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小島義郎副会長の古稀をお祝いして

松田 徳一郎

早稲田大学名誉教授小島義郎先生は、本年8月21日古稀をお迎えになります。先生は竹林会長とともに岩崎研究会の生みの親で、創立以来今日まで副会長として会の発展のために尽力してこられました。

先生は1928年長野市にお生まれになりましたが、父君の転任によって生後6ヵ月で長崎市に移住、小学校6年生の1学期までを長崎で過ごされました。小学校6年の2学期、中学校入学に備えて上京、翌年東京市立第三中学校(のちの東京都立豊島中学校、現在の都立文京高等学校)に入学、1945年3月同校を卒業、同年4月東京外事専門学校(現在の東京外国語大学)英米科に入学、1948年同校を卒業されました。

卒業後ただちに母校都立文京高等学校の教諭に任ぜられ、1951年7月にはガリオア奨学生として米国テキサス州立大学大学院に留学して英語学を専攻、翌年7月帰国。1960年4月南山大学専任講師、1962年4月日本大学理工学部専任講師、1965年4月早稲田大学教育学部専任講師、1967年助教授、1972年教授、1994年3月退職、その後早稲田大学名誉教授におなりになり、今日に至っております。

先生のご研究はひろく英語学全般にわたっていますが、とりわけ意味論の分野ですぐれた業績をおあげになりました。その精髓は『日本語の意味英語の意味』(南雲堂、1988)に見ることができます。そして、この意味論はきわめて独創的な辞書学の理論と実践に発展しています。辞書学の理論は『英語辞書学入門』(三省堂、1984)にまとめられ、実践は数多くの英和辞典および和英辞典として具体化されております。中でも、竹林会長との共編『ライトハウス英和辞典』および『ライトハウス和英辞典』(ともに研究社、1984)はわが国の英語辞書の歴史に一時期を画するもので、洛陽の紙価をおおいに高めました。

また先生は、英語教育でも社会に大きな貢献をなさいました。勤務された高等学校と大学における英語教育はいうまでもなく、学校の外でもNHKの英語講座、とくに「通信高校講座」と「基礎英語」を通して何百万人もの視聴者に英語を教授されました。さらに、財団法人語学教育研究所の理事および財団法人英語

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教育協議会の理事もおつとめになり、英語教育界で幅広く活躍されました。早稲田大学ご退職の前後一時体調を崩されたようでしたが、最近健康を回復され、英語辞書の歴史について大著をご執筆中で、近々出版の予定とうかがっております。今後ともお元気で、われわれ後輩をご指導くださるようお願いして、古稀のお祝いのことばとさせていただきます。

An Analysis of *NTC's Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and Other Idiomatic Verbal Phrases* (2)

KYOHEI NAKAMOTO

7. Etymology

Etymological information is occasionally given typically in parentheses after the definition:

pull all the stops out to do everything possible; . . . (Refers to drawing all the stops on a pipe organ, resulting in the loudest possible sound.) . . .

See also: **play one's cards to one's chest** AND **play one's cards close to one's vest**, **put one's foot in one's mouth**, **rise to the bait**, **stink on ice**, **tilt at windmills**, **turn belly-up**.

Etymological information may be given in the definition:

smell to high heaven to smell very bad; to smell with a smell so bad that it would not disperse even high in the sky. . . .

It may also be given as one of the senses of a particular phrase. For instance, **drop by the wayside** AND **fall by the wayside** (def. 1) has a note: "The origin of the figurative usage in sense 2". This is an unusual note; in many cases literal senses, from which one or more figurative senses are derived, are shown without such a note (but sometimes with the label "literal"; see 9.1.1).

It is regrettable that etymological comments are very often omitted. For example, **get sb's back up** has a note: "Refers to the way a cat puts its back up when it is threatening". However, **get up on one's hind legs** (in the sense "to get angry and assertive") is only given a "Figurative" label. Neither a note nor a label is given in **get sb under one's thumb**.

Etymological information is useful for foreign learners and perhaps for

native users, too. It should be given to much more idiomatic phrases, whether or not they contain a “Figurative” or “Idiomatic” label (cf. 9.1.3).

8. Definitions

The entry head is “*usually* followed by a definition” (p. xi; my italics). There are entries where a definition is missing, perhaps carelessly (**assimilate with sb, figure sb as sth, mop sth up with sth**).

8.1. Defining vocabulary

NTCPV does not use any controlled defining vocabulary. Alternate definitions may be given “when the vocabulary of the first definition is difficult or idiomatic” (p. xi).

8.1.1. Difficult words

There are definitions where ‘difficult’ words are used:

- drown in sth** (def. 1): to be asphyxiated in some liquid.
- listen in (on sb or sth)** (def. 2): to eavesdrop on someone.
- run away with sb** (def. 2): [for two people] to elope.

In these entries the defining words are much more difficult than the phrases defined, but no alternate definition is given.

8.1.2. Idiomatic phrases

Words and phrases that are used in the idiomatic sense may be shown in quotation marks:

- have at sth**: to begin to do something to something; to “attack” something.
- kick back** (def. 2): [for an addict] to return to an addiction or a habit, after having “kicked the habit”.

However, idiomatic definitions are in most cases due to other phrasal verbs or set phrases (abbreviated to PV) used as a (part of a) definition:

- (1) when the PV is included in *NTCPV*
 - (1a) the PV is shown in slanted type
(e.g. **bank on sth**: to *depend on sth*; . . .)

- (1b) the PV is shown in ordinary (i.e. roman) type
(e.g. **bargain on sth**: to depend on something; to count on something.
turn sb’s water off: to take someone down to size.)
- (2) when the PV is not included in *NTCPV*
 - (2a) the PV is shown in slanted type
(e.g. **barf out**: to *freak out*; . . .)
 - (2b) the PV is shown in ordinary type
(e.g. **calculate on sth**: . . . ; to reckon on something.
wipe the floor up with sb: to beat someone to a pulp.)

(1a) is a kind of cross-reference (see 10). In some entries the PV given is misleading. For instance, “*answer back (to sb)*” and “*talk back (to sb)*” are shown in the definition of **argue back**. If they are all synonymous, the last entry head should be corrected to “**argue back (to sb)**” See also: **step aside for sb (def .2)/step down from sth (for sb)**).

It seems that there are no clear principles to decide when to show PVs in slanted type and when to show them in ordinary type (compare **bank on sth/bargain on sth**).

(1b) may create a circular definition. Circular definitions are common in *NTCPV*. Compare, for instance, **count (up)on sb or sth/depend (up)on sb or sth/rely (up)on sb or sth**. At **make sb up** the nominal form “makeup” is used in the definition (“to put makeup on someone”).

The definitions listed under (2a) are inappropriate. For instance, such an entry head as “**freak out**” is not found: it should be either **freak out (on sth)** or **freak out (over sb or sth)** AND **freak out (at sb or sth)**, or else **freak out** should be included.

The most serious problem lies in (2b). Although it is virtually impossible for specialised dictionaries like *NTCPV* to obey the “Word Not In” rule (Landau 1984: 129–131), the user will have to consult other dictionaries unless he happens to know the PV shown in the definition.

8.2. Different information given in related entries

As mentioned in 5.5.2 and 5.5.3, related entries often have different infor-

mation in a misleading way. Here is another example: **poke along** is defined as “to move along slowly; to lag or tarry”, while **poke around** means “to move slowly or aimlessly; to waste time while moving about”. Is the semantic difference significant (especially with or without “aimlessly”)? (Note that very similar examples are given in these entries.) The two entries could be combined.

8.3. Selectional restrictions about the subject

Semantic restrictions about the subject are indicated in square brackets (e.g. **lather up** (def. 1) “[for a horse]”, (def. 2) “[for soap]”, (def. 3) “[for one]”). However, this kind of information is often omitted. For instance, “[for one]” is not given in **lather sth up**. The user has to decode the necessary information from the examples in such entries.

8.4. Senses covered

Contrary to its title, *NTCPV* often omits idiomatic uses (cf. 3.3). Including literal senses is not a bad practice. The problem is, after all, that it is not clear what sources the lexicographers relied on and what principles they obeyed in order to select phrases for this dictionary. For instance, the following entries only explain literal senses: **brighten up**, **carry sb or sth out**, **drop across sb or sth**, **slide over sth**.

The senses covered are sometimes different, perhaps from carelessness, at a pair of phrases that have opposite meanings each other. Compare:

campaign against sb or sth: 1. to crusade or battle against someone or something. . . . 2. to run one’s political campaign against someone or something. . . .

campaign for sb or sth: to support actively someone or someone’s candidacy for political office. . . .

The latter entry does not accept a sentence like “*We are campaigning for the law reform*”. Also compare: **be in season/be out of season**.

8.5. The arrangement of senses

There is no explanation in the front-matter articles about how senses of a polysemous phrase are arranged. Here is a result of my survey ((1) and (2)

are added for comparison):

- (1) literal sense only (e.g. **carry sb or sth out**)
- (2) figurative sense only (with a ‘Figurative’ label) (e.g. **bring the house down**)
- (3) both literal and figurative senses shown
 - (3a) both literal and figurative senses shown under the same sense number (with a note: “Both literal and figurative uses”) (e.g. **bring sth out of mothballs**)
 - (3a’) with a note: “Also the obvious literal meaning” (e.g. **step on sb’s toes AND tread on sb’s toes**)
 - (3a’’) with no note (e.g. **bring sb or sth forward**)
 - (3b) literal sense followed by figurative sense(s) (with a ‘Figurative’ label) (e.g. **lay sth at sb’s feet AND put sth at sb’s feet**)
 - (3b’) without a ‘Figurative’ label (e.g. **bring sth down**)
 - (3c) figurative sense(s) followed by literal sense (with a ‘Figurative’ label) (e.g. **explode with sth**)
 - (3c’) without a ‘Figurative’ label (e.g. **cut sb to the quick AND cut sb to the bone**)

No definite principles have been found about the order of senses.

Senses can be arranged in order of transparency in meaning (like *LDOPV* and *ODOPV*), or of frequency (like *CCDPV*).

8.6. Strange or inappropriate definitions

Sometimes definitions do not match the construction being defined (e.g. **bandy with sb**: “to argue [with someone]; . . .”). Some definitions are misleading (e.g. **connect sb or sth (up) to sb or sth AND connect sb or sth (up) with sb or sth** (def. 1): “in one’s mind” can be misleading). Some definitions are too specific (e.g. **crow about sth AND crow over sth** (def. 1)). The definition of **sit on a gold mine** is verbose. The second sense of **induct sb into sth** is redundant.

9. Usage labels and usage notes

9.1. Usage labels

NTCPV explains stylistic varieties after a definition by terms such as ‘formal’, ‘informal’, ‘slang’, etc. They are treated as ‘usage labels’ in this

article.

9.1.1. Labels employed

Most of the labels are listed and explained in the glossary ("TERMS AND ABBREVIATIONS", pp. xv-xvii). Some labels are only mentioned in the publisher's blurb on the back cover ('cliché', 'folksy', and 'stilted'), and others are explained nowhere:

'euphemism' (**go to the bathroom** (def. 2)), 'euphemistic' (**give up the ghost**), '(an) exaggeration' (**hang sb for sth** (def. 2)), 'jargon' (**age out (of sth)**), 'literary' (**sin against sb or sth**), 'nonstandard' (**know where sth is at** (def. 1)), 'theatrical' (**dim sth up**), 'underground slang' (**take care of sb** (def. 2)).

Labels may be linked (e.g. 'stilted and jocular' (**swoon over sb or sth**), 'idiomatic slang' (**knock sb's block off**; see also 9.1.2)).

9.1.2. Synonymous labels

A serious problem about the labelling system of *NTCPV* is that some labels are defined in a circular way.

'Colloquial' and 'informal' are virtually synonymous:

colloquial: refers to spoken or informal language style . . . (p. xv)

informal: refers to a very casual expression that is most likely to be spoken and not written. (p. xvi)

In fact, they are considered interchangeable in **connect sth (up)(to sth)**: "Colloquial or informal with *up*". The whole sequence of **hit upon sb or sth** is 'colloquial' but the particle is 'formal'. It is confusing.

'Colloquial' overlaps with 'nonstandard' (see 9.1.1) to some extent: "Sometimes *colloquial* is used to describe an expression . . . that violates any rule of grammar or style" (p. xv). For instance, the second sense of **connect (up) with sb or sth** is 'informal' and the use of the *up* is 'colloquial'.

In *NTCPV* 'slang' refers to "highly playful spoken language involving an element of wordplay" (p. xvii). However, it partially overlaps with 'colloquial'. For example, **cut out** is a 'slang', while **cut out for some**

place is 'colloquial'.

'Figurative' and 'idiomatic' are also synonymous:

figurative: refers to nonliteral expressions. . . . Most *figurative* expressions are also *idiomatic* to some extent. (p. xvi)

idiomatic: refers to a phrase whose meaning cannot be figured out by studying the meanings of the individual words in the phrase. (ibid.)

For instance, **lead sb down the garden path** is 'figurative' but **lead sb up the garden path** is 'idiomatic'; **jump on the bandwagon** AND **leap on the bandwagon** are 'figurative', while **get on the bandwagon** AND **hop on the bandwagon** are 'idiomatic'. If the two labels are synonymous, the following usage note is confusing: "Idiomatic and figurative. Taken literally, this is nonsense" (**slip between the cracks**).

9.1.3. With or without a label?

Another serious problem is that labels are applied in an inconsistent manner. For instance, **con sb into sth** is a 'slang' but **con sb out of sth** is unmarked; **lay sth out (for sb)** is 'colloquial' but **lay sth out** is unmarked.

The label 'figurative' is very often omitted, leaving the phrase unmarked. A survey was conducted to every sense of every entry head consisting of 'come + particle' (except set phrases). The result clearly proves that:

figurative use	
with 'figurative'	0
with 'idiomatic'	1
with 'colloquial'	3
with no label	73
total	77
literal use	40

Applying a 'figurative' label in such a random way can confuse the foreign user.

9.2. Usage notes

A definition may be followed by notes or "comments" in parentheses (p. xi). They give various kinds of information other than that mentioned so

far and are usually useful (especially warnings about the use of offensive terms).

However, there are a few unclear or misleading comments. For instance, the note given in **tell (sb) on sb** is misleading; the note could mean “**tell on sb to sb**” is a possible construction. The note “Usually with *have*” (**go through the mill**) is also misleading; the *have* stands for both perfective *have* and *have* in *have to*. “Also without *away*, but not eligible as an entry” (**cower away from sb or sth**) is confusing; the note should be replaced with a better entry head: **cower (away)(from sb or sth)**. The comment “When both *out* and *of* are used, no direct object can intervene” given in **cut sth out (of sth)** AND **cut sth out (from sth)** could be replaced with an “F” example.

10. The cross-reference system

The cross-reference system assures that “the selection of the FIRST particle occurring after the verb will lead the user to the correct entry head” (p. ix). “Both index heads and an [sic.] entry heads appear in *slanted type* whenever they are referred to in a definition or cross-reference” (p. xiii).

When a phrase is treated as an alternate form of another phrase, it is cross-referenced (cf. 5.6).

The meaning of a phrase may be explained by another phrasal verb or verbal phrase (PV). There are different ways to do this:

- (1) shown in slanted type
 - (1a) PV only (e.g. **foul up**: to *mess up*.)
 - (1b) PV with usual definition (e.g. **louse sb or sth up**: to ruin something; to *mess sb or sth up*.)
- (2) shown in normal (i.e. roman) type (cf. 8.1.2)
 - (2a) PV only (e.g. **crinkle up**: to wrinkle up.)
 - (2b) PV with usual definition (e.g. **black out** (def. 1): to pass out; to become unconscious.)

The PVs shown in slanted type ((1a) and (1b)) function as a kind of cross-reference. The PVs shown in normal type ((2a) and (2b)) should be printed in slanted type, if they are included in *NTCPV* (see 8.1.2).

Notes to lead the user to other (usually synonymous and occasionally

antonymous) phrases may also be added in parentheses after a definition (p. xii):

- sit right with sb**: to be acceptable or understandable to someone. (Figurative. Very close to *sit well with sb*.) . . .
- sit well with sb**: to be acceptable to someone. (Figurative.) . . .

The former phrase can be explained in the entry for the latter phrase, and vice versa.

The most serious problem about the cross-reference system of *NTCPV* is that cross-references are very often shown in the one-way direction, even when the related phrases should be referred to from each other. For instance, **beat one's head against the wall** is cross-referenced from **bang one's head against a brick wall**, but not vice versa. Also compare: **be in over one's head (with sb or sth)/be in (sth) over one's head, butt in (on sb or sth)/butt out, dim sth down/dim sth up, leave word for sb to do sth/leave word with sb, start (off) with a clean slate/start (over) with a clean slate**.

Another problem is that cross-references are often omitted, even when the two entries are very closely related in meaning (e.g. **clash against sth** (def. 2)/**clash with sth, conk off/conk out, sit on sb or sth/sit (up) on sb or sth**).

Cross-referenced phrases may not be included in *NTCPV*; perhaps they were omitted carelessly. For instance, *lie about* and *build up* (used in the context of traffic) are mentioned in **lay around** AND **lay about** and **build down**, respectively, but they are not included in *NTCPV*.

11. Examples

It is true that “Each entry has at least two examples” (back cover). Examples are introduced by a box (□). The box is also used to show structural differences (see p. xiii). This is an excellent feature. For instance, the entry head **figure on sb or sth** means the particle always precedes the object, while **figure sb or sth out** means the particle usually comes after the object and a “**T**” example shows the particle can be transposed before the direct object. It is regrettable, however, that “**T**” is carelessly omitted

in some entries (e.g. **bash sb or sth around**, **count sth out**, **lay sth out on sb or sth** AND **lay sth out for sb or sth**, **turn sb out**).

11.1. Invented examples or citations?

There is no explanation about this question. It seems to me that (perhaps all) examples of this dictionary were written by the NTC lexicographers. There are a couple of reasons to guess so.

First, there are some unnatural examples: "*He accidentally left his grandfather out in the cold*" (**leave sb or sth out in the cold** (def. 1)), "*The cat came up to me and laid a mouse at my feet*" (**lay sth at sb's feet** AND **put sth at sb's feet** (def. 1)). Employing invented examples is one thing; showing unnatural examples is another.

Secondly, very similar examples are often repeated (e.g. "*I posed as Gerald and got the job*", "*I posed as a nurse and got a job at a summer camp*" (**pose as sb or sth**); see also **clap sb in(to) sth**, **float (up)on sth**, **fold back**, **throw sth across sb or sth**). Except cases where the same group of words are intentionally used to show different grammatical patterns, such examples provide less information and are not very interesting.

11.2. Set phrase?

When all the examples that are given of a particular (sense of a particular) combination contain the same set of words (except the verb and particles), the whole phrase could be treated as a fixed phrase (see 6.2.4).

11.3. The same example shown in different entries

The same example or very similar examples may be shown in different entries (see 5.5.2).

11.4. Examples and other information

One of the excellent features of *NTCPV* is that it spares a good deal of space for examples. Usually they illustrate all the possible grammatical patterns of an entry head. However, there are exceptions. For instance, "**with sth**" in **lay sb up (with sth)** is illustrated by none of the examples given there. The phrase being defined as "to make someone ill abed with

something, to debilitate someone with something", it is not clear what words can actually follow the preposition. See also: **fade back (into sth)**, **foul out (of sth)**.

The entry for **flutter over sb or sth** has a note "Also said of a person being fussy about someone or something", but neither of the two examples given there show this context. The examples in **fall off (of) a log** are both misleading; *of* is included in neither of them, even though the usage note reads "The *of* is colloquial, but almost always included in the expressions".

Examples employed to illustrate a set phrase often simply repeat the phrase itself. For instance, the following examples are not very useful: "*Blow it out your ear, you jerk!*", "*Oh, blow it out your ear!*" (**Blow it out your ear!**) See also **throw oneself at the mercy of the court** AND **throw oneself on the mercy of the court**. An example that shows a typical context would be useful in such entries.

11.5. Inappropriate examples

There are some examples which illustrate a different construction from that of an entry head. For instance, "*She could not distinguish between basil and oregano*" is a misleading example shown in **distinguish sb and sth from sb and sth**.

Some examples are totally irrelevant (e.g. **stop sth up**: "*The leaves that had fallen in the night clogged the storm sewer up*"). I counted 70 misleading or irrelevant examples in *NTCPV*. They should be corrected.

12. Conclusions

NTCPV is surely a useful reference book, particularly because it is "the only American dictionary of phrasal verbs". It is regrettable, however, that it has presented the problems mentioned so far. They can be summarised as follows:

(1) Differences in the information provided

The most crucial problem is that the information provided in *NTCPV* is not always reliable. It is often doubtful whether the differences in the information provided in different entries are really significant, particularly

in the following respects: (a) entry heads (5.2), (b) optional elements (5.5.3), (c) the indication of selectional restrictions (6.2.3, 6.2.4), (d) definitions (8.2.2), (e) usage labels (9.1.2, 9.1.3), (f) examples (11.3).

If a particular set of phrases are considered grammatically and/or semantically identical, they should be treated as such.

(2) Errors

Editorial errors as well as misprints will spoil the reliability of a reference book. For instance, **bicker (with sb)(about sb or sth) AND bicker (with sb or sth)(over sb or sth)** is confusing; "or sth" should be added in the former *with* phrase. I counted 40 errors and misprints except those in examples (11.5).

(3) The selection of phrases/senses

The definitions of 'phrasal verb' and 'particle' should be reviewed (3.1, 3.2), and more idiomatic phrases/uses could be included (3.3, 8.4). Perhaps the intended user groups should be more specific (2).

(4) Sources of information

Both the quality and the quantity of information can vary depending on the source of information. It is unclear what kinds of sources were employed to compile this dictionary (cf. 3.4, 11.1).

(5) Inconsistent presentation

The same kind of information should always be shown in the same manner, otherwise it becomes unclear whether or not a difference is meaningful (cf. 5.4, 6.2.5-6.2.11, 8.1.2, 10). *NTCPV* lacks consistency in arranging different senses of a phrase (8.5) and applying usage labels (especially 'figurative'; 9.1.3).

(6) Distinction of different kinds of information

On the other hand, different kinds of information should be distinguished from each other clearly. The indication of constructions (i.e. entry heads) may be reviewed in this respect (5.1, 6.1). Ambiguous descriptions

should be avoided (cf. 5.3).

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A nice dictionary, but how can I find what I want?
— On the *Longman Language Activator*

TAEKO TOMIOKA

Abstract:

A few years have passed since *Longman Language Activator* (henceforward *Activator*) was published as “the world’s first production dictionary”. In spite of the fact that this dictionary is filled with natural and authentic example sentences, inspiring definitions and a number of clever features to help students striving to convert meanings into words, it still doesn’t seem to have become very popular among Japanese students. In this paper, I will show how difficult it often is to get to what you want to say, especially for Japanese students of English. Then I will suggest how it could be improved.

Introduction

When *Activator* was published, everyone was surprised by its unprecedented attempt to help students express natural English. This dictionary was created based on a thorough study of various corpora, including second language learners’ corpus. Careful attention was paid to choosing only useful and common expressions for the production part of language activities. As is proudly stated in the introduction, this is an “encoding” dictionary, not a “decoding” dictionary. After browsing through this dictionary more carefully, I was even more impressed with its striking features. It is filled with useful expressions, authentic example sentences, and explanations to help students understand the differences among several expressions and their usage. Since this is fully described in Miyai et al. (1995) and Tomioka (1996), I’ll not repeat it here.

