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1995年という年は、いろいろな意味で大変な年であったが、英語辞書に関心のある者にとっては、すでによく耳にしているように、英国でEFL辞書の刊行が相次いだ「辞書の年」でもあった。岩崎研究会では、英米の注目すべき辞書やその改訂版を分析して、機関誌 *Lexicon* に共同報告してきている。昨年 *Cambridge International Dictionary of English (CIDE)*, *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (COBUILD)* 2版, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD)* 5版, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE)* 3版の登場を見て、さっそく中尾啓介さんを中心に四つの分析チームを編成した。猛暑の夏のある日、検討の方針とか分担などを話し合ったが、その会合の後、飯田橋の駅ビルに寄って食事を楽しんだときのこと、「会長は来年古稀を迎えられる」という話になり、研究会の活動の主要な柱である辞書分析を特集して、そのお祝いの記念号にしようではないか、ということで見解がまとまった。

竹林東京外国語大学名誉教授は、1926年のお生れで、今年9月22日に満70歳のお誕生日をお迎えになられる。周知の通り、1962年の発足以来今日まで34年間、会長として大きな指導力をふるわれて岩崎研究会をユニークな研究団体(会員約170名)に発展させてこられた。また電気通信大学から1966年に東京外国語大学に移られてから23年間にわたって、研究・教育および大学の学部と大学院の運営のそれぞれの面でお力を尽くされ、多大な成果を挙げられた。とりわけ、英語音声学を研究・教育する俊英を多教育成された御功績は輝かしい。東京外国語大学を御退官になってから1年後に、懇請されて日本女子大学で再び教鞭を執られ、昨年3月にお辞めになるまで5年の間に、これまた大きな足跡を残された。

辞書学者・辞書編纂者としても、卓越した才能を発揮されて、日本はもちろん国際的にも目覚ましい貢献をされてこられた。辞書作りに関しては、『研究社英和大辞典』『研究社新英和中辞典』『研究社ユニオン英和辞典』『ライトハウス英和辞典』『ライトハウス和英辞典』『グリーンライトハウス英和辞典』『カレッジライトハウス英和辞典』『研究社新リトル英和辞典』などの数々の英和・和英

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*

KAORU AKASU TETSUYA KOSHIISHI
RIICHIRO MATSUMOTO TAKEHIKO MAKINO
YUKIYOSHI ASADA KEISUKE NAKAO

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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 <small>SEVERE</small> .	—	—	—	—
harden	SUB of hard <small>SEVERE</small> .	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of hard .

hardening	SUB of hard <small>SEVERE</small> .	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 <small>CONTINUE TO HAVE, PROVIDE, and EXPRESS</small> .	MAIN.	MAIN.	MAIN.	SUB of maintain .
piggy (adj)	SUB of pig <small>ANIMAL</small> .	SUB (▶) of pig .	MAIN.	DEF 1 of piggy .	—
piggy (n)	SUB of pig <small>ANIMAL</small> .	DEF of SUB (▶) piggy .	MAIN.	DEF 2 of piggy .	SUB of pig .
piglet	SUB of pig <small>ANIMAL</small> .	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) (<i>for s.o / s.t.</i>).

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 /ən/, 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, t̥ən/. 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 /ə̃/ 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 /ər/, but such a transcription is likely to be misinterpreted as a diphthong, even if the pronunciation guide explains that the /ər/ represents a monophthong. The use of a single symbol /ə̃/ 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 /ə̃/, the NURSE vowel, which is also an r-colored monophthong, is transcribed with a sequence of symbols /ɜɪr/. 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 /ə̃/ and replace it with a sequence /ər/, 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 /ɜː/, 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 /ʰ/ (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 /ʰl/ is used where it is. Thus, /l/ is used in such words as *little*, *middle*, *cycle*, *giggle*, *people*, *able*, *hassle*, *puzzle*, *rifle*, etc. while /ʰl/ 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 *chide*.

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.

dictionary and providing the profiles of the authors. Parts of the analysis will be a comparison with the revised editions (*FSEJ2*, 1882; and *FSEJ2R*, 1887), Ogilvie's dictionaries (the *Imperial*, 1850, and especially the *Comprehensive*, 1863), on which *FSEJ* is said to have been based, and *ETSJ*.¹⁾

2. Background

2.1. Historical background — from Edo 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 Shirabesho²⁾ and the military training school in Yedo (now Tokyo). Such domains as Mito (now part of Ibaraki Pref.), Satsuma (now Kogoshima 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

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 Yogakusho [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 Yosho 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.

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

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. 78) and private universities were also brought into being. The anti-foreign, pro-imperial movement of the end of the Yedo era now gave way to the idea and effort to increase wealth and military strength. Recent experience with Western armed forces convinced the new leaders of the necessity of a modern mass army. The military reforms were initiated by Masujiro Omura (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 *Satsuma Jisho*¹⁾). The *WGS*²⁾ (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 *ETSJ2* 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, *Eiwa-Shochu-jiten* (1873) and *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language*¹⁾ (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 *Eiwa-jiten* (1872) juxtaposes translations of its own and those adopted from *An English and Chinese Dictionary* (*ECD*)²⁾, 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

edition of his dictionary. He contributed greatly to the promotion of education and culture of Meiji-era Japan.

1) This dictionary was published in London by Ernest Satow, an interpreter at the British legation and linguist, and Masakata Ishibashi (ibid.).

2) Lobscheid's work was highly influential in the wording of Japanese translations of the English-Japanese dictionaries which came after it. It is regarded as an important source of the foundation of Japanese compounds made up of Chinese characters (Nagashima 1970: 86).

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)¹⁾

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 Omura²⁾, and later became a disciple of Zozan Sakuma³⁾. 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 indispensable⁴⁾.

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.

4) *The Yomiuri Shimbun*, 17 Jan. 1898, qtd. in Iwasaki 1935: 37.

3.2. The dictionary

*FSEJ*¹⁾ 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 × 25.0 × 8.2cm, 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:

Preface	
Key to the Pronunciation	p(p). 7–8
Abbreviations Used in this Dictionary	9
Dictionary	10–1387
Appendix	1389–
Table of Irregular Verbs	1391–99
Abbreviations Explained	1400–18
Arbitrary Signs	1419–21
Explanation of Abbreviations	1422
Pronouncing Vocabulary of Modern Geographical Names	1423–1503
Pictorial Illustrations	1505–48

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 *Comprehensive*²⁾ 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.

2) The full title, as Nagashima (1970: 78) fills in the obscurities, is "The Comprehensive English Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, & Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, Numerous Phrases, Many Foreign Words Used by English Writers, and the More Important Technical and Scientific Terms. By John Ogilvie, LL. D., Editor of the Imperial Dictionary. The Pronunciation Adapted to the Best Modern Usage, By [Richard] Cull, F. S. A. [Illustrated] by above 800 Engravings on Wood. London: Blackie and Son, Paternoster Row; Edinburgh and Glasgow 1870."

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 dictionary 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 below). Using smaller type and making clever use of space, *FSEJ2* packed in more headwords (over ten thousand more) and illustrations (over one hundred more) into less space (about 500 pages less) than the first edition (Sogo 1971: 138). However, they were restored in the revised second edition because they helped the reader to understand the translations.

non-Chinese character parts of the translations are all katakana.

FSEJ is based on Ogilvie's *Imperial* (1850) and *Comprehensive* (1863). John Ogilvie (1797–1867) was a lexicographer, and a graduate of Aberdeen University, Scotland. His masterpiece, the *Imperial*, came in four volumes, which later formed the basis of Whitney's *The Century Dictionary* (1889–91). It is interesting that Ogilvie based his *Comprehensive* on the *Imperial* and especially on the revised and abridged edition of Webster (1828) by Goodrich (1841). Shibata and Koyasu should be highly praised for their clear-sighted and sensible decision in choosing an encyclopedic type of dictionary on which to base their dictionary; a work which they intended for the English-studying population of a country then on its way to modernization and needing to assimilate many ideas and systems from Western countries.

There are convincing grounds for claiming that *FSEJ* is the first major English-Japanese dictionary, which clearly differentiates it from *ETSJ*. *ETSJ* is based on the English-Dutch part of *NPD* (1843) and was compiled by Dutch translators who were commissioned by the authorities through a fear of the emerging influence of English. On the other hand, *FSEJ* takes the monolingual English dictionary as its basis and was produced voluntarily by some far-sighted scholars of English (who might have taken lessons in Dutch for a while in their childhood), in anticipation of the expected use of English. The former is situated in the transitional period from Dutch studies to English studies, while the latter is a product of the age in which Japan shifted its emphasis to English studies.

(Sections 1–3 by Yamada)

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-

nates.

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.

1) For the relevant discussion, see Kokawa *et al.* (1994: 80-119)

Solid one-word entries are analyzed into the following:

- 1) Independent status is given to each grammatical homonym¹⁾ (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

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

*best*¹⁾, or between man and men while expecting the same in verb entries, which is not the case.

4.2. Indented headwords

Items that consist of indented headwords are more focused on phrasal verbs, collocations, collocative 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-referring is possible among absolute, comparative and superlative forms of irregular adjectives.

mixing of Japanese and English letters became technically possible, the compilers of this dictionary should have improved lexicographical methodology in this respect.

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-Japa-

nese dictionaries, whose information was based on other bilingual dictionaries of European languages.

(Section 4 by Masuda)

5. Pronunciation

"Fuon (附音)" in "Fuon-Sozu (附音挿字)" 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

Consonants.

ch, .. as in .. chain.	FH, as in then.
çh, .. " .. Sc. loch, Ger. nacht.	th, " thin.
j, .. " .. job.	w, " wig.
g, .. " .. go.	wh, " whig.
ñ, .. " .. Fr. ton.	zh, " azure.
ng, .. " .. sing.	

FSEJ

CONSONANTS. 挿字

ch, .. as in .. chain.	chain.
j, .. as in .. job.	job.
g, .. as in .. go.	go.
ng, .. as in .. sing.	sing.
FH, .. as in .. then.	then.

th,	as in	thin.
w,	as in	wig.
wh,	as in	whig.
zh,	as in	azure.

it can be seen that they are exactly the same except that *FSEJ* omitted (çh) for Scottish /x/ and (ñ) for French nasalized vowels. It is interesting that they adopted barred capital *t* (TH) 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 /v/, and (ÿ) for /eɪ/:

Imperial

Vowels.

a,	as in	fate.	o, ...	as in ...	not.
ä,	“	far.	ö, ...	“	move.
ɑ,	“	fat.	ū, ...	“	tube.
ʌ,	“	fall.	u, ...	“	tub.
e,	“	me.	ʏ, ...	“	bull.
e,	“	met.	ü, ...	“	Sc. abune (Fr. u).
é,	“	her.	oi, ...	“	oil.
i,	“	pine.	ou, ...	“	pound.
i,	“	pin.	ÿ, ...	“	Sc. fey (= e + i).
o,	“	note.			

FSEJ

VOWELS. 母音

ā,	as in	fate.
ä,	as in	far.
ɑ,	as in	fat.
ʌ,	as in	fall.
e,	as in	me.
e,	as in	met.
é,	as in	her.
i,	as in	pine.
i,	as in	pin.
o,	as in	note.

o,	as in	not.
ö,	as in	move.
ū,	as in	tube.
u,	as in	tub.
ʏ,	as in	bull.
oi,	as in	oil.
ou,	as in	pound.

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" (編中所用之略語) (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.

Table 1

a. stands for adjective	形容辭	pers	person	人称
abbrev. abbreviated	畧	pl.	plural	複數
adv. adverb	副辭	pp.	participle past	過去分辭
compar. comparative	比較級	ppr.	participle present	現在分辭
conj. conjunction	接續辭	prep.	preposition	前辭
contr. contracted	約	pret.	preterit	過去
exclam. exclamation	感歎	pron.	pronoun	代名辭
f. feminine	女性	sing.	singular	單數
fut. future	未來	superl.	superlative	最大級
interj. interjection	投間辭	v.	verb	動辭
m. masculine	男性	vi.	verb intransitive	自動辭
n. noun	名辭	vt.	verb transitive	他動辭
neut. neuter	中性	†	obsolete or not used	廢語

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 前辭 to 前置辭 and from 投間辭 to 間投辭, 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 2

Present forms	<i>ETSJ</i> (1862)	<i>FSEJ</i> (1873)	<i>FSEJ</i> ² (1882)
interjection 間投詞 [kantoushi]	interjection 間投辭 [kantouji]	interjection 投間辭 [toukanji]	interjection 間投辭 [kantouji]
preposition 前置詞 [zenchishi]	preposition 前置辭 [zenchiji]	preposition 前辭 [zenji]	preposition 前置辭 [zenchiji]

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 *ETSJ* used letterpress for the first time in the history of Japanese lexicography, but that it was only for the English text. *FSEJ* used movable type not only for the English (left-hand side) columns but also for the Japanese translations. Thus in *FSEJ* the whole dictionary text came to be printed in the modern fashion, using a printing machine imported from Shanghai (Preface of *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 *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 *FSEJ* in each column are basically the same as that in *ETSJ*. 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 (*FSEJ2*, 1882), the source and the target languages came to be printed not only on the same line but in the same direction. Also, in *FSEJ2*, 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-

graphical custom in Japan that the target language equivalents under one polysemous headword are subdivided and grouped together into numbered senses when they are presented. The Japanese translations in *FSEJ* had undergone no such groupings or stratification. We shall take the following example from *FSEJ* (the English in square brackets is the present author's):

Apprehension 捕捉 [seizure], 了解 [understanding], 意思 [thought], 推量 [inference], 想像 [imagination], 恐怖 [fear], 通曉 [knowledge], 意見 [notion]

The arrangement of equivalents appears rather linear and random, without even any classification by the use of different punctuation marks. Probably in those days the compilers of a dictionary were intent merely to present as many Japanese translations as they could think of and the users must have been only too happy with that practice.

7.2. Stylistic features of translations in *FSEJ*

Stylistically, translations in *FSEJ* are strikingly different from those in *ETSJ*. 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: 453ff).

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-ji* 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.*)¹⁾

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 *FSEJ2* 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 *FSEJ2*, 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 *FSEJ2* (*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*: 礼ヲスルトキ頭又腰ヲ屈メル事 [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⁾) [obeisance]
- Applause *ETSJ*: 声ヲ挙ゲテ誉メタテル事 [the act of praising aloud]
FSEJ: 賞賛(*シャウサン²), 喝采(*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 *FSEJ1* 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*: 食用ニナル獸ヲ盗ム人 [a person who steals cattle]
FSEJ: 偷牛者(ウシヌスピト) [steal-cattle-person (a cattle thief)]
ECD: 偷牛者
- applicability *ETSJ*: 恰好ヨキ事 [suitability]
FSEJ: 可用(モチフベキ)事、可適用(テキヨウスベキ)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 *FSEJ1*: (no entry)
FSEJ2: 平菓亀(リンゴパイ) (菓子(クワシ)ノ名(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-

Twice a day. (s.v. A, the indefinite article)

FSEJ: 一日兩次(ヒニリヤウド) [two 'folds' a day (two times [sic] a day)]

ECD: 一日兩次

To abandon a wife. (s.v. Abandon)

FSEJ: 棄妻(ツマヲサル) [leave-wife (to leave one's wife)]

ECD: 棄妻

To be angry. (s.v. Be) *FSEJ*: 発怒(ハラダツ) [issue anger (to be angry)]

ECD: 発怒

Be silent. (s.v. Be) *FSEJ*: 勿言(ダマレ) [not to utter (shut up!)]

ECD: 勿言

To be loved. (s.v. Be) *FSEJ*: 被愛(アイセラルル) [undergo love (to be loved)]

ECD: 被愛.

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

to compare explanations in *ECD* and *FSEJ2*.

- ECD*: Chop, a mark 号(a), 字号(b), 紅牌(c), ... (A)
 Chop, to cut off or separate ... 斬(d), ... (B)
 Chop, to catch with the mouth ... (C)
 Chop, to buy or barter 貿易, 交易(e) (D)
 Chop, to turn, or shift suddenly 忽然転(f), ... (E)
 Chop, a piece chopped off, ... (F)

- FSEJ1*: Chop, vt. 截碎(キリクダ)ク, 斬(キル) (d), 截割(キリワ)ル, ... (B)
 Chop, n. 截片(キレ), 小肉片(コニクギレ), 裂口(サケメ) (F)
 Chop, vt. 買(カ)フ, 交易(カウエキ)スル(e) (D)
 Chop, vi. 変(カハ)ル, 転(テン)ズル(E)
 Chop, n. 頰(アゴ), 口(クチ), 嘴(ハシ) (G)

- FSEJ2*: Chop, n. 号(a), 字号(b), 紅牌(c) (A)
 Chop, vt. 截碎ク, 斬ル(d), 截割ル, ... (B)
 Chop, vt. 買フ, 交易スル(e) (D)
 Chop, vi. 急ニ変ル, 忽然転ズル(f) (E)
 Chop, n. 截片, 小肉片, 裂口, 頰類, 口, 嘴(F)

through all the entries in *FSEJ* beginning with the letter X.

