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Use of Examples in the Bilingual Dictionary: An Empirical Study

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Thesis submitted to
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In memory of the one who came before me

Dr. J. Douglas Gibb

“And the desert shall blossom like a rose.”

ABSTRACT

By the space alone that is dedicated to examples in dictionary entries, it can be assumed that examples are a fairly important part of most of them, particularly in bilingual dictionaries, which, on average, contain more examples than do monolingual dictionaries. Or, at least, it can be assumed that the editors and lexicographers compiling the dictionaries consider examples to be useful. However, up to this point, dictionary examples have primarily been studied from a theoretical perspective. This thesis, therefore, tests several of the theoretical issues that have been raised regarding dictionary examples using data gathered from a French-English cloze translation test administered to 90 Anglophone and Francophone translation students.

A user-centered focus is maintained throughout the research, concentrating on whether or not bilingual dictionary examples are useful to translation students with regard to choosing translation equivalents. The research first examines general questions regarding bilingual dictionary use and translation success using the bilingual dictionary. From this point, it examines the use of examples in the bilingual dictionary and whether or not examples in particular can contribute to translation success. Finally, it examines several specific theoretical issues regarding examples from a user perspective: necessity, number, source, length and presentation/placement of examples in the bilingual dictionary entry.

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RÉSUMÉ

À en juger d'après l'espace qu'occupent les exemples dans les entrées de dictionnaire, on peut penser que ces derniers prennent une place assez importante, surtout dans les dictionnaires bilingues, qui contiennent en moyenne plus d'exemples que les dictionnaires unilingues. On peut tout au moins supposer que, lors de la compilation des dictionnaires, les éditeurs et les lexicographes en voient l'utilité. Toutefois, les études qui ont été faites jusqu'ici traitent cette question surtout d'un point de vue théorique. Cette thèse examine plusieurs problèmes d'ordre théorique que soulève l'usage des exemples dans les dictionnaires en utilisant les données d'un test de traduction français-anglais (test de closure) administré à 90 étudiant(e)s de traduction (francophone et anglophone).

Tout au long de la recherche, la perspective de l'utilisateur est maintenue afin de savoir si oui ou non les exemples des dictionnaires bilingues sont utiles pour les étudiants de traduction lorsqu'ils sont à la recherche d'équivalents. Tout d'abord, nous examinons l'utilisation générale des dictionnaires bilingues et le niveau de réussite obtenu par les étudiants dans leur travail. Ensuite, nous essayons de déterminer si l'utilisation des exemples dans les dictionnaires bilingues contribue notamment à une réussite comparable. Finalement, nous étudions plusieurs problèmes théoriques spécifiques concernant les exemples du point de vue de l'utilisateur : la nécessité, le nombre, la source, la longueur et la présentation des exemples dans les entrées de dictionnaires bilingues.

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INTRODUCTION

0.1 Translators and Dictionaries

Of the objectives outlined in a dictionary preface, “frustrating the user” is not among them. On the contrary, publishers promise helpful features such as up-to-date nomenclature, attractive designs and useful information. Users—especially translators—though, might beg to differ. Indeed, Jean Maillot reports that, “la méfiance à l’égard du dictionnaire est beaucoup plus répandue qu’on ne le croit généralement” (1981:149). Some translators boast that they work virtually dictionary-free. For instance, technical translator James Maclean says that as far as his “‘work shelf’ is concerned, there are very few dictionaries on it” (Snell-Hornby 1989:229). However, although they may not be willing to admit it, all translators use dictionaries, even successfully at times. But, they are generally dissatisfied with what dictionaries presently offer.

Translators expect their dictionaries to leap over tall buildings with a single bound, according to the following definition of the ideal dictionary that was formulated by bilingual lexicographer, Robin Sawers, at the 1987 EURALEX Colloquium on Translation and Lexicography. The “super-dictionary” would be a large, general bilingual dictionary with a thesaurus-like format. It would also contain an onomasiological index, illustrations, variable and invariable set phrases, culture-bound terms and appendices with plant and animal names. Finally, the dictionary package would be “complemented” by a video of non-verbal communication illustrating gestures, facial expressions and body language (Snell-Hornby 1989:225).

It is obvious that Sawers synthesized translator demands of dictionaries in tongue-in-cheek fashion, perhaps emphasizing that what translators demand of lexicographers is not realistic. This may be true; Christopher Marsh, a participant in the same EURALEX meeting, commented that

translators had been let off the hook and only lexicographers were being criticized (Snell-Hornby 1989:229). However, one-sided criticism may be appropriate. Lexicographers are providing a product and need to be aware of their consumer—the dictionary user.

Indeed, since the issue of dictionary use was first mentioned at the Conference on Lexicography in 1960 at Indiana University (Householder 1962:279), and especially since Herbert Ernst Wiegand introduced a “sociology of dictionary use” in the mid-1970's, several studies have focused on the needs of dictionary users (Hartmann 1989:102). Overall, these studies examine a variety of users and their dictionaries, in a number of user/dictionary combinations. For example, Beryl T. Atkins *et al.* (1987) and Atkins in collaboration with Frank E. Knowles (1990) studied EFL¹ students and their use of general bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Like Atkins and her co-researchers, the majority of researchers target language students; only a few address language teachers, translators or translation students. The dictionaries frequently examined are monolingual and bilingual dictionaries; and, in one case, bilingualised dictionaries.² General dictionaries are the primary focus, although other types of dictionaries, e.g. slang and technical, are not excluded entirely.

0.2 Thesis Topic

My thesis also examines a particular user and dictionary combination: translation students and bilingual dictionaries. This user/dictionary combination is relevant in light of the trend noted

¹ English as a Foreign Language

² Bilingualised dictionaries are a hybrid between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, containing L2 headwords that have definitions in L2 and translation equivalents in L1 (Laufer and Melamed 1994:566-67).

by Kristen Mackintosh—that translation students rely heavily on bilingual dictionaries to either provide or confirm translation equivalents (1995:62). More specifically, my thesis will address the needs of translation students with regard to examples in the general bilingual dictionary. This focus is unique in that previous studies have considered bilingual dictionaries as a whole in relation to user needs, while this thesis concentrates on a single element of the dictionary entry. Moreover, to the best of my knowledge, there are no empirical studies testing the theoretical research that has been done on dictionary examples. In sum, this thesis aims to verify a number of issues raised in the literature regarding examples in dictionaries—and more particularly general bilingual dictionaries—through an empirical study of user needs.

0.3 Thesis Objectives

This thesis has several objectives, both general and specific. The general objectives consider examples as a whole and lead up to the specific objectives, which examine particular aspects of examples such as length or presentation. These objectives are outlined below in the form of questions which this thesis aims to investigate.

General questions:

- Do students reference examples to find or confirm a translation equivalent?
- Does referencing an example result in a correct or incorrect translation equivalent?
- Do students locate the example most applicable to the source language (SL) item when searching for an equivalent?
- What is the result of referencing an applicable example versus a non-applicable example?—a correct versus incorrect translation equivalent?

Specific questions determined to be testable:

- Necessity
 - To what extent do users benefit from implicit information in the form of examples?
 - To what extent do users benefit from explicit information in the form of sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes?
- Number
 - Do users benefit from fewer or more free combinations in a bilingual dictionary?
 - More specifically, should collocations, fixed expressions and compounds be illustrated by free combinations?
- Source
 - Do users benefit more from constructed or corpus examples?
- Length
 - How long should a free combination be to be beneficial to users?
- Presentation and Placement
 - What type of presentation helps users produce correct equivalents?

0.4 Methodology

The study of literature on examples constituted the first step in the methodology of this study. Specific objectives are based primarily on research done by Michael Toohey in his thesis *Examples in the Bilingual Dictionary* (1996). Toohey's work, which outlines the various theoretical perspectives with regard to dictionary examples, is the only comprehensive research available on examples.

Following the study of literature on examples, a review of empirical dictionary studies was conducted. This second literature search directed the choices made with respect to testing translation students' use of examples in bilingual dictionaries.

The test design choices relevant to this dictionary study comprised test subjects, test type, test material, test administration and test analysis. As indicated above, Mackintosh's thesis research, *An Empirical Study of Dictionary Use in "Version"* (1995), prompted the choice of translation students, both Anglophone and Francophone, as subjects. Both groups were given the

same cloze translation test (French-English), which was based on a 751-word text adapted from a translation textbook. Test administration was accomplished in three stages: pre-testing, pilot testing and final testing. Different subjects were used in each stage. Information gathered from the first two stages contributed to refining the final test version. Analysis of the final test results was conducted statistically, when possible, as well as interpretatively.

0.5 Expectations

I expected this testing to reveal that translation students do indeed make considerable use of examples in the bilingual dictionary, much like EFL students do: in Henri Béjoint's study of EFL students, 70% claim to use examples and quotations when they reference a dictionary (1981:218). I also hypothesized that "more was better"—lengthier examples, numerous free combinations, collocations, compounds and fixed expressions. These were only anticipations, however. As I began to pour over the test data, I realized that these expectations were too simplistic.

Of course, it would be exciting if dictionary examples proved to be the universal answer to translation problems. However, I must agree with Sawers, the bilingual lexicographer quoted at the beginning of this introduction: there is not a cure-all dictionary and it is very likely impossible to produce one, even by adding and improving dictionary examples (Snell-Hornby 1989:229).

Nonetheless, I am convinced of the importance of examples. Having worked with electronic corpora as an assistant lexicographer at the Bilingual Canadian Dictionary (BCD) Project, I have found that exposure to pertinent contexts explains headwords more than definitions or explicit information in dictionary entries. Béjoint, commenting on "the extensive use

of examples and quotations” by EFL students, agrees that examples are important since they “can be used by the learner both for interpretation and composition” (qtd. in Béjoint 1981:218).

This investigation, which set out to test common-sense observations and theoretical research on examples with the goal of adding value to the general bilingual dictionary for students of translation, shows that examples are particularly useful for certain types of lexical items.

CHAPTER 1

Basic Concepts and Issues Related to Examples

This chapter lays the groundwork for the empirical study on examples conducted for this thesis by defining the term *example* and the four example types: free combinations, collocations, fixed expressions and compounds. Furthermore, the main theoretical issues surrounding examples, which motivated this thesis research, are introduced. They are: 1) necessity of examples, 2) number of examples, 3) source of examples, 4) length of examples and 5) presentation/placement of examples. Finally, the example is discussed in relation to dictionary typology since many of the theoretical issues surrounding examples are linked to dictionary type.

1.1 Definition of Example

In the field of lexicography, the term *example* does not have a standardized definition (Manley *et al.* 1988:282). This is evident in the literature about dictionary examples. The only point of agreement seems, generally, to be that a dictionary example should at least contain the lemma in question (Martin 1989:600; Rey-Debove 1989:638); for instance, every example in a dictionary entry for **marron** would include an occurrence of that lemma, e.g. *marchand de marrons*. However, in reference to bilingual dictionaries, even that point is debated by some authors like Ladislav Zgusta (1971:336) and Jane Rosenkilde Jacobsen *et al.* (1989:2786), who believe that an example in such a dictionary should only be in the target language (TL), for its role

is to illustrate the TL equivalent rather than the SL lemma (Toope 1996:4,18-24), e.g. the entry **marron** might include the example *chestnut vendor*, but not the example *marchand de marrons*.³

The various definitions that have been provided for *example* can nonetheless be classified into two main categories according to the point of view from which they are approached: their physical form or their function. Admittedly, form and function are closely linked. For instance, Toope points out that “the primary function of the bilingual dictionary example is to exemplify translation,” and that the form of the example will reflect this function, consisting of SL and TL halves (1996:18). However, lexicographers often address form and function separately. Daniel Van Scherrenburg gives a primarily form-oriented definition when he states that a bilingual dictionary “example is any phrase or sentence in the SL that illustrates the use of a single word, compound or idiom, along with its translation” (1990:10). Gwyneth Fox gives a function-oriented definition of example as something that shows how a “word is actually used, in an appropriate context, a typical grammatical structure, and with words that are normally associated with it” (1987:137). However, even definitions that fall into one of these categories vary to some extent. For instance, Fox’s functional definition does not cover the stylistic functions of examples included in Thomas Herbst’s functional definition: an example should “indicate the most important grammatical, collocational and stylistic uses of a word” (Herbst 1989:1382). Clearly, then, there are several possible definitions of *example*, depending on the lexicographer’s approach.

³ Jacobsen *et al.* are particularly referring to encoding dictionaries, meaning bilingual dictionaries that are used to translate into L2. They state that, “in an encoding dictionary, only the equivalents need exemplification” (1989:2786).

There is one definition, however, that is valid for all examples, regardless of the example's form or function. Jacobsen *et al.* describe *example* as a lexicographical slot that is filled with lexicological information (1989:2784). This means that before all else, an *example* is a formal lexicographical category that is part of the dictionary microstructure (Jacobsen *et al.* 1989:2783). For instance, in the following bilingual dictionary entry from the LAR1, *marchand de marrons*, *chestnut-man* fills the lexicographical slot of *example*, whereas *chestnut* fills the lexicographical slot of *equivalent*.

marron [marɔ̃] m. Chestnut; *marrons glacés*, iced chestnuts, marrons glacés; *marrons d'Inde*, horse-chestnuts; *marchand de marrons*, chestnut-man . . .

In this thesis, the lexicographical slot of *example* in the bilingual dictionary includes both SL and TL components.

1.2 Definition of Example Types

The lexicographical slot of *example* can be filled with a number of combinations of words. These combinations can be categorized into four main example types: free combinations, collocations, fixed expressions and compounds (Toohey 1996:40,43). Examples in the bilingual dictionary are classified as one of these types in the SL, for the TL component does not invariably involve the same example type. For instance, an SL collocation may not have an equivalent TL collocation, and may therefore be translated by a free combination.

The four main example types vary in degree of fixedness. As its name implies, the free combination is the least fixed example type, having the fewest lexical and syntactic restrictions. The remaining example types, which have been termed as “restricted examples” by Toohey

(1996:39,43), have more rigid lexical and/or syntactic limitations (Béjoint 1989:2) and are therefore considered more “fixed.”

1.2.1 Free Combinations

Free combinations can be defined as sequences of words that can withstand substitutions, deletions, additions and changes in word order, yet still remain grammatical and meaningful (Zgusta 1971:142; Toope 1996:40). For instance, the word string *Matthew plays squash with Alex* maintains grammaticality and meaningfulness even with substitutions (*Matthew plays soccer with Alex*), deletions (*Matthew plays squash*), additions (*Matthew plays squash with Alex on Tuesdays*) and changes in order (*On Tuesdays, Matthew plays squash with Alex*). While such changes may result in a change of meaning, each individual example is still grammatical and meaningful. It should also be noted that, although the word string used in the example above is a sentence, this is not a mandatory characteristic of free combinations, which can include short phrases such as *wet sand* or *speak quietly* (Zgusta 1971:140).

1.2.2 Collocations

Collocations follow free combinations in degree of “fixedness” in that they tolerate fewer lexical and syntactic changes than do free combinations. Therefore lexical and syntactic changes such as those discussed above—substitutions, deletions, additions and changes in order—could damage the grammaticality and meaningfulness of a collocation, while similar changes would not have the same effect on a free combination. This is so because the combination of words that comprises a collocation operates more as a “bound” unit (Béjoint 1989:3-4) than does the

combination of words that comprises a free combination. Deletions can especially break up the collocation unit; for instance, *at the last minute* loses its collocational status when one word is absent, e.g. *at the last* or *at the minute*.

However, not all changes are destructive to the collocation. On occasion, collocations permit for limited substitutions (e.g. *sworn enemy* — *avowed enemy*) or additions (e.g. *public enemy* — *public enemy no. 1*). Nevertheless, changes must be made selectively to maintain the collocation as a unit. For example, *affirmed enemy* does not have the same “attractive force” (Cop 1989:2775) as does *sworn enemy*; therefore, in this case, replacing *sworn* with *affirmed* destroys the collocation as a unit.

In addition to withstanding, to some extent, lexical changes such as substitutions and additions, collocations can also withstand limited syntactic changes, i.e. changes in word order. For example *break the sound barrier* is a collocation that can withstand a change in word order such as *the sound barrier was broken*. Again, however, as with substitutions and additions, a given change may not affect one collocation, but will damage another. For instance *fit for human consumption* cannot be changed to *fit for consumption by humans* without losing its collocatory nature.

In sum, it is possible to make some lexical and syntactic changes to certain collocations, but not all. As Toope states, collocations “constitute . . . an idiomatic unit that does not allow free substitution of elements” (1996:123), and this could be extended to include free addition of elements as well as free changes in word order. The flexibility of a collocation largely depends on the “fixedness” of the collocation itself. As explained earlier, example types fall on a continuum of “fixedness” from least fixed to more fixed. The same notion of a “fixedness” continuum can also

apply to two of the restricted example types: collocations and fixed expressions. Collocations such as *to compose music* are less fixed than collocations such as *to drink oneself to death*. Thus, the syntactic as well as the lexical flexibility of a collocation depends on how “fixed” a collocation is; more “fixed” collocations will not withstand any changes, whereas less “fixed” collocations may be able to withstand several types of changes.

1.2.3 Fixed Expressions

Fixed expressions are the next most “fixed” example type, being higher on the continuum of “fixedness” than collocations. However, fixed expressions do resemble collocations in some respects. Like collocations, they do not allow for deletions. For instance, a fixed expression such as *to have a hollow leg* cannot withstand the deletion of *leg* (*to have a hollow*) or the deletion of *hollow* (*to have a leg*); the deletion of either *leg* or *hollow* breaks up the unit, destroying the meaning of the fixed expression: to be able to drink or eat seemingly endless quantities.

Furthermore, like collocations, fixed expressions are fairly resistant to substitutions, additions and changes in word order, although these are possible in specific instances. For instance, replacing *half a loaf is better than none* with *half a baguette is better than none* causes the meaning to be diluted, if not lost. There are rare occasions, however, when substitutions can be made smoothly in fixed expressions; for instance, *keep your eyes peeled* — *keep your eyes open* or *down for the count* — *out for the count*. The same is true of additions and changes in word order. An addition such as *work like a black dog* to the expression *work like a dog* distracts from the meaning, if not destroys it, because the addition interferes with the continuity of the unit. It is, nonetheless, possible to find fixed expressions that tolerate additions. For instance, *to get*

into hot water can withstand the addition of *terrible*—to get into terrible hot water, which intensifies the meaning of the fixed expression instead of destroying it. Finally, changes in word order can also undermine the meaning of a fixed expression. For instance, *straight from the horse's mouth* cannot be changed to *straight from the mouth of the horse* without losing the full impact of the expression's meaning. Again, however, it is possible to find some fixed expressions in which word order can be changed without a change or loss in meaning. For instance, *blow off some steam* can be changed to a passive word order: *some steam was blown off*.

As demonstrated above, the meaning of fixed expressions is highly sensitive to change. This leads to the conclusion that meaningfulness is more essential to fixed expressions than grammaticality, which was not the case in the previous two example types that have been discussed: free combinations and collocations. Both meaningfulness and grammaticality are key criteria for constructing and maintaining free combinations and collocations. This is less so for fixed expressions. Rosamund Moon says that fixed expressions can actually be “grammatically ill-formed” (1992:14). Thus, the adjunct *through thick and thin* is aberrant because the preposition *through* would normally be followed by nouns, not adjectives.

Fixed expressions are different from collocations notably with regard to grammatical constraints, but in several other regards as well. Fixed expressions are viewed more holistically than collocations and are often metaphorical. In addition, they are often culturally-based. And, finally, they can contain fossilized components. These characteristics of fixed expressions, which are further developed below, make fixed expressions even more resistant to substitutions, additions and changes in word order than collocations, placing them higher on the continuum of “fixedness” than collocations.

Fixed expressions are normally stored in the mind holistically because they are learned as wholes, whereas collocations are not. This is because the collocational unit is not as tightly bound as the fixed expression. Collocational units can be separated by several words. For instance, the collocation *to publish an article* can appear in a context such as *an article by Denise Maze titled “The History of Fashion Design” was published Friday in the “Montreal Gazette.”* Therefore, collocations are often not recognized as units, though knowledge of the language is required to correctly choose and combine the lexical items. Fixed expressions, on the other hand, must be memorized as units.

Perhaps fixed expressions are stored and produced as units because they are quite often metaphorical—in other words, their meaning resides not in the individual words of the expression, but in the unit as a whole (Zgusta 1971:144). For instance, the fixed expression *to bring the house down* refers to when an “audience claps and cheers loudly for a long time because they are very pleased with the performance” (COCO2), which has little to do with the meaning found in the individual lexical items *bring down + the + house*.

Moreover, the meaning of a fixed expression can be culturally-based. For instance, the expression *pauvre comme Job* is only meaningful in a culture that is acquainted with the Judeo-Christian tradition. Physical surroundings can also contribute to culturally-based meaning. For example, *to skate on thin ice* is an expression that is more applicable to cultures in geographical regions where ice is a natural phenomenon.

Finally, fixed expressions can contain fossilized components. For example, *buy a pig in a poke*, meaning to “buy something without seeing or knowing its real nature or value” (GAGE), uses the noun *poke*, which is no longer in use to indicate a sack or bag. Although *poke* may no

longer be used as a simple lexical item, it, nevertheless, remains an integral component of the fixed expression.

Every fixed expression, however, will not display all of the above characteristics: ungrammaticality, holistic storage and production, metaphorical meaning, culturally-based meaning and fossilized components. It is possible to categorize fixed expressions according to the characteristics they most commonly display. Moon divides fixed expressions into three groups. She labels the first group as “anomalous collocations”; these expressions are often ungrammatical and contain fossilized components (Moon 1992:14). Moon explains that the second group contains “formulae such as proverbs, slogans, quotations, catchphrases, gambits and closed-set turns”; these expressions are often holistically learned and used (1992:14). The third group consists of “pure idioms,” which are often metaphorical and culturally-based (Moon 1992:14). This tripartite division of fixed expressions does not mean, however, that there is no overlap of characteristics between groups. For example, it would be possible for an expression that falls into the third group to be holistically learned and used, an attribute assigned to the second group of expressions by Moon.

In sum, fixed expressions are more “fixed” than collocations—the least fixed expressions beginning on the continuum where the most fixed collocations end.

1.2.4 Compounds

Compounds, regardless of their appearance (solid form, hyphenated form, open form)⁴ or

⁴ Compounds can appear in various forms: merged together to form a single lexical item (*saltwater*), joined by a dash (*crayon-feutre*) or orthographically separated (*emergency exit*) (McArthur 1992:245).

components (nouns, verbs, adverbs, etc.),⁵ are the most “fixed” of all the example types. Like fixed expressions, they usually have a single referent (Toope 1996:148). Moreover, compounds do not usually tolerate deletions, substitutions, additions or changes in word order, perhaps because they are generally limited in length, with many compounds comprising only two lexical items.⁶

For example, a compound such as *guide dog* is a “combination of two or more words to form a new word” (Hartmann and Stork 1972:46) that does not refer separately to a guide and a dog, but rather refers to only one concept: “a dog that has been specially trained to lead or guide a blind person” (RHWEB). Thus, in the compound *guide dog*, deleting an item (*guide dog*), adding an item (*guide-person dog*), substituting an item (*guide rabbit*) or changing the word order (*dog guide*) eliminates the meaning.

1.2.5 Summary of Example Types

For purposes of explanation, *example* has been delineated into four example types. Nevertheless, just as the definition of *example* is debatable, so too are the example types. Some lexicographers (Jacobsen *et al.* 1989:2783) consider collocations as *sub-entries* in the bilingual dictionary format and not *examples*. Other lexicographers would argue that compounds are *headwords* and not *examples*; for instance, the introduction of the OXHA states that “English compounds are found in their proper place within the overall alphabetical order of headwords.”

⁵ While compounds frequently comprise noun components, it is also possible for a compound to contain parts of speech other than nouns. The following examples from the *Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* show compounds composed of verbs, prepositions, function words, adverbs and so forth: *flyover*, *nevertheless*, *blue-eyed*, *overtake* and *forget-me-not* (Hartmann and Stork 1972:46).

⁶ It is possible for a compound to be composed of more than two lexical items (see Toope 1996:143); for instance, *mal de tête*.

Even if a lexicographic team operates on the assumption of the four example types described above (free combination, collocation, fixed expression and compound), there are not necessarily four distinct example types in every dictionary entry. The first reason for this is that, while every lemma can occur in free combinations, some lemmas will not occur in collocations or fixed expressions or compounds. For instance, the lexical item *aréna* does not occur in any fixed expressions or compounds, as is manifest in the following BCD entry, which contains only free combinations and a collocation:

aréna *nf* ou *nm* (CD) (*patinoire couverte*) arena, (skating) rink. * **l'aréna est parfois utilisé pour d'autres activités que le patinage** arenas are sometimes used for activities other than skating; **le toit d'un aréna s'est effondré sous le poids de la neige** the roof of an arena collapsed under the weight of the snow; **le congrès aura lieu à l'aréna Maurice-Richard** the congress will be held at Maurice Richard Arena. ** **aréna de poche** small arena.

In other instances, a given lemma could be illustrated by a number of different example types, but the lexicographer may deliberately decide to exclude certain examples, thereby eliminating a given example type from an entry. For instance, **groseille** necessarily occurs in free combinations, but the entry from the RCSS only contains compounds: *groseille (rouge)* red currant, *groseille (blanche)* white currant, *groseille à maquereau* gooseberry. This means that a dictionary user cannot open a dictionary and expect to find the four example types clearly present in each entry. The example types represented depend first on the lemma in question and, second, on the lexicographer's choices.

1.3 Theoretical Issues

Lexicographers are constantly in the position of making choices such as what examples to include in an entry. And, since the linguistic and methodological choices lexicographers make in

the process of compiling or editing a dictionary often vary, they give rise to theoretical debate. The issues under discussion with regard to examples can be subdivided into five main categories: necessity, number, source, length and presentation/placement.⁷ In the following sections, these categories will be addressed primarily from a lexicographer's point of view, although the dictionary users' perspective will be added whenever possible.

1.3.1 Necessity

The first question surrounding examples is whether or not they are even necessary in a dictionary entry. From a lexicographer's point of view, Sidney Landau states that "illustrative quotations or invented phrases that exemplify meaning are a critical part of the dictionary definition and should not be regarded as mere appurtenances" (1989:166). A study by Béjoint of university-level foreign language students indicates that dictionary users also tend to think examples are necessary (1981:218). Perhaps the users in Béjoint's study responded affirmatively to the need for examples because they are foreign language learners: in general, language learners have limited intuition in their non-native languages, making them eager consumers of the in-context information examples provide.

It follows, then, that inclusion of examples is more crucial in the dictionaries used by foreign language learners, i.e. monolingual learner's dictionaries, and especially bilingual dictionaries (Baxter 1980:333), than in the average monolingual dictionary, which is typically

⁷ These categories are based on Toope's (1996) work, which is the only full-scale study of examples.

used by native speakers for decoding (qtd. in Béjoint 1981:211).⁸ It remains to be seen, though, whether or not translation students, who are frequent users of bilingual dictionaries (Mackintosh 1995:62), attach as much importance to examples as did the foreign language learners.

Examples provide a wide variety of information about the use of a word in context. However, the information an example provides implicitly might be presented more practically and effectively through explicit means such as sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes.⁹ Practically speaking, explicit information is more space efficient and possibly more effective in that it overtly marks information for the user.

The following entry, taken from the RCSS shows the space efficiency of explicit information in opposition to examples. The entry has a total of 583 characters, not including

⁸ Original source:

Quirk, R. "The Social Impact of Dictionaries in the UK." *Lexicography in English. Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*. Eds. R.I. McDavid and A.R. Duckert. 211. New York: New York Academy of Sciences, 1973.

⁹ A **sense indication** is commonly used in bilingual dictionaries in place of a full definition. It gives dictionary users a short definition, a synonym, or a related word to "enable [users] to distinguish between different senses and thus different equivalents" (Roberts 1997:50).

Information about grammar or usage may be presented in the form of **labels** or **notes**. The BCD includes several categories of labels: subject field labels (e.g. *Administration, Radio, Sports*), register labels (e.g. *formal, informal*), geographical labels (e.g. *CD* for Canada, *NA* for North America), currency labels (e.g. *courant, vieilli*), commentary labels (a miscellaneous category) and grammatical labels (e.g. *n* for noun) (Roberts 1997:Appendices 3, 4 and 6). In addition, the BCD can include grammatical information and usage information in the form of a note (under grammatical comment or commentary label).

For the BCD, **actants** are words that collocate with a given headword, although actants are not usually considered as examples (i.e. collocations) because they are an abbreviated way of providing lexical information. For instance: *branch [tree]*, where *branch* is the noun headword and the noun complement, *tree*, is the actant (Roberts 1997:60-61).

The term **codes** refers to such marks as < > around a word to indicate a rare equivalent. (Roberts 1997:Appendix 5).

For the purposes of this thesis, all information (including grammatical and usage labels or notes) that is not presented through examples is considered explicit lexicographic information and is grouped together as "other information" in relation to examples.

spaces. The redlined areas have been counted as examples and the underlined areas as explicit information. The illustrative examples occupy 361 characters of space, whereas the explicit information occupies only 101.

grouper [grupe] → SYN ► conjug 1 ◀ 1 vt a
personnes, objets, faits to group (together) ;
 (Comm) colis to bulk ; efforts, ressources, moyens
 to pool • grouper des colis par destination to
 bulk parcels according to their destination
b (Sport) genoux to tuck → saut
 2 se grouper vpr [foule] to gather • groupez-
vous par trois get together in groups of
 three • les consommateurs doivent se grouper
pour se défendre consumers must band
 together to defend their interests • se
grouper en associations to form associations
 • (fig) se grouper autour d'un chef to rally
 round a leader • le village groupé autour de
l'église the village clustered round the
 church → habitat

Though sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes may be more space efficient, their effectiveness is questionable. In *Monitoring Dictionary Use*, Stefania Nuccorini comments that “codes, labels and the like [are] seldom looked at, and apparently not even read . . . by dictionary users” (1992:94). Béjoint (1981:211) warns:

Given that the natural reference skills of any category of users are necessarily limited, lexicographers are faced with an alternative: either to tune their dictionary to the existing skills of the user, thus producing a simple, easy-to-use book, with obvious advantages and disadvantages; or to market a beautifully contrived reference work, requiring skills that are far beyond what can be expected of the average user.

However, it is also possible that the user will not be able to correctly deduce the implicit information available to him or her in the example, and therefore will not be able to understand, use or translate the word in question correctly. Therefore, the question of which type of reference

information—implicit or explicit—is more effective is debatable. Faced with this dilemma, lexicographers usually provide a mixture of implicit information (examples) and explicit information (sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes) in entries.

1.3.2 Number

It is also necessary for lexicographers to decide how many examples to provide for each dictionary entry. To a large extent, the dictionary type and size and the specific entry in question influence the number of examples included for a headword or for a sense division under a headword (Toohey 1996:167,169). These factors will determine if literal or figurative examples, technical examples and so forth are included. They will also determine whether the restricted examples—collocations, fixed expressions and compounds—are given only minimal treatment (e.g. a definition and an equivalent), or if they are illustrated by free combination examples.

Comments made by dictionary users in various dictionary studies regarding the number of examples seem to indicate that users would like to see a greater number included:

- “There are not enough examples” (Béjoint 1981:219).
- “There should be ample examples of usage . . .” (Tomaszczyk 1979:115).

1.3.3 Source

Another question to consider is an example’s source. Lexicographers usually find their examples using one of two primary sources, either their own linguistic intuition or a corpus. Sometimes examples are custom-made; in other words, the lexicographer uses his or her own intuition to create an appropriate example for the lexical item in question. Other times, examples

are taken from a corpus, whether it be from a collection of quotes submitted by readers or from an electronic corpus of texts, which is more likely today.

A corpus can be used as a means of identifying collocations, fixed expressions and compounds. In particular, a corpus can serve to ensure the accuracy of collocations, for, although collocations seem obvious to most native speakers, once these speakers are “asked to give the collocates of words, they frequently do not do well” (Fox 1987:146). However, the question of whether to use corpus-based or constructed examples applies mainly to free combinations.

One advantage of a corpus example is that “le texte dont il est extrait est un texte spontanément créé par un locuteur” (Martin 1989:600). Constructed examples, on the other hand, lack this quality, and can often sound “bizarre” (Rey-Debove 1989:639). Fox also notes that, compared with constructed examples, corpus examples represent “real language” (1987:138).

This very advantage, though, could also prove to be a disadvantage. When a sentence or phrase is lifted from its textual environment, it does not always make sense. Consider the following sentence that was extracted from an electronic corpus text: *That's the saturation point*. It is clearly referring to previous sentences contained in the text; however, without access to the previous text, the reader does not have all the information needed to make sense of the utterance. Granted, this sentence may not be a “good example.”¹⁰ Nevertheless, corpus examples in general are not as tidy as constructed examples. Fox does not view this aspect of corpus examples as a disadvantage, though. She believes that, since language is not made of sentences, but rather of text, the examples in a dictionary should not necessarily be “fully-formed” (1987:141); otherwise,

¹⁰ In fact, the virtue of being in a corpus does not necessarily make a sentence or phrase a “good example” (qtd. in Herbst 1989:1382).

dictionary users might be led to the “habit of cramming far too much information into each individual sentence for it to fit [coherently] into natural discourse” (1987:142).

Another possible disadvantage of corpus examples is that they can contain vocabulary that the user—especially a non-native speaker—does not know, thus distracting from illustration of the headword. Herbst points out, in reference to the COCO1, that corpus-based examples often “contain words that are much more difficult to understand than the word in question” (1989:1382). For instance, the entry **hawk** is exemplified in the COCO1 with the example *A hawk hovered, motionless, in the blue sky*. According to Fox, this type of example shows the user that the word is frequently used “with a slightly poetic quality” (1987:138). However, it is likely that some users will not glean this information from the example at all, especially if they stumble on one of the words in the example, e.g. *hovered*. Thus, authors such as Fritz Neubauer (1989:903) argue that vocabulary should be controlled in example sentences, which implies a policy of constructed examples. This can result, however, in “stilted” or “simplified” sentences (Herbst 1989:1382). Moreover, Fox counters that “if a word typically occurs in a sentence which is grammatically complex or alongside vocabulary items that are infrequent, it would be misleading of a dictionary to present that word in a very simple clause or sentence with easy vocabulary” (1987:138).

Yet, another disadvantage of corpus examples is that the lemma in question is often “hidden” in a subordinate clause, as in the following illustrative sentence extracted from an electronic corpus.

Me Lorraine Delorme, qui pratique le **notariat** depuis 1974 dans la même étude que son frère François, située au 4403 rue Beaubien est, dans l’est de la métropole, a affirmé au cours des audiences du comité de discipline qu’elle a instrumenté de multiples actes hypothécaires en faveur des clients de son frère «pour lui rendre service».

One way of solving this problem would be to use modified corpus material instead of unmodified corpus material. Using unmodified corpus material means that the material chosen from the corpus will be included in the dictionary entry as it was found originally (with the possible exception of the ends being trimmed off). Conversely, a methodology supporting modified examples means that the lexicographer can change the corpus material, substantially if necessary. In the case of the corpus material cited above, it would be nearly impossible to leave the material unmodified because it is not a succinct sentence or phrase. A modified version such as *Elle pratique le notariat* resembles the original corpus material, but is adapted to suit what the lexicographer is trying to illustrate, i.e. the collocation *pratiquer le notariat*.

