(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 FSEJ1) as a work of monumental value in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries published in this country, following Tatsunosuke Horii’s Eiwa-Taiyaku-Shuchin-jisho (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

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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.
2. Background

2.1. Historical background — from Yedo Era to Meiji Era

Mounting pressures from America and the European powers inevitably made the Tokugawa shogunate of Japan abandon its policy of national seclusion after about two hundred years in the middle of the 19th century. This marked the end of the period during which Japan depended solely on Holland and its language for a channel of contact with the outside world, and consequently accelerated the process of overthrow of the Tokugawa regime. In anticipation of the possible consequences of opening ports, the shogunate established the naval academy in Nagasaki, Bansho Shirabesho, and the military training school in Yedo (now Tokyo). Such domains as Mito (now part of Ibaraki Pref.), Satsuma (now Kagoshima Pref.), and Choshu (now Yamaguchi Pref.) set out to beef up their armaments. From 1853 onward the shogunate opened several ports to foreign ships and in 1858 concluded unequal treaties of commerce with the Western powers without obtaining Emperor Komei's approval, which upset the country's economy, bringing about inflation, an outflow of gold to foreign countries, and social unrest. Resentment at the shogunate and xenophobia inevitably intensified and developed into the anti-foreign, pro-imperial slogan, which served as the guiding principle in the period leading up to the Meiji Restoration (1868). Under these circumstances the shogunate strongman Naosuke Ii purged and executed opposing court nobles, daimyos, and dissidents from several domains between 1858 and 1859 but he was in turn assassinated by a band of anti-shogunate activists from Mito and Satsuma in 1860, which dealt a serious blow to absolute shogunal rule. On the other hand, there occurred a movement which attempted to bring about court-shogunate unity in order to overcome the grave crises of internal turmoil and the foreign threat. Xenophobic attitudes were translated into action. In 1862 a mounted Englishman was cut down near Yokohama for cutting into the procession of Hisamitsu Shimazu of Satsuma on its way home from Yedo (Richardson Affair). Later in the same year Shinsaku Takasugi of Choshu and others burned down the British legation under construction in Shinagawa, Yedo. In 1863 Choshu closed the Shimonoseki Strait and fired on foreign ships. The Western powers responded with advanced military technology. In retaliation for the Richardson Affair Britain attacked at Satsuma (Satsuma-British War, 1863). The combined fleets of Britain, France, America, and Holland, seeking an opportunity to suppress the anti-foreign activities, fired on the batteries at Shimonoseki (Shimonoseki Bombardment, 1864). These experiences made the Satsuma and Choshu leaders, who would play leading roles in terminating the Tokugawa regime, well aware that it was impossible to resist the Western powers forcibly. In the meantime Britain realized the impotence of the shogunate and hoped for a coalition of powerful domains under the emperor. The reconciliation after the Satsuma-British War brought the two parties closer, while France continued to lend financial and military support to the shogunate. Choshu, the leading anti-shogunate domain, was suppressed by the shogunal forces in 1864 (First Choshu Expedition). After that Choshu formed a volunteer army and allied itself with Satsuma, and the Second Choshu Expedition (1866) ended in failure with the withdrawal of the shogunate forces on the pretext of the death of Shogun Iemochi, which confirmed the flagging power of the regime. The 15th Shogun Yoshinobu tried hard to restructure and strengthen the regime with France's assistance. The shogunate came into sharp conflict with

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1) We would like to express our special gratitude to Prof. Shigeru Takebayashi and Prof. Keisuke Nakao, who kindly gave us helpful advice and encouragement at every stage of this project. We also thank Prof. Paul E. Davenport for his valuable help with the final draft.

2) Bansho Shirabesho [Institute for the Investigation of Barbarian Books (Reischauer, et al., eds. 1993: 100)] was established under the name of Yogaakusou [Institute of Western Learning] in 1855 and changed its name in the following year. It was Japan's first centralized institution for translating Western books and studying and teaching Western studies, including languages and technology. In 1862 it was renamed Yocho Shirabesho [School of European Languages], which commissioned Tatsunosuke Hori to compile ETSJ and published it. Undergoing several other changes of name and location, it developed to form Tokyo Imperial University (now Tokyo University) in 1877.
Satsuma over the settlement of the Second Choshu Expedition. In late 1867, in a last attempt to implement the court-shogunate unity, Tosa (now Kochi Pref.) proposed to Yoshinobu that he step down in favor of the emperor before being forced to do so. Accepting it, the shogun offered to resign but stayed in power as a minister. Afraid that the voluntary resignation might leave open the possibility of Tokugawa's return to power, the anti-shogunate group proclaimed the restoration of imperial rule and established a new regime under the emperor. The first council of the new regime ordered the former shogun to surrender both his lands and office. Yoshinobu resisted, but Togugawa-led troops lost in a series of ensuing battles (Boshin Civil War, 1868-9). Thus came to an end the warrior rule based on feudalism.

During the Meiji era Japan transformed itself into a modern industrial state. The new imperial government was formed out of a coalition of leaders of the victorious domains and court nobles. In January, 1868, while the civil war was still in progress, Gokajo no Goseimon [Charter Oath] was issued by the emperor, which made clear the principles of the new government's policy, promising establishment of deliberative assemblies, settlement of national matters by public decision, abandonment of anti-foreignism, and so on. As was stated in the Charter Oath, Seitaisho [Constitution of 1868] was established, which featured the separation of the three branches of government after that of America, and other Western systems. In September Yedo was renamed Tokyo and designated as the country's capital. By 1871 the domains were converted to rationally structured prefectures with governors appointed by the central government, which led to the radical reform of taxation. The Education Order of 1872, aiming at universal literacy, reformed the educational system, modeled upon the French system. In 1877 Tokyo Imperial University was established (see Footnote 2 on p. 84) and taken over by Aritomo Yamagata. The government tried to develop industry to correct the trade imbalance with foreign countries, and protected and supported Mitsubishi Shipping Company to compete with Western rivals. Between 1871 and 1873 a large emperor-commissioned mission led by senior minister Tomomi Iwakura toured America and Europe with the purposes of observing Western society and institutions and revising the unfair treaties. Unfortunately the mission was not successful in the latter. Lifting of feudal restrictions created an atmosphere of commoners' participation in the new society. Western thoughts and lifestyle were well received. John Stuart Mill and Herbert Spencer were well read. Meirokusha, an intellectual society, founded by the statesman Arinori Mori in 1874, and its journal helped to promote civilization and to spread Western thought widely. The Meiji era saw Japan's departure from feudalism and an isolationist policy and development into a major world power, following the examples of Western countries.

2.2. English-Japanese dictionaries in the early Meiji Era

According to Sogo (1977: 271-2), there were three mainstreams, as far as English-Japanese dictionaries published by the beginning of the Meiji era are concerned: (1) the ETSJ Group, (2) the Waei-Gorin-Shusei (WGS) Group, and (3) the English-Chinese Dictionary Group. The first group includes ETSJ (1862), the first major English-Japanese dictionary published by the School of European Languages, its second edition (1866) and the pirated edition of ETSJ (1869, usually known as Satuma Jisho1). The WGS2 (1867), on which Senkai-Eiwa-Jirin (1871) was based, takes the

1) Shinkichi Takahashi, who was a samurai of the Satsuma domain, published this dictionary under the name of "Satsuma Gakusei [student]." The dictionary is based on ETSJ and provides phonetic symbols of the Japanese kanakana syllabary for the headwords and the readings of the Chinese characters which appear in the translations and examples. It was printed by the American Presbyterian Mission Press, Shanghai (Nagashima 1970: 71).

2) WGS is the first Japanese-English dictionary published in Japan. The author James Curtis Hepburn (1815-1911) was a Presbyterian medical missionary from Pennsylvania, U.S.A. During his stay in Japan (1859-92), he opened a medical clinic and some private English schools, two of which have developed into universities (Ferris Women's University, Yokohama, and Meiji Gakuin University, Tokyo). In this country his name is most famous for the Hepburn system of romanizing Japanese, which he adopted for the third
form of a Japanese-English dictionary but has an English-Japanese part functioning as its index. Along with these two dictionaries, *Eisow-Shochu-jiten* (1873) and *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language* (1876) constitute the second group. The members of the third group are translated from, or based on, English-Chinese dictionaries published in China by British or American authors. The *Eisow-jiten* (1872) juxtaposes translations of its own and those adopted from *An English and Chinese Dictionary (ECD)*, 4 vols., 1866–69), published by William Lobscheid in China.

Sogo (ibid.) characterizes the Japanese translations in the dictionaries of each group and of *FSEJ* in the following way:

1) **ETSJ Group**: explanatory (from the tradition of *OJ*) and tending to traditional Japanese
2) **WGS Group**: tending toward the spoken language
3) **English-Chinese Dictionary Group**: including words originating in China
4) **FSEJ**: abundant in Japanese translations (adoptions from and additions to the above groups) and providing furigana (i.e. meaning glosses, see 7.2.2.) above the translations.

