◇ *Nau:* * 3a ◇ *Rail: US* * 3b ◇ *Nau:* 3b ◇ *Adm:* * 3b ◇ *Adm:* * 3c —	✓	X 1c *(Anat, Psych)* *(Comm)* * *(Naut)* * *(US Rail)* * X X X 1d *(Fin)*	✓	X 5 *Anat & Psych* X X X X X X 6 *Comm & Fin*	✓	X 2 ◇ *Physiol* X X X X X X 3 *Fin Comm*
affinity	✓	c *Mth: Biol:* ◇ *Ch:* (* ?) X	✓	a *(gen, Bio, Chem, Ling, Math, Philos)* b *(Jur: *)*	✓	1 ◇ *Biol* ◇ *Chem* ◇ * 3 *Jur*	✓	5 *Chem* 4 *Jur*
agglutination	✓	(1 equivalent)	✓	(1 equivalent)	✓	(1 equivalent)	✓	(1 equivalent)

ENGLISH - FRENCH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
absolute	✓	1a ◇ *Pol:* • 1a ◇ •; • 1a ◇ *Rail:* • 1a ◇ *Jur:* • — • 1a ◇ *Gram:* • 1a ◇ *Mus:* • 1a ◇ *Ph:* • 1a ◇ *Av:* • 1a ◇ *Mth:* • 1a ◇ *Cmptr:* • — • X	✓	1c — • 1b — • X 1c ◇ *(Fin, Jur)* • 1a ◇ *(Jur)* • X 1d *(Mus)* • 1e *(Math, Phys)* • X see 1e X 1a ◇ *(Chem)* • 1c ◇ *(Jur)* •	✓	separate headword 3 — • X 8 *Jur* • X 7 *Gramm* • X X X X X 6 *Chem* • 4 ◇ •	✓	1 ◇ • *Pol* 1 ◇ *Pol* • X 4 *Jur* • X 5 *Ling* • X 3 *Phys, Chem* ◇ • X 6 *Philos, Math* • X see 3 ◇ • 1 •
architrave	✓	1 *Arch:* 2 *Const:*	✓	*(Archit)* — •	✓	? (1 equivalent) ?	✓	? (1 equivalent) ?
armature	✓	1 *Biol: etc.* 2 *El:* • 3 *Constr:* X	✓	◇ *(Zool)* *(gen, also Elec, Phys)* X X	✓	◇ *Zool* — • X X	✓	3 *Zool, Bot* 1 *Elec gen* X 2 *Art*
augite	✓	*Miner:*	X	X	X	X	X	
arrhythmia	✓	*Med:*	✓	—	X	X	✓	(1 equivalent)
ascension	✓	1 *esp. Ecc:* • 1 *Astr:* • 2 *Pr.n. Geog:*	✓	*(Rel)* ◇ • X —	✓	*Relig* •/X[58] X —	✓	*Relig*[59] X —
abscissa	✓	*Mth:*	X	X	✓	—	X	X
accelerometer	✓	*Mec:*	✓	—	✓	—	X	X

[58] The LAR2 gives **ascension, Ascension Day,** and **Ascension (Island)** as three separate headwords, i.e. three entries. The field label *Relig* applies only to **ascension.**

[59] The OXHA also gives **Ascension** and **Ascension Island** as two separate headwords or entries. There is no entry for the lexical item **ascension.** The field label *Relig* applies only to **Ascension.**

ENGLISH - FRENCH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
accretion	✓	1c *Jur:* 2a *Physiol:* 2a *Bot:* 2b *Med:* 1b —	✓	? X X X b (... Geol, etc.)	✓	2 ◇ * *Jur* X X 4 *Med* ?[60] 3 *Geol*	✓	1 ◇ *Jur* X 2 ◇ *Biol* X 2 ◇ *Geol*
adenocarcinoma	✓	*Med:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
affix	✓	2 *Ling:*	✓	*Gram*	✓	*Ling*	✓	*Ling*
aiguille	✓	1 *Geog:* 2 *Tchn:*	X	X X	X	X X	X	X X
aileron	✓	*Av:*	✓	*(Aviat)*	✓	—	✓	*Aviat*
alluvium	✓	*Geol:*	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
alluvion	✓	1 *Jur:* 2 *occ. Geol:*	X	X X	X	X X	X	X X
amaurosis	✓	*Med:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
asymptote	✓	*Myth:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
ataraxia	✓	*Phil: Med:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
atavism	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
acoustics	✓	* ... the science of sound	✓	a *(Phys: + sg vb)*	✓	—	✓	(science)
acupuncture	✓	*Med:*	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
arteriosclerosis	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—	✓	—
ametropia	✓	*Med:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
airfoil (aerofoil *GB*)	✓	*Av:*	X	X	✓	—	X	X
adenine	✓	*Bio.-Ch:*	X	X	X	X	X	X

[60] The equivalents, labelled *Med*, for sense 4 in the LAR2 and sense 2b in the HA are different.

ENGLISH - FRENCH	HA		RCS		LAR2		OXHA	
amitosis	✓	*Biol:*	X	X	X	X	X	X
alveolus	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---
algorithm	✓	*Mth:* *Cmptr:* *	✓	X *(Comput, Ling)*	✓	? (1 equivalent) ?	✓	*Math, Comput* see above
astrophysics	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---	✓	---

Presence of terms

In comparison to the English GUDs, the English-French sections of most of the GBDs cover fewer of the selected lexical items.[61] For example, of the thirty-five selected lexical items, only twenty-two are present in the OXHA, twenty-three in the RCS, and twenty-five in the LAR2. But, as discussed in section 2.2.1.2, the HA generally covers more terms than the other GBDs, and in fact, all thirty-five lexical items are present in its English-French section.

As in the GUDs and the French-English sections of the GBDs, the number and type of technical senses of the lexical items covered do not always correspond from one GBD to the next. For example, the HA identifies four senses as being technical or specialized for the lexical item *accretion* (labelled *Jur, Physiol, Bot* and *Med*), while the LAR2 and the OXHA identify three each (albeit not all the same ones: *Jur, Geol, Med* and *Jur, Geol, Biol*, respectively), and the RCS only one (*Geol*).

Similarly, the number and type of technical senses in the English-French sections of the GBDs do not always match those found in the English GUDs. Surprisingly, in some cases, the GBDs identify more technical senses than do the GUDs. For example, in the English GUDs, the lexical item *accretion* has only two technical senses, while the LAR2 and the OXHA identify three such senses for this word and the HA indicates even more.

---

[61] However, all fifteen of the monosemic specialized lexical items identified in section 2.2.1.3 are covered by at least one GBD.

On the other hand, sometimes the GBDs appear to present lexical items as monosemic, when, in fact, they are polysemous in at least one of the selected English GUDs. For example, the item *agglutination*, which has at least two technical senses in the unilingual dictionaries (labelled *Bacteriology* and *Linguistics*), has only one unlabelled equivalent in the English-French sections of the GBDs, which could lead the user to believe that it has only one sense.[62] Furthermore, the lack of a field label or field-related word in a sense indication makes the term seem like a general word.

In general, it can be stated that, in comparison with the English GUDs examined, the English-French sections of the GBDs include fewer lexical items having at least one technical sense and do not always cover the same senses as those found in the GUDs. The GBDs may also present the items as monosemic when they are, in fact, polysemous. However, the GBDs do cover terms.

Indication of field

As indicated in section 2.2.1.2, field indication is even more important in GBDs than in GUDs. And, in general, the English-French sections of the GBDs seem to use more field labels than the English GUDs for the same selected lexical items:

HA (66)	RCS (31)	OXHA (27)	LAR2 (20)
	COLL (23)	GAGE (15)	RHWEB (5)

[62] Of the thirty-five selected lexical items, there is only one instance in which a GBD, the HA, gives two field labels (*Phil: Med:*) for an item, *ataraxia*, that is presented as monosemic in all three of the English GUDs. This is most likely a case of overlabelling on the part of the HA.

However, the English-French sections of the GBDs seem to have less recourse to field labels than the French-English sections of the same dictionaries.

Where there are no sense indications, some GBDs attach only field labels to terms; for example, *affix* in the sense of "prefix and suffix" is given with the following labels:

HA	RCS
2. *Ling:*	*(Gram)*
LAR2	OXHA
LING	Ling

The difference in field labels used by the RCS and by the other GBDs can be explained by the superordinate-subordinate label distinction, since the field of Linguistics logically encompasses Grammar. As indicated in section 2.2.1.2, the choice between a superordinate label and a subordinate one, when both are used in the dictionary, is essentially an arbitrary one. For example, the HA and the LAR2, which include the subordinate label *Gram* in their lists of abbreviations, have chosen the superordinate label, *Ling*, while the RCS, which includes the superordinate label *Ling*, has chosen the subordinate one *Gram*.[63]

Sometimes different subject field labels used for the same sense are, in fact, more or less synonymous labels. For example, the term *Ascension Day* is labelled *Relig* in the RCS, but

[63] For the selected lexical items examined in the English-French sections of the GBDs, there are no instances where both superordinate and subordinate field labels or indicators are provided for the same sense by a given dictionary.

Ecc in the HA. However, the HA also includes the label *Rel* (for religions) on its list of abbreviations.

The use of vague labels such as *Sc* or *Tech* seems to be as limited in the English-French sections of the GBDs as in the French-English sections. Among the items examined, only one instance of the use of such a label was found in the English-French section of only one GBD, the HA, which has applied the label to the term *aiguille* presented as a headword:

HA
2. *Tchn:* aiguille (de marteau piqueur, etc.)

However, since this term does not occur in any of the other GBDs and since this label is not used in the entries for the other selected lexical items in the other GBDs, it is hard to determine precisely how this type of label is used or whether it is used at all in the other three GBDs.

The problems of field labelling indicated above are similar to those found in the English GUDs. However, as in the French-English sections of the GBDs, these problems are further complicated because most GBDs do not systematically include sense indications, which can contain field-related words, and because GBDs do not always separate senses clearly when the target language equivalent is the same.

As mentioned in section 2.2.1.2, the use of multiple labels is a partial solution to the latter problem and can help the user differentiate various technical meanings of the headword. For example, the RCS strings together a number of field labels for the lexical item *affinity*:

RCS
a *(gen, Bio, Chem, Ling, Math, Philos)* affinité *f* (*with, to* avec, *between* entre)

Like the RCS, the HA and the LAR2 use multiple field labels for this word. However, they do not list the labels altogether as the RCS does, since the LAR2 provides an additional equivalent for the *Biol* sense, while the HA uses a free combination to illustrate the chemical sense:

HA
(c) Mth: Biol: affinité; *Ch:* **a. for a body,**[64] affinité pour un corps

LAR2
1. BIOL affinité *f*, parenté *f*; CHEM affinité *f*.

It is particularly interesting to note that for this lexical item, *affinity*, the English GUDs identify only one technical sense (labelled *Chemistry* in the COLL), whereas the GBDs distinguish various technical meanings of the headword with field labels. In the following table, the definitions in the English GUDs are compared to the labels and other pertinent information in the GBDs to determine whether or not the senses correspond:

RCS	**a** *(gen, Bio, Chem, Ling, Math, Philos)* affinité *f* (*with, to* avec, *between* entre)
HA	*(c) Mth: Biol:* affinité; *Ch:* **a. for a body,** affinité pour un corps
LAR2	**1.** ... BIOL affinité *f*, parenté *f*; CHEM affinité *f*; **the affinities between the English and German languages** la ressemblance OR la parenté entre l'anglais et l'allemand

[64] Where **a.** represents the headword *affinity*.

RHWEB	**5.** a resemblance of structure or behavior that results from or implies a phylogenetic relationship. **6.** the force by which atoms are held together in chemical compounds.
COLL	**5.** similar in structure, form, etc., between different animals, plants, languages. *Chemistry* **6.a.** the force holding atoms together in a molecule; chemical attraction; **b.** a measure of the tendency of a chemical reaction to take place expressed in terms of the free energy change.
GAGE	**3.** a close relationship or connection, as between biological groups, languages, etc. **2.** an attraction or force between certain particles or substances that causes them to combine chemically.

The following observations can be made about the matching of senses from the English-French sections of the GBDs to the English GUDs for the same lexical item:

a) the sense labelled *Bio(l)* in the GBDs corresponds to the senses with the field-related words "phylogenetic," "animals, plants," and "biological" in the three GUDs;

b) the sense labelled *Ch(em)* in all three GBDs corresponds to the sense and subsense labelled *Chemistry* in the COLL and the senses with the field-related words "chemical" and "chemically" in the RHWEB and the GAGE, respectively;

c) the sense labelled *Ling* in the RCS and the example containing the field-related word "languages" in the LAR2 correspond to the senses containing the field-related word "languages" in the COLL and the GAGE; and

d) the senses labelled *Math/Mth* in the RCS and the HA, respectively, and *Philos* in the RCS do not appear to correspond to any senses in the unilingual dictionaries.

The use of field labels for *affinity* in the GBDs, and especially in the RCS, illustrates very clearly the point that GBDs may use field labels in conjunction with other field labels to indicate that a number of senses are combined because the target language equivalent is the same for all senses. There are also a few instances in which GBDs use multiple labels to

mark only one sense. For example, the term *accommodation* has only one label in the RCS, *Fin*, but two in the LAR2 and the OXHA, *Fin* and *Comm*, which may be cohyponyms. However, in general, the GBDs do not tend to use multiple labelling unless two distinct technical senses are involved.

Although sense indications are uncommon in GBDs, there are a few cases where they are used and help to identify the field. Some GBDs, such as the OXHA, occasionally attach a field label even when a sense indication is used:

armature	**accretion**
Art (frame)	Biol (plants)
	Geol (deposits, lava)

Field labels do not generally need to be attached to other indicators of meaning such as actants, referents and "examples." However, sometimes field labels are, in fact, attached to them to clarify the meaning of a headword. For example, in the entries for the lexical item *absolute* field labels and actants are combined to mark a number of technical senses:

RCS
a ... *(Chem) alcohol*
e *(Math, Phys) value, temperature, zero*

LAR2
6. CHEM [alcohol]

OXHA
3 Phys, Chem ...; *[alcohol, temperature, zero]*
6 Philos, Math *[term, value, etc.]*

Finally, in the HA entries for *absolute* and *affinity*, field labels are directly attached to compound examples or free combination examples:

> *absolute*
> **1.** *(a)* ... **a. alcohol** ... *Ph:* ... **a. temperature** ... ; **a. zero** ...; *Mth:* **a. value**[65]
>
> *affinity*
> **1.** *(c)* ... *Ch:* **a. for a body**[66]

Conclusion

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that not all lexical items covered in the English GUDs are present in the English-French sections of the GBDs and the indication of their field is not necessarily systematic. The inconsistencies in field indication, which are the same as in the French-English sections of the GBDs, can be summarized as follows:

i) like the GUDs, some GBDs use field labels, while others use field-related words, and still others use a combination of both;

ii) unlike the GUDs, the GBDs use field labels and field-related words to help the user differentiate various meanings of the headword since few sense indications are given;

iii) like the GUDs, the GBDs may have the same or similar field labels, but they do not necessarily use them to tag the same items;

iv) unlike the GUDs, the GBDs may combine field labels when the target language equivalents are the same for different senses;

v) like the GUDs, some GBDs give a generic or superordinate field label, others give a specific or subordinate one, still others both a generic and a specific one; and

vi) the GBDs use fewer vague labels such as *Sc* or *Tech*.

---

[65] Where **a.** represents the headword *absolute*.

[66] Where **a.** represents the headword *affinity*.

2.2.1.5 Comparison of the Results of 2.2.1.1 and 2.2.1.3 with 2.2.1.2 and 2.2.1.4

A number of broad statements can be made in conclusion about the presence of terms and indication of their field in general French and English unilingual dictionaries as well as in the French-English and English-French sections of general bilingual dictionaries.

Both French and English GUDs cover terms. The most significant differences between the two types of GUDs is in the way in which and the extent to which they indicate field for terms. These differences may be summarized as follows:

i) the French GUDs use more subject field labels than the English GUDs to identify technical or specialized senses of lexical items;

ii) the French GUDs use labels for subsenses or compound examples, whereas the English GUDs apply labels to the entire sense division rather than to subsenses and "examples";

iii) the French GUDs vary more in their use of labels than do the English GUDs, which tend to use the same or similar labels from one dictionary to another; and

iv) the French GUDs use more vague labels (*Sc, Tech*) than do the English GUDs.

While there are also a number of similarities between the French and English GUDs with respect to the way in which they indicate field, they consist primarily of inconsistencies manifested in all dictionaries:

i) some dictionaries use field labels, while others use field-related words, and still others use a combination of both;

ii) the dictionaries may have the same or similar field labels, but do not necessarily use them to tag the same items; and

iii) not all terms are identified as such by subject field labels in the French and English GUDs.

One of the reasons for the disparity in field labelling may derive from the fact that the established list of field labels (when there is one) varies significantly from dictionary to dictionary. (cf. Appendix A)

While the GBDs do not cover all the lexical items present in the GUDs, they do cover terms. The most significant difference between the French-English and English-French sections of the GBDs lies in the extent to which field is indicated. For instance, the French-English sections of the GBDs, especially the HA and the LAR2, tend to attach more field labels to the selected lexical items than do the English-French sections of the GBDs.

However, the GBDs share a number of inconsistencies in field indication which are basically the same as those found in the GUDs, some of which may be attributed to the fact that the established list of field labels varies significantly from dictionary to dictionary. (cf. Appendix A)

The GBDs are different from the GUDs in a number of ways:

i) the GBDs use more field labels than field-related words;

ii) the GBDs use more field labels and fewer sense indications to differentiate various meanings of the headword; therefore

iii) the GBDs may combine field labels when the target language equivalents are the same for different senses; and

iv) GBDs use fewer vague labels (*Sc, Tech*) than the GUDs.

Since the terms included and method of field labelling in both the GUDs and GBDs has proven to be unsystematic, the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary Project has established its own policy on the inclusion of terms and indication of field.

CHAPTER 3: TERMS AND LABELLING IN THE BCD

3.1 INCLUSION OF TERMS IN THE BCD

The preceding chapter has clearly shown that all GBDs include terms and the BCD will be no exception to this rule. However, the BCD intends to include more terms than the average GBD and to be more systematic in the terms it includes.

This chapter will attempt to illustrate some of the practical problems encountered when determining whether a technical sense or technical compound should be dropped or retained, whether a field label for a technical sense or technical compound should be dropped or retained, and what field label should be selected for a technical sense or technical compound that is retained. Technical terms that are from a variety of disciplines and useful to the non-specialist are being identified by the BCD. In addition, the BCD intends to select certain fields of general interest, such as business, administration and law, and areas of particular Canadian interest, such as forestry, acid rain, mining, and the north, and cover them more thoroughly. (Roberts, 1993:13) Finally, the BCD, which is a Canadian dictionary, has already established a list of approximately six hundred specifically Canadian terms in fields such as sports, food and clothing.

Nevertheless, although terms are a priority for the BCD, highly technical senses which are of use only to a very limited number of specialists will not be retained, for it is intended for the educated but still general public.

To enable lexicographers to decide which technical senses will be retained (other than those identified in the special lists mentioned above), the BCD Methodology (version 7) provides the following guidelines:

i) the following sources must be checked in the source language:[1]
- the corpus[2]
- *Petit Robert* and *Petit Larousse* (for French)
- *Random House Webster's* and *Collins Concise* (for English)
- *Robert-Collins Senior* and *Oxford-Hachette* (bilingual);

---

[1] TERMIUM and BTQ are also consulted for technical senses and technical compounds.

[2] The BCD's main corpus consists of TEXTUM, which is queried using a concordance-generating program. (BCD, 1996:13-14) TEXTUM is set up on a Unix computer at the University of Montreal and is accessed via telnet. It contains unilingual texts in English and French. The majority of the texts are Canadian, but for purposes of comparison some texts from France and the United States are also included. In March 1996, it consisted of over 310 million words, distributed as follows:

TEXTUM

Legend:
N = newspaper; P = magazine, journal; F = Fiction; GD = government documents
G = general; ST = scientific/technical
CD = Canadian; US = American; FR = France

ENGLISH	SIZE (in millions of words)	FRENCH	SIZE (in millions of words)
Gazette (N, G, CD)	6,7	Presse canadienne -française (N+P, G, CD)	77,0
Canadian Press (N+P, G, CD)	129,0	Leméac (F, G, CD)	0,9
Canadian Geographic (P, G, CD)	0,3	ACFAS (P, ST, CD)	0,13
Queen's (N+P+F, G, CD)	5,0	Le Monde (N, G, FR)	17,1
Department of Energy (GD, ST, US)	27,2	Ouest France (N, G, FR)	4,9
Wall Street Journal (N, G+ST, US)	41,8		

It must be borne in mind that any corpus is only a sample of language in use. Therefore, the absence of a word or a sense is not necessarily decisive. For instance, since the BCD's corpora are basically general, they will likely not contain many technical terms.

ii) if the technical sense appears more than once or twice in the corpus, it should be retained;

iii) if a technical sense is not found in the corpus or in either of the source language dictionaries mentioned above, the sense should not be retained;

iv) if the technical sense appears in both source language dictionaries mentioned above and one of the bilingual dictionaries, it should be retained; and

v) if the sense appears only in one of the bilingual dictionaries, it should be included, along with the relevant information given by the dictionary, but no further research should be done until the entry has been reviewed by a reviser.

Since many terms are not simple lexical items, but compounds, the BCD (1996:55) has established a few general guidelines to help the lexicographer decide which compounds to retain:

i) if compounds are found in GUDs and GBDs (except the HA), they should be included;

ii) if at least one occurrence of a compound is found in the corpus, it should be included; and

iii) if a compound is found only in a term bank, consultation with a reviser should occur before any further research is conducted.

If a technical sense or technical compound is retained, then the instances in which a field label is applied must be determined.

3.2 LABELLING OF TERMS

Essentially, the overall lack of consistency that exists in GBDs, as seen in sections 2.2.1.2 and 2.2.1.4, with respect to the purposes and methods of field indication raises a number of questions that the BCD strives to answer:

(a) should dictionary elements be overmarked or undermarked?
(b) what elements should be marked?
(c) when should these elements be marked?
(d) how should these elements be marked?
(e) what field labels should be used?
(f) how should the appropriate field label be chosen?

Roberts (1994:4-5) considers these questions in light of the overall goal of all usage labelling in the GBD, which is to "help the user better understand a headword or use an equivalent appropriately."

3.2.1 Overmark or undermark?

According to the BCD, field labels should not be overused. This decision is supported by Landau (1989:181) who states that:

> Profligate use of field labels has the effect of fragmenting knowledge and presenting each definition in the narrow terms of a specialty instead of simply letting it stand for what it is. Many scientific terms that were regarded forty years ago as strictly chemical are now seen as having profound biological importance, and to label them *chemistry* would be misleading. The use of multiple labelling is no solution because one would soon find oneself adding a third and fourth label to the series. If one can craft the definition to reveal the context clearly, no field label is necessary, and in most cases it is preferable to have none.

Roberts (1994:4) goes even further by pointing out that "sometimes, the semantic indication can be left quite general and distinctions made with actants rather than field labels."

3.2.2 What to mark?

According to the BCD, the goal is "to mark primarily specialized vocabulary and senses." (Roberts, 1994:4) However, as stated in section 1.2.1, the frontier between terms and non-terms is often vague. For example, one could argue that lexical items such as *bank* and *abdomen* are terms in the fields of Finance and Anatomy, respectively. But, the BCD stresses that common sense should be exercised; that is, if a lexical item is well-known and has a wide frequency in a general corpus, it may be considered part of general language. Therefore, such a lexical item would not need to be labelled for field, unless there is another reason to do so. (cf. When to mark?) However, lexical items such as *osteopenia* and *phonème* would be labelled for field, regardless of other factors, since they are not commonly known items. (Roberts, 1994:4)

Provision has been made in the BCD structure to apply field labels to a variety of dictionary elements in the source language: the headword, a sense division, free combination examples, collocations, fixed expressions and compounds. However, the application of field labels to free combination examples, collocations and fixed expressions would most likely be rare. In fact, although the general BCD policy is to give at least one free combination per sense division, very technical terms or senses are an exception to this rule (1996:49).

It must be noted that field labels are generally not attached to target language dictionary elements in the BCD since it is presumed that subject field does not change from source

language to target language. Thus, the compound *coeur gras* from the field of Medicine is treated as follows:

coeur gras *(Méd)* fatty heart

While the field label is attached to the source language compound only, its application is also implied for the target language equivalent.

3.2.3 When to mark?

According to Roberts (1994:4-5), field labels should be used in the following cases:[3]

(a) to clarify an uncommon specialized meaning when the headword has only one meaning (cf. *osteopenia* and *phonème* above)

aboyeur ... *nm (Théât)* barker
augite ... *s.f. Miner:* augite

(b) to clarify a sense indication or make it more specific

rectrice *nf* **1** *(Zool) (plume)* rectrix

(c) to differentiate various meanings of the headword and thus to clearly demarcate sense divisions

rectrice *nf* **1** *(Zool) (plume)* rectrix.
2 *(CD) (fém de recteur)* rector *(president of a university).*

(d) to help the reader understand an ambiguous or confusing equivalent when the meaning of the headword is clear

comprimé ... *nm (Pharm)* tablet

---

[3] Since the BCD pays particular attention to Canadianisms, an effort will be made to retain as many as possible, including historical terms that may no longer be in current use. Since such terms are no longer in current use, they will be labelled with a special marker, #, instead of a field label, and, therefore, not be considered in this list (1996:28).

(e) to distinguish between equivalents when their general meaning remains more or less the same, but different equivalents are used in different fields

> **abonné** ... *nm,f (Presse, Téléc)* subscriber; *(Élec, Gaz)* consumer; *(Rail, Sport, Théât)* season-ticket holder

(f) to identify specialized collocations

> **absolute** *adj (Mus)* **to have ~ pitch** avoir l'oreille absolue

(g) to identify specialized compounds

> **accommodation** 2 comp ... **accommodation bill** *(Comm)* billet *m or* effet *m* de complaisance ... **accommodation ladder** *(Naut)* échelle *f* de coupée ... **accommodation train** *(US Rail)* (train *m*) omnibus *m*.

3.2.4 How to mark?

According to Roberts (1994:5), field labels will be used in the BCD in the following manner:

(a) generally, along with a semantic indication

> **rectrice** *nf* **1** *(Zool) (plume)* rectrix

(b) whenever necessary, along with actants and referents

> **grade** *n* ... *(Comm) (quality) [steel, butter, goods, etc.]* qualité *f*; *(size) [eggs, apples, anthracite, nuts, etc.]* calibre *m*; ...

(c) on rare occasions, when it is very difficult to formulate a short and coherent semantic indication for very technical senses, a field label will be used alone for purposes of semantic discrimination

> **abduct 2** *(Physio)*[4]

[4] It is possible that such cases would be reconsidered for exclusion from the BCD.

