Creating a bilingual learner's dictionary of Italian and German collocations: strategies and methods for searching, selecting and representing collocations on the basis of a learner-oriented, semantic-conceptual approach.

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Abstract

Collocations are commonly used expressions which, from the point of view of a narrow conception based primarily on semantic-conceptual and learner-oriented criteria, can be defined as semi-fixed word combinations situated on the continuum between free combinations and idioms. While collocations are seen as an entirely 'normal' phenomenon and intuitively used correctly by native speakers, for second language learners they can be very tricky because they often vary in different languages, especially due to the different 'conceptualisations' used by the speaking communities, that is the different cognitive approaches to actual situations of the extralinguistic reality. A learner of Italian, for instance, needs to know that in this language a drawn number or lot is literally 'fished' (pescare un numero / un biglietto), that if classes in school have been cancelled, the lessons are literally 'jumping' (le lezioni saltano), or that a free phone number is called a 'green number' (numero verde).

As far as Italian linguistics and lexicography is concerned, collocations have only recently become a focus of interest and thus no specific collocational dictionary for L2 learners exists yet. Hence, our aim is to create a bilingual (Italian-German) learner's dictionary of collocations, connecting our lexicographic approach to didactic and semantic research. One of the innovative aspects of our dictionary is that we will insert various drawings made by pupils in order to visualise the conceptualisations of Italian collocations and to facilitate in this way the process of learning and remembering them. The dictionary is mainly aimed at German speakers wanting to learn Italian, but it can also be used the other way round (Italian-German). Its target groups are primarily L1 German and Italian pupils, but it will be equally useful for students, translators and interpreters as well as for German and Italian speakers in general who are learning the other language. The collocations listed in the dictionary will belong to four specific morphosyntactic categories, namely "subject + verb", "verb + direct object", "verb + prepositional phrase" and "noun + adjective or prepositional phrase". In our paper we will illustrate which strategies and methods we use to find and select our data. Moreover, we will show on the basis of which criteria we decide what word combinations are to be classified as collocations and thus to be included in our dictionary. Finally, we will provide the sample entry of the lemma "dente" ('tooth').

1. State of the art and theoretical approach

When producing a (written or spoken) text in a foreign language, L2 learners run the risk of using incorrect lexeme combinations, since learners are tempted to translate them literally from their mother tongue (see Deveci 2004: 17f.). Dictionaries are often the key to solving their doubts and to increasing their language awareness. However, as far as Italian dictionaries are concerned, they do not always seem to be structured effectively in order to provide help in finding the right combinations of words, especially collocations (see Schafroth 2001: 43) – although the latter in particular are of utmost importance for language learners.

Looking at collocations from the point of view of a narrow conception, based primarily on semantic-conceptual and learner-oriented criteria (see, for instance, Hausmann 1979, 1884, 1985, 2004 and Konecny 2010a, b, c, 2011), they can be defined as semi-fixed word combinations which are situated between free combinations such as *mangiare una mela* ('to eat an apple') and idiomatic expressions such as *portare nottole ad Atene* (lit. 'to carry owls to Athens', i.e. 'to carry coals to Newcastle'). Collocations are a common phenomenon that occurs according to the conventions of a certain language community. The meaning of a collocation as a whole is always compositional; that is it must be deducible from the sum of

the meanings of the single components (therefore, at least one element must be used in its literal meaning). While native speakers see collocations as entirely 'normal' and can intuitively form them correctly, learners of a foreign language may find them very difficult. A learner of Italian, for instance, needs to know that in Italian a nail is not hammered in but 'planted' (*piantare un chiodo*), that, if you miss a train, you have to use the verb 'lose' (*perdere il treno*), that a loose tooth 'dances' (*il dente balla*), a rickety chair 'limps' (*la sedia zoppica*), that a person related by marriage has been 'acquired' (*un parente acquisito*) or that a blank tape or CD is called 'virgin' (*una cassetta* or *un CD vergine*). Hence, foreign language learners cannot be expected to know about the correct expressions (especially when they differ significantly from those of their mother tongue) unless they learn them consciously (or if they are not informed at least about the polysemy of specific lexemes, such as *ballare* meaning, for example, 'dance' or 'be loose'). Therefore it is worth learning collocational word combinations as 'prefabricated' learning packages (see Hausmann 1984: 398).