Here we shall do no more than provide a rough sketch of what *FSEJ* was like, as against its predecessors and contemporaries. The Japanese translations of *FSEJ* will be closely dealt with in Section 7 below.

3. The authors and the dictionary

3.1. The authors

3.1.1. Masayoshi Shibata (1841–1901)

Shibata was born in Nagasaki in 1841. At the age of seven he was adopted by a doctor living in the same part of the city. In his childhood he studied classical Chinese literature and Dutch. At the age of 17 (1858) he started studying English at an English school in Nagasaki, soon after it was established. He made an impression there and one year later was appointed to the post of assistant manager. A person with a good command of English like him was in great demand at that time and he found himself, as it were, on the fast track. At the age of 22 (1863) he was offered a post at the School of Foreign Studies, in the next year (1864) he was licensed as a junior English interpreter, and in the following year (1865) he was invited to the Navy Training School, Tsukiji, Yedo. During these years he was also actively involved as an interpreter. At the age of 26 (1876) he transferred to the Yokohama Court. In those days the “court” fulfilled the combined functions of the municipal or prefectural government, the Customs, and a branch of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, in addition to being a court of law. Later in the same year he was promoted to the position of Translation Officer at the Kanagawa Court. There he made the acquaintance of his colleague Takashi Koyasu. From around May 1870, using their spare time at work, the two men launched their project of translating John Ogilvie’s English dictionary into Japanese with the intention of compiling a large-scale English-Japanese dictionary. Michisaburo Hayashi and Kentaro Yanagiya, two English scholars also from Nagasaki who were originally Chinese interpreters, and others, aided them in their endeavor. Shibata and Koyasu set up a company called “Nisshusha” solely to publish their dictionary. However, while the drafts were accumulating for printing, the men lacked the means to provide printing equipment. Heihachiro Tanaka, a rich Yokohama merchant sympathetic to their cause, fortunately volunteered to fund them and they immediately imported from Shanghai some Roman and Chinese type and a manual letterpress printing machine. In November 1871 they also purchased some type made in Nagasaki. Now fully equipped, they printed the finished drafts day after day. It took about three years from the initial stages to the publication of the fully-fledged English-Japanese dictionary. Shibata left his post at the Kanagawa Court in 1878 or 1879 and went back to Nagasaki. He saw the publication of the second edition of *FSEJ* while back at home. There he continued working on the drafts for the third edition and finally wrote up 5,098 pages of the
dictionary section in September 1895. He traveled up to Tokyo with the drafts in order to look for a publisher. Kinkodo had intended to print and publish the dictionary, but it never became a reality. Shibata devoted the latter half of his life to the compilation of his English-Japanese dictionaries and his life closed in 1901 at the age of 60.

3.1.2. Takashi Koyasu (1836–1898)

Takashi Koyasu was born of a samurai family in Ogaki (now in Gifu Pref.). He studied Dutch and English. He entered the private school of Masujiro Omura, and later became a disciple of Zozan Sakuma. He also studied Western gunnery. He became a translator at the Kanagawa Court, where in 1868 he met Shibata. In partnership with him Koyasu founded Nisshusha, which published their English-Japanese dictionary. One year after publication (1874) he transferred the printing equipment of Nisshusha to Toranomon, Tokyo, and founded the Yomiuri Shimbun Company, now one of Japan's three largest national daily newspaper companies. He had the ideal background for this since, in December 1870, he had been employed as a co-editor in the publication of Japan's first letterpress-printed daily newspaper. He had also entertained the idea that, in order to lead his nation to modernization, a newspaper which would enlighten its citizens and cultivate their minds was indispensable.

During the first few years the newspaper company also took on printing jobs under the name of Nisshusha. Koyasu held the presidency until 1889. He was involved in further business transactions later in his life and was a very successful entrepreneur for some time.

1) One year later, James A. H. Murray (1837–1915), editor of the *Oxford English Dictionary*, was born in Britain.

2) Masujiro Omura (1824–69) was from Choshu and educated students of European Studies there. In 1869 he became Vice-Military Minister and later proposed some military reforms. He "played a seminal role in the creation of the modern Japanese army following the Meiji Restoration [1868]" (Reischauer, et al. 1993: 1150).

3) Zozan Sakuma (1811–64) was a Shinano (now Nagano Pref.)-born scholar. He taught orthodox Neo-Confucianism and later Western gunnery.


### 3.2. The dictionary

*FSEJ* is the first English-Japanese dictionary to be letterpress-printed in this country and the first dictionary of its kind to be bound in Western style — with leather binding and using paper made in the Western way. It measures $18.2 \times 25.0 \times 8.2\text{cm}$, two or three times as large as other dictionaries then available. Despite its large size, *FSEJ* does not have the fragility which is felt when holding *OJ* and *ETSJ*, which were made in Japanese style, using Japanese paper. Therefore *FSEJ* did not require the same care with which the user was supposed to handle the foregoing delicate dictionaries. *FSEJ* was not susceptible to frequent consultation and must have worn better, to which part of its popularity can no doubt be attributed.

The contents of the 1556-page dictionary are tabulated below:

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<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Pages</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preface</td>
<td>p(p), 7–8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Key to the Pronunciation</td>
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<td>Dictionary</td>
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<td>Appendix</td>
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<td>Table of Irregular Verbs</td>
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<td>Abbreviations Explained</td>
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<td>Arbitary Signs</td>
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<td>Explanation of Abbreviations</td>
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<td>Pronouncing Vocabulary of Modern Geographical Names</td>
<td>1423–1503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictorial Illustrations</td>
<td>1505–48</td>
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</tbody>
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Unlike *ETSJ* the preface is written in Japanese. The first three items in the appendices are cited from *SJ2* (1871).

The literal translation of the Japanese title “Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-Jii” is “English-Japanese dictionary with pronunciation provided and illustrations inserted.” As this suggests, *FSEJ* incorporates phonetic transcription and pictorial illustrations. It is noteworthy that, for the first time in an

1) The exact price of *FSEJ* is unknown since it is not indicated anywhere in the dictionary. The price of the second edition was 12.50 yen, which is said to have been by far the highest among the comparable English-Japanese dictionaries. The price of the first edition of this gorgeously made dictionary is likely to have been in the neighborhood of this.
English-Japanese dictionary, pictures are provided. The pronunciation is given in the Webster style, as in the second edition of the Satsuma Jisho (1871)1) (See Section 5 below). On the title page is printed its simplified English title, “English and Japanese Dictionary.” However, on page 3 the English title appears in full: “An English and Japanese Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing all English Words in Present Use, with An Appendix, by M. Shibata and T. Koyasu Illustrated by above 500 Engravings on Wood, New Edition.” However, FSEJ does not include etymological information. This confirms that the English title was copied from that of Ogilvie’s Comprehensive2) and that FSEJ is based on it. It is claimed in the preface that the number of headwords is approximately 5,500 with more than 500 pictorial illustrations of concrete objects (see Section 8).

The left-hand side of a typical entry consists of the headword with its initial letter capitalized, the pronunciation in parentheses, the indication of part(s) of speech, and sometimes the irregular forms appended. On the right-hand side are arranged the Japanese translations. As in ETSJ, they are typeset vertically but put horizontally next to the headword and the rest3). The Chinese characters in the translations have furigana above them4) (see the photocopies in the Appendix on pp. 125 and 129). The

1) This was the first of the English-Japanese dictionaries that adopted the Webster-style phonetic transcription.
3) In FSEJ2 this was corrected to make consultation easier. The Japanese translations are typeset horizontally and put as they are, next to the headwords. After looking at the headword, the pronunciation, and so on, the reader no longer has to take the trouble to turn the headword, the pronunciation, and so on, the reader no longer has to take the trouble to turn the page 90 degrees clockwise each time to read the Japanese translations. It might well be said that, in terms of the layout of dictionary entries, FSEJ2 has set the standard up to the present day (Sogo 1977: 274).
4) They were abolished in the second edition probably for reasons of space (see 7.2.2) and making clever use of space, FSEJ2 packed in more headwords than the first edition (Sogo 1971: 138). However, they were restored (about 500 pages less) in the revised second edition because they helped the reader to understand the translations.

4. Headwords

Headwords in FSEJ may be categorized into two types. One is unindented headwords presented as superordinate or main entries. The other consist of indented and italicized headwords presented as subordinate or subentries, which are always given under relevant superordinate entries. In sampled portions, the entries that consist only of unindented headwords occupy 93% of the total. Thus, out of every 100 entries, users will find seven that consist of an unindented headword and its subordi-
While FSEJ's presentation style of headwords is similar to the former epoch-making dictionary, ETSJ (except for the italicization of indented entries), its number of entries seems to be quite a lot larger than that of ETSJ. This is obviously due to the enlargement of the size of the dictionary. Another reason must be noted, however. Main entry status is almost invariably given to words which are considered to be mere derivatives and are, therefore, treated as run-on entries in even today's comparatively large dictionaries. A typical case is adverbs ending with -ly, which were usually omitted in ETSJ, and are usually run-on or indented under relevant main entries in today's dictionaries (e.g. main entry status is given to derivative adverbial forms such as unchanging and unchangingly, which are listed independently in this dictionary). Thus, the increase in headwords cannot be counted as an essential improvement in FSEJ.