The way in which field labels are presented — their form, typography, and placement — has also been decided upon for the BCD. Field labels will appear in abbreviated form, with the first letter capitalized. Abbreviations of simple words will be no longer than five letters. Abbreviations in English and French will "match" to a great degree to ensure that the reader does not have to deal with two completely different sets of field labels in the English-French and French-English sections of the dictionary. Field labels will appear in italics and parentheses. The placement of field labels will be as follows:

(i) in general, field labels will be placed as follows in relation to other usage labels: register label *(GEOGRAPHICAL LABEL) (Field label) (currency label) (commentary label)* (BCD, 1996:70);[5]

(ii) if a field label applies to the headword as a whole, it will follow the grammatical category and other grammatical information, in the same order and typographic form as above (BCD, 1996:74);[6] and

(iii) if a field label applies only to a given sense, it is placed after the sense division number, in the same order and typographic form as above (BCD, 1996:76).

It must be noted that labels are not applied to all words or all senses. In fact, many sense divisions are unmarked, that is, they do not require restrictive labels, especially when the sense indication is clear.

---

[5] The typographic form used for each label is also indicated here.

[6] The register label is placed directly after the headword.

3.2.5 What Field Labels Should be Used?

Our analysis of a number of unilingual and bilingual dictionaries has revealed that, while the use of field labels may be widespread in dictionary entries, dictionary field label lists are often incomplete or non-existent. In fact, the user may be obliged to extrapolate such a list from a table of conventional signs and abbreviations that includes not only other types of labels but also other elements such as grammatical forms and functions. (cf. Appendix A) Where a field label list does exist or has been extrapolated, some incoherence in the labels included can be noted: *Religion* versus *Ecclesiastical*, for instance. Since the labels and fields are not defined or ordered in any hierarchical manner, it is often difficult to see how they relate to each other.

The BCD is attempting to select fields and field labels in a more systematic manner by

(a) studying existing field labels on the one hand to find similarities; and

(b) studying classification systems on the other hand (e.g. Library of Congress).

On the basis of these studies, a preliminary list of fields has been established by the BCD. (cf. Appendix B) This list takes into account the fact that the BCD is more interested in contemporary realities than past realities; thus areas such as sailboarding have been included, while others like heraldry will be excluded. Fields will be organized in a four-level hierarchy; for example:

.TECHNOLOGIE ET INGÉNIERIE
..Génie
...Génie civil
....Construction

The BCD intends to define the scope of each of the fields it includes. It will then establish a systematic list of field label abbreviations, attempting to use abbreviations that can serve in both English and French.

Until the BCD list of field labels is finalized, the lexicographer bases his selection of field labels on those provided by unilingual and bilingual lexicographic sources.[7] Although certain sources have been identified in section 3.1 as those in which the technical sense should occur in order for it to be retained, they are not the only sources that aid the lexicographer in determining whether to include or exclude field labels and which ones to select. Essentially, at present, any of the lexicographic sources used by the BCD may serve as a basis for selecting a field label.[8] (cf. Appendix C)

3.2.6 How to Select a Field Label?

While, for the time being, the lexicographer chooses the label most commonly found in the sources, whether it be a superordinate as opposed to a subordinate or a given cohyponym label, the manner of selecting field labels will change as soon as the hierarchical list of fields is finalized. Lexicographers will then use the definitions of the fields and the hierarchical list to select a suitable field label. The general guideline will be to select the lowest field label

---

[7] Field labels selected from these sources should be written out in full until a list of abbreviations for BCD field labels is established.

[8] According to the BCD policy, the source should always be noted immediately after every element, including field labels, found in an entry. Source codes must be written separately for source and target languages and are indicated in capital letters in round brackets. If a lexicographer modifies any information taken from a dictionary or corpus, he must add his initials to the source code: (PR+AJ) (Dictionary code+Lexicographer's code) (1996:65).

in the hierarchical list whose definition covers the term in question. The reason for this decision is that the more specific the field label, the clearer the concept becomes for the user. However, the new method of selecting field labels has not yet been tested and may change over time.

3.3 OTHER INDICATIONS OF FIELD

It should be pointed out here that, unlike other GBDs, the BCD clearly separates senses of headwords and systematically provides sense indications for each. It also provides referents and actants to guide the user in choosing the appropriate equivalent. These dictionary elements allow field indication to be provided by means other than simply field labels.

Occasionally, field-related words may appear in sense indications thereby eliminating the need for field labels. For example, in the French GUDs, the term *acupuncture* is partially defined as a "thérapeutique" or "traitement médical." If either of these partial definitions is used as a sense indication in a BCD dictionary entry, the lexicographer would not be required to include a field label since the field is understood from the sense indication.

Often the use of referents and/or actants clarifies the meaning, thereby eliminating the need for field labels and field-related words. For example, in the French-English sections of the GBDs, the term *accent* is clarified by referents and actants such as "sur une lettre" and "signe graphique." Since the BCD makes liberal use of referents and actants, the latter may make field labelling unnecessary in many cases.

3.4 EXAMPLES OF TREATMENT OF TERMS IN THE BCD

Now that BCD policies concerning the inclusion of terms and indication of their field has been discussed, a selection of examples from the BCD lexicographic database will be examined to see how closely BCD practice matches its policies. More specifically, ten examples of technical senses have been chosen to help determine the following:

(a) whether a term (i.e. a technical sense or technical compound) should be dropped or retained;

(b) whether a field label for a term should be dropped or retained; and

(c) what field label should be selected for a term that is retained.

Each example will be presented as follows: (i) the headword to which a technical sense or technical compound applies;[9] (ii) the status of the example;[10] and (iii) the example of a technical sense or technical compound.

It must be borne in mind that entries prepared prior to printing of the seventh version of the BCD methodology may not reflect recent updates and changes made to the methodology.

---

[9] The swung dash (~) replaces the headword in free combinations, collocations, fixed expressions and compounds.

[10] "Unrevised" means that the example is part of a first version entry that has not yet been examined by a BCD reviser. "Revised" means that the entry has been examined by at least one BCD reviser: either the source language part of the entry or both the source language and target language parts have been revised.

1 **aiguille** *nf*
Revised
Technical senses: *(Tech)* LEX *(tige d'acier terminée en pointe et que l'on adapte à un outil pour attaquer en démolition des matériaux durs et résistants)* LEX NO GBD EQUIVALENT. NO CORPUS OCCURRENCE. DROP? AJ[11]

(Constr) LEX *(pièce servant à la suspension de planchers ou de tabliers de pont; chevron mobile dont la juxtaposition permet la fermeture d'un pertuis)* LEX NO GBD EQUIVALENT. NO CORPUS OCCURRENCE. DROP? AJ

(Phys) GR *(élément cylindrique allongé, de très petit diamètre, contenant un combustible nucléaire)* GR NO GBD EQUIVALENT. NO CORPUS OCCURRENCE. DROP? AJ

Analysis:

Since these technical senses are found only in a few non-basic sources (cf. 3.1), they will probably not be retained.

[11] The redlined parts contain the lexicographer's notes. BCD lexicographers are encouraged to add annotations, which reflect their concerns, questions and comments. These annotations are eliminated once the concern or question has been dealt with by a reviser.

2 **aiguille** *nf*
Revised
Technical sense:

Version 1 *(petite tige d'acier, pointue, à une extrémité et percée à l'autre d'un trou où peut passer le fil, la soie, etc., pour coudre, broder)* GR+DFC+AJ RCS+LAR LABEL THIS COUTURE. FIELD LABEL NOT NECESSARY SINCE SENSE INDICATION INCLUDES "POUR COUDRE, BRODER". AJ needle RCS+HA+LAR+LAR2+DC+OXF+OXHA.

Version 2 *(petite tige d'acier pointue dont on se sert pour coudre)* GR+DFC+AJ needle RCS+HA+LAR+LAR2+DC+OXF+OXHA.

Analysis:

This sense is not identified as technical or specialized in the French GUDs. However, two GBDs, the RCS and the LAR2, provide the field label *Couture*. They have probably done so to compensate for the lack of a sense indication (since neither GBD uses a sense indication to identify this meaning of the lexical item). Since the BCD does provide a sense indication which contains the field-related word *coudre*, and since, in any case, this sense is very widely known and therefore not considered technical by the BCD, a field label has not been applied in this case.

3 **accommodation** *nf*
Unrevised
Technical sense: *(Physiol, Opt)* GR+PL+PR+LEX+HA+OXHA/LAR2 *(modification de la courbure du cristallin de l'œil, qui permet la formation d'images nettes sur la rétine)* LEX+PL+GL5+GL7+GR+PR+RM+PLUS+RQ2 accommodation RCS+HA+LAR+OXHA+RH:SENSE8+WEB:SENSE6+GAGE:SENSE7, focusing LAR2.

Analysis:

This technical sense is likely to be retained since it is found in a number of appropriate lexicographic sources (PR+PL+OXHA).

The lexicographer has indicated two field labels, one given by a number of GUDs, the other given by one GBD. Since the sense indication, "modification de la courbure du cristallin de l'œil, qui permet la formation d'images nettes sur la rétine,"[12] includes the field-related word "œil," the need for at least one of the field labels (*Opt*), provided by only one source (a GBD), is eliminated. The label *Physiologie*, which appears on the BCD's preliminary list of field labels may, however be retained to indicate the technicality of the sense.

The technical sense may appear in the next version of the BCD entry as follows:

(Physiologie) (modification de la courbure du cristallin de l'œil) accommodation.

[12] This sense indication is likely to be shortened or even changed at the revision stage.

4 **aiguille** *nf*
Revised
Technical senses:

Version 1 *(Géog, Archit)* GR+PL+RCS+LAR2+OXHA/PL FIELD LABELS CAN BE DROPPED SINCE SENSE INDICATION AND ACTANTS ARE CLEAR. AJ *(relief, construction qui se termine d'une manière effilée)* DFC *(cime)* RCS peak RCS+OXF+OXHA, needle HA+LAR+TERM:CORRECT +RH, spine HA+COLL; *[d'un clocher]* RCS+LAR+LAR2 spire RCS+ LAR+LAR2+DC+OXF+COCO, steeple COCO; *(obélisque, pyramide)* GR+WEB needle HA, point HA+LAR.

Version 2 **1** *(Géographie)* PL *(sommet pointu d'une montagne)* PL needle HA+LAR+TERM:CORRECT+RH, peak RCS+OXF+ OXHA, spine HA+COLL.

2 *(Archit)* PL *(élément vertical et effilé d'un bâtiment)* PL *[d'un clocher]* RCS+LAR+LAR2 spire RCS+LAR+LAR2+DC+ OXF+COCO, steeple COCO; *(obélisque, pyramide)* GR+WEB needle HA, point HA+LAR.

Analysis:

The technical sense presented in the first version has been retained since it appears in a sufficient number of appropriate lexicographic sources (PL+RCS+OXHA). In fact, the reviser has separated this sense into two technical senses, each with its own field label and sense indication, in the second version. The new sense indications contain field-related words such as "montagne" and "bâtiment" which may well eliminate the need for the labels *Géographie* and *Archit*, respectively. The label *Archit* in particular seems unnecessary since the actant *[d'un clocher]* and the referent *(obélisque, pyramide)*, which have been retained in the revised version, provide additional field indication.

The senses may thus appear in the subsequent version of the BCD entry as follows:

(sommet pointu d'une montagne) needle, peak, spine.

(élément vertical et effilé d'un bâtiment) [d'un clocher] spire, steeple; *(obélisque, pyramide)* needle, point.

5 Canadian Shield *n*

Revised

Technical sense:

Version 1 *(CD) [U-shaped plateau of Precambrian rock which covers almost half of Canada]* GAGE+PEN+FUN+CDC+HRW+ COLL+WIN+RHWEB Bouclier *m* canadien HA+DC+ TERMIUM+BTQ, Bouclier *m* laurentien DC+TERMIUM; Bouclier *m* précambrien NP, continent *m* laurentien TERMIUM; **the decision was taken to direct the main thrust of the geoscience research toward igneous rocks of the Canadian Shield in Ontario QUEENS** on avait décidé de faire porter le gros des recherches géoscientifiques sur les roches igneuses du Bouclier canadien en Ontario NO.

Version 2 *(CD) (plateau rock covering almost half of Canada)* HRW+GAGE+RPR Bouclier *m* canadien HA+DC+ TERMIUM+BTQ, Bouclier *m* laurentien DC+TERMIUM; Bouclier *m* précambrien NP, continent *m* laurentien TERMIUM. *** the decision was taken to direct the main thrust of the geoscience research toward igneous rocks of the ~ in Ontario QUEENS** on avait décidé de faire porter le gros des recherches géoscientifiques sur les roches igneuses du Bouclier canadien en Ontario NO.

Analysis:

This term is found in a sufficient number of appropriate lexicographic sources (RH+COLL+TERM+QUEENS) for it to be retained. Despite the fact that it is labelled *Geol.* in the RH and the HA, however, neither version of the BCD entry contains this field label.

Since, in the revised version of this entry, the sense indication has been simplified from "U-shaped plateau of Precambrian rock which covers almost half of Canada" to "plateau rock covering almost half of Canada," the technicality of the term is less evident. And since there

is no field label, only the free combination serves to illustrate the technical sense of *Canadian Shield*:

> * **the decision was taken to direct the main thrust of the geoscience research toward igneous rocks of the ~ in Ontario** (QUEENS) on avait décidé de faire porter le gros des recherches géoscientifiques sur les roches igneuses du Bouclier canadien en Ontario NO.

However, the inclusion of very obvious field-related terms such as "geoscience" and "igneous rock" in this free combination clearly illustrates the field and thus justifies the exclusion of the field label *Geol.*

6 **aiguille** *nf*
Revised
Technical sense:

Version 1

1 *(petite tige d'acier, pointue, à une extrémité et percée à l'autre d'un trou où peut passer le fil, la soie, etc., pour coudre, broder)* GR+DFC+AJ RCS+LAR LABEL THIS COUTURE. FIELD LABEL NOT NECESSARY SINCE SENSE INDICATION INCLUDES "POUR COUDRE, BRODER". AJ needle RCS+HA+LAR+LAR2+DC+OXF+OXHA.

2 *(Méd)* RCS+LAR+LAR2 PR+LEX LABELS THIS CHIR. HA USES SURG. LABEL. TOO SPECIFIC? (SURG. ON RC/RCS LIST OF ABBREV.) IS FIELD LABEL EVEN NECESSARY WITH ACTANTS? I ADDED ACTANTS TO SHOW EXT. OF USE TO MORE THAN JUST TRADITIONAL MED. FIELD. AJ *[injection, ponction, acupuncture, tatouage]* AJ+UNI. DICT.+CORPUS needle RCS+LAR2. RCS COMBINES SENSES 1 & 2 AND LABELS IT (BOT, COUTURE, MED). PERHAPS SENSES 1 & 2 CAN BE COMBINED? USING ACTANTS? AJ

Version 2

1 *(petite tige d'acier pointue dont on se sert pour coudre)* GR+DFC+AJ needle RCS+HA+LAR+LAR2+DC+OXF+OXHA.
2 *(Méd)* RCS+LAR+LAR2 *(tige métallique effilée servant aux injections, aux sutures, etc.)* PR+NO needle RCS+LAR2.

Analysis:

In a lexicographer's note, the lexicographer raises the question as to whether the second technical sense can be combined with the first one (which has been discussed separately as example 2 above) since the same general equivalent, "needle," is given in both cases. While two unilingual sources (PR+LEX) separate the two senses, labelling the second one *Chir* but giving no label for the first sense, the RCS combines both senses using multiple labels: *Bot, Couture, Méd.*[13]

[13] The *Bot.* label is relevant to the compound section rather than this sense division.

At the initial revision stage, the reviser has recommended that the senses be retained separately since the first is non-technical and the second technical. Moreover, she has added a technical sense indication that encompasses the actants provided in the draft version. Finally, she has retained the superordinate label *Méd*, since it encompasses the needle used for injections and that used for suturing.

7 **chinook** *n*
Revised
Technical compound:

Version 1	***(cmp)*** ***(CD)*** ***(meteor)*** ~ **arch** GAGE+CDC arc chinook *m* MMK.
Version 2	***(cmp)*** ~ **arch** ***(CD)*** ***(Meteo GAGE)*** ???????
Version 3	***(cmp)*** ~ **arch** ***(Meteo GAGE)*** arche de Chinook GLOSSAIRE DE METEO VILLENEUVE.

Analysis:

According to the BCD guidelines on compounds, the compound *chinook arch* would be retained.[14] It is identified as technical by the label *(meteor)*. It is unclear how this label was chosen since none of the lexicographic sources indicates a field label for this compound or includes some field-related word in its definition.[15] However, the choice may well be a logical one. In fact, the label *Météorologie* appears on the BCD's preliminary list of field labels. In any case, given that *chinook arch* is not a well-known term, it has to be given a field indication. And since the BCD does not generally provide sense indications for compounds, a field label is the obvious method of field indication here.

In the second version of this entry, the reviser has modified the form of the field label to *(Meteo)* and placed it, in accordance with BCD policy, in its appropriate position immediately following the source language compound. Since the BCD intends to limit the

---

[14] In the BCD, compounds are presented in their own section, marked ***(cmp)***, following sense divisions and fixed expressions.

[15] The GAGE defines *chinook arch* as "an arch of blue sky above the western horizon, often seen just before or during a chinook." The CDC defines it as "a cloud formation that often attends or presages the Chinook winds, observed as an archlike strip of blue sky above the western horizon, often between the peaks of the Rockies and the surrounding overcast."

abbreviations of field labels to a maximum of five letters, *Meteo* is more suitable than *meteor.*

In the third version of this entry, a proper technical equivalent *arche de Chinook* replaces the initially proposed equivalent *arc chinook.*

8 **chinook** *n*
Revised
Technical compound:
Version 1 ***(cmp)*** **C~ Jargon** GAGE chinook *m* GR.

Version 2 ***(cmp)*** **C~ Jargon** *(Ling) (Hist COLL)* chinook *m* GL5.

Technical sense:
Version 3 **Chinook** *(Hist) (Ling) (jargon GAGE + CDC) (pidgin COLL)* (jargon-)Chinook GL5 + GLE24 *(sabir utilisé sur la côte ouest au XIXe s.; mélange d'anglais, français et langues indiennes).*

Analysis:

In the first version of this entry, the lexicographer has included *Chinook Jargon* as a compound, but not identified it as being technical by a field label.

In the second version of this entry, the reviser has retained the compound *Chinook Jargon*, attaching two field labels, *(Ling) (Hist)*, to it. The most likely reason for adding the field labels is to identify the compound as technical based on the definitions provided by the lexicographic sources. For instance, the GAGE and COLL define *Chinook Jargon* as

> GAGE
> a simple trade language of the Pacific coast of North America based on Chinook, with words from Nootka, English, and French. Chinook jargon was formerly used by the Indian peoples and Europeans in their dealings with each other.
>
> COLL
> a pidgin language containing elements of North American Indian languages, English and French: formerly used among fur traders and Indians on the NW coast of North America.

It appears that the reviser may have considered the underlined elements "language" and "formerly" to serve as field-related words, and thus selected the field labels *Ling* and *Hist*, respectively.[16]

In the third version of the entry for the lexical item *chinook*, the reviser has eliminated *Chinook Jargon* from the compound section, placing it as a separate sense division (with the subheadword **Chinook**)[17] since *Chinook jargon* is also referred to as simply *Chinook* in the lexicographic sources (GAGE+CDC+WEB3). This sense division is given the sense indication *(jargon)*.

Thus far, the labels *Ling* and *Hist* have been retained, although their order has been inverted: *(Hist) (Ling)*. This way the emphasis is placed on the fact that this sense represents an historical term. However, the question should be raised as whether or not to retain the labels. Since the sense indication is *(jargon)*, with the qualifying referent *(pidgin)*, it should be clear to the dictionary user that the sense is a linguistic one. Therefore, the label *Ling* need not be retained. Generally, the label *Hist(oire)* refers to the field of History and should not be used to identify an historical term. Perhaps this could be better represented by a commentary label. In any case, the field label *Hist(oire)* should be dropped.

---

[16] Although an historical term, since this compound is not labelled a Canadianism, *(CD)*, it does not take the special marker *(CD#)* instead of the field label *(Hist)*.

[17] A subheadword is the headword in one of its morphological forms that has special meaning.

9 **accommodation** *nf*
Unrevised
Technical compound: *(cmp) (Œil)* TERM ~ **astigmatique** TERM:CORRECT astigmatic accommodation TERM, meridional accommodation TERM PERHAPS THE FIELD LABEL SHOULD BE THE SAME AS THE CORRESPONDING SENSE DIVISION, I.E. OPT; *(Système nerveux)* TERM?? ~ **nerveuse** TERM:A VÉRIFIER+GR nerve accommodation TERM:UNCONFIRMED FIELD LABEL SHOULD BE THE SAME AS THE CORRESPONDING SENSE DIVISION, I.E. PHYSIOL.

Analysis:

According to the BCD guidelines on compounds, both the compounds in the compound section for *accommodation* have been temporarily retained. Since they occur only in TERMIUM, a reviser must be consulted before any further research is conducted. If the reviser decides to retain either of these compounds, then the questions of whether a field label should be applied and which field label should be used arise. Given that compounds are generally undefined in the BCD, a field label would normally be included for technical compounds. In this case, the lexicographer has indicated which fields appear on the TERMIUM records, *(Œil)* and *(Système nerveux)*. However, these fields do not appear to be logical labels for the dictionary user. The lexicographer asks whether the field labels that correspond to the appropriate senses would be more suitable. In other words, would the labels *Opt* and *Physiol* be more appropriate for the compounds *accommodation astigmatique* and *accommodation nerveuse*, respectively? The answer is yes. However, the label *Opt* does not appear on the BCD's preliminary list of field labels. Therefore, the lexicographer may have to select another label such as *Opthalmologie*, depending on its definition.

If the technical compounds are retained and if field labels are attached to them, then, in the BCD entry, the latter must be placed immediately following the compounds, in accordance with BCD policy:[18]

> ***(cmp)*** **accommodation astigmatique** *(Opthalmologie)* astigmatic accommodation = meridional accommodation; **accommodation nerveuse** *(Physiologie)* nerve accommodation.

[18] BCD field labels are written in full until a list of abbreviations has been finalized.

10 **aiguille** *nf*
Revised
Technical compound:

Version 1 *(cmp 1) (Culin)* GR INDICATES TECHN. (CUIS.) ~ **à larder** GR+TERM:À VÉRIFIER larding needle TERM:CORRECT; *(Méd)* LAR HA LABELS THIS SURG. AJ ~ **à suture** GL5+GL7+GR suture/suturing needle TERM:BOTH CORRECT; *(Bot)* LAR2+OXHA ~ **de pin** GL7+GR+PL +PR+RM+RQ2+LAPR(7) pine needle HA+LAR2+OXHA +GAGE+COLL+RH; ~ **hypodermique** GL7+GR+PR+ PLUS+TERM:CORRECT PR LABELS THIS CHIR. hypodermic needle/syringe HA+OXF+TERM: CORRECT+RH+WEB+COLL/GAGE+COLL.

Version 2 *(cmp 1)* ~ **à larder** GR+GL7+TERM:À VÉRIFIER *(Culin)* larding needle TERM:CORRECT; ~ **à suture** GL5+GL7+GR *(Méd)* LAR suture/suturing needle TERM:BOTH CORRECT; ~ **de pin** GL7+GR+PL+PR+RM+RQ2+LAPR(7) *(Bot)* LAR2+ OXHA pine needle HA+LAR2+OXHA+GAGE+ COLL+RH; ~ **hypodermique** GL7+GR+PR+PLUS+ TERM:CORRECT *(Méd)* GL7+GR+PR hypodermic needle/syringe HA+OXF+TERM:CORRECT+RH+WEB+ COLL/GAGE+COLL.

Analysis:

In the compound section, all the compounds have been retained for the time being since, in accordance with BCD guidelines, they are found in either GUDs, TERMIUM or the corpus.

Since the compound section does not generally include sense indications, the lexicographer would retain a field label for each technical compound in order to identify the field to which it belongs. In the second version of this entry, the reviser has changed the placement of the field labels to ensure accordance with BCD policy and added a label to the compound *aiguille hypodermique*. However, the selection of the field labels must be examined.

In the case of *aiguille à larder*, there is no indicated source for the *Culin* label. In fact, a number of sources indicate *Cuis(ine)* as a field: GL7 gives the field-related word "en cuisine"; GR gives the label *Techn. (cuis.)*; and TERMIUM indicates the subject field *Cuisine et gastronomie*. Therefore, the label *Cuisine*, which appears on the BCD's preliminary list of field labels, would be more suitable for indicating the field for this technical compound.

For the technical compound *aiguille à suture*, the majority of the lexicographic sources indicate, either by label or field-related words, the subordinate field *Chirurgie*:

GUDs		GBDs
GL7:	aiguille utilisée en chirurgie	HA: *Surg:*
PR:	Chir. tige ... servant aux sutures	
LEX:	Chir. tige ... servant à faire des sutures	
RM:	Tige ... des chirurgiens servant aux sutures	
RQ2:	Tige ... des chirurgiens servant aux sutures	
TERM:	Instruments chirurgicaux	
GR:	(domaine médical)	LAR: *Méd*

Therefore, it would be more suitable for the lexicographer to select the label *Chirurgie* to identify the technical compound *aiguille à suture*. This label is on the BCD's list of field labels.

For the technical compound "aiguille hypodermique," the lexicographic sources seem to favour, either by label or field-related words, the superordinate field *Médecine*:

GUDs		GBDs
GL7:	Tige ... utilisée en médecine	LAR: *Méd*
GR:	(domaine médical)	
TERM:	Instruments médicaux	
PR:	Chir. tige ... servant aux injections	HA: *Surg:*

Therefore, selection, in the second version, of the superordinate label *Médecine*, which is on the BCD's list of field labels, is suitable for the technical compound *aiguille à hypodermique*.

The *Bot* label is suitable for the compound *aiguille de pin*, although it should be written in full until the abbreviation form of the label is finalized according to BCD policy. However, since *aiguille de pin* is a common reality in North America, the field label may not be retained in the final version of the entry.

The field labels must be selected and placed according to BCD policy as follows:

> ***(cmp 1)*** **aiguille à larder** *(Cuisine)* larding needle; **aiguille à suture** *(Chirurgie)* suture needle = suturing needle; **aiguille de pin** *(Botanique)* pine needle; **aiguille hypodermique** *(Médecine)* hypodermic needle = syringe.

3.5 CONCLUSION ON TREATMENT OF TERMS IN THE BCD

This chapter has attempted to illustrate some of the practical problems encountered when determining whether a technical sense or technical compound should be dropped or retained, whether a field label for a technical sense or technical compound should be dropped or retained, and what field label should be selected for a technical sense or technical compound that is retained. It has shown that, since sense indications, referents and actants are systematically included in BCD entries, field labels are not required, in many instances, as meaning discriminators or as field indicators and therefore are not retained. This chapter has also shown that the revision process plays an important role in modifying sense indications, referents and examples to reflect the field to which a technical term belongs.

The examples analyzed have demonstrated that the earlier BCD entries contain many of the same inconsistencies in field indication as are found in other GBDs. Recognizing this reality, the BCD team is in the process of establishing even more rigorous policies and guidelines for field labelling, which will not only help the lexicographer in preparing dictionary entries, but will also help the user to understand the definitions of fields and their indication in BCD entries. Until these policies and guidelines are finalized, field indication is a work in progress.

