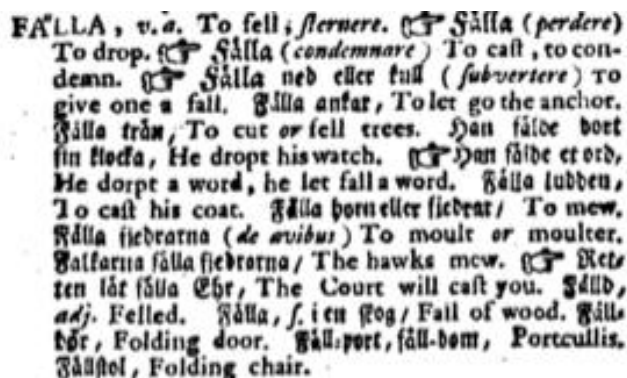


Serenius usually treats homonyms in separate articles. The senses of the monosemous headwords are explained by English and Latin equivalents and sometimes examples in Swedish and English. Polysemous headwords are explained in the same technique, but also have their different senses separated by the sense indicator (☞). Serenius does not make use of subject field labels; this is something that Vrbinč and Vrbinč (2013), for example, think should be used in all instances where technical language is treated in bilingual dictionaries.

Since the dictionary is a bilingual one aimed at L1-speakers, the target user is expected to have a good understanding of the semantics of the source language but needs guidance regarding the choice of what corresponding equivalent to choose in the target language. That is probably the reason why Serenius puts very little effort into explaining different senses and stylistic register in the Swedish source language.

The different equivalents are introduced in the beginning of the article in both English and Latin (see picture 1): To fell, *sternere*; *Fälla* (*perdere*) To drop. ☞ *Fälla* (*condemnare*) To cast, To condemn. ☞ *Fälla ned eller kull* (*subvertere*) To give one a fall. *Fälla ankar*, To let go the anchor. *Fälla från*, To cut or fell trees. *Han fälde bort sin klocka*, He dropt his watch. ☞ *Han fälde et ord*, He dorpt a word, he let fall a word. *Fälla ladden*, To cast his coat. *Fälla horn eller fjedræt*, To mew. *Fälla fjedrætne* (*de avibus*) To moult or moult. *Balkarna fälla fjedrætne*, The hawks mew. ☞ *Rets ten lät fälla Öhr*, The Court will cast you. *Fällb*, *adj.* Felled. *Fälla*, *f. i en Rog*, Fall of wood. *Fällbör*, Folding door. *Fällport*, *fäll-bom*, *Portcullis*. *Fällstol*, Folding chair.

Picture 1: Article FÄLLA in Serenius (1741)



FÄLLA, v. a. To fell; *sternere*. ☞ *Fälla* (*perdere*) To drop. ☞ *Fälla* (*condemnare*) To cast, to condemn. ☞ *Fälla ned eller kull* (*subvertere*) to give one a fall. *Fälla ankar*, To let go the anchor. *Fälla från*, To cut or fell trees. *Han fälde bort sin klocka*, He dropt his watch. ☞ *Han fälde et ord*, He dorpt a word, he let fall a word. *Fälla ladden*, To cast his coat. *Fälla horn eller fjedræt*, To mew. *Fälla fjedrætne* (*de avibus*) To moult or moult. *Balkarna fälla fjedrætne*, The hawks mew. ☞ *Rets ten lät fälla Öhr*, The Court will cast you. *Fällb*, *adj.* Felled. *Fälla*, *f. i en Rog*, Fall of wood. *Fällbör*, Folding door. *Fällport*, *fäll-bom*, *Portcullis*. *Fällstol*, Folding chair.

Serenius then gives a selection of examples, sometimes separated by the manicule. One would expect the examples to exemplify the usage of the equivalents, but this is not always the case, since Serenius also illustrates equivalents that are not used earlier in the article. The first example, *Fälla ankar*, uses an equivalent that is not explained earlier [to let go], and the sentence *Han fälde et ord* He dorpt [sic] a word, he let fall a word is placed together with examples of how to use the verb To mew or To moult, two other verbs that are not used earlier as equivalents.