The problem arises when students have this dictionary in front of them,

have some idea they want to put into English and they don’t easily succeed in finding the expressions they want. I’ll discuss below several problems in the look-up system of this dictionary, show how it is actually difficult for Japanese students to find the expressions they want, based on an experiment I conducted, and then suggest some possible solutions to these problems.

Problems

Since this dictionary is completely written in English, users should start with the Key Word which they think represents or is related to the ideas they want to express. For example, if you are looking for the expression meaning “to walk very softly and stealthily on the tips of the toes, not to be heard,” you have to conclude that it is a manner of walking, so it should be under the Key Word **WALK**. Sure enough, as is shown in the Fig.1 below, it leads to the idea “to walk quietly with light steps” and then to the word “tiptoe” along with several other expressions like “pad,” “creep” or

WALK

- 1 to walk
- 2 to walk very quickly
- 3 to walk slowly and in a relaxed way
- 4 to walk slowly because you are tired and have been walking for a long time
- 5 to walk slowly and with difficulty, for example because of illness, pain, or old age
- 6 to walk in an unsteady way
- 7 to walk with heavy, noisy steps
- 8 to walk quietly with light steps
- 9 to walk proudly
- 10 to walk around a place without any particular aim
- 11 to walk for exercise and enjoyment
- 12 to walk through water
- 13 ways of saying that a group of people, especially soldiers, walk together at the same speed
- 14 to walk carefully and slowly, for example because it is dark or the ground is not level
- 15 an occasion when you walk somewhere, especially for exercise or enjoyment
- 16 a single movement made when you are walking
- 17 the way someone walks
- 18 someone who is walking rather than travelling in a car, bus etc, especially in the city
- 19 to take a person or dog out and walk with them in order to give them exercise

Fig. 1 Key Word WALK

8 to walk quietly with light steps

pad	tiptoe
creep	sneak

pad /pæd/ to walk quietly and steadily, without shoes or with soft shoes, or on a soft surface [v I]
pad along/down/in etc Nurse Garcia *padding ahead of the visitors down the long corridor.* | *The cat came padding softly across the kitchen floor and jumped into my lap.*

creep /kri:p/ to walk quietly, slowly, and carefully, especially so that no one notices you [v I]
creep in/through/across etc Sara *crept carefully down the stairs in the middle of the night and left the house.* | *Someone crept into the cloakroom and went through all our coats and bags.* | **creep up** (=creep towards) *I watched the cat creep up behind a bird.*

tiptoe /'tiptəʊ/ to walk on the front part of your feet but not on your heels, because you want to avoid making any noise [v I]
tiptoe past/through/around etc Bobby *tiptoed past his daughter's bedroom so as not to wake her.* | *They tiptoed from room to room, afraid to speak above a whisper.*

sneak /sni:k/ to walk quietly, trying to hide from someone, especially because you are doing something wrong and do not want to be caught [v I]
sneak in *The thieves sneaked in when the guard had his back turned.* | *Molly snuck in through the back yard so her parents wouldn't wake up and see how late it was.* | **sneak off** *We tried to sneak off from work early.*

Fig. 2 WALK 8 to walk quietly with light steps

“sneak” as in Fig. 2. In this dictionary ideas are grouped into 1052 semantic concepts called Key Words so that users can find the expressions only from the meaning. If users cannot think of or find an appropriate Key Word but they know a similar or related word to the idea, they can look for the words in a list of headwords, which is also alphabetically presented in the body of the dictionary. The list itself doesn't give any definition or explanation, but it leads to likely Key Words. In this case, if users cannot think of the Key Word, **WALK**, but do happen to know the expression “sneak”, then they can start there.

The question is whether this look-up system is efficient and friendly enough for the user. In other words, can the users easily think of an appropriate Key Word and that without taking too long?

One example shows there is a problem. If the user is looking for the expression meaning “squeeze the windpipe or neck of somebody, esp. so as to kill,” or “to kill someone by pressing on their throat with both hands or with something such as a piece of string,” what is the appropriate Key Word for that? “squeeze”, “neck”, “kill”, “murder” or “throat”? “squeeze” is found in the list of headwords and it leads to several Key Words as in Fig. 3, but none of them leads to the expression you want. “kill” is a Key Word and as is shown in Fig. 4, it does lead to several ways

squashed SQUASH 2
squashy SOFT 2
squat LIVE SOMEWHERE 2, LOW 3, SHORT PERSON 1, SIT 3
squat/squat down SIT 1
squeak SOUND 7
squeaky HIGH SOUND OR VOICE 1
squeal SCREAM 1, 2, TELL 11
squeeze FIT/BE THE RIGHT SIZE 5, GET 9, PRESS 5, 6, PUSH 6
squeeze: a light squeeze SPACE/ROOM 3
squeeze: it's a squeeze FIT/BE THE RIGHT SIZE 5
squeeze in TIME/HAVE TIME 4
squelch SOUND 16
squelchy SOFT 2
suint LOOK AT 6
suint EMBARRASSED 1, MOVE/CHANGE POSITION 5
suint LIQUID 5, SHORT PERSON 3
squishy SOFT 2
stab: have a stab at TRY TO DO OR GET STH 4
stab sb in the back BETRAY 2

Fig. 3 “squeeze” in the list of headwords

KILL

- 1 to kill someone
- 2 the act or crime of killing someone
- 3 an unsuccessful attempt to kill someone
- 4 someone who kills another person
- 5 likely to kill or intending to kill
- 6 ways of saying that something such as an accident, a disease, or a chemical causes death
- 7 words for describing something that can kill you
- 8 to kill a large number of people
- 9 the killing of a large number of people
- 10 to legally kill someone as a punishment for a serious crime
- 11 words for describing someone who is going to be killed as an official punishment to kill yourself
- 12 the painless killing of someone who is extremely ill
- 14 to kill an animal, for example in order to get food or to end the animal's suffering

Fig. 4 Key Word **KILL**

of killing a person, including capital punishment, euthanasia or suicide, but not the expression “strangle.” In this case, the appropriate Key Word was “breathe”. Key Word **BREATHE** has several express-

FINISH/COME TO AN END

- 1 ways of saying that an event, activity, story, situation etc ends
- 2 ways of saying that a period of time ends
- 3 ways of saying that the time that you have to do something in is finished
- 4 ways of saying that a problem or bad experience has ended
- 5 ways of saying that documents, tickets, agreements etc are no longer legal, or can no longer be used

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 1 ways of saying that an event, activity, story, situation etc ends | |
| end | come to an end |
| finish | be at an end |
| be over | |

end

[end] [v I]
The war in Vietnam finally ended in 1975. | Their marriage ended after only two years. | The question-and-answer session begins at 2.30. I'm not sure when it'll end. | The story ends on a hopeful note. | end with Our celebrations will end with a spectacular fireworks display. | The movie ended with everyone riding off into the sunset. | end in Our discussions always end in an argument.

finish [ˈfɪnɪʃ] if something such as a film, meeting, or lesson finishes at a particular time, it ends at that time [v I]
“What time does school finish?” “At 3.00.” | The movie should have finished by now. They'll be home soon. | Do you think their meeting will be finishing soon?

be over [bi: 'əʊvə] if an event or an activity is over, it has ended [phr v I]
The show should be over by ten, at the latest. | Let's go home. I think the party's just about over, anyway. | Right, that's the formal part of the interview over. Is there anything you'd like to ask us? | be all over (=be completely finished)

It's all over between me and Jerry. I'm leaving him. | That's it - Wimbledon is all over for another year.

come to an end [ˌkʌm tu ən 'endɪ] if a situation or event comes to an end, especially one that has continued for some time, it ends because it cannot continue any longer [v phrase]
When this temporary job comes to an end, I'll be unemployed again. | When she finally got to the barbecue, things were coming to an end, so she didn't stay long. | The team's run of success seems to have come to an end.

be at an end [bi: at ən 'endɪ] a formal expression: if something such as a meeting or conversation is at an end, it has ended because someone wanted it to end [v phrase]
I regret to say that our friendly relationship is now at an end. | The young man stood up, realizing that the interview was at an end.

Fig. 5 **FINISH/COME TO AN END**

1 ways of saying that an event, activity, story, situation etc. ends

STOP HAPPENING

- 1 to stop happening
- 2 ways of saying that a fire stops burning

- | | |
|---------------------|------------|
| 1 to stop happening | |
| stop | fizzle out |
| cease | peter out |
| come to an end | wear off |

stop [stɒp] [v I]
When will all the fighting stop? | Catherine stood watching the rain, hoping it would stop soon. | As suddenly as it had started, the hammering noise stopped. | Pollution will not stop unless you make it financially painful for the companies responsible.

cease [si:s] a formal or technical word meaning to stop happening [v I]
The malarial attacks occurred less frequently and after six months they had ceased. | Presently, the rain ceased and the sun came out, making the roads steam. | At absolute zero all molecular motion ceases.

come to an end [ˌkʌm tu ən 'endɪ] if something comes to an end, especially something that has been happening for a long time, it stops happening [v phrase]
When Mr Lewis retired, the company's annual day trips came to an end. | The college closed as a centre of agricultural research and their experiments came to an end in 1870. | All good things must come to an end.

fizzle out [ˈfɪzəl 'aʊt] an informal expression meaning to gradually stop happening, especially because people become less interested in it [phr v I]
Student protests usually fizzle out at examination time. | When we first moved here, he was really keen to do the decorating and cleaning, but that soon fizzled out.

peter out [ˈpi:tə 'aʊt] to gradually stop happening, for no particular reason [phr v I]
Our meetings were quite frequent at first, but then they just petered out. | Complaints about the school petered out and it began to re-establish its reputation.

wear off [ˌweɪə 'ɒf] if pain or the effect of something wears off, it gradually becomes less until it stops altogether [phr v I]
The effects of the anaesthetic will wear off within a few hours. | The shock has not worn off yet and he seems to be walking around in a daze. | The novelty wears off (=when you stop feeling interested or excited about something because it is no longer new) “He won't leave his new computer alone.” “Don't worry - the novelty will soon wear off.”

Fig. 6 Key Word **STOP HAPPENING**

ions like “choke” “suffocate” “strangle” and “smother” in its tenth meaning — “to kill someone by stopping them from breathing.” It is a little surprising and misleading not only for students but also for us English teachers that some manners of killing are grouped under **KILL**, while others are under **BREATHE**. Users may try all the possibilities above, and yet still find nothing.

Another problem is that similar expressions are under different Key Words and there is no way to go from one to another unless we think of other appropriate Key Words. For example, we would think the expression “to finish/end feebly” would be under the Key Word **FINISH/COME TO AN END** (see Fig. 5), because it is a manner of something coming to an end. But there we can only find the expressions meaning “finish/end” and the meaning we are looking for is, in fact, under **STOP HAPPENING** as is shown in Fig. 6. You need to be able to think of that Key Word to find some interesting expressions such as **fizzle out**, **peter out**, or **wear off**. Also another similar expression **die away** is under **DISAPPEAR**. (see Fig. 7) These words scattered under separate Key Words have very close meanings and it would be very useful for the users to be able to know where else other similar expressions might be, but there is no device in this dictionary to retrieve expressions similar to each other.

The last problem I'd like to present here is how many times the students have to turn pages to get to what they want. Unlike regular Japanese-English dictionaries, where you just go to Japanese headwords and the translations of those words are given, you have to first go

2 ways of saying that a sound, feeling etc disappears

<p>disappear ,dɪsə'piəʃ [v I] I was lying in bed with terrible back pain and suddenly the pain just disappeared. You need time to get over it. Grief doesn't disappear overnight, you know.</p> <p>fade away ,feɪd ə'weɪ to gradually disappear over a long time (phr v I) The laughter faded away when they realized that the man was actually dead. As the last notes of the song faded away the audience began to applaud wildly. The memory of the experience faded away over the following months.</p> <p>wear off ,weə 'ɒf -'ɔ:ʃ if something, especially the effect of something, wears off, the effect gradually disappears (phr v I) The pain seemed to get worse as the anaesthetic wore off. The effects of child abuse never wear off. Once the initial shock has worn off you'll realize that things aren't as bad as you first thought.</p> <p>go away ,gəʊ ə'weɪ if an unpleasant feeling, situation etc goes away, it disappears, especially when you have been trying to get rid of it for a long time (phr v I) I'm sure the problem will go away in the next week or so. I can't do anything to make this headache go away. His shyness soon went away when he started school.</p> <p>die away ,daɪ ə'weɪ a word used especially in literature meaning to gradually disappear (phr v I) As the rhythm of the music died away screams could be heard in the distance. The sound of the drumming hooves grew fainter and eventually died away.</p>	<p>go away die away</p>
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Fig. 7 **DISAPPEAR** 2 ways of saying that a sound, feeling etc. disappears

to the Key Word which you think is appropriate. Out of the several meanings given there, you then choose the one close to your idea, and then go to that section. There is, therefore, always one step more to take even if you can decide on the best Key Word. If the Key Word you first thought of doesn't work, then you have to double or triple these steps. The more the students have to turn pages, the more frustrating and less likable it will become to use this dictionary.

It is also really a shame not to be able to easily access the wonderful information Activator contains.

The Experiment

I conducted an experiment in order to see how easy or difficult it was for Japanese students to access the expressions they wanted. A questionnaire which looks like Fig. 8 (p. 26) was given to 35 junior college students (30 female and 5 male) at Sanno. They were between age 18 and 20. Their level of English was between low-intermediate and intermediate. None of them had used this dictionary before, nor had they known about this dictionary.

After a full explanation of the Key Word system using real examples, the students were asked to write down possible words or expressions they might use as a Key Word or they might look up in the list of headwords. The meanings were given as Japanese words. They had a 1052 Key Word list copied from the back part of Activator, but they didn't have an actual dictionary at hand. They were allowed to give as many as four candidates, but they were asked to write them in the order that they would look them up. If they could not come up with any appropriate English word, they were allowed to answer in Japanese. If they happened to know the exact expression for the meaning, they were also allowed to write it down along with other possible Key Words. Then their answers were scored depending on whether they would actually lead to the desired expressions.

Discussions

As is shown in Fig. 9 (p. 27), very few students successfully found the expressions. The most difficult ones were “prosecution” and “temporary,”

and only 6 to 8% succeeded, although for “talkative” and “burn,” about 60 to 70% did.

Table 1 below shows the overall performance of each student, in other words, out of ten meanings they were given, how many they got as their first choice — only a little over two. Even after adding their second to fourth choices, their success rate is only 37%. If they can find what they want only four times out of ten and that with lots of turning pages, you cannot blame the students for not wanting to use that dictionary.

Table 1 Average scores of finding the words

	First choice	Other choices	Total
Average/10	2.286	1.429	3.771

Table 2 on the next page shows all the words the students thought appropriate for the Key Words or look-up words. The numbers on the left of the words show how many students chose. The shadowed words are the ones which successfully led to the expressions and the numbers on the right in circle show how many times they had to turn pages to get to the expressions.

Table 2 suggests several problems Activator’s look-up system has:

- 1) It is tremendously difficult for students to find what they want in this dictionary unless their semantic association or grouping is exactly the same as Longman researchers’. And yet their categorization is not necessarily consistent.
- 2) The students often made very language specific associations.
- 3) You sometimes need to know the exact word to get to the expressions, which spoils the purpose of the dictionary.
[Examples] “temporary” in #1, “cure/treat” in #2, etc.
- 4) Even if you know words very close to the meaning, this look-up system sometimes fails to lead the user to the expressions.
[Examples] “fever” in #4, “crazy” in #5 “weight” in #8, etc.

Since the third and fourth problems are very obvious, let me talk about the first two problems. “talkative” in #9 and “prolific” in #10 are each likely to be grouped under “talk,” “much/a lot” and “produce/make,” “much/a lot” respectively. But actually, “talkative” can be found from the

Table 2 The words students chose as Key Words or look-up words

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
臨時の一時的な temporary 23 fine 9 short 3 temporary 3 sudden(y) 3 special 3 little 3 immediate(y) 3 sometimes 3 part/part time 2 one time always at once continuous exception extra hurry just keep limit moment on permanent seldom stop train urgent vacation watch 仮の	治す・治療する cure/treat 14 hospital 12 care 6 treatment 6 sick 5 treat 2 illness 8 doctor 4 cure 2 well 2 repair 2 medicine 2 hurt 2 body ache do ache drug examine head kill leg mend pain patient recover symptom take care x-ray	やけどする burn oneself 19 fire 14 hot 9 heat 6 injure/injury 6 burn 3 skin 3 cool 2 body 2 water 2 stove 2 hand ache blister do electric foot oven sun sunburn suntan touch	熱がある feverish 17 hot 14 cold 12 heat 11 sick/ill 9 fever 2 headache 2 head temperature aspire call catch cool disease have ice measure sluggish tired	夢中になる crazy about 21 dream 6 hard 5 like interested interesting 3 hobby 2 study 2 sleep 2 heat absorbed love interest become bury concentrate crazy do nothing but excited fan fumatic fever forget hope in night only running straight try work 必死 熱心な 没頭する	潜水する submerge 26 water 10 swim(ming) 5 sink 9 down 4 under 6 sea 8 dive/diving 3 submarine 2 ship 2 in 2 boat bottom cave deep flood into knack marine river through undersea	検閲例 prosecution 17 polluted(men) 6 judge 4 trial 4 law 4 court 3 lawyer 2 judgement 2 examine defendant defense 2 criminal 2 crime accuse chairperson check defend disclosure justice offense officer plaintiff prison protection question research side support 正義の味方	やせる lose weight 22 diet 10 slim 8 fat 5 thin 5 food 3 weight 3 slender 3 down 2 smart 2 eat burn decrease healthy heavy lessen light limit little meat narrow shape sharp sick size sport sunk thinly weaken woman	多弁な talkative 21 speak 3 talk 7 many/much talkative 4 speaker 3 word(s) 3 noise/noisy 2 tell 2 speech 2 language 2 chat 2 a lot say chairman comedian eloquent more politician shut up speechful speed voice well	多産な prolific 16 many/much 10 born 6 child 4 produce 4 make 4 a lot 2 product 2 pregnant 2 mother 2 money 2 bear 2 baby big birth create dog full goods lie long many children more parent plenty of rich

words **talk**, **speak**, **say**, but not from **much/a lot**, while “prolific” can be only found from **much/a lot**, not from **produce/make**. In the same way, “submerge” is searchable from the Key Word **DOWN**, but “lose weight” is not, even if you can think a person’s weight “goes down”. The Key Word **DOWN** has various meanings concerning several things going down; such as the sun, an airplane, a person, a car, etc. It also includes something with less physical movement such as **demote**, **downgrade**, but it does not include “The airplane crashes,” “The stock market slumps,” or “The company goes bankrupt.” This shows how the semantic categorization is often very unpredictable and it takes a lot of trial and error to get to what you want.

The second problem is that some associations the students made seem very language specific. For example, because of Kanji compounds *muchuu* (dream + in) — “be crazy about” and *sensui* (dive + water) — “submerge,” or *ichijitekina* (one + time) — “temporary,” 60 to 75% students answered “dream,” “water” and “time” as their candidates. Some semantic association is strongly influenced by the user’s native language. In the same way, Japanese students tend to look for the expression “His reputation is damaged,” and “corrupt” under **DOWN**, because in Japanese “the reputation goes down” is a very idiomatic expression and “corrupt” is remembered as a Kanji compound *daraku* (fall + down).

Conclusion

Since it is almost impossible to make the semantic categorization perfect and also it is inconceivable to force the users to abandon their language specific association, or to learn the Activator’s look-up system thoroughly, what we need is a comprehensive mutual look-up system and an index in the user’s native language.

If some manners of killing are grouped under **BREATHE**, and not under **KILL**, there should be a cross reference which indicates the other ones. Then **fizzle out**, **peter out**, **wear off**, **fade away**, **die away** can be easily reached and we can find the expressions **defendant**, **prosecution**, **jury**, **attorney**, **plaintiff**, etc. just by looking up the word “court.” These links to connect similar or related expressions should be much more pow-

erful to make consulting a dictionary more interesting and fruitful.

An index in Japanese might make this dictionary even thicker, but it would solve all the frustration of trying to think of a good Key Word. As shown in Table 2, it was comparatively easy for some words such as “burn” in #3, “feverish” in #4, “submerge” in #6 or “talkative” in #9. About half the students got what they wanted. But for some other words it was almost impossible to think of good Key Words, while the students knew exactly what they were looking for in Japanese. Longman Essential Activator, a reduced and more friendly-looking version of this dictionary was recently published. It has a list of headwords at the back instead of in the body of the dictionary. In the same way, Activator’s Japanese index could be arranged at the back of the dictionary alphabetically, mixed up with the headword and Key Word list.

Finally, the problem of all the page-turning would be solved by making this dictionary electronic, like one on a CD-ROM. Then the thickness or heaviness of the dictionary would be nothing but an advantage and it could include more example sentences or more usage or grammatical explanations if necessary. We wouldn’t have to worry about the physical size of the dictionary.

It might take another few years of research and a lot of manpower to realize all which was suggested here, especially because if Japanese students need a Japanese index, students speaking other languages need indexes in other languages too. But I’m sure then all students would fall in love with this dictionary.

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Fig. 8 Questionnaire

Longman Language Activator に関する調査

どちらかに○をつけてください

男性・女性

- (例1) 有り難く思う thank, obliged, grateful, appreciate 感謝する
- (例2) 盗み聞きをする listen, hear, steal, pay attention 盗聴する
- (例3) 万引きする steal, shop, pick up 盗む
- (例4) 昇進する up, go up, move up, step up, job

下記の日本語のような「意味」の英語を見つけるのにふさわしいと思うキーワードまたは英単語を思いつく限り書いて下さい。ただし、一番可能性の高いと思われるものから書いて下さい。
もし英単語がどうしても思い浮かばないときは、日本語の単語でもいいです。

- 1 随時の・一時的な () () () ()
- 2 治す・治療する () () () ()
- 3 やけどする () () () ()
- 4 熱がある () () () ()
- 5 夢中になる () () () ()
- 6 潜水する () () () ()
- 7 検察側 () () () ()
- 8 やせる () () () ()
- 9 多弁な () () () ()
- 10 多産な () () () ()

以上です。ご協力有り難うございました！

Fig. 9 Percentage of the students finding the words



An Analysis of ILC's 'Dictionary Analyses'

KYOHEI NAKAMOTO

1. Introduction

The present issue of the *Lexicon* is dedicated to Mr Yoshiro Kojima, Professor Emeritus of Linguistics at Waseda University and vice-chairman of the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle (ILC), celebrating his seventieth birthday. He is one of the pioneers who established a unique tradition of 'dictionary analyses'. The ILC has reviewed or 'analysed' some thirty monolingual English dictionaries since 1968, so that our circle also celebrates the thirtieth anniversary of its dictionary analyses this year.

The first of this series reviewed *The Penguin English Dictionary* (PED1), a dictionary now almost forgotten, and was published in a scholarly journal in 1968. Two more analyses followed it in 1969–71. In 1972 the ILC started its annual *Lexicon*, and since then the dictionary analyses have been published in it, except for the two that were contributed to the *International Journal of Lexicography*.