CONCLUSION

Meeting the Objectives of the Thesis

This thesis had two main objectives:

i) to examine the presence of terms in general dictionaries; and

ii) to analyze the treatment of terms in general dictionaries.

In order to fulfill these main objectives, three preliminary objectives needed to be met:

i) to examine the similarities and differences between general language and specialized language;

ii) to examine the similarities and differences between words and terms; and

iii) to examine how terms are "marked" in general dictionaries.

The first chapter of the thesis was devoted to these preliminary objectives. A comparison of LSPs and LGP revealed that there are many similarities between them: in fact, LSPs are LGP-dependent; that is, they draw from the same linguistic basis as LGP. There is also a certain permeability between them, especially on the lexical level. However, paradoxically, it is on the lexical level that the most significant difference between LSPs and LGP is found. The former are characterized by special terminology, whereas the latter includes words of "general reference." However, the frontier between words and terms is often vague, despite terminological theory insisting on differences in morphology and methods of defining them. The major difference lies in the fact that terms are typically characterized by the network or hierarchy of concepts to which they belong. They are field-related in the same way as LSPs

are. Terms are not, however, found only in specialized (field) dictionaries. They are also covered in general dictionaries to a greater or lesser extent. But terms are not always easy to recognize in general dictionaries which present entries for lexical items and not terms. Subject field labels, whose role is not always clear, are often, but not always, used to identify the technical senses corresponding to terms.

Following this initial analysis of LSPs, terms and subject field labels, the second chapter focusses on the two primary objectives of examining the presence of terms in general dictionaries and analyzing their treatment therein. Through an in-depth analysis of selected unilingual and bilingual dictionaries and a sample of lexical items, this thesis has attempted to illustrate that, while terms are indeed included in general dictionaries and the fields to which they belong are often indicated, there are significant inconsistencies found with respect to these two aspects in general dictionaries. In fact, not only are many inconsistencies found from dictionary to dictionary, but also within a particular dictionary.

Since the policies and methods related to terms and the "marking" of terms are unsystematic in many general dictionaries, the BCD Project has established and continues to establish its own policies and guidelines on the inclusion of terms and indication of field. These policies and guidelines, presented in Chapter 3, have not, however, been fully implemented as yet, as the analysis of examples from the BCD lexicographic database shows. However, from the BCD studies on terms and their treatment, a certain number of basic principles applicable to all general dictionaries, both unilingual and bilingual, can be drawn.

Basic Principles of Inclusion of Terms and Field Labelling

1 Inclusion of terms:

Technical senses of lexical items or technical compounds from a variety of identified disciplines should be considered for inclusion. However, highly technical terms which are of use only to a very limited number of specialists should not be retained. The use of a general corpus of journalistic and magazine articles can help determine which terms are too technical to be of interest to a general dictionary user.

2 Indication of field:

Field for terms may be indicated in a number of ways including the use of field labels and field-related words in sense indications, referents, actants, and "examples."

3 Establishment of a list of fields:

The fields covered in the dictionary should not only be listed but also defined and organized in a hierarchy to allow both lexicographers and users to see the relations between them.

4 Establishment of field labels:

Field labels should be chosen for their "transparency." For example, a label such as *I.C.E.* should be avoided. Moreover, bilingual dictionary field labels for the English-French and French-English sections should be kept as similar as possible. Clear and simple field labels make dictionary use much easier.

5 Selection of field label:

A clear policy should be established regarding the use of subordinate versus superordinate labels.

6 Placement of field label:

The placement of field labels in relation to other usage labels must be determined and adhered to consistently.

Proposals for the Future BCD

The BCD is making progress in the application of these basic principles. However, in addition to carefully selecting and treating terms, it must also ensure that users are aware of the fields from which terms have been selected, and how terms are marked for field. Based on my analysis of both existing dictionary front matter and BCD policies, I would like to propose a number of elements which should be indicated in the BCD front matter to help the user (a) to know what terms to expect in the dictionary and (b) to easily identify the terms contained therein.

First, the BCD should provide a complete list of fields covered along with the field labels. The incompleteness or lack of such a list in many unilingual and bilingual dictionaries is a possible source of frustration for users.

Second, the list of fields should be accompanied by a brief definition or scope note delimiting each of the subject fields. This would prove to be useful to the general dictionary user, who is not typically an expert in a number of different subject fields, and, therefore, would require some background information. Since the BCD is in the process of defining the scope of each field it includes for its lexicographers (cf. 3.2.5), the inclusion of these definitions in the list of fields would be a simple task.

Third, it would be extremely useful to the dictionary user if the BCD were to include a brief user guide on how field may be indicated in entries; for example, field labels and field-related words (in semantic indication, referents, actants, "examples"). Perhaps, this user guide could be supplemented with a few examples, such as those in 3.2.3 and 3.2.4, to help the user identify the forms in which field indication may occur.

If the BCD systematically follows its policies on terms and field indication and if its front matter makes certain aspects related to terms, fields and field indication clear to its users, then it will definitely improve the treatment of terms in general dictionaries. Of course, it will inevitably be criticized for having included *X* term rather than *Y* term or *X* field rather than *Y* field. But every general dictionary has to make choices not only of terms but also of general words it covers. What is most important is to make deliberate choices and to expose them clearly to users.

APPENDIX A: FIELD LABELS IN LISTS IN DICTIONARIES

The lists in this appendix are those found in the unilingual and bilingual general dictionaries examined in this thesis. This appendix is intended to illustrate that separate dictionary field label lists are generally non-existent. The only dictionaries to present a distinct field label list are the PLUS and the LAR2. There are no lists in the GAGE or the COLL which include field labels.

Petit Robert (1991:xxiv-xxix)

TABLEAU DES SIGNES CONVENTIONNELS ET ABRÉVIATIONS DU DICTIONNAIRE

I, II...	numéros généraux correspondant à un regroupement de sens apparentés ou de formes semblables.
Ⓐ, Ⓑ...	même valeur que I, II, qu'ils subdivisent.
♦ 1°, ♦ 2°...	numéros correspondant à un sens, et éventuellement à un emploi ou un type d'emploi (parfois regroupés sous I, II).
◇	signe de subdivision qui sépare les nuances de sens ou d'emploi à l'intérieur d'un sens (♦ 1°, ♦ 2°, etc.), suivi ou non d'une nouvelle définition.
—	sépare les nuances déterminées par le contexte; les emplois ou expressions à l'intérieur d'un même sens.
•	placé après un mot, signifie qu'on y trouvera une explication.
°	placé avant un mot, dans une étymologie, signifie qu'il s'agit d'une forme non attestée reconstituée selon les lois phonétiques.
[ ].	après chaque mot, contient la prononciation en alphabet phonétique (voir p. XXIII).
a	ancien, devant un nom de langue. Ex. : *a. fr.* : ancien français.
ab. (d')	voir *d'ab.*
abrév.	*abréviation.*
absolt.	*absolument* (en construction absolue : sans le complément attendu).
abstrait	qualifie un sens (s'oppose à *concret*).
abusiv.	*abusivement* (emploi très critiquable, parfois faux sens ou solécisme).
acoust.	terme technique d'*acoustique.*
accus.	*accusatif* latin.
adapt.	*adapté, adaptation* (d'une forme étrangère adaptée en français).
adj.	1° *adjectif :* 2° *adjectivement* (emploi adjectif d'un mot qui ne l'est pas normalement).
admin.	dans la langue écrite de l'*administration* seulement.
adv.	1° *adverbe;* 2° *adverbial* (dans *loc. adv.* Voir *loc.*); 3° *adverbialement* (emploi comme adverbe d'un mot qui ne l'est pas normalement).
AFNOR	*Association française de normalisation.*
agric.	terme technique du langage de l'*agriculture.*
alch.	terme du langage des *alchimistes* (mot vieux ou encore utilisé en histoire des sciences).
alg.	terme didactique d'*algèbre.*
algér.	mot d'*arabe algérien.*
algonquin	(langue indienne d'Amérique du Nord.)
all.	*allemand* (langue).
allus.	*allusion* (*par allus. :* par allusion à...).
alphab.	*alphabétique.*
alpin.	*alpinisme.*
altér.	*altération* (modification anormale d'une forme ancienne ou étrangère).
amér.	*américain* (variété d'anglais parlé et écrit en Amérique du Nord, spécialt aux États-Unis)
américanisme	mot américain employé en français et critiqué comme emprunt abusif ou inutile.
anal.	*analogie* (*par anal. :* par analogie) : correspondance de sens. Désigne un sens issu du précédent, dans un même mot, par une comparaison implicite (ex. : analogie de forme, de couleur, ou plus généralement sentiment d'un rapport).
anat.	terme du langage technique de l'*anatomie.*
anc.	*ancien.*
ancienn.	*anciennement* (présente un mot ou un sens courant qui désigne une chose du passé disparue) [Ne pas confondre avec *vieux*, avec *hist.*].
angl.	*anglais* (langue).
anglic, *anglicisme*	mot anglais employé en français et critiqué comme emprunt abusif ou inutile (les mots anglais employés depuis longtemps et normalement, en français, ne sont pas précédés de cette rubrique).
ANT.	*antonyme* (mot dont le sens est opposé, contraire).
anthrop.	terme du langage didactique de l'*anthropologie.*
antiphrase (par)	en exprimant par ironie l'oppose de ce qu'on veut dire.
antiq.	terme technique concernant l'*antiquité;* mot didactique employé en histoire antique. Voir *Hist*
apic.	terme technique d'*apiculture* (élevage des abeilles).
appel.	*appellation.*
appos.	*apposition* (*par appos. :* par apposition). Se dit d'un nom qui en suit un autre et le détermine, sans mot grammatical entre eux.
apr. (d')	voir *d'apr.*
arbor.	terme technique *d'arboriculture.* Voir *Sylvic.*
archéol.	terme technique d'*archéologie*, d'antiquité. (Voir *antiq.*), d'art ou d'histoire (Voir *hist.*) concernant des objets matériels.
archit.	terme technique d'*architecture.*
arg.	mot d'*argot*, emploi *argotique* limité à un milieu particulier, surtout professionnel (*arg. scol. :* argot scolaire), mais inconnu du grand public. Pour les mots d'argot passés dans le langage courant, voir *pop.*
arithm.	terme didactique d'*arithmétique.*
artill.	terme technique d'*artillerie.*
arts (ou *en art*)	mot spécial au langage des *arts* (technique, critique, histoire...).
astrol.	terme didactique d'*astrologie.*
astron.	terme didactique d'*astronomie.*

astronaut. . . . . . terme technique d'*astronautique.*
at. . . . . . *atomique* (dans *n° at.*, *m. at.* : numéro, masse atomique).
auto. . . . . . terme ou emploi technique du langage de l'*automobile*
aux. . . . . . *auxiliaire.*
av. . . . . . 1° *avant* (av. 1655 : au plus tard en 1655, souvent date de mort d'un auteur dont on ne peut dater certaines œuvres).
2° *avec.*
aviat. . . . . . terme ou sens technique du langage de l'*aviation.*
bactér. . . . . . terme didactique de *bactériologie.*
ballist. . . . . . terme technique de *ballistique.*
bas lat. . . . . . *bas latin* (mot latin ancien mais tardif, qui n'existait pas en latin classique).
bible, biblique . . . . . terme employé en critique biblique ou employé dans le langage général par allusion à la *bible.* Terme, expression tirés et traduits de la *Bible.*
bijout. . . . . . terme technique de *bijouterie.*
biochim. . . . . . terme didactique de *biochimie.*
biogéogr. . . . . . terme didactique de *biogéographie.*
biol. . . . . . terme didactique de *biologie.*
blas. . . . . . terme technique de *blason.*
bot. . . . . . terme didactique de *botanique.*
bouch. . . . . . terme technique de *boucherie.*
boulang. . . . . . terme technique de *boulangerie.*
bret. . . . . . *breton* (langue).
bx-arts . . . . . *beaux-arts* (voir *arts*).
byzant. . . . . . *byzantin* (dans *gr. byzant.* : grec tardif parlé à Byzance).
c.-à-d. . . . . . *c'est-à-dire.*
caractérol. . . . . . terme didactique de *caractérologie.*
card. . . . . . *cardinal* (*adj. numér. card.* : adjectif numéral cardinal).
cartes . . . . . terme spécial aux jeux de *cartes.*
cathol. . . . . . 1° *catholique* (*liturg. cathol.* : terme spécial à la liturgie catholique);
2° *catholicisme.*
celt. . . . . . *celtique* (langue).
Cf. . . . . . *confer.* : comparez (sert à présenter un mot de sens différent, mais comparable; une expression, un terme de formation semblable, dans les étymologies, etc.).
charcut. . . . . . terme technique de *charcuterie.*
charpent. . . . . . terme technique de *charpenterie.*
chasse . . . . . terme technique de *chasse* (surtout chasse au fusil). Voir *vén.*
ch. de fer . . . . . terme technique des *chemins de fer.*
chim. . . . . . terme didactique du langage de la *chimie;* abrév. de *chimiste.*
chim. organ. . . . . . *chimie organique.*
chir. . . . . . terme technique du langage de la *chirurgie.*
chir. dent. . . . . . *chirurgie dentaire.*
chorégr. . . . . . terme technique du langage de la *chorégraphie* (danse classique).
(choses) . . . . . présente un sens, un emploi où le mot (adjectif, verbe) ne peut s'employer qu'avec des noms de *choses* (s'oppose à *êtres vivants* ou *personnes*).
chrét. . . . . . *chrétien* (*liturg. chrét.* : terme de la liturgie chrétienne; *lat. chrét.* : latin chrétien).
cin. . . . . . terme technique du langage du *cinéma.*
civ. . . . . . *civil* (*dr. civ.* : droit civil).
class. . . . . . *classique* (*lat. class.* : latin classique, de l'époque de Cicéron).
collectif . . . . . mot employé au singulier pour désigner un ensemble, une pluralité.
comm. . . . . . terme de la langue *commerciale* ou terme technique concernant les activités commerciales.
comp. . . . . . *composé.*
compar. (par) . . . . . *par comparaison* avec ce qui précède, lorsque cette comparaison est explicite : emploi de *comme, tel.*
compl. . . . . . *complément.*
compt. . . . . . terme technique de *comptabilité.*
concret . . . . . qualifie un sens (s'oppose à *abstrait*).
condit. . . . . . *conditionnel.*
confus. (par) . . . . . *par confusion* (avec).
conj. . . . . . 1° *conjonction.*
2° *conjonctif* (dans *loc. conj.* Voir *loc.*).
conjug. . . . . . *conjugaison.* Ex. *Conjug.* Placer : se conjugue comme placer (où les irrégularités sont données).
coordin. . . . . . *coordination.*
cordonn. . . . . . terme technique de *cordonnerie.*
cour. . . . . . *courant* (insiste sur le fait qu'un sens, un emploi est connu et employé de tous, quand le mot est d'apparence savante ou quand les autres sens sont techniques, savants, etc.). *Plus cour.* : plus courant que d'autres sens eux-mêmes courants; ou relativement plus courant que les autres sens (sans être très courants dans l'absolu).
cout. . . . . . terme technique de *couture.*
cristall. . . . . . terme didactique de *cristallographie.*
cuis. . . . . . terme technique de *cuisine,* excluant le plus souvent les termes propres à la pâtisserie: Voir *pâtiss.*
cybern. . . . . . terme didactique de *cybernétique.*
d'ab. . . . . . *d'abord* (désigne un sens, un emploi premier, plus ancien, dans une étymologie).
danse . . . . . terme technique de *danse.* Voir *chorégr.*
d'apr. . . . . . *d'après* (tel mot) : en imitant la forme de ce mot, par son influence.
déb. . . . . . *début* (ex. *déb. XV^e^* : au début du XV^e^ siècle).
dém. . . . . . *démonstratif.*
démogr. . . . . . terme didactique de *démographie.*
dénigr. (par) . . . . . *par dénigrement* (présente un mot ou un emploi péjoratif, injurieux). Voir *péj.*
dens. . . . . . *densité.*
dér. . . . . . *dérivé* (*dér. sav.* : dérivé savant).
déterm. . . . . . *déterminatif, ive.*
d. i. . . . . . *date inconnue* ou *incertaine.*
dial. (ou *dialect.*) . . . . . *dialectal* : mot ou emploi provenant d'un dialecte, d'un patois, et qui n'est pas employé comme un mot français normal (Voir *région.*).
didact. . . . . . *didactique* : mot ou emploi qui n'existe que dans la langue savante (livres d'étude, etc.) et non dans la langue parlée ordinaire. — Les mots didactiques sont présentés par *didact., sc.* (sciences) ou une abréviation d'un nom de science *(démogr., méd., opt...), dr.* (droit), etc.
dimin. . . . . . *diminutif.*
dir. . . . . . *direct* (ex. *tr. dir.* : transitif direct).
div. . . . . . *divers.*

doc. . . . . . terme technique de *documentation*.
dr. . . . . . terme de la langue du *droit* : *dr. can.* (canon), *dr. civ.* (droit civil), *dr. comm.* (droit commercial), *dr. cr.* (droit criminel), *dr. fisc.* (droit fiscal), *dr. trav.* (droit du travail).
du . . . . . dans une étymologie, signifie « *dérivé du...* ».
eaux et for. . . . . . terme technique des *eaux et forêts*.
ecclés. . . . . . *ecclésiastique* (ex. *lat. ecclés.* : latin ecclésiastique).
écol. . . . . . terme didactique d'*écologie*.
écon., écon. polit. . . . . . terme didactique d'*économie politique*.
égypt. . . . . . *égyptien* ancien (langue).
électr. . . . . . terme technique d'*électricité*.
ellipt. . . . . . *elliptiquement* : présente une expression ou un terme attendu n'est pas exprimé.
embryol. . . . . . terme didactique d'*embryologie*.
empr. . . . . . *emprunté* à (telle langue).
enfant. (ou *enfants*) . . . . . *enfantin* (*lang. enfant.* : mot, expression du langage des jeunes enfants, mais que les adultes peuvent employer aussi, en leur parlant).
env. . . . . . *environ*.
épistém. . . . . . terme didactique d'*épistémologie*.
équit. . . . . . terme technique d'*équitation*. Voir *hippol.*
équiv. . . . . . *équivalent*.
esp. . . . . . *espagnol* (langue).
ethnogr. . . . . . terme didactique d'*ethnographie*.
ethnol. . . . . . terme didactique d'*ethnologie*.
étym. . . . . . *étymologie*. Ex. V. Vérité (étym.) : Voir l'étymologie du mot vérité.
ex. . . . . . *exemple* (*par ex.* : par exemple).
exagér. . . . . . *exagération* (*par exagér.* : par exagération, présente un sens, une expression emphatique).
exclam. . . . . . *exclamation* ou *exclamatif*.
express. . . . . . *expression* (*dans quelques express.* : sens qui n'existe que dans quelques expressions).
ext. (par) . . . . . *par extension* : présente une acception ou une valeur nouvelle, plus large, plus étendue (s'oppose à *spécialt.*).
f. . . . . . 1° *forme;*
2° *féminin* (*n. f.* : nom féminin).
fam. . . . . . *familier* (usage parlé et même écrit de la langue quotidienne : conversation, etc.; mais ne s'emploierait pas dans les circonstances solennelles).
faucon. . . . . . terme technique de *fauconnerie*.
fém. . . . . . *féminin*.
féod. . . . . . terme spécial concernant la *féodalité*, utilisé par les historiens, les juristes, etc.
fig. . . . . . *figuré* : sens issu d'une image (valeur abstraite correspondant à un sens concret).
fin. . . . . . terme technique de *finances; financier* (*dr. fin.*).
flam. . . . . . *flamand* (langue).
fortif. . . . . . terme technique de *fortifications*.
fr. . . . . . *français* (*a. fr.* : ancien français; *fr. mod.* : français moderne).
francis. . . . . . *francisation*.
frq. . . . . . *francique* (langue).
fut. . . . . . *futur*.
gasc. . . . . . *gascon* (langue).
gaul. . . . . . *gaulois* (langue).
génér. . . . . . *général*.
généralt . . . . . *généralement*, le plus souvent.
géod. . . . . . terme didactique de *géodésie*.
géogr. . . . . . terme didactique de *géographie*.
géol. . . . . . terme didactique de *géologie*.
géom. . . . . . terme didactique de *géométrie*.
géophys. . . . . . terme didactique de *géophysique*.
germ. . . . . . *germanique* (langue).
got. . . . . . *gotique* (langue).
gr. . . . . . *grec* (employé seul : grec ancien; *gr. byz.* : grec byzantin; *gr. mod.* : grec moderne). — *antiq. gr., hist. gr.* : antiquité, histoire grecque.
gram. . . . . . terme didactique de *grammaire*.
h. . . . . . *hapax* : apparition, attestation isolée d'un mot (suivi de la date de cette attestation et généralement, après un point-virgule, de la date d'emploi normal et continu).
hébr. . . . . . *hébreu* (langue).
hippol. . . . . . terme technique ou didactique d'*hippologie* (cheval).
hist. . . . . . terme didactique d'*histoire* (*hist. ant.* : histoire antique (Voir *antiq.*); *hist. mod.* : histoire moderne; *hist. sc.* : histoire des sciences; *hist. relig.* : histoire des religions, etc.). — *Hist. litt.* : terme didactique d'histoire littéraire (ne pas confondre avec *Littér.*).
histol. . . . . . terme didactique d'*histologie*.
holl. . . . . . *hollandais* (langue). Voir *néerl.*
HOM. . . . . *homonyme* (mot ayant la même prononciation que le mot traité).
hongr. . . . . . *hongrois* (langue).
horlog. . . . . . terme technique d'*horlogerie*.
hortic. . . . . . terme technique d'*horticulture*. Voir *jard*
hydrogr. . . . . . terme didactique d'*hydrographie*.
hyperb. . . . . . *hyperbole* (*par hyperb.* : par hyperbole).
i. . . . . . *inconnu* ou très *incertain* (Voir *o. i.*).
ibid. . . . . . *ibidem* (dans le même livre).
id. . . . . . *idem* (la même chose).
imp. . . . . . *imparfait* (temps du verbe).
imp. (lat.) . . . . . *latin impérial* (de l'époque de l'Empire).
impér. . . . . . *impératif* (mode du verbe).
impers. . . . . . 1° *v. impers.* : verbe impersonnel;
2° *impersonnellement* (emploi impersonnel d'un verbe personnel).
imprim. . . . . . terme technique d'*imprimerie*. Voir *typogr.*
impr. . . . . . *impropre* ou *improprement* (emploi critiquable).
ind. . . . . . 1° *indicatif* (mode du verbe);
2° *indirect* (*V. tr. ind.* : verbe transitif indirect, dont l'objet est introduit par une préposition; *compl. ind.* : complément indirect, introduit par une préposition).
indéf. . . . . . *indéfini*.
indus. . . . . . *industrie* ou *industriel* (sens applicable à un secteur du domaine industriel).
inf. . . . . . *infinitif*.
infl. . . . . . *influence* (d'une forme ou d'un sens).

inform. . . . . . terme technique d'*informatique*.
interj. . . . . . *interjection*.
interm. . . . . . *intermédiaire* (*par l'interm.* : par l'intermédiaire [d'une langue qui a véhiculé le mot]).
intern., internat. . . . . . *international* (ex. *dr. internat.*).
interrog. . . . . . *interrogation* ; *interrogatif*.
intr. . . . . . *intransitif* (*v. intr.* : qui n'a jamais de complément d'objet dans le sens envisagé [ne pas confondre avec *absolt.*]).
intrans. . . . . . *intransitivement* (passage d'un transitif à un emploi intransitif).
introd. . . . . . *introduisant* (telle forme, tel mot).
inus. . . . . . *inusité* : emploi qui est, ou extrêmement rare, ou non attesté hors des dictionnaires.
invar. . . . . . *invariable*.
iron. . . . . . *ironique*, *ironiquement*, pour se moquer (souvent par *antiphrase*).
irrég. . . . . . *irrégulier*.
it. . . . . . *italien* (langue).
jard. . . . . . terme technique de *jardinage*. Voir *hortic.*
jeux. . . . . . terme spécial à un *jeu* (peu connu dans l'usage général).
joaill. . . . . . terme technique de *joaillerie*.
journal. . . . . . terme particulier au milieu de la presse, du *journalisme*.
jud. . . . . . *judaïque* (*antiq. jud.*, *relig. jud.* : terme didactique concernant l'antiquité judaïque, la religion judaïque).
jur., jurid. . . . . . *juridique*.
lang. . . . . . *langage*.
langued. . . . . . *languedocien* (langue).
lat. . . . . . *latin* (langue) ; *lat. class.* : latin classique (Voir *class.*) ; *lat. imp.* : latin impérial (Voir *imp.*) ; *lat. médiév.* : latin médiéval ; *lat. pop.* : latin populaire ; *lat. sav.* : latin savant, forgé par les savants avec les racines du lat. class., et servant de langue scientifique universelle ; *bas lat.* : bas latin (Voir *bas*) ; *lat. ecclés.* : latin ecclésiastique.
ling. . . . . . terme didactique de *linguistique*.
litt. . . . . . terme didactique des *études littéraires*. Voir *hist. (litt.)*.
littér. . . . . . *littéraire* : désigne un mot qui n'est pas d'usage familier, qui s'emploie surtout dans la langue écrite élégante. Ce mot a généralement des synonymes d'emploi plus courant.
littéralt . . . . . *littéralement*, mot pour mot.
liturg. . . . . . terme didactique de *liturgie* (*liturg. cathol.*, *chrét.*, *jud.*, etc.).
loc. . . . . . *locution* (groupe de mots formant une unité et ne pouvant pas être modifié à volonté ; certaines ont la valeur d'un mot grammatical). [*loc. adv.* : locution adverbiale, à valeur d'adverbe ; *loc. conj.* : locution conjonctive, à valeur de conjonction ; *loc. prép.* : locution prépositive, à valeur de préposition ; *loc. adj.* : locution adjective, à valeur d'adjectif]. — *loc. fig.* : locution(s) figurée(s) ; *loc. métaph.* : locution(s) métaphorique(s) ; *loc. div.* : locutions diverses.
log. . . . . . terme didactique de *logique*.
m. . . . . . 1° *masculin* (*n. m.* : nom masculin ; *adj. m.* : adjectif masculin). Le nom masculin s'emploie aussi à propos d'une femme si le mot est défini par *Personne qui*... Autrement, le mot est défini par *Celui qui*...
2° *masse* (ex. *m. at.* : masse atomique).
maçonn. . . . . . terme technique de *maçonnerie*
mar. . . . . . 1° terme technique ou didactique de *marine* concernant les navires, la navigation et utilisé par les marins, les spécialistes seulement ;
2° *maritime*, des marins (*arg. mar.* : argot des marins).
masc. . . . . . *masculin* (*au masc.* : au masculin).
math. . . . . . terme didactique de *mathématiques*.
mécan. . . . . . terme didactique de *mécanique*.
mécanogr. . . . . . terme technique de *mécanographie*.
méd. . . . . . 1° terme didactique de *médecine* (Voir *biol.*, *pathol.*) ;
2° *médical* (*lat. méd.*, *lang. méd.*).
médiév. . . . . . *médiéval* (ex. *lat. médiév.*, *hist. médiév.*).
menuis. . . . . . terme technique de *menuiserie*.
mérid. . . . . . *méridional*, du midi de la France.
métall. . . . . . terme technique de *métallurgie*.
métaph. . . . . . *métaphore* (*par métaph.* : comparaison implicite intermédiaire entre le propre et le figuré).
météo., météor. . . . . . *météorologie*
méton. . . . . . *métonymie* (Voir ce mot dans le dictionnaire).
métr., métrol. . . . . . terme technique de *métrologie* (mesures).
microbiol. . . . . . terme didactique de *microbiologie*.
mil. . . . . . *milieu* (devant un siècle : *mil. XX^e^* : mot apparu en français au milieu du XX^e^ siècle, vers 1950).
millit. . . . . . terme technique du langage *militaire*.
minér. . . . . . terme didactique de *minéralogie*.
mod. . . . . . *moderne* (insiste sur le fait qu'un sens, un emploi est d'usage actuel, quand le sens précédent ou les emplois voisins sont vieux, abandonnés). *Mod. et littér.* : moderne et littéraire ; *mod. et cour.* : moderne et courant.
modes . . . . . terme technique des arts et du commerce de la *mode*. Voir *cout.*
modif. . . . . . *modification* (*modif. orthogr.* : modification orthographique).
mor. . . . . . terme didactique de *morale*.
moy. . . . . . *moyen* (*moy. fr.* : moyen français, XIV^e^ et XV^e^ s.).
mus. . . . . . terme technique de *musique* ; *hist. mus.* : terme de l'histoire de la musique.
myst. . . . . . terme didactique de *mystique*.
myth., mythol. . . . . . terme didactique de *mythologie*.
n. . . . . . *nom*, substantif (*n. m.* : nom masculin ; *n. f.* nom féminin ; *n. m. pl.* : nom masculin pluriel ; *n. pr.* : nom propre...).
néerl. . . . . . *néerlandais* (langue). Voir *holl.*
néol. . . . . . *néologisme* (mot nouveau, relevé ou entendu peu de temps avant la parution du dictionnaire : depuis 1950. Voir *mil. XX^e^* : milieu du XX^e^ siècle).
n° at. . . . . . *numéro atomique*.
nom déposé . . . . . nom appartenant à une firme commerciale, mais utilisé comme nom commun.
norm. . . . . . *normand* (langue).
norv. . . . . . *norvégien* (langue).
nucl. . . . . . terme spécial au domaine *nucléaire* (par ex. : *phys. nucl.* physique nucléaire).
numér. . . . . . *numéral*.
numism. . . . . . terme didactique de *numismatique* (médailles et pièces anciennes). Voir *archéol.*
o. . . . . . *origine* ou étymologie (*d'o. gr.* : d'origine grecque).
o. i. . . . . . *origine inconnue* ou très *incertaine*.
onomat. . . . . . *onomatopée* ou formation expressive.

