Towards a consistent neutral Arabic equivalence of the English base verb form in print and electronic bilingual lexicography: a contrastive semantic study

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Abstract

Lexicographic definition of verb forms is central to bilingual dictionaries in as far as they are learners' dictionaries. Conventional dictionaries in their print and electronic forms and more recent online dictionaries and platforms are accredited a reliable status as linguistic references by L1 and L2 users. Based on rules of monolingual and E/A bilingual lexicographic definition of main entry verb forms (Haas,1964; Zgusta 1971; Landau, 2001) and grammatical info-types of entry verb forms (Bogaards, 2002; 2004), the present study registers observations about the Arabic verb forms used as equivalents to entry English BVF's in two print dictionaries available in free-access electronic pdf. versions and the online Google.dictionary. With a view to ascertain an objective headword selection, twenty entry base verb forms, as alphabetically listed in two distinct letters of each of the selected three dictionaries, are subject to a non-probability sample examination. To ensure uniformity of search results, search invariables are set for the main entries summoned via the Google.dictionary translate-into-language function. Objectives of the study are to reach out to a correct and proper Arabic equivalent verb form, and to examine in/consistency of using a common standard equivalent Arabic verb form in main/sub entries and embedded examples within the lexical units under investigation, and, henceforth, to show the possibility of user's confusion in subsequent L1 /L2 active and/or passive reproduction. Time reference of lexicographic definition is shown to be fit for all time. The contrastive semantic study shows: aspect and time reference of entry BVF's and to-infinitive forms indicate a timeless type (Quirk and Greenbaum,1973; Kharma, 1983; Dahl, 1985; Leech, 2004); neutrality of time reference is evidenced to be a general aspectual property of the context-free Arabic 2.S.F; a general past time reference is associated to the 1.S.F (Haron, 1988 Hasan, 1999; as-Sa:merra:?iyy, 2000; Hassaan, 2000). Sample analysis observes a consistent use of Arabic 2.S.F in al-Mawrid equivalent entries, subentries and embedded examples. A prevailing use of 1.S.F is monitored throughout Oxford English Arabic Dictionary and the Google.dictionary, with intermingles of both Arabic forms within equivalent senses and embedded examples in the lexical units of sample entries; -ed forms within OEAD embedded examples also receive 1.S.F equivalents; linguistic insecurity and L1/L2 user's confusion is expected in consequence.

Key words: lexicographic definition, base verb forms, main/sub- entries, sense, equivalence, aspect and time reference, first simple form, second simple form.

نحو دلالة زمنية محايدة ومُوَّحدة لصيغة الفعل العربية المعادلة لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية في القواميس ثنائية اللغة المطبوعة والرقمية: دراسة دلالية مقارنة

ملخص البحث

تعد صيغ الأفعال، وتعريفها، واستخداماتها أمراً محورياً في القواميس ثنائية اللغة نظراً لكونها موجهةً لدارسي اللغة في المقام الأول؛ حيث تعد بالنسبة لمستخدمى اللغة مراجع لغوية يلجأون إليها ؛سواء كان ذلك في صورتها الورقية التقليدية ،أو الحديثة الإلكترونية. تقوم الدراسة الحالية بملاحظة صيغ الفعل العربية المعادلة لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية المستخدمة في ثلاثة قواميس مطبوعة ورقمية (في صيغة pdf.)، متاحة عبر الانترنت هي: *قاموس المورد الحديث إنكليزي-عربي* ، و*قاموس أكسفورد إنكليزي عربي* ، و*قاموس جوجل* (المتاح عبر موقع الخدمة المجانية أونلاين)، وذلك بناءً على :١. دراسة مقارنة للدلالة الزمنية لصيغ الأفعال الماضية والمضارعة في اللغة العربية، و صيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية Base verb form المستخدمة كمادة معجمية في القواميس قيد الدراسة.٢. أسس تعريف مواد المعجم المتبعة في القواميس الإنجليزية أحادية اللغة و ثنائية اللغة الإنجليزية العربية(Haas,1964; Zgusta 1971; Landau, 2001).

تهدف الدراسة إلى: ١.تحديد صيغة الفعل العربية الصحيحة المعادلة لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية طبقاً للدراسة الدلالية المقارنة؛ ٢ .تتبع مدى التزام كل من القواميس الثلاث بصيغة فعل عربية معادلة واحدة،ومدى الخلط بين صيغتين معادلتين لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية المستخدمة كمادة رئيسية أو فرعيةأو في الأمثلة المدرجة لتوضيح الاستخدام اللغوي. ومن ثم توضح الدراسة مدى تأثير الجمع بين صيغتين معادلتين مختلفتين من الفعل العربي على احداث الارتباك لدى مستخدمي كلتا اللغتين.

وتستند الدراسة على منهجية العينة المنتظمة غير العشوائية لإنتقاء مواد التحليل المعجمي قيد الدراسة مراعاةً لحيادية الانتقاء؛ ومن ثم عُينت عشرون مادةً لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية كما وردت في ترتيبها الألفبائي لمواد القاموس؛ بذلك يصبح العدد الكلي لمواد العينة المنتظمة ٦٠ مادةً. وتلتزم الدراسة كذلك بثوابت للبحث في*قاموس جوجل* وبالتحديد في نتائج خاصية الترجمة إلى لغة بعينها المتاحة من خلاله.

خلصت الدراسة من التحليل الدلالي المقارن و تحليل العينة إلى النتائج التالية:

- حيادية الدلالة الزمنية لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية سيما إذا كانت غير مقيدة بقرينة نصية لفظية أو معنوية ، وكذلك حيادية الصيغة المصدرية الإنجليزية *to infinitive*
(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973; Kharma, 1983; Dahl, 1985; Leech, 2004)

- اتفاق النحاة العرب على أن صيغة المضارعة تتوسط مساحة زمنية ما بين الماضي والمستقبل سيما إذا انتفت القرينة اللفظية والمعنوية (كرمة، ١٩٨٣؛ هارون، ١٩٨٨؛ حسن، ١٩٩٩؛ حسان، ٢٠٠٠؛ السامرائي، ٢٠٠٠)؛

- التزام قاموس المورد بصيغة الفعل المضارع كمعادل لغوي على مستوى المواد الرئيسية والفرعية و الأمثلة المدرجة؛

- شيوع استخدام صيغة الفعل الماضي كمعادل لغوي في قاموس أكسفورد مع الخلط بين الصيغتين في بعض المواد الرئيسية والأمثلة المدرجة؛

- استخدام قاموس جوجل عبرخاصية الترجمة إلى اللغة المختارة صيغة الفعل الماضي العربية لترجمة كل من صيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية وكذلك صيغة الفعل الماضي الإنجليزية.

ومن ثم توصي الدراسة بتدريب محرك الترجمة الآلية عبر قاموس جوجل على إظهار صيغة المضارع العربية كمعادل لغوي لصيغة أصل الفعل الإنجليزية وصيغة الماضي العربية كمعادل للماضي في الإنجليزية وكذا بمراعاة هذه الفروق الدلالية الزمنية بين صيغ الأفعال في صناعة القواميس الثنائية الإنجليزية العربية والالتزام بصيغة معادلة واحدة منعاً لحدوث الارتباك اللغوي لدى مستخدمي اللغة.

1. Rationale of study

Conventional print and more recent electronic lexicographic content is considered a source of linguistic reference and grammatical correctness by monolingual and bilingual dictionary users (Zgusta, 1971; Hartmann, 1998; Landau, 2001; Muller-Spitzer *et al,* 2018). One main recognized function of linguistic dictionaries is to support communication between speakers and writers of different languages or language varieties and to provide linguistic information. Given that automatically compiled lexicographic content is confirmedly on the rise, the role of lexicographers tends more towards validation of the decisions and selections made by the software than to an origination of dictionary text (Dziemianko, 2018). Reliability of linguistic reference and dictionary authorship in conventional print dictionaries, now available as free-access electronic versions (the so-called copy cats), competes with adaptability, usability, liability to continuous updating and construction in the electronic online dictionaries (Gelpi, 2007; Muller-Spitzer *et al*, 2011; Dziemianko, 2018). However, in both conventional and online lexicography, with particular reference to the bilingual type, inconsistency of lexical, semantic or syntactic equivalence is prone to cause linguistic insecurity and users' confusion. In view of the central importance accorded to verb forms and verb usage patterns in learners' dictionaries and based on a contrastive semantic analysis of English base verb form (BVF) and Arabic first and second simple forms(1&2.S.F's), the present study examines in/consistent Arabic equivalence of English BVF in print and online E/A dictionaries.

2. Print and online dictionary status as language authority

Because of the stability and permanency of the print form, dictionaries used to and still assume the role of an authority and a judge in language to both lexicographers and dictionary users (Hartmann, 1998, p. vii).This simply means that users particularly of bilingual dictionaries take the lexical, syntactic and grammatical information provided by the dictionary for granted and might use the presented equivalence directly into a passive L1/L2 or an active L2/L1 production; it also accounts for users' possible confusion at cases of inconsistent equivalence forms, as provided. This premise is given particular credence by Landau's

identification of bilingual dictionaries as "non-reproductive types of lexicons" (2001).

Access to online lexicographic information is acknowledged to be easy, quick and cheap (Gelpi, 2007, p.3). Adaptability to broad users' needs continuously doubles target users categories; robust approaches to search entries (Dziemianko, 2018, p. 665), tracing users' profiles and log files to provide instant best preferences (Muller-Spitzer et al 2018, p.727), automatic spelling correction mechanisms, installed translate-into-language services and multimedia provision of automated pronunciation and ostensive knowledge, in short the broadly known "simplified access structures which make the electronic dictionary look-up time effective and accurate"(Dziemianko, 2108, p.678) are features peculiar to online dictionaries (the case of the Google. dictionary in the present study); all account for online clarity, usability, adaptability to users' needs. However, reliability of lexicographic content in online and older print forms is subject to a constant observation and a more recent empirical examination. The quality of electronic dictionaries might not go hand in hand with the ease of access;" users themselves often consider them less reliable than those on paper" so observes Deizimianko (2018, p.672). An empirical study by Muller-Spitzer *et al* (2011) compares between electronic and older print dictionaries; it concludes that classical criteria of clarity, reliability of content and authorship are ranked higher by the target group than features of adaptability and multimedia, unique to online e-dictionaries. Gelpi (2007), on the other hand, asserts that online e-dictionaries need to be subjected to a lexicographic evaluation system (p. 4). The present study falls within lexicographic observation and evaluation of in/consistent E/A equivalent verb forms in print and online bilingual dictionaries.

