

を手掛けられただけでなく、常に言語学・辞書学などの進展を視野に入れて、編集の新しい方向を切り開いてこられた。日英辞書 *The Kenkyusha Japanese-English Learner's Dictionary* (Merriam-Webster 版も出ている)でも先進性を示された。

研究会のメンバーが中心になって行なった英語辞書の分析の第1号は「*The Penguin English Dictionary*の分析」『電気通信大学学報』No. 24 (1968)であり、第2号は「*Webster's New World Dictionary*の分析(その1)——応用言語学的見地より——」『電気通信大学学報』No. 26 (1969)であって、こちらでは岩崎民平先生が総論的な概観をしておられる。爾来4半世紀余りの間に、比較分析のために取り上げた辞書や改訂版は、23, 4冊に上るであろう。これらの主要な批評は、『英語辞書の比較と分析』第1~4集に収められている。辞書学分野での理論と実践の両面に留意しながら、辞書作成の実地経験を持つ者たちが最新の学問的成果を踏まえて、組織的に精密な調査・検討をして評価する試みとみなせるであろうが、各集の「まえがき」からも分かるように、欧米に先駆けた、こうした辞書研究をリードしてこられたのも竹林教授である。辞書の年の「四大辞典」の分析を献呈しようということになったのも、まことに自然なことというほかない。本号ではとりあえずCIDEとOALDの分析を掲載する。

ところで辞書批評そのものの在り方について、改めて総合的な検討をしてよい時期に来ているように思われる(中尾啓介「辞書の調査・分析——その意義と問題点——」*Lexicon* No. 1 (1972)参照)。上述の分析は専ら英英辞書を対象にしているが、1昨年から2言語辞書としての英和辞書の発達を跡付ける検証が竹林教授の御指導を受けて始まった。これは当然考えられてよい分析範囲の拡大である。辞書は多種類の構成要素から成る。こうした各成分について、辞書間の共時的・通時的な比較検討も行なわれるべきであろう。学習の場などでの使用を通して辞書の実用性を検証する実践批評もあろう。また辞書批評のタイプと規準を論じ、歴史的に考察する必要もある。故小川繁司さんが6年間続けられた各年度刊行辞書一覧のような的確な辞書紹介が継続されることが望まれる。これまでに現れた辞書論とか影響力を持った主要辞書の書評をまとめてみる、いろいろな辞書年表とか用語集を作成する、などの仕事も残っている。

竹林さんは一時入院されたことがあったが、その後数年間にいくつもの辞書の仕事をこなされながら、音声学の大部な書物を書き上げられ、今秋出版が予定されている。余人の及ばないところである。今後もますます御健勝で、大きな活躍をされると共に、私たち後進を導いて下さる様に願ってやまない。

An Analysis of *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*

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1. Introduction

Making EFL dictionaries seems to be a lucrative business for British publishers. In the EFL dictionary market the year 1995 saw the arrival of three revised editions and of two new publications: the fifth edition of *OALD*, the third of *LDCE*, the second of *COBUILD*, and entirely new books from Harrap and Cambridge. Unlike other publishers mentioned above, Cambridge University Press is a newcomer to the EFL dictionary. In contrast with OUP, language dictionary making has not been a major field for the Cambridge University Press. As is remarked in the Foreword to the dictionary, "Strangely, Cambridge has never published mainstream monolingual dictionaries before, . . ." and it is worth noting that the fresh and first trial in this field is an EFL dictionary.

Of about the same size as the other competitors, this dictionary has 1701 pages from A to Z. The list provided by the Editorial Team and Consultants (iii) contains some divisions which are quite new to general readers, e.g. False Friends, Language Research, Language Portraits, Learner Cor-

pus. A list of English Language Teaching Consultants (including two Japanese professors) and Academic Consultants / a list of Subject Advisers / Foreword by P. Procter, Editor-in-Chief / guide pages (ix–xi) / the chart showing the structure of The Cambridge Language Survey / Grammar (xiii–xviii): these make the front matter. The back matter consists of a Defining Vocabulary (six pages) / The Phrase Index (64 pages) / two pages of Pictures, Language portraits and lists of False Friends / and one page of Phonetic symbols.

Five aspects of the dictionary — entries, pronunciation, definition, grammatical information, illustrative examples — are critically examined from the perspective of foreign learners/teachers of English. In principle, we follow the reviewing method carried out on the first and second editions of *LDCE* (cf. *Lexicon* Nos. 18 & 19) or on *COD*⁸ (cf. *IJL* Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 129–160), and several EFL dictionaries will be compared and discussed in the following chapters, as it is impossible to review and give reasonable assessments of the dictionary without attention being paid to its competing works.

2. Main Entries, Subentries, and the Phrase Index

2.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with entries, subentries, and the Phrase Index of *CIDE*. Before going into the analysis, a few words of caution are in order.

First, through this chapter we will emphasize the “qualitative” aspects of the dictionary (e.g., the policy of the dictionary about the treatment of entries, idioms, etc.; the way the dictionary presents entries, idioms, etc.; etc.), rather than the “quantitative” aspects (i.e. the numbers of entries, subentries, etc.). These “qualitative” aspects roughly correspond to what Malkiel (1967) calls “perspective” and “presentation” aspects of the dictionary. The “quantitative” aspects — “range” aspects in Malkiel’s terminology — will be looked at only in passing.

Secondly, we will take a comparative approach in this chapter. Most of the discussion in this chapter will be based on the comparison of *CIDE* with *OALD*⁵ (1995), *LDCE*³ (1995), *COBUILD*² (1995), and *PESD* (1991), all of which are monolingual learners’ dictionaries published in the

1990’s. We believe that such an approach will surely throw *CIDE*’s main characteristics into relief.

Thirdly, we have to establish a rigid set of terms before we set to work. The term “entry” in lexicography has caused problems in the past because of its semantic ambiguity. In order to avoid unnecessary confusion, we basically follow the terminology of Hausmann & Wiegand (1989). In the case of *CIDE*, the terms headword,¹⁾ sub-headword, main entry, and subentry are used as follows:

headword, meaning the item²⁾ in boldface which protrudes from the left margin by one em-letter (lower case) length, sometimes accompanied by **GUIDE WORD**. Headwords belong to the (initial-) alphabetic access structure of the dictionary in Hausmann & Wiegand (1989). They are located at the interface between the macrostructure and the microstructure of the dictionary.

Sub-headword, meaning the item in bold which starts from the left margin. Items with some sort of derivational relations with the headword are treated as sub-headwords in *CIDE*.

Main entry, meaning the whole “dictionary article” under one headword.

Subentry, meaning the whole “dictionary article” under one sub-headword.

Finally, in the analysis of *CIDE*, we have to be fully aware of the interdependent relations between entries, subentries, the Phrase Index, and other aspects of *CIDE* such as definitions using **GUIDE WORDS**, Language Portraits, examples, etc. So, we should bear in mind in advance that some overlapping with other chapters is unavoidable.

2.2. Main Entries

First, we shall consider the “quantitative” aspects of *CIDE*’s main entries.³⁾ *CIDE*’s back cover says: “100,000 words and phrases arranged al-

1) The term *headword* is used in the present analysis, but there are some who prefer the term *lemma*. For example, see Nielsen (1984) for the argument against the former.

2) This “item” here includes both supra-lexical units usually known as multi-word lexemes and infra-lexical units like combining forms and affixes.

3) As Kojima (1984: 122) observes, so far as learners’ dictionaries are concerned, “quantitative” aspects like the number of entries are not so important as “qualitative”

phabetically under 50,000 headwords” and “[a] Phrase Index alphabetically lists each word of 30,000 phrases and idioms . . .”. But are these statements correct?

According to my estimate based on the sampling of 4.12% of *CIDE* (10,804 lines), *CIDE* has about 26,000 main entries and 17,000 subentries. This suggests that the numbers given on the back cover are too large. It is highly probable that “headwords” on the back cover include all items shown in boldface print (i.e. spelling variants and irregular inflected forms as well as headwords and sub-headwords).¹⁾

Next, we shall turn to the “qualitative” aspects of *CIDE*’s main entries. What seems to be the most peculiar feature of the main entries of this dictionary is that headwords are all monosemous. And this “one entry, one core meaning” policy makes this dictionary full of homonyms.

Actually, the distinction between polysemy and homonymy is one of the fundamental problems in lexicography as well as in general linguistics.²⁾ As pointed out by many linguists, these two notions are partially complementary; the more homonyms in a dictionary, the less polysemy of each headword, and vice versa. In the tradition of lexicography, normally lexicographers have been “well advised to steer a reasonable middle course” (Zgusta 1977: 78). However, it is an interesting fact that the year 1995 saw the publication of two monolingual learners’ dictionaries published on the basis of the “extremist” policies which are totally contrary. They are *COBUILD*² and *CIDE*.

The first dictionary, *COBUILD*², is an example of maximized polysemy in main entries.³⁾ The selection and the arrangement of the headwords are based solely on the forms of the items, i.e. their spellings. It does not make any distinction between homographs and homonyms, and items with dif-

aspects of the dictionary. As to the general problems related to the number of entries, see Landau (1984).

1) Landau (1984: 84) points out that it is an American lexicographic trend that all items appearing in boldtype face are normally counted as entries.

2) Generally, theoretical linguists prefer to leave unsettled the theoretical status of the distinction between polysemy and homonymy. For the polysemy-homonymy problem in theoretical linguistics, see Palmer (1981: 100–8), Lyons (1977: 550–69), among others.

3) Since this policy of maximized polysemy in entries causes serious word-finding problems in *COBUILD*¹, *COBUILD*² devises a special structure using *superheadword* for the users to locate easily the information they want.

ferent parts of speech, etymological background, or pronunciations are described in the same main entry.

The second dictionary, *CIDE*, on the other hand, is based on the policy of minimized polysemy in main entries.¹⁾ In contrast with *COBUILD*², *CIDE*’s policy is based on semantics rather than on the forms of the items. It is rather difficult to find any merit in this policy, but there is at least one; it enables users to understand visually the semantic affinity between headwords and their derived words. Take **check** for example. There are 13 main entries and 8 subentries related to the form *check* and *check* as a noun has different subentries in 4 different main entries (i.e. under headwords **check** (*obj*) **EXAMINE** *v*, **check** (*obj*) **STOP** *v*, **check** **LEAVE** *v*, and **check** **THREATEN** *v*). Given this sort of semantic grouping, users can understand the semantic relations between headwords and sub-headwords. In the case of dictionaries like *COBUILD*², such relations are hard to find without resorting to heavy use of cross-referencing.

However, this peculiar policy has the several problems. First, the number of homonyms in *CIDE* becomes very large (and so does the number of the headwords) compared with those in other dictionaries. In order to solve this problem, *CIDE* innovates **GUIDE WORDS** for the convenience of users, but since some of them are rather difficult for users (e.g. , **age** **LIFE SPENT ALIVE**, **old** **EXISTED MANY YEARS**, etc.) or they only indicate the meaning of the headwords very vaguely (e.g. , **run** **POLITICS**, **liberal** **SOCIETY**, **which** **ADDS INFORMATION**, etc.), this alleged innovation is not fully successful.²⁾

Second, parts-of-speech divisions are harder to find in *CIDE* than in other dictionaries.³⁾ For example, there are 7 main entries for *bound*, but

1) Zgusta (1977: 77) and Robins (1987: 55) point out that Scerba was one of the lexicographers who defended, though ‘in principle’, the “one entry, one meaning” policy. According to Nakao (1993: 82), Charles Richardson also expressed a similar idea in the Preface of *A New Dictionary of the English Language* (1836–7).

2) Note that in some cases main entries with **GUIDE WORDS** lack definitions. See **important** **INVOLVEMENT**, for example.

3) In Malakhovski’s (1987) terminology, homonym group comprising words belonging to one and the same part of speech is called a *homosegment*. According to his classificatory framework, *CIDE* is considered to belong to Pattern 3(b) — in which “[a] separate entry is allotted to a group of purely grammatical homonyms . . .” and “[t]he homonyms forming a hyperlexeme are considered separately and provided with parts-of-speech labels”.

those which are adjectives are the second, third and fifth ones. They are not grouped together and therefore users may face meaning-finding problems.

Third, *CIDE*'s policy gives the dictionary too much redundant information. This is because pronunciation symbols, irregular inflectional forms, and sometimes even grammatical information have to be repeated for each main entry. For example, *CIDE* has as many as 22 main entries for the main verb *do* and the same pronunciation symbols and the same list of irregular inflectional forms are repeated for the 21 main entries.

Fourth, it sometimes happens that more than one meaning is included in one main entry in *CIDE*. Indeed, there is no determining that a certain headword contains only one meaning.¹⁾ For example, *CIDE* has only one main entry for **shine**, but the fact that the past forms *shone* and *shined* are used according to the semantic difference seems to suggest that it should have at least two main entries for this verb.

Fifth, *CIDE*'s policy sometimes leads to serious word-finding problems. It is sometimes difficult to locate the sub-headwords, phrasal verbs, etc. because they may be placed in different main entries. Detailed analysis will be given in the sections below. Note that even the alphabetization principle of the main entry is sometimes violated in *CIDE*. Take the main entries related to the form *out*. There are 31 main entries related to this form, the arrangement of which shown in (1) shows that the alphabetization principle is violated:

- (1) **out** **MOVE OUTSIDE** *adv*; **out** **OUTSIDE** *adv*; **out** **ABSENT** *adj*; **out** **DISAPPEAR** *adv*; **out** **MOVE AWAY** *adv*; **out** **VERY** *adv*; **out** **LOUD** *adv*; **out** **FAR AWAY** *adj, adv*; **out** **AVAILABLE** *adj, adv*; **out** **MADE PUBLIC** *adj, adv*; **out** **OPEN** *adv, adj*; **out** **APPEAR** *adj, adv*; **out** **UNCONSCIOUS** *adv, adj*; **out** **FINISHED** *adj*; **out** **DEFEATED** *adj, adv*; **out** **BALL** *adj*; **out** **COAST** *adv, adj*; **out** **NOT ACCEPTABLE** *adj*; **out** **NOT FASHIONABLE** *adj, adv*; **out** **NOT ACCURATE** *adj*; **out** **EXISTING** *adv*; **out** **INTEND** *adj*; **out of** **NO LONGER IN** *prep*; **out of** **MADE FROM** *prep*; **out of** **BECAUSE OF** *prep*; **out of** **FROM AMONG** *prep*; **out of** **NOT INVOLVED** *prep*; **out** **EXCUSE** *n*;

1) There have been some proposals for drawing a rigid line between monosemy and polysemy as seen in Carter (1987: 139–40), but none of them is decisively influential.

out- **NOT CENTRAL** *combining form*; **out-** **FURTHER** *combining form*; and **out-** **AWAY FROM** *combining form*

So far we have considered mainly *CIDE*'s peculiar policy concerning main entries, but before closing this section, we shall look at the treatment of proper nouns. *CIDE* does not have proper nouns as headwords, as is usually the case with learners' dictionaries. Even words meaning nations and nationalities do not appear as headwords. They are treated in a Language Portrait under NATIONS AND NATIONALITIES.

2.3. Subentries — the Treatment of Derived Words

Words derived from a headword are treated as sub-headwords in *CIDE* and the subentry is the "dictionary article" under a sub-headword. As we have seen in 2.2, the estimated number of subentries in *CIDE* is about 17,000.

The treatment of derived words is not always the same in dictionaries and each dictionary has its own policy concerning them. Table 1 serves to illustrate the different policies adopted in the five different monolingual learners' dictionaries published in the 1990's.

Roughly speaking, there are two extreme attitudes toward the treatment of derived words in the dictionary; one treats them as independent main entries and the other treats them as run-on entries or subentries. *LDCE*³⁾'s attitude is very close to the former extreme position; it normally treats derived words as main entries. In contrast, *PESD* takes the latter extreme position and treats derived words as subentries. This dictionary is outstanding for having very large "nesting" microstructures and tries to contain as many derived words as possible.

On the other hand, *OALD*⁵⁾ and *COBUILD*²⁾ take a middle-of-the-road attitude. They treat derived words differently according to their semantic and morphological transparency. If a derived word is formed by a simple suffixation and is semantically transparent, it is treated as a run-on or subentry in the case of *OALD*⁵⁾, or as a run-on or a definition in the case of *COBUILD*²⁾. However, if a derived word is formed by some complicated morphological operation(s) or it is semantically opaque, then it is treated as a main entry.