Yet, collocations like the ones mentioned above are not listed as such in most Italian dictionaries.[1] Moreover, to date no 'explicit' Italian collocational dictionary exists, while in other languages such as English we find several specific dictionaries such as Deuter's *Oxford collocations dictionary for students of English* (2002), Hill and Lewis (1999, 2000), and the well-known BBI, first published in 1986 (see also Benson et al. 1990).[2] 2009, however, finally saw the publication of an Italian dictionary which provides expressions that are tricky for L2 learners and sometimes even unknown to or difficult to 'recall' from the mental lexicon for Italian native speakers. This is Urzì's *Dizionario delle combinazioni lessicali* (2009), which has already become one of the most important sources for collocational research in Italian linguistics and lexicography. Yet, it is a monolingual dictionary and thus much more difficult to use for foreign language learners than for native speakers. Besides, it is a dictionary of lexical combinations in general (as also suggested by its title), therefore containing not only collocations, but sometimes also free lexeme combinations such as *andare al bar* ('to go to the bar', see Urzì 2009: s. v. *bar*).

In contrast, our aim is to create a bilingual, learner-oriented dictionary of Italian and German collocations and thus to connect lexicography to knowledge obtained from didactic and semantic research in the past years.[3] This is an innovative approach since no bilingual dictionary of this kind has been published so far. According to the narrow conception mentioned above, a collocation usually consists of a cognitively superordinate lexeme, the so-called 'base', which can be used with one or more subordinate elements called 'collocators' (see Hausmann 1979: 191). For example, the base *dente* ('tooth') can be *otturato* or *piombato* (Germ. *plombiert*, Engl. *filled*), *scalzato* (Germ. *freigelegt*, Engl. *bared*) or *trapanato* (Germ. *aufgebohrt*, Engl. *drilled*). Our dictionary is mainly aimed at German speakers wanting to learn Italian, but it can be used the other way round (Italian-German) as well, because Italian speakers also often have difficulties finding the right collocations in German, see, for example, *lavarsi i denti* (lit. 'to wash one's teeth', i.e. 'to brush one's teeth'), which corresponds to the German expression *sich die Zähne putzen* ('to clean one's teeth'). Thus, while some collocations might have 1:1 equivalents in a foreign language, many of them differ in the various languages, especially because of the different 'conceptualisations' which are used by the numerous speaking communities, that is the different cognitive 'approaches' to actual situations of the extralinguistic reality (see Blumenthal 2006: 79, Siller-Runggaldier 2011: 142). This is why collocations – as it is our intention – should be analysed and represented contrastively and why it is worth providing a bilingual collocational dictionary to German and Italian learners.

2. Adopted strategies and methods and structure of the dictionary entries

Due to the huge amount of collocations existing in Italian (and probably in most other languages) and the time schedule planned for our research, it was necessary to reduce *a priori* the number of the bases we are going to analyse. For this purpose, we decided to begin with the nouns belonging to the 'basic vocabulary' of the *Dizionario di base della lingua italiana* (= DIB 2006) as bases of the collocations. These nouns amount to around 1100, of which about 200 are polyfunctional; that is they can function either as nouns or as other parts of speech and therefore either as bases or collocators (for example *abbagliante*: 1. 'headlight' [noun, potential base], 2. 'bright', 'dazzling', 'glaring' [adjective, potential collocator]).

First, our data will be collected in an HTML database whose contents will then be turned into a book. Initially, the collocations will be collected according to the nominal bases which are listed in alphabetical order, whereas in the dictionary entries themselves the bases and their collocations will be ordered according to the specific settings they belong to; that is they will be put in several thematic groups and sub-groups in order to facilitate language acquisition and the process of memorization for the learners (examples of settings are, among others, 'jobs and working environment' and 'medicine and health'). Moreover, the collocations found will not be given in alphabetic order, but will be listed below the base according to the morpho-syntactic category they belong to. Indeed, our collocations are classified into four morpho-syntactic categories, namely: (1) noun (subject) + verb, (2) verb + noun (direct object), (3) verb + prepositional phrase, (4) noun + adjective or prepositional phrase. Within a single morpho-syntactic category, however, the collocations will be ordered alphabetically according to initial letters of the collocators (see table 1).