3. Objectives of study

In view of lexicographic rules of defining entry words in bilingual dictionaries (Landau, 2001; Bogaards, 2004; Bogaards &Van der Kloot, 2002; Zgusta, 1971; Haas, 1964) and a contrastive semantic study of aspect and time reference of English entry base verb forms (BVF's) and Arabic first and second simple forms (1.&2.S.F's) (Hassaan, 2000; as-

Sa:mera:ʔiyy, 2000; Hasan, 1999; Kharma,1983; Leech, 2004; Dahl, 1985; Quirk & Greenbaum,1973), this study attempts

1. to reach out to a correct Arabic equivalent verb form,

2. to examine in/consistency of using a common standard equivalent Arabic verb form in entry words, embedded examples and subentries, and henceforth to show the possibility of user's confusion in subsequent active and/or passive reproduction of L1 and/or L2.

For these two purposes, the study scans a non-probability sample of entries extracted from the *Google. Dictionary*, and two print dictionaries: *al-Mawrid:A Modern English Arabic Dictionary* (1987; first published 1967), and *Oxford English Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage* (first published 1972), available in free-access electronic pdf. versions[1] via:

-https://books-library.online/files/download-pdf-ebooks.org-wq-9016.pdf
-https://www.pdfdrive.com/the-oxford-english-arabic-dictionary-of-current-usage-d187050802.html)
-https://www.google.com/search?q=*Google.dictionary*&rlz=1C1 GGRV_enEG753EG754&oq=*Google.dictionary* &aqs=chrome.0.69i59j0l7.9681j0j1&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8.

4. Method of data extraction and analysis:

- As above mentioned, three free-access bilingual E/A dictionaries are selected for study; the first is a free-access online e-dictionary; the *Google.dictionary*; the other two are originally print dictionaries, available via the cited links in the form of electronic pdf. versions: *al-Mawrid : A Modern English Arabic Dictionary* (1987; electronic pdf version, 2008), and *Oxford English Arabic Dictionary of Current Usage* (first published 1972, available as an electronic pdf. version).

- Care has been taken to avoid subscription-based bilingual dictionaries, because the main aim of the study is not to prove the supremacy of a print or online dictionary over the other; it is rather to seek to avoid users' confusion in L1 and /or L2 active or passive reproduction, subsequent to English BVF entry-search,

- Along the lines of a nonprobability quota sampling, 20 entry base verb forms are selected from each of the three dictionaries.

- To ensure objective selection, representative coverage of transitive and intransitive verbs, and multiplicity of grammatical info-types as provided, 10 entry verb forms are extracted as listed in dictionary macro-structure

according to the alphabetical order from two letters A and L, precisely from sub-letters *A b* and *L a*; thus, the same 20 entry BVF's as main and subentries, and equivalent Arabic senses are subjected to a contrastive semantic analysis throughout the three dictionaries; henceforth, the total number of the quota sample is 60 entries:

Letter A *b*: abandon, abate, abbreviate abdicate, abduct, abet, abhor, abide, abnegate, abolish.

Letter L *a*: label, lack, lacerate, lag, land, languish, lash, last, laugh, launch.

5. Theoretical framework
5.1 Rules of lexicographic defining

Through a more compromising perspective, Fuertes (2018) defines lexicography as the science concerned with the theory and practice of dictionaries (p.1). However, there has been a common agreement among the euro-American lexicographers that lexicography is a science in search for a theory (Béjoint, 2010, Bogaards, 2010; Atkins and Rundell, 2008; Landau, 2001, p.153; Hartmann 1998). Hartmann (1998) dismisses that lexicography is a branch of linguistics, it is rather a field which engages a variety of disciplines, "a multi-disciplinary branch of knowledge"; the main disciplines involved in Hartmann's (1998) view, though, are "aspects of linguistics including especially, semantics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and corpus linguistics" (p.vi- vii). Conversely, a common acknowledgment of the theoretical nature of lexicography as a science or an attempted theorization is maintained by the Check, Russian and Chinese schools (Arleta, 2018; Tarp, 2012; Yong & Peng, 2007; Zgusta, 1971).Tarp (2012) concludes that "lexicography satisfies all demands made on any branch of human activity that claims to be a separate science or area of academic study" (p.323). Following the Hallidayan trimodal system, Yong & Peng (2007) attempt to establish a new theory of communicative lexicography.

However, the rudiments of lexicography are not subject to a similar disagreement among lexicographers. Entry terms or lemmas, run-on entries and listing standards are set as the core of incorporating a lexical item (or a lexical unit) within dictionary micro-structure. Defining

principles of lemmas in monolingual and ESL dictionaries are set as early as the 1970's by Zgusta (1971) in his *Manual of Lexicography*, and later developed by Landau (2001); foremost among which are: avoidance of circularity, the word not in rule WNIR, priority of essence, substitutability and reflection of the grammatical function of the search parts of speech (pp. 157-177). Within the meaning description ascribed to the headwords, the immediate denotative meaning is set to precede the connotative (Landau, 2001, pp.155-156). Run-on entries are almost the same in ESL Dictionaries, if not in the monolingual (Landau, 2001, pp.99- 101). Info-types of grammatical information provided for entry verbs are categorized (Bogaards *et al*, 2002). Desiderates are set for bilingual dictionary definition as early as Mary Haas (1964).These rules of defining apply to the primitive version of scanning a dictionary copy and uploading its Pdf. form through a free-access path (the so-called copy cats), the case of the *Oxford English Arabic Dictionary*(*OEAD*), and *al-Mawrid Modern English Arabic Dictionary.*

5.2 User's Perspective

It is the lexicographer's realization that different users are driven by a multiplicity of reasons to use the dictionary and how the dictionary can and should respond to these needs (Hartmann, 1998, p. viii). In terms of the user's L1 and L2, a distinction of user orientation and dictionary purposes is drawn between monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. The purpose of the list of TL equivalents, a bilingual dictionary provides for the SL entry words, is "to help someone who understands one language, but not the other. More, the presumption is that one of the languages is the user's native tongue" (Landau, 2001, p.8). Monolingual dictionaries target three main categories of users: native speakers of the dictionary's one language (L1); people who are learning it as a second language (L2) in a country where it is widely spoken; or people learning it as a foreign language (L2 or L3). The main purpose is to explain in words likely to be understood what other words mean and, particularly in a learner's dictionary [e.g. ESL dictionaries], how to use them. Compared to the equivalence of entry words the bilingual dictionaries provide, what a monolingual dictionary presents to its users is "a periphrastic definition in

the same language" (Landau, 2001, p. 9). Accordingly, a bilingual dictionary from the standpoint of the essential dictionary purpose is defined as consisting of "the list of words or expressions, in alphabetical order when in printed form, in one language (SL), for which ideally exact equivalents are given in another language (TL)." This is to help those who might understand one of the two languages (Landau, 2001, p. 8).

Language use practices for which bilingual dictionaries are resorted to are agreed by lexicographers to be comprehension and translation (Landau, 2001, p. 9; Hartmann, 1998, p. viii). Comprehension includes reading of SL by a user who knows the TL, as well as expression and writing in the TL by a user who knows the SL; translation on the other hand covers the major uses of the bilingual dictionary: a "passive use", i.e., translating from the FL into the user's native tongue; and an "active use", i.e., translating from the user's native tongue, in this case the dictionary's SL, into the dictionary's target language (Landau, 2001, pp. 9-12). A passive use is like when an Arabic speaker consults an E/A dictionary for a passive help with understanding encounters of unfamiliar English words. An active use is traced when an English speaker resorts to an E/A dictionary seeking some help to write or translate into Arabic. Though advised to resort to monolingual dictionaries before consulting the bilingual, users, particularly learners usually break this rule and heads directly to sight the bilingual dictionary (Bogaards, 2004, p.463).This further adds to the crucial significance of caring to provide precise lexical, semantic, syntactic equivalence in bilingual lexicography, as the ready-made TL equivalent is an end product delivered to the user; it is not subjected to reprocessing; that explains why bilingual dictionaries are considered non-generative.

From a lexicographer's point of view, it is crucial to decide on the prevailing directionality of the bilingual dictionary: L1- L2 or L2- L1: that is, whether the bilingual dictionary is intended to help L1 users understand, read, write and translate into L2, or to help L2 users in the opposite direction (Landau, 2001, pp. 9- 12). Munir Baalbaki (1987), in his introduction to *al-Mawrid Modern English Arabic dictionary*, identifies Arabic native students learning English,"طلاب اللغة الإنكليزية", and

educated categories, *"المثقف العربي"* , with an interest in reading English culture, literature and science, as his target users and readership. Thus, an L2- L1 direction of dictionary use is designated for *al-Mawrid* (1967) and the later and more recent editions including the free-access online pdf.

Editor of *The Oxford English/Arabic Dictionary of Current Use* (first published 1972, p. vii), N.S. Doniach, establishes the dictionary's bidirectional quality; it targets both Arabic speakers learning English, and English speakers learning Arabic:

> THE English–Arabic dictionary of current usage is designed to meet the needs of those whose mother-tongue is English and who are learning Arabic, and of those whose mother-tongue is Arabic and who are learning English. The gap between the two languages is so wide that a glossary which confines itself to equating words is as frustrating for the Arab reading an English text as it is for the English speaker trying to convey his thoughts in Arabic. The gap is so wide not only because English and

However, it is next to impossible in bilingual lexicographers' view, as explained by Landau (2001, p. 9), to build up a unidirectional bilingual dictionary for speakers of both languages; they must have one group in mind; otherwise, it is quite likely that the dictionary would be satisfactory for neither group.

Broad orientation of online free-access bi/multilingual dictionaries and platforms, as the case is with the *Google. dictionary,* prevents a clear prediction of the user's L1 and/or L2, age group, or field of specialization. A blurred target orientation is rather ascertained with online and smart phone lexicography. Worth to highlight is no grammatical information is provided via the *Google.dictionary* bilingual equivalent slot. Full definition and grammatical information are presented via the *Google. dictionary* monolingual meaning description soon as a search entry term is summoned. This particular fact added to the presumed non-generative quality of bilingual dictionaries may cause possible user's confusion when more than one TL standard form is used as equivalent to the English BVF's, as the sample analysis shows below.

5.3 Grammatical Info-types

Whatever the directionality of the bilingual dictionary is; an L1- L2 or an L2-L1, lexicographers, particularly of the conventional print dictionary forms, are concerned about a provision of precise sets of grammatical information, grammar codes and sentence patterns, exemplified through explanatory examples, that are added to entry word equivalent senses.

One major set of 9-item desiderata for bilingual lexicographic definition is set by M.R. Haas as early as 1964 in the introduction to her Tai-English Dictionary including: provision of a translation for each word in SL, complete coverage of SL lexicon, provision of grammatical, syntactic and *semantic* information. The present study falls within the 3ʳᵈ item: based on a contrastive semantic study of English BVF's and Arabic first and second simple forms, it scans Arabic equivalence of English base verb forms in the selected three dictionaries, reaching out to the most proper equivalent Arabic verb form. Worth to note, as well is that ESL and bilingual dictionaries are agreed to be learners' dictionaries with a pedagogical stand point. Doniach (1972, p. viii, Forward to *OEAD*) acknowledges that the dictionary contributors submitted some parts of the alphabet, depending in their choice of words and usage on the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* and the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* . Baalbaki (1987, Introduction, para., 3, 4.), more importantly, acknowledges a careful abidance by the rules of lexicography, applied by the monolingual British and American dictionaries, with respect to selection of entries, etymological reference and semantic change of entries, labels of language use and varieties to which the entry in question belongs; itself is a piece of evidence that bilingual dictionaries, in their being learners' dictionaries, attempt to follow lexicographic rules of defining and provision of grammatical information set by the monolingual lexicographers. Relying on this view, this study applies Bogaards' and Kloot's learner dictionary types of grammatical information to the three bilingual dictionaries under consideration (2002, p. 748).