It is not altogether clear how the different senses are to be understood in the article. Two Latin equivalents can be identified, *condemnere* and *subvertere*,

each one representing a sense of FÄLLA. The judicial meaning is signalled by a sense indicator but has no equivalent and is only given by the means of a linguistic example in the form of a phrase: *Retten lät fälla Ehr*, The Court will cast you (written in another tense). The correspondence between the Swedish verb *fälla* and the English equivalent To cast is the important information in the example, and the user is supposed to understand that this is the judicial sense, since the example treats a legal situation signalled by the noun *Retten* The court. The English and Latin equivalents (cast and *condemnere*) of the verb are given already in the beginning of the article. After this linguistic example, Serenius finishes the article by giving the adjective (i.e. past participle) of the verb (*Fälld*, adj.) and the homonymous noun, placed in the context of a linguistic example (*Fälla. s. i en skog* / Fall of wood). The article ends with the composites *Fäll-dör*, *Fäll-port*, *fäll-bom*, and *Fällstol*, which all are compounds to the sense 'to fold'. However, this different sense is not marked with any sense indicator. The noun FÄLLA ['trap'] is also headword in an article of its own, preceding the verb. Of course, the example *Fälla. s. i en skog* / Fall of wood had been more suitable there.

Although Serenius makes an effort to structure the article logically, he does not succeed completely. A major failing of the structure is that the division into senses is not arranged and described in a systematic way. One explanation for this might be that Serenius had difficulties in handling the material when he turned his English–Swedish dictionary into a Swedish–English one, mixing up some of the senses and categories. It is clear though that Serenius is aware of the importance of distinguishing the different senses, and he tries to do so by using three different techniques: Latin equivalents, manicules and examples. He identifies the judicial meaning of the lexical item, and the examples are relevant.

Abraham Sahlstedt, *Svensk ordbok* ['Swedish Dictionary'] (1773)

One group of target users of Sahlstedt's dictionary is Swedes who want to learn more about their vernacular, especially orthography and morphology. Another group is foreigners who want to learn Swedish. This is also the reason why Sahlstedt uses Latin as the defining language (preface p. 11, see also Hannesdóttir 1998: 238, 277 and Hannesdóttir 2014: 193ff.). In doing so, Swedish readers with little or no knowledge of Latin could also learn what the Swedish lexical items are in Latin; Sahlstedt especially stresses the technical lexical items (see section 4.2.1) and he explains what subject field labels he uses: *V. jur. term. jur. Vox juridica. Terminus juridicus. Words or sayings that are used in the court* [my translation] (Sahlstedt 1773: 16). The labels are not used in a systematic way, however, and cannot be of much help to the user.

The multiple function of the dictionary would demand more complex information about the Swedish headwords than that which Sahlstedt offers, since a foreign user could not be expected to know which of the Swedish lexical items correspond to the judicial meaning of the Latin equivalent. However, the

Latin index helps the user to solve that problem, since the Latin index and the headwords of the main part of the dictionary interact. The Swedish and Latin equivalents often make up the kind of synonyms that are used in the legal handbooks, thus showing that these Latin and Swedish legal lexical items must have been considered to be normal equivalents (or synonyms in a monolingual perspective) (see Table 3).

Out of the 40 lexical items in the sample, 32 are included in Sahlstedt's dictionary, and four of these are found in the index in their Latin form (*actor*, *contumax*, *dilatio*, *judex*). *Kärande* is found in the article of KÄRA, and the phrase *svara för rätta* is found in the article of SVARA, as is the nominalization *svarande*.

Homonyms are treated in separate articles, and the structure of the articles on a macro level is systematic. The microstructure is sometimes unclear, and it is not always obvious on what grounds Sahlstedt makes his subdivision of the senses. The monosemous articles have no sense indicators but all of the polysemous articles make use of the labels *Item.* and *Aliter.* as sense indicators. The semantic relations between the senses are difficult to understand (see Picture 2 with the example of *Fälla*).

Sahlstedt also uses Latin equivalents, Latin definitions, examples in Swedish and Latin, and word formation, both compounds and derivatives.

Picture 2: Section of article FÄLLA in Sahlstedt (1773)

Item: Fälla, ex. gr. Fälla någon, Aliquem condemnare. Fälla dom, Sententiam ferre. Fälla en på bötor, Multam alicui irrogare. Fälla djur i skogen, Animalia in silvis necare. Fälla skog, Silvam cadere. Fälla förbön, Precibus intercedere. Fälla priset på en vara, Mercis pretium diminuere. Fälla några ord, Verba sibi quædam elabi permittere. Fälla tårar, Lacrymare. Fälla träd, Arbores cadere.