FSEJ's predecessor, *ETSJ*, had only seven items with initial X¹⁾, of which at least the following four may be regarded as technical or encyclopedic.

Xebec, s. 船ノ名 [name of ship]

Xerophthalmia, s. 乾眼痛 [lit., dry-eye ache]

Xiphias, s. 魚ノ名 [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 X²⁾, 34 are positively technical or encyclopedic. Just over half of them (18 items) are still 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 *Xylo*) and another four are related to medicine (*Xerocollyrium*, *Xerodes*, *Xerophthalmia* and *Xyster*). The remaining four are: *Xantippe* 「弄嘴女(シャベリヲンナ) [virago], *Xebec* 「三本檣(ボンバシラ)ノ小船(コブネ) [a small boat with three masts], *Xiphias* 「旗魚(カヂトホシ) ['flagfish'], 劍形(ケンナリ) [shape of a sword], 彗星(ハハキボシ) [comet] and *Xylobalsamum* 「拔爾撒謨樹(バルサムノキ)

1) *Xebec*, *Xerography*, *Xerophthalmia*, *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. 駱駝屬(ラクダグレイ)ノ獸(ケモノ)ニテ秘魯(*ペルウ)及(オヨ)ビ智利(チリイ)ノ山中(サンチュウ)ニ産(サン)ス其肉(ソノニク)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.].

['balusamu' tree]」.

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 Johnsonian 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.¹⁾

7.4.2. Proper names

Abundant in the entries beginning with X in *FSEJ* were fauna, flora and technical terms. Other encyclopedic items may include proper names (e.g. geographical and biographical names) as well as culture-specific matters that are not commonly found where the target language is spoken. *FSEJ* does not seem in principle to enter proper names, unless they are of literary, mythical or historical significance. Thus items such as the following are entered:

- Puck, *n.* 妖精(ヘンゲ)ノ名 [name of a spirit]
 Rubicon, *n.* 意大利国界(イタリアクニザカヒ)ノ小河(コガハ)ノ名
 [name of a small river on the border of Italy]
 Sphinx, *n.* 獅身女面(シシンヂヨメン)ノ怪物(バケモノ)(小説(セウセツ)ノ) [monster with body of a lion and face of a woman (in fiction)].

On the other hand, while names such as *Britain*, *England*, *Plato* and

1) In *FSEJ2*, which was published nine years later, only three items (*Xanthoxylum*, *Xiphoid* and *Xylocopa*) 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.

Ptolemy do not have any place in the dictionary, their derivatives (e.g. *Platonic*, *Platonically*, *Platonism* and *Platonist* are entered.¹⁾ In such cases, the norm in the dictionary is to use transliterations in Chinese characters to denote the proper names and put furigana above them to explicate pronunciation. This practice contrasts strongly with *ETSJ*, where a Japanese syllabic alphabet was often used for that purpose. Thus: *Britannic*, *a.* 「不列顛(*ブリタニア)ノ [of 'Buritania']」, *American*, *n.* 「亜墨利加人 [person from 'Amerika']」, etc.²⁾

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 *vi.*; Could *pret.* 能(アタ)フ [be capable of], 得(ウル)ル [be able to]
 Would, *pret. of Will.* 想(オモヒ)シ [thought], 願(ネガヒ)シ [wanted],
 有(アラ)フ [may be]
 Could [The past tense of Can.]
 Might, *pret. of May.*
 His, *pron.* 彼(カレ)ノ [his], 彼人(アノヒト)ノ [of that person]

Entries for prepositions generally consist of blunt enumeration of major meanings in Japanese and lists of some idiomatic expressions, without the copious illustrations found in today's learner's dictionaries.

Irregular plural forms of nouns and suppletive comparative forms of adjectives are either given brief grammatical information in English or treated purely lexically:

- Furthest, *a.* 極遠方(エンパウ)ノ [extremely far]
 Mice, *n. pl. of Mouse.* 甘口[ママ]鼠(ハツカネズミ) [mouse]

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-ミ]ノ [of 'Tolimi', an astronomer]」. Today the usual practice is to use one of the syllabic alphabets called 'katakana'.

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(*メツツカヒ), 悪弊(アクヘイ), 侮慢(アナドリ), 凌辱(ハヅカシメ), . . .
 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) (詞訟糺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(トクキヨ), 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 [raccoon dog]) was generalized (狸ノ一種 [kind of raccoon dog]), but the equivalents for 'Chess' (将棋 [Japanese chess]) and 'Hallowmas' (祭祀ノ名 in *ETSJ*, 祭ノ名 in *FSEJ*, both of which may be translated as [name of a festival]) remained unimproved.

Where transliterations are presented in *FSEJ*, the rendering is always into Chinese, accompanied by furigana (see 7.4.2). Here too, the format of 'revered' kango plus auxiliary furigana is strictly observed.

Michaelmas *ETSJ*: 羅馬教ノミツカヘルノ祭 [Michael's Christian festival]

FSEJ: 聖密其児祭(シントミケルマツリ) [St. Michael's Festival]

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', although 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(キノカハ) for 'Bark', 出外者(タビデタルヒト) for 'Absentee', and 攀上(ヨヂノボ)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 嗥(タケ)ル(犬狼等ニ云) [to howl (said of dogs, wolves, etc)]
Charge 装薬スル(銃ニ) [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*: 養ヒ上ル [nurture] → *FSEJ*: 養育スル, 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], 教育 [education], 教化 [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 dic-

tionary. 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

(挿入)" (= pictures inserted) in the title shows. 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 Merriams 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 Im-*

1) Webster's 22 classifications are as follows:

Architecture, Birds-Ornithology-Natural History, Botany, Carpentry, Coats of Arms, Deaf and Dumb Alphabet, Fishes-Ichthyology-Sea Animals, Geology, Geometry, Heraldry, Insects, Mechanics-Machinery, Music, Mythology-Idols &c. , Philosophical Instruments, Plants and Shrubs, Quadrupeds, Races, Reptiles, Ships and Naval Architecture, Trees and their Fruits.

perial Dictionary according to Hayakawa (1993). 413 out of 482 pictures are actually identical with engravings in the *Imperial*¹⁾ 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 *FSEJ2R*, 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) 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 text¹⁾, 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 follows²⁾:

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

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

2) We quoted from the edition published in 1864 which has the 1859 preface.

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).

Table 3

Abbr.	Original form	Translations	
		SJ	FSEJ
B. A.	Bachelor of Arts	學術ニオイテ最初ノ等級ヲ得タル人	大學得業生
H. R.	House of Representatives	全權ノ集議所 [a legislative assembly]	下院
Del.	Delaware	米國ノ地名 [a geographical name of USA]	デラウェア 德拉瓦勒
Io.	Iowa	地名 [a geographical name]	アイオウハ 愛約華
Fr.	Frances	男ノ名稱 [a man's name]	法蘭西斯
Mar.	Maria	女ノ名稱 [a woman's name]	マリア 馬利亞

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-fisho*. 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-fisho* for information in the appendix, and the *Comprehensive*, the *Imperial* and Lobsheid'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-fisho*. 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 (*FSEJ2*), and in 1887 a revised second edition (*FSEJ2R*) 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)

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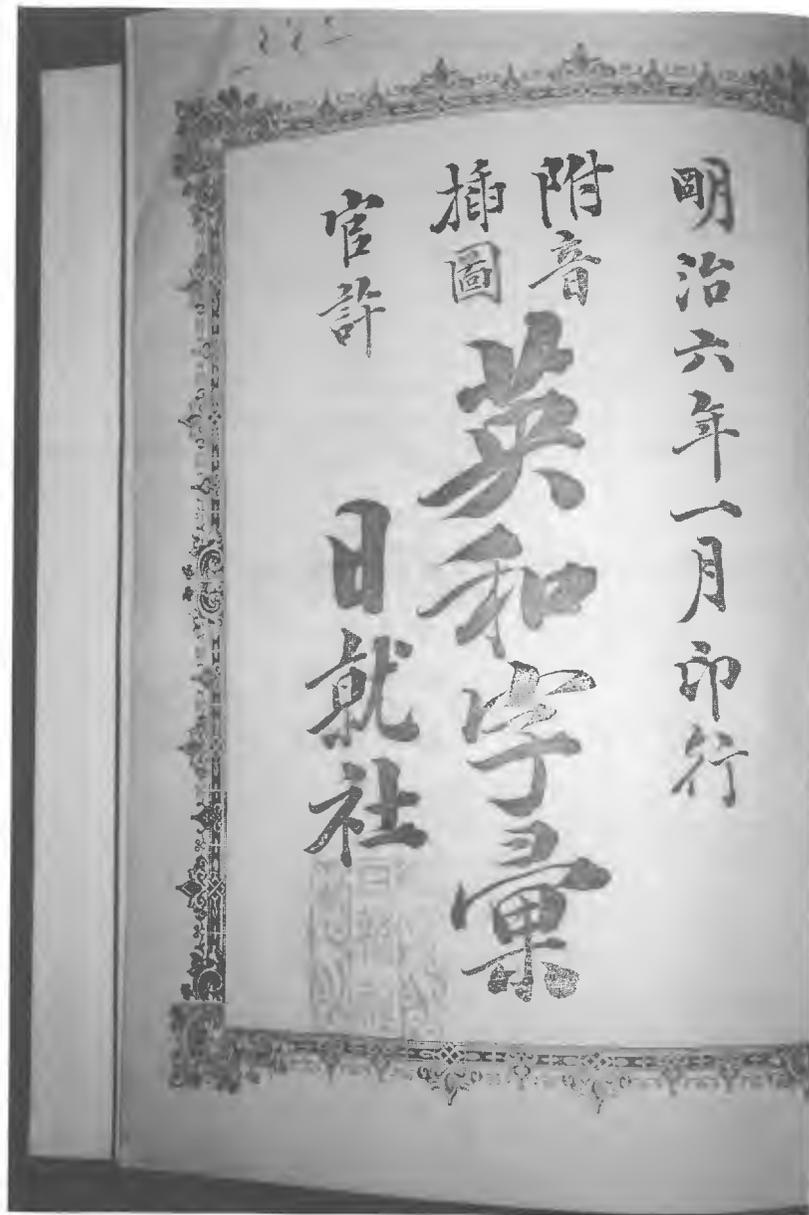
CITED DICTIONARIES AND THEIR ABBREVIATIONS

- American Dictionary* *An American Dictionary of the English Language*, 1847. Noah Webster, rev. by C. A. Goodrich. Unabridged, revised "Pictorial Edition," 1859, 1861, 1864. Springfield: Merriam.
- AGT* *Angeria-Gorin-Taisei* (『語厄利亜語林大成』), 1814.
- Comprehensive* *Comprehensive English Dictionary*, 1863, 1870. John Ogilvie. London: Blackie and son.
- Dictionary* *A Dictionary of the English Language*, 1755. Samuel Johnson. *Eiwa-fiten* (『英和字典』), 1872. Chishinkan Publishers. *Eiwa-Shochu-fiten* (『英和掌中字典』, *Pocket Diamond Dictionary English and Japanese*), 1873. Sukekiyo Aoki. Arimashigakko.
- ECD* *An English and Chinese Dictionary* (『英華字典』), 4 vols, 1866-69. W. Lobscheid. Hong Kong: Daily Press.

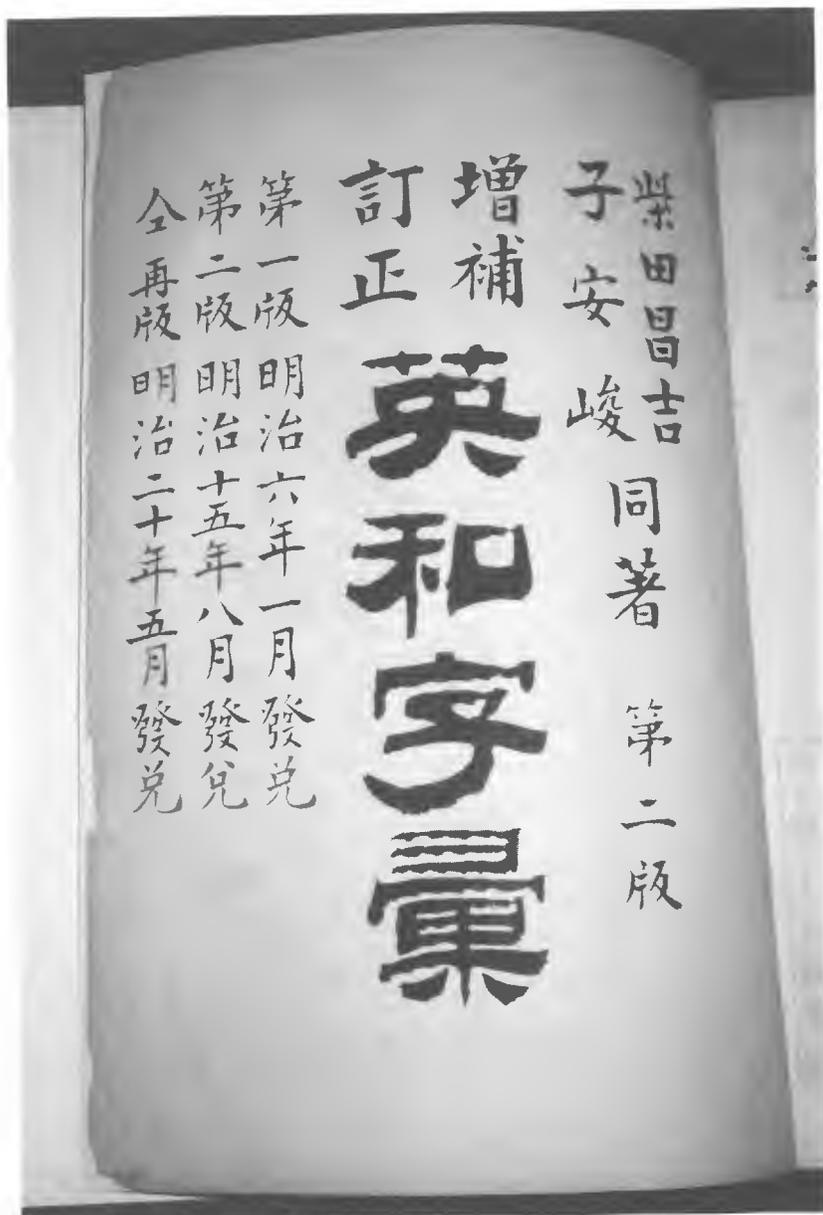
- ETSJ* *Eiwa-Taiyaku-Shuchin-fisho* (『英和对訳袖珍辞書』), 1st ed., 1862. Tatsunosuke Hori, et al. Yoshō-Shirabedokoro.
- ETSJ2* *Eiwa-Taiyaku-Shuchin-fisho*, 2nd ed., 1866. Rev. by Kamenosuke Horikoshi. Kaiseijo.
An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language, 1875. Earnest M. Satow and Ishibashi Masakata. London.
- FSEJ* *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-jii* (『附音挿図英和字彙』), 1st ed., 1873. Masayoshi Shibata and Takashi Koyasu. Yokohama: Nisshusha.
- FSEJ2* *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-jii*, 2nd ed., 1882. Masayoshi Shibata and Takashi Koyasu. Yokohama: Nisshusha.
- FSEJ2R* *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-jii*, Revised 2nd ed., 1887. Masayoshi Shibata and Takashi Koyasu. Yokohama: Nisshusha.
- Imperial* *The Imperial Dictionary of the English Language*, 1848–1850. John Ogilvie. London: Blackie.
- NDP* *A New Pocket Dictionary of the English and Dutch Languages*. 1st ed. 1843. Picard, H.
- OJ* *Oranda-jii* (『和蘭字彙』), 1855 (Vol. 1), 1858 (Vol. 2). Hoshu Katsuragawa. Yedo.
- Satsuma-fisho* See *SJ*.
Senkai-Eiwa-jirin (『浅解英和辞林』, *A Dictionary of the English and Japanese Common Language for Children*), 1871. Shinsai Uchida. Tokyo: Kurataya.
- SJ, SJ2* *Kaisei-Zoho Wayaku-Eijisho* (『改正増補和訳英辞書』, popularly known as *Satsuma-fisho* 『薩摩辞書』). 1st ed. (*SJ*), 1869; 2nd ed. (*SJ2*), 1871. Shokoku Maeda and Yoshiaki Takahashi. Shanghai.
- WGS* *Waei-Gorin-Shusei* (『和英語林集成』, *A Japanese-English and English-Japanese Dictionary*), 1867. J. C. Hepburn and James Curtis. Shanghai: American Presbyterian Mission Press.