Table 1
The Treatment of Derived Words

	<i>CIDE</i>	<i>OALD</i> ⁵	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>COBUILD</i> ²	<i>PESD</i>
deceit	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.
deceitful	SUB of deceit .	SUB (▶) of deceit .	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of deceit .
deceitfully	SUB of deceit .	RUN-ON of SUB (▶) of deceitful .	RUN-ON of deceitful .	—	SUB of deceit .
deceitfulness	SUB of deceit .	RUN-ON of SUB (▶) of deceitful .	RUN-ON of deceitful .	—	RUN-ON of SUB deceitful .
deceive	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of deceit .
deceiver	SUB of deceive .	RUN-ON (▶) of deceive .	RUN-ON of deceive .	—	SUB of deceit .
deception	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of deceit / EMP MAIN.
deceptive	SUB of deception .	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of deceit / EMP MAIN.
deceptively	SUB of deception .	RUN-ON (▶) of deceptive .	RUN-ON of deceptive .	RUN-ON of deceptive .	SUB of deceit .
deceptiveness	SUB of deception .	—	RUN-ON of deceptive .	—	RUN-ON of SUB deceptive .
hard-	SUB of hard SEVERE .	—	—	—	—
harden	SUB of hard SEVERE .	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of hard .

hardening	SUB of hard SEVERE .	SUB.	—	RUN-ON of harden .	SUB of hard .
hardiness	SUB of hardy .	RUN-ON (▶) of hardy .	MAIN.	RUN-ON.	SUB of hard .
hardy	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of hard .
maintenance	SUBs of maintain CONTINUE TO HAVE , maintain PROVIDE , and maintain EXPRESS .	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of maintain .
piggy (adj)	SUB of pig ANIMAL .	SUB (▶) of pig .	MAIN.	DEF 1 of piggy .	—
piggy (n)	SUB of pig ANIMAL .	DEF of SUB (▶) piggy .	MAIN.	DEF 2 of piggy .	SUB of pig .
piglet	SUB of pig ANIMAL .	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of pig .

Abbreviations: MAIN = main entry, SUB = subentry, EMP MAIN = empty main entry. The symbol (—) means that the item in question does not appear in the given dictionary.

If we consider the treatment of derived words in *CIDE*, the first thing we notice is that it contains a very wide range of derived words. On this point, *CIDE* is similar to *PESD*. But due to the “one entry, one core meaning” policy of the main entry, the number of subentries per main entry is smaller in *CIDE* than in *PESD*. The second characteristic is that *CIDE* even includes such combining forms as **after-**, **all-**, **hard-**, etc. as sub-headwords.¹⁾

1) *OALD* also lists some suffixes as subentries. See **-atively** for example. However, *OALD* limits combining forms as subentries to those which have direct derivational relations with the combining forms which are their headwords.

Finally, I would like to point out *CIDE*'s crucial problem in the treatment of derived words; i.e. users must already know the meaning of a derived words before finding it in *CIDE*. As Table 1 clearly shows, *CIDE*'s derived words are very diverse in their status because of the dictionary's peculiar policy about main entries. In the case of multi-word lexemes like phrasal verbs, compounds, and idioms, *CIDE* has a special cross-referencing device called "Phrase Index" in its back matter. But since there is no such special index for derived words, users sometimes face serious word-finding problems. Since users normally consult a dictionary in order to know the meaning of a word, we can conclude that this is a crucial problem in *CIDE*.¹⁾

2.4. Compounds

In this section, we analyze *CIDE*'s treatment of compounds. In the Language Portrait titled WORD USED TOGETHER, *CIDE* adopts semantic opacity as a criterion of compounds. However, compounds are treated as phrases in the Phrase Index, or as headwords, or as sub-headwords according to their semantic transparency in *CIDE* and there is no special space for them as a whole.

Comparison with other monolingual learners' dictionaries (Table 2) instantly reveals that there is among them a very wide variety in the treatment of compounds. But we must note that there are exactly the same two contrasting attitudes recognizable here concerning the treatment of compounds as we have seen in the previous section; i.e. treating compounds as main entries and treating them as run-ons or definitions.

*LDCE*³ and *COBUILD*² take the former attitude and try to treat compounds as main entries. This attitude is especially noticeable in *LDCE*³. These two dictionaries place importance on the form rather than on the meaning of the headword. Users are not required to have knowledge of whether the item they look up in the dictionary is a compound or not; all they need is its form, i.e. spelling. In this sense, these dictionaries are user-

1) There seem to be some minor problems. For example, there are two entries for **imminence** in *CIDE* which have exactly the same content.

Table 2
The Treatment of Compounds

	<i>CIDE</i>	<i>OALD</i> ⁵	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>COBUILD</i> ²	<i>PESD</i>
big deal (n)	EX in bold in big [IMPORTANT] . + PI.	RUN-ON (IDM).	DEF 7 a) of big . As big deal!	MAIN.	IDM in deal .
big game (n)	EX in bold in big [LARGE] . + PI.	RUN-ON (■).	MAIN.	MAIN.	RUN-ON.
ice-cold (adj)	EX in bold in ice [FROZEN WATER] . + PI.	RUN-ON (■).	MAIN.	MAIN.	—
icecream (n)	EX in bold in ice [FROZEN WATER] . + PI.	RUN-ON (■).	MAIN.	MAIN.	RUN-ON.
make-believe (n)	MAIN. + PI.	RUN-ON (■).	MAIN.	MAIN.	RUN-ON.
soundproof (adj)	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	DEF 1 (ADJ) of soundproof .	DEF 1 of SUB soundproof .
soundproof (v)	SUB.	RUN-ON (▶).	MAIN.	DEF 2 (V) of soundproof .	DEF 2 of SUB soundproof .
spoonfeed (v)	EX in bold in spoon . + PI.	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	RUN-ON.
water-repellant (adj)	EX in bold in water . + PI.	—	MAIN.	—	—
water-resistant (adj)	—	RUN-ON (■).	MAIN.	MAIN.	—

Abbreviations: DEF = definition, EX = example, IDM = idiom, SUB = subentry, MAIN = main entry. +PI means that the item in question also appears in the Phrase Index in *CIDE*. The symbol (—) means that the compound in question does not appear in the dictionary.

friendly.

On the other hand, *PESD* and *OALD*⁵ take the opposite attitude; they tend to treat compounds as run-on entries or definitions. In *PESD*, compounds are generally treated as run-ons, while in *OALD*⁵, so-called hyphenated and open compounds are treated as special run-ons listed under the symbol ■, while solid compounds are treated as headwords.

Compared with other learners' dictionaries, *CIDE*'s treatment is very peculiar in that the formal properties of compounds give way to their semantic transparency. Since the main role of a dictionary is to make users get to the meaning of a word from its form (i.e. spelling), any treatment which is not based on the form leads to word-finding problems. *CIDE*'s solution to these problems is the innovation of the Phrase Index. In its *Foreword*, *CIDE* says that the Phrase Index is "a major innovation of *CIDE*", but probably the truth is that *CIDE* could never function as a dictionary without this cross-referencing device.

2.5. Phrasal Verbs

Concerning the treatment of phrasal verbs, *CIDE* classifies the following three cases according to semantic transparency: (i) If a given phrasal verb is semantically transparent, it is treated in examples in which the adverb or preposition is put in bold print but the verb is not. (ii) If it is with "a more figurative meaning which is related to a basic meaning of the verb" (p. 278), it is treated in examples in which both the verb and the adverb or preposition are put in bold print. And (iii) If it is semantically completely opaque, the whole combination is treated as headword.

Table 3 compares the treatment of phrasal verbs in the five monolingual learners' dictionaries. A brief look at the table reveals that monolingual learners' dictionaries generally treat phrasal verbs differently according to their semantic transparency. In the case of semantically opaque phrasal verbs, they are normally treated as subentries, either with the label showing they are phrasal verbs (*LDCE*³, *OALD*⁵, and *COBUILD*²) or without them (*PESD*). Semantically transparent phrasal verbs, on the other hand, are generally treated in the definitions of the verb which is a headword. In the latter case, dictionaries differ in the amount of redundancy of descrip-

Table 3
The Treatment of Phrasal Verbs

	<i>CIDE</i>	<i>OALD</i> ⁵	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>COBUILD</i> ²	<i>PESD</i>
chicken out	MAIN. + PI.	SUB, marked as PHR V . As chicken out (of sth) .	SUB marked as <i>phr v</i> .	DEFs 3 (invest in) & 4 (only verb is in bold) of invest .	DEF 4. As chicken out (of doing s.t) .
do without	MAIN. + PI.	SUB, marked as PHR V .	SUB, marked as <i>phr v</i> .	SUB.	SUB. As do without (s.t) .
look after	MAIN. + PI.	SUB, marked as PHR V . As look after sth .	SUB, marked as <i>phr v</i> .	SUB.	SUB.
look at	EX in look SEE . Only at is in bold. + PI.	DEFs 1 (~ (at sb / sth)) & 3 (~ (at sth)). SUB (look at sth), marked as PHR V .	SUB of look ¹ , marked as <i>phr v</i> . Also treated in DEF 1 of look ¹ as [+at].	DEFs 2, 3, 4, 7, 8 (as look at), & 10 (only verb is in bold).	DEF 3. As (often— at / for s.o/s.t)
look for	EX in look SEE . Only for is in bold. + PI.	DEF 2 (~ ((for sb / sth)). SUB (look for sth), marked as PHR V .	SUB of look ¹ , marked as <i>phr v</i> .	DEFs 5 (only verb is in bold) & 6 (as look for).	DEF 3. As (often— at / for s.o/s.t)
invest in	EX in invest . Only in is in bold. + PI.	DEF 1 (~ (sth) (in sth / with sb)). SUB (invest in sth), marked as PHR V .	SUB, marked as <i>phr v</i> . Also treated in DEF 1 of invest as invest (sth) in sth .	DEFs 1, 2, 4 (as invest in), & 3 (only verb is in bold).	DEF 1. As (usu—(s.t) in s.t).

put up with	MAIN. + PI.	RUN-ON of SUB put up sth. As put up with sb / sth.	SUB, marked as <i>phr v.</i>	SUB.	RUN-ON of SUB put s.o up.
watch out	EX in watch BE CAREFUL. The whole combination is in bold. + PI.	RUN-ONS, as watch out and watch out for sb / sth.	SUB, marked as <i>phr v.</i>	SUB.	SUB. As watch (out) (for s.o / s.t).

Abbreviations: DEF = definition, EX = example, SUB = subentry of the verb in the phrasal verb, MAIN = main entry. + PI means that the phrasal verb in question also appears in Phrase Index in *CIDE*.

tion; some dictionaries (e.g., *OALD*⁵ and *LDCE*³) admit a fairly large amount of redundancy both in subentries and in definitions, but other dictionaries (e.g., *COBUILD*² and *PESD*) do not.

If we compare *CIDE* with other dictionaries, we can find that *CIDE* has almost the same problems in the treatment of phrasal verbs as in the treatment of compounds. *CIDE* places phrasal verbs differently according to their semantic transparency, which makes it hard for users to look for them. Therefore, we can conclude that in *CIDE* the Phrasal Index plays a crucial role for the users' convenience.

2.6. The Phrase Index

We have seen in 2.4 and 2.5 that the Phrase Index plays a crucial role in *CIDE*. In this section, we shall consider its nature in more detail.

First, as to the "quantity" aspects, it turned out that the number of phrases listed in *CIDE*'s Phrase Index is almost accurate. According to my own count, the number of phrases listed in the Phrase Index is 31,990, which is almost the same as the number on the back cover — 30,000. The items listed in the Phrase Index are phrases, idioms, compounds, and phrasal verbs, all of which are semantically opaque items.

Next, we turn to the "qualitative" aspects of the Phrase Index. We have seen in the previous sections that *CIDE*'s peculiar policy about main en-

tries makes this sort of cross-referencing device indispensable to the dictionary. *CIDE*'s basic principle is to stress the importance of lexical semantics, and hence in order to keep the minimum level of user-friendliness based on the forms of the items, the Phrase Index must be present.

Note that dictionaries differ as to the treatment of idioms. In *OALD*⁵, idioms are listed after the symbol **IDM**. *LDCE*³ treats them as independent definitions of the headwords. They are put in boldface print and listed immediately after the definition numbers. In the case of *COBUILD*², semantically opaque idioms are so marked in the extra column and treated in the last paragraph or paragraphs of an entry before phrasal verbs, while those with a certain degree of semantic transparency are treated in the definition paragraphs after the symbol ●. In *PESD*, a list of idioms is given after all the meanings have been given in the form of run-on entries. These four dictionaries do not have a device like Phrase Index in their back matters.¹⁾

Though this sort of device is felt to be of some use to the user, we have to say that this innovation of *CIDE* is not fully successful. There are several reasons for this. First of all, it is not always possible for users to know in advance whether or not the items they look up in the dictionary are some sort of semantically opaque phrases, idioms, or phrasal verbs. Second, the introduction of the Phrase Index means the dictionary has another word list in addition to the central word list, which is likely to increase the complexity on the part of users in finding words. Finally, in terms of its user-friendliness, *CIDE*'s Phrase Index is problematic. We must point out that *CIDE*'s Phrase Index is not easy to use because the items are set in too small point type and frequently occurring word-internal stress symbols can be eyesores.

2.7. Combining Forms

CIDE treats combining forms either as headwords or as sub-headwords. When the combining forms are headwords, they must observe the "one

1) *CIDE* is probably the first monolingual learners' dictionary that has this sort of index in its back matter and the line number indicators on each page of the central word list.

entry, one core meaning" principle.

If we make a cross-dictionary comparison, we can identify the two different types of dictionary concerning the treatment of combining forms: (i) those treating them as headwords, such as *OALD*⁵, *LDCE*³, and *COBUILD*²; and (ii) those treating them as an independent word list, such as *PESD*. In terms of the number of the combining forms, the latter type tends to have a larger number of combining forms.

CIDE belongs to the former group, but differs in that it also treats some combining forms as sub-headwords. This is also one of the peculiar characteristics of *CIDE*.

If we compare the number of combining forms listed in word list section A in the five dictionaries, we find that there are 60 in *PESD*, 37 in *LDCE*³, 32 in *OALD*⁵, 29 in *CIDE*, and 17 in *COBUILD*². From this we can conclude that the number of the combining forms of *CIDE* is almost similar to that of *OALD*⁵.

2.8. Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter, we have analyzed main entries, subentries, and the Phrase Index of *CIDE*. The discussion we have given so far have revealed the following facts:

- (1) The most outstanding characteristic of *CIDE* is its "one entry, one core meaning" policy. This leads to the existence of many homophonous headwords in the dictionary.
- (2) *CIDE* makes use of **GUIDE WORDS** in order to distinguish the homophonous headwords, but this innovation is not fully successful from the viewpoint of user-friendliness.
- (3) *CIDE* contains a very wide range of derived words as sub-headwords. However, due to its "one entry, one core meaning" policy, users sometimes face word-finding problems.
- (4) As to multi-word lexemes such as compounds, phrasal verbs, and idioms, *CIDE* treats them differently according to their semantic transparency. But due to the "one entry, one core meaning" policy, users sometimes find it hard to locate the item the meaning of which they want to know.

- (5) The Phrase Index is *CIDE*'s innovation. But it is not simply a useful device for users, but an indispensable device in *CIDE*. Without it, users fail to locate the phrases and idioms they want to find.
- (6) *CIDE* is similar to *OALD*⁵ in its number of combining forms treated in the dictionary.

On the basis of these facts, we can conclude that concerning the treatment of entries in general *CIDE* is too semantically-biased at the expense of user-friendliness. And probably for this reason, even "learners and users of English as a Foreign Language from intermediate level upwards"¹⁾ may find it hard to use this dictionary.

(T. Koshiishi)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. *CIDE* gives two types of English pronunciation for its entries: BBC pronunciation and General American. They are defined as "the standard British accent used by educated, professional people in Britain, particularly in the south" and "the standard accent in the United States, especially in the central and western parts of the country" (p. 1133) respectively.

The foreword acknowledges that the pronunciation is based on "the latest edition of Daniel Jones's classic *English Pronouncing Dictionary*" (p. viii). The latest edition of *EPD* that was available during the compilation of *CIDE* was the supplemented fourteenth edition (1988), but there are reasons for believing that "the latest edition" really refers to the fifteenth edition that is to appear in 1996. One is that the two dictionaries are from the same publisher and the editors of *EPD*¹⁵, namely Peter Roach and James Hartman, were also in charge of the pronunciation in *CIDE*, which leads one to assume that the materials for *EPD*¹⁵ were accessible to the staff of *CIDE*. Another is that *EPD*¹⁴ does not contain information on the American pronunciation.

As in other EFL/ESL dictionaries, IPA symbols are employed for transcription. The vowel symbols in *CIDE* are listed in Table 4, set out in the framework of the "standard lexical sets" (Wells 1982: 122) adapted for our

1) This is the user level stated on the back cover of *CIDE*.

present purpose.¹⁾ Where the British and American variants are given separate notations, the former is prefixed with “£” and the latter with “\$”, as in the dictionary itself. It is to be noted that the symbol for the manual set is not listed in the table in the “Phonetic symbols” section (p. 1773) of the dictionary. This does not in practice interfere with our reading of the transcriptions, but of course, it is necessary to incorporate it into the table to make it exhaustive.

We will not list the symbols for consonants since they are not different from those of other EFL/ESL dictionaries, except that diacritical marks are added to some of them to represent special qualities, which will be examined in their relevant sections. Other features of the transcription of pronunciation in *CIDE* include explicit representation of syllable divisions with raised dots or stress marks and extensive use of italicized symbols to represent optional sounds. These will also be taken up in their relevant sections.

3.2. Representations of British and American variants

3.2.1. As to the notation of the British vowels, *CIDE* follows a *de facto* standard practice in the choice of symbols that does not require any further comment. Peter Roach, who presumably had the most influence on this decision, had commented on the advantage of “having a common set of symbols for pronunciation teaching materials and pronunciation entries in dictionaries” (Roach 1991: 6). This, therefore, has been the natural choice.

