

Creation of a concise dictionary for the English textbook Move: Upper-Intermediate

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Zásady pro vypracování:

Analyzujte slovní zásobu z lingvistického a lexikologického hlediska.
Popište lexikografická kritéria a zásady tvorby slovníku.
Prakticky využijte poznatků k tvorbě slovníku.
Vypracujte anglicko-český slovník k učebnici Move: Upper-Intermediate v tištěné a elektronické verzi s transkripční výslovností.

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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce je zaměřená na získání a aplikaci znalostí, které slouží jako základ pro vytvoření slovníku k učebnici anglického jazyka.

Teoretická část se zabývá specifiky a problémy při vytváření slovníku. Pojednává obecně o druzích slovníků, způsobech výběru lexémů a jejich řazení ve slovníku a dalších náležitostech slovníku.

Druhá část práce je věnována rozboru postupu tvorby konkrétního slovníku a problémů, kterým bylo třeba při tvorbě slovníku čelit.

Za analytickou částí je zařazen vytvořený slovník v anglicko-české verzi, který je rozdělen do jednotlivých modulů a lekcí. K bakalářské práci je přiložen tištěný slovník o velikosti formátu A5 dělený podle lekcí, nedělený slovník se slovíčky řazenými abecedně a CD s audio nahrávkou anglicko-českého slovníku.

Klíčová slova: dvojjazyčný slovník, ekvivalent, heslo, význam, slovo

ABSTRACT

This thesis is aimed to get the knowledge which will be used as a base for creating a dictionary for an English language textbook.

The theoretical part deals with specifications and problems which appear when creating a dictionary. It describes types of dictionaries, ways of choosing lexis and their setting in a lexicon. Moreover, it deals with other features of a dictionary.

The second part is devoted to the analysis of dictionary-making procedure and problems which appeared during the lexicon creation.

The analytical part is followed by the English-Czech version of the vocabulary, unified dictionary with words in alphabetical order and CD with the audio recording of English-Czech vocabulary.

Keywords: bilingual dictionary, equivalent, headword, meaning, word

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis is my own and certify that any secondary material used has been acknowledged in the text and listed in the bibliography.

May 11, 2009

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Beware of heard, a dreadful word,
That looks like beard and sounds like bird,
And dead: it's said like bed, not bead,
For Goodness's sake, don't call it deed!
Watch out for meat and great and threat,
They rhyme with suite and straight and debt.

Anon

(Crystal 2002, 68)

INTRODUCTION

English is a widely spoken language. It can be heard at many different places, therefore there are many people interested in studying the language. However, in order to study the language good study material must be provided, which means not only a textbook but also a lexicon that provides learners with necessary vocabulary. Lexicographers take the responsibility of supplying such a material and after some time spent by collecting information they compile it into one concise book.

More kinds of dictionaries which have their own specifications exist, but none of them can hold the whole number of lexis which is in the English language. Every dictionary, lexicon, vocabulary, or whatever it is called, is only a fragment of the whole English vocabulary and must be carefully selected.

Concerning the bilingual dictionary, its creators have to face several problems from the translational point of view. English is full of synonyms, collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs and other features to which the creator is obliged to find equivalent expressions. The meaning of the source language word is necessary to be recognized and transferred into the target language carrying the same information.

Therefore lexicographers should be educated in linguistics, have foreign language experience, be aware of difficulties they might come across during their work, be self confident to make decisions, and know who the target users are. Creating a lexicon or a dictionary has got its own rules which must be followed. Vocabulary should not be collected randomly but it should have some logical succession, pronunciation must be clear so users find it useful, equivalents in the target language need to be those which are normally used in the target language utterance, moreover, final lexicon must be organized in the way which will be understandable to the users.

The aim of this thesis is to get acquainted with the theoretical problems of lexicology and acquire general knowledge about making dictionaries which will lead to creating a written and audio lexicon for an English language textbook Move – upper intermediate from the Macmillan publisher.

I. THEORY

1 ENGLISH IN GENERAL

In the world there is a considerable diversity of languages, and some of them are similar to each other because they have common history. Languages influence each other semantically and have some features in common. However, the similarity does not mean that languages are easy to learn. Adult speakers have to spend a lot of time to learn how the other language functions. (Halliday et al. 2004, 63-4)

Among the numerous variants of languages, English is the dominant one of the world's communication. It is an official or semi-official language in more than 70 countries and there are over 400 million of people who use English as their mother tongue and another 500 million of people use English as their second or foreign language. (Crystal 2002, 10) The reason why English language is spread all over the world can be found in history of the British colonial era. It was the time when British Empire extended from the east to the west. It is not possible to give the exact number of English speaking people because it is hard to count people who learn English as they may learn it not only in language schools but also individually.

English is not the dominant language only because of the fact that many people speak it; it is actually only 25% of the world who has some knowledge of English. (Crystal 2002, 10) More important is the fact that English is a language which is widely spoken at many different places like airports, business, advertising, sport, or science.

There are two types of English beside native English: English as a second language and English as a foreign language. The main difference is that in the former people are forced to learn English at school for the purpose of arranging everyday matters because it is an official language in their country, whereas in the later people learn this language voluntarily. (Crystal 2002, 1-10)

Different languages influence each other and copy some features from each other but never are the same. This supports the idea that "languages have their own semantic strengths, their own areas of richness and elaboration. It is the reason why people learn another language because it gives them a rewarding experience which opens up new views of the world." (Halliday et al. 2004, 65)

Together with studying and using other languages, the need for supporting study material has increased and many grammar books and dictionaries have started to be written. (Crystal 2002, 1-10)

2 VOCABULARY

“Vocabulary is all the lexical items that are used in a particular language.” (Kvetko 2005, 14-15) Same as the number of people speaking English, the number of lexical items is only a rough estimate which the authors of lexical books are not able to agree on. According to Kvetko the English lexicon ranges from half to two millions. (Kvetko 2005, 14-15) Another estimate of the English lexicon extent is about four million. (Landau 1989, 17)

The words often change, become obsolete and therefore are not used or on the contrary, new words are created, which implies that the size of lexicon changes. (Kvetko 2005, 14-15) The only possible language which can be described in a dictionary with a definite number of word units is a dead language. It is the one which does not exist any more so there is no possibility of new words occurrence. (Landau 1989, 17) In no dictionary it is possible to record the whole vocabulary because there is not space for it, thus dictionaries usually focus on a particular category. That is why the numbers of lexical items vary so much from one dictionary to another. (Crystal 2002, 34-39)

Another reason for the different estimates is the fact that it is not clear how to define “the word”. Some words in English consist of two or three words which may separately have different meaning than if they are together. For example: *washing machine, get in, get off*. Washing is the activity, machine is a thing, and together the words have a different but specific meaning. Lexicographers have to cope with this problem when they should compile the dictionary and state the number of headwords in the end, and it is only their decision how they will count the words. (Crystal 2002, 34-35)

The total amount of vocabulary has been mentioned but it is not possible for an individual to know the whole vocabulary. According to the survey of The Guardian in the 1986, the estimated number of an adult’s vocabulary is 23,000. (Crystal 2002, 46)

Vocabulary is recorded in dictionaries, which are of different types (see below). When one wants to buy a good dictionary, they should first decide what kind of dictionary they need and for what purpose. The English wordlist is growing quickly so the buyer should pay attention to choosing up-to-date dictionary and also to the content. (Crystal 2002, 50-51)

3 LEXICOLOGY

Lexicology is a discipline which studies usage and origin of words. (Kvetko 2005, 13) It deals with naming, formation, development, usage, and meaning of words and lexical phrases. (Kolář 2006, 6) Lexicology became an elaborated study with the appearance of written texts. It was the time when texts started to have some grammar rules. Up to that time many texts had been lost because of the constant changes in vocabulary as they were passed round orally. (Halliday et al. 2004, 11) This chapter will outline some of the features of lexicology.

3.1 Word

Linguists define a word or a lexeme as the smallest unit that can be used independently. Longman Dictionary of the English Language 1984 gives the following definition of a lexeme: “Minimal unit of the vocabulary of a language that can have independent meaning without being added to another word or word part; a word.” Kvetko further develops this definition. “Lexeme is a basic unit of a language which appears as a series of letters, phonemes, and morphemes, has more grammatical forms or may have more than one sense, pronunciation or spelling.” Lexemes are used as headwords in a dictionary. (Kvetko 2005, 15-16)

Words can be either lexical or grammatical. Lexical are those which express objects, qualities, actions or ideas. With them one is able to create an understandable utterance. Grammatical words are articles, auxiliary words, prepositions, conjunctions and so on. They support the lexical words and help them to make sentences clear. They are used as links between words, and are quite limited in number in comparison to lexical words which amount changes. (Kvetko 2005, 60) The nomenclature is not clear; every author uses different terminology. For the same thing which Kvetko expressed, Halliday would use terms “content words” and “function words”. Halliday further says that the difference between content and function words is not clearly stated and some words which may belong to both categories can be found. The dictionary makers should bare this in mind and also include the function words in the dictionary. (Halliday et al. 2004, 3)

In the texts, which are used as resource material for compiling a dictionary, formal and informal words appear with the same probability depending on the style of the text. Informal vocabulary is used in less formal situations, in every day conversation and communication with friends. The formal longer word is in this context usually expressed in

a shorter way. Abbreviation of words, idioms and phrasal verbs are used frequently in informal texts. Formal words, on the other hand, are used in official speeches, documents or situations and preferred in written English but if any informality occurs in the text of a textbook, it must be included not omitted in a concise vocabulary so the reader is able to find the meaning of the word and understand the text. The same counts for emotionally marked words. They have the same meaning as the emotionally unmarked words with the difference of the strength which will appear with using them. (Kvetko 2005, 77-8) Moreover, taboo words and vulgarisms should not be omitted from a dictionary when they appear in the source text.

3.2 Word formation

Vocabulary consists of native words, it means words which were always used in a particular area, and words which were taken from other languages; called borrowings. Moreover, new words are created and consequently added to the dictionary in a process which is called word formation. There are several ways how to do it. These are affixation, compounding, conversion, shortening, back-formation, blending or coinage. (Kvetko 2005, 27) The explanation of the expressions follows.

The oldest way of creating English words is compounding. It is a combination of two or more roots e.g. *armchair*, *forget-me-not*. (Kvetko 2005, 27) However, not every two words added together are compound words. See the word *blackbird*; it has different meaning than *black bird*. *Blackbird* written together is a kind of a bird whereas *black bird* is any bird which is black. (Crystal 2002, 41) Affixation is adding prefix or suffix to the original word e.g. suffix in *writer*, prefix in *unlike*. Conversion is a shift from one word class to another thus verbs can be converted from nouns e.g. *to bottle*, nouns can be made from adjectives e.g. *a final*. (Crystal 2002, 41) Shortening can be further divided into clipping, acronyms and initialism. Clipping means reduction of a word at the beginning, at the end or at both ends to create a shorter form. It is typical for nouns in Modern English. They exist in the vocabulary together with not reduced words and are used in informal speech. Acronyms are formed from initial letters of the expression that has more than one word and they are read as one, e.g. *NATO*. Initialism works on the same principle but the pronunciation is by spelling the letters e.g. *VIP*. Back-formation is creating words, often verbs, by taking away a suffix from existing words, e.g. *televise* (from *television*). We speak about blending when the initial part of one word merges together with the final part

of another word e.g. *smog* (from *smoke* and *fog*). Finally, coinage is inventing new words e.g. *Kleenex*. (Kvetko 2005, 27-43, 97)

3.3 Word and meaning

People use words because they bare some meaning which is the important part of a communicative discourse. The ideal place for recording the meanings of words is a dictionary. It is not exactly that meaning was captured there but actually the dictionary definition says what the word means. Every word has got its own meaning. Even those which look or sound similar have own separate meaning. (Halliday et al. 2004, 23-5, 62) Kvetko defines meaning as “the relation between words and our experience of the world based on convention.” (Kvetko 2005, 46) When there is a need to compare two languages, existence or non-existence of other words plays a very important role. There is a word *cousin* in English, whereas in Czech language there is *bratranec* and *sestřenice*. That means that in Czech, *bratranec* is determined by another existing word *sestřenice* but in English, the word *cousin* needs another specification.

Two types of meaning which cannot function one without another are recognized. They are grammatical and lexical meaning. (Kvetko 2005, 47-48, 50)

Grammatical meaning is described as an inflection in third person, different tenses or expressions of number, e.g. *works*, *worked*, *boy*, *boys*. Lexical meaning can be found in all forms of a word. It reflects the reality. Lexical meaning is further divided into connotative and denotative meaning. (Kvetko 2005, 47-48)

Connotative meaning “is equivalent of the emotional aspect (dog – helper, friend, faithful). It represents the personal dimension of the lexical meaning.” (Kolář 2006, 8) Denotative meaning “is equivalent of referential or cognitive aspect (dog – canine quadruped). It is an objective link between a lexeme (a reflection of reality in the language) and the reality.” (Kolář 2006, 8)

3.4 Collocations and idioms

If one has a proper look at a dictionary, they find out that the word is not the only unit there. Lexicology includes different types of word combinations which are fixed. Kvetko speaks about two types: collocations and idioms. (Kvetko 2005, 100)

Definition of collocation from Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary is: "Collocation is the combination of words formed when two or more words are frequently used together in a way that sounds correct." (Cambridge)

"In general the term collocation is used with words that have more or less fixed relation and are natural for a native speaker to be used together. E.g. word *heavy* collocates with things of great weight (table, suitcase), words denoting natural phenomena (rain, storm) or with a doer (smoker). Another example may be *black coffee, commit crime, a pinch of salt*, etc." (Kvetko 2005, 100-1)

On the other hand there are idioms, which are defined in Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary as: "a group of words in a fixed order that have a particular meaning that is different from the meanings of each word understood on its own." (Cambridge) They are very similar to collocations. The difference is in the fact that idioms cannot be changed in their form. For example the expression *kick the bucket* does not have the same meaning as the expression *he is kicking the bucket*. Other examples of idioms are: *barking dog seldom bites* which cannot be translated word by word, *a dark horse* is a person who hides something, not a horse of a dark colour; *red tape* means bureaucracy, not a tape of a red colour. Idioms also include, according to some linguists, other separate units like proverbs, similes, special formulae, and phrasal verbs. (Kvetko 2005, 103-7)