1.3.4 Length

Corpus material is often modified for the reason of space constraints, which makes length of examples also an issue. Generally, there are two ways of presenting an example—as a phrase or as a full sentence. Undoubtedly examples in the form of a phrase save dictionary space; yet it is unclear if short phrasal examples are also in the user's interest. The debate revolves around whether a sentence or a phrase is the minimum unit of comprehension and production (Toohey 1996:35-39). Giving more, or less, information could cause user mistakes.

1.3.5 Presentation and Placement

The final issue to be considered here is the way examples are presented within an entry. Presentation is a vital question because it determines how easy the dictionary is to use. There are several example presentation styles that are currently used by dictionaries, or that have been

proposed (Toope 1996:161-66). First, the various types of examples could be clumped together, meaning free combinations, collocations, fixed expressions and compounds will be thrown into one pile under a single sense division, or even all together at the end of the entry itself.

“Clumping” saves space, but requires the user to distinguish between examples that are free combinations and therefore can be applied more generally, and those examples that are more restricted in use. A second option is that of marking the different types of examples as free combinations, collocations, etc. As with the “clumping” option, marked examples can either be placed at the end of each sense division, or at the end of each entry. A third option is to separate the different types of examples—by typographic means, for example.

Another question of presentation applies specifically to restricted examples. For instance, should a collocation, fixed expression or compound be presented only in its lemmatized form, only in an example phrase or sentence, or both?

Toope demonstrates how both separation and marking can improve example presentation by changing the presentation of examples in the OXHA dictionary entry for **franchir**. The OXHA dictionary entry presents the examples as follows:

franchir un obstacle lit to clear an obstacle; fig to overcome an obstacle; **le perchiste a franchi les six mètres** the pole vaulter cleared six metres; **franchir la barre des 10%** to pass the 10% mark; **franchir un cap difficile** to get through a difficult period; **l'équipe a franchi le cap des quarts de finale** the team got past the quarter finals; **franchir le cap de la cinquantaine** to turn fifty; **l'entreprise a franchi un cap décisif en rachetant son rival** buying up its rival was an important turning point for the company.
IDIOMES franchir le pas to take the plunge.

Toope separates the collocations from the idioms, then marks them as such. He also sets apart the free combinations, although he does not mark them. Finally, he adds a few lemmatized

forms to the collocation section to help users identify the collocation proper from the free combination illustrating it. Toope (1996:132) finally suggests the following presentation:

le perchiste a franchi les six mètres the pole vaulter cleared six metres.

COLLOCATIONS

franchir un obstacle lit to clear an obstacle; fig to overcome an obstacle; **franchir la barre (de)** to pass/to get over: **franchir la barre de 10%** to pass the 10% mark;

franchir le cap (de) to get through/past: **franchir un cap difficile** to get through a difficult period; **l'équipe a franchi le cap des quarts de finale** the team got past the quarter finals; **l'entreprise a franchi un cap décisif en rachetant son rival** buying up its rival was an important turning point for the company; **franchir le cap de la cinquantaine** to turn fifty.

IDIOMES franchir le pas to take the plunge.

1.4 Theoretical Issues in Relation to Dictionary Typology

Decisions about the *example*—necessity, number, source, length, presentation and placement—are made by lexicographers as they compile a dictionary. However, these decisions, as well as those pertaining to other elements of the microstructure, are influenced to a large extent by the type of dictionary being prepared.

Although a number of different dictionary typologies have been proposed, they are all based on a certain number of criteria, including number of languages covered, user characteristics, scope of coverage and size (Roberts 1992:364). The first criteria listed above—languages covered—refers not to the languages themselves, e.g. Spanish, Thai, English, etc., but rather to the number of languages covered, meaning whether the dictionary is monolingual, bilingual or multilingual. The languages covered, in large part, determine who the primary audience of the dictionary will be; monolingual dictionaries are normally written for native speakers, whereas bilingual and multilingual dictionaries are intended for speakers who are familiar with one of the languages in the dictionary, but less so or not at all with the other(s).

Specific user characteristics also play a part in the typology. In other words, dictionary content is often compiled with a particular user in mind. Second language learners, for instance, may reference a learner's dictionary because such a dictionary normally takes into account characteristics typical of language learners, e.g. the need for detailed definitions to aid in decoding work, or the need for extra grammatical information to aid in encoding work.

Aside from languages covered and user characteristics, the scope of coverage is also a factor in dictionary typology. The scope of a dictionary refers to whether the nomenclature is general or special-field (Roberts 1992:364). As opposed to general dictionaries, special-field dictionaries usually only cover vocabulary—often technical—of a given field such as engineering or law.

The last criteria of dictionary typology to be discussed here is size. Size refers to the number of words in a dictionary's nomenclature, ranging from under 50,000 entries in pocket dictionaries to around 400,000 entries in unabridged dictionaries (Roberts 1992:365).

The influence of the dictionary type on the *example* was touched on several times in the previous sections concerning theoretical issues of examples, particularly with regard to size and user characteristics. For instance, in reference to the theoretical issue of necessity, the space efficiency of implicit information (examples) versus explicit information (sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes) is discussed. Space is also mentioned as a factor that influences the decisions lexicographers make about examples in the sections discussing number of examples, length of examples and presentation and placement of examples.

User characteristics were also brought up frequently with regard to the theoretical issues surrounding examples. For examples, drawing on Béjoint's study (1981) of university-level

foreign language students, users were cited in reference to necessity of examples. In addition, user comments were extracted from a study by Béjoint (1981) and also a study by Jerzy Tomaszczyk (1979) with regard to number of examples.

However, these studies, as well as those of Clarence L. Barnhart (1962), R. Galisson (1983), Atkins and Knowles (1990) and Nuccorini (1992), did not deal specifically with the example. They addressed user needs in terms of several elements of the microstructure, touching on definition, synonyms, pronunciation, etymology and so forth. Moreover, they did not all limit themselves to a single dictionary type. Tomaszczyk's study (1979), for example, examines user expectations of and satisfaction with several types of dictionaries, including both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. The present thesis research considers the *example* within general bilingual dictionaries of approximately college size, with a focus on the translation student as user.

1.5 Summary of Chapter One

As detailed in the beginning sections of this chapter, a dictionary example, for this research, is considered to be a free combination, collocation, fixed expression or compound in the SL that is accompanied by a TL translation. In the second part of this chapter, a number of theoretical issues surrounding examples were discussed—necessity, number, source, length and presentation/placement of examples—for these issues are the basis of the questions posed in the empirical study on examples for this thesis.

CHAPTER 2

Empirical Testing In Lexicography

While there is no doubt that “research into dictionary use needs to be further encouraged” as Reinhard Hartmann claims (1989:103), this scholar himself admits that some progress has been made in this area. This chapter reviews a number of empirical investigations which explore questions pertinent to lexicography. These studies have addressed many topics including dictionary ownership (Tomaszczyk 1979; Baxter 1980; Béjoint 1981; Atkins and Knowles 1990), frequency of use of monolingual dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries or both (Tomaszczyk 1979; Baxter 1980; Béjoint 1981; Atkins and Knowles 1990; Nuccorini 1992; Mackintosh 1995) and types of information most commonly looked up in dictionaries (Barnhart 1962; Tomaszczyk 1979; Béjoint 1981; Galisson 1983; Nuccorini 1992; Mackintosh 1995). But, although the topics often vary from study to study, each of the investigations has devoted particular attention to dictionary users in relation to the lexicographic research questions at hand. They are thus pertinent to this study, both from the standpoint of focus and from that of methodology.

2.1 User Focus

Researchers gathered information with regard to (1) user preferences, (2) user performance, (3) user needs and (4) user satisfaction of dictionaries.

2.1.1 Preference

A question that is typical of investigations with a focus on user preference is: *Faced with a certain task, what type of dictionary do users turn to?* Researchers who have investigated this

question include Tomaszczyk (1979), Baxter (1980), Béjoint (1981), Galisson (1983), Bensoussan *et al.* (1984), Atkins and Knowles (1990), Nuccorini (1992) and Mackintosh (1995).

Béjoint focussed on user preferences regarding monolingual dictionaries in particular. He wanted to know if students of EFL had a propensity toward “EFL dictionaries¹¹” as opposed to dictionaries designed for native speakers” (1981:215).

All the others mentioned above surveyed dictionary users about their preferences with regard to both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. Tomaszczyk asked users what type or types of dictionaries they would use for specific tasks, namely listening, reading, speaking, writing and translating into L2 or from L2. Atkins and Knowles also asked users about their preferences between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries for accomplishing specific tasks, similar to those Tomaszczyk had inquired about but tailored for an EFL audience. They asked EFL students if they would reference either a monolingual or bilingual dictionary or both types of dictionaries to understand an L2 expression, to translate from L1 into L2 or to find the usage of a known L2 term (1990:386). Galisson asked more open-ended questions with regard to dictionary preferences. He required his subjects, many of them language teachers, to identify the tasks they use a dictionary for; specifically, he asked them, “quelles questions posez-vous au dictionnaire?” (1983:10). Then, he queried the participants about which dictionaries they would choose to consult for the given questions. Similarly, Nuccorini asked teachers and students to report the language questions that prompted them to reference a dictionary and to indicate whether a monolingual, a bilingual, or both types of dictionaries were used to search for an answer to their questions (1992:90,98). James Baxter approached the question of user preference on a more

¹¹ EFL dictionaries are dictionaries for those learning English as a Foreign Language.

general level. He investigated whether Japanese EFL students favor monolingual or bilingual dictionaries for the broad “task” of language study (1980:331-33).

All of the studies mentioned so far have used questionnaires to gather information about user preferences. In contrast, a study by Marsha Bensoussan *et al.* allowed EFL students to bring their preferred dictionary, monolingual or bilingual, if they wished, for use in a reading comprehension test. Finally, Mackintosh investigated user preferences regarding several types of dictionaries by administering *version* translation tests to Francophone and Anglophone translation students, and recording the number of lookups students performed in seven types of dictionaries: general bilingual, general English combinatory, general English monolingual, general French monolingual, specialized English monolingual, specialized French monolingual and specialized hybrid¹² (1995:109).

2.1.2 Performance

User performance has been evaluated by questions of the following type: *Do (different levels of) users perform certain tasks better when they use monolingual dictionaries or when they use bilingual dictionaries?* Researchers investigating this topic include Ard (1982), Bensoussan *et al.* (1984), Atkins and Knowles (1990), Starren and Thelen (1990), Laufer and Melamed (1994) and Nesi (1994).

Batia Laufer and Linor Melamed tested whether students’ comprehension of 15 low-frequency words was better using bilingual dictionaries (5 words tested), monolingual dictionaries

¹² “Hybrid” here refers to bilingual dictionaries such as the Sylvain *Dictionnaire de la comptabilité* that present definitions along with equivalents (Mackintosh 1995:75).

(5 words tested) or bilingualised dictionaries¹³ (5 words tested). Bensoussan *et al.* investigated whether or not reading test scores differed between students who used no dictionary during the test, those who used a monolingual dictionary, and those who used a bilingual dictionary. They also measured the amount of time students took to complete the test, and compared the time taken versus the scores of each of the different groups to determine the overall effect of dictionaries on the testing results. Hilary Nesi also considered time as a measure of performance in his study, but, unlike Bensoussan *et al.*, this researcher was less concerned with the time participants took to complete the test he administered, and more concerned with the amount of time students spent consulting each of the entries he had provided. His main objective was to compare the performance levels of Malaysian versus Portuguese students when using English monolingual learner's dictionary entries to help them understand 18 medium-frequency vocabulary words and then produce original sentences containing these words (1990:578-79).

Atkins and Knowles assessed the dictionary skills of users through a variety of exercises, ranging from looking up multi-word items to identifying parts of speech. However, they were not only interested in user performance, but also in dictionary performance. In their introduction to the EURALEX/AILA Research Project report, they state that they hoped to “find out something about how dictionaries fail students” (1990:382). Moreover, the final question in their report is “Do dictionaries help?” (1990:389).

In fact, in the area of performance, it is nearly impossible to address the performance of the user without addressing the performance of the dictionary and vice versa, though some

¹³ The term “bilingualised dictionary” used by Laufer and Melamed and defined in the Introduction (footnote 2) seems to be a synonym of Mackintosh's “hybrid dictionary” (Mackintosh 1995:52).

research will highlight user performance and other research will highlight dictionary performance. While Bensoussan *et al.*, cited above, concentrated on user performance, Nesi, also cited above, concentrated on the performance of monolingual dictionaries for users from different cultural backgrounds. In either case, the focus remains on the user: one scenario focusses on user skills while the other focusses on improving the dictionary for the user.

Peter Starren and Marcel Thelen concentrated on the usefulness of the dictionary for users by rating the performance of dictionaries, rather than the performance of the subjects, for a translation task. They analyzed their results according to two criteria: organization and therefore accessibility of information in dictionaries, and exhaustiveness of information (1990:447-48). Josh Ard examined whether or not dictionaries, specifically bilingual dictionaries, helped EFL students in the writing process. His experiment took place in two stages. In the first, he compared the compositions of two upper-level EFL students. In the second, he observed the writing process of two EFL students, one who used bilingual dictionaries extensively and the other who rarely consulted the dictionary, following up the observations with a comparison of the compositions.

2.1.3 Needs

A question commonly asked in the study of user needs is : *What types of information do users reference in monolingual dictionaries? in bilingual dictionaries?* Researchers exploring this question, such as Barnhart (1962), Tomaszczyk (1979), Béjoint (1981), Hatherall (1984) and Nuccorini (1992), want to know the specific information that users seek, i.e. need, in their dictionaries.

Barnhart asked the university teachers that he surveyed to “rate six types of information commonly given in [monolingual English] college dictionaries according to their importance to the college freshman,” the types being meaning, spelling, pronunciation, synonyms, usage notes and etymology (1962:162-63). Likewise, Béjoint asked his subjects which types of dictionary information they looked for most often in their monolingual English dictionaries—syntactic information, synonyms, spelling, pronunciation, language variety and etymology (1981:215).

Similar questions have been asked not only about monolingual dictionaries but also about bilingual dictionaries as well, by Tomaszczyk and Nuccorini, for example. Tomaszczyk’s questionnaire included questions about several types of information, including synonyms, spelling, idioms, stress and pronunciation, word division, meaning, syntax and etymology (1979:111). Nuccorini asked EFL students and teachers to fill out forms regarding items looked up in dictionaries; part of this form required the participants to specify the reason for consultation, or in other words the information needed from the dictionary. The choices given were meaning finding, grammar, syntax and complementation, synonym, opposite, collocation, pronunciation and other. The information types of spelling, equivalent and etymology were left to the “other” category, primarily because the participants used the dictionary for decoding rather than encoding, thus reducing the likelihood that any of these information types would be a reason for consultation.

Glyn Hatherall was the only researcher to assess user needs outside of a strict questionnaire format. He enlisted students studying German as a foreign language to do a translation exercise from English to German, allowing use of either bilingual or monolingual dictionaries. The exercise required participants to indicate items from the source text (ST) that they had searched for in a dictionary. From this information, Hatherall commented on the

mismatches between the search items that users looked up and the information available (or not available) in the dictionaries. He concludes that “it is very difficult for the compiler [of a dictionary] to predict the necessity or otherwise of providing collocates for the learner working into the foreign language” (1984:188).

2.1.4 Satisfaction

In analyzing user satisfaction, researchers usually ask: *Are users satisfied with the performance of their monolingual or bilingual dictionary?* The researchers who have examined this question include Tomaszczyk (1979), Béjoint (1981), Galisson (1983) and Mackintosh (1995).

Béjoint is interested in the attitudes of users toward both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. He compares student satisfaction with monolingual dictionaries in relation to that with bilingual dictionaries by asking “Are you satisfied with your monolingual English dictionary? More, or less satisfied, than with your bilingual dictionary?” (1981:217). Tomaszczyk also provides data regarding user satisfaction with both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. Tomaszczyk places the information in two tables: *Dictionaries’ Overall Rating: According to Type* (1979:106, Table 2) and *Ratings of Dictionaries Listed by Learners of Major European Languages* (1979:106, Table 4). Moreover, he questions users about satisfaction concerning specific elements of the dictionary, e.g.: *Satisfaction with Information Found About Meaning of L2 Items* (1979:111, Table 8). Galisson asks about user satisfaction in relation to individual items looked up, and also inquires as to the confidence that dictionary users have in the information provided in the dictionary, a possible factor in satisfaction.

Mackintosh examines user satisfaction in the most detail, focussing on the dissatisfaction participants expressed with different dictionaries during the course of a *version* translation exercise. Drawing conclusions from a total of 203 lookups in which, according to the subjects, no information or only partial information was found for the desired item, she points to specific reasons for dissatisfaction that include missing entries, inadequate definitions and not understanding the system of the dictionary (1995:134).

2.1.5 Multiple User Focuses

Several studies touched on more than one aspect of dictionary use: those of Tomaszczyk (1979), Béjoint (1981), Galisson (1983), Bensoussan *et al.* (1984), Atkins and Knowles (1990), Nuccorini (1992) and Mackintosh (1995). For instance, Atkins and Knowles addressed user preference and performance. User preference was determined by questions on a user profile form regarding the preference of subjects for monolingual, bilingual or both types of dictionaries when faced with certain tasks (1990:386). User performance was measured by a battery of tests intended to assess seven dictionary skills; for example, how often users selected correct prepositions when using a monolingual dictionary versus a bilingual dictionary (1990:382-83). Like Atkins and Knowles, Bensoussan *et al.* also studied user preference and performance. User preference was determined based on the type of dictionary—monolingual or bilingual—that students chose to use, if any, for a reading test. The results of the reading test were then used to study user performance in relation to dictionary type.

Other researchers also had multiple research objectives. Galisson, and later Mackintosh, studied user preference and satisfaction, while Nuccorini examined user preference and needs.

Finally, Tomaszczyk and Béjoint addressed three aspects of dictionary use in their questionnaires: user preference, needs and satisfaction.

2.1.6 Summary Presentation of User Studies

The following table presents all the user studies discussed above, with an indication of their focus.

Table 1—Focus of User Studies

Researcher	Year	Focus of User Study			
		Preference	Performance	Needs	Satisfaction
Barnhart	(1962)			✓	
Tomaszczyk	(1979)	✓		✓	✓
Baxter	(1980)	✓			
Béjoint	(1981)	✓		✓	✓
Ard	(1982)		✓		
Galisson	(1983)	✓			✓
Bensoussan <i>et al.</i>	(1984)	✓	✓		
Hatherall	(1984)			✓	
Atkins and Knowles	(1990)	✓	✓		
Starren and Thelen	(1990)		✓		
Nuccorini	(1992)	✓		✓	
Laufer and Melamed	(1994)		✓		
Nesi	(1994)		✓		
Mackintosh	(1995)	✓			✓

2.2 Subjects

2.2.1 Subject Profile

The subjects studied in the user studies mentioned above were foreign or second language learners in all but three cases. Barnhart targeted a different group, that of American college

freshmen English students (1962:162-63). And Starren and Thelen (1990) and Mackintosh (1995) are the only researchers to have focussed their studies specifically on translation students, although Hatherall's (1984) test consisted of a *thème* translation for language students and Tomaszczyk's (1979) survey included 165 professional translators. The participants' language levels range from beginning EFL student to professional translator. Overall, most participants were university students, high school students or adult education students.

Moreover, the studies performed have been quite international; native speakers of numerous languages have participated in the various tests and surveys. These languages include Japanese, Spanish, Portuguese, Malaysian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Hebrew, English and Arabic.

2.2.2 Number of Subjects

The number of subjects in the studies reviewed for this chapter range from 2 to 1,100. Studies with the fewest subjects are: Ard (2 subjects) (1982); Nuccorini (24 subjects) (1992); and Starren and Thelen (34 subjects) (1990). Atkins and Knowles (1990) had by far the largest group of subjects: 1,100 subjects responded to their user profile questionnaire, and of that number, 723 completed placement and dictionary use tests.

The main disadvantage to having fewer subjects is that the information gathered usually describes only the tendencies of the particular subjects who participated and does not generally provide representative information. However, a large sample group does not guarantee a statistically representative study. Tomaszczyk decided not to analyze statistically the information he gathered from 449 participants in questionnaires because of "the highly tentative nature of the

findings,” (1979:104) though it is not clear whether he means that the subject matter was so complex that the many variables could not be analyzed statistically or if he means that the groups he tested were not homogeneous and therefore could only generate tentative findings. Atkins and Knowles also noted that, while their study was large with more than 700 subjects, their sample group did not turn out to be statistically balanced. They recommended that future projects “consult a statistician in the early stages of project design” (1990:391). Béjoint, on the other hand considers his sample group of 122 subjects as “representative of the average French student using monolingual English dictionaries” (1981:208), but also recognizes that “further studies are needed before lexicographers can draw any firm conclusions” (1981:220).

2.3 Methodology Discussion

Not only do lexicographic user studies vary in the number of subjects studied and in the questions examined, but also in the methods used to explore these questions. The three main methods used are questionnaires, direct observation and assessment tests, all of which possess certain advantages and disadvantages.

2.3.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used by the large majority of the researchers cited in 2.1 above, despite their obvious disadvantages. The main disadvantage is that they are suspected of gathering information about how subjects want to portray themselves rather than their true actions (Hatherall 1984:184). For example, if a user knows that advanced language learners are more likely to reference monolingual dictionaries, will the user honestly report significant bilingual

dictionary use? In addition, it is possible that subjects are not aware of or cannot recall their own actions. Béjoint asked *Can you recall occasions when you could not find what you were looking for [in the dictionary]?* He reports that “many students could not remember such occasions” (1981:217). Finally, Tomaszczyk quips that “when completing a questionnaire some people will check any box there is” (1979:108).

Nevertheless, questionnaires remain by far the most popular research method, primarily because they are a practical and cost-efficient way of gathering information from large sample groups. One reason Galisson chose to use questionnaires is because he did not have the time to personally interview 100 participants (1983:5). Even with a small sample group, Nuccorini chose to use a questionnaire format because of “the absence of financial and technical facilities” (1992:90).

Another advantage of questionnaires is that they do not generally have to be filled out in a controlled environment. For instance, one of the reasons Galisson chose to use questionnaires was that certain questions required subjects to do a small amount of bibliographic research, e.g. check the titles and editions of all the dictionaries they owned (1983:5,9). So, he sent the participants home with the questionnaires. However, this flexibility allowed by the questionnaire method could also prove to be a disadvantage, possibly lowering the number of respondents.

2.3.2 Direct Observation

Even though Hatherall did not use the direct observation method himself, he is convinced that direct observation is the most reliable method because it allows researchers to “watch users in action” (1984:184). Researchers using direct observation methods often take notes about what

subjects are doing in the process of performing a certain task such as writing an essay in a second language (Ard 1982) or translating (Mackintosh 1995). Direct observation can also involve video recording subjects as they perform a task, which allows the researcher to view user actions from different perspectives (depending on where the researcher is sitting in relation to the camera and on the number of cameras used). Video recording has the added advantage of allowing the researcher to go back again and again to “observe” the users. Tape recording is also used with direct observation, although its use is more complex since it obliges subjects performing non-verbal¹⁴ tasks to think aloud as they are performing the task.

The nature of direct observation has made it a method that is capable of drawing out fairly in-depth information. For instance, if research is being conducted on the study habits of university students, direct observation methods might reveal that a student is studying in an area of the library that is noisy, information that is almost impossible to elicit through questionnaires or testing.

Yet, there are drawbacks to direct observation. First, subject numbers are usually limited in direct observation studies since it is such a time-intensive method; thus, the data gathered in such studies is generally only representative of the sample group of subjects who participated in the study and not an entire population of subjects. Second, direct observation may affect user performance and behavior, for example, making users highly nervous (Hatherall 1984:184). It is safe to assume that tape recorders and especially video cameras would have a definite impact on user performance and behavior.

¹⁴ Non-verbal here means something that does not involve speaking aloud.

Direct observation might be more effective if users do not feel the anxiety of being under constant observation. For instance, a computer program can record the time that users take to reference dictionary entries (Nesi 1994), so that users do not have the same feeling of being “watched” as they would if they were recorded by the researcher’s cameras. They are thus less likely to put up affective barriers and may behave more “naturally.”

However, Hatherall admits that “it is unlikely that all the information the researcher needs would be retrievable via the visual medium” (1984:184). This is evidenced by the fact that researchers trying to capture cognitive processes often ask their subjects to think out loud (Ard 1982; Mackintosh 1995). Thinking aloud, though, has its limitations, too, in that it often gives “information only about students’ conscious awareness of their reasoning” (Ard 1982:14).

2.3.3 Assessment Tests

Testing is the primary means of assessing user performance. However, test situations, like direct observation, may influence the behavior of participants, perhaps altering their performance, although it is not possible to determine if performance is negatively or positively affected. User performance may be either heightened or decreased under test pressure; some participants work efficiently in such situations, while other participants cannot concentrate on the task as they normally would.

Nonetheless, testing seems to be one of the least controversial methodologies as not one researcher who chose to use assessment tests felt the need to outline its advantages or disadvantages, whereas researchers who used questionnaires or direct observation often felt obliged to justify their methodology choices. While arguments do exist, particularly in

pedagogical circles, regarding the usefulness of tests to evaluate user knowledge, in quantitative research, assessment tests seem to stand as the norm for examining user performance. Perhaps this is because testing provides concrete information about what participants are doing rather than what they think they are doing (questionnaires) or what a researcher thinks a participant is doing (direct observation). Moreover, it is an effective means of gathering data from a large sample group.

2.3.4 Combinations of Methods

Given that each of the methods outlined above has its disadvantages, some researchers have used a combination of methods. For instance, since criticism of questionnaires has become prevalent (Nuccorini 1992), many researchers, e.g. Hatherall (1984), Bensoussan *et al.* (1984) and Atkins and Knowles (1990), have used questionnaires in combination with assessment tests. This combination approach seems not only to negate criticisms about questionnaire use in empirical research, but also to allow researchers to gather information via the questionnaire that supplements or double-checks results acquired through testing. For example, Hatherall administered a questionnaire to follow up a translation test (1984:186). Bensoussan *et al.* tested three groups and distributed questionnaires to a fourth group of students to verify their results (1984:268).

It should be noted here that, while direct observation and think aloud protocols might be considered a combination of methods, think aloud protocol does not seem to constitute a method per se on its own. It usually occurs along with a method that can stand on its own, such as direct observation.

The table below summarizes the type of methodology used by researchers along with their objectives.

Table 2—Methodology of User Studies

Methodology Used	Researcher	Year	Focus of User Study
Questionnaire	Barnhart	(1962)	User Needs
	Tomaszczyk	(1979)	User Preference, Needs and Satisfaction
	Baxter	(1980)	User Preference
	Béjoint	(1981)	User Preference, Needs and Satisfaction
	Galisson	(1983)	User Preference and Satisfaction
	Nuccorini	(1992)	User Preference and Needs
Assessment Test	Starren and Thelen	(1990)	User Performance
	Laufer and Melamed	(1994)	User Performance
	Nesi	(1994)	User Performance
Questionnaire & Assessment Test	Bensoussan <i>et al.</i>	(1984)	User Preference and Performance
	Hatherall	(1984)	User Needs
	Atkins and Knowles	(1990)	User Preference and Performance
Assessment Test & Direct Observation (with Think Aloud Protocol)	Ard	(1982)	User Performance
	Mackintosh	(1995)	User Preference and Satisfaction

2.4 Summary of Chapter Two

This chapter reviewed a number of dictionary use studies, concentrating on the four main user focuses that were addressed in the studies overall: user preference, user performance, user needs and user satisfaction. The various methodologies of these studies were also examined—questionnaires, direct observation, assessment tests—with the goal of identifying an appropriate methodology for the present user study on examples.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

The process of consulting dictionaries, then transforming dictionary information into a translation equivalent is a decidedly complex mental process. Furthermore, it is an internalized process that is rarely, if ever, explicitly articulated. It is doubtful, then, that research methods such as questionnaires and direct observation could capture the mental mechanisms at work, or even that a think-aloud protocol, used in combination with other methods, could externalize the process simply through verbalization. Moreover, my choice of research method was further restricted by the fact that I wanted to narrow in on a specific detail of the cognitive translation process: the part examples play in choosing a translation equivalent, and even more precisely, the contribution of certain elements of examples over others in choosing accurate translation equivalents. Thus, I chose the assessment test option, and I designed a test that would duplicate a translation exercise, but control the content of the dictionary examples so I could monitor the effect of example elements.

In this chapter, I will describe (1) the test design, (2) improvement of the test design through pre-testing and pilot testing, (3) the administration of the final test and a profile of the subjects used in the final test, and (4) organization of the test data and description of statistical procedures used to query the test data.

3.1 Test Design

3.1.1 Test Format

The test comprises a French text on the left side of the test booklet and the corresponding

English translation on the right side. The test contains 29 lexical items in the French text that correspond with blanks in the English text. In other words, the test is a kind of bilingual cloze test.

The test booklet is accompanied by a separate dictionary booklet that contains bilingual dictionary entries for the items in the French text left blank in the English text. In the case of two-part (or more complex) lexical items, a dictionary entry is provided for each part. For example, the cloze test item *guerre des ondes* is accompanied by an entry for both *guerre* and *onde*.

Each entry is prefaced by a question prompting participants to indicate if they consulted that entry in the process of completing the related test item. For example, the dictionary entry *image* is preceded by the question:

*Did you look at the dictionary entry **image** to help you answer question 1? Yes ☐ No ☐*

Following pre-testing and pilot testing, participants were also asked to underline the part(s) of the entry, if any, that helped them answer a given test question. This method decreases the possibility of error in the analysis by providing positive proof of what a participant consulted while answering a test question.

The test booklet and dictionary booklet used for final testing are presented in Appendix 1 and Appendix 2, respectively.

3.1.2 Choice of Text

The one constant at the stages of pre-testing, pilot-testing and final testing was the ST used. It was taken from the translation textbook, *Annotated Texts for Translation: French-English*. This particular textbook provides authentic source texts in French along with

corresponding English translations. The text selected is a two-page article that comments on the role of the media in the Gulf War; it originally appeared in *L'Événement européen*, a magazine addressing political and social issues concerning Europe and the world.¹⁵

The text was chosen because: 1) its topic was culturally familiar; 2) it contained all three major types of fixed lexical items, i.e. compounds, collocations and fixed expressions; 3) its figurative nature makes it lexically challenging; and, 4) it had already been translated.

3.1.2.1 Topic

It was necessary to select a text with a topic that was culturally familiar to the majority of students who would be taking the test at the University of Ottawa.¹⁶ The text selected meets this criteria; it is based on an international event involving the West and the Near East—the Gulf War. Furthermore, a search in the BCD textual database of the 129 million word *English Canadian Press* corpus and the 77 million word *Press canadienne française* supports this conclusion; the *Gulf War* (1865 occurrences) or the *guerre du Golfe* (552 occurrences) was a widely-discussed topic in both the English and French press of Canada.

3.1.2.2 Fixed Items

As noted previously, one of the aims of this test is to examine fixed items, namely compounds, collocations and fixed expressions, in regard to examples. For instance, there is the

¹⁵ Magazine issue topics include: *La protection sociale et ses maux* (N° 5, February 1989); *Le Golfe en conflits* (N° 13, March 1991); *Développement, environnement, coopération* (N° 23-24, September 1993).

¹⁶ This study is not intended to test the effectiveness of bilingual dictionaries in translation of culturally unknown concepts.

question, among others, of whether fixed items should be illustrated by free combination examples. Therefore, the presence of fixed items figured heavily into text selection. It was difficult to find a brief enough text for testing purposes that also contained an ample number of fixed items. This article, with over 20 fixed items, met this criteria, and 15 of these items were eventually included as part of the pre-test.

3.1.2.3 Figurative Style

Thirdly, the text was written in a highly figurative style. This provides two advantages. First, the text is not so simplistic that the user foregoes consulting the dictionary. Second, the use of a figurative text makes it possible to examine whether the dictionary can give good results, not only for literal meanings, but also for figurative meanings. One pilot test participant remarked that she could not decide if the dictionary equivalent provided for the French word *leurre*, *decoy* (that was only marked with the field label *Mil*), would be valid in a figurative sense, so she opted for another equivalent, which was incorrect. Figurative information, supplied in an example or by an explicit marker, would have guided this user to the appropriate equivalent. Of course, this raises practical questions as well such as how frequently the lexical item needs to occur in a figurative sense in order to justify labeling it as figurative or supplying a figurative example in a dictionary entry.

Probably most interesting is the case of *racine* used in the author's expression *racine de doute* (here meaning *seed of doubt*). The dictionary entry provides several figurative examples of *racine* which are marked as such. However, while there is, in fact, a figurative example that applies to our context, it is not marked as figurative. Yet, the pilot test participants who consulted

this entry were able to match the context with the example even without a figurative label to guide them.

3.1.2.4 Translated Text

One stage of the pre-test analysis for this study required that the English equivalents be categorized as correct, partially correct or incorrect. For example, the English equivalents *gathered*, *gathered together* and *assembled* were identified as correct equivalents for the second cloze test item, *réunie*. Having access to the translation published in the textbook allowed me to not be unduly influenced by my own interpretation and translation of the text. In other words, it gave me yet another source to reference (in addition to bilingual dictionaries) as I established lists of the equivalents that would be accepted or not.

It should be mentioned here, though, that it was impossible to anticipate all acceptable equivalents based on the textbook translation or the bilingual dictionaries. If a student responded with an equivalent not found in these sources, the response was identified as correct, partially correct or incorrect based on monolingual dictionaries and/or corpus analysis, and then incorporated into the existing list to ensure consistency.

3.1.2.5 Additional Considerations

It might be argued that the text and its translation is written in Continental French and British English, whereas the test subjects are generally North American. While this is true, it should also be recognized that the French-English bilingual dictionaries sold in Canada are also written in these two geographical dialects. It would be nearly impossible to find a bilingual

Canadian dictionary on the market as the first and only French-English Canadian dictionary, *Dictionnaire canadien* (DC), was published in 1962 and has been out of print since the 1970's.

It should be noted that technical or specialized texts would likely contain lexically challenging items, triggering dictionary consultation as well, but since they would include a number of terms and few, if any, figurative senses or expressions, I felt they would not be appropriate text choices for testing general bilingual dictionaries. Furthermore, the text selected contains a number of lexical items used in a literal sense, which provides a balance to the figurative nature of the text.

Finally, the possibility of using sentences or paragraphs from several texts (in lieu of a complete text) was considered. This might seem desirable in that dictionary examples are at the phrase, clause or sentence level. However, in most cases communication takes place on a textual level. Dictionary makers realize this and intend for their examples to be generalizable to the textual level. Thus, it was essential that the test be composed of a single text and not excerpts from a variety of texts.

3.1.3 Choice of Lexical Items

The overriding concern in establishing the cloze test was to choose items in the ST that were not transparent, meaning lexically challenging items that students could not translate by rote. Careful attention was also paid to representing the major parts of speech: verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs.

After the initial selection, a few of the original items were dropped because they brought too many grammatical factors into play. For example, the verb *manquer* was originally tagged as a

possible test item. However, it was eventually eliminated because the context, *la guerre du Golfe n'en aura pas manqué . . .*, forced the user to recognize that the lexical form was actually *manquer de*.