Now it's time to analyse these dictionary analyses. This article, which is also dedicated to Professor Kojima, tries to achieve this goal rather than looking back on the history of the ILC itself. For those who are interested in the latter topic the main articles published in our annual *Newsletter* are informative.

2. What dictionaries have been analysed?

Ideally, every dictionary should be reviewed, as Chapman (1977: 159) dreams. But this is obviously impossible, and we always have to choose a dictionary to review from a wide range of new dictionaries. The choice is therefore as important as the manner of review.

What are the criteria for deciding a dictionary to review? The present author is curious to know what kinds of dictionaries have most often interested dictionary critics:

It should reveal interesting facts if we classify the dictionaries that were reviewed according to dictionary type . . . intended users . . . size . . . and so on. (Nakamoto 1994: 42)

As mentioned in Section 1, the first dictionary reviewed by our circle (i.e. PED1) was a rather surprising choice, at least from the viewpoint of the lexicographical scene in late-90s. Since then twenty-eight more dictionaries, general-purpose or specialised, have been reviewed, not counting those reviewed in the present issue.

It should be noted, however, that most of ILC's analyses are 'comparative reviews' (Nakamoto 1994: 34). Thus, the number of the dictionaries actually reviewed is much larger. In Table 1 the dictionaries reviewed and those mainly compared are arranged in a chronological order of the analyses. The table also shows when these dictionaries and their analyses were published¹⁾ (for the abbreviations used, see the end of this article):

Table 1

	Dictionaries reviewed	Dictionaries mainly compared
1968	PED1 (1965)	COD5 (1964), WCD7 (1963), RHD1 (1966), W3 (1961)
1969–70	NWD1 (1953)	ACD (1947), WCD6 (1949)
1971	NWD2 (1970)	NWD1 (1953), WCD7 (1963), RHCD1 (1968), AHD1 (1969)
1974	EWD (1971) + CTCD (1972)	COD5 (1964)
1975	OALD3 (1974)	ISED (1942), ALD2 (1963)
1977	COD6 (1976)	COD5 (1964)
1979–80	LDOCE1 (1978)	OALD3 (1974)
1981	CED1 (1979)	WCD8 (1973), RHCD2 (1975), NWD2 (1970), COD6 (1976)
1982	CULD (1980)	LDOCE1 (1978), OALD3 (1974)
1985	WCD9 (1983)	WCD8 (1973), AHD2 (1982), RHCD2 (1975), CED1 (1979), NWD2 (1970)
1986	LDAE (1983)	LDOCE1 (1978), LASDE1 (1983), OALD3 (1974),

	+ OSDAE	(1983)	OSDCE1 (1978)
1987	POD7	(1984)	POD6 (1978), COD7 (1982), CPED (1981), AHDP (1983)
1988	BBI	(1986)	LDOCE1 (1978), LDOCE2 (1987), and some other collocational dictionaries
1989	COB1	(1987)	LDOCE2 (1987), OALD3 (1980/1985)
1989-90	LDOCE2	(1987)	LDOCE1 (1978)
1990	NWD3	(1988)	NWD2 (1970), WCD9 (1983), RHCD2 (1975)
1990-91	OEDCD1	(1989)	OED1 (1884-1928)
1991	RHD2	(1987)	RHD1 (1966), NWD3 (1988), WCD9 (1983)
1992	OALD4	(1989)	OALD3 (1985), LDOCE2 (1987), COB1 (1987)
1992	COD8	(1990)	COD7 (1982), POD7 (1984)
1993-94	PESD	(1991)	OALD4 (1989), LDOCE2 (1987), PED2 (1969)
1994	LDEL2	(1991)	COD8 (1990), CED3 (1991)
1995	LLA	(1993)	LDOCE2 (1987), OALD4 (1989), COB1 (1987), LLCE (1981)
1996	CIDE	(1995)	LDOCE3 (1995), OALD5 (1995), COB2 (1995)
1996	OALD5	(1995)	OALD4 (1989)
1997	COB2	(1995)	COB1 (1987), OALD5 (1995)
1997-	NTCPV	(1993)	—

Table 1 does not exhaust the dictionaries mentioned in each review — other dictionaries are occasionally compared²⁾ and specialised dictionaries like those of pronunciation and etymology are often consulted.

What do we learn from the table above? The fact that dictionary publishing never stops, and neither does our analysis! This is not the only finding, of course. The following more serious facts have been revealed:

(1) General-purpose adult dictionaries, whether they are those for native speakers or for foreign learners, have been by far the most frequently reviewed. In other words, specialised dictionaries and dictionaries for young users have been rather neglected.

(2) So-called 'EFL dictionaries' are more and more catching our attention. This is obviously because such dictionaries are now flourishing on the dictionary market, and probably because the ILC members, most of whom are English teachers as well as foreign learners of English themselves, are more interested in this genre.

(3) There are two types of comparative review: synchronic and diachronic (Nakamoto 1994: 35). In a synchronic review, the same or

similar types of dictionaries are compared with each other, while in a diachronic review, older editions are very often compared with their latest descendant. Thus, considering which dictionaries to compare is as important as considering which dictionaries to review. The comparison could be meaningless if we choose dictionaries to compare just at random. It can be claimed that the ILC's analysis series has been providing reliable dictionary reviews in this respect.

3. What features of the dictionary have been reviewed?

Lexicography is a rather strange subject. In it, theory can make hardly any sense unless it is applied to the actual product (i.e. the dictionary), and practice should be based on a sound theory of linguistics and lexicography (cf. Nakao 1972: 52). If this is true, it is also true that a highly theoretical metalexicographical essay, however impressive it may be, is not very useful for lexicographical practitioners, nor is an amateurish dictionary review, however interesting it may be (cf. Landau 1984: 305). This does not mean that dictionary reviews are metalexicographically worthless. On the contrary, "If the reviewer is given the opportunity to use enough space, the review may turn out to be an essay on lexicographical matters" (Steiner 1984: 167). Metalexicography is a rather strange subject, too, because making a clear-cut distinction between theoretical essays and practical articles is almost meaningless.

One of the distinctive features of ILC's dictionary analyses is their comprehensiveness. Table 2 is given to prove this, which shows what features of the dictionary macro- and micro-structures have been discussed in each analysis. Note that the table was compiled exclusively based on the heading of each section of each analysis, such as 'Entries', 'Pronunciations', 'Definitions', and so on. Some features are treated in passing without being given a separate section.³⁾ Note also that the analyses of BBI, OEDCD1, LLA, and NTCPV are excluded from the table, for these dictionaries have quite different macro- and micro-structures and thus their reviews also have different structures themselves. This may remind us of the fact that presumably there exists no 'checklist' for reviewers who try to examine such specialised dictionaries.

Table 2⁴⁾

	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨	⑩	⑪	⑫
PED1	✓	✓		✓			✓		✓			
NWD1	✓	✓		✓		(✓)	✓	✓	✓	✓		
NWD2	✓	✓		✓		(✓)	✓	✓	✓	✓		
EWD + CTCD	✓	✓		✓								
OALD3	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓						
COD6	✓	✓		✓	✓				✓	✓		
LDOCE1	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓
CED1	✓	✓	✓	✓						✓		
CULD	✓	✓		✓	✓	(✓)	✓					
WCD9	✓	✓		✓			✓			✓		
LDAE + OSDAE	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	
POD7	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		
COB1	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓					
LDOCE2	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	
NWD3	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		
RHD2	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
OALD4	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					
COD8	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓		
PESD	✓	✓		✓	✓	(✓)	✓					
LDEL2	✓	✓		✓								
CIDE	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓						
OALD5	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓					✓
COB2	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓					

① word coverage and entry structure ② pronunciations ③ syllabication
 ④ definitions and arrangement of senses ⑤ verbal illustrations ⑥ gram-
 matical information ⑦ usage labels and/or usage notes ⑧ synonym essays
 ⑨ treatment of set phrases ⑩ etymological information ⑪ pictorial
 illustrations ⑫ appendices

What do we learn from the table above? The fact that the features absent from the dictionary to be reviewed cannot be reviewed! For instance, neither COB1 nor COB2 has used pictorial illustrations, and therefore their analyses have not given separate sections to this feature. However, the reviewer could argue that the usefulness of these dictionaries should have been strengthened by pictorial illustrations.

Table 2 should also reveal the following facts:

(1) There are three areas that are always treated, namely, word coverage and entry structure, pronunciations, and definitions and arrangement of senses. Since meaning is the most frequently consulted information category (cf. Svensén 1993: 14) and thus semantic information cannot be dispensed with in any general-purpose dictionary, the most important part of a dictionary review should also be about semantic information.

(2) Compared to the generous treatment of meaning, verbal illustrations have not been given the same status as semantic descriptions. This is rather strange if we consider the importance of verbal illustrations, invented or quoted, in a general-purpose dictionary. The ILC's reviews did consider strong and weak points of illustrative examples particularly in the EFL dictionaries, but not necessarily in the dictionaries for native speakers. However, this failure should NOT be attributed to our circle's negligence — it only reveals another fact that traditionally dictionaries targeted at native speakers do not contain as many examples as in typical EFL dictionaries. Similarly, grammatical information is usually associated with the EFL type of dictionary.

(3) On the other hand, traditionally EFL dictionaries do not offer etymological information, nor do they have synonym essays per se, although semantically related words are very often discussed in their 'usage notes'.

(4) If ideally *every* dictionary should be reviewed (see 2), then *every* feature of each dictionary should be reviewed. However, excessively comprehensive reviews could run a risk of obscuring the important features of the dictionary reviewed. Deciding which features of the dictionary to examine is as important as deciding which dictionaries to review.

Where should the reviewer start reviewing? Firstly, s/he should look for distinctive features of the dictionary reviewed. The easiest way to find them is to read the compiler's introduction and/or the publisher's blurb, which is often given on the dictionary's back cover. If it is called a 'revolutionary' work, the first thing the critic must do is to consider why it is revolutionary. Both potential users and lexicographers are probably interested in the dictionary's brand-new feature(s). Satisfying their curiosity is an essential job of the critic.

Secondly, if the dictionary reviewed is a revised edition, a diachronic

approach is useful (see 2). In other words, the critic should ask how 'new' it is. S/he should keep in mind the weak features found in its previous edition. Incidentally, it would be interesting to chronologically review different editions of the same dictionary, focussing on a specific feature (e.g. collocational information). Such a review could reveal how not only the dictionary examined but also the lexicography itself has been developed. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, there is no clear-cut boundary indeed between dictionary reviews and (meta)lexicographical essays.

Note that a new edition may also be compared with its competitor(s).

4. The future of ILC's dictionary analyses

The discussion in the former sections and the two tables may lead to the conclusion that the ILC has been supplying systematic and reliable dictionary reviews for such a long time.

However, there is much to be done. The present author would like to dedicate the rest of this article to our young members who are potential 'dictionary analysts' — in fact, some of them have already started their careers as dictionary critics.

(1) There are still a large number of dictionaries worth reviewing. If trying to review *every* (English) dictionary is too ideal and virtually impossible, we cannot escape from such criticisms as 'Why hasn't the Dictionary X been analysed when its competitor Y did catch the reviewers' attention?', 'Aren't new editions very interesting? Their ancestors were thoroughly analysed . . .', etc. *Harrap's* (now re-named *Chambers*) *Essential English Dictionary* (1995), COD9 (1995), and WCD10 (1993) are such dictionaries, to name but a few.⁵⁾

(2) There are also dictionary categories that have been almost totally neglected. Specialised dictionaries such as dictionaries of idioms, phrasal verbs, synonyms, slang terms, pronunciations, etymologies, and so on are probably worth reviewing, and so are dictionaries for young users, whether they are native speakers or foreign learners of the target language (see 2). Such analyses could provide useful 'checklists' for other reviewers of the dictionaries that belong to these categories.

In passing, we should pay more and more attention to electronic dictionaries.

(3) We could consider different 'perspectives' of the review (cf. Nakamoto 1994: 31–32). Traditionally, ILC's analyses have been made from the viewpoint of (Japanese) lexicographers (Nakao 1972: 52), and it makes our series distinctive. However, this is not the only way to look at the dictionary. A new type of dictionary analysis, say, from the viewpoint of the dictionary user, could be introduced (cf. Higashi 1996: 2). In fact, the importance of looking at existing dictionaries from the user's perspective has been repeatedly emphasised especially by European dictionary researchers. Hartmann (1989: 182) reminds us of the necessity of research of this sort:

What we need is not more dogma about what should be included in the dictionary, but more research on the real uses of dictionaries by real learners in real settings.

To relieve his frustration, one could evaluate a dictionary, analysing at the same time the results from a survey conducted to find out *real* (Japanese) learners' reactions to the dictionary reviewed.

It would also be interesting if two groups of analysts review the same dictionary from different perspectives at the same time, for example, one from the perspective of the lexicographer and the other from that of the language learner and dictionary user. The same (feature of the same) dictionary could be assessed quite differently.

(4) Rather surprisingly, English-Japanese dictionaries for Japanese learners of English (EJs) had never been analysed, even though they are the most familiar and the most important dictionaries for us, until a group of younger members of the ILC launched a new research project — they are analysing historic EJs one by one. This long-term ambitious study will surely give us a new insight into the complicated and rather mysterious history of EJs.

Is this all we have to do? Wait. There is one more mysterious area in the history of Japanese lexicography: Japanese-English dictionaries for Japanese learners of English (JEs). Their development had been much slower

than that of EJs. However, JEs are now in full bloom on the dictionary market in Japan. The seed that brought the blossom was Professor Kojima's *Kenkyusha Lighthouse Japanese-English Dictionary* (1984), which was acclaimed by many English teachers in Japan as his masterpiece. Both its third edition (1996) and its sister edition, the *Kenkyusha College Lighthouse Japanese-English Dictionary* (1995), continue to be essential works for healthy growth of that genre.

NOTES

- 1) The analyses of PED1, NWD1, and NWD2 were published in the *Denkitsu-shindaigaku Gappo* (University of Electro-Communications), those of COD8 and LDEL2 in the *IJL*, and the others in the *Lexicon*. Eleven analyses were reprinted in *Eigojisho no Hikaku to Bunseki* [Comparative Analyses of English Dictionaries] published in 1981 (1st and 2nd volumes) and in 1989 (3rd and 4th volumes).
- 2) For instance, the *Longman Handy Learner's Dictionary* (1988) is mentioned in the analysis of OALD4.
- 3) For instance, strong and weak points of OALD4's pictorial illustrations are discussed in the definition section in the analysis of OALD4.
- 4) In Table 2 '✓' signifies that the feature concerned is discussed in the analysis. In some analyses grammatical descriptions of the dictionary are reviewed under the heading of 'Usage'. This is indicated by the symbol '(✓)'.
(✓)
- 5) The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, Encyclopedic Edition (1992) and the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (1992) are being reviewed.

ABBREVIATIONS

ACD	<i>The American College Dictionary</i> . Random House. 1947.
AHD1	<i>The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language</i> . Heritage. 1969.
AHD2	<i>The American Heritage Dictionary</i> . 2nd College Ed. Houghton Mifflin. 1982.
AHDP	<i>The American Heritage Dictionary</i> . Based on the New 2nd College Ed. Dell. 1983.
ALD2	<i>The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English</i> . 2nd Ed. OUP. 1963.
BB1	<i>The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English: A Guide to Word Combinations</i> . John Benjamins. 1986.
CED1/3	<i>Collins Dictionary of the English Language</i> . Collins. 1979. 3rd Ed. 1991.

CIDE	<i>Cambridge International Dictionary of English</i> . CUP. 1995.
COB1	<i>Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary</i> . Collins. 1987.
COB2	<i>Collins COBUILD English Dictionary</i> . New Ed. HarperCollins. 1995.
COD5/6/7/8/9	<i>The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English</i> . Clarendon Press. 5th Ed. 1964. 6th Ed. 1976. 7th Ed. 1982. 8th Ed. 1990. 9th Ed. 1995.
CPED	<i>Collins Pocket Dictionary of the English Language</i> . Collins. 1981.
CTCD	<i>Chambers Twentieth Century Dictionary</i> . Chambers. 1972.
CULD	<i>Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary</i> . Chambers. 1980.
EWD	<i>Encyclopedic World Dictionary</i> . Hamlyn. 1971.
ISED	<i>Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary</i> . Kaitakusha. 1942.
LASDE1	<i>Longman Active Study Dictionary of English</i> . Longman. 1983.
LDAE1	<i>Longman Dictionary of American English: A Dictionary for Learners of English</i> . Longman. 1983.
LDEL2	<i>Longman Dictionary of the English Language</i> . Longman. New Ed. 1991.
LDOCE1/2/3	<i>Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English</i> . 1978. New Ed. 1987. 3rd Ed. 1995.
LLA	<i>Longman Language Activator: The World's First Production Dictionary</i> . Longman. 1993.
LLCE	<i>Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English</i> . Longman. 1981.
NTCPV	<i>NTC's Dictionary of Phrasal Verbs and Other Idiomatic Verbal Phrases</i> . National Textbook Company. 1993.
NWD1/2	<i>Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language</i> . College Ed. World. 1953. 2nd College Ed. 1970.
NWD3	<i>Webster's New World Dictionary of American English</i> . 3rd College Ed. Simon & Schuster. 1988.
OALD3/4/5	<i>Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English</i> . OUP. 3rd Ed. 1974/1980/1985. 4th Ed. 1989. 5th Ed. 1995.
OED1	<i>The Oxford English Dictionary</i> . Clarendon Press. 1884-1928.
OEDCD1	<i>The Oxford English Dictionary on CD-ROM</i> . NEC PC-9800 Version. Kinokuniya-shoten. 1989.
OSDAE	<i>Oxford Student's Dictionary of American English</i> . OUP. 1983.
OSDCE1	<i>Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English</i> . OUP. 1978.
PED1/2	<i>The Penguin English Dictionary</i> . Penguin. 1965. 2nd Ed. 1969.
PESD	<i>Penguin English Student's Dictionary</i> . Penguin. 1991.
POD6/7	<i>The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English</i> . Clarendon Press. 6th Ed. 1978. 7th Ed. 1984.
RHCD1	<i>The Random House Dictionary of the English Language</i> . College Ed. Random House. 1968.
RHCD2	<i>The Random House College Dictionary</i> . Random House. 1975.
RHD1/2	<i>The Random House Dictionary of the English Language</i> . Random

- House. 1966. 2nd Ed. 1987.
- W3 *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language*. Merriam. 1961.
- WCD6 *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*. 6th Ed. Merriam. 1949.
- WCD7 *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary*. Merriam. 1963.
- WCD8 *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*. 8th Ed. Merriam-Webster. 1973.
- WCD9 *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary*. Merriam-Webster. 1983.
- WCD10 *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*. 10th Ed. Merriam-Webster. 1993.

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The Treatment of Vulgar Words in Major English Dictionaries (2)¹⁾

HIROAKI UCHIDA

3. Dictionaries in the U.S.

Now let us examine Table 1 horizontally and see how each dictionary in the U.S. has treated these vulgar terms in its editorial history.

ACD is the second oldest dictionary of those listed in Table 1. It was first published by Random House in 1947, and has never really been fully revised up to the present. Therefore one may instantly doubt whether it can be called a *modern* dictionary. But although not fully revised, *ACD* had constantly been reprinted with minor revisions until the 1970s, and certainly had once been "the latest record of current usage made by any dictionary staff since World War II" as critics of that time had commented. At the time of its appearance, *W₂* was already out of date for its prewar publication, and that *ACD* was born to be the first postwar *modern* dictionary was not an exaggeration. Telling the cruel fact that Random House has been "putting its lexicographical energies into" *RHD* and *RHC* since their publication and not into *ACD* anymore, and pointing to its weakened authority/out-of-date contents as compared to his theory "the estimated life of a college dictionary today is about ten or at most fifteen years", Kister also evaluates its semipermanent usefulness and informativeness which lead to its long-lasting popularity (Kister 1977: 63).

However, in respect to the treatment of vulgar words, *ACD* was not as innovative as it should have been. As is clear from Table 1, almost all of the vulgar words referring to sex and excretion are omitted. The prejudiced attitude toward them are most strikingly expressed in "Usage Levels and Dialect Distribution" written by Charles C. Fries in the explanatory pages of *ACD* as follows:

Some words and expressions occur primarily in the language of those without much conventional education. These expressions are often called "illiterate" or "vulgar English," and are considered "incorrect." As a matter of fact, many of these expressions are survivals from an older period of the language and are "incorrect" only in the sense that they do not occur in the usage of standard English — the practice of the socially accepted, those who are carrying on the important affairs of English-speaking people. Much of the language spoken by the uneducated is the same as that of the polite conversation of cultivated people and also duplicates the expressions of formal literacy discourse. The usage labels in a dictionary attempt to mark only those expressions that are peculiar to a particular type or dialect of English (xxv).

It is very difficult to understand the meaning of this inconsistent passage without asking the following questions. First, is "vulgar English" the same as "illiterate"? If "many of these expressions" were "survivals from an older period of time," they should often have appeared in classic literature, which is an actual fact. Then how can they be called "illiterate"? Secondly, what is the meaning of "those carrying on the important affairs of English-speaking people"? And finally, are the marked expressions on the dictionary really peculiar to "a particular type of English," or English of "the uneducated"? An outdated theory like this would not be supported by many now, but it was the time when the war had ended, and this kind of remark would have caused less social attack than it would now. In any case, *ACD* had never been progressive or instructive as far as slang and vulgar words were concerned, which is about all to be said about the historical significance of this dictionary from the viewpoint of this study.

AHD is generally regarded as the first American dictionary to record the worst-reputed four-letter word in the history; *fuck*. Béjoint points this rather surprisingly: "The first American dictionary ever to record the word *fuck* was — surprisingly enough, considering the prescriptive stance of the compilers — *AHD* (except for the Texan edition), published in 1969" (Béjoint 1994: 127).² However, it was not surprising at all, for one of the editors Norman Hoss states their policy clearly in explaining the 'Vul-

gar' label in the Guide to the Dictionary as follows:

The label *Vulgar* warns of social taboo attached to a word. A straightforward denotative vulgar sense of a word is distinguished from a slang sense. The label *Vulgar* therefore appears both alone and as *Vulgar Slang*; for example *snot* is labeled *Vulgar*, *snotty*, *Vulgar Slang*. No word is omitted merely because of taboo (xlvi).

Perhaps the editors of *AHD* were willing to pick a square fight with *WNW*, whose stance as we will see later was then completely opposite to theirs. At least *AHD* was never so 'prescriptive' on the treatment of vulgar words, for their positive stance on it was as clear as that of *PED*, to be examined in the part (3) of this study.

When the second edition of *AHD* was released in 1982 as *2nd college edition*, their policy toward the former *Vulgar* words had changed, perhaps in a little more indirect and passive direction owing to its shift from a standard to a college edition.³ Two of the compounds, *bullshit* and *son of a bitch* are dropped from its entry. What is more, they set up the three-stage usage labels to explain the taboo words more clearly as follows:

Vulgar. The label *Vulgar* warns of social taboos attached to a word; the label may appear alone or in combination as *Vulgar Slang*.

Obscene. A term that is considered to violate accepted standards of decency is labeled *Obscene*.