Bogaards' analysis of verb entries in a number of learners' dictionaries shows that information about possible and obligatory verb constructions are found in four types (Bogaards *et al*, 2002, pp.748- 755):

Info-type C	Grammatical Code	Grammatical information is given in the form of grammatical codes as in the extra column of Cobuild 2.	v. n. , v. prep n.
Info-type E	Explicit Grammatical Information	Grammatical information in a more explicit way, as in the LDOCE	'be charged with or reward sb. with sth.'
Info-type D	Definition	Grammatical information can be given implicitly in the context of a definition as in Cobuild 2	Formulations like 'when the police charge someone,…'
Info-type X	Examples	Grammatical information is given most of the time in the context of examples	Formulations like 'She has been charged with fraud'

His empirical study on user preferences of info-types shows a general user tendency to choose definition + example type. Traditional grammar codes as C seem to be rarely used by target users of learner dictionaries (p.755).

Less prevailing examples on verb construction and usage in E/A bilingual equivalent verb forms stresses importance of a precise lexical and semantic equivalence. Provision of examples and subentries, on the other hand, involves context-bound aspect and time reference other than that used as a common equivalent to English BVF main entries in a given E/A dictionary. For example, the sample analysis below shows that *OEAD* commonly uses an Arabic first simple form as equivalent to English BVF's, yet, switches to use an Arabic second simple form regarding some subentries.

## 5.4 Tense and Aspect & Lexicographic definition

Time is a universal and nonlinguistic concept; it assumingly comprises three subdivisions: past, present and future (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p.40). Grammarians usually rely on a semantic point of departure on tackling the categories of tense and aspect. Tense achieves a correspondence between a verb form and the element of time. Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced as completed or in progress (p.40); it is conceived of as the internal, temporal consistency of a situation (Dahl, 1985, p.23; Comrie, 1976, p.3). Hence, aspect simply means completion or non-completion of a verbal action, this makes it closely intertwined with time reference; both are

therefore acknowledged to impinge upon one another (Dahl, 1985, pp.1-3; Kharma, 1983, pp.30- 38; Quirk and Greenbaum1973, pp. 40-50).

Aspect and time reference of the English present tense including the base verb form (BVF), or the bare infinitive, and the the -s form are defined to comprise three basic types: *timeless*, or the "STATE use", as defined by Leech (2004, p. 5), expressed with the simple present form; *limited,* expressed with the present progressive; and *instantaneous,* or the "EVENT use"(Leech, 2004, pp.7-8), expressed with either the simple or the progressive. Time reference of the English base verb form, e.g. *call, drink, put*, is established to realize four main functions (Quirk and Greenbaum1973, pp.27, 28, 41; Leech, 2004, pp.5-18). All the present tense, e.g., *they call every day*; 2. The bare infinitive and the to-infinitive, e.g., *he may call or he wants her to call;* 3. Imperative: call at once; 4. Subjunctive: *we demanded that she call and see him.* Timelessness as an aspectual property of the present tense, i.e., the present as a fleeting point between the past and the future is ascertained by Leech (2004) in so far as in all its uses, there is a basic association with the present moment; this association is explained as:

> The state or event has psychological being at the present moment. It does not exclude the possibility of the Present Tense having *actual* reference to a time other than the present. The Present Tense in special circumstances can refer to past and to future time exclusive of present time. In the 'historic present', it represents past events *as if* they were happening now. In the 'futurate present', it refers to future events regarded as *already planned or predetermined.* (p.6)

In print and electronic monolingual, ESL and bilingual dictionaries, the English BVF is used as the basic entry term of English verb forms. Placing a base verb form in the *Google.dictionary* search slot prompts a drag down list of four main verb forms: -ed form, -ing form, and adjective/ noun forms.
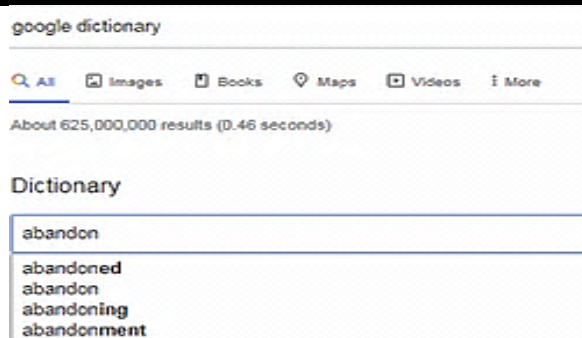
This is viewed as a dashboard for the provision of the grammatical information for the relevant derivations and other forms of the same entry; placing an -ed form, for example, in the search slot summons the full definition of the base verb form with a definition of the –ed as a partial component:
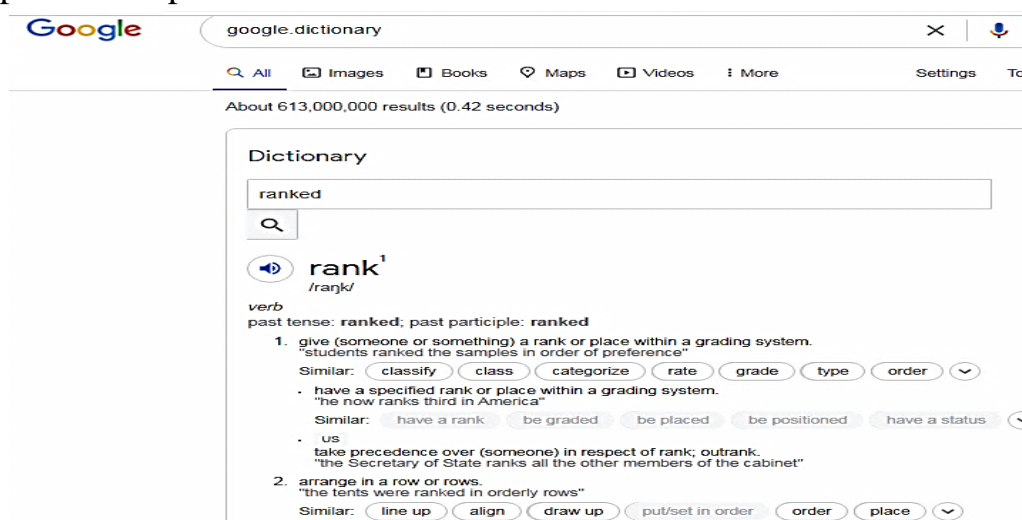
By lexicographic rules of defining (Landau, 2001, pp.173-177; Zgusta, 1971, pp. 313-315), an entry base verb form is defined by an equivalent lexical item. A base verb form in monolingual and ESL dictionaries can accordingly be defined by a to-infinitive form or a bare infinitive one:
Example 1:

Dictionary	Entry BVF	Lexicographic monolingual definition
New Shorter Oxford	**rank** *v.t.*	Arrange (esp. soldiers) in a rank or in ranks; arrange in row or rows, set in lines,… (Citation: Carlyle. They all ranked themselves around me)
Merriam Webster	**hinder** *vt*	*to make* slower or difficult the progress of, hamper…
Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary	**abandon**. verb.	*to leave sb* esp. *sb* you are responsible for
Google. dictionary	**assume**. verb.	take or begin to have power or responsibility. "he assumed full responsibility for all organizational work"

Obviously, time reference of lexicographic definition is fit for all time, i.e., the aspect and time reference of the present tense, as represented in the base form and the infinitive form, indicates all the present, function 1 as set by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 27). Assigning info-types of grammatical information (Bogaards *et al*, 2002) to BVF entry definition involves a context bound aspect and time reference as per the explanatory examples used for the definition. That is, present tense type may vary or get altered as per the time markers of the example used; however, the standard aspect of the BVF is set for a timeless reference: i.e., the infinitive form '*to make* slower or difficult' and the BVF of the defining synonym, *hamper,* in *Merriam Webster*'s definition of *hinder* is **timeless**. The same is true of *take* and *begin* on the *Google. dictionary* and *arrange* in *the Shorter Oxford*; yet, the Example Info type (x) involves an -ed form, *assumed*, and *ranked* and of course a past time reference.

Provision of examples in the senses[2] of entry definition is not the rule in the bilingual dictionaries as much as the case is in the monolingual and ESL:

Example 2

al-Mawrid Modern E/A Dictionary	*Oxford E/A Dictionary of Current Usage*
a·bate [ə bāt]́ (*vt.; i.*) (١) يُلغي ؛ يُبْطِل (٢) يضع حدًّا لـ (٣) يُنقص ؛ يخفِّف ؛ يخفِض [ضريبة إلخ](٤) يُسْقِط ؛ يَحسم (٥) يهدِّئ ؛ يُسَكِّن ؛ يُخْمِد ؛ يَحْسُر (٦) يَحْرِم **x** (٧) يَهْدأ ؛ يَسْكُن ؛ يَخْمُد ؛ ينحسر (٨) يَنْقُص [من حيث المقدار أو القيمة](٩) يصبح لاغيًا.	**abate,** *v.t.* (-ment, *n.*) سَكَّن، هَدَّأ، خَفَّض، خَفَّف، أخْمَد *v.i.* سَكَن، هدأ، إنخفض، خَفَّ، قَتَر، خَمَد his wrath abated سَكَن غيظه، هَدَأت ثورته

Out of the 9 senses assigned by *al-Mawrid* to the entry term, *abate*, only senses 3, 8, and 9 include examples that function as complementary meaning description of the TL equivalent lexical items: a possible object collocate for the entry verb in sense 3,يخفض ضريبة , *to abate a tax value*, and a semantic feature of the lexical meaning in 8, ينقص من حيث المقداراو القيمة, *to decrease in value or quantity*. By comparison, a subject collocate,سكن غيظه , is referred to in *OEAD* definition in only one of the senses corresponding to an idiomatic expression, *his wrath abated*.

Zgusta (1971) acknowledges that reaching out to an exact equivalent part of speech to all entry terms is almost impossible in bilingual

dictionaries: "If there is no categorical equivalence of the parts of speech, the lexicographer has to proceed on the basis of the lexical meaning." Henceforth, lexicographic definition of entry terms including BVF's relies on conveying the lexical meaning and word class (1971, pp. 257 -258, 313). Landau (2001) further asserts that verb use is critically important to language learning dictionaries (i.e. ESL and bilingual), that is why ESL dictionaries devote particular care to the coverage of verbs (p. 176). One major rule he sets for defining verbs is that a transitive verb should be defined transitively, and an intransitive verb, intransitively (p.174). It simply follows that as per the set rules of defining in lexicography, an entry term in bilingual dictionaries has to be defined by means of an equivalent lexical item that is equivalent in terms of lexical meaning, part of speech, verb form, in/transitivity, and aspect and time reference.