In the example, the special judicial meaning is marked with the Latin label *Item.* The three first phrases in the section have a judicial sense: *Fälla någon* ['to convict someone'], *Fälla dom* ['to pass a sentence'], *Fälla en på bötor* ['to fine someone']. In *Fälla dom* the object *dom* ['verdict', 'sentence'] tells us that the verb should be interpreted as judicial. The same goes for *Fälla en på bötor* where the object *bötor* ['fines'] puts the verb in a legal context. For the example *Fälla någon*, you must know Latin to know that the sense is judicial for this verb.

The rest of the article has examples illustrating other senses of the polysemous verb, but there are no sense indicators that separate the senses. The article is made up from a mixture of several other senses of the verb *fälla*: *Fälla djur i skogen* ['to shoot animals in the woods']; *Fälla skog* ['fell a tree']; *Fälla förbön* ['offer up prayers']; *Fälla priset på en vara* ['to cut the price on a piece of

merchandise']; *Fälla några ord* ['say some words']; *Fälla tårar* ['shed tears']; *Fälla träd* ['fell a tree']. The phrases *Fälla skog* and *Fälla träd* illustrate the same sense of the verb: ['to cut down one or several trees']. The Latin equivalent to *fälla* (*cædere*) is also the same in both cases, so the only way in which the phrases differ is the way the Latin equivalents to the Swedish lexical items *skog* ['forest'] and *träd* ['tree'] differ from each other; this is information that might not be altogether relevant in this specific article.

Sahlstedt's relevant two subject field labels (*v. jur* and *term.jur*) are used in four of the articles in the sample: *åklagare* ('prosecutor') (monosemous) and the polysemous lexical items *kära* ('to accuse'), *part* ('part'), and *svara* ('to answer in court'). In the article of PART Sahlstedt also uses another subject field label that is not mentioned in the preface: *term. forens*. It is not at all clear how he uses the different notations or how he has chosen the lexical items that are labelled. It is important, however, to stress that Sahlstedt's main purpose with his dictionary was to bring more order into Swedish orthography and morphology; a commitment that was successful and resulted in a far more codified norm (Hannesdóttir 2000). Sahlstedt does not discuss semantics at any length in his preface and he probably did not intend to explain the meaning of the lexical items in detail. Still, Sahlstedt's mentioning of two different subject field labels denoting legal lexical items indicates that he was aware of the differences between general and technical lexical items and probably had the ambition of letting it show in his dictionary. However, the article of the verb FÄLLA does not give us any clues as to how Sahlstedt was going to carry out that idea.

A.F. Dalin, *Ordbok öfver svenska språket* ['Dictionary of Swedish'] (1850–55)

Dalin's dictionary is aimed at users with Swedish as their first language. Part of the long article FÄLLA is presented below.

Picture 3: Section of article FÄLLA in Dalin (1850–55)

marken. — 4) (fig.) a) Störta, bringa i förderf. Söka f. någon. — b) Göra lägre, nedsätta, afslå. F. priset på en vara. F. sina anspråk. — c) Döma. F. till ed, genom laga dom älägga edgång. F. någon till plikt. — d) Döma skyldig. F. en anklagad. Det är bättre att fria än f., när den anklagade ej är fullt öfverbevist. — e) Förebringa eller innefatta öfverbevisning emot en anklagad, så att han kan dömas skyldig. Detta vittne, vittnesmål f-ller den anklagade. — f) Yttra, utsäga, afsäga, afkunna. F. ett ord, ett uttalande, ett yttrande. Han fällde några ord, som blefvo illa upplagna. F. hotelser. F. förböner för någon. F. dom, utslag. Han har fällt sin egen dom, dömt sig sjelf. F. omdöme, yttra sitt omdöme, säga sina tankar. F. sitt omdöme om någon, något, öfver något. — 5) (geom.)