4.1. Unindented headwords

Unindented headwords can be categorized into the following three types:

1) solid one-word items (e.g. Abacus, n.)
2) hyphenated compounds (e.g. Apple-tree, n.)
3) abbreviations (e.g. A. B. (Artium Baccalaureus.))

In ETSJ(1), all initial letters of headwords are capitalized in the dictionary text, and this system is adopted uncritically in FSEJ, too. In fact, this was the general practice in English dictionaries until recent times, for their contemporaries and even today's native speakers of English find no problem with this system. However, non-native speakers like the Japanese have difficulty in deciding only on the basis of a dictionary text whether a given word's initial letter should be capitalized in English. Thus the improvement of English-Japanese dictionaries for the purpose of encoding or user-friendliness had not yet been realized at that time.

Solid one-word entries are analyzed into the following:

1) Independent status is given to each grammatical homonym(1) (i.e. even if the spellings of an adjective form and a past participle form of a word are identical, each form is given an independent entry). Transitive and intransitive forms of a verb are also analyzed in the same way. (e.g. Apprehend, vt., Apprehend, vi.) However, spelling variants are treated differently.
2) Independent status is given to each lexical homonym (e.g. 'Abacus' as a calculating instrument and 'Abacus' as an architectural technical term).
3) Independent status is given to each derivative (see 4.1.).

A disadvantage of the system mentioned above is an unnecessary waste of space, though it is advantageous for users to find a target headword quickly. Another merit is that users can enhance their grammatical knowledge (such as part-of-speech) which may be necessary for lexicographic encoding.

In respect of user-friendliness, the FSEJ's inconsistent treatment of inflectional forms is quite disadvantageous, and therefore, is confusing to its users. First of all, inflectional forms of verbs are almost exhaustively given after each verb entry. Even regular verbs' past tenses, and perfect and present participial forms are indicated with full spellings (e.g. Forebode vt.; Foreboded, pp.; Foreboding, ppr). This is also a space-consuming system and overly considerate to users except for beginners in English. However, irregular forms that should be re-entered as dummy entries in the alphabetical order are not put into the text. Thus, cross-referencing is inconvenient unless the forms are comparatively near to the infinitive forms alphabetically. For example, a user who looks around somewhere between "dressy" and "dribble" in order to look up the word "drew" in this dictionary will not find it in the alphabetical order. To the contrary, irregular forms of adjectives and nouns appear in their alphabetical order. Thus, a user can easily make cross-references among good, better and

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1) Both technical terms are introduced by Malakohovski (1982: 37ff.)

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1) For the relevant discussion, see Kokawa et al. (1994: 80–119)
4.2. Indented headwords

Items that consist of indented headwords are more focused on phrasal verbs, collocations, collicative prepositions and illustrative phrases in FSEJ while ETSJ includes more varied items as subentries. More specifically, collocable nouns with adjectives, prepositional phrases and illustrative sentences and phrases are considerably increased, and therefore become a more intrinsic part of the dictionary text. Furthermore, these entries are put into the alphabetical order more accurately than in ETSJ.

A regrettable point is noticed, however. No specific demarcation is given between mere illustrative phrases and idiomatic phrases. If the illustrative phrases and sentences were placed in the right column with their translation in order to distinguish them from idiomatic phrases, users would more clearly understand whether a target phrase is productive or strictly fixed. For example, the indented headword “To abandon one’s self” can be treated as a relatively fixed phrase in the left column though the indented one “To abandon a wife” can be treated as a mere illustration of this verb in the right column since “a wife” can be replaced with a large number of nouns.

This might be a problem of printing technique in the first edition, and it is therefore somewhat irrelevant to argue about lexicographic methodology. However, this is no longer a problem in the second edition since both English and Japanese letters can be placed horizontally in the same line. Consequently, all the indented headwords are synthesized with the other information as a whole under main entries, and no different treatment is given to different kinds of subentries in the second edition. Since the

1) The adjective “bad” has different treatment since this dictionary concludes in the following way:

This adjective (worst) has the signification of the comparative degree and as bad has no comparative and superlative, worse and worst are used in lieu of them, although radically they have no relation to bad.

Except for the case above, cross-referencing is possible among absolute, comparative and superlative forms of irregular adjectives.

4.3. FSEJ and Ogilvie’s dictionaries

According to the author, this dictionary was greatly influenced by Ogilvie’s dictionaries, though he does not mention which of Ogilvie’s dictionaries were used as the source. Fortunately, however, there are two large-volume dictionaries available for examination. Probably he referred to one or both of them since they were published before FSEJ. These are A Comprehensive English Dictionary and An Imperial English Dictionary. As far as the selection of headwords is concerned, we see that it is based for the most part on these dictionaries. It can be assumed that FSEJ might even have copied Comprehensive in several ways. First of all, it copies Comprehensive’s policy on what words are ranked as main entries. Otherwise, it would be difficult to explain why even mere derivatives can be given main entry status. Another strong support for this is the fact that the order or arrangement of grammatical homonymy is almost identical between the two dictionaries. If headwords were arranged on the basis of some explicit principle or formula, this might not be the case. However, which part-of-speech is placed first and which comes next are rather sporadic, and are identical between the two. Secondly, it is somewhat surprising that FSEJ exactly copies some of the definitions or explanatory notes contained in Ogilvie’s dictionaries. Notes on auxiliary verbs or adjectival usage are a typical case. For example, when we look at the headword “Should”, the note “but now used as auxiliary verb in the past time or conditional present; and it often denotes obligation or duty” is put in a sub-entry position in FSEJ. Thirdly, a small number of words which are found only in the Imperial are adopted as main entries in this dictionary. For example, “Coolie” or “Aardvark” in the Imperial’s supplement have main entry status in this dictionary even though other contemporary dictionaries such as Webster’s Pictorial edition, which is much larger than both of them, does not contain these words.

Concerning illustrative phrases and collocations, the technique of copy-
ing is not so simple. It can be analyzed into three degrees:

1) Collocations and illustrative phrases taken directly from the defining sentences or illustrative examples contained in either the *Imperial* or the *Comprehensive*. For example, the subentry “at a blow” is found in the *Imperial*’s article “5. A single act; a sudden event; as, to gain or lose a province at a blow, or by one blow.”, and the subentry “He gains the victory by a single blow” must be taken from the *Comprehensive*’s illustration appearing in the fifth definition “5. A single act or stroke; as, to gain the victory by a single blow”. This kind of borrowing is the most common in this dictionary.

2) Illustrative phrases or collocations deduced from one or both dictionaries’ articles. For example, the subentry “Inhuman punishment” may be deduced from the illustrative example “inhuman treatment” contained in the *Comprehensive* or “inhuman act” in the *Imperial*. In this case, the author of *FSEJ* may have read these dictionary texts carefully and elaborated this kind of illustration through deduction. However, giving headword status to these might be irrelevant if they were productive, or not representative examples. It is the fixed collocations and highly idiomatic expressions that need entry status in dictionaries. For the same reason, would-be collocative expressions such as “Medicinal herb”, “Medicinal liquor” and “Medicinal powder” (which are not entered in either of Ogilvie’s dictionaries) have no justification to be given subentry status.

3) Subentries which are not found in Ogilvie’s dictionaries. Such cases are very rare since his two dictionaries are much larger than *FSEJ*. Nevertheless, there are actually some subentries that seem to be sourceless (e.g. “To breed ill blood”, “To shed blood” and “To meddle by words”).

In conclusion, the authors of this dictionary depend for the most part on Ogilvie’s dictionaries though we find a few exceptional cases. Some are directly copied from them and others are adapted and entered in more sophisticated ways. There might have been no problem with copying and quoting dictionaries without permission in those days, when copyright was not strictly protected. If we can ignore this point, it can be concluded that this dictionary made lexicographic progress over the former English-Japanese dictionaries, whose information was based on other bilingual dictionaries of European languages.

5. Pronunciation

“Fuon (附音)” in “Fuon-Sozu (附音撰)" means “giving the pronunciation.” *FSEJ* was not the first dictionary in Japan to introduce phonetic signs; the second edition (1871) of the so-called *Satsuma Jisho* (1869) was the first. The notation system adopted in the dictionary was a form of what was generally called the “Websterian system”, which had several variations. It seems that *FSEJ* followed this convention, and in the Preface it says that the dictionary is based on a dictionary written by the British lexicographer John Ogilvie. Although it is not mentioned specifically that they followed Ogilvie’s notation system for pronunciation, it is reasonable to assume that they did so. In fact, as is shown below, the phonetic signs used in *FSEJ* are the same as those in Ogilvie’s most important dictionary, the *Imperial Dictionary of the English Language* (1850).