Deciding on an Arabic verb form, equivalent to the English BVF, is controversial; particularly in as far as it concerns aspect and time reference. As the examples above show, the English verb form, commonly used for a layout of basic information about the verb, is the original consonant-vowel root cluster of the verb, or the BVF with an indication of a timeless neutral present. An Arabic First Simple Form, 1.S.F صيغة الفعل الماضي, 2.S.F صيغة الفعل المضارع, or a combination of both is used as equivalent(s) to the English BVF in bilingual print and electronic dictionaries (and/or online platforms). Given the status of the print and electronic dictionaries as an authority of language, usually regarded by users as a prime source of linguistic and cultural information, competing equivalent forms to the English BVF in E/A bilingual dictionaries is liable to cause ESL users' linguistic insecurity and confused usage in the subsequent reproductive practices as writing and translation. Therefore, based on a contrastive semantic analysis of E/A BVF and 1.S.F & 2.S.F, this study attempts to reach out to a proper equivalent to the neutrality and timelessness reflected by the English BVF.

Traditional and more recent standard Arabic grammars agree that an Arabic verb consists of two major components: *action,* الحدث and *time,* الزمن (as-Sa:merra:ʔiyy, 2000, V.3, p. 308; Hasan, 1999, V.1, p.46; Hassaan, 2000, p.61; Haron, 1988, V.3, pp. 5- 9). According to

Si:bawayyh, the Arabic verb is traditionally agreed to derive its lexical content, *action*, from *al-masᶜdar*, the verbal noun, which posits the action and adds to it the element of time (Haron, 1988, V.3, pp. 5- 9). Hasan (1999) extensively explains the states of the Arabic1.S.F, فَعَلَ , /faʕala/, and 2.S.F, يفعل /yafʕal/, when accompanied with a lexical and context-bound evidence, القرينة اللفظية والمعنوية /qaari:nah lafððiyyah wa maʕnawiyyah/(V.1, p.46- 47). Four main context-bound cases of aspect and time reference are listed for 1.S.F, حالة الماضي (V.1, pp. 51-57) and other four for the 2.S.F, حالة المضارع (V.1, pp.58- 62). More subdivisions are elaborated for both states by as-Sa:merra:ʔiyy (2000, pp. 308- 333). He holds the same view as Hasan (1999) and Hassaan (2000) that a specific reference to time may not necessarily follow from the mere verb form. Henceforth, he acknowledges the necessity of the lexical and context-bound *qari:nah* in determining the state of aspect and time reference associated to the verb form. Kharma (1983) further asserts this view by as-Sa:merra:ʔiyy:

> Although as-Sa:merra:ʔiyy does not completely agree with Arab grammarians' definition of the verb, he still does not exclude at least a very general reference to time from the verb concept [which he particularly associates to the first use he lists for the 1.S.F, namely, the absolute past الماضي المطلق . In this view he only relies on the study by ʔibn Yaʕi:ʃ]. A more specific reference to time is normally indicated by the verbal context and the context of situation. (Kharma, 1983, p. 32)

Hassaan (2000, p.61) helps clarify a distinction between the standard and general, aspect and time reference of each of the two Arabic verb forms:

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الفعل حدث وزمن

يدل الفعل على اقتران أمرين أحدهما حدث تعبر عنه الحروف الأصلية الثلاثة ويلخصه مصدر هذا الفعل والثاني زمن تدل عليه صيغة الفعل إذ تدل فَعَلَ وماكان من قبيلها على المضى وتدل يَفْعَلُ وشبهها على الحال أو الاستقبال كما تدل عليهما افْعَلْ. وهذا الزمن الذى تدل عليه الصيغة عند الإفراد زمن صرفى لأن الصيغة بمفردها مفهوم صرفى بحت. أما عندما توضع هذه الصيغة فى سياق الجملة فإن هذا الزمن الصرفى يجرى تجاهله وينشأ فى بيئته زمن آخر نحوى لا يتحتم أن يطابقه. أنظر مثلا إلى تغير

</div>

The standard, "pure morphological", aspect and time reference of a verb form, الزمن الصرفي البحث, *is* the time referred to by the vowel-consonant

root cluster of the verb: /faʕala/ indicates a past action, المضي, and /yafʕal/ indicates a present or a future action, الحال والاستقبال. The pure morphological aspect and time reference is turned into a grammatical or context-bound, الزمن النحوي, when a verb form is placed within a context or at least a co-text. The difference between both is shown by means of a table of examples Hassaan provides (2000, p.61); following are three examples extracted thereof with my translation inserted:

Comments		Grammatical time reference		Example translated	المثال	Morphological time reference		Verb form
الملاحظات		الزمن النحوي				زمنها الصرفي		الصيغة
الدعاء طلب شيء لم يحدث A prayer indicates a wish that is to be fulfilled in the future	Future: a prayer and a wish	مستقبل (دعاء)		May Allah bless you	بارك الله فيك	Past action	ماض	بارك
الشرط تعليق أمر على آخر في المستقبل A future action is conditioned by another.	Future action	استقبال		If you visit me, you will be generously welcomed	إن تزرني أكرمك	Present action	حال	يزور
نفي المضارع بـلم يدل على المضي 2.S.F indicates a past action when negated the jussive particle /lam/	Past action	مضي		This didn't happen	لم يحدث هذا	Present action	حال	يحدث

In bilingual E/A dictionaries' definition of English entry BVF's, the Arabic equivalent verb form, whether a 1.S.F or a 2.S.F, is stripped of a direct indication of a context-bound time reference, unless examples are provided for the sense in question. That is, in the majority of cases, with particular reference to the three print and electronic dictionaries under study, the aspect and time reference of the Arabic verb form used in correspondence to the English entry BVF is supposed to be, by Hassaan's (2000, p.61) definition, *pure morphological.* However, this does not exactly apply when verb form definitions are scanned. For example, the entry BVF, *assume*, is defined as follows in the three dictionaries:

Example 3

Google. dictionary	Al-Mawrid	Oxford English Arabic dictionary
Translate assume to Arabic verb 1. افترض 2. تولى 3. قدر 4. اتخذ 5. اعتبر 6. أخذ على عاتقه 7. تولى القيام 8. اغتصب 9. تظاهر	**as·sume** [ə soom] (*vt.*) <to ~ new (١) يأخذ على عاتقه؛ يتولى القيام duties> (٢) يتخذ <The ameba ~s various shapes.> يلبس d~> <her spectacles> (٤) يتحلّ؛ يغتصب <to ~ a right to oneself> <She ~d ignorance.> (٦) يفترض <Let us ~ that you are right.> يتظاهر بـ (٥)>	**assum/e**, *v.t.* (**-ption**, *n.*) I. (adopt, put on, take over) إنتحل، إتّخذ، تولّى

In correspondence to the timeless and all-time present of the English BVF, *assume*, both the *Google.dictionary* and *OEAD* print dictionary (an electronic image only pdf. version), use the 1.S.F with a past time indicated through the standard "pure morphological" aspect and time reference of this Arabic verb form, حالة الماضي, whereas *al-Mawrid* uses a 2.S.F with a standard purely morphological aspect of a present or a future time reference, حالة المضارع. No info-type examples are provided in slots1 or 3. That is, no context-bound time reference is entailed in either slot. Senses 1, 2 and 4 in *al-Mawrid* definition involve a neutral time reference through the tense form of the X Info-type examples used: *to assume new duties, the ameba assumes various shapes*. Senses 3 and 5 entail an equivalent context bound past action: *She assumed her spectacles*, *she assumed ignorance*. The present qualitative analysis further examines in/consistency of equivalent verb forms within the same lexical unit[3] (See 6.3.1 and 6.3.2).

Worth to note is Arabic grammarians are in agreement about the past reference of the 1.S.F (Kharma, 1983, p.33). Hasan (1999) lists four main cases of a context- bound aspect and time reference for the 1.S.F; as-Sa:mera:?iyy (2000) provides more detailed elaborations, that almost revolve within the four cases as set by Hasan (1999): First, indication of an action completed in the past, e.g., خرج الأخوان, *both brothers went out* (p. 51). Second, indication of imperative mood and reference to a present time, e.g., an act concluded as soon as uttered, بعتك سيارتي, (p. 53) *I sell you my car*, equivalent to the English obligatory present. Third, expression of a wish, a prayer, or a promise with an expected

reference to the present or the future, e.g., ساعدك الله , *May Allah help you!* (p. 53). Fourth, indication of a present or a future time depending on the context-bound evidence, القرينة المعنوية, *e.g.* (p.54): (1) "كلما جاء أمة رسولها كذبوه" (Surah 23; verse 44) "Whenever its Messenger came to a nation they cried him lies" (Arberry, 1982, p.346), (2) "كلما نضجت جلودهم بدلناهم جلوداً غيرها" (Surah 4; verse 56), "as often as their skins are wholly burned, we shall give them in exchange other skins" (Arberry,1982, p.80). The *qaarinah* in (1) emphasizes that this is a narrative, a historic past; whereas in (2), expressing an expected admonishment in the hereafter, the 1.S.F definitely refers to a future time.

Accordingly, the 1.S.F in its pure morphological aspectual element refers to a past action. In view of its possible grammatical context-bound reference, its reference to a present or future action is conditioned on the context-bound evidence.

Four main cases of aspect and time reference are ascribed to the 2.S.F (Hasan, 1999); some more detailed 12 points of the 2.S.F aspectual element are elaborated by as-Sa:mera:?iyy (2000, V.3, pp.323-333), where he elaborates the form's context-bound reference to the present and the future, or to them both and provides examples on its being an intermediate point between the past, present and future. Following are the cases as explained by Hasan (1999, V.1, pp.58-61):
- First, reference to an instantaneous present, an action which takes place at the moment of speaking. Presence of co-textual time-indicators (tense markers) as الآن حالاً، *now, instantly* is a precondition to this case
- Second, reference to a future time, in case the 2.S.F indicates:
1. an imperative mood, e.g., "والوالدات يرضعن أولادهن حولين كاملين"(Surah 2; verse 233), "mothers shall suckle their children two years completely" (Arberry,1982, p.33),
2. a promise, threat, or oath, e.g., "يعذب من يشاء ويغفر لمن يشاء" *,* (Surah 5; verse 40), "He chastises whom He will and forgives whom He will" (Arberry,1982, p.106). Divine torture and forgiveness are conferred in the future.
3. the 2.S.F is preceded by the negative subjunctive particle/lan/, *will not*, or the future indicating particles as /as-si:n, sawfa/, *shall, will, e.g.* يرجون "تجارة لن تبور" *,* (Surah 35; verse 29), "they look for an imperishable trade."