3.2.2. On the other hand, the presentation of the American pronunciation is an area of discrepancy between dictionaries. There are two main reasons for this. First, while the symbols for the British pronunciation are now mostly established, those for the American have hardly been standardized. The other and more crucial factor is the different policies adopted by different dictionaries for collapsing the British and American

1) The lexical set foreign is the subset (60c) of Wells’s CLOTH, which is followed by an intersyllabic /r/, and our IDEA corresponds to part of the subset (71’) of his NEAR. We have collapsed his NORTH and FORCE into one, since they are not differentiated here. Our habit is his KIT in unstressed syllables, and our manual and regular are his GOOSE reduced in unstressed open syllables and closed syllables respectively.

Table 4

KIT	ɪ	FLEECE	i:	NURSE	ɜ:, \$ɜ:r	comma	ə
DRESS	e	PALM	ɑ:	NEAR	ɛə, \$ɪr	letter	ɛə, \$ə
TRAP	æ	BATH	ɛɑ:, \$æ	idea	ɪə	happy	i
LOT	ɒ, \$ɑ:	THOUGHT	ɔ:, \$ɑ:	SQUARE	ɛə, \$er	habit	ɪ
CLOTH	ɒ, \$ɑ:	GOOSE	u:	START	ɛɑ:, \$ɑ:r	manual	u
foreign	ɒ, \$ɔ:	FACE	eɪ	NORTH	ɔ:, \$ɔ:r	regular	u
FOOT	ʊ	PRICE	aɪ	CURE	ɜə, \$ʊr		
STRUT	ʌ	CHOICE	ɔɪ				
		MOUTH	aʊ				
		GOAT	ɛəʊ, \$ou				

variants.¹⁾ Of the two, the former is largely superficial, and those which are *not* superficial will be dealt with in §3.3. As to the latter, the inevitably limited space in dictionaries requires some sort of collapsing of variants, and this is a matter of balancing between the saving of space and the user-friendliness of the transcription. Insofar as the British pronunciation is presented first, the more collapsed the transcription is, the more difficult it is to decode the American variant.

If we disregard the difference in the use of specific symbols, the collapsing policy of *CIDE* is the same as that of *LDCE*³ and the most user-friendly among the EFL/ESL dictionaries: separate transcriptions for those American variants which uniquely correspond to the British ones as well as for those which do not. Thus, the sounds which are only realizationally different are given different symbols as in the GOAT set, and there is no derivation involved in getting the American pronunciation. This policy is evidently easier than that of *OALD*⁵ and *COBUILD*², which basically give separate notations only to the American sounds which do not uniquely correspond to the British.²⁾

1) An additional factor is the different phoneme inventories adopted by different dictionaries. *CIDE* adopts a different phoneme inventory for the American pronunciation from rival EFL/ESL dictionaries. See §3.3.4.

2) An exceptional case is the lexical set IDEA. *CIDE* and *LDCE*³ do not give separate notations for American variants for this set, even though they cannot be predicted from the British ones without referring to the spelling, while the notations in *OALD*⁵ are separate and user-friendly. The notation /i:ə/ in *COBUILD*² is probably a systematic error.

3.3. Transcriptions of American variants

3.3.1. In this section, we will examine the specific problems in the transcription system adopted to represent the American pronunciation.

3.3.2. /t̥/ is a symbol /t/ with a diacritical mark meaning "voicing." This is employed in the transcription of the American variants to represent the /t/ in the phonetic environments where it can be realized as a so-called "voiced t" or a voiced alveolar tap [ɾ]. It is welcome additional information found in this dictionary, since the use of this sound is one of the conspicuous features of the American pronunciation.

CIDE does not give any detailed account on the specific environments in which /t̥/ occurs. Actually, they are too complicated to account for briefly, and this is why we welcome the transcription of possible tapping in the individual entries, since it is not easy for learners to predict which /t/ they can tap. We find that *CIDE* uses /t̥/ in the following phonetic environments:

- i) Intervocally, followed by an unstressed /ou/ or one of the reduced vowels: *potato, water*.
- ii) Preceded by a vowel and followed by a syllabic /l/ (that is, /^ɹl/ or /l/): *bottle*.
- iii) Immediately preceded by /l/ or /n/ and in the environments i) or ii): *shelter, gentle*.
- iv) Immediately preceded by /k/ or /s/ and in the environments i) or ii) (and, in the case of /s/, where the preceding vowel is short): *actor, contractile, accustom*.

These environments are broader than those adopted in other descriptions. *LPD* transcribes i) and ii) only, and Wells (1982) only adds iii) to these. In fact, iv) is not mentioned in any of the major works on American pronunciation; Johnson (1978) is the only work that we have found reporting that a change toward tapping is in progress in this environment. We can say that the transcription here is thus more "advanced" and descriptive than other works, although whether this is desirable in an EFL/ESL dictionary or not is another matter.

It is necessary to note that the symbol /t̥/ before /^ɹn/ is to be interpreted as /t̥/ only when /^ɹn/ is realized as /ɛn/, since the /tn/ sequence is a nasal

plosion where the alveolar stop is never released. That is, the transcription /t̥^ɹn/ is really an abbreviation for /tn, t̥ɛn/. The latter variant is not shown in *LPD*, and we doubt if it is common enough to deserve inclusion in learner's dictionary.

Regrettably, we find occasional inconsistent uses of /t̥/ in *CIDE*. For instance, we find /t̥/ in some of the words where full vowels other than unstressed /ou/ follow it (*acclimatize, accreditation, anesthetize*, etc.). Also, we find plain /t/ in environments where /t̥/ should occur (*tractor, custom*, etc.). We urge that these misuses be remedied as promptly as possible.

3.3.3.1 *CIDE* has adopted a symbol /ɚ/ to represent an r-colored monophthong that appears in the lexical set LETTER in the American pronunciation. In most other dictionaries, this vowel is "phonemically" analyzed as a sequence /ɛr/, but such a transcription is likely to be misinterpreted as a diphthong, even if the pronunciation guide explains that the /ɛr/ represents a monophthong. The use of a single symbol /ɚ/ has a clear advantage in this respect and helps the user to pronounce this vowel correctly.

However, there is a serious inconsistency in this regard. While the LETTER vowel is given a single symbol /ɚ/, the NURSE vowel, which is also an r-colored monophthong, is transcribed with a sequence of symbols /ɛɪr/. With this transcription, the users will necessarily think that the NURSE vowel is a diphthong (or a long vowel plus a consonant), insofar as it is graphically differentiated from the LETTER vowel. It is self-evident that two sounds of the same phonetic makeup must be transcribed on the same basis. This asymmetry in the representation of NURSE and LETTER in *CIDE* is a significant defect.

The defect must be corrected as promptly as possible in one of two ways. One is to stop using /ɚ/ and replace it with a sequence /ɛr/, which is clearly a retrogressive solution since a monophthong is analyzed into two "phonemic" units for the sake of consistency. The other solution is to represent the NURSE vowel with a single symbol plus a length mark such as /ɛː/, which is employed in *LPD*. The latter is definitely more desirable, since it is a straightforward representation of the phonetic reality and does not require any derivation on the part of the users.

3.3.3.2. Although this is not a misuse of symbols, the use of /ə/ has introduced a complication also: an r-like glide which occurs when /ə/ is followed by another vowel is not explicitly represented in the transcription. *Advisory*, for instance, is transcribed as /əd'vair·zə·i/. Of course, the r-glide is automatically inserted between /ə/ and /i/ here, but this is true only if the speaker pronounces the /ə/ correctly and makes no break at the syllable division. We cannot expect the users of this dictionary, who are only learners, to do this perfectly, and therefore it is very likely that they will fail to make an r-glide.

To ensure that the users correctly insert an r-glide, it is desirable to represent it explicitly in the transcription. Thus we propose that *advisory* be transcribed as /əd'vair·zə·ri/. From a phonological point of view, of course, this /r/ is superfluous unless the /r/ is geminated and ambisyllabic. Nevertheless, the fact that it is indeed sometimes geminated and that an explicit representation of /r/ ensures a correct insertion of the glide should support our proposal.

3.3.4. One striking part of the transcription of the American pronunciation in *CIDE* is that the vowel of *THOUGHT* and *CLOTH* is identified with that of *LOT* and *PALM* and the four lexical sets are uniformly transcribed as /ɑ:/. Traditionally, the former two and the latter two are differentiated with the transcription /ɔ:/ for the former, and there is no other dictionary that we know of which regards these vowels as completely merged. Thus, there is difference in the inventory of vowels between *CIDE* and other dictionaries.

Indeed, the two pairs of lexical sets are merged and do not contrast in quite a large area of the United States, as is shown on the map in Hartman (1985: lxi), but we doubt if it is appropriate to present the merged form as a representative American variant and a learner's target model. In American dictionaries such as *MWCD*¹⁰ and *NWD*^{3,11} words of the *THOUGHT* and *CLOTH* sets are mostly transcribed with /ɔ:/ only, and even where the /ɑ:/ transcription is given, it is supplied only as the second

1) James Hartman, who is in charge of the American pronunciation in *CIDE*, has also been the pronunciation consultant of *NWD*³ since 1990.

variant.¹⁾ Thus these dictionaries adopt a "partial merger" analysis. It seems that it has been too bold a decision for *CIDE* to choose a "complete merger" analysis.²⁾ At least, EFL/ESL teachers will not like it.

3.4. Transcriptions of syllabic consonants

3.4.1. *CIDE* has adopted a new diacritical mark /./ (underdot) to represent the syllabicity of consonants. The mark is listed in the "Phonetic symbols" section, but no explanation is given there. Instead, it appears in the explanation of another new symbol /ʷ/ (raised schwa) in the Language Portrait "Pronunciation" (p. 1133). The raised schwa indicates either that the consonant which follows it is syllabic or that it is realized as an ordinary schwa and the following consonant is nonsyllabic. Thus, these symbols have been employed to indicate the accurate pronunciation of the words. However, it is necessary to add that *CIDE* is not the first to adopt a diacritical mark representing syllabicity: *OALD* used a subscript vertical stroke /,/ for this purpose in its third edition (1974).

3.4.2. The actual use of the syllabicity underdot is rather limited. It is applied only to /l/, even though /n/ and /m/ are also likely to be syllabic. The problem here is that the uses of the syllabicity symbols appear to have been determined by spelling rather than by the phonetic reality: The symbol /l/ (/l/ with an underdot) is used where the letter <l> is not immediately preceded by a vowel letter, and the sequence /ʷl/ is used where it is. Thus, /l/ is used in such words as *little*, *middle*, *cycle*, *giggle*, *people*, *able*, *hassle*, *puzzle*, *rifle*, etc. while /ʷl/ is used in *metal*, *medal*, *local*, *legal*, *global*, *universal*, *causal*, *rival*, etc. Now we can see why the symbol /n/ does not appear: the letter <n> is always preceded by a vowel letter (except perhaps in the name of an Austrian composer *Haydn*, which is not entered in the dictionary).

1) These dictionaries do not employ IPA. The symbols presented here are their IPA equivalents.

2) According to Wolfram (1991: 85-89), the merged system is "largely a nonmetropolitan phenomenon," since Los Angeles and San Francisco speakers do not normally have this inventory. The choice might have been influenced by the fact that James Hartman lives in Kansas, where the vowels are merged.

The actual phonetic tendency is that /l/ and /n/ are almost always syllabic when preceded by one of the homorganic stop consonants (/t/, /d/ or /n/), while a schwa is likely to be inserted before it if the preceding consonant is not a homorganic stop, irrespective of spelling. A more desirable use of /·/ and /^ə/, therefore, is to use the former where /l/ or /n/ is preceded by a homorganic stop (words like *little*, *middle*, *metal*, *medal*, *cotton*, *sudden* etc) and the latter elsewhere.¹⁾ In the case of /m/, the use of the symbols is not spelling-bound, and the sequence /^əm/ is correctly used in words like *prism* and *rhythm*.

3.4.3. The discussion in the preceding paragraphs involved the cases of word-final or preconsonantal syllabic consonants only. However, *CIDE* also takes into consideration the cases of prevocalic syllabic consonants, as did *OALD*³, and these cases of syllabicity involve /r/ (in the British pronunciation) as well as /l/, /n/ and /m/. Thus the transcriptions are like *catalyst* /'kæt·^əl·ist/, *detonate* /'det·^ən·eit/ and *separate* /'sep·^ər·eit/. Wells (1995) discusses the wider (or, perhaps, the prevailing) use of such forms, though he did not present them as the first variant in his *LPD* (1990). In *CIDE*, they are in most cases presented as the first variant, which shows that it attempts to reflect the current tendency in the actual pronunciation.

The problem here is that such prevocalic syllabic consonants are difficult for learners to pronounce correctly, and they make the transcriptions look rather impenetrable. *OALD* abandoned the use of syllabicity markers in later editions,²⁾ probably because such notations were too "advanced" for its users (Takebayashi et al. 1975/1981: 109). We are afraid that the same applies to the notations of syllabic consonants in *CIDE*. Although we evaluate highly its attempt to represent the current pronunciation accurately, we doubt if it is understood and welcomed by the users.

3.5. Syllable divisions

3.5.1. The explicit representation of syllable divisions with raised dots /·/

1) In words like *final* where /l/ is preceded by /n/, the practice in *CIDE* is the use of a sequence /əl/, which does not allow for syllabic /l/. This is simply not true, and we urge that it be replaced by /^əl/, or preferably, /l/.

2) It was abandoned in the revised impression of the third edition published in 1980.

or stress marks is the most conspicuous feature of the pronunciation entries in *CIDE*. Other EFL/ESL dictionaries do not systematically represent syllable divisions: *COBUILD*² does not make any notation, and *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁵ make syllable divisions only where it is necessary to represent stresses.

The dividing principle is explained in the Language Portrait "Pronunciation" (p. 1133): "with some exceptions, as many consonants as possible are placed in the following syllable, except where this would produce a combination of sounds that could not be pronounced." In other words, the division is based on the Maximal Onset principle (Hogg and McCully 1987: 51), within the phonotactic constraint of monosyllables. "Some exceptions" mentioned in the above explanation seem to involve the boundary of elements within compounds. Thus, *cloakroom* is syllabified as /'kləʊk·rʊm/, although /'kləʊ·krʊm/ is also a phonotactically acceptable division and conforms to the Maximal Onset principle.

3.5.2. While there are some advantages in the explicit syllable divisions (the unambiguous identification of the collapsed parts of variant pronunciations, for example), there are also disadvantages. First, it makes it impossible to indicate with a single transcription that the deletion or insertion of reduced vowels leads to the decrease or increase in the number of the syllables, as in words like *family*, *factory* and *camera* (transcribed as /'fæm·^əl·i/, /'fæk·t^ər·i/ and /'kæm·rə/ respectively). The first two can be pronounced as disyllables (namely /'fæm·li/ and /'fæk·tri/) and the last can be a trisyllable /'kæm·^ər·ə/. These forms are common enough to be included in the pronunciation entries, but have probably been precluded by limited space. Were it not for syllable divisions, the single transcriptions like /'fæm^əli/, /'fækt^əri/ and /'kæm^ərə/ could accommodate these latter forms.

On the other hand, the explicit syllable division shows unambiguously that there is a syllabic consonant involved here. The problem is that there is a tradeoff between the explicit syllable division and the indication of the possible syllable omission/addition. It is the editor's decision which information is given the priority, but it seems to us that the notations of prevocalic syllabic consonants can be rather impenetrable for the users and

will not be fully utilized (see §3.4.3). Rather, the possible syllable omission/addition is more likely to be made use of, and is more in line with the use of italics for indicating omissible sounds (see §3.6.2).

3.5.3. Another problem of syllable divisions in *CIDE* comes from the Maximal Onset principle on which they are based. Wells (1990) reports on a number of phonetic facts of allophony which he assumes are derived from syllabification, but his syllabification principle is not Maximal Onset. This means that the syllable divisions in *CIDE* fail to derive the phonetic facts reported. Thus, the division of *helplessness* into /'hel·plə·snəs/ in *CIDE* is not only counter-intuitive because of its ignorance of morphology but phonetically incorrect in that it derives the first /l/ longer than it really is, for instance. Although this is irrelevant to most of the users who do not know the allophonic rules involved, it does not follow that one can make divisions which are theoretically invalid.

3.6. Phonological processes

3.6.1. The possible “linking r” is indicated at the end of the British pronunciation with raised r’s, but this is hardly the feature in which *CIDE* can claim its merit. *OALD*⁵ gives the same information with parenthesized r’s. *LDCE*³ does not indicate the possible r-linking in the British pronunciation, but it seems to expect users to derive this information from the representation of the American variants, where final r’s are explicitly shown. The use of raised r’s in *COBUILD*² is different from that of *CIDE* in that it is an expedient device to indicate with a single transcription both the British and American variants, but at the end of the words they are understood to indicate linking r’s.

3.6.2. The Language Portrait “Pronunciation” (p. 1133) explains that italics are used for sounds that can be omitted. Instances of elision are given below:

accents /'æk·sənts/, *bench* /bentʃ/, *exchange* /ɪks'tʃeɪndʒ/, *attempt* /ə'tempt/, *excerpt* /'ek·sɜ:pt/, *abjectly* /'æb·dʒekt·li/, *amendment* /ə'mend·mənt/, *diverse* /daɪ'vɜ:s/.

In many cases, the elision involves stops absorbed into the preceding nasal

in word-medial clusters. The last instance *diverse*, it seems to us, is an abuse of italics, since strictly no omission is involved but the reduction of vowel.