opposé à . . . . . introduit le mot de sens *opposé* (Voir ANT.) en opposition permanente.
opt. . . . . . terme didactique ou technique d'*optique*.
orig. . . . . . *origine* (Voir o.).
orthogr . . . . . *orthographe, orthographique*
p. . . . . . 1° *participe* (*p. prés.* : participe présent). Voir *p. p.*;
2° *poids*.
paléont. . . . . . terme didactique de *paléontologie*.
particip. . . . . . *participial* (*subst. particip.* : nom issu d'un participe).
particult . . . . . *particulièrement* : concernant telle situation, tel objet particuliers.
pass. . . . . . forme *passive* (d'un verbe).
pathol. . . . . . terme didactique de *pathologie*. Voir *physiol.* et *méd.*
pâtiss. . . . . . terme technique de *pâtisserie*. Voir *cuis.*
p.-ê. . . . . . *peut-être*.
pêche . . . . . terme technique de *pêche* (Voir *mar.*).
pédol. . . . . . terme didactique de *pédologie*.
peint. . . . . . terme technique ou didactique de *peinture*.
péj. . . . . . *péjoratif; péjorativement* (avec mépris, en mauvaise part).
pén. . . . . . *pénal* (*dr. pén.* : droit pénal).
pers. . . . . . 1° *personne* (1re *pers.* du prés...);
2° *personnel* (*pron. pers.* : pronom personnel);
3° *persan* (langue).
personnes . . . . . présente un sens, un emploi où le mot (adjectif, verbe) ne peut s'employer qu'avec des noms de personnes (s'oppose à *choses*).
pharm. . . . . . terme technique ou didactique de *pharmacie*.
philo. . . . . . terme didactique de *philosophie;*
phonét. . . . . . 1° terme didactique de *phonétique;*
2° *phonétiquement*, dans la prononciation.
phot. . . . . . terme technique de *photographie*.
phys. . . . . . terme didactique ou technique de *physique*.
physiol. . . . . . terme didactique de *physiologie*. Voir *pathol., méd.*
pl. ou *plur.* . . . . . *pluriel* (ex. *n. m. pl.*).
plais., plaisant. . . . . . *plaisanterie* (*par plaisant.* : emploi qui vise à être drôle, à amuser).
poét. . . . . . mot de la langue littéraire (Voir *littér.*) utilisé seulement en *poésie*.
polit. . . . . . terme didactique ou spécial de *politique*.
pop. . . . . . *populaire* : qualifie un mot ou un sens courant dans la langue parlée des milieux populaires, (souvent argot ancien répandu), qui ne s'emploierait pas dans un milieu social élevé.
port. . . . . . *portugais* (langue).
poss . . . . . *possessif* (*adj. poss.* : adjectif possessif).
p. p. . . . . . *participe passé*. — REM. Les participes passés adjectifs importants sont traités à l'ordre alphabétique. Les autres sont mentionnés au verbe. — *p. p. adj.* : participe passé adjectif; *p. p.* ou *au p. p.* : participe passé (certains sont donnés en exemple sans mention particulière, après un —).
pr. (au) . . . . . *au sens propre* (opposé à : *au figuré*).
pr. . . . . . *propre* (*n. pr.* : nom propre).
précéd. . . . . . *précédent* (surtout : mot précédent, dans l'ordre alphabétique).
préf. . . . . . *préfixe*.
prép. . . . . . *préposition* (*loc. prép.* : locution prépositive).
prés. . . . . . *présent* (temps du verbe).
probabl. . . . . . *probablement*.
procéd. . . . . . terme didactique de *procédure*. Voir *dr.*
pron. . . . . . 1° *pronom* (ex. *pron. pers.* : pronom personnel; *pron. dém.* : démonstratif, *indéf.* : indéfini *poss.* : possessif, *rel.* : relatif);
2° *pronominal* (*v. pron.* : verbe pronominal).
pronom. . . . . . *pronominalement* (emploi pronominal isolé d'un verbe).
prononc. . . . . . *prononciation*.
propos. . . . . . *proposition*.
propre (au) . . . . . voir *pr.*
proprem. . . . . . *proprement* : désigne le sens premier d'un mot d'où est issu un mot français, quand c'est dans un autre sens qu'il a été pris.
prov. . . . . . *provençal* (langue).
PROV. . . . . *proverbe*.
psychan. . . . . . terme didactique de *psychanalyse*.
psychiatr. . . . . . terme didactique de *psychiatrie*.
psycho ou *psychol* . . . . . terme didactique de *psychologie*.
pub. ou *publ.* . . . . . *public* (*dr. pub.* : droit public).
public. . . . . . terme technique de *publicité*.
qqch. . . . . . *quelque chose*.
qqf. . . . . . *quelquefois*.
qqn . . . . . *quelqu'un*.
rac. . . . . . *racine*.
rad. . . . . . *radical*.
rare . . . . . mot qui, dans son usage particulier (il peut être didactique, technique, etc.), n'est employé qu'exceptionnellement.
récipr. . . . . . *réciproque* (*v. pron. récipr.* : verbe pronominal réciproque).
recomm. offic. . . . . . *recommandation officielle* : termes et expressions approuvés ou recommandés par arrêté ministériel, en application de décrets relatifs à l'enrichissement de la langue française.
réfect. . . . . . *réfection* (modification d'une forme plus ancienne, sous l'influence d'une forme du latin classique, etc.).
réfl. . . . . . *réfléchi* (*v. pron. réfl.* : verbe pronominal réfléchi).
région. . . . . . *régional* (mot ou emploi particulier au français parlé dans une ou plusieurs régions, mais qui n'est pas d'usage général ou qui est senti comme propre à une région).
rel. . . . . . terme technique de *reliure*.
relig. . . . . . terme didactique de *religion*. Voir aussi *liturg., théol.*
REM. . . . . *remarque*.
rhét. . . . . . terme didactique de *rhétorique*.
rom. . . . . . *romain* (*antiq. rom.* : antiquité romaine).
roum. . . . . . *roumain* (langue).
s. . . . . . *siècle* (dans les étymologies, siècle n'est pas mentionné : XVIe = XVIe siècle).

sanscr.	*sanscrit* (langue).
sc.	1° terme didactique du langage scientifique et appartenant au domaine de plusieurs *sciences;* 2° *scientifique* (*lat. sc. :* latin scientifique).
scand.	*scandinave* (langue).
scol.	*scolaire* (*arg. scol. :* argot scolaire).
s.-ent.	*sous-entendu.*
séc. soc.	*Sécurité sociale.*
sémiol.	terme didactique de *sémiologie.*
seult	*seulement.*
sing.	*singulier.*
socio.	terme didactique de *sociologie.*
sorcell.	terme de *sorcellerie.*
spécialis.	*spécialisation* (de sens, d'emploi).
spécialt	*spécialement* (dans un sens plus étroit, moins étendu; s'oppose à *par ext.*).
sports	terme du langage des *sports*, peu connu du grand public (certains sont présentés par le nom du sport où ils sont employés : *aviron, football, tennis*, etc.).
statist.	terme didactique de *statistique.*
sténo.	terme technique de *sténographie.*
subj.	*subjonctif* (mode du verbe).
subst.	*substantif, substantivement* (emploi comme nom d'un adjectif, d'un participe).
substit.	*substitution.*
suéd.	*suédois* (langue).
suff.	*suffixe.*
suiv.	*suivant* (surtout : le mot suivant, dans l'ordre alphabétique).
sylvic.	terme technique de *sylviculture.* Voir *arbor.; eaux et for.*
symb.	*symbole* (d'une unité de mesure, etc.).
syn.	*synonyme* considéré comme parfait.
T.	1° *terme* (*en t. de... :* en termes de..., dans le langage spécial de telle technique ou activité); 2° *tome.*
taurom.	terme technique de *tauromachie.*
techn.	*technique* (mot appartenant au langage technique, et peu ou mal connu de l'ensemble du public; quand il s'agit d'une technique particulière et très importante, *techn.* est remplacé par le nom de cette technique *(aviat., auto., électr., phot.).*
télév.	terme technique de *télévision.*
théol.	terme didactique de *théologie.*
tissage	terme technique de *tissage.*
topogr.	terme didactique de *topographie*
tr.	*transitif* (*v. tr.* verbe transitif, qui a un complément d'objet [exprimé ou non]; *tr. dir.* transitif direct [Voir *dir.*]. *tr. indir.* transitif indirect [Voir *ind.*].
trad.	*traduction* (de telle langue).
trans.	*transitivement* (présente un emploi exceptionnellement transitif d'un verbe intransitif).
transform.	*transformation.*
tr. pub.	terme technique de *travaux publics.*
turf	terme spécial au milieu du *turf*, des courses de chevaux.
typogr.	terme technique de *typographie.* Voir *imprim.*
v.	1° *verbe* (*v. intr.; v. tr.; v. pron.; v. impers.*); 2° *vers* (devant une date).
V.	*voir* (présente un mot qui a un grand rapport de sens : 1° avec le mot traité [synonyme, mot de sens voisin ou constituant une espèce par rapport au genre que désigne le mot]; 2° avec l'expression ou l'exemple qui précède). V. signale dans le premier cas un simple rapport de sens, et le mot qui suit ne donne pas forcément des informations sur celui où il est signalé.
var.	*variante.*
vén.	terme technique de *vénerie* (chasse à courre).
vétér.	mot technique de l'*art vétérinaire;* quand il s'agit du cheval, Voir *hippol.*
vieilli	mot, sens ou expression encore compréhensible de nos jours, mais qui ne s'emploie plus naturellement dans la langue parlée courante.
vocab.	*vocabulaire.*
vulg.	*vulgaire :* mot, sens ou emploi choquant (souvent familier (fam.) ou populaire (pop.), qu'on ne peut employer dans un discours soucieux de correction, de bienséances, quelle que soit la classe sociale).
vx	*vieux* (mot, sens ou emploi de l'ancienne langue, incomprehensible ou peu compréhensible de nos jours et jamais employé, sauf par effet de style : archaïsme).
zool.	1° terme didactique de *zoologie;* 2° *zoologique (lat. zool.).*
zoot.	terme technique de *zootechnie.*

Dictionnaire du français Plus (1988:xx-xxiii)

ABRÉVIATIONS

abb. abbaye
abbat. abbatial
abrév. abréviation
absol. absolument
abusiv. abusivement
acad. académie
accus. accusatif
acoust. acoutisque
adj. adjectif
adject. adjectivement
admin. administration, administratif
adv. adverbe, adverbial
aéron. aéronautique
affl. affluent
a. fr. ancien français
afr. africain, aine (adj.)
aggl. agglomération
aggl. urb. agglomération urbaine
agric. agriculture, agricole
alch. alchimie
alg. algèbre
alim. alimentaire
all. allemand, e (adj., n.)
allus. allusion
alphab. alphabétique
alt. altitude
altér. altération
amér. américain, aine (adj., n.)
anal. analogie, analogue
anat. anatomie
anc. ancien, anciennement
angl. anglais, aise (adj., n.)
anthrop. anthropologie
Antiq. Antiquité
antiq. égypt. antiquité égyptienne
antiq. gr. antiquité grecque
antiq. rom. antiquité romaine
ap. après
ap. J.-C. après Jésus-Christ
apic. apiculture
appos. apposition
ar. arabe (adj., n.)
arbor. arboriculture
arch. archaïque
archéol. archéologie
archi. architecture
arg. argot, argotique
arith. arithmétique
armur. armurerie
arpent. arpentage
arr. arrondissement
art culin. art culinaire
artill. artillerie
Arts déc. Arts décoratifs
asiat. asiatique (adj., n.)
Atlant. Atlantique
atom. atomique
attract. attraction, attractif
auj. aujourd'hui
auto. automobile
auton. autonome
autref. autrefois
autrich. autrichien, ienne (adj., n.)
auxil. auxiliaire
av. avant
av. J.-C. avant Jésus-Christ
avic. aviculture
avr. avril
bactér. bactériologie
bain. balnéaire
bibl. bibliographie
bijout. bijouterie
biochim. biochimie
biogr. biographie
biol. biologie
blas. blason
bot. botanique
bouch. boucherie
brit. britannique (adj., n.)
bs bas
Bx-A. Beaux-Arts
c.-à-d. c'est-à-dire
cal. calorie
calligr. calligraphie
cant. canton
cap. capitale
card. cardinal
carross. carrosserie
cath. cathédrale
cathol. catholique
celt. celtique
centr. central
céram. céramique
cert. certain
cf. confer : se reporter à
chancel. chancellerie
chap. chapelle
chât. château
ch. de f. chemin de fer
ch.-l. chef-lieu
ch.-l de cant. chef-lieu de canton
chim. chimie
chin. chinois, oise (adj., n)
chir. chirurgie
chorégr. chorégraphie
chron. chronologie
Cie compagnie
ciné. cinéma
circonsc. circonscription
class. classique, lat. classique
clim. climatique
climat. climatologie
coeff. coefficient
col. colonne
coll. collection
collab. collaboration, collaborateur
collect. collectif
collectiv. collectivement
com. commune
comm. commerce, commercial
comp. complément
compta. comptabilité
confl. confluent
conj. conjonction, conjonctif
conjug. conjugaison
const. constant
constr. construction
contemp. contemporain
contract. contraction
conurb. conurbation
corr. correct
corrél. corrélatif
cosmol. cosmologie
cour. couramment
cout. couture
crois. croisement
cryptogr. cryptographie
ctr. contraire
cuis. cuisine
cult. culture
d.d.p. différence de potentiel
déb. début
déc. décembre
déf. défini
défect. défectif
déform. déformation
dém. démonstratif
démocratie, démocratique
dénigr. dénigrement
dép. département
dér. dérivé
dét. déterminatif
dial. dialecte, dialectal
didac. didactique
dimin. diminutif
diplom. diplomatie, diplomatique
dir. direct
distill. distillerie
distr. district
div. divers
dout. douteux
dr. droit
dr. admin. droit administratif
dr. anc. droit ancien
dr. civ. droit civil
dr. coutum. droit coutumier
dr. eccléS. droit ecclésiastique
dr. féodal droit féodal
dr. forest. droit forestier
dr. marit. droit maritime
dr. rom. droit romain
ébénist. ébénisterie
éc. école
eccléS. ecclésiastique
écol. écologie
écon. économie
écon. polit. économie politique
éd. édition, éditeur
égl. église
égypt. égyptien, ienne (adj., n)
électr. électricité
électroacoust. électroacoustique
électrochim. électrochimie
électromécan. électromécanique
électrométall. électrométallurgie
électron. électronique
elliptt. elliptiquement
embryol. embryologie
empl. emploi, employé
empr. emprunt
encycl. encyclopédie, encyclopédique
enseig. enseignement
env. environ
environn. environnement
équat. équatorial
équit. équitation
erpét. erpétologie
escr. escrime
esp. espagnol, ole (adj., n.)
espc. espèce
etc. et cætera
ethn. ethnographie, ethnologie
étym. étymologie
étymol. étymologiquement
euph. euphémisme, euphémique
ex. exemple
exag. exagération
exclam. exclamation, exclamatif
expr. expressif(ive), expression
ext. extension
f. féminin
fabr. fabrique
fac. facultatif
fam. famille
fbg faubourg
féd. fédération, fédéral, fédérative
fém. féminin
f.é.m. force électromotrice
féod. féodalité, féodal
ferrug. ferrugineux, euse
fév. février
fig. figure, figuratif, figuré
filat. filature
fin. finances
finn. finnois
fisc. fiscalité
fl. fluv. fleuve, fluvial
flam. flamand
flamb. flamboyant
forest. forestier
fortif. fortification, fortifié
fr. français, aise (adj., n.)
fréquent. fréquentatif
frq. francique
funér. funéraire
fut. futur
g. gauche
gaul. gaulois
gd, gde grand, grande
généal. généalogie
génét. génétique
géod. géodésie
géogr. géographie
géol. géologie
géom. géométrie
géomorphol. géomorphologie
géoph. géophysique
germ. germanique
gest. gestion
goth. gothique
gouv. gouvernement
gr. grec
gram. grammaire, grammatical
grav. gravure

gymn. gymnastique
gynécol. gynécologie
h (sans point) heure
ha hectare
hab. habitant
hébr. hébreu
héral. héraldique
hist. histoire
hist. millit. histoire militaire
histol. histologie
holl. hollandais, aise (adj., n.)
hom. homonyme
horl. horlogerie
hortic. horticulture
ht, hts haut, hauts
hte, htes haute, hautes
hydraul. hydraulique
hydroél. hydroélectrique
hydrogr. hydrographie
hyg. hygiène
hyper. hyperbole
ibid. ibidem
ichtyol. ichtyologie
iconogr. iconographie
id. idem
imp. impérial
imparf. imparfait
impér. impératif
impers. impersonnel
import. important, ance
impr. impropre, improprement
imprim. imprimerie
incert. incertain
incon. inconnu
incorr. incorrection, incorrect
ind., indir. indirect
indéf. indéfini
indép. indépendant, ance
indic. indicatif
industr. industrie, industriel
inf. infinitif
infér. inférieur
infl. influence, inflexion
inform. informatique
injur. injurieux
instr. instrument
int. interne, intérieur
interj. interjection
intern. international
interrog. interrogation, interrogatif
intr. intransitif
inus. inusité
inv. invariable
iron. ironie, ironiquement
irr. irrégulier
ital. italien, ienne (adj., n.)
janv. janvier
jap. japonais, aise (adj., n.)
J.-C. Jésus-Christ
joaill. joaillerie
juil. juillet
jurid. juridique
jurispr. jurisprudence
l litre, lettre
lat. latin
latit. latitude
législ. législation, législatif
libr. librairie
ling. linguistique
litt. littéraire
litter. littérature
littéral. littéralement
liturg. liturgie
loc. locution
local. localité
loc. conj. locution conjonctive
loc. exclam. locution exclamative
loc. lat. locution latine
loc. prép. locution prépositive
log. logique, logarithme
long. longueur
longit. longitude
m. masculin, mot, même
m (sans point) mètre
mach. machine
magnét. magnétisme, magnétique
manuf. manufacture
mar. marine
marit. maritime
math. mathématiques
mauv. part. mauvaise part (en)
méca. mécanique
méd. médecine, médical
médiév. médiéval
médit. méditerranéen
méd. leg. médecine légale
méd. vét. médecine vétérinaire
mégalit. mégalithique
mention. mentionné
mérid. méridional
métall. métallurgie, métallique
métaph. métaphore
météo. météorologie
méton. métonymie
métr. métrique
métrol. métrologie
métropol. métropolitain
Mgr Monseigneur
microb. microbiologie
mil. milieu
minér. minéral, minéralogique
mod. moderne
mon. monument
monn. monnaie
morphol. morphologie
mus. musique
music. musical
musulm. musulman, mane
myth. mythologie, mythologique
N. Nord
n. nom
nat. national, nationaux
navig. navigation
n. b. nota bene
N.-D Notre-Dame
N.-E. Nord-Est
néerl. néerlandais
nég. négatif, négation
néol. néologisme
n. f. nom féminin
n. f. pl. nom féminin pluriel
n. m. nom masculin
n. m. pl. nom masculin pluriel
nombr. nombreux
nomi. nominal
N.-O. Nord-Ouest
norm. normand
norv. norvégien, ienne (adj., n.)
notam. notamment
nouv. nouvelle
nov. novembre
n. pr. nom propre
nucl. nucléaire
num. numéral
numism. numismatique
O. Ouest
obs. observation
obstétr. obstétrique
occid. occidental
occult. occultisme
océanogr. océanographie
oct. octobre
œnol. œnologie
off. officiel
onomat. onomatopée
oppos. opposition
opt. optique
ord. ordinal
ordin. ordinaire
orfevr. orfèvrerie
orient. oriental
orig. origine
ornith. ornithologie
orthogr. orthographe
orthop. orthopédie
ouv. ouvrage
paleogr. paléographie
paleont. paléontologie
papet. papeterie
par ex. par exemple
par ext. par extension
paron. paronyme
part. participe
partic. particule, particulier, particulièrement
pass. passif
pathol. pathologie
pâtiss. pâtisserie
pdt président
p.-ê. peut-être
pédag. pédagogie
pédol. pédologie
peint. peinture
péj., pejor. péjoratif
pers. personne, personnel
P. et Ch. Ponts et Chaussées
pétrog. pétrographie
pétroléochim. pétroléochimie
pharm. pharmacie, pharmaceutique
philol. philologie
philol. gr., lat. philologie grecque, latine
philo. philosophie
phon. phonétique, phonétiquement
photo. photographie
phys. physique
physiol. physiologie
phys. nucl. physique nucléaire
pisc. pisciculture
pl. planche
pl., plur. pluriel
plaisant. plaisanterie
plus. plusieurs
P. Nobel Prix Nobel
poét. poétique
polit. politique
pop. populaire, population
portug. portugais, aise (adj., n.)
poss. possessif
possess. possession
post. postérieur
posth. posthume
pp. participe passé
ppr. participe présent
prat. pratique
préc., précéd. précédent, précédemment
préf. préfecture, préfixe
préf. urb. préfecture urbaine
préhist. préhistoire
prem. premier
prép. prépositif, préposition
prés. présent
princ. principal, principalement
priv. privatif
probabl. probablement
procéd. procédure
prod. produit, production
prod. alim. produits alimentaires
prod. chim. produits chimiques
prod. manuf. produits manufacturés
pron. pronom, pronominal
prononc. prononciation, prononcer
propr. propre, proprement
propos. proposition
prosod. prosodie
protohist. protohistoire
prov. proverbe, proverbial, provenance, province
provenç. provençal
psychan. psychanalyse
psychiat. psychiatrie
psycho. psychologie
pyrot. pyrotechnie
qqch quelque chose
qqn quelqu'un
rac. racine
rad. radical
radiodif. radiodiffusion
radioelectr. radioélectrique
radioph. radiophonie
radiotél. radiotélévision
raff. raffinerie
récipr. réciproque
réfl. réfléchi
rég. région, régional
reg. merid. région méridionale
rég. occid. région occidentale
rel. reliure
relig. religion
rem. remarque
rép. république
rép. auton. république autonome
rép. dém. république démocratique

rép. fed.	république fédérale
rép. pop.	république populaire
rhét.	rhétorique
riv.	rivière
rom.	romain, aine (adj., n.)
roy.	royaume
R.S.F.S.R.	République socialiste fédérative soviétique de Russie
S.	Sud
s.	singulier, siècle
sanit.	sanitaire
sanscr.	sanscrit
sc.	science
scand.	scandinave
scientif.	scientifique
sc. nat.	sciences naturelles
scol.	scolaire
scolast.	scolastique
s. comp.	sans complément (sans le complément attendu)
sculpt.	sculpture
S. E.	Son Excellence
S.-E.	Sud-Est
s.-ent.	sous-entendu
sept.	septembre
septent.	septentrional
séric.	sériciculture
serv.	service
sidér.	sidérurgie
signif.	signifiant
simpl.	simplement
sing. ou s.	singulier
S.-O.	Sud-Ouest
soc.	socialiste
sociol.	sociologie
sov., soviét.	soviétique
spécial.	spécialement
s.-préf.	sous-préfecture
S.S.	Sa Sainteté
st, ste	saint, sainte
stat.	station
stat. bain.	station balnéaire
stat. therm.	station thermale
statist.	statistique
sté	société
subj.	subjonctif, subjonctivité
subst.	substantif, substantivé
suff.	suffixe
suiv.	suivant
sup.	supérieur
superf.	superficie
superl.	superlatif
syll.	syllabe
sylvic.	sylviculture
synopt.	synoptique
synt.	syntaxe
t.	terme
tabl.	tableau
tech.	technique, technologie
teint.	teinturerie
télécomm.	télécommunications
télégr.	télégramme, télégraphe
téléph.	téléphone
térat.	tératologie
term.	terminaison
territ.	territoire
text.	textile
théât.	théâtre
théol.	théologie
thérap.	thérapeutique
therm.	thermal, thermique
tol. orth.	tolérance orthographique
topogr.	topographie
tourist.	touristique
tr.	transitif
trad.	traduit, traduction
tram.	tramway
trans	transitif
transp.	transports
trav. publ.	travaux publics
trigo.	trigonométrie
triv.	trivial
typo.	typographie
urb.	urbain
urban.	urbanisme
us.	usité, usuel
v.	verbe, ville
V.	voir, voyez
var.	variante
v. imp.	verbe impersonnel
v. intr.	verbe intransitif
v. pron.	verbe pronominal
v. tr.	verbe transitif
vén.	vénerie
versif.	versification
vest.	vestiges
véter.	vétérinaire
virol.	virologie
vitic.	viticulture
vol.	volume
vulg.	vulgaire, vulgairement
vx	vieux
Z.	numéro atomique
zool.	zoologie
zootech.	zootechnie