4 LEXICOGRAPHY

Kvetko defines lexicography as “the study dealing with the principles and procedures involved in writing, editing, or compiling dictionaries.” (Kvetko 2005, 110) On the other hand Kolář sees lexicography as “the overall study of a language’s vocabulary (including its history).” (Kolář 2006, 6) Čermák states that “lexicography is a part of a discipline about lexicon and has its own theory and practice which is the creation of dictionaries of various types.” Each dictionary has its own specifications and needs certain method and methodology of realization the creation. (Čermák 1995, 16)

4.1 Dictionary

Dictionary is “a reference book that lists and explains the words of a language, or gives equivalents in one or more languages.” (Kvetko 2005, 110) In a very similar way Landau in his book describes a dictionary in a following way: “A dictionary is a book that lists words in alphabetical order and describes their meanings.” (Landau 1989, 5) Čermák considers a dictionary to be the basics of the language which functions as a depository or words which are later used together with context and situation to create grammatical structures. (Čermák 1995, 91)

There are more types of dictionaries, as is clear from the definitions above, and each of them includes different information concerning spelling, pronunciation, etymology, usage, synonyms, or grammar, and in some cases illustrations. (Landau 1989, 5) To decide what is vital to include, it is necessary to know who is going to use the dictionary and what kind of field the dictionary entries are supposed to cover. According to this decision the creator of a dictionary can then plan his work. (Kvetko 2005, 110) Working with a dictionary requires certain skills which should be acquired at the beginning of studies of a foreign language. Dictionary makers should create the dictionary as understandable as is necessary for different levels of a foreign language knowledge and life experience. Every dictionary contains controlled vocabulary which is chosen with regards to the purpose and the intended age group. It means that headwords and their definitions or transferred equivalents must be adequate to the user’s knowledge either of the foreign language or general educational knowledge, which differs according to the age of the user. (Landau 1989, 14-6)

4.2 Division of dictionaries

Authors of lexicological publications agree that dictionaries may be divided according to the size, purpose, number of languages that are included, the way how encyclopaedic the dictionary is or approach the composer tries to keep (synchronic, diachronic), or the way how the dictionary is organized (alphabetical, according sound, meaning, semantic field). (Landau 1989, 6-7) Unfortunately they do not come to agreement concerning the terminology. For example Landau describes unabridged dictionary, college dictionary, desk and pocket, and vest pocket dictionary. They only differ in the size or to put it differently in number of entries. (Landau 1989, 17-9)

On the other hand, Kolář uses dictionary division into following categories and gives exact examples: general (Oxford English Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of the English Language), specialized dictionaries – learner's (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English) – language (Dictionary of synonyms: Webster's New Dictionary of Synonyms), thesauruses (Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases), professional (Oxford Dictionary of Business English) and bilingual dictionaries (Fronek: Anglicko-český a česko-anglický slovník). (Kolář 2006, 18)

More general division of dictionaries is into monolingual, bilingual, multilingual, thesaurus, pictorial, general-purpose dictionaries, and special dictionaries. Let's have a look what their main definition is.

Thesaurus is a monolingual dictionary which contains words arranged according to the subject or a semantic field. Thesauruses are thematic dictionaries which serve for finding synonyms within the semantic fields. General-purpose dictionaries provide general linguistic information about words whereas special dictionaries are specialized on one particular aspect of the vocabulary or one area of human activity and provide detailed information about it. For example: dictionary of synonymy, idioms and business, marketing English and others. The two later are usually organized in an alphabetical order. (Kvetko 2005, 111-5)

The basic difference between monolingual and bilingual dictionary is in the number of languages. A bilingual dictionary is a wordlist of words in one language with their equivalents transferred into another language and is composed for people who understand only one of these languages and would like to create a text in the other language. Lexical units of one language are called source language and are transferred into another language, called target language, while they still retain the same meaning. It is composed for two

main reasons. The first reason is to understand the written text and the second one is to be able to express oneself. Dictionary usually works in two ways: from the source to target language and from the target to source language. (Landau 1989, 7-8)

A bilingual dictionary is according to Malkiel hardly ever diachronic, does not contain explanations and most often is composed in alphabetical order. (Landau 1989, 7)

Monolingual dictionaries are designed for both native and foreign users. They present information only in one language. Dictionaries for students of English as a second language (ESL) provide definitions of headwords, moreover, information on pronunciation, verb patterns, and collocations. Definitions are expressed in a simplified language and controlled vocabulary, in comparison to dictionaries for native speakers, because ESL students have limited vocabulary. For these definitions only words which are explained in the same dictionary should be used. (Landau 1989, 29-30)

4.3 History of dictionaries

The first dictionaries were created with the aim to preserve the texts and appeared as early as the Egyptian culture, Before Christ. The development of modern dictionaries starts in the 15/16th century when many monolingual dictionaries were compiled by schoolmasters for the educational reasons. It can be said that school dictionaries were created at the time when lexicography started to be spoken about. Nowadays, recent development leads lexicographers to using computerised corpora, which is a list of words collected from various sources like newspapers and put into electronic form. It easily monitors new words – neologisms which occur for the first time. (Halliday et al. 2004, 13-20), (Landau 1989, 13)

When speaking about dictionary creators who contributed to English dictionary history Kolář suggests to mention three names: Samuel Johnson, Noah Webster and James Murray.

Samuel Johnson spent seven years by writing definitions to 40 000 headwords which resulted in publishing A Dictionary of the English Language in 1755. His definitions were so sophisticated and of wide range that this dictionary belongs among the most influential works in the history. Webster published his American Dictionary of the English language in 1828 and established in it the spelling and grammar rules of English. Although English language has changed since the year 1828 a lot, the Webster's dictionary is still useful for students. Murray in his work Philological Society of Great Britain, published in 1857, captured the history of English language. He cooperated with Oxford University Press and

other colleagues to create the 12 volume work of 414 825 lexical items which is nowadays available in electronic form. (Kolář 2006, 15-16)

5 TRANSLATION AND ITS PROBLEMS

Georges Mounin explains, in his book *Teoretické problémy překladu*, that translation is a contact of languages. “Languages get into contact when they are used by one person” (Mounin 1999, 14) says Uriel Weinreich through Mounin’s interpretation. The person who speaks two languages is bilingual. When the person speaks, they tend to use the same word or sentence structure as is in their mother tongue. For example: “Frenchmen are used to say *un simple soldat* so they would say in English *a simple soldier* instead of using the word *a private*.” (Mounin 1999, 15) The dictionary creator should be aware of this fact and be careful when transferring the meaning of lexical units. Instead of using word to word translation, he should pay attention to the meaning of the word and its equivalent in a target language. Yallop supports this idea by saying that “meaning is not isomorphic across languages and the dictionary makers cannot simply transfer ‘the same meaning’.” and “Translation from one language to another is a process of rewording the same meaning, a process of finding new words to express the same meaning. Problems have to be solved in their context”. (Halliday et al. 2004, 68-9) The authors of different publications agree on one thing, and it is, that translation is not easy. Some authors go even further and compare translation to the ‘art, craft or science’. (Bassnett 2002, 14)

Čermák defines several problems which the dictionary maker should be aware of. Firstly it is necessary to mention that the dictionary creator should be a native speaker. Secondly, a person must admit to himself that everybody makes mistakes therefore it is necessary to accept the level of own knowledge in order to do a good job. The last problem worth of mentioning is that the dictionary is actually a list of words so we should not speak about translation but rather about finding equivalents for the source language words. (Čermák 1995, 231)

5.1 Semantic field

Čermák’s idea is supported by a statement that “a person who translates a text must work on the assumption of the sense and the meaning of the source text and creates his translational operation within the semantics.” (Mounin 1999, 31) When the dictionary creator wants to transfer the lexical units from the source language to the target language they must work with the original text and its meaning. It is not possible to take individual words and find the equivalents for them without having studied the context, because many English words may be poly semantic.

The vocabulary is understood as a system of structures, which can be called a semantic field. Every person has got different range of vocabulary and their vocabulary consists of many different semantic fields, which are expanding according to the knowledge of a person. A little child distinguishes the semantic field of housing for which it knows few words like house and flat. As the child grows and learns, it will recognise much more lexical units from the field of housing. See the fig 1. (Mounin 1999, 76-77)

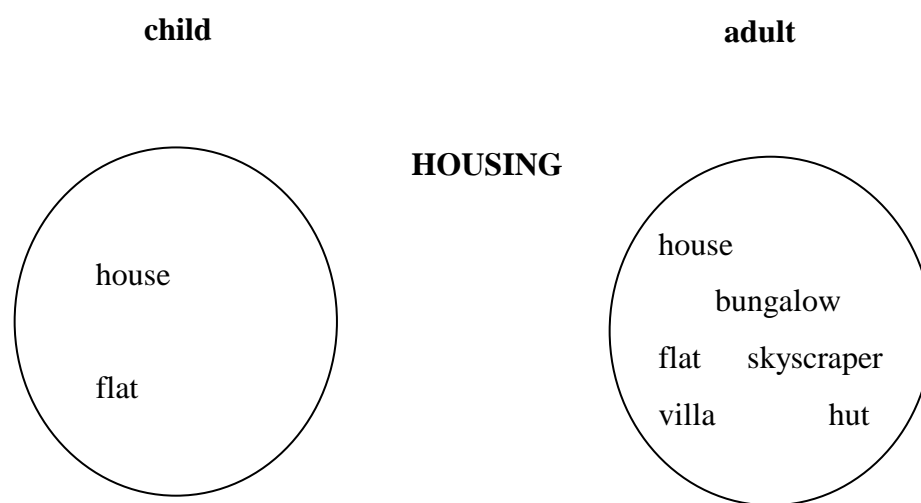


Fig 1. Semantic Field. (Mounin 1999, 77)

The semantic field is important for the dictionary creation because every language may have it different. The semantic field depends on the existence or non-existence of words or things in the language. (Mounin 1999, 77) Probably a person from Switzerland will describe the nature with different words than a person from Afghanistan because their language field is completely different. Another example may be comparison of English and Indonesian language and the word which Indonesians use for going out in the rain. While English uses the expression *going out in the rain*, Indonesians distinguish between *kehujan* (*going out in the rain without knowing that it is raining*) and *hujan* (*going out in the rain with the knowledge that it is raining*). (Baker 1992, 22)

5.2 Culture-bound words

Authors have the same opinions on the problematic of semantic field. Zgusta develops it by speaking about culture-bound words. Some differences in denotative meaning of the words between both languages may appear and therefore troubles with transferring the words into

right equivalent rise, i.e. that in one language the exact counterpart does not exist. Such words which exist in one language but do not exist in another language are called culture-bound words. The reason why the words do not exist in one language is that the thing represented by the word is not found in the area where the language is spoken. (Zgusta 1971, 294) For example word *tackle* exists mainly in American football but is not known in other languages because other countries either have different rules in football or do not have this sport at all. If a dictionary is aimed for Americans to express themselves in French, words like *tackle* should not be included. However, if the dictionary is for Frenchmen who want to speak English, the word *tackle* is important for them to know. (Landau 1989, 9) Words in different languages invoke different associations according to the user's mother tongue. (Bassnett 2002, 23)

Another example comes from Japan. The research about colours perception in Japan has shown that people's eye is able to see the same colours in the same quality but the difference is in naming the colours in different languages. "It is a case when various languages express the same physically identical facts by different language structures." (Mounin 1999, 78-79)

From this theory it is clear that the exact equivalent between two languages is not always easy to find. If the equivalent does not exist, the creator of a bilingual dictionary must use a brief description of a thing in the target language to explain what the thing looks like, what it does or how it is used thus the user of the dictionary gets a clear idea. It may happen that equivalent exists in a target language but the meaning is little bit shifted. In that case the description should be used also. (Zgusta 1971, 295-6)

5.3 Synonymy and phrases

Some other troubles for the dictionary creator may be caused by synonymy, words with identical meaning, which is very frequent in English. For illustration there is some example: "if one can say that someone is *slim* or *thin* they can use word *skinny* if they think the person is too thin or, if they intend to be rude, they may use another synonym *scrawny*." (Kvetko 2005, 69-70)

This is very nice flowery language but for the basic need of learning how to communicate in the language, it is not that important. Mainly when the dictionary space is limited, many creators decide not to include synonyms in bilingual dictionaries. They respect the fact that users of the dictionary want to learn to communicate therefore it is not

important for them to distinguish between slight differences of synonyms. Synonyms may be included in bigger-sized bilingual dictionaries or in monolingual dictionaries. (Landau 1989, 110)

Collocations and idioms, also called phrases in some publications (see chapter 3.4), are words which have a strong relationship and combine well together in one language but when they are transferred into another language they may not make sense. Every language has its own collocations and the dictionary creator must be careful with finding the right equivalents. (Kvetko 2005, 100-2) *Good appetite* may serve as an example to phrases which can be transferred into English from other languages but are not really used by native speakers. It is a phrase which does not have its exact equivalent in English, nevertheless, is possible to be expressed by saying *Dig in, Tuck in, I hope you like it or I hope it is right.* (Bassnett 2002, 29)

Creator of a dictionary should accept that some phrases are not translatable and should be able to create adequate expression for the appropriate context which may be based on their own culture experience. (Bassnett 2002, 29)

5.4 Process of transfer

The basic assumption for the communication is that both or all participants share the same experience and speak the language comprehensible for all therefore they understand each other. This idea is supported by: “The meaning of a word is defined according to the average of a word occurrence in the utterance of an individual or a group of people in the same community.” (Mounin 1999, 163) Speaker has certain experience which he wants to communicate to other person and it is supposed that the other person has ever had such experience too, thus, they will understand the message. (Mounin 1999, 163-4)

Before transferring the message from the sender’s source language to the target language of a recipient, there is a long process of decoding the right speaker’s intention. Let’s explain this on an example of greetings. The English word *hello*, which is used when greeting someone face to face and also when answering the phone, may cause difficulties when translated into other languages. French, German and Italian use different words for greeting face to face and answering the phone. The translator has to take into account the speaker’s intention and the whole context. See the Nida’s diagram below. (Bassnett 2002, 25)