On the basis of which criteria do we decide which combinations are to be classified as collocations and hence to be included in our dictionary? The final decision in this regard has to be made for every single example by the team members. We suppose that from the semantic-conceptual point of view there are five main types of collocations (see Konecny 2010a: 597ff., 2010c: 1209, 2011: 296f.): **a)** collocations whose collocator has a very specific meaning (e.g. *digrignare i denti* 'to bare one's teeth'), **b)** collocations whose collocator is polysemous and used in a meaning deviant from its basic meaning, often based on a metaphor (e.g. *il dente balla*, lit. 'the tooth is dancing', i.e. 'the tooth is loose'), **c)** collocations with a semantically vague collocator which can often be considered as stretched verb constructions (e.g. *mettere i denti*, lit. 'to put one's teeth', i.e. 'to cut one's teeth'), **d)** collocations which can be used with only one or only a few specific collocators according to the conventions of the language community, whereas other collocators, which are theoretically possible as well, are excluded (e.g. *levare* [also: *cavare, estirpare, estrarre, strappare, togliere] un dente*, lit. 'to lift a tooth', i.e. 'to pull a tooth', but not: *?tirare un dente*), and **e)** elliptical collocations (e.g. *il rubinetto perde*, lit. 'the tap is losing', i.e. 'the tap is dripping' – in this example the direct object *acqua* 'water' is omitted). If a word combination we have found belongs to one of these five categories and is also didactically relevant, it will be included in our dictionary.

Although our dictionary is dedicated exclusively to collocations, in a few exceptional cases it makes sense to also include other types of word combinations. This is the case, for instance, with a few compounds such as *dente del giudizio* (lit. 'tooth of judgement', i.e. 'wisdom tooth') or *dente a perno* ('pivot tooth'), which from the didactic point of view function much like collocations and hence have to be learned in a similar way, or with semi-idiomatic expressions such as *notte bianca* (lit. 'white night', i.e. 'wakeful night'). Though combinations of this latter type are referred to as 'semi-idioms', they are *not* to be regarded as idioms but as collocations, since at least one part of the combination, that is the base (*notte*), is used in its literal meaning.

The most important question, however, is how the data, respectively the collocations, will be found and selected by our team: How do we find the information we need and which methods can we apply for this purpose? According to Schafroth (2011: 38ff.), there are three main methods of finding collocations: **a)** the introspection of the lexicographers themselves as native speakers (using only this method, however, it is most likely that not all collocations of a given base will be detected), **b)** the analysis of linguistic corpora, and **c)** the consultation of already existing (mono- or bilingual) dictionaries of the language(s) in question (and other languages).

Although the search process, as proposed by Schafroth (2011: 41), should ideally be characterised by a 'pluralism' of methods, for our project we are mainly making use of the methods a) and c). As far as method b) is concerned, its application for our project seems to be less useful than the methods a) and c). The most important reason why the analysis of corpora (= method b) is probably not going to lead to the results needed in our case, is that the narrow, semantic conception of collocations is *not* based on the criterion of frequency. An expression such as *scapolo impenitente* or *incallito* ('confirmed bachelor'), for instance, is definitely a collocation, but will usually not be highly frequent in corpora due to the low frequency of the corresponding situation in the extralinguistic reality. On the other hand, many free lexeme combinations such as *costruire una casa* ('to build a house') may prove highly frequent in the corpora. For the classification of word combinations as collocations their so called 'availability' in the mental lexicon of the speakers (Ital. *disponibilità*) has to be considered as more important than the frequency (see Hausmann 1985: 124, Konecny 2010a: 600f., 2010b: 80, Schafroth 2011: 40, Wotjak 1996: 798).[4] However, for the final phase of our project, we plan to consult the webcorpus PAISÀ (*Platform for Corpus-Assisted Italian Language Learning*, freely available on the Internet), because it is to be considered the largest web corpus of Italian in existence so far and might be a useful source for finding collocations. In addition, we would like to examine texts written by pupils from the South Tyrol (Alto Adige) in order to see what collocations are particularly tricky for them, since they are usually bilingual if not trilingual and therefore often make mistakes because of interference.
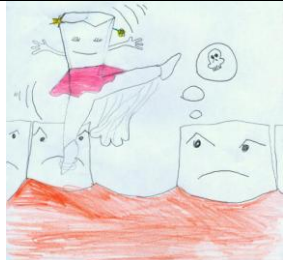
The dictionaries we are making use of for our project of are (to date) **a)** the monolingual Italian dictionaries Battaglia and Barberi Squarotti (1961-2002), DIB (1998), DIC (1998), DOC (2005), GRADIT (2000), Sabatini and Coletti (2007-08), Urzì (2009) and Zingarelli (2002), **b)** the bilingual (Italian-German) dictionaries DIT (2008), Giacoma and Kolb (2011), Langenscheidt (2008) and Macchi (2006), **c)** the bilingual Internet dictionaries Eldit (2002), it.LingoStudy.de and LEO (2008-11), and **d)** the monolingual German dictionaries Duden 2 (2010), Duden 10 (2010), Duden 11 (2008) and Quasthoff (2010).