It is improbable that any single text could have met the demands put on it for testing in this study. In order to address the questions raised in Toope's synthesis of examples, I needed a text that contained several fixed and non-fixed items, which were lexically challenging, but not tangled up in syntactic transfer problems as well.

The text was not the only deciding factor in the selection of the test items; the bilingual dictionary entries in the RCSS, OXHA and LAR2 also played a role. It was necessary to choose items whose dictionary entries offered lexical and/or semantic information above and beyond a single equivalent. For example, the LAR2 entry for *aseptiser* was rejected because it offered only one equivalent, *to aseptize*, without additional lexical or semantic information. Fortunately, the RCSS entry for *aseptiser* was more developed, which allowed me to retain this item.

Forty lexical items in the ST were chosen for pre-testing, but the final selection of lexical items in the ST that would be left blank in the testing was made only after the pre-test.

3.1.4 Choice of Bilingual Dictionary Entries

Bilingual dictionary entries for the pre-test were taken directly from the RCSS, OXHA and LAR2. For example, the first cloze test item, *à l'image de*, is accompanied by the bilingual dictionary entry *image* from the OXHA.

The dictionaries selected were chosen for a variety of reasons. The Robert-Collins French-English/English-French dictionaries are frequently recommended to students beginning translation

programs in the School of Translation and Interpretation at the University of Ottawa; most translation students at the STI own one of the one-volume collegiate editions, the most recent published in 1993. For this study, the most current edition was used—a two volume reference work published in 1995 (RCSS). Nonetheless, the formats of the one-volume and two-volume works are similar and many of the entries are identical. The majority of students at the STI are thus acquainted with this dictionary. The OXHA is an excellent corpus-based dictionary, published in 1994, which is also known to translation students since it is available for reference in the STI student documentation room. Larousse is another major publisher of both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and therefore the LAR2, published in 1993, was included in this study.

For pilot and final testing, the dictionary booklet contained entries from the same three bilingual dictionaries mentioned above, but the entries were modified where necessary to test the specific aspects of examples outlined in the Introduction to this thesis. I was expecting to be more intrusive than was actually necessary in making the entries conform to the questions. In most cases, it was possible to include an existing dictionary entry without modifications. This, in essence, tests what the dictionaries are already doing. In some cases, minor modifications were made.

For example, the lexical item *beau* was assigned to the test question regarding number of free combinations. Given the high frequency of *beau*, this entry naturally contains a large number of free combinations, but several more free combinations were added from other entries to bolster the number.

The entry containing *sacrifier à*, which was chosen to examine whether or not a lexical item that is not fixed is more beneficial to users when presented separately from the main body of

the entry (for **sacrifier**, in this case), was modified only slightly. The test ST and target text (TT) for this item is **sacrifiant à son tour à la longue tradition de l'intox** *in its turn, _____ the long-standing tradition of military deception*, which corresponds lexically, but not semantically with an example in the entry à Noël, **sacrifiez à la tradition** *keep tradition alive at Christmas*. On the other hand, the example in the entry that is applicable to the test context is **sacrifier à la mode** *to conform to OU to go along with (the dictates) of fashion*. To not blatantly mislead users, a partial example was added and translated for the applicable example above: **sacrifier à la mode/la coutume locale**.

The entry for *franchir (limites)* was also slightly modified. The sense division that applied to the test listed actants at the beginning of the sense: **ligne, limite, date**. This entry, though, could not contain explicit information such as actants because they would interfere with the question being examined with regard to whether or not collocations should be presented as examples in lemmatized form¹⁷ or in a free combination. Therefore, the primary changes to this sense division involved eliminating the actants *ligne* and *date*, and replacing the actant *limite* with an applicable free combination example containing the collocation *franchir (limites)*, which was taken from the *Presse canadienne française* corpus and translated.

The entries for *champ* and *relais* were also modified by replacing source examples in these entries with examples drawn from the *Presse canadienne française* corpus. The original examples in *champ* were basically phrase length, and since the *champ* entry was assigned to represent the question of whether or not longer free combinations were beneficial to users, it was necessary to include free combinations that were sentence length. The corpus provided sentence length source

¹⁷ *Lemmatized form* in this thesis refers to a lemma in its canonical form, e.g. a verb in the infinitive.

examples, which were in turn translated. *Relais* represents the question of source of free combinations, in particular free combinations originating from corpus. Therefore, examples in this entry were replaced by examples drawn from the *Presse canadienne française* to ensure that each of the examples was corpus-based, and then translated.

Presented above are the major modifications introduced into the selected dictionary entries following pre-testing. Now, the stages of pre-testing and pilot testing will be described.

3.2 Improvement of the Test Design through Pre-Testing and Pilot Testing

3.2.1 Pre-Test

The goal of the pre-test was to determine which lexical items would be retained in further testing trials. It was decided to not solicit translation students for this trial in order to maintain a large enough sample group of translation students for final testing. Therefore, it was necessary to identify a group that shared characteristics with translation students. Second language students held the most in common with translation students. Students in second language courses and students in translation both have a working knowledge of French and English, though conceivably at different levels, and both groups are presumably familiar with bilingual dictionaries. Admittedly, many language teaching methods advise teachers to train their students to bypass their native language, to start thinking in their second or foreign language, while translation students must deliberately think in terms of both languages. Yet, for this stage of testing, I was not interested in the translation abilities per se of the second language students, but in their ability to answer a question in light of the dictionary information provided them.

3.2.1.1 Administration of Pre-Test

Two teachers in the Second Language Institute at the University of Ottawa agreed to their students taking the test. Both were teaching French writing courses, one intermediate (FLS 2761R) and one advanced (FLS 3761R).

The test was given as optional homework in the advanced course. The students were explicitly instructed not to consult dictionary entries other than those provided nor to consult any other person. They were also instructed to respect the time limit of one hour. Of eight tests, three were handed back. Each of these students assured me that they had neither consulted other dictionaries nor other people. Their responses to the cloze items also reflect the fact that these instructions were followed as none of their translation solutions “stray” too far from the information provided in the dictionary entries. It would have been preferable to have administered the test personally; but I was not in a position to insist on this point. These teachers were volunteering class time of their own accord.

The test was also optional in the intermediate writing course, but testing was permitted in class.¹⁸ The professor had allotted 45 minutes for testing.¹⁹ It was quite apparent, though, that students would not be able to complete 40 items within that time frame. So, the test was divided into two parts: items 1-20 and items 21-40. All students were still given the complete text, but those who received Version 1 (items 1-20) were provided with the answers for items 21-40 and

¹⁸ The teacher announced the test one week prior to the testing date, and offered to award points to those who participated. Points were not awarded on the basis of correct response, but rather on the condition of serious-minded participation (and attendance at the following week’s class for a 15-minute presentation on dictionary use).

¹⁹ Students would have 35 minutes to work on the test after instructions had been given and the tests distributed.

vice versa in the translation. I was concerned about the possibility of cheating in this situation,²⁰ but in light of the time constraints, I decided the students would need as coherent a TT as possible in order to concentrate on their given items. Thirteen students completed Version 1 (items 1-20) and 12 students completed Version 2 (items 21-40).

In total, including the advanced course, 16 students completed the first portion of the test and 15 students completed the second portion.²¹

3.2.1.2 Evaluation of Pre-Test

The primary aim of pre-testing was to remove any of the 40 original lexical test items that were overly transparent, or complicated by syntactic problems. Part of this analysis necessitated that responses be marked as correct, partially correct or incorrect.

3.2.1.2.1 Determining Response Status: correct, partially correct, incorrect

A list of correct responses was determined on the basis of the equivalent given in the textbook and the three bilingual dictionaries. If the equivalent was correct, full credit was assigned even if there were grammatical problems (e.g. *No camera scenes or witnesses were allowed to counterbalance the official information, often set up as *(a) smokescreen*). Partially correct responses were determined based on criteria which will be explained below. Responses falling

²⁰ In any case, points were not awarded for correct responses or deducted for incorrect responses, which eliminated much of the motivation behind cheating on tests.

²¹ Basic group balancing was practiced in the intermediate-level course. Of the four males, two were asked to complete Version 1 and two were asked to complete Version 2. This was not possible in the advanced course as all were female students.

outside of the above two categories were marked as incorrect. Any unanticipated responses were checked in monolingual dictionaries and/or by corpus analysis, then classified accordingly. Care was taken to place similar responses in the same category.

Partial credit was assigned in the following cases:

- 1) Borderline equivalents. For example, the translation of *à l'image de* as *images of* was assigned half-credit: *An unprecedented mobilisation of the Press (mainly Western in origin, images of the armed coalition units) accompanied the largest military armada gathered since the Vietnam war.* In contrast, equivalents such as *just like*, *similar to* and *resembling* were assigned full credit.
- 2) If a correct equivalent was part of the answer, but the form it was given in changed the meaning, then only partial credit was assigned. For the translation of *parachevant*²², we accepted the equivalent *complete* and its variants such as *completing*, *completed*, etc. However, the response *being completed by* was only given partial credit. It contains the correct equivalent, but changes the meaning in the text: *Certain pre-existing attitudes have been confirmed, being completed by the already dominant tendency . . .*

A slight change in form resulting in a change in meaning occurred most often in the case of *guerre des ondes*. The dictionary entry provided the equivalent *battle FOR the airwaves*. Variants such as *battle for the airWAYS* were accepted, but only partial credit was given to *battle OF the airwaves*. *Battle OF* is a common structure; take, for example, *Battle of the Bulge*, *Battle of Trafalgar*, *battle of wits*, or *battle of the bands*. Moreover, the preposition+article, *des*,

²² *Parachevant* was a pre-test item that was not retained for final testing.

ST: Des logiques déjà à l'oeuvre ont été confirmées, parachevant la tendance lourde du dispositif médiatique moderne . . .

TT: Certain pre-existing attitudes have been confirmed, _____ the already dominant tendency of modern media organization . . .

commonly translates as *of*. However, this solution does not work in the test TT context. The structure *battle+of* normally focuses on the place where the battle occurred or what is being used as the weapon, i.e. wits or bands. On the other hand, our context is:

In order to reassert their world dominance during the Gulf War, and to clearly indicate to the Middle East the boundaries which should not be crossed, especially when the energy interests of the Western world are at stake, the United States waged a battle for the airwaves.

This context requires that the focus be placed on the object to be obtained through battle, as in *battle for power, battle for survival, battle for supremacy*.

3) Several of the SL items were composed of two parts. In three cases, these items could not be classified as fixed items: *érigée en trompe-l'oeil, assister de son fauteuil, apporter la consécration finale*. These were separate lexical items that the author had placed together to create a stylistic expression. That they are text-specific combinations is apparent from the fact that dictionaries do not translate these items as units and that corpus searches do not contain frequent occurrences of these items in combination.²³ Students were thus assigned half of a point if they provided a correct equivalent for at least one of the items. For example, if a student translated *érigée en trompe-l'oeil* as *establish a smokescreen*, half-credit was given because the second

²³ Searching with the root forms in the *Presse canadienne française* corpus, there were no occurrences of *érigée* near *trompe-l'oeil*, nine occurrences of *assister* near *fauteuil* (but none applicable) and one of *apporter* near *consécration*.

>> *erig* near "trompe-l'oeil "

1: no match

>> *assist* near "fauteuil "

2: 9 matches

>> *apport* near "consecration "

3: one match

28851053, ..tale. Son premier livre de poèmes la Balaza, paraît en 1947. Suivront une vingtaine de recueils de poésie qui lui apportent la consécration. Installé à Mexico en 1956, Alvaro Mutis est devenu une ..

element is correct, while the first is not. It is important to point out that half-credit was never assigned in the cases of compounds, collocations or fixed expressions. For example, *franchir le seuil* is a collocation. One student only provided *cross* as a response, which should have been *cross the threshold*; this answer was therefore given no credit. Fixed items are considered inseparable. One part cannot operate without the other; both need to be present to convey meaning.

3.2.1.2.2 Items Retained After Pre-Test

Items used for testing in the pre-test were analyzed using two conditions: the response status (correct, partially correct, incorrect) and dictionary consultation (yes or no²⁴). Three types of items were retained:

- 1) incorrect response+yes (consulted the dictionary entry);
- 2) partially correct response+yes (consulted the dictionary entry); and
- 3) incorrect response+no (did not consult the dictionary entry).

The first two response patterns suggest that the dictionary is hindering correct transfer; and it is possible that these types of errors could be traced to elements of the examples, or other elements of the entry, although there may be other feasible explanations such as mis- or non-comprehension of the test ST. The last pattern was manifested most commonly in the cases of cognates. It would be reasonable to assume that translation students would be more cautious of deceptive cognates (*faux amis*), and might be more likely to use the dictionary entries in these cases. If not, it could prove interesting to examine what types of items translation students are most likely to reference in a bilingual dictionary. Eighteen items of the first response type were

²⁴ Blanks were counted as a no response unless evidence, such as marks in the entry, indicated otherwise.

retained (e.g. *à l'image de, avoisinant, consentir à*), four of the second (e.g. *décalage, racine de doute, franchir le seuil*) and seven of the third type (e.g. *réunir, beau, évidemment*).

3.2.1.2.3 Changes Made in Research Questions Based on Pre-Test Analysis

The initial specific questions regarding examples were adapted as necessary to suit the items that were retained based on pre-testing. For example, the question regarding compounds had to be eliminated because the pre-test revealed that the compounds in this text were too transparent; therefore only one compound was retained for pilot and final testing. Since the final analysis involves comparative analysis, it would have been necessary to have at least two viable compounds in order to test questions such as:

- Should compounds be illustrated with free combinations?
- Should compounds be separated in the entry from other types of lexical items such as collocations or fixed expression?

The final list of example aspects to be tested is as follows (modifications and specifications are indicated by bold font):

1. number of free combinations (**few versus many**)
2. source of free combinations (**constructed versus corpus**)
3. length of free combinations (**shorter versus longer**)
4. presentation of **non-fixed items** (**separated from main body of entry versus not separated**)
5. presentation of **fixed items** for headwords with a large number of fixed items (**separated from main body of entry versus not separated**)
6. presentation of **fixed items** for headwords with a small number of fixed items (**separated from main body of entry versus not separated**)
7. pertinence of implicit information versus explicit information for **collocations**
(i.e. collocation given in a free combination example versus collocation given in lemmatized form)
8. pertinence of implicit information versus explicit information for **fixed expressions**
(i.e. fixed expression given in a free combination example versus fixed expression given in lemmatized form)
9. pertinence of implicit information in comparison with explicit information for **non-fixed items**
(i.e. information in a free combination example versus information given in sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes)

In order to test the opposing hypotheses, each aspect above was assigned two lexical items that had been retained from pre-testing. For example, aspect 4—presentation of non-fixed items—was assigned *sacrifier à* and *consentir à*. The first item, *sacrifier à*, was intended to test how users respond to presentation of a non-fixed item when it is separated from the main body of the entry. The second item, *consentir à*, was intended to test how users respond to presentation of a non-fixed item when it is not separated from the main body of the entry. Appendix 3 lists each question along with the lexical items chosen to represent the question.

3.2.2 Pilot Test

The pilot test sample included 10 people, either students or former students of the School of Translation. More than half had received training as lexicographers at the BCD Project, so it was a fairly rigorous test of the instrument. Minor formatting changes were made in view of the pilot results. In addition, the time limit was extended by fifteen minutes to a total of one hour and fifteen minutes.

3.3 Final Test

3.3.1 Test Administration

A total of ninety translation students, both Francophone and Anglophone, participated in the test. One participant was unable to finish the final seven test items (23-29) within the given time frame; therefore these last test items have a participant pool of 89.

It should be noted that 68 participants completed the test as part of regular course work, and were given a mark. Several other students participated outside of their courses in test sessions

under my supervision, or, if unable to attend a test session, were given detailed written instructions and asked to verify that they had completed the test within the time limit and had not used any documentation other than the bilingual dictionary entries provided.

3.3.2 Subject Profile

Participants in the final test also completed a student profile survey, providing information about their language and educational backgrounds, work experience and dictionary use. This information contained in the surveys provides a picture of the translation students tested. The survey information was also used to identify specific dictionary user groups within the main user group of translation students, making it possible not only to look at the performance of the entire group of participants, but also to compare the different user groups that comprise the population sample. Each section of the student profile survey will be addressed below: language, education, language-related work experience and dictionary use. The student profile survey is presented in Appendix 4.

3.3.2.1 Language

Of the entire subject group consisting of 90 students, 48 consider French as their first language, while 42 consider English as their first language, given the choice between French and English. Of the 48 Francophones, 43 consider themselves bilingual, while all 42 of the Anglophones consider themselves bilingual.

In addition, many participants report having lived in a place where they used their second language—French or English—on a daily basis (34 Francophones, 28 Anglophones).²⁵ Moreover, several of these participants lived in their second language environment for a year or more (20 Francophones, 17 Anglophones).

-Aside from French and English, a variety of other languages are spoken at home by Francophones: Norwegian, Spanish, Italian, Arabic and Kinyarwanda. Anglophones speak languages besides French or English at home as well, specifically Korean, German, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese.

3.3.2.2 Education

Sixty-eight participants were translation students in a second year lexicology and translation course, though not all of the students in this course were officially registered in the second year. In total, 43 participants were in the second year of the translation program (29 Francophones, 14 Anglophones), 20 participants in the third year (10 Francophones, 10 Anglophones) and 13 participants in the fourth year (5 Francophones, 8 Anglophones). The remaining participants were master's students—1st year, 2nd year, 3rd year or higher—or recently graduated master's students (3 Francophones, 11 Anglophones).

Several of the students report that they hold previous degrees, generally in languages, literature, linguistics, humanities or social sciences.

With regard to language education specifically, almost all participants report having received formal second language training, the majority having studied their second language for a

²⁵ Two participants did not respond to this question.

period of 6 to 15 years. In addition, some participants attended classes in which the subject matter was taught in their second language as early as elementary school, the majority of these participants being Anglophones who participated in French immersion programs. The same ratio is present in the secondary programs: more Anglophones received instruction in different subjects in their second language because of immersion programs. In university, both Francophones and Anglophones report some subject instruction as being in their second language. Overall, though, only a small portion of the total participants (no more than 25) received regular subject instruction in their second language at the elementary, or secondary or university level.

3.3.2.3 Language-Related Work Experience

Many of the participants have had work experience in their second language (63 total), employed in jobs such as tour guide, receptionist, translator and so forth. Most have one year of experience or less (14 Francophones, 20 Anglophones). However, a few have a substantial amount of experience, with three Anglophones reporting experience of 15, 20 and 21 years respectively. Between the low and high end, there are participants reporting 2-3 years of work experience in their second language (6 Francophones, 4 Anglophones), 4-5 years (6 Francophones, 1 Anglophone) and 6-10 years (5 Francophones, 4 Anglophones).²⁶

There are fewer participants with work experience in translation or translation-related fields such as terminology or bilingual writing (36 total). Of these 36 participants, 28 participants report work experience of one year or less in translation fields (8 Francophones, 20 Anglophones); six participants have 2-4 years experience (3 Francophones, 3 Anglophones); finally, two Anglophones report experience of 7 and 21 years respectively.²⁷

²⁶ Six participants did not respond to this question.

²⁷ Six participants did not respond to this question.

Overall, approximately the same number of Francophones (31) and Anglophones (32) have work experience in their second language, although more Anglophones (25) than Francophones (11) have work experience specifically in translation-related fields.

3.3.2.4 Dictionary Use

The majority of Francophones (41 out of 48) and Anglophones (35 out of 42) reported that they own a version of the Robert-Collins bilingual French-English/English-French dictionary. The remaining participants own either an OXHA (10), HASH (15) or LAR (9) bilingual dictionary. Some participants (10 Francophones, 12 Anglophones) own more than one of these bilingual dictionaries.²⁸

The majority of participants also reported that they use a version of the Robert-Collins bilingual dictionary most often (37 Francophones, 32 Anglophones). Very few use the OXHA (3), HASH (4) or LAR (0) more often than the Robert-Collins.²⁹

Approximately equal numbers of Francophones (33) and Anglophones (32) report having read the front matter of a dictionary.³⁰ Most participants also report that they have received training in dictionary use at the university level (38 Francophones, 31 Anglophones).³¹

²⁸ Five participants did not respond to this question.

²⁹ Nine participants did not respond to this question.

³⁰ Five participants did not respond to this question.

³¹ Six participants did not respond to this question.

3.3.2.5 Subject Profiles and User Groups

The subject profile surveys indicated that there were a number of specific user groups in the general population of translation students tested: students with French immersion experience versus students with no French immersion experience, students with work experience in their second language versus those with none, and so forth.

For this research, the general group of 90 translation students was divided into user groups of Francophone translation students and Anglophone translation students. The groups were formed based on responses received to the following questions:

Between French and English which is your primary language? French ☐ English ☐
Between French and English which is your second language? French ☐ English ☐

The division of dictionary users into two major groups by primary language makes it possible to note differences in dictionary use in both *version* and *thème*, since the test involved a ST in French to be partially translated into English. For example, it will be possible to measure whether Francophone students or Anglophone students are more likely to choose accurate translation equivalents when they have access to several examples.

3.4 Organization of Test Data and Statistical Procedures Used to Query Data

3.4.1 Organization of Test Data

The test data was collected from both the dictionary test booklet and the cloze translation test. It was then was organized into four categories, which are defined below.

3.4.1.1 Category I—Entries Referenced

This category addresses whether or not an entry was referenced by a participant in the process of answering a given test item, and provides a basis for examining use of the bilingual dictionary.

BASIS FOR DATA: The question of whether or not an entry had been referenced was determined by the *yes* or *no* answer given to the following question, which preceded each entry in the dictionary test booklet:

Did you look at the dictionary entry X to help you answer question X? Yes ☐ No ☐
If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

COMMENTS: In some cases, participants left the check box blank, but underlined information in the entry, which showed that they had indeed referenced the entry. These cases, therefore, were counted as instances of *yes*. In addition, there were three cases in which a participant marked *no*, but, nonetheless, had underlined information in the entry. These cases, also, were counted as instances of *yes* since there is positive evidence that the entry was referenced.

3.4.1.2 Category II—Types of Information Consulted in Entries

Category II examines the types of information consulted in entries—examples and other information—which allows for a more detailed look at dictionary use.

BASIS FOR DATA: As seen above in section 3.4.1.1, if participants indicated, *yes*, they had referenced an entry, then they were prompted to underline the part(s) of the entry that had helped them find the equivalent. The type of information consulted—examples versus other information—was determined by what participants underlined in each entry.

DEFINITION OF EXAMPLE SUBCATEGORY: The example is defined in depth in Chapter 2. In summary, an example can be a free combination, collocation, fixed expression or compound. This subcategory counts all instances of example lookup, which includes those entries in which examples were the only type of information underlined and those entries in which examples and other information were underlined. It would have been preferable to limit the example subcategory to only examples and create a separate subcategory to account for those entries in which participants referenced both example(s) and other information; however, this was not possible, for the subject group would have been splintered in too many ways to provide data that could be considered viable for statistical testing.

DEFINITION OF OTHER INFORMATION SUBCATEGORY: As outlined in Chapter 1, section 1.3.1, other information includes sense indications, labels or notes (e.g. subject field and grammatical), actants and codes (e.g. superscript letters indicating a specific or generic equivalent). This subcategory encompasses those cases in which other information was the only type of information underlined in the entry.

COMMENTS: It should be noted that the above two subcategories do not cover all the possibilities encountered in the test. Occasionally, participants indicated that they had referenced an entry, but did not underline any part of the entry. It can be assumed that in such cases participants referenced the entry, but failed to find any information within the entry that helped them answer the translation question, and, therefore, did not underline anything in the entry. Some participants, in lieu of underlining anything, wrote comments such as *I did look it up, but it didn't help me* or *none helpful*. Of course, it is also feasible to suppose that other participants, intent on finding a translation equivalent for the test item, forgot to underline the parts of the entry which

helped them do so. In any case, the number of occurrences where nothing was underlined in the entry were relatively low, which indicates that significant results can be obtained by analyzing the example and other information subcategories.

3.4.1.3 Category III—Response Correctness

As described in this chapter, the responses to test items were categorized as either correct, partially correct or incorrect, providing a means of measuring how successful participants are when they consult example(s) or other information in a bilingual dictionary entry.

BASIS FOR DATA: The equivalents that participants provided for test items were used as the data set.

DEFINITION OF CORRECTNESS: Section 3.2.1.2.1 in this chapter outlined the criteria used when marking a response as correct, partially correct or incorrect. A complete list of the responses given to the cloze translation test and their status can be found in Appendix 5.

COMMENTS: Occasionally, participants gave two translations for a single test item, possibly because they were unsure of the correct translation equivalent. In some cases, both translations were equally correct, while in other cases one translation was more correct than the other. In the latter cases, the benefit of the doubt was given to the participant, and the more correct equivalent was counted in the data. For example, one participant provided two answers to the following test item:

Source text: *Le 17 janvier 1991 ne devait-il pas sonner l'heure d'un nouvel âge des médias audiovisuels?*

First proposed translation: *Was the 17th January 1991 not to strike the hour for a new era for the audiovisual media?*

Second proposed translation: *Was the 17th January 1991 not to signal a new era for the audiovisual media?*

The first equivalent given is incorrect, while the second one is correct; therefore, the second equivalent was the one that was counted for the data.

3.4.1.4 Category IV—Pertinence of Examples Consulted

This category addresses whether or not the examples that were consulted by participants were applicable to the test ST and TT. All examples that were underlined by participants in the dictionary test booklets were assigned a status of right, close or wrong, which allows for a more detailed analysis of example use. Appendix 6 lists the examples that were consulted by test participants in each entry and the right, close or wrong status assigned to each example.

BASIS FOR DATA: All together, participants consulted 100 of the 546 examples contained in the dictionary test booklet. This set of 100 examples constitutes the data that was examined for this category.

DEFINITION OF A RIGHT EXAMPLE: A right example meets two criteria. First, the SL example must resemble the test ST context, and second, the TL equivalent provided in the example must work in the test TT context. Moreover, when more than one equivalent is provided in the translation of the example, all equivalents must work in the test TT context. For instance, an example for *réunir*, which is designated as right is translated using two equivalents: *gathered together* and *brought together*.

ce congrès a réuni des écrivains de toutes tendances this congress gathered *ou*
brought together writers of all types

Both of these equivalents work equally well in the test TT context:

An unprecedented mobilisation of the Press . . . accompanied the largest military armada *gathered* (ou) *brought together* since the Vietnam war.

DEFINITION OF A CLOSE EXAMPLE: In a few of the entries, the SL example resembled the test ST context, but the TL equivalent did not work in the test TT context. In these cases, the example was designated as close. For instance, the entry **occasion** provides the example *à l'occasion de*, which mirrors the ST; however, the equivalent provided—*on the occasion of*—does not fit the test TT context: *In order to reassert their world dominance^{xx} on the occasion of^{xx} the Gulf War . . .*³²

DEFINITION OF A WRONG EXAMPLE: All examples that fall outside of the above two definitions were designated as wrong examples. For instance, an example in the entry **avoisiner** contains the following SL example and its translation: *son attitude avoisine l'insolence fig his attitude verges on insolence*. However, *to verge on*, does not work in the TT: . . . *for the main French channels, which each had to meet costs^{xx} verging on^{xx} 2 million francs per week*.

COMMENTS: Each entry did not necessarily generate right, close and wrong example lookups. Some entries simply did not contain all three options. For instance, the entry **champ** only contained close and wrong examples. The entry **décalage** contained only one example, which was wrong. Other entries contained only right examples and so forth. Moreover, in certain entries, participants only consulted right examples, although the entry also contained wrong examples. For instance, of the 17 examples in the entry **image**, participants only consulted the right example: *à l'image de ses prédécesseurs, c'est un bureaucrate sans imagination just like his predecessors, he's an unimaginative bureaucrat*.

³² ^{xx} surrounding a word or phrase indicates that the given equivalent is unsuitable in the test TT context.

3.4.2 Description of Statistical Procedures Used

The test data, collected and organized as described above, was queried using three procedures: the chi-square test, ANOVA (analysis of one-way variance) and the T-test. They will be briefly described below.

3.4.2.1 Chi-Square Test

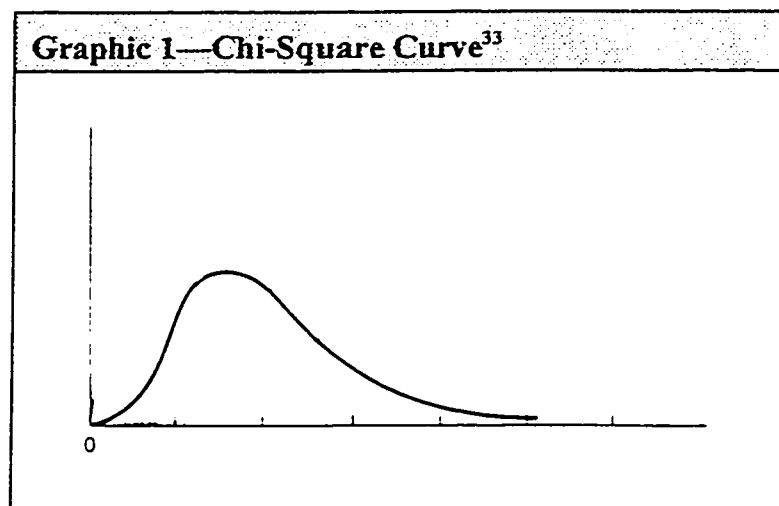
The chi-square test begins with the hypothesis that two or more characteristics of a population are independent. For instance, in examining the query *For which test items did translation students consult the bilingual dictionary entries most often?* (see Chapter 4, section 4.1.1), the chi-square test is applied to determine if dictionary lookup is independent of the given lexical items. In other words, it is possible to see if all types of lexical items—frequent and infrequent; monosemous and polysemous; fixed and non-fixed, etc.—are being consulted with the same frequency. If the characteristics prove independent, then there is no relationship between them; one is just as likely to occur without the other. Referring back to the above example, this would mean that frequency of dictionary lookup is independent of the lexical items in question. If, however, the characteristics are dependent, then a relationship is established.

To prove the hypothesis of independence, the chi-square test uses observed frequencies to generate expected frequencies. *Observed frequencies* are values taken from data that is collected during an experiment—in this case, the 29-item cloze translation test. *Expected frequencies* are those values that would be expected if each observed value is in proportion with the entire body of observed values being tested. In the above example, expected frequencies would show the values that should be expected were the participants to look up each lexical item in the same

proportions, no matter what the item. A *test value* is calculated for each observed–expected pair to indicate whether or not the pair is roughly equal in comparison with the other pairs. If observed and expected frequencies are roughly equal, then the hypothesis of independence can be assumed true. Equal or near equal observed–expected pairs produce low test values. As the difference increases, so does the test value.

Test values are then added together to produce a total *test statistic*. Overall low test values, of course, result in a low test statistic, meaning that observed and expected frequencies were approximately equal, and therefore, that the hypothesis of independence is true. Conversely, overall high test values will result in a high test statistic, meaning that observed and expected frequencies were different, and therefore, that the hypothesis of independence should be rejected.

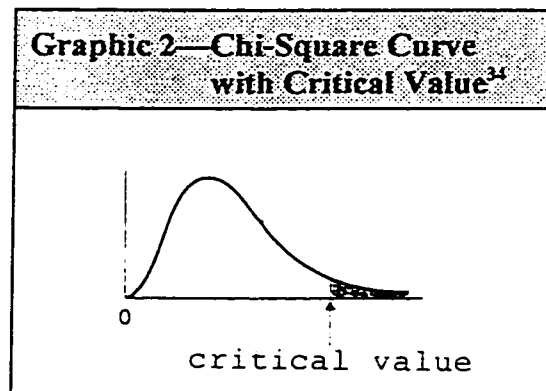
The final decision to accept or reject the hypothesis of independence is based on where the test statistic falls in a chi-square curve. Chi-square curves exist only in the upper-right quadrant of a linear graph, beginning at zero and continuing to the right along the x-axis.



³³ (Weiss 1995:688)

If the hypothesis of independence is true, the test statistic will fall within the main portion of the curve. If not, then the statistic falls at the far right end of the curve. The higher a test statistic lies on the x-axis, the stronger the evidence against the hypothesis of independence. But, at what point is the test statistic considered high?

This is determined by applying a *significance level* to the test results, which is expressed as a point on the x-axis of the chi-square curve known as the *critical value*. With a significance level of 5%, which is the norm for statistical testing, the critical value divides the chi-square curve into 95% and 5% areas; the 95% area covers the main portion of the curve starting at zero and ending directly before the critical value, while the 5% area begins at the critical value and covers the far right end of the curve.



If a test statistic falls within the 95% area, then the null hypothesis, that of independence, cannot be rejected. However, if the test statistic lies within the 5% area, then the hypothesis of independence can be assumed to be false, and can therefore be rejected for the alternative hypothesis of dependence. This operation is normally stated in terms of a *confidence level*: that

³⁴ (Weiss 1995:689)

we can be 95% sure, or confident, that a true hypothesis of independence will not be falsely rejected because the range of rejection at 5% significance is limited to a small area of the curve.

3.4.2.2 ANOVA

ANOVA allows for the comparison of multiple sample populations, and begins with the assumption that the means of all the populations are equal. The comparison measures the variation among the means of the different groups, and, moreover, since the means of the different groups are based on the numerical values within each group, it also takes into account the variation within each group. For instance, the values in one group could be more or less evenly distributed (e.g. 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 15, etc.) while the values in another group could be more disparate (e.g. 2, 7, 15, 35, etc.).

In sum, ANOVA measures whether “the variation among the sample means is large relative to the variation within the samples” (Weiss 1995:873). If so, then the null hypothesis—that the means are equal—is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis of not equal means can be accepted. The decision of whether or not the variations among the sample means is large enough to warrant rejecting the null hypothesis can be judged according to a *probability score* assigned to the given ANOVA test. The probability score, normally determined at a 95% confidence level, assesses the strength of the evidence against the null hypothesis. Any evidence against the null is generally classified as being 1) weak or none, 2) moderate, 3) strong, or 4) very strong.

Finally, the statistical software³⁵ used in this analysis also charts the confidence intervals of the means of the various groups—in other words, an interval of numbers in which the population

³⁵ The Student Edition of MINITAB for Windows

mean is most likely to lie—thus providing a visual indication of the statistical significance of the differences found among the groups. However, the actual level of significance can only be discerned by further testing.

3.4.2.3 T-test

The T-test used in this thesis is a two-sample T-test; in other words, it allows for the comparison of two sample groups. A T-test can begin with one of four assumptions, that the population means are equal ($=$), that the population means are unequal ($\neq$), that one population mean is greater than the other ($>$), or that one population mean is less than the other ($<$).

The decision of whether or not to reject the beginning (i.e. null) hypothesis can be based on a *probability score* generated for the T-test, which is normally determined at a 95% confidence level. As described above, probability scores assess the strength of the evidence against the null hypothesis as being 1) weak or none, 2) moderate, 3) strong or 4) very strong.