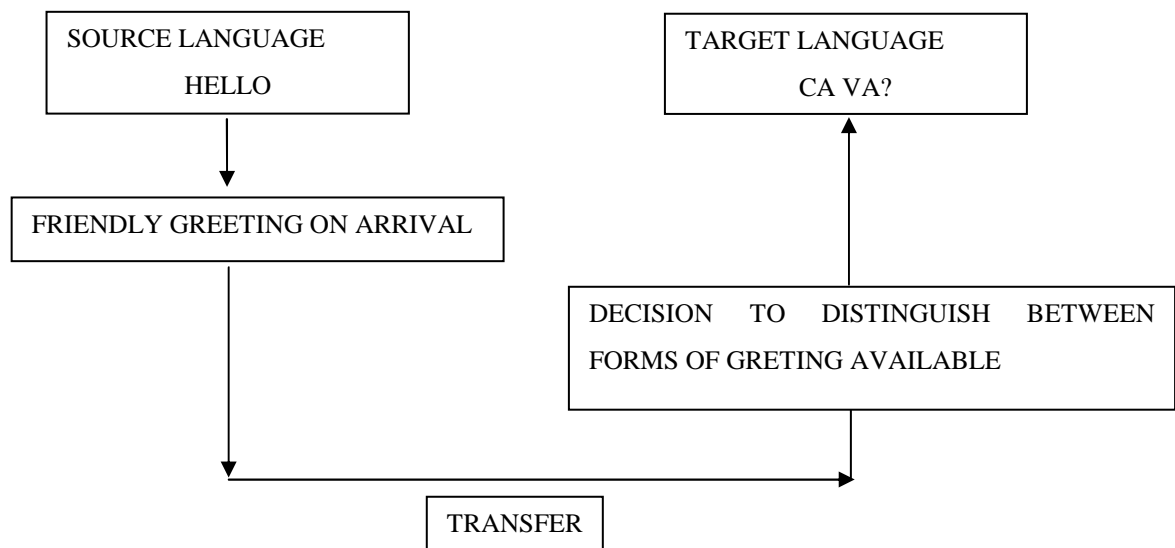


Fig 2. Nida's diagram of transfer. (Bassnett 2002, 25)

The right context has been recognized in the diagram and has been transferred by the correct equivalent. The speaker, translator or a dictionary creator is obliged to make a decision about the right context even though the words seem to be very clear. (Bassnett 2002, 24-5)

6 BILINGUAL DICTIONARY

Bilingual dictionaries, also called translational dictionary, are created with the aim to facilitate, precipitate and standardize the communication in two languages. In other words “they are created to find such lexical units from the target language which will allow smooth and understandable translation of a text.” (Čermák 1995, 231) The main needs of a bilingual dictionary are divided into three categories. First is travelling, business and other practical activities, second is technical relationship, and the last one is the study of a foreign language. This implies that the main users of a dictionary are translators, interpreters, travellers and students. (Čermák 1995, 232)

6.1 Kinds of dictionaries

Bilingual dictionaries can be divided into more kinds which require different approach to making the equivalents. The choice of a source and target languages plays a big role in a dictionary character. If the languages are of very different cultures, the dictionary will have more encyclopaedic explanations. Whereas with the similar-culture-languages, the dictionary creator may use word-by-word translation because there will not be culture-bound words which would need explaining. (Zgusta 1971, 298-9) Once the style of the dictionary is set, it must be followed in the whole dictionary.

General type dictionary, special terminology dictionary and study dictionary belong among the most frequently used types of dictionaries. (Čermák 1995, 232)

The kinds of dictionaries also differ according to the user’s nationality. Whether, the dictionary is aimed for a native speaker or a foreign speaker. Native speaker has different knowledge of the language therefore some linguistics explanations are not necessary to be stated in the dictionary, whereas for the foreign speaker they would be vital. Nevertheless, the creator should take into consideration both aspects. (Zgusta 1971, 299, 303-4)

Another differentiation of a bilingual dictionary is according to its size. Small bilingual dictionaries are used by tourists or pupils who start with the language. In other cases, bilingual dictionaries are middle-sized or large dictionaries. They cover more headwords and are suitable for more demanding users. (Kvetko 2005, 111)

6.2 Features of dictionary

“The usual structure of a dictionary is as follows: preface, guide to the use of the dictionary, key to the pronunciation, abbreviations and symbols, list of words, and

supplements.” (Kvetko 2005, 110) Landau calls the guide to the use as a front matter. It differs in every dictionary due to its size and style of organization but basically all of these front matters or guides are there in order to show the user, how to interpret data in the dictionary. As there is a front matter, there should be a back matter as well. This back matter includes different grammar features of the language, tables of measures, phrases or list of irregular verbs. In short, there is everything that might help students with learning the language. (Landau 1989, 116-7)

Dictionaries are organized into entries. Entry consists of a headword, which is typed in bold, followed by other information depending on the purpose and size of the dictionary (pronunciation, grammar, geographical markers, synonyms, collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs) and of course the equivalent in a target language or, in case of a monolingual dictionary, definition. (Kvetko 2005, 110-111)

According to the capacity of a dictionary, it is good to add some grammatical information, for example the word class or countable or uncountable noun, especially when this may differ in the source and target language. The variants of verbs like *make*, *made*, *made* should be mentioned only in bigger dictionaries. It is not only verbs which may be causing troubles. It is also adverbs. They are not mentioned as frequently as adjectives in the dictionary. It is thought that their creation will be explained either at the beginning of the dictionary or in case of school dictionaries during the language class. (Landau 1989, 76)

A good tradition in bilingual dictionaries is to keep verbs of the source language as verbs in target language so the user is not confused. (Landau 1989, 88-90) Of course, this can be achieved only when the right equivalent is found.

Another feature of the dictionary is the pronunciation. It is placed right after the source language entry word usually in square brackets. In English dictionaries the International Phonetic Alphabet IPA is used. It gives the foreign speaker the idea how to pronounce the words. (Landau 1989, 93, 97)

The creator may also add some illustrating pictures but it is not usually done due to the limited space in a dictionary. Illustrations appear mainly in children dictionaries or there where the picture would be helpful and the space allows it, e.g. illustrating the word *gnu*. It is not a common animal for the Czech people so they would welcome a picture for better imagination of the animal. (Landau 1989, 115)

6.3 Good dictionary

Everybody who learns a foreign language should have a dictionary at home. Before one buys a new dictionary, they should think about few questions and than make a decision.

First question they should ask themselves is: Does the dictionary have the words I want to look up? It is good to make a list of unknown words which one came across during some period of time and check whether they are or are not in the dictionary they would like to evaluate. Second question: Is it up-to-date? As was mentioned earlier, English language is changing very quickly so it is always advisable to purchase a dictionary which has been published recently. Another question: Does it have good international coverage? In case one wants to buy a large dictionary, varieties of British, American or Australian English should be definitely included in it. Can you find the word or phrase you want? This will tell the person if collocations and idioms are the part of the dictionary. Other important information to look for is whether the dictionary is clearly laid out, if the definitions are understandable, if there is a good guide about usage and the last thing, which is not from the lexical point of view, the binding. The latest is important if one wants the dictionary to last. (Crystal 2002, 50-1)

These are very detailed questions and it always depends on the purpose for which one wants to buy the dictionary. Thus everybody must adjust the questions to their needs and level of their language.

Dictionary should be composed in such a way that the user will be encouraged to enrich their vocabulary, i.e. that the dictionary should not be exhaustingly informative but should leave some knowledge gaps due to which the user will need to use a bigger dictionary as they may want to read more difficult texts. (Čermák 1995, 235)

7 CREATION OF DICTIONARY

In order to create a satisfactory-result dictionary it is necessary to follow certain steps. The first step is to define the aim, why the dictionary is going to emerge and who it is going to be for. It is good to concern the real need for the dictionary. Every choice must be carefully thought through. As the second step, lexicographer must choose the right list of entries which will give the dictionary the characteristic form. (Čermák 1995, 91)

Not only the main part of the dictionary should be well planned but also the graphical side of the dictionary is rather vital. It must be decided about the graphical differentiation: the font type, size and style of entries which must be the same through out the whole dictionary. (Čermák 1995, 238)

7.1 Collection of material

The most difficult question for a dictionary maker is how to collect and choose the right terminology for the dictionary. When compiling dictionary for a particular branch of science, the lexicographer even needs help of other experts. (Čermák 1995, 93)

Material for the bilingual dictionary is easier to find when a monolingual dictionary already exists. The lexicographer should choose one monolingual dictionary which is of a similar type as his planned bilingual dictionary and can draw from it. If such a support does not exist, lexicographer must do his own research on the source language. This is not the case of the English language. Both kinds of material should be checked for mistakes or obsolete words. (Zgusta 1971, 307-8)

When there is a dictionary as a textbook support material created, the textbook itself will serve as the source of information. Such dictionaries are according to Zgusta “severely reduced for their own specific purposes” therefore authors, unfortunately, do not mention their creation in publications. The creation of support dictionaries is thought to be too simple because of their special intention to help to read texts or produce texts in the foreign language and limited range of vocabulary. (Zgusta 1971, 304)

7.2 Selection of entries

The purpose for which the bilingual dictionary is created decides about the way how entries for the dictionary are selected. If the dictionary is created for the purpose of understanding the text in a foreign language, the entry-words will be these which appear in the text. (Zgusta 1971, 309) That mainly counts for dictionaries created as a support for the

language textbook. Entry is every headword and also its variations in the dictionary. Some dictionaries state that they have 15,000 or 80,000 or 160,000 entries. (Landau 1989, 84) If a dictionary maker wants to create a small dictionary and the words in both languages are similar, he can omit those words for the sake of saving space. It needs consideration whether there is not any other feature of the word which is worthy of mentioning. (Zgusta 1971, 312)

When selecting entries, it is always necessary to balance amount of general and special lexis. The bigger the dictionary is the more specific lexemes are possible to be included. When the dictionary is supposed to be small, entry words must be selected with consideration. (Čermák 1995, 234)

7.3 Equivalent

The lexicographer should manage to find such lexical units in the target language that are equivalent to the lexical units of the source language. Zgusta defines equivalent as “a lexical unit of the target language which has the same lexical meaning as the respective lexical unit of the source language.” (Zgusta 1971, 312) Equivalent does not necessarily have to be a lexeme. It can be a phrase or a descriptive explanation. (Čermák 1995, 238)

There are four types of equivalency. Definite equivalency is called isomorphism. It is a case when a word has got an exact equivalent. Partial equivalency called anisomorphism has two forms. It is either when one word has more equivalents or more words can have more equivalents. The last type of equivalency is called lacuna and means that a word does not have any equivalent in the target language. (Čermák 1995, 91) Zgusta and Čermák agree on the fact that it is not usual to find an absolute equivalent for a given lexical unit. The cases when precise equivalent is substituted by partial equivalent appear more often. However, they do not use the same terminology. In Čermák’s terminology, a partial equivalent means that one word can have more meanings in a target language. Whereas Zgusta says that a partial equivalent means that it is not possible to find the right lexeme so it is necessary to express the meaning in other ways. (Zgusta 1971, 312)

Dictionary makers have a tendency to look for equivalents in the same word classes or parts of speech, e.g. English nouns are supposed to have they equivalent in Czech nouns. But this principle does not work every time and if one tries to keep it; the result may not be a good translation. For example for a Czech noun *cihla* an equivalent noun can be found in English *brick*. Czech adjective *cihlový* is transferred into English again as *brick*, which has

got the same form as a noun. As we can see, it is necessary to point out the class of equivalents in the dictionary. Zgusta suggests one of the following procedures: leave the pair of words like this *cihlový-brick* and mention this type of equivalence in the preface of a dictionary, indicate the class of words *cihlový (adj) – brick (adj)* or provide the pair with explanation *cihlový – brick (brick wall)*. It does not matter which method the creator chooses, but it is necessary to keep the same structure throughout the whole dictionary. (Zgusta 1971, 313-14)

It is not always possible to find the equivalence for the classes and parts of speech because they simply do not exist or are not suitable. In this case the lexicographer should choose a different word with the correct lexical meaning on condition that the words which really exist and occur in the target language are used. Lexicographers must not say that the word is not possible to transfer. Every time they must find a solution. (Zgusta 1971, 314, 323)

The possibility that the exact equivalent does not exist in the target language rises when the culture-bound words (see chapter 5.2) are concerned. The best way how to solve this situation is to create a new word. However, there is a risk that the dictionary user may not understand the coined word, thus coining should be used carefully. (Zgusta 1971, 324)

7.4 Organization of dictionary body

Halliday and Čermák agree on the way how a dictionary is organised. Every dictionary should include entries organized as following: firstly the headword itself, which is often written in bold or special font so it is distinguished from other text, then the word class of the lexeme enabling the user to recognise the context relation. Another main point is the pronunciation of the word, written in brackets. Finally, there is the equivalent or definition of the headword. Some dictionaries may include more information about etymology or grammar of the words. Moreover, other lexical features as collocations are included. (Čermák 1995, 231) (Halliday et al. 2004, 5) Dictionaries also have some abbreviations which indicate some features of the headword, e.g. *Astron.* It is saying that this term is used in Astronomy. (Halliday et al. 2004, 5) Many dictionaries follow this structure, but it must be always adjusted to the size, type and purpose of a dictionary. According to the type of the dictionary the main part of it is arranged alphabetically or by the meaning.

7.5 Decalogue of dictionary maker

A dictionary creator should always bare in mind the decalogue of a dictionary maker, says Čermák:

1. Dictionary transfer into a target language should be made by a qualified native speaker.
2. No dictionary is complete. It is always a selection which has some rules.
3. Dictionary should be in its final version independent of any other information.
4. Non-equivalence does not exist. Problems must be solved.
5. No dictionary is without mistakes.
6. Word is not translated by word but a headword is related to a headword with all its relations.
7. Equivalent is mainly semantic-based on comparison of both languages.
8. Headword and its information should serve the user's needs.
9. Dictionary is a friend. So it should be able to help not confuse.
10. Better one dictionary than ten grammar books when it is well done.

(Čermák 1995, 247, 8)

II. ANALYSIS

8 PREPARATION WORK

In the analytical part I would like to describe steps which were taken in order to create a dictionary for a language textbook and enlighten my reasons for doing so. The intention for creating the vocabulary is to provide students of the English language with supplementary material, which will make studying easier.

8.1 Description of the textbook

At the beginning of preparatory work I faced the problem which textbook to choose. The most suitable textbook means the one which is used at language schools and which does not have a dictionary provided yet. At first I searched the Internet for books and vocabulary but due to the demand on the dictionary to have practical use I decided to address the Macmillan publisher who recommended the Move-upper intermediate textbook.

Move provides courses for adults and young adults in five levels. It has a flexible modular approach with practical, everyday topics and practice material. Each level of Move contains a course book which is divided into three modules with four units and a review unit, additional course book resource pages with Grammar reference and Wordlist section only in English, a class CD with listening material, CD-ROM with extra practice material and a Teacher's Book with teaching tips. Level upper intermediate corresponds with B2 level in the common European framework. The authors of the textbook are Sue Kay, Jon Hird and Peter Maggs. It was published in 2006 by Macmillan Publishers in Oxford and is identified by ISBN 978-1-4050-8618-9. The textbook Move - upper intermediate is available for students in bookshops or on Macmillan webpage www.macmillan.cz.