If we take a look at the entries of the lemma *dente* ('tooth') in some of the monolingual Italian dictionaries listed above, we notice for instance that in Devoto and Oli (2012) as well as in Sabatini and Coletti (2007–08) at least some collocations are mentioned (e.g. *digrignare i denti* and *dente del giudizio*), but these are listed among other word combinations such as proverbs (e.g. *la lingua batte dove il dente duole*) and idioms (e.g. *avere il dente avvelenato con* or *contro qcn.*) and thus not identified as collocations. The most useful dictionary for finding Italian collocations is certainly Urzì (2009), yet even here not all important collocations for L2 learners are mentioned (this is the case, for instance, with the collocation *scalzare un dente*). For this reason, we are also consulting several bilingual dictionaries (Italian-German, both electronic and print dictionaries) as well as a few monolingual German dictionaries which are likely to contain collocations (in this case, obviously, we have to look up the collocations under the entry *Zahn* [= *dente*]). In this way we hope to 'capture' as many scenes as possible that are connected with the entity 'tooth' and for whose linguistic realisation in Italian we use the lexeme *dente*. If we take a look, however, at the entries of *dente* in bilingual dictionaries such as Langenscheidt (2008), we detect several deficits as well: Free combinations such as *il dente fa male* ('the tooth hurts'), for instance, are not

distinguished or listed separately from collocations such as *il dente balla* ('the tooth is loose'). These few examples shall be sufficient to show that in traditional (monolingual and bilingual) Italian dictionaries obviously no clear distinction is made between different categories of lexeme combinations such as free combinations, idioms, proverbs and collocations. Therefore, our intention is to identify and list in our dictionary only those word combinations which must be considered as collocations according to our narrow and learner-oriented conception, allowing however also the entry of a few compounds which have to be learned in a similar way, such as *dente caduco* (or: *da latte*, i.e. 'milk tooth').

The information of each entry within our dictionary will be given in two columns. In this way the learners have the possibility not only to look up the correct expressions, but also to learn them directly from the entries in the book. The following figure shows what our entry of *dente* ('tooth') will look like. As we can see, for each entry the learners can find the correct German translation(s) and – in the case of a metaphorical collocator – also its literal translation. All lemmas sharing the same collocators with the base in question will be referred to by the sign '⇔' (directly after the collocations containing the respective collocators). This is to give more information about the collocators as well as to help improve the learners' L2 competence. In order to visualise the examples and facilitate the process of learning, remembering and recalling collocations we will also provide various pictures drawn by pupils. The main reason for this is that our target groups are primarily L1 German and Italian pupils who are learning the other language. However, because collocations are such a complex topic, adults will also need our dictionary. It can for instance be particularly useful for students of the two languages but also for translators and interpreters as well as for people in general who would like to improve their language skills.