3.5 Summary of Chapter Three

Chapter three began with an explanation of why the methodology option of an assessment test is best suited to the user study on examples conducted for this thesis, and led into a description of the logistics regarding the translation test: choice of text, choice of lexical items and choice of bilingual dictionary entries. Pre-testing and pilot testing, through which these methodological choices were evaluated, were described, as was the final test which was administered to 90 Francophone and Anglophone translation students. The student profile survey

that accompanied the final test was then analyzed to show the varied language, education, language-related work experience and dictionary use knowledge of the test subjects.

The latter part of the chapter explains how the test data was organized, and also gives a brief description of the statistical procedures—the chi-square test, ANOVA and the T-test—used in the analysis of this data. These procedures have been applied, wherever possible, to the test data collected from the dictionary test booklet and the cloze translation test booklet. The following chapter presents a detailed analysis of the test data.

CHAPTER 4

Analysis

The data described in the previous chapter is used to answer the general and specific questions regarding examples listed in the Introduction (section 0.3: Thesis Objectives). In every case possible, the data was statistically queried, for the goal of this thesis research is to generate as many representative conclusions as possible. In some cases, however, the data did not meet the criteria for performing a statistics test, i.e. the numbers were too low to generate representative information. Analysis of the questions in such cases is still based on the test data, but is interpretative rather than statistically representative.

The chapter begins with the statistical queries. The first two queries take into account overall dictionary use and overall success of dictionary use, and thus provide a point of departure for the examination of examples in particular. They have been formulated as follows:

- For which test items did translation students consult the bilingual dictionary entries most often?
- Which test items did translation students translate correctly most often?

Next, the general questions on examples are answered, chiefly based on the statistical queries.

And, subsequently, the specific questions on examples are answered, generally based on a percentage analysis.

4.1 Statistical Queries

4.1.1 Query 1—Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use

Question: For which test items did translation students consult the bilingual dictionary entries most often?

The broader question of whether students consult bilingual dictionaries more often than they do monolingual dictionaries for translation tasks has already been answered by Mackintosh in her study of dictionary use in *version* translation (1995). Mackintosh's finding—that the use of bilingual dictionaries by translation students doing *version* is more frequent than their use of monolingual dictionaries—can be assumed to be true of *thème* translation as well, since students working into their non-native language would need even more help from a bilingual dictionary to locate appropriate equivalents. In this section, my aim is to analyze the link between types of lexical items in the ST and bilingual dictionary consultation during translation.

The question related to this query is examined using a chi-square test to compare the number of lookups performed for each item versus the number of non-lookups. The results provide an indication of which types of lexical items are most consulted in a bilingual dictionary for a translation task (*version* for the Anglophone participants, and *thème* for the Francophone participants).

The following table presents the original data that was analyzed (i.e. observed frequencies). The table displays the lexical items vertically, and, horizontally, shows the data categories being queried. In this table, the entire user group of translation students comprises the sample population. The differentiating factor is Category I—Entries Referenced.

Table 3.1—Observed Frequencies of Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use		CATEGORY		
		Entry Referenced:		
		yes	no	TOTAL
1	à l'image de	76	14	90
2	réunir	61	29	90
3	avoisiner	54	36	90

Table 3.1—Observed Frequencies of Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use		CATEGORY		
		Entry Referenced:		
		yes	no	TOTAL
4	beau	49	41	90
5	en l'espace	79	11	90
6	sonner l'heure	51	39	90
7	décalage	70	20	90
8	consentir à	70	20	90
9	évidemment	44	46	90
10	champ	64	26	90
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	79	11	90
12	leurre	77	13	90
13	assister de son fauteuil à	42	48	90
14	à l'occasion de	48	42	90
15	franchir (limites)	54	36	90
16	énergétique	64	26	90
17	guerre des ondes	68	22	90
18	programmer	52	38	90
19	aseptiser	64	26	90
20	légitimer	41	49	90
21	apporter la consécration finale	71	19	90
22	racine (de doute)	31	59	90
23	franchir un seuil	73	16	89
24	entreprise	50	39	89
25	le bât blesse	83	6	89
26	sacrifier à	69	20	89
27	bidon	76	13	89
28	contre-pouvoir	72	17	89
29	relais	60	29	89

The following table presents the results of the chi-square test. The total test statistic of 271.206 found in the last row of the table indicates that the results are significant, as the test statistic is far above the critical value of 41.337 required for significance at a 95% confidence level. Thus, the frequency of dictionary lookup is dependent on the lexical items in question. Each lexical item in the table below is followed by three numbers: observed frequency, expected frequency and test value, which were described in section 3.4.2.1 of the previous chapter. In this table, individual test values for four of the lexical items are marked in bold and underlined, as these test values are over 13.0, or about 1/3 of the critical value of 41.337 for the table as a whole, which indicates a tendency toward dependence between dictionary lookup and the given lexical item. Other items with individual test values ranging from 7 to 11 also contributed greatly to the total chi-squared test statistic and will be discussed below.

Table 3.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use			CATEGORY		
			Entry Referenced:		
			yes	no	TOTAL
item					
1	à l'image de	observed	78	14	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	3.182	7.031	n/a
2	réunir	observed	61	29	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	0.015	0.033	n/a
3	avoisiner	observed	54	36	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.022	2.259	n/a
4	beau	observed	49	41	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	2.711	5.989	n/a

Table 3.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use			CATEGORY		
			Entry Referenced:		
			yes	no	TOTAL
5	en l'espèce	observed	79	11	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	4.687	10.356	n/a
6	sonner l'heure	observed	51	39	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.938	4.283	n/a
7	décalage	observed	70	20	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.043	2.306	n/a
8	consentir à	observed	70	20	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.043	2.306	n/a
9	évidemment	observed	44	46	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	5.206	11.502	n/a
10	champ	observed	64	26	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	0.067	0.149	n/a
11	ériger en trompe-l'œil	observed	79	11	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	4.687	10.356	n/a
12	leurre	observed	77	13	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	3.651	8.068	n/a
13	assister de son fauteuil à	observed	42	48	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	6.430	<u>14.207</u>	n/a

Table 3.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use			CATEGORY		
			Entry Referenced:		
			yes	no	TOTAL
14	à l'occasion de	observed	48	42	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	3.145	6.949	n/a
15	franchir (limites)	observed	54	36	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.022	2.259	n/a
16	énergétique	observed	64	26	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	0.067	0.149	n/a
17	guerre des ondes	observed	68	22	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	0.589	1.301	n/a
18	programmer	observed	52	38	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.601	3.537	n/a
19	aseptiser	observed	64	26	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	0.067	0.149	n/a
20	légitimer	observed	41	49	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	7.090	<u>15.666</u>	n/a
21	apporter la consécration finale	observed	71	19	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	1.319	2.915	n/a
22	racine (de doute)	observed	31	59	90
		expected	61.96	28.04	90
		value	<u>15.469</u>	<u>34.182</u>	n/a

Table 3.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Bilingual Dictionary Use			CATEGORY		
			Entry Referenced:		
			yes	no	TOTAL
item					
23	franchir un seuil	observed	73	16	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	2.245	4.961	n/a
24	entreprise	observed	50	39	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	2.073	4.581	n/a
25	le bât blesse	observed	83	6	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	7.706	17.027	n/a
26	sacrifier à	observed	69	20	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	0.975	2.154	n/a
27	bidon	observed	76	13	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	3.541	7.824	n/a
28	contre-pouvoir	observed	72	17	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	1.879	4.151	n/a
29	relais	observed	60	29	89
		expected	61.27	27.73	89
		value	0.026	0.058	n/a
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF ALL VALUES)			271.206		

The chi-square test results show that the data observed for 4 of the 29 test items was significantly different from the expected results, particularly with regard to the category of *no*: the entry was not referenced. These items are *le bât blesse*, *légitimer*, *racine (de doute)* and *assister de son fauteuil à*.

Three of the items in this group—*légitimer*, *racine (de doute)*, *assister de son fauteuil à*—had high observed frequencies in comparison with the expected frequencies in the *no* category. In addition, the item, *évidemment*, which contributes greatly to the overall chi-squared statistic with an individual test value of 11.502, demonstrates the same frequency pattern as the three items above that are considered significant. That is to say that for all four of these items a large number of participants did not reference the dictionary.

This finding does not seem surprising for an item such as *légitimer*, as it resembles the English *legitimize*. Indeed, users would generally be familiar with most of the individual words in the items listed in the previous paragraph, and, therefore, may not be motivated to look them up. Nonetheless, one would have expected more participants to consult the dictionary entries provided because of the particular use of most of these words in the source text.

Racine (de doute) is used in a figurative sense in the text, which would seemingly encourage more participants to turn to the dictionary for assistance. However, the test value for the *yes* category of *racine (de doute)* shows significance, and verifies that fewer participants than would have been expected did look up this item. Therefore, the pattern of dictionary lookup on both sides of the question, *yes* and *no*, is markedly dependent on this lexical item.

Assister de son fauteuil à is a text-specific combination, which would also seemingly promote higher occurrences of dictionary lookup because it is an idiosyncratic creation of the author's for this text. Indeed, in the case of the text-specific combination *ériger en trompe-l'oeil*, with a notably high test value of 10.356, the situation is completely different from that of *assister de son fauteuil à*. Instead of high numbers of participants who did not look up the entry, *ériger en trompe-l'oeil* generated low numbers of participants who did not look up the entry. The finding

that more people felt a need to reference *ériger en trompe-l'oeil* than *assister de son fauteuil à* can perhaps be explained by the fact that *ériger* and *trompe-l'oeil* are considerably less familiar to users than *assister* or *fauteuil*.

In addition, *leurre* and *bidon* have low observed frequencies in comparison to their expected frequencies in the *no* category. It is probable that *leurre* and *bidon*, like *ériger en trompe-l'oeil*, are less familiar to users and therefore require lookup. They further reinforce the overall pattern: that those items which are familiar to users will not be referenced while those items that are less familiar will likely be referenced.

The pattern of not looking up familiar words, demonstrated by the high test values of *légitimer*, *assister/fauteuil* and *évidemment* is, however, inconsistent with the test values of other words such as *beau*, *réunir*, *entreprise*, *champ* and so forth, which could also be considered familiar to users, but which do not stand out as significant. While certain familiar words such as *légitimer*, *assister/fauteuil* and *évidemment* are not looked up by the vast majority of users, other familiar words seem to divide the participants into more proportionate *yes* and *no* groups, meaning that some of the participants who did not look up *légitimer*, *assister*, *fauteuil* and *évidemment* did look up *beau*, *réunir*, *entreprise* and *champ*.

There are several potential explanations for this inconsistency:

(a) It is possible that the inexperience of certain users is contributing to this inconsistency.

For instance, if the subject group were divided into user groups along the lines of educational level, i.e. second year, third year and so forth, perhaps the difference could be explained.

(b) Another possible explanation lies not with the user groups, but with the lexical items.

Users may skim over words such as *légitimer*, *assister/fauteuil* and *évidemment* because they perceive these words as having fewer senses than words such as *beau* or *réunir*.

(c) The obviousness of the equivalents of some of these items may also be contributing to this inconsistency. As mentioned above, *légitimer* has the obvious equivalent *legitimize*, which resembles the SL form. However, *réunir* also has a formally closely-matching equivalent, *reunite*, and yet its observed and expected results are in accord, and therefore did not generate a high test value. It is unclear, then, why users will translate words such as *légitimer* by rote, without looking them up, but are wary of translating others such as *réunir*, and make the effort to look them up.

The fourth significant item revealed by this test, *le bât blesse*, demonstrates a significant individual test value of 17.027 in the *no* category because of low observed frequencies in comparison with the expected frequencies. In other words, 6 participants did not reference this item in comparison with the 28 participants who would have been expected to not reference the item. This might be explained by the fact that *le bât blesse* is a fixed expression; Francophones—probably familiar with the item in the SL—would need assistance in translating the item, and Anglophones—likely unfamiliar with the item in the SL—would need assistance in both understanding and translating the item.

The low observed frequencies in the *no* category for another two items, *à l'image de* and *en l'espèce*, can perhaps also be explained by the fact that they are restricted word combinations—in this case, fixed expressions. However, this explanation is not consistent with the fact that a high number of participants did not look up the fixed item, *à l'occasion de*. This might suggest that participants approach translation at the level of the word, and have difficulty recognizing those words that form units, particularly those that are less rigid or those that contain familiar words. The possible effects that this has on translation success will be explored in the next query.

4.1.2 Query 2—Overall Translation Success (i.e. Correctness)

Question: Which test items did translation students translate correctly most often?

The question related to this query is examined using a chi-square test to compare the number of participants who produced a correct translation when using the bilingual dictionary versus the number of participants who produced a correct translation when not using the bilingual dictionary for an item. The results provide an indication of which types of lexical items translation students translate most successfully with the help of a bilingual dictionary (*version* for the Anglophone participants, and *thème* for the Francophone participants).

The following table presents the observed frequencies in the same format as in Table 3.1. In this table, the group of translation students who gave correct translation equivalents comprises the sample population of each item. The differentiating factors are a combination of the data from Category I—Entries Referenced and Category III—Correctness. Specifically, the comparison is between *yes* (entry referenced)+*correct* and *no* (entry not referenced)+*correct*. The factors of *partially correct* and *incorrect* were not statistically queried since, on the whole, their observed frequencies are too low to provide representative information. This fact is interesting in itself as it shows that the majority of participants gave correct responses for the majority of items.³⁶

³⁶ There are a few high anomalous figures, though, in the *yes* (entry referenced)+*incorrect* category—a category that is not statistically queried—regarding the items *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de*, both of which have observed frequencies of 21 for *yes+incorrect*. They will be discussed in this section.

Table 4.1—Observed Frequencies of Overall Translation Success		CATEGORY		
		Entry Referenced:		
		yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
1	à l'image de	67	7	74
2	réunir	48	25	73
3	avoisiner	50	31	81
4	beau	42	27	69
5	en l'espèce	60	2	62
6	sonner l'heure	18	33	51
7	décalage	64	17	81
8	consentir à	59	13	72
9	évidemment	43	43	86
10	champ	14	16	30
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	38	4	42
12	leurre	45	6	51
13	assister de son fauteuil à	22	32	54
14	à l'occasion de	12	32	44
15	franchir (limites)	32	31	63
16	énergétique	53	23	76
17	guerre des ondes	60	11	71
18	programmer	43	27	70
19	aseptiser	46	12	58
20	légitimer	41	49	90
21	apporter la consécration finale	45	9	54
22	racine (de doute)	23	39	62
23	franchir un seuil	57	10	67
24	entreprise	22	12	34
25	le bât blesse	77	4	81
26	sacrifier à	50	8	58
27	bidon	51	5	56

Table 4.1—Observed Frequencies of Overall Translation Success		CATEGORY		
		Entry Referenced:		
		yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
item				
28	contre-pouvoir	35	3	38
29	relais	32	7	39

The following table is a subset of the results of the chi-square test. The complete table can be found in Appendix 7. The total test statistic of 327.262 indicates that the results are highly significant, as the test statistic is far above the critical value of 41.337 required for significance at a 95% confidence level. Only those lexical items with individual test values over 13.0, or about 1/3 of the critical value of 41.337 for the table as a whole, are included below in the Table of Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success, for they indicate that a dependency exists between *correctness/yes* or *correctness/no* and a given lexical item.

Table 4.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success			CATEGORY		
			Entry Referenced:		
			yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
item					
5	en l'espèce	observed	60	2	62
		expected	43.33	18.67	62
		value	6.410	14.880	n/a
6	sonner l'heure	observed	18	33	51
		expected	35.65	15.35	51
		value	8.735	20.279	n/a
13	assister de son fauteuil à	observed	22	32	54
		expected	37.74	16.26	54
		value	6.566	15.244	n/a

Table 4.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success			CATEGORY		
			Entry Referenced:		
			yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
item					
14	à l'occasion de	observed	12	32	44
		expected	30.75	13.25	44
		value	11.436	26.549	n/a
20	légitimer	observed	41	49	90
		expected	62.90	27.10	90
		value	7.627	17.708	n/a
22	racine (de doute)	observed	23	39	62
		expected	43.33	18.67	62
		value	9.542	22.151	n/a
25	le bât blesse	observed	77	4	81
		expected	56.61	24.39	81
		value	7.341	17.042	n/a
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF VALUES FOR ALL 29 ITEMS)					327.262

The chi-square test results show that the data observed for 7 of the 29 test items was significantly different from the expected results with regard to the category of *no*: the entry was not referenced+*correct* answer given. These items, listed in the table above, can be grouped into fixed items and familiar simple items, the same groups that emerged in the first query.

The familiar simple lexical items that demonstrated significance are *légitimer* and *racine (de doute)*. In addition, *assister de son fauteuil à*, a text-specific non-fixed combination made up of familiar simple lexical items, is included in this category. For *légitimer*, there was a higher observed frequency of correctness without dictionary consultation than would have been expected. This significance can first be explained by my hypothesis based on the results of the first

query: that a large number of users did not look up the item because it is familiar to them. The results for this query show, moreover, that users were able to translate the item correctly without the aid of a dictionary. Those who did look up the item, perhaps to verify their understanding or the equivalent, did not fare poorly either. In fact, both *yes* and *no* groups for *légitimer* had a 100% *correct* rate: for *yes*, 41 out of 41; and for *no*, 49 out of 49. The reason, then, that the high test value for *no+correct* is significant is because the number of participants who are expected to give correct responses without dictionary lookup in this table is overall between 9.03 and 27.10, whereas participants who are expected to give correct responses with dictionary lookup is much higher, between 20.97 and 62.90. The item, *légitimer*, then, is an exception with 49 participants giving correct responses without dictionary lookup.

Assister de son fauteuil à had a high observed frequency of 32 in the category of *no+correct* versus the expected frequency of 16.26. In contrast with *légitimer*, however, users who did not use the dictionary entries provided for translation of this combination performed better than those who did; of 48 who did not look up either *assister* or *fauteuil*, 32 gave correct responses, which calculates as a 66% success rate, while users who did look up these words only had a success rate of 22 over 42, or 52%. Those participants who did use the dictionary for this combination, but failed to give a correct answer often only looked up *assister*, but not *fauteuil*; and, they only provided half of the equivalent (*witness*) instead of a complete equivalent (e.g. *witness from their armchairs*). Other participants who did not receive full credit for this test item did provide a complete equivalent, but quite often the second part of the equivalent they gave (*witness from their seats*) was not suitable for the test TT context. The choice of the equivalent *seat* over the more suitable equivalent *armchair* might be attributed to the fact that, in the test, the

item *assister de son fauteuil* à is followed by the phrase *super coproduction guerre des étoiles–Lawrence D'Arabie*, and that, in the dictionary entry for *fauteuil*, there is a sense marked as “cinéma, théâtre” which gives *seat* as a general equivalent.

Finally, *racine* is another case in which a higher than expected number of participants did not use the dictionary and gave a correct response. Again, this could be attributed to the fact that it is a familiar word, and therefore users confidently translate it without a dictionary, and do so successfully. However, this is puzzling for two reasons. First, as noted in section 4.1.1 regarding the first query, *racine* is used figuratively in the ST. And, secondly, although *racine de doute* is not a collocation proper in French (albeit a n+n combination), many of the translations accepted as correct could be considered collocations in English.³⁷ What is puzzling, then, is that research on collocations carried out by Fox indicates that “when people are asked to give the collocates of words, they frequently do not do well—except for those words where collocates are frozen” (1987:146) Perhaps, these translations are “frozen.” The fixed nature of the equivalent, however, did not help all participants equally. The majority of participants (25 of 39) who did not use the dictionary and gave a correct response were Anglophones. This is understandable given that these collocations are often not officially documented, and are therefore probably less known to native French-speaking students.³⁸

³⁷ The *English Canadian Press* contains occurrences of translations that were accepted as correct equivalents for the SL item, *racine (de doute)*: *seed of doubt* 15; *shadow of doubt* 9; *shred of doubt* 4.

³⁸ *Shadow of doubt* was by far the most documented. It was found in the fixed expression *beyond a shadow of a doubt* in all of the sources referenced for this question: BBI, RHWEB, GAGE, LONG, COCO2. *Seed of doubt* was located under the headword *seed* in the LONG and the COCO2, but not in any of the other sources. And, finally, *shred of doubt* was not contained in any of the sources.

The second group of items identified in this chi-square test is fixed items. This includes *en l'espèce*, *le bât blesse*, *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de*. With regard to *en l'espèce*, the observed frequency of 2 in the category *no+correct* was much lower than the expected frequency of 18.67. Indeed, compared to the 60 participants who did look up the entry and also gave a correct response, the observed frequency of 2 is rather disproportionate. Interestingly, the two participants in the *no+correct* category gave the following responses: *in this case* and *in this particular case*. Since the latter response is straight from the dictionary entry and the other is very similar to the dictionary translations, this brings into question whether the dictionary was indeed referenced or not. In any case, the observed frequencies for this item lead to the conclusion that users who do not consult the dictionary for highly fixed items are not likely to produce a correct response. This is because a fixed item will often be translated by a fixed item in the TL, which means that the only place to find the information, unless it is previously known by the participant, is in the dictionary or another reference book.

Le bât blesse also has a low observed frequency in comparison with the expected frequency in the *no+correct* category, with an observed frequency of 4 and an expected frequency of 24.39. Although the success rate in the *no+correct* category is not excessively poor at 66% (4/6), it is lower than the success rate of those who did consult the dictionary and gave a correct response—94% (77/83), which again shows that for fixed items, the success rate is lower when the dictionary is not referenced.

In contrast to the low observed/high expected frequencies in the *no+correct* category of the previous two items discussed, the next two items—*sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de*—demonstrate high observed/low expected frequencies in the same category. This means that

they demonstrate a trend contrary to that of the above two items: that more users actually give correct responses when they do not look up the entries than the users who do look up the entries. The observed frequency for *sonner l'heure* shows that 33 participants who did not look up the item gave a correct response versus 18 participants who did look up the item and gave a correct response. This result is especially difficult to explain given that more participants looked up the item overall (51) as opposed to those who did not (39), since *sonner l'heure* is a fixed item. The lower observed frequency for *yes+correct*, then, can only be explained by the fact that the participants could not find what was needed in the dictionary entry to produce a correct translation equivalent, which was indeed the case as there was no *right* example in the dictionary entry provided. The dictionary information referenced most often was the example *sonner l'heure*, designated as a *close* example in this study because it gives an equivalent unsuitable for this test TT context, *strike the hour*. As would be predicted, the Francophones struggled most with the given dictionary information; 21 of 32 Francophones who did look at the example gave an incorrect answer in comparison to 4 of 12 Anglophones who looked at the example and gave an incorrect answer.

Similarly, for *à l'occasion de*, the participants who did not consult the dictionary gave correct responses significantly more often than those who did consult the dictionary. Again, the significance here, can be attributed to the fact that the dictionary entry has no *right* example and that the majority of participants who looked at the dictionary entry referenced the example *à l'occasion de*, which provides a translation that is not appropriate for the test TT context: *on the occasion of*. Therefore, the high test value is warranted and shows that there is a link between not consulting the dictionary and giving a correct response for this item.

In sum, for fixed items, success is limited when the dictionary is not used. There are exceptions, however, in which the success rate is better without dictionary use. These exceptions can be explained in the cases of *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de* by the fact that the dictionary information in these entries is insufficient for the context at hand, resulting in disproportionately high observed frequencies in the *no+correct* categories. Thus, those students who did not use the dictionary entries for *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de* were able to use the surrounding context of the partial translation in the TT to deduce a more successful equivalent than those who relied solely on the dictionary. The findings for fixed items permit the conclusion, then, that success rate with dictionary use is dependent on the dictionary entry provided for the given lexical item.

4.1.3 Query 3—Use of Examples

Question: For which test items did translation students consult examples in the bilingual dictionary entries most often?

The question related to this query is examined using a chi-square test to determine if examples are significant in comparison to all other referencing possibilities. To accomplish this comparison, it is necessary to separate those participants who did consult examples from those participants who did not. The participants who consulted examples can be identified with the information found in Category I—Entries Referenced and Category II—Types of Information Consulted in Entries: *yes* (entry referenced) + *example* (consulted in entry).

Participants who did not consult examples comprise three sub-categories. The first sub-category, which is also based on a combination of information found in Category I—Entries Referenced and Category II—Types of Information Consulted in Entries, accounts for those

participants who referenced the entry and consulted only other information: *yes* (entry referenced) + *only other* (consulted in entry). The second sub-category accounts for those participants who referenced the entry, but did not underline any information in the entry; therefore this sub-category is referred to as *yes* (entry referenced) + *nothing*. The *entry not referenced* category comprises the final sub-category, accounting for those participants who did not reference the dictionary entry for the given item.

In brief, the chi-square test compares two data categories. The first data category comprises the possibility of *yes+example*. The second data category comprises three sub-categories, which account for all other referencing possibilities: 1) *yes+only other*, 2) *yes+nothing* and 3) *entry not referenced*. The results of the chi-square test provide an indication of the lexical items which gave rise most often to example lookup.

The following table presents the observed frequencies in the same format as in Table 3.1. Five lexical items are irrelevant to this query since their corresponding dictionary entries do not contain any examples. These are *aseptiser*, *évidemment*, *leurre*, *légitimer* and *contre-pouvoir*. Therefore, this table contains 24 out of the total 29 items on the test.

The entire group of translation students comprises the sample population of each item. Dividing the population into Francophone and Anglophone user groups would have been appropriate for this query and the next in that, unlike the first two queries, these queries do not examine overall dictionary use nor overall translation success. Moreover, doing so would provide more detailed information regarding this query. However, dividing the categories into user groups would have also increased the number of total categories, and in turn reduced the observed

frequencies in each category to levels too low for chi-square testing.³⁹ By keeping the group together, it was possible to test all 24 items relevant to examples.

Table 5.1—Observed Frequencies of Example Use		CATEGORY		
		•example(s) referenced	• only other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item				
1	à l'image de	69	21	90
2	réunir	18	72	90
3	avoisiner	30	60	90
4	beau	38	52	90
5	en l'espace	77	13	90
6	sonner l'heure	44	46	90
7	décalage	8	82	90
8	consentir à	27	63	90
10	champ	53	37	90
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	21	69	90
13	assister de son fauteur à	31	59	90
14	à l'occasion de	39	51	90
15	franchir (limites)	35	55	90
16	énergétique	41	49	90
17	guerre des ondes	65	25	90
18	programmer	29	61	90
21	apporter la consécration finale	31	59	90
22	racine (de doute)	22	68	90
23	franchir un seuil	68	21	89
24	entreprise	12	77	89

³⁹ Chi-square testing does not produce valid results if more than 5% of the observed frequencies in a category are extremely low.

Table 5.1—Observed Frequencies of Example Use		CATEGORY		
		•example(s) referenced	• only other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item				
25	le bât blesse	79	10	89
26	sacrifier à	39	50	89
27	bidon	17	72	89
29	relais	38	51	89

The following table is a subset of the results of the chi-square test. The complete table can be found in Appendix 8. The total test statistic of 427.574 indicates that the results are highly significant, as the test statistic is far above the critical value of 35.172 required for significance at a 95% confidence level. Thus, the referencing or non-referencing of examples is dependent on the lexical items in question. Those lexical items with individual test values over 11.5, or about 1/3 of the critical value of 35.172 for the table as a whole, are included below in the Table of Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use, for they indicate that a dependency exists between the use or non-use of example(s) and a given lexical item.

Table 5.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced	• only other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item					
1	à l'image de	observed	69	21	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	23.291	17.730	n/a

Table 5.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced	• only other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item					
5	en l'espèce	observed	77	13	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	37.317	28.407	n/a
7	décalage	observed	8	82	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	24.545	18.685	n/a
17	guerre des ondes	observed	65	25	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	17.512	13.331	n/a
23	franchir un seuil	observed	68	21	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	22.673	17.620	n/a
24	entreprise	observed	12	77	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	18.211	13.863	n/a
25	le bât blesse	observed	79	10	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	42.708	32.511	n/a
27	bidon	observed	17	72	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	11.980	9.120	n/a
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF VALUES FOR ALL 24 ITEMS)					427.574

The chi-square test results show that the data observed for 8 of the 24 test items was significantly different from the expected results in both categories queried. The fixed items, α

l'image de, en l'espèce, guerre des ondes, franchir un seuil and *le bât blesse*, all have observed frequencies that are higher than expected in the *example* category, while the simple lexical items, *décalage, entreprise* and *bidon*, have observed frequencies that are higher than expected in the opposing, non-example category.

The fact that, for fixed items, test values were most significant in the *example* category is not surprising as fixed items are almost exclusively presented in examples, therefore making it necessary to consult examples for them. What is interesting, then, is first, that users do consult the dictionary for fixed items, and second, that they are able to locate the examples for the fixed items. Of the five items, two were presented in separate, marked sections of the entry: *guerre des ondes* was in a compound section and *le bât blesse* was in a section marked *idiomes*. The remaining items were not identified as fixed items by either separation or marking. Examples for *à l'image de, en l'espèce* and *franchir un seuil* were clumped together with free combinations within a sense division. Users, though, were able to find and use examples for fixed items that were either marked and separated or unmarked and not separated, thus shedding some light on the theoretical issue of presentation.⁴⁰

Moreover, both Francophone and Anglophone user groups utilized examples for fixed items listed in the preceding paragraph. While Francophones utilized examples more often than Anglophones, this may be a result of *thème* versus *version* translation. But, for both groups, the rate of use stays at approximately the same level within the group, whether the item was marked and separated as a fixed item or clumped together with free combinations.

⁴⁰ This does not, however, lead me to believe that marking and separating fixed items is totally useless to the dictionary user. Marking and separating fixed items facilitates ease of use of the dictionary. Moreover, such measures might lead users to recognize fixed items as units of language, which seems to be a general stumbling block for them when they are faced with less fixed items and fixed items comprised of familiar words.

Table 6—Significant Fixed Items from Table 5.2: Rate of Example Use by Francophones and Anglophones

	example for fixed item marked and separated		example for fixed item clumped together with free combinations		
	guerre des ondes	le bât blesse	à l'image de	en l'espèce	franchir un seuil
Francophones	61%	55%	60%	58%	59%
Anglophones	39%	45%	40%	42%	41%

As indicated above, all three simple lexical items—*entreprise*, *décalage* and *bidon*—have observed frequencies that are higher than expected in the non-example category. As was noted previously, this opposing, non-example category comprises three sub-categories for the purpose of chi-square testing: *yes+only other*, *yes+nothing* and *entry not referenced*; therefore, it is necessary to break down the observed frequencies into sub-categories for each of these words to understand how users dealt with them. A look at the raw figures for *entreprise*, a relatively familiar word, shows that the observed frequencies in the non-example category are divided between the *yes+only other* sub-category (39%) and the *entry not referenced* sub-category (51%). For the relatively less well-known items, *décalage* and *bidon*, the raw figures show a prevalent lookup pattern of *yes+only other*. Seventy-three percent of participants used *only other* information for *décalage* and 76% of participants used *only other* information for *bidon*; thus, for these two items, significance is likely associated with the sub-category of *only other* information and not the sub-categories of *nothing referenced* or *entry not referenced*. Therefore, it is possible to narrow the focus to *only other* information for these two items.

Décalage contains sense indications, field labels and examples. The entry has a standard organization of sense indications first, equivalents second and examples last. The finding that *only*

other information is frequently used by those who referenced this entry seems to indicate that the participants were adequately guided by the sense indications and satisfied with the equivalents that followed, and, therefore, did not feel a need to reference examples once an equivalent was located.

Bidon also contains a large amount of *other* information in the form of sense indications, actants, register markers and geographic labels. In fact, there is so much *other* information that this entry seems particularly difficult to decipher. So, it is unclear whether the *other* information was adequate enough for users to not need examples, or whether the sheer amount of *other* information was the factor that led 76% of participants to consult this information and not *examples*.

Despite the differences in referencing between *entreprise* on the one hand and *décalage* and *bidon* on the other, the low observed frequencies in comparison with the high expected frequencies for all three items in the *example* category does indicate that users found it unnecessary to consult examples, whatever the reason, for these simple lexical items.

Overall, the chi-square test performed for this query confirms the pattern of lookup established in the first query: that fixed items and less familiar simple lexical items are most likely to be looked up. Furthermore, this chi-square test indicates that different types of information are being utilized for fixed items as opposed to simple lexical items: *examples* for fixed items and *only other* information for less familiar simple lexical items. In the case of familiar simple lexical items such as *entreprise*, participants tend to use either *only other* information or to not consult the dictionary entry at all.

4.1.4 Query 4—Translation Success (i.e. Correctness) Using Examples

Question: For which items did example use help translation students translate correctly most often?

This question is similar to the question found in the second query in that it analyzes translation correctness. However, the present question takes a different approach. It addresses not whether translation success lies in using the bilingual dictionary or not (as did the question in the second query), but rather whether translation success is linked to the lexical items by example use or not. The question related to this query is examined using a chi-square test that compares the same data categories as the chi-square test that was performed for the third query, but with the additional factor of correctness. In other words, the chi-square test for the present query compares those students who gave correct responses most often using *examples* versus those students who gave correct responses most often using 1) *only other* information, or 2) using the entry, but not underlining any information in the entry, i.e. *nothing*, or 3) not referencing the entry at all, i.e. *entry not referenced*.

The table below presents the observed frequencies in the same format as in Table 3.1. The population sample for each item comprises those participants who gave correct responses to any of the 24 test items which pertain to this query; as in the third query above, five lexical items were eliminated since their corresponding entries do not contain examples.

Table 7.1—Observed Frequencies of Translation Success Using Examples		CATEGORY		
		•example(s) referenced + correct	•only other referenced + correct •nothing referenced + correct •entry not referenced + correct	TOTAL
item				
1	à l'image de	64	10	74
2	réunir	16	57	73
3	avoisiner	29	52	81
4	beau	34	35	69
5	en l'espèce	59	3	62
6	sonner l'heure	16	35	51
7	décalage	8	73	81
8	consentir à	25	47	72
10	champ	9	21	30
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	10	32	42
13	assister de son fauteuil à	17	37	54
14	à l'occasion de	7	37	44
15	franchir (limites)	13	50	63
16	énergétique	38	38	76
17	guerre des ondes	59	12	71
18	programmer	23	47	70
21	apporter la consécration finale	23	31	54
22	racine (de doute)	21	41	62
23	franchir un seuil	56	11	67
24	entreprise	7	27	34
25	le bât blesse	74	7	81
26	sacrifier à	26	32	58
27	bidon	10	46	56
29	relais	30	9	39

The following table is a subset of the results of the chi-square test. The complete table can be found in Appendix 9. The total test statistic of 424.367 indicates that the results are highly significant, as the test statistic is far above the critical value of 35.172 required for significance at a 95% confidence level. Thus, the use or non-use of examples + correctness are dependent on the lexical items in question. The lexical items with individual test values over 11.5, or about 1/3 of the critical value of 35.172 for the table as a whole, are included in the Table of Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples, for they indicate that a dependency exists between example use/correctness or non-example use/correctness and a given lexical item.