Comparing the phonetic signs for consonants used in the two dictionaries:

**Imperial**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>TH</th>
<th>as in</th>
<th>then</th>
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<tr>
<td>ch,</td>
<td></td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>chain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ch,</td>
<td>th</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j,</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g,</td>
<td>wh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng,</td>
<td>zh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FSEJ**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSONANTS</th>
<th>TH</th>
<th>as in</th>
<th>then</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ch,</td>
<td></td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>chain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j,</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>go.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng,</td>
<td>ng</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>sing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TH</td>
<td>TH</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>then.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Supplied by Masuda)
th, ................................................. as in ................................................. thin.
w, ................................................. as in ................................................. wig.
wh, ................................................. as in ................................................. wig.
zh, ................................................. as in ................................................. azure.

It can be seen that they are exactly the same except that FSEJ omitted (ch) for Scottish /ʃ/ and (n) for French nasalized vowels. It is interesting that they adopted barred capital t (T) for /ð/.

Next, comparing the phonetic signs for vowels, the two systems are again almost identical. A few exceptions are that FSEJ does not include (ü), standing for Scottish /ũ/, and (î) for /œ/: 

**Imperial**

Vowels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th>as in</th>
<th>fate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ë</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>far</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ê</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>fat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ø</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>í</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>pine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>note</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| o | as in | not |
| ë | as in | move |
| u | as in | tube |
| ü | as in | bull |
| oi | as in | oil |
| ou | as in | pound |

**FSEJ**

VOWELS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>æ,</th>
<th>as in</th>
<th>fate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ë</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>far</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a,</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>fat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e,</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ê</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ê</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>í</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>pine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>pin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>õ</td>
<td>as in</td>
<td>note</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although Ogilvie was British, he was in favor of American dictionaries, especially those that followed the tradition of Webster. According to Nagashima (1970), in the Preface of Ogilvie's *Comprehensive English Dictionary* (1863), which the editors of FSEJ used as their most important model, it is noted that the dictionary is based on Webster's *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (1847) revised by Chauncey A. Goodrich. Therefore, it was natural for Ogilvie to adopt the Websterian system for phonetic transcription. After the publication of FSEJ, English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan became more Americanized, in the form of adopting the Websterian system of phonetic transcription, borrowing the illustrations in Websterian dictionaries (shown on p. 000), and having some encyclopedic characteristics. It is noteworthy that this tendency lasted until the 1920’s, and that this style has become a typical format for English-Japanese dictionaries in Japan.

If we compare parts of section T in the two dictionaries (see pp. 000), it is evident that the phonetic transcription of FSEJ is identical to that of the Imperial.

(Section 5 by Uchida)

6. Grammar and usage indications

Parts of speech and other grammatical information are abbreviated and given after the pronunciations in italics. "Abbreviations Used in this Dictionary" (頒中所用之表語) (Table 1) is tabulated just before the text. Actual information in the text is an entire copy of the Comprehensive, whereas the table does not belong to it and includes some abbreviations not found in the text.

It could be considered either that the table has a different source or that the editors made the table by themselves.
The table shows that FSEJ already has such information as inflections and parts of speech (including subclasses such as vi. and vt.) seen in modern English-Japanese dictionaries, and that gender (f., m. and n.) and futurity (future), whose actual application is questionable, are included. It should be noted that FSEJ introduced the sign for 'obsolete', following the Comprehensive. As far as we know, neither m. nor n. are used in the text, and the label fem. [sic] is used only for 'She' and 'Hers', not for 'Her'. These are also faithful copies of the Comprehensive.

In the revised edition the Japanese equivalents for 'preposition' and 'interjection' changed from 前置辞 to 前置辞 and from 役間 隠 to 役間 隠, respectively. Comparison of the grammatical terms in FSEJ and those in ETSJ (Table 2 below) shows that Japanese translation equivalents were not yet established.

Now let us take a closer look at the main grammatical information found within the text item by item. In FSEJ nouns are supposed to be given their plural forms when they inflect irregularly (e.g. Man, n. Men, pl.; Child, n. Children, pl.). When nouns have the same form in both the singular and the plural, they are labelled sing. and pl. (e.g. 'Chinese', 'Sheep'), but this indication is not exhaustive. For instance, 'Japanese' and 'Carp' are not labelled. No indication of countability (countable or uncountable) appears.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. stands for adjective</td>
<td>pers</td>
<td>person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abbrev.</td>
<td>pl.</td>
<td>plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>pp.</td>
<td>participle past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compar.</td>
<td>ppr.</td>
<td>participle present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>prep.</td>
<td>preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contr.</td>
<td>pret.</td>
<td>preterit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclam.</td>
<td>pron.</td>
<td>pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fut.</td>
<td>superl.</td>
<td>superlative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interj.</td>
<td>v.</td>
<td>verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m.</td>
<td>vi.</td>
<td>verb intransitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n.</td>
<td>vt.</td>
<td>verb transitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neut.</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>obsolete or not used</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that FSEJ already has such information as inflections and parts of speech (including subclasses such as vi. and vt.) seen in modern English-Japanese dictionaries, and that gender (f., m. and n.) and futurity (future), whose actual application is questionable, are included. It should be noted that FSEJ introduced the sign for 'obsolete', following the Comprehensive.

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Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preterit</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
<th>Present participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ETSJ (1862)</td>
<td>FSEJ (1873)</td>
<td>FSEJ' (1882)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interjection</td>
<td>interjection</td>
<td>interjection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>前置辞</td>
<td>前置辞</td>
<td>前置辞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[kantoushi]</td>
<td>[kantouji]</td>
<td>[toukanji]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>前置辞</td>
<td>前置辞</td>
<td>前置辞</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[zenchishi]</td>
<td>[zenchiji]</td>
<td>[zenji]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With verbs, the inflexional information, that is, preterit (only for irregular inflexions), past participle and present participle are given, for instance, Blow: vi.; Blew, pret.; Blown, pp.; Blowing, ppr.

As for adjectives, information about irregular inflexion is not provided for positives. However, when entries themselves are comparatives or superlatives indications are found in some cases. For example, Better a. comp.; Best a. superl.; Worst [super. of Worse.]; Most a. superl. of More. (Worse and More are not labelled.)

Although the auxiliary is not listed in the table, some auxiliary verbs are marked as follows:

Be vi. [Used as an auxiliary.]
May verb aux.; Might pret.
ought v. imperfect.
Shall vi. Verb auxiliary, pret. Should
Should pret. of Shall, but now used as an auxiliary verb, either in the past time or conditional present; and it often denotes obligation or duty.

Besides the above, the Comprehensive defines ‘Will’ as “an auxiliary verb and a sign of a future tense.” at sense 7, and ‘Need’, as “Need is sometimes employed as an auxiliary, or, at least, is used in the singular as well as plural”. FSEJ did not copy these.

Compared with ETSJ, there is little development concerning the description of the auxiliary. The descriptions of auxiliaries in ETSJ are faithful replications of the source book; as a result, ETSJ “introduced a number of mysterious ciphers” (Kokawa et al.: 1994: 94). FSEJ has the same flaw. (Section 6 by Komuro)
7. Japanese translations
7.1. Format of presentation
7.1.1. Use of movable type

It was pointed out in our previous work (Kokawa et al. 1994: 86) that
\textit{ETS}/ used letterpress for the first time in the history of Japanese lexicography, but that it was only for the English text. \textit{FSEJ} used movable type not only for the English (left-hand side) columns but also for the Japanese translations. Thus in \textit{FSEJ} the whole dictionary text came to be printed in the modern fashion, using a printing machine imported from Shanghai (Preface of \textit{FSEJ}; Nagashima 1970: 76; see also 3.1.1. above).

7.1.2. Page layout and typesetting

As was outlined in 3.2, the first edition of \textit{FSEJ} (1873) had two columns on each page, each of which consisted of separate English and Japanese subcolumns (on the left and right respectively). Pictorial illustrations were inserted in English subcolumns, and their explanations in Japanese were presented on the right in the Japanese subcolumn. The layout and typesetting features of \textit{FSEJ} in each column are basically the same as that in \textit{ETS}/. English is printed horizontally, i.e. just as it is in the West. Its correspondent Japanese is typeset horizontal to the English, but printed so as to be read vertically, i.e., by turning the book 90 degrees sideways. The reason is that traditionally the Japanese language was written and read from top to bottom, and horizontal typesetting of our language still looked bizarre or unfamiliar to readers in the late 19th-century.

In the second edition of the dictionary (\textit{FSEJ}2, 1882), the source and the target languages came to be printed not only on the same line but in the same direction. Also, in \textit{FSEJ}2, subcolumnar divisions were removed and the English and Japanese came to be printed in one and the same column. In other words, in the second edition the page layout of the dictionary text came to assume the appearance of present-day English-Japanese dictionaries.

7.1.3. Organization of Japanese subcolumns

Except for very small pocket-sized dictionaries, it is today's lexico-

7.2. Stylistic features of translations in \textit{FSEJ}

Stylistically, translations in \textit{FSEJ} are strikingly different from those in \textit{ETS}/. In order to discuss this, we will first have to provide a brief account of style in our language.