Table 1. Entry of *dente*.

il DENTE (m.)	der ZAHN (m.)
Typ 1: Substantiv (Subjekt) + Verb	
■ **il dente balla** (auch: **dondola, traballa, si muove**, [selten]: tentenna) ; **a qcn. balla, dondola un dente** / **il dente traballante** (auch: **che balla, che dondola a qcn., che si muove**) *Mi balla un dente.* *il dente balla*	■ **der Zahn wackelt** (auch: **ist locker**) (wörtl.: „tanzt"); **jmdm. wackelt ein Zahn** / **der wackelnde, lockere Zahn** *Mir wackelt ein Zahn.*
■ **il dente si caria** / **il dente cariato** *Un dente ben curato non si caria spesso.*	■ **der Zahn fault** (auch: **wird faul, kariös**) / **der faule, kariöse Zahn** *Ein gut gepflegter Zahn wird meist nicht faul.*
■ **un dente spunta, sta spuntando** (**a qcn.**) (auch: **nasce, sta nascendo** [**a qcn.**], **compare**) *Quando spuntano normalmente i primi denti?*	■ (**jmdm.**) **kommt ein Zahn, ein Zahn bricht durch** (wörtl. [in etwa]: „die Zahnspitze [*la punta*] taucht auf"; nascere = wörtl.: entstehen; comparire = wörtl.: erscheinen) *Wann kommen normalerweise die ersten Zähne?*
■ (**a qcn.**) **cade un dente** *Oggi mentre ero nella mensa della scuola mi è caduto un dente da latte.*	■ (**jmdm.**) **fällt ein Zahn aus** *Als ich heute in der Schulkantine war, ist mir ein Milchzahn ausgefallen.*
■ (**a qcn.**) **si rompe un dente** *Due mesi fa mi si era rotto un dente otturato da ormai chissà quanti anni fa. Nel tentativo di rifare l'otturazione il dentista ha notato che sotto c'era una nuova carie.*	■ (**jmdm.**) **bricht ein Zahn ab** *Vor zwei Monaten war mir ein Zahn abgebrochen, der schon seit wer weiß wie vielen Jahren plombiert war. Beim Versuch, ihn nochmals zu plombieren, hat der Zahnarzt bemerkt, dass sich darunter eine neue Karies gebildet hatte.*
Typ 2: Verb + Substantiv (direktes Objekt)	
■ **battere i denti** (z.B. **dal freddo**) ⇔ **MANO** (vgl. battere le mani) *Quando abbiamo freddo o proviamo paura battiamo i denti.*	■ **mit den Zähnen klappern** (auch: **jmdm. klappern die Zähne**) (z.B. **vor Kälte**) (wörtl.: „schlagen") *Wenn uns kalt ist oder wir Angst verspüren, klappern wir mit den Zähnen.*
■ **devitalizzare un dente** / **un dente devitalizzato** *Perché spesso bisogna devitalizzare un dente cariato?*	■ **einen Zahn abtöten** (auch [*nur med.*]: **devitalisieren**) / **ein abgetöteter Zahn** *Warum muss man einen faulen Zahn oftmals abtöten?*
■ **digrignare i denti** (auch: **arrotare i denti**)	■ **die Zähne fletschen** (auch übertragen im Sinne von ‚sich auf eine Auseinandersetzung vorbereiten'); auch [*andere Bedeutung*]: **mit den**