RUBRIQUES DE LANGUE

Anc	ancien
Ant.	antonyme
Arg	argot
Cour	courant, couramment
Dial	dialectal
Didac	didactique
Fam	familier, familièrement
Fig	figuré
Grossier	grossier
Inj	injurieux
Iron	ironique
Litt	littéraire
Mod	moderne
Péjor	péjoratif
Plaisant	plaisant
Poét	poétique
Pop	populaire
Rare	rare
Rég	régional
Syn.	synonyme
Vieilli	vieilli
Vulg	vulgaire, vulgairement
Vx	vieux

INDICATIONS DE VOCABULAIRE DE SPÉCIALITÉS

ADMIN	Administration
AERON	Aéronautique
AGRIC	Agriculture
ALG	Algèbre
ALPIN	Alpinisme
AMEUB	Ameublement
ANAT	Anatomie
ANTHROP	Anthropologie
ANTIQ	Antiquité
ANTIQ GR	Antiquité grecque
ANTIQ ROM	Antiquité romaine
APIC	Apiculture
ARBOR	Arboriculture
ARCHEOL	Archéologie
ARCHI	Architecture
ARCHI ANTIQ	Architecture antique
ARITH	Arithmétique
ART	Art
ARTILL	Artillerie
ARTS GRAPH	Arts graphiques
ASTRO	Astronomie
ASTROL	Astrologie
AUDIOV	Audiovisuel
AUTO	Automobile
AVIAT	Aviation
BALIST	Balistique
BIOCHIM	Biochimie
BIOL	Biologie
BLAS	Blason
BOT	Botanique
BOUCH	Boucherie
BX-A	Beaux-Arts
RELIG CATHOL	Religion catholique
CHASSE	Chasse
CH de F	Chemin de fer
CHIM	Chimie
CHIR	Chirurgie
CHOREGR	Chorégraphie
CINE	Cinéma
COMM	Commerce
COMPTA	Comptabilité
CONJUG	Conjugaison
CONSTR	Construction
COUT	Couture
CUIS	Cuisine
CYCLISME	Cyclisme
DOCUM	Documentation
DR	Droit
DR ADMIN	Droit administratif
DR ANC	Droit ancien
DR CANON	Droit canon
DR COMM	Droit commercial
DR INTERN	Droit international
DR FEOD	Droit féodal
DR MARIT	Droit maritime
DR PUBL	Droit public
DR TR	Droit du travail
ECOL	Écologie
ECON	Économie
EDITION	Édition
EDUC	Éducation
ELECTR	Électricité
ELECTROACOUST	Électroacoustique
ELECTROCHIM	Électrochimie
ELECTRON	Électronique
EMBRYOL	Embryologie
ENTOM	Entomologie
EQUIT	Équitation
ESP	Espace
ETHNOL	Ethnologie
FAUC	Fauconnerie
FEOD	Féodalité
FIN	Finance
FISC	Fiscalité
FOLKL	Folklore
FOREST	Foresterie
FORTIF	Fortification
GENEAL	Généalogie
GENET	Génétique
GEOGR	Géographie
GEOL	Géologie
GEOM	Géométrie
GEOMORPH	Géomorphologie
GEOPH	Géophysique
GEST	Gestion
GOLF	Golf
GRAM	Grammaire
GRAM GR	Grammaire grecque
GYM	Gymnastique
HERALD	Héraldique
HIST	Histoire
HISTOL	Histologie
HORL	Horlogerie
HORTIC	Horticulture
HYDROL	Hydrologie
ICHTYOL	Ichtyologie
IMPRIM	Imprimerie
INDUSTR	Industrie
INFORM	Informatique
JEU	Jeu
LEGISL	Législation
LING	Linguistique
LITTER	Littérature
LITURG	Liturgie
LOG	Logique
MAR	Marine
MAR ANC	Marine ancienne
MATH	Mathématique

MECA	Mécanique
MED	Médecine
MED BIOL	Médecine biologique
MED VET	Médecine vétérinaire
METALL	Métallurgie
METEO	Météorologie
METR ANC	Métrique ancienne
METROL	Métrologie
MICROB	Microbiologie
MILIT	Militaire
MINER	Minéral
MINES	Mines
MUS	Musique
MYTH.	Mythologie
OBSTETR	Obstétrique
OCCULT	Occultisme
OCEANOGR	Océanographie
OPT	Optique
ORNITH	Ornithologie
PALEONT	Paléontologie
PECHE	Pêche
PEDAG	Pédagogie
PEDOL	Pédologie
PEINT	Peinture
PETROG	Pétrographie
PETROLEOCHIM	Pétroléochimie
PHARM	Pharmacie
PHILO	Philosophie
PHILO ANC	Philosophie ancienne
PHON	Phonétique
PHOTO	Photographie
PHYS	Physique
PHYSIOL	Physiologie
PHYS NUCL	Physique nucléaire
POET	Poétique
POLIT	Politique
PREHIST	Préhistoire
PRESSE	Presse
PROTOHIST	Protohistoire
PSYCHAN	Psychanalyse
PSYCHIAT	Psychiatrie
PSYCHO	Psychologie
PSYCHOPATHOL	Psychopathologie
PUBL	Publicité
RADIOELECTR	Radioélectricité
RELIG	Religion
RHET	Rhétorique
SC NAT	Sciences naturelles
SCULP	Sculpture
SOCIOL	Sociologie
SPECT	Spectacle
SPORT	Sport
STATIS	Statistique
SYLVIC	Sylviculture
TECH	Technologie, technique
TELECOM	Télécommunications
TELEV	Télévision
TENNIS	Tennis
TEXT	Textile
THEAT	Théâtre
THEOL	Théologie
TRANSP	Transport
TRAV PUBL	Travaux publics
TRIGO	Trigonométrie
TURF	Turf
TYPO	Typographie
URBAN	Urbanisme
VEN	Vénerie
VETER	Vétérinaire
VITIC	Viticulture
ZOOL	Zoologie

Lexis. Dictionnaire de la langue française (1987:xiii-xv)

liste des abréviations ou rubriques

abrév.	abréviation, abréviatif
absol.	absolu, absolument
abus.	abusivement
acad.	académie, académique
accus.	accusatif
acoust.	acoustique
act.	actuel
actuell.	actuellement
adj.	adjectif, adjectival
adj. dém.	adjectif démonstratif
adj. indéf.	adjectif indéfini
adj. interr.	adjectif interrogatif
adj. num. cardin.	adjectif numéral cardinal
adj. num. ordin.	adjectif numéral ordinal
adj. poss.	adjectif possessif
adjectiv.	adjectivement
admin.	administration, administratif
adv.	adverbe, adverbial
adverb.	adverbialement
aéron.	aéronautique
agr.	agriculture
alchim.	alchimie
all.	allemand
allus.	allusion
alp.	alpinisme
alphab.	alphabétique
altér.	altération
amér.	américain
anal.	analytique, analogie, analogique
anat.	anatomie
anc.	ancien, anciennement
anesth.	anesthésie
angl.	anglais
anthrop.	anthropologie
Antiq.	Antiquité
Antiq. gr.	Antiquité grecque
Antiq. hébr.	Antiquité hébraïque
Antiq. rom.	Antiquité romaine
apic.	apiculture
apr.	après
ar.	arabe
arbor.	arboriculture fruitière
archéol.	archéologie
archit.	architecture
ardois.	ardoisières
arg.	argot, argotique
arm.	armement
art.	article
arts graph.	arts graphiques
arts ménag.	arts ménagers
ascét.	ascétisme
astrol.	astrologie
astron.	astronomie
astronaut.	astronautique
atom.	atomique
auj.	aujourd'hui
autom.	automobile
autref.	autrefois
auxil.	auxiliaire
av.	avant
avic.	aviculture
bactér.	bactériologie
balist.	balistique
banq.	banque
basq.	basque
bijout.	bijouterie
biochim.	biochimie
biogéogr.	biogéographie
biol.	biologie
bonnet.	bonneterie
bot.	botanique
bouch.	boucherie
bouddh.	bouddhisme
boulang.	boulangerie
bourrell.	bourrellerie
bours.	bourse
brasser.	brasserie
brésil.	brésilien
brod.	broderie
bx-arts	beaux-arts
byz.	byzantin
c.-à-d.	c'est-à-dire
caoutch.	industrie du caoutchouc
cardiol.	cardiologie
carr.	carrières
carross.	carrosserie
cartogr.	cartographie
cathol.	catholique
celt.	celtique
céram.	céramique
cf.	conférez
chapell.	chapellerie
charp.	charpente
charronn.	charronnerie
chass.	chasse
ch. de f.	chemins de fer
chim.	chimie
chin.	chinois
chir.	chirurgie
chir. dent.	chirurgie dentaire
chirom.	chiromancie
chor.	chorégraphie
chronol.	chronologie
cin.	cinéma
cirq.	cirque
class.	classique
climatol.	climatologie
comm.	commerce
comp.	composé
compar.	comparatif, comparativement, comparé
compl.	complément
comptab.	comptabilité
condit.	conditionnel
confect.	confection
conj.	conjonction, conjugaison
constr.	construction
contr.	contraire
contract.	contraction, contracté
cordonn.	cordonnerie
cosmét.	cosmétologie
cost.	costume
cout.	couture
cristall.	cristallographie
cuis.	cuisine, art culinaire
cybern.	cybernétique
cycl.	cyclisme
cytol.	cytologie
dan.	danois
décor.	décoration, arts décoratifs
dém.	démonstratif
démogr.	démographie
dér.	dérivé
dermatol.	dermatologie
dialect.	dialectal
didact.	didactique
diét.	diététique
dimin.	diminutif
diplom.	diplomatique
dir.	direct
dout.	douteux
dr.	droit
dr. anc.	droit ancien
dr. canon.	droit canon
dr. civ.	droit civil
dr. comm.	droit commercial
dr. féod.	droit féodal
dr. mar.	droit maritime
dr. pén.	droit pénal
dr. rom.	droit romain
E.	est
eaux et for.	eaux et forêts
ébénist.	ébénisterie
ecclés.	ecclésiastique

écol.	écologie
écon.	économie, économie politique
éd.	édition
éduc.	éducation
égypt.	égyptien
électr.	électricité
électron.	électronique
électrotechn.	électrotechnique
ellipt.	elliptique, elliptiquement
embryol.	embryologie
empr.	emprunt, emprunté
endocrinol.	endocrinologie
enseign.	enseignement
entom.	entomologie
env.	environ
équit.	équitation
escr.	escrime
esp.	espagnol
esthét.	esthétique
ethnogr.	ethnographie
ethnol.	ethnologie
éthol.	éthologie
étym.	étymologie
ex.	exemple
expl. sal.	exploitations salinières
expr.	expression
f. ou fém.	féminin
fam.	familier, familièrement
fauconn.	fauconnerie
féod.	féodalité, féodal
fig.	figuré, figurément
fin.	finances, financier
fisc.	fiscalité, fiscal
flam.	flamand
for.	forage
fortif.	fortification
fr.	français
fr.-maçonn.	franc-maçonnerie
frigor.	industrie du froid
frq.	francique
fut.	futur
gaél.	gaélique
gasc.	gascon
généal.	généalogie
génét.	génétique
génit.	génitif
géod.	géodésie
géogr.	géographie, géographique
géol.	géologie
géom.	géométrie
géomorphol.	géomorphologie
géophys.	géophysique
germ.	germanique
gothiq.	gothique
gr.	grec
gramm.	grammaire
grav.	gravure
gymn.	gymnastique
gynécol.	gynécologie
hébr.	hébreu, hébraïque
hématol.	hématologie
hérald.	héraldique
hind.	hindou
hippol.	hippologie
hist.	histoire
hist. litt.	histoire littéraire
hist. nat.	histoire naturelle
histol.	histologie
holland.	hollandais
homéopath.	homéopathie
hongr.	hongrois
horlog.	horlogerie
hortic.	horticulture
hydrogr.	hydrographie
hydrol.	hydrologie
hyg.	hygiène
hygrom.	hygrométrie
ibid.	ibidem
iconogr.	iconographie
imp.	imparfait
impér.	impératif
impers.	impersonnel, impersonnellement
impr.	imprimerie
inc.	inconnu
incert.	incertain
ind.	indicatif, indirect, indien
indéf.	indéfini
industr.	industrie
industr. du gaz	industrie du gaz
inf.	infinitif
infl.	influence
inform.	informatique
interj.	interjection, interjectif
intr.	intransitif, intransitivement
inus.	inusité
inv.	invariable
irland.	irlandais
iron.	ironique, ironiquement
irrég.	irrégulier, irrégulièrement
it.	italien, italique
jap.	japonais
J.-C.	Jésus-Christ
jeux.	jeux
joaill.	joaillerie
jur.	jurisprudence, juridique
lat.	latin, latitude
législ.	législation
ling.	linguistique
litt.	littéraire
littér.	littérature, histoire littéraire
littéral.	littéralement
liturg.	liturgie
loc.	locution
loc. adj.	locution adjective
loc. adv.	locution adverbiale
loc. conj.	locution conjonctive
loc. div.	locutions diverses
loc. prép.	locution prépositive
log.	logique
logist.	logistique
M.	Monsieur
m. ou masc.	masculin
magnét.	magnétisme
maj.	majuscule
manut.	manutention
mar.	marine
mar. anc.	marine ancienne
maroq.	maroquinerie
matér.	matériaux
math.	mathématiques
mat. plast.	matières plastiques
mécan.	mécanique
mécan. des fl.	mécanique des fluides
méd.	médecine, médical
méd. lég.	médecine légale
médiév.	médiéval
menuis.	menuiserie
métall.	métallurgie
météor.	météorologie
métriq.	métrique
métrol.	métrologie
meun.	meunerie
microbiol.	microbiologie
mil.	militaire
min.	mines et minières
minér.	minéralogie
mobil.	mobilier
mod.	moderne
monn.	monnaies
mor.	morale
mus.	musique
mycol.	mycologie
myth.	mythologie, mythologique
N.	nord
n.	nom, neutre
navig. fl.	navigation fluviale
néerl.	néerlandais
néol.	néologisme
neurol.	neurologie
n. f.	nom féminin
n. f. pl.	nom féminin pluriel
n. m.	nom masculin
n. m. pl.	nom masculin pluriel
n°	numéro
norm.	normand
norv.	norvégien
n. pr.	nom propre
numism.	numismatique
O.	ouest
obsc.	obscur
obstétr.	obstétrique
occult.	occultisme
océanogr.	océanographie
œnol.	œnologie
onomat.	onomatopée, onomatopéique
ophtalmol.	ophtalmologie
opt.	optique
ordin.	ordinairement

orfèvr.	orfèvrerie
organ.	organisation du travail
orig.	origine
ornith.	ornithologie
orth.	orthographe, orthographique
ostréic.	ostréiculture
paléobot.	paléobotanique
paléogr.	paléographie
paléont.	paléontologie
papet.	industrie du papier
par anal.	par analogie
parasitol.	parasitologie
par compar.	par comparaison
par exagér.	par exagération
par ext.	par extension
parfum.	parfumerie
par oppos.	par opposition
par plaisant.	par plaisanterie
part.	participe
partic.	particulier, particulièrement
part. pass.	participe passé
part. prés.	participe présent
pathol.	pathologie
pâtiss.	pâtisserie
p.-é.	peut-être
peauss.	cuirs, peaux, pelleterie
pêch.	pêche
pédag.	pédagogie
pédiatr.	pédiatrie
pédol.	pédologie
peint.	peinture, peintures et couleurs
péjor.	péjoratif, péjorativement
pers.	persan, personne, personnel
pétr.	industrie du pétrole
pétrochim.	pétrochimie
pétrogr.	pétrographie
peu us.	peu usité
pharm.	pharmacie, pharmacologie
philat.	philatélie
philol.	philologie
philos.	philosophie
phon.	phonétique
phot.	photographie
phys.	physique
phys. nucl.	physique nucléaire
physiol.	physiologie
piscic.	pisciculture
pl. ou plur.	pluriel
plaisamm.	plaisamment
pl.-q.-parf.	plus-que-parfait
pneumol.	pneumologie
poét.	poétique, poétiquement
polit.	politique
polon.	polonais
pop.	populaire, populairement, population
portug.	portugais
poss.	possessif
pr.	propre
pr. ou pron.	pronom, pronominal, pronominalement
précéd.	précédent
précisém.	précisément
préf.	préfixe
préhist.	préhistoire
prép.	préposition, prépositif
prés.	présent
prestidig.	prestidigitation
princ.	principal
principalem.	principalement
probabl.	probablement
procéd.	procédure
pron. dém.	pronom démonstratif
pron. indéf.	pronom indéfini
pron. interr.	pronom interrogatif
pron. pers.	pronom personnel
pron. poss.	pronom possessif
pron. rel.	pronom relatif
prononc.	prononciation
proprem.	proprement
prosod.	prosodie
prov.	proverbe, proverbialement, provençal
psychanal.	psychanalyse
psychiatr.	psychiatrie
psychol.	psychologie
psychopathol.	psychopathologie
pyrotechn.	pyrotechnie
qqch.	quelque chose
qqf.	quelquefois
qqn	quelqu'un
rad.	radical
radio.	radiodiffusion, radiotechnique
radiol.	radiologie
réfl.	réfléchi
rel.	reliure
relat.	relatif
relig.	religion, religieux
rem.	remarque
rhét.	rhétorique
rom.	roman
roum.	roumain
S.	sud
s.	siècle
sanskr.	sanskrit
savonn.	savonnerie
sc.	sciences
sc. occult.	sciences occultes
scand.	scandinave
scientif.	scientifique
scol.	scolaire
scolast.	scolastique
sculpt.	sculpture
s. d.	sans doute
séricic.	sériciculture
sérol.	sérologie
sexol.	sexologie
signif.	signifie, signifiant
simplem.	simplement
sing.	singulier
sociol.	sociologie
sorcell.	sorcellerie
souv.	souvent
spécialem.	spécialement
spéléol.	spéléologie
sport.	sports
stat.	statistiques
styl.	stylistique
subj.	subjonctif
subst.	substantif
substantiv.	substantivement
sucr.	industrie du sucre
suéd.	suédois
suff.	suffixe
sup.	supérieur, supin
superl.	superlatif
superst.	superstition
sylvic.	sylviculture
symb.	symbole
syn.	synonyme
syr.	syrien, syriaque
techn.	technique
technol.	technologie
télécomm.	télécommunications
télév.	télévision
tératol.	tératologie
text.	textiles
théâtr.	théâtre
théol.	théologie
thérap.	thérapeutique
tiss.	tissage
tonnell.	tonnellerie
topogr.	topographie
toxicol.	toxicologie
tr.	transitif, transitivement
trad.	traduction, traduit
trav. publ.	travaux publics
triv.	trivial
trivialem.	trivialement
turf.	turf
urban.	urbanisme
usuell.	usuellement
v.	verbe, vers, ville, voir
vann.	vannerie
var.	variante
v. impers.	verbe impersonnel
v. intr.	verbe intransitif
v. pr.	verbe pronominal
v. tr.	verbe transitif
v. tr. ind.	verbe transitif indirect
vénér.	vénerie
verr.	verrerie
versific.	versification
vétér.	art vétérinaire
vitic.	viticulture
vulg.	vulgaire, vulgairement
vx.	vieux
yacht.	yachting
zool.	zoologie, zoologique
zootechn.	zootechnie

Random House Webster's College Dictionary (1991:xxxii)

ABBREVIATION KEY

* unattested, reconstructed
< descended from, borrowed from
<< descended from, borrowed from through intermediate stages not shown
= equivalent to
> whence

ab. about
Abbr., abbr. abbreviation
abl. ablative
acc. accusative
adj. adjective, adjectival
adv. adverb, adverbial
AF Anglo-French
Afr. African
Afrik Afrikaans
AL Anglo-Latin
alter. alteration
Amer American
Amer. Americanism
AmerSp American Spanish
aph. aphetic
appar. apparently
Ar, Arab. Arabic
assoc. association
at. no. atomic number
at. wt. atomic weight
aug. augmentative
b. blend of, blended
bef. before
Bot. Botany
Brit. British
Bulg. Bulgarian
c about (Latin *circa*)
c. cognate with
CanF Canadian French
Cap. capital (of country or state)
cap., caps. capital, capitals
cent. century
Cf., cf. compare (Latin *confer*)
Ch. Church
Chin, Chin. Chinese
cm. centimeter(s)
Com. Commerce
comb. form combining form
comp., compar. comparative
conj. conjunction
contr. contraction
Cor. Corinthians
D Dutch
d. died
Dan. Danish
Dan. Daniel
dat. dative
def., defs. definition, definitions
der. derivative
Deut. Deuteronomy
diag. diagram
Dial., dial. dialect, dialectal
dim. diminutive
disting. distinguished
Du. Dutch
E English
E east, eastern
EGmc East Germanic
Eng. England, English
esp. especially
etym. etymology, etymological
Ex. Exodus
Ezek. Ezekiel
F French
fem. feminine
fig. figurative
Fin. Finnish
fl. flourished
fol. followed
Fr. French
freq. frequentative
Fris Frisian
ft. foot, feet
fut. future
G German
Gal. Galatians
Gallo-Rom Gallo-Romance
Gen. Genesis
gen. genitive
Ger. German
ger. gerund, gerundive
Gk, Gk. Greek
Gmc Germanic
Go Gothic
Heb, Heb. Hebrew
Hos. Hosea
Icel, Icel. Icelandic
IE Indo-European
illus. illustration
imit. imitative
imper. imperative
impv. imperative
in. inch(es)
Ind., indic. indicative
inf. infinitive
interj. interjection
intransit. intransitive
Ir Irish
irreg. irregular, irregularly
Isa. Isaiah
It. It. Italian
Japn, Japn. Japanese
Jer. Jeremiah
km kilometer(s)
Kor. Korean
L Latin
LaF Louisiana French
Lat. Latin
l.c. lowercase
Lev. Leviticus
LG Low German
LGk Late Greek
Ling. Linguistics
lit. literally
Lith Lithuanian
LL Late Latin
m meter(s)
Mach. Machinery
masc. masculine
Matt. Matthew
MChin Middle Chinese
MD Middle Dutch
ME Middle English
Mech. Mechanics
MexSp Mexican Spanish
MF Middle French
MGk Medieval Greek
MHG Middle High German
mi. mile(s)
MIr Middle Irish
ML Medieval Latin
MLG Middle Low German
mm millimeter(s)
mod. modern
ModGk Modern Greek
ModHeb Modern Hebrew
MPers Middle Persian
N north, northern
n. noun, nominal
Neh. Nehemiah
neut. neuter
NL New Latin
nom. nominative
Norw, Norw. Norwegian
n.pl. plural noun
Num. Numbers
obj. objective
obl. oblique
Obs., obs. obsolete
Oc Occitan
OCS Old Church Slavonic
OE Old English
OF Old French
OFris Old Frisian
OHG Old High German
OIr Old Irish
OL Old Latin
ON Old Norse
ONF Old North French
OPers Old Persian
OPr Old Provençal
OPruss Old Prussian
orig. origin, originally
ORuss Old Russian
OS Old Saxon
OSp Old Spanish
PaG Pennsylvania German
pass. passive
past part. past participle
perh. perhaps
Pers, Pers. Persian
pers. person
Pg Portuguese
pl. plural
Pol, Pol. Polish
Port. Portuguese
poss. possessive
pp. past participle
prec. preceded
prep. preposition
pres. present, present tense
pres. part. present participle
prob. probably
Pron., pron. pronunciation, pronounced
pron. pronoun
Pros. Prosody
prp. present participle
pt. preterit (past tense)
ptp. past participle
r. replacing
redupl. reduplication
repr. representing
resp. respelling, respelled
Rev. Revelations
Rom Romance
Rom. Roman, Romanian
Russ Russian
S south, southern
s. stem
Sam. Samuel
Scand Scandinavian
Scot. Scottish
ScotGael Scottish Gaelic
sing. singular
Skt, Skt. Sanskrit
Sp, Sp. Spanish
sp. spelling, spelled
SpAr Spanish Arabic
sp. gr. specific gravity
sq. square
subj. subjunctive
superl. superlative
Sw, Sw. Swedish
SwissF Swiss French
syll. syllable
Syn. Synonym (Study)
trans. translation
transit. transitive
Turk. Turkish
ult. ultimately
uncert. uncertain
usu. usually
v. verb, verbal
var. variant
var. s. variant stem
v.i. intransitive verb
VL Vulgar Latin
voc. vocative
v.t. transitive verb
W west, western
WGmc West Germanic
yd. yard(s)

Harrap's Standard French and English Dictionary (1972:xxvii-xxix)