Offensive. This label is reserved for terms such as racial slurs that are not only insulting and derogatory, but a discredit to the user as well.

(Guide to the Dictionary: 49)

And how these three labels classified the terms listed in table 1 is shown below in Table 3. It is easy to see at one glance, for most of the terms are concentrated in the *Vulgar* (or *Vulgar Slang*) column. There are only three terms from Table 1 with *Obscene* label, three of the Big Six, which probably means that these are the three and only words in *AHD*₂ with this label. It is a sheer mystery why only *jerk off* got the *Offensive Slang* label along with other racial slurs like *Polack* or *Jap*, or how *cock* escaped from the *Vulgar* or *Obscene* label and just got *Slang*. Anyway, the labeling in *AHD*₂ was significant in separating vulgar words from racial

<i>Vulgar</i>	fart ● ass ○ tit ● turd ● bugger ●
+ <i>Slang</i>	piss ● fart ○ screw ● pussy ●○ dick ● prick ●○ balls ● ass ○ crap ●○ turd ○
<i>Obscene</i>	fuck ●○ cunt ●○ shit ●○
<i>Offensive</i>	jerk off ●
<i>Slang</i>	cock ● queer ● bitch ●○ balls ○ bastard ○ bugger ○ faggot ○

● = literal ○ = figurative

Table 3 Classification of the terms by the usage labels in *AHD*₂.

slurs, which *AHD* had failed to do, but not so much in breaking down vulgar words into smaller groups.

When it comes to *AHD*₃, however, a slight modification can be seen. The three labels and the definition for each have not been changed, and their classification of the terms are basically the same, but *jerk off* became a member of *Vulgar Slang*, no longer *Offensive*. Moreover, many of the compounds not listed in *AHD*₂ have been added to *AHD*₃, gaining the members of the *Obscene* with *motherfucker*, *cocksucker* and *bullshit*. *Asshole* has got the *Vulgar* label, along with other newly added terms not on Table 1 like *blowjob* and *scumbag*. Consequently, the labeling classification in *AHD*₃ became much more arranged, up-to-date and easier to understand.

RHD was first published by Random House in 1966, shortly followed by the publication of the college edition (*RHC*) in 1968. *RHD* was born to replace *ACD*, which had already been out-of-date in the 1960s, and to be the most reliable, comprehensive, useful and current dictionary to live beyond the turbulent 1960s, and it has succeeded in acquiring its reputation in spite of its smaller-scale contents (under 300,000 entries) as compared to the then-leading unabridged dictionaries like *W*₃ or *Funk and Wagnalls*. However, as regards to taboo words, it was not as reliable or current as it could have been. On the contrary, what they decided to do about the treatment of these words was just simply to ignore the whole thing, as if none of these *difficult* words had ever existed. As a matter of

course, they did not mention it in the foreword, nor did they add any explanation on the usage labels. From Table 1, you will see that many of the terms are actually listed in *RHD*, including three of the Big Six. But all of them are plainly defined in a dry way; e.g. *shit* as a noun is defined as '1. feces. 2. an act of defecation. 3. pretense, exaggeration, lies, or nonsense' and *prick* just as 'penis.' In addition, most of the terms are labeled '*Slang (Vulgar)*' or plainly '*Slang*,' but there is no explanation on what these labels mean anywhere in the dictionary. So the foreign learners of English using this dictionary would never know the social meaning attached to these terms.

Moreover, what is clearly shown in Table 1 is the exclusion of a number of taboo words from *RHC* that were present in *RHD*. Surely the editors felt unnecessary to include certain strong vulgar terms in the college edition which was purely made for educational purpose. The fact that of the Big Six only *piss* is listed is interesting enough, but what is more curious is the omission of *bullshit*, which is quite convincing from the absence of *shit*, its root word, as well, but not from the presence of *bull*, its derivative, or rather its abbreviation, referring to the same 'exaggerations; lies; nonsense.' *Crap* is also listed, but only as its figurative meaning that is similar to *bullshit*, and not its literal. *Dick* and *prick*, the two most used slang referring to male sex organs, are listed in *RHD*, whereas *pussy* and *twat*, those of the female, are not, which is another suggestive point as regards the sexual asymmetry. But even *dick* and *prick* are excluded from *RHC*.

This passive attitude toward taboo words naturally could not survive in the 1980s, for twenty years later when the second edition of *RHD* was released, all the words on Table 1 completely assembled in the dictionary. They have decided to keep up with, or even ahead of, the time. Probably *RHD*₂ is the first general dictionary to define the figurative usage of *jerk-off* as 'a stupid, bumbling, foolish or lazy person; jerk.' For their grand change of attitudes, the editors Thomas S. Creswell and Virginia McDavid implicate it in "Usage: Change and Variation," one of the essays preceding the main section of *RHD*₂:

Certain words and expressions are still considered by many to be highly improper in polite society or in sexually mixed groups. Such

expressions have commonly been characterized as **taboo**. Taboo, like other characteristics of language, is a matter of degree. Some expressions are more taboo than others. The commonly designated four-letter words are still strongly taboo in more formal circumstances, but the strength of the taboo has diminished in recent decades. . . . Taboo expressions are often slang or are strongly informal in tone (xxiii).

Furthermore, adopting the labeling of *AHD*, *RHD*₂ has set up three usage labels as follows:

Vulgar. Vulgar terms are considered inappropriate in many circumstances because of their association with a taboo subject. Major taboo subjects in English-speaking cultures are sex and excretion and the parts of the body associated with these functions.

Disparaging. This label indicates that a term is used with disparaging intent, as to belittle a particular racial, religious, or social group.

Offensive. This label indicates that the term so labeled is likely to be perceived as offensive by a listener or reader, whether or not any offense was intended (xxxiii).

Apparently, the label *Vulgar* should refer to the literal meaning of the vulgar terms, whereas *Offensive* to the figurative. But things are not that simple. The classification is shown in Table 4 below. The greater part of the terms are labeled *Vulgar* (or *Vulgar Slang*) for their literal meanings, and just *Slang* for figurative. Also generally for strong figurative terms of abuse, like *prick*, *motherfucker* and *cocksucker*, *Vulgar* label is given, but not always, as *asshole* and *bugger* are just labeled *Slang*. Of the Big Six, only the

<i>Vulgar</i> (+ <i>Slang</i>)	fuck ● cunt ● cock ● shit ● piss ● fart ● motherfucker ○ cocksucker ●○ bullshit ○ asshole ● jerk off ● screw ● pussy ●○ twat ● dick ● prick ●○ tit ● ass ● balls ●○ crap ● turd ●○ bugger ● (<i>often Vulgar</i>)
<i>Disparaging</i>	cunt ○ faggot ● queer ●
<i>Offensive</i>	cunt ○ faggot ● queer ●
<i>Slang</i>	fuck ○ shit ○ piss ○ asshole ○ ass ○ crap ○ (<i>Sometimes</i> <i>Vulgar</i>) bitch ●○ bastard ○ bugger ○ bloody ○

Table 4 Classification of the terms by usage labels in *RHD*₂.

figurative of *cunt*, also a term of abuse, has been labeled *Disparaging and Offensive*. If *cunt* is *offensive*, then why not *motherfucker* or *cocksucker*? Besides, how can it be *disparaging* when it does hardly 'belittle a particular racial, religious or social group'? *RHD*₂ is certainly advanced in treating *faggot* and *queer*, two most contemptuous terms for homosexuals as *disparaging*, in the time when the power and rights of gay people have increasingly been accepted, but the labeling classification of this edition should be reexamined on other points.

*W*₂ is the oldest dictionary listed in Table 1, which was first published in 1934. Some may not want to admit a dictionary published before the war to be a 'modern' dictionary. But considering the fact that it had not been revised until 1961, almost thirty years later, and that it had been the leading unabridged dictionary of the 1940s and the 1950s, we can claim that *W*₂ could have been the pioneer of the modern dictionaries from the viewpoint of this study. Unfortunately, most of the strong vulgar words are omitted here, and even the ones that barely managed to stay on the list are defined with full modesty. For example, *arse*, under British spelling, is defined as 'The buttocks or posteriors; rump; hence, hind or rear end; tail, as of a cart,' not forgetting the '*Now vulgar*' mark at the end. Even *bitch* could not get away with '*Vulgar*,' and *bloody* has a kind explanation attached: 'Not in polite use, and regarded in England as a gross vulgarity.' For *crap*, there is an incomprehensible '*Archaic & Dial* (ectal)' mark, and it is defined as follows: 'a. Residue from rendered fat; greaves. b. Sediment or dregs of beer or ale.' And lastly, here is the strangest definition of *twat*; 'Some part of a nun's garb,' which neither Farmer, Partridge, Wentworth & Flexner nor any other slang lexicographers made clear of.⁴⁾

These were all they could do in the 1930s. And *W*₂ had not been altered until the beginning of the 1960s, keeping the same old face for almost thirty years. Thus, it is rather difficult to say that *W*₂ was the first modern dictionary to reconsider the basic principle of lexicography, as far as vulgar words were concerned. *W*₂ does not clarify its position regarding the treatment of difficult words, but it does explain how it deals with slang, dialect and colloquialisms, and probably tries to connote its future possibility of

including certain terms as yet undefined as follows:

The entry, definition, and proper classification of selected nonstandard and substandard English words have been greatly extended in the New Edition. Both Samuel Johnson and Noah Webster conceived it to be a duty of the dictionary editor to maintain the purity of the standard language. However, with the growth in literacy of the past century, and the increase, in fiction and drama, in radio and motion picture, of the use of dialect, slang and colloquial speech, it has become necessary for a general dictionary to record and interpret the vocabularies of geographical and occupational dialects, and of the livelier levels of the speech of the educated. The shifting status of many expressions in slang and colloquial speech has made it necessary to review and rejudge the status and validity of all such terms, whether newly collected or contained in former editions of this dictionary. Slang terms and slang meanings of standard words have been entered only when there is evidence that the slang term has been in use for a considerable length of time, and when it has been used in printed work which is likely to continue being read (Introduction to *W*₂: xi).

When G. and C. Merriam published the third edition of *Webster's International* in 1961, things were so much different from the time when the second edition had first appeared, which is evident in Table 1. All the words here were listed in *W*₃ except for four, that are marked with asterisks. They had certainly changed their whole policy of not treating the most popular "slang terms" that "has been in use for a considerable length of time" and are the "liveliest levels of the speech," and decided to have their dictionary live up to its name, 'The Unabridged,' which made *W*₃ the first American dictionary ever published to record two of the most notorious terms in human anatomy; *cunt* and *cock*. The work by Barber (1963) is devoted to list up all the slang terms labeled differently in *W*₂ and *W*₃, but he does not mention this change "which have occurred in Merriam-Webster editorial policy between 1934 and 1961" on vulgar terms (Barber 1963: 105). He gives *ass kisser*, *cock sucker*, *crock of shit*, *no shit* and other vulgar terms in his appendix, some of the omissions *W*₃ made that hopefully it would include in its addenda in the future. Indeed, most of them are already included in the 1976 edition, so there should have been another separate table for the terms labeled '*Vulgar*' to make his work

more complete. The asterisked words, the most popular four-letter word in English and three strongest and most popular derogatory epithets in compounds, did not appear in its first printing, but later did in the addenda section of the fourth printing in 1976. It is difficult to understand why capable scholars like Wilson, Béjoint and Hughes failed to examine this addenda section and made false claims like '*Webster III* (1961) has *shit*, but not *fuck*' (Wilson 1987: 29), '*Fuck* is still not listed in *W*₃' (Béjoint 1994: 126), or 'the Third edition of *Webster* . . . excluded *fuck* and *cunt*' (Hughes 1991: 200). Perhaps it was a little hard to recognize the presence of the addenda in the pages preceding, not following, the main section, or there must be no particular reason for not counting it as a part of the dictionary. *W*₃ is probably not due to be revised for another ten years or so, and the addenda section will continue to add more pages as it goes through new printings. Therefore it should be a treasury for new lexica, and we cannot ignore it as just a surplus to the main section.

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary was first published by Merriam-Webster in 1898 and has gone through nine revisions, in 1910, 1916, 1931, 1936, 1949, 1963, 1973, 1983, and 1993 respectively. The newest edition, *Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, tenth edition*, which is not listed in Table 1, is out of '*New*' from the title. This '*New*' was first put on the seventh edition, the first abridgment of *W*₃. In Table 1, three *new WCDs* are listed, each with exactly ten years of interval, making it easier to see the transition of this dictionary over the three decades. Before *WNCD*₇, the editors' policy toward the treatment of vulgar words were basically unchanged and conservative; in other words they ignored the words. In the preface to *WCD*₅, abridged from *W*₂, there is an explanatory note stating their way of not treating most of the dialectal terms, colloquialisms, and slang:

Many words formerly regarded as nonstandard or substandard have become accepted in good usage; and such changes in status are reflected by the inclusion in the present work of a number of words of this kind. The size and scope of the COLLEGIATE have always precluded, however, the inclusion of all save the most important and

necessary Dialectal, Colloquial, and Slang terms; and in this particular the *Fifth Edition* follows the practice of its predecessors (iv).

It is not surprising that a dictionary with a policy above in a time before the war should put the *Vulgar* label on *bitch*, or define no figurative usage, as an intensive, of *bloody* at all. It was all that the dictionary of this size with a reputation could do in the 1930s in America. And *WCD*₆ had approximately followed suit, even though it was published after the war.

The sign of change did not appear even in *WNCD*₇, failing to live up to its name, *New Collegiate*. No particular comment on the subject can be seen in the preface or elsewhere, and most of the terms are still not listed. Of course no longer *Vulgar* label attaches to *bitch*, nor the figurative usage of *bloody* omitted. But comparing its column with that of *W*₃ in Table 1, it is more than obvious to see what kind of words had been mainly *abridged* in the largest abridgment of *Webster's New International*. Moreover, a number of etymological inconsistencies are noticeable. Although *bullshit*, *piss* and *fuck* are not listed, their derivatives *bull*, *pissoir* and *snafu* are. The last one, *snafu*, is an abbreviation of *situation normal all fucked up*, a popular phrase among the U.S. armed forces. But in *WNCD*₇, it is defined as 'situation normal all *fouled* up (italics mine),' that had been made up as "an antecedent which was readily available" (Sagarin 1962: 141).

Therefore we had to wait until the eighth edition of *WCD* came out for the change. There, in *WNCD*₈, most of the terms appeared in the *Collegiate* series for the first time. Again, there is no particular explanation on why they had changed their policy, no different from other Webster dictionaries. Furthermore, several degrees of usage notes are attached to the definitions, classifying the terms into three categories as in Table 5 below. But it is difficult to see the general rules, or how much difference there is between the adverbs 'usually,' 'often' and 'sometimes'.

In *WNCD*₉, however, the classification is much more in order, and easier to see its intention. As is clear from Table 6, another usage note, *usually considered obscene*, is provided, referring to the four strongest taboo words still at present: *fuck*, *cunt*, *motherfucker* and *cocksucker*. Maybe some of the terms with *usually considered vulgar* note should come down to *often considered vulgar*, but otherwise *ass* and *ball* are indeed growing weaker in

usually considered vulgar	fuck ●○ cunt ●○ cock ● shit ●○ fart ● bullshit ○ jerk off ● screw ● pussy ●○ twat ● dick ● prick ● crap ● ass ○
often considered vulgar	ass ● balls ●○
sometimes considered vulgar	piss ● S.O.B. ●○ crap ○ turd ● bloody ○

Table 5 Classification of the terms by the usage notes in *WNCD*₈.

usually considered obscene	fuck ● cunt ●○ motherfucker ○ cocksucker ●○
usually considered vulgar	fuck ○ cock ● shit ●○ fart ●○ jerk off ● bullshit ○ asshole ●○ screw ● pussy ●○ twat ● dick ● prick ●○ ass ○ tit ● turd ○
often considered vulgar	ass ●○ ball ●○
sometimes considered vulgar	piss ●○ S.O.B. ●○ crap ○ turd ● bloody ○

Table 6 Classification of the terms by the usage notes in *WNCD*₉.

their vulgar sense as compared to other terms, and still less *piss*, *bloody* and others with *sometimes considered vulgar* note. The distinction between *often* and *sometimes* may not be necessary, but who knows, in *WNCD*₁₁, none of the words may *usually* be considered vulgar.

WNW was first published in 1957 as a college dictionary, and for the educational concern of this period, it was natural that most of the strong vulgar words were omitted from its entry. And its basic policy had been maintained to the second edition. In the foreword to *WNW*₂ written by the Editor in Chief David R. Guralnik, there is a famous declaration regarding to the policy it takes toward vulgar words using a whole paragraph, which will be cited below:

The absence from this dictionary of a handful of old, well-known vulgate terms for sexual and excretory organs and functions is not due to a lack of citations for these words from current literature. On the contrary, the profusion of such citations in recent years would suggest that the terms in question are so well known as to require no explana-

tion. The decision to eliminate them as part of the extensive culling process that is the inevitable task of lexicographer was made on the practical grounds that there is still objection in many quarters to the appearance of these terms in print and that to risk keeping this dictionary out of hands of some students by introducing several terms that require little if any elucidation would be unwise. In a similar vein, it was decided in the selection process that this dictionary could easily dispense with those true obscenities, the terms of racial and ethnic opprobrium, that are, in any case, encountered with diminishing frequency these days (Foreword to *WNW*₂: viii).

Béjoint attacks this as “embarrassed explanations from lexicographers caught between their desire to be descriptive and the impossibility of disregarding powerful social forces,” but still speaks for Guralnik in a way by claiming this “obviously faulty argumentation” is “relieved by humor” (Béjoint 1994: 126). And Wilson even sympathizes with this dictionary for having to worry about its sales in the school and college market, consenting to the latter half of the paragraph as “if it is to earn a profit for its producers, and if this dictionary, of which its editors are justifiably proud, is to reach the largest possible part of its intended audience, then the decision seems at least prudent” (Wilson 1987: 34). But it is absolutely difficult to excuse the childish argument of the former half; even an elementary schoolchild can refute this by bringing up any other non-vulgar terms that are “so well-known as to require no explanation” but are actually explained thoroughly in *WNW*₂. It is unbelievable that an irresponsible statement as such could pass unremarked in a dictionary with a reputation like *WNW* to the year 1970.

However, what is probably the most irresponsible about *WNW* is that with all this declaration in *WNW*₂, they have never once explained why there had been a drastic change in their policy toward vulgar words in the new edition. *WNW*₃ was finally published in 1988, after ten times of printing *WNW*₂ with the last one out in 1986. As it is clear from Table 1, there had certainly been a *drastic* change during these two years, and almost all of the vulgar words once thought to be “so well known as to require no explanation” are now being defined with full explanation and examples. In fact, *WNW*₃ has become one of the most detailed and exhaustive college

dictionaries on slang and vulgar terms. But the reason for their decision is not clarified. Had they simply decided to fall silent and swim with the current? Well, who can blame them? After all, nearly twenty years had passed since the first publication of *WNW*₂. Only they should have at least made an excuse. In the foreword to *WNW*₃, the new Editor in Chief Victoria Neufeldt mentions the great many addition of the terms in the field of liturgics, business and commerce, computer science and technology, metric units of measure and so on, but not a word on vulgar terms. Or maybe she was trying to hint at it between the lines:

This new dictionary has more usage labels to assist the readers in the choice of language to fit the occasion. It must be remembered that these labels reflect not our editorial opinion of the comparative desirability of a given term, but rather our assessment and interpretation of how it is viewed in the speech community as a whole. It is not the lexicographer's mandate to pass editorial judgment, but only to describe as best he can, using innate and acquired linguistic sensitivity and lexicographical skills (plus a good up-to-date citation file), the language as it exists. Language cannot be separated from its environment and a large part of our most common vocabulary cannot be properly used without a knowledge of the way in which individual words are perceived within a given social context (Foreword to *WNW*₃: ix).

Of these usage labels, there is, of course, the ‘Vulgar’ label, and it is explained like this: “The term or sense may be an old one, but it is today regarded by most people as highly inappropriate usage in all or almost all social contexts. Many, but not all, such terms are also slang” (Guide to the dictionary: xvi). And what are the words that received this honorable crown? They are, as we can guess, *fuck*, *cunt*, *shit*, *motherfucker*, *cocksucker*, *screw*, *jerk off*, *pussy*, *twat*, *dick*, *prick*, *ass*, *asshole*, *ball*, *crap*, etc. What we could not guess, however, was that *cock*, one of the Big Six, is no longer regarded as *vulgar*, and is just labeled as ‘Slang.’ The other two of the Big Six, *fart* and *piss*, are without any labels, but are explained as ‘Now a vulgar term’ or ‘Now somewhat vulgar in all uses’ along with *tit*, *turd*, *bastard* and so on. A plausible explanation for the ‘Vulgar’ coming off from *cock* is that it is the only word in the Big Six that used to be a euphemism

for *penis*. A euphemism of a direct expression may well begin as a slang, and thus may keep its status as a slang all the way to the present. The question is whether we can consider *screw*, *prick* and *pussy*, all of them having once been euphemisms for some direct expressions, as vulgar and *cock* not. We hope that *WNW* will work out on this kind of inconsistency in the future.

(to be concluded)

NOTES

1) This paper is the second part of Chapter 3 from my MA thesis submitted to Tokyo University of Foreign Studies on January 16, 1996, revised and edited. I am very grateful to Prof. Nobuyuki Higashi for his kind and patient advice.

2) In the State of Texas, where the social attitude had and has always been more puritanical, fastidious and conservative than other states, *AHD* was compelled to be published as a special edition which refrained from including any of the taboo words.

3) The second edition of *AHD* was only released as a college edition, never as a standard one, which makes things a little complicated when we look at the history of this dictionary. This generally regarded as *AHD₂* is in fact the revised edition of *AHD*, *New college Edition*, published in 1976, which had the same text, and number of entries as *AHD₁*, the standard or so-called Larger Format Edition of 1969.

4) For the definition of *twat*, *OED₁* cites a passage from *Pippa Passes*, a poem by Robert Browning, and explains that the word is used "under the impression that it denoted some part of a nun's attire" in the poem. *W₂* had obviously took this part out of *OED₁* without much inquiry. For the contents of the poem and more details on *twat*, see Uchida (1997: 39-40).