Italiano	Deutsch
È sempre meglio non avvicinarsi a un cane che digrigna i denti.	Zähnen knirschen *Es ist immer besser, sich keinem Hund zu nähern, der die Zähne fletscht.*
Il fenomeno del digrignare i denti nel sonno è piuttosto frequente ai nostri giorni ed è senz'altro in relazione con lo stress quotidiano cui siamo sottoposti.	*Das Phänomen des Zähneknirschens im Schlaf ist heutzutage relativ weit verbreitet und hängt zweifellos mit dem Stress zusammen, dem wir täglich ausgesetzt sind.*
■ **(farsi) fare la pulizia dei/ai denti** *Almeno una volta all'anno si deve andare a farsi fare la pulizia dei denti.*	■ **(sich) die Zähne polieren (lassen)** *Man sollte sich mindestens einmal im Jahr die Zähne polieren lassen.*
■ **incapsulare un dente / un dente incapsulato** *Perché un dente possa essere incapsulato, occorre che sia limato, cioè ridotto di volume tanto da creare lo spazio necessario alla capsula.*	■ **einen Zahn überkronen** (wörtl.: „einkapseln") / **ein überkronter Zahn** *Um einen Zahn überkronen zu können, muss er vorher abgefeilt, das heißt kleiner gemacht werden, sodass der nötige Platz für die Krone geschaffen wird.*
■ **lavarsi** (auch: **lavare**) **i denti** *Una delle regole più preziose per avere denti splendenti, è lavare i denti dopo ogni pasto.*	■ **(sich) die Zähne putzen** (wörtl.: „[sich] waschen") *Eine der wertvollsten Regeln, um glänzende Zähne zu haben, besteht darin, die Zähne nach jeder Mahlzeit zu putzen.*
■ **levare** (auch: **cavare**, **estirpare**, **estrarre**, **strappare**, **togliere**) **un dente** *Oggi il dentista mi ha levato un dente.*	■ **einen Zahn ziehen** (auch: **entfernen**; [*ugs.*:] **ausreißen**) (wörtl.: „[hoch]heben") *Heute hat mir der Zahnarzt einen Zahn gezogen.*
■ **mettere i denti** *Le mie figlie hanno messo i denti tardissimo.*	■ **Zähne bekommen** (auch: **zahnen**) (wörtl.: „die Zähne setzen/legen/stellen") *Meine Töchter haben erst sehr spät ihre Zähne bekommen.*
■ **mostrare i denti** (**a qcn.**) *Il mio cane non vuole mai uscire di casa. Oggi mi ha persino mostrato i denti.*	■ **die Zähne blecken** / **(jmdm.) die Zähne zeigen** *Mein Hund möchte nie aus dem Haus gehen. Heute hat er mir sogar die Zähne gezeigt.*
■ **otturare** (auch: **piombare**) **un dente / un dente otturato** (auch: **piombato**) *Mi fa male un dente piombato.*	■ **einen Zahn plombieren** (auch [*seltener*]: **füllen**, **mit einer Füllung versehen**) (wörtl.: „füllen", „abdichten") / **ein plombierter Zahn** *Ein plombierter Zahn tut mir weh.*
■ **non avere denti buoni** (auch: **avere dei denti messi male**) *I tuoi denti sono messi male? Non li hai curati?*	■ **schlechte / keine guten Zähne haben** *Hast du schlechte Zähne? Hast du sie nicht gepflegt?*
■ **piantare i denti** (**nella mano a/di qcn.**) ⇨ **CHIODO** (vgl. piantare un chiodo) *Ho voglia di piantare i denti in un bombolone.*	■ **(jmdm.)** (z.B. **in die Hand**) **beißen** (wörtl.: „jmdm. die Zähne in die Hand „[ein]pflanzen") *Ich habe Lust, in einen Krapfen zu beißen.*
■ **rompere un dente** (**a qcn.**) **rompersi un dente** *Nella commedia "Il Dio del massacro" i figli undicenni di due famiglie hanno uno scontro durante il quale l'uno rompe i denti dell'altro.*	■ **(jmdm.) einen Zahn ausschlagen** (im Pl. auch: [jmdm.] **die Zähne einschlagen**) **sich einen Zahn ausschlagen** (auch: **abbrechen**, **ausbrechen**; [*kontextabhängig*:] **ausbeißen**) *In der Komödie „Der Gott des Gemetzels" haben die elfjährigen Söhne zweier Familien eine Auseinandersetzung, bei der einer dem anderen die Zähne einschlägt.*
■ **sbiancare i denti** *Esistono delle apposite strisce per sbiancare i denti.*	■ **die Zähne bleichen** (auch: **bleachen**) (wörtl.: „weiß machen") *Zum Bleichen der Zähne gibt es spezielle Bleaching-Streifen.*
■ **scalzare un dente / un dente scalzato** *Ho paura che il dentista mi voglia scalzare un dente.*	■ **eine Zahnwurzel freilegen** (wörtl. [in etwa]: „einem Zahn die Schuhe und die Strümpfe ausziehen") / **eine freigelegte Zahnwurzel** *Ich habe Angst, dass mir der Zahnarzt eine Zahnwurzel freilegen möchte.*
■ **stringere** (auch: **serrare**) **i denti / (a) denti stretti** (auch: **serrati**) ⇨ **PUGNO** (vgl. stringere il pugno / i pugni) *Ricordo mia nonna, che stringeva i denti dal dolore per la sua artrosi.*	■ **die Zähne zusammenbeißen** (wörtl.: „[zu]drücken", serrare = wörtl.: „schließen") / **(mit) zusammengebissene(n) Zähnen** (sowohl konkret als auch übertragen im Sinne von ‚ein Höchstmaß an Selbstbeherrschung aufbieten, um etw. Unangenehmes / Schmerzhaftes ertragen zu können') *Ich erinnere mich an meine Großmutter, die wegen ihrer Arthrose immer die Zähne vor Schmerz zusammenbiss.*
■ **trapanare un dente** *Non sempre per trapanare un dente si effettua anestesia.*	■ **an einem Zahn bohren** *Um an einem Zahn zu bohren, muss nicht immer eine Narkose gegeben werden.*