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

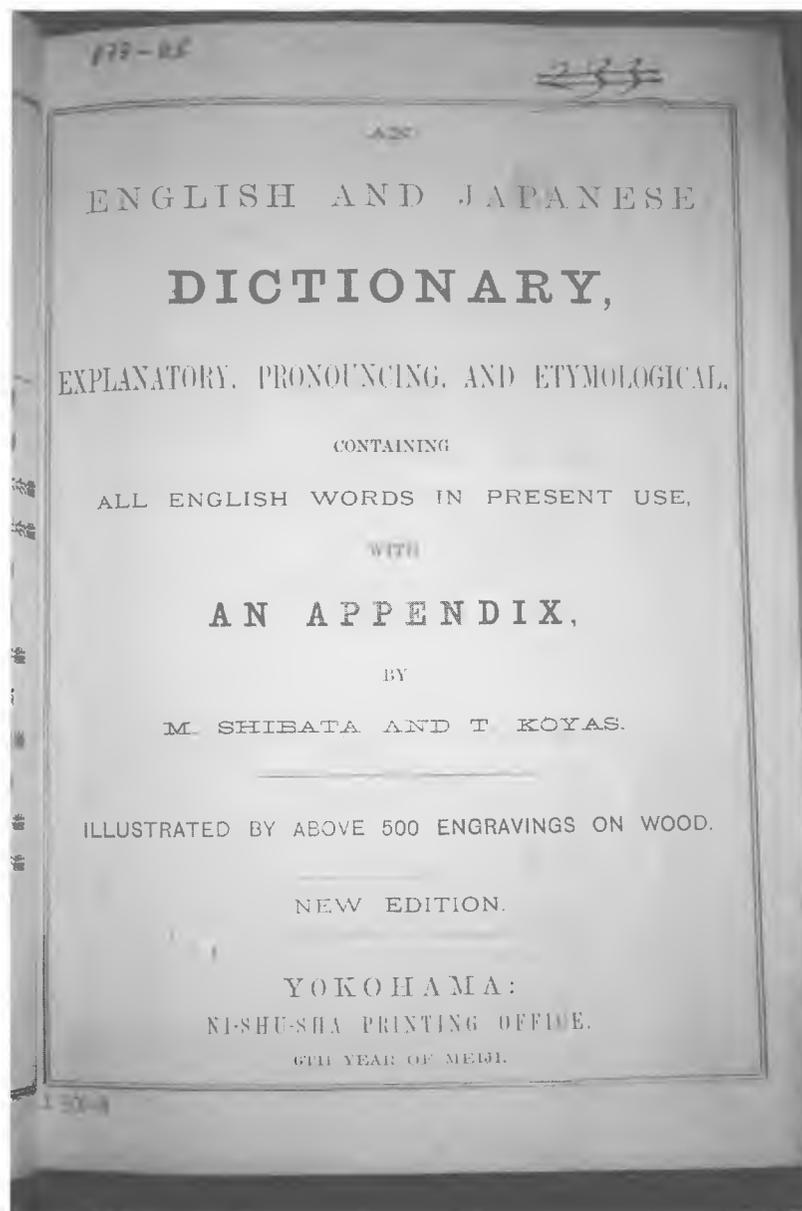
Reproduced here are a few pages from *FSEJ* and *FSEJ2R* by courtesy of Meiji University Library (明治大学図書館, Kanda-Surugadai, Tokyo), a pictorial page from the 1864 edition of the *American Dictionary* by courtesy of National Archives (国立公文書館, Kitanomaru-Koen, Tokyo) and a part of the dictionary text of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



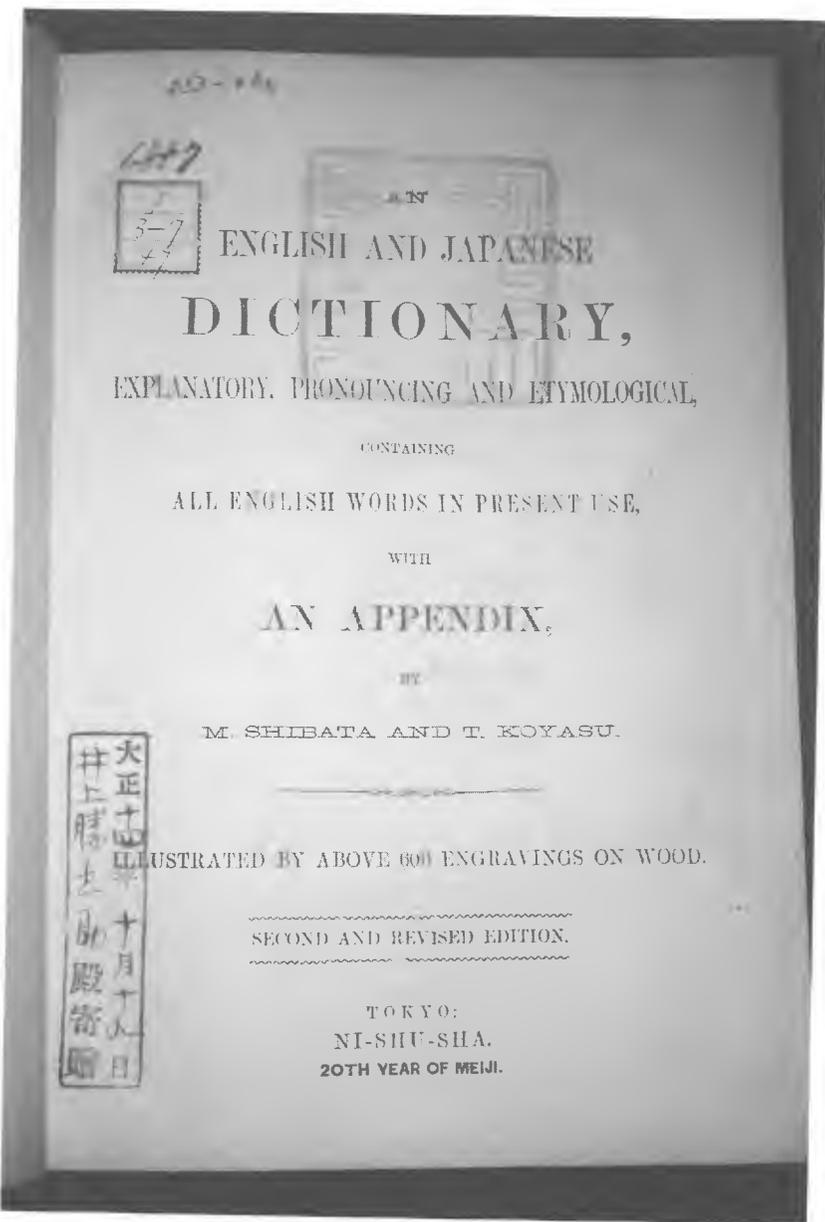
Photograph 1. Japanese title page, *FSEJ*



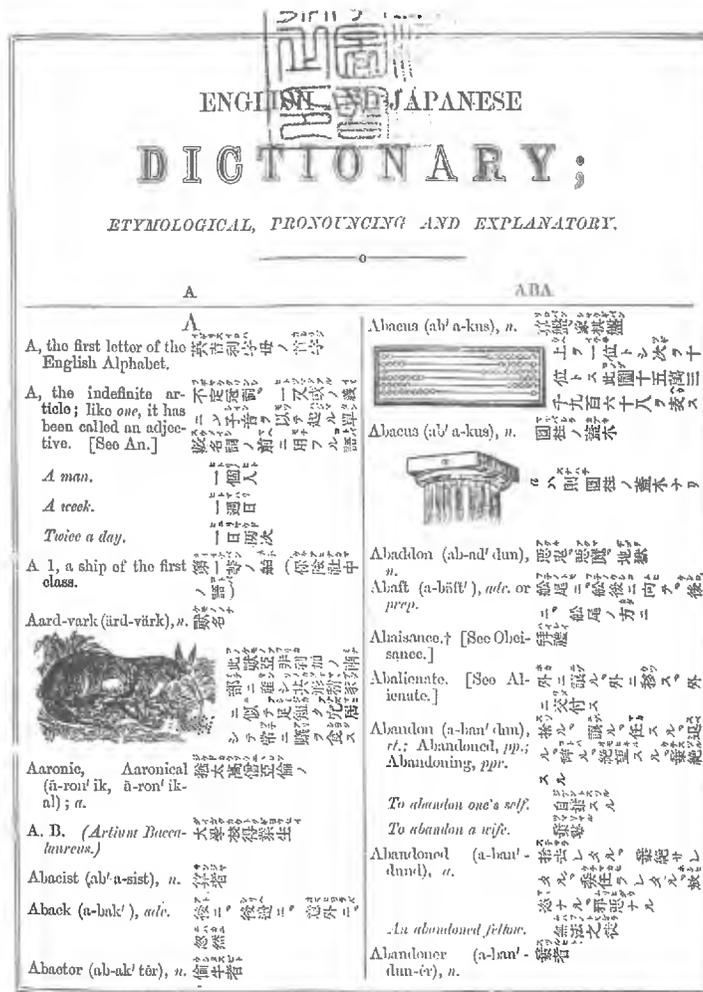
Photograph 2. Japanese title page, *FSEJ2R*



Photograph 3. English title page, *FSEJ*



Photograph 4. English title page, FSEJ/2R



Fato, fär, fat, füll; mō, mot, hō; pinc, pin; nōto, not, möve; tūbo, tub, bull; oil, pound.
 ch, chin; j, joh; g, go; ng, siay; zu, then; th, thin; w, wig; wh, whig; zh, azure; † obsolete.

Photocopy 1. Dictionary text of FSEJ, page 1

Toller, adds detailed information about the word, subdividing its sense and usage; there the basic meaning is shown at the beginning as "in a state of preparation, so as to be capable of immediately performing (or becoming the object of) such action as implied or expressed by the context", and this meaning seems to hold true in the citations from *Beowulf* above. The subdivided senses (nineteen in all) are "dressed, armed", "(of food) dressed, cooked", and "(of ships) equipped for service", to mention a few.

Besides the adjective *gæaro*, Old English had a number of connected words, the adverb *gear(w)e*, *gæaro* "readily, entirely" (> Mod. E *yare*, which is now obsolete or archaic), the adverb *gearolice*, "readily, clearly" (> Mod. E *yarely* (arch.)), the verb *gearwian* "to make ready, prepare, put on, clothe" (> ME *zare(n)* > Mod. E *yare*), which derived from the adjective *gæaro* and is now obsolete, the verb *gearcian* "to prepare, make ready" (> ME *zarke(n)* > Mod. E *yark*), which was formed as the adjective *gæaro* + factitive suffix *-cian* and is now obsolete, and the noun *gearwe* (used only in pl.) "clothing, gear, arms (< things which were equipped, things made ready)", which was completely replaced by *gere*, of Norse origin, during the Middle English period. The number of related words will increase considerably, if we add compounds such as *gæaro-gongende* "going quickly", *gæaro-wyrdig* "ready in words", etc.

OE *gæaro* became *zare* (and later *yare*) in Middle English. However, ME *zare* was not used so commonly as *gæaro*, and was being gradually replaced by *redi*, *redy* (> Mod. E *ready*), which began to be used in the twelfth century; Dickins and Wilson (1951: 22), citing *Lazamon's Brut*, show "(þer com Arður him azein,) **zaru** mid his fehte." (the British Museum Cotton Caligula A IX (c. 1225)), along with the textual variation "**redi** to fihte" (the British Museum Cotton Otho C XIII (c. 1250)). In the stage of transition *yare* and *redy* seemed to be sometimes used tautologically side by side, e.g. *redy and yare*, or *yare and redy*.¹⁾ In Modern English, though *yare*

1) In his *Dialect Dictionary* (s.v. *gare*), Wright cites a Yorkshire dialect illustration, which runs as follows, "I'm gare and ready. I'll say 'gar gar' for it [i.e. ready, ready] expressive of anxiety for its obtainment." This shows that the Scottish or Yorkshire dialect *gare*, of Norse origin and with the same etymology as the native *yare*, is not so familiar and needs to be explained tautologically. Therefore, it may be that the expression "*yare and ready*" was redundant but necessary after *yare* had not been commonly used any longer.

is occasionally found in Shakespeare's works, the translators of the Authorized Version never used it, and as a result it has been replaced almost completely by *ready* and has become dialectal or archaic now.

2.2. ME *gere* (> Mod E *gear*) is known to be a Scandinavian loanword, which meant "equipment of any kind, such as clothes, armor, harness, tools, etc.; behavior, doings" and was used very frequently throughout the Middle English period. As stated above, Old English had the word *gearwe* with similar meanings, but ME *gere* was not a direct descendant of OE *gearwe*, the initial sound of which had already gone through the phonetic change *g > j*, whereas the initial consonant of *gere* is considered to be a guttural plosive retaining a Scandinavian phonetic value; therefore it is very probable that the word was introduced into English after the process of palatalization had already ended. The fact that a great number of illustrations of this word are cited in the *MED* (s.v. *gere*) shows its considerably frequent use in Middle English. The following are examples:

Whyle oure luflych lede lys in his bedde, / Gawayn graypely at home,
in **gere3** (= bedclothes) ful ryche / of hewe;

(*Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*, ll. 1469~71)¹⁾

An hundred lordes hadde he with hym there, / Al armed, save hir heddes,
in al hir **gere** (= fighting equipment), / Ful richely in alle maner thynges.

(*The Canterbury Tales; The Knight's Tale*, ll. 2179~81)²⁾

Moreover, Mod. E *gear* is used as a verb, though its older meanings "to adorn, array, dress; to equip" are obsolete or archaic (cf. *OED*, s.v. *gear* v.). This verb, related to the Old English verb *gearwian*, was also borrowed from Old Norse as *geren* in the thirteenth century. What is to be noticed is that ME *geren* "to prepare, equip; to dress; to adorn; to make, cause" had much more frequency and importance than Mod. E *gear*. The following are examples:

Wel gay wat3 þis gome **gered** (= clothed) in grene, / & þe here of his

1) The example is cited from Gollancz (1940).

2) The example is cited from Robinson (1966).

hed of his hors swete;

(*Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*, ll. 179~80)

Ho la3t a lace ly3tly þat leke vmbe hir syde3, / Knit vpon hir kyrtel,
vnder þe clere mantyle, / **Gered** (= adorned) hit wat3 with grene
sylke, & with golde schaped, (ib. ll. 1830~32)

Further, ME *geren* had a variant *garen*¹⁾ (> Mod. E *gar*), which has lost almost all its senses in Modern English except for the one “to cause (someone) to do something”, though dialectal, e.g.:

Gregorie the grete clerk **gart** (= caused) write in his bokes / The ruele
of alle religious ryghtful and obedient.

(*Piers The Plowman*, C-Text, Passus VI, ll. 147~48)²⁾

2.3. Since *garb* was introduced into English in the sixteenth century, its etymology is fairly clear; according to the *OED*, it was borrowed from It. *garbo* “grace, elegance” through F *garbe* (now *galbe*). The word, however, is a cognate of *gear* (*n.*) and therefore of Germanic origin, and it seems to have gone through the semantic change “something done, made, or prepared → (a) equipment, dress → fashion of dress, elegance; → (b) behavior *obs.* → manner of doing *obs.*”

3.1. As we have seen thus far, *gear* and its related words are of Norse origin; to put it in another way, they were borrowed from Old Norse in the Middle English period.³⁾ The Norse word from which Mod. E *gear* (*v.*) and *gar* derived was ON *gørva* “to make, do”, an important word in that it differentiates North Germanic from East and West Germanic.

3.2. In Germanic languages the words meaning “to do, make”⁴⁾ have a

1) In reference to the form different from the normal one *geren*, Sisam (1970, s.v. *garre*, *gar* in glossary) mentions that “the *a* forms are difficult to explain”. As *Onions* (s.v. *gar*) has it, *-ar-*, instead of *-er-*, probably began to be used in the past tense and the past participle.

2) The example is cited from Skeat (1970).

3) The Scandinavian loanwords were very scarce in Old English, most of them being borrowed in Middle English. cf. Björkman (1900).

4) cf. Buck (1949: 537) “Words for ‘do’ and ‘make’ are treated together because these most generic notions of action are so commonly expressed by the same word. . . .”

peculiar distribution, that is to say, *taujan* in Gothic, *gørva* in Old Norse, and *dōn*, *macian* in Old English, and the phenomenon is generally regarded as one of the characteristics which lexically distinguish between East, North, and West Germanic. Etymologically, it is generally accepted that OE *dōn*, with its cognates OS *dōan* and OHG *tuon*, came from Gmc **dōn*, and ultimately from IE **dhē-*, **dhō-* “to put, place”, that OE *macian*, OS *makōn*, and OHG *mahhōn* derived from Gmc **makōn*, and ultimately from IE **mag-*, **mak-* “to knead”, and that Goth. *taujan* is a Germanic word from Gmc **taw-* “to make, manufacture”.