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Appendices

	A C D	A H D	A H D 2	A C D 3	R H D	R H D 2	R H C	W 2	W 3	W N C 7	W N C 8	W N C 9	W N W 2	W N W 3	O A L 2	O A L 3	O A L 4	C O D 5	C O D 6	C O D 7	L D C E	L D C E 2	P E D	
<i>the Big Six</i>																								
fuck	×	⊙	○	○	×	⊙	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	×	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	×	○	○	○	○	⊙	
cunt	×	⊙	⊙	○	×	⊙	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	×	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
cock	×	●	●	●	×	⊙	×	×	×	●	●	×	×	×	●	⊙	⊙	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
shit	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	×	⊙	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
piss	×	●	●	○	●	⊙	●	●	×	⊙	⊙	●	⊙	⊙	●	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
fart	×	⊙	⊙	○	●	⊙	×	×	×	●	⊙	●	⊙	⊙	●	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
<i>compound</i>																								
motherfucker	×	×	×	○	×	○	×	×	⊙	×	×	○	×	×	○	×	×	×	○	○	×	×	×	
cocksucker	×	×	×	○	×	○	×	×	⊙	×	×	○	×	×	○	×	×	×	○	○	×	×	×	
bullshit	×	○	×	○	○	○	×	○	×	○	○	×	○	×	○	×	○	×	○	○	○	○	○	
asshole	×	×	×	○	×	⊙	×	×	⊙	×	×	⊙	×	×	×	⊙	×	×	×	●	×	⊙	●	
jerk off	×	●	●	●	×	⊙	×	×	●	×	●	●	×	×	●	×	×	●	×	×	●	●	×	
son of a bitch	×	○	×	○	○	○	●	×	×	○	○	×	○	×	×	●	×	●	●	●	●	●	×	
<i>popular slang</i>																								
screw	×	○	●	○	●	⊙	×	×	⊙	×	●	⊙	×	⊙	×	●	⊙	×	○	●	○	○	●	
pussy	×	○	○	⊙	×	⊙	×	×	⊙	×	⊙	×	×	×	×	×	×	●	×	●	●	○	×	
twat	×	×	×	○	×	●	×	×	×	●	●	×	×	×	×	×	×	○	○	○	○	○	○	
dick	×	●	●	●	●	●	×	×	●	×	●	●	×	×	×	×	●	×	●	●	○	×	×	
prick	×	○	○	○	●	⊙	×	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	×	×	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	●	
crap	×	○	○	○	○	○	×	×	⊙	×	⊙	○	⊙	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	
turd	×	○	○	⊙	●	⊙	×	×	⊙	×	●	⊙	×	×	●	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	●	
tit(s)	×	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	×	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	○	
arse, ass	×	○	○	○	○	○	●	●	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	●	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	●	
ball(s)	×	○	○	○	●	●	×	×	⊙	⊙	⊙	×	⊙	⊙	×	○	○	⊙	○	○	○	○	○	
<i>female derog</i>																								
bitch	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	⊙	○	○	×	○	○	○	⊙	●		
whore	●	○	⊙	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
<i>homosexual</i>																								
fag, faggot	×	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	×	●	●	×	●	●	×	●	●	×	●	●	●	○	○	
queer	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	
<i>classical</i>																								
bastard	●	⊙	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	⊙	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
bugger	⊙	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
<i>profanity</i>																								
bloody	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
damn	○	○	○	⊙	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	

× ... not given ● ... literal ○ ... figurative ⊙ ... literal + figurative

Table 1. Major vulgar words in major modern dictionaries.

Categorization

- 1) noun
- 2) personal: 'You ——!'
- 3) personal compound: '—— face', '—— head'
- 4) intransitive verb
- 5) transitive verb: 'to —— someone'
- 6) phrasal verb: '—— around', '—— off'
- 7) adjectival: 'a —— / —— ing shame'
- 8) adverbial: '—— ing good'
- 9) cursing expletive: '—— you!', '—— it!'
- 10) general interjection of anger, frustration, annoyance: '——!'
- 11) intensifier: 'What the —— is that?'
- 12) other special phrases: 'don't give a ——', '—— one's mind', 'full of ——', etc.

terms	category											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
fuck	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
cunt	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
cock	○	×	×	×	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	○
shit	○	○	○	○	○	×	△	×	×	○	○	○
piss	○	△	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	×	○
fart	○	○	○	○	×	○	×	×	×	×	×	○
motherfucker	○	○	×	×	△	×	△	△	△	○	△	×
cocksucker	○	○	×	×	×	×	△	△	×	×	×	×
bullshit	○	×	×	○	○	×	×	×	×	○	×	○
asshole	○	○	×	×	×	×	○	○	×	×	×	○
jerk off	○	○	×	—	—	○	○	×	×	×	×	×
son of a bitch	○	○	×	×	×	×	○	×	×	○	×	×
screw	○	×	○	○	○	○	△	×	○	×	×	×
pussy	○	○	×	×	×	×	○	×	×	×	×	×
twat	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
dick	○	○	○	○	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×
prick	○	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
crap	○	×	×	○	○	×	△	×	×	○	×	○
turd	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	○
tit(s)	○	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	○	×	×
arse / ass	○	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	△	×	○
ball(s)	○	×	×	○	○	○	×	×	×	○	×	○
bitch	○	○	×	○	○	○	○	○	×	×	×	×
whore	○	○	×	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
fag / faggot	○	○	×	×	×	×	△	×	×	×	×	×
queer	○	○	×	×	×	×	○	×	×	×	×	×
bastard	○	○	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×	×
bugger	○	○	×	○	○	○	△	×	○	○	×	○
bloody	×	×	×	×	×	×	○	○	○	×	×	×
damn	○	×	×	○	○	×	○	○	○	○	×	○

○ ... usage × ... lack of usage △ ... usage in derived forms (e.g. shit → shitty)

Table 2. Flexibility of vulgar words.

Remarks on the asymmetry of antonyms in modern Japanese — Some pairs of verbs in directional opposition —

YUKIHIKO OKADA

0. Introduction

The Japanese verb 'iku/yuku' denotes "movement to a place except here", and verb 'kuru' denotes "movement to here", when used non-figuratively (i.e. in situations where they express an actual movement).

The verb 'iku/yuku'

○ Kaimono ni deta tuide ni, syuutome ga taoreta toki sewa ni natta **isya no tokoro ni iku** to, (Kookotu no hito/70)

The verb 'kuru'

○ Kono sannenkān ni ikudo kono **sinryoozyo ni kita** daroo. (Kookotu no hito/16)

But, as far as 'iku/yuku' is concerned, in the case of collocation with a noun with 'o', there are examples in which the relevant property 'to the place except here' blurs or almost disappears.

○ Aru hito wa, kawaita **sabaku o yuku**. (Kumo no utage: 2/102)

Miyazima (1972) refers to such a phenomenon:

○ されば君若し、一の小径を往き、忽ち三条に分る、処に出たなら困るに及ばない、君の杖を立て、其倒れた方に往き玉へ。(武蔵野 19)

このあとの方の「往き玉へ」は、主人公のいる場所から遠ざかる方向へ、という方向性をもっているが、前の「往き」はそのような方向性のない単なる移動で、その点では「すすむ」「あるく」「うごく」などと近い。「くる」の方は、こ

ここまで無色に近くはならないようである。(p. 289)

(While the latter '**iki-tamae**' has the direction to go away from the place of the hero of the story, the former 'iki' refers to a movement without such a specified direction; in such a case it is similar to 'susumu', 'aruku', 'ugoku' and so on. It seems that 'kuru' does not become so 'directionless'.)

If under certain circumstances the direction, which is relevant to the directional opposition between 'iku/yuku' and 'kuru', should disappear only in the meaning of the verb 'iku/yuku', then these two verbs would be asymmetrical and 'iku/yuku' would be the more "unmarked term".

Here, on the basis of some pairs of verbs in directional opposition, I will try to consider whether or not the property of direction can easily disappear from the meaning of a verb, and under what circumstances the property disappears. I shall also examine other ways in which asymmetry may occur in the lexical meaning of antonymic pairs of verbs denoting movement. Finally I shall attempt to identify a pattern and conditions for it.

1. 'deru' and 'hairu'

There is a rather detailed description about the meaning and usage of 'deru' in Miyazima (1972), so I will give some examples of nonfigurative meanings.

(1) Movement "from inside to outside"

「「でる」のもっとも基本的な意味は、物体が他の物体から、または一定範囲の空間から、外に移動することである。」(Miyazima (1972), p. 563)

(The most essential meaning of 'deru' is that an object moves outwards from another object or from a certain enclosed space.)

In such cases 'deru' is collocated with a noun which refers to the starting point, and takes 'o' or 'kara':

○ Uryuu wa soo iu to, Saeko o osidasu yoo ni site **heya o deta**. (Kumo no utage: 2/101)

○ Akiko wa batabata to **daidokoro kara dete**, otto o temanekisita. (Kookotu no hito/49)

(2) The following is an example of 'deru' in collocation with a noun with 'o', where the noun refers not to the starting point but to a place passed

through in the course of the movement:

○ **Kaisatu o deru** to migi ni iku to bakari omotte-ita onna no senaka ga, sono mama syoomen no rengazukuri no kabe ni mukatte-iku. (Oka no ue no himawari/21)

(3) Movement to an arrival point:

「ある場所にいきつくこと。……「いく」「つく」「あらわれる」などにきわめてちかいもので、「でる」がもともともっていた、「中から外への移動」といった方向性は、ほとんどその跡をもとどめていない。……」(Miyazima (1972) p. 571)
(To arrive at a place. so similar to the expressions with 'iku', 'tuku', 'arawareru' and so on, that almost no trace of the directional "movement from inside to outside", which 'deru' has originally, is left.)

When 'deru' is used in this meaning, it has to be combined with a noun using 'ni':

○ Kaidan no aru **genkan ni deru** to, moo Hazime wa kurumaisu o orite nikai e agarikakete-ita. (Oka no ue no himawari/88)

(4) Examples in which the arrival point is indicated by a phrase such as "soto ni" etc.:

○ Niangadu ga untenseki kara **soto ni dete**, keikan ni ude o hutta. (Kumo no utage: 2/149)

While in the lexical meaning of 'deru' in (1) (2) (4) the property of "from inside to outside" remains, in (3) such property disappears.

On the other hand, 'hairu' denotes "movement from outside to inside", and the noun with 'ni' refers to the arrival point; this lexical meaning is opposed to that of 'deru' in (1) and (4) above:

○ Barubariigo wa, **hiroba ni haitta** tokoro de asi o tometa. (Repanto no kaisen/20)

○ Kagi o akete, **heya ni haitta** toki, (Izintati no yakata/75)

There are some examples in which 'hairu' is used in collocation with a noun with 'o', just the same as examples of 'deru' in (2) above, but in such expressions the property "from outside to inside" is still held:

○ Sore ni kotaeta gozyuu hodo no yowai no onna ga syuzin ni tutae ni

itte-iru aida, Barubariigo wa, **mon o hairi** mo sezu ni tatte matte-ita. (Repanto no kaisen/26)

Among the usages of 'hairu', I have found no examples in which the property of "from inside to outside" can disappear, in contrast to the examples of 'deru' in (3) above.

Thus, 'deru', whose relevant property "from inside to outside" may disappear under certain circumstances, is a more "unmarked term" than 'hairu'.

2. 'iku/yuku' and 'kuru'

The verb 'iku/yuku', when used in collocation with a noun accompanied by 'ni', 'e', or 'made', denotes movement to an arrival point "except here".

In collocation with a noun with 'ni':

○ Yokuzitu no yuugata, Saeko ga itumo no **resutoran ni yuku** to, Atuko wa madobe no seki de matte-ita. (Kumo no utage: 2/111)

In collocation with a noun with 'e':

○, otoosan ga **Tookyoo e iku** tte iidasita toki wa syooziki tasukatta tte omotta no yo. (Kookotu no hito/50)

In collocation with a noun with 'made':

○ Saikyoosen ni notte, Ikebukuro de ori, tikatetu no Yuurakutyoo sen de **Higasiikebukuro made itta**. (Izintati no yakata/74)

There are examples in which the direction or range of movement is indicated, rather than an actual arrival point.

In collocation with a noun with 'e':

○ Kaisatu o deru to **migi e iku** to bakari omotte-ita onna no senaka ga, (Oka no ue no himawari/21)

○ Akiko wa sugu syuuto ga ima haitte kita toguti kara, sandaru o tumegakete **hanare no hoo e itte**-mita. (Kookotu no hito/15)

In collocation with a noun with 'made':

○ Otokonoko wa migaru ni tatiagari, zassi no yama o matagikoete, tottuki no **syoka no atari made iku** to, oogoe o dasita. (Sabisii karyuudo/98)

As we have seen in 0., in the lexical meaning of 'iku/yuku', when used in collocation with a noun using 'o', the relevant property of the direction "to the place except here" disappears and then 'iku/yuku' denotes simply movement without a specified direction.

In collocation with a noun with 'o':

○ Aru hito wa kawaita **sabaku o yuku**. (Kumo no utage: 2/102)

○ **Mati o iku** hitobito mo, sewashige ni mieta. (Kumo no utage: 2/111)

○ Ungazoi no **fundamenta o** sukosi **iku** to, koburi da ga hasi ga atta. (Repanto no kaisen/23)

'Kuru', on the other hand, denotes movement to "here": thus, the direction is opposite to that denoted by 'iku/yuku', under the same syntactic circumstances.

Examples which express movement to an arrival point:

In collocation with a noun with 'ni':

○ Kono sannenkā ni ikudo kono **sinryoozyo ni kita** daroo. (Kookotu no hito/16)

In collocation with a noun with 'e':

○ "**Koko e kite**, donokurai desu ka?" (Oka no ue no himawari/28)

In collocation with a noun with 'made':

○ **Mizonokuti made kite**-simatte. (Oka no ue no himawari/64)

Examples which express movement in a certain direction:

In collocation with a noun with 'e':

○ "., sobo ni itiban taisetū ni site-moratta no ni, **soba e kuru** na, to mono o nagetuke-masita." (Oka no ue no himawari/96)

In collocation with a noun with 'made':

○ Sikasi, ni, sanzuyoppo hanarete aruite-ita Barubariigo ga, taikozyoo no hasi no **tamoto made kita** toki, (Repanto no kaisen/24)

I cannot find any example of 'kuru' in combination with a noun with 'o'. Even in Miyazima (1986) there is only 1 such example out of 320. This perhaps represents a rather special case. However even in this instance, the property of "to here" in the lexical meaning of 'kuru' is nevertheless maintained.

From above, it can be concluded that among the usages of 'iku/yuku' the property of "to the place except here", which is relevant to the directional opposition between 'iku/yuku' and 'kuru' can, under certain syntactic circumstances, disappear; whereas with 'kuru' the property "to here" never disappears under any circumstances. So, 'iku/yuku' is the more "unmarked term" in this directional opposition.

3. 'oriru'₁ and 'noru'

The verb 'oriru' denotes "movement from inside a vehicle, vessel, etc. to outside it (relatively short distance or between adjacent places, suggesting that the inside is at a higher position than the outside)" or "movement from a higher place to a lower place (relatively long distance)". The verb which is in directional opposition in the former case would be 'noru', and the verb which is in directional opposition in the latter case would be 'agaru' or 'noboru'. First, I will consider the former pair, 'oriru'₁ and 'noru'.

'Oriru'₁ denotes "movement from inside a vehicle, vessel, etc. to outside it" when it is used in collocation with a noun denoting the vehicle, vessel, etc. accompanied by 'o':

- Keikantati wa, zidoosyooyuu o katate ni kakae, **ziipu o oriru** to, Puzyo ni tikazuite-kita. (Kumo no utage: 2/149)
- Kaidan no aru genkan ni deru to, moo Hazime wa **kurumaisu o orite** nikai e agarikakete-ita. (Oka no ue no himawari/88)

There are also some examples in which 'oriru' is used in collocation with a noun accompanied by 'ni'; in these cases, the noun indicates an arrival point which is a place outside the vehicle, vessel, etc., so that such usage is not different in lexical meaning from that above:

- Zyuuzi sugi ni ie no aru **eki ni ori**, (Oka no ue no himawari/50)

On the other hand, 'noru', when used in collocation with a noun denoting a vehicle, vessel, etc. which is the arrival point always takes 'ni' and denotes "movement from outside of a vehicle, vessel, etc. to inside it":

- Keisatusyotyo Soo si wa soo iu to, **ziipu ni notte**, ekimaehiroba o dete itta. (Kumo no utage: 2/151)

If, however, the starting point is indicated by a noun with 'kara', the meaning encompasses not only "the movement from outside to inside", but also "the movement by the vehicle, vessel, etc. after moving from outside to inside":

- **Higasiikebukuroyontyoome kara toden ni nori**, Ootuka de Yamanotesen ni norikae, Komagome de orita. (Izintati no yakata/41)

Here, an extra meaning is added to the original meaning of 'noru' under certain syntactic conditions. Such a phenomenon is not found in examples with 'oriru'₁. This case is rather different from the case of 'iku/yuku' and 'kuru', or 'deru' and 'hairu', so this represents a distinct example of "asymmetry" of verbs in directional opposition.

4. 'oriru'₂ and 'agaru' 'noboru'

In its second meaning, 'oriru' denotes "movement from a higher place to a lower place (suggesting a relatively long distance)". Usually it is used with nouns with 'o', but it is often ambiguous whether the noun expresses the starting point or place passed through in the course of the movement:

- Doa o sime, kobasiri ni **isidan o ori**, (Oka no ue no himawari/55)
- Torakku no retu wa **tooge o orita** titen de tomatta. (Kumo no utage/128)
- Ittan **yama o oriru** to, karedani ga hirogatte-ita. (Kumo no utage/127)
- Huratuku no de, **kaidan o oriru** no ni sennensite-iru yoo ni mo mieta. (Oka no ue no himawari/23)
- "Demo tooi N desu. **Saka o nobotte orite**, moo hitotu saka o nobotte oka no ue" (Oka no ue no himawari/20)

There are also examples, in which 'oriru'₂ is used in collocation with a noun accompanied by 'e' or 'made'; I consider that in such cases "the direction of movement" rather than "the arrival point" is emphasized:

In collocation with a noun with 'e':

- **Kaika e oriru** to, (Kookotu no hito/10)
-, **sita e oriru** to maekin de moratte-iru to iwareta. (Oka no ue no himawari/36)

In collocation with a noun with 'made':

- **Sita made oriru** to "Aruku wa" to onna wa hitorigoto no yoo ni itta. (Oka no ue no himawari/23)

On the other hand, both 'agaru' and 'noboru' denote "movement from a lower place to a higher place through a certain place" when used in collocation with a noun accompanied by 'o', but, when used in collocation with a noun with 'ni' or 'e', denote "movement to a certain arrival point which is located in a higher place than the starting point."

'agaru'

In collocation with a noun with 'o':

- Onna wa, genkan e no sandanbudo no **isidan o agari** nagara, handobaggu o hiraite-iru. (Oka no ue no himawari/31)
- **Kaidan o agaroo** to suru to waki ni, hi ni aseta supagetti ya kareeraisu no sanpuru o narabeta syookeesu ga ari, (Oka no ue no himawari/74)

In collocation with a noun with 'ni':

- **Nikai ni agatte** sugu no heya ga kanozyo no kodomo no heya rasii. (Izintati no yakata/51)
- Zyussai no syoonen ni wa, **hune no ue ni agattari** sennai o mitari no kono sigoto ni tukiau no ga, totemo tanosii rasikatta. (Repanto no kaisen/42)

'noboru'

In collocation with a noun with 'o':

- Simazaki Zyuniti wa, Iidabasi kara **Kagurazaka o noboru** totyuu de, tatetuzuke ni san kai, ookina kusyami o sita. (Izintati no yakata/25)
- Sono **kaidan o nobotta** tokoro ni, genkan de aru koto o simesu tobira ga hiraite-ita. (Repanto no kaisen/26)

In collocation with a noun with 'ni':

- Faganda ga **yane ni nobori**, (Kumo no utage: 2/155)

In collocation with a noun with 'e':

- ". Sikasi, sore ga dame da to naru to, totyuu kara, **ehudiisanti e nobori**, minami e, ookiku yuuzigata ni ukaisi, (Kumo no utage: 2/122)

Cases exist in which 'agaru' is used in collocation simultaneously with a noun with 'o' (to denote a place passed through in the course of the movement) and a noun with 'ni' (to denote the arrival point):

つぎの例では、「～を」が「～に」と共存している。このような例があるということは、経過と結果とが別々の意味として立つものではない、という証拠になるであろう。

(In this example '～o' and '～ni' are used simultaneously. Existence of such an example demonstrates that process and result are not mutually exclusive in meaning.)

- そのまゝ、正面の階段を二階の寝室に上らうとしたが、(帰郷 54)
(Miyazima (1972) p. 511, also example (Kikyoo/54))

The usage of 'noboru' is exactly analogous.

From above, while with 'noboru' or 'agaru' it is always unambiguous whether the indication is of a place passed through in the course of the movement or of the arrival point, with 'oriru' the indication is often ambiguous. So, I consider that the difference between the lexical meaning of 'noboru' or 'agaru' and that of 'oriru' is so essential that 'noboru' or 'agaru' and 'oriru' are intrinsically asymmetric.

5. 'tikazuku' and 'hanareru'

The verb 'tikazuku' denotes "movement towards a place", the place being indicated by a noun with 'ni':

- Onna wa hodoo ni agari, sinyookinko no **biru ni tikazuki**, (Oka no ue no himawari/24)
- Sorekara kyuu ni **haigo ni** hito ga **tikazuku** kehai ga sita. (Oka no ue no himawari/16)

On the other hand, 'hanareru' denotes "movement away from a place", the place being indicated by a noun with 'o' or 'kara':

- Tyookoo wa Kogai no **soba o hanare**, (Koo to Ryuhoo: 1/26)
- Konna koto ga hito ni sirete, **toti o hanareru** koto ni naru no wa taerare-nakatta. (Oka no ue no himawari/41)

- Hanasi ga owaru to, Kooryoo wa,
 “Wasi kara hanarero”
 to, itta. (Kooou to Ryuuuhoo: 1/71)

‘Hanareru’ can also denote not movement but position of existence, but only when in the form ‘hanareteiru’ (or ‘hanareta’ when preceding a noun) and in collocation with a noun with ‘kara’:

- Suupaa wa **eki kara** yaya **hanarete-iru**. (Oka no ue no himawari/42)
 ○ Sorezore **dooro kara** itikiro **hanareta** sinriintitai o nuke, (Kumo no utage: 2/140)

6. Conclusion

Here, I will try to summarize some trends.

(1) Under certain syntactic circumstances “direction” may disappear in the lexical meaning of only one of the pair of terms.

(i) Both ‘iku/yuku’ and ‘kuru’ denote movement in a direction or to a goal (‘iku/yuku’: “to a place except here”; ‘kuru’: “to here”) when in collocation with a noun with ‘ni’ ‘e’ or ‘made’, but this quality of specified direction may disappear in the lexical meaning of ‘iku/yuku’ when used with a noun with ‘o’.

(ii) ‘Deru’ denotes movement from inside to outside when in collocation with a noun with ‘o’ or ‘kara’; ‘hairu’ denotes movement from outside to inside in collocation with a noun with ‘ni’; there are cases in which such direction may disappear from the lexical meaning of ‘deru’ when in collocation with a noun with ‘ni’.

(2) Under certain syntactic circumstances another meaning may be added to the lexical meaning of one of a pair of terms.

‘Noru’ denotes movement from outside a vehicle etc. to inside it, ‘oriru’¹ denotes movement from inside a vehicle etc. to outside it; when ‘noru’ is used in collocation with a noun with ‘kara’, it denotes further the movement by the vehicle etc. after the movement into it.

(3) In certain forms, another lexical meaning may be acquired by one of a pair of terms.

‘Hanareru’ denotes movement going away from a place, ‘tikazuku’ denotes movement towards a place; when ‘hanareru’ is used in the form ‘hanarete-iru’, then it denotes existence in a place which is away from the specified place.

(4) Essentially asymmetrical pair.

‘Noboru’ and ‘agaru’ denote movement through a place when in collocation with a noun with ‘o’ and movement to a place when in collocation with a noun with ‘ni’. But in the usage of ‘oriru’² in collocation with a noun with ‘o’ it is often ambiguous whether it a place through which the object moves or a starting point which is being specified.