8.2 Selection of vocabulary

Next issue to be solved was the right way how to choose vocabulary for the school dictionary. Available publications for the correct procedure of collecting vocabulary and dictionary creation are focused on bigger works like college or desk dictionaries and they consider procedure for a vocabulary as a lesson supply material worthless mentioning. The authors like Zgusta say that teaching support dictionaries are based on the given text in the textbook thus the collection of the material is rather easy; moreover, the vocabulary is limited. (Zgusta 1971, 304)

Due to this fact I decided to select vocabulary according to my own experience with teaching English and the purpose of the individual units in the textbook. As groundwork

for the vocabulary, I used a wordlist which is included after every lesson in the Move textbook. Thereafter I searched texts by text in the individual lessons for any other words which were worth listing in the dictionary. The main criterion of the selection was the context of every unit. Not only words corresponding with the topic but also the vocabulary from the exercises in the textbook, which suggested lexical units necessary to be practised, subsequently learned by students, were included in the dictionary.

8.3 Organization of the dictionary

Next step was to make decision about the organization of the dictionary. The textbook is divided into three modules which contain four units each. This organization was kept in the vocabulary as well, for the sake of lucidity. The main aim was to make the dictionary logically arranged so the students had no troubles to find the unknown word from the text. Practically, words were arranged in the exactly same way as the units appear in the textbook.

MODULE 1

Unit 1

ambitious <i>adj</i>	[æmˌbɪʃəs]	ambiciózní
artistic <i>adj</i>	[ɑːˈtɪstɪk]	umělecky založený
assertive <i>adj</i>	[əˈsɜːtɪv]	asertivní

Fig 3. Example of vocabulary division into modules and units. (self-created)

Organization of entries gives the dictionary its character. In any desk dictionary the structure is following: headword, pronunciation, translation, and other variations of the headword, grammatical information and sometimes sample sentence. All of these are written in continuous lines creating a paragraph with all information written in different font types. Examples of desk dictionaries are: Macmillan School Dictionary, Kapesní anglicko-český, česko-anglický slovník from Fragment publisher or Anglicko-český a česko-anglický slovník by Josef Fronek.

From my experience the textbook dictionaries look differently. They are simplified and written into three columns including: headword with short grammatical information, pronunciation and equivalent in a target language. This is probably the best solution for the kind of dictionary I decided to create because it is easily readable and provides users with all relevant information so that they are able to read and understand the text in a source

language. Moreover, the Macmillan representative, Mr Matuška, has orally confirmed that this is the usual practice which they use when creating a dictionary for a textbook. They get round the given rules for a dictionary appearance because they find it difficult for creation, time consuming and legible only with some difficulties.

To illustrate the visual aspect of the textbook dictionary a description is included: there are three columns, the first one is the headword in the source language – English - followed by a word class. The second column is the pronunciation and the last column is the equivalent expression in the target language - Czech. “Expression” not “word” is used intentionally here because not always an exact equivalent was found.

First column	Second column	Third column
team player <i>n</i>	[ˈtiːm ˌpleɪə]	týmový hráč
trot out <i>v</i>	[ˌtrɒt ˈaʊt]	omílat pořád dokola
well balanced <i>adj</i>	[ˌwel ˈbælənst]	vyrovnaný

Fig 4. Example of the dictionary structure. (self-created)

Regarding the information which was included in the dictionary, it is vital to mention a word class of a word in the source language. An abbreviation of a word class is written behind the English headword. It is distinguished from the other text by the italic style and smaller size of the typeface. Neither etymology nor other grammar variations were included because this knowledge is assumed to be supplied by the teacher at the language lesson.

One of the parts of the dictionary is the phrases. These are expressions which could not have been transferred by a literal meaning because that would not fit the context or they are more words expressions which are collocations in the source language.

Phrases

be still going strong	[ˌbi ˌstiːl ˌgəʊɪŋ ˈstrɒŋ]	těšit se dobrému zdraví
be wrapped up in cotton wool	[ˌbi ˌræpt ˌʌp ɪn ˌkɒtn ˈwʊl]	být zahrnut opičí láskou
get a tattoo	[ˌget ə ˈtæːtuː]	nechat se tetovat

Fig 5. Example of phrases. (self-created)

Phrasal verbs have been included in the dictionary. They are specific by their meaning and students do not have any other possibility how to understand them than to learn it from a dictionary or the language lesson.

The basic division of technical details is further given in more specific description.

9 FEATURES OF THE VOCABULARY

The concise dictionary consists of three basic features: headword in the source language, pronunciation and the equivalent expression in the target language. I am going to explain them in more details in this chapter.

9.1 Headword

The headword in the target language is written in Times New Roman, font type which is the most successful font in the world and belongs to the class of fonts which are easy to read. (Microsoft) It is followed by a word class, which is distinguished by smaller font size and also differentiated by italics thus it is visible that it gives some additional information. Word class information is not included with the Czech equivalent because it is supposed that users have the grammatical knowledge of the target language.

Dictionaries are divided according to particular level of user's knowledge but unfortunately no publication includes the key for recognizing how big lexicon is reasonable for which level. (Landau 1989, 14-6) Therefore the headwords, which make the body of the dictionary, were chosen either from the wordlist provided after every unit or according to my experience with teaching. The selection of headwords is described in chapter 8.2.

9.2 Pronunciation

The pronunciation is written mainly in Lucida Sans Unicode which allows the usage of the specific transcription signs. The sound /u/ had to be replaced by classical Times New Roman font because Lucida Sans Unicode does not support the right sign.

In the case of three column dictionary it is not necessary to differentiate pronunciation by different style and size of typeface. The only variation is that it is written in square brackets obeying the rules of transcription. The pronunciation was drawn from the wordlist included in the textbook and for the added lexis the Macmillan dictionary online was consulted. Wrong pronunciation may in some cases change the meaning of a word. The stress is necessary to be marked and national deviations in pronunciation must be kept so that words are pronounced correctly

Macmillan online dictionary, <http://www.macmillandictionary.com/>, was decided upon for an obvious reason: both the book and the dictionary are published by Macmillan therefore it was assumed it is necessary to draw from the same source. Another reason may be the fact that some other dictionary may differ in the way of transcription. The most

crucial point is the American and British pronunciation. Due to the fact that the Move textbook is from the British publisher, the British dictionaries had to be used.

When using a computerized dictionary, it is vital to check whether the online dictionary is up-to-date. Macmillan online dictionary and Lingea Lexicon for PCs from the year 2004 use different way of marking the pronunciation. The example to show this problematic can be the word *achieve* with the Macmillan pronunciation [ə'tʃi:v] and Lingea pronunciation [ə,tʃi:v]. The difference is in the way of marking the stress. Another example may be the word *container*. Pronunciation in Macmillan dictionary is [kən'teɪnə] but the Lingea dictionary suggests [kən'teɪnər]. There is only a slight difference in the last sound. Lingea prefers to pronounce *r* at the end whereas Macmillan not. Updated version of Lingea dictionary from 2007 already agrees with Macmillan dictionary online way of pronunciation.

The phonetic system International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was used for transcribing the sounds of lexis. It works on the principle of representing a sound by a symbol e.g. the sound of *late* is represented by [leɪt], that of *can* by [kæn], that of *far* by [faː], and that of *cup* by [kʌp]. (Landau 1989, 93) Students are supposed to have learnt the rules of pronunciation by the time they are on the upper intermediate level thus no further explanation of IPA is included in the dictionary.

9.3 Equivalent

As was suggested in the theoretical part, “equivalents” are usually not full equivalents but only partial. A dictionary should not be created as a word for word translation but it is important to bear in mind that an entry word is something different than a word. Entry word does not have to correspond in number of words transferred. It can be a multi-word expression. (Čermák 1995, 232) Due to the fact of transferring the meaning of only words but not the whole text, there is a speculation whether creation of a dictionary is or is not a translation. Because of the fact that there are only individual entries taken into account, which is supported by Yallop saying that “translation is only a process of rewording the same meaning”, (Halliday et al. 2004, 68) I incline to the theory that it is better to speak about finding equivalent expressions in the target language.

For the use of a bilingual dictionary Zgusta recommends using translational equivalents. This means that he prefers transferring source language lexis by the expression which agrees in the word class, approximate length and meaning in the target language. He

suggests avoiding explanations of the meaning. (Zgusta 1971, 311) This theory was applied when searching for equivalents for the Move textbook vocabulary. In majority of the vocabulary it was possible to find the expression with the same word class but not always it was possible to keep the same length. In some cases, short definitions had to be used to express the right meaning.

homesick <i>adj</i>	[ˈhəʊm,sɪk]	tesknící po domově
passion fruit <i>n</i>	[ˈpæʃn ˌfruːt]	marakuja / tropické ovoce

Fig 6. Example of short definitions. (self-created)

If the rule described above had been kept exactly, the transferred equivalents would not have made sense in the target language. The expressions had to be adjusted to those which are really spoken in the Czech language.

Several types of equivalent disagreement have been distinguished and are going to be explained in details in the following chapter.

10 EQUIVALENT DISAGREEMENT

During compiling the dictionary, several troubles occurred about how to transfer the words from the source into the target language. Firstly, it was a disagreement in a word class. The following words will serve as examples:

Easy to talk to is an adjective in the source language but it was transferred into Czech as a verb phrase *dá se s ním mluvit* because the proper equivalent does not exist in the target language. The expression *go-getter* marked as an adjective can be transferred by the same word class as *dravý* but probably would be preferred in the Czech language as a noun *kariérista* which provides wider explanation of the word meaning. Noun *kayaking* transferred as *kajakování* does not sound as a Czech word. The language does not use such an expression, even though it would be understandable, so I have decided to use a variant with a verb phrase *jet na kajaku*. For the adverb *notoriously* Czech does not have the exact equivalent thus it is rephrased as *jak je známo*.

Some words have equivalents in the same word class; however, the expressions are too long, which makes them unsuitable for the purpose of a dictionary. For example an equivalent for the adjective *homesick* could have been *člověk, kterému je smutno po domově*. I found this expression far too long for the limited space in the column of the dictionary thus I searched for a better one. In the end it was decided for *tesknící po domově*. It expresses exactly the same information as *homesick*, it is the same word class and it is understandable for Czech users.

Secondly, the words which were either one word in the source language and multi-word expression in the target language, or the other way round, appeared many times in the vocabulary. The adjective *artistic* could be transferred by only one word *umělecký* however it would not express exactly the point of the text where *artistic* is supposed to describe a person, therefore much better equivalent would be *umělecky založený*. This implies both the fact of art and the fact that a human being is spoken about. In the case of the noun *bliss* - *dokonalé štěstí* can be seen that it is not enough to transfer it as *štěstí* because that does not bare the proper atmosphere of the word. An adjective was necessary to be added and the target language expression is more precise. The same case would be the adjective *toasty*, which in Czech needs to be expressed as *příjemně teplý* because only *teplý* would not provide the right feeling. The English word *toasty* is beautiful in its possibility to express context by only one word. *Bustling* is a noun created by adding the suffix -ing and has to be transferred into Czech with the help of the reflexive pronoun *se* and additional

information about who is bustling because the Czech expression *hemžící* does not give the idea about the doer. Therefore the equivalent chosen is *hemžící se lidmi*. Another example of multi-word equivalents are following expressions: *circulate* – *dát do oběhu*, *easy-going* – *dobrácký* or *elusive* – *stále unikající*.

The plural noun *crisps* could have been transferred by the Czech expression *chipsy* but it is supposed that this would be very confusing for the users because English has the word *chips* with the meaning of *fried potatoes*. Easier way is to use formal expression *bramborové lupínky*. Even though the informal *brambůrky* is more often used among Czech people, I have decided to keep the vocabulary on a formal level. *In-crowd* is a special expression which looks on the first sight as a preposition and a noun but it creates a noun phrase with the specific meaning *skupina oblíbených lidí*. The word *kayaking* has already been mentioned but it seems to belong to both categories. It cannot be transferred into the target language by one word because such an equivalent does not exist in Czech.

Sometimes it was necessary to provide a word with a closer description. The example is the phrasal verb *run out of*. The equivalent is *dojít* but in the Czech language the possible meaning can be to arrive to the destination. For this reason the words had to be specified by the description of the context. *Run of* – *dojít* in the sense *už není*. Expression *nine to five* gives the reader of a text the idea when somebody starts and finishes work. In the target language it is not usual to express the exact hour but it is rather described, in more general way; that someone works regular hours: *práce s pravidelnou pracovní dobou*.

In all of these examples I had to bear in mind the fact, that users of the dictionary must be able to understand the meaning of the individual words even taken out of context and should be able to use them when creating their own utterance. Therefore, the online dictionaries were consulted any time the indication of hesitating about the correct equivalent would appear. In some cases the book of frequency by Leech, *Word Frequencies in Written and Spoken English* and language corpus from *Český národní korpus* website <http://korpus.cz> was used.

11 SPECIFICATIONS OF PHRASES

The English language is a very flowery language. In comparison to Czech it has much more lexis in its corpus. Just for illustration, English language is estimated to have up to four million words (Landau 1989, 17) whereas number of Czech words is estimated according to the content of the dictionary: Příruční slovník jazyka českého and has only up to 250 000 words. This information is stated on the website of Ústav pro jazyk český AV <http://www.ujc.cas.cz/poradna/porfaq.htm>. The number of words has changed since publication of Příruční slovník jazyka českého but has not been published in literature. (ÚJČ AV)

English language has many synonyms or words which belong to more word classes and this causes troubles for the dictionary creator. For this reason, it is inevitable for the creator to go through the context and then decide which would be the correct meaning. As an example the verb *brave* may serve. In the textbook Move the word *brave* appeared in its verbal meaning. Due to the fact that it is usually used as an adjective, without reading the text the transferred equivalent would be *statečný*, which would of course not fit the context and would cause confusion for the students who study the textbook. The fact that *brave* as an adjective has the frequency number 18 per million words in the Word Frequencies book (Leech et al. 2001, 36), but the word *brave* as a verb is not even mentioned there, may influence the dictionary maker to transfer the word wrongly.

English uses lots of collocations, which are the expressions that belong together and cannot be connected with any other words without losing their meaning. (Kvetko 2005, 100) They definitely cannot be transferred literally into the target language because that would ruin the whole meaning. Especially, when expressing ideas by rhyming comes to the terms.