At the earliest stage of Old Norse, *tawido* “made (the past tense)” is found in inscriptions, such as the famous one on the Golden Horn at Gallehus: “Ek HlewagastiR HoltijaR horna **tawiðō** (I, HlewagastiR, Holti’s son, made the horn)” and Old English had *tāwian* “to prepare, make ready, make” (> Mod. E *taw* “to dress (skins)”), but neither of them became common in these languages. Further, a number of words related to OE *dōn* (namely, deriving from IE **dhē-*) were used in Old Norse though *gørva* had already been used instead of *dōn* without a trace of the latter; e.g. *dáð* (cf. OE *dād*, Mod. E *deed* < that which is done), *dómr* “judgement” (cf. OE *dōm*, Mod. E *doom*; < that which is put), *dæma* “to give judgement” (cf. OE *dēman*, Mod. E *deem*), etc.

3.3. The historical background of ON *gørva* is not so simple; though it is agreed that the word derived from Gmc **garwian*, its form was complex, that is, there were a number of different forms recorded in Old Norse, such as *gera*, *gerva*, *gøra*, *gjøra*, *gjørva*, etc. besides *gørva*. Gmc **garwian* is thought to have become **gerwa* by *i*-mutation, from which *gerva* (> *gera*) developed, and then **gørwa* by *w*-mutation, from which *gørva* (> *gøra*) developed, or Gmc **garwian* may have become **gørwa* by *w*-mutation (through **garwa* without *i*-mutation), from which *gjørva* (> *gjøra*) was formed by *r*-breaking. In passing, this wide variety of forms has brought about a number of disputes on how the stem vowel of the verb was determined in Danish and Swedish.¹⁾ Then ON *gørva* had a causative meaning

1) cf. Andersen (1945-48) and Andersen (1965).

like Mod. E *make*, and was also used periphrastically as an auxiliary in poetry, as *ef hón gørrð koma* “if she did come”, though not used as a vicarious verb. In this connection, though this periphrastic use has not become prevalent in modern Norse languages, vicarious uses, similar to those of the auxiliary *do* in Modern English, have developed in Swedish, Danish and Norwegian. Further, ON *gørva* had an intransitive function, as *þat mun ekki gørva* “that won’t do”, and *Onions* (s.v. *do*) attributes the intransitive use of Mod. E *do* “to help, avail, suffice” partly to this Old Norse verb; this meaning was first recorded in Shakespeare’s works, but it is “probably much older than the date of our present evidence”.

3.4. Gmc **garwian* was probably formed as **garwa-* “ready, prepared” + factitive suffix *-ian* (hence “to make ready, equip”, then “to make, do”), and since **garwa-* became *gørr* by *w*-mutation and the loss of *-w-* in Old Norse, ON *gørva* can be regarded as a derivative of *gørr*, a cognate of the above-mentioned OE *gearo*, from which OE *gearwian* was similarly formed. Therefore, in order to know the etymology of *gørva*, we have to know how the etymology of *gørr*, together with that of *gearo*, has so far been explained.

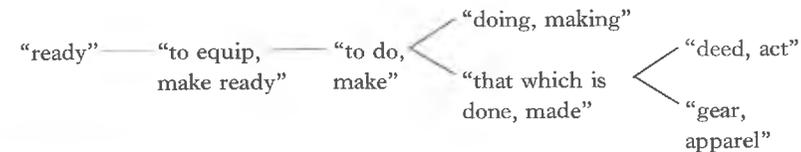
According to the *OED* (s.v. *yare*) *gearo*, *gørr* and other cognate words such as OS *garu*, OHG *garo* (Mod. G *gar*), etc. were compounded as Gmc **ga-* (> OE *ge-*) + **arw-* (> OE *earu* “quick, active, ready”, ON *qrr* “ready”). The *NWD*, the *RHD* and *Partridge* also accept this etymological derivation and A. Jóhannesson (1956: 420) refers to it, but Vries (1962; s.v. *gørr*) states that the derivation is not plausible (“Wenig einleuchtend ist die herleitung . . .”) and *Onions* (s.v. *yare*), one of the Oxford dictionaries, does not adopt the *OED*’s idea but simply says that it is from Gmc **garwu-*.¹⁾ Since the *OED*’s etymological description was not revised in the second edition, it may be a matter of concern and interest what the etymology of *yare* will be like when a further revision is made in the future.

1) The *SOD*³ (1955) followed the example of the *OED*, but the *SOD*³ (1973) discarded the policy and adopted *Onions*’ interpretation; the etymology of the *SOD*⁴ has become more concise and does not show reconstructed forms.

Falk u. Torp (1910–11), A. Jóhannesson (1956: 418–420), Pokorny (1959: 493–94), Nielsen (1966: 143), Web 3rd (without referring to a reconstructed form; s.v. *yare*), etc. traced the etymology back to IE **g^{wo}her-* “hot, warm”, from which Gmc **warma-*, then ON *varmr*, OE *wearm*, OS/OHG *warm*, etc. derived, comparing them with other Indo-European cognate words. According to their hypothesis, IE **g^{wo}her-* became Gmc **garwa-* meaning “ready, prepared” (< “heated, fermented enough to eat”¹⁾) < “hot, warm”), and in this respect Mod. G *gar* “cooked through, done” well represents the meaning in relation to cooking.²⁾

But many etymological and historical dictionaries, such as *Barnhart*, *Bloch et Warburg*, *Klein*, *Kluge*, *Le grand Robert*, the *ODS*, *Pfeifer*, *Skeat*, *Weekley*, etc., do not accept this speculation but regard OE *gearo*, ON *gørr*, etc. as ultimately of Germanic origin, and prudently Watkins shows only the Germanic derivation without touching upon Indo-European roots in his *American Heritage Dictionary of Indo-European Roots* (s.v. *garwian*).

3.5. As has been seen, the etymology of ON *gørr* is controversial, but in any case the word and its derivatives were widely used in Old Norse; e.g. *gørð*, *gerð*, *gjørð* “making, building; doing, act, deed” (< *gørva* < *gørr*) side by side with a similar form *gerð* “gear, harness, armor”³⁾, *gørvi*, *gervi* “gear, apparel”, *gørning*, *gerving* “doing, deed”, etc. The sense development of *gørr* and its related words seems to be like this:



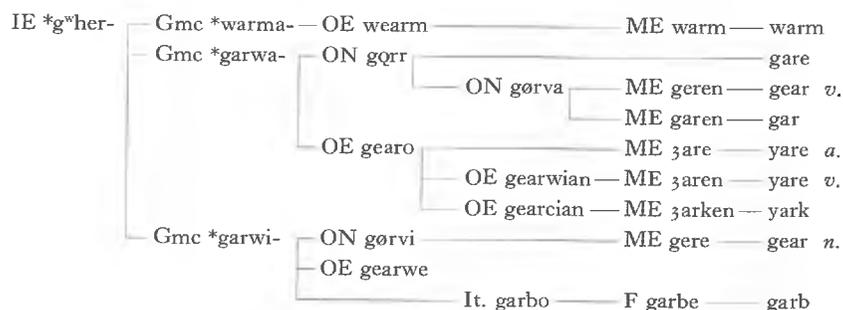
1) Friesen (1937), referring to Modern Icelandic *ger* “yeast”, suggests the possibility that ON *gjör* had something to do with ON *gjósa* “to gush, burst out” (cf. Mod. E *gush*) and meant “fermenting, boiling, simmering movement in water”, and that the original meaning of ON *gørr* may have come not so much from “heated” as from “fermenting, bubbling”.

2) As we have seen (cf. 2.1.), OE *gearo* meant “(of food) dressed, cooked” as well.

3) This word also means “yeast, ferment”. cf. footnote 1) above.

Out of the Old Norse words cited above, *gǫrr* "ready" was borrowed into English as the Scottish dialect *gare* "ready; eager", *gǫrva* as ME *geren*¹⁾ "to prepare, equip; to cause" (Mod. E *gear* (v.)) and also as ME *garen* "to do, make; cause" (Mod. E *gar*), and *gǫrvi* as ME *gere* "gear, apparel, armor" (Mod. E *gear* (n.)).

4.1. The etymology of *gear*, *garb*, *yare*, etc. is complicated in that the native words, *yare* (v.), *yare* (a.), *yark*, the Scandinavian loanwords, *gare*, *gear* (v.), *gear* (n.), *gar*, and the French loanword *garb* have coexisted, affecting one another. Provided that they have derived from IE *g^wher- "hot, warm", their derivation can be shown as below:



4.2. We have thus far seen the historical backgrounds of the word group of *gear*, *garb*, *yare*, etc., but most of them are now obsolete, archaic, or dialectal; accordingly, *gar*, *gare*, *yare* and *yark* are no longer entered in such a synchronic dictionary as the *COD*. Moreover, since *garb* only appears in a formal or literary context, the only one word of the word group that is used in an ordinary context is *gear*. This word, however, is limited in use, because the most familiar meaning of *gear* (n.) today is "a toothed wheel", which is a later development and dates from as late as the sixteenth century, though there remains a meaning "equipment, clothing"; further-

1) Concerning the loss of -w-, we have seen that -v- (<*-h- < *-w-) already dropped in Old Norse, as *gǫrva* > *gǫra*, but the *OED* (s.v. *gear* n.), after describing the phenomenon in Old Norse, also points out "a disposition to reduce *rw* to *r* after a stressed palatal vowel" in Middle English.

more, *gear* (v.) seems to have virtually lost its meaning in connection with a machine or tool, i.e. "to put (machinery) into gear", in ordinary speech and is commonly used figuratively with a sense "to adapt (something) to suit a particular need".¹⁾

ABBREVIATIONS

- Barnhart*: *The Barnhart Dictionary of Etymology*. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1988.
- Bloch et Wartburg*: Bloch, O. et W. v. Wartburg. (ed.). *Dictionnaire étymologique de la langue française*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1968³
- Bosworth and Toller*: Bosworth, J. and T. N. Toller (ed.). *An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary*. Oxford: University Press, 1898.
- COD*: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1995⁹.
- CULD*: *Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary*. Edinburgh: Chambers, 1980.
- Klein*: Klein, Ernest (ed.). *A Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*. Amsterdam, London, New York: Elsevier.
- Kluge*: Kluge, F. (ed.). *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache*²². Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter, 1989.
- LDCE*: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Harlow: Longman, 1987².
- Le grand Robert*: *Le grand Robert de la langue française*. Paris: Le Robert, 1985².
- MED*: *The Middle English Dictionary*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1952-.
- NWD*: *Webster's New World Dictionary*. New York: Webster's New World, 1988³.
- ODS*: *Ordbog over det Danske Sprog*. Copenhagen: Gyldendal, Nordisk, 1919-56.
- OED*: *The Oxford English Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1989².
- Onions*: Onions, C. T. (ed.). *The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1966.
- Partridge*: Partridge, E. (ed.). *Origins: A Short Etymological Dictionary of Modern English*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1966⁴.
- Pfeifer*: Pfeifer, W. (ed.). *Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Deutschen*. Berlin: Akademie Verlag, 1993.
- RHD*: *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*. New York: Random House, 1987².
- Skeat*: Skeat, W. W. (ed.). *An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*. New Edition, Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1968.

1) Learners' dictionaries, such as the *LDCE* (s.v. *gear*²) and the *CULD* (s.v. *gear*) give nothing but this figurative meaning.

- SOD*: *The Shorter Oxford Dictionary*. Oxford: Clarendon Press. The 3rd ed., 1955; the 3rd ed. (with revised etymologies), 1973; the 4th ed., 1993.
- Toller*: Toller, T. N. (ed.). *An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary: Supplement*. Oxford: University Press, 1921.
- Web 3rd*: *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language*. Springfield: Merriam, 1961.
- Weekley*: Weekley, E. (ed.). *An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English*. New York: Dover, 1967.

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An Analysis of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, Fifth Edition

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HIROKO SAITO TAKAHIRO KOKAWA
KAZUO DOHI

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to examine and analyze, based mainly on a comparison with the fourth edition (henceforth *OALD*⁴) and other similar EFL dictionaries, how the fifth edition of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (henceforth *OALD*⁵) has been revised. In the preface of *OALD*⁵ it is stated that the new edition is compiled on the basic editorial principle originally established by A S Hornby, in that it is designed to meet the needs of users to develop both their receptive and their productive skills. It is also stated that *OALD*⁵ has introduced a number of significant innovations such as the use of the British National Corpus and the introduction of the 3500-word defining vocabulary. We will naturally consider, from the viewpoints not only of non-native teachers of English or lexicographers but also of the users of this dictionary, how these innovations have contributed to the improvement of the new edition. We will also consider how the results of the extensive editorial staff changes and reduction and the 100-page decrease in total entries are reflected in the new edition.

2. Entries

2.1. This section mainly deals with changes in entry organization and entry numbers and with other improvements to entries in this revision. For a quick survey, we shall look at every 50 pages abstracted from *OALD*⁵ as a sample (henceforth sample⁵) and the corresponding pages in *OALD*⁴ (henceforth sample⁴). It is said that the volume of *OALD*⁴ showed

an increase of 50% over *OALD*³. Takahashi et al. (1992: 62) examined this more closely and calculated that the number of lines had increased 52.5%, but that the increase was 14.5% for entry numbers and that the rest of the space had been allotted to expanding existing entries.

*OALD*⁴ contained 1492 pages. The number of pages in *OALD*⁵ has decreased, by exactly 100 pages, to 1392. Even though the number of lines has increased from 72 to 73–77 per column, this is no compensation for the decrease in pages. The number of headwords, derivatives¹⁾, and compounds²⁾ in sample⁵ is 806 (including abbreviations and affixes). This number in sample⁴ was 843, from which 106 words have been deleted and to which 69 have been added to make the total number 806, which shows a decrease of 43 words (4.4%). We might wonder if the dictionary has become poorer in content with the decrease in the number of pages.

2.2. If there is something new to compensate for the decrease in volume, it will be the 16-page "Language study pages", the 8-page "Maps and geographical information", and the 8-page "Cultural information". Some information in "Language study pages" in *OALD*⁵ and "USING THE DICTIONARY — A PRACTICAL GUIDE", "USING THE DICTIONARY — A DETAILED GUIDE TO THE ENTRIES" in *OALD*⁴ overlap. What is really new in the new edition is the latter two, "Maps and geographical information" and "Cultural information". They are printed in full color, and might well be included in the encyclopedic version (i.e. *OALDE*).

At the foot of every page, we find notes for some of 12 verb patterns such as "[V] = verb used alone", "[Vn] = verb + noun", "[V. to inf] = verb + to infinitive". In the same place it says "For more help with verbs, see Study pages **B4–8**." It is surely a waste of space to print the same thing every four pages, and it would have been better to put these verb patterns in order at the beginning of Study page **B4**, thereby giving each column two more lines and saving (or making better use of) nearly 40 pages.

1) Those in the derivatives section.

2) Those in the compounds section.

2.3. Although entry organization underwent major change in the previous revision (*ibid.*, p. 63), it has hardly changed this time. The page layout is practically the same as in the previous edition. For example, headwords are presented in large boldface, projecting by one letter to the left. And it was in the previous revision that derivatives and compounds ceased to be run on and started to be given new lines after the symbols ▷ and □ respectively, which practice *OALD*⁵ continues.

However, some minor visual changes can be found. The symbols ▷ and □, followed by derivatives and compounds, have become ► and ■, perhaps to make them stand out more. Idioms and phrasal verbs, which were not distinguished in *OALD*³, were clearly distinguished in *OALD*⁴ by putting (idm) and (phr v) before them. In *OALD*⁵ these symbols have become **IDM** and **PHR V**. This also serves to avoid any change of line between phr and v, which occurred in *OALD*⁴.

2.4.1. Compounds may be solid (unbroken), hyphenated, or separate, and their treatment has been a matter of controversy.

In p. xvi–xvii, *OALD*⁴ explained how to look up compounds, from which we could learn what to do if a compound did not have a separate entry. On p. ix, *OALD*⁵ claims the merit that “compounds spelt with hyphens or as separate words are listed alphabetically in the headword entry, after the symbol ■. Compounds spelt as unbroken single words appear as headwords.” **Schoolfellow** and **weathercock** are thus headwords in *OALD*⁵, but in *OALD*⁴ both were compounds listed in the headword entry. If users were to look up these words in *OALD*⁴, they might find that there were no such words as **schoolfellow** between the headwords **school**² and **schooner** or **weathercock** between the headwords **weather**² and **weave**, and abandon their search. Another way of presenting compounds in the dictionaries is to do what *MCD* has done: “entries are all contained in a single list, so that you may locate the word you want as easily as possible. There are no separate sections for special kinds of words, such as names of persons and places. Entries are listed alphabetically letter by letter, *whether they consist of a single word or of two or more different words.*” [my italics]

Since it is difficult to decide which of the three is the best way for different kinds of user, the way to treat compounds has yet to be standardized.