- Third, reference to some point in the past in case the 2.S.F is preceded by the negative jussive particles/lamm, lamma:/ and expresses an action that has not been fulfilled; aspect in this case indicates a non-completion of the action within a past-to present time span. Hasan (1999) avoids a clear cut reference to the past time in explaining the aspect of this third use of 1.S.F. He rather uses *al-mudˁiyy* (p.61), e.g., " الله الصمد لم يلد ولم يولد . ولم يكن له كفواً أحد " *"Allah, the Everlasting Eternal, He has not begotten and has not been begotten" (Surah 112, verses 2-3)*
- Fourth, reference to an instantaneous, a habitual present, and/ or a future time so long that the context-bound evidence does not confine it to any of them (p.57).

Actually, this fourth aspectual case of the 2.S.F is the first case on Hasan's list; it is further ascertained by as-Sa:merra:ʔiyy (2000) as he ascribes to the 2.S.F reference to a constantly continued action, الاستمرار التجددي, *e.g.,* "ربي الذي يحيي ويميت" (*Surah 2; verse 258)It is my God who enlivens and makes die;* and a stated fact that is unrestricted by a specific time, i.e., **timeless**, الدلالة على الحقيقة من حيث هي غير مقيدة بزمن (2000, V. 3, p. 332): e.g. "فمنهم من يمشي على بطنه ومنهم من يمشي على رجلين ومنهم من يمشي على أربع (*Surah 24; verse 45),.. and some of them go upon their bellies, and some of them go upon their feet, and some of them go upon four.* (Arberry, 1982, p.358). Arabic grammarians have been driven by this aspectual case to tend to agree on the timelessness of the 2.S.F at the absence of a context-bound *qari:nah;* Kharma (1983) further asserts:
Arabic grammarians seemed to look at the 2.S.F as a fleeting point that separates the past from the future; rather a period or duration. That is why even Sibawayyh first gives the future time as that to which the 2.S.F refers, then adds it can also be used to refer to the present. Ibn Yaʕiish explains at length how delicate the concept of present time is. (p. 34)
Due to the fact that "without a context, the time reference of this form [2.S.F] is vague", Kharma strongly tends to look at it as "timeless or neutral to time"

According to the lexicographic rules of defining verbs, as above set, and the contrastive semantic analysis of the aspectual and time reference

properties of the English BVF and Arabic 1.and 2.S.F's, a number of assumptions, that would serve as premises for the following qualitative analysis of selected samples, can be drawn:

1. Monolingual and ESL lexicographic definition of English BVF's is presented by means of an equivalent BVF, i.e., a bare infinitive, or a to-infinitive; both indicate a timeless and all time present.

2. English/ Arabic bilingual lexicographic provision of Arabic verb forms equivalent to the English BVF's is supposed to follow the same track as that of the monolingual and ESL dictionaries and present a correct equivalent to the SL entry term.

3. Aspect and time reference of the Arabic 1.S.F and 2.S.F is conceived of in terms of two presumed semantic types: (1) standard, "pure morphological" and (2) "grammatical", i.e., context-bound. "Morphological" aspect of the 2.S.F indicates either a present or a future action, or a fleeting point between both. "Grammatical" aspect of the 2.S.F varies according to context-bound time markers and strongly tends towards neutrality and timeless reference when no context-bound evidence restricts it otherwise.

4. A "morphological" aspect corresponds to the bilingual English/Arabic equivalent verb forms when no explanatory examples are provided. A "grammatical" context-bound one is involved, as well, when examples are provided within dictionary senses of bilingual equivalence.

5. In terms of both types, as per the semantic elaborations by Arabic grammarians, it can be safely concluded that the Arabic 2.S.F, in so far as it indicates timelessness and neutrality when stripped of context-bound *qariinah* or when equipped with info-type examples within dictionary senses, is a closer correct and proper equivalent to the English BVF.

In view of user's perspective and a presumed consistency of lexicographic definition, analysis of selected samples below examines the in/consistent and   combined use of the 1.S.F and 2.S.F through the three selected print and online dictionaries.

6. Analysis of Arabic equivalence of entry English BVF

Three main aspects of analysis relevant to defining entry verbs are considered while scanning English BVF's, as selected through a non-probability sampling, from the three bilingual dictionaries (*OEAD*, *al-*

Mawrid, and *Google.dictionary*) under study: consistency of aspect and time reference of the equivalent Arabic verb forms, types of grammatical information (Bogaards *et al*, 2002) used in providing Arabic equivalence, the problematic in/consistency of equivalent Arabic verb forms in entry terms, subentries and embedded examples.

6.1 In/Consistent Aspect and time reference of equivalent Arabic VF's:

A scan of the 60 lexical units of entry verbs in the three dictionaries shows:

1. Common use of 1.S.F in *OEAD* (Example 3); a switch to the 2.S.F is observed in subentries and embedded examples, as elaborated below (See 6.3.2.1 and 6.3.2.2) ;
2. Standard use of 2.S.F in *al-Mawrid*, consistently maintained in all entries (Example 3), senses and subentries (See 6.3.1). Except for irregular verb forms that are cross-referenced to the main English BVF(e.g. **took** [tŏŏk] *past of* take.), no –ed canonical forms are placed as main entries; hence no Arabic equivalent forms are entailed for an –ed main entry;
3. Both forms are combined in response to some English entry terms on the *Google.dictionary* .

The checking frequency of the English BVF's on online dictionaries is relatively higher than online pdf. versions of print dictionaries (whether electronic or image only) due to the robust approach and outer access enhancements. The robust approach to inflected forms automatically conducts the conventional print user's cross-reference to the base forms, previously searched manually, "if an inflected form is entered in the search window, the system strips it of inflections and the canonical form is accessed, e.g., entering *taking* in the search window of *take* immediately directs the user to the headword of the word *take*"(Dziemianko, 2018, p.668).Using advanced matching to arrive at the right spelling is an outer access enhancement that autocorrects a misspelt search headword when entered (Lew, 2012, p.347). In view of a presumed broader orientation and higher search frequency of English

BVF's, the necessity of reaching at a standard Arabic equivalent form is further stressed, in so far as this concerns the online bilingual E/A dictionaries.

Clicking English BVF's via the *Google.dictionary* makes 3 or 4 search options available through a drag-down screen:-s form, -ed form, -ing and noun forms, as illustrated above. Search invariables are observed in the present analysis while scanning the non-random sample 20 entries: i.e., a set link is searched via the same platform:

https://www.google.com/search?q=*Google.dictionary* &rlz=1C1GGRV_enEG753EG754&oq=*Google.dictionary* &aqs=chrome.0.69i59j0l7.9681j0j1&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8

No language chunks are placed in the search bar; no spaces or periods are placed prior/following to the headword BVF; entry BVF's are typed in small letters. Bilingual equivalence via the *Google.dictionary* is presented through a translate-service provider, known as translate-into-language window.

However, in spite of abidance by the search invariables in the present sample analysis, the engine responds differently to search BVF's, showing Arabic1.S.F's, 2.S.F's or intermingles of both. Confusion of aspect and time reference is, thus, observed:(1) A semi-common use of the Arabic 1.S.F in correspondence to English BVF's is at 20% of the searched cases intermingled with a 2.S.F; i.e., 4 cases of the investigated 20 headword verbs are found to have both 1. & 2.S.F's assigned as per the list of bilingual senses provided by the Google translate engine via the *Google.dictionary*; these are *abandon, land, languish, lash* (Example 4). This also shows that Arabic 1.S.F is the engine's response to 80% of the searched English headword BVF's in the present sample.

Example 4

abandon	land	languish	lash
Google google.dictionary	Google google.dictionary	Google google.dictionary	Google google.dictionary
Translate abandon to Arabic	verb	Translate languish to Arabic	verb
verb	1. تبيط	verb	1. جلد
1. تخلّي	2. تخط	1. أضعف	2. جلد بالسوط
2. رخي يهجر	3. صاد	2. وهن	3. تأنّب
3. تنزل عن يهجر يترك	4. هبط على سطح النهر	3. فتر	4. وبّخ
4. قطع عن	5. تؤسس السفينة عند الساحل	4. عني	5. ضرب بقوة
	6. نزل إلى اليابسة	5. تتمركز هنا	6. ربط
	7. وقع	6. هزل	7. ثبّت
	8. تهبط الطائرة وأضرارها	7. نبل	8. تنزل بغزارة

(2) The –s form is consistently assigned an Arabic 2.S.F (Example 5, *assumes*). When the same lemma allows a noun form, the plural noun form, which is also the –s verb form, is assigned an equivalent singular noun form in Arabic, no equivalent verb forms in this case appear, (Example 5, *lashes*):
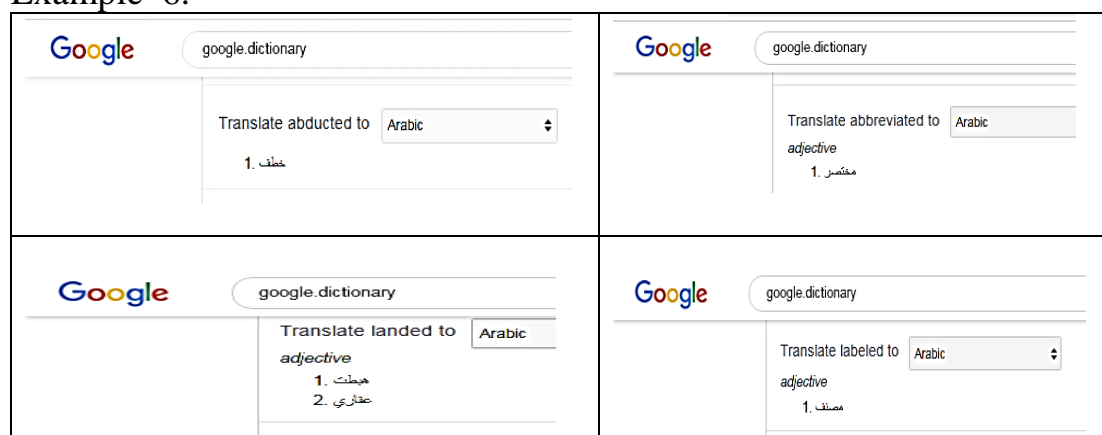
Example 5

Google google.dictionary	Google google.dictionary
Translate assumes to Arabic	Translate lashes to Arabic
1. يفترض	1. جلدة

(3) The -ed form is translated into an Arabic 1.S.F or a past participle form, اسم المفعول:
- 11 -ed headwords within the sample are assigned Arabic 1.S.F's; these are *abated, abdicated, abducted, abated, abetted, abided, abnegated, languished, lashed, lasted, launched, laughed* (Example 6, *abducted*[4]);
- Other 6 -ed form headwords receive Arabic adjective forms; these are *abandoned, abbreviated, abhorred, labeled, lacerated, lagged* (Example 6, *abbreviated; labeled*)[5]. 1 –ed form entry is assigned Arabic 1.S.F and adjective/past participle forms; as in *landed,* (Example 6).
- 1-ed form entry is assigned an Arabic passive form with a feminine bound morpheme, *abolished,* [6]أُلغيت;
- 1-ed form entry is translated through an Arabic 2.S.F with a bound morpheme of feminine subject pronominal reference /taaʔ at-taʔniːθ/: *lacked,* تَفتقر

Example 6.