Italics are used also for sounds that can be *inserted*, though this is not explained in the dictionary. Instances of insertion are *abeyance* /ə'bei·ənts/, *ancient* /'eɪn·tʃənt/ and *against* /ə'geɪntst/. In this case, a stop which glides between a nasal and a following fricative is most likely to be involved.

Such cases of elision and epenthesis are not notated in the rival dictionaries. Thus, this can be regarded as an original feature of *CIDE*. The problem here is that elision and insertion are represented with the same typographical device. As a result, the users cannot be sure what the “basic” form of the word is unless they refer to the spelling. A system like that of *LPD*, in which italics are for omissible sounds and superscripts are for possible epenthetic sounds, would have been unambiguous.

3.7. Stress

3.7.1. The stress system in *CIDE* follows the *de facto* standard among the IPA-based dictionaries published in Britain, where no secondary stress is permitted after the primary stress within a word. Japanese learners would have been benefited from the American system of admitting secondary stresses after the primary, since such secondary stresses participate in the rhythmic pattern of the word and that is just what they are often unaware of.

One drawback with *CIDE* regarding word-stress is that it does not systematically represent the so-called “stress shift”, whereby words of the pattern *démocràtic* change their pattern in phrases like *a démocràtic còuntry*. Some of the relevant words are given the shifted pattern as a second variant (fourteen /,fɔ:ti:n, '-/, for example), but this is far from enough.

3.7.2. *CIDE* indicates stress patterns of all the phrase-type entries (compounds, idioms and phrasal verbs). This is the great merit of *CIDE* over its rivals, since *LDCE*³ and *COBUILD*² do not indicate the stress patterns of the idioms and phrasal verbs at all.

The demerit is that in most cases the stress patterns are given in the

Phrase Index only and not in the body of the dictionary. That is, all run-on phrases and the hyphenated and separate compounds entered as headwords whose elements are also headwords are accommodated only in the Phrase Index. We are afraid that this will very probably leave the users uninformed about the stress pattern of the phrases; the users will not look at the stress patterns while searching for entries in the Index, and once they reach the entry they want, they will not want to go back to the Index just to look at its stress pattern. Stress patterns should be indicated in the body of the dictionary if it is to be read and used by the users.

On the other hand, we do not see any merit in indicating stress patterns in the Phrase Index. The stress marks in the Index are eyesores and will diminish the efficiency of the search. The Index is an index; information unnecessary for searching should not be included in it. The only sort of people who will be delighted to find stress patterns tidily arranged in the Index are phoneticians who want to study the stress patterns of phrases!

3.8. Weak forms

One weak area of the pronunciation entries in *CIDE* is the function words that are usually weakly stressed in utterance. Most of the function words that have "weak forms" are given only their strong form pronunciations. In the cases of the very few that are given their weak form pronunciation, namely *a*, *the*, *me*, *us*, *you*, etc, the strong form is presented as the first variant and the weak form as the second, with no explanation.

An established practice among other EFL/ESL dictionaries in transcribing these function words is to give the weak form as the unmarked first variant and present the strong form as the second with an explicit note as such. The failure to follow it is an unjustifiable omission, and the users will not be informed of the way these words should be pronounced when they actually use them.

3.9. In sum, the most notable feature of the pronunciation in *CIDE* is its attempt to record the dynamic variation at the segmental level, namely the use of italics for sounds that can be omitted or inserted. Of the new symbols introduced in this dictionary, /t/ is welcome, since it helps the users to

find where they can use the tapped /t/. The introduction of the symbol /ɾ/ is in itself welcome, but the asymmetrical use of the sequence /ɜ:r/ for its stressed equivalent is a serious defect and should be remedied promptly. The choice of the phoneme inventory for the American pronunciation where THOUGHT and LOT are not distinct seems to have been too bold a decision. The syllabicity symbols are good in that the accurate pronunciations can be given, but there are problems in the spelling-bound nature of their actual uses, and they may be too difficult for most users to understand correctly. The syllable divisions have problems in their dividing principle of Maximal Onset, which fails to reflect the phonetic facts. The fact that all the phrasal entries are given their stress patterns should be regarded as valuable, but they should have been indicated in the body of the dictionary rather than in the Phrase Index. The failure to present the weak forms of most of the function words should be remedied, too.

(T. Makino)

4. Definition

4.1. Introductory remarks

In this section, the senses of words entered in *CIDE* will be examined with particular reference to their arrangement, presentation, description, and the like. A comparison will often be made with *LDCE*³, among others, which is about the same in size and claims to use the defining vocabulary of about 2,000 common words, as does the dictionary in question. In so doing, seven dimensions will be taken up in what follows: i) defining vocabulary; ii) sense description; iii) coverage; iv) guide words; v) labels, vi) selectional restrictions; vii) false friends.

4.2. Defining vocabulary

4.2.1. A comparison is made between the defining vocabularies of *CIDE* and *LDCE*³.¹⁾ The results are shown below:

1) *OALD*⁵ and *COBUILD*² also make use of a restricted vocabulary for the definition of their entries. The former says that the number of the words used is 3,500, which is far beyond that of *CIDE*'s. The number claimed by the latter is 2,500. Unfortunately, however, a list of the words used is not given.

Table 5

	+CIDE, -LDCE	-CIDE, +LDCE
A	17 (119)	12 (138)
D	13 (91)	13 (101)
G	8 (50)	8 (55)
M	10 (87)	10 (95)
P	19 (140)	25 (177)
T	18 (117)	13 (120)
Total	85 (604)	81 (686)

Notes: i) [+CIDE, -LDCE] means the items are given in *CIDE* but not in *LDCE*³ whereas [-CIDE, +LDCE] represents those given in *LDCE*³ but not in *CIDE*.
 ii) Numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of defining vocabulary items listed next to the alphabet letter listed. Those in the lefthand column show *CIDE*'s and they do not include inflectional and derivative forms of each vocabulary item.¹⁾

The nineteen items under the letter P on the [+CIDE, -LDCE] side are as follows:

parcel, passive, pasta, pastry, penis, permit, petal, physics, pill, planet, pollute, precious, predeterminer, pregnant, preposition, pride, probable, pronoun, publish

The 25 items under P on the [-CIDE, +LDCE] side:

pack, package, pence, pepper, perhaps, petrol, pick up, pilot, plane, plenty, polish, population, pot, pound, president, pretty, prince, profession, progress, proper, proposal, protest, prove, pump, pupil

A glance will somehow give the impression that the first group consists of relatively difficult words while the second group contains more common words. This impression is confirmed by the following findings. These words have been checked with the frequency bands used in *COBUILD*². The average figure of [+CIDE, -LDCE] words was 1.947 while that of [-CIDE, +LDCE] words was 2.3125. In the same vein, the average figure

1) The numbers would be much larger if those inflectional and derivative forms listed were counted. For example, the 119 for A in the table changes to 243, which is more than twice the number.

of the former under M is 2.2 whereas that of the latter is 3.5. This shows that vocabulary items that, though still basic, are more on the periphery are included in *CIDE*'s defining vocabulary.

4.2.2. On page 1702 of *CIDE* are given the seven principles followed in choosing the defining vocabulary items, namely, (1) high frequency, (2) usefulness, (3) shared meaning in British and American English, (4) ease for learners, (5) avoidance of old-fashionedness, (6) avoidance of confusable words in English, and (7) avoidance of confusion with foreign words. It is to be noted that other dictionaries adopting a similar system are not as explicit. The specification of principles like these is a welcome feature of *CIDE*. However, the validity of including some words such as *digest* and *excrete* may well be questioned.¹⁾

One other feature of *CIDE*'s defining vocabulary that deserves to be mentioned is the inclusion of grammatical terms like *conjunction*, *determiner*, and *participle* as well as more familiar words like *noun* and *verb*. Shimaoka (1995: 74) observes that this is related to the second principle above and that the inclusion of grammatical terms is essential for the explanation of grammar to learners.

4.3. Sense description

4.3.1. Words of polysemy are divided according to the (core) meanings that they have and are assigned what *CIDE* calls guide words. This makes it easy for the user to find the meaning that he or she is looking for. However, certain single entries are still so loaded with meaning that they seem to render themselves hard for the user to understand. Take the verb *take* for example. The table on the next page shows correspondence relations between the three dictionaries. *CIDE*'s *take* **ACCEPT** has several related meanings in it, as shown by the table. This must be the reason why this particular entry is a great deal lengthier than the others. The same goes for many other entries such as *barrier*, *devour*, *magic* **IMAGINARY POWER**

1) These items are not included in any of the word lists of *COBUILD-LER*, *LDCE*³, or *OALD*⁵.

Table 6

LDCE ³		CIDE	OALD ⁵
① MOVE STH	1	REMOVE	1
② DO SOMETHING	2		2
③ NEED STH	3	ACCEPT	3
	4		4
	5		5
④ SCHOOL / EXAMS	6 FPh	HOLD	6
	7		7
	8		8
	9 FPh	CATCH	9
⑤ GET SOMETHING IN YOUR POSSESSION	10		10
	11		11
	12		12
	13 FPh	MOVE	13
	14 FPh		14
	15		15
⑥ TAKE PART	16 FPh	NEED	16
⑦ TAKE PLACE	17 FPh		17
⑧ ACCEPT SOMETHING	18	ACT	18
	19 FPh		19
	20		20
	21		21
⑨ SPOKEN PHRASES	22 FPh	REACTION	22
	23 FPh		23
	24 FPh		24
	25 FPh	RECEIVE	25
	26 FPh		26
	27 FPh		27
	28 FPh		28
⑩ OTHER MEANINGS	29	SEPARATE	29
	30		30
	31		31
	32 FPh	WRITE	32
	33 FPh		33
	34 FPh		34
	35	PHOTOGRAPH	35
	36		36
	37		37
	38	TRANSPORT	38
	39 FPh		39
	40		40
	41 FPh	PERFORM WELL	41
	42 FPh		
	43		
	44 FPh		
	45 FPh		
	46		
	47		

Note: FPh stands for fixed phrase. By that is meant that the entry concerned is headed by a fixed phrase or idiom.¹⁾

1) The meaning of the verb *take* used in idioms or fixed phrases can be difficult to identify. These entries, therefore, have been left out of account in the table.

and the like, that is, single words with several related meanings “that are slightly different from the main definition.” In the case of *tea*, for example, *CIDE* only gives “(a drink made by pouring hot water onto) dried and cut leaves and sometimes flowers, esp. the leaves of the tea plant.” The sense of a kind of meal must be sought further ahead. It seems fair to say that this method of presentation — giving a core meaning first and then some related meanings later by way of a label (fig.) or by a word or phrase in round brackets within an example sentence or by a complete sentence among the example sentences — makes it difficult for learners to find the meaning, especially those at lower intermediate level and who are false beginners. The introduction of guide words appears to make it easy to locate the word that the user is looking for, but the fact is that it is not so easy to get to the right meaning. The subject of guide words and their related problems will be taken up later.

Related to the problem mentioned above is the fact that the definitions of some words are so comprehensive or, to put it differently, so vaguely presented that it is difficult to identify some of the senses, assuming that those subdivisions of meaning are viable. Consider the following example:

*LDCE*³ *base*² 2 ► KNOWLEDGE / IDEAS ◀ the most important part of something from which new ideas develop
CIDE *base* **BOTTOM** the bottom part of an object, on which it rests, or the lowest part of something
base **MAIN PART** the main part of something

Is *LDCE*³'s *base*² 2 part of *CIDE*'s *base* **BOTTOM** or *base* **MAIN PART**? Alternatively, is it included in either definition at all? This way of presentation is far from being user-friendly.

Incidentally, it is a matter of profound interest to note that all of four dictionaries, namely *CIDE*, *LDCE*³, *OALD*⁵, and *COBUILD*² run the three senses of *film n.* in exactly the same order: ① motion picture; ② roll for use in photography; ③ thin coating or covering.¹⁾ Is this the result of large corpus-based findings?

1) These words were taken from Hindmarsh (1980). Incidentally, the arrangement found in *LDCE*¹ was ③-②-① and that in *LDCE*² was ②-①-③.

4.3.2. Derivative forms are given later in the entry as subentries in *CIDE*. It follows from this that some basic words, more commonly used, that deserve more attention are downgraded, if you will. Among these are such entries as *definitely*, *intellectual*, *probably*, *unfortunately* under *definite*, *intellect*, *probable*, *unfortunate*, respectively. They should be given due treatment.

Subentries are usually not accorded definition. It is true that some of them do not create any difficulties for users since their meanings are readily inferrable. How about *fated adj* under *fate n* and *share v* under *share* **PART** *n*?¹⁾ Can we call the treatment user-friendly?

4.3.3. Some phrasal verbs may well cause difficulty. For example, two instances of *take in* are listed at *take* **ACCEPT**. Also, four other senses of *take in* appear later as main entries. This means that the user has to figure out beforehand which sense of *take* is involved in the meaning of the phrasal verb that he or she is looking for. This must be rather too much for the user.

4.3.4. It may be pointed out that some features of colloquialism are found in the way that definitions and explanations are written:²⁾ (1) the use of *they*, *their*, or *them* in referring to *someone* or *a person* (e.g. *apologize*, *despise*, *revenge*, etc.); (2) the use of *you* in the sense of people in general (e.g. *confess*, *partner*, *sunset*, etc.); and (3) the use of split infinitives (e.g. *commend*, *repulse*, *urge* **ADVISE**, etc.).

4.4. Coverage

4.4.1. A survey has been conducted between *CIDE* and *LDCE*³ to see which of the two dictionaries covers wider areas of meaning of words. All entries including subentries on the following pages of *CIDE* have been

1) The first five example sentences of *share v* are all supplemented by phrases in round brackets by way of additional explanation.

2) These features are shared by *LDCE*³, but not by *OALD*⁵. For more discussion, see Shimizu et al. (1989), Kojima et al. (1989), and Takahashi et al. (1992).

scrupulously compared with the corresponding entries in *LDCE*³. The results are shown in the following table:

Table 7

alphabet	pages	headwords	+CIDE, -LDCE	-CIDE, +LDCE
B	100-1	55	2	11
G	600-1	45	2	1 (3) ¹⁾
P	1100-1	32	0	2
U	1600-1	71	1	5
Total	8	203	5	19 (21)

Note: The numbers of headwords indicate those of entries common to both *CIDE* and *LDCE*³.

As may be seen, the general tendency is that *LDCE*³ covers more than *CIDE* as far as entries common to both dictionaries are concerned. The point that should be made here is that, since *CIDE* gives only the core meaning of a main entry and other "slightly different meanings" are shown in separate ways, it is often difficult to say for sure that a given definition in one dictionary matches one in the other. Compare the following examples:

CIDE **urn** a container, esp. a large round one on a stem, which is used for decorative purposes in a garden, or one which has a lid and is used for holding the ASHES of a dead person's body which has been CREMATED (= burnt). An urn is also a large cylindrical metal container with a lid which is used for holding a large amount of drink such as tea or coffee and keeping it hot.

1) The figure depends on the interpretation of the corresponding items in question. The entry of *glove* in *CIDE* goes: a piece of clothing which covers the hand and wrist, with separate parts for each finger, and which provides warmth and protection. On the other hand, *LDCE*³'s counterpart divides into three senses: 1 a piece of clothing which covers your hand, especially one which has separate parts for each finger; 2 a large leather glove used in BOXING; 3 a large leather glove used to catch the ball in BASEBALL. The question is whether to take *CIDE*'s definition to correspond only to *LDCE*³'s first sense or to include all three of them.

LDCE³ urn 1 a decorated container, especially one that is used for holding the ashes (ASH) of a dead body **2** a metal container that holds a large amount of tea or coffee

Both explanations are explicit enough and *CIDE*'s is more informative. As for clarity and simplicity, however, *LDCE*³'s description would be more favorably taken, which points to the greater user-friendliness of that dictionary.

4.5. Guide words

4.5.1. Guide words are certainly a helpful means for the user to find the meaning. This is true especially of those words with, say, seven or eight meanings (e.g. *charge*, *hot*, *style*, etc.). It seems fair to say, however, that words with more than ten meanings such as *from*, *get*, *go*, and *out* can cause as much difficulty as when presented in the traditional way. For words of this kind, which have considerably longer entries, menus as introduced in *LDCE*³ may be one solution though they have to be reviewed in their own way.

4.5.2. How guide words are selected and applied to each entry is not mentioned anywhere in the dictionary. It is, therefore, hard to tell how far the guide words are made systematic use of. Two things may be pointed out in this connection. First, while the guide word of *shall* is **FUTURE TENSE**, that of *will* is **FUTURE**. Is there any significant difference here? I think not. Secondly, the part of speech of a headword does not always coincide with that of the guide word of that headword. For example, the verb *sell* has two entries, the guide words of which are **MONEY** and **PERSUADE**. It does not seem that this would cause any difficulty in finding the word in this particular case, but it could be misleading in some other cases.