2.4.2. Derivatives, unlike headwords, are sometimes not fully treated. Most headwords have definitions and examples, but some derivatives lack either or both of these.

Out of 260 derivatives in sample⁴, 37 have been deleted or ceased to be a derivative¹⁾. 17 of these had neither definition nor example. If the meaning of a derivative is easy to infer from the definition of the headword, it is hardly worth defining the derivative. In sample⁴ there were 7 such words²⁾, whose definitions were easy to infer and which did not have examples. It is not a blemish on *OALD*⁵ that those 7, along with 17 which had neither definitions nor examples, were deleted.

On the other hand, 23 derivatives have been added to sample⁵, to total up to 246. This is a decrease of 14 words (5.4%) from the 260 in sample⁴. Among the 23, only 6 have neither definitions nor examples. It is sometimes worth including examples for active use, even if the meaning of the derivative is easy to infer. There are 4 such cases in sample⁵.

2.4.3. One of the major changes in this revision is the increase in words with the negative prefix **un-**. The number of such words in *OALD*⁴ was 485, from which 44 have been deleted and to which 246 have been added, to give a total in *OALD*⁵ of 687. Since the volume of the dictionary has been reduced by 4 or 5%, this increase from 485 to 687 (41.6%) is remarkable.

Of the **un-** words deleted in this revision, nearly half (19 words, 43.2%) were derivatives with neither definitions nor examples, which are assumed to be the least important words in dictionaries. The reason for the deletion

1) **Inbreeding** was in the derivatives section under the headword **inbred** in *OALD*⁴, but not in *OALD*⁵. This is certainly an improvement because **inbreeding** is a derivative of **inbreed**, not of **inbred**.

2) Such words are: **dowser**, **inaugurator**, **lowbrow n.**, **patrimonial**, **pauperism**, **supplicant**, **tiller**. For example, the definition of **dowser** is “person who does this [**dowse**² v.]; diviner.” Whether the meaning of a particular derivative is easy to infer or not, however, differs from person to person.

might be that these words could be easily inferred from their opposites as well as from the headwords. *OALD*⁵ has a smaller percentage of such "least important words" because, although *OALD*⁴ and *OALD*⁵ have exactly the same number (73), the latter contains more words with **un-**. It is justifiable to say from these facts that *OALD*⁵ treats the words with **un-** much more generously than *OALD*⁴. Probably some of these have come to be recognized as words in their own right, not merely as negative forms of other words, principally because they are more frequently used than before. Their frequency could be determined by the use of the 100-million-word British National Corpus and the 40-million-word Oxford American English Corpus, as *OALD*⁵ says on the dust jacket. Before *OALD*⁵, *COBUILD*¹ (1987) made use of an 18-million-word corpus and contains a large number of **un-** words, which at that time made the dictionary quite unique (cf. Higashi, 1992: 462).

With regard to words with other negative prefixes than **un-**, however, no remarkable change has been made. For example, the number has decreased (typically with **dis-**) or stayed about the same (**ir-**).

2.5. There is one thing which we might regard as regrettable: the disappearance of syllabication. However neat-looking it may be, it represents a decrease in the practical usefulness.

The treatment of abbreviations has been improved. There were some cases in *OALD*⁴ in which an abbreviation and another word were spelled exactly the same because of the omission of periods after abbreviations. Takahashi (1992: 65–66) says that they should be distinguished by superscript numbers, like **fig**¹ (noun, soft sweet fruit), **fig**² (abbreviation for figure etc.), and they are indeed so distinguished in *OALD*⁵.

(Kanazashi)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. The Phonetics Editor for *OALD*⁵ is Michael Ashby¹⁾ of University College London, taking over the work from A. C. Gimson and Susan

1) The writer of this section was fortunate enough to be able to meet Mr Michael

Ramsaran in *OALD*⁴. The previous edition based its pronunciations on *EPD*⁴, which itself was edited by A. C. Gimson and, after his death, by Susan Ramsaran (both taught phonetics at University College London). However, the copyright of *EPD* was transferred to Cambridge University Press from Dent in 1991, thereby severing its connection with Oxford University Press. Consequently, we can see in *OALD*⁵ changes made by the new editor and which do not necessarily conform with *EPD*, in order to update the dictionary and to make it more systematic.

3.2.1. Here, as in *OALD*⁴, Gimson's system of using the length mark (:), as well as separate forms for qualitative differences (e.g. /i:/ vs. /ɪ/) has been maintained.¹⁾ This of course carries redundancy, but is easier for foreign learners to follow.

3.2.2. One change in the notation is the use of /i/ instead of /ɪ/ for the weak vowel at the end of a word as in **happy**.

The high front vowel in this position becomes neutralized, so in theory any of the symbols /i:/, /ɪ/, or /i/ could be used, but taking into consideration the fact that the British pronunciation has recently changed from [ɪ] to a higher [i] (but not as strong or long as [i:]), the trend is to use the symbol /i/ in this position.

3.2.3. Yet another change made in the latest edition is the use of /i/ and /u/ instead of /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ for weak vowels before another vowel as in **association** /ə.səʊsi'eɪʃn/ and **actual** /'æktʃuəl/, or in pre-consonantal position when the realization can vary among [ɪ], [i], [ə], or [u:], [ʊ], [ə]. Therefore, distinction is made in this dictionary between **elicit** /i'lisɪt/ ([i:], [ɪ], or [ə] or an intermediate sound is possible) and **illicit** /i'lisɪt/ (only [ɪ] is possible here).

Ashby in August 1995. Comments about his views on pronunciation in a learner's dictionary were of great help in analysing *OALD*⁵ and some of the views are introduced below. However, our interview was an informal one and not recorded, and any misinterpretation or lack of explanation in this paper is entirely my responsibility.

1) See Takahashi et al. (1989) for a detailed explanation concerning the changes made in the notation system from Lewis' system to Gimson's.

3.3.1. For the diphthong in words like **go**, *OALD*⁵ still uses the schwa symbol for the first component, giving /əʊ/. Even when the *US* form is given separately as in **momentarily** /'məʊməntəri/; *US* .məʊmənt'eri/, /əʊ/, and not /ou/, is used. The use of /əʊ/ instead of /ou/ is a phonemic notation based on RP, and even if we are told that /əʊ/ is realized as [ou] in accents other than British, the symbol does seem odd to students who are used to the American pronunciation and the /ou/ notation. In this dictionary, separate symbols are used for the American form only when it is unpredictable; otherwise, when the conversion is predictable, only the British form is given. For example, the British /ɒ/ is mostly realized as an unrounded and longer [ɑ:] in American English, but since this is predictable, *OALD*⁵ gives only one form: **hot** /hɒt/. However, in some words the British /ɒ/ is pronounced as [ɑ:] and because this is not predictable, both forms are given:¹⁾ **dog** /dɒg; *US* dɑ:g/. According to this system, the diphthong in **go** belongs to the predictable group, and that is why only one form is given. This space-saving system is a sound one, though perhaps not user-friendly. There will be a further discussion of this matter in 3.4 below.

3.3.2. Returning to /əʊ/, in the case of Japanese learners, the symbol /ə/ is somehow associated with the open, [ʌ]-like sound like the /ə/ at the end of China, and so this notation not only looks unfamiliar, but can induce a wrong pronunciation. If only one form must be given, could it not be /ou/ and not /əʊ/? *LDCE*³ gives two forms, /əʊ/ and /ou/, for British and American pronunciation respectively, for all words with this diphthong.

3.4.1. As was briefly mentioned above in 3.3.1, this dictionary is, as far as pronunciation transcriptions go, centered around the British variety. The American form is not given unless the difference is of the lexically incidental kind; otherwise, the American pronunciation must be worked

1) This information is given in the notes about pronunciation on the inside of the back cover, but not all possible British to American pronunciation conversion rules are mentioned. Students will have to know the correct pronunciation of the sample words in the Consonants and Vowels List, and refer to it each time they are in doubt.

out by rule¹⁾. The possibility of the "linking r" of British English is always shown with the /r/ in parentheses: **father** /'fɑ:ðə(r)/, but the pre-consonantal r-sound of American English is not transcribed and must be worked out from the spelling: **card** /kɑ:d/.

3.4.2. In fact, according to Ashby,²⁾ the main concern was to record the *system* of the pronunciation of the general type of British English, and not to record precise pronunciations of different varieties of English. The task of a learner's dictionary, he believes, is to give *guidance for production* and not to list the many possible variants one may or may not come across. Moreover, although the term "General British" which appears in the explanatory note inside the back cover is not new — it was first introduced by Windsor Lewis³⁾ and can also be seen in *OALD*⁴'s "Detailed Guide" — the concept that the term implies seems to be wider for *OALD*⁵ than for *OALD*⁴:

"The British English form is that which has been called Received Pronunciation (RP) or General British".

("Models of pronunciation," *OALD*⁴: p. 1547.)

"The first pronunciation given in the dictionary is that of younger speakers of General British (**Brit**). This includes RP (Received Pronunciation) and a range of similar accents which are not strongly regional".

("British and American pronunciation," *OALD*⁵: inside back cover.)

According to Ashby, his idea of General British encompasses those accents that share the same phonemic system as that used in *OALD*⁵ but may not necessarily sound like RP. The forms given in the dictionary should be considered to be phonological forms (as opposed to phonetic forms) and the user should work out the realizational form according to the rules of the accent he or she wishes to speak with. For example, on being given

1) The vowel in words like **hurry** is pronounced with /ʌ/ in British English but with /ɜ:/ in American English. This is sometimes difficult to predict, but in *OALD*⁵ the American form is not mentioned at all.

2) This was communicated to the writer during the interview.

3) See *CPD* (1972), p. xiv.

/gəʊ/ for **go**, an RP speaker can say [gəʊ] and a Cockney speaker [gɑʊ], and in the same way, one wishing to sound American can say [gou].

3.4.3. As the concept of a “standard” pronunciation is no longer fashionable, this is an ideal solution as to what stance a learner’s dictionary should adopt, but it needs getting used to since the learner (especially a foreign student) usually expects a more “ready-to-use” form in a dictionary.

3.5. Although *OALD*⁵’s aim is not to record numerous variants of pronunciation, it does give more than one form where a popular second (or third) choice exists. In the pronunciation note on the inside the back cover, it is recommended that the first pronunciation cited should be used by the learner. On checking in *OALD*⁵ all of the 99 words¹⁾ taken up by Wells in his opinion poll for *LPD*, it was found that in all but nine cases the order of variant forms cited in *OALD*⁵ follows the order of popularity calculated by Wells. The ones that do not agree are: **resource**, **schism**, **salt**, **poor**, **graph**, **inherent**, for segments, and **controversy**, **formidable**, **subsidence** for placement of stress. Of these, most are cases where the order of pronunciation forms does not agree with *LPD*’s poll merely as the result of a compromise to save space by collapsing the British and American forms together, or where the difference in the percentage of people voting for the first and second choices was very small anyway. However, for **schism**, *OALD*⁵ gives /sɪzɪz/ as the only form, but according to Wells’ poll, “[t]he traditional 'sɪz- is being displaced, except perhaps among the clergy, by 'skɪz-. BrE poll panel preference: 'skɪz- 71%, 'sɪz- 29%” (*LPD*).

3.6.1. In *OALD*⁴, stress marks were given for most of the idioms but only partly for phrasal verbs. A welcome improvement in *OALD*⁵ is the marking of stress for all phrasal verbs, which may sometimes seem redundant to native speakers of English but not to learners. It is in the nature of phrasal verbs that the main stress may shift and differ from the citation

1) Wells used 100 words, but of these, **Glasgow**, being a place name, does not appear in *OALD*⁵ and had to be excluded from our comparison.

form when such verbs become part of a longer phrase or sentence: e.g. **.come 'back**, but **We .came back 'early**. That this may happen is explained in the pronunciation note at the end of the dictionary. For other stress shifts (e.g. **.well-known**, but **.well-known 'actors/'facts**, etc.), the shift is shown on the actual examples.

3.6.2. Information pertaining to intonation, even where it may distinguish the meaning of the word or expression (e.g. ↘ Sorry = Forgive me. vs. ↗ Sorry = Excuse me, could you repeat what you said?), has not been included in *OALD*⁵. It is true that it is difficult and sometimes impossible to incorporate intonation in a printed dictionary, but in order for the learner’s dictionary to be a guide to better production of a language, suprasegmental information including intonation is an important and necessary field for future improvement.

(Saito)

4. Definitions, usage labels and pictorial illustrations

4.1. Definitions

4.1.1. Defining vocabulary

Probably the greatest change that has occurred to *OALD* definitions in this revision is the introduction of a controlled defining vocabulary of 3,500 words. It has often been pointed out that *OALD*’s definitions, with their unrestricted vocabulary, were more ‘advanced’ than its Longman competitor, which had adopted a limiting approach with the Longman Defining Vocabulary of (approximately) 2,000 words. This year another EFL dictionary (*CIDE*) appeared on the market, featuring a controlled vocabulary (as it claims) of under 2,000 words (*CIDE*’s count excludes all derivatives, and if they are included the number will probably exceed 3,500). We made a comparison of all the defining vocabulary (DV) beginning with A among these three dictionaries to look into the nature of the new *OALD*’s word stock. The number of words in the DV list is 247 (*OALD*⁵), 139 (*LDCE*³) and 240 (*CIDE*), the total number appearing in any of them being 333. Among them there are 78 words that are used only in *OALD*⁵, including such words as *absurd*, *accompany*, *accumulate*, *ac-*

knowledge, alter, assemble and astomish. *OALD*⁵ lacks four words (*abbreviation, accidental, advanced* and *apartment*) used in the other two, and three more words (*actress, afford* and *as opposed to*) are used only in *LDCE*³. 83 words are found only in *CIDE*, many of which are derivatives such as *atomically, arched* and *attacker*. *OALD*'s DV includes many synonyms and near-synonyms such as *aid, assist* and *help* as well as *alter* and *change*, which the DV's of *LDCE* and *CIDE* rarely do. It appears that while *LDCE*'s and *CIDE*'s restriction aims at reducing the DV to a minimum (in a sense comparable to C. K. Ogden's Basic English), *OALD*'s idea is to eliminate words thought to be too hard words for learners. In any case, it must have been the use of the computer in dictionary compilation, which became widespread in the 1980s, that made it possible to readily and thoroughly restrict a dictionary's defining vocabulary.

4.1.2. Definitions

Presumably, or at least in part, because the vocabulary used for definition came to be restricted, the number of words per definition has increased from the fourth to the fifth edition. Our sample count revealed that the average number of words used in the definitions of 52 entries between **abbot** and **aboard** in *OALD*⁴ is 7.6, while the corresponding part in *OALD*⁵ (43 entries) required the Oxford lexicographers to use 9.3 words on average. An increase of more than 20% in word numbers must have obliged them also to contrive more space to accommodate this, as we shall see later.

There are a number of formal changes in the style of definition, which may all be regarded as improvements. Up to the fourth edition, there was no infinitive marker 'to' at the beginning of a verb definition. In *OALD*⁵, all verb definitions have that marker, so that the user can readily identify the following word as a verb. Also, in the previous edition definite and indefinite articles before nouns in definitions were often omitted. This resulted in a concise, but incomplete English phraseology in definitions, and learners doubtless experienced difficulty filling in the gaps. In the new edition articles are always presented, offering learners more natural target language explanations.

The third sense of **make** was defined as 'create (sth); establish' in *OALD*⁴, and as 'create or establish sth' in *OALD*⁵. This example explicates two important changes in the presentation of objective complementation. The parentheses in which objective semantic collocations etc were presented in *OALD*⁴ are omitted in *OALD*⁵. This has eliminated the inconsistency between the optionality of compliments etc in the definiens and the definienda pointed out in Takahashi et al. (1992: 109ff.) Also, the word 'sth' denoting the generalized object of transitive verbs is now presented after all the verbs in a definition have been itemized, so that transitive verbs are more readily and naturally understood as such.