Abbreviations Used in the Dictionary
Abréviations Utilisées dans le Dictionnaire

A:	*archaism; ancient; in former use*	désuet
a., adj.	*adjective*	adjectif
abbr.	*abbreviation*	abréviation
abs.	*absolutely; absolute use*	emploi absolu
Ac:	*acoustics*	acoustique
acc.	*accusative*	accusatif
Adm:	*administration; civil service*	administration
adv.	*adverb*	adverbe
adv.phr.	*adverbial phrase*	locution adverbiale
Aer:	*aeronautics*	aéronautique
Agr:	*agriculture*	agriculture
A.Hist:	*ancient history*	histoire ancienne
Alch:	*alchemy*	alchimie
Alg:	*algebra*	algèbre
Algae:	*algae*	algues
Amph:	*Amphibia*	amphibiens
Anat:	*anatomy*	anatomy
Ann:	*Annelida, worms*	annelés
Ant:	*antiquity, antiquities*	antiquité
Anthr:	*anthropology*	anthropologie
Ap:	*apiculture*	apiculture
approx:	*approximately*	sens approché
Ar:	*arithmetic*	arithmétique
Arach:	*Arachnida*	arachnides
Arb:	*arboriculture*	arboriculture; sylviculture
Arch:	*architecture*	architecture
Archeol:	*archaeology*	archéologie
Arm:	*armour*	armure
Arms:	*arms; armaments*	armes; armements
art.	*article*	article
Art:	*art*	beaux-arts
Artil:	*artillery*	artillerie
Astr:	*astronomy*	astronomie
Astrol:	*astrology*	astrologie
Astro-Ph:	*astrophysics*	astrophysique
Atom.Ph:	*atomic physics*	sciences atomiques
attrib.	*attributive*	attributif
Austr.	*Australia; Australian*	Australie; australien
Aut:	*motoring; automobile industry*	automobilisme; industrie automobile
aux.	*auxiliary*	auxiliaire
Av:	*aviation; aircraft*	aviation; avions
B:	*Bible; biblical*	Bible; biblique
Bac:	*bacteriology*	bactériologie
Bak:	*baking*	boulangerie
Ball:	*ballistics*	ballistique
Bank:	*banking*	opérations de banque
Belg:	*Belgium; Belgian*	Belgique; belge
B.Hist:	*Bible history*	histoire sainte
Bib:	*bibliography*	bibliographie
Bill:	*billiards*	jeu de billard
Bio-Ch:	*biochemistry*	biochimie
Biol:	*biology*	biologie
Bookb:	*bookbinding*	reliure
Book-k:	*book-keeping*	comptabilité
Bootm:	*boot and shoe industry*	cordonnerie; industrie de la chaussure
Bot:	*botany*	botanique
Box:	*boxing*	boxe
Breed:	*breeding*	élevage
Brew:	*brewing*	brasserie
Brickm:	*brickmaking*	briqueterie
card.a.	*cardinal adjective*	adjectif cardinal
Cards:	*card games*	jeu de cartes
Carp:	*carpentry*	charpenterie; menuiserie du bâtiment
Cav:	*cavalry*	cavalerie
Cer:	*ceramics*	céramique
cf.	*refer to*	conferatur
Ch:	*chemistry*	chimie
Chess:	*chess*	jeu d'échecs
Chr:	*chronology*	chronologie
Cin:	*cinema*	cinéma
Civ:	*civilization*	civilisation
Civ.E:	*civil engineering*	génie civil
Cl:	*classical: Greek or Roman antiquity*	classique; antiquité grecque ou romaine
Clockm:	*clock and watch making*	horlogerie
Coel:	*Coelenterata*	cœlentérés
cogn.acc.	*cognate accusative*	accusatif de l'objet interne
Cokem:	*cokemaking*	industrie du coke
coll.	*collective*	collectif
Com:	*commerce; business term*	(terme du) commerce
comb.fm.	*combining form*	forme de combinaison
Comest:	*comestibles, food*	comestibles
comp.	*comparative*	comparatif
Conch:	*conchology*	conchyliologie
condit.	*conditional*	conditionnel
conj.	*conjunction*	conjonction
conj. like	*conjugated like*	se conjuge comme
Const:	*construction, building industry*	industrie du bâtiment
Coop:	*cooperage*	tonnellerie
Corr:	*correspondence, letters*	correspondance, lettres
Cost:	*costume; clothing*	costume; habillement
cp.	*compare*	comparer
Cr:	*cricket*	cricket
Crust:	*Crustacea*	crustacés
Cryst:	*crystallography*	cristallographie
Cu:	*culinary; cooking*	culinaire; cuisine
Cust:	*customs*	douane
Cy:	*cycles; cycling*	bicyclettes; cyclisme
Danc:	*dancing*	danse
dat.	*dative*	datif
def.	(i) *definitive;* (ii) *defective (verb)*	(i) défini; (ii) (verbe) défectif
dem.	*demonstrative*	démonstratif
Dent:	*dentistry*	art dentaire
Dial:	*dialectal*	dialectal
dim.	*diminutive*	diminutif
Dipl:	*diplomacy; diplomatic*	diplomatie; diplomatique
Dist:	*distilling*	distillation
Dom.Ec:	*domestic economy; household equipment*	économie domestique; ménage
Draw:	*drawing*	dessin
Dressm:	*dressmaking*	couture (mode)
Dy:	*dyeing*	teinture

Dyn:	*dynamics*	dynamique
E.	*east*	est
E:	*engineering*	industries mécaniques
Ecc:	*ecclesiastical*	église et clergé
Echin:	*Echinodermata*	échinodermes
e.g.	*for example*	par exemple
El:	*electricity; electrical*	électricité; électrique
El.Ch:	*electrochemistry*	électrochimie
Elcs.	*electronics*	électronique
El.E:	*electrical engineering*	électrotechnique
Eng:	*England; English*	Angleterre; anglais, britannique
Engr:	*engraving*	gravure
Ent:	*entomology*	entomologie
Equit:	*equitation*	équitation
esp.	*especially*	surtout
etc.	*et cetera*	et cætera
Eth:	*ethics*	morale
Ethn:	*ethnology*	ethnologie
Exp:	*explosives*	explosifs
f.	*feminine*	féminin
F:	*colloquial(ism)*	familier; style de la conversation
Farr:	*farriery*	maréchalerie
Fb:	*(Association) football*	football
Fenc:	*fencing*	escrime
Ferns:	*ferns*	fougères
Fin:	*finance*	finances
Fish:	*fishing*	pêche
For:	*forestry*	forêts
Fort:	*fortification*	fortification
Fr.	*France; French*	France; français
Fr.C:	*French Canadian*	canadien français
fu.	*future*	futur
Fuel:	*fuel*	combustibles
Fung:	*fungi*	champignons
Furn:	*furniture*	mobilier
Games:	*games*	jeux
Gaming:	*gaming; gambling*	le jeu; jeux d'argent
Gasm:	*gasmaking*	industrie du gaz
Geog:	*geography*	géographie
Geol:	*geology*	géologie
Geom:	*geometry*	géométrie
ger.	*gerund*	gérondif
Glassm:	*glassmaking*	verrerie
Gr.	*Greek*	grec
Gr.Alph:	*Greek alphabet*	alphabet grec
Gr.Ant:	*Greek antiquity*	antiquité grecque
Gr.Civ:	*Greek civilization*	civilisation grecque
Gr.Hist:	*Greek history*	histoire grecque
Gram:	*grammar*	grammaire
Gym:	*gymnastics*	gymnastique
Hairdr:	*hairdressing*	coiffure
Harn:	*harness; saddlery*	sellerie; harnais
Hatm:	*hatmaking*	chapellerie
Her:	*heraldry*	blason
Hist:	*history; historical*	histoire; historique
Hor:	*horology*	horométrie
Hort:	*horticulture*	horticulture
Hum:	*humorous*	humoristique
Husb:	*animal husbandry*	élevage
Hyd:	*hydraulics; hydrostatics*	hydraulique; hydrostatique
Hyg:	*hygiene; sanitation*	hygiène; installations sanitaires
i.	*intransitive*	intransitif
I.C.E:	*internal combustion engines*	moteurs à combustion interne
Ich:	*ichthyology; fish*	ichtyologie; poissons
Ill:	*illuminants; lighting*	illuminants; éclairage
Imp.	*imperative*	impératif
Impers.	*impersonal*	impersonnel
Ind.	*indicative*	indicatif
Ind:	*industry; industrial*	industrie; industriel
Indef.	*indefinite*	indéfini
Ind.tr.	*indirectly transitive*	transitif avec régime indirect
Inf.	*infinitive*	infinitif
Ins:	*insurance*	assurance
Int.	*interjection*	interjection
Internat:	*international*	international
Interr.	*interrogative*	interrogatif
Inv.	*invariable*	invariable
Iron:	*ironic(ally)*	ironique(ment)
Jap:	*Japanese*	japonais
Jew:	*Jewish*	juif, juive
Jewel:	*jewellery*	bijouterie
Join:	*joinery*	menuiserie
Journ:	*journalism; journalistic*	journalisme; style journalistique
Jur:	*jurisprudence; legal term*	droit; terme de palais
Knitting:	*knitting*	tricot
Lacem:	*lacemaking*	dentellerie
Lap:	*lapidary arts*	arts lapidaires; taillerie
Laund:	*laundering*	blanchissage
Leath:	*leatherwork*	travail du cuir
Leg:	*legislation*	législation
Ling:	*linguistics; language*	linguistique; langue
Lit:	*literary use; literature; literary*	forme littéraire; littérature; littéraire
Lith:	*lithography*	lithographie
Locksm:	*locksmithery*	serrurerie
Log:	*logic*	logique
Lt.	*Latin*	latin
m.	*masculine*	masculin
Magn:	*magnetism*	magnétisme
Mapm:	*mapmaking*	cartographie
Matchm:	*match industry*	industrie des allumettes
Mch:	*machines; machinery*	machines; machines à vapeur
Mch.Tls:	*machine tools*	machines-outils
Meas:	*weights and measures*	poids et mesures
Mec:	*mechanics*	mécanique
Mec.E:	*mechanical engineering*	industries mécaniques
Med:	*medicine; illnesses*	médecine; maladies
Metall:	*metallurgy*	métallurgie
Metalw:	*metalworking*	travail des métaux
Metaph:	*metaphysics*	métaphysique
Meteor:	*meteorology*	météorologie
Mil:	*military; army*	militaire; armée de terre
Mill:	*milling*	meunerie
Min:	*mining and quarrying*	exploitation des mines et carrières
Miner:	*mineralogy*	minéralogie
M.Ins:	*marine insurance*	assurance maritime
Moll:	*molluscs*	mollusques
Moss:	*mosses and lichens*	muscinées
Mount:	*mountaineering*	alpinisme
Mth:	*mathematics*	mathématiques
Mus:	*music*	musique
Myr:	*Myriapoda*	myriapodes
Myth:	*mythology; myths and legends*	mythologie; mythes et légendes
n.		nous
N.	*north*	nord
N.Arch:	*naval architecture*	architecture navale
Nat.Hist:	*natural history*	histoire naturelle
Nau:	*nautical*	terme de marine
Nav:	*navigation*	navigation
Navy:	*Navy*	marine militaire
Needlew:	*needlework*	couture (travaux d'aiguille)
neg.	*negative*	négatif
neut.	*neuter*	neutre
nom.	*nominative*	nominatif
Num:	*numismatics*	numismatique
num.a.	*numeral adjective*	adjectif numéral
O:	*obsolescent*	vieilli
Obst:	*obstetrics*	obstétrique
Oc:	*oceanography*	océanographie
occ.	*occasionally*	parfois
onomat.	*onomatopoeia*	onomatopée
Opt:	*optics*	optique
Orn:	*ornithology; birds*	ornithologie; oiseaux
Ost:	*ostreiculture; oysters*	ostréiculture; huîtres
p.	(i) *past;* (ii) *participle*	(i) passé; (ii) participe
P:	*uneducated speech; slang*	expression populaire; argot
Paint:	*painting trade*	peinture en bâtiment
Pal:	*paleography*	paléographie
Paleont:	*paleontology*	paléontologie
Paperm:	*papermaking*	fabrication du papier

Parl:	*parliament*	parlement
Path:	*pathology*	pathologie
p.d.	*imperfect, past descriptive (tense)*	imparfait (de l'indicatif), passé descriptif
Pej:	*pejorative*	péjoratif
perf.	*perfect (tense)*	passé composé
pers.	*person(s); personal*	personne(s); personnel
p.h.	*past historic, past definite (tense)*	passé historique, passé simple
Ph:	*physics*	physique
Pharm:	*pharmacy*	pharmacie
Ph.Geog:	*physical geography*	géographie physique
Phil:	*philosophy*	philosophie
Phot:	*photography*	photographie
Phot.Engr:	*photo-engraving; process work*	procédés photomécaniques; photogravure
phr.	*phrase*	locution
Phren:	*phrenology*	phrénologie
Physiol:	*physiology*	physiologie
Pisc:	*pisciculture*	pisciculture
pl.	*plural*	pluriel
Plumb:	*plumbing*	plomberie
P.N:	*public notice*	affichage; avis au public
Poet:	*poetical*	poétique
Pol:	*politics; political*	politique
Pol.Ec:	*political economy, economics*	économie politique
poss.	*possessive*	possessif
Post:	*postal services*	postes et télécommunications
p.p.	*past participle*	participe passé
pr.	*present (tense)*	présent (de l'indicatif)
pref.	*prefix*	préfixe
Prehist:	*prehistory*	préhistoire
prep.	*preposition*	préposition
prep.phr.	*prepositional phrase*	locution prépositive
Pr.n.	*proper name*	nom propre
pron.	*pronoun*	pronom
Pros:	*prosody*	prosodie; métrique
Prot:	*Protozoa*	protozoaires
Prov:	*proverb*	proverbe
pr.p.	*present participle*	participe présent
Psy:	*psychology*	psychologie
Psychics:	*psychics*	métapsychisme
Publ:	*publishing*	édition
Pyr:	*pyrotechnics*	pyrotechnie
qch.		quelque chose
qn		quelqu'un
q.v.	*which see*	se reporter à ce mot
Rac:	*racing*	courses
Rad.-A:	*radioactivity*	radioactivité
Rail:	*railways, railroads*	chemins de fer
R.C.Ch:	*Roman Catholic Church*	Église catholique
Rec:	*tape recorders; record players*	magnétophones; tourne-disques
rel.	*relative*	relatif
Rel:	*religion(s)*	religion(s)
Rel.H:	*religious history*	histoire des religions
Rept:	*reptiles*	reptiles
Rh:	*rhetoric*	rhétorique
Rom:	*Roman*	romain, romaine
Ropem:	*ropemaking*	corderie
Row:	*rowing*	aviron
R.t.m:	*registered trade mark*	marque déposée
Rubberm:	*rubber manufacture*	industrie du caoutchouc
Rugby Fb:	*Rugby (football)*	le rugby
Russ:	*Russian*	russe
S.	*south*	sud
s., sb.	*substantive, noun*	substantif, nom
s.a.	*see also*	voir
Sch:	*schools and universities; students' (slang, etc.)*	université; écoles; (argot, etc.) scolaire
Scot:	*Scotland; Scottish*	Écosse; écossais
Scouting:	*Scout and Guide Movements*	scoutisme
Sculp:	*sculpture*	sculpture
Ser:	*sericulture*	sériciculture
sg.	*singular*	singulier
Ski:	*skiing*	le ski
Sm.a:	*small arms*	armes portatives
s.o.	*someone*	
Soapm:	*soapmaking*	savonnerie
Soc.H:	*social history*	histoire sociale
Sp:	*sport*	sport
Space:	*astronautics; space travel*	astronautique; voyages interplanétaires
Spong:	*sponges*	spongiaires
St.Exch:	*Stock Exchange*	terme de Bourse
sth.	*something*	
Stonew:	*stoneworking*	taille de la pierre
sub.	*subjunctive*	subjonctif
suff.	*suffix*	suffixe
Sug.-R:	*sugar refining*	raffinerie du sucre
sup.	*superlative*	superlatif
Surg:	*surgery*	chirurgie
Surv:	*surveying*	géodésie et levé de plans
Swim:	*swimming*	natation
Sw.Fr:	*Swiss French*	mot utilisé en Suisse
Switz:	*Switzerland*	la Suisse
Tail:	*tailoring*	mode masculine
Tan:	*tanning*	tannage des cuirs
Tchn:	*technical*	terme technique, terme de métier
Telecom:	*telecommunications*	télécommunications
Ten:	*tennis*	tennis
Ter:	*teratology*	tératologie
Tex:	*textiles, textile industry*	industries textiles
Tg:	*telegraphy*	télégraphie
Th:	*theatre; theatrical*	théâtre
Theol:	*theology*	théologie
thg	*thing(s)*	
Tls:	*tools*	outils
Toil:	*toilet; make up*	toilette; maquillage
Torp:	*torpedoes*	torpilles
Town P:	*town planning*	urbanisme
Toys:	*toys*	jouets
Tp:	*telephony*	téléphonie
tr.	*transitive*	transitif
Trans:	*transport*	transports
Trig:	*trigonometry*	trigonométrie
Turb:	*turbines*	turbines
Turf:	*turf, horse racing*	turf
T.V:	*television*	télévision
Typ:	*typography*	typographie
Typew:	*typing; typewriters*	dactylographie; machines à écrire
U.S:	*United States; American*	États-Unis; américain
usu.	*usually*	d'ordinaire
v.	*verb*	verbe
v.		vous
V:	*vulgar; not in polite use*	trivial
Veh:	*vehicles*	véhicules
Ven:	*venery; hunting*	la chasse
Vet:	*veterinary science*	art vétérinaire
v.i.	*intransitive verb*	verbe intransitif
v.ind.tr.	*indirectly transitive verb*	verbe transitif indirect
Vit:	*viticulture*	viticulture
voc.	*vocative*	vocatif
v.pr.	*pronominal verb*	verbe pronominal
v.tr.	*transitive verb*	verbe transitif
W.	*west*	ouest
Wine-m:	*wine making*	l'industrie du vin
Woodw:	*woodworking*	menuiserie
Wr:	*wrestling*	la lutte
W.Tel:	*wireless telegraphy and telephony; radio*	téléphonie et télégraphie sans fil; radio
W.Tg:	*wireless telegraphy*	télégraphie sans fil
W.Tp:	*wireless telephony*	téléphonie sans fil
Y:	*yachting*	yachting
Z:	*zoology; mammals*	zoologie; mammifères
=	*nearest equivalent (of an institution, an office, etc., when systems vary in the different countries)*	équivalent le plus proche (d'un terme désignant une institution, une charge, etc., dans les cas où les systèmes varient dans les différents pays)

Robert & Collins Senior, Dictionnaire français-anglais/anglais-français (1993)

Abréviations utilisées dans le dictionnaire		*Abbreviations used in the dictionary*
abréviation	*abrév, abbr*	abbreviated, abbreviation
adjectif	*adj*	adjective
administration	*Admin*	administration
adverbe	*adv*	adverb
agriculture	*Agr*	agriculture
anatomie	*Anat*	anatomy
antiquité	*Antiq*	ancient history
approximativement	*approx*	approximately
archéologie	*Archéol, Archeol*	archaeology
architecture	*Archit*	architecture
argot	*arg*	slang
article	*art*	article
astrologie	*Astrol*	astrology
astronomie	*Astron*	astronomy
attribut	*attrib*	predicative
automobile	*Aut*	automobiles
auxiliaire	*aux*	auxiliary
aviation	*Aviat*	aviation
biologie	*Bio*	biology
botanique	*Bot*	botany
britannique, Grande-Bretagne	*Brit*	British, Great Britain
canadien, Canada	*Can*	Canadian, Canada
chimie	*Chim, Chem*	chemistry
cinéma	*Ciné, Cine*	cinema
commerce	*Comm*	commerce
mots composés	*comp*	compound, in compounds
comparatif	*compar*	comparative
informatique	*Comput*	computing
conditionnel	*cond*	conditional
conjonction	*conj*	conjunction
construction	*Constr*	building trade
cuisine	*Culin*	cookery
défini	*déf, def*	definite
démonstratif	*dém, dem*	demonstrative
dialectal, régional	*dial*	dialect
diminutif	*dim*	diminutive
direct	*dir*	direct

écologie	*Ecol*	ecology
économique	*Écon, Econ*	economics
écossais, Écosse	*Écos*	Scottish, Scotland
enseignement	*Éduc, Educ*	education
par exemple	*eg*	for example
électricité, électronique	*Élec, Elec*	electricity, electronics
épithète	*épith*	before noun
surtout	*esp*	especially
et cetera	*etc*	etcetera
euphémisme	*euph*	euphemism
par exemple	*ex*	for example
exclamation	*excl*	exclamation
féminin	*f*	feminine
figuré	*fig*	figuratively
finance	*Fin*	finance
féminin pluriel	*fpl*	feminine plural
formel, langue soignée	*frm*	formal language
football	*Ftbl*	football
fusionné	*fus*	fused
futur	*fut*	future
en général, généralement	*gén, gen*	in general, generally
géographie	*Géog, Geog*	geography
géologie	*Géol, Geol*	geology
géométrie	*Géom, Geom*	geometry
grammaire	*Gram*	grammar
gymnastique	*Gym*	gymnastics
héraldique	*Hér, Her*	heraldry
histoire	*Hist*	history
humoristique	*hum*	humorous
impératif	*impér,imper*	imperative
impersonnel	*impers*	impersonal
industrie	*Ind*	industry
indéfini	*indéf, indef*	indefinite
indicatif	*indic*	indicative
indirect	*indir*	indirect
infinitif	*infin*	infinitive
inséparable	*insep*	inseparable
interrogatif	*interrog*	interrogative
invariable	*inv*	invariable
irlandais, Irlande	*Ir*	Irish, Ireland
ironique	*iro*	ironic
irrégulier	*irrég*	irregular
droit, juridique	*Jur*	law, legal
linguistique	*Ling*	linguistics

littéral, au sens propre	*lit*	literally
littéraire	*liter*	literary
littérature	*Literat*	literature
littéraire	*littér*	literary
littérature	*Littérat*	literature
locutions	*loc*	locution
masculin	*m*	masculine
mathématique	*Math*	mathematics
médecine	*Méd, Med*	medicine
météorologie	*Mét, Met*	meteorology
métallurgie	*Métal, Metal*	metallurgy
masculin et féminin	*mf*	masculine and feminine
militaire	*Mil*	military
mines	*Min*	mining
minéralogie	*Minér, Miner*	mineralogy
masculin pluriel	*mpl*	masculine plural
musique	*Mus*	music
mythologie	*Myth*	mythology
nom	*n*	noun
nord de l'Angleterre	*NAngl*	North of England
nautique	*Naut*	nautical, naval
négatif	*nég, neg*	negative
nord de l'Angleterre	*NEngl*	North of England
nom féminin	*nf*	feminine noun
nom masculin	*nm*	masculine noun
nom masculin et féminin	*nmf*	masculine and feminine noun
nom masculin, féminin	*nm,f*	masculine, feminine noun
non comptable	*Non C*	uncountable
physique nucléaire	*Nucl Phys*	nuclear physics
numéral	*num*	numerical
objet	*obj*	object
opposé	*opp*	opposite
optique	*Opt*	optics
informatique	*Ordin*	computing
ornithologie	*Orn*	ornithology
emploi réfléchi	*o.s.*	oneself
parlement	*Parl*	parliament
passif	*pass*	passive
péjoratif	*péj, pej*	pejorative
personnel	*pers*	personal
pharmacie	*Pharm*	pharmacy
philatélie	*Philat*	philately
philosophie	*Philos*	philosophy

phonétique	*Phon*	phonetics
photographie	*Phot*	photography
verbe à particule	*phr vb elem*	phrasal verb element
physique	*Phys*	physics
physiologie	*Physiol*	physiology
pluriel	*pl*	plural
politique	*Pol*	politics
possessif	*poss*	possessive
préfixe	*préf, pref*	prefix
préposition	*prép, prep*	preposition
prétérit	*prét, pret*	preterite
pronom	*pron*	pronoun
proverbe	*Prov*	proverb
participe présent	*prp*	present participle
psychiatrie, psychologie	*Psych*	psychology, psychiatry
participe passé	*ptp*	past participle
quelque chose	*qch*	something
quelqu'un	*qn*	somebody, someone
marque déposée	®	registered trademark
radio	*Rad*	radio
chemin de fer	*Rail*	rail(ways)
relatif	*rel*	relative
religion	*Rel*	religion
quelqu'un	*sb*	somebody, someone
sciences	*Sci*	science
école	*Scol*	school
écossais, Écosse	*Scot*	Scottish, Scotland
sculpture	*Sculp*	sculpture
séparable	*sep*	separable
singulier	*sg*	singular
ski	*Ski*	skiing
argot	*sl*	slang
sociologie	*Sociol, Soc*	sociology, social work
terme de spécialiste	*SPÉC, SPEC*	specialist's term
Bourse	*St Ex*	Stock Exchange
quelque chose	*sth*	something
subjonctif	*subj*	subjunctive
suffixe	*suf*	suffix
superlatif	*superl*	superlative
chirurgie	*Surg*	surgery
arpentage	*Surv*	surveying
technique	*Tech*	technical
télécommunication	*Téléc, Telec*	telecommunications
industrie textile	*Tex*	textiles

théâtre	*Théât, Theat*	theatre
télévision	*TV*	television
typographie	*Typ*	typography
université	*Univ*	university
américain, États-Unis	*US*	American, United States
verbe	*vb*	verb
médecine vétérinaire	*Vét, Vet*	veterinary medicine
verbe intransitif	*vi*	intransitive verb
verbe pronominal	*vpr*	pronominal verb
verbe transitif	*vt*	transitive verb
verbe transitif et intransitif	*vti*	transitive and intransitive verb
verbe transitif indirect	*vt indir*	indirect transitive verb
zoologie	*Zool*	zoology

Grand dictionnaire français-anglais, anglais-français (1993:xii-xiii)

FIELD LABELS		DOMAINES
acoustics	ACOUST	acoustique
administration	ADMIN	administration
aeronautics	AERON/AÉRON	aéronautique
agriculture	AGR	agriculture
anatomy	ANAT	anatomie
anthropology	ANTHR	anthropologie
antiquity	ANTIQ	antiquité
archeology	ARCHEOL/ARCHÉOL	archéologie
architecture	ARCHIT	architecture
arms	ARM	armement
astrology	ASTROL	astrologie
astronomy	ASTRON	astronomie
astronautics	ASTRONAUT	astronautique
cars	AUT	automobile
biology	BIOL	biologie
botany	BOT	botanique
chemistry	CHEM/CHIM	chimie
cinema	CIN	cinéma
civil engineering	CIV ENG	travaux publics
commerce	COMM	commerce
accounting	COMPTA	comptabilité
computing	COMPUT	informatique
construction	CONSTR	construction
sewing	COUT	couture
cooking	CULIN	cuisine
dentistry	DENT	dentisterie
ecology	ECOL/ÉCOL	écologie
economics	ECON/ÉCON	économie
electricity	ELECTR/ÉLECTR	électricité
electronics	ELECTRON/ÉLECTRON	électronique
teaching	ENS	enseignement
entomology	ENTOM	entomologie
horseriding	EQUIT/ÉQUIT	équitation
ethnology	ETHN	ethnologie
finance	FIN	finance
football	FTBL	football
geography	GEOG/GÉOG	géographie
geology	GEOL/GÉOL	géologie
geometry	GEOM/GÉOM	géométrie
grammar	GRAMM	grammaire
heraldry	HERALD/HÉRALD	héraldique
history	HIST	histoire
horticulture	HORT	horticulture
hunting	HUNT	chasse
printing	IMPR	imprimerie
industry	INDUST	industrie
computing	INF	informatique
jewellery	JOAILL	joaillerie
law	JUR	juridique
linguistics, language	LING	linguistique, langues
literature	LITERAT/LITTÉRAT	littérature

mathematics	MATH	mathématiques
mechanics	MECH/MÉCAN	mécanique
medicine	MED/MÉD	médecine
carpentry	MENUIS	menuiserie
metallurgy	METALL/MÉTALL	métallurgie
meteorology	METEOR/MÉTÉO	météorologie
military	MIL	militaire
mining	MIN	mines
mineralogy	MINER/MINÉR	minéralogie
music	MUS	musique
mythology	MYTH	mythologie
nautical	NAUT	nautique
nuclear physics	NUCL	physique nucléaire
wines and wine-tasting	ŒNOL	œnologie
optics	OPT	optique
ornithology	ORNITH	ornithologie
petroleum industry	PETR/PÉTR	industrie du pétrole
pharmaceuticals	PHARM	pharmaceutique
philosophy	PHILOS	philosophie
phonetics	PHON	phonétique
photography	PHOT	photographie
physics	PHYS	physique
physiology	PHYSIOL	physiologie
poetry	POET	poésie
politics	POL	politique
printing	PRINT	imprimerie
psychology	PSYCH	psychologie
radio	RAD	radio
religion	RELIG	religion
school	SCH	scolaire
science	SCI/SC	science
sewing	SEW	couture
sociology	SOCIOL	sociologie
stock exchange	ST. EX	bourse
technology	TECH	technologie
telecommunications	TELEC/TÉLÉC	télécommunications
textiles	TEX/TEXT	textiles
theatre	THEAT/THÉÂT	théâtre
transport	TRANSP	transports
civil engineering	TRAV PUBL	travaux publics
television	TV	télévision
typography	TYPO	typographie
clothing	VÊT	vêtements
veterinary science	VETER/VÉTÉR	médecine vétérinaire
viniculture	VINIC	viniculture
zoology	ZOOL	zoologie