Table 7.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced + correct	•only other referenced + correct •nothing referenced + correct •entry not referenced + correct	TOTAL
item					
1	à l'image de	observed	64	10	74
		expected	34.07	39.93	74
		value	26.297	22.436	n/a
5	en l'espèce	observed	59	3	62
		expected	28.54	33.46	62
		value	32.497	27.725	n/a
7	décalage	observed	8	73	81
		expected	37.29	43.71	81
		value	23.007	19.629	n/a
17	guerre des ondes	observed	59	12	71
		expected	32.69	38.31	71
		value	21.182	18.071	n/a

Table 7.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples				CATEGORY		
				•example(s) referenced + correct	•only other referenced + correct •nothing referenced + correct •entry not referenced + correct	TOTAL
item						
23	franchir un seuil	observed	56	11	67	
		expected	30.85	36.15	67	
		value	20.513	17.501	n/a	
25	le bât blesse	observed	74	7	81	
		expected	37.29	43.71	81	
		value	36.136	30.830	n/a	
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF VALUES FOR ALL 24 ITEMS)					424.367	

With the exception of two items (*entreprise* and *bidon*), the significance evidenced in the chi-square test results regarding example use (Table 5.2) carried through to this chi-square test, which indicates that the dependence between certain lexical items and example or non-example use does not change radically when the factor of correctness is added to the data categories being queried.

The only simple lexical item that remains significant in this chi-square test is *décalage*. There is significance evidenced in both categories for *décalage*, although significance is higher in the *example* category since the *example* category has a much lower observed frequency (8) than would have been expected (37.29). The low observed frequency, though, is only a reflection of the low number of participants who referenced examples for this simple lexical item. In fact, there is no difference between this observed frequency (8) and the observed frequency (8) found in

Table 5.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use. Thus, 100% of those participants who referenced examples for *décalage* gave a correct response.

In the opposing, non-example category, there is a higher observed frequency (73) than expected (43.71) for *décalage*. Breaking down the non-example category by raw figures shows that the majority of participants in this category fall into the *only other* sub-category (73%), and of these participants who used *only other* information for *décalage*, there is an 89% rate of success. Therefore, in comparing the *example* category to the raw figures of the *only other* sub-category, there is a substantial difference in the type of information used for this item, but there is not a large difference between the success rates of those participants who referenced *examples* and those who referenced *only other* information.

In the case of fixed items, however, there is a substantially higher rate of success when *examples* are used. The fixed items that specifically show significance in this chi-square test are the same as those that showed significance in Table 5.2—Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use: *à l'image de*, *en l'espèce*, *guerre des ondes*, *franchir un seuil* and *le bât blesse*. For these fixed items, the rate of success is higher by 24% at the minimum and 54% at the maximum when participants used *examples* in the process of finding a translation equivalent as opposed to when they did not. This shows, then, that the high test values are warranted in the *example* category for fixed items.

However, as the following table shows, there does not seem to be any pattern linking success rate and the method of presentation of the fixed item (in or as an example that is marked and separated, or clumped together with free combinations).

**Table 8—Significant Fixed Items from Table 7.2:
Rate of Translation Success According to Example Use or Non-Use**

	example for fixed item marked and separated		example for fixed item clumped together with free combinations		
	guerre des ondes	le bât blessé	à l'image de	en l'espèce	franchir un seuil
examples+correct	91%	94%	93%	77%	82%
only other+correct; nothing+correct; entry not referenced+correct	48%	70%	48%	23%	52%
difference	43%	24%	45%	54%	30%

Finally, the Francophone user group evidences higher success rates when using examples than the Anglophone user group, a fact due to the higher proportion of Francophones who used examples in comparison to Anglophones. In order to better contrast *thème* and *version* translation, two ANOVA tests were performed to determine if using examples in the bilingual dictionary, using only other information in the bilingual dictionary and not using the dictionary at all resulted in equally successful results (i.e. correctness) in both Francophone and Anglophone user groups.⁴¹

The two user groups—Francophone and Anglophone—were tested according to four different criteria. Correctness, as defined in section 3.4.1.3: Category III—Response Correctness, was the base criteria; the three remaining criteria served as differentiating factors: *example* use (defined in section 3.4.1.2: Category II—Types of Information Consulted in Entries), use of *only other* information (defined in section 3.4.1.2: Category II—Types of Information Consulted) and *entry not referenced* (defined in section 3.4.1.1: Category I—Entries Referenced). The following

⁴¹ This test cannot identify differences per lexical item, but will be able to find differences on the whole between the two user groups.

table outlines the groups and gives the abbreviations used for each group in the ANOVA tests.

The *N* column indicates how many pieces of data, i.e. the number of lexical items, comprise the data pool of each group.

Table 9—ANOVA Groups

#	Group			N	Abbreviation
1	Francophones	+ example	+ correctness	24	f-ex-c
2	Anglophones	+ example	+ correctness	24	a-ex-c
3	Francophones	+ only other	+ correctness	21	f-oth-c
4	Anglophones	+ only other	+ correctness	22	a-oth-c
5	Francophones	+ entry not referenced	+ correctness	27	f-no-c
6	Anglophones	+ entry not referenced	+ correctness	29	a-no-c

As seen above, the data pool of each group varies, but this variable is weighted and does not affect the outcome of the ANOVA test. Groups 1 and 2, with the differentiating factor of example use, include 24 of the lexical items from the 29-item test; five items were dropped since their entries did not contain examples. In Groups 3-6 all lexical items with a zero value were dropped. For instance, in Groups 3 and 4, there were no participants who gave correct responses when using only other information for the item *racine (de doute)*; therefore, this item was dropped in these groups.

The first ANOVA test shown below compares groups 2-6. It would have been ideal to compare all six groups at one time; however, this was not possible, for the ANOVA test requirements were not met when all six groups were compared at the same time. When the six groups were tested simultaneously, Group 1 had a high standard deviation of 12.745 (in other words, large variation within the group) and Group 5 had a low standard deviation of 5.277 (in other words, little variation within the group). And, if the ratio between the largest standard

deviation and the smallest standard deviation is more than 2, then the ANOVA test is not likely to produce valid results. Therefore, the ANOVA test was performed once without Group 1, which had the highest standard deviation, and once without Group 5, which had the lowest standard deviation, in order to meet the requirements of the ANOVA procedure.

The results for Groups 2-6 are as follows:

Table 10—ANOVA Test 1					
#	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Individual 95% Confidence Interval for Mean Based on Pooled Standard Deviation of 7.534
2	a-ex-c	24	10.625	8.064	(-----+-----+-----)
3	f-oth-c	21	13.571	8.530	(-----*-----)
4	a-oth-c	22	9.591	6.667	(-----*-----)
5	f-no-c	27	7.000	5.277	(-----*-----)
6	a-no-c	29	12.034	8.637	(-----*-----)
					-----+-----+-----
					7.0 10.5 20.0
probability score					0.033

The probability score of 0.033 for this test shows that there is strong evidence against the null hypothesis of equal means. In other words, it is very likely that the means of these groups are not equal. This is evident on the chart accompanying the results. The chart maps each of the group means according to a 95% confidence interval, which means that we can be 95% sure that the mean for the given group lies within the given interval. The chart does not provide any statistically significant data, but it indicates that the biggest difference lies between Groups 3 and 5; more specifically, it seems that Francophones perform better when they use only other information as opposed to when they do not reference the dictionary entry at all. The second

difference noted in this chart is between Groups 5 and 6, which indicates that Anglophones perform better when they do not reference the entry as opposed to Francophones who do not reference the entry. Finally, it seems that Francophones may perform slightly better when using only other information (Group 3) as opposed to Anglophones using only other information (Group 4).

The second ANOVA test compared Groups 1-4 and Group 6:

Table 11—ANOVA Test 2					
#	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Individual 95% Confidence Interval for Mean Based on Pooled Standard Deviation of 9.188
1	f-ex-c	24	17.458	12.745	(-----+-----+-----+-----)
2	a-ex-c	24	10.625	8.064	(-----*-----)
3	f-oth-c	21	13.571	8.530	(-----*-----)
4	a-oth-c	22	9.591	6.667	(-----*-----)
6	a-no-c	29	12.034	8.637	(-----*-----)
					-----+-----+-----+-----
					10.0 15.0 20.0
probability score					0.038

The probability score of 0.038 shows that there is strong evidence against the null hypothesis of equal means for this ANOVA test. Therefore, it is very likely that the means of the groups compared in this ANOVA are not equal. The chart accompanying the test results shows that there is likely a difference between Groups 1 and 2; that is to say that Francophones perform better when using examples than Anglophones do using examples. Secondly, as in the first

ANOVA test, it seems that Francophones may perform slightly better when using only other information than Anglophones using only other information.⁴²

Based on the ANOVA test confidence interval charts of means, it can be hypothesized that Francophones outperform Anglophones when using examples or when using only other information, while Anglophones outperform Francophones when the entry is not referenced.

In order to confirm this hypothesis, three T-tests were performed to examine the differences between Francophone and Anglophone user groups in the following categories: 1) *example+correct*, 2) *only other+correct* and 3) *entry not referenced+correct*. The T-test data is presented in Appendix 10. In each of the three T-tests performed, the null hypothesis is that the means are equal. The alternative hypothesis for each test is that the first group mean is greater than the second group mean.

Test one examines whether Francophones perform better than Anglophones (i.e. give more *correct* responses) using *examples*. The probability score of 0.016 for this test shows that there is very strong evidence against the null hypothesis of equal means, and therefore that it is highly likely that Francophones will perform better than Anglophones when using examples.

The second test examines whether Francophones perform better than Anglophones (i.e. give more *correct* responses) using *only other* information. The probability score of 0.049 shows that there is strong evidence against the null hypothesis of equal means, and therefore that it is likely that Francophones will perform better than Anglophones when using only other information in the bilingual dictionary.

⁴² Although the biggest difference lies between Groups 1 and 4, the fact that Francophones perform better when using examples than Anglophones when using only other information is not a pertinent comparison.

Finally, test three examines whether Anglophones perform better than Francophones (i.e. give more *correct* responses) when the *entry is not referenced*. The probability score of 0.0055 provides very strong evidence against the null hypothesis of equal means. In other words, it is highly likely that Anglophones will give correct equivalents more often than Francophones when the entry is not referenced.

The T-tests confirm the results of the ANOVA tests. The fact that both show that Anglophones outperform Francophones when not referencing the entry is not surprising for two reasons. First, Anglophones were working into their dominant language; second, according to the subject profiles, there are more Anglophone test participants at the Master's level of study, and more Anglophones with translation experience.

The findings that Francophones perform better than Anglophones when using examples and that Francophones perform better than Anglophones when using only other information are more difficult to explain, considering the test was *thème* for the Francophones. These results seem even more perplexing given the information collected in the subject profiles. In many of the subject profile categories, Francophone and Anglophone participants reported approximately equal experience. For instance, approximately the same number of Francophones and Anglophones have work experience in their second language. Also, approximately the same number of Francophones and Anglophones have read the front matter of a dictionary and received dictionary training at the university level.

Perhaps the finding that Francophones did better than Anglophones when using examples or only other dictionary information can be explained by the fact that the test was only a partial translation, requiring lexical and semantic skills more than syntactic and grammatical skills. This

might indicate that the key to success in this translation was understanding the ST. And, in relation to their Francophone counterparts, Anglophones may have had a difficult time understanding the ST and therefore produced fewer correct equivalents. It would be interesting to see if the same results would occur if Anglophones were doing *thème*; would they outperform Francophones because they have the advantage of understanding the ST better?

4.2 Answers to General Questions

The statistical queries presented above have examined three of the four general questions presented in the Introduction. In this section, each of these initial questions will be addressed directly to see what answers have been or can be provided.

The first general question posed in the Introduction, whether translation students reference examples to find or confirm a translation equivalent, is examined by the chi-square test for example use (Table 5.2), which finds that examples are most often used for fixed items.

The second general question from the Introduction regarding the translation success of participants using examples was examined by the chi-square test for translation success using examples (Table 7.2), which finds that there is a high rate of correctness when examples are referenced—meaning, usually for fixed items as indicated by the chi-square test for example use (Table 5.2).

The third general question found in the Introduction asks if students locate the example most applicable to the SL item when searching for an equivalent. While statistical data is not available to examine this question, the overall numbers give a general answer to the question. Of the 100 different examples that were referenced by participants throughout the test, 29 are

considered right, 6 close and 65 wrong. In total, there were 546 examples in the dictionary test booklet, which shows that participants did discriminate to some extent in their example choices as the field of 546 examples was narrowed down to 100. However, there is still not sufficient discrimination in that there were far more examples consulted (100) than the number of right and close examples presented (35). For some participants, this indicates a process of culling through a number of wrong examples before coming to the right or closest example for the SL and TL contexts. For other participants, though, this indicates the failure to find a right or close example at all.

The following table uses a percentage analysis to compare how many participants consulted right, close and wrong examples for each item, the population being the participants who referenced examples, as defined in Category II—Types of Information Consulted in Entries. The right category of this table includes any participant who underlined the right example within the given entry, even if there were also wrong examples underlined. The same criteria applies to the category of close examples. The category of wrong examples accounts for those instances in which participants only underlined wrong examples in the given entry. This table contains the 24 lexical items that had examples in their corresponding entries.

Table 12—Percentage Breakdown of Right/Close/Wrong Example Consultation		Example Consulted:		
		right (%)	close (%)	wrong (%)
1	à l'image de	100	n/a	0
2	réunir	83	n/a	17
3	avoisiner	97	n/a	3
4	beau	87	n/a	13
5	en l'espèce	88	n/a	12

Table 12—Percentage Breakdown of Right/Close/Wrong Example Consultation		Example Consulted:		
		right (%)	close (%)	wrong (%)
6	sonner l'heure	n/a	86	14
7	décalage	100	n/a	0
8	consentir à	93	n/a	7
10	champ	n/a	79	21
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil ¹	28	24	48
13	assister de son fauteuil à	90	n/a	10
14	à l'occasion de	n/a	97	3
15	franchir (limites)	37	57	6
16	énergétique	n/a	88	12
17	guerre des ondes	89	n/a	11
18	programmer	79	n/a	21
21	apporter la consécration finale	97	n/a	3
22	racine (de doute)	100	n/a	0
23	franchir un seuil	93	n/a	7
24	entreprise ²	8	n/a	92
25	le bât blesse	100	n/a	0
26	sacrifier à	72	n/a	28
27	bidon	76	n/a	24
29	relais	87	n/a	13
Comments on items that demonstrate a higher percentage of participants consulting wrong examples than right or close: ¹ <i>ériger en trompe-l'oeil</i>: Several participants consulted wrong examples for this item—<i>ériger un monument/un bâtiment erect a monument/a building</i> and <i>ériger une société to set up ou establish a company</i>. Perhaps participants did not realize that these examples only contain the verb <i>ériger</i> and not the complete structure of <i>ériger en</i> that is present in the ST. ² <i>entreprise</i>: Even if participants located the correct sense, they were still faced with a large number of TL example translations to choose from, many of which were wrong for the test TT context.				

Finally, the fourth general question—the result of referencing an applicable example versus a non-applicable example, a correct versus incorrect translation equivalent—was touched

on by the chi-square test for overall translation success (Table 4.2). In this chi-square test, both *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de* had significant results which indicated that more participants were giving correct responses when the entry was not used in comparison with when the entry was used. This was explained by the fact that the entries for both items only contained close examples, i.e. there were no right examples present in the entries. The same is true of another entry: *champ*. The percentage of participants who used an example in the entry for *champ* and gave an incorrect translation equivalent (81%) far outweighs the percentage of participants who used an example in this entry and gave a correct, or even partially correct, translation equivalent (19%). This entry, like those for *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de*, only contained a close example, which leads to the conclusion that close examples result in incorrect responses quite frequently. The chi-square test for overall translation success (Table 4.2) further showed that, in those cases when participants had access to a right example (*en l'espèce, le bât blesse*), the response was often correct as compared to incorrect.

4.3 Specific Questions

The last section of this analysis addresses the specific questions regarding examples that were outlined in the Introduction, i.e. questions pertaining to necessity, number, source, length and presentation and placement of examples. As discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.2.1.2.3, each of the questions contains two opposing possibilities. Therefore, each question was assigned at least two lexical items, one item to represent each of the possibilities in the translation test. For instance, with regard to the question of number of free combinations that are beneficial to users, the lexical items *réunir* and *beau* respectively represent the contrast between few and many free

combinations. It is not possible, however, to statistically analyze these questions because there is a maximum of three pairs of lexical items for each question, which is not enough data to generate representative conclusions. Analysis, therefore, is performed using interpretative means, primarily a percentage analysis.

Finally, it is necessary to keep in mind that the specific questions are focused not on use *per se*, but on benefit to the user—benefit being measured by whether or not participants were able to produce a correct response upon referencing the information.

4.3.1 Necessity of Examples

The question concerning the need for examples was formulated in two parts as follows:

- Question (part 1): To what extent do users benefit from implicit information in the form of examples?
- Question (part 2): To what extent do users benefit from explicit information in the form of sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes?

Three pairs of lexical items were used to represent this question on the test. They are *aseptiser–programmer*; *évidemment–énergétique*; and *leurre–bidon*. The entry for the first item in each pair contains *only other* information, i.e. explicit information. The second item in each pair contains *examples*, i.e. implicit information, and *other* information. However, this opposition was not sufficient, for the factors of *example* and *other* were not adequately isolated. To compare these items, it would be necessary to use entries with *only other* information versus entries with *only examples*. This, though, is unrealistic in the case of the latter. There are entries that exist without examples. However, there are generally no entries that exist without other information. To accomplish this opposition, it would be necessary to modify the dictionary entries to a point

where they no longer represent what dictionaries actually offer the user. And, then, any conclusions drawn would have to be prefaced by the statement, “If dictionaries did not contain *other* information, then entries with *examples* would be . . . ”

Despite the problem noted above, however, the question on the usefulness of examples does not go completely unanswered, because the chi-square test for translation success using examples (Table 7.2) generates applicable information. It shows that, for given lexical items on the test, correct answers are given more frequently by participants who used *examples* to translate fixed items. Thus, it can be concluded that users do benefit from implicit information in the form of examples, although no conclusion can be drawn concerning explicit information.

4.3.2 Number of Free Combinations

The theoretical issue concerning the number of free combinations is addressed in two parts.

Question (part 1): Do users benefit from fewer or more free combinations in a bilingual dictionary?

Question (part 2): More specifically, should collocations, fixed expressions and compounds be illustrated by free combinations?

As mentioned previously, *réunir* and *beau* were the lexical items chosen to respectively represent the possibilities of fewer and more free combinations. These items are similar in that they are both familiar to the user and are both simple lexical items. In addition, they are more or less equally polysemous; therefore, their dictionary entries contain a fair number of free combinations. It would not have been a balanced comparison to examine, for instance, *beau*, which has many senses, against *décalage*, with notably fewer senses, for the number of free combinations is determined, to a very large extent, by the semantic complexity of the lexical item.

In the following table, four numbers are reported for each item. The first number reports what percentage of participants used examples for the item. The remaining three numbers provide a percentage breakdown of the correct, partially correct and incorrect responses given by participants when examples were consulted. All together these percentages provide an indication of a) which items prompted example use, and b) the translation success of participants who consulted examples for the item.

Table 13—Percentage Breakdown of Example Consultation for Lexical Items with Few Free Combinations vs. Many Free Combinations

	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
<i>réunir</i> few free combinations	30	Of the participants who consulted examples...	89	5.5	5.5
<i>beau</i> many free combinations	78		89	5.5	5.5

In the case of *réunir*, 30% of participants who referenced the entry used examples. Of these participants, 89% gave a correct equivalent, 5.5% gave a partially correct equivalent and 5.5% gave an incorrect equivalent.

For *beau*, 78% of participants consulted examples in the entry, and of these participants, 89% gave a correct equivalent, 5.5% a partially correct equivalent and 5.5% an incorrect equivalent.

The higher percentage of participants who consulted examples for *beau* may indicate that users are drawn to examples in entries with many free combinations. However, there seems to be no difference in the rate of translation success, whether many or fewer free combinations are given in an entry.

Another factor contributing to the number of free combinations is whether or not fixed items—collocations, fixed expressions and compounds—are illustrated in free combinations or are presented in lemmatized form, which constitutes the second part of the question regarding the number of free combinations. If fixed items are illustrated in free combinations, then the number of free combinations necessarily augments. However, presenting fixed items in their lemmatized form eliminates a number of free combinations.

Collocations and fixed expressions are examined in this section; however, compounds are not, since only one ST compound was retained for final testing, and a minimum of two lexical items are required for comparison of the possibilities: compound given in a free combination versus compound given in lemmatized form.

The lexical items used to explore this question with regard to collocations are *franchir* (*limites*) and *franchir seuil*. *Franchir (limites)* is given as a free combination in the entry for *franchir*, while *franchir seuil* is presented in lemmatized form in the entry *seuil*.

Table 14—Percentage Breakdown of Example Consultation for Lexical Items with Collocation in a Free Combination vs. Collocation in Lemmatized Form

	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
franchir (limites): collocation in a free combination	65	Of the participants who consulted examples...	37	0	63
franchir seuil: collocation in lemmatized form	92		82	3	15

The high percentage of participants who consulted examples for the item *franchir seuil* (92%) may indicate that fixed items in lemmatized form—in this case collocations—are consulted more often than fixed items in free combinations, perhaps because it is easier to recognize a fixed

item in lemmatized form. In addition, the percentages above indicate that more participants responded correctly (82%) when the entry with a collocation in lemmatized form was referenced. However, these tendencies are not certain as extraneous factors seem to have come into play in the use of the entries for *franchir (limites)* and *franchir seuil*.

Users were required to provide only the verb portion of the collocation for *franchir (limites)*; therefore the sense indication (*outrpasser*) and the general equivalent *to cross*, found at the beginning of the sense division may have provided enough information to choose the correct equivalent. This may explain why fewer participants consulted examples for *franchir (limites)* as opposed to *franchir seuil*, for which users were required to provide the entire collocation.

Another factor that may have unduly influenced the results presented above is the fact that the example consulted most often for the entry *franchir (limites)* is a close example (rather than a right example): *il y a certaines limites à ne pas franchir* *there are certain limits which should not be overstepped*. In other words, while the SL part of the free combination in which the collocation *franchir (limites)* is found closely resembles the test ST context, leading many users to consult this example, the equivalent provided in the translation of the example is inappropriate for the test TT context, leading users to an incorrect response.

Given the circumstances, then, it is very difficult to say definitively whether collocations in free combinations—*franchir (limites)*—or collocations in lemmatized form—*franchir seuil*—are being used more often and more successfully.

Another pair of fixed items was used to represent this question on the test with regard to fixed expressions: *à l'image de* and *en l'espèce*. *À l'image de* is presented in a free combination, while *en l'espèce* is presented in lemmatized form. The following table reports the percentage of

participants who used examples for these entries and the percentage of participants using examples who gave correct, partially correct and incorrect responses for each item.

Table 15—Percentage Breakdown of Example Consultation for Lexical Items with Fixed Expression in a Free Combination vs. Fixed Expression in Lemmatized Form

	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
à l'image de: fixed expression in a free combination	91	Of the participants who consulted examples...	93	4	3
en l'espèce: fixed expression in lemmatized form	97		77	11.5	11.5

There is very little difference between the percentage of participants who referenced a fixed expression presented in a free combination and the percentage of participants who referenced a fixed expression presented in lemmatized form. It is unclear, therefore, if one presentation is more accessible to participants than another. This is an unexpected outcome since one would expect that a fixed expression in lemmatized form would simplify the task of locating the fixed expression, and would consequently be referenced much more often. The fact that *à l'image de* stands at the beginning of the free combination in the entry *image* may have increased the number of participants who were able to locate the item. What would happen in other cases of fixed expressions presented in free combinations is unknown.

With regard to correctness, there is a fairly large difference between the percentage of participants who consulted a fixed expression in a free combination (*à l'image de*) and gave a correct response (93%) and the percentage of participants who consulted a fixed expression in lemmatized form (*en l'espèce*) and gave a correct response (77%), which may indicate that fixed expressions in free combinations are more beneficial to users. However, there are some factors

related to the items *à l'image de* and *en l'espèce* that may have contributed to this discrepancy. First, the expression *en l'espèce* is unfamiliar to even Francophone test participants, as evidenced by comments written on the test and dictionary entry booklets such as “*première fois que je voyais 'en l'espèce.'*” Perhaps this explains why a number of participants, in particular Francophones, did not consult the right example for *en l'espèce*, but rather turned to a more well-known fixed expression in the sense of *finance*—*en espèces*—which was found in the entry, but was not in the ST. Not only did lack of familiarity with the expression perhaps result in consulting an example in the wrong sense of *espèce*, but it is also possible that the test ST context and TT context were misunderstood to have a sense of *finance*: **Rien n'était trop beau ou trop cher en l'espèce** *Nothing was too good or too costly _____.*

Finally, a number of Anglophone participants who consulted the example for *en l'espèce* did not use any of the three translation equivalents given (i.e. in this instance, in the case in point, in this particular case). Instead, they derived their own equivalents (e.g. for this event, this time, in the affair, for this war, for the purpose), probably based on the three given in the entry. Each of the equivalents they provided, however, is only partially correct. Perhaps these participants felt that the dictionary equivalents given were inadequate, which, as seen previously, is true for certain items, e.g. *sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de*. However, this was not so for the item *en l'espèce*. The question, then, is very complicated: how can a user know when a TL equivalent given in an example is adequate or not? On the other hand, this question did not seem to arise for *à l'image de*, perhaps because there was only one translation given in the entry for the relevant free combination example.

Given all of the factors discussed above, it is not possible to say for certain, then, whether a fixed expression in a free combination is more beneficial to users than a fixed expression in lemmatized form.

In sum, it seems that users tend to reference an entry with many free combinations as opposed to an entry with fewer free combinations, but there is no evidence to show whether one type of entry is more beneficial to the user, resulting in more correct responses.

For collocations, users tended to reference the collocation presented in lemmatized form (92%) more often than the collocation presented in a free combination (65%). The same is true of fixed expressions; however, the percentage of participants who referenced a fixed expression in lemmatized form (97%) was only slightly higher than the percentage of participants who referenced a fixed expression in a free combination (91%).

There is no pattern present with regard to whether or not fixed items are more beneficial to users in lemmatized form or in a free combination. A larger percentage of users were able to produce a correct equivalent when they consulted the collocation in lemmatized form (82% correct) as opposed to when they consulted the collocation in a free combination (37% correct). However, for fixed expressions, users produced correct responses more often using a fixed expression in a free combination (93% correct) than a fixed expression in lemmatized form (77% correct). These contrasting patterns are most likely a result of lexical differences and differences in the dictionary entries and test context as was explained above. To draw any definitive conclusions, a much larger sample of these types of items would need to be tested.

It is of interest to note that there is no conclusive data to prove that free combinations are either beneficial or not to users for translation. Their absence in the statistical data may indicate

that the particular translation test used in this experiment cannot detect the role free combinations may play in translation. Perhaps because the TL text is already partially translated, the need for the semantic and syntactic information offered in free combinations is eliminated, for the partial translation of the test TT acts as a sort of “giant” free combination in itself.

4.3.3 Source of Free Combinations

Question: Do users benefit more from constructed or corpus examples?

The lexical items used to examine this theoretical issue are *relais*, representing the possibility of corpus examples, and *décalage*, representing the possibility of constructed examples. The entry for *relais* was taken from the RCSS, which is a corpus-based dictionary. However, although this dictionary is corpus-based, it is not possible to be sure that its examples are taken strictly from a corpus; some may be constructed. Therefore, the examples in the *relais* entry were replaced by examples taken from the *Presse canadienne française* corpus, presenting the same sense as the original examples found in the RCSS entry. The LAR2, on the other hand, does not use a corpus; its examples are constructed by the lexicographers. Therefore, the entry for *décalage* was taken from the LAR2 without changes.

The following table reports the percentage of participants who used examples for these entries, and the percentage of these participants who gave correct, partially correct or incorrect equivalents.

Table 16—Percentage Breakdown of Example Consultation for Lexical Items with Corpus Examples vs. Constructed Examples

	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
relais: corpus examples	63	Of the participants who consulted examples...	79	0	21
décalage: constructed examples	11		100	0	0

A higher percentage of participants consulted examples in the entry with corpus examples (63%) than in the entry with constructed examples (11%). The rate of correctness, however, is higher for participants who consulted constructed examples (100% correct) as opposed to the participants who consulted corpus examples (79% correct).

No conclusions can be drawn from these figures about corpus versus constructed examples, for there seem to be other factors influencing the data. The corpus examples that were included from the *Presse canadienne française* were longer than the average examples found in the RCSS, and longer than the constructed examples in the LAR2 for *décalage*. Therefore, this pair of lexical items seems to better represent the question of length of free combinations, the *relais* entry representing longer free combinations and the *décalage* entry representing shorter free combinations.

If this is so, then the data may indicate that users tend to reference examples in entries with longer examples, but perform better using entries with shorter examples. This question, along with the lexical items originally chosen to represent it, will be discussed in the next section.

4.3.4 Length of Free Combinations

Question: How long should a free combination be to be beneficial to users?

The lexical items that represent this question on the test are *entreprise* and *champ*. The *entreprise* entry contains shorter free combinations (generally phrase-length), while the *champ* entry contains longer free combinations (generally sentence-length). The following table reports the percentage of participants who used examples in these entries as well as the percentage of participants who gave correct, partially correct and incorrect responses using examples.

Table 17—Percentage Breakdown of Example Consultation for Lexical Items with Shorter Free Combinations vs. Longer Free Combinations

	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
entreprise: shorter free combinations	24	Of the participants who consulted examples...	58	8.3	33.3
champ: longer free combinations	83		17	2	81

From the above data, it seems that participants are more likely to consult examples in entries with longer, sentence-length free combinations, which corresponds to the finding in the previous section regarding *relais*.

More participants, however, gave correct equivalents when they consulted examples in the *entreprise* entry with shorter free combinations. This is also in accord with the data reported for *décalage* in the previous section.

However, the higher success rate for *entreprise* (58%) as opposed to *champ* (17%) probably does not have much to do with the fact that *entreprise* contains shorter free combinations and *champ* contains longer free combinations. Instead, this result probably stems

from the fact that the entry for *champ* only contains a close example, meaning an example that did not provide sufficient information for the user to produce a correct equivalent, which automatically increases the chances of a comparatively higher rate of success for *entreprise*, whose entry contained a right example.

In light of this fact, the data does not allow any definitive conclusions regarding the length of free combinations and the correctness of the equivalents chosen.

4.3.5 Presentation and Placement of Examples

Question: What type of presentation helps users produce a correct equivalent?

This question was assigned three pairs of lexical items: 1) *sacrifier à–consentir à*; 2) *guerre des ondes–sonner l'heure*; and 3) *le bât blesse–à l'occasion de*. The first pair (*sacrifier à–consentir à*) consists of lexical items that are not fixed. The second and third pairs consist of fixed lexical items. The dictionary entries for the items in the second pair (*guerre des ondes–sonner l'heure*) contain numerous fixed items, while the entries for the items in the third pair (*le bât blesse–à l'occasion de*) contain fewer fixed items.

In the first pair, *sacrifier à* represents the possibility of an example that is separated from the main entry for *sacrifier*. The applicable free combination example for this item is considered as separate from the main entry because it appears under the bolded subheadword: **sacrifier à**. In contrast, *consentir à*, the second item of the first pair, represents the possibility of an example that is not separated from the main entry. The applicable free combination example for *consentir à* appears in one of the two sense divisions in the entry for *consentir*, undistinguished from the rest of the free combination examples in the entry.

In the second and third pairs, which comprise fixed items, the first item of each pair (*guerre des ondes* and *le bât blesse*) represents the possibility of an example that is presented separately; in other words, an example that is not clumped together with free combinations in a given sense division. The second item of these pairs (*sonner l'heure* and *à l'occasion de*) represents the possibility of an example that is not presented separately; in other words, it is grouped or clumped together with a number of free combinations in a given sense division.

The tables below report the percentage of participants who consulted an example in these entries along with the percentage of participants who gave correct, partially correct, and incorrect responses using examples.

**Table 18—Percentage Breakdown of Example Consultation for Lexical Items
According to Presentation: Separated vs. Not Separated**

presentation of non-fixed items	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
sacrifier à: separated	57	Of the participants who consulted examples...	67	2	31
consentir à: not separated	39		93	0	7

presentation of many fixed items	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
guerre des ondes: separated	96	Of the participants who consulted examples...	91	7.5	1.5
sonner l'heure: not separated	86		36	7	57

presentation of few fixed items	examples consulted (%)		correct equivalent (%)	partially correct equivalent (%)	incorrect equivalent (%)
le bât blesse: separated	95	<i>Of the participants who consulted examples...</i>	94	5	1
à l'occasion de: not separated	81		18	3	79

For each of the three pairs, a higher percentage of users consulted examples in entries with separated examples. Conflicting data exists, though, with regard to correctness. For the first pair, more participants gave correct answers using examples that are not separated. For the second and third pairs, however, the pattern reverses, and more participants give correct answers using examples that are separated.

It is difficult to draw conclusions about correctness with regard to presentation based on this data for yet another reason: each of the three pairs contains one lexical item with an entry that only provides a close example and no right examples: 1) *sacrifier à*, 2) *sonner l'heure* and 3) *à l'occasion de*. And this factor is most likely interfering with the factors of separation and non-separation in presentation being tested.

4.4 Summary of Chapter Four

A number of general and specific questions presented in the Introduction were analyzed in this chapter using both statistical and interpretative means. Fairly clear cut answers were obtained for the general questions, while the results for the specific questions were less conclusive.

CONCLUSION

Chapter Four presents certain general trends from which a few firm conclusions can be drawn regarding bilingual dictionary use and use of examples in the bilingual dictionary.

5.1 Overall Findings

5.1.1 Bilingual Dictionary Use

Users consulted both simple and fixed complex lexical items in the bilingual dictionary entries provided for the translation test. Simple lexical items were consulted more frequently if they were less familiar to users; therefore, items such as *ériger*, *trompe-l'oeil*, *leurre* and *bidon* were more likely to be looked up than items such as *légitimer*, *racine*, *assister* or *fauteuil*.

Participants who did use the dictionary entry for unfamiliar simple items or fixed complex items often provided correct equivalents, unless the dictionary entry did not provide information that was applicable to the test context. On the other hand, participants who did not use the dictionary entry for familiar simple items also often provided correct equivalents.

5.1.2 Example Use in the Bilingual Dictionary

The trend of example use in the bilingual dictionary parallels the trend of general entry lookup described above, with patterns emerging for both simple lexical items and fixed complex lexical items. Users found it unnecessary to consult examples for simple lexical items, while fixed complex items prompted the most example use. And users were normally able to produce correct equivalents upon consulting an example for a fixed item, unless the equivalent provided in the example for the fixed item was not appropriate for the test context.

5.1.3 Example Use of Particular User Groups

In addition to the general trends linking dictionary use and example use to types of lexical items, there were general trends discovered concerning particular user groups and example use. Overall, the participants doing *thème* (Francophones) gave more correct equivalents than those doing *version* (Anglophones) when using examples. This was also the case even when only other information was used instead of examples. This seems unusual since it is generally assumed that translation toward the native language produces a better target text. But this research shows that students doing *thème* actually outperformed students doing *version*, with a bilingual dictionary entry in hand. There may be two explanations for this finding. First, students doing *thème* translation tend to be more meticulous about dictionary consultation. Second, the cloze text nature of the test required only lexical and semantic skills, whereas a full translation requires not only these skills, but also syntactic, grammatical and textual skills. If a full translation had been required, results may well have been different, showing that students translating into their native language deliver a higher performance. However, it is interesting to see that insofar as lexical and semantic skills are concerned, *thème* translation students can outperform *version* translation students when they use examples in the dictionary entry or even only other information in the entry.