While definitions themselves changed very extensively between the third and fourth editions of *OALD* (see Takahashi et al. 1992: 100ff.), the change this time has been probably more drastic, largely due to the introduction of the restricted defining vocabulary. Firstly, many definitions have been rewritten so as to make them easier, even when the original expressions in the previous edition did not contain any words outside the restrictive vocabulary boundary of *OALD*⁵. Thus,

[4]¹⁾ shorten (a word, phrase, etc) . . . (s.v. **abbreviate**) is rephrased into

[5] to make a word, phrase etc shorter. . .

even though 'shorten' appears in the list of the Defining Vocabulary (p. 1417ff.) (See also s.v. **abdicate** and **abandoned** in *OALD*⁵.) In the same vein, when one or more of the synonyms presented as part of the definition in *OALD*⁴ might be regarded as too difficult for learners, they may now be omitted as in:

[4] . . . forsake; desert

[5] . . . ; to desert sb/sth (s.v. **abandon**; see also s.v. **abess, abase**).

Secondly, when more clarity and ease of understanding may be achieved, *OALD*⁵ has often reorganized and improved the definitions in *OALD*⁴.

1) [4] and [5] denote the fourth and the fifth editions of *OALD* respectively.

- [4] give up completely (esp sth begun) (s.v. **abandon** *v.* 2)
 [5] to stop doing or being involved in sth, or to stop sth happening, esp before it is finished. (s.v. **abandon** *v.* 2)

In this case, the phrase after 'esp' is extended to make a clause and is probably more readily understandable for more elementary learners. Also, the definition of **abacus** in *OALD*⁵ may be said to provoke a more graphic and accurate image of the apparatus than its predecessor.

- [4] frame with beads that slide along parallel rods, used for . . .
 [5] a frame holding a set of parallel rods along which small balls are pushed. It is used for . . .

The amount of information given in the definitions is in some cases increased, as in the following examples,

- [4] (of wind, noise, pain, etc) make or become less
 [5] (of wind, noise, pain, etc) to become less intense (s.v. **abate**)
 [4] shorten (a word, phrase, etc), esp by omitting letters
 [5] to make a word, phrase, etc shorter by omitting letters or using only the first letter of each word (s.v. **abbreviate**)

but in other cases is reduced:

- [4] part of the body below the chest and diaphragm, containing the stomach, bowels and digestive organs.
 [5] the part of the body below the chest, containing the stomach, bowels, etc. (s.v. **abdomen**)

All in all, *OALD*⁵ appears to have cut down on space by drastically reducing more difficult or less important information in the definitions.

With the "easy-to-understand definitions, written within a defining vocabulary of 3,500 words" (from the back-cover blurb of *OALD*⁵), *OALD*'s definitions may have come to assume the more user-friendly aspect rather characteristic of one of its major competitors, *LDCE*. Although some advanced users might miss the *OALD*'s distinctive way of definition using concise but somewhat elevated wording, probably handed down from the *COD/POD* tradition, we must say that *OALD*'s latest approach, however untraditional in the Oxford family of dictionaries, is a welcome one for the whole range of users, especially for elementary and intermediate learners

of English. *OALD*'s future concern may be how to distinguish itself from other EFL dictionaries including *LDCE* that use controlled defining vocabulary.

4.1.3. Divisions and arrangement of senses

The number and arrangement of senses in polysemous entries, especially in very large entries, has not changed very much in this revision. We surveyed the entry for **make** (*v.*) and found that its structure is about the same in *OALD*⁴ and *OALD*⁵. The senses of a very large entry came to be grouped together in the fourth edition, and that practice has been continued in *OALD*⁵. The grouping of senses and the 'headlines' of each sense group do not differ in the two editions, except that in *OALD*⁵ the headlines have come to be printed in lower-case boldface. The division and arrangement of senses of the same entry, including subdivisions using letters ((a), (b), (c), . . .), have all been carried over into the fifth edition with only minor changes caused by a number of deletions and by separation and integration of senses. The changes include one subdivision (sense 13 'add up to (sth)' in *OALD*⁴ into 13(a) and 13(b) in *OALD*⁵), one integration (senses 20(a), (b), (c) in *OALD*⁴ into a single division 18 'to manage to reach or go to a place or position' in *OALD*⁵, reducing the number of lines from 13 to 9) and four deletions (sense 16 (a cricket term), 17(c) (a term used in card games), 18 (labelled as 'sl[ang] sexist') and 24 'eat or have (a meal)' in *OALD*⁴¹). This tendency is also observable in middle-sized entries such as **drive** (*v.* as well as *n.*). Thus we may presume that, with regard to the division and arrangement of senses of established major items, the British National Corpus has not been used so extensively as might have been expected².

There are quite a few changes, however, in the arrangement and division of rather small entries. For instance, at **abbreviation**, the first sense

1) Here, too, we may see the bold streamlining of entries in *OALD*⁵ by omitting marginal senses used in rather special fields or registers.

2) This fact should maintain the great contrast between the *OALD* and *COBUILD* dictionaries, the latter of which claims to have based almost all the information in the dictionary on its original corpus from the very beginning of production of the first edition (See Moon (1987: 86ff.)).

('abbreviating or being abbreviated') and the second ('shortened form of a word, phrase, etc.) have been interchanged. In *OALD*⁵ it seems that countable senses are in principle presented before uncountable senses. Also, in the entry for **liquor**, where the British sense preceded the American in *OALD*⁴, the order has been reversed, while in many other entries that have both British and American senses there are no changes in arrangement. At **film**, the order of senses was 1. (thin coat or covering)¹⁾, 2. (photographic film) and 3. (movie) in *OALD*⁴. In *OALD*⁵, the order is 1. (movie), 2. (photographic) and 3. (thin coat or covering).

Probably one of the most interesting changes concerns lexical items relating to modern technology and devices, especially computers. The promotions and demotions of senses, as we might call them, in the entries for **interface** and **monitor** may reflect interesting changes that have occurred in the real world.

interface	4th ed.	5th ed.
(surface common to two areas)	1. ²⁾	—
(user interface of a computer)	—	1. (a)
(computer interface between two systems)	2.	1. (b)
(place where two subjects, etc meet)	3.	2.
monitor	4th ed.	5th ed.
(device used for monitoring)	1.	1.
(listener to a foreign radio programme)	2.	4.
(video or television screen)	3. (a)	2. (a)
(computer screen)	3. (b)	2. (b)
(pupil with special duties)	4.	3.
(kind of large lizard)	5.	—

The corpus used for the new edition must have played an important and useful role in deciding entry structure and content of such items.

1) Parentheses show that the content is not a word-for-word transcription from the original text but an adapted description by the present author.

2) The numbers denote the sense number in each edition, and the hyphen (-) indicates that no relevant sense is given.

4.1.4. Encyclopedic information in definitions

It was pointed out in Takahashi et al. (1992: 104–106) that encyclopedic information in *OALD* is reduced whenever it is revised or reprinted. This is partly true in the revision from *OALD*⁴ to *OALD*⁵. Among the five adjective forms derived from biographical names studied in the same paper, three more headwords (**Newtonian**, **Parthian shot** and **Shakespearean**) have disappeared (**Shavian** had already disappeared in *OALD*⁴), leaving only **Rabelaisian** as an independent entry. *OALD* has an encyclopedic edition (*OALDE*, 1992), and OUP probably intends users to consult this. On the other hand, for some culture-specific items such as *Hallowe'en* and *Thanksgiving (day)*, more information has been added to the descriptions in *OALD*⁴.

[4] 31 October, the eve of All Saints' day.

[5] 31 October, when according to ancient tradition the spirits of dead people rise from their graves. (s.v. **Hallowe'en**)

As there is no entry or information anywhere about *All Saints' day* either in *OALD*⁴ or in *OALD*⁵, the description in *OALD*⁵ is decidedly more informative. Also, in view of the fact that in *OALD*⁵ such culture-bound items as *Michaelmas term*, which did not appear in *OALD*³ or in *OALD*⁴, are entered and explained, encyclopedic information in the new edition is not necessarily reduced. Rather, it has been selectively enriched and made no less informative in that, for some word items, more useful information is given than in *OALD*⁴ within the limits of dictionary definitions, not of encyclopedia explanations¹⁾.

4.2. Usage labels

In Takahashi et al. (1992: 81ff.) it was noted that *OALD*⁴ had achieved a rather dramatic improvement in label presentation over the third edition both in terms of its system and the actual application of labels. The new edition appears to have taken over this fairly systematized, well-balanced practice and to have carried out no major changes in the actual labelling.

1) The respective roles of dictionaries, *encyclopedic* dictionaries and encyclopedias would be an interesting subject of future study.

In order to attest this point, we made a sample survey of every fifty pages on labelling in *OALD*⁵, starting from p. 50 (accounting for 2.01% of the total A-Z text of the dictionary) and compared all the labels presented there with the corresponding items in *OALD*⁴. Also, the system of labelling explicated in both editions was studied.

4.2.1. The system of labelling

The overall system of labelling has not changed through the revision from the fourth to the present edition of *OALD*, except that a new label, "techn(ical)" has been introduced in the new edition. This label, though differently abbreviated (typically as "tech"), has been used in *OALD*'s competitors such as *LDCE*² (1987) for years. Incidentally, in *LDCE*² there were only three concrete field labels ("law", "med[ical]" and "naut[ical]") and all other specialist fields were labelled as "tech". Thus in *LDCE*² the label "tech" was mainly used as a substitute for other field labels. In *OALD*⁵ the case is slightly different. The label is coexistent in *OALD*⁵ with other field labels such as "architecture" (e.g. for **apse**), "finance" (**debit**) and "physics" (**quantum**). It may be used alone (**circumscribe**, **continental drift**) or with another label ("formal or techn" s.v. **excitation** and **contiguous**). It is obviously a style label, showing that a word is mainly used in a particular style or register within the context of a particular specialist field. As far as we can see from our sample survey, it is not applied to an item which already had a particular field label in the previous edition: in such cases, basically the same concrete field labels are used. The label "techn" seems to have been used only for items that had no field label in *OALD*⁴ or that have undergone a change in labelling. If this is really the case, it follows that there is an inconsistency in the actual application of this newly-introduced label, which might lead to some confusion among users.

There is one remarkable improvement concerning label presentation in *OALD*⁵, however. In Takahashi et al. we suggested that EFL dictionaries should attach as much importance and prominence to labelling as they do to other information categories such as grammar and pronunciation, and present an elegant one-page table of the labelling system in a readily visible

place such as the inside of the front/back cover. This idea has been put into practice both in *OALD*⁵ and the new edition of *LDCE* (*LDCE*³), undoubtedly to the great benefit and convenience of users.

4.2.2. The application of labels

In our surveyed portion, there were 324 information units (entries, senses, idioms, phrasal verbs, etc) that are labelled in *OALD*⁵. We compared all of them with the corresponding items and labels in *OALD*⁴, and examined how they have or have not changed in the latest revision. We could also see how stylistically charged items have been added or omitted by checking the comings and goings of labelled items in the two editions. However, in comparison with the drastic changes from the third to the fourth editions, the alterations are rather minor and here we shall comment briefly on the prominent changes only.

Ten labels have been omitted, while 35 are newly applied in the latest edition. Among the labels added, those indicating rather high levels of formality ("fml" (7 instances), "techn" (2) and "law or fml" (1)) outnumber informality labels ("infml" (3)). Concerning regional labels, 14 "Brit(ish)" or "esp Brit" labels have been added, while only one "US" label was identified as a new addition in our survey. Labelling in *OALD*⁴, though much improved over the third edition, was still inclined to the marking of "informal" and "American English," indicating the *OALD*'s orientation toward formal or British English as an unmarked norm. In this regard it may be argued that the fifth edition has achieved a more balanced application of formality and regionality labels.

When we consider the additions and omissions of labelled items (entries and so on) between *OALD*⁴ and *OALD*⁵, we find far more omitted items (45) than newcomers (19). Labelled items are by definition stylistically marked, and are likely to be omitted when the need for more space for other information is pressing. Thus in *OALD*⁵, presumably in order to make room for the longer definitions using the restricted defining vocabulary (see 4.2.1), a number of labelled (i.e. charged) items seem to have been deleted.

4.3. Pictorial illustrations

Except for a very few instances, the fifth edition uses the same pictures as *OALD*⁴. Our inspection revealed only a very small number of additional pictures (e.g. one for **pulley**) and no replaced drawings. On the other hand, some pictures have been omitted, while many others have undergone partial reduction and adjustment presumably in order to produce more space for text information. For instance, the two knots in *OALD*⁴ have been reduced to one in *OALD*⁵ (s.v. **knot**), and one of the musical instruments has been turned over so that the height of the whole picture space is lessened (s.v. **lute**). Also, in many instances the blank space on both sides of a single illustration is cut off and the full-column width of the picture space has been reduced to half-column size. If we compare the illustrations in the two editions, efforts to reduce redundant space are widely observed. Some illustrations for items rather specific or unique to some cultures or areas of the world and therefore presumed to be unfamiliar to some peoples, for example pictures of angels (s.v. **angel**) and a kangaroo (s.v. **kangaroo**), have disappeared while other pictures of a similar kind (e.g. ones for **bears** or **kiwi** bird) remain².

(Kokawa)

5. Examples and collocations

5.1. According to the information given on the jacket, the number of examples in *OALD*⁵ is 90,000, which is roughly a 10% increase over that of *OALD*⁴, which has 81,500. In order to judge the reliability of this figure we counted the examples in 250 entries, every ten of which were randomly chosen from near the middle of the pages covering every letter of the alphabet (to be exact, we chose five entries from x and z, and ten entries from every other letter).³ The result is shown in Table 1. We also counted

1) Exceptions include the pictures for *aircraft* and *arm positions* (s.v. **arm**), where puzzlingly different drawings showing totally the same images as those in *OALD*⁴ are used.

2) What pictures to include in language dictionaries is an interesting question that has great relevance to the presentation of encyclopedic information, and which awaits further discussion in the future.

3) We picked up common entries both in *OALD*⁵ and *OALD*⁴ and counted the number of examples including those of run-on entries. The entries we chose are: **amazon** —

the number of examples of ten basic verbs¹ and ten function words² and their results are given respectively in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 1

<i>OALD</i> ⁴			<i>OALD</i> ⁵		
phrase	sentence	total	phrase (same)	sentence (same)	total (same)
670	674	1344	700 (405)	746 (379)	1446 (793)

Table 2

<i>OALD</i> ⁴			<i>OALD</i> ⁵		
phrase	sentence	total	phrase (same)	sentence (same)	total (same)
144	821	965	139 (110)	850 (586)	989 (696)

Table 3

<i>OALD</i> ⁴			<i>OALD</i> ⁵		
phrase	sentence	total	phrase (same)	sentence (same)	total (same)
147	311	458	139 (110)	329 (195)	468 (305)

From the above tables, we can see that the number of examples of ordinary entry words in *OALD*⁵ has increased 7.58%. However, the increase in the case of basic verbs is 2.49% and of function words only 2.18%. Judging from these figures, the 10% increase in examples boasted of on the jacket might be regarded as an exaggeration.

5.2. On the basis of the figures shown in the above tables, we can see that 54.84%, 70.37%, and 65.17% of the examples are the same as those in *OALD*⁴. The average of these percentages is 63.46%, which shows that

ambit, blanket — blaze¹, collector — collocate, dire — dirge, Entryphone — environs, flesh — flick, gloss² — gluten, herbaceous — hereafter, infertile — infinitive, join — Joneses, kid¹ — kilo-, lied — lifeboat, midsummer — mighty, nexus — niche, opera — opinion, pocket — poetic, queer — queue, represent¹ — reprobate, snack — snare, tilth — times, unionist — universal, vertex — vessel, whinney — whirlwind, x¹ — -xion, yes — yield, zero — zinc.

1) The ten basic verbs we chose are: **be**^{1,2}, **have**^{1,2,3}, **give**¹, **take**¹, **go**¹, **come**¹, **make**¹, **get**, **hold**¹, **keep**¹.

2) The ten function words we chose are: **on**¹ (*prep*), **for**¹, **with**, **can**², **may**¹, **will**¹, **how**, **what**¹, **which**, **that**^{1,2,3,4,5}.

36.54% of the examples in *OALD*⁵ are either new or rewritten. Furthermore, according to the explanation in the preface that nearly 9,000 examples are newly added in *OALD*⁵, it can be surmised that 10% of the total examples are new and 26.54% rewritten. Our next job should be to examine in what way the examples have been rewritten and what sort of examples have been deleted and newly added. However, before moving on to examine alterations to examples, we will look at the formal or stylistic changes made in the presentation of examples in *OALD*⁵.

5.2.1. The following formal or stylistic changes are recognized in the way examples are given in *OALD*⁵: (1) In phrase examples, commas that were used to separate collocational phrases have been changed into oblique strokes, and *etc.*, which was sometimes put at the end of phrase examples, has been left out. (2) Sentence patterns that used to be given before the definition are put before the examples, making it clear the correspondence between a sentence example and its sentence pattern. (3) The glosses of the example are put in parentheses, making clear that they are not parts of the example, but glosses or explanations. (4) Idiomatic phrases of the example are printed in bold type. (5) Phrase examples are usually given before sentence examples. (6) The semicolon in the example has been changed to a dash or colon. (7) The label [attrib] in front of a phrase example has been omitted in *OALD*⁵.