Rhyming collocations like *the hustle and bustle* or *culture vulture* play with the language. Firstly it is the rhyming that sounds attractive, and secondly it is the meaning of the words separately which makes the collocation interesting. *Hustle* and *bustle* are synonyms so they emphasize the rush of the life. Czech equivalent *blázinec* reaches the same strength by the meaning of the word in its usual context suggesting that *hustle and bustle* is something crazy, something that is not normal. *Culture vulture* literally describes a bird which is very aggressive in the nature and is spoken about as it was interested in culture. The connection of these words gives the impression of someone who enjoys culture very passionately.

Expression *be still going strong* cannot be understood literally, *stále chodit silně* does not make any sense in Czech. This implies that there must be another equivalent like *těšit se dobrému zdraví*. Students and people without experience with English are not able to find the correct translation so they need a good dictionary through which they will be given a helpful hand. A collocation *do someone a favour* would not work with a verb *make* because it is a given expression embedded in English exactly in its given form. *In the red* has got its own specific meaning describing the situation of someone's account. If it were transferred word by word, it would take the readers to the totally different direction and they would not be able to understand the text.

Some English collocations do not have full equivalents in the Czech language and they have to be transferred by definition or a short explanation. E.g. *brain food* should be transferred by a short explanation because the Czech language does not have any similar expression; therefore it is suggested to use a definition: food that supports brain to work.

Other feature of English language worth mentioning is the usage of suffix -ing in order to express an adjective, verb and noun. This causes problems with defining the word class. Here we are back to the fact that words need to be analysed in the context, not out of it. Moreover, English using -ing causes difficulties in finding a proper equivalent in Czech especially when a noun is concerned. The source language noun phrase, *heavy drinking*, has to be transferred into the target language as a verb phrase, *pít hodně alkoholu*. Even though alcohol is not mentioned in the English collocation, it is obvious from the context.

Another factor is the way of expressing positive and negative. English expression *the ups and downs* ends with the negative information whereas Czech equivalent *krušné a šťastné okamžiky* mentions the negative at the first position and tries to end by emphasizing the positives. Another example is *bring back from death*. English speaks about the pessimistic death but Czech looks at it from the different point of view and speaks about life on contrary: *přivést zpět k životu*. It seems that Czech language tries to be more positive in its speech.

Also plural or singular do not always agree in the source and target languages. English people say *follow your dreams* whereas Czech people rather use singular *jdi za svým snem*. This fact can be verified in the Czech National Corpus from the year 2000 where the singular of the expression *svým snem* appears twenty-four times from which at least one is in connection with *jít za*. On the other hand *svými sny* is noticed only eleven times but never in connection with the expression *jít za*. (Český národní korpus)

12 COMPILING THE DICTIONARY

The theoretical part describes more ways of how to organize a dictionary. The lexicon for the textbook *Move - upper intermediate* is organized by modules and units and inside them, in alphabetical order. This organization seems to be the best solution for the purpose of a textbook support material because it helps users in easier orientation. When reading the text, the vocabulary book enables students to find the unknown word quickly according to their division.

Although working with a dictionary requires certain skills, the front matter of a dictionary was not included because in the case of a dictionary created for a textbook it is not relevant. Students are supposed to learn all grammar features appearing in the lexicon at the beginning of studies of the foreign language. Anyway, only a few abbreviations are used: *adj*, *adv*, *n*, and *v*, which are easy to recognise even without explanation.

In order to keep the dictionary transparent, some adjustments against the grammar rules had to be done. Verbs are usually noted down as infinitives, i.e. with the particle *to*. (Landau 1989, 76) For the need of an alphabetical dictionary it was not possible to keep verbs in their infinitive forms because there would be too many words beginning with *to* and the dictionary would be confusing.

to annoy <i>v</i>	[ə'nɔɪ]	obtěžovat, jít na nervy
to release <i>v</i>	[rɪ'liːs]	vydat
to catch up <i>v</i>	[,kætʃ 'ʌp]	dohnat (konverzaci)

Fig 7. Example of verbs with *to*. (self-created)

For that reason, the particle was removed and subsequently verbs are more easily traced.

Lexis was collected in order to create an English–Czech vocabulary divided into units, moreover, it was decided to create the English–Czech and Czech–English dictionaries which are both in alphabetical order without division into modules and units. Doing so, I wanted to give the students possibility to look up any lexical unit which they have come across, however, have forgotten. Searching in a divided vocabulary might be complicated as the students would have to go through all units until they find the expression they wanted. In the unified dictionary they have to follow only the alphabetical order.

I also decided to support students with a sound bank of the vocabulary and create English–Czech CD version of the dictionary. Teachers and other lexicology professionals

used to think that audio-lingual method, which means listening to a spoken language and repeating what was heard, was the essential way of learning the foreign language. Although nowadays this method is not perceived as the main one, it is still very common in language teaching. (Yule 1996, 193) The created audio material may help students to practice pronunciation and check whether their way of pronouncing words is correct. The CD is recorded with a native speaker thus students will receive proper British pronunciation. Its importance is mentioned in chapter 8.4.

The advantage of the audio vocabulary is that students may learn vocabulary at the time when they cannot use the written form. The CD is a spoken copy of English and Czech equivalents recorded in the order as they appear in units of the textbook.

A good way how to learn vocabulary is to see it, hear it and speak it. The training of two of these aspects is given to students thanks to the creation of the concise dictionary and the audio CD, and the last one should be provided in the language lesson by a teacher.

CONCLUSION

The theoretical part of the thesis captures the individual parts from which a dictionary consists, enlightens the problems which lexicographers should be aware of when they start compiling a dictionary and suggests solutions for problems that may arise during such work.

The practical part describes problems which I faced when creating the vocabulary book. They are authentic for the textbook Move - upper intermediate and its vocabulary. There are practical examples of the theoretical suggestions from the previous part for which the solution was found thanks to the acquired knowledge.

The aim of this Bachelor thesis to create a lexicon in written and audio version has been achieved. The output is the English-Czech and Czech-English lexicon divided into individual modules and units of the textbook Move. Then it is English-Czech and Czech-English lexicon organized alphabetically without division into units, which provides students with possibility to find unknown vocabulary easily, and English-Czech lexicon in WAV format recorded on CD.

The intended users of the created lexicons are students of English on upper-intermediate level who need the Move textbook in their language classes. The printed vocabulary brings advantages for the users concerning the efficiency of the lessons when students do not ask the tutor about the translation of the words as they learnt it at home. The concise vocabulary makes student's life easier because they do not have to carry big dictionaries for the lesson.

The intention of creating the audio CD is that students can also study at home without help of their tutor because they may play the pronunciation on their computers or CD and can practice out of the lesson. As the audio CD is also bilingual, students may study English vocabulary from the CD player in their cars or can convert WAV to MP3 format and listen to the vocabulary on the bus.

The created vocabulary is going to be published on www.macmillan.cz: websites of Macmillan Publishers Limited in the section: free to download - English-Czech dictionaries. It will be placed there with my name. I got a written permission for creating the dictionary together with agreement about publishing it on the websites. Although I did not get the permission to publish the audio CD from Macmillan, it was recorded and it is ready for the potential use in the future.

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APPENDICES

P I Move – upper intermediate Vocabulary.

P II Potvrzení.

APPENDIX P I: MOVE – UPPER INTERMEDIATE VOCABULARY



MOVE upper-intermediate

Vocabulary

Translated by Lucie Koumalová

MODULE 1

Unit 1

ambitious <i>adj</i>	[æmˈbiʃəs]	ambiciózní
artistic <i>adj</i>	[ɑːˈtɪstɪk]	umělecky založený
assertive <i>adj</i>	[əˈsɜːtɪv]	asertivní
assertiveness <i>n</i>	[əˈsɜːtɪvnəs]	asertivita
bloke <i>n</i>	[ˌblouk]	chlápek
boring <i>adj</i>	[ˈbɔːrɪŋ]	nudný
calm <i>adj</i>	[kɑːm]	klidný
creative <i>adj</i>	[kriˈeɪtɪv]	tvořivý
dedication <i>n</i>	[ˌdedɪˈkeɪʃn]	nadšení
deep <i>adj</i>	[diːp]	důvtipný
dependable <i>adj</i>	[dɪˈpendəbl]	závislý
dull <i>adj</i>	[dʌl]	nudný
efficiency <i>n</i>	[ɪˈfɪʃnsi]	úsilí, snaha
efficient <i>adj</i>	[ɪˈfɪʃnt]	snaživý, výkonný
electronic organiser <i>n</i>	[ˌelekˌtrɒnɪk ˈɔːgənaɪzə]	elektronický organizér
energetic <i>adj</i>	[ˌenəˈdʒetɪk]	energický
energy <i>n</i>	[ˈenədʒi]	energie
entertaining <i>adj</i>	[ˌentəˈteɪnɪŋ]	zábavný
enthusiasm <i>n</i>	[ɪnˈθjuːzɪˌæzəm]	nadšení
enthusiastic <i>adj</i>	[ɪnˌθjuːzɪˈæstɪk]	nadšený
focused <i>adj</i>	[ˈfəʊkəst]	cílevědomý, rozhodný
go-getter <i>n</i>	[ˌgəʊˈgetə]	kariérista
impress <i>v</i>	[ɪmˈpres]	zapůsobit, učinit dojem
impulsive <i>adj</i>	[ɪmˈpʌlsɪv]	impulzivní, spontánní
independent <i>adj</i>	[ˌɪndɪˈpendənt]	samostatný
intend to <i>v</i>	[ɪnˈtend tə]	zamýšlet
jot down <i>v</i>	[ˌdʒɒt ˈdaʊn]	poznámenat si
leadership skills <i>n</i>	[ˈliːdʃɪp ˌskɪlz]	vůdcovské schopnosti
level-headed <i>adj</i>	[ˌlevl ˈhedɪd]	rozumný, vyrovnaný
over-confident <i>adj</i>	[ˌəʊvər ˈkɒnfɪdənt]	namistrovaný, arogantní
rave about <i>v</i>	[ˈreɪv əˌbaʊt]	nadšeně mluvit o
self-confidence <i>n</i>	[ˌself ˈkɒnfɪdəns]	sebedůvěra
self-confident <i>adj</i>	[ˌself ˈkɒnfɪdənt]	sebevědomý
self-sufficiency <i>n</i>	[ˌself səˈfɪʃnsi]	soběstačnost
self-sufficient <i>adj</i>	[ˌself səˈfɪʃnt]	soběstačný
sense of style <i>n</i>	[ˌsens əv ˈstaɪl]	smysl pro styl
single-minded <i>adj</i>	[ˌsɪŋgl ˈmaɪndɪd]	cílevědomý
spiritual <i>adj</i>	[ˈspɪrɪtʃuəl]	duchovní
submissive <i>adj</i>	[səbˈmɪsɪv]	poslušný, poddajný
superficial <i>adj</i>	[ˌsuːpəˈfɪʃl]	povrchní
team player <i>n</i>	[ˈtiːm ˌpleɪə]	týmový hráč
trot out <i>v</i>	[ˌtrɒt ˈaʊt]	omílat pořád dokola
well balanced <i>adj</i>	[ˌwel ˈbælənst]	vyrovnaný

Phrases

a bit of a clown	[ə ,bɪt əv ə 'klaʊn]	bavič
a bit of a loner	[ə ,bɪt əv ə 'ləʊnə]	tak trochu samotář
be in a flap	[,bi ɪn ə 'flæp]	být nervózní (<i>hovorově</i>)
be meant to	[,bi 'ment tə]	být zamýšlen (mít)
be supposed to	[,bi 'sə'pəʊst tə]	být předpokládáno (prý)
can't bring (one)self to do (something)	[,kɑ:nt ,brɪŋ (wʌn),self tə 'du: (sʌmθɪŋ)]	nemoci se přinutit něco udělat
chat away	[,tʃæt ə'weɪ]	povídat si
feel paranoid	[,fi:l 'pærə,nɔɪd]	cítit se paranoidní
give a good/bad/mixed impression	[,gɪv ə gud,bæd,mɪkst ɪm'preʃn]	udělat dobrý/špatný/ smíšený dojem
never leave home without (something)	[,nevə ,li:v ,həʊm wɪ'ðaʊt (sʌmθɪŋ)]	nikdy neodejít z domu bez (čeho)
on your way to the top	[,ɒn jə ,weɪ tə ðə 'tɒp]	při vaší cestě vzhůru
top executive material	[,tɒp ɪg'zekjʊtɪv mə,tɪəriəl]	vhodný typ na pozici vedoucího
turn bright red	[,tɜ:n ,braɪt 'red]	zrudnout
turn out to be	[,tɜ:n ,aʊt tə ,bi]	ukázat se jako

Unit 2

admit to <i>v</i>	[əd'mɪt tə]	přiznat co
amaze <i>v</i>	[ə'meɪz]	ohromit
amusing <i>adj</i>	[ə'mju:zɪŋ]	zábavný
annoy <i>v</i>	[ə'nɔɪ]	obtěžovat, jít na nervy
attempt <i>n</i>	[ə'tempt]	snaha
catch up <i>v</i>	[,kætʃ 'ʌp]	dohnat (konverzací)
circle of friends <i>n</i>	[,sɜ:kl əv 'frendz]	okruh přátel
companion <i>n</i>	[kəm'pænjən]	společník
competitive <i>adj</i>	[kəm'petətɪv]	soutěživý
confide in <i>v</i>	[kən'faɪd ɪn]	důvěřovat
cosmetic surgery <i>n</i>	[kɒz,metɪk 'sɜ:dʒəri]	kosmetická chirurgie
despite <i>prep</i>	[dɪ'spaɪt]	navzdory, přestože
dominate <i>v</i>	['dɒmɪneɪt]	dominovat, ovládat
easy to talk to <i>adj</i>	[,i:zi tə 'tɔ:k tu:]	dá se s ním mluvit
easy-going <i>adj</i>	[,i:zi'gəʊɪŋ]	dobrácký, tolerantní
ensure <i>v</i>	[ɪn'ʃuə]	zajistit
fall out with (someone) <i>v</i>	[,fɔ:l 'aʊt wɪð]	pohádat se s kým
fascinate <i>v</i>	['fæsɪneɪt]	okouzlit, fascinovat
gap year <i>n</i>	['gæp jɜ:ɪ]	rok po studích, kdy mladí cestují
generous <i>adj</i>	['dʒenərəs]	štedrý, velkorýsý
hassle <i>n</i>	['hæsəl]	mrzutosti, nepříjemnosti
in-crowd <i>n</i>	['ɪn,kraʊd]	skupina oblíbených lidí
interest <i>v</i>	[,ɪntrəst]	zajímat se

jealous <i>adj</i>	[,dʒeləs]	závistivý
left-wing <i>adj</i>	[,left 'wɪŋ]	levicový
looks <i>n</i>	[luks]	vzhled
nurture <i>v</i>	[,nɜːtʃə]	pečovat
personality <i>n</i>	[,pɜːsə'neɪləti]	osobnost, povaha
punctual <i>adj</i>	[ˈpʌŋktʃuəl]	dochvilný
remainder <i>n</i>	[rɪ'meɪndə]	zbytek
respect <i>n</i>	[rɪ'spekt]	ohled
right-wing <i>adj</i>	[,raɪt 'wɪŋ]	pravicový
ruthless <i>adj</i>	[ˈruːθləs]	bezohledný
sense of humour <i>n</i>	[,sens əv 'hjuːmər]	smysl pro humor
steadily <i>adv</i>	[ˈstedəli]	plynule, jistě
tend to <i>v</i>	[ˈtend tə]	mít sklon k
toned <i>adj</i>	[təʊnd]	opálený
trustworthy <i>adj</i>	[ˈtrʌst,wɜːði]	důvěryhodný
turn to <i>v</i>	[ˈtɜːn tə]	obrátit se ke komu
whereas <i>conj</i>	[weə'ræz]	kdežto