Oxford-Hachette French Dictionary (1994:lvii-lx)

Abbreviations and symbols
Abréviations et symboles

abbreviation	**abbrev, abrév**	abréviation
accountancy	**Accts**	comptabilité
adjective	**adj**	adjectif
demonstrative adjective	**adj dém**	adjectif démonstratif
exclamatory adjective	**adj excl**	adjectif exclamatif
indefinite adjective	**adj indéf**	adjectif indéfini
interrogative adjective	**adj inter**	adjectif interrogatif
adjectival phrase	**adj phr**	locution adjective
possessive adjective	**adj poss**	adjectif possessif
relative adjective	**adj rel**	adjectif relatif
administration	**Admin**	administration
adverb	**adv**	adverbe
adverbial phrase	**adv phr**	locution adverbiale
advertising	**Advertg**	publicité
aerospace	**Aerosp**	astronautique
agriculture	**Agric**	agriculture
anatomy	**Anat**	anatomie
anthropology	**Anthrop**	anthropologie
antiquity	**Antiq**	antiquité
archeology	**Archeol, Archéol**	archéologie
architecture	**Archit**	architecture
definite article	**art déf**	article défini
indefinite article	**art indéf**	article indéfini
insurance	**Assur**	assurance
astrology	**Astrol**	astrologie
astronomy	**Astron**	astronomie
aerospace	**Astronaut**	astronautique
Australian	**Austral**	anglais d'Australie
automobile	**Aut**	automobile
auxiliary	**aux**	auxiliaire
aviation	**Aviat**	aviation
Belgian French	**B**	belgicisme
biology	**Biol**	biologie
botany	**Bot**	botanique
Canadian French	**C**	canadianisme
European Community	**CEE**	Communauté européenne
chemistry	**Chem**	chimie
cinema	**Cin**	cinéma
civil engineering	**Civ Eng**	génie civil
commerce	**Comm**	commerce
accountancy	**Compta**	comptabilité
computing	**Comput**	informatique
conjunction	**conj**	conjonction
conjunctional phrase	**conj phr**	locution conjonctive
construction	**Constr**	construction, bâtiment
controversial	**controv**	usage critiqué
cosmetics	**Cosmet, Cosmét**	cosmétique
motor-racing	**Courses Aut**	courses automobiles
sewing	**Cout**	couture
culinary	**Culin**	culinaire

dentistry	**Dent**	dentisterie
determiner	**det, dét**	déterminant
indefinite determiner	**dét indéf**	déterminant indéfini
interrogative determiner	**dét inter**	déterminant interrogatif
numerical determiner	**dét num**	déterminant numérique
dialect	**dial**	dialecte
European Community	**EC**	Communauté européenne
ecology	**Ecol, Écol**	écologie
economy	**Econ, Écon**	économie
publishing	**Édition**	édition
electricity	**Elec**	électrotechnique
electronics	**Electron, Électron**	électronique
electricity	**Électrotech**	électrotechnique
management	**Entr**	entreprise
attributive	**épith**	épithète
equitation	**Equit, Équit**	équitation
euphemistic	**euph**	euphémique
exclamation	**excl**	exclamation
feminine	**f**	féminin
fashion	**Fashn**	mode
figurative	**fig**	figuré
finance	**Fin**	finance
tax	**Fisc**	fiscalité
fishing	**Fishg**	pêche
formal	**fml**	soutenu
British English	**GB**	anglais britannique
civil engineering	**Gén Civ**	génie civil
general	**gen, gén**	généralement
geography	**Geog, Géog**	géographie
geology	**Geol, Géol**	géologie
Swiss French	**H**	helvétisme
heraldry	**Herald, Hérald**	héraldique
history	**Hist**	histoire
horticulture	**Hort**	horticulture
humorous	**hum**	humoristique
hunting	**Hunt**	chasse
printing	**Imprim**	imprimerie
industry	**Ind**	industrie
offensive	**injur**	injurieux
insurance	**Insur**	assurance
Irish	**Ir**	anglais d'Irlande
ironic	**iron**	ironique
journalism	**Journ**	presse
journalese	**journ**	journalistique
law	**Jur**	droit
baby talk	**lang enfantin**	langage enfantin
linguistics	**Ling**	linguistique
literary	**liter, littér**	littéraire
literature	**Literat, Littérat**	littérature
phrase	**loc**	locution
adjectival phrase	**loc adj**	locution adjective
adverbial phrase	**loc adv**	locution adverbiale
conjunctional phrase	**loc conj**	locution conjonctive
noun phrase	**loc nom**	locution nominale
prepositional phrase	**loc prép**	locution prépositive

masculine	**m**	masculin
mathematics	**Math**	mathématique
measure, units etc	**Meas, Mes**	métrologie
mechanics	**Mécan**	mécanique
mechanics	**Mech**	mécanique
medicine	**Med, Méd**	médecine
meteorology	**Meteorol, Météo**	météorologie
management	**Mgmt**	entreprise
military	**Mil**	armée
navy	**Mil Naut**	marine
mineralogy	**Miner, Minér**	minéralogie
noun modifier	**modif**	modificateur
motor-racing	**Motor-racing**	courses automobiles
music	**Mus**	musique
mythology	**Mythol**	mythologie
noun	**n**	nom
nautical	**Naut**	nautisme
feminine noun	**nf**	nom féminin
masculine noun	**nm**	nom masculin
masculine and feminine noun	**nm,f**	nom masculin et féminin
masculine and feminine noun	**nmf**	nom masculin et féminin
proper noun	**npr**	nom propre
nuclear physics	**Nucl**	physique nucléaire
onomatopoeia	**onomat**	onomatopée
computing	**Ordinat**	informatique
pejorative	**pej, péj**	péjoratif
pharmacology	**Pharm**	pharmacie
philosophy	**Philos**	philosophie
phonetics, phonology	**Phon**	phonétique, phonologie
photography	**Phot**	photographie
physics	**Phys**	physique
physiology	**Physiol**	physiologie
plural	**pl**	pluriel
politics	**Pol**	politique
postal services	**Post**	postes
past participle	**pp**	participe passé
past participle adjective	**pp adj**	participe passé adjectif
present participle	**p prés**	participe présent
proper noun	**pr n**	nom propre
prepositional phrase	**prep phr**	locution prépositive
preposition	**prep, prép**	préposition
present participle adjective	**pres p adj**	participe présent adjectif
present	**pres, prés**	présent
preterit	**pret, prét**	prétérit
printing	**Print**	imprimerie
pronoun	**pron**	pronom
demonstrative pronoun	**pron dém**	pronom démonstratif
indefinite pronoun	**pron indéf**	pronom indéfini
interrogative pronoun	**pron inter**	pronom interrogatif
personal pronoun	**pron pers**	pronom personnel
pronominal phrase	**pron phr**	locution pronominale
possessive pronoun	**pron poss**	pronom possessif
relative pronoun	**pron rel**	pronom relatif
social security	**Prot Soc**	protection sociale
proverb	**Prov**	proverbe
psychology	**Psych**	psychologie
advertising	**Pub**	publicité
publishing	**Publg**	édition

something	**qch**	quelque chose
somebody	**qn**	quelqu'un
quantifier	**quantif**	quantificateur
religion	**Relig**	religion
somebody	**sb**	quelqu'un
school	**Sch**	école
sciences	**Sci**	sciences
school	**Scol**	école
Scottish	**Scot**	anglais d'Écosse
singular	**sg**	singulier
social security	**Soc Admin**	protection sociale
sociology	**Sociol**	sociologie
formal	**sout**	soutenu
specialist	**spec, spéc**	spécialiste
statistics	**Stat**	statistique
something	**sth**	quelque chose
technology	**Tech**	technologie
telecommunications	**Telecom, Télécom**	télécommunications
textiles	**Tex**	textile
theatre	**Theat, Théât**	théâtre
always	**tjrs**	toujours
transport	**Transp**	transport
television	**TV**	télévision
university	**Univ**	université
American	**US**	anglais américain
verb	**v**	verbe
impersonal verb	**v impers**	verbe impersonnel
reflexive verb	**v refl**	verbe pronominal
veterinary medicine	**Vet, Vét**	médecine vétérinaire
intransitive verb	**vi**	verbe intransitif
reflexive verb	**vpr**	verbe pronominal
transitive verb	**vtr**	verbe transitif
indirect transitive verb	**vtr ind**	verbe transitif indirect
zoology	**Zool**	zoologie
dated	†	vieilli
archaic	††	archaïque
trade mark*	®	marque déposée ou nom déposé*
informal	⊃	familier
very informal	◑	populaire
vulgar or taboo	●	vulgaire ou tabou
countable	C	dénombrable
uncountable	Ȼ	non dénombrable
swung dash used as substitute for headword	~	tiret ondulé de substitution
British spelling only: US spelling varies	GB	graphie britannique: il existe une graphie nord-américaine
indicates an approximate translation equivalent	≈	pour signaler un équivalent approximatif
cross-reference	▶	renvoi

***Proprietary terms** This dictionary includes some words which are, or are asserted to be, proprietary terms or trade marks. The presence or absence of such assertions should not be regarded as affecting the legal status of any proprietary name or trade mark.

***Les marques déposées** Les mots qui, à notre connaissance, sont considérés comme des marques ou des noms déposés sont signalés dans cet ouvrage par ®. La présence ou l'absence de cette mention ne peut pas être considérée comme ayant valeur juridique.

APPENDIX B: BCD SUBJECT FIELDS

Acoustique
Actuariat
Acupuncture
Administration
Aéronautique
Agriculture
Agroéconomie
Agronomie
Aïkido
Algèbre
Alpinisme
Anatomie
Anthropologie
Antiquité
Archéologie
Architecture
Arithmétique
Armée
Armement
Arpentage
Art culinaire
Art culinaire
(voir cuisine)
Arts
Arts graphiques
Arts plastiques
(voir arts visuels)
Arts visuels
Assurance
Astrologie
Astronautique
Astronomie
Astrophysique
Athlétisme
Automobile
Aviation

Badminton
Banque
Baseball
Basketball
Bâtiment
Billard
Bingo
Biologie
Blason
(voir héraldique)
Botanique
Bourse
Boxe
Bureautique

Cartes
Chasse
Chimie
Chirurgie
Cinéma
Climat
(voir météorologie)
Climatologie
Commerce
Comptabilité
Construction
Cosmétique
Course
Course automobile
Course de motocyclettes
Courses de chevaux
Couture
Criminologie
Cristallographie
Cuisine
Cyclisme
Cytologie

Dames
Danse
Démographie
Dentisterie
Dés
Dominos
Droit
Droit civil
Droit constitutionnel
Droit du travail
Droit fiscal
Droit international
Droit maritime
Droit pénal

Ébénisterie
Échecs
Écologie
Économie
Économique
(voir économie)
Éducation
Électricité
Électromagnétisme
Électronique
Électrotechnique
Enseignement
Entomologie
Environnement
Épistémologie
Équitation
Escalade
(voir alpinisme)
Escrime
Ethnographie
Ethnologie

Finances
Fiscalité
Fléchettes
Football
Foresterie

Généalogie
Génie
Génie chimique
Génie civil
Génie électrique
Génie électronique
Génie forestier

Génie hydraulique
Génie mécanique
Génie militaire
Génie naval
Géodésie
Géographie
Géologie
Géométrie
Géomorphologie
Géophysique
Gériatrie
Gestion
Golf
Grammaire
Gymnastique
Gynécologie

Haltérophilie
Handball
Héraldique
Hippisme
Histoire
Hockey
Homéopathie
Horticulture
Hydroélectricité
Hydrologie

Imprimerie
Industrie
Infographie
Informatique
Ingénierie
(voir génie)

Jeux
Jiu-jitsu
Joaillerie
Journalisme
Judo

Karaté
Kung-fu

Linguistique
Littérature
Lutte

Marine
Marketing
Mathématiques
Mécanique
Médecine
Médecine vétérinaire
Menuiserie
Métallurgie
Météorologie
Métrologie
Militaire
Minéralogie
Mines
Mode
Motocyclisme
Motoneigisme
Moyen âge
Musique
Mythologie

Natation
Nautisme
Navigation
Numismatique

Obstétrique
Océanographie
Odontologie
Oenologie
(voir viniculture)
Opéra
Ophtalmologie
Optique
Ornithologie
Orthodontie
Orthopédie
Ostéopathie
Oto-rhino-laryngologie

Paléographie
Paléontologie
Parachutisme
Parlement
Pathologie
Patin
Patin à roue alignées
Pêche
Pédagogie
Pédiatrie
Pédologie
Peinture
Pétrole
Pharmaceutique
(voir pharmacologie)
Pharmacie
(voir pharmacologie)
Pharmacologie
Philatélie
Philosophie
Phonétique
Phonologie
Photographie
Physiologie
Physique
Physique atomique
(voir physique nucléaire)
Physique des particules
(voir physique nucléaire)
Physique nucléaire
Ping-pong
(voir tennis de table)
Planche à neige
Planche à roulettes
Planche à voile
Plongeon
Poésie
Politique
Politologie
(voir sciences politiques)
Ponts et chaussées
Postes
Préhistoire
Presse

Psychanalyse
Psychiatrie
Psychologie
Publicité

Quilles

Radio
Religion
Rhétorique
Roulette
Rugby

Sciences
Sciences comptables
(voir comptabilité)
Sciences du sol
(voir pédologie)
Sciences politiques
Sciences sociales
Sculpture
Sémantique
Sigillographie
Ski
Ski nautique
Soccer
Sociologie
Sociométrie
Softball
Sports
Squash
Statistique
Sumo
Surfing
Sylviculture

Technique
Technologie
Télécommunications
Téléphonie
Télévision
Tennis
Tennis de table
Textile
Théâtre
Thermodynamique
Tourisme
Transports
Travaux publics
Typographie
(voir imprimerie)

Vélo
(voir cyclisme)
Vêtement
Vidéographie
Viniculture
Viticulture
(voir viniculture)
Vol à voile
Volleyball

Water-polo

Yachting

Zoologie
Zootechnie

FIELD CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM

A - SCIENCES ET TECHNOLOGIE

.AÉRONAUTIQUE
.ASTRONAUTIQUE
.ASTRONOMIE
.ASTROPHYSIQUE
.CHIMIE
.PHYSIQUE
..Acoustique
..Électromagnétisme
..Électricité
...Hydroélectricité
..Optique
..Physique nucléaire
..Thermodynamique
.SCIENCES DE LA TERRE
..Cristallographie
..Géodésie
Note: Science qui a pour objet l'étude de la forme, des dimensions et du champ de gravitation de la Terre
..Géographie
..Géologie
..Géomorphologie
..Géophysique
..Hydrologie
..Météorologie
..Climatologie
..Minéralogie
...Mines
..Océanographie
..Paléontologie
..Pédologie
Note: Branche de la géologie appliquée qui étudie les caractères chimiques, physiques et biologiques, l'évolution et la réparation des sols
.SCIENCES DE LA VIE
..Entomologie
..Biologie
..Botanique
..Écologie
..Environnement
..Ornithologie
..Zoologie
.SCIENCES MATHÉMATIQUES
..Actuariat
..Algèbre
..Arithmétique
..Géométrie
..Mathématiques
..Statistique
.SCIENCES MÉDICALES
..Anatomie
..Cytologie
..Pathologie
..Pharmacologie
..Physiologie
..Psychiatrie
..Médecine
..Chirurgie
..Dentisterie
...Odontologie
...Orthodontie
..Gériatrie
..Gynécologie
...Obstétrique
..Médecine vétérinaire
..Ophtalmologie
..Orthopédie
..Oto-rhino-laryngologie
..Pédiatrie
..Acupuncture
..Homéopathie
..Ostéopathie

.TECHNOLOGIE ET INGÉNIERIE
..Agriculture
..Agronomie
..Arpentage
..Zootechnie
..Horticulture
..Foresterie
...Sylviculture
Note: couvre plantage, entretien des arbres, y compris la taille
..Viniculture
..Informatique
..Métrologie
Note: Science des poids et des mesures
..Génie
...Génie forestier
Note: inclut machines, équipement et opérations — abattage des arbres, tronçonnage, etc.
...Génie militaire
....Armée
....Armement
....Militaire
...Génie naval
....Marine
....Navigation
...Génie civil
....Bâtiment
....Construction
....Ponts et chaussées
....Travaux publics
...Génie hydraulique
...Génie mécanique
....Mécanique
...Génie électrique
...Génie électronique
....Électronique
....Électrotechnique
...Génie chimique
..Métallurgie
..Télécommunications
...Journalisme
...Postes
...Presse
...Téléphonie
...Télévision
...Radio
..Transports
..Automobile
..Aviation
..Industrie
..Pétrole
..Technique
..Textile

B - SCIENCES SOCIALES

.SCIENCES ADMINISTRATIVES
..Administration
..Gestion
..Marketing
..Bureautique
..Publicité
.DÉMOGRAPHIE
.DROIT
..Droit international
..Droit constitutionnel
..Droit civil
..Droit pénal
...Criminologie
..Droit fiscal
..Droit maritime
..Droit du travail
.SCIENCES DE L'ÉDUCATION
..Éducation
..Enseignement
..Pédagogie
.SOCIOLOGIE
.ETHNOLOGIE
.ETHNOGRAPHIE
.ANTHROPOLOGIE
.LINGUISTIQUE
..Grammaire
..Phonétique
..Phonologie
..Sémantique
.SCIENCES DU COMPORTEMENT
..Astrologie
..Psychologie
..Psychanalyse
..Sociométrie
Note: Méthode d'application de la mesure aux relations et réactions humaines

.SCIENCES ÉCONOMIQUES
..Agroéconomie
..Assurance
..Banque
..Bourse
..Commerce
..Comptabilité
..Économie
..Finances
..Fiscalité
.SCIENCES POLITIQUES
..Parlement
..Politique

C - CULTURE ET HUMANITÉ

.HISTOIRE
..Préhistoire
..Antiquité
..Moyen âge
.ARCHÉOLOGIE
.HÉRALDIQUE
.GÉNÉALOGIE
Note: Science qui a pour objet la recherche de l'origine et de la filiation des familles
.NUMISMATIQUE
Note: Science des médailles et des monnaies
.PHILATÉLIE
.SIGILLOGRAPHIE
Note: Étude scientifique des sceaux
.PALÉOGRAPHIE
Note: Étude des écritures anciennes et de leur évolution dans les manuscrits qui nous les ont conservées
.PHILOSOPHIE
.ÉPISTÉMOLOGIE
Note: Théorie de la connaissance
.LITTÉRATURE
..Poésie
.RHÉTORIQUE
.RELIGION
.MYTHOLOGIE
.ARTS
..Arts graphiques
...Infographie
..Arts visuels
...Peinture
...Photographie
...Sculpture
...Vidéographie
..Cuisine
..Musique
..Cinéma
..Théâtre
..Opéra
..Danse
..Architecture
..Imprimerie
..Joaillerie

.ARTS
..Mode
...Vêtement
...Cosmétique
..Couture
..Menuiserie
..Ébénisterie
.LOISIRS
..Jeux et sports
...Jeux de balle et de ballon
....Football
....Rugby
....Soccer
....Badminton
....Golf
....Tennis
....Tennis de table
....Squash
....Handball
....Basketball
....Volleyball
....Baseball
....Softball
...Jeux d'habilité d'intérieur et jeux de hasard
....Quilles
....Échecs
....Dames
....Billard
....Fléchettes
....Cartes
....Dés
....Roulette
....Bingo
....Dominos

.LOISIRS
..Jeux et sports
...Sports de combat
....Boxe
....Lutte
....Sumo
....Judo
....Karaté
....Aïkido
....Kung-fu
....Jiu-jitsu
...Sports aériens
....Parachutisme
....Vol à voile
...Nautisme
....Ski nautique
....Planche à voile
....Surfing
....Yachting
...Sports aquatiques
....Water-polo
....Plongeon
....Natation
...Sports sur glace et sur neige
....Hockey
....Motoneigisme
....Patin
....Planche à neige
....Ski
...Sports sur roues
....Cyclisme
....Motocyclisme
....Patin à roues alignées
....planche à roulettes
...Gymnastique et athlétisme
....Athlétisme
....Course
....Gymnastique
....Haltérophilie
...Alpinisme
...Pêche
...Chasse
..Jeux et sports
...Escrime
...Hippisme
....Équitation
....Courses de chevaux
..Courses
...Course automobile
...Course de motocyclettes
..Tourisme

APPENDIX C: ALPHABETICAL LIST OF BCD SOURCES BY CODE

(Revised April 1996)

ACFAS	*Association canadienne-française pour l'avancement des sciences* (Textum).
ACTIV	*Language Activator*, Harlow, Longman, 1994.
AFF	*Affaires*. Journal hebdomadaire publié au Québec.
AH	*American Heritage Dictionary*, 2nd College Edition, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1976.
ALE92	*Canadian Global Almanac*, A Book of Facts, The, Toronto, Global Press, 1992.
ALF92	*L'Almanach du peuple*, Sylvie Camu, Réd., 123e année.
ANG	*Dictionnaire des anglicismes*, G. Colpron, St-Laurent, Beauchemin, 1982.
BBI	*BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English*, M. & E. Benson & R. Ilson, Philadelphia, Jonh Benjamins, 1986.
BELC	*Dictionnaire général de la langue française au Canada*, L.-A. Bélisle Québec, Bélisle Éditeur, 1971.
BELN	*Dictionnaire nord-américain de la langue française*, Louis-Alexandre Bélisle, Montréal, Beauchemin, 1986.
BER	*Dictionnaire de la langue québécoise*, L. Bergeron, Mtl, vlb, 1980.
BRU	*Brueckner's French Contextuary*, J. H. Brueckner, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice-Hall, 1975.
BT	*Bulletins terminologiques du Secrétariat d'État.*
BTQ	*Banque de terminologie du Québec.*
BVLM	*Beaver Lumber Catalogue.*
BVR	*Beaver, The.*
CAMBR	*Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1995.
CASS	*Cassell's French-English English-French Dictionary*, Ernest A. Baker Ed., London, Cassell & Company Ltd, 1920.
CC	*Canadian Consumer.*
CDC	*Concise Dictionary of Canadianisms*, Toronto, Gage, 1973.
CDEID	*Concise Dictionary of English Idioms*, 3rd ed., W. Freeman, Boston, The Writer, 1976.
CDS	*The Canadian Dictionary for Schools*, Canada, Collier Macmillan Canada Inc., 1981.
CE	*Canadian Encyclopedia.*
CEC	*Dictionnaire CEC Jeunesse*, J.-C. Boulanger *et al*, Mtl, CEC, 1986.
CEN	*The Canadian Encyclopedia*, multimedia version on CD-ROM, 1993.
CHAT	*Chatelaine.*
CHTF	*Châtelaine.*
CIR	*Circuit, magazine d'information sur la langue et la communication.* Montréal, STQ.
COCO	*Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary,* London, William Collins Sons & Co Ltd, 1988.
COCO2	*Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*, New edition, London, HarperCollins, 1995.

COD	*Concise Oxford Dictionary*, 8th ed., Oxford, OUP, 1990.
COLF	*Dictionary of Modern Colloquial Frenc*h, R. J. Hérail & E. A. Lovatt, NY, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1984.
COLL	*Collins English Dictionary*, P. Hanks & al, Glasgow, Collins, 1986.
COLLCONC	*Collins Concise Dictionary*, New-revised ed., 3rd ed., Glasgow, HarperCollins, 1995.
COLP	*Le Colpron, Le nouveau dictionnaire des anglicismes*, C. et L. Forest, Laval, Beauchemin, 1994.
COLR	*Aspects of English Colour Collocations and Idioms*, T.J.A. Bennett, Heidelberg, Carl Winter, 1988.
COMM	*Commerce, révue québécoise d'actualité économique.*
CONS	*Consumers' Distributing Catalogue.*
COUP	*Coup de pouce.*
CT	*Canadian Tire Catalogue.*
DAG	*Dictionnaire des difficultés de la langue française au Canada*, Boucherville, Les éditions françaises, 1984.
DAID	*Dictionary of American Idioms*, A. Maddai, New York, 1975.
DC	*Dictionnaire canadien/The Canadian Dictionary*, J. P. Vinay et al, Toronto, McClelland & Stewart, 1962.
DCF	*Dictionary of Canadian French/Dictionnaire du français canadien*, Toronto, Stoddart, 1990.
DE	*Department of Energy* (Textum).
DEAK	*Grand dictionnaire d'américanismes*, Etienne & Simone Deak, Paris, Éditions du Dauphin, 1981.
DFC	*Dictionnaire du français contemporain*, Paris, Librairie Larousse, 1966.
DFV	*Dictionnaire du français vivant*, Davau, Cohen & Lallemand, Paris, Bordas, 1976.
DNE	*Dictionary of Newfoundland English*, G. M. Story & al, Toronto, U of T Press, 1982.
DPEIE	*Dictionary of Prince Edward Island English*, T. K. Pratt, Toronto, U of T Press, 1989.
DPEQ	*Dictionnaire pratique des expressions québécoises*, A. Dugas et B. Soucy, Montréal, Les Éditions Logiques, 1991.
DPU	*Dictionnaire des particularités de l'usage*, J. Darbelnet, Québec, PUQ, 1986.
DTG	*Dictionnaire technique général*, J.-G. Belle-Isle, Québec, Bélisle, 1965.
ECP	*English Canada Press* (Textum).
EL	*Dictionnaire français-anglais*, A. Elwall, Paris, 1929.
EXL	*Dictionnaire des expressions et locutions*, Paris, Robert, 1985.
EXQ	*Dictionnaire des expressions québécoises*, Pierre DesRuisseaux, LaSalle, Hurtubise HMH, 1990.
FA	*Dictionnaire des faux amis anglais-français*, J. van Roey & al, Paris, Duculot, 1988.
FAB	*Le français au bureau*, H. Cajolet-Laganière, Québec, Office de la langue française, 1982.