Google google.dictionary Translate abducted to Arabic خطف 1.	Google google.dictionary Translate abbreviated to Arabic *adjective* مختصر 1.
Google google.dictionary Translate landed to Arabic *adjective* 1. هبطت 2. عقاري	Google google.dictionary Translate labeled to Arabic *adjective* مصنف 1.

Given that aspect and time reference of the BVF and the -s form indicate all the present (Quirk and Greenbaum 1973, p.27; Leech, 2004, pp. 5-18), particularly when context-free, as the case is with the *Google. dictionary* E/A equivalent senses which provide no embedded examples or subentries, and that lexicographic definition is meant for all time, the engine's intermingling of both the 1. and 2.S.F's in response to entry BVF's and provision of the 1.S.F as equivalent forms to the English BVF's and –ed forms, alike, are liable to cause user's confusion in subsequent language passive and/or active usage.

More recent studies in empirical lexicography count on examining users' log files[7], i.e., history of user search keys, to figure out strengths and weaknesses of online lexicography (Dziemianko, 2018, p.677; Muller-Spitzer *et al*, 2018, pp.725-726) e.g., how far lexicographic definition is user helpful in subsequent LI/L2 use practices. The same notion can be applied in a future empirical study on a target group of selected subjects. The target group can be assigned a number of post-*Google.dictionary* search language comprehension and/ or translation tasks in order to examine users' potential need to place the English source BVF in a language string, "a multi-word unit" (via the standalone Google translate service provider) in a way as to resolve aspectual confusion, or to keep a register of the users' non/resort to other platforms or print dictionaries (available in electronic versions) in a post-*Google.dictionary* search language practice. Collected data[8] can then be re-examined to test how far the bilingual E/A equivalence of English BVF's and -ed forms via the Google engine is helpful or confusing.

As the sample scan shows, an overlapping multiplicity of equivalent Arabic verb forms is observed on the *Google.dictionary*, in spite of strict observance of search invariables; both English BVF's and -ed forms are assigned an Arabic 1.S.F in the majority of entries (80% of the total number of BVF entries); both 1.S.F and 2.S.F are sometimes provided together as equivalents to a headword BVF (20% of the cases). The -ed forms themselves do not receive a standard equivalent verb form: 11 sample -ed entries are assigned a 1.S.F; 6 others are provided an adjective/past participle forms; one single case is rendered as both a 1.S.F and an adjective; another -ed form is provided a1.S.F passive voice; the last is assigned an Arabic 2.S.F. Aspectual and time reference properties of the source English BVF's are thus blurred to L1/L2 users.

6.2 Grammatical Info-types

Examination of the sample entry BVF's in *al-Mawrid* shows use of Explicit (E) and Example (X) Info-types, whereby grammatical information about target language use is given in the context of examples: e.g., in a direct simulation of the grammatical information presented in monolingual learner's dictionaries, sense 9 of the entry word, *land* defines one of the senses ascribed to the transitive verb use as: يوصله إلى مكان أو حالة ما ، يجعل الطائرة تهبط في ؛ مكان, literally, *to take someone somewhere* ما;, *to make an air flight get down somewhere* (Info-type E). SL examples, embedded within senses belong to Info-type E; but are not presented with full translation in the equivalent definition (See 6.3.1.1); e.g., sense 3 of the entry BVF, *abide,* embeds *to~ by a friend* , and is defined as يصمد ؛ يبقى مخلصاً . By way of providing possible collocates of subjects/or objects for the entry BVF in question, *al-Mawrid* provides an X info-type equivalence; e.g., senses 2 a and b of the entry, *launch***,** define the transitive meaning of the verb as: ينزل سفينة إلى الماء, literally, *to put a ship down into water; or* يقدم فتاة إلى المجتمع; *to introduce a young lady to the society*. The same entry provides more equivalent definitions along E and X info-types, too (Example 7); similar X info-type equivalent definitions are sighted in *abandon*, sense7; *abate*, senses 2 &3; *lacerate*, sense 1. Similar Explicit info-type instances are sighted in*, abide, label,*

lack, lacerate. Senses of the same entry commonly show intermingles of both Info-types. However, no switches between Arabic verb forms are observed; 2.S.F is the common neutral timeless equivalent abided by in response to all senses of defining equivalence, provided as per E and X info-types.

Example 7

	al-Mawrid
Info-type E	**land** [lănd] *(n.; vt.; i.)* (١) اليابسة (٢) «أ» أرض؛ تُربة [ذات طبيعة خاصة]. «ب» سطح الأرض (٣) بلد؛ منطقة (٤) عالَم؛ دُنيا (٥) شعب بلدٍ ما (٦) *pl.*: ممتلكات إقليمية (٧) عَقار؛ قطعة أرض § (٨) يُنْزِل إلى اليابسة (٩) «أ» يوصله إلى مكان أو حالة ما. «ب» يجعل الطائرة تهبط فى مكان ما
Info-type X	**launch** [lônch; länch] *(vt.; i.; n.)* (١) «أ» يقذف بقوّة. «ب» يُطلق <~ed two rockets>. «ج» يستهلّ؛ يبدأ. «د» يشنّ هجومًا إلخ (٢) «أ» يعوّم؛ يُنزل سفينة إلى الماء. «ب» يقدّم فتاةً إلى المجتمع؛ يأخذ بيد شابّ [فى مستهلّ حياته التجارية أو المهنية]. «ج» يَضَعُ [سياسةً]. «د» يطرح

X info-type instances of embedded examples and their full translation alongside provision of collocates are more prevalent in *OEAD* senses of equivalent entry definition. Senses 1 and 2 of *abandon,* for instance, show X info-type by means of provision of source examples, which also provide for the verb collocates: *abandon oneself to....,* استرسل في (الحزن مثلًا) *abandon ship,* ترك سفينة على وشك الغرق ; Sense 1 of the transitive verb *lack* embeds an X example, *lack judgment,* in response to which it presents intermingle of both the 1.S.F and 2.S.F: جانبه الصواب؛ ينقصه بعد النظر. Each sample entry reflects an X info-type defining style with a prevailing equivalent 1.S.F, that is often intermingled with a 2.S.F.

C, E and X info-types are shown in the monolingual *Google.dictionary* definition of entries soon as the search entry is summoned. Grammatical info-types are not a frequent occurrence via *Google.dictionary* translate-into-language window; E Info-type registers zero instances within the sample entries*;* 7 instances of X type are monitored in *abet, label, lag, land, languish, lash, launch;* mostly instances of object/subject-verb collocates *(as in Example 8; sense 5 of languish is listed as* تفتر همته). The engine common function is to allow equivalent synonyms of English BVF's, shown in a numbered list of equivalent(s) soon as search words are entered. Intermingles of both Arabic VF's are observed in 3 out of the 7 entries: *lash, languish, land.* Subentries and S/TL embedded examples within equivalent senses are not

a common occurrence on the *Google.dictionary* translate-into Arabic window search results.

Example 8
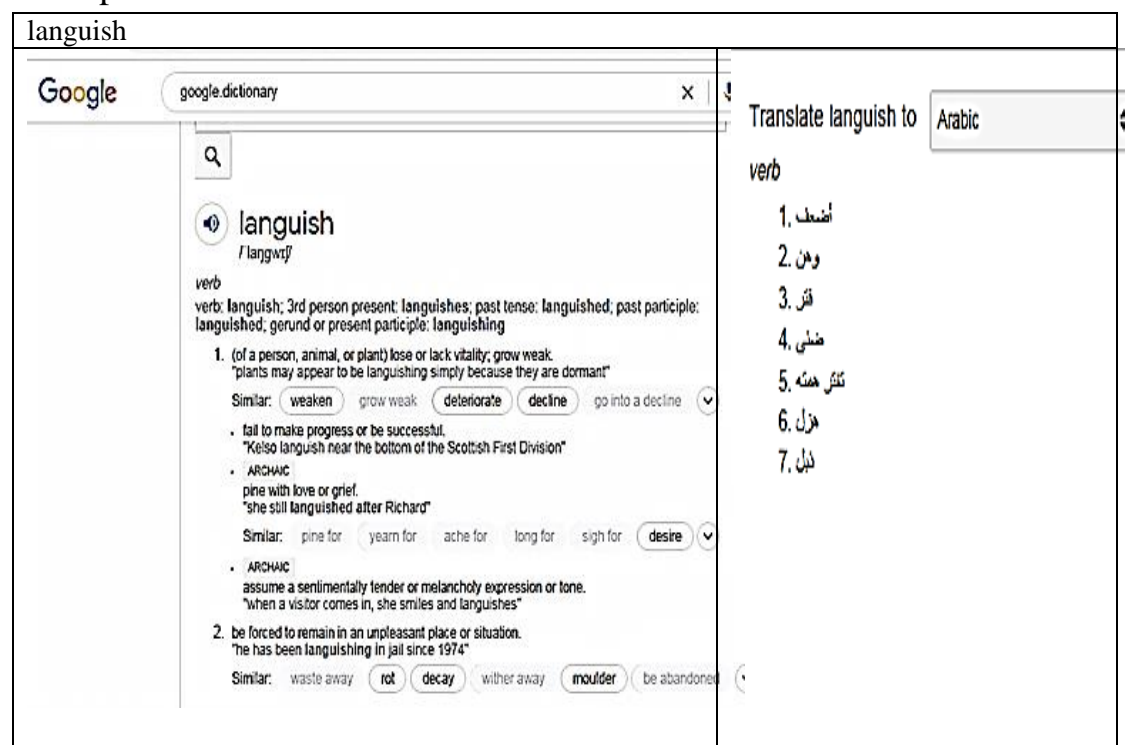
6.3. Equivalent Arabic VF's in subentries and embedded examples

6.3.1 *al-Mawrid*

6.3.1.1. **Use of the to-infinitive in subentries & embedded examples**

Al-Mawrid microstructure maintains a to-infinitive form to list English BVF subentries, specifically phrasal verbs, as in the lexical unit of *laugh* (Example 9).