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Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (4): The Three Dictionaries in the 1880s

KAZUO DOHI TAKASHI KANAZASHI
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1. Introduction

This installment deals with the three dictionaries published in the 1880s. The last installment dealt with a technical-term dictionary 『哲學字彙』 *Tetsugaku-jū* (*A Dictionary of Philosophy*),¹⁾ because it has a large influence on translation equivalents, especially in the humanities. Concerning the mainstream English-Japanese dictionaries, the second installment examined 『附音挿圖 英和字彙』 *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-jū* (*EJ*),²⁾ a greatly influential work in the early and middle Meiji era. It is considered to have been compiled based on a dictionary by J. Ogilvie (cf. Hayakawa 1997: 71–121), and also under the influence of a Webster's dictionary (cf. section 9). As has been the case with the previous installments, this installment will deal with some specific aspects of the dictionaries and provide profiles of the authors and the educational background of the era. Their text is mainly dealt with: headwords and examples, pronunciation, grammar and usage, translation equivalents, and pictorial illustrations.

In examining the mainstream three dictionaries, the influence of *EJ* cannot be ignored, but they are by far closely connected with American dictionaries; that is, Webster's dictionaries. The fact is mentioned in the prefaces or referred to in the English titles of the dictionaries. Webster's dictionaries came to have much larger influence on English-Japanese dictionaries in the 1880s. In this respect American lexicography as well as Scottish and British lexicography (cf. Hayakawa 1997: 58–70) seems to have had a large influence on Japanese lexicography at that time.

Here are given some reasons why the three dictionaries are dealt with. As will be made clear, they are strongly and directly influenced by American dictionaries. Two of them seemed to have been popular and sold well as they were much cheaper than *EJ* (see below). They seem to have contributed to students studying English at the time. Much detailed analysis does not seem to have been made of their text, especially of the first edition, with few exceptions, including a general introduction about them (cf. Nagashima 1970, Hayakawa To appear).³⁾ One of them, 『ウエブスター氏新刊大辞書 和訳字彙』 *Webster-shi-Shinkan-Daijisyō-Wayaku-jū* (*WWJ*), is closely related to later dictionaries in the next Taisho era. Though *EJ* could be considered to be a highly sophisticated form of dictionary (Hayakawa 1997: 145),⁴⁾ just a few features can be found in the dictionaries, which are commonly found in contemporary English-Japanese (learners') dictionaries.

『明治英和字典』 *Meiji-Eiwa-jiten* (*MeEJ*), the first innovative dictionary in that its compilation was completely based on a Webster's dictionary, is edited by a scholar, teacher and translator who, typically, had a profound knowledge of classical Chinese at that time (cf. 3.1.1.). The other two dictionaries are also based on a Webster's dictionary but differ somewhat: 『附音挿圖 和訳英字彙』 *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-jū* (*WEJ*) is edited and translated by a scholar whose name is mentioned, but about whose life little is regrettably known, and *WWJ* is a dictionary practically edited and translated by editors whose names are not mentioned. To promote its sale, the names of well-known or big-name scholars, who were partly responsible for its supervision, were employed (Saito 1991: 45–46).

How many copies of the dictionaries were sold? Nothing is known about *MeEJ*, as it was never revised and reprinted. *WEJ* published in 1887 (cf. section 9) was reprinted and revised, and the latest edition this writer has seen is the 33rd edition (though titled the 32nd in English), issued in 1907 (the 40th year of Meiji).⁵⁾ (Note the expression 'edition' at that time does not always mean edition but printing in the strict sense of the word, so the two terms are not clearly distinguished. Here the same expression is used.) *WWJ* seems to have enjoyed more popularity, as it was issued in 1888 and continued to be reprinted. It is said that more than 100,000 copies were

sold by 1900 (the 33rd year of Meiji).⁶⁾ The latest one is its 57th edition in 1910 (the 43rd year of Meiji). More editions might have been reprinted later, but this fact shows the great demand for the two dictionaries from the middle to the late Meiji era.⁷⁾

(Section 1 by Dohi)

2. Background

2.1. Educational Background¹⁾

Nitobe notes (1970: 446–48) “In studying English, there are two methods . . . known as *Seisoku* (the Regular) and *Hensoku* (the Irregular).²⁾ The Regular method . . . teaches the correct reading of English words with proper accents, emphasis, etc., and so leads a pupil to understand them without translating them into Japanese . . . Its [*i.e.*, Irregular method’s] sole objective is to get the sense of a sentence and therefore it gives [*sic.*] no heed whatever [to] how a word sounds. If it is necessary to pronounce an English word . . . as little respect is paid to the pronunciation of the original . . . I am given a sentence . . . As long as I understand what each of these words means, and grasp the idea of the whole sentence, what should I care [about] how it sounds in my own or others’ ears . . . in the early days of Modern Japan, the ’sixties and the ’seventies . . . when the study of the Western languages was most eagerly sought . . . the Irregular method was the only one possible. Pioneer students had to make some sense out [*sic.*] of Western books, with an exceedingly limited vocabulary; for . . . dictionaries were few in number, meagre in their contents, and inexact in their definition [*sic.*] . . .” He also notes (1970: 443–44), “. . . Ever since 1879 there has scarcely been a school of any pretensions which has not included English in its curriculum . . . students have flocked to them not so much to learn colloquial English as to get a reading knowledge of it. Because the study of foreign languages was pursued as a means to other studies, it was naturally relegated to secondary courses of education, and only lately has it found a place in the Universities and in special schools devoted to it. During a decade — or two — say, roughly, 1877–1885 — all higher instruction was imparted in English, French or German. . . .”

Gakusei [the Education Order in 1872]³⁾ established the first consoli-

dated and modern school system in Japan, including the system of teaching foreign languages in schools. *Kyoiku rei* [the Education Order in 1879] excluded the subject of a foreign language from the curriculum, but did not drastically change foreign language teaching. The 1879 Order was extensively revised in 1880 and 1885 and superseded by *Gakko rei* [the School Orders in 1886], in which the first minister of education, Arinori Mori, issued several ordinances, such as *Teikoku Daigaku rei* [the Imperial University Order] or *Chugakko rei* [the Middle School Order]. Mori once conjured up a vision of abandoning the Japanese language in favor of English, and was responsible for motivating students to study English.

A series of studies of middle schools by Matsumura (1983, 1984, 1985) show their situation in the 1880s. In the early 1880s most subjects including English were taught using English textbooks, and the education there was in a constant state of flux. English was adopted as the formal name for a subject of a foreign language in 1881. The content of education became gradually unified in the middle 1880s, and the idea came to be accepted that English should be taught only in classes of English. Students had as many English classes as Japanese and classical Chinese. The number of students who studied English as a subject indispensable for going up to higher schools gradually increased. In the late 1880s the idea of practical English (*Seisoku*) and that of reading and translating English (*Hensoku*) were still popular.

There were the largest number of middle schools in 1879, though the number of private schools drastically decreased later. In the middle 1880s there were more than 100 middle schools, private and public, and more than 14,000 students attending them. The 1886 Ordinance divided those schools into two groups: a (five-year) *Jinjo* Middle School in each prefecture, and a (two-year) *Koto* Middle School for five divisions in Japan. English was specified as the first foreign language in both schools. Around 1885 through 1888 the number of private schools devoted to teaching English rapidly increased. More than 300 schools taught more than 25,000 students in 1887 and 1888 (Sakurai 1936: 169–70).

Under these circumstances, it was not surprising that the number of students who needed dictionaries increased. The major English-Japanese

dictionaries available at that time were *EJ2* (1882) and the reprinted edition of *SJ2* (1871), which were very expensive (Matsumura 1984: 68–69, 1985: 52). Sanshodo (Sanseido after March in 1890), the publisher of *WWJ* and the reprinted *EJ1* in 1887 (Sanseido 1981: 71, Hayakawa 1997: 19), for instance, tried to meet student demands by issuing a more reasonably priced and more user-friendly dictionary.

In connection with Webster's dictionaries, his revised edition of *The Elementary Spelling Book* was specified as a textbook in 1872.⁴⁾ Only a few self-teaching or translated books were issued around that time. They seem to have been issued for those studying English to acquaint them with the pronunciation of English (Yanaike 1991: 45). After about ten years, more than 50 such books were issued between 1881 and 1887. Hayakawa (To appear: 49–50) points out that most of them were issued between 1885 and 1887, and that this corresponds to the fact that 1885 saw the appearance of the largest number of English-Japanese dictionaries with the Websterian pronunciation shown. The popularity of these books as guide to the Spelling Book leads us to infer that an increasing number of students came to use English-Japanese dictionaries as well as the original Webster's dictionaries, and they had to study the guide books to understand better the Websterian pronunciation (Ida 1968: 284).

2.2. The Influence of Webster's Dictionaries

Historically speaking, Webster's dictionaries have had a large influence on many kinds of English dictionaries and other dictionaries. There are various editions of Webster's dictionaries. It is very important to note that one edition had an influence on *ECD*. Rev. W. Lobscheid,⁵⁾ *ECD*'s editor, admits in the preface that in the selection of headwords a particular edition was referred to (Shin 1994: 142, 187).⁶⁾ Needless to say, a Webster's dictionary motivated J. Ogilvie to compile *ID*, which is not only suggested by its title but admitted by the author in the preface.⁷⁾ These facts taken into account, it is clear that a Webster's dictionary could be thought of as a source dictionary for *ID* and *ECD*, though the editions they referred to are thought to have been different (cf. notes 6 and 7). English-Japanese dictionaries in the Meiji era are directly or indirectly influenced by Webster's

dictionaries as long as they imitated *CED*, *ECD*, or the original Webster's dictionaries imported from the US.

Nitobe (1970: 451–52) writes "The first educational work of the Americans in Japan was necessarily confined to imparting the English language. . . . the young McDonald, in 1848, improved the hours of his captivity by teaching the "American language." At the time Perry and Harris came, Dutch was the medium of diplomacy. There were scarcely any who could understand a dozen English words . . . Mr. Spalding says, that among the many presents Perry brought, *Webster's Dictionary* was perhaps the one most valued. The want of English interpreters was so severely felt, that anybody who could mutter a few English words or who could spell out A-S-I-A, was employed at a higher remuneration. Schools, private and public, arose for [*sic.*] instruction in English. . . ."

As is partly mentioned in the passage, Webster's dictionaries, abridged or not, were introduced to Japan around 1850. But it was not until the 1860s that many kinds of dictionaries derived from Webster gradually got to be known and used. It seems that Webster's dictionaries were favorably received by the Meiji government and Japanese intellectuals, as they enthusiastically tried to adopt or get acquainted with the systems and cultures of Western countries. Just some of what are or seem to be related to Webster's dictionaries are mentioned in chronological order. Before 1860 McDonald might not have had a dictionary (cf. Shigehisa 1982: 262). Manjiro Nakahama, a young fisherman who was saved while adrift went over to the United States and studied and lived there for about ten years, came back home in 1851 with an abridged dictionary (Nakahama 1936: 169). Commodore Perry is said to have brought a Webster's dictionary in 1854. But it is not clear whether they were really Webster's dictionaries. An interpretation over the definition of *complaint* shows that Gohachiro Namura, who had worked as an interpreter when Perry came to Japan and worked as a chief interpreter in the Hakodate Administrative Office in Hokkaido, seems to have used a Webster's dictionary in 1859 (Ishihara 1981: 203). In 1860, Yukichi Fukuzawa and Manjiro Nakahama as members of the mission to the US, imported abridged dictionaries. There is also a story from around the middle 1860s of a Webster's dictionary which

was highly valued by the Satsuma Clan in Kyusyu (Takemura 1933: 91). It is important to note from the lexicographical point of view that the appendix in the second edition of *ETSJ* (1862) seems to have had influence and to have incorporated some of the appendix from a Webster's dictionary (Sugimoto 1985: 721). The first idiom dictionary (1868) in Japan by the Obata brothers is said to have been based on a Webster's dictionary (Takenaka 1983, Hayakawa To appear: 172–84). It is pointed out that *SJ1* (1869) seems to have taken some headwords from a Webster's dictionary (Hayakawa 1997: 47), and its second edition (1871) adopts the Websterian pronunciation (Takemura 1933: 91). In the middle 1870s 'Webster's Primary Dictionary'⁸⁾ is listed as the title of the book with the second largest number of copies, which amounts to 185, in *A classified list of the English books in the Tokio-Kaisei-Gakko* (1873–77) (which soon developed into Tokyo Imperial University) (Kikuchi 1972: 157–58, cf. Iwasaki 1995: 219). In 1880s the name of Webster's dictionaries seemed to have been popular even among students. For example, Shoyo Tsubouchi, a former student of English and later a professor of English, wrote a novel titled 『当世書生氣質』 *Tosei Syosei Katagi* [The Character of Students Today], in which he describes the middle 1880s, and the dictionary is described as something special that they were eager to get (Ueno 1988d). In 1886 a scholar with the initials of K.M. (possibly Kakichi Mitsukuri, a scholar of science) gives a so-called review of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary in a learned journal *Toyo Gakugei Zasshi*, which is in fact not a review or criticism of it but its introduction. These facts clearly suggest that some kinds of Webster's dictionaries were imported into Japan and used not only in many departments of the government and schools or universities but also by many intellectuals and students.⁹⁾ Under these circumstances, it was quite natural that the name of Webster became fairly well known in the 1880s and an endeavor was made to try to translate the dictionary to serve students as well as teachers. At the same time the editors or publishers did not seem to think of the importance of copyright or have a strong sense of guilt about plagiarism (cf. Kojima 1989: 253–56). This partly explains why a lot of English-Japanese dictionaries after *EJ2* were planned and published, especially for a few years after 1885 (the 18th year of Meiji)

(Hayakawa To appear: 173–76).¹⁰⁾

MeEJ can be said to qualify as the first dictionary to claim that it is based on a Webster's dictionary. There were also dictionaries such as those by P. Nuttall or those by J. Ogilvie, or *ID* revised by C. Annandale in the early 1880s (cf. Hayakawa 1997). But it seems that in the middle Meiji era and for some time to come, the mainstream English-Japanese dictionaries were those compiled under the strong influence of Webster's dictionaries. Their authors at this time probably thought that the name of Webster appealed to the public and so would promote the sale of their dictionaries. Japanese lexicography at this time cannot be discussed without acknowledging the large contribution from Webster's dictionaries, abridged or unabridged, even if in reality the material was not often taken from Webster's dictionaries (cf. Hayakawa To appear: 156–60).

Webster's dictionaries not only made a great contribution to the compilation of English-Japanese dictionaries, but also to the translation of literature such as those works by W. Shakespeare (Takemura 1933: 230) and to motivating the compilation of a modern Japanese language dictionary (Nagashima 1970: 147–70, Hayakawa To appear: 186–208).

Which Webster's dictionaries did the editors refer to? The editor of *MeEJ* says clearly in the preface that it is mainly based on 'Webster's National Pictorial Dictionary' and the 1883 edition of 'Webster's Unabridged Dictionary' for its appendix. *WEJ* and *WWJ* seem to have been based on 'Webster's Unabridged Dictionary'. Sanseido (1982), the publisher of *WWJ* and one of the major publishers in later years, tells us that *WWJ* was going to be issued much sooner, but when they were informed that *WEJ* would be issued by Okura Shoten, a better known and more prestigious publisher at that time, they made the compiler make a fresh start (cf. 3.2.3.). That was in 1887 (cf. 3.1.5.). This leads us to speculate that *WEJ* was being compiled around 1886 and 1887, which makes it impossible for the editor of *WEJ* to refer to a Webster's dictionary published later than 1886. This leads us to consider it more reasonable to assume that the *WEJ* editor refers to the 'Webster's Unabridged Dictionary' of 1885 as the most recent edition at the time. A comparison is made between *WEJ* and *WWJ*, and the 1885 edition of the 'Webster's Un-

abridged Dictionary', although it might be possible for the editors to refer to its earlier editions, as the text of the dictionary itself does not seem to have been fundamentally changed since the 1864 edition.

(Section 2 by Dohi)

3. The Authors and the Dictionaries¹⁾

3.1. The Authors

It is stated on the front pages of the dictionaries that Shimpachi Seki is the translator of *MeEJ*, that Yutaka Shimada is the editor and translator of *WEJ*, and that F. Warrington Eastlake and Ichiro Tanahashi are the joint translators of *WWJ*. *WEJ* and *WWJ* even claim in their Japanese titles that they are dictionaries "translated into Japanese." Like those in the previous dictionaries analyzed, however, the compilers of the dictionaries might better be called authors rather than translators, since more than a mere translation from Webster's dictionaries accounted for much of the compilation of the dictionaries.

3.1.1. Shimpachi Seki (1839–86)

Shimpachi Seki was born a doctor's son to become a representative English scholar, interpreter, and educator in the late Yedo period and early Meiji era. Although he had a delicate constitution, he was gifted from childhood. With a view to learning Chinese studies and Confucianism, he entered a private school, Tanabe Juku, in the early 1850s. A few years later he was admitted to Shoheiko, a top educational institution of Confucianism in Japan at that time. But he was soon obliged to leave it because of his illness.

It was Taichi Tanabe, a son of Seki's former teacher, who opened his eyes to Western studies. After taking lessons in Dutch, Seki started studying English under Manjiro Nakahama in 1860, who had issued 『英米對話捷徑』 *Eibei Taiwa Shokei* [A Shortcut to English Conversation] (1859). His experience as an interpreter at the American Embassy and contact with the American ambassadors R. Pruyn and A. Portman from 1861 gave him an even better command of English. He also worked as an interpreter in two missions for the Tokugawa Shogunate: one to France in 1863–64,

and the other to America in 1867. Soon after his return from America, the Shogunate collapsed.

In 1870 he opened his private school, Kyoritsu Gakusha in Tokyo to teach practical English using original textbooks. It acquired a reputation equal to Keio Gijuku's (what is now Keio University), founded by Yukichi Fukuzawa, one of his best friends. He also worked for the translation section of the government. In 1876 Seki began to translate *Education: Intellectual, Moral, Physical* by Herbert Spencer, one of the most influential philosophers. It was published in 1880 by the Ministry of Education under the title of 『斯氏教育論』 *Su-shi Kyoikuron* [Mr. S's Thoughts on Education].

After closing his school, he set himself to the compilation of *MeEJ*. Unfortunately tuberculosis prevented him from accomplishing his last work. It was about two and a half years after his death in 1886 that the translator Hideki Nagamine²⁾ completed the unfinished work.

3.1.2. Yutaka Shimada (1851–99)

Little is known about Shimada's life. All that has been found is that he was born in Shizuoka Prefecture and died on August 10 in 1899. He lived in Tokyo, which is shown in the back matter of the dictionaries and his books. He deserves to be mentioned as he was the editor of some dictionaries as well as some books. Before he was engaged in the work of *WEJ*, he had already published a few books, such as 『英文手引草』 *Eibun Tebikigusa* (*A Guide to English Grammar*) (1886) in seven parts, based on works by W. Swinton, G. Quackenbos and so on, followed by its retitled edition 『英文軌範』 *Eibun Kihan* (*Rules of English Grammar Explained in Japanese*) (1888). He also translated 『正則ニユーナショナル第壹リードル獨案内』 *Barne's* [sic.] *New National Reader* No.1. (1886) and a few others. More than 30 works of his in the Diet Library in Tokyo, including dictionaries as well as translations, show that he was an energetic figure who contributed through his works to the English education of the 1880s and 1890s.

3.1.3. Frank Warrington Eastlake (1858–1905)

F.W. Eastlake was born in New Jersey, USA. His father, who came to

Japan in 1860, introduced Western dentistry. His mother had taken a Bachelor of Arts degree at Wilmington University, Delaware. Influenced by educated parents, he studied Latin, classical Greek, and some other foreign languages while young. At the University of Berlin he studied medicine, linguistics, philosophy and so on and received a Ph.D in linguistics. In 1884, because of his illness, he returned to live with his parents, who had again come back to Japan. With Yaichiro Isobe, a scholar of English studies, he founded in 1886 a weekly English newspaper *The Tokyo Independent* (『東京独立新聞』 *Tokyo Dokuritsu Shimbun*) (Fujii 1953: 100), a journal for studying English (Ebihara 1934: 136), only to discontinue it the following year. In 1888 he and Isobe established Kokumin Eigaku Kwai (National English Language Association) in Tokyo, which successfully taught practical English and English literature. Not only was his contribution to English education through 『国民英学新誌』 *Kokumin Eigaku Shinshi* (*Journal of The Kokumin Eigaku Kwai*) (Fujii 1953: 101) published by Sanseido in 1888–90 as well as *The Tokyo Spectator*, a weekly newspaper for studying English, but also through a large number of works that he left, which are listed in the catalogue of the Diet Library. No other native English teacher seems to have left so many works. He suffered from influenza complicated by pneumonia and died in February 1905. Because he was versed in many languages, he was known as Hakugen Gakushi [Doctor of Languages].

3.1.4. Ichiro Tanahashi (1862–1942)

Ichiro Tanahashi was born in what is now Gifu Prefecture. His father was a scholar of Chinese studies, and his mother taught at a women's school. In 1875 when his mother arrived in her new post at a women's school in Tokyo, his family moved there. He studied English at schools in Nagoya and Tokyo, and entered Tokyo Imperial University in 1880. After his graduation in 1884, he was involved in compiling several English-Japanese dictionaries, such as 『英和雙解字典』 *Eiwa-Sokai-jiten* (*An English and Japanese Dictionary of the English Language*, by P. Austin Nuttall LL.D, *Translated*) (1885). He founded a private junior high school, Ikubunkan Gakuen, in 1889 with the intention of “contributing to the

society by giving wholesome mental education at a high level, free from perfunctory education or much constraint from the outside.” (Ikubunkan Gakuen Hyakunenshi Hensan Iinkai 1989: 13–14).

3.1.5. Seisuke Saito (1868–1937)

Seisuke Saito was born in the first year of Meiji in what is now Yamaguchi Prefecture. While a teenager, he left home and went to Tokyo alone to study English. Suffering from a serious gastrointestinal disorder owing to his extreme temperance, he returned home, but came up to Tokyo again in 1886. Earning his living as a private tutor to Prince Mori's son, he was asked by Tadakazu Kamei, the founder of Sanshodo (or Sanseido), to help compile a new English-Japanese dictionary, *WWJ*.³ Saito deserves to be mentioned, as for all practical purposes he worked for *WWJ* as an unnamed editor. After that he was engaged in compiling dictionaries, textbooks, and an encyclopedia published by Sanseido, working for the company all his life. In his autobiography (1991: 56–58) he gives his ideas for compiling English-Japanese dictionaries, which can be summarized as follows.

Not only should dictionaries clarify the meaning of words but they should also provide appropriate equivalents. This requires of lexicographers a profound knowledge of Japanese and Chinese as well as English. In order to provide equivalents for technical terms, it is necessary to request experts in the field.

His ideas surely matched the encyclopedic feature of the English-Japanese dictionaries in those days, and moved the Ministry of Education to introduce to him experts in medicine, law, and technology.