7.2.1. Chinese-based elevated vocabulary or indigenous Japanese?

The vocabulary of the Japanese language is roughly made up of three categories of word-stock — kango (words and phrases based on classical Chinese and pseudo-classical Chinese), wago (based on indigenous Japanese) and gairaigo (based on foreign languages other than Chinese). Kango may be compared to English words of French or Latin origin. They are felt to be more elevated in style and more fitting as a medium for learning and writing, and in the history of our language people's reverence for kango was much more prevalent than it is today. In fact the authority of kango was so strong that traditionally many Japanese writers and scholars wrote in Chinese (or in pseudo-Chinese) when formality and/or dignity was required. Also, some people considered it vulgar and uncultured to write sentences in the vernacular style without using kango profusely. On
the other hand, wago may be compared to English words of Germanic origin. Gairaigo, which accounts for a fairly large proportion of present-day Japanese vocabulary, was just about to be extensively introduced and was yet to be fixed, being still all but unknown to the majority of the population when FSEJ was being compiled (cf. Ueno 1968: 453f).

Early bilingual dictionaries produced in Japan may be divided into two groups according to whether they are kango-oriented or wago-oriented. For example, the Japanese-Portuguese dictionary compiled by Catholic missionaries in 1603 (*Vocabulario da Lingoa Iapam*) had an unmistakable wago-orientation. This was presumably because the dictionary was intended primarily for missionaries whose calling had to be carried out among the common people. Dutch-Japanese dictionaries produced mainly by interpreters working at the Dutch merchant factory in Nagasaki (Nagasaki-Haruma 1833 and Waran-Jii 1855–58) had a strong inclination toward practicality and were thus wago-oriented (Nagashima 1970: 22ff.). As regards English-Japanese dictionaries, ETSJ belongs to this category too (cf. Kokawa et al. 1994: 96).

On the other hand, in Yedo, which was the seat of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the center of academic studies of the time, the attitude toward study was rather formal, scholastic and conventional. Accordingly the Dutch-Japanese dictionaries produced there (Yedo-Haruma 1796 and Yakken 1810) came out very kango-oriented; this was true also of the English-Japanese dictionary compiled by order of the authorities before ETSJ, *Angeria-Gorin-Taisei* (*AGT*, 1814) (Nagashima, ibid.).

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1) However, Japanese cannot be expressed using only kango — there are many notions that can only be articulated in wago, and many others that would be just comprehensible if wago was used. Dictionary text has to be intelligible to users, and even the compilers of *AGT* must have realized the problem of making authority and practicality of a dictionary compatible. They made a humble excuse in their preface and diffidently introduced a compromised device. Their preface goes as follows: "We [= the compilers] are not totally familiar with the meanings of kango and if we had presented all the equivalents in kango we might have failed to convey the meaning that we intended. On the other hand, if all the translations had been presented in wago, the consequence might have been very vulgar, chaotic and ugly. Therefore, for better or worse, we make it a rule to present kango first and then in certain cases we present vernacular words after it to attain a satisfactory result. All this is just for convenience' sake." (Translated from the citation in Nagashima 1970: 43)

The presentation of wago equivalents in *AGT* was rather sporadic and users of the dictionary basically had to have kango literacy. How could dictionary authority and serviceability to the common public both be achieved? FSEJ conquered this challenge by the ingenious and systematic use of 'furigana' expressed in wago.

### 7.2.2. Systematic use of ‘furigana’ — the most prominent feature of FSEJ

‘Furigana’ is a system of interlinear or intratextual glosses, for which either of the two Japanese syllabaries (*hiragana* and *katakana*; in the case of FSEJ, the latter was employed) is used in small type. This device is not only used in dictionaries but generally in any Japanese writing. Its main purpose today is to show the pronunciation of kango that appear on the main line, but in those days it was also common to expound the meaning of kango by loosely-translated wago counterparts rendered in furigana. FSEJ applied this system to all the translations in its text, successfully achieving both dignity as literature and comprehensibility as a reference work. (For how furigana was actually presented, see the photocopy of the dictionary text of FSEJ on pp. 125.)

Nagashima concludes that FSEJ was unmistakably kango-oriented (1970: 80), but that argument is not necessarily to the point. In FSEJ the kango translations on the main line (except for the cases of apparent repetition) are always accompanied by corresponding interlinear wago glosses (furigana), and if we direct our eyes only to these furigana the text is unquestionably wago-oriented.

In fact, we may say that the dual presentation of mainstream kango plus interlinear wago is one of the most remarkable features of equivalent presentation in FSEJ, as will be illustrated below. However, presumably with a view to economizing space, this practice was virtually abolished in FSEJ/2 except for a few instances per page that may present particular difficulties. It is apparent that this discontinuance led to inconvenience and dissatisfaction among the users of the day. Many of the translations in FSEJ/2, being presented only in kango, must have been incomprehensible to ordinary users, however extensively revised and improved from the first
edition they may have been. In the revised edition of FSEJ (FSEJ2R, 1887), the use of furigana was justly revived. (In FSEJ2R, incidentally, furigana was given not above the kango translations but after them using quarter-sized type.)

7.3. Characteristics of Japanese equivalents presented

7.3.1. Conciseness of equivalents

Chinese characters, which make up kango, are ideographs. Each of them has its own meaning, and they combine rather freely to make up a new expression. On the other hand, most wago is fixed; new locutions cannot be readily invented from wago components. Thus in ETSJ, where wago was mainly used, the translations tended in many cases to be rather wordy and circumlocutory. In FSEJ, however, more concise Japanese translations came to be presented. (In the following comparative examples of ETSJ and FSEJ, the English given in square brackets is in each case a loose translation by the present author.)

Abaisance ETSJ: 礼ヲクンスルトキ頭ヲ屈メル事 [the act of bending one's head or the upper part of one's body to bow]
FSEJ: 拝礼 (ハイレイ1) [obiscense]

Applause ETSJ: 声ヲ挙ゲテ誉メタテル事 [the act of praising aloud]
FSEJ: 賛賛 (*シャウサン), 聴采 (*ドットホム) [ovation, applause]

7.3.2. Kango translations and influence of Lobscheid's ECD

In FSEJ, the effort to present translations in concise kango phrases sometimes went too far and the result is something hardly natural or idiomatic as Japanese. In such cases, furigana equivalents come in handy: they clarify the meaning that kango translations failed to convey.

1) Japanese equivalents in parentheses are what were presented as furigana in FSEJ. Furigana in FSEJ was actually presented in small characters above the corresponding kango equivalents.
2) In FSEJ, the rule is that all kango should be glossed with furigana. However, when the same kango is repeated for adjacent entries, furigana is often omitted except for the first time. In this paper, asterisks before furigana, which the present author added, denote that the furigana following the asterisk was that applied to one of the preceding equivalents.

Abactor ETSJ: 食用ニナル黒ヲ盗ム人 [a person who steals cattle]
FSEJ: 偷牛者 (ウシヌスビト) [steal-cattle-person (a cattle thief)]
ECD: 偷牛者

Applicability ETSJ: 合用ヨキ事 [suitability]
FSEJ: 可用 (モチフベキ)事、可適用 (テキョウスベキ)事 [able-use-ness (usability), able-apply-ness (applicability)]

How did these unnatural Japanese equivalents come about? Many of them come directly from Lobscheid’s English-Chinese Dictionary (ECD)1) Our comparative study of FSEJ and ECD revealed that the authors of FSEJ often appear to have copied the equivalents given in Lobscheid’s work as they were, however strange they might be as Japanese. In many cases the Chinese expressions cited from Lobscheid’s work were not Chinese words or fixed expressions, but merely nonidiomatic Chinese sentences made up for, example, of a subject plus an object. In illustrative phrases especially, the influence of the English-Chinese dictionary is very apparent2):

1) This dictionary was apparently compiled for the native speaker of English who would like to consult it for productive use of the Chinese language. In each entry, an English headword is followed by its Chinese equivalents in Chinese characters and their pronunciation using the Roman alphabet in Cantonese and Mandarin. When the headword is polysemous, each meaning is first expounded in an English paraphrase and then Chinese equivalents and pronunciations are presented for each.
2) In the second edition of FSEJ, expressions that were too unusual as Japanese were often naturalized. For example, the equivalents for the above-mentioned 'Applicability' were changed into '用フベキ事, 適用スベキ事' [the fact of being usable, the fact of being applicable]. However, where translations were added or new headwords were introduced, uncritical citations from Lobscheid’s ECD were still prevalent, further adding to the number of strange kango expressions in the revised work.

Apple-pie FSEJ: (no entry)
FSEJ2: 平菓亀 (リンゴパイ) (菓子 (クワシ) 名 (ナ)) [apple-tortoise (name of cake)]
ECD: 平菓亀.