Dalin treats homonyms in different articles. Polysemous headwords have subdivisions. The article of FÄLLA is divided into a total of six senses, each sense marked with a numeral, 1–6. The subsenses are marked with a long hyphen, and identified by small, Latin letters "a–f". Thereby, the subsenses are clearly separated from the main senses. In sense 4, six different subsenses are listed: (a) = ['bring sb. down']; (b) = ['lower, reduce']; (c) = ['judge']; (d) = ['convict']; (e) = ['Put forward or comprise conviction against the accused, in order to find him guilty']; (f) = ['pass (a word, opinion, verdict)']. The first two subsenses (a–b) are of general nature. The following three senses have a clear judicial meaning (c–e) and the last one, (f), can be used in a general as well as a judicial sense.

All senses are defined with (sometimes very) comprehensive definitions. The senses are exemplified with many phrases, some of which are fixed phrases or collocations: *F. omdöme* ['to give an opinion']; *F. dom, utslag* ['to pass a verdict'].

In the beginning of the article, Dalin makes use of the subject field label (fig.), ['figurative, metaphorical'], but he uses no labels to mark the judicial meaning of certain senses in the article. Probably, these are supposed to be explained by the formulation of the definitions. Dalin usually treats nominalizations in separate articles and there are no examples of word formations described in the article of FÄLLA.

Dalin presents a long list of approximately 60 diasystematic labels in his preface (pp. 19–20) but it is quite unclear on what grounds he uses them in the dictionary. Out of Dalin's 30 lexical items from the sample, only three have subject field labels, one of which is *contumacia*, and the other is *jäva*. *Contumacia* is marked with the label (lat.) for 'Latin', while *jäva* is marked with (Lagt.) for 'law term'. Dalin's use of subject field labels might be unclear but the semantic description has a systematic and consistent structure, although the definitions and examples are very verbose.

***Svensk ordbok* (2009); NSEOP (2018)**

Both SO (2009) and NSEOP (2018) meet all the requirements of modern dictionaries. In SO (2009), the senses are clearly marked with numerical sense indicators and supported by examples, illustrating constructions, collocations, fixed phrases etc. SO (2009), being a monolingual dictionary, has no reason to include subject field labels since the judicial sense can be understood by the definition. Still, subject field labels are sometimes used, and among the lexical items in this study *ogilla* is marked with <jur.>, maybe because the definition is somewhat insufficient: "*inte godkänna*" ['not approve of'].

The structure of the articles in the printed edition of NSEOP (2010) is clearly explained in the preface. The lemmas are provided with numeric sense indicators as well as Swedish explanations written in small type. The use of sense indicators is consistent, in accordance with the idea of the dictionary. Subject field labels are used for the "most important words" of different fields that are included, one of which is law, labelled as *jur.* (short for *juridik* ['law']). The labels are in Swedish and they are placed directly before the English

equivalent. There is no information about how to interpret "most important" or where the boundary between general words and terms is drawn.

It appears that most lexical items with judicial meaning are marked with a field label, except when the Swedish headword and English equivalent are both monosemous and have the same meaning, i.e. judicial. One example of this is *åklagare* ['prosecutor'].

5.3 Summary of the results

The lexicographical study shows, as expected, a clear development over time. The oldest dictionary, Serenius (1741), shows an awareness of the target users' needs in terms of isolated senses, usually marked with sense indicators, but the accomplishment of the lexicographical technique does not fully meet the ambitions of the strategy. The number of different senses is hard to discern and the examples and equivalents do not match altogether, which might be a result of a troublesome method when compiling the dictionary. The judicial sense is clearly expressed however and emphasized with several examples. The lexicographical design is focused on the target users' needs, which meets the demands of the typology.

The second oldest Swedish dictionary, Sahlstedt (1773), has definitions in Latin, but a structure that is more similar to a monolingual dictionary than a bilingual. Since the dictionary aims at two quite different groups of target users representing both L1 and L2-speakers, the mission of fulfilling the needs of both groups seems difficult to achieve without a more refined structure. Sahlstedt's main purpose is to try to codify Swedish morphology and orthography, and his dictionary is best used together with his grammar, published in 1769. The structuring of the semantics in the article studied shows many inconsistencies, and it is obvious that the reader must know Latin to fully understand the structure of the article and the senses of the lexical items. This is something of a paradox considering that the description and codification of Swedish were the main purpose of the dictionary. The judicial sense is easy to discern but it is not marked in any special way compared to the other senses.