5.2.2. With respect to the role that examples play in the dictionary, the jacket has the following brief explanation: "This dictionary contains over 90 000 corpus-based examples designed to help you use English words and phrases correctly and appropriately." However, it may be safe to believe that the examples in *OALD*⁵ are designed also to meet the learning needs mentioned in the detailed guide in *OALD*⁴, that is, "they help learners to understand the meanings of words, they provide models for them to imitate when writing or speaking and they illustrate the grammatical patterns in which words are used." Let us now see how some of the examples have been changed or modified in *OALD*⁵. Examples are rewritten in one of the following ways: (1) The content of the example has been made up-to-date

or brought more into accord with present-day society: *Someone's been (and gone) and eaten my porridge!* → *Someone's been and parked in front of the entrance!* <be¹ IDM >¹⁾ / (fig) *After years of hard work and poverty, he finally snapped,* ie had a nervous breakdown, fell ill, etc. → *After months of stress and worry, . . .* (ie was unable to endure it any more). <snap¹ 1 > (2) Some examples have been rewritten to improve or correct the content of the example, making them easier to understand: *Always keep your driving licence in a safe place.* → *Keep your passport. . . .* <keep¹ 4 > / *The umpire gave the batsman out (leg before wicket).* → *He was given offside by the referee.* <give¹ 18 > / *The culprit will be whipped when he is found.* → *Prisoners were whipped to get confessions out of them.* <whip² 1 > There are also rewritten examples that contain a small but user-friendly correction: *have an easy/hard life* → *have an easy | a hard life* <life 10 > / *snappy on her feet* → *be snappy on one's feet* <snappy > / *The world is round.* → *The earth . . .* <be¹ 6 > (3) The content of the example has been changed, making the meaning of the entry word or the idiom clearer and easier to understand: *You're very cool with your brother, but with your friends you really come to life.* → *When the discussion turned to literature, she suddenly came to life.* <life IDM > / *All his promises were snares and delusions.* → *He fell victim to the sensual lures and snares of city life.* <snare > (4) Examples have been modified to better fit a definition of the entry word or a label indicating register: *He was had up for exceeding the speed limit.* → *. . . for drunken driving.* <have³ IDM > / *I'm of the opinion that he is right.* → *. . . that we should take a risk.* <opinion IDM > (5) The content of the example has been made more concrete by disambiguation of a word in the example, for instance, by changing pronouns to common nouns or adding qualifiers to nouns: *The officer directed them to advance.* → *. . . directed his troops . . .* <direct² 5 > / *'Yes?' 'I'd like 2 tickets, please.'* → *'Yes?' ' . . . two tickets to Brighton, please.'* <yes 4 > / *She has now held the post of Prime Minister longer than anyone else this century.* → *Mrs Thatcher . . .* <hold¹ 8 > (6) The addition of a word or phrase to the example sometimes contributes to the clarification of the meaning of the example or the definition of the entry words: *It*

1) The notation 'A → B' indicates that A is rewritten as B. Dots are used to save space and represent identical parts of the sentence.

is impossible to say with any (degree of) accuracy how many are affected. → ... *how many people* ... <accuracy> | *That box is bigger than this.* → ... *than this one.* <that¹ 1> | *in a querulous tone* → ... *tone of voice* <querulous> | *She was accosted by a complete stranger.* → ... *accosted in the street by* ... <accost> (7) One of two similar examples has been changed to a different type of example: *The signpost points in a westerly direction.* → *We looked in the direction of the sea.* <direction 1> | *I'm so envious of you getting an extra day's holiday.* → *I'm so envious.* — *I wish I had your talent.* <envious>

In these cases, as there are other examples including the expression 'in a northerly direction' or 'be envious of', a similar expression has been changed to a different one. (8) Some sentences have been changed to fit different sentence patterns: *This machine operates night and day.* → *How does this machine operate?* <operate 1> (9) Phrase examples have sometimes been altered into sentence examples, and vice versa: *a letter for you* → *There's a letter for you.* <for¹ 1> | *famous for its cathedral* → *The town is famous for.* ... <for¹ 5> | *She has the ability to keep calm in an emergency.* → *keep calm* ... <keep¹ 1> | *The course book has twenty units.* → *a course book with twenty units* <unit 1> (10) Examples have sometimes been rewritten to provide better models for more general or daily use of the language: *Much British humour depends on ambiguity.* → *A lot of humour* ... <ambiguity> | *She's directly responsible to the Minister.* → ... *to the boss.* <directly> | *You'd better get a second opinion before you let that man take out all your teeth.* → *If you don't mind, I'd like a second* (ie somebody else's) *opinion before I make the decision.* <opinion 3> (11) Collocational elements have been added, making the examples more informative: *the British Ambassador to Greece* → *the newly appointed British Ambassador to Greece/in Athens* <ambassador> | *a course in midwifery* → *do/take a* ... <midwifery> | *a queue of cars at the traffic-lights* → *join a queue* ... <queue> | *cobra and other dangerous snakes* → *a snake coiled up in the grass* <snake> (12) Situational or contextual elements have been added to make examples more lively and sophisticated: *The train goes there direct.* → *You don't have to change trains. The 10.40 goes direct.* <direct adv> | *Put more life into your work.* → *The show's very flat — put some more life into it.* <life 9> (13) A lot of examples have been Americanized. This

seems to reflect the editors' recognition of the importance of American English based on the great influence the U. S. has in the world: *The Queen was represented at the funeral by the British ambassador.* → *The Pre-sident was represented (at the funeral) by the Vice-president.* <represent¹ 3> | *The Prime Minister will be giving a press conference tomorrow morning.* → *The President* ... <give¹ 12> | *He has a house in London and a cottage near the sea.* → ... *in Boston and a beach house on the coast.* <have² 1> | *The film had us all sitting on the edges of our seats with excitement.* → *The movie* ... <have³ 8> | *She gave me a lift as far as the station.* → ... *a ride* ... <give¹ 5> | *Here's a five-pound note — you can keep the change.* → ... *a five dollar bill* ... <keep¹ 4> | *Is this the train for Glasgow?* → *Is this the bus for Chicago?* <for¹ 4> | *Who's the MP for Bradford?* → ... *the congresswoman for this district?* <for¹ 8> (14) Some examples have been de-Anglicized: *a representative collection of British insects* → ... *of European insects* <representative 1> | *They are on holiday in the Lake District.* → ... *in Italy.* <be¹ 3> | *We're taking a cottage in Devon for a month.* → ... *in Brittany* ... <take¹ 14> | *We got to London at 7 o'clock.* → ... *San Diego* ... <get 15> (15) What might be considered the editors' conscience or sensitivity to political correctness is reflected in the examples, making the examples less prejudiced and problematic: *The old woman crossed the road at a snail's pace.* → *The traffic was moving.* ... <snail IDM> | *special difficulties unique to blind people* → *psychological processes unique to humans* <unique 2> | *With Italians it's pronunciation that's the problem.* → *With these students* ... <with 10> | *He joined the army of his own accord.* → *He came back* ... <accord¹ IDM>

It can be said that the examples rewritten in *OALD*⁵ have, on the whole, been improved in the sense that they seem to meet the above mentioned learning needs more adequately. However, there are cases where alterations seem to be made not for improvement but for the sake of alteration itself, that is, the original examples can be considered to be much better: *The journey from London to Oxford takes about an hour and a half.* → ... *from the airport to the university* ... <take¹ 18> There are many other examples that contain small changes that cannot necessarily be regarded as improvements: *She's very blasé about parties.* → ... *about exams.* <blasé> |

advertising directed mainly at young consumers → ... *at women* <direct² 4> | *Could you xerox this letter please, Paula?* → ... , *Louise?* <xerox> | *Can I borrow this record?* 'Yes, of course.' → '... this book?' '...' <yes 1> | *Do you get 'The Times' or the 'Guardian'?* → ... *the 'Telegraph' or ... ?* <get 6> | *Don't get your new trousers dirty!* → ... *dress. . .* <get 10>.

5.2.3. New examples are naturally added in the following situations. With respect to entry words, new examples are given in three cases: (1) They are provided where *OALD*⁴ gives only definitions of the word but no examples. (2) They are provided where new entry words are added or new definitions of the entry word are given in *OALD*⁵. (3) They are additionally provided where there were already examples in *OALD*⁴. In the case of (1) and (2), new examples are given to make the meaning of the entry word clearer and to show how a word with a certain meaning is used. In the case of (3), new examples are added to show further usage of the word. With respect to run-on entries, examples are newly given in the following two cases: (1) New examples are provided where *OALD*⁴ gives neither definitions nor examples. In this case, examples do a double job, i.e. to exemplify the meaning of run-on entries with the help of the definition given in the main entries and to demonstrate the use of run-on entries. (2) New examples are provided at the expense of the definition of run-on entries in *OALD*⁴. In this case as well, examples do a double job. Needless to say, the space occupied by new examples must be recovered elsewhere because the total space in *OALD*⁵ is more limited than in *OALD*⁴. This is done partly by omitting examples regarded as less suitable. Unfortunately, however, examples such as '*Traffic in Britain keeps to the left*, ie drives on the left-hand side of the road.' <keep¹ 1>, which shows cultural background and therefore can be regarded as just as good as others, are sometimes deleted.

5.3. We have already seen that glosses or explanations of the example are put in parentheses, but it must also be mentioned that glosses themselves are sometimes improved, making the meaning of examples easier to understand: *the College of Cardinals*, ie the whole group of them, esp as advisers

and electors of the Pope → ... (ie as a group, when electing or advising the Pope) <college 5> | *a direct train*, ie that goes to a passenger's destination without stopping beforehand → *There's a direct train from London to Leeds* (ie It may stop at other stations but one does not have to change trains). <direct¹ 1> | *operations research*, ie study of business operations to improve efficiency in industry → ... (ie the study of business operations in order to improve their efficiency) <operation 3>. There are some examples where glosses have become easier to understand and this is obviously connected with the introduction of the defining vocabulary: *We hit* (ie encountered) *several snags while still at the planning stage.* → *We hit* (ie were faced with) *several snags at the planning stage.* <snag 1> In some other cases, glosses are added to make example sentences easier to interpret: *You're kidding!* → *You're kidding (me)* (ie I don't believe you)! <kid²> Unfortunately, however, useful glosses are sometimes omitted: *I am to* (ie I have been told to) *inform you that . . .* → *I am to phone them once I reach the airport.* <be² 3>

5.4. In *OALD*⁴ collocations in phrase examples were shown in three ways, i.e. by separating a list of words by commas with or without *etc* and by oblique strokes. The distinction was made in terms of open-endedness, closeness and limitation of the combined words. However, in *OALD*⁵ those distinctions have been abolished and collocations are only shown by the use of oblique strokes. Considering that the distinction in the citation of collocations in *OALD*⁴ was too rigid and some problems existed about its validity or reliability, the change in the presentation of collocations seems to be appropriate.¹⁾ However, some explanations are still needed especially with respect to the difference in the strength of the collocational relation between words, for example, in the case of verb-noun combinations and adjective-noun combinations. Collocational elements have actually been added in some examples, as mentioned above, and this should be regarded as an improvement.

(Ichikawa)

1) See Takahashi et al. (1992: 128ff)

6. Grammar and usage notes

6.1. Recent trends in the presentation of grammatical information

Since its first edition, *OALD* has indicated syntactic patterns of verbal constructions using codes. *LDCE*¹ had more complicated and comprehensive patterns not only for verbs but also for nouns and adjectives. *LDCE*² gave more user-friendly mnemonic codes. (cf. *COBUILD*¹.) By showing patterns in written-out form, *LDCE*³ makes information more easily accessible, following the way of its sister *LLA*. The mainstream EFL dictionaries published in Britain in the late 80s and 90s have endeavored to show grammatical information in a more easily decodable form.

6.2. Grammar

In this article we are concerned only partly to discuss how syntactic information of verbs is presented and whether systematic treatment is given. There is a statement about syntactic information in the preface: "... the British National Corpus... has enabled us... to present a wholly accurate picture of the syntactic patterns of today's English."¹ But this says nothing about how information is presented, unlike the explicit statement in *LDCE*³ that it "is organized on the basis of frequency" (p. xvii). *OALD*⁵ is considered to show not only corpus-based but also potential patterns or information.

*OALD*⁵ has partly revised the coding system for the verb patterns. The Detailed Guide in *OALD*⁴ has been drastically changed into the form of Study pages B following *OWD*. But unlike *OWD*, no indication of [T] (for transitive verbs) and [I] (for intransitive verbs) is given, despite the fact that they are explained on Study pages B4–8. The other codes [L], [C], [D] are also done away with. As a result, 32 patterns have been changed to 28, including the new ones [V. speech], [Vadv] and [Vnadv], with 7 patterns changed or deleted: In/pr, It, Tni, Cn· n/a, Cn· g, Dn· pr, and Dn· t.

Following the recent trend, the codes have become more transparent

1) *OALD*⁵, *LDCE*³ and *HEED* are all said to be related with the British National Corpus.

and mnemonic and are put in front of examples, as in *LDCE*² (cf. **modify**). This does not mean that they enable users to decode all the patterns correctly.¹ It is also important whether *OALD*⁵ provides a comprehensive and explicit description. This area leaves something to be desired, as the following examples show. The pattern Cn· n/a (corresponding to [Vn-n/adj], if any) is deleted, and the pattern [V-n/adj] is not given. Do users realize that the verb **taste**² (2) is used only in the [V-adj] pattern, or that the verb **denounce** can also be used in the [Vn-adj] pattern? (Compare the codes in *CIDE*: [L only + adj] and [+ obj + n/adj], for instance.) This causes misunderstanding, as the patterns in *OALD*⁵ are only applicable to the examples cited.

How are the following classified?: (1) The fact is (that) . . . , (2) The question is whether . . . , and (3) All you can do is (to) help me. They cannot be classified as [V. *that*], [V. *wh*] and [V. *to* inf] respectively, for the verbs in the coded patterns take clauses as objects and they are transitive verbs by definition (see B5–8). In (3) or **help**¹ (1) no pattern such as [V. inf (no *to*)] or [I. inf (no *to*)] is found.² In **seem** and **appear** *OALD*⁵ shows [V. *to* inf] but are they transitive? The codes are reshuffled so as to make them user-friendly, but the serious problem still remains that examples are given codes in accordance with the surface syntactic forms they take. Consider "He came running" and "He finished reading it." They are labeled as [V. *ing*].³ As "running" cannot be considered an object, why are they not labeled as [I. *ing*] and [T. *ing*]? On Study page B7 the explanation is found that "An '-*ing* clause' is a clause containing a PRESENT PARTICIPLE." It includes such a use as "She never stops talking". The blurred definitions of 'present participle' and 'verbal noun' (or 'gerund') make it difficult to get a good grasp of them.⁴ In 'You can't stop our going/ us (from) going',

1) It is to be noted that more examples should be given instead of [also . . .] as it does not seem to be of much use in decoding, much less in production.

2) cf. C. Mair. 1995. "Changing patterns of complementation, and concomitant grammaticalization, of the verb *help* in present-day British English." *The verb in contemporary English: Theory and description*, eds. B. Aarts and C. F. Meyers, pp. 258–272. Cambridge: CUP.

3) It should be noted that the pattern is often mistakenly shown [V. *in*].

4) See the paper by Francis concerning the similar change of grammatical presentation in *COBUILD*².

three patterns [V.n *ing*], [Vn. *ing*] and [Vnpr] are shown. This is different from the explanation on Study page B8, which does not make a distinction between “stop our going” and “stop us going”.¹⁾ A more consistent and careful treatment of grammar and explanation or definition in the entry is desirable.

Take the pattern [V. *to inf*] again. The misleading explanation on Study page B7 and in the entry **to**² (1) makes no sense, as the code is shown not only in the case of **to**² (1) but also in the cases of **to**² (4) and **to**² (5): **stop**¹ (4b) and **wake**¹ (1a), for example. For [Vn. *inf* (no *to*)] there is no explicit grammatical connection indicated in **make**¹ (7a) and **hear** (1). In connection with information about passivization, a more careful treatment is desirable for transitive verbs.