3.2. The Dictionaries

3.2.1. *Meiji-Eiwa-Jiten* (*MeEJ*)

This dictionary was issued in eight parts. The first was issued by Riku-Go-Kuwan in 1884 and the last in 1889.⁴ The copies were bound together in one volume in 1889. It is sometimes said that this is why *MeEJ* did not sell well and become popular (Nagashima 1970: 130). The size of the body of the bound edition of the dictionary is the largest of the three, measuring

27.5 cm high × 19 cm wide × 6.5 cm thick (10.8 in × 7.5 in × 2.5 in).

Its English title is *An English and Japanese Dictionary, for the Use of Junior Students, by Sekey [sic.] Shimpachi. With the Addition of New Words and their Definitions, Together with a Biographical Dictionary*. The preface by the author, the explanatory notes, and the list of abbreviations, each taking up a page, are printed before the 1,155-page dictionary text. The preface states that the source book was 'Webster's National Pictorial Dictionary,' and that for the sake of lucidity, it need be of no concern if some Japanese equivalents are elevated in style while others are not. The page for the list of abbreviations is divided into two. The upper half carries as many as 61 subject labels such as [農] for 農事 (agriculture) and [解] for 解剖学 (anatomy). This large number is indicative of the encyclopedic feature of the dictionary, clearly influenced by a Webster's dictionary. On the lower half of the page are 10 abbreviations for parts of speech, 8 for grammatical terms such as the present and past participle, and 6 for foreign languages (cf. section 7).

Every page of the dictionary text consists of two columns. In each column are English headwords with their initials capitalized, their inflexions, parts of speech, and in the case of words of foreign origin, the label of the original language is shown. On the right are the Japanese equivalents and subject labels where applicable. Like *ETSJ*, *EJ*, and *TJ1,2*, every Japanese letter is printed at right angles to the horizontal page layout so that they can be read vertically.

After the dictionary text there are three appendices: Quotations, Words, Phrases, Proverbs, and Colloquial Expressions, from the Greek, the Latin, and Modern Foreign Languages, Frequently Occurring in English Books, in Periodicals, and in Conversations (pp. 1157–98), Abbreviations and Contractions Used in Writing and Printing (pp. 1199–1229), and A Biographical Dictionary (pp. 1230–70), which is an abridged version of the original dictionary.

3.2.2. *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-Jii (WEJ)*

WEJ was compiled by Yutaka Shimada, revised by S. Sugiura, J. Inoue and A. Manase⁵ and issued by M. Okura in 1887 (cf. section 10). Its

English title is *An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix*, which reminds us of the English title of *EJ* (Kokawa *et al.*, 1996: 86). The three dictionaries examined here as well as *EJ* contain no etymological information, as the authors did not know that Webster's Unabridged Dictionaries issued later than 1864 include etymology revised by W. Mahn or they did not think that etymology was important for studying English. A. Lloyd's⁶ preface claims that *WEJ* is characterized by 'the care which has been given to the accurate rendering into Japanese of scientific terms,' that 'old and inaccurate translations have been amended,' and that 'The price . . . is so low that it will bring it within reach of the poorest student,' followed by Shimada's preface in Chinese. In 'A Guide to the Spelling' and 'A Guide to the Pronunciation' morphological and phonetic information are provided respectively. Morphological information was considered necessary because without it users might have abandoned their search for a word even if they found a similar word with a slight difference. 'Abbreviations Used in This Work' on the next page is quite similar to the list of abbreviations in *MeEJ*. The list in *WEJ* gives 10 abbreviations for parts of speech, 8 for grammatical terms (cf. 3.2.1.), 9 for foreign languages, and 61 subject labels. About six out of seven subject labels of the same type in *MeEJ* are used in *WEJ* (and in *WWJ* as well). *WEJ1* is a handy dictionary, measuring 15.3 cm × 10.6 cm × 3.7 cm (6.0 in × 4.2 in × 1.5 in).

932 pages are allotted for the dictionary text, each page consisting of two columns. In each column are provided headwords with their initials capitalized and auxiliary phonetic symbols added to the letters of the headwords themselves, their inflexions, parts of speech, and Japanese equivalents. Many entries have examples, and run-on derivatives (cf. 4.2.1). Unlike *MeEJ*, Japanese letters are typeset horizontally. Illustrations are occasionally given between entries (cf. section 9). At the bottom of every page are printed key words for pronunciation (cf. 5.2.).

At the end of the volume is an appendix (cf. Ida 1980: 11): Table of Irregular Verbs (pp. 1–12), Abbreviations Explained (pp. 13–26), List of Familiar Phrases, Proverbs, Maxims, Quotations, and Mottoes, from the

Latin, French, and Italian Languages (pp. 27–47), Arbitrary Signs (pp. 48–50), Explanations of Abbreviations (p. 51), Tables of Measures and Weights of the Different Countries (pp. 52–54), and Arbitrary Signs for proofreading (p. 54), with a Specimen of a Corrected Proof-sheet (p. 55). Some pieces of information in the appendix for abbreviations overlap, and are therefore redundant. This variety of information seems to characterize the dictionary in the age of civilization and enlightenment. See section 10 for its revision.

3.2.3. *Webster-shi-Shinkan-Daijisho-Wayaku-Jii (WWJ)*

Around 1886 Kamei (see 3.1.5.) requested Tatsusaburo Tanaka, who later took a doctorate in medicine, to compile a concise English-Japanese dictionary. About a year later when the work was almost finished, they received the information that Okura Shoten intended to issue an English-Japanese dictionary at roughly the same time as Sanshodo. Considering that it was no use competing with it, they decided to make a new start by calling on Seisuke Saito as compiler. After *WWJ* was completed, it was checked by F.W. Eastlake and I. Tanahashi, and issued in 1888, with the two being the nominal joint translators. *WWJ* could be said to be the first dictionary that claims to be supervised by a native speaker of English, even though it is not at all clear how and to what extent he was involved. It sold well partly because it was the first time Sanshodo utilized newspaper advertisements with which other publishers were out of contact, asking the newspaper company to deal with the subscription for the dictionary at a lower price.

The English title is *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language, Translated into Japanese by a Committee*. Prefaces were written by F. Eastlake and Shigetaka Shiga, a scholar of agriculture. Its contents are similar to those of *WEJ*. 'Key to the Pronunciation' and 'Abbreviations Used in This Work' precede the 1,277-page dictionary text, except that derivatives are not run on but treated in separate entries. Its Appendix contains; Table of Irregular Verbs (pp. 3–12), A Vocabulary of Prefixes and Suffixes (pp. 13–23), Abbreviations and Contractions Used in Writing and Printing (pp. 24–49), Quotations, Words, Phrases, Proverbs, and Col-

loquial Expressions from the Greek, the Latin, and Modern Foreign Languages (pp. 50–84), Tables of Money, Weight and Measure of the Different Countries (pp. 85–95), Arbitrary Signs Used in Writing and Printing (pp. 96–99). The size is more bulky than *WEJ*, measuring 15 cm × 11 cm × 5.5 cm (4.3 in × 5.9 in × 2.2 in). See section 10 for its revision.

(Section 3 by Kanazashi)

4. Headwords and Examples

4.1. On Sampling

In order to make a comparison between Webster's dictionaries and the three dictionaries, some sampling was done.¹⁾ Here the same five parts of the dictionaries were investigated, based on *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-Jii (WEJ)*: *A-Acanthus*, *D-Debauchment*, *J-Jointure*, *O-Off*, *T-Tarnish*.

It is rather doubtful whether the authors at this time had a clear notion of examples in the dictionaries. *MeEJ* has some complete sentence examples. *WEJ* seems to have no such examples. They made no clear distinction between idioms, phrases, phrasal verbs, quotations or examples (cf. Hayakawa 1997: 103). Here examples include all of them. *WWJ* also has some complete sentence examples, some of which are directly taken from *ADEL*. *WEJ* does not seem to have had much interest in examples for clarifying meaning and usage. The number of examples in *WEJ* is far fewer than those in its contemporary competitor *WWJ* (cf. 4.3.2., 4.4.2.).

4.2. *Meiji-Eiwa-Jiten (MeEJ)*

4.2.1. Headwords

Based on a survey of five parts, about 36 pages out of 1,155, it is estimated that *MeEJ* should include around 48,000 headwords (see Table 1 below).

The same method of comparison cannot be applied to *MeEJ*. The reason is simple: the dictionary *MeEJ* is based on is different from the one on which the other two dictionaries are based. The preface clearly says that it is compiled with reference to 'Webster's National Pictorial Dictionary.' The title is usually placed on the cover of the dictionary. Its title page shows its real name: *A Dictionary of the English Language (DEL)*,²⁾ dating

back to the one issued in 1807 (Sugawara 1989). This dictionary was often revised and reprinted, and the author probably referred to the edition most recently published in his day around 1883. The most recent one available was revised and enlarged by W.A. Wheeler. The comparison is made between *MeEJ* and the 1877 edition of *DEL*, as it was impossible to look into later editions.

The method of presentation in *MeEJ* follows that of *DEL* in principle, though it is true in a few cases that two headwords in *DEL*, especially where intransitive and transitive uses are separately shown, are combined into one. *DEL* lists headwords without the system of run-on entries, and users look up the entry they want alphabetically.

The five parts in *MeEJ* contain the number of headwords in the second column in Table 1. The number of the third column shows that of the headwords not found in *DEL*. The fourth column shows the number of headwords found in Supplements of Additional Words and Definitions or in the text of the 1883 edition of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, which is in fact titled *An American Dictionary of the English Language (ADEL)*,³⁾ to which the author admits he referred for the new words and meanings as well as for 'A Biographical Dictionary.' The right column shows the number of words not found in *MeEJ* but found in *DEL*.

TABLE 1

A	246	16	16	0
D	270	14	14	3
J	214	1	1 ⁴⁾	5
O	340	75	63 ⁴⁾	2
T	401	185	182	4

Table 1 clearly shows that the dictionary depends on *DEL* including its appendix for its headwords. But it also takes in part of headwords from a larger dictionary, *ADEL*. This tendency is surprisingly more prominent among the latter half of the entries, such as O and T. This is partly explained by the fact that the dictionary is not only compiled by the author himself but also in fact by another author Hideki Nagamine, who is only mentioned in the preface of the fourth part (1886), but had much more experience of translation, including *An English and Chinese Dictionary*

(1881) (Seki 1996: 291–95). It is quite conceivable that the new editor took more headwords from a larger dictionary, such as *ADEL* (cf. Hosaka 1990: 80).⁵⁾

4.2.2. Examples

As in *EJ*, *MeEJ* tries to give examples shown in *DEL* as well as in *ADEL*. Unlike *EJ*, as is mentioned above, the dictionary sometimes gives examples in full sentences. The author was a school teacher in a private school, and he seems to have thought highly of examples as well as meanings, which led him to give some examples based on a Webster's dictionary. To achieve his purpose, *ADEL* seems to serve better as it shows far more examples than *DEL*, which is partly supported by Table 2 below.

Table 2 shows the number of examples in *MeEJ*. Examples in five sections were checked against several dictionaries. The number of the second column shows that of examples in the text. The third column shows the number found in *DEL*, while the fourth column shows that found in *ADEL*. The fifth column shows the number in *ECD*. The right column shows the number of similar examples or those not found in the dictionaries mentioned.

TABLE 2

A	74	8	38	17	11
D	104	26	39	31	8
J	8	7	1	0	0
O	49	16	11	11	11
T	135	44	77	7	7

It is clear that the number of examples found in *ADEL* is the largest, while the total number found in *DEL* comes the second. They are taken from definitions or explanations, or from the synonym column. (Note that the three dictionaries include no description of synonym.) The total number of examples found in either *ADEL* or *DEL* amounts to 70 percent of all. It is also interesting to note that the number of examples from *ECD* is the second largest in D, as in those days learned authors studied classical Chinese, which is also the case in *TJ* referred to in the last installment (cf. 3.1.5.). The examples not found in *MeEJ* are mainly limited to technical

terms, some of which are already shown in other dictionaries, such as *SPD* or *DSL*.⁶⁾

The facts in 4.2.1. and here make it clear that *MeEJ* could be called the first dictionary mainly compiled from Webster's dictionaries. *MeEJ* claims that it is based on *DEL*, but the survey has made us realize that a larger *ADEL* also benefits the dictionary.

4.3. *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-Jii* (*WEJ1*)

4.3.1. Headwords

Both the titles of the dictionary in Japanese and in English clearly imitate those of *EJ* (see Cited Dictionaries). This fact suggests that *EJ* is the model for, or followed by, later issued dictionaries (cf. 3.2.2.). But unlike *EJ*, the dictionary is compiled under the strong influence of *ADEL*.

Here some features of headwords in *WEJ1* are mentioned. The most remarkable is the system of run-on entries, which leads us to say safely that it is the first English-Japanese dictionary that employed the system. There is no such system employed in the Websterian tradition, or in the Scottish tradition of *ID* or *CED*, or in the British *SPD*. Regrettably no consistency is found in *WEJ1*. Unlike *ADEL*, *WEJ1* has the run-on system in many cases, where the original entries are independent in *ADEL*. All of this seems to have been done for the purpose of saving space. As is also the case with *ADEL*, *WEJ1* sometimes ignores an alphabetical order of words in part of the entries, where some headwords are paired off or in a triplet, which probably only causes users' misunderstanding. This means that at that time they only followed Webster's alphabetical order. Users had no idea where to look when they could not find some words they wanted. The worst of all was that the system of run-on entries was not often correctly put into practice, for example *Obliquely* or *Obliqueness* being run under the entry of *Obliqueangled*. If the system had been more systematically and carefully employed, it might have been more helpful. (Note that the run-on system was largely abandoned in the revised edition *WEJ2*, as no other dictionary at that time seems to have used such an innovative but complex system; the later issued competitor *WWJ* did not.)

The same five sections were looked into. In Table 3 below the left

number shows that of headwords in *ADEL*. The second shows the number of those not found in *WEJ1*, while the third shows the number of those not in *WWJ*. The right number shows those found in neither *WEJ1* nor *WWJ*, when the entries are checked against *ADEL*.

TABLE 3

A	475	69	19	145
D	536	29	87	245
J	473	45	43	107
O	541	50	13	162
T	472	129	0	109

First the total number of headwords will be estimated based on the table. About 25 pages in *WEJ1* and about 39 pages in *WWJ* were examined. Taking the total number of pages of each dictionary into account (*WEJ1* has 932, and *WWJ* has 1,277 pages), both of them are considered to contain approximately 50,000 headwords (cf. Ishii 1961: 83, Hayakawa To appear: 168).

Table 3 shows more than 40 percent of the entries in *ADEL* seem to have been omitted in *WEJ1*, and that the number of deleted words in *WEJ1* seems to be much larger than that in *WWJ*. But it is not necessarily so, as is clear in D or J. What kind of words in *ADEL* are left out in *WEJ1* will be looked into for reference. They could be put into several categories. The largest number of words are not labeled or categorized, followed by the second largest number of deleted words labeled as obsolete or rare (cf. *ECD*). The third largest group is found in technical words, such as those labeled as chemistry or botany. In D and T, the number of hyphenated words comes fourth. Other categories of small number include 'empty' entries where users make an effort to refer to other entries, entries of expressions of foreign origin such as Latin, those of dialectal expressions, those with the suffixes of *~ly* and *~ment*, those not directly related to the US or Great Britain. This small survey could suggest that the author tried, reasonably, to leave out obsolete or rare words, or technical words for the most part.

Also mentioned is how many headwords in the five sections of *WEJ1* are

not found in *ADEL*. The total number of words is only 47. 21 are included in the appendix of *ADEL*, while 13 are found in another dictionary *CED*. One is found in *ECD*, and 12 are not found in either of them.⁷⁾

The small survey suggests that the headwords in *WEJ1* are taken from *ADEL* including its appendix, mainly excluding words designated obsolete or rare, and parts of technical words as well as parts of hyphenated compounds.

4.3.2. Examples

Table 4 shows the number of examples in *WEJ1*. The left number shows the total. The second shows the number of those which are the same as those in *MeEJ*. The number in parentheses shows the number found in *ADEL*. The third shows the number found in *ECD*. The fourth shows those found in *EJ2*. The fifth shows the number found in *ADEL* or *DEL*. The right shows those not found in the dictionaries referred to, some of which are found in *DSL*, for instance.

TABLE 4

A	32	17 (12)	3	2	1	9
D	36	34 (30)		2		
J	23	9 (9) ⁸⁾			14	
O	45	27 (18) ⁸⁾	4		12	2
T	50	0	3		42	5

Less than half (87 out of 186) of the examples correspond with those in *MeEJ*. But more than 70 percent (138 out of 186) could be considered to have been directly taken from *ADEL* (see note 4 in section 3). The facts derived from the figures suggest that *WEJ1* owes a few examples to *MeEJ* and far more examples to *ADEL*.

4.4. Webster-Shi-Shinkan-Daijisyo-Wayaku-Jii (WWJ)

4.4.1. Headwords

Like *MeEJ* but unlike *WEJ1*, the way of presenting headwords without the complex system of run-on entries in *WWJ* follows that in *ADEL*. It is much easier for users to consult *WWJ* than *WEJ1*. The same kind of

problem still exists in some entries though. More than one or two headwords are sometimes listed one after another, which only sometimes causes users a little confusion when they do not know variants. The fact that *WEJ2* largely did away with the run-on presentation and followed the same way as Webster's dictionaries (or *WWJ*) seems to suggest that the run-on system was not favorably received among users, as it takes some time for learners without the basic knowledge of English grammar and morphology to get used to the system, though it is more economical of space. Headwords with different parts of speech are listed under different entries. For example, transitive and intransitive uses of the same verbs are in most cases distinguished by different entries. Part of the headwords include present participle forms and past participle forms, which cannot be found in *ADEL* (see below). Most of these facts show that *WWJ* largely imitates or copies *ADEL* much more consistently, which results in an easier-to-look-up dictionary.

The estimated number of headwords is mentioned above (4.3.1). The ratio of deleted words from Webster in five sections is not consistent. But the striking feature is that 109 words deleted in section T are the same as those in *WEJ1*. As is clear in Table 3, the headwords deleted in *WWJ* might be considered to be quite similar to those in *WEJ1*, except those in D (cf. 6.2.2.2.).

On the other hand, *WWJ* includes a larger number of words which are not found in *ADEL*. The total number is 118, only three of which are in the appendix of *ADEL*. No same headword is found in *ECD*. The source for those words not found in *ADEL* seems to be another dictionary *CED*, because 109 words can be found. The largest number of those words in *CED* is found in section J. Some of them are present participle forms and past participle forms (cf. Hayakawa 1997: 76). The headwords in *WWJ* are mainly based on *ADEL* and partly on *CED*, which suggests that *CED* also had an influence on the dictionaries in the middle Meiji era.⁹⁾

4.4.2. Examples

Look at Table 5 below with the number of the examples in five sections in *WWJ*.

TABLE 5

A	106	10 (7)	11 (2)	10 (7)	20	2	30	23
D	113	12 (6)	0	25 (21)	42	0	21	13
J	74	0	11 (11)	9 (7)	18	0	5	31
O	140	4 (4)	16 (11)	26 (20)	49	3	24	18
T	106	0	38 (38)	0	2	1	62	3

The left number shows the total. The second gives the number of the same examples as in *MeEJ*. The third gives that of the same examples as in *WEJ1*, while the fourth is the number of examples that are the same in both *MeEJ* and *WEJ1*. The number in parentheses shows that of examples found in *ADEL*. The fifth number indicates the number of the same examples as in *ECD*. The sixth shows the number as in *EJ2*. The seventh is the number of the same examples as in *ADEL*. The right number is that of examples that are not the same or not found in the dictionaries mentioned. Table 5 shows that a number of examples seem to have been taken from *MeEJ* and/or *WEJ1*, many of which are taken from *ADEL*. The largest number of examples taken from *ADEL*, which amounts to more than half of the total, proves that the dictionary could be considered to be based on *ADEL*, while the examples from *ECD* constitute the second largest. *WWJ* gives a number of examples about three times larger than *WEJ1*. Particularly noticeable is that most of the examples in T are in fact from *ADEL* (see note 4 in section 3). It could be generally said that the editors tried to imitate the text of *MeEJ* and *WEJ1*, and that of the original dictionary *ADEL*, when the additional fact is taken into account that the same quotations as in *ADEL* are sometimes given. As a result, more examples in *ADEL* than those in the two dictionaries are directly taken into the text.

4.5. Influence of *TJ2* on *MeEJ*, *WEJ* and *WWJ*

In the last installment, a detailed analysis was made of the influential technical term dictionary *TJ2*. Here it must be considered whether it also had some influence on the three dictionaries. A small survey was made of the examples, as most of them are given as examples (cf. *Abscissio-infiniti*). Not all of the examples have been incorporated. 24 randomly selected

headwords in *TJ2* with more than four examples shown are checked against the three dictionaries. *WWJ*, *WEJ1* and *MeEJ* are clearly influenced in this descending order: *WWJ* 16, *WEJ1* 13 and *MeEJ* 7 entries. At least one example is shown: *WWJ* 20, *WEJ1* 15 and *MeEJ* 11 entries. Some of the headwords clearly contain those examples in *TJ2*, which are not given in *ADEL*: *Action*, *Cognition*, *Conception*, *Fallacy*, *Judgment*, *Knowledge*, *Method*, *Notion*, *Proposition* and *Right*, for example. *WWJ* is explicitly and particularly influenced, because more headwords include the same examples of *TJ2*, such as *Law* and *Power* as well as *Knowledge* and *Proposition* mentioned above. The conclusion, based on a small survey, is that the three dictionaries have been partially influenced by *TJ2* (cf. 6.2.3.), and that *WWJ* more enthusiastically, though not comprehensively, takes examples from *TJ2* (cf. *Principle*).

4.6. The Overall Result

As is shown above, *MeEJ* takes nearly all the headwords from *DEL*, while *WEJ1* and *WWJ* take a large number of words from *ADEL*. *MeEJ* also partially tries to take more words from *ADEL*, especially in the latter part of the dictionary. The other two dictionaries can be said to have taken the headwords from *ADEL*. Part of the principle of *WEJ1* deleting words in *ADEL* has been mentioned above: it deletes mainly obsolete or rare words, and technical words. The similar principle seems to have been adopted in *WWJ*, as the number of words left out is more or less the same. But *WWJ* can be said to have taken more headwords from *CED*. In this respect, all of the three dictionaries are compiled in combination with more than one dictionary in headwords as well as examples, in spite of the claim that they are based on Webster's dictionaries (cf. Kikuchi 1992). The explanation seems to hold true of other dictionaries at that time (Hayakawa 1997: 143-45).

The small survey of the portions of the three dictionaries suggests that they are compiled mainly based on *ADEL* or *DEL*. The three dictionaries owe the choice of headwords and examples largely to Webster's dictionaries. American lexicography, especially the tradition of Webster's dictionaries, could be said to have made a large contribution to the mainstream

English-Japanese dictionaries in the 1880s.