Phrases

a shoulder to cry on	[ə ˌʃəʊldə tə 'kraɪ ʊn]	mít se kde vyplakat
according to the survey	[ə,kɔːdɪŋ tə ðə 'sɜːveɪ]	podle průzkumu
all but a handful	[ɔːl bət ə 'hændfʊl]	všichni kromě hrstky
at any one time	[ət ,eni ,wʌn 'taɪm]	jednou za čas
be less likely to	[,bi ,les 'laɪklɪ tə]	být míň pravděpodobný
be more likely to	[,bi ,mɔː 'laɪklɪ tə]	být víc pravděpodobný
be there for	[,bi 'ðeə fə (,sʌmwʌn)]	být tu pro
fall steadily	[,fɔːl 'stedəli]	plynule klesat
full of (themselves)	[ˈfʊl əv (ðəm,selvz)]	zahledění do sebe
get in touch	[,get ɪn 'tʌtʃ]	sejít se
have a tendency towards	[,hæv ə 'tendənsɪ tə,wɔːdz]	mít sklon k
keep a secret	[,kiːp ə 'siːkrət]	udržet tajemství
keep in touch	[,kiːp ɪn 'tʌtʃ]	zůstat ve styku
lose touch	[,luːz 'tʌtʃ]	přestat se stýkat
more than half	[,mɔː ðən 'hɑːf]	víc než polovina
one in three	[,wʌn ɪn 'θriː]	jeden z každých tří
One thing I really hate	[,wʌn θɪŋ ,aɪ ,rɪəli 'heɪt]	To, co opravdu nesnáším
really good-looking	[,rɪəli ,gʊd 'lʊkɪŋ]	opravdu pohledný
six out of ten	[,sɪks ,aʊt əv 'ten]	šest z deseti
the research identified	[ðə rɪ'sɜːtʃ aɪ ,dentɪ ,faɪd]	výzkumem bylo zjištěno
the study revealed	[ðə 'stʌdɪ rɪ ,viːld]	studií bylo odhaleno
the way (so) dresses	[ðə ,weɪ (,sʌmwʌn) 'dresɪz]	způsob jak se někdo obléká
twice as much (time)	[ˈtwɑːs əz ,mʌtʃ (taɪm)]	dvakrát tolik (času)
up top	[,ʌp 'tɒp]	chytrý
What I really can't stand	[,wɒt ,aɪ ,rɪəli kɑːnt 'stænd]	Co opravdu nemůžu vystát
What really irritates me	[,wɒt ,rɪəli 'ɪrɪteɪts miː]	Co mě opravdu rozčiluje

Unit 3

captivate <i>v</i>	[,kæptɪveɪt]	uchvátit
centenarian <i>n</i>	['sentɪ,neəɪriən]	člověk mající přes 100 let
charm <i>v</i>	[tʃɑ:m]	okouzlit
constantly <i>adv</i>	['kɒnstəntli]	neustále
desperate <i>adj</i>	['despəreɪt]	zoufalý
early, mid- <i>adj</i>	[,ɜ:lɪ mɪd]	raný, střední
inner self <i>n</i>	[,ɪnə 'self]	vnitřní já
jaded <i>adj</i>	[,dʒeɪdɪd]	přepracovaný
knit <i>v</i>	[nɪt]	plést
longevity <i>n</i>	[lɒŋ,dʒevəti]	dlouhověkost
lyrics <i>n</i>	['lɪrɪks]	slova k písni
middle age <i>n</i>	[,mɪdl 'eɪdʒ]	střední věk
moderation <i>n</i>	[,mɒdə'reɪʃn]	zdrženlivost
reference <i>n</i>	['ref(ə)rəns]	zmínka, odkaz
release <i>v</i>	[rɪ'li:z]	vydat
reluctant <i>adj</i>	[rɪ'lʌktənt]	zdráhavý, neochotný
sign up <i>v</i>	[,saɪn 'ʌp]	podepsat (smlouvu)
sensuous <i>adj</i>	[,sensjuəs]	smyslný
social class <i>n</i>	[,səʊəl 'klɑ:s]	společenská vrstva
teens <i>n</i>	[ti:nz]	-náct (věk 13-19)
try to <i>v</i>	['traɪ tə]	zkusit
willing <i>adj</i>	['wɪlɪŋ]	ochotný

Phrases

be overweight	[,bi ,əʊvə'weɪt]	mít nadváhu
be reluctant to	[,bi rɪ'lʌktənt tə]	zdráhat se
be still going strong	[,bi ,stɪl ,gəʊɪŋ 'strɒŋ]	těšit se dobrému zdraví (hovorově)
be wrapped up in cotton wool	[,bi ,ræpt ,ʌp ɪn ,kɒtn 'wʊl]	být zahrnut opičí láskou
due for release	[,dju: fə rɪ'li:z]	má vyjít
enter a talent show	[,entə ə 'tælənt ʃəʊ]	přihlásit se do soutěže talentů
get a tattoo	[,get ə tæ'tu:]	nechat se tetovat
have a broken heart	[,hæv ə ,brəʊkn 'hɑ:t]	mít zlomené srdce
heavy drinking	[,hevi 'drɪŋkɪŋ]	pít hodně alkoholu – velká kalba
in moderation	[,ɪn ,mɒdə'reɪʃn]	střídmě
in the genes	[,ɪn ðə 'dʒi:nz]	v genech
it's a good idea to	[,ɪts ə ,gʊd aɪ'dɪə tə]	je to dobrý nápad
it's a mistake to	[,ɪts ə mɪ'steɪk tə]	je to chyba
it's easy to	[,ɪts 'i:zi tə]	je jednoduché
it's important to	[,ɪts ɪm'pɔ:tənt tu:]	je důležité
keep my mind active	[,ki:p maɪ ,maɪnd 'æktɪv]	udržovat mysl v činnosti

late nineties	[,leɪt 'naɪntɪz]	v devadesáti
live to a ripe old age	[,lɪv tuː ə ,raɪp əʊld 'eɪdʒ]	dožít se požehnaného věku
loads of time(s)	['ləʊdz əv ,taɪm(z)]	mnohokrát
make your fortune	[,meɪk jə 'fɔːtjuːn]	vydělat jmění
people in high places	[,piːpl ɪn ,haɪ 'pleɪsɪz]	lidé na vysokých pozicích
rub shoulders with	[,rʌb 'ʃəʊldəz wɪð]	stýkat se s
take oneself too seriously	[,teɪk wʌn, self tuː 'sɪəriəsli]	brát se příliš vážně
the ups and downs of life	[ði ,ʌps ən ,daʊnz əv 'laɪf]	krušné a šťastné okamžiky v životě

Unit 4

abandon <i>v</i>	[ə'bændən]	opustit
accomplish <i>v</i>	[ə'kʌmplɪʃ]	dosáhnout čeho
assignment <i>n</i>	[ə'saɪnmənt]	úkol
beat down <i>v</i>	[,biːt 'daʊn]	odradit
bring up <i>v</i>	[,brɪŋ 'ʌp]	vyrůstat, vychovávat
captivated <i>adj</i>	['kæptɪ, veɪtɪd]	uchvácený
chocolate taster <i>n</i>	[tʃɒklət ,teɪstə]	degustátor čokolády
crushed <i>adj</i>	[krʌʃt]	zdcený
degree <i>n</i>	[dɪ'ɡriː]	títul
depressed <i>adj</i>	[dɪ'prest]	sklíčený
downside <i>n</i>	['daʊn, saɪd]	nevýhoda
dream analyst <i>n</i>	['driːm ,ænəlɪst]	analytik snů
encounter <i>v</i>	[ɪn'kaʊntə]	setkat se
exhilarated <i>adj</i>	[ɪg'zɪlə, reɪtɪd]	nadšený
extreme explorer <i>n</i>	[ɪk,striːm ɪk'splɔːrə]	badatel v extr. podmínkách
forensic chemist <i>n</i>	[fə,renzɪk 'kemɪst]	soudní chemik
go for <i>v</i>	['gəʊ fə]	jít za (svým cílem)
go on to <i>v</i>	[,gəʊ 'ɒn tə]	pokračovat
go up to <i>v</i>	[,gəʊ 'ʌp tə]	jít až k
grow up <i>v</i>	[,grəʊ 'ʌp]	vyrůstat
humiliated <i>adj</i>	[hjuː'mɪli, eɪtɪd]	ponížený
hurricane hunter <i>n</i>	['hʌrɪkən ,hʌntə]	lovec hurikánů
kissing trainer <i>n</i>	['kɪsɪŋ ,treɪnə]	trenér líbání
overtime <i>n</i>	['əʊvə, taɪm]	přesčas
perks <i>n</i>	[pɜːks]	požitky, výhody
regret <i>v</i>	[rɪ'ɡret]	litovat
sack <i>v</i>	[sæk]	vyhazov
scared <i>adj</i>	[skeəd]	vyděšený
skateboard test rider <i>n</i>	[,skeɪt, bɔːd 'test ,raɪdə]	ten co zkouší skaty
supportive <i>adj</i>	[sə'pɔːtɪv]	podporující
tester <i>n</i>	['testə]	kontrolor, zkoušející
well-paid <i>adj</i>	[,wel 'peɪd]	dobře placený

Phrases

follow your dreams	[,fɒləu jə 'driːms]	jít za svým snem
nine to five	[,naɪn tə 'faɪv]	zaměstnání s pravidelnou pracovní dobou
out of work	[,aʊt əv 'wɜːk]	nezaměstnaný

MODULE 2

Unit 1

asparagus <i>n</i>	[ə'spærəgəs]	chřest
avoid <i>v</i>	[ə'vɔɪd]	vyhnout se
bland <i>adj</i>	[blænd]	mdlý
bliss <i>n</i>	[blɪs]	dokonalé štěstí
boost <i>v</i>	[buːst]	povzbudit
brain food <i>n</i>	['breɪn fuːd]	jídlo pro lepší myšlení
broccoli <i>n</i>	['brɒkəli]	brokolice
calcium <i>n</i>	['kælsiəm]	vápník
chewy <i>adj</i>	['tʃuːi]	tuhý
comfort food <i>n</i>	['kʌmfət fuːd]	jídlo pro lepší náladu
concentration (of sth) <i>n</i>	[,kɒnsn'treɪʃn]	koncentrace
crisps <i>n</i>	[krɪspz]	bramborové lupínky
crunchy <i>adj</i>	['krʌntʃi]	křupavý
deficiency <i>n</i>	[dɪ'fɪjnsi]	nedostatek
dunk <i>v</i>	[dʌŋk]	namočit
fiery <i>adj</i>	['faɪəri]	kořeněný, pikantní, výbušný
food allergy <i>n</i>	['fuːd ælədʒi]	alergie na jídlo
force yourself to <i>v</i>	['fɔːs jə, self tə]	donutit se k
get rid of <i>v</i>	[get rɪd əv]	zbavit se čeho
ginger biscuit <i>n</i>	['dʒɪŋdʒə ,bɪskɪt]	perníček
greasy <i>adj</i>	['ɡriːsi]	mastný
gooey <i>adj</i>	['ɡuːi]	mazlavý
health-conscious <i>adj</i>	['helθ ,kɒnfəs]	žijící zdravě
helping <i>n</i>	['helpɪŋ]	porce
increase <i>v</i>	[ɪn'kriːs]	zvýšit
intake <i>n</i>	['ɪnteɪk]	příjem
iron <i>n</i>	['aɪən]	železo
juicy <i>adj</i>	['dʒuːsi]	šťavnatý
lemon tart <i>n</i>	[,lemən 'tɑːt]	citronový koláč
mild <i>adj</i>	[maɪld]	jemný, mírný
moody <i>adj</i>	['muːdi]	náladový
nutritious <i>adj</i>	[njuː'trɪʃəs]	výživný
passion fruit <i>n</i>	['pæʃn fruɪt]	marakuja / tropické ovoce
pie <i>n</i>	[paɪ]	koláč
proportion <i>n</i>	[prə'pɔːʃn]	podíl, procento

rice pudding <i>n</i>	[ˌraɪs ˈpuːdɪŋ]	rýžová kaše
salty <i>adj</i>	[ˈsɔːltɪ]	slaný
savoury <i>adj</i>	[ˈseɪvəri]	pikantní
shortbread biscuit <i>n</i>	[ˈʃɔːtbred ˌbɪskɪt]	křehká sušenka
sickly <i>adv</i>	[ˈsɪkli]	odporně (sladký)
simmer <i>v</i>	[ˈsɪmə]	mírně povařit
snore <i>v</i>	[snɔː]	chrápat
soggy <i>adj</i>	[ˈsɒɡi]	rozmočený (sušenka)
sour <i>adj</i>	[ˈsauə]	kyselý
specialist <i>n</i>	[ˈspeʃəlɪst]	znalec
spicy <i>adj</i>	[ˈspaɪsi]	kořeněný
spot <i>n</i>	[spɒt]	pupínek
sushi <i>n</i>	[ˈsuːʃi]	suši
tangy <i>adj</i>	[ˈtæŋi]	kyselý
temper <i>n</i>	[ˈtempə]	povaha
tender <i>adj</i>	[ˈtendə]	křehký
tough <i>adj</i>	[tʌf]	tuhý
vitamin <i>n</i>	[ˈvɪtəmɪn]	vitamín

Phrases

blow (your) top	[ˌbləʊ (jə) ˈtɒp]	vypěnit
Do you mind if I ask you	[də jə ˌmaɪnd ɪf aɪ ˈɑːsk juː]	Bude vám vadit, když se vás zeptám...
Don't be so nosey!	[ˌdɒnt bi ˌsəʊ ˈnəʊzi]	Nebuďte tak zvědavý!
I just wanted to know	[ˌaɪ ˈdʒʌst ˌwɒntɪd tə ˌnəʊ]	Jen jsem chtěl vědět...
I was wondering	[ˌaɪ wəz ˈwʌndərɪŋ]	Zajímalo by mě...
I'd rather not answer that	[ˌaɪd ˌraɪðə ˌnɒt ˈɑːnsə ˌðæt]	Raději bych na to neodpovídal.
keep the best till last	[ˌkiːp ðə ˌbest tɪl ˈlɑːst]	nechat si to nejlepší nakonec
push (sth) round the plate	[ˌpuʃ (sʌmθɪŋ) ˌraʊnd ðə ˈpleɪt]	hrát si s jídlem na talíři
Would you say...?	[ˈwʊd jə ˌseɪ]	Řekl byste, že...?