Also, in the choice and arrangement of entries in FSEJ2, a more obvious influence from ECD can be identified. In the examples below capital letters in parentheses ((A), (B), . . .) denote the correspondence between entries, and lower-case letters in brackets (a), (b), . . .) show exact (not only semantic, but character-for-character) correspondence between trans-
7.4. Treatment of technical or encyclopedic items

7.4.1. Fauna, flora and technical terms

In contrast to ETSJ, which was derived from a very small pocket dictionary dedicated mainly to pure lexical items, an abundance of technical and/or encyclopedic information is one of the most remarkable features of FSEJ. To illustrate this and to see how such items are explained we went through all the entries in FSEJ beginning with the letter X.

FSEJ’s predecessor, ETSJ, had only seven items with initial X, of which at least the following four may be regarded as technical or encyclopedic.

Xebec, s. 船名 [name of ship]
Xerophthalmy, s. 幹眼 【lit., dry-eye ache】
Xiphias, s. 魚名 [name of fish]
Xylobalsamum, s. 「バルセム」樹 [‘balusemu’ tree]

As we can see, two of them just have an equivalent of the form “name of . . .”, with no further explication. Another, Xylobalsamum provides a transliteration of the name of the tree, but is otherwise uninformative.

In FSEJ, in which 43 headwords begin with X, 34 are positively technical or encyclopedic. Just over half of them (18 items) are given only brief generic comments of the form “name of . . .” or “a kind of . . .” What comes after this to fill the slot varies from ‘acid’, ‘drink’, ‘grass’, ‘insect’, ‘mineral’, ‘plant’, ‘shellfish’ and ‘tree’ to the very specific term ‘mollusc’. Among the other 16, four are explained with the format “a kind of . . .” plus a little more information in brackets.3 The rest (12 items) are provided with more or less concrete equivalents. Of these, four are chemical terms (Xanthine, Xanthogen, Xylanthrax and Xylol) and another four are related to medicine (Xerocolltrygium, Xerodes, Xerophthalmy and Xyster). The remaining four are: Xantipe 「弄婦女(シャポリーラン)」 [virago], Xebec 三本橋(ボンバシラ)ノ小船(コブネ) [a small boat with three masts], Xiphias 旗魚(カジトホシ)「且」 [agfish],剣形(ケンナリ) [shape of a sword], 魚星(ハハキボシ) [comet] and Xylobalsamum 抜爾撤摸樹(バルサムノキ)

1) Xebec, Xerography, Xerophthalmy, Xiphias, Xiphoid, Xylobalsamum and Xylography.
2) We excluded X itself (‘the 24th letter of the English alphabet’) and four abbreviations and acronyms.
3) Normally, supplementary explanations on the translation lines are concise. However, where pictorial illustration is given, long and detailed information is often presented, making use of the space next to the picture. Example: Paco, n. 羅能属(ラクダルイ)ノ駝(ケモノ)テ劣種(ペルウ)及(オヨ)ﾉ智駝(チリイ)ノ山中(サンチュウ)ニ産(サン)ス其肉(ソノーク)至(イタツ)テ美味(ビミ)ナリ [animal akin to camel and native of mountains in Peru and Chile; its meat is most delicious].
What may be roughly inferred is that the compilers of FSEJ had more information available to them on medicine and chemistry than on zoology, botany, or mineralogy. However, it is hardly to the point to blame them for not giving more detailed information. Even today, we are often dazzled and puzzled by the meticulously technical information in a dictionary (see Hulbert 1968: 72), and sometimes miss Johnonian brevity (he defined *Cat* as ‘a familiar domestic animal’ in his *Dictionary*). In many cases ordinary users of a dictionary in nontechnical environments need no more than the knowledge of whether a certain word denotes a notion, a substance, a disease or merely something edible. We would like to evaluate FSEJ highly for recording so many encyclopedic items and for identifying them taxonomically only eleven years after the first substantial English-Japanese dictionary came on the market in Japan.  

### 7.5. Treatment of grammatical words

As in ETSJ, rather little grammatical information is given in FSEJ, and the treatment of function words such as auxiliary verbs and pronouns is still lexically oriented. If any grammatical information is given at all, it is usually just an English comment after the headword (see Section 6). Thus:

- **Can**
- **Could**

1) In FSEJ, which was published nine years later, only three items (*Xanthoxyllum*, *Xiphoid* and *Xylocepha*) came to have more information than in the original edition. On the other hand, with the removal of furigana many translations became difficult to understand and the amount of substantial information was drastically reduced.

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1) Modern geographical names are listed with pronunciation in the appendix of FSEJ. However, *America* (as headword), *United kingdom* [sic] and *United states* [sic] (both s.v. *United*) are found in the A–Z text of the dictionary.

2) In rare cases, however, the syllabic alphabet instead of Chinese characters is used in FSEJ, too. Examples found are: *Platonic* [理学家プラートノ [of ‘Pulato’, a scientist]] and *Ptolemaic* [星学士「トリーミ」ノ [of an ‘Astronomer’]].
Thus, compared with today's English-Japanese dictionaries, the presentation of information on grammar and function words in FSEJ appears inadequate and unsystematic. This forms a striking contrast with FSEJ's substantial improvement of the amount of lexical and encyclopaedic information over its predecessors. Again, however, neither the compilers nor the users of the dictionary presumably expected anything more than the largest possible inventory of English words with their meanings and equivalents in Japanese. In this sense, lexicography at the time was at the stage of quantitative expansion, and in the period when FSEJ was born and when the absorption of Western culture and civilization was the primary concern of many Japanese, the nation needed dictionaries mainly for decoding purposes and must have enthusiastically welcomed Shibata and Koyasu's elaborate, voluminous lexical work.

7.6. Japanese translations in ETSJ and FSEJ

In this section some of the features studied in Kokawa et al. (1994: 95-106) are examined in FSEJ to see how they differ (or not) in the two dictionaries.

7.6.1. Stylistic disagreement

Stylistic disagreement between the source and the target languages (cf. 1994: 96-97) was apparently neutralized in FSEJ with the systematic use of kango plus furigana in the presentation of Japanese equivalents. In many cases the kango represent the elevated style, while the wago furigana normally show the vernacular language. However, either may correspond to the style represented by the headword, and users are left uninformed about register. Thus there is no improvement in stylistic representation in FSEJ.

Illness  ETSJ: 疾病 [infirmity]  
FSEJ: 疾病(ヤマヒ) [infirmity (illness)], ...  

7.6.2. Lengthy explanations

The lengthy explanatory equivalents found in ETSJ (Kokawa et al. 1994: 97) are in many cases lexicalized in FSEJ (cf. 7.3.1). Some culture-specific items are first lexicalized, then given an explanation in parentheses (see the example of 'Jury' below).

Abuse, n. 妄用(*メッタツカヒ), 悪弊(アクヘイ), 傷慢(アナドリ), 風弊(ハツカシメ), ...  
Canoe n. 独木舟(ウツボフネ)  
Insomnia n. 不眠(フミン)  
Jury n. 陪審官(タチアヒシフ) (詰訟札明ノ為ニ誓詞シタル人々ニテ法例ニ依テ之ヲ選挙ス) [(people chosen according to law and sworn in for legal investigation)]  
Privilege, n. 特許(トクキョ), 特恩(*トクオン), 自由(ジユウ), 特権(*トッケン)

Many of the equivalent words in FSEJ, a number of which are apparently forced and arbitrary while some are well devised, did not last and are consequently quite unfamiliar to Japanese living in the late 20th century. Some, such as tokken (特権) and fumin (不眠), however, have survived the test of time and have become an indispensable part of our daily vocabulary. The dictionary may be surmised to have contributed to the establishment of quite a few Japanese words which we use today.

7.6.3. Uncommon and culture-specific items

Many features as well as inadequacies of presentation in ETSJ concerning culture-specific items and items strange to the Japanese of the time were carried over into FSEJ, while there are quite a few improvements as well. Thus, the rather rough equivalent for 'Badger' in ETSJ (狸「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一種「種ノ一秒
Marmot, which was glossed ‘name of an animal’ in ETSJ, not only comes to be given a proper Japanese equivalent [土撥鼠(ヤマネズミ)] but also a pictorial illustration and accompanying explanation. Similar information is also added to the entry of ‘Acacia’, even though the format ‘the name of [a tree, a plant, an animal, etc]’ still persists and prevails in FSEJ.

Where glosses are found in ETSJ, in many cases lexicalized equivalents are given in FSEJ, some of which are quite forced, others very ingenious. Thus, in FSEJ we find 樹皮(キカハ) for ‘Bark’, 出外者(タビデナルヒト) for ‘Absentee’, and 攀上(ヨチノボル) for ‘Clamber’. In fact, it may be said that in FSEJ furigana serve as a kind of brief gloss. However, in some cases, mainly for giving collocational information, glosses are employed in FSEJ too:

- Howl 嘯(タケ)ル (to howl (said of dogs, wolves, etc))
- Charge 装薬スル (to load (a gun))

Many equivalents given in ETSJ which were too elevated or literary in comparison with the present-day language came to be more modern and down-to-earth lexically in FSEJ. Syntactically, however, Japanese literary inflectional endings which we do not normally use in speech are still employed as a matter of convention in pre-war publication:

- Cool ETSJ: 爽涼ナル [frigid] → FSEJ: 涼(スズシ)キ [cool]
- Educate ETSJ: 育ヒ上ル [nurture] → FSEJ: 教育スル, 教育スル [educate]

Still, some entries lack the most common Japanese equivalents which, in our days, we take for granted. Thus, the entry ‘Culture’ is glossed as ‘耕種 [cultivation], 修行 [training], 敎育 [education], 救化 [enlightenment]’ but not as ‘文化 [culture]’, as opposed to ‘civilization’.