Dalin's dictionary (1850–55) was published less than one hundred years after Sahlstedt but it reveals a consistent lexicographical structure with detailed semantic descriptions and elaborate definitions. Although Dalin lists judicial sense indicators in his preface, he does not make use of them in the article FÄLLA. Nevertheless, the judicial senses of FÄLLA studied are clearly identified with several examples to support them.

The modern dictionaries (SO 2009 and NSEOP 2018) both show a lexicographical structure in accordance to modern, lexicographical standards.

6. Final conclusions

The subject of this article has been to study in what way three influential 18th

and 19th century dictionaries treat a sample of 40 legal lexical items of Swedish and Latin origin in their dictionaries. In the 18th century, the usage of Latin as opposed to Swedish was intensely discussed, especially in science and the fine arts. At the same time, the period also saw a rapidly growing development of lexicography and the role of lexicography in relation to questions of language planning; this issue is interesting to examine in more detail. A material extracted from the two first legal handbooks in Swedish has been used: the handbooks were published by Rålamb (1674) and Kloot (1676), independently of each other.

The study is based on two specific research questions. The first question concerns the inclusion of Latin and Swedish legal lexical items from the handbooks in the lemma lists of the dictionaries, the second question regards the lexicographical treatment of the lexical items of the sample, especially the division into senses and whether the judicial meaning is clearly recognized or not.

Both Serenius and Sahlstedt, the two 18th century lexicographers, prefer the Swedish equivalents to the Latin, except when the Latin lexical items seem to be already well integrated into Swedish. Their infrequent usage of Latin legal lexical items in the dictionaries seems to be the result of an active decision, since the Latin legal lexical items were probably in use during the whole period examined. One proof of this is their presence in the later dictionaries included in the study, where several of the Latin lexical items are still in use but have been subject to a process of determinologization. Serenius's and Sahlstedt's treatment of the Latin judicial lexical items seems to indicate a strive to reduce the usage of Latin in favour of Swedish, thus trying to follow the direction of Swedish language planning of the time (cf. Telemann 2002: 59, Rogström 2017). They both had an outspoken interest in linguistic standardization, and there is reason to believe that they had an interest in taking active part in the language planning process.

The second research question focuses on the lexicographical treatment of the lexical items in the sample. The study shows that both Serenius and Sahlstedt are aware of the need to structure the article in accordance with the different senses of the headwords, but their lexicographical skills are far from perfect and leave much to be desired. The microstructure of the articles does not follow a set order, and the user cannot rely on the structure of the articles in order to discern the different senses. The most certain way to find a specific piece of lexical information is probably to read the whole article from the beginning to the end. However, in both Serenius's and Sahlstedt's dictionaries, the judicial meaning of the lexical items from the sample are all identified and described through equivalents and illustrated with examples; this indicates that both lexicographers were aware of the importance of separating different senses from each other. Neither of the lexicographers masters the special requirements for bilingual dictionaries, especially not Sahlstedt who is aiming at a bidirectional dictionary for both L1-speakers of Swedish as well as learners.

In Dalin's dictionary (1850–55), the lexicographic development is fully

established, and his articles are systematically written with clear distinctions between homonyms and related senses of polysemous lexical items within the main sections of the article. The two contemporary dictionaries SO (2009) and NSEOP (2018) are also systematically compiled, and the division into senses clearly identifies the judicial senses that are easy to find and make use of. The only thing still lacking, is the treatment of subject field labels (cf. Vrbinc and Vrbinc 2013). NSEOP (2018) seems to use them in a consistent way, but neither Dalin (1850–55) nor SO (2009) uses their labels in a clear way.

To conclude — the study confirms the assumption that Swedish 18th century dictionaries could be expected to support certain lexical language planning strategies at the time. Both Serenius and Sahlstedt seem to be loyal to the effort of promoting Swedish in favour of Latin during the 18th century. Their selection of headwords indicates a preference for the Swedish vocabulary, and their lexicographical treatment of the chosen headwords also shows an identification of legal lexical items and an awareness of the special requirements needed for the presentation of the judicial meaning of the lexical items. But most importantly, the results show that more detailed studies of the dependence between old dictionaries and early lexical language planning strategies probably could shed more light on a part of Swedish language history that is still waiting to be elucidated.

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