Unit 2

actually <i>adv</i>	[ˈæktʃuəli]	ve skutečnosti, vlastně
albeit <i>conj</i>	[ɔːlˈbiːt]	i když
apparently <i>adv</i>	[əˈpærəntli]	očividně
basically <i>adv</i>	[ˈbeɪsɪkli]	v podstatě
battery <i>n</i>	[ˈbætri]	baterie
bid <i>n</i>	[bɪd]	nabídka (na aukci)
break down <i>v</i>	[ˌbreɪk ˈdaʊn]	pokazit se
bring out <i>v</i>	[ˌbrɪŋ ˈaʊt]	odhalit
call back <i>v</i>	[ˌkɔːl ˈbæk]	zavolat zpátky
call off <i>v</i>	[ˌkɔːl ˈɒf]	odvolat, zrušit

cloning <i>v</i>	['kləʊnɪŋ]		klonování
come down <i>v</i>	[,kʌm 'daʊn]		snížit se
come out <i>v</i>	[,kʌm 'aʊt]		objevit se na pultech
come with <i>v</i>	[,kʌm ,wɪð]		mít
come up with <i>v</i>	[,kʌm 'ʌp wɪð]		přijít s, vymyslet
complaint <i>n</i>	[kəm'pleɪnt]		stížnost
computer games console <i>n</i>	[kəm'pjʊːtə ,kɒnsəʊl]	,geɪmz	herní konzola
connection <i>n</i>	[kə'nekʃn]		spojení
coverage <i>n</i>	['kʌvrɪdʒ]		pokrytí
cut off <i>v</i>	[,kʌt 'ɒf]		přerušit
deal <i>n</i>	[di:l]		dohoda
fill in <i>v</i>	[,fɪl 'ɪn]		naplnit
fuss <i>n</i>	[fʌs]		povyk
get hold of <i>v</i>	[,get 'həʊld əv]		sehnat
get off <i>v</i>	[,get 'ɒf]		dát ruce pryč
get through to <i>v</i>	[,get 'θruː tə]		spojit se s
give up <i>v</i>	[,gɪv 'ʌp]		vzdát to
hairdryer <i>n</i>	['heə,draɪə]		fén na vlasy
hand in <i>v</i>	[,hænd 'ɪn]		odevzdat
hang up <i>v</i>	[,hæŋ 'ʌp]		zavěsit
implement <i>v</i>	['ɪmplɪ,ment]		zavést
keep up with <i>v</i>	[,kiːp 'ʌp wɪð]		držet krok s
look through <i>v</i>	['lʊk ,θruː]		prohlédnout si
mess <i>n</i>	[mes]		zmatek
mobile <i>n</i>	['məʊbaɪl]		mobilní (telefon)
notoriously <i>adv</i>	[nəʊ'tɔːriəsli]		jak je známo
pick up <i>v</i>	[,pɪk 'ʌp]		vyzvednout
pilot less <i>adj</i>	['paɪlətles]		bez pilota
print out <i>v</i>	[,prɪnt 'aʊt]		vytisknout
run into <i>v</i>	[,rʌn 'ɪntuː]		narazit na
run out of <i>v</i>	[,rʌn 'aʊt əv]		dojít, už není
set off <i>v</i>	[,set 'ɒf]		vydat se (na cestu)
snap up <i>v</i>	[,snæp 'ʌp]		chňapnout po
struggle <i>v</i>	['strʌgl]		potýkat se s potížemi
take off <i>v</i>	[,teɪk 'ɒf]		vzlétnout
texting <i>v</i>	['tekstɪŋ]		posílání textových zpráv
top up <i>v</i>	[,tɒp 'ʌp]		dobít (kredit na telefonu)
turn down <i>v</i>	[,tɜːn 'daʊn]		odmítnout
urgent <i>adj</i>	['ɜːdʒənt]		naléhavý

Phrases

can't live without	[,kɑːnt 'lɪv wɪð, aʊt]	nemůžu žít bez
Come off it!	[,kʌm 'ɒf ɪt]	Nech toho!
do (someone) a favour	[,duː (,sʌmwʌn) ə 'feɪvə]	udělat někomu laskavost

do (your) best	[,du: (jə) 'best]	snažit se
I might be wrong	[,aɪ ,maɪt bi 'rɒŋ]	Možná se mýlím
it wouldn't surprise me	[,ɪt ,wudnt sə'praɪz mi:]	to by mě nepřekvapilo
make a lot of effort	[,meɪk ə ,lɒt əv 'efət]	vynaložit velké úsilí
make mess of (sth)	[,meɪk 'mes əv (sʌmθɪŋ)]	udělat nepořádek v čem
make an offer	[,meɪk ən 'ɒfə]	učinit nabídku
make money	[,meɪk 'mʌni]	vydělat peníze
No way!	[,nəu 'weɪ]	V žádném případě!
(low/equal/top) priority	[(,ləu, ,i:kwəl, ,tɒp) praɪ'ɒrɪtɪ]	(nízká/stejná/nejvyšší) priorita
What do you mean?	[,wɒt də jə 'mi:n]	Co tím myslíte?
You're kidding!	[jɔ: 'kɪdɪŋ]	To si děláš legraci!

Unit 3

achieve <i>v</i>	[ə'tʃi:v]	dosáhnout
burn <i>v</i>	[bɜ:n]	spálit
circulate <i>v</i>	['sɜ:kju,leɪt]	dát do oběhu
competitive streak <i>n</i>	[kəm'petətɪv ,stri:k]	soutěživý duch
convertible <i>v</i>	[kən'vɜ:təbl]	kabriolet
counterfeit money <i>n</i>	[,kauntəfɪt 'mʌni]	padělané peníze
crave <i>v</i>	[kreɪv]	žadonit
donate <i>v</i>	[dəu'neɪt]	darovat
earn <i>v</i>	[ɜ:n]	vydělat
fake <i>v</i>	[feɪk]	padělat
forte <i>n</i>	['fɔ:teɪ]	silná stránka
gambler <i>n</i>	['gæmblə]	hazardní hráč
invest <i>v</i>	[ɪn'vest]	investovat
lose <i>v</i>	[lu:z]	ztratit, pozbýt
luxuries <i>n</i>	['lʌkʃərɪz]	luxusní věci
miser <i>n</i>	[,maɪzə]	lakomec
natural business acumen <i>n</i>	[,nætʃrəl ,bɪznəs 'ækjumən]	přirozený obchodní postřeh
official currency <i>n</i>	[ə'fɪʃl 'kʌrənsɪ]	oficiální měna
ostentatious <i>adj</i>	[,ɒsten'teɪʃəs]	okázalý
raise <i>v</i>	[reɪz]	pozvednout
receive <i>v</i>	[rɪ'si:v]	obdržet, dostat
save <i>v</i>	[seɪv]	(u)šetřit
saver <i>n</i>	['seɪvə]	spořitel
spend <i>v</i>	[spend]	utratit
spender <i>n</i>	['spendə]	nehospodárný člověk
spendthrift <i>n</i>	['spend θrɪft]	marnotratník
splash out on <i>v</i>	[,splæʃ 'aʊt ɒn]	praštit se přes kapsu
steal <i>v</i>	[sti:l]	ukrást
treat (oneself) <i>v</i>	[tri:t]	dělat si radost

thrifty <i>adj</i>	['θrɪftɪ]	šetrný
unlimited <i>adj</i>	[ʌn'liːmɪtɪd]	neomezený
waste <i>v</i>	[weɪst]	plýtvat
win <i>v</i>	[wɪn]	vyhrát

Phrases

be broke	[,bi 'brəʊk]	být na mizině
be loaded	[,bi 'ləʊdɪd]	být zrovna při penězích
come into (a sum of) money	[,kʌm 'ɪntə (ə ,sʌm əv) 'mʌni]	přijít k penězům
cost a fortune	[,kɒst ə 'fɔːtjuːn]	stát majlant
find it hard to make ends meet	[,faɪnd ɪt 'hɑːd tə ,meɪk 'endz 'miːt]	těžko vystačit s příjmem
hand (sth) to (someone) on a plate	[,hænd (sʌmθɪŋ) tə (sʌmwʌn) ,ɒn ə 'pleɪt]	naservírovat co komu na podnose
have a weakness for	[,hæv ə 'wiːknəs fɔː]	mít slabost pro
in the red	[,ɪn ðə 'red]	být v mínusu
money put by for a rainy day	[,mʌni ,put ,baɪ fə ə ,reɪni 'deɪ]	peníze odložené na horší časy
overly ostentatious	[,əʊvəli ,ɒsten'teɪʃəs]	příliš okázalý (honosný)
set (one)self clear goals	[,set (wʌv)self ,kliə 'gəʊlz]	určit si jasné cíle
the average man in the street	[ði ,ævərɪdʒ ,mæn ɪn ðə 'striːt]	průměrný muž na ulici
without the bank balance to match	[wɪ,ðaʊt ðə ,bæŋk ,bæləns tə 'mætʃ]	nehorázně drahý

Unit 4

account for <i>v</i>	[ə'kaʊnt fɔː]	zdůvodnit
advertising campaign <i>n</i>	['ædvətaɪzɪŋ kæm,peɪn]	reklamní kampaň
amusement <i>n</i>	[ə'mjuːzmənt]	pobavení
(un)appetising <i>adj</i>	[(ʌn),æpə'taɪzɪŋ]	(ne)vábny
brand <i>n</i>	[brænd]	značka
consumer <i>n</i>	[kən'sjuːmə]	spotřebitel
container <i>n</i>	[kən'teɪnə]	obal
costly <i>adj</i>	['kɒstli]	nákladný, drahý
dominate <i>v</i>	['dɒmɪ,neɪt]	ovládat
global market <i>n</i>	[,gləʊbl 'mɑːkɪt]	celosvětový trh
household name <i>n</i>	[,haʊshəʊld 'neɪm]	běžné jméno
intimidating <i>adj</i>	[ɪn'tɪmɪ,deɪtɪŋ]	zastrašující
launch <i>v</i>	[lɔːntʃ]	uvést na trh
linguistic complexity <i>n</i>	[lɪŋ gwɪstɪk kəm'pleksəti]	lingvistická složitost
manufacturer <i>n</i>	[,mænju'fæktʃərə]	výrobce
manure <i>n</i>	[mə'njuə]	hnůj
meaning <i>n</i>	['miːnɪŋ]	význam

minefield <i>n</i>	['maɪn,fi:ld]	minové pole
ogre <i>n</i>	['əʊgə]	obr, nelida
pronunciation <i>n</i>	[prə,nʌnsi'eɪʃn]	výslovnost
receive <i>v</i>	[rɪ'si:v]	přijmout
red faces <i>n</i>	[,red 'feɪsɪz]	stud
rename <i>v</i>	[ri:'neɪm]	přejmenovat
slogan <i>n</i>	['sləʊgən]	slogan
sound <i>v</i>	[,saʊnd]	znít
spot <i>v</i>	[spɒt]	všimnout si
suspicion <i>n</i>	[sə'spɪʃn]	podezření
unintended <i>adj</i>	[,ʌnɪn'tendɪd]	neúmyslný
visualise <i>v</i>	['vɪʒjuə,laɪz]	představit si

Phrases

bring back from the dead	[,brɪŋ ,bæk frəm ðə 'ded]	přivést k životu
catalogue of errors	[,kætə'lɒg əv 'erəz]	katalog omylů
do (your) homework right	[,du: (jə) 'həʊmwɜ:k ,raɪt]	udělat svoji práci dobře
make (someone) think of (sth)	[,meɪk (sʌmwʌn) 'θɪŋk əv (sʌmθɪŋ)]	přimět někoho přemýšlet o čem
remind (someone) of (sth)	[rɪ'maɪnd (sʌmwʌn) əv (sʌmθɪŋ)]	připomenout někomu něco
take (someone) back to (sth)	[,teɪk (sʌmwʌn) bæk tə (sʌmθɪŋ)]	vzít někoho zpátky k něčemu
when I close my eyes and listen	[,wen aɪ ,kləʊz maɪ ,aɪz ən lɪsn]	když zavřu oči a poslouchám