7.7. The days of the Enlightenment and the dictionary

All in all, the format employed in FSEJ using kango plus furigana constitutes the most remarkable feature of equivalent presentation in the dictionary. It contributed to the compatibility of lexicographic authority and user-friendliness, to elegant glossing, to uniformity of format, and to overall saving of space. Unfortunately, this innovation had only a tentative life in the passing cultural development of the early-Meiji era and did not survive to our days, partly because the very custom of using furigana as a loose translation has passed out of use. Although many of the kango translations which were ‘invented’ and presented in FSEJ did not remain in the Japanese language, it was characteristic of the day that the compilers did actually present such inventions of their own in the dictionary, while it is customary for lexicographers of our age to use words for translation only from among the established word stock of the relevant language. Presumably, in the days of the Enlightenment (Bunmei-Kaika) during the early years of the Meiji era, many of the literati, including Shibata and Koyasu, were eager to create and provide a new culture and language of their own to pave the way for the rapidly modernizing nation.

The Japanese translations presented in FSEJ made great progress over ETSJ in other respects as well, in that (1) equivalents are more concise and lexicalized, (2) the number of equivalents presented in one entry is remarkably increased, providing more choice for users for understanding and using them, (3) vacant entries with comments ‘[unidentified]’ (especially for fauna and flora) have decreased, and (4) encyclopedic information and explanations are given copiously. On the other hand, forced and unnatural Japanese equivalents prevail in FSEJ even in the light of the language of the day. And the dictionary is still simply lexico- semantically oriented, with too little information on grammar (at least word-grammar) and on function words by today’s standards. Also, equivalent presentations in ETSJ are linear, one-dimensional and enumerative, with no user-friendly semantic grouping or stratification for polysemous entries. These points had to await further developments in the history of English-Japanese lexicography in Japan.

(Section 7 by Kokawa)

8. Pictorial illustrations

FSEJ is the first illustrated English-Japanese dictionary. According to our count, it has 459 pictorial illustrations in its text as the word “souzu
Pictures are placed below their headwords, and explanations for the pictures and/or, in the case of polysemy, the corresponding sense are given on the right of the pictures. Although the Preface says more than 500 pictures of concrete objects are included, this is either an overstatement or the result of counting each individual picture of group illustrations.

In addition, 482 pictorial illustrations, 449 items of which are the same as those in the text, are assembled at the end of the dictionary as part of the appendix. This is an imitation of the supplement of Webster’s *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (1859), which classifies illustrations into 22 groups1 and arranges the classified heads in alphabetical order. The supplement was, however, originally a mere stopgap.

The story is told that the Merriam’s learned that Worcester’s third edition, soon to appear, would be illustrated. As it was impossible to insert pictures in the text without resetting the entire book, hastily procured cuts were put together as a supplement. ... The supplement was so popular that even after, in later editions, the pictures were in their proper places, the publishers did not dare to omit it (Hulbert: 1968: 31).

Its reputation may have spread to Japan. *FSEJ* adopted the following 16 of the 22 groups (numbers in parentheses show how many items are grouped together):

- Architecture (32),
- Birds (51),
- Botany (44),
- Carpentry (5),
- Fishes (27),
- Geology (3),
- Geometry (48),
- Insects (5),
- Mechanics (33),
- Mythology (3),
- Philosophical Instruments (12),
- Plants and Shrubs (12),
- Quadrupeds (47),
- Reptiles (4),
- Ships and Naval Architecture (28),
- Trees and their Fruits (16).

With pictorial illustrations, *FSEJ* is based mainly on Ogilvie’s *The Imperial Dictionary* according to Hayakawa (1993). 413 out of 482 pictures are actually identical with engravings in the *Imperial*. Since 53 of the rest, 69 illustrations, are not found in the *Imperial*, it is natural that other source materials should have been used. Yet 16 illustrations are not adopted in spite of being in the *Imperial*. On the whole, there are no striking differences between the unadopted pictures in the *Imperial* and the pictures that actually appeared in *FSEJ*.

29 out of 69 pictures are identical with those in Webster’s *American Dictionary* (1864). Since the pictorial illustrations of Webster’s *American Dictionary* are based on the *Imperial*, which is based on the older Webster’s dictionary, it might be thought that the individual pictures as well as the framework were borrowed from Webster. However, it became clear that the original was the *Imperial* after comparing the pictures in the three. 21 out of 29 items belong to the department of Geometry, whose illustrations are all the same as those in Webster’s. The sources of the rest, 40 items, are unknown.

To sum up, *FSEJ* borrowed about 86% of its individual pictures from the *Imperial*, and the arrangement from Webster’s *American Dictionary*.

In *FSEJ*2R, the pictorial illustrations in the appendix were withdrawn and 118 illustrations were added to the text. 68 items had entries in the first edition, to which pictures were newly added, whereas 50 items were introduced with the entries themselves in the second edition. Every picture was reproduced from the *Comprehensive* except for eight items which were copied from the appendix of the first edition. Engravings are the same as those used in the first edition. However, in some pictures of animals, backgrounds such as crags and trees were partly cut in order to make objects stand out. (For example: Chaffinch, Chamois, Goat, Golden-pheasant.)

Webster’s *American Dictionary* has systematic cross-references from the text to the appendix and from the appendix to the text. In the text, a word whose illustration(s) are in the appendix is marked with an asterisk (*), and

1) Webster’s 22 classifications are as follows:


1) We referred to the edition published in 1865 including the supplement, from which 29 pictures are copied.
we can find the note, "See Pictorial Illustrations," at the bottom of each page. In the appendix, each engraving is given a figure referring to the page in the text, "where the word and its appropriate definition may be found" (p. lxxxiii).

Had FSEJ incorporated Webster's systematic cross-references, users could have made full use of the pictorial illustrations in its appendix. 449 out of 482 pictorial illustrations, as already noted, are the same as in the text\(^1\), in other words, 33 pictures are newly introduced into the appendix. 17 out of 33 items have only entries in the text, without cross-references from headwords to the appendix. The rest, 16 items, have no entries in the text, and users would have to find them almost by chance. The mere introduction of pictorial illustrations is a remarkable advance in terms of lexicography. However, it is regrettable that FSEJ did not incorporate Webster's systematic cross-referencing.

The motive or aim of introducing pictorial illustrations is not expressed concretely in FSEJ. The editor of the Imperial made the following statement in the Preface (p. V) as one of the objects of the dictionary:

By the assistance of DIAGRAMS and ENGRAVINGS ON WOOD to furnish clearer ideas of various subjects and objects, and of the signification of various terms, than could be conveyed by mere verbal description.

The American Dictionary evaluated the introduction of pictorial illustrations in the Imperial quoting the above passage in the Preface, and remarked on the advantage of its pictorial thesaurus as follows\(^2\):

Another distinguishing peculiarity (and, it is believed, excellence) here introduced, is that the Illustrations in a given department are grouped and presented by themselves.... The advantages of this arrangement are obvious, as are those of having the Illustrations together; since, besides admitting of better mechanical execution, the consulter has thus placed before him, at one view, the diagrams or engravings illustrative of an entire department.

Shibata and Koyasu probably read those statements and learned the importance of pictorial illustrations. If not, actual pictures in the texts of the source dictionaries no doubt made them realize their usefulness.

It is also conjectured that letterpress made it somewhat easier to keep the space for pictures and to adjust it; in other words, the development of printing might have helped the realisation of pictorial illustrations technically. (The pictures are woodblock prints. The engraver's name, Tohma Kobayashi, is written at the bottom of the last page.)

As stated in the Preface, the introduction of pictorial illustrations as well as pronunciation differentiates FSEJ from the earlier English-Japanese dictionaries. Pictorial illustrations, especially of things Western, must have been quite attractive and doubtless really helped the user who had no idea about them to understand the meaning or image of the word in question.

9. The appendix of FSEJ

The appendix consists of (i) Table of Irregular Verbs (pp.1391–1399), (ii) Abbreviations Explained (pp.1400–1418), (iii) Arbitrary Signs (pp.1419–1421), (iv) Explanation of Abbreviations (p.1422)\(^1\), (v) Pronouncing Vocabulary of Modern Geographical Names (pp.1423–1503) and (vi) Pictorial Illustrations (pp.1505–1548).