Typ 3: Verb + Präpositionalphrase

Italiano	Deutsch
■ [*ugs.*] **mettere (qcs.) sotto i denti** *Se non metto sempre qualcosa sotto i denti divento pazzo.*	■ [*ugs.*] **(sich) (etw.) zwischen die Zähne schieben** (wörtl.: „setzen/legen/ stellen") (auch übertragen im Sinne von ‚etwas essen') *Wenn ich mir nicht ständig etwas zwischen die Zähne schiebe, werde ich verrückt.*

Typ 4: Substantiv + Adjektiv oder Präpositionalphrase

Italiano	Deutsch
■ **il dente aguzzo** (auch: **affilato**) VS. **il dente ottuso** *Abbiamo potuto osservare le ossa di dinosauri con i denti aguzzi.*	■ **der scharfe Zahn** VS. **der stumpfe Zahn** *Wir konnten Dinosauierskelette mit scharfen Zähnen anschauen.*
■ **(avere) (i) denti bianchi** **(avere) (i) denti ingialliti** (auch: **gialli**) **il dente (bianco) smagliante** *Vi sono alcuni rimedi naturali per ottenere dei denti bianchi, lucidi e smaglianti.*	■ **weiße Zähne (haben)** **gelbe Zähne (haben)** **der strahlende / strahlend weiße Zahn** *Es gibt einige Naturheilmittel um weiße, glänzende und strahlende Zähne zu bekommen.*
■ **il dente caduco / da latte** VS. **i denti permanenti** **il dente incisivo** VS. **il dente canino** VS. **il dente premolare** VS. **il dente molare** VS. **il dente del giudizio** *I denti da latte compaiono per primi.*	■ **der Milchzahn** (caduco = wörtl.: „hinfällig", „vergänglich", vgl. cadere = fallen) VS. **die bleibenden** (auch: **zweiten**) **Zähne** **der Schneidezahn** VS. **der Eckzahn** (wörtl.: „der Hundezahn") VS. **der (vordere) Backenzahn** (wörtl.: „der vordere Schleifzahn") VS. **der (hintere) Backenzahn** (wörtl.: „der Schleifzahn") VS. **der Weisheitszahn** (wörtl.: „der Zahn des Urteils") *Die Milchzähne kommen als erste.*

il dente canino   *il dente del giudizio*

■ **(avere) i denti dritti** VS. **(avere) i denti storti**
(avere) i denti (**ben**) **allineati** (auch: **regolari**) VS. (avere) **i denti non allineati** (auch: **irregolari**)
(avere) i denti accavallati

Raddrizzare i denti storti è fondamentale per l'aspetto.

■ **il dente finto** (auch: **artificiale**; [*ugs.*:] **posticcio**)
il dente a perno
(avere) la dentiera
Mio nonno ha quasi tutti i denti finti.

■ **(avere) i denti sporgenti**
(auch [*selten*, *pej.*]: [**avere**] **i denti cavallini**)
Avevo i denti sporgenti a causa del pollicione.

■ **gerade Zähne** (**haben**) VS. **schiefe Zähne** (**haben**)
regelmäßige Zähne VS. **unregelmäßige Zähne** (**haben**) (vgl. linea = Linie, Reihe)
übereinander liegende Zähne (**haben**) (wörtl.: „verpferderte Zähne", „pferdeartige Zähne") (vgl. cavallo [Pferd])
Schiefe Zähne zu begradigen ist wesentlich für das Aussehen.