5.2 Recommendations

The findings regarding bilingual dictionary use (section 5.1.1) and use of examples in the bilingual dictionary (section 5.1.2) suggest that dictionary compilers should aim to include as many fixed items (i.e. collocations, fixed expressions, compounds) as space allows, since users

reference these items most often, and without them, would likely not be able to produce correct equivalents.

Moreover, the results concerning the use of examples indicate that dictionary compilers should include as many equivalents as possible for fixed items in order to provide users with equivalents that are appropriate to different contexts. For instance, in the dictionary entry booklet, the example for *sonner l'heure* was translated by only one equivalent: *to strike the hour*. Granted, a large number of SL fixed items will only have a single TL equivalent since they are, indeed, restricted and therefore will probably correspond with only one TL lexical item. Nonetheless, there are cases of fixed items such as *sonner l'heure* that require more than one translation equivalent to be given in the example. *Sonner l'heure* can be used both literally and figuratively; the dictionary entry given for the test, however, only provided the literal translation equivalent, *to strike the hour*, in the example, while the test target-text context calls for a figurative translation such as *ring in* or *mark the dawning of*, which were not translation options in the example provided in the dictionary entry. In fact, the dictionary entry did not even alert users to the fact that this item had anything other than a literal sense.⁴³

Furthermore, attention should be paid to the translation of even simple lexical items in examples. In the case of *champ*, a number of participants gave incorrect equivalents for this item in the test because they consulted an example that provided a translation equivalent limited to a very specific context: ***lorsque des manifestants entraient dans le champ de la caméra, le***

⁴³ The *sonner* entry used for the test was taken from the RCSS, which only provided a literal translation equivalent in the example for *sonner l'heure*. Of the two other dictionaries used in this study, the OXHA, too, only gives a literal translation equivalent in an example. The LAR2 is the only bilingual dictionary that provides a figurative example with *sonner l'heure* (*l'heure de vengeance a sonné the time of revenge has come*), although it is not applicable to the test target-text context in question.

réalisateur disait de couper *when the demonstrators came into shot, the director yelled, "cut."*

Thus, the example context could not be carried over successfully to the test target-text context:

mais aussi loin que possible du champ des caméras et du regard des journalistes *as far away as possible from the ^{xx}shot^{xx} of the cameras and the watching eyes of the journalists*. How are users to know when the dictionary is giving an example that illustrates a particular usage as opposed to one that is generalizable? Dictionary compilers often provide both types of examples, but do not distinguish between them for the user.

At the very least, bilingual dictionary front matter could include more detail concerning how to extract the most information from the bilingual examples and translations included in the dictionary entries. Are examples with particular usage always given near the end of a sense division, as in the case of **sacrifier à** in LAR2?:

sacrifier à *v + prep . . . 2. sout* [se conformer à] *to conform to; sacrifier à la mode* *to conform to or go along with (the dictates of) fashion; à Noël, sacrifiez à la tradition* *keep tradition alive at Christmas*

Are generalizable examples always given at the beginning of a sense division? If the example contains a translation equivalent that is not given in the general list of equivalents (as is the case above), can it be assumed that the equivalent is specific to the example context? or can it be generalizable to a certain extent, e.g. to all holidays? At the very least, users need to be provided with more guidance than is currently given in the front matter⁴⁴ with regard to using examples in the bilingual dictionary.

⁴⁴ For instance, the LAR2 contains only one paragraph of information concerning examples in its front matter, which serves more as a statement of purpose than as a set of instructions for users: *Every effort has been made to ensure that example sentences reflect authentic usage and that translations are accurate and up-to-date. Detailed glosses are provided wherever it is necessary to clarify usage or avoid confusion.*

The last finding discussed above in section 5.1.3 regarding dictionary use of particular user groups may suggest that users doing *version* translation do not sufficiently consult either examples or only other information in the dictionary entries. This indicates, then, that more stress should be placed on thorough dictionary use as a key to translation success in *version* translation. Furthermore, students doing *thème* translation should continue to be encouraged to carefully compare the ST with the SL information in the dictionary entry in order to locate equivalents.

5.3 Questions Raised

This research generates as many questions as it does answers, particularly with regard to the use of free combination examples. Additional research is needed to examine the theoretical issues of free combinations that were only touched on interpretatively in this study, specifically their number (many vs. few and fixed items in free combinations vs. fixed items in lemmatized form), source (corpus vs. constructed) and length (shorter vs. longer). As suggested earlier, this would probably be best accomplished by using an assessment test that requires a complete translation. Moreover, it may be an advantageous research strategy to provide participants in such a test with truncated dictionary entries that only contain pertinent sense information and free combinations, thereby narrowing the focus to free combinations, although it is not usual practice for a dictionary entry to contain most of its information in examples.

Finally, there is also further research that could be conducted regarding particular user groups and bilingual dictionary use. The subject group that participated in this test could be queried regarding dictionary use in a number of different ways, for example, according to education or work experience.

Despite the fact that this study could not answer definitively all the questions posed in the Introduction, it did, however, generate several findings in the areas of both general dictionary use and example use, the most striking being the following:

- (1) Translation students frequently consult the dictionary for unfamiliar simple lexical items and fixed complex items;
- (2) Translation students frequently consult examples for fixed complex items;
- (3) Translation students often successfully translate familiar simple lexical items without referencing the dictionary;
- (4) Translation students have considerable translation success when they reference examples for fixed complex items;
- (5) Translation success is compromised when the dictionary does not indicate that a given translation equivalent will only work in a specific context;
- (6) Translation success is also compromised when the dictionary provides only one translation equivalent for fixed items that can have several translations depending on context.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Cloze Translation Test Booklet

Rôle des médias : chien de garde du public ou marionnette entre les mains des gouvernements?

Sur le front médiatique, la guerre du Golfe commence par un malentendu. Une mobilisation de presse sans précédent (d'origine principalement occidentale, à l'image des (1) unités armées de la coalition) accompagne la plus grosse armada militaire réunie (2) depuis la guerre du Vietnam. Les télévisions qui pensent justement pouvoir faire «du Vietnam à la puissance dix», en faisant vivre la guerre à l'opinion, mettent en place des moyens colossaux : 150 personnes et un budget total de 20 millions de dollars pour CNN, une centaine de personnes pour chacun des trois grands *networks* américains (ABC, CBS, NBC), entre 30 et 50 personnes pour les principales chaînes françaises qui assument chacune des coûts avoisinant (3) 2 millions de francs par semaine. Rien n'était trop beau (4) ou trop cher en l'espèce (5). Le 17 janvier 1991 ne devait-il pas sonner l'heure d' (6) un nouvel âge des médias audiovisuels? Transmission des images en temps réel, événement en continu, mondialisation effective de l'information, transparence absolue...on allait voir ce qu'on allait voir.

On n'a finalement rien vu ou presque.

Rarement un événement mondial de cette importance n'aura bénéficié d'aussi peu d'images et d'informations. Jamais en tout cas le décalage (7) n'aura été aussi grand entre les moyens mis en oeuvre et l'espace consenti (8) à l'investigation. Non pas évidemment (9) qu'il ne se soit rien passé. La guerre a bien eu lieu. Mais aussi loin que possible du champ (10) des caméras et du regard des journalistes. Ni images, ni témoins ne sont venus contrebalancer une information officielle souvent érigée en trompe-l'oeil (11). A la manière de ces chars en plastique dans le désert, les centaines de correspondants de guerre se sont soudain mis à jouer un rôle de leurre (12).

Role of the Media: Public Watchdog or Government Puppet?

On the media front, the Gulf War began with a misunderstanding. An unprecedented mobilisation of the Press (mainly Western in origin, _____ (1) the armed coalition units) accompanied the largest military armada _____ (2) since the Vietnam war. Indeed, there were television channels which thought to operate on a scale of "Vietnam to the power of 10", ensuring that the war remained constantly in the public mind by deploying massive resources: a staff of 150 and a total budget of 20 million dollars for CNN, around one hundred people for each of the three big American networks (ABC, CBS, NBC), and between 30 and 50 people for the main French channels, which each had to meet costs _____ (3) 2 million francs per week. Nothing was too _____ (4) or too costly _____ (5). Was the 17th January 1991 not to _____ (6) a new era for the audiovisual media? What with live transmissions, continuous coverage, effective world-wide dissemination of the news, and no concealment . . . we would see whatever there was to see.

In the end, we saw nothing, or almost nothing.

It is rare that a global event of such importance should have benefited from so few visual images and so little information. Never has the _____ (7) between the means deployed and the investigative coverage _____ (8) been so great. This was _____ (9) not because nothing happened. The war did indeed happen, but it took place as far away as possible from the _____ (10) of the cameras and the watching eyes of the journalists. No camera scenes or witnesses were allowed to counterbalance the official information, often _____ (11). Rather like the plastic tanks in the desert, the hundreds of war correspondents were suddenly forced into the position of _____ (12).

Secret militaire? Sécurité des troupes? Protection des opérations? Ce sont les explications de bon sens qu'on opposa à une opinion frustrée qui espérait **assister de son fauteuil à** (13) une super coproduction guerre des étoiles–Lawrence d'Arabie et qui n'eut droit, au mieux, qu'aux images d'un banal jeu électronique. La vérité est qu'on ne l'avait pas avertie, pas plus que les journalistes, qu'une guerre peut se perdre à la télévision et que, par conséquent, elle commence à se gagner sur le petit écran. C'est que toutes les leçons avaient été tirées du syndrome du Vietnam et de la responsabilité des télévisions sur l'évolution des consciences dans le sens du rejet du conflit. Pour reprendre leur *leadership* sur le monde **à l'occasion de** (14) la guerre du Golfe et bien signifier aux pays du Moyen Orient les limites à ne pas **franchir** (15), surtout quand les intérêts **énergétiques** (16) des pays occidentaux sont en jeu, les Etats-Unis ont aussi mené une **guerre des ondes** (17). Un deuxième front qui s'avéra aussi bien tenu et méticuleusement **programmé** (18) que celui de la «Tempête du désert.»

L'information fut donc triée, **aseptisée** (19) et uniformisée par les Etats-majors, devenant à son tour un redoutable missile en direction cette fois de l'opinion américaine et mondiale. Objectif: **légitimer** (20) la guerre. Aux médias d'**apporter la consécration finale** (21), celle qui consiste à éliminer toute **racine** (22) de doute quant à la justesse morale et à la nécessité politique de la guerre.

La guerre du Golfe fut courte à défaut d'être joyeuse mais on n'a pas fini d'en mesurer l'onde de choc. En tout cas, elle a fait **franchir** au système médiatique **un seuil** (23) à partir duquel son rôle dans la société démocratique a changé.

Military secrets? Safety of the troops? Protection of military operations? These are the common-sense explanations proffered to appease the public, who was hoping to

_____ (13) a kind of super-production resembling a cross between Star Wars and Lawrence of Arabia, but who had to make do with a few scenes which might have come from an unsophisticated computer game. The truth is that neither the public nor the journalists had been told that a war can be lost on television, and that it can also begin to be won on television. All the lessons that had been learned came from the Vietnam syndrome and from the responsibility of television in the matter of the development of the public conscience towards a rejection of the use of conflict. In order to reassert their world dominance _____ (14) the Gulf War, and to clearly indicate to the Middle East the boundaries which should not be _____ (15), especially when the _____ (16) interests of the Western world are at stake, the United States waged a _____ (17). This second war front was just as firmly defended and meticulously _____ (18) as that of "Desert Storm".

All news was thus sorted, _____ (19) and standardized by the military chiefs of staff, so that it became, in its turn, a fearful missile directed this time at American and world-wide opinion. Its objective was to _____ (20) the war. It was up to the media to _____ (21); that is to say, to eliminate any _____ (22) of doubt concerning the moral rectitude and political necessity of the war.

The Gulf War was short if not glorious, but we have not felt the last of its after-effects. In any case, the Gulf War forced the media system _____ (23), which signalled a change in its role within a democratic society.

De phénomènes de désinformations et de manipulations ponctuels, on est passé à une **entreprise** (24) générale de mésinformation dont l'ombre s'étend sur l'après-guerre et les pratiques futures des médias. Voilà bien où **le bât blesse** (25). Car après tout, désinformations et manipulations font partie des armes et des pratiques «normales» de la guerre. La guerre du Golfe n'en aura pas manqué, **sacrifiant** à son tour **à** (26) la longue tradition de l'intox. En ces périodes d'extrême tension où l'essentiel semble se jouer, la tentation est vive jusqu'au sein des plus solides démocraties, pourtant justement identifiées au principe de la liberté de presse, de chercher à contrôler le «quatrième pouvoir.» Ne l'avait-on pas déjà constaté ces derniers temps avec le faux millier de morts de la place Tiananmen, les mensonges de la révolution roumaine, le charnier **bidon** (27) de Timisoara, la profanation mystère de Carpentras, l'invasion de Panama? Autant de dérapages inquiétants qui s'avéraient révélateurs de la fragilité du statut de la presse, écartelé entre une fonction de **contre-pouvoir** (28) et celle de **relais** (29) des pouvoirs dominants.

Jean Paul Besset, Journaliste, article paru dans *l'Événement européen*, ed. Seuil, 1991. In Adab, B.J. *Annotated Texts for Translation: French-English*. Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd., 1994.

We have thus progressed from the phenomenon of disinformation and carefully directed manipulation to a wider-scale _____ (24) of misinformation, whose shadow extends to the post-war period and to the way the media will operate in the future. This is where _____ (25). For, after all, disinformation and manipulation are part and parcel of the weapons and the normal practices of war. The Gulf War did not fail to live up to this, _____, in its turn, _____ (26) the long-standing tradition of military deception. In such times of extreme tension, where fundamental issues are at stake, even the most solid of democracies (those in fact which believe in the freedom of the press) feel the temptation to try to exercise some control over the "Fourth Estate". Had we not already seen other examples of this in recent months, with the false reports of only a thousand dead in Tienanmen Square, the lies surrounding the Romanian revolution, the _____ (27) death-toll of Timisoara, the mysterious profanation of the cemetery at Carpentras, and the invasion of Panama? All of these are disquieting departures from the truth which reveal the fragile status of the press, torn between its two roles, that of being _____ (28) and that of being _____ (29) for those currently in power.

APPENDIX 2

Dictionary Booklet

1. Did you look at the dictionary entry **image** to help you answer question 1?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

image /imaʒ/ *nf* 1 (reproduction) picture; **il ne sait pas lire mais il aime bien regarder les ~s** he can't read but he likes looking at the pictures; 2 Cin, TV (sur une pellicule) frame; (qualité de réglage) picture; (qualité artistique) photography; **24 ~s par seconde** 24 frames per second; **l'~ est trop sombre** the picture is too dark; **le scénario n'est pas formidable mais il y a de très belles ~s** the storyline isn't great but there is some very beautiful photography; **le film contient des ~s choquantes** the film contains some shocking scenes; **nous vous présenterons quelques ~s de ce film** we'll show you an excerpt *ou* extract from the film; **l'industrie de l'~ Vidéo** the video industry; Phot the photography industry; 3 (reflet) reflection, image; Phys image; 4 (représentation) picture; **leur livre donne une ~ totalement fausse de la situation/du pays** their book gives a totally false picture of the situation/country; **ils sont l'~ même du bonheur parfait** they are the picture of perfect happiness; **à l'~ de ses prédécesseurs, c'est un bureaucrate**

sans imagination just like his predecessors, he's an unimaginative bureaucrat; 5 Littérat **image; il s'exprime par ~s** he expresses himself in images *ou* metaphors; **étudier les ~s d'un poème** to study the imagery of a poem; 6 Scol **reward given to pupils in the form of a small picture.**

■ ~ d'Épinal lit *simplistic 19th century print of traditional French life*; fig clichéd image; ~ de marque (de produit) brand image; (de société) corporate image; (de politicien, personnalité) (public) image; ~ pieuse holy picture; ~ réelle Phys real image; ~ virtuelle Phys virtual image.

2. Did you look at the dictionary entry **réunir** to help you answer question 2?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

réunir [ReyniR] → SYN ▶

conjug 2 ◀  *vt* 

(rassembler) objets to gather *ou* collect (together); faits, preuves to put together ◆ **réunir tout son linge en un paquet** to collect all one's washing into a bundle  (recueillir) fonds to raise, get together; preuves to collect, gather (together); pièces de collection, timbres to collect

 (cumuler) to combine ◆ ce

livre réunit diverses tendances stylistiques this book combines various styles, this book is a combination of different styles.

 (assembler) participants to gather, collect; (convoquer) membres d'un parti to call together, call a meeting of; (inviter) amis, famille to entertain, have round (Brit), have in; (rapprocher) ennemis, antagonistes to bring together, reunite; anciens amis to bring together again, reunite ◆ **ce congrès a réuni des écrivains de toutes tendances** this congress gathered *ou* brought together writers of all types ◆ **après une brouille de plusieurs années, ce deuil les a réunis** after a quarrel which lasted several years, this bereavement brought them together again *ou* reunited them  (raccorder) parties, éléments to join ◆ **le couloir réunit les deux ailes du bâtiment** the corridor joins *ou* links the two wings of the building

 (relier) to join (up *ou* together) ◆ **réunir deux fils** to tie two threads together

 (rattacher à) **réunir à** province etc to unite to

 2 **se réunir** *vpr*  (se rencontrer) to meet, get together, have a get-together ◆ **se réunir entre amis** to get together with (some) friends, have a friendly get-together

 (s'associer) [compagnies] to combine, merge; [états] to unite  (se joindre) [états] to unite; [fleuves] to flow into each other, merge; [rues] to join, converge; [idées] to unite, be united

3. Did you look at the dictionary entry **avoisiner** to help you answer question 3?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

avoisiner [3] [avwazine] *vt*

- 1. [dans l'espace] to be near OU close to, to border on (*insép*); **la propriété avoisine la rivière** the land borders on the river; **son attitude avoisine l'insolence** *fig* his attitude verges on insolence. - 2. [en valeur] to be close on, to come close to; **les dégâts avoisinent le million** damages come close to one million; ~ **les 20%** to be close to OU about 20%.

4. Did you look at the dictionary entry **beau** to help you answer question 4?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

beau (bel before vowel or mute *h*), **belle**, *mpl* ~x /bo, bɛl/ I *adj*
1 (esthétiquement) [*enfant, femme, visage, yeux, cheveux*] beautiful; [*homme, garçon*] handsome; [*jambes*] nice; [*corps,*

silhouette, dents] good; [*couleur, son, musique, maison, jardin, objet*] beautiful; **tu es belle** (extraordinairement) you're beautiful; (normalement) you look lovely; **c'est une belle fille** she's very nice-looking; **c'est une belle femme** she's a beautiful woman; **ils forment un ~ couple** they make a lovely couple; **ça c'est une belle moto!** that's a terrific-looking bike!; **de belles paroles de Brel** some fine lyrics by Brel; **avoir belle allure** [*personne*] to cut a fine figure; [*maison, voiture*] to be fine-looking; **la robe a une très belle coupe** the dress is beautifully cut; **se faire ~** to do oneself up; **faire ~ qn** to smarten sb up; **ce n'est pas (bien) ~ à voir**! it's not a pretty sight!; **peindre qch sous de belles couleurs** to make sth sound wonderful; ☒ **fille**;
2 (qualitativement) [*vêtements, machine, performance, match, spectacle*] good; [*œuvre, collection, bijou, spécimen*] fine; [*travail, poste, cadeau, anniversaire*] nice; [*temps, jour*] fine, nice; [*journée, promenade, rêve*] lovely; [*promesse, débat, discours, projet*] fine; [*effort, victoire, exemple, manière*] nice; [*geste, sentiment, âme*] noble; [*pensée*] beautiful; [*carrière*] successful; [*succès, avenir, optimisme*] great; **fais de ~x rêves!** sweet dreams!; **c'est ~ l'amour!** love's a wonderful thing!; **il fait ~** the weather is fine; **temps froid mais ~ sur tout le pays** the whole country will enjoy

cold but sunny weather; **il n'est pas ~ de faire** it's not nice to do; **un ~ jour/matin/soir** one fine day/morning/evening; **au ~ milieu** de right in the middle of; **rien n'est trop ~ pour lui/eux** nothing is too good for him/them; **un ~ coup de dés** a lucky throw of the dice; **son cheval a fait une belle course** his horse ran a very good race; **nous avons fait un ~ voyage** we had a wonderful trip; **c'est bien ~ tout ça, mais**! that's all very fine, but; **trop ~ pour être vrai** too good to be true; **ça serait trop ~**! one should be so lucky!; **ce ne sont que de belles paroles** it's all talk; **assez de belles paroles, dites ce que vous avez à dire** enough of your fine words, say what you have to say; **il y a ~ temps qu'il n'est pas venu** he hasn't been here for ages; ☒ **démener, pluie**;
3 (quantitativement) [*somme, héritage*] tidy; [*salaire*] very nice; [*appétit*] big; **belle pagaille** absolute mess; **manger avec un bel appétit** to eat heartily; **un ~ cadeau qu'il t'a fait là!** that's a nice *ou* that's quite a present he gave you!; **un ~ coup en Bourse** a spectacular deal on the Stock Exchange; **il a une belle cicatrice dans le dos** he's got quite a (big) scar on his back; **je me suis fait une belle bosse** I got a great big bump; ~ **mensonge** whopping lie, whopper!; **bel égoïste** awful egoist; ~ **salaud**! real bastard!.
II *nm* 1 (choses intéressantes) **qu'est-ce que tu as fait de ~?** done anything interesting?; **tu**

n'as rien de ~ à nous raconter? anything interesting to tell us?; **le plus ~ (de l'histoire) est que** the best part (of the story) is that; **2 Philos (beauté) le ~ beauty;** **goût/recherche/sentiment du ~** taste/quest/feeling for beauty; **3 (bonne qualité) best quality;** **n'acheter que du ~** to buy only the best quality; **4 (homme) dandy;** **jouer les ~x** to be a dandy; **☐ vieux;** **5 Météo le temps est/se met au ~** the weather is turning fine.

III avoir beau loc verbale j'ai ~ essayer/travailler, je n'y arrive pas it's no good my trying/working, I can't do it; **l'économie a ~ se développer, le chômage progresse** even if the economy does develop, unemployment is still growing; **on a ~ dire, ce n'est pas si simple** no matter what people say, it's not that easy.

IV bel et bien loc adv 1 (irréversiblement) well and truly; **bel et bien fini** well and truly over; **2 (indiscutablement) définitely;** **il était bel et bien coupable** he was definitely guilty.

V belle nf 1 (femme) courtiser les belles to go courting the ladies; **ma belle** darling, love^o GB, doll^o US; **2 (maîtresse) lady friend;** **avoir rendez-vous avec sa belle** to have a date with one's lady friend; **3 Jeux décider, faire la belle** to play the decider.

VI de plus belle loc adv with renewed vigour^{GB}; **les hostilités ont repris de plus belle** hostilities resumed with renewed vigour^{GB};

la pluie a repris de plus belle it started raining again harder than ever; **frapper de plus belle** to hit harder than ever; **crier de plus belle** to shout louder than ever. **VII belles^o nfpl** (paroles) stories; **j'en ai appris or entendu de belles à ton sujet** I have been hearing stories about you; **on en raconte de belles sur elle** there are quite a few stories about her.

■ **~ fixe** Météo fine weather; **être au ~ fixe [temps, baromètre]** to be set fair; **[affaire, relation]** to be going well; **avoir le moral au ~ fixe^o** to be on a high^o; **~ gosse^o** looker^o, doll^o US; **être ~ gosse** to be dishy^o GB, to be a looker^o; **~ linge^o** high society; **fréquenter le ~ linge** to hang out^o with society types; **~ parleur** smooth talker; **~ parti (homme)** eligible bachelor; (femme) good match; **épouser un ~ parti** to marry money; **~ sexe** fair sex; **~x jours (beau temps)** fine weather ☿; (belle époque) good days; **les ~x jours sont arrivés** the fine weather is here; **c'étaient les ~x jours** those were the days; **Beau Danube bleu** Mus Blue Danube; **bel esprit** bel esprit; **la Belle au Bois dormant** Sleeping Beauty; **Belle Époque** Belle Époque; **style Belle Époque** Belle Époque style; **belle page** imprim right-hand page; **belle plante^o** gorgeous specimen^o; **belle vie** life of ease; **c'est la belle vie!** this is the life!; **avoir la belle vie** to live it up; **belles années** happy years. **IDIOMES faire le ~ [chien]** to sit up and beg; **[personne]** to

show off; (se) faire la belle^o (s'évader) to do a bunk^o GB, to take a powder^o US; **l'avoir belle^o** to have an easy life; **en faire voir de belles^o à qn** to give sb a hard time; **c'est du ~!** iron lovely! iron; **tout ~ (tout ~)!** (pour calmer) easy (easy)!; **il ferait ~ voir^o (qu'il vienne)** I'd like to see the day (when he shows up)^o.

5. Did you look at the dictionary entry **espèce** to help you answer question 5?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

espèce /ɛspɛs/ I nf 1 Biol species; **une ~ rare** a rare species; **~s animales/végétales** animal/plant species; **l'~ humaine** mankind; **2 (type) kind, sort;** **des ~s de** kinds of, sorts of; **de toute ~** of every kind; **un menteur de la pire or de la plus belle ~** a liar of the worst sort; **les individus de ton ~** people of your sort; **en l'~ fml** in this instance, in the case in point, in this particular case; **3 (dans description approximative) sort, kind;** **il y avait des ~s de colonnes dans l'entrée** there were sort of column things in the entrance; **une ~ de tasse** a sort of cup; **cela n'a aucune ~d'intérêt/d'importance** that is of absolutely no

interest/importance; ~
d'idiot/d'imbécile! you
 idiot/fool!; **cette ~ d'idiot n'a
 même pas . . .** that stupid idiot
 didn't even . . .

II espèces nfpl 1 **Fin en ~s**
 [payer, règlements] in cash; **□**
sonnant; 2 **Relig ~s**
 (eucharistiques) species.

6. Did you look at the
 dictionary entry **sonner** to
 help you answer question
 6?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline
 the part(s) of the entry
 which helped you find the
 equivalent.

sonner [sɔne] →SYN ► **conjug**

1 ◀ GRAMMAIRE ACTIVE

27.3

1 vi **1** [cloches, téléphone] to
 ring; [réveil] to ring, go off;
 [clairon, trompette] to sound;
 [tocsin, glas] to sound, toll ♦ **elle**
a mis le réveil à sonner pour ou
à 7 heures she's set the alarm for
 7 o'clock ♦ (Scol etc) **la cloche a**
sonné the bell has gone *ou* rung ♦
sonner à toute volée to peal (out)
 ♦ (fig) **les oreilles lui sonnent** his
 ears are ringing

2 (son métallique) [marteau] to
 ring; [clefs, monnaie] to jangle,
 jingle ♦ **sonner clair** to give a
 clear ring ♦ **sonner creux** (lit) to
 sound hollow; (fig) to ring hollow
 ♦ **sonner faux** (lit) to sound out
 of tune; (fig) to ring false ♦

sonner juste (lit) to sound in
 tune; (fig) to ring true ♦ (fig)
sonner bien/mal to sound
 good/bad ♦ **l'argent sonna sur**
le comptoir the money jingled *ou*
 jangled onto the counter

3 (être annoncé) [midi, minuit]
 to strike ♦ **3 heures venaient de**
sonner 3 o'clock had just struck,
 it had just struck 3 o'clock ♦ **la**
récréation à sonné the bell has
 gone for break ♦ **la messe sonne**
 the bell is ringing *ou* going for
 mass → **heure**

4 (actionner une sonnette) to
 ring ♦ **on a sonné** the bell has
 just gone, I just heard the bell,
 somebody just rang (the bell) ♦
sonner chez qn to ring at sb's
 door, ring sb's doorbell

5 (Phonétique) **faire sonner** to
 sound

2 vt **1** cloche to ring; tocsin, glas
 to sound, toll; clairon to sound ♦
sonner trois coups à la porte to
 ring three times at the door ♦ **se**
faire sonner les cloches* to get a
 good ticking off* (Brit) *ou*
 telling-off* ♦ **sonner les cloches**
à qn to give sb a roasting* *ou* a
 telling-off*

3 (annoncer) messe, matines to
 ring the bell for; réveil,
 rassemblement, retraite to sound ♦
sonner l'alarme to sound the
 alarm ♦ (Mil) **sonner la charge**
 to sound the charge ♦ **sonner**
l'heure to strike the hour ♦ **la**
pendule sonne 3 heures the
 clock strikes 3 (o'clock)

4 (appeler) portier, infirmière to
 ring for ♦ **on ne t'a pas sonné!***
 nobody asked you!, who rang

your bell?* (Brit)

1 (* : étourdir) [chute] to knock
 out; [nouvelle] to stagger*, take
 aback ♦ **la nouvelle l'a un peu**
sonné he was rather taken aback
ou staggered* at *ou* by the news
 ♦ **il a été bien sonné par sa**
grippe he was really knocked flat
 by his bout of flu, his bout of flu
 really knocked him for six*

2 **sonner de** vt indir clairon, cor to
 sound

Did you look at the
 dictionary entry **heure** to
 help you answer question
 6?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline
 the part(s) of the entry
 which helped you find the
 equivalent.

heure [œr] →SYN nf **1**

(mesure de durée) hour ♦ **l'heure**
tourne time passes ♦ **les heures**
passaient vite/lentement the
 hours went by quickly/slowly ♦
 (Scol) **heure (de cours)** period,
 class ♦ **j'ai attendu une bonne**
heure/une petite heure I waited
 (for) a good hour/just under an
 hour ♦ **j'ai attendu 2 heures**
d'horloge* I waited 2 solid
 hours* ♦ **il a parlé des heures** he
 spoke for hours ♦ (Scol) **heure**
de libre free period ♦ (Scol) **j'ai**
deux heures de français
aujourd'hui I've two periods of
 French today ♦ **pendant les**
heures de classe/de bureau

during school/office *ou* business hours ♦ (Admin) **heures de réception de 14 à 16 heures** consultations between 2 and 4 p.m. ♦ (Scol) **quelles sont vos heures de réception?** when are you available to see parents? ♦ **gagner/ coûter 80 F (de) l'heure** to earn/ cost 80 francs an hour *ou* per hour ♦ (Aut) **faire du 100 (km) à l'heure** to do 60 miles *ou* 100 km an hour *ou* per hour ♦ **1 heure/ 3 heures de travail** 1 hour's/ 3 hours' work ♦ **cela représente 400 heures de travail** it represents 400 manhours *ou* 400 hours of work ♦ **faire beaucoup d'heures** to put in long hours ♦ **lutter pour la semaine de 30 heures (de travail)** to fight for a 30-hour (working) week ♦ **faire des/10 heures supplémentaires** to work *ou* do overtime/10 hours' overtime ♦ **les heures supplémentaires sont bien payées** you get well paid for (doing) overtime, overtime hours are well-paid ♦ **fait dans les 24 heures** done within 24 hours ♦ **à toute heure du jour et de la nuit** at every hour of the day and night ♦ **24 heures sur 24** round the clock, 24 hours a day ♦ **d'heure en heure** with each passing hour  (divisions de la journée) **savoir l'heure** to know what time it is, know the time ♦ **avez-vous l'heure?** have you got the time? ♦ **quelle heure avez-vous?** what time do you make it? ♦ **il est 6 heures/ 6 heures 10 /6 heures moins 10 /6 heures et demie** it is 6 (o'clock) /10 past 6 /10 to 6

/half past 6 ♦ **10 heures du matin/du soir** 10 (o'clock) in the morning/at night, 10 a.m./p.m. ♦ (frm) **à 16 heures 30** at 4:30 p.m., at 16:30 (frm) ♦ **il est 8 heures passés *ou* sonnées** it's gone 8 ♦ **il était 18 heures** heure de Paris it was 6 o'clock Paris time ♦ **à 4 heures pile *ou* sonnant(es) *ou* tapant(es)* *ou* pétant(es)*** at exactly 4 (o'clock), at dead on 4 (o'clock)* (Brit), at 4 (o'clock) on the dot* ♦ **à 4 heures juste(s)** at 4 sharp ♦ **les bus passent à l'heure** the buses come on the hour ♦ **à une heure avancée (de la nuit)** at a late hour (of the night), late on (in the night) ♦ **à une heure indue** at an *ou* some ungodly hour ♦ **se coucher à pas d'heure*** to go to sleep at an impossible hour → **demander**  (l'heure fixée) time ♦ **c'est l'heure** it's time ♦ **avant l'heure** before time, ahead of time, early ♦ **à l'heure (juste)** (right *ou* exactly) on time ♦ **après l'heure** late ♦ **venez quand vous voulez, je n'ai pas d'heure** come when you like, I have no fixed timetable *ou* schedule *ou* anytime suits me ♦ **heure de Greenwich** Greenwich mean time ♦ **heure légale/locale** standard/local time ♦ **il est midi, heure locale** it's noon, local time ♦ **nous venons de passer à l'heure d'hiver** we have just put the clocks back ♦ **l'heure d'été** daylight saving time, British Summer Time (Brit) ♦ (Can) **l'heure avancée** daylight saving time ♦ **passer à l'heure**

d'été to go over *ou* change to summer time ♦ **l'heure militaire** the right *ou* exact time ♦ **votre heure sera la mienne** name *ou* say a time ♦ **être à l'heure** [personne] to be on time ♦ **ma montre/l'horloge est toujours à l'heure** my watch/the clock is always right *ou* keeps good time ♦ **ma montre n'est pas à l'heure** my watch is wrong ♦ **mettre sa montre à l'heure** to set *ou* put one's watch right ♦ **l'heure c'est l'heure** on time is on time ♦ **avant l'heure, ce n'est pas l'heure, après l'heure, ce n'est plus l'heure*** a minute late is a minute too late ♦ **à l'heure qu'il est, il doit être arrivé** he must have arrived by now → **remettre**  (moment) time, moment ♦ **je n'ai pas une heure à moi** I haven't a moment to myself ♦ (frm) **l'heure est venue *ou* a sonné** the time has come ♦ **nous avons passé ensemble des heures heureuses** we spent many happy hours together ♦ **l'heure du déjeuner** lunchtime, time for lunch ♦ **l'heure d'aller se coucher** bedtime, time for bed ♦ **l'heure du biberon** (baby's) feeding time ♦ **l'heure *ou* aux heures des repas** at mealtime(s) ♦ **à heures fixes** at fixed times ♦ **heure d'affluence *ou* de pointe** (trains, circulation) rush hour, peak hour; (magasin) peak shopping period, busy period ♦ **heure de pointe** (téléphone) peak period ♦ **heures creuses** (gén) slack periods; (pour électricité, téléphone etc) off-peak

periods ♦ [magasin] heures d'ouverture/de fermeture opening/closing hours ♦ (Can) heures d'affaires business hours ♦ l'heure de la sortie [écoliers, ouvriers] time to go home ♦ travailler/rester jusqu'à l'heure de la sortie to work/stay until it is time to go home ♦ les problèmes de l'heure the problems of the moment ♦ à l'heure H at zero hour ♦ combattant de la dernière heure final-hour fighter ♦ les combattants de la première heure the first wave of fighters ♦ l'heure est grave it is a grave moment ♦ à l'heure dite at the appointed *ou* prearranged time ♦ à l'heure du danger at the time of danger ♦ l'heure de vérité/de la mort the moment *ou* hour of truth/the hour of death ♦ l'heure est à la concertation it is now time for consultation and dialogue, dialogue is now the order of the day ♦ l'heure n'est pas à la rigolade this is no time to be having fun ♦ (fig : de nos jours) à l'heure qu'il est *ou* à cette heure at this moment in time ♦ nous l'attendons d'une heure à l'autre we are expecting him any time now → bon¹, dernier, premier
 (avec adj poss) il est poète/aimable à ses heures he writes poetry/ he can be quite pleasant when the fancy takes him *ou* when the mood is on him *ou* when he feels like it ♦ ce doit être Paul, c'est son heure it must be Paul – it's his (usual) time ♦ elle a eu son heure de gloire/de célébrité

she has had her hour of glory/fame ♦ il aura son heure (de gloire etc) his hour *ou* time will come ♦ il attend son heure he is biding his time *ou* waiting for the right moment ♦ son heure viendra/est venue (de mourir) his time will come/has come ♦ sa dernière heure a sonné his (*ou* her) time has come *ou* is up
 (mesure de distance) hour ♦ Chartres est à plus d'une heure de Paris Chartres is more than an hour from Paris *ou* more than an hour's run from Paris ♦ c'est à 2 heures de route it's 2 hours away by road ♦ il y a 2 heures de route/train it's a 2-hour drive/train journey, it takes 2 hours by car/train (to get there)
 (Rel) heures canoniales canonical hours ♦ (Rel) Grandes/ Petites Heures night/daylight offices → livre

7. Did you look at the dictionary entry **décalage** to help you answer question 7?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

décalage [dekalaʒ] *nm* - 1. [dans l'espace] space, interval, gap. - 2. [dans le temps] interval, time-lag, lag; ~ horaire time difference; souffrir du ~ horaire to have jet lag. - 3. [manque de

concordance] discrepancy, gap; ~ entre la théorie et la pratique - discrepancy between theory and practice. - 4. AUDIO shift, displacement; ~ de fréquence frequency shift; ~ de l'image image displacement; ~ son-image pull-up sound advance, sound to image stagger. - 5. ASTRON: ~ spectral spectral shift - 6. INF shift; introduire qqch par ~ to shift sthg in ☐ ~ arithmétique/logique/ de la virgule arithmetic/logical/ point shift.
 ♦ en décalage *loc adj* - 1. [dans le temps] : nous sommes en ~ par rapport à Bangkok there's a time difference between here and Bangkok. - 2. [sans harmonie] : être en ~ avec qqn to have a different mentality from sb; on est en complet ~ we're on completely different wavelengths.