4.6. Labels

4.6.1. A survey has been made on the same pages of *CIDE* as in section 4.4 to see what kind of labels are used in the dictionary and all entries have been compared with the corresponding entries of *LDCE*³ in terms of labels. The entries where there was any difference in labeling were classi-

fied into three groups: (I) those entries with some label in *CIDE*, but without any label in *LDCE*³; (II) those entries with no label in *CIDE*, but with some label in *LDCE*³; (III) others. In so doing, *CIDE*'s labels *specialized* and *dated* have been taken to be equivalent to *LDCE*³'s *technical* and *old-fashioned*, respectively and qualifiers such as *slightly* and *especially* have been ignored.¹⁾ The results are as follows:

Table 8

groups	entries	types ²⁾
(I) CIDE+, LDCE ³ ∅	20	region 5 field 2 situation 10 time 0 attitude 3
(II) CIDE∅, LDCE ³ +	25	region 15 field 5 situation 6 time 0 attitude 0
(III) CIDE+, LDCE ³ +	14	
Total	59	

Note: The number of entries for group II does not tally with the subtotal of types of labels thereof because one entry (i.e. *post*¹ 6) has two different labels attached to it, which are *formal* and *especially BrE*.

What is remarkable about group I is that labels showing situation, namely *fml* (= formal) and *infml* (= informal) are numerous. It may be inferred from this that *CIDE* lays special emphasis on this aspect of usage. On the other hand, what is striking about group II is the large number of region-related labels. Out of the fifteen occurrences of them, twelve are British English-related. It may be said that *CIDE* is less British English conscious than *LDCE*³.

1) In particular, *CIDE*'s use of this qualifier *esp.* is remarkably frequent.

2) Types of labels are taken from *LDCE*².

4.6.2. The third group is comprised of the following entries:¹⁾

	<i>CIDE</i>	<i>LDCE</i> ³
barf	<i>esp. Am slang</i>	<i>AmE informal</i>
barium meal	<i>Br and Aus</i>	<i>technical</i>
barren 2	<i>literary or specialized</i>	<i>old use</i>
glop	<i>infml</i>	<i>AmE informal</i>
glossy ¹ 2	<i>esp. disapproving</i>	<i>AmE</i>
post ² 1	<i>esp. Br, Aus also</i>	<i>especially BrE</i>
postbox	<i>esp. Br, Aus also</i>	<i>BrE</i>
postcode	<i>Br and Aus</i>	<i>BrE</i>
posterior ²	<i>fml</i>	<i>technical</i>
posthaste	<i>dated fml</i>	<i>literary</i>
urbanise	<i>Br and Aus usually</i>	<i>BrE</i>
urchin	<i>dated or humorous</i>	<i>old-fashioned</i>
us 2	<i>Br and Aus infml</i>	<i>BrE spoken²⁾</i>
	<i>not standard</i>	
use ¹ 5	<i>infml</i>	<i>spoken</i>

A close examination will reveal that, of these fourteen entries, those which are radically different from each other with no shared labels are *barium meal*, *barren 2*, and *glossy¹ 2*. All others have something in common in the sense that no clear line can be drawn between slang and informality and that technical words may be formal and so on.

4.7. Selectional restrictions

4.7.1. The description of selectional restrictions or cocurrence restrictions are an important part of a dictionary because this relates, above all, to the production dimension of the learner's linguistic ability. While some entries of *CIDE* do carry information that is not given by other dictionaries of comparable size, others leave something to be desired. I hasten to

1) The headwords are those of *LDCE*³. The reason for this is that some entries in *CIDE* are hard to cite in the form presented here.

2) As to this entry *us 2*, that is *us* in the sense of me, the entries of the two dictionaries are quite different as far as the labels used are concerned. That is not the case, however, if the whole articles of these entries are compared. *CIDE*'s label *not standard* is equivalent to the comment made in *LDCE*³ that "most people think this incorrect," whereas the label *spoken* in *LDCE*³ corresponds to the note given in *CIDE* "esp. used in spoken English."

add that the points that are made here are based on my random, rather than systematic, checks of the dictionary. Observe the following:

barrack	to shout loudly in order to interrupt (someone that you disagree with)
stout <i>adj</i>	(esp. of older people)
urbane	(esp. of a man) confident, comfortable and polite in social situations

These descriptions are not found in the corresponding entries of either *LDCE*³ or *OALD*⁵. They may be called good additions and add to the user-friendliness of the dictionary.

4.7.2. Next, examine the following examples:

barren	unable to produce plants or fruit, or . . . unable to have babies
suspect	THINK LIKELY to think or believe (something) to be true or probable

Of *barren*, *OALD*⁵ gives "2 (of plants and trees) not producing fruit or seeds. 3 (of women or female animals) not able to produce children or young." Of *suspect*, *LDCE*³ gives "1 to think that something is probably true or likely, especially something bad." As was previously pointed out, information of this kind is essential for non-native users of the dictionary who aim for the appropriate use of English. Again, many other examples can be cited, which is a sign that *CIDE* still has much room for improvement on these matters.

4.8. False friends

4.8.1. The introduction of false friends is a unique and welcome feature of *CIDE*. The dictionary gives false friends for sixteen different languages, namely Czech, German, Danish, Spanish, French, Greek, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Norwegian, Dutch, Portuguese, Polish, Russian, Swedish, and Thai. In the list of Japanese false friends are 144 words. It must have been quite a laborious job to select those words because Japanese is a language notorious for devouring foreign words and phrases and there are

tens of thousands of candidates. The main source is undoubtedly from English.¹⁾

4.8.2. As far as Japanese false friends are concerned, there are some that had better be corrected or even omitted, though I cannot go over all of them here. First, *concentric* should be *consent* because the Japanese pronunciation for コンセント “konsento” is closer to the former. Second, crank for クランケ “kuranke” may well be omitted because the word is no longer popular in contemporary Japanese.²⁾ Third, to the best of my knowledge, a trowel is not called スクープ “sukupu” in Japanese. If we say sukupu, it refers to “a story or piece of news discovered and published by one newspaper before all the others,” which is ‘scoop’ in English.³⁾ Fourthly, some English translations do not seem to be quite right: ハッスル “hassuru” would be to try [work] hard; マンツーマン “man tsu man” one on [to] one. I do not think that the latter is confined to talk.⁴⁾

It is extremely difficult to name just a few, but some of the leading candidates for the list would be *dorai* “dry” meaning something like “businesslike,” and *shapu penshiru* (more often abbreviated to *shapen*) “sharp pencil” indicating “a mechanical pencil.” The hard part of the selection lies in the fact that the so-called Japanese English words like these are so varied in kind as well as enormous in number.⁵⁾

(K. Akasu)

5. Grammar Labels

5.1.1. In section 5 the grammatical information in *CIDE* is analyzed.

1) Sato (1994) states that eighty percent of loanwords used in Japanese come from English.

2) This Japanese word *kuranke* comes from German. Asabane (1995) casts some doubt on *CIDE*'s treatment by saying that its list is a mixed bag, containing those words from languages other than English as well. He does have a point there, but I do not think that there is anything awkward or wrong about this treatment in *CIDE* because not all Japanese know whether a particular word or phrase comes from English or not.

3) This definition is taken from *CIDE*.

4) See Asabane (1995) for further comments.

5) See, for instance, Kojima (1988), Sato (1994), and Yamada (1995) for many other examples.

The grammar labels in *CIDE* are classified into two groups: one in italics and the other in square brackets. The former labels represent parts of speech and inflectional information and the latter labels cover syntactic features. In the following discussion we are primarily concerned with the latter.

The grammar labels in *CIDE* per se are very clear and easy to understand for several reasons. First of all there are no Arabic numerals used. Secondly only six capital letters are in use, of which all but [M]¹⁾ are familiar to us: [C], [I], [L], [T], and [U]. Thirdly most of the abbreviations for both the parts of speech and the grammatical words are the ones which are familiar to the user: *adj*, *adv*, *v*, *past*, *pl*, [+obj + adj], [+sing/pl v], etc. Moreover, technical terms such as *attributive*, *predicative*, and *nonassertive* are replaced by [before n], [after v] and [in negatives and questions] respectively. Furthermore, when a verb cannot be used in progressive tenses, the information is shown using the verb in question like [not *be knowing*]²⁾.

5.1.2. As far as the content of grammatical information is concerned, almost all the grammatical features the labels indicate are ordinary and have little new information to offer us. Some of them which appear to be new have already been given in one of its rival dictionaries: [+not/so] (*LDCE*¹: I believe so/not. [T5b]). So *CIDE* is not at all revolutionary in this respect. Besides *CIDE* fails to give quite a number of features which are given in its competitors, especially in *COBUILD*, say V-ERG. The only exception is that labelled as [after *so*].

5.1.3. The labels in italics are placed after the pronunciation of each entry. They are followed by those in brackets but these labels have two possible positions. When a grammatical pattern is true for all uses of the

1) *CIDE* says that the label is given to transitive verbs with an adverb that can come before or after the object, but it is not limited to such adverb cases. Perhaps [M] stands for ‘movable’.

2) In contrast when a transitive verb cannot be used in the passive (ex: *resemble*), *CIDE* does not label it [not *be resembled*] but just gives [no passive] to it.

word, the label in brackets is put between that in italics and the definition. This must have been done to save space. But when the grammatical pattern is true only for a particular use of the word, it is given after the example¹⁾. The same method of saving space has been adopted in *LDCE*²⁾ but in the dictionary when a noun is used both as a countable and an uncountable, [C] and [U] have not been given to particular examples. They have been placed before the definition together in square brackets as in *mess*¹ 5 [C; U]. So here *CIDE* is more meticulous than the other EFL dictionaries.

When a label is made up of parts which can be used independently as labels, their order is sometimes reversed. In *get* [BECOME] [I always + adv/prep] is placed after some of the examples because the verb in this sense is also used in other verb patterns, but in *get* [MOVE] [always + adv/prep] is put before the definition and [I] or [T] is put after each example. Maybe because of insufficient proofreading, [T] is sometimes absent when necessary, as can be seen in *discover* ([+ obj + to infinitive]), *judge* [DECIDE] ([+ obj + n/adj]), *promise* ([+ obj + (that) clause]), *hate* ([+ obj + v-ing]), etc.

5.1.4. In addition to the characteristics described in 5.1.1, *CIDE* has another user-friendly point. When a label is given that designates what kind of complement a verb can take such as [+ v-ing], those parts of the complementation in the example (*ing*, etc.) are shown in bold type. They include the following: *not, so* in [+ not/so], *as* in [+ obj + as n/adj], *to be* in [+ obj + to be n/adj], *that* in [+ obj + that clause] and [+ that clause], *to* in [+ obj + to infinitive] and [+ to infinitive]²⁾, *ed* in [+ obj + v-ed] (see [USE EYES]) and [+ v-ed] (*get* [BE])³⁾, *ing* in [+ obj + v-ing] and [+ v-ing], *wh* in

1) Inconsistencies can be seen in *regard*, where [T always + adv/prep] comes before the definition and the second example is labelled as [+ obj + as n/adj], and in *live* [HAVE A HOME], where [I always + adv/prep] is put before the definition, but there is one example labelled as [I].

2) In the cases of [+ infinitive without to] and [+ obj + infinitive without to], the base form of the verb is not shown in bold type.

3) In *keep* [STAY] *ed* is not in bold type. When the verb is an irregular one, it is not printed in bold type as in *make* [CAUSE TO BE].

[+ obj + *wh*-word] and [+ *wh*-word]¹⁾

In the case of [always + adv/prep] sometimes adverbs or prepositions are shown in bold type, and sometimes not as in *stay* [CONTINUE], and that depends on whether the combination is collocational or not.

5.1.5. In order to show collocational relations some labels are used in a flexible way in *CIDE*. For instance, the label [+ v-ing] has been given only to verbs (and *worth* (*LDCE*²⁾), but in *CIDE* it is also given to other parts of speech: *job* [PROBLEM], *always*, and *in* [CAUSE]. Of course, *ing* in the examples in these words is shown in bold type. From an educational point of view this is helpful to the user, but one of the major problems with *CIDE* is that the same label is given to examples which appear the same on the surface but are functionally different. Thus the label [+ to infinitive] is given to the following²⁾: *She's gone to meet Brian at the station.* (*go* [TRAVEL]), *What do you want to eat?* (*want* [DESIRE]). Similarly the following examples have the same label [T + obj + to infinitive]: *I've got several papers to edit before Wednesday.* (*have* [POSSESS]), *You should ask your accountant to give you some financial advice.* (*ask* [QUESTION]).

Related to the problem that we have just mentioned is the fact that *CIDE* (and its competitors as well) does not distinguish between transitive and intransitive verbs when verbs are immediately followed by [+ *that* clause], [+ to infinitive], [+ v-ing], or [+ *wh*-word] though [T] is given when they are followed by a nominal and one of these elements. Listed on page 730 are intransitive verbs which can be followed by an-ing participle, and the verb *keep* ([CONTINUE DOING]) is not included there, but it is uncertain whether it is transitive or intransitive even if you look it up in *CIDE*. Of course in some cases it is bafflingly difficult to draw a line, and the distinction does not seem so important, especially to beginners, but if the grammatical description is to be a systematic one, dictionaries should show their judgement particularly when they are intended for foreign learners. In

1) The first two letters, that is *wh* are printed in bold type. In the case of *if* and *how*, the words are shown in bold type.

2) The difference could be shown if different brackets were used: <+ to infinitive>.

fact, apart from the question of whether its judgement is right or wrong, *CIDE* makes judgements on adverbial objects: *Air pollution can travel great distances.* [I], *I can run a mile in 5 minutes.* [T] (run **GO QUICKLY**), *The meeting lasted two hours.* [L only + n] (last **CONTINUE**).

5.1.6. In *CIDE* the application of the grammar labels is sometimes complicated and inelegant because it is different depending on whether a group of words is regarded as phrases / idioms or not. The labels are given when the headword in an example is not in bold type, that is to say when the word(s) it joins can be taken as a preposition partner or a word partner (collocation) or in the case of grammar patterns: *They arrived early to get a place at the head of the queue.* [U] (head **TOP PART**), *There were a lot of people waiting to use the telephone.* [+ to infinitive] (wait). But they are not given when both the headword and the word/s it joins is/are given in bold type, namely when the combination is treated as a phrase or an idiom: *She's got an old/wise head on young shoulders.* (head **BODY PART**), *I can't wait to see you*¹. This is one of the factors which make its description of compound verbs very complicated, as we shall see later.

5.2.1. In 5.2 the treatment of nouns in *CIDE* is discussed. The labels relevant to them are the following: [as form of address], [C], [not after *the*], *pl*, *pl n*, [+ sing / pl v], [U], [usually pl], [usually sing], [+ *that* clause], [+ to infinitive], [+ *v-ing*], [+ *wh-word*].

5.2.2. *CIDE* describes the plural forms of nouns fairly well. Needless to say, irregular plurals are given. In addition plurals are given when nouns end in *o*: **potatoes**, **pianos**. But plurals like *cities* are not given. When a noun has a zero plural besides its regular one, both forms are shown, but there are two orders of presentation: **quails quail** and, **swine swines**. Does this reflect the difference in their frequency? As for irregular pronunciation, it is found in *houses* and both pronunciations can be seen in *truths*, but

1) When a bold-faced word other than the main word takes a *to infinitive*, etc, the information is given as in *I fail to see what you're getting at.* [+ *wh-word*] (fail **NOT DO**).

not in *oaths* and *youths*.

5.2.3. In *CIDE* nouns are classified into three groups according to their relationship with the definite article: those which can go with it, those which cannot, and those which must. As for the last group *the* + the noun in question is shown in bold type after the pronunciation. The explanation on xiii divides the first into [C], [U] and *pl n*. Nouns which have a plural are labelled [C] and nouns which do not are labelled [U]. Nouns in the plural which do not have a singular form are labelled *pl n*. They are entered in the plural form: **manners** and *means* **METHOD**, which could be regarded as having the same singular form, is also marked *pl n*.

As a result even if a noun is used with the indefinite article, [U] is given to the noun as long as it cannot be used in the plural: *Have a smell of this perfume.* (smell **DISCOVER**)¹. Of course on xiii *CIDE* says uncountable nouns are not *usually* used with *a/an*, but foreign learners may find it difficult to understand why nouns used with *a/an* is labelled [U]. According to the explanation on xiii [U] and [C] are given to the first group, but actually both are also given to some cases of the second and the former label is given to the last group.

5.2.4. In this section we are mainly concerned with the question of whether noun examples are adequately and consistently labelled by the codes.

The treatment of [as form of address] is fairly good. *Bastard* **UNPLEASANT** and even the adjective *beautiful* are labelled as such, but it is missing from *lady* **WOMAN** and *rotter* though they have an example. Moreover, both the example and the label are missing in *son*, *Father* **PRIEST** and *professor* though *LDCE*³ gives its examples in these cases.

As just mentioned, *CIDE* gives [U] and [C] to some of the nouns la-

1) In *LDCE*² these nouns are labelled as [S]. *CIDE* sometimes shows its idiomatic nature by showing *a* or *an* in bold type but sometimes it does not: *I always find spy-thrillers a good read.* (read **UNDERSTAND**), *I don't want to be a bother . . .* (bother **ANNOY**), *"It was such a pleasure to meet you," she said politely.* (pleasure), *She has a liking for expensive liqueurs.* (like **ENJOY**).

belled [not after *the*]: Easter [C usually sing; not after *the*], Venus [U not after *the*], and Downing Street [U not after *the*]. But neither is to be found in *Christmas*.