■ **der falsche / künstliche Zahn**
der Stiftzahn
(**die**) **dritte(n) Zähne** (**haben**) (auch: ein künstliches Gebiss haben)
Mein Großvater hat fast nur künstliche Zähne.

■ **vorstehende Zähne (haben)**
(auch [*selten*, *stark pej.*]: ein Pferdegebiss [haben])
Ich hatte vorstehende Zähne, weil ich am Daumen gelutscht habe.

3. Conclusion

As has been demonstrated in the previous chapters, collocations are commonly found expressions which are used in everyday life and are therefore very important for language learners. If they are not learned explicitly by L2 learners, they can often be a treacherous 'trap' for them, because in many cases the same extralinguistic referent or the same concept is lexicalised in a different way in various languages, reason why L2 learners are often tempted to translate a collocation literally from their mother tongue. Therefore, the task of lexicography and language didactics consists in identifying interlingual divergencies, especially those that can be explained by different conceptualisations of the extralinguistic reality.

We would like to point out that in the geographic area around the University of Innsbruck, namely in the Tyrol, the comparison of Italian and German collocations and the availability of a specialised dictionary like ours is of particular interest, especially in the Italian South Tyrol (Alto Adige), but also in the Austrian North and East Tyrol, where often knowledge of both languages is required and many people need both languages every day, but nevertheless frequently have difficulties in using the correct collocations. Therefore, since 2010 we have been collaborating with several Tyrolean schools (both elementary and secondary schools), in order to make teachers and pupils aware of the importance of collocations and help them begin to reflect upon differences between Italian and German (as well as between these two and other languages).

The nouns belonging to the basic vocabulary of the DIB (2006) have already been identified and counted by our team. We are now analysing the combinatorial potential of the noun bases using several dictionaries and our own introspection as native Italian and German speakers. We are planning to add the sample sentences for each collocation beginning from April 2012 and to then export all data to the database. The publication of the book is planned for the beginning of 2013. Starting in the summer of 2012 further information about our project will be available also on the website www.kollokation.at.

Notes

[1] However, we can find at least some collocations in the dictionaries of Conte and Boss (1993, 1989) and Giacoma and Kolb (2001) as well as in the collections of various fixed expressions compiled by Frenzel and Ross (1974), Geninasca (1988), Lapucci (1990), Leghissa and Griesheim (1971), Lurati (2001), Quartu (1993), Radicchi (1985), Reichert (2006), Sellner (2001), Sorge (2001), Turrini et al. (1995), and Zardo (2001).

[2] As far as French is concerned, see for example Beauchesne (2001), Gonzáles Rodríguez (2004), Grobelak (1990), Ilgenfritz et al. (1989) and Zinglé and Brobeck-Zinglé (2003). For Spanish see, for instance, Redes (2004).

[3] This work is being done within a research project that has been in progress at the University of Innsbruck since 2010 and is financially supported by the Italian autonomous province of Bolzano-South Tyrol (Autonome Provinz Bozen-Südtirol, Abteilung Bildungsförderung, Universität und Forschung) and the Scientific Fund of the Austrian province of the Tyrol (Tiroler Wissenschaftsfonds TWF). The members of the project team are Christine Konecny (project manager), Erica Autelli and Martina Bradl-Albrich. The database is created and supervised by Niko Hofinger.

[4] As far as other, already existing corpora of the Italian language are concerned, their analysis does not seem to be particularly meaningful for our aims: The well-known LIZ-corpus (*Letteratura italiana Zanichelli*, 2001), for example, although it is a very large corpus which is certainly useful for many purposes, is exclusively a literary corpus which contains texts written by Italian authors up to Gabriele D'Annunzio, namely up to the 1950's. This means that the language used is old-fashioned and the corpus is therefore not very relevant for contemporary every day speech. The BADIP (2003-10) and the *Corpus di italiano parlato* edited by Cresti (2000), on the other hand, are corpora of spoken Italian which are not very large comparatively and therefore do not seem to contain a lot of collocations (see Schafroth 2011: 38). Finally, corpora such as newspapers or those concerned with jargons would be too specific for our learner-oriented dictionary.

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