8. Did you look at the dictionary entry **consentir** to help you answer question 8?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

consentir [kɔ̃sɑtiʁ] → SYN ►
 conjug 16 ◀ GRAMMAIRE
 ACTIVE 9.2

1 vi (accepter) to agree, consent (à to) ♦ consentir à faire qch to agree to do(ing) sth ♦ consentir à ce que qn fasse qch to consent

ou agree to sb's doing sth ♦
espérons qu'il va (y) consentir
 let's hope he'll agree *ou* consent
 to it → **qui**

2 vt (accorder) permission, délai,
 prêt to grant (à to) ♦ **consentir un
 délai/une remise à qn** to allow sb
 extra time/a discount

9. Did you look at the
 dictionary entry
évidemment to help you
 answer question 9?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline
 the part(s) of the entry
 which helped you find the
 equivalent.

évidemment [evidamɑ̃] → SYN
adv (bien sûr) of course,
 obviously; (frm: d'une manière
 certaine) obviously

10. Did you look at the
 dictionary entry **champ** to
 help you answer question
 10?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline
 the part(s) of the entry
 which helped you find the
 equivalent.

champ /ʃɑ̃/ I *nm* (terre cultivable)
 field; **ce plan de développement
 risque de détruire les ~s de
 coton qui assurent la
 subsistance de 15 millions de
 personnes** this development plan

threatens to destroy the cotton
 fields which provide a living for
 15 million people; **elle décida de
 couper à travers les ~s pour
 passer rapidement à l'est** she
 decided to cut across the fields (in
 order) to quickly move eastward;
**elle devait travailler aux ~s
 jusqu'à dix heures par jour, six
 jours par semaine, pour nourrir
 sa famille** she had to work in the
 fields up to ten hours per day, six
 days a week, to feed her family; **la
 population sinistrée a passé une
 nouvelle nuit en pleins ~s** the
 disaster victims spent another
 night exposed to the elements;
**2 (étendue) field; les ~s de glace
 sont formés par l'air humide du
 Pacifique qui se déplace vers
 l'est** the ice fields are formed by
 the humid Pacific air as it moves
 eastward; **sur les pentes des
 Alpes, il y a des ~s de neige à
 perte de vue** on the Alps slopes,
 there are snowfields as far as the
 eye can see; **le ~ pétrolifère
 Hibernia pourrait être
 responsable d'une fuite de
 pétrole** the Hibernia oil field
 could be the source of an oil leak;
**3 (domaine) field; la mafia
 newyorkaise, dont le succès
 depuis 70 ans reposait sur
 l'extrême diversité de ses
 activités, ne cesse de voir son ~
 d'action rétrécir** the New York
 mafia, whose success over the last
 70 years was built on its very
 diverse activities, is now seeing its
 field of activity shrinking
 continuously; **entièrement pris
 par son fascinant ~ de**

**recherche, ce professeur rêve de
 construire des robots dotés de
 vie artificielle** completely
 engrossed by his fascinating field
 of research, this professor dreams
 of building life-like robots; **la
 domination de la pensée
 politiquement correcte dans le ~
 culturel nord-américain** the
 domination of politically correct
 thought in the North American
 cultural arena; **après deux ans de
 pouvoir, le gouvernement est
 attaqué des deux côtés du ~
 politique** after two years in
 power, the government is under
 attack from both sides of the
 political arena; **le ~ est libre, on
 peut y aller** lit the coast is clear,
 we can go; **fig the way is clear, we
 can go; le premier ministre Jean
 Chrétien aura le ~ libre pour
 imprimer la direction qu'il
 voudra à la Société Radio-
 Canada en choisissant le
 nouveau président** Prime
 Minister Jean Chrétien will have a
 free hand in determining the future
 direction of Radio-Canada by
 choosing the new president; **la
 démission du ministre avait
 pour but de laisser le ~ libre à
 un autre candidat** the minister
 resigned to make way for a new
 candidate; **4 Phot, Cin field; on
 peut clairement voir de petits
 objets au centre de notre ~
 visuel** we can clearly see small
 objects at the center of our field of
 vision; **lorsque des manifestants
 entraient dans le ~ de la
 caméra, le réalisateur disait de
 couper** when the demonstrators

came into the shot, the director yelled, "cut"; **hors ~, l'acteur attend que la vedette finisse de dire son texte** offscreen, the actor waited for the star to finish her lines; **le film est lent, avec très peu de dialogues, parfois seule une voix hors ~ commente l'action** the film is slow with little dialogue; sometimes only an offscreen voice explains the action; **fig le ministre a décidé de prendre du ~, après quinze années d'investissement intense dans la bataille politique** after fifteen years of intense participation in the everyday battles of politics, the minister decided to stand back and play a less active role;

5 Phys field; ~ acoustique/ électrique/ magnétique sound/ electric/ magnetic field;

6 Ling field; ~ conceptuel/ dérivationnel/ lexical /sémantique conceptual/ derivational/ lexical/ semantic field;

7 Math field; ~ de vecteurs/ scalaires/ tenseurs vector/ scalar/ tensor field;

8 Hérald, Ordinat field.

II à tout bout de champ^o loc adv all the time; **☐ sur-le-champ. ■ ~ d'aviation** airfield; **~ de bataille** Mil, fig battlefield; **~ de courses** race-course GB, racetrack; **~ d'épandage** sewage farm; **~ de foire** fairground; **~ de manœuvre** training area; **~ de mines** minefield; **~ opératoire** (linge) sterile towel; (zone) operative field; **~ de tir** (terrain d'exercice) firing range; (portée)

range; **~ de tir aérien** bombing range; **~s ouverts** open fields.
IDIOMES mourir au ~ d'honneur to be killed in action.

11. Did you look at the dictionary entry **ériger** to help you answer question 11?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

ériger [eRiʒe] →SYN ► **conjug 3** ◀ vt (frm) erect, set up, establish
 ◆ **ériger un monument/un bâtiment** erect a monument/a building
 ◆ **ériger une société** to set up *ou* establish a company
 ◆ **ériger ses habitudes en doctrine** to raise one's habits to the status of a doctrine
 ◆ **ériger un criminel en héros** to set a criminal up as a hero
 ◆ **il s'érige en maître** he sets himself up as a master

Did you look at the dictionary entry **trompe-l'oeil** to help you answer question 11?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

trompe-l'oeil /tRɔ̃plœj/ nm inv 1

Art trompe l'oeil; paysage/ façade en ~ trompe l'oeil landscape/façade; 2 (ce qui fait illusion) smokescreen.

12. Did you look at the dictionary entry **leurre** to help you answer question 12?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

leurre [lœr] →SYN nm (illusion) delusion, illusion; (duperie) deception; (piège) trap, snare; (Fauconnerie, Pêche : appât) lure; (Chasse, Mil) decoy, lure

13. Did you look at the dictionary entry **assister** to help you answer question 13?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

assister /asiste/ [1] I **vtr** 1 (aider) to assist (**de, par** by; **dans** with); **il se fait ~ de plusieurs stagiaires** he has several trainees to assist him; **elle m'assiste dans mon travail** she assists me with my work; 2 (secourir) to aid [*réfugiés, pays*].

II assister à vtr ind 1 (être présent) ~ à to be at [*mariage, spectacle*]; to be present at [*couronnement*]; to attend [*réunion, cours, messe*]; **2** (observer) ~ à to witness [*accident*]; **on assiste à une recrudescence du racisme** we are witnessing a new upsurge in racism.

Did you look at the dictionary entry **fauteuil** to help you answer question 13?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

fauteuil /fotœj/ *nm* 1 (siège) chair; (bas, rembourré) armchair; **2** Cin, Théât (place) seat; ~ **de balcon** seat in the circle; ~ **d'orchestre** seat in the stalls GB, orchestra seat US; **3** fig (position, siège) seat; (présidence d'une assemblée) **le** ~ the chair; ~ **parlementaire or de député** seat in parliament; ~ **d'académicien** seat in the French Academy; **occuper le** ~ **présidentiel** to be in the chair; **céder son** ~ **de leader** to resign as leader.

■ ~ à **bascule** rocking chair; ~ **club** (big) leather armchair; ~ **crapaud** chunky armchair; ~ **dentaire** dentist's chair; ~ **de jardin** garden chair GB, lawn chair US; ~ **de metteur en scène**

director's chair; ~ **relax** recliner; ~ **en rotin** wicker chair; ~ **roulant** wheelchair; ~ **tournant** swivel chair.

IDIOMES arriver (comme) dans un ~ to romp home.

14. Did you look at the dictionary entry **occasion** to help you answer question 14?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

occasion /ɔkazjɔ̃/ *nf*

1 (circonstance) occasion; (moment favorable) opportunity, chance; **une** ~ **manquée/rêvée** a missed/undreamed-of opportunity; **à la moindre** ~ at the first opportunity; **à la première** ~ at the first *ou* earliest opportunity; **toute** ~ **leur est bonne pour faire** they'll find any excuse to do; **saisir l'**~ **pour faire** to seize the opportunity to do; **rater l'**~ to miss one's opportunity *ou* chance; **laisser passer l'**~ **de faire** to miss the opportunity to do *ou* of doing; **à l'**~ (si le cas se présente) some time; (parfois) occasionally; **à l'**~ **de** on the occasion of; **à ou en plusieurs** ~s on several occasions; **en certaines** ~s on certain occasions; **en toute** ~ on all occasions; **par la même** ~ at the same time; **pour l'**~ for the

occasion; **les grandes** ~s special occasions; **avoir/perdre or manquer l'**~ **de faire** to have/miss the opportunity to do *ou* the chance of doing; **être l'**~ **de qch** to give rise to sth, to occasion sth *sout*; **être l'**~ **de faire** to be a chance *ou* an opportunity to do; **profiter de l'**~ **pour faire** to take the opportunity to do; **d'**~ [*héroïsme*] incidental; [*rencontre, aventure*] chance; **pour elle, toutes les** ~s **sont bonnes pour s'amuser** she won't miss an opportunity to have a good time; **j'ai encore raté une bonne** ~ **de me taire** I should have kept my mouth shut; **2** (marché) (le **marché de**) **l'**~ the secondhand market; **une voiture/télévision d'**~ a secondhand car/television; **je l'ai acheté d'**~ I bought it secondhand; **3** (objet) secondhand buy; (bonne affaire) bargain; **ce n'est qu'une** ~, **mais elle marche bien** it's only secondhand, but it works well.

15. Did you look at the dictionary entry **franchir** to help you answer question 15?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

franchir [32] [frɑ̃ʃir] *vt*

- **1.** [*passer par-dessus*] to get over (*insép*); **il a franchi le fossé**

d'un bond he jumped over the ditch ☐ l'ALENA vient de ~ un obstacle important *fig* NAFTA has just overcome a major obstacle; il a franchi sans peine toutes les difficultés he easily overcame all the problems; les Québécois veulent la souveraineté, mais hésitent à ~ le pas nécessaire Quebeckers want sovereignty, but they have not yet decided to take the necessary plunge.

- 2. [outrepasser] to cross; pendant la Guerre du Golfe, les pilotes de chasse franchissaient le mur du son au-dessus des villes, de préférence à l'aube during the Gulf War, fighter pilots used to break the sound barrier over cities, preferably at dawn; il y a certaines limites à ne pas franchir there are certain limits which should not be overstepped; le panneau routier indiquait qu'on venait de franchir les limites de la ville the road sign said we had just crossed city limits/boundaries ☐ cette entreprise a franchi le cap des deux millions de chiffre d'affaires *fig* this company reached the milestone of two million dollars in sales; il a franchi le cap de la trentaine/cinquantaine he turned thirty/fifty. - 3. [dans le temps] to last through; sa renommée a franchi les siècles his reputation has lasted OU come down intact through the centuries.

16. Did you look at the dictionary entry *énergétique* to help you answer question 16?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

énergétique [enɛʁʒetik] I *adj*
1 Écon energy (*épith*); besoins/ressources ~s energy requirements/resources; politique ~ energy policy;
2 Physiol [*aliment, produit*] high-calorie (*épith*); aliment peu ~ low-calorie food; 3 Phys energy; bilan ~ energetics (+ *v sg*).
II *nf* Sci energetics (+ *v sg*).

17. Did you look at the dictionary entry *guerre* to help you answer question 17?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

guerre [gɛʁ] →SYN ☐ nf ☐
(conflit) war ◆ *de guerre* correspondant, criminel war (*épith*) ◆ *guerre civile/ sainte/ atomique* civil/ holy/ atomic war ◆ *guerre de religion/ de libération* war of religion/ of liberation ◆ (Littérat) "Guerre et Paix" "War and Peace" ◆ (Littérat) "La Guerre

de Troie n'aura pas lieu" "Tiger at the Gates" ◆ *guerre scolaire* "school war" (*about Church and State schools*) ◆ *entre eux c'est la guerre (ouverte)* there's open war between them

☐ (technique) warfare ◆ *la guerre atomique/ psychologique / chimique* atomic/ psychological / chemical warfare

☐ LOC en guerre (lit, fig) at war (*avec, contre* with, against) ◆ *dans les pays en guerre* in the warring countries, in the countries at war ◆ (Mil) *faire la guerre à* to wage war on *ou* against ◆ *soldat qui a fait la guerre* soldier who was in the war ◆ *ton chapeau a fait la guerre** your hat has been in the wars* (Brit) *ou* through the war (US) ◆ (fig) *elle lui fait la guerre pour qu'il s'habille mieux* she is constantly battling with him to get him to dress better ◆ *faire la guerre aux abus/à l'injustice* to wage war against *ou* on abuses/injustice ◆ *partir en guerre contre* (lit) to go to war against, wage war on; (fig) to wage war on ◆ *de guerre lasse elle finit par accepter* she grew tired of resisting and finally accepted ◆ (Prov) *à la guerre comme à la guerre* we'll just have to make the best of things, you must take things as you find them *ou* as they come → *bon¹, entrer*

☐ COMP > *guerre bactériologique* bacteriological warfare > *guerre biologique* biological warfare > *la guerre des*

Boers the Boer war ▷ **la guerre de Cent Ans** the Hundred Years' War ▷ **guerre de conquête** war of conquest ▷ **la guerre des Deux-Roses** the Wars of the Roses ▷ **guerre éclair** blitzkrieg (Brit), lightning war (US) ▷ **guerre économique** economic warfare ▷ **guerre électronique** electronic warfare ▷ **guerre d'embuscade** guerrilla warfare ▷ **la guerre des étoiles** Star Wars ▷ **guerre d'extermination** war of extermination ▷ **guerre froide** cold war ▷ **la guerre du Golfe** the Gulf War ▷ **la guerre du Mexique** the Mexican war ▷ **guerre mondiale** world war ▷ **guerre de mouvement** war of movement ▷ **guerre NBC** NBC warfare ▷ **guerre des nerfs** war of nerves ▷ **guerre nucléaire** nuclear war ▷ **guerre des ondes** battle for the airwaves ▷ **guerre à outrance** all-out war ▷ **la guerre des pierres** the Palestinian uprising ▷ **guerre planétaire** global war ▷ **guerre de position** war of position ▷ **guerre presse-bouton** push-button war ▷ **guerre psychologique** psychological warfare ▷ **les guerres puniques** the Punic wars ▷ **la guerre de quatorze** the 1914-18 war ▷ **la guerre de Sécession** the American Civil War ▷ **guerre de - succession** war of succession ▷

guerre totale total warfare, all-out war ▷ **guerre de tranchées** trench warfare ▷ **la guerre de Trente Ans** the Thirty Years War ▷ **la guerre de Troie** the Trojan war ▷ **guerre d'usure** war of attrition

Did you look at the dictionary entry **onde** to help you answer question 17?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

onde /ɔ̃d/ *nf* 1 (vibration) wave; ~ **lumineuse/sonore** light/sound wave; **grandes** ~s long wave (*sg*); **sur les** ~s on the air; **sur les** ~s **de la BBC** on the BBC; 2 (vague marine) wave; 3 (eau) waters (*pl*) littér.

■ ~ **de choc** Phys, fig shock wave; ~ **entretenu** Phys continuous wave; ~s **courtes** Radio short wave (*sg*); ~ **moyennes** Radio medium wave (*sg*).

18. Did you look at the dictionary entry **programmer** to help you answer question 18?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

programmer [3] [prɔ̃ɡrame] ♦ *vt*
- 1. CIN, RAD, THÉÂT & TV to bill, to programme; **le débat n'a jamais été programmé** the debate was never shown OU screened; **les deux chaînes programment la même émission** both channels are running the same programme. - 2. [planifier] to plan; **j'ai programmé tout le week-end** I planned the entire weekend. - 3. ÉLECTRON to set, to programme; ~ **un magnétoscope pour qu'il enregistre une émission** to set (up) a video-recorder to record a programme. - 4. INF to program. ♦ *vi* INF to (write a) program.

19. Did you look at the dictionary entry **aseptiser** to help you answer question 19?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

aseptiser [asɛptize] → SYN ▷

conjug 1 ◀ *vt* pièce to fumigate; pansement, ustensile to sterilize; plaie to disinfect ♦ **aseptisé** roman lifeless, sterile; décor cold

20. Did you look at the dictionary entry **légitimer** to help you answer question 20?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

légitimer /leʒitime/ [1] *vtr* to legitimize.

21. Did you look at the dictionary entry **apporter** to help you answer question 21?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

apporter /apɔʁte/ [1] *vtr*
1 (transporter) to bring; **apporte ton livre** bring your book; **apporte-moi mon livre** bring me my book; **apporte-leur un livre** take them a book; **apporté par avion** [*primeurs, produits exotiques*] brought in by plane, flown in; 2 (fournir pour sa part) to give [*soutien, aide, coopération technique*]; to bring [*savoir-faire*]; to bring in [*fonds,*

revenus]; ~ de l'aide à qn to help sb; ~ son concours à qch to help with sth; ~ sa contribution à qch to contribute to sth; 3 (fournir en plus) to give [*précision, explication, raisons*] (à qn to sb); to bring [*idées nouvelles, amélioration, bonnes nouvelles*] (à qn/qch to sb/sth); ~ la preuve de qch to bring proof of sth; ~ des modifications à qch to modify sth; les modifications apportées the modifications made; 4 (créer) to bring [*gloire, ennuis*] (à qn to sb); to produce [*émotions fortes*] (à qn in sb); ~ une sensation de bien-être to give a feeling of well-being; ce stage ne m'a rien apporté I didn't get anything out of this course; cet homme ne peut rien t'~ this man has nothing to offer you; 5 (employer) to bring [*courage, sensibilité*] (à qch to sth); ~ beaucoup de soin à son travail to do one's work with great care; 6 (causer) to bring about [*changement, révolution*]; to bring [*liberté, maladie*].

Did you look at the dictionary entry **consécration** to help you answer question 21?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

consécration /kɔ̃sekʁasjɔ̃/ *nf*

1 (reconnaissance) (de personne) recognition; **connaître la ~** to win recognition; ~ **suprême** ultimate recognition 2 Relig (de basilique, d'évêque) consecration; (de prêtre) ordination.

Did you look at the dictionary entry **final** to help you answer question 21?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

final. ~e¹. *mpl -aux* /final, o/ *adj* final; **proposition** ~e final clause.

22. Did you look at the dictionary entry **racine** to help you answer question 22?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

racine [Rasin] →SYN  *nf*
 (gén) root ♦ (Bot) **la carotte est une racine** the carrot is a root *ou* root vegetable, carrots are a root crop ♦ (fig : attaches) **racines** roots ♦ (fig) **il est sans racines** he's rootless, he belongs nowhere ♦ **prendre le mal à la racine, s'attaquer aux racines du mal** to deal with the problem

at source ♦ **prendre racine** (lit) to take *ou* strike root(s), put out roots; (s'établir) to put down (one's) roots (fig); (* : chez qn, à attendre) to take root* → **rougir**  (Math) [équation] root ♦ [nombre] **racine carrée/ cubique/ dixième** square/ cube/ tenth root ♦ **prendre ou extraire la racine de** to take the root of  (Ling) [mot] root  2 COMP ▸ **racine adventive** adventitious root ▸ **racine aérienne** aerial root ▸ **racine fasciculée** fascicled root ▸ **racine pivotante** taproot

23. Did you look at the dictionary entry **seuil** to help you answer question 23?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

seuil /sœj/ *nm* 1 (dalle) ~ (de la porte) doorstep; (entrée) doorway (de of); **se tenir sur le ~** (de porte) to stand on the doorstep; (de maison) to stand in the doorway; **franchir le ~** to cross the threshold (de of); 2 (limite) threshold (de of); **atteindre un ~** to reach a threshold; 3 **litr** (début) threshold **littér** (de of); **au ~ de** (saison, carrière) at the beginning of; (mort, adolescence) on the threshold of; 4 Psych threshold; 5 Géog bank.

■ ~ **absolu** Physiol, Psych absolute threshold; ~ **d'audibilité** Physiol, Psych difference threshold; ~ **d'audition** Physiol threshold of hearing; ~ **différentiel** = ~ **d'audibilité**; ~ **de la douleur** Physiol threshold of pain; ~ **d'excitation** Physiol, Psych absolute threshold; ~ **d'imposition** Fisc tax threshold; ~ **de pauvreté** poverty line; ~ **de rentabilité** break-even point; ~ **de tolérance** Sociol immigration limit.

24. Did you look at the dictionary entry **entreprise** to help you answer question 24?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

entreprise /ɑ̃tʁəpriz/ *nf* 1 (société) firm, business; ~ **privée/publique** private/ government-owned firm; **diriger une ~** to run a business; **petites et moyennes ~s** small and medium enterprises; ~ **de conseil** firm of consultants GB, consulting firm US; ~ **de construction/ déménagement/ fabrication** building/ removal GB *ou* moving US/ manufacturing firm; ~ **de travaux publics** civil engineering firm; ~ **de pompes funèbres** undertaker's GB, funeral home US; ~ **de transports routiers**

haulage contractor GB, trucking company US; ~ **de franchisage** franchising operation; ~ **de service public** public utility company; **création d'~s** business start-ups, creation of new businesses; **la culture d'~** corporate culture; 2 (secteur) business, industry; **réhabiliter l'~** to give business a new credibility; **ce que l'~ attend de l'école** what industry hopes the schools will provide; 3 (projet) undertaking, (risqué) venture; **se lancer dans une ~** to undertake a venture; **se livrer à une ~ de déstabilisation du gouvernement** to set out to destabilize the government; **la libre ~** free enterprise; 4 Jur **donner/mettre qch à l'~** to put sth out to tender/to invite tenders for sth.

■ ~ **unipersonnelle à responsabilité limitée, EURL** company owned by a sole proprietor.

25. Did you look at the dictionary entry **bât** to help you answer question 25?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

bât [bɑ] *nm* packsaddle; **cheval de ~** packhorse.

Did you look at the dictionary entry **bless** to help you answer question 25?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

bless /blese/ [1] I *vtr* 1 (par accident) to injure, to hurt; (dans un conflit armé) to wound; **il a été blessé à la tête** (par accident) he received *ou* sustained head injuries; (par balle, agression) he received head wounds; ~ **qn d'un coup de couteau** to stab sb (with a knife); ~ **qn d'un coup de revolver** to shoot sb (with a gun); **il a été blessé par balle/un coup de couteau** he received a bullet/a stab wound; 2 (en irritant) [*chaussure, menotte*] to hurt, to make [sth] sore [*personne, pied*]; 3 (offenser) to hurt, to upset [*personne*]; to hurt, to wound [*amour-propre*]; **musique qui blesse l'oreille** music which grates on *ou* offends the ear; **il s'est senti blessé dans ses sentiments/son orgueil** his feelings were/his pride was hurt; ~ **qn au vif** to cut sb to the quick; **un rien la blesse** she's easily hurt; 4 *litr* (porter atteinte à) to offend against [*convenances, pudeur*].

II se blesser *vpr* (se faire mal) to injure *ou* hurt oneself; **je me suis blessé au bras en tombant** I fell and hurt my arm.

IDIOMES **il n'y a que la vérité**

qui blesse Prov nothing hurts like the truth; **c'est là que *ou* où le bât blesse** that's where the shoe pinches.

26. Did you look at the dictionary entry **sacrifier** to help you answer question 26?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

sacrifier [9] [*sakrifje*] *vt* - 1. RELIG to sacrifice; **c'est toute une génération qui a été sacrifiée** *fig* a whole generation was sacrificed. - 2. [*renoncer à - carrière, santé*] to sacrifice; [*- loisirs*] to give up (*sép*); ~ **sa vie** to make the ultimate sacrifice; **il a sacrifié sa vie pour sa patrie** he sacrificed *OU* laid down his life for his country; ~ **ses amis à sa carrière** to sacrifice one's friends to one's career - 3. COMM [*articles*] to sell at rockbottom prices; **je les sacrifie, Mesdames!** Ladies, I'm giving them away! ♦ **sacrifier à** *v + prép* - 1. RELIG to sacrifice to; ~ **aux idoles** to sacrifice to idols. - 2. *sout* [*se conformer à*] to conform to; ~ **à la mode/la coutume locale** to conform to *OU* to go along with (the dictates of) fashion/local custom; **à Noël, sacrifiez à la tradition** keep tradition alive at Christmas.

♦ **se sacrifier** *vpi* to sacrifice o.s.; **se ~ pour son pays/ses enfants** to sacrifice o.s. for one's country/children; **il reste des frites - allez, je me sacrifie!** *fam hum* there are some chips left over - oh well, I suppose I'll have to eat them myself!

27. Did you look at the dictionary entry **bidon** to help you answer question 27?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

bidon [*bidɔ̃*] → SYN  nm  (*gén*) can, tin; (*à huile, à essence*) can; (*à peinture*) tin; [*campeur, soldat*] water bottle, flask ♦ **bidon à lait** milk-churn ♦ **huile en bidon** oil in a can  (* : ventre) belly *  (* : bluff) **c'est du bidon** that's a load of bull* *ou* codswallop* (Brit) *ou* hot air ♦ **ce n'est pas du bidon** I'm (*ou* he's etc) not kidding!*  2 adj inv (* : simulé) *attentat*, *attaque* mock (*épith*); *déclaration*, *prétexte* phoney*, phony* (US); *élection* rigged; *maladie*, *émotion* sham (*épith*) ♦ **société bidon** ghost company ♦ **il est bidon** he's phoney* *ou* phony* (US)

28. Did you look at the dictionary entry **contre-pouvoir** to help you answer question 28?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

contre-pouvoir [kɔ̃trəpuvwaʁ]
(pl contre-pouvoirs) *nm* **challenge**
to established authority.

29. Did you look at the dictionary entry **relais** to help you answer question 29?

Yes ☐ No ☐

→ If yes, please underline the part(s) of the entry which helped you find the equivalent.

relais [ʁ(ə)lɛ] → SYN *nm* (Sport) relay (race); (Alpinisme) stance ♦ **le sprinter montréalais Bruny Surin a aidé le quatuor canadien à remporter la médaille de bronze au ~ 4X100 mètres** the Montreal sprinter Bruny Surin helped the Canadian four-man team capture the bronze medal in the 400-metre relay ♦ **l'équipe féminine de ~ a gagné une médaille d'argent au 4 X 100m** the women's relay team won a silver medal in the 400-metre race ♦ **Hal Morris, joueur de premier-but, attendait le ~**

de son coéquipier first baseman Hal Morris was waiting for the relay throw from his teammate (Ind) ♦ **le consortium TransManche Link, maître d'œuvre du tunnel sous la Manche, a passé hier le ~ à l'opérateur Eurotunnel** yesterday, the TransManche Link consortium, in charge of the Chunnel project, handed over responsibility for Chunnel operations to Eurotunnel ♦ **dans un hôpital, l'équipe du matin vient prendre le ~ de celle de la nuit** in a hospital, the morning shift takes over for the night shift ♦ (dans une transaction) **les objectifs du Conseil des aînés sont de servir de ~ entre la ville et le groupe de personnes qu'il représente** the objectives of the Senior Citizens Council are to act as an intermediary between the city and its members ♦ (Fin) **l'entreprise a besoin d'un prêt ~ de 213 millions\$** the company needs a \$213 million bridging loan (chevaux, chiens) relay ♦ (Hist) **une nuit d'orage, en 1886, une famille est assassinée dans un ~ de poste provençal** on a stormy night in 1886, a family was killed in a coaching inn in Provence ♦ **la Compagnie Fernand Goupil exploite une chaîne de ~ routiers offrant des services d'hébergement, de restauration et d'approvisionnement pétrolier** the Fernand Goupil Group operates a chain of truck stops offering lodging, restaurant and

fuel services (Élec, Rad, Téléc) (action) relaying; (dispositif) relay ♦ **les forces serbes contrôlent le dernier ~ de la Radio-télévision de Sarajevo** the Serb forces control the last Radio-television relay station ♦ **les ingénieurs ont conclu à un problème de transmission de satellite** ~ the engineers concluded that there was a transmission problem with the relay satellite

APPENDIX 3

Assignment of Lexical Items from Cloze Translation Test to Aspects of Examples

1. Number of Free Combinations:

few	many
réunir	beau

2. Source of Free Combinations:

constructed	corpus
décalage	relais

3. Length of Free Combinations:

shorter	longer
entreprise	champ

4. Presentation of Non-Fixed Items:

separated from main body of entry	not separated from main body of entry
sacrifier à	consentir à

5. Presentation of Fixed Items (for Headwords with a Large Number of Fixed Items):

separated from main body of entry	not separated from main body of entry
guerre des ondes	sonner l'heure

6. Presentation of Fixed Items (for Headwords with a Small Number of Fixed Items):

separated from main body of entry	not separated from main body of entry
le bât blesse	à l'occasion de

7. Pertinence of Implicit Information versus Explicit Information for Collocations:

collocation given in a free combination	collocation given in lemmatized form
franchir (limites)	franchir seuil

8. Pertinence of Implicit Information versus Explicit Information for Fixed Expressions:

fixed expression given in a free combination	fixed expression given in lemmatized form
à l'image de	en l'espèce

9. Pertinence of Implicit Information versus Explicit Information for Non-Fixed Items:

information largely presented using free combinations	information solely or largely presented using sense indications, labels or notes, actants and codes
programmer	aseptiser
énergétique	évidemment
bidon	leurre

APPENDIX 4

Student Profile Survey

STUDENT PROFILE

Please check the appropriate box or answer the question in the space provided. If you need extra space to answer the question, please use the margin at the bottom of the page, and remember to note the question number beside your response.

PERSONAL INFORMATION

NAME: _____

(Optional)

AGE:

under 20 ☐ 20-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ over 30 ☐ over 40 ☐

SEX:

female ☐ male ☐

NATIONALITY:

Canadian ☐ If Canadian, please give province _____

Non Canadian, please specify nationality _____

LANGUAGE

Note: Second language below refers to either French or English.

a) Between French and English which is your primary language? French ☐ English ☐

b) Between French and English which is your second language? French ☐ English ☐

c) Do you consider yourself bilingual in French and English? Yes ☐ No ☐

d) What language(s) do you speak at home? _____

e) Please list other language(s) that you know. _____

f) Have you ever lived in a country or area where you used your second language (French/English) every day?
Yes ☐ No ☐

g) If yes, how long did you live in your second language environment?

3 months or less ☐ 4-6 months ☐ 7-9 months ☐ 10 months-1 year ☐ over 1 year ☐

EDUCATION

h) What is your current year of study?

2nd year ☐ 3rd year ☐ 4th year ☐ 1st year MA ☐ 2nd year MA ☐ 3rd year or higher MA ☐

i) Please list previous university degrees, if any. _____

(You may check more than one)

English

French

Other

If French immersion,
Please check this box

j) What was the language of instruction . . .

in your elementary school (Grades K-8)?

☐
☐
☐
☐

in your high school (Grades 9-12/13)?

☐
☐
☐
☐

in university?

☐
☐
☐
☐

k) How many years of classroom instruction have you had in your second language (French/English)?

1-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐ 11-15 years ☐ 16-20 years ☐ over 21 years ☐

WORK EXPERIENCE

l) Have you had work experience in your second language (e.g. tour guide, bilingual receptionist, etc.)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

m) If yes, please specify total number of months. If less than one month, mark ½. _____ month(s)

n) Including internships, have you ever had translation work experience or translation related work experience (e.g. bilingual writing, terminology)? Yes ☐ No ☐

o) If yes, please specify total number of months. If less than one month, mark ½. _____ month(s)

DICTIONARY USE

p) Which bilingual dictionaries do you own? (You may check more than one.)