Proper nouns which are always followed by *the* are generally labelled as [U] (Kremlin, Pentagon **BUILDING**) except for idiomatic cases (Middle East, Milky Way). This is not confined to proper nouns, but it also applies to some common nouns: matter **PROBLEM**, bottle **ALCOHOL**, sack **DISMISS**. But as already mentioned, no label is given when they become part of a phrase or idiom: axe **REDUCE**.

Apart from cases like *means* **METHOD**, it seems that *pl n* is not problematic. When this kind of noun can be followed not only by a plural verb but also by a singular verb, they are labelled as [U + sing/pl v]¹⁾: Commons, Lords. They are labelled as such probably because they do not have a plural and can be followed by a singular verb, but is it not contradictory to say that nouns labeled [U] can be followed by a plural verb?

The nouns labelled [+ sing/pl v] usually have examples of both concords, but the example in *couple* **TWO PEOPLE** is followed only by a plural verb and *corporation* **BUSINESS** has the label only. The words found without this label are the following: club, college **EDUCATION**, community, company **BUSINESS**, majority, minority.

The code [usually pl] seems to lie between [C] and *pl n* and it is given to nouns labelled [C]: *ethic, tactic*.

The other labels, which show what kind of grammar pattern a noun is followed by, are put after [U] or [C], thus offering more detailed information than its competitors: *The reason why grass is green was a mystery to the little boy*. [C + *wh*-word] ● *The reason (that) I'm asking is (that) I wondered if you'd be able to help me*. [C + (*that*) clause] ● *The police have (every good) reason to believe that he is guilty*. [U + *to* infinitive] (reason **EXPLANATION**), (*She had a lot of trouble trying*²⁾ *to explain to her husband where the money had gone*. [U + *v*-ing] (trouble **DIFFICULTIES**).

1) Here again [U] is used.

2) In the other examples not only the *ing* but also the verbs are shown in bold type: *Did you have any trouble getting a work permit?*

When the usage is different between British and American dialects, that is shown like this: *I'd like to complain to the neighbors about the noise but I don't want to cause any bad (Br) feeling / (Am) feelings*. [U/C] (feel **EXPERIENCE**). When both are possible, that is presented as follows: *Nationalist sentiment/sentiments has/have increased in the area since the bombing* [U; C]. But to take a few examples, [C] is missing in *enchantment* and *enjoyment* and there is no label given in *plight* **CONDITION**.

To sum up, the major problem with the labels concerning nouns is that the coverage of [U] is wider than it should be because *CIDE* has fewer labels than its rival dictionaries. On the other hand, what deserves to be praised is that [U] and [C] are given to each example when nouns can be used as both.

5.3.1. In this section the treatment of adjectives is considered. The labels relevant to them are as follows: [after n], [after v], [before n], [not gradable], [+ *that* clause], [+ *to* infinitive], [+ *v*-ing], [+ *wh*-word].

5.3.2. When adjectives have no comparative or superlative forms¹⁾ like *atomic*, [not gradable] is given to them but it is wrongly given to *wrong* **NOT CORRECT**, which is gradable. On the other hand, inflectional comparative and superlative forms are put after *adj* in each entry: long **DISTANCE** (-er, -est)²⁾, large (-r, -st), thin **NOT THICK** (**thinner, thinnest**), busy (-ier, -iest). These forms are given in each entry, so -er and -est are found in nine entries in the case of *hard* (including the adverb cases). To name a few inadequacies, the second forms (-r, -st) in *little* **SMALL** and *little* **YOUNG** should be labelled infml³⁾, and the first forms (-er, -est) are wrong in *ill* **NOT WELL**. Furthermore, *bright* **HAPPY** lacks -er, -est though it has a comparative form example. The other adjectives, which are unmarked, are periphrastic ones.

1) *Down* **UNHAAPY** and *in* **FASHIONABLE** have no comparative and superlative form but the label is absent from them.

2) Unfortunately their irregular pronunciation is not given. Nor are *strong* and *young*.

3) See 7. 78 Note in *CGEL*.

5.3.3 [after n] is limited to adjectives which only follow a noun: Inc, Ltd, proper **MAIN**. So it is not given to *available* and *enough* though they have an example in which they come after a noun¹.

[after v] is not given to *ready* **PREPARED** and *unable* and [before n] is missing from *sheer* **COMPLETE**, *polar* and *yearly*. In some cases it is surmised that they are not given because more than one senses are put under one headword as can be seen in specific². When a word has more than one sense, *CIDE* enters it as separate words, but when it has a meaning which differs slightly from the definition, this is shown or explained in an example. In the latter case meanings are not divided by numerals or letters of the alphabet, unlike other dictionaries. As a result such labels as are always put before definitions (ex: [after v]) cannot be used unless they are true for all the meanings.

To give an example of inadequate labelling, [before n], which should be given to *fond* **FOOLISH**, is mistakenly given to *fond* **LIKING**.

As is the case with the other dictionaries, syntactic labels such as [+ to infinitive] are given regardless of their function and that leaves much room for improvement: *I'm glad (that) you came.* [+ (that) clause] ● *They were glad to know the parcel had arrived safely.* [+ to infinitive] (glad), *It's quite likely (that) we'll be in Spain this time next year.* [+ (that) clause] ● *Do remind me because I'm likely to forget.* [+ to infinitive] (likely), *There are only two things worth reading in this newspaper — the TV listings and the sports page.* [+ v-ing]³ (worth), *She's not sure if she'll be able to meet us for a drink tonight.* [+ wh-word] (sure).

As [+ that clause] is given to the clause introduced by *it* in one of the above examples, so is [+ to infinitive] given to the construction like: *It's⁴ important for children to learn to get on with each other* (important). In these kinds of example there are a lot of inconsistencies as to what is to be shown in bold type. For instance, look at the following cases: *Wasn't it nice of*

1) *Net* **LEFT OVER** is labelled [before or after n].

2) In *LDCE*² specific¹ has three senses and the second and third are labelled [A] and [F + to] respectively.

3) An example in *busy* is followed by an *ing*-phrase but [+ v-ing] is not given.

4) In *likely it's* is in bold type, but here only *it* is in bold type.

them to invite us? (nice **PLEASANT**), *It was foolish of them to hope that he would change his ways.* (foolish), *It was so ridiculous of them to have a party starting at 10pm.* (ridiculous) (no label). Similarly when the introductory *it* is used, the pronoun is usually shown in bold type but that in regular type is sometimes found: clear **CERTAIN**, fair **RIGHT**, likely. The same is true with the following nouns¹ and verbs: custom **USUAL ACTIVITY**, intention, job **DUTY**, pay **PROFIT**.

5.4. The topic of this section is adverbs: The following labels are related to them: [before adv/prep], [not gradable], etc.

Comparative and superlative forms are given unless they are periphrastic. Even *here* and *yet* are marked [not gradable], but the label is missing from *seldom*.

Adverbs are labeled [before adv/prep] if they are placed immediately before an adverb or a preposition: bang **EXACTLY**, full **STRAIGHT**, right **EXACTLY** and smack **EXACTLY**. But this label is missing from the following cases: *You won't be able to change his mind — he's dead against the plan.* ● *The post office is dead ahead.* (dead **COMPLETE**), *The results are well above/below/beyond what we expected.* ○ *The child was standing well apart from the rest of the group.* (well **TO A GREATER DEGREE**). The reason for its absence may be that *well* and *dead* in these senses can also be used in other positions, but then preferably this label should be given to these particular examples. On the other hand, in *all* **COMPLETELY** this label is put before the definition though it has examples in which the word comes before an adjective.

Only these two are given as labels related to adverbs in the inside front cover², but in *ago* *CIDE* has the following label which is not explained anywhere: [after n or adv].

The long label [usually in negatives and questions] is given to several parts of speech³ and it is found in such adverbs as *yet* **UNTIL NOW**, any **AT**

1) For example *it* is boldfaced in *idea* **SUGGESTION**.

2) *COBUILD*² has more labels: ADV with cl (sentence-modifying adverbs), ADV before v (adverbs of frequency).

3) For example, this is given to a determiner (any **SOME**), a verb (dare **BE BRAVE / RUDE**), etc.

ALL. *Too* **VERY** is labelled [usually in negatives], but in *either* **ALSO** the definition gives the explanation like this: used in negatives instead of also or too.

5.5.1. In this section verbs are analyzed. The following labels are used in their description: [always + adv], [always + prep], [always + adv/prep], [+ clause], [I], [+ infinitive without *to*], [L], [L only + n], [L only + adj], [M], [no passive], [not *be* — *ing*], [+ *not/so*], [+ obj + adj], [+ obj + n], [+ obj + n/adj], [+ obj + *as* n/adj], [+ obj + *to be* n/adj], [+ obj + *that* clause], [+ obj + *to* infinitive], [+ obj + infinitive without *to*], [+ obj + *v-ed*], [+ obj + *v-ing*], [+ obj + *wh*-word], *past*, *past part*, *past simple*, [T], [T; I + prep], [+ *that* clause], [+ *to* infinitive], [+ two objects], [usually passive], *v aux*, *v adv*, *v adv prep*, *v adv/v prep*, *v prep*, [+ *v-ed*], [+ *v-ing*], [+ *wh*-word].

5.5.2. The information about the forms of verbs is provided fairly well. The past form of regular verbs is shown in bold type when they end in *o* or when the last consonant letter must be repeated, but *CIDE* does not give the forms like *studied* where the letter *y* must be changed to *i* before *ed* is added. Similarly the regular third-person singular is given if verbs end in *o*: *veto*, *go*¹⁾. On the other hand, when verbs are irregular, the past (*past simple*) and the past participle (*past part*) forms are given. When they are the same, the form labelled *past* is given. But *CIDE* fails to give the irregular forms of *hide*.

5.5.3. In *CIDE* the five basic sentence patterns, which are familiar to Japanese learners, are labeled as below:

- (1) [I], [I always + adv/prep]
- (2) [L], [L only + adj], [L only + n]²⁾
- (3) [T], [T always + adv/prep]

1) Needless to say *does* and its pronunciation are given, but that of *says* is not.

2) [L (+ obj) + n] is given to the following cases: *We only have enough supplies to last (us) a week.* (last **CONTINUE**), *It took us all day to drive home.* (take **NEED**).

- (4) [+ two objects]
- (5) [T + obj + n/adj], [T + obj + adj], [T + obj + n]

As has already been mentioned, [T] or [I] is not given when a verb is immediately followed by *that* clauses, etc., but [T] is usually given when it is followed by a nominal which functions as the object.

Most of the verbs which can be used in the second sentence pattern have their examples labelled [L] but the label is missing from *emerge* **APPEAR** (*The prince has emerged unscathed from the scandal.*) and even the example is absent in *die* **STOP LIVING**¹⁾. *Constitute* **FORM PART OF** is marked [L], but should it be replaced with [L only + n]? Of course, there are minor inconsistencies as in [L (+ to be)] in *look* **SEEM** and [L + (to be) n/adj] in *prove* **SHOW**²⁾. But what is of benefit to the *CIDE* user is that the idiomatic relationship between a verb and its complement is shown by putting the latter in bold type: *He always falls asleep after drinking red wine.* (fall **BECOME**)

CIDE gives [+ two objects] to almost all those verbs which should be accompanied by the label but *recommend* is without its example though it is listed in VERBS WITH TWO OBJECTS. Apart from *send* **POST** and *show* **MAKE SEEN**, the paraphrase using the preposition *to* or *for*³⁾ is also found in almost all the cases when possible. When both forms are shown, prepositionless examples usually precede their paraphrases but only in *lease* and *lend* the order is reversed. Does this have anything to do with their frequency?

When the complement is restricted either to adjectives or nouns in the second sentence pattern, that information is shown with *only*. But this is not used in the fifth-sentence-pattern cases, which is probably to save space, so it is uncertain whether or not [+ obj + n] means that the verb cannot take adjectives⁴⁾.

1) *OALD*⁵, *COBUILD*², *LDCE*³ each have an example in this pattern.

2) Neither of these labels is explained on the inside front page. At least, the latter is wrong.

3) The paraphrase is missing in *show* **MAKE SEEN** and there [T + two objects] is used.

4) In *certify* there are three examples whose complement is an adjective. Two are labelled [T + obj + (as) n/adj] and the other is [T + obj + adj]. Does the last case mean that nouns cannot be used as the complement?

Like the second sentence pattern, the complement is also shown in bold type in the fifth sentence pattern when the connection is idiomatic: *Some thug knocked him unconscious / senseless.* (knock **HIT**).

The pattern which needs *as* between the object and the complement is labelled [+ obj + *as* n/adj]. It is given to *consider* **OPINION** and *regard*, but it is not found in *see* **CONSIDER** and *view* **OPINION**. In these cases *as* is just printed in bold type. In *perceive* and *recognize* there is no example in which *as* is used. Another pattern which should be included in the fifth sentence pattern is labelled [+ obj + *to be* + n/adj]: *consider*, *declare*, *feel*, *guess*, etc. But *believe*, *suppose*, and *think*, etc are labelled [+ obj + *to* infinitive] because they take verbs other than *be*¹⁾.

When adverbials are obligatory in the first and third sentence patterns, [always + adv/prep] is used to indicate that. Thus the long labels like [I always + adv/prep] are used repeatedly if the verb is also used in a different pattern as in *lie* **POSITION**.

Adverbs or prepositions are often shown in bold type, but sometimes not. That depends on whether or not they are collocationally more important than the other word(s). For example, look at the following examples in *put* **OPERATION**: *When the drugs failed to cure her, she put her faith/trust in herbal medicine.* ● *The new tax will put 8% on fuel prices.* ● *She told her children to put an end to / a stop to their fighting.*

When the preposition is limited to a particular one, that is shown by putting both the verb and the preposition as a main entry like: **belong to** *obj*, **accustom** *obj to obj*. But inconsistency can be found in the fact that *CIDE* has a different label to refer to that: [always + *of*] in *rid*²⁾.

When a verb takes direct speech as its object, it is indicated by [+ clause]. This label is given to most of the verbs which can be used in this pattern. The following are cases where *COBUILD*² has its corresponding label, V with quote but *CIDE* fails to give examples: *advise*, *announce*, *assert*,

1) These should be labelled [+ obj + *to be* + n/adj] or [+ obj + (*to be*) + n/adj] with a note saying that other verbs can be used in this pattern, especially when their meaning is static such as *have* in perfective infinitives.

2) In *sit* **BE SEATED** we find another label which does not appear in the inside front cover: [usually + adv/prep]

assure, *beg*, *claim* **SAY**, *command*, *comment*, *complain*, *conclude*, *confess*, *continue*, *insist*, *muse*, *observe*, *pray*, *proclaim*, *reason*, *report*, *state*, *storm*, *suggest*, *tell*, *vow*, *warn*¹⁾.

We find [+ infinitive without *to*] in such verbs as *feel* **EXPERIENCE**. *Make* **FORCE** and *see* **USE EYES** have a passive example, but the labels are different: [passive + obj + *to* infinitive], [T + obj + *to* infinitive; passive]. It is also given to most of the auxiliaries²⁾. Though it should be given to *help* **MAKE EASIER** as well, another label is found there to save space: [+ (*to*) infinitive]³⁾.

[M] is given to transitive phrasal verbs whose object can come both after and before the particle, but it is not confined to such cases. It is also given to cases where the movable element is an adjective or an adverbial phrase: *The thieves broke the safe open and stole the diamonds.* (break **USE FORCE**), *A new type of electronic encyclopedia has been brought into being.* (bring **CAUSE**).

Both [no passive] and [usually passive] are related to the passive voice. The former is found in a few cases such as *die*⁴⁾ and *resemble* and there are a lot of verbs which lack it: *become* **SUIT**, *escape*, *flee*, *get* **BECOME ILL WITH**, *have* **POSSESS**, *lack*, etc. Moreover, the latter is absent in some cases: *acclaim*, *hospitalize*, *overcome*, *populate*, *staff*, *subsume*, *suspend* **HANG**⁵⁾. In addition there is an inconsistency when a verb is always used in the passive voice, for *shipwreck* is labelled as [always passive]⁶⁾, but in the case of *situate* it is entered in the form of the past participle.

The label [not *be* — *ing*] is given to all the auxiliaries except *be*, *have*, and *used*, but it is limited to only a few cases as far as verbs are concerned: *deem*, *know* (in both senses), and *understand* **KNOW**, etc. *Depend* and *want*

1) In these cases *COBUILD*² has the label, V with quote.

2) In *ought* and *used* **IN THE PAST** [+ *to* infinitive] is given, and in *need* **MUST DO** both [+ infinitive without *to*] and [+ *to* infinitive] are used.

3) It is also used in *dare* **BE BRAVE / RUDE** together with [+ infinitive without *to*]

4) In *die* the label applies to cognate object cases. *Smile* has the same case, but it lacks the label.

5) *COBUILD*² labels these as *usu* passive.

6) The label [often passive], which is unexplained on the inside front page, is found in *deem*.

lack this label. Probably this is partly because verb senses are not minutely classified (ex: taste **FLAVOUR**) and partly because the restraint is too tight, but this is a problem, so labels such as [rarely *be — ing*] or [not usually *be — ing*] should be used¹⁾.

The labels in the inside front cover which designate the restraint on the voice and tense (or aspect) are confined to those we have just discussed, but *CIDE* has several others like [not in past tenses] (let **SUGGEST**), [usually in commands] (get **LOOK**).