Some English embedded examples contained as per the E and X Info-types in the meaning description of senses are also provided in the to-infinitive forms as in sense1 of *abandon:*

Example 9

al-Mawrid	
abandon	laugh
a·ban·don [ə bàn dən] *(vt.; n.)* <to ~ a city to a (١) يُسْلِم إلى <conqueror> (٢) يتنازل عن (٣) يهجر؛ يترك (٤) يتخلَّى عن (٥) ينغمس في؛ يسترسل؛ يستسلم لـ (٦) يُقلع عن (٧) يَقطع [الأملَ] (٨) يُوْقِف؛ يُبطِل؛ يُلغي [مباراةً] § (٩) انغماس؛ استرسال؛ استسلام لـ (١٠) تهتُك؛ استثنار (١١) حماسة؛ امتلاء بالحيوية أو المرح <~ cheered with> .	**laugh** [läf; läf] *(vi.; t.; n.)* (١) يضحك x (٢) يعبّر عن كذا ضاحكًا أو بضحكة <ed her consent~> (٣) يجعله كذا [أو يدفعه إلى كذا] من طريق الضحك <eat and drink and ~ himself fat> § (٤) ءأء ضحِك. ءب، ضحكة (٥) ءأء نكتة. ءب، سخرية (٦) *pl.* لهو؛ تسلية <play football just for ~s>. يسخر من، يهزأ بـ. to ~ at يبذد بالضحك مخاوف فلان to ~ away a person's fears or doubts أو شكوكه. يُسكِت بضحكة ساخرة. to ~ down يضحك سرًّا [في حين يظلّ الجِدّ غالبًا على to ~ in one's sleeve أساريره]. يتجنّب الإحراج إلخ أو يتخلّص منه بالضحك. to ~ off to ~ on the wrong side (or on the other side) of one's mouth يستشعر الخيبة بعد الابتهاج والرضا. يعتبره، من طريق السخرية، غير جدير بالنظر أو to ~ out of court الاهتمام.

Aspectual and tense properties of the to-infinitive are almost the same as the English BVF: the aspect and time reference of the present tense as represented in the base form and the infinitive form indicates all the present, function 1 as set by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 27). In this way, no confusion of equivalent forms is caused as the same neutral, timeless Arabic 2.S.F properly applies to both; it is also consistently maintained as equivalent to BVF's and infinitives, alike. As Example 9 shows, a to-infinitive form is used in *abandon* to assist the meaning description of sense 1; *to ~ a city to a conqueror* يسلم إلى ; it is not presented in TL with a full translation; it is rather used to explain the verb use in the SL and TL; how a prepositional phrase (an indirect object of the verb يسلم) is used in Arabic.

By the same token, when an –ed form, –s form or an –ing form are used in the embedded examples, a consistent neutral and timeless Arabic 2.S.F is kept in the equivalent meaning description of all senses, embedded examples and subentries. This is again due to the fact that the examples are not meant, according to *al-Mawrid* equivalent defining system, to be given a full translation; it entails, instead equivalent senses of the Eng.

BVF main and subentries, relying in the E and X Info-types on the SL examples in order to guide users along L1&L2 language use. Thus, though an –ed form is used in sense 2 of *laugh, ~-ed her consent* (Example 9), in sense 5b of *label* (Example 10), *The bottle was~- ed poison,* equivalent Arabic 2.S.F's are provided; respectively, يعبر عن كذا ضاحكاً، يصف أو يميز برقعة. The same holds good to the -s forms and -ing forms; e.g., senses 1&2of *lack* (Example 10), *money was ~-ing; the vote ~-s five of the X being a majority;* respectively يعوز: يعز الشىء فلا تجده، يفتقر إلى

Example 10

al-Mawrid
la·bel [lā´bəl] (n.; vt.), -beled or -belled أ«(١) رُقعة [من ورق أو قماش إلخ] تُثبَّت على شيءٍ ما، لتدلَّ على محتوياته أو مالكِه أو الجهة المُرسَل إليها. «ب» مادة مكتوبة أو مطبوعة تُرفَق بشيءٍ للتعريف أو التوضيح. «ج» نعت؛ لقب. «د» كلمة أو عبارة تُضاف إلى تعريفٍ قاموسيّ [لزيادة الإيضاح] (٢) حلية معمارية فوق باب أو نافذة أو على جوانبهما (٣) طابع [بريدي أو أميري] (٤) الرُّقعة: الاسم التجاري لمصمِّم الألبسة أو صانعها أو بائعها § (٥) «أ» يلصق رقعة على. «ب» يصف أو يميّز برقعة <The bottle was ~ed poison.> (٦) يصنّف شيئاً أو يضعه في زمرة كذا.   lack [lăk] (vi.; t.; n.) (١) يَعُوزَ: يعِزُّ الشيءُ فلا يوجد وأنت محتاجٌ إليه <The vote ~s five of> (٢) يفتقر إلى <Money was ~ing for the plan.> (٣) يَعُوزُهُ؛ ينقصه <to ~ wisdom> x being a majority. § (٤) فقدان؛ عدم وجود؛ احتياج أو افتقار إلى <~ of money> (٥) نَقْص <Skilled labor is the chief ~.>

Similar occurrences of the 2.S.F are monitored within the present sample in headwords of *lacerate, land, and launch*. Thus, a uniform Arabic verb form, namely, the 2.S.F is consistently maintained as an equivalent to the main and sub-entry English BVF's, as well as to the multiple aspectual properties and tense requirements of the embedded explanatory examples; possible user's confusion in future passive and or active L1/L2 reproductive practices is avoided; the dictionary authority as a reliable source of lexical and grammatical information is ensured.

6.3.2. *OEAD*
6.3.2.1. Use of the –ed form in subentries and embedded examples
Both Arabic VF's are intermingled in the subentries of *OEAD*; English BVF's and -ed forms are used as SL subentries. This simply means that both the main entry BVF's and the subentry BVF's and -ed forms are

provided in the majority of cases (as evidenced by the present *OEAD* sample) with an equivalent Arabic 1.S.F; the Arabic 2.S.F occurs as well in response to some subentries. In the following three lexical units of *abate, lash, land,* an -ed form is monitored in the subentries and embedded examples:

Example 11

OEAD		
abate	land	Lash
abate, *v.t.* (-ment, *n.*) سَكَّنَ، هَدَّأَ، خَفَّضَ، خَفَّفَ، أَخْمَدَ *v.i.* سَكَنَ، هدأَ، إنْخَفَضَ، خَفَّ، قَرَّ، خَمَدَ his wrath abated سكَن غيظَه، هَدأت ثورتُه	*v.i.* 1. (*of ship's passenger,* disembark) غادَرَ (الرُّكَّاب)السَّفينة عند رسوِّها 2. (*of aircraft, ball, etc.,* touch ground) هَبَطَت أو حَطَّت (الطائرة)، لَمَست الكرة الأرض 3. (*fig.,* arrive, fetch up); *also,* land up land in trouble جَرَّ على نفسه المتاعب land on one's feet تَملَّص من المأزق، بَلَغَ بِرَّ الأمان، (عنده حَظٌّ) ودائماً يقع واقفاً *v.t.* 1. (bring to land) إصْطَادَ land a catch أخْرَجَ السَّمك إلى البرِّ بعد إصْطِيَاده 2. (strike, place) سَدَّدَ ضَرْبةً he landed him one in the eye (*coll.*:) أَعْطَاه ضرْبَة في عينه، لَكَمه لكمة شديدة land a ball in the next garden أوْقَعَ الكرة في الحديقَة المجاورة أثناء اللعب	**lash,** *v.t.* 1. (fasten with cord) رَبَطَ أو أوْثَقَ بحَبل، أَحْكَمَ الرَّبط بحَبل lash down ثَبَّتَ (الحمولة) بالحِبال lash together رَبَطَ شيئين بحبل رَبْطًا وثيقًا lash up (*coll.*, construct in rough-and-ready fashion) رَكَّبَ جَهازًا مُؤَقَّتًا(للتَّجْرِبة) 2. (beat); *also v.i.* جَلَدَ، سَاطَ، قَرَعَ lash a horse ضَرَبَ الحِصان بالكُرْباج، سَاطَ الحِصان the rain lashed against the window هَطَلَ المَطَر صافِعًا زجاج النَّافذة

In *abate,* both the BVF and the subentry -ed form are assigned an Arabic 1.S.F: سكَّن، هدَّأ، خفَّض, provided in response to the transitive entry verb sense equivalence; similar equivalent 1.S.F synonyms are listed for the intransitive sense; the -ed form in the embedded example of *his wrath abated* is also given an Arabic 1.S.F: سكن غيظه، هدأت ثورته.

Within *land* the second sense of the transitive verb is equipped with an explanatory example, an idiomatic expression; *he landed him one in the face.* Following to a long string of English BVF's listed within this lexical unit as senses of the intransitive and transitive verb use, subentries to each, and embedded examples in each sense as per the *OEAD* common Info-type, an –ed form is seen with an Arabic 1.S.F assigned as equivalent: أعطاه ضربة في عينه، لكمه لكمةً شديدة: exactly similar to the preceding string of BVF's.

The same is true of the *OEAD* main entry, *lash.* Phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions are listed as subentries to the transitive and intransitive verb use, all as English BVF's with an Arabic 1.S.F as equivalent:قرع،ساط،جلد،ركّب، ثبّت، ربط, an Explicit(E) Info-type embedded example which also serves as a phrasal verb, *lash against,* occurs in an -ed form: *the rain lashed against the window*; similar to the preceding main entry and subentry BVF's, an Arabic 1.S.F is provided, too: هطل المطر صافعاً الزجاج. This is to the direct result that the timeless neutral aspect and time reference of the English BVF and a completion of a past action as indicated by the English -ed form are both assigned the same equivalent "morphological" aspect of the Arabic1.S.F, namely, a past action, المضي.

6.3.2.2 Use of 1.S.F and 2.S.F as equivalents to main and subentry BVF's
Combining both equivalent Arabic verb forms within the same bilingual lexical unit is liable to cause linguistic confusion.
Example 12

OEAD	
last	laugh

Sense 2 of the main entry BVF, *last،* a transitive verb use، is rendered, through a pure "morphological" aspect of the Arabic 1.S.F, as كفّى، وفى ; an explanatory example is embedded in sense 2 (an X Info-type), *enough money to last me a week*, to which a complete context-bound translation is provided with a 2.S.F, مايكفيني من المال لمدة اسبوع. The same intermingling of "morphological and grammatical" aspectual properties of equivalent Arabic forms is traced in senses 1 and 3.This defining system of

lexicographic equivalence is different from *al-Mawrid*'s, though relatively shares similar Info-types. Conversely, explanatory examples embedded in the defining system of equivalence in *al-Mawrid* are used to assist the Arabic meaning descriptions as provided; henceforth, no full translations are resorted to and a common neutral timeless Arabic verb form is consistently maintained (See 6.3.1.1)

Though a 1.S.F is used as a common equivalent to the BVF's in *OEAD*, a switch to a 2.S.F as per the context-bound aspect and time reference of the explanatory example or subentry requires, is observed; this is because *OEAD* opts for a full into-Arabic translation of examples. 2.S.F is used in the lexical unit of *laugh* as a direct equivalent to English -s form, *he who laughs last laughs longer*, and *it makes you laugh*. Aspectual properties of the 2.S.F best fit the English –s form, particularly if the given example is an all-time proverb or famous saying. However, linguistic confusion might be caused, as the aspectual properties of the-s form is almost the same as the BVF: namely, a neutral reference to all the present; nonetheless, the dictionary assigns two distinct equivalent Arabic verb forms: ضحك، ضحك ساخرًا منه، ضحك في سره، , then switches to من يضحك أخيراً يضحك كثيراً . It is obvious that *OEAD* uses both the "morphological" and "grammatical" aspect and time reference as equivalents to main and subentry English verbs, what causes an inconsistent use of Arabic verb forms. User's confusion in subsequent active/and or passive reproductive language practices is expected due to a linguistic inconsistency. A violation of the status accorded to dictionaries as authority of linguistic references is violated in consequence.