According to Nagashima (1970: 75), (i), (ii) and (iii) are copied from the Satsuma-Jisho (SJ) 2nd ed. As for (ii), some changes are made in the Japanese translation. While Japanese translations in SJ are relatively explanatory, in FSEJ, equivalents are provided within the range of possibility when Japanese does not have exact equivalents (See Table 1). For example, SJ describes B. A. as "a person who get a first degree in arts" while FSEJ creates an equivalent by combining Chinese characters. The treatment of proper nouns shows the difference more clearly. SJ only describes them as "the name of a place / a man / a woman etc." FSEJ uses transliterations in Chinese characters, which are probably borrowed from Chinese, and puts furigana in order to indicate the pronunciation.

\(^{1}\) (iv) is the table of abbreviations for (v).

\(^{1}\) The ten pictures not re-collected in the appendix are as follows: Barbed steed, Comparison, Chord, Fiddle-shaped leaf, Fire-dog, Head-piece, Pistil, Polyadelphia, Schooner, Tenon.

\(^{2}\) We quoted from the edition publised in 1864 which has the 1859 preface.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbr.</th>
<th>Original form</th>
<th>Translations</th>
<th>SJ</th>
<th>FSEJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B. A.</td>
<td>Bachelor of Arts</td>
<td>学士ニオイテ最初ノ等級ヲ得タル人</td>
<td>大学得業生</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. R.</td>
<td>House of Representatives</td>
<td>全國ノ集議所[法学]</td>
<td>下院</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Del.</td>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>米國ノ地名[geographical name of USA]</td>
<td>徳拉瓦勒</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Io.</td>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>地名[geographical name]</td>
<td>愛荷華</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fr.</td>
<td>Frances</td>
<td>男ノ名稱[man's name]</td>
<td>法蘭西斯</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar.</td>
<td>Maria</td>
<td>女ノ名稱[woman's name]</td>
<td>マリア</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering that users may expect a bilingual dictionary to give equivalents for headwords, that change could be interpreted as an improvement. Yet, in respect of understanding the meaning, it poses a problem. As Nakao (1993: 95) says, “If the source word in the bilingual dictionary is only substituted by a superficial equivalent or an incomplete one in the target language, users are likely to get a misleading idea about the meaning.”

(v) is an abridged version of the item in the appendix of the Comprehensive or the Imperial. (vi) is discussed separately.

In FSEJ2R, (vi) was removed and (v) was expanded to cover the original. Moreover, “Table of Measures and Weights” was newly added.

Although the Comprehensive gave “Vocabularies of Classical and Scripture Proper Names” as well as “Modern Geographical Names”, FSEJ did not adopt these but used the appendix of the Satsuma-jisho. It was wiser to list irregular verbs in particular than classical and scripture proper names with pronunciation for the benefit of foreign learners of English.

(Section 8 and 9 by Komuro)

10. Conclusion

As seen in this paper, FSEJ is heavily indebted to its contemporary English, English-Chinese and English-Japanese dictionaries regarding many facets of the information that it presents. If we look only at the most obvious and direct references, FSEJ utilizes resources (i.e. ideas, formats and materials) in the Imperial for pronunciation, the Comprehensive for grammar and usage indications, the Imperial and the American Dictionary for pictorial illustrations, the Satsuma-jisho for information in the appendix, and the Comprehensive, the Imperial and Lobshheid’s Chinese-English Dictionary for headwords and Japanese translations. In this sense, FSEJ may be regarded as a hodgepodge of information derived (or plagiarized) from other major reference works available at that time. Naturally Shibata and Koyasu are not creditable in this point. However, in the early stages of the development of a line of lexicography, there is a fair chance that piracy prevails, and this actually happened, as is widely known, even in the history of monolingual English dictionaries. Landau (1984: 42) comments on the practice of English dictionary-making in the 17th century as follows:

Copyright laws were, of course, nonexistent. However, it is not entirely fair to judge seventeenth-century authors by twentieth-century publishing standards. Anything published was fair game, and copying was widespread. Exclusive ownership of published material, though doubtless cherished, was not a reasonable expectation if its commercial value was likely to be great.

As far as a dictionary contains objective information, its contents must be derived from some source, and when a country’s lexicography is rapidly expanding and/or a pressing need for a dictionary is present, a compiler of a dictionary may feel pressure or even find a pretext to borrow other people’s materials extensively, which, however, we by no means intend to rationalize.

Apart from this point, especially in the field of presenting Japanese equivalents, FSEJ displayed a great deal of ingenuity and may well be called a monumental work in the history of English-Japanese lexicography, in its size, page and book format as well as the style and content of its dictionary material. In fact, the dictionary was enthusiastically welcomed by the rapidly expanding English-studying population of the day who had craved a comprehensive dictionary much larger than ETSJ and its ex-
panded pirate edition, *Satsuma-jisho*. However, *FSEJ* still lacks some important features that are regarded as essential in today's English-Japanese dictionaries, e.g. comprehensive illustrative phrases and sentences, systematic and helpful information on grammar and usage, ordered sense presentation of polysemous words, and so on. We still have to go through more than a century of stages of development before we finally reach the standard of English-Japanese dictionaries available to us today, which we may proudly claim to rank among the best bilingual dictionaries in the world.

After its publication, *FSEJ* became such a popular dictionary that in 1882 a second edition (*FSEJ/2*), and in 1887 a revised second edition (*FSEJ/2R*) was published, and pirate editions by different authors are said to have flourished in the 1870s and 1880s. Shibata was apparently preparing for the publication of the third edition of *FSEJ*, but this never came about, and only some manuscripts and what appears to be a galley proof remain to this day (Iwasaki 1935: 42ff).

(Section 10 by Kokawa)

REFERENCES


Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (2)


Of *Oreanda-jii* (和蘭字彙), 1855 (Vol. 1), 1858 (Vol. 2). Hoshu Katsuragawa. Yedo.

Satsuma-jisho See Sj.


Kaiser-Zoho Wayagu-Eijisho (改正増補和英英詳校, popularly known as *Satsumu-jisho* 『薩摩英辞書』), 1st ed. (S1), 1869; 2nd ed. (S2), 1871. Shokoku Maeda and Yoshiaki Takahashi. Shanghai.


APPENDIX: Photographic and Xerographic Reproductions of FSEJ, FSEJ2R, the Imperial and the American Dictionary

Reproduced here are a few pages from FSEJ and FSEJ2R by courtesy of Meiji University Library (明治大学図書館, Kanda-Surugadai, Tokyo), a pictorial page from the 1864 edition of the American Dictionary by courtesy of National Archives (国立公文書館, Kitano-maru-Koen, Tokyo) and a part of the dictionary text of the Imperial by courtesy of Prof. Yoshiro Kojima (Professor Emeritus at Waseda University).
Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (2)

Photograph 2. Japanese title page, FSEJ2R

Photograph 3. English title page, FSEJ
Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (2)

Photograph 4. English title page, FSEJ/2R
ENGLISH AND JAPANESE
DICTIONARY;
Etymological, Pronouncing and Explanatory.

A

A.

A, the first letter of the alphabet, as most of the houses, languages of the earth. It has been found in ancient manuscripts to be the first letter of the alphabet.

Photocopy 2. Dictionary text of FSEJ/2R, page 1

Photocopy 3. Pictorial illustrations in the American Dictionary
Photocopy 4. Pictorial illustrations in FSEJ

Photocopy 5. From FSEJ, p. 1202
Some Historical Notes on gear, garb and yare

FUMIAKI YAMAMOTO

1. The aim of this article is to examine the English words gear “a toothed wheel; equipment”, garb “clothes; fashion”, and yare “ready, prepared; quick, nimble” from a diachronic viewpoint and then to recognize a facet of word histories; according to the OED the first has been recorded since the thirteenth century, the second since the end of the sixteenth century, and the last since the Old English period.

2.1. Though archaic and dialectal now, yare is the oldest of the three and so is worth treating first in order to know the earliest uses and meanings of the word group. The word yare, which can be traced back to gearo\(^1\), gearu in Old English, was widely used not only as a free form but also as an element of compounds. The following are the examples from Beowulf:\(^2\)

Wiht unhælo, / grim ond grædig, gearo sōna wæs, / réoc, ond répe, ond on ræste genan / prætg þegna; (ll. 120−23)
Hraþe wæs æt holme hýðwærd geara, / sc þæ ār lange tīd ðæfta manna / fūs æt forðe þeort wīłodæ; (ll. 1914−16)
Him on fyrste gelomp, / ædre mid yldum, þæt hit wæs ðætgeara, / healxarna mæst; (ll. 76−8)

According to Bosworth and Toller, OE gearo (adj.) means “ready, prepared, equipped, or complete” corresponding in meaning to Lat. promptus, paratus, instructus or perfectus, e.g. gearo ic com “paratus sum” and gearo is min heorte “pararum est cor meum”. Toller, a supplement to Bosworth and

1) It is well known that the initial Germanic g- became j- in Old English (spelled y- in Modern English) before front vowels.
2) The examples are cited from Klaeber (1950).