The treatment of [+ *not/so*] is not satisfactory because *expect* and *guess* lack the label and examples. In *suppose* **THINK LIKELY** there are two examples labelled [+ *not/so*] and only *not* or *so* appears in these examples. But in addition to the examples there are two labelled either [+ *so*] or [+ *not*]. Is there any difference between these two kinds of examples? On the other hand, [after *so*] is found in *appear*, *seem*, *think*, *understand*. The same example is seen in *say* **SPEAK** and *see* **UNDERSTAND**, but in the former it is labelled only [+ *so*], and the label is not given in the latter.

In some cases which are labelled [+ *obj + that clause*]²⁾, the object is not obligatory. Such objectless examples are found in *promise*, *show* **PROVE**, *warn*, but not in *teach*. In *confess*, where *to* is obligatory before the object, it is shown in bold type and the label [+ *that clause*] is given, but this kind of presentation is not found with most of the verbs used in the pattern: admit **ACCEPT**, explain and say **SPEAK**, etc.

As already mentioned in 5.1.5, [+ *obj + to infinitive*]³⁾ is given to examples which have the same structure on the surface. To give another example, it is found in cases like the following: *I think it amuses him to see people make fools of themselves*. (amuse) Though *COBUILD*² gives this label and examples *to need* and *wish*, *CIDE* lacks them. When used in the passive, the same label is used in *entitle* **ALLOW**, *force* **DO UNWILLINGLY**, *impel*, etc., but [+ *to infinitive*] is used in *condemn* (cf. obliged, compel). The

1) In fact this label is used in *dare* **BE BRAVE / RUDE**.

2) The same label is given to the following case: *I put it to you, Ms Dawson, that you were in the building at the time of the murder*. (put **EXPRESS**)

3) This label is mistakenly given to the following in *allow* **PERMIT**: *The government has refused to allow foreign journalists into the area for several weeks*.

same label is also given to cases such as: *She's arranged for her son to have swimming lessons* (arrange **PLAN**). But [I] is given to the following, though it has the same structure: *I'm sorry for the delay, but I'm still waiting for the letter to arrive*. (*wait*)

CIDE attaches [+ *obj + v-ing*] to cases whose structure is superficially identical: *I hate him telling me what to do to all the time*. (*hate*), *I could hear someone calling my name*. (*hear* **RECEIVE SOUND**)¹⁾ and it says nothing about the difference. Moreover, there are some verbs which go unlabelled. The following verbs are found with either of the corresponding labels and an example in *OALD*⁵: contemplate, detest, dislike, like **ENJOY**, love **LIKE SOMETHING**, miss **REGRET**, resent, start **BEGIN**.

As is the case with [+ *obj + to infinitive*], [+ *obj + wh-word*] is given not only to the cases like: *Ask the guard whether she knows*. (*ask* **QUESTION**), but also to the cases like: *It amazes me how you can put up with living in such a dirty house*. (*amaze*)²⁾. When used in the passive, the same label is found in *amaze* and *surprise*.

When [T; I + prep] is used, that means a transitive verb which can be used as an intransitive verb when followed by a preposition. It seems that the label is used when the meaning is almost the same regardless of the existence of the preposition. *Pluck* **MUSIC**, which is labeled [T; I + *at*], has three examples and they show both transitive and intransitive uses at the same time by using parentheses: *He sat on the bed, idly plucking (at) the strings of his guitar*. In passing, parentheses are also used like this: *The soldiers resisted (the enemy attacks) for two days*, and these cases are labelled [I/T].

When a verb always needs an object, that is shown by *obj* which is put just after the entry: *keep obj* **POSSESS**. When it can also be used intransitively like *pluck* **MUSIC** and *resist*, that is shown by putting the label in parentheses: *keep (obj)* **STAY**. The fact that a verb has neither *obj* nor (*obj*) means that the verb can be used only as an intransitive one, and such verbs

1) *OALD*⁵ distinguishes between them using the different labels: [V. n *ing*] and [Vn. *ing*].

2) In *puzzle* the following is labelled [+ *wh-word*]: *It puzzles me why she said that*.

as *hope* and *think*¹⁾ are included in this group.

Some of the verbs labelled [+ *that* clause] are used in the passive with *it* as the subject. In *CIDE* *agree*, *allege*, *expect*, and *say* have this kind of example, but it is lacking in *know* [HAVE INFORMATION]. To the example in *agree* [T + obj + *that* clause] is given, but the other examples are marked [+ *that* clause] or [+ (*that*) clause]. Except *agree* in addition to them, *COBUILD*² has a passive example in the following: announce, argue [REASON], recommend, remember, report [TELL], reveal, understand.

Like [+ obj + v-*ing*], [+ v-*ing*] is given to both of the following: *The problem is deciding what to do.* (be [QUALITY]), *Don't talk about that while I'm eating.* (be [CONTINUE]), so gerunds and present participles are not distinguished in this pattern either²⁾.

The label [+ *wh*-word] is used either when a verb is followed by a *wh*-clause or by a *wh*-word + *to* infinitive. Almost all the verbs which can take the former can also be used with the latter, but we find only a few cases where *CIDE* has both kinds of example: *decide*, *forget*. Furthermore, the label is mistakenly given to the following: 'Who shall I say is calling?' (say [SPEAK]), *Do what you are told.* (tell [SPEAK]).

5.6.1. This section is devoted to phrasal verbs. They are called compound verbs in *CIDE*. Some of the labels given to verbs are also found in them: [always + prep] (put in [OFFER]), [+ clause] (put in [SAY]), [+ obj + v-*ing*] (put off [DISLIKE]), [+ v-*ing*] (put off [DELAY]), [+ *that* clause] (turn out [BECOME]), etc.

5.6.2. One of the problems with *CIDE* is that the presentation is complicated because degrees of idiomaticity are shown differently. (1) When the basic meaning of the verb is not changed, only the adverb or preposition is put in bold type. (2) When the adverb or preposition adds a more figurative meaning related to a basic meaning of a verb, both the verb and the adverb or preposition are put in bold type. (3) When the adverb or

1) *LDCE*² uses *obj* to refer to this kind of verb, which can take a *that*-clause, etc but cannot take a nominal.

2) It is also given to the following: *His story took some believing* (take [NEED]).

preposition completely changes the meaning of the verb, the combination is entered separately. For example, the verb-adverb combination, *get in* is found as (1) in *get* [OBTAIN], *get* [BECOME], *get* [CAUSE], *get* [MOVE], and *get* [REACH] and as (2) in *get* [OBTAIN] and as (3) in *get in* [FIND TIME], *get in* [SAY]. This kind of classification based on idiomaticity itself is not undesirable but the problem is that the presentation requires the user to take a lot of time to locate a phrase when it has a lot of entries and when its sense is unfamiliar, even if the phrase index is available at the end of the dictionary.

So far as labelling is concerned, when the particle is an adverb, it can usually come before or after the object without any change in meaning. The indicator of this information is [M] but here is an inconsistency because in (1) and (3) the label is given, but not in (2). Instead the definition shows the possibility like the following: If you **settle in** someone / **settle someone in**, you help them become familiar with a new job, place, etc. In (3) in addition to [M] the phrase is entered like this: **get in** obj [FIND TIME], **get obj in**¹⁾.

When the adverb must come either before or after the object, [T] is given²⁾. In (1) this restraint is shown by the order of the verb and adverb in the example (and their order in the definition): *The hospital kept her in overnight for observation.* (keep [STAY]), If you put a baby **down**, you move it into the place where it sleeps: *We always put Dorothy down for a nap in the middle of the morning.* (put [MOVE]), *Every night, she puts out her clothes* (= takes them from where they are kept so that they are ready) *for the next day.* (ibid.)³⁾. In (2) that is shown by their order in the definition and/or the

1) When the object can be omitted, it is put in parentheses: **put in** (obj) [OFFER], **put** (obj) **in**.

2) When the adverb can be omitted, [T/M] is used: *We could use a machine to break (up) the ground first* (break [DIVIDE]).

3) In *put* [MOVE] [T always + adv/prep] is given before the definition, so if [M] is absent from an example, it is automatically regarded as [T]. But [T] is given to the following: *I'm just going to put my feet up* (= rest and relax) *for a little while*. Is this because the example is between two examples labelled [M]? Moreover, the following example is unmarked: *The match has been put back* (= delayed) *to next Wednesday because the pitch is waterlogged*. This is in the passive, so it's impossible to tell whether the adverb comes before or after the object. This is probably because the phrase is usually used in the passive. But then [usually passive] should be given.

example: To **get** something **down** is to succeed in swallowing it although it is difficult: *Her throat was so swollen that she couldn't get the tablets down.* (get **CAUSE**), *She was crying so much I thought she'd **bring up** (= vomit) her breakfast.* (bring **TAKE**). In (3) the order is shown by the entry and the example: **get up** *obj* **CAUSE**, **bring** *obj* **to**.

(R. Matsumoto)

6. Examples

6.1. *CIDE* is characterized by an abundance of examples — it is possibly the only serious contender to *COBUILD* in providing a very large number of (long) example sentences. Most of them, as the dictionary claims, come from its corpus of 100 million words, both written and spoken.

6.2. Word partnerships

6.2.1. The dictionary says in the section *How to use the dictionary* (p. x), “example sentences . . . show how the word is most commonly used”. This is one of the simplest ways of describing the major function of examples in a dictionary. Suppose, for instance, you want to talk about “causing a miracle to happen” and do not know which verb(s) should go with the noun ‘miracle’ to form a good English sentence. You look it up in your dictionary and you will find the answer: perform or work (or do) a miracle. Such collocation information is now an integral part of any EFL dictionary. In *CIDE* such word partners are highlighted in examples by printing in bold type a word or words regularly found with the word being looked up, as in *You've **performed/worked** a miracle on this kitchen — I've never seen it so clean.* To give some idea of the types of word partnership *CIDE* covers, let us give some examples. (Some sentences are partially omitted.)

*She **put/threw** her arms **around** me, and gave me a hug.* (arm)

*She **gave** me some **good/bad/sound/unsolicited** advice.* (advice)

*I was **taken/held** (as a) hostage by the gunmen.* (hostage)

*I suppose his criticism was **fair**.* (criticism)

*. . . can be a long and **painful** process.* (process)

*When my father was a **young** boy . . .* (boy)

*Is it nature or nurture that makes **girls** and boys think so differently?*

(boy)

*The **effects** of poverty are clear to see, but finding its causes is . . .*

(cause)

As if magic/Like magic (magic)

*The cost . . . has increased **dramatically/greatly/substantially** . . .*

(increase)

*. . . celebrate . . . my birthday **by** going out to dinner* (celebrate)

*We've been **happily** married (for) five years.* (marry)

*. . . **the** ubiquitous spread of English* (ubiquitous)

As we can see from this random list, *CIDE* gives a much wider range of word partners than we might expect, and does not limit itself to what we normally think of as collocations.¹⁾

When “a group of words has a special meaning which is not clear from the meanings of the separate words”, that is, when the phrase is an idiom, “the main word and one or more other words are shown in bold together”: *He's just a **big/great** girl's blouse.*

6.2.2. Under **fed up** there is this example: (*esp. Br and Aus*) *I'm fed up to **the back teeth** (= very fed up) **with/of** being criticized by people who know nothing about my work.* This case might pose difficulty for the user in identifying word partnerships. ‘Fed up to the back teeth’ should be treated as one (idiomatic) expression, as it is in *LDCE*³ and the partnership ‘fed up **with/of**’ should be treated separately. Putting two different levels of partnerships side by side and highlighting them at the same time must be very confusing to the user.²⁾

6.2.3. In the Foreword the chief editor says “Another innovation is the treatment of collocation . . . Lack of this information [about which words

1) Considering the principle of highlighting commonly used neighboring word(s), the following example should not come as a surprise: *The children's favourite dinosaur is Tyrannosaurus **Rex**.* However, we cannot help wondering how many users would benefit from the partnership information in this particular case, though some may find here the answer to the question why dinosaur characters in films are sometimes called “Rex”.

2) It's not clear whether the label *esp. Br and Aus* is intended to cover, the expression ‘fed up to the back teeth’, or ‘fed up’ itself?

are most typically found with a particular word] is one of the last serious barriers against a learner achieving fluency. Rain is *heavy* rather than *strong*, *tea* is *strong* rather than *powerful*, *frosts are hard* rather than *fierce . . .*” This statement sounds as if the dictionary promises to give us such ‘rather than . . .’ information. It could be a breakthrough in EFL dictionary-making if such information was systematically available. Sadly, however, it does not work out that way.

6.3. Grammar patterns

6.3.1. Grammar codes such as [C], [+ *that* clause], [L only + n] are given after examples unless the grammar pattern is true for all uses of the word, in which case grammar information is given before the definition.¹⁾ Example sentences play a very important part in giving grammar information in the dictionary.

Here, at the risk of being repetitive (grammar patterns and grammar codes have already been discussed in details in the previous chapter), let us point out one case of a problematic treatment of grammar codes involving the formal subject ‘it’. Some users may feel unconvinced by the practice of giving the same grammar pattern to each of the two sentences in (A) and (B).

- (A) *I'm so/very sad (that) you can't come.*
It's so/very sad (that) you can't come. [+ (*that*) clause]
- (B) *I'm sad to see so many failures this year.*
It's sad to see so many failures this year. [+ *to* infinitive]

And further similar examples.

It depresses me that I'll probably still be . . . [+ *obj* + *that* clause]
It has yet to be determined when the meeting is to be held. [T + *obj* + *wh*-word]
It was alleged that Johnson had struck Mr Rahim on the head. [+ *that*

1) In the entry for **grow** BECOME, the code [L only + adj] is given before the definition, but in addition and contrary to the principle, another code [+ *to* infinitive] is given after two example sentences, one of which is *She has grown to hate him.*

clause]¹⁾

6.4. The definition and examples

6.4.1. Another function of examples in a dictionary is to reinforce the definition. This includes, in a wider sense of the term ‘reinforce the definition’, giving word partnerships as has been discussed above. In this section, however, we would like to use the term in the narrower sense: how helpful examples are in clarifying the meaning of the word.

Look at the following examples provided in the entry for **internalize**:

He had not expected the people so readily to internalize the values of democracy and . . .
There is some evidence to suggest that children who are abused by their parents internalize violent behaviour through social learning . . .

These two examples serve to reinforce the definition ‘to accept or absorb (esp. a way of behaving or thinking) as your own, often from repeated experience, so that it becomes a natural and important part of your character’. We could list a lot more examples which function as a reinforcement of the definition.

6.4.2. Now look at the following example sentences taken from the entry for the adjective ‘natural’.

- (1) *That's the wool in its natural state before it's spun and dyed.*
- (2) *People say that breast-feeding is better than bottle-feeding because it's more natural.*
- (3) **It's not natural for a woman to be so thin.**
- (4) *He died from natural causes.*
- (5) *Floods and earthquakes are natural disasters.*

How many senses or definitions do you think these sentences are given to

1) This should be [+ *obj* + *that* clause] if we follow the coding principle of *CIDE*. Similarly the following example seems problematic: **It takes a lot of guts to admit . . .** [+ *to* infinitive]. And the following are examples of misallocation of grammar codes: *He thanked his employees for the forbearance (that) they had shown during the company's difficulties.* [+ (*that*) clause]; **it is instinct that makes the female horse bend down and lick its newborn foal.** [U + *that* clause]

help clarify? You might be surprised to learn that they are supposed to reinforce only one definition: 'not involving anything made by people'. The definition itself may not be clear or specific enough. So a good example is very welcome here. Then are these examples (1) to (5) good enough? The answer seems to be 'No'. Only the sentence (1) (and possibly (5)) seem to serve the intended purpose of showing the way the word natural is used in this particular sense. The other cases could be assigned different and more precise meanings. Sentence (2) would be better placed after the explanation in the same entry: "If food or drink is described natural, it is generally because . . .". *Natural* in the sentences (3) and (4) must mean 'as is to be expected; normal' (*OALD*⁵)¹⁾

The same thing happens to the entry for **have** [DO]. The examples given there are :

- (6) *It's so hot I'd love to have a swim. | We had a short walk after lunch. | I've never done it before but I'd like to have a try. | Don't disturb him while he's having a snooze. | Would you like to have a wash|bath|shower?*
- (7) *We're going to have lunch at Fiona's.*
- (8) *I'll have the report ready for you by tomorrow.*
- (9) *When a woman has a baby, she gives birth to it: My mother had three boys before she had me. | I hear his wife's having a baby.*

The definition offered for all the sentences is too broad ('to do (an action)') and does not apply to them all. In our view each group of sentence(s) should be treated separately.

Now look at the next three examples.

- (10) *Did you know John's available again? He's just finished his relationship with Chris.* (available)
- (11) *She has a miserable existence living with him.* (existence)
- (12) *Many of the party's ideas sound fine in principle but they haven't worked out the economics behind the policies.* (economics)

The entry for **available** has seven examples other than (10) and gives only one definition: 'able to be obtained, used, or reached'. Does the sen-

1) *LDCE*³ treats *natural* in the sentence (4) in the same way as *CIDE* does.

tence (10) reinforce the definition? The answer may differ among the users. To be 'friendly' for them, we believe, a separate definition or a bracketed explanation should be supplied to the example (10). In the case of (11) the user has to get the meaning from the definition for the verb 'exist': 'to be; to be real; to live or to live in difficult conditions'. In the case of (12) the situation seems to be more difficult for the user. The only definition he or she can rely on is that of the noun 'economy': 'the system of trade and industry by which the wealth of a country is made and used.'