MODULE 3

Unit 1

accommodate <i>v</i>	[ə'kɒmə,deɪt]	ubytovat se
barrier reef <i>n</i>	[,bæriə 'ri:f]	korálový útes(oddělený lagunou)
beach <i>n</i>	[bi:tʃ]	pláž
beach-front <i>adj</i>	['bi:tʃ ,frʌnt]	plážový
book (a seat) <i>v</i>	[,buk ('ə si:t)]	rezervovat si (místo)
breeze <i>n</i>	[bri:z]	vánek
check out <i>v</i>	[,tʃek 'aʊt]	omrknout
coastline <i>n</i>	['kəʊstlaɪn]	pobřežní čára
coral reef <i>n</i>	[,kɒrəl 'ri:f]	korálový útes
creation <i>n</i>	[kri'eɪʃn]	tvorba
crunchy <i>adj</i>	['krʌntʃɪ]	křupavý
crystal clear <i>adj</i>	[,krɪstl 'kliə]	křišťálově jasný
cubic metres <i>n</i>	[,kju:bɪk 'mi:təz]	krychlový metr
demolish <i>v</i>	[dɪ'mɒlɪʃ]	zbourat
diver <i>n</i>	['daɪvə]	potápěč
dust <i>n</i>	[dʌst]	prach

evidence <i>n</i>	['evɪdəns]	důkaz
equator <i>n</i>	[ɪ,kweɪtər]	rovník
expand <i>v</i>	[ɪk'spænd]	rozšířit
forecast <i>n</i>	['fɔ:kɑ:st]	předpověď
fuel <i>n</i>	['fjuəl]	palivo
gene <i>n</i>	[dʒi:n]	gen
gentle <i>adj</i>	['dʒentl]	jemný
health spa <i>n</i>	['helθ ,spɑ:]	lázně
hydrogen <i>n</i>	['haɪdrədʒən]	vodík
light <i>adj</i>	[laɪt]	lehký
luxury hotel <i>n</i>	[,lʌkʃəri həu'tel]	luxusní hotel
mainland <i>n</i>	['meɪnlænd]	pevnina
maximise <i>v</i>	['mæksɪ,maɪz]	maximalizovat
monitor <i>v</i>	['mɒnɪtə]	sledovat
ocean <i>n</i>	['əʊʃn]	oceán
on top of <i>prep</i>	[,ɒn 'tɒp əv]	na vrcholu
palm <i>n</i>	[pɑ:m]	palma
paradise <i>n</i>	['pærədəɪs]	ráj
sand <i>n</i>	[sænd]	písek
secluded <i>adj</i>	[sɪ'klu:ɪd]	odlehlý, v ústraní
self-cleaning <i>adj</i>	[,self'kli:nɪŋ]	samočisticí
shoreline <i>n</i>	['ʃɔ:ləɪn]	pobřeží
space <i>n</i>	[speɪs]	prostor
sports facilities <i>n</i>	['spɔ:ts fə,sɪlətɪz]	sportovní zařízení
suck <i>v</i>	[sʌk]	sát
sunset <i>n</i>	['sʌn, set]	západ slunce
surface <i>n</i>	['sɜ:fɪs]	povrch, hladina
technically <i>adv</i>	['teknɪkli]	technicky
tropical <i>adj</i>	['trɒpɪkl]	tropický
turquoise <i>adj</i>	['tɜ:kwɔ:z]	tyrkysový
twinkling <i>adj</i>	['twɪŋklɪŋ]	blikající
underwater <i>adj</i>	[,ʌndə'wɔ:tə]	podmořský
unsafe <i>adj</i>	[ʌn,seɪf]	nebezpečný
villa <i>n</i>	[,vɪlə]	víla
while away <i>v</i>	[,waɪl ə'weɪ]	krátit si čas

Phrases

go on sale	[,gəʊ ,ɒn 'seɪl]	jít do prodeje
playground for the (super) rich	[,pleɪgraʊnd fə ðə (,su:pə) 'rɪtʃ]	vyhlášené rekreační středisko (pro bohaté)
so much to see and do	[,səʊ ,mʌtʃ tə ,si: ən 'du:]	tolik se toho dá vidět i dělat
watch out for	[,wɒtʃ 'aʊt fə]	mít se na pozoru
whatever you do	[wɒt'evə jə ,du:]	cokoliv co uděláš
wonder of the world	[,wʌndə əv ðə 'wɜ:ld]	div světa

Unit 2

adrenalin junkie <i>n</i>	[ə'drenəlɪn ,dʒʌŋki]	adrenalinový maniak
beach bum <i>n</i>	['bi:tʃ ,bʌm]	příznivec pláží
bed-and-breakfast <i>n</i>	[,bedən'brekfəst]	ubytování se snídaní
blackened <i>adj</i>	['blæknd]	začerněný
bungee jumping <i>n</i>	['bʌndʒi ,dʒʌmpɪŋ]	bungee jumping
burning <i>adj</i>	['bɜ:nɪŋ]	hořící
bustling <i>adj</i>	['bʌslɪŋ]	hemžící se lidmi
childhood <i>n</i>	['tʃaɪld,hud]	dětství
cloudless <i>adj</i>	['klaʊdləs]	čisté (nebe)
cluttered <i>adj</i>	['klʌtəd]	zaneřáděný
culture vulture <i>n</i>	['kʌltʃə ,vʌltʃə]	člověk dychtící po kulturním vyžití
curiosity <i>n</i>	[,kjʊəri'ɒsəti]	zvědavost
dread <i>v</i>	[dred]	strachovat se
excitement <i>n</i>	[ɪk'saɪtmənt]	vzrušení
frosty <i>adj</i>	['frɒsti]	chladný
grapevine <i>n</i>	['greɪpvaɪn]	vinná réva
grove <i>n</i>	[grəʊv]	háj, lesík
hilly <i>adj</i>	['hɪli]	kopcovitý
inn <i>n</i>	[ɪn]	hostpoda
landmark <i>n</i>	['lændmɑ:k]	orientační bod v krajině
leafless <i>adj</i>	['li:fləs]	bezlistý
misty <i>adj</i>	['mɪsti]	zahalený do mlhy
moonless <i>adj</i>	['mu:nləs]	bezměsíčný
overpowering <i>adj</i>	[,əʊvə'paʊərɪŋ]	pronikavý
paragliding <i>n</i>	['pærə,glaɪdɪŋ]	paragliding
paved <i>adj</i>	[peɪvd]	vydlážděný
rocky <i>adj</i>	['rɒki]	kamenitý
source <i>n</i>	[sɔ:s]	zdroj
sunbathing <i>n</i>	['sʌn,beɪðɪŋ]	opalování se
surrounded <i>adj</i>	[sə'raʊndɪd]	obklopený
toasty <i>adj</i>	['təʊsti]	příjemně teplý
twisting <i>adj</i>	['twɪstɪŋ]	vinoucí se, klikatící se
winding <i>adj</i>	['waɪndɪŋ]	klikatý
zone <i>n</i>	[zəʊn]	zóna

Phrases

look in every way	[,lʊk ɪn 'evri ,weɪ]	dívat se všemi směry
rent a cottage	[,rent ə 'kɒtɪdʒ]	pronajmout si chatu
take pictures	[,teɪk 'pɪktʃəz]	fotit
travel light	[,trævl 'laɪt]	cestovat nalehko
trip of a lifetime	[,trɪp əv ə 'laɪftaɪm]	vysněná dovolená

Unit 3

(one)-storey <i>adj</i>	[(wʌn) ,stɔ:ri]	(jedno) poschod'ový
architecture <i>n</i>	['ɑ:kɪ ,tektʃə]	architektura
art scene <i>n</i>	['ɑ:t ,si:n]	umělecká scéna
back streets <i>n</i>	['bæk ,stri:ts]	vedlejší ulice
barbecue <i>n</i>	['bɑ:bɪ ,kju:]	grilování
brick <i>n</i>	[brɪk]	cihla
bungalow <i>n</i>	['bʌŋgə ,ləu]	bungalov
buzz <i>v</i>	[bʌz]	hemžit se
chalet <i>n</i>	[ʃæleɪ]	chata
cosmopolitan <i>adj</i>	[,kɒzmə'pɒlɪtən]	kosmopolitní
cottage <i>n</i>	['kɒtɪdʒ]	chalupa
crime levels <i>n</i>	['kraɪm ,levlz]	míra kriminality
funky <i>adj</i>	['fʌŋki]	funky hudební styl, oblíbený člověk
get around <i>v</i>	[,get ə'raʊnd]	obejít
haggle <i>v</i>	['hægl]	smlouvat
homesick <i>adj</i>	['həʊm ,sɪk]	tesknící po domově
hustle and bustle <i>n</i>	[ðə ,hʌsl ən 'bʌsl]	kolotoč (život)
nightlife <i>n</i>	['naɪtlaɪf]	noční život
optimistic <i>adj</i>	[,ɒptɪ'mɪstɪk]	optimistický
profession <i>n</i>	[prə'feʃn]	povolání
relocate <i>v</i>	[,ri:ləu'keɪt]	přemístit
remedial masseur <i>n</i>	[rɪ ,mi:diəl mæ'sɜ:]	rehabilitační masér
set up <i>v</i>	[,set 'ʌp]	nastavit
stone <i>n</i>	[stəʊn]	kámen
stroll <i>v</i>	[strəʊl]	procházet se
thatched roof <i>n</i>	[,θætʃt 'ru:f]	došková střecha
thriving <i>adj</i>	['θraɪvɪŋ]	velice úspěšný
veranda <i>n</i>	[və'rændə]	veranda
vibrant <i>adj</i>	['vaɪbrənt]	pulzující životem
wooden <i>adj</i>	['wʊdn]	dřevěný
wooden shutters <i>n</i>	[,wʊdn 'ʃʌtəz]	dřevěné okenice

Phrases

balcony overlooking the sea	[,bælkəni ,əʊvə ,lʊkɪŋ ðə 'si:]	balkón s výhledem na moře
city that never sleeps	[,sɪti ðæt ,nevə 'sli:ps]	město, které nikdy nespí
cost of living	[,kɒst əv 'lɪvɪŋ]	životní náklady
Don't get (me) started	[,dəʊnt ,get (,mi:) 'sta:tɪd]	nechtějte, abych začínal
I see what you mean	[,aɪ ,si: wɒt jə 'mi:n]	Aha

it's essential to	[Its ɪ'senʃl tə]	je nutné aby
roses round the door	[,rəʊzɪz raʊnd ðə 'dɔː]	růže kolem dveří
shop till you drop	[,ʃɒp tɪl jə 'drɒp]	posedlost nakupováním
soak up the history	[,səʊk ʌp ðə 'hɪstəri]	nasát historii
take a risk	[,teɪk ə 'rɪsk]	nést riziko
that sounds wonderful	[,ðæt saʊndz 'wʌndəfl]	to zní skvěle
that's great	[,ðæts 'greɪt]	to je úžasné
the small hours	[ðə 'smɔːl ,aʊəz]	brzy po půlnoci

Unit 4

absolutely <i>adv</i>	[,æbsə,lʊːtli]	naprosto
boiling <i>adj</i>	['bɔɪlɪŋ]	vařící
bows and arrows <i>n</i>	[,bəʊs ən 'ærəʊz]	luky a šípy
brave <i>v</i>	[breɪv]	čelit
brilliant <i>adj</i>	['brɪljənt]	úžasný
camel <i>n</i>	['kæml]	velbloud
caravan <i>n</i>	['kærə,væn]	karavana
carry on <i>v</i>	[,kæri 'ɒn]	pokračovat
climate <i>n</i>	['klaɪmət]	podnebí
come across <i>v</i>	['kʌm ə,krɒs]	narazit na koho
countless <i>adj</i>	['kaʊntləs]	nesčetný
crocodile <i>n</i>	['krɒkə,dɑɪl]	krokodýl
delicious <i>adj</i>	[dɪ'lɪʃəs]	výborný (jídlo)
deserted <i>adj</i>	[dɪ'zɜːtɪd]	opuštěný
dust storm <i>n</i>	['dʌst ,stɔːm]	písečná bouře
elusive <i>adj</i>	[ɪ'luːsɪv]	stále unikající
endure <i>v</i>	[ɪn'djʊə]	snést (utrpení)
exotic <i>adj</i>	[ɪg'zɒtɪk]	exotický
explorer <i>n</i>	[ɪk'splɔːrə]	cestovatel
fabulous <i>adj</i>	['fæbjuləs]	báječný
fearsome <i>adj</i>	['fiəsm]	hrůzostrašný
freezing <i>adj</i>	['friːzɪŋ]	ledový, mrazivý (počasí)
gigantic <i>adj</i>	[dʒaɪ'gæntɪk]	obrovský
head off <i>v</i>	[,hed 'ɒf]	odvrátit
indigenous <i>adj</i>	[ɪn'dɪdʒənəs]	domorodý
insomnia <i>n</i>	[ɪn'sɒmniə]	nespavost
kayaking <i>n</i>	['kaɪækɪŋ]	jet na kajaku
keep up with <i>v</i>	[,kiːp 'ʌp wɪð]	držet krok s
midnight sun <i>n</i>	[,mɪdnaɪt 'sʌn]	půlnoční slunce
minuscule <i>adj</i>	['mɪnɪ,skjuːl]	nepatrný
mosquito <i>n</i>	[mɒ'skiːtəʊ]	komár
nomad <i>n</i>	['nəʊ,mæd]	kočovník, nomád
nostril <i>n</i>	['nɒstrəl]	nozdra
observatory <i>n</i>	[əb'zɜːvətəri]	hvězdárna

ordeal <i>n</i>	[ɔ:'di:l]	tvrdá zkouška, utrpení
packed with <i>v</i>	['pækt wɪð]	nacpaný čím
percentage <i>n</i>	[pə'sentɪdʒ]	procento
put up with <i>v</i>	[,put 'ʌp wɪð]	snášet, tolerovat
rage out <i>v</i>	[reɪdʒ aʊt]	běsnit, řádit
reputation <i>n</i>	[,repju'teɪʃn]	pověst
rock-bottom <i>adj</i>	[,rɒk 'bɒtəm]	nejnižší možná
seal hunt <i>n</i>	['si:l ,hʌnt]	lov tuleňů
scalding <i>adj</i>	['skɔ:ldɪŋ]	vřelý, extrémně horký
severe <i>adj</i>	[sɪ'viə]	vážný
sky-high <i>adj</i>	[,skaɪ'haɪ]	přemrštěný
suffer <i>v</i>	['sʌfə]	trpět
survive <i>v</i>	[sə'vaɪv]	přežít
tough <i>adj</i>	[tʌf]	pevný, houževnatý
trekking <i>n</i>	['trekɪŋ]	namáhavá cesta
tribe <i>n</i>	[traɪb]	kmen
tropical <i>adj</i>	['trɒpɪkl]	tropický
underground <i>n</i>	[,ʌndə'graʊnd]	podzemí
vertigo <i>n</i>	['vɜ:tɪgəʊ]	závrať

Phrases

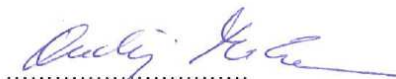
crocodile-infested swamp	[,krɒkədəɪl ɪn,festɪd swɒmp]	bažina plná krokodýlů
deserve reputation	[dɪ,zɜ:v 'repju,tɪʃn]	zasloužit si pověst
in the shade	[ɪn ðə 'ʃeɪd]	ve stínu
learn a great deal about	[,lɜ:n ə greɪt di:l ə,baut]	hodně se naučit o
look worse for wear	[,trɒpɪkl]	vypadat utrmáceně

APPENDIX P II: POTVRZENÍ

POTVRZENÍ

Potvrzuji, že Lucie Koumalová dostala od vydavatelství MACMILLAN souhlas ke zpracování slovníku k učebnici Move upper-intermediate. Její práci hodláme využít a slovník s uvedením jména překladatele umístíme na webové stránky vydavatelství MACMILLAN.

V Brně, dne 16. 3. 2009



Ondřej Matuška