Two new patterns [Vadv] and [Vnadv] are referred to. They both have [adv(erb)]. It is thought to be shown when obligatory, as in “Where do you live?” Admitting that grammatically correct patterns can be given, it is quite doubtful whether the distinction between [adv] and [pr(ositional phrase)] can be always clearly drawn, as the verbs concerned are used with either [adv] or [pr]. (Compare the code in *LDCE* and *CIDE*: [+adv/pr].) Not all examples are given the codes, as in **keep**¹ (4d) or **stay**¹ (1a). The lack of the code, as in **lodge**² (4), lessens the value of the information. In the construction <V + one’s [the] way + adv/pr> five different patterns are shown: [Vnadv] in **edge**² (2a), [Vnpr] in **nose**² (1), [Vnp] [Vnpr] in **push**¹ (2), treatment as a **PHR V** in **elbow** and no indication in **find**¹ (4). The way of indicating patterns in front of examples does not always cover other potentialities. It should be recognized that codes enable users to generalize from a specific case into grammatical cases. (cf. *CIDE*, p. xi.) Wrong or misleading presentation, as in **sit** (1a), must be avoided. A more careful and comprehensive treatment should have been given.

In the treatment of phrasal verbs, clearer patterns are now given, but

1) In *OALD*³, the two patterns are shown: “. . . prevent us/our getting married”, and “. . . stop our going/us (from) going . . .” This does not make it clear which pattern is the more frequent corpus-based fact. If the use of the possessive form before -ing is less frequent, and if the corpus-based facts are given priority, the order of examples should be taken into account in presentation. Also there is no reference to formality.

little syntactic information is provided (cf. **rely on/upon**). As to word order, an improvement is seen, as Study page A3 refers to the case where an object is a pronoun with a verb and a particle separated. Inseparable phrasal verbs are written like **look after sb**, while separable ones are like **tear sth up**. But there is still room for improvement. How do users know the difference between separable phrasal verbs and those where verbs and particles are always separated? *OALD*⁵ has a sister *ODPV*, but the former does not make good use of the latter. *OALD*⁵ follows the way of presentation and the explanations of *OWD*. As a result, the fact that verbs and particles should not be separated is wrongly indicated in a case like **let sth out** (1), while the opposite fact that they must be separated is not clear in a case like **get sb down**. The former editor Cowie says (1993, p. 38) that phrasal verbs are difficult for learners, and that is why a more careful and detailed analysis and treatment like that of *ODPV* should have been done (cf. *LLA* and *LDCE*³).

Concerning the use of parentheses, misleading presentation must be avoided. Compare the different patterns of [Vn-adj] and [V.n *to inf*] in **believe** (2), **consider** (2) and **imagine** (1). In **give**¹ (2a) no pattern [Vnn] is indicated where the parenthesis is omitted. It is also to be wondered whether a dot is necessary when verbs have clauses as objects except in cases like [V.n *to inf*], [Vn. *to inf*] and [V.n *ing*], [Vn. *ing*]. (cf. *OALD*⁴.)

The use of the British National Corpus and the Oxford Corpus has certainly made it possible to partially improve grammatical information and usage description.¹⁾ For instance, look at the verbs with only the preposition *into* shown: **persuade** (1); **frighten**, **scare** and **shame**. They were also shown with a preposition *out of* in *OALD*⁴. See the elaborate idiomatic phrase **if not**. It remains questionable whether the corpus has been carefully looked into. No information about negative use is found in

1) Revising all the examples as in *COBUILD*² can not be considered a good way of showing typical patterns or collocations. Comparison of *OALD*⁵ and *LDCE*³ in the entry **risk** (*v*), for example, makes it clear that a future *OALD* should make a more detailed analysis of the corpus. Needless to say, analysis of corpora not only by native speakers of English but also by nonnative lexicographers or linguists is thought to be more productive of description.

cases like **materialize** (1) and **live sth down**, while a usage note is found in cases like **quarrel** (2) and **quarrel with sth**. How frequently is the usage of **want**¹ (6) 'lack' found in the corpus?¹⁾ (*LDCE*³ lists it, whereas *COBUILD*² and *CIDE* do not.) *OALD*⁵ sometimes has verb patterns not found in most other dictionaries, such as [V.n *ing*] in **recall** (1), and [Vn. *wh*] in **warn** (1); whereas it does not contain information found in most others, as in [V] in **forget** (1). *OALD*⁵ has more verb patterns in **bet** including the misleading pattern [Vnn], while *COBUILD*² has more explicit patterns in **take** (18a) 'need or require (the specified time . . .)'.²⁾ Information seems to be principally based on corpora but patterns are not always the same in the dictionaries cited. Even if a piece of information is not found in *OALD*⁵, it does not always mean that it is nonexistent.

6.3. Usage notes

A small survey shows that there have been no drastic changes in this area. *OALD*⁵ has more than 200 notes, with 17 left out and 38 added. Some have been arranged (from 14 to 11) like **gender**. (cf. **take sb out of themselves**.) *OALDE* has more. Some are quite similar to those in *OWD* (**afraid**, **allow**). Some new notes show basic usage (**age**, **awake**, **date**), and some contain encyclopedic information. Special attention is paid to the usage of modals. But a principle about what to list in usage notes seems not to have been established. There are some unnecessary notes for learners, as under **sensuous**, or misplaced notes like **user-friendly**.

(Dohi)

7. Concluding remarks

*OALD*⁵ has been published only six years after its predecessor. Since *OALD*⁴ was published, a detailed analysis of the corpora seems to have been made and its results, together with other contrivances, must have

1) cf. J. Aarts and F. Aarts. 1995. "Find and want: a corpus-based case study in verb complementation." *The verb in contemporary English: Theory and description*, eds. B. Aarts and C. F. Meyer, pp. 159–182. Cambridge: CUP.

2) In *OALD*⁵ no parentheses are shown. The overall impression is that they should be more carefully used in the traditional way of indicating senses.

been made use of in this revision because we can recognize traces of editorial effort in almost every aspect of the new edition. However, as might be expected from the relatively short period of time allowed for the revision, the new edition cannot be regarded as having undergone substantial changes.

The volume of the dictionary has slightly decreased in this revision, and so has the number of entries. However, *OALD*⁵ includes some encyclopedic information printed in full color, instead. Some minor changes have been made in the treatment of compounds and derivatives, but the most prominent change concerning entries is the increase in words with the negative prefix **un-**. This is assumed to have been a result of the use of the corpus, which apparently showed a high frequency of such words.

Concerning the pronunciation shown in *OALD*⁵, there have been some minor changes in the transcription of weak vowels but otherwise the new edition retains the system used by the previous edition. *OALD*⁵ bases its pronunciation on British English, which can be said to be a conservative stance when other British learner's dictionaries are eagerly incorporating American, Canadian and Australian English information, including pronunciation, into their newest editions. However, the forms of pronunciation within British English covered by *OALD*⁵ are by no means conservative: recent trends and changes have been captured, and placement of stress in idioms and phrasal verbs is adequately shown.

*OALD*⁵'s choice of defining vocabulary is more a matter of shifting and eliminating excessively hard words than *LDCE*'s and *CIDE*'s minimalist approach. Some formal inconsistencies in the presentation of definitions such as the use of parentheses have been streamlined, and definite and indefinite articles as well as the infinitive marker 'to' are added so that users are presented with more natural target language explanations. Many definitions have been rewritten and reorganized and have achieved greater clarity and understandability. The number of words used per definition has increased, partly due to the introduction of controlled vocabulary, requiring an effort on the part of the OUP lexicographers to create more space for the longer definitions. Some information in the definitions has been increased, while other information, in cases where user's needs are

presumed to be more limited, has been left out. A small number of senses have also been deleted. Some of the space for illustrative drawings has been cleverly reduced. All in all, *OALD*⁵ has cut down on space drastically and used the newly created space for easier, more informative but also longer definitions. However, some culture-specific pictorial illustrations have been deleted, the wisdom of which is questionable. The number and arrangement of senses in large entries has not changed much, but in many smaller entries changes have been made apparently to reflect changes in the real world. Encyclopedic information has been partly reduced, and partly enriched. As for labeling, the overall system has not changed from *OALD*⁴ except that a new label, "techn(ical)" has been introduced, which seems to have been applied only to new items. The one-page table of the labeling system presented on the inside of the front cover should be given much credit. Concerning the actual application of labels, more "British" and "formal" labels are used to make the labeling in *OALD*⁵ more balanced. Quite a few labeled (i.e. stylistically marked) items have been left out in the new edition, presumably to make room for the new style of definition.

As mentioned in section 5, it can be surmised that 10% of the examples in *OALD*⁵ are newly added and roughly 27% of them are rewritten. It can be said that new examples have been added to convey necessary information and a lot of examples have been rewritten to make them achieve a number of desired purposes. It seems safe to say that the rewritten examples are, on the whole, very much improved. With respect to collocations in phrase examples, the way of indicating them has been simplified, and therefore the strict distinction based on open-endedness and closeness among them has been lost in *OALD*⁵. However, they seem to exemplify the collocational nature of words to an extent which contributes well to the basic purposes of an EFL dictionary.

Information and description have been partially improved with respect to grammar and usage notes. *OALD*⁵ has become easier to decode (as the codes have been changed), and handy to use, compared with other larger-sized dictionaries. However, more remains to be done. More comprehensive and systematic grammatical description should be given. The bound-

aries between [I] and [T] have become blurred, and this causes some verbs to be given confusingly misleading patterns. More attention should be paid to systematic grammar, clearer explanation of grammatical terms and the Study pages, and comprehensiveness and consistency of syntactic patterns. The treatment of phrasal verbs needs improvement to ensure that no confusion arises out of its lack of precision.

Five EFL dictionaries published in 1995 are all more or less products of corpus-based research. More research will doubtless be carried out and incorporated into future dictionaries. For this purpose, more careful and precise analysis of corpora will have to be made for syntactic information to be connected with senses. It can be safely said that the most traditional dictionary, *OALD*, which strangely still bears the name of AS Hornby, is no longer person-centered and has now taken its first step toward making more comprehensive and sophisticated corpus-based description available. It is to be hoped that future versions of *OALD* will show a more lexicographically accurate description of facts observed in the corpus within a theoretical and systematic framework, with user-friendliness always kept in mind.

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- COBUILD*² *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*. London: HarperCollins, 1995.
- COD*⁹ *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, 9th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1995.
- CPD* *A Concise Pronouncing Dictionary of British and American English*. OUP, 1972.
- EPD*¹⁴ *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, 14th ed. CUP, 1991.
- HEED* *Harrap's Essential English Dictionary*. Edinburgh: Harrap, 1995.
- LDCE*¹ *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Harlow: Longman, 1978.
- LDCE*² *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, New edition. Harlow: Longman, 1987.
- LDCE*³ *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995.
- LLA* *Longman Language Activator: The World's First Production Dictionary*. Harlow: Longman, 1993.

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 MCD *Macmillan Contemporary Dictionary*. New York: Macmillan, 1979.
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私の戦争中の英語

竹 林 滋

私は第二次世界大戦中の昭和19年(1944年)、つまり戦争が終わる前の年に外語(東京外国語学校、現在の東京外国語大学の前身)に入学した。中学生のときの私は体が弱くて軍事教練が大嫌いな反面、敵国語の英語は大好きだった。ある日教練をサボったのに英語の授業に出席したことがバレて、配属将校から「お前は非国民だ」とものすごい形相で怒られた。私は比較的冷静で、「目の形というものは怒ると本当に三角になるのだな」と思ったことを今でもよく記憶している。そういうわけで私はエリートコースの高等学校へ行くよりは外語の英米科へ進学したいと思うようになった。完全に閉塞状態にあった戦時下の社会で、この学校が僅かに外国に向けて開かれている小さな窓のように思えたからだ。

戦争末期の外国の授業は英語が週に22時間(うち外国人教師の授業が10時間)、教練が9時間という極めて変則的なものだった。授業があるのは新入生だけで、2年生以上は軍需工場に動員されていた。英語をたっぷり勉強できるのは嬉しかったが、またまた教練、それも週9時間というのには参った。おまけにこの年に外語は外事専門学校という嫌な名前に改称させられた。しかし英語の授業は実に楽しかった。感銘を受けたのは、オックスフォード出身のイギリス人教師が授業で「英国は勝つ」と言ったことで、そのとき使った“*We'll muddle through.*”(なんとかやり抜くさ)ということばは今でも耳に残っている。この頃になると、学校と自宅以外の人前ではとても英語を読める状態ではなくなった。英米との戦争が始まった直後から、電車のなかで英字新聞を読んでいると引たくられるという話も聞いていた。私もある秋の日の午後研究社へ英語の本を買いに行った帰り、飯田橋の交番で不審尋問され、英語などやめて朝鮮語を勉強しろ、と説教されたことがあった。

年末からは戦局もいっそう緊迫し、サイパン島が陥落し、そこから飛び立った爆撃機が飛来して東京を空襲するようになった。1年生だけに許されていた授業も取り止めになり軍需工場に動員された。しかし軍事教練だけは続いた。9月の授業からシェークスピアの講読が始まり、私はたちまちその魅力にとり

つかれた。非国民の私は教練にも出ず、工場にも行かず、空襲警報が出ると窓を黒いカーテンで密閉して自宅で深夜までシェークスピアを読み耽った。*Julius Caesar*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *A Midsummer Night's Dream* までは割合楽に読めたが、*Romeo and Juliet* となると、さすがに18才の少年には無理で、英文の注釈自体が分からないこともあり、読み終わるまでに3ヶ月もかかった。

軍事教練に最初の1時間しか出席しなかったので私は落第した。陸軍からの命令だといわれた。この頃には配属将校を介して軍が国立学校の学事にまで介入していたのである。英語の授業は欠席せずに出ていたので、英語の先生たちは驚いたらしい。クラスの担任の大谷先生から呼出しが来た。非国民だと叱られるのを覚悟で出頭したら、先生は意外にも「我々の力ではどうにもならなかった。済まない」と言われた。私はこのとき、戦争に対して、世間一般の人たちとは違う見方をしている人もいることを知った。先生は更に「毎日家で何をしている？」と尋ねられたので、「シェークスピアを読んでいます」と答えて作品の名を挙げたところ、「君の持っているような辞書ではシェークスピアは無理だ。今は使っていないからこの辞書を使いなさい。家が焼かれても無理して運び出すことはないから」と重い *Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* を貸してくださった。空襲はますます激しくなり、翌20年3月10日には下町の大半が焦土と化した。5月25日の夜には我が家のまわりにも焼夷弾の雨が降り、あたりは火の海となった。私は先生から借りた辞書とシェークスピアの本数冊を急いで防空壕のなかに入れて土をかけ、家族が散り散りにならないように気を配りながら猛火の間を縫って原っぱに逃げた。

割合にのんきだった私もさすがにこたえていた。沖縄が陥落し、本土決戦が叫ばれた。日本も自分の命もどうなるかわからない。何とか生きているうちに最高傑作をと、*Hamlet* を読み始めた。第2幕に入ったところで妹が「兄ちゃん、とうとう来たよ」といって召集令状を持ってきた。出頭は10日後とあった。万事休す、であった。それから1週間はそれまでのようにノートを取るのはやめて、必死になって残りを読んだ。それでもシェークスピアへの未練が断ち切れず、焼け残ったポケット版の *Julius Caesar* を「奉公袋」という、身の回りの物を入れる袋に入れて7月半ばに入営した。敵国のことばの本である。見つければもちろん厳罰は必至だ。しかしそのときの私はとてもそんなことを考える心の余裕はなかった。入営の夜、ひとりひとりが調書を書かされた。「尊敬する人物」という欄があった。回りの者は西郷隆盛とか楠木正成とか二宮尊徳とか書いていたが、私はそんなのでは面白くないので、otto・イエスベルセンと書いた。この頃にはどうにでもなれという反抗心が多少芽ばえていたようであ

る。しかし面接で調書を見た上官は何も言わなかった。

友人のひとり「竹林が軍隊に取られるようでは日本陸軍も終りだ」と言ったが、1カ月後には本当にその通りになった。8月15日の夜はラジオは琴の音だけを流していた。遠くの民家には何年ぶりかで明りがともった。戦争が終わったのだな、という実感が沸いてくるとともに、とめどもなく目から涙がこぼれ落ちた。

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編集後記 岩崎研究会会長の竹林滋氏は本年9月にめでたく古稀を迎えられる。それを祝って *Lexicon* の本号を同氏に捧げ会員一同の喜びを表したい。同氏の還暦を記念して論文集を贈呈し、お祝いの会を催したのはついこの間のこのように思えるが、まさに光陰は矢の如しである。

竹林氏は岩崎研究会の創設(昭和37年9月)以来会の発展に献身的な努力をされ、終始同輩、後輩を導いて今日に至った。その功績はまことに大なるものがある。同氏はまたその深い学識とともに、思いやりと温かさに満ちた人間的魅力によって常に会員をひきつけてきた。竹林氏なくしては今日の岩崎研究会はあり得ない。ここに同氏の古稀を祝い、また今後の益々ご健勝とお祈りしたい。

(Y. K.)