This can not be very helpful for grasping the meaning of economics in (12).

All these examples point to a lack of adequate definitions or even a total lack of definitions which example sentences are expected to reinforce.¹⁾

6.5. The use of the label *fig.*

6.5.1. You can say that *CIDE* is also characterized by its relatively liberal use of the label *fig.*, by comparison with other EFL dictionaries. What is the case for such use of the label? The figurative meaning is sometimes explained as part of the main definition, with the label *fig.* given before the explanation as in **poach** [TAKE]:

to catch and kill (an animal) without permission on someone else's land, or (*fig.*) to take and use for yourself unfairly or dishonestly (esp. someone else's ideas or a person who works for someone else) . . . (*fig.*) *Jeff always poaches my ideas, and then pretends that they're his own.* [T].

But usually *fig.* does not appear in the definition, but only before examples: (*fig.*) *I found his book extremely arid* (= uninteresting or dull); (*fig.*) *Once you've tasted* (= experienced briefly) *luxury* . . .

6.5.2. So far, so good, it may seem. But as we see more examples of the use of *fig.*, we become less certain about the principle involved in using this

1) Conversely, however, you may argue that these examples are reinforcing the definition by adding (slightly?) different uses or meanings to the main definition. Considering the nature of this dictionary, cases like those discussed above should be avoided since they would certainly present some unnecessary difficulty for the learner-user.

label.

We looked at a set of words which denote an animal and which can refer to some type of person to see how their 'personified' meanings are treated in the dictionary. Wolf, ape and jellyfish are given the label *fig.*; the figurative sense of dove is given in its subdefinition; dog, fox, pig, and hawk are given one or two guide words like PERSON, WOMAN.

6.5.3. This practice seems to make it possible to include those examples which otherwise might not have been included.

swamp: (*fig.*) *I bought a new dress for my daughter, but it absolutely swamped her* (= was much too big for her.)

implode: (*fig.*) *Their economy is in danger of imploding because of massive foreign debts.*

striated: (*fig.*) *The novel is not a solid block of agony, but is striated with all kinds of emotion.*

No explanation is given to the latter two examples. But the user may manage to get at the intended meanings, but perhaps with some difficulty. Then how about this one? *He occupies a prominent position in the rogues' gallery of the financial world (rogue).* The expression used figuratively here is "rogues' gallery". With no gloss provided, the definition given ('A **rogues' gallery** is a collection of photographs of criminals kept by the police') will be no help. If this definition is the only clue, which it really is, many users are sure to have difficulty grasping the meaning ('a group of bad people' (*LDCE*³)).

6.5.4. In the entry for **streak**, the phrase **like a streak of lightning** is printed bold and the sentence which includes the phrase is marked as *fig.*: (*fig.*) *She suddenly grabbed the money and ran out of the shop like a streak of lightning* (= extremely quickly). In fact this is not a figurative use of the word *streak* (which is used literally), but a figurative expression (simile) itself.

6.5.5. As we have seen so far, there seems to be no specific principle for adopting the label *fig.* According to N. E. Osselton (p. 16):

A study of the widely conflicting practices in the marking of items as 'figurative' in current monolingual English dictionaries suggests that the label is hard to justify on linguistic grounds; that the use of it appears to be on the decline; and that arguments for its retention are best sought to in the cultural and historical context out of which it arose in the first place.

6.6. Explanations in brackets

6.6.1. *CIDE* is also marked by the almost ubiquitous explanations in round brackets. They are supplied to explain the meanings of phrases which include the word being looked up: e.g. '*... but they caved in* (= agreed, esp. as a result of being persuaded)' They sometimes serve as the definition: Citizens' Band (= a local radio system used esp. by drivers to speak to each other) or specify the meaning of a whole sentence: *How could you do such a thing?* (= That was an unacceptable thing to do.). They are usually so placed that they fit into the sentence in place of the phrase being explained, that is, you can interchange the explanation and the phrase being explained without making the sentence ill-formed: *He's been a coal miner all his working life, and first went down* (= started working in) *the pits when he was 17.*

6.6.2. Those explanations will usually prove very helpful (e.g. *The drug won't be commercially available* (= able to be bought) *until . . .* or *The whole idea* (= only purpose) *of advertising is to make people buy things.* But there are cases in which (i) the explanation provided is not clear enough, or (ii) there is no explanation where one would help the user. The following are examples of such cases.

- (i) *Religions gain some of their worldly power by claiming they have the key to eternity* (= a state of existence outside normal life).
- (ii) *A stressful meeting didn't help to soothe his twanged nerves.*

In (i) the explanation is different from the standard definition of this use of the word *eternity* ('endless life after death' (*OALD*⁵)) and may give the reader the wrong idea about the word. In (ii) *twanged* is used figuratively and with no explanation given, we are sure to have difficulty understand-

ing the meaning.

In the example sentence *Come on, I want to know all the gory* (= interesting and usually personal) *details about your date with Jon, the gory details* is a figurative use of the original idiom, and making the user believe that the word *gory* has the meaning explained in the brackets would not be advisable.

6.6.3. A bracketed explanation usually comes between words in a sentence and some may find a long explanation 'intrusive' or distracting: e.g. *Their apartment is a modernized conversion* (= a place for living in that has been changed from its previous use) *in an old factory building*, or *Alcoholism* (= The uncontrollable habit of drinking alcohol) *cost me my job, my health and finally my family.*¹⁾

6.7. The usage labels

6.7.1. As we have already seen in the previous chapter, the labels such as *fml*, *approving*, and *dated* are given before the examples. Here let us point out one problematic use of the region label *Br*. Look at the following example:

articulated (*Br*) *The road is closed because an articulated lorry* (*infml artic*, *Am* and *Aus semi*) *has overturned, shedding its load.*

In this case the label *Br* is given because of *lorry* (and *artic*). The adjective *articulated* should be boldfaced to show that 'articulated lorry' is a compound for which *artic* and *semi* in brackets are synonyms. This is partly due to the dictionary's system of placing the usage labels before examples. Sometimes we cannot be sure what the scope of such a label is.

6.8. Quotations

6.8.1. It is not uncommon practice to include well-known proverbs and sayings in dictionaries, but *CIDE* has taken this practice a step further by including a large number of "expressions from popular songs, television, films, books, plays and sayings by famous people" (p. x, p. 1681) as well as

1) The explanation for alcoholism, as you can see, constitutes a definition.

proverbs (labeled *saying* in the dictionary). *CIDE* contains a much more diverse range of expressions than the guide to the dictionary might have us believe. It also contains titles of songs, films and books, lines from advertisements, speeches, and many others. Those quotations are usually placed at the end of entries for words after the examples.

Under **twinkle** you will find, predictably, "*Twinkle, twinkle, little star, How I wonder what you are*", or under **future** "*Back to the Future*". Here are samples of quotations classified by their type. Proverbs will be discussed later.

(national anthem) "*God save our gracious king/queen*"
 (lines from songs) "*Oh, what a beautiful morning, oh what a beautiful day! . . .*" | "*It's been a hard day's night, I should be sleeping like a log*"
 (titles of songs) "*Anything goes*" | "*Where have all the Flowers Gone?*"
 (titles of films) "*Brief Encounter*" | "*Color of Money*"
 (titles of books) "*The Affluent Society*" | "*The Eye of the Tiger*"

Some of those quotations, especially film titles (because of their relative internationalness) should be more familiar to the learner-user than others.

6.8.2. The standard entry for a saying (or proverb) goes like this: (*saying*) 'A drowning man will clutch at a straw' means that when you are in a very difficult situation, you will take any opportunity that you can to improve it. But there are some deviations from this standard style of description [(*saying*) 'PROVERB' means . . .].

'Curiosity killed the cat' is said to someone to stop them asking too many questions.

'Accidents will happen' is what people say after an accident in order to make it seem less bad.

Some are not supplied with explanations as in: 'If a thing is worth doing, it is worth doing well.'; 'If anything can go wrong it will'; 'One man's loss is another man's gain'¹⁾. At the end of the entry for **fool** you can find "*A fool and his money are soon parted*" (*saying*). In this case, no explanation is

1) In the case of the following saying, with no gloss given, it may take us a long time to get its meaning: 'Just because I'm paranoid it doesn't mean that they're out to get me'.

given, the whole saying is italicized, and the label saying (not italicized!) comes after, not before the saying. (Moreover, the saying is in *double* quotation marks.) Some sayings are provided with illustrative sentences:

'Appearances matter' means what you look like is important: *Put a smart suit on for your interview — appearances matter!*

6.8.3. What is the case for including such quotations of well-known or popular sentences and phrases? They must be helpful to the learner-user in an important way. Those quotations are repeated so many times by so many people in full or in the original form, or sometimes in a shortened or distorted version. The dictionary offers an example in which only part of the saying is mentioned; *My new job is better paid than my old one, but the work's not so interesting it's swings and roundabouts, really*, referring to the British saying 'What you lose on the swings, you gain on the roundabouts' (p. 1681). As Hatch and Brown (1995) say, 'Proverbs are so mutually understood, in fact, that in the appropriate situation, we may utter only the first part of the proverb (e.g., "Don't count your chickens" rather than "Don't count your chickens before they've hatched")'. Such is mutual understanding or shared knowledge that we can infer the whole idea from just part of the sentence.¹⁾ Such a process, which we may call a kind of shortening or ellipsis, is a very natural one in English or any other language (a notebook for a notebook computer, or 'a square peg' meaning 'unfit' without mentioning 'of a round hole' as in *He never quite fitted when he was working here — he was always a bit of a square peg*. (see the adjective **square** in *CIDE*)).

As the dictionary points out in Language Portrait **words used together; quotations and sayings**), quotations and other well-known phrases tend to undergo transformations. The dictionary says, "People might also change a quotation or refer to it indirectly often in order to be humorous. These indirect, suggested quotations are especially common in newspaper and magazine headlines, and advertisements", adding that

1) *CIDE* gives another example 'sticks and stones', a shortened form of 'Sticks and stones may break my bones, but words can never hurt me' (see **stick** THIN PIECE).

they are often difficult for a learner to recognize and understand.

Headlines have to be short and effective enough to attract the reader's attention and to make him or her want to read the article. To produce such eye-catching headlines, the editor is likely to rely on the common stock of popular and mutually understood phrases. 'Nothing succeeds like failure' (headline for a *Time* essay, Nov. 20, 1995) will remind most readers of the saying 'Nothing succeeds like success' and may make them break into a smile. Let us now give some other examples of such headlines cited from recent issues (as of December, 1995) of the news magazines *Time* and *Newsweek*:

All That Glitters . . . (*Time*, Nov. 6; story about a dubious practice of 'Intercorp, the Arab investment boutique that engineered Gucci's turnaround')

Rebels Without a Pause (*Time*, Dec. 4; story about 'the breakdown of a four-month truce' in Chechnya)

Giving Peace a Chance (*Time*, Nov. 6; story about the Balkan peace-talks)

The Sons — Also Rising (*Newsweek*, Nov. 27; story about the sons of 'the House of Saud who has ruled for six decades')

Apocalypse Later (*Newsweek*, Dec. 18; a religion page)

All these headlines refer, directly or indirectly, to those quotations which are included in *CIDE*.

6.8.4. Lastly, some statistics. By our count *CIDE* lists about 1,400 quotations, though the dictionary itself claims to include over 2,000 quotations (p. 1681).¹⁾ The largest single source of quotations is, predictably, Shakespeare, who contributes more than 90 examples, of which *Hamlet* is the largest contributor, followed by the Bible. The longest quotation is the nine-line (though partially omitted) citation from Asimov's three fundamental rules of robotics. Quotations are not limited to the English-speaking world and they go as far back as to the classical world (Homer and

1) It is to be noted that we do not claim our count is complete and there is a good chance that we have missed some items inadvertently in spite of our efforts not to.

Ovid).¹⁾

6.9. Conclusions

6.9.1. With all its inconsistencies and inadequacies there is no denying that the dictionary is an impressive collection of English sentences and information about grammar and collocations and will prove to be a great help for teachers and even professional translators as well as for its original target, learners of English.²⁾

(Y. Asada)

7. Conclusion

It is very interesting that *CIDE* uses autograph manuscript from *Almayer's Folly* by Joseph Conrad for its jacket background writing. This novel was written between 1889 and 1894, which is exactly one hundred years before this dictionary was prepared.

In the words of Osselson (*Chosen Words*, p. 127), "The remarkable growth of the language-learning industry since the Second World War saw the establishment of the learners' dictionary as one of the major lexico-

graphical genres of our age. It is an area where great commercial success has gone with intense experimentation." The year 1995 saw all the experiments conceivable tried and executed in the five titles of EFL dictionary, newly published or revised.

We cannot see if the substantial part of the *CIDE* project was carried out by the permanent inhouse lexicographic staff of the Cambridge University Press or by a pick-up team of free-lance lexicographers. Genealogically, *CIDE* could possibly be called as a half-sister to *LDCE* and *LNUD*, for these three dictionaries have been prepared by the same editor. In this respect *CIDE* is professionally edited to meet the competition. In order to contribute constructively to future improvement of *CIDE*, the dictionary is analysed and studied objectively but critically, and we are able to illustrate in the preceding chapters the potential as well as the limitations of *CIDE* in its present form. The two lines of learner's dictionary concept — grammatical information chiefly in the form of verb-patterns developed by Palmer-Hornby, and defining vocabulary formulated by Ogden-West — were thoroughly combined in the contemporary learner's dictionaries, and *CIDE* is no exception. That English used in defining the meaning is plain and clear does not always mean that non-native users can easily find what they want in the dictionary. The system involved in arrangement and manner of definitions does matter much more than the vocabulary. Sometimes the system fails to guide the users to the meaning easily.

Although one might characterize *CIDE*'s approach and style as generally traditional, it adopts, besides the two well-established methods, some innovative features for the first time, such as guide words, False Friend information, Phrase Index, and language portraits. Treating English in the global context, paying attention not only to core English-speaking countries, but to periphery English-speaking countries, this INTERNATIONAL EFL dictionary, with its attempt to record dynamic variation at segmental level and also with many corpus-derived examples, will prove to be a very useful tool and reference book for English teachers, textbook writers, lexicographers, and advanced students in colleges and universities in Japan.

1) Let us point out one of the inconsistencies in the description of the sources of quotations: the same person is referred to by the name Mao Zedong twice and Mao Tse-Tung also twice.

2) Here are some of the errors which we have noticed and which might have escaped the editor's notice. Some of them (and others touched upon in the text) may have already been brought to their attention and corrected for a later impression of the dictionary.

(i) Tennessee instead of Tennesee (Williams) (p. 1437, **streetcar**); Philosophicus instead of (Tractatus Logico-) Philosophicus (p. 1685, **world** [THE EARTH]); (ii) a *guilt/persecution complex* instead of a *guilt persecution complex* (slash needed; p. 276, **complex** [BAD FEELING]); (iii) *Be there by ten o'clock without fail*, should not come under the verb **fail**, but under the noun, for which *CIDE* has no place. (p. 494); (iv) '*an inspired* (= excellent — much better than expected) **guess/suggestion/performance**' instead of '*... performance*' (A bracket should appear before **guess**, not after *performance*; p. 736, **inspired**); (v) A citation from *Parkinson's Law* ("*Work expands so as to fill the time available for its completion*") appears twice, under the noun *work* and the verb *work*. It should go under the noun. The same thing happens to a line from Shakespeare's *Merchant of Venice* ("*Tell me where is fancy bred. ... in the heart or in the head?*") and this should also go, of course, under the noun *fancy*. The quotation under the adjective **poor** [NO MONEY] ("*... It's the poor that gets the blame*") should go into the next entry for the plural noun **poor**, which has the definition 'The poor are poor people ...'

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Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (2): *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-Jii*

(*An English and Japanese Dictionary*, 1873)
by Masayoshi Shibata and Takashi Koyasu

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1. Introduction

In the second installment of our series we focus on *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-Jii* (henceforth *FSEJ*¹⁾ as a work of monumental value in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries published in this country, following Tatsunosuke Hori's *Eiwa-Taiyaku-Shuchin-fisho* (1862). Although there is only an eleven-year gap between the publications of these two dictionaries, *FSEJ* is not modeled upon *ETSJ* but is dramatically dissimilar from it. By doubling its size and number of headwords and by featuring a number of new devices, *FSEJ* distinguished itself from other dictionaries of that time and marked a great step forward toward a fully-fledged English-Japanese dictionary. *FSEJ*'s departure from the English-Japanese dictionaries then in circulation was intended to satisfy the growing demand of early Meiji-era²⁾ Japan in its initial stage of Western-modeled modernization and was made possible as much by the introduction of advanced printing techniques as by the authors' insight and efforts. In accordance with the principles previously mentioned (Kokawa, Masuda, and Yamada 1994: 80–81), this monograph attempts to analyze every aspect of *FSEJ* in detail, also taking into account the historical background to the publication of the

1) For the abbreviations of the dictionaries consulted, see "CITED DICTIONARIES AND THEIR ABBREVIATIONS" (pp. 119–120).

2) The Meiji era lasted from 1868 to 1911.