This conscious lexicographic combining of both the 1.S.F and 2.S.F is ascertained in the preface to the *OEAD*. With respect to the Arabic verb forms equivalent to the English entry infinitives, Doniach (1981, p. ix) holds the assumption that Arabic does not use the infinitive form in the same way as it is used in English.

use of a word like 'idealistic'. As Arabic does not use an infinitive form of the verb in the same way as the infinitive is used in English there is a tendency for English infinitive forms to be rendered by imperfects or perfects of the Arabic verb. Generally the objective has been to write down Arabic which is easy on the eye and makes a direct and meaningful impact on the perception of the Arab reader, conveying as fully as possible the wider semantic implications of the English head-word. To achieve

Obviously, this form-based claim is not founded on a contrastive analysis of the aspectual and time properties of the English and Arabic verb forms. Listed uses of *al-masˤdar asˤ-sˤari:ħ,* the bare infinitive or verb nominalization, e.g. انبعاث , *emission* and *al-masˤdar al-mu?awwal*, ?inna/?anna/?an clauses, e.g., ارجوأن تحسن إلى الضعيف, as elaborated by Arab grammarians prove Doniach's incorrect view about the Arabic use of infinitives. It is further explained that/?inna,?anna/'s infinitive clause can replace any of the main clause elements: subject, predicate, object, genitive head words, noun phrases lying after prepositions (as-Sa:merra:?iyy, 2000,V.٣, pp.147- 162, Hasan,1999, V.1, pp.631- 652; Wright,1996,V.2, pp.78-79; Abdel Maqsoud, 2018, p.16).With Doniach's (1981) presumption about Arabic infinitives in mind, the conclusion that "there is a tendency for English infinitives to be rendered by imperfects or perfects[9] of the Arabic verb" is drawn and the Arabic 1.S.F is dominantly chosen as an Arabic equivalent to the English BVF in *OEAD* (p. ix).

7. Conclusion

The contrastive semantic analysis of English BVF and possible equivalent Arabic verb forms in bilingual lexicographic definition, and sample analysis of 60 entries from the electronic print *OEAD* and *al-Mawrid* and the online *Google.dictionary* reach out to the following premises and conclusions:

1. Monolingual and ESL lexicographic definition of entry English BVF's is presented by means of English BVF, i.e., a bare infinitive, or a to-infinitive; both indicate a timeless and all time present. Desiderata of bilingual, lexicographic defining systems establish adherence to exact lexical, semantic, syntactic equivalents of SL entry words. English/

Arabic bilingual dictionary provision of Arabic verb forms equivalent to the English BVF's is supposed to follow the set rules of bilingual defining equivalence and the same track as the monolingual and ESL dictionaries. Hence, the need for a timeless, neutral Arabic verb form in equivalent entries is necessitated.

2. Semantic analysis of aspectual properties of the Arabic 1.S.F and 2.S.Fascribes a tentative agreement on neutrality and timelessness by Arab grammarians to the 2.S.F. Aspect and time reference of each form is explained through two presumed semantic types: 'pure morphological', general and context-free, and 'grammatical', context-bound. A general past time is associated with the context-free instances of the 1.S.F, and a fleeting point between the present and the future; i.e., timelessness and neutrality, to the context-free 2.S.F.

3. Bilingual lexicographic rules of defining verbs necessitate a 'morphological type' of the aspectual element of the equivalent TL verb form when no explanatory examples are provided. In order to avoid intermingles of both Arabic verb forms in equivalence of entry English BVF's, this general 'pure morphological' type has to be adhered to as a standard form when embedded examples and subentries are presented as per the info-types of grammatical information are applied. In terms of both types, according to the semantic elaborations by Arabic grammarians, it is concluded that the Arabic 2.S.F, in so far as it indicates timelessness and neutrality when stripped of context-bound *qariinah* or when equipped with info-type examples within dictionary senses, is a closer correct and proper equivalent to the English BVF.

4. Sample analysis is carried out on three levels: first, scan of aspect and time reference of Arabic VF's assigned as equivalent verb form to English BVF in the three selected dictionaries; second, tracing Bogaards' info-types in the bilingual definition ascribed by each dictionary to English BVF entries; third, investigation of in/consistency of equivalent Arabic forms in subentries and embedded examples.

5. Neutrality and timelessness of aspect and time reference of the English BVF is consistently maintained in *al-Mawrid* entries, subentries and embedded examples, through an equivalent Arabic 2.S.F. A past time

reference is consistently indicated by *OEAD* target Arabic entries in response to the all-time, neutral aspect of the English BVF's. Switches to the 2.S.F and intermingles of both forms are traced in main /subentries and explanatory examples. In spite of abidance by the search invariables in the sample analysis, an overlapping multiplicity of equivalent Arabic verb forms is observed on the *Google.dictionary*. Both English BVF's and –ed forms are assigned an Arabic 1.S.F in the majority of entries (80% of the total number of BVF entries); both 1.S.F and 2.S.F are sometimes provided together as equivalents to a headword BVF (roughly 20% of the cases). With switches from one equivalent form to another or intermingles of both within the same search entry BVF; user's confusion in subsequent L1/L2 or L2/L1 active and passive practices is expected.

6. Examination of the sample entry BVF's in *al-Mawrid* shows use of Explicit(E) and Example (X) Info-types; the *OEAD* opts for a more prevailing use of X Info-type instances of embedded examples. 7 X instances are spotted on the *Google.dictionary*, intermingles of both Arabic VF's are observed in 3 of them. Full translation of embedded English examples is avoided in *al-Mawrid*; examples are provided to assist TL meaning description in the senses of a given entry term; *OEAD* provides full translation of embedded examples including the context-bound aspect and time reference of the tenses involved. Consequently, consistency of the standard English BVF equivalent Arabic 2.S.F is maintained throughout entries, subentries and embedded examples within *al-Mawrid* defining system; switches and intermingles of Arabic 1.S.F and 2.S.F are monitored in *OEAD* main and subentries as well as embedded examples.

8. Recommendation

The *Google.dictionary* translate-into-language engine is recommended to get trained on an adjustment of equivalent Arabic verb form as per an E/A semantic contrastive study of aspect and time reference properties. This is to avoid intermingles of both 1&2.S.F's and to apply a consistent timeless and neutral common form in response to the English BVF's and –s forms. It is also recommended for E/A bilingual dictionary making to apply a

standard Arabic verb form, advisably the 2.S.F, to English BVF's listed as main entries, subentries and embedded examples and to avoid direct translation of embedded examples in order to spare an inevitable incorporation of target Arabic 1 & 2.S.F's as per the source tense forms involved.

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[1] The electronic version of al-Mawrid that is lent an electronic easy access by letterpaths is the 2008 edition by Munir and Ramzi Ba'albaki. The older edition, first published in 1967, is also available via a free access, but in the form of an image only pdf. file.

[2] Each meaning description ascribed to the entry term (also termed *head word* or *entry word*) is known in lexicography as *sense* and belongs to the microstructure of dictionaries.

[3] A lexical unit in a dictionary refers to an entry and its full definition including phonetic, grammatical information and the set of senses explaining its various meanings.

[4] Following is the list of the Arabic 1.S.F as assigned to the 11 sample entry English – ed forms via the *Google. dictionary* translate-into-Arabic window:

abdicated	abducted	abated	abetted	abided	abnegated	languished	lastled	lashed	launched	laughed
1.تنازل عن العرش	1.خطف	1.خفت	1. حرض	1. التقى	1.تنازل	1. ضعفت	1. استمرت	1.جلد	1.أطلق	1. ضحك

[5] This is the list of the 6 forms as rendered into Arabic by the engine on the *Google. dictionary*:

abandoned	abbreviated	abhorred	labeled	lacerated	lagged
adjective 1. مهجور 2. مهمل 3. منبوذ	adjective 1. مختصر	adjective 1. مكروه	adjective 1. مصنف	adjective 1. ممزق	adjective 1. متخلفة

[6] Implicit third person masculine pronominal reference of verbs is the standard neutral pronominal reference adopted in Arabic monolingual lexicons and grammar books: e.g.,*/saʔala/is* defined as follows in *Lisa:n al-'Arab (authored 711 h.,1311 a.d.;*

published1999 in a third edition.V.6., p.133) : سَأَلَ ۰ سَأَلَ يَسْأَلُ سُؤَالاً وسَآلَةً ومَسْأَلَةً

1st , 2nd person or a 3rd person feminine reference is liable to cause a confusion ofusing aspect and time reference in bilingual lexicographic equivalence when case markers are not provided and a switch from the standard use of the active voice in lexicographic definition to a passive voice form is observed; searching lemmas as *abolished*, *landed*, *lacked* via the *Google.dictionary* shows that an ambiguous pronominal reference is bound to the equivalent forms, as presented : ألغيت، هبطت، تفتقر .When the pronunciation button is clicked, not via the *Google. dictionary*, but through the stand-alone Google Translate Service, a passive past form is recognized with a feminine reference in correspondence to /ulɣiyyat/ ألغيت; an active 1.S.F. with a feminine reference is recognized of /habatˤat/, through the feminine bound morpheme of /at-taaʔ/. Deviation from common standard rules of pronominal reference of Arabic monolingual lexicons can undermine the status of E/A bilingual lexicographic definition as a recognized linguistic reference.

[7] Lexicographers are always in need to know what information satisfies users' needs in the best way possible; log files help them identify such needs. A log file is a written record that contains the information associated with the event (Muller-Spitzer, 2018, pp. 725-726); it is the tool for a digital tracing of the consultation behavior of multiple users. This written record can then be analyzed statistically over a given period of time.

[8] Such kinds of empirical lexicographic projects require a task force of linguists, computational linguists, lexicographers, translation researchers and online dictionary design engineers.

[9] Worth to note is Doniach follows the Arabists' view and analysis of the Arabic verb forms. Wright, an Arabist grammarian, defines the perfect Arabic verb asالماضي and its cases; the imperfects of the Arabic verb are "the imperfect indicative, المضارع المرفوع and the Latin imperfect, كان يفعل" (Wright, 1996, V. 2. pp. 1- 18).

[10] Some Arabic book titles and authors' names in the list of references are typed as copied from the original book title page, so are the names of publishing houses. So, it is in spite of the researcher that the IPA style of Arabic transcription is not commonly applied in the list of references.