Le Robert & Collins (any version) ☐

Oxford-Hachette French Dictionary ☐

Harrap's Standard French and English Dictionary ☐

Larousse Dictionnaire français anglais ☐

q) Please specify other bilingual dictionaries you own that are not listed above. _____

r) List the one bilingual dictionary that you use most often. You do not have to own the dictionary that you list here. _____

s) Have you ever read the introduction material in a bilingual dictionary? Yes ☐ No ☐

t) Have you ever received training in dictionary use at the university level? Yes ☐ No ☐

APPENDIX 5

List of Responses Given to the Cloze Translation Test

and the Assigned Response Status:

Correct, Partially Correct or Incorrect

(1) à l'image de	(2) réunir	(3) avoisiner
FULL	FULL	FULL
as were just like like much like not unlike patterned on reflecting the composition of the armed coalition resembling similar to	(to be) assembled brought together gathered (together) gathering mobilized put together	approaching coming close to in the neighbourhood of of about of almost of approximately of around (of) close to of nearly that came/come close to that were close to totalling almost
1/2	1/2	1/2
along the lines of an image of images of just like its predecessors mirroring reflecting reflection which reflected	called together ever gathered fighting together (to) form joined together to come together together we have had	nearing
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
at the image of broadcasting in the image of just making up pictures of reminiscent of to the image of	combined group grouped reunited united	bordering (on) reaching

(4) beau	(5) en l'espèce	(6) sonner l'heure
FULL	FULL	FULL
good	in this case in this instance in this particular case "zero" translation	announce be the beginning of be the start of begin bring in herald introduce mark mark the beginning of mark the dawn of mark the dawning of represent the start of ring in signal usher in
1/2	1/2	1/2
complex elaborate extravagant fancy grand much spectacular	for the occasion for the purpose for the task at hand for them for this for this/the event for this war here in the affair in the matter this time when it came to the media	be the coming time of be the time (for) pave the way for set off the début of show the time has come for sound the time of start up strike the time of/for
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
beautiful big bombastic grandiose great nice sacred	at this state cashwise for cash for money for the cause in cash in francs in price in this battle money wise of any sort or type	call upon come promote ring the bell for ring the hour of sound sound the bell stagger strike strike the age of strike the hour of/for/to the hour of toll

(7) décalage	(8) consentir à	(9) évidemment
FULL	FULL	FULL
chasm discrepancy disparity gap gulf	accorded allotted allowed given granted permitted	certainly clearly needless to say obviously of course
1/2	1/2	1/2
difference spread	conscious “zero” translation provided	obvious
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
interval lag timelag interval	agreed to agreed upon as a whole assigned broadcasted consecrated consent consented consented to made offered produced received that ensued time devoted to (syntax change)	evident evidently

(10) champ	(11) ériger en trompe-l'œil	(12) leurre
FULL	FULL	FULL
eye eyes of the cameras and of the journalists lenses range scope view	designed as a smokescreen (intentionally) misleading provided to mislead raised as a smokescreen set up as a false front set up as a smokescreen set up to give a false impression used as a smokescreen	decoy(s)
1/2	1/2	1/2
field of view focus "zero" translation: far away as possible from the — of the cameras	a mere smokescreen a smokescreen acting as a smokescreen carefully choreographed to reflect the viewpoint of the authorities creating a smokescreen established (as a) smokescreen given as a smokescreen hidden behind/by a smokescreen hiding the reality just a smokescreen kept behind a smokescreen meant to deceive presented in a distorted way scripted set as a smokescreen set as smokescreen set in smokescreen set up as a trompe-l'œil set up as a façade set up in/(as an) illusion(s)/delusion set up in smokescreen set up smokescreen set up under a smokescreen setting a smokescreen tossed out as a smokescreen viewed behind a smokescreen	being lures lure pawn

(10) champ	(11) ériger en trompe-l'oeil	(12) leurre
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
cameras field of vision field of action field of vision field(s) glare operative field path reaches realm sea shot(s) way zone	cloaked in obscurity constructed façades erected in the landscape established through illusion fabricated falsified hard to establish in a smokescreen setting in a trompe-l'oeil set up made up misconstrued screened setting up a façade smokescreened staged to set up in offscreen	bait deceivers deception delusion distractions illusion(s) illusionist “makers of illusion” props

(13) assister de son fauteuil à	(14) à l'occasion de	(15) franchir (limites)
FULL	FULL	FULL
be an armchair observer of be armchair participants in (be) armchair witnesses to be spectators of enjoy from their living rooms follow from the comfort of his armchair/living room get an armchair view have front row seats to passively take part in see from the comfort of their homes sit and watch sit back and watch sit back and witness sit back at home and tune in to view from its armchair watch from afar watch from (their) home watch from the/their couch/sofa/armchair watch from the/their living rooms watch on television witness from ... easy chair witness from ... armchair witness from afar witness from home witness from the comfort of home/ living rooms witness from their/its/the living rooms witness from their living room chair witness in their home	at the time of by means of by way of during through via	crossed
1/2	1/2	1/2
armchair assist assist from his/their sofas/armchair assist from their recliners experience the spectacle of participate from their armchairs see from his chair see from their living rooms to help from their armchair to observe a seat watch from his/its chair witness from his/their chair witness from his or her/its/their seat witness	by fighting through the opportunity of with	

(13) assister de son fauteuil à	(14) à l'occasion de	(15) franchir (limites)
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
assist assist by chairing assist from his position assist from its/their chair attend be party to chair help by their position help create live play back-seat driver to to be in director's chair at	at the occasion of at the opportunity of by come time in concerning in in the case of in the occasion of in the wake of on the occasion (of) with the occurrence of with the opportunity of	breached disregarded easy to overcome overcome overstepped transgressed violated

(16) énergétique	(17) guerre des ondes	(18) programmer
FULL	FULL	FULL
energy energy resource energy-supply oil	battle for the airways battle for the airwaves battle on the airwaves battle on the air media war war on television war on the air war over the airwaves war via satellite	master minded orchestrated organized planned
1/2	1/2	1/2
energy requirements resource	battle of the airwaves war of the airwaves	developed
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
active concerned dynamic energetic(s) excited high highly charged needs and (interests) political principal vested vivid	air war broadcast war network war sound-wave war T.V. war war war of airwaves war of the waves war of the airs war of waves war on the waves "wave war"	aired billed broadcasted named ordered plotted programmed screened viewed

(19) aseptiser	(20) légitimer	(21) apporter la consécration finale
FULL	FULL	FULL
sanitized sterilized	justify legitimate legitimize legitimize	bring about the final recognition bring (the) final recognition bring (the) ultimate recognition give it a final blessing give it its seal of approval give its blessing to the war give its final blessing give the final blessing give the final recognition give the final seal of approval give the final stamp of approval give the ultimate blessing give the ultimate recognition give their blessing provide the final recognition
1/2	1/2	1/2
cleaned up disinfected edited filtered made sterile massaged purified		bring a final justification bring forth the final recognition bring recognition bring the final consecration bring the final touch bring the final approval bring the last recognition carry the final recognition consecrate it consecrate the war determine how it was perceived get the last recognition give it recognition give its stamp of approval give the final OK give the final ordination give (it) the final consecration give the ultimate consecration make the final recognition make the last recognition make this happen present the final recognition produce the final recognition provide final consecration show approval to take final recognition win the supreme recognition

(19) aseptiser	(20) légitimer	(21) apporter la consécration finale
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
carefully chosen censored chosen cleaned filed fumigated inspected neutralized organized put neutral robbed of any interesting/worthy material steriled		deliver the final consecration do the rest end furnish the final proof have the final say have the final word have the last word judge make modifications make the final decision produce the goods put the finishing touches sanctify it take the final step wrap it all up

(22) racine (de doute)	(23) franchir un seuil	(24) entreprise
FULL	FULL	FULL
hint seed(s) shadow shred source trace	cross a line cross the line step across the threshold step over the line to cross a threshold to cross a barrier to cross the boundary to cross the threshold	campaign industry operation process undertaking
1/2	1/2	1/2
bit conscious "zero" translation inkling iota margin of doubt remainders	cross the boundaries to break new ground(s) to cross a new threshold to cross a significant threshold to halt as it was crossing the threshold	dissemination distribution enterprise scheme system
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
basis debut discrepancy element kind loose ends problems question root(s) shade sign spector	beyond a threshold cross a borderline draw a line into a new role pass a certain threshold point take a new step take the plunge threshold through a threshold to a threshold to cross/crossed (to get) over the threshold to reach a threshold to venture in	business corporation culture firm machine phenomenon public medium set out source state use venture web

(25) le bât blesse	(26) sacrifier à	(27) bidon
FULL	FULL	FULL
But there's the rub (syntax change) it hurts it rankles the most it hurts the most it really hurts the problem lies the real problem lies the shoe pinches	bowing...to conforming...to giving in...to going along with surrendering...to yielding...to	false phoney phony
1/2	1/2	1/2
the crux of the matter is the shoe starts to pinch troubles arise we feel the pinch	buckling under keeping...with	fabricated fake faked falsified rigged sham
ZERO	ZERO	ZERO
it counts nothing hurts like the truth push comes to shove the bat brakes the battle lies the effects of war are seen the packsaddle hurts the straw breaks the camel's back	breaking contributing...to eager giving up...(to) keeping keeping alive living up...to paying homage to paying tribute...to practicing sacrificing sacrificing...to selling out...to supporting upholding	adjusted altered city contrived exaggerated faulty ghost high inaccurate load of bull on the mock non-existent pretended ridiculous stupid

(28) contre-pouvoir	(29) relais
FULL	FULL
a challenge to (the) authority challenges of authority a challenging force to established authority a thorn in the side of established authority against authority anti-establishment challenge to established authority challenging to established authority the authority challenge	(acting as) an intermediary go-between messenger
1/2	1/2
against power antagonist anti-power challenger of authority (a) countercheck critic opposition provoking rebellious rebels revolutionary	link mouthpiece spokespeople voice

(28) contre-pouvoir	(29) relais
ZERO	ZERO
a balance to power anti-propaganda authoritative authority challenge(s) (...for those) challenged challenged to establish authority challenged to gain power challenger counterweight establisher of authority figures of authority in change in control powerless (public) watchdog the defender the devil's advocate/the voice of the people the enemy truth-seeker for the public	a relay station a tool at stance (a) communications tool handed over in favor in relay mediator medium part of a team prop puppets relay relay of information relay story teller relayed relayer relaying reliable reporters representative responsible stance supporter the ally (of) the ones who take over "complice"

APPENDIX 6

List of Examples Consulted in the Dictionary Booklet

and the Assigned Example Status:

Right, Close or Wrong

RIGHT (=R), CLOSE (=C), WRONG (=W) EXAMPLES

ITEM 1: à l'image de		
3 (reflet)	à l'image de ses prédécesseurs, c'est un bureaucrate sans imagination just like his predecessors, he's an unimaginative bureaucrat	R
ITEM 2: réunir		
d (assembler) etc.	ce congrès a réuni des écrivains de toutes tendances this congress gathered <i>ou</i> brought together writers of all types	R
d (assembler) etc.	après une brouille de plusieurs années, ce deuil les a réunis after a quarrel which lasted several years, this bereavement brought them together again <i>ou</i> REUNITED them	W
ITEM 3: avoisiner		
1 [dans l'espace]	son attitude avoisine l'insolence <i>fig</i> his attitude verges on insolence	W
1 [dans l'espace]	la propriété avoisine la rivière the land borders on the river	W
2 [en valeur]	les dégâts avoisinent le million damages come close to one million	R
2 [en valeur]	avoisiner les 20% to be close to <i>OU</i> about 20%	R
ITEM 4: beau		
1 (esthétiquement)	de belles paroles de Brel some fine lyrics by Brel	W
1 (esthétiquement)	avoir belle allure [<i>personne</i>] to cut a fine figure...	W
2 (qualitativement)	rien n'est trop beau pour lui/eux nothing is too good for him/them	R
2 (qualitativement)	trop beau pour être vrai too good to be true	R
2 (qualitativement)	fais de beaux rêves! sweet dreams!	W
3 (quantitativement)	un beau coup en Bourse a spectacular deal on the Stock Exchange	W
ITEM 5: en l'espèce		
I.2 (type)	en l'espèce <i>fml</i> in this instance, in the case in point, in this particular case	R
II.1 Fin	en espèces [<i>payer, règlements</i>] in cash	W
ITEM 6.1: sonner l'heure		
1c (être annoncé)	la messe sonne the bell is ringing <i>ou</i> going for mass → heure	W
2b (annoncer)	sonner l'heure to strike the hour	C
2b (annoncer)	(Mil) sonner la charge to sound the charge	W

ITEM 62 Concordance

d (moment)	l'heure de vérité/de la mort the moment <i>ou</i> hour of truth/the hour of death	W
d (moment)	l'heure est venue <i>ou</i> a sonné the time has come	W
e (avec adj poss)	sa dernière heure a sonné HHS (<i>ou</i> HER) time has come <i>ou</i> is UP	W
e (avec adj poss)	son heure viendra/est venue (de mourir) HHS time will come/has come	W

ITEM 7 décalage

3 [manque de concordance]	décalage entre la théorie et la pratique discrepancy between theory and practice	R
---------------------------	---	---

ITEM 8 concéder

1 (accepter)	consentir à faire qch to agree to do(ing) sth	W
2 (accorder)	consentir un délai/une remise à qn to allow sb extra time/a discount	R

ITEM 10 Champ

3 (domaine)	la mafia newyorkaise, dont le succès depuis 70 ans reposait sur l'extrême diversité de ses activités, ne cesse de voir son champ d'action rétrécir the New York mafia, whose success over the last 70 years was built on its very diverse activities, is now seeing its field of activity shrinking continuously	W
3 (domaine)	entièrement pris par son fascinant champ de recherche, ce professeur rêve de construire des robots dotés de vie artificielle completely engrossed by his fascinating field of research, this professor dreams of building life-like robots	W
3 (domaine)	après deux ans de pouvoir, le gouvernement est attaqué des deux côtés du champ politique after two years in power, the government is under attack from both sides of the political arena	W
4 Phot, Cin	on peut clairement voir de petits objets au centre de notre champ visuel we can clearly see small objects at the center of our field of vision	W
4 Phot, Cin	lorsque des manifestants entraient dans le champ de la caméra, le réalisateur disait de couper when the demonstrators came into the shot, the director yelled, "cut"	C
4 Phot, Cin	hors champ, l'acteur attend que la vedette finisse de dire son texte offscreen, the actor waited for the star to finish her lines	W

4 Phot, Cin	le film est lent, avec très peu de dialogues, parfois seule une voix hors champ commente l'action the film is slow with little dialogue; sometimes only an offscreen voice explains the action	W
4 Phot, Cin	fig le ministre a décidé de prendre du champ, après quinze années d'investissement intense dans la bataille politique quotidienne after fifteen years of intense participation in the everyday battles of politics, the minister decided to stand back and play a less active role	W
cmp	champ de foire fairground	W
cmp	champ de manoeuvre training area	W
cmp	champ de tir (terrain d'exercice) firing range; (portée) range:	W
cmp	champ de tir aérien bombing range	W
ITEM 11.1 ériger en trompe-l'oeil		
1	ériger un monument/un bâtiment erect a monument/a building	W
1	ériger une société to set up <i>ou</i> establish a company	W
1	ériger un criminel en héros to set a criminal up as a hero	R
1	il s'érige en maître he sets himself up as a master	C
ITEM 11.2 ériger en trompe-l'oeil		
1 Art	paysage/façade en trompe-l'oeil trompe l'oeil landscape/façade	W
ITEM 13.1 assister de son fauteuil 1		
1 (être présent)	assister à to be at...	W
2 (observer)	assister à to witness	R
2 (observer)	on assiste à une recrudescence du racisme we are witnessing a new upsurge in racism	R
ITEM 13.2 assister de son fauteuil 2		
IDIOMES	arriver (comme) dans un fauteuil to romp home	W
ITEM 14 à l'occasion de		
1 (circonstance)	à l'occasion (si le cas se présente) some time; (parfois) occasionally	W
1 (circonstance)	à l'occasion de on the occasion of	C
1 (circonstance)	à ou en plusieurs occasions on several occasions	W
1 (circonstance)	pour l'occasion for the occasion	W

ITEM 15 franchir (traverser)

1[passer par-dessus]	il a franchi sans peine toutes les difficultés he easily overcame all the problems	W
2 [outrepasser]	pendant la Guerre du Golfe, les pilotes de chasse franchissaient le mur du son au-dessus des villes, de préférence à l'aube during the Gulf War, fighter pilots used to break the sound barrier over cities, preferably at dawn	W
2 [outrepasser]	il y a certaines limites à ne pas franchir there are certain limits which should not be overstepped	C
2 [outrepasser]	le panneau routier indiquait qu'on venait de franchir les limites de la ville the road sign said we had just crossed city limits/boundaries	R

ITEM 16 énergétique

1 Écon	besoins/ressources énergétiques energy requirements/resources	C
1 Écon	politique énergétique energy policy	W
3 Phys	bilan énergétique energetics	W

ITEM 17.1 guerre des ondes

1c LOC	(Mil) faire la guerre à to wage war on <i>ou</i> against	W
2 COMP	guerre bactériologique bacteriological warfare	W
2 COMP	guerre biologique biological warfare	W
2 COMP	guerre électronique electronic warfare	W
2 COMP	guerre des ondes battle for the airwaves	R

ITEM 17.2 guerre des ondes

1 (vibration)	onde lumineuse/sonore light/sound wave	W
1 (vibration)	grandes ondes long wave (sg)	W
1 (vibration)	sur les ondes on the air	W
1 (vibration)	sur les ondes de la BBC on the BBC	W
■ --compounds	ondes courtes Radio short wave	W

ITEM 20 programmer		
1 CIN, RAD, THÉAT & TV	le débat n'a jamais été programmé the debate was never shown OU screened	W
2 [planifier]	j'ai programmé tout le week-end I planned the entire weekend	R
ITEM 21.1 apporter la consécration finale		
2 (fournir pour sa part)	apporter sa contribution à qch to contribute to sth	W
3 (fournir en plus)	apporter la preuve de qch to bring proof of sth;	R
3 (fournir en plus)	les modifications apportées the modifications made	W
4 (créer)	apporter une sensation de bien-être to give a feeling of well-being	R
4 (créer)	ce stage ne m'a rien apporté I didn't get anything out of this course	W
ITEM 21.2 apporter la consécration finale		
1 (reconnaissance) (de personne)	connaître la consécration to win recognition	R
1 (reconnaissance) (de personne)	consécration suprême ultimate recognition	R
ITEM 21.3 apporter la consécration finale		
	proposition finale final clause	R
ITEM 22 racine (de doute)		
1	prendre le mal à la racine, s'attaquer aux racines du mal to deal with the problem at source	R
ITEM 23 franchir seuil		
1 (dalle)	franchir le seuil to cross the threshold (de of)	R
2 (limite)	atteindre un seuil to reach a threshold	W
■ --compounds	seuil de rentabilité break-even point	W
ITEM 24 entreprise		
1 (société)	petites et moyennes entreprises small and medium enterprises	W
1 (société)	entreprise de franchisage franchising operation	W
1 (société)	la culture d'entreprise corporate culture	W
2 (secteur)	ce que l'entreprise attend de l'école what industry hopes the schools will provide	R

3 (projet)	se lancer dans une entreprise to undertake a venture	W
3 (projet)	se livrer à une entreprise de déstabilisation du gouvernement to set out to destabilize the government	W
ITEM 25.1 le bât blesse		
	cheval de bât packhorse	W
ITEM 25.2 le bât blesse		
Prov	c'est la que <i>ou</i> où le bât blesse that's where the shoe pinches	R
ITEM 26 sacrifier à		
2. [renoncer à-carrière, santé]	il a sacrifié sa vie pour sa patrie he sacrificed OU laid down his life for his country	W
2. [renoncer à-carrière, santé]	sacrifier ses amis à sa carrière to sacrifice one's friends to one's career	W
◆ sacrifier à 2. <i>sout</i> [se conformer à]	sacrifier à la mode/la coutume locale to conform to OU to go along with (the dictates of) fashion/local custom	R
◆ sacrifier à 2. <i>sout</i> [se conformer à]	à Noël, sacrifiez à la tradition to keep tradition alive at Christmas	W
ITEM 27 bidon		
1c (** bluff)	c'est du bidon that's a load of bull** <i>ou</i> codswallop** (Brit) <i>ou</i> hot air	W
1c (**bluff)	ce n'est pas du bidon I'm (<i>ou</i> he's etc) not kidding!**	W
2 (** simulé)	il est bidon he's phoney* <i>ou</i> phony* (US)	R
2 (** simulé)	société bidon ghost company	W
ITEM 29 relais		
b (Ind)	le consortium TransManche Link, maître d'œuvre du tunnel sous la Manche, a passé hier le relais à l'opérateur Eurotunnel yesterday, the TransManche Link consortium, in charge of the Chunnel project, handed over responsibility for Chunnel operations to Eurotunnel	W
b (Ind)	dans un hôpital, l'équipe du matin vient prendre le relais de celle de la nuit in a hospital, the morning shift takes over for the night shift	W
b (Ind)	◆ (dans une transaction) les objectifs du Conseil des aînés sont de servir de relais entre la ville et le groupe de personnes qu'il représente the objectives of the Senior Citizens Council are to act as an intermediary between the city and its members	R

APPENDIX 7

Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success (Table 4.2)

Table 4.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success			Entry Referenced:		
			yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
1	à l'image de	observed	67	7	74
		expected	51.72	22.28	74
		value	4.513	10.478	n/a
2	réunir	observed	48	25	73
		expected	51.02	21.98	73
		value	0.179	0.416	n/a
3	avoisiner	observed	50	31	81
		expected	56.61	24.39	81
		value	0.773	1.794	n/a
4	beau	observed	42	27	69
		expected	48.23	20.77	69
		value	0.804	1.866	n/a
5	en l'espèce	observed	60	2	62
		expected	43.33	18.67	62
		value	6.410	14.880	n/a
6	sonner l'heure	observed	18	33	51
		expected	35.65	15.35	51
		value	8.735	20.279	n/a
7	décalage	observed	64	17	81
		expected	56.61	24.39	81
		value	0.964	2.237	n/a
8	consentir à	observed	59	13	72
		expected	50.32	21.68	72
		value	1.496	3.473	n/a
9	évidemment	observed	43	43	86
		expected	60.11	25.89	86
		value	4.870	11.305	n/a
10	champ	observed	14	16	30
		expected	20.97	9.03	30
		value	2.316	5.376	n/a

Table 4.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success			Entry Referenced:		
			yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
item					
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	observed	38	4	42
		expected	29.36	12.64	42
		value	2.546	5.910	n/a
12	leurre	observed	45	6	51
		expected	35.65	15.35	51
		value	2.455	5.699	n/a
13	assister de son fauteuil à	observed	22	32	54
		expected	37.74	16.26	54
		value	6.566	15.244	n/a
14	à l'occasion de	observed	12	32	44
		expected	30.75	13.25	44
		value	11.436	26.549	n/a
15	franchir (limites)	observed	32	31	63
		expected	44.03	18.97	63
		value	3.288	7.634	n/a
16	énergétique	observed	53	23	76
		expected	53.12	22.88	76
		value	0.000	0.001	n/a
17	guerre des ondes	observed	60	11	71
		expected	49.62	21.38	71
		value	2.169	5.036	n/a
18	programmer	observed	43	27	70
		expected	48.93	21.07	70
		value	0.718	1.666	n/a
19	aseptiser	observed	46	12	58
		expected	40.54	17.46	58
		value	0.736	1.708	n/a
20	légitimer	observed	41	49	90
		expected	62.90	27.10	90
		value	7.627	17.708	n/a

Table 4.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Overall Translation Success			Entry Referenced:		
			yes + correct	no + correct	TOTAL
item					
21	apporter la consécration finale	observed	45	9	54
		expected	37.74	16.26	54
		value	1.396	3.240	n/a
22	racine (de doute)	observed	23	39	62
		expected	43.33	18.67	62
		value	9.542	22.151	n/a
23	(franchir) un seuil	observed	57	10	67
		expected	46.83	20.17	67
		value	2.209	5.129	n/a
24	entreprise	observed	22	12	34
		expected	23.76	10.24	34
		value	0.131	0.304	n/a
25	où le bât blesse	observed	77	4	81
		expected	56.61	24.39	81
		value	7.341	17.042	n/a
26	sacrifier à	observed	50	8	58
		expected	40.54	17.46	58
		value	2.208	5.127	n/a
27	bidon	observed	51	5	56
		expected	39.14	16.86	56
		value	3.593	8.342	n/a
28	contre-pouvoir	observed	35	3	38
		expected	26.56	11.44	38
		value	2.682	6.227	n/a
29	relais	observed	32	7	39
		expected	27.26	11.74	39
		value	0.825	1.915	n/a
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF ALL VALUES)					327.262

APPENDIX 8

Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use (Table 5.2)

Table 5.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced	•other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item					
1	à l'image de	observed	69	21	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	23.291	17.730	n/a
2	réunir	observed	18	72	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	11.229	8.548	n/a
3	avoisiner	observed	30	60	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	2.036	1.550	n/a
4	beau	observed	38	52	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	0.021	0.016	n/a
5	en l'espèce	observed	77	13	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	37.317	28.407	n/a
6	sonner l'heure	observed	44	46	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	0.669	0.509	n/a
7	décalage	observed	8	82	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	24.545	18.685	n/a
8	consentir à	observed	27	63	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	3.640	2.771	n/a
10	champ	observed	53	37	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	5.111	3.891	n/a

Table 5.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced	•other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item					
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	observed	21	69	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	8.237	6.270	n/a
13	assister de son fauteuil à	observed	31	59	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	1.604	1.221	n/a
14	à l'occasion de	observed	39	51	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	0.000	0.000	n/a
15	franchir (limites)	observed	35	55	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	0.391	0.298	n/a
16	énergétique	observed	41	49	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	0.113	0.086	n/a
17	guerre des ondes	observed	65	25	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	17.512	13.331	n/a
18	programmer	observed	29	61	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	2.519	1.918	n/a
21	apporter la consécration finale	observed	31	59	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	1.604	1.221	n/a
22	racine (de doute)	observed	22	68	90
		expected	38.90	51.10	90
		value	7.342	5.589	n/a

Table 5.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Example Use			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced	•other referenced •nothing referenced •entry not referenced	TOTAL
item					
23	(franchir) un seuil	observed	68	21	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	22.673	17.620	n/a
24	entreprise	observed	12	77	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	18.211	13.863	n/a
25	où le bât blesse	observed	79	10	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	42.708	32.511	n/a
26	sacrifier à	observed	39	50	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	0.007	0.006	n/a
27	bidon	observed	17	72	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	11.980	9.120	n/a
29	relais	observed	38	51	89
		expected	38.47	50.53	89
		value	0.006	0.004	n/a
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF ALL VALUES)			427.574		

APPENDIX 9

Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples (Table 7.2)

Table 7.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced + correct	•other referenced + correct •nothing referenced + correct •entry not referenced + correct	TOTAL
item					
1	à l'image de	observed	64	10	74
		expected	34.07	39.93	74
		value	26.297	22.436	n/a
2	réunir	observed	16	57	73
		expected	33.61	39.39	73
		value	9.225	7.871	n/a
3	avoisiner	observed	29	52	81
		expected	37.29	43.71	81
		value	1.843	1.573	n/a
4	beau	observed	34	35	69
		expected	31.77	37.23	69
		value	0.157	0.134	n/a
5	en l'espèce	observed	59	3	62
		expected	28.54	33.46	62
		value	32.497	27.725	n/a
6	sonner l'heure	observed	16	35	51
		expected	23.48	27.52	51
		value	2.383	2.033	n/a
7	décalage	observed	8	73	81
		expected	37.29	43.71	81
		value	23.007	19.629	n/a
8	consentir à	observed	25	47	72
		expected	33.15	38.85	72
		value	2.003	1.709	n/a

Table 7.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced + correct	•other referenced + correct •nothing referenced + correct •entry not referenced + correct	TOTAL
item					
10	champ	observed	9	21	30
		expected	13.81	16.19	30
		value	1.676	1.430	n/a
11	ériger en trompe-l'oeil	observed	10	32	42
		expected	19.34	22.66	42
		value	4.508	3.846	n/a
13	assister de son fauteuil à	observed	17	37	54
		expected	24.86	29.14	54
		value	2.485	2.120	n/a
14	à l'occasion de	observed	7	37	44
		expected	20.26	23.74	44
		value	8.676	7.402	n/a
15	franchir (limites)	observed	13	50	63
		expected	29.00	34.00	63
		value	8.831	7.534	n/a
16	énergétique	observed	38	38	76
		expected	34.99	41.01	76
		value	0.259	0.221	n/a
17	guerre des ondes	observed	59	12	71
		expected	32.69	38.31	71
		value	21.182	18.071	n/a
18	programmer	observed	23	47	70
		expected	32.23	37.77	70
		value	2.642	2.254	n/a

Table 7.2—Complete Chi-Square Test Results for Translation Success Using Examples			CATEGORY		
			•example(s) referenced + correct	•other referenced + correct •nothing referenced + correct •entry not referenced + correct	TOTAL
item					
21	apporter la consécration finale	observed	23	31	54
		expected	24.86	29.14	54
		value	0.139	0.119	n/a
22	racine (de doute)	observed	21	41	62
		expected	28.54	33.46	62
		value	1.994	1.701	n/a
23	(franchir) un seuil	observed	56	11	67
		expected	30.85	36.15	67
		value	20.513	17.501	n/a
24	entreprise	observed	7	27	34
		expected	15.65	18.35	34
		value	4.783	4.081	n/a
25	où le bât blesse	observed	74	7	81
		expected	37.29	43.71	81
		value	36.136	30.830	n/a
26	sacrifier à	observed	26	32	58
		expected	26.70	31.30	58
		value	0.018	0.016	n/a
27	bidon	observed	10	46	56
		expected	25.78	30.22	56
		value	9.660	8.242	n/a
29	relais	observed	30	9	39
		expected	17.95	21.05	39
		value	8.080	6.894	n/a
TEST STATISTIC (SUM OF ALL VALUES)			271.206		

APPENDIX 10

T-tests Examining the Differences Between Francophone and Anglophone User Groups

in Three Categories:

1) *example+correct*; 2) *only other+correct*; 3) *entry not referenced+correct*

Category 1: Example+Correct

MTB > TwoSample 95.0 'f-ex-c' 'a-ex-c';
SUBC > Alternative 1
TWOSAMPLE T FOR f-ex-c VS a-ex-c

	N	MEAN	STDEV	SE MEAN
f-ex-c	24	17.5	12.7	2.6
a-ex-c	24	10.62	8.06	1.6

95 PCT CI FOR MU f-ex-c - MU a-ex-c: (0.6, 13.1)

TTEST MU f-ex-c = MU a-ex-c (VS GT): T= 2.22 P=0.016 DF= 38

Category 2: Only Other+Correct

MTB > TwoSample 95.0 'f-oth-c' 'a-oth-c';
SUBC > Alternative 1
TWOSAMPLE T FOR f-oth-c VS a-oth-c

	N	MEAN	STDEV	SE MEAN
f-oth-c	21	13.57	8.53	1.9
a-oth-c	22	9.59	6.67	1.4

95 PCT CI FOR MU f-oth-c - MU a-oth-c: (-0.8, 8.7)

TTEST MU f-oth-c = MU a-oth-c (VS GT): T= 1.70 P=0.049 DF= 37

Category 3: Entry Not Referenced+Correct

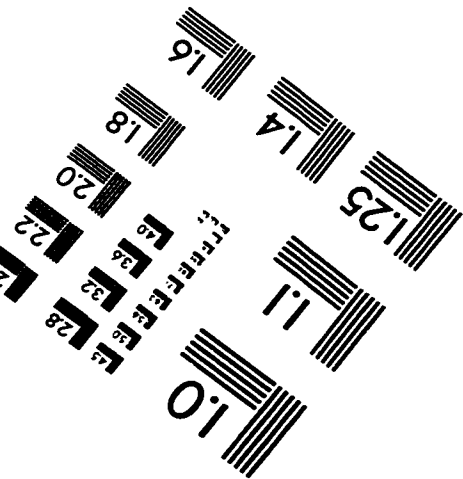
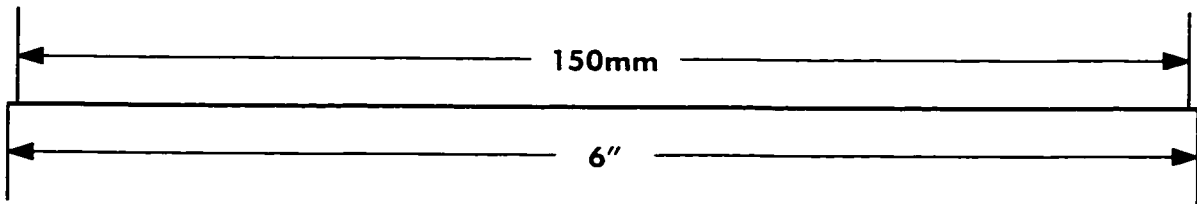
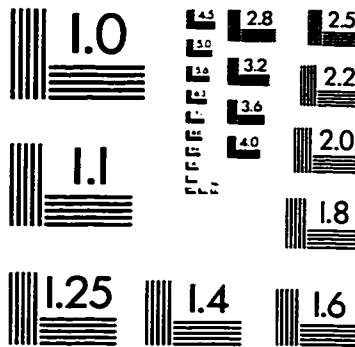
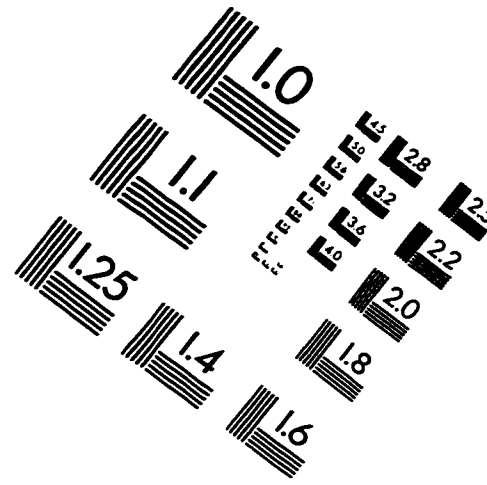
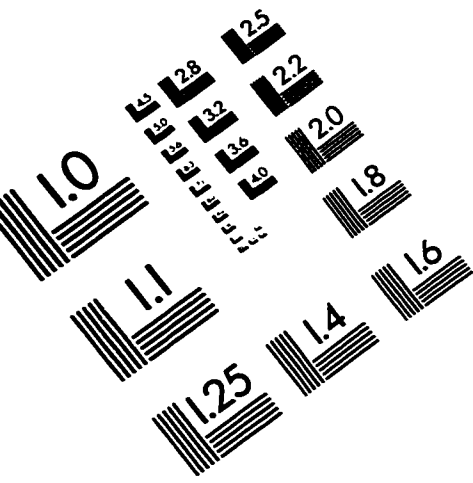
MTB > TwoSample 95.0 'a-no-c' 'f-no-c';
SUBC > Alternative 1
TWOSAMPLE T FOR a-no-c VS f-no-c

	N	MEAN	STDEV	SE MEAN
a-no-c	29	12.03	8.64	1.6
f-no-c	27	7.00	5.28	1.0

95 PCT CI FOR MU a-no-c - MU f-no-c: (1.2, 8.9)

TTEST MU a-no-c = MU f-no-c (VS GT): T= 2.65 P=0.0055 DF= 46

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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