FCM	*Municipal Terminology Series*, Ottawa, Federation of Canadian Municipalities, 1979.
FUN	*Funk and Wagnalls Canadian College Dictionary*, Toronto, Fitzhenry and Whiteside, 1989.
GAB	*À l'écoute des Franco-Manitobains*, Antoine Gaborieau, Saint-Bonifice, Manitoba, Les éditions des Plaines, 1985.
GAGE	*Gage Canadian Dictionary*, Toronto, Gage, 1983.
GAGEC	*Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles*, Toronto, Gage, 1991.
GAZ	*Gazette, The* (Textum).
GEO	*Canadian Geographic.*
GIL	*Dictionnaire des mots contemporains*, P. Gilbert, Paris, Robert, 1980.
GL5	*Grand Larousse en 5 volumes*, Paris, Larousse, 1987.
GL7	*Grand Larousse de la langue française*, en sept volumes, Paris, Larousse, 1986.
GR	*Grand Robert de la langue française*, P. Robert, Paris, Le Robert, 1987.
GRAF	*Guide du rédacteur de l'administration fédérale*, Ottawa, Ministre des Approvisionnements et Services Canada, 1983.
HA	*Harrap's Standard French and English Dictionary*, 4 vols, J. E. Mansion, London, Harrap, 1972 & 1980.
HACH	*Dictionnaire Hachette*, Paris, Hachette, 1991.
HASH	*Harrap's Shorter French-English Dictionary*, Bromley, Harrap, 1991.
HMIF	*Houghton Mifflin Canadian Dictionary of the English Language, The*, W. Morris ed., Houghton Mifflin Canada Ltd, 1982.
HOME	*Home Hardware Catalogue.*
HRW	*Compact Dictionary of Canadian English*, T. Paikeday, Toronto, Holt Rinehart & Winston, 1976.
IDEE	*Dictionnaire des idées par les mots*, D. Delas, Paris, Robert, 1985.
IKEA	*IKEA Catalogue.*
JPT	*J'parle en tarmes*, A. Clas & E. Seutin, Montreal, Sodilis, 1989.
JUS	*Justice.*
KETT	*French for English Idioms and Figurative Phrases*, J. O. Kettridge, London, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1976.
LAC	*Dictionnaire des mots et des idées*, U. Lacroix, Paris, Fernand Nathan, 1956.
LAR	*Dictionnaire français-anglais*, M.-M. Dubois & al, Paris, Larousse, 1981.
LAR2	*Grand dictionnaire français-anglais, anglais-français*, Paris, Larousse, 1993.
LC	*Dictionnaire des canadianismes*, G. Dulong, Mtl, Larousse, 1989.
LEGO	*The Bilingual Lexicon of Legislative Terms*, Office of the Legislative Council of Ontario, 1991.
LEM	*Leméac* (Textum).
LEQ	*Le Québec tel quel*, J. Archambault, Québec, Éditeur officiel du Québec, 1974.
LEX	*Lexis. Dictionnaire de la langue française*, Jean Dubois et al, Paris, Larousse, 1987.
LOC	*Dictionnaire français-anglais de locutions et expressions verbales*, M.-M. Dubois & al, Paris, Larousse, 1973.
LONG	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Harlow, Longman, 1987.

LONGA	*Longman Dictionary of American English*, New York, Longman, 1983.
MAIL	*Dictionnaire des petites ignorances de la langue française au Canada*, C.-H. Mailhot, Hull, Asticou, 1988.
MCLN	*Maclean's*.
MEL	*Dictionnaire explicatif et combinatoire du français contemporain*, I. Mel'cuk, Mtl, PUM, 1984 & 1988.
MER	*Merriam-Webster Pocket Dictionary of Synonyms, The*, New York, Pocket Books, 1972.
MOND	*Le Monde* (Textum).
MOTS	*Mots d'hier, mots d'aujourd'hui*, Liliane Rodriguez, Saint-Boniface, Éditions des Plaines, 1984.
MULTI	*Multi dictionnaire des difficultés de la langue française*, M.-E. De Villers, Montréal, Québec/Amérique, 1988.
MULTI2	*Multi dictionnaire des difficultés de la langue française*, nouvelle édition, M.-E. De Villers, Mtl, Québec/Amérique, 1992.
NEW2	*Longman Register of New Words*, Vol 2, J. Ayto, Harlow, Longman, 1990.
NP	*Dictionnaire canadien des noms propres*, M. Veyron, Mtl, Larousse, 1989.
OALD	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 4th ed., Oxford, OUP, 1989.
OCE	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, A.S. Hornby, Oxford, OUP, 1985.
OF	*Ouest France* (Textum).
ONT	*Ontario Canada/Voici l'Ontario*.
OXF	*Concise Oxford French Dictionary*, Oxford, OUP, 1980.
OXHA	*Oxford-Hachette French Dictionary*, Oxford, OUP, 1994.
OXID	*Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English*, Vol. 1, A. P. Cowie & R. Mackin, Oxford, OUP, 1975.
OXR	*Oxford Reference Dictionary*, J. Hawkins, Oxford, OUP, 1986.
PASS	*Password, English Dictionary for Speakers of French*, Modulo, Canada, 1989.
PCF	*Presse canadienne-française* (Textum).
PEN	*Penguin Canadian Dictionary, The*, T. Paikeday, Markham/Mississauga, Penguin/Copp Clark Pitman, 1990.
PL	*Petit Larousse illustré*, Paris, Larousse, 1996.
PLUS	*Dictionnaire du français Plus*, C. Poirier & al, Mtl, CEC, 1988.
PR	*Nouveau Petit Robert*, A. Rey et J. Rey-Debove, Paris, Robert, 1993.
PREP	*English Prepositional Idioms*, F. J. Wood, Hong Kong, Macmillan, 1967.
PROV	*Proverbs*, Jerzy Gluski, Amsterdam, Elsevier, 1971.
QD	*Québécois Dictionary, The*, L. Bergeron, Toronto, Lorimer, 1982.
QS	*Québec Science*.
QUEENS	*Textes Queens* (Textum).
QUID	*QUID*.
RCS	*Robert & Collins Senior, Dictionnaire français-anglais/anglais-français*, Paris/London, Le Robert/HarperCollins 1993.
RCSS	*Robert & Collins Super Senior, Dictionnaire français-anglais/anglais-français*, Paris/London, Le Robert/HarperCollins 1995.

RCVOC	*Robert & Collins, Vocabualire anglais et américain*, Peter Atkins et al, Paris, Robert, 1994.
REY	*Dictionnaire des anglicismes*, J. Rey-Debove et G. Gagnon, Paris, Les usuels du Robert, 1980.
RH	*Random House Dictionary of the English Language*, S. Berg Flexner & al, NY, Random House, 1987.
RHWEB	*Random House Webster's College Dictionary*, R. B. Costello & al, NY, Random House, 1991.
RM	*Robert Méthodique*, J. Rey-Debove, Paris, Robert, 1988.
ROG	*Roget's International Thesaurus*, 4th ed, Toronto, Harper & Row, 1977.
ROU	*Dictionnaire des idées suggérées par les mots*, P. Rouaix, Paris, Armand Colin, 1940.
RP	*Richesses & particularités de la langue écrite au Québec*, A. Clas, E. Seutin & al, Mtl, Université de Montréal, 1980.
RQ	*Dictionnaire québécois d'aujourd'hui*, J.-C. Boulanger, Saint-Laurent, Québec, Dicorobert, 1992.
RQ2	*Dictionnaire québécois d'aujourd'hui*, J.-C. Boulanger, Saint-Laurent, Québec, Dicorobert, 1993.
SHOX	*Shorter Oxford English Dictionary*, W. Little, H. W. Fowler, J. Coulson, C. T. Onions, Oxford, OUP, 1973.
SN	*Saturday Night*.
SYL	*Dictionnaire de la comptabilité et des disciplines connexes*, Fernand Sylvain, Canada, I.C.C.A., 1986.
TB	*TransBase* (The Hansard).
TELBOOK	*Bell Canada*, Ottawa/Hull Telephone Book (1992-1993)
TELEG	*Termiglobe*, Téléglobe Canada.
TERM	*Termium*.
THES	*Thésaurus Laroussse, des mots aux idées, des idées aux mots*, Daniel Péchoin, Paris, Larousse, 1991.
TLFQ	*Dictionnaire du français québécois, (Trésor de la langue française au Québec)*, Québec, PUL, 1985.
2001	*2001 French and English Idioms*, F. Denoeu, NY, Barron's, 1982.
VIS	*Dictionnaire thématique visuel français-anglais*, J.C. Corbeil, Mtl, Québec-Amérique, 1987.
WEB3	*Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language*, Boston, Merriam-Webster, 1986.
WEB9	*Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary*, Markham, Thomas Allen & Son Ltd, 1987.
WHAT	*What's What*.
WIN	*Winston Canadian Dictionary, The*, Toronto, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974.
WSJ	*Wall Street Journal, The*, (Textum).

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF BCD LEXICOGRAPHERS BY CODE

(Revised April 1996)

AJ	Annette Jessen
AS	Amanda Saper
ASP	Anne-Sophie Parent
AY	Adrienne Yuen
BB	Béatrice Baffert
CAR	Carmen Turcotte
CB	Caroline Bouchard
CC	Carole Cyr
CF	Catriona Fagan
CM	Catherine Montgomery
CP	Cécile Piquard
DVS	Daniel van Scherrenburg
FB	France Boissonneault
FM	Florence Demarconnay
IG	Isabelle Guilbault
JB	Johanne Blais
JBA	Jacqueline Bossé-Andrieu
JC	Jenny Collier
JD	Joanne Durocher
JEB	Jan Buchanan
JV	Joséphine Versace
KB	Katherine Barber
KP	Kathleen Puddester
LB	Lionel Boisvert
LL	Louise Lalonde
LU	Lucie Langlois
MA	Matthew Ball
MB	Maxime Bertrand
MEB	Margaret Bowles
MMK	Monique Marchand Kreuser
MT	Michael Toope
NO	Nathalie Occélus
RGW	Greg White
RPR	Roda P. Roberts
SH	Sandy Hamilton
SM	Sherri Meek
TC	Tiphaine Crenn
VM	Virgina Routledge-Martin

GLOSSARY

cohyponym: A lexical item which is included within the same superordinate term as another lexical item.

compound: A complex word; that is, it is a multi-word unit that functions like a simple word.

field indication: The use of a field label or field-related word within a dictionary entry.

field indicator: A field-label or field-related word within a dictionary entry.

field label: A usage label that indicates the restriction of a lexical item to a domain or field of discourse. Field labels are attached to terms.

field-related word: A word that identifies the field to which a term belongs. Field-related words occur in definitions in unilingual dictionaries or in sense indications, referents, actants or "examples" in bilingual dictionaries.

general dictionary: A lexicographic reference work that covers more or less all aspects of the vocabulary or lexicon of a language that is in general use.

LGP: The sum of the means of linguistic expression encountered by most speakers of a given language. Also known as common or general language.

LSP: One type of "special language" (either technical, scientific or professional), derived from LGP, used for communication among people working in a specialized area. The main characteristic of LSPs is special terminology.

lexical item: A simple or complex unit in the vocabulary of language. It consists of one or more morphemes or morphological words which represent a set of units of content. In general dictionaries, lexical items are represented as headwords or subheadwords that may cover both general senses and technical or specialized senses.

specialized dictionary: A special-purpose lexicographic reference work that is restricted to covering the vocabulary of a specific field.

subordinate: The lower unit in a hierarchy; for example, *car* is the subordinate of *vehicle.*

superordinate: The higher unit in a hierarchy; for example, *vehicle* is the superordinate of *car, bus, van*, etc.

technical sense: The technical or specialized meaning of a lexical item in a dictionary; that is, the meaning of a lexical item restricted to a field of discourse. In general dictionaries, technical senses are typically identified by field labels. A given headword or subheadword in a given technical sense in a general dictionary corresponds to a term.

term: Any conventional symbol representing a concept defined in a subject field. A term may share the same linguistic form as a word.

usage label: A dictionary component that restricts dictionary elements to some level or style or situation of usage and indicates that, unlike non-labelled elements, labelled elements are not to be regarded as generally acceptable and applicable in all contexts of use.

word: A lexical item that may be defined by form, function or use. Words are distinguished from terms in that they function in general reference as opposed to special reference within a field.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

THEORETICAL WORKS

Alber-Dewolf, R. "Compte rendu de Hoffman, L. *Languages for Special Purposes as a Means of Communication: An Introduction.*" *Langues de spécialité*. Ed. G. Rondeau. Québec: GIRSTERM, 1 (avril 1980): 3-38.

Al-Kasimi, A.M. *Linguistics and Bilingual Dictionaries*. The Netherlands: E.J. Brill, 1977.

Angenot, M. *1889: Un état du discours social*. Québec: Éditions du Préambule, 1989.

Beaujot, J.-P. "Dictionnaire et idéologies." *Dictionaries: An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography*. Vol. I. Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter, 1989. 79-88.

Béjoint, H. "Scientific and Technical Words in General Dictionaries." *International Journal of Lexicography*, 1.4 (1988): 354-368.

---. *Tradition and Innovation in Modern English Dictionaries*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1994.

Béjoint, H. and P. Arnaud, eds. *Vocabulary and Applied Linguisticis*. London: Macmillan Academic and Professional Ltd, 1992.

Bell, R.T. *Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice*. London/New York: Longman, 1991.

Bergenholtz, H. and S. Tarp, eds. *Manual of Specialised Lexicography*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1995.

Bilingual Canadian Dictionary. *Bilingual Dictionary Methodology for Research Assistants*. Unpublished manuscript. Version 7, April 1996.

Bouverot, D. "Termes techniques et indicateurs de domaines dans le *Suplément* du *Dictionnaire critique* de Féraud." *Autour de Féraud. La lexicographie en France de 1762 à 1835*. Actes du colloque international organisé à l'École normale supérieure de jeunes filles les 7, 8, 9 décembre 1984 par le Groupe d'études en histoire de la langue française. Paris: L'École normale, 1986. 157-161.

Brisset, A. "Mémento: La Rhétorique et la dialectique." Unpublished manuscript presented in the seminar TRA 6902, School of Translation and Interpretation, University of Ottawa, Ottawa. January 1995.

---. "Mémento: La Théorie du discours social." Unpublished manuscript based on a lecture given by Marc Angenot at the University of Ottawa. January 22, 1991.

Caignon, P. "Description d'une langue de spécialité: la finance." Unpublished PhD Thesis. Université de Montréal, Faculté des arts et des sciences. 1995.

Candel, D. "La présentation par domaines des emplois scientifiques et techniques dans quelques dictionnaires de langue." *Langue française (Dictionnaire sémantique et culture)*. Eds. S. Delesalle and A. Rey. 43 (Sept 1979): 100-118.

Card, W., R. McDavid and V. McDavid. "Dimensions of Usage and Dictionary Labeling." *Journal of English Linguistics*. Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, 17 (1984): 57-74.

Catford, J.C. *A Linguistic Theory of Translation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1965.

Crystal, D. *An Encyclopedic Dictionary of Language and Languages*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 1992.

Descamps, J.-L. and A. Phal. "La recherche linguistique au service de l'enseignement des langues de spécialité." *Le français dans le monde*. 61 (décembre 1968): 12-19.

Deshaies, D. "Conception du langage en sociolinguistique et effet sur la réflexion en lexicographie." Unpublished Paper. Université Laval. 1994.

Desmet, I. and S. Boutayeb. "Terms and words: Propositions for terminology." *Terminology. International Journal of Theoretical and Applied Issues in Specialized Communication*. Eds. Helmi Sonneveld and Kurt Loening. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1.2 (1994): 303-325.

Dubois, C. "Considérations générales sur l'organisation du travail lexicographique." *Dictionaries: An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography*. Vol. II, Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter, 1989. 1574-1588.

Dubois, C. and J. Dubois. *Introduction à la lexicographie*. Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1971.

Dubuc, R. *Manuel pratique de terminologie*. Québec: Linguatech, 1985.

---. "Synonymie et terminologie." *Colloque international de terminologie. Les problèmes de la définition et de la synonymie en terminologie. Université Laval, du 23 au 27 mai 1982*. Québec: GIRSTERM, 1982. I-1 to I-23.

Durocher, J. "L'évaluation foncière et sa terminologie." Unpublished M.A. Commented Terminology File. University of Ottawa, School of Translation and Interpretation. 1989.

Duval, A. "La métalangue dans les dictionnaires bilingues." *Lexicographica*. Eds. A. Kucera, A. Rey, H.E. Wiegand, L. Zgusta. Tübigen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 2 (1986): 93-100.

Felber, H. *Terminology Manual*. Paris: Unesco, 1984.

Finkenstaedt, T. and D. Wolff. *Ordered Profusion: Studies in Dictionaries and the English Lexicon*. Heidelberg: Carl Winter, Universitätsverlag, 1973.

Foucault, M. *The Archeology of Knowledge*. Trans. A.M. Sheridan Smith. New York: Tavistock Publications Limited, 1972.

Gilbert, P. "Remarques sur la diffusion des mots scientifiques et techniques dans le lexique commun." *Langue française (Les vocabulaires techniques et scientifiques)*. Eds. L. Guilbert and J. Peytard. 17 (February 1973): 31-43.

---. "Différenciations lexicales." *Le français dans le monde*. Paris: Hachette-Larousse, 69 (1969): 41-47.

Girardin, C. "Système des marques et connotations sociales dans quelques dictionnaires culturels français." *Lexicographica*. Eds. A. Kucera, A. Rey, H.E. Wiegand, L. Zgusta. Tübigen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 3 (1987): 76-93.

Guilbert, L. "La relation entre l'aspect terminologique et l'aspect linguistique du mot." *Textes choisis de terminologie. Fondements théoriques de la terminologie*. Eds. G. Rondeau and H. Felber. Québec: GIRSTERM, 1981. 187-197.

---. "La spécificité du terme scientifique et technique." *Langue française (Les vocabulaires techniques et scientifiques)*. Eds. L. Guilbert and J. Peytard. 17 (February 1973): 5-30.

Halliday, M.A.K., A. McIntosh and P. Strevens. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. 1964, London: Longmans, 1968.

Hatim, B. and I. Mason. *Discourse and the Translator*. London/New York: Longman, 1990.

Heltai, P. "The Relationship between General and Scientific Vocabulary." *Euralex Bulletin*. 2.2 (1985): 1-3.

Ilson, R. "Lexicography." *The Linguistics Encyclopedia.* Ed. Kirsten Malmkjaer. London/New York: Routledge, 1991. 291-298.

ISO/R 1087. *The Vocabulary of Terminology.* Geneva: International Organization for Standardization, 1969.

Jackson, H. *Words and Their Meaning.* London/New York: Longman, 1988.

Jacobsen, J.R., J. Manley and V.H. Pedersen. "Examples in the Bilingual Dictionary." *Dictionaries: An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography.* Vol. 3. Berlin/New York: Walter de Gruyter, 1989. 2782-2789.\

Kocourek, R. *La langue française de la technique et de la science.* Wiesbaden: Oscar Brandstetter Verlag GMBH & CO KB, 1991.

Landau, S. *Dictionaries. The Art and Craft of Lexicography.* Cambridge: Cambridge Press, 1989.

---. "Of Matters Lexicographical: Scientific and Technical Entries in American Dictionaries." *American Speech.* 49.3-4 (Fall-Winter 1974): 241-244.

Leclerc, J. *Langue et société.* Laval: Mondia Éditeurs, 1986.

Lépinette, B. "L''information ajoutée codifiée' (I.A.C.) dans 2 dictionnaires bilingues: contribution à l'étude de la lexicographie français-espagnol." *Euralex'90 Actas Del IV Congreso Internacional*, Bibliograf S.A. 1990.

Lotte, D.S. "Principes d'établissement d'une terminologie scientifique et terminologique." *Textes choisis de terminologie. Fondements théoriques de la terminologie.* Eds. G. Rondeau and H. Felber. Québec: GIRSTERM, 1981. 3-53.

Magay, T. "Technical or General: Problems of Vocabulary Selection in a Medium-Sized Bilingual Dictionary." *LEXeter '83 Proceedings: Papers from the International Conference on Lexicography at Exeter, 9-12 September 1983.* Ed. R.R.K. Hartmann. Tübigen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 1984. 221-225

Matoré, G. *Histoire des dictionnaires français.* Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1968.

Mazière, F. "Le dictionnaire et les termes." *Cahiers de lexicologie.* Ed. B. Quemada Besançon, France: Jacques et Demontrond, II.39 (1981): 79-104.

McArthur, T., ed. *The Oxford Companion to the English Language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.

McCarthy, M.J. "Morphology." *The Linguistics Encyclopedia.* Ed. Kirsten Malmkjaer. London/New York: Routledge, 1991. 314-323.

Melby, A.K. "Des causes et des effets de l'asymétrie partielle des réseaux sémantiques liés aux langues naturelles." *Cahiers de lexicologie.* 58.1 (1991): 6-43.

Ménard, L. "La problématique des marques lexicographiques en langue de spécialité : l'expérience du *Dictionnaire de la comptabilité et de la gestion financière.*" July 5, 1994. Document présenté à la **Table ronde sur les marques lexicographiques** organisée par l'Université de Sherbrooke et l'Office de la langue française, Montréal, novembre 1994.

Messelaar, P.A. *La confection du dictionnaire général bilingue.* Leuven: Uitgeverij Peeters, 1990.

Messelaar, P.A. and K.U. Leuven. "Reflexions sur le contenu de l'article lexicographique et le passage d'une langue à l'autre." *I.T.L. Rev. of Appl. Linguistics.* 72 (1986): 53-82.

Meyer, I. "Towards a New Type of General Bilingual Dictionary." Unpublished PhD Thesis. University of Montreal. 1986.

Nöth, W. *Handbook of Semiotics.* Trad. Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1990.

Office de la langue française. "Les marques lexicographiques." Unpublished manuscript. 1994.

Picht, H. "Terms and Their LSP Environment — LSP Phraseology." *Méta,* 32.2 (June 1987): 149-155.

Picht, H. and J. Draskau. *Terminology: An Introduction.* London: University of Surrey England, 1985.

Portelance, C. "Fondements linguistiques de la terminologie." *Méta.* 36.1 (March 1991): 64-70.

Preston, D. "Distinctive Feature Labeling in Dictionaries." *Papers of The Dictionary Society of North America.* Ed. Donald Hobar. Indiana: The Dictionary Society of North America, Indiana State University, 1977. 78-89.

Quemada, B. *Les Dictionnaires du français moderne: 1539-1863.* Paris: Librairie Marcel Didier, 1967.

Rey, A. "La terminologie dans un dictionnaire général de la langue française: le Grand Robert." *Termet News,* 14 (1985): 5-7.

—. "Le dictionnaire culturel." *Lexicographica.* Eds. A. Kucera, A. Rey, H.E. Wiegand, L. Zgusta. Tübigen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 3 (1987): 3-50.

—. "Structures d'un dictionnaire." *Le Dictionnaire universel d'Antoine Furetière.* Paris: Le Robert, 1978. 85-90.

Riggs, F.W. "Terminology and Lexicography: Their Complementarity." *International Journal of Lexicography*, 2.2 (1989): 89-110.

Roberts, R.P. "Pragmatic Meaning and Textual Meaning." Unpublished manuscript.

—. "Semantic Meaning." Unpublished manuscript.

—. "The Bilingual Canadian Dictionary (BCD) Project." Unpublished proposal. 1993.

—. "Use of Field Labels." Unpublished paper written for the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary. 1994.

Rondeau, G. *Introduction à la terminologie.* 2nd ed. Québec: Gaëtan Morin, 1984.

Sager, J. *A Practical Course in Terminology Processing.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1990.

Sager, J., D. Dungworth and P. McDonald. *English Special Languages.* Wiesbaden: Oscar Brandstetter Verlag KG, 1980.

Svensén, B. *Practical Lexicography: Principles and methods of dictionary-making.* Oxford/New York: Oxford University Press, 1993.

Thiele, J. *La formation des mots en français moderne.* Traduction et adaptation: André Clas. Montréal: Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal, 1987.

Thiboutot, S. "Inventaire des pratiques en matière de marques d'usage en France, au Québec et ailleurs". Sherbrooke, Université de Sherbrooke, Mai 1994.

Thomas, P. "Choosing Headwords from Language-For-Special-Purposes (LSP) Collocations for Entry into a Terminology Data Bank (Term Bank)." *Terminology. Applications in Interdisciplinary Communication.* Eds. Helmi B. Sonneveld and Kurt L. Loening. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1993. 43-68.

van Scherrenberg, D. "The Arrangement of Information in the General Bilingual Dictionary." Unpublished M.A. Thesis. University of Ottawa. 1990.

Zgusta, L. *Manual of Lexicography*. The Hague/Paris: Mouton, 1971.

—, ed. *Theory and Method in Lexicography: Western and Non-Western Perspectives*. South Carolina: Hornbeam Press, Inc., 1980.

DICTIONARIES

French General Unilingual Dictionaries

Dictionnaire du français contemporain. Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1966.

Dictionnaire du français Plus. Montréal: CEC, 1988.

Dictionnaire québécois d'aujourd'hui. Québec: Dicorobert, 1993.

Dictionnaire Universel d'Antoine Furetière. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1978.

Grand dictionnaire encyclopédique Larousse. 10 volumes. Paris: Larousse, 1982-1985.

Grand Larousse de la langue française. 7 volumes. Paris: Larousse, 1986.

Grand Larousse en 5 volumes. Paris: Larousse, 1987.

Grand Robert de la langue française. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1987.

Lexis. Dictionnaire de la langue française. Paris: Larousse, 1987.

Nouveau Dictionnaire du français contemporain. Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1986.

Nouveau Petit Robert. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1993.

Nouveau Petit Robert. CD-ROM. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1996.

Petit Robert. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1972.

Petit Robert. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1991.

Petit Larousse illustré. Paris: Larousse, 1996.

Robert Méthodique. Paris: Dictionnaires Le Robert, 1988.

English General Unilingual Dictionaries

American Heritage Dictionary. 2nd College Ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1976.

Cambridge International Dictionary of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.

Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary. London: William Collins Sons & Co Ltd, 1988.

Collins English Dictionary. Glasgow: Collins, 1986.

Gage Canadian Dictionary. Toronto: Gage, 1983.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English. Harlow: Longman, 1987.

Random House Webster's College Dictionary. New York: Random House, 1991.

The Houghton Mifflin Canadian Dictionary of the English Language. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Canada Limited, 1982.

The Penguin Canadian Dictionary. Markham/Mississauga: Penguin/Copp Clark Pitman, 1990.

Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language. Boston: Merriam-Webster, 1986.

General Bilingual Dictionaries

Grand dictionnaire français-anglais, anglais-français. Paris: Larousse, 1993.

Harrap's Standard French and English Dictionary. 4 Volumes. London: Harrap, 1972.

Oxford-Hachette French Dictionary. Oxford: OUP, 1994.

Robert & Collins Senior, Dictionnaire français-anglais/anglais-français. Paris/London: Le Robert/HarperCollins, 1993.

Robert & Collins Super Senior, Dictionnaire français-anglais/anglais-français. Paris/London: Le Robert/HarperCollins, 1995.

Term Banks

Termium. CD-ROM. Department of the Secretary of State of Canada, 1992.

Specialized Dictionaries

Dictionnaire de didactique des langues. Eds. Robert Galisson and Daniel Coste. Paris: Hachette, 1976.

Dictionnaire de linguistique. Eds. Jean Dubois, et al. Paris: Librarie Larousse, 1973.

Dictionnaire de linguistique et des sciences du langage. Ed. Jean Dubois. Paris: Librarie Larousse, 1994.

Taber's Cyclopedic Medical Dictionary. 16th ed. Philadelphia: F.A. Davis Company, 1989.

INDEX