(Section 4 by Dohi)

5. Pronunciation

5.1. A Short Historical Review since the Early Meiji Era.

Toyoda (1948: 135–36) says that the history of the treatment of pronunciation in English-Japanese dictionaries could be divided into six stages. His fourth stage was done in the 1880s, when the first textbook of phonetics was published. 『音韻論』 *Oninron (The Sounds Employed in the English Language)* by Charles Dallas was issued in 1872, showing 44 sounds, which was edited as a guide to *The Elementary Spelling Book*.¹⁾ The first major textbook 『英語発音秘訣』 *Eigo Hatsuon Hiketsu (How To Pronounce English)* was published in 1887, by Takenobu Kikuchy [*sic.*] under the supervision by G. Verbeck, who was involved in *SJ1* (1869). It shows the picture of the mouth as the organ of speech. There arose little by little an interest in pronunciation. Under the circumstances it gradually became quite natural for editors to include some guide to pronunciation in the body of dictionaries. In 1887 the Ministry of Education also issued a guidebook of about a dozen pages (*Directions for the Pronunciation of English*), which has the notation of the Websterian system. As is clear, the 1880s (and in fact through the Meiji era) is the time when the Websterian notation was in its heyday not only in dictionaries but also in textbooks (cf. Takebayashi 1968: 253).

5.2. Webster's Pronunciation

The second installment already mentioned that *SJ2* (1871) was the first dictionary in Japan to adopt the notation of a form of what was generally called the Websterian system. Other dictionaries in the early and middle Meiji era followed suit.

MeEJ introduces no notation of pronunciation. It indicates, strangely, that it shows no concern for it, so that it could be considered as a dictionary aimed at those students taking irregular courses, though the editor seemed to be eager to teach practical English (Takemura 1933: 78).

The other two dictionaries, *WEJ1* and *WWJ*, adopt and show the system

of Websterian pronunciation. The notation in the two dictionaries is almost the same. But unlike *EJ*, they do not give their notation of pronunciation in brackets; that is, they do not adopt the system of respelling notation but the Websterian system of diacritical marks. It could be conceivable that the system was too difficult for Japanese users to understand. The complicated presentation of headwords with diacritical marks shows both their spelling and their pronunciation as well as their accent and syllabication. Some similar and confusing presentations, such as *Chīld*, *Epoeh*, *Chāise*, made it very difficult to tell one from the other. Both in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* some phonically irregular headwords are further followed by rewritten phonetic symbols in parentheses. Comparing the A section of *WWJ* and *WEJ1* with *ADEL* shows that not all of the rewritten notations are given in the texts, and that *WWJ* has three times more notations than *WEJ1* in the text. Not much use of the Websterian system seems to have been made, which urged users to study translations or guidebooks for the spelling books (cf. 2.1.). It is also doubtful whether the system of placing key words at the bottom of each page proved to be successful. It should be added that those key words there are the same in *WEJ1* and *WWJ*, but quite different from those in *ADEL* or *DEL*.

5.3. *WEJ1* and *WWJ*

WWJ follows the example of *ADEL* published later than 1864, and only shows 'Key to the Pronunciation', which does not mean that it shows much interest in pronunciation. Comparing the key to the pronunciation of *WEJ1* and that of *WWJ*, and that of *ADEL* shows that both of them follow *ADEL*, though the fact is that *WWJ* only fails to show *g* as in *gem* or *engine*, while *WEJ1* fails to give the presentations *y* as in *style*, *y* as in *nymph*. The explanation in italicized letters of *e*, *i*, *o*, as in *fallen* or *basin*, is in fact given in the front matter of *A Guide to the Pronunciation* (p. xiii). All of them are used in the text. This leads us to conclude that they follow in principle the presentations of *ADEL*.

WEJ1 could be said to be partly innovative in that it has a ten-page *Phonotypy*, which explains how to pronounce various vowels and consonants. Particularly noticeable is that it shows the way of pronunciation

using more than a dozen pictures of the mouth, or the organs of speech. Hayakawa (To appear: 46) points out that spelling books published in 1885 and 1886 already used the system, and this is not the first attempt (cf. 5.1.). But *WEJ1* can be said to be the first dictionary to adopt the similar system. The dictionary is meant as a dictionary and a pronunciation guide. (Examples with *katakana* are sometimes given, which is a method already found in guidebooks in the early Meiji era.) *WEJ1* seems to have given more importance to pronunciation than the other two dictionaries. But the problem is that it adopts the Websterian diacritical presentation, which makes it doubtful whether its pronunciation guide really proves so useful for users.

(Section 5 by Dohi)

6. Translation

The dictionaries mainly examined in this section are *WEJ1* and *WWJ*. After brief description of their formats, influence of predecessors' works revealed by our research will be dealt with in terms of lexicographical features (in 6.2.) and the Japanese translation (in 6.3.).

6.1. Format of Presentation

We can see at a glance that they, especially *WWJ*, look quite similar to Webster's *ADEL* with many of the same pictorial illustrations and diacritical marks (cf. 5.2.). Both *WEJ1* and *WWJ* set two columns on each page, but only the latter subdivides one column into two, the English headwords on the left and Japanese translations on the right. As a result, some blanks are left in *WWJ* and it is easy to run our eyes over the page, whereas *WEJ1* looks much denser because it economizes on space.

English headwords and Japanese translations are both printed horizontally like *EJ2*. (cf. 3.2.2.) In terms of equivalent presentation the combination of *kanji* (Chinese character) and *katakana* is adopted, while *hiragana* is used in place of *katakana* in the current English-Japanese dictionary.

6.2. Dictionaries as Main Sources

This section will introduce the three main dictionaries, *MeEJ*, *ADEL*

and *TJ2*, which *WEJ1* and/or *WWJ* seemed to refer to, and the features which were, as a result, incorporated in them.

6.2.1. *Meiji-Eiwa-Jiten (MeEJ)*

MeEJ (1884-89) is considered a landmark in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries. In the page layout and typesetting it resembles *EJ1*: the Japanese translations are printed vertically, the way the Japanese language is traditionally written (see Kokawa *et al.* 1996) (cf. 3.2.1.). What distinguishes this dictionary from the predecessors is its reference to the source dictionary, 'Webster's National Pictorial Dictionary', in the preface and actual utilization of it. It is *MeEJ* that introduced the *semantic* features of Webster's dictionary into English-Japanese dictionaries for the first time (Hayakawa 1994: 23).

The most innovative feature is that word senses are demarcated and grouped together in *MeEJ*. This is something which we will treat in detail in the next section. Another contribution to the progress of Japanese lexicography is that technical terms/senses are consistently labelled for the first time. Labels of as many as 61 kinds are in the list of abbreviations (cf. 3.2.1.). These lexicographical innovations as well as translation equivalents were a great influence on its successors, including *WEJ1* and *WWJ*.

6.2.1.1. The presentation of different senses

It is a remarkable lexicographical development that different senses of a headword are separated and grouped together by a circle (○) in *MeEJ*. Take the example of *Calf*.

Calf, (名) 牛^{ニウ}ノ^ノ犢^ト (a young cow) ○ 呆^ド人^ニ (an idiot) ○ 腓^ヒ (the back part of the leg below the knee)

The sense demarcation is, in many cases, also based on *DEL*. Here three different meanings of *Calf* are recognized: 1. The young of the cow. 2. An ignorant, stupid person. 3. The thick, fleshy part of the leg behind, below the knee. Obviously, both the meanings and the order correspond to those in *MeEJ*.

This is great progress over *EJ*, and *WEJ1* followed the good example of

WEJ1: 想像; 思想, 理想, 觀念; 意見.

WWJ: 意、意見、想像; [哲] 觀念、理想

It seems that *WWJ* made more use of *TJ*, as it is often the case that identical translations are found only in *WWJ*, not in *WEJ1* (cf. 4.5.). For example:

Candidate TJ2: 候補(政)

WEJ1: 候補者, 仕官ヲ望ム人, 志願人; 被撰者.

WWJ: 仕官ヲ望ム人, 候缺; [政] 候補

6.3. Characteristics of Japanese Translations

6.3.1. *Kango*-oriented translations in *WEJ1* and *WWJ*

Translations given in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* are generally *kango*-oriented, showing the trend at that time which had been set since the publication of *EJ1*. Most of the translations both in *WEJ1* and in *WWJ* were borrowed from their predecessors, in many of which the influence of *ECD* and/or *EJ* is evident (Ishii 1961: 85; Preface of *WEJ1*) (cf. 6.5.2.).

In addition, dictionaries were usually compiled by intellectuals with much knowledge of *kango* (Ishiwata 1971: 360) and the tremendous amount of translation of Western books increased the proportion of *kango* in the Japanese language dramatically in the early years of the Meiji era (Ishiwata 1971: 353–58). According to Ishiwata (1971: 360–61) the use of *kango* terms in daily conversation prevailed even among the ordinary people in the early Meiji era. In *EJ2R* published in the same year as *WEJ1*, *kango* translations account for 60% of the Japanese equivalents. The percentage is fairly high compared with 20% in *ETSJ2* (1866) (Kashiwadani 1982: 67).

6.3.2. Systematic use of *wago* terms

Difficult *kango* terms are accompanied by corresponding *wago* terms, which are much more comprehensible, in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* as well as in *MeEJ*. As in the examples below, immediately after a *kango* translation there follows an explanatory *wago* term put in the square brackets in *WEJ1*, and in round brackets in *WWJ*. Two types of usage of *wago* terms can be observed there: to explain the meaning of *kango* (Example (a)); to

show the pronunciation of *kango* (Example (b)). The latter is widely used in contemporary English-Japanese (learner's) dictionaries.

Example (a) *Babble v.i.* 亂語 [ワカラヌコトヲイ] フ, ... [*WEJ1*]

Babble v.i. 乱語 (ワカラヌコトヲイ) フ, ... [*WWJ*]

Example (b) *Canker v.i.* ... 鏽 [サビ] ヲ生ズル. [*WEJ1*]

Canker n. ... 鏽 (サビ)、... [*WWJ*]

WWJ provides more *wago* explanations than *WEJ1*, and therefore, can be considered more user-friendly in this respect. We picked up 133 entries which are included both in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* (from *C* to *Camomile*) and compared the common senses that have the same Japanese translations. 13 *wago* explanatory terms are shared in both and 21 more are only in *WWJ*,²⁾ whereas there is only one found in *WEJ1*.

This efficient method was originally devised by the authors of *EJ1*. (In the following quotation, *FSEJ* means the same as *EJ1* in this paper, and, similarly, *FSEJ2* as *EJ2*, *FSEJ2R* as *EJ2R*)

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*, ... 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 quater-sized type.)

(Kokawa *et al.* 1996: 101–02)

Having seen the practice was welcomed by users, lexicographers of the succeeding dictionaries probably decided to incorporate it in their works.

(Section 6.–6.3.2. by Komuro)

6.4. Types of Japanese Translations

There are three types of Japanese translation in *MeEJ*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ*:

translations still used today, translations no longer used today, and paraphrasal or explanatory translations. The word *Naturalization* provides an example. The translations in the three dictionaries are as follows:

MeEJ: 他国人ニ本国人ト同様ノ権利特許ヲ与フル事。

帰化。異邦入籍

WEJ1: 他国人ニ本国人ト同様ノ権利特許ヲ与フルヲ,

帰化, 異邦入籍

WWJ: 外国人ヲ戸籍ニ入レ本邦人ト同一ノ権利特許ヲ与フルヲ, 帰化

Each dictionary presents two or three translations for the word. The translation 帰化 *kika* is the word commonly used in present-day Japanese, while the term 異邦入籍 *ihonyuseki* is no longer adopted as a translation in current Japanese.

The paraphrasal translation in *WEJ1* is 他国人ニ本国人ト同様ノ権利特許ヲ与フルヲ, and it is the translation of the definition given in *ADEL*: the act of investing an alien with the rights and privileges of a native subject or citizen. This translation is exactly the same as that of *MeEJ*. It may be possible to assume that the translation of *WEJ1* was copied from that of *MeEJ*. The explanatory translation in *WWJ* is 外国人ヲ戸籍ニ入レ本邦人ト同一ノ権利特許ヲ与フルヲ. The expression is a little different from that of the paraphrasal translations in *MeEJ* and *WEJ1*. It seems to be a blend of *WEJ1*'s translation and *EJ1*'s translation. *WWJ*'s translation can be divided into two parts: 外国人ヲ戸籍ニ入レ (to make a new family register for a foreigner) and 本邦人ト同一ノ権利特許ヲ与フルヲ (to bestow the same right as that of the natives). It may be reasonable to presume that the former part was adopted from *EJ1*, for its expression is exactly the same as that of the *EJ1* translation. The latter part may have been adopted from the translation in *WEJ1*. The translations in both dictionaries are quite similar.

6.5. The Source of Japanese Translations

6.5.1. Translations for neologisms

Translations for neologisms were often adopted from *ECD*. Thus translations in English-Japanese dictionaries compiled in the mid-Meiji era were mostly *kango*-oriented. For example, as to the word *Agent*, *MeEJ* adopted the *kango* translations 代理者 *dairisha*, 替理者 *tairisha* and 替弁者

taibensha from *ECD*.

TJ2 also played an important role in establishing Japanese translations for new words. In fact it provided the word 帰化 *kika* as the translation for the word *Naturalization*.

The paraphrasal translations were, as can be seen in the case of the entry word *Naturalization*, generally the translation of word definitions or notes in the American dictionaries on which the Japanese dictionaries were based. They may have been considered indispensable, since the *kango* translations were not accepted as established translations by ordinary dictionary users at that time.

6.5.2. Borrowed translations

Kikuchi (1996: 264) points out that a number of translations in *WWJ* are the same as those in *EJ2* and *WEJ1*.

However, according to its back matter, *WEJ1* was apparently published in January of 1888; that is only 8 months before the publication of *WWJ*. Therefore, the compilers of *WWJ*, even if they had managed to do so, would not have had much time to refer to *WEJ1* for information. Thus it is probable that *WEJ1* was actually published earlier than the date stated in the back matter (cf. section 10). That may have enabled the compilers of *WWJ* to use *WEJ1* as reference material.

The translations in *MeEJ*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ* are mostly the same. As to polysemic words, different senses are ordered and grouped in the same way. Since *MeEJ* was published in 8 parts from 1884 to 89, it must have been impossible for the compiler of *WEJ1* to refer to all of the entries in *MeEJ* (see note 4 in section 3). However, the similarity between the two suggests that *WEJ1* may have copied the translations in *MeEJ* for earlier entries.

As mentioned above, *WWJ* may also have copied its translations from those of *WEJ1*. However, Kikuchi (1996:263) points out that some of the translations in *WWJ* may have its source in *EJ1* or *ECD*.

The word *Napkin* serves as an example. The entry of *Napkin* in *ADEL* is as follows: 1 A little towel; a cloth used for wiping (or drying) the mouth, especially at the table. 2 A handkerchief [*obs.*]. The translations each dictio-

nary provides for the word are as follows:

- ECD*: 巾, 手巾, 茶布, 布仔, 祺, 播;
EJ1: 手巾 (食事ノ時ニ用フル)
MeEJ: 巾。手巾。
WEJ1: 巾, 手巾。
WWJ: 手巾 (テヌグヒ) [食事ノ時ニ用フル]

MeEJ must have turned to *ECD* for an appropriate translation of the word, since it was something foreign to the Japanese culture. It adopted two translations from the six translations provided in *ECD*: 巾 and 手巾. *WEJ1* followed suit and adopted the same translations from *MeEJ*. However, *WWJ* adopts only one translation for the word *Napkin*; that is 手巾. Since it is a *kango* term, *WWJ* provides the *wago* translation テヌグヒ next to it. Finally a brief explanation 食事ノ時ニ用フル (used at meal time) is added beside the *wago* translation. It is evident that *WWJ* did not just copy *WEJ1*'s translation for the word. In fact the entry in *WWJ* for the word is exactly the same as that in *EJ1*. This may endorse the possibility that *WWJ* referred not only to *WEJ1* but also to *EJ1* for information and appropriate translations.

6.6. Selection Restriction

WWJ provides information concerning selection restriction for the users. The information is often inherited from its predecessors *MeEJ* and *WEJ1*, as the following example shows:

- Roast*, v.
MeEJ: 炙ル。燻ク。焼ク (肉類 ヲ)
WEJ1: 炙ル, 燻ク, 焼ク (肉類ナドヲ)
WWJ: 焼ク [肉類ヲ]

All three dictionaries state that the verb takes meat as its object in almost the same expressions.

As to the verb *Radiate*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ* have five translations in common: 四出スル, 支出スル, 旁出スル, 射出スル, 光線ヲ放ツ. However, *WWJ* adds three new translations to the word and two of them accompany appropriate objects in square brackets: 発散スル [熱ノ] (to send out heat), 発スル [光又熱ヲ] (to emit light or heat).

(6.4. — 6.6. by Takahashi)

7. Label

It is common in the three dictionaries, *MeEJ*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ*, that a number of subject labels are used which make the dictionary encyclopedic (cf. 3.2.3.). This section will take a closer look at the treatment of labels in *WEJ1* and *WWJ*, both of which seem to be based on *ADEL* in labeling, too.

Like *MeEJ*, both *WEJ1* and *WWJ* tabulate 'Abbreviations Used in This Work' (cf. 3.2.2., 3.2.3.) just before the main text. The tables include two region labels, *Am.* and *Eng.*, seven abbreviations to indicate original foreign languages, quite a few subject labels (61 in *WEJ1* and 70 in *WWJ*) and one style label, [俗] (*Vulgar*). Not all the labels listed seem to be actually used and there are some labels included not in the list, but in the main text.¹⁾ The labels which really appear in the entries are basically copied from *ADEL*.

The following lists the headwords (from *Cam* to *Campanula*) any sense(s) of which are labeled in any of the three, *ADEL*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ*, and shows how they are treated in each dictionary. The dash (—) stands for the absence of any label. The labels are placed in square brackets, usually before the Japanese translations.

	<i>ADEL</i>	<i>WEJ1</i>	<i>WWJ</i>
Cam, n.	<i>Mach.</i>	[機] (<i>Mach.</i>)	[機] (<i>Mach.</i>)
Camber, n.	<i>Arch.</i>	[建] (<i>Arch.</i>)	no entry
Camel, n.	<i>Zoöl, Naut.</i>	—, [航] (<i>Naut.</i>)	[動] [航] (<i>Zoöl, Naut.</i>)
Camellia, n.	<i>Bot.</i>	[植] (<i>Bot.</i>)	[植] (<i>Bot.</i>)
Camera, n.	<i>Arch.</i>	[建] (<i>Arch.</i>)	[寫] [建] (<i>Arch.</i>)
Camerated, p.a.	<i>Conch.</i>	no entry	no entry
Cameration, n.	<i>Arch.</i>	[建] (<i>Arch.</i>)	[建] (<i>Arch.</i>)
Camion, n.	<i>Mil.</i>	[軍] (<i>Mil.</i>)	no entry
Camisade, n.	<i>Mil.</i>	—	[軍] (<i>Mil.</i>)
Camomile, n.	<i>Bot.</i>	—	—
Camp, n.	<i>Agric.</i>	no sense	[農] (<i>Agric.</i>)
Campaign, n.	<i>Mil.</i>	—	[軍] (<i>Mil.</i>)
Campaniform, a.	<i>Bot.</i>	[植] (<i>Bot.</i>)	no entry
Campanula, n.	<i>Bot.</i>	[植] (<i>Bot.</i>)	no entry

Some labels in *WWJ* are taken from *TJ2* together with translations (cf.

6.2.3.). For instance:

Illation 推断, 推度, 手積, [論](logic) 推講法

The encyclopedic information is fairly well provided with labels. As for region labels, *Am.* and *Eng.* are not used, but translated into Japanese and put after the Japanese translations.

Calico 白洋布[カナキン](英国ニテ), 印花布[サラサ](米国ニテ) [WEJ1]
白洋布(カナキン)[英国]、印花布(サラサ)[米国] [WWJ]

(Section 7. by Komuro)

8. Encyclopedic Information in WWJ

It has already been mentioned in 6.2.2.3. that encyclopedic information is given in WWJ and some of the encyclopedic information is translated from the word definitions and notes of ADEL. In fact WWJ has more encyclopedic or cultural information compared with the other two dictionaries: MeEJ and WEJ1.

In this section we will examine the encyclopedic features of WWJ in more detail by quoting some examples.

8.1. The Use of Icons

The encyclopedic information is placed after the icon ☞ in WWJ. For example, in the case of the word *Raid* (n.), additional information concerning its origin follows the icon: ☞ 蘇格人ノ語ナリシガ数年ノ間ニ合衆国ニテ多ク用ヒラル、ニ至レリ. It is the exact translation of the information given in ADEL: A Scottish word, which within a few years has come to be much used in the United States.

Usage notes sometimes come after the icon as in the case of the word *Pea*. Its note is as follows:

☞ 本詞ハ豆類ノ定限数ヲ示ス複数ニ Peas ヲ用フ例令バ two peas (二粒ノ豆等)又其不定限ナル量若クハ質ヲ示ス複数ニハ Pease ヲ用フ 例令バ Three pease (三種ノ豆)等の如シ

It is also the translation of the usage note given in ADEL: when a definite number is referred to, the plural is written *peas*; as two *peas*, five *peas*; but when an indefinite quantity or bulk is spoken of, it is written *pease*.

As to the word *Reverend*, MeEJ and WEJ1 explain that the word is used as a title for clergymen: 往々僧侶ノ尊称トシテ用フ. WWJ gives the same explanation after the icon ☞, and gives three titles as examples:

Reverend, a. 尊キ、崇敬スベキ、敬事ス
☞ 本詞ハ往々僧侶ノ尊称トシテ用フ例令
ハ very reverend 太尊 [副牧師ノ尊称]
Right reverend 正尊 [監牧師ノ尊称]
Most reverend 至尊 [総領牧師ノ尊称]

The explanation is originally the translation of the note in ADEL. The titles are also explained in the note in ADEL, and the *kango* translations are adopted from ECD. This case shows that WWJ referred to the notes of MeEJ and WEJ1 when giving additional information for an entry word. However, the notes in WWJ are richer in information compared with those of MeEJ and WEJ1. In fact, most of the notes given in WWJ do not exist in MeEJ or WEJ1.

8.2. Explanations in Square Brackets

When a single-word translation was considered not enough, extra information in square brackets was added after the translation in order to help the user's comprehension. These explanations were usually provided for words that were unfamiliar to the Japanese in those days. The following is an example:

Raccoon, n. [獸] 浣熊 [北米亜米利加産又 racoon, rackoon トモ書ス]

The explanation in the brackets says that the animal lives in North America and that the word is spelt either *raccoon* or *rackoon*. This explanation is actually based on the information given in ADEL.

The information is sometimes enriched in WWJ compared with that in MeEJ or WEJ1. The following is the comparison of the translation of the verb *Pay* in the three dictionaries:

MeEJ: 塗填スル(油脂等ヲ以テ)
WEJ1: [航] 塗填 [ヌリウメ]ル、蓋フ(脂等ニテ)
WWJ: [航] 蓋フ [船舶ノ龍骨、桅樁、帆桁等ニ牛羊等ノ脂肪ヲ塗填(ヌリウメ)ル]

According to *MeEJ*, to pay means to rub grease into something. *WEJ1* gives almost the same definition, but we can tell from the label [航] that the verb has something to do with ships. *WWJ* gives the full information; the verb, when used in the nautical field, means to rub the grease of cows or sheep into a keel, a mast or a yard of a ship. The information in *WWJ* is based on the entry for the verb *Pay* in *ADEL*.

Translations of technical terms are also sometimes followed by explanations in square brackets as the following example shows:

Radiometer, n. 射力計 [往時天体ノ高度ヲ測ルニ用ヒタリ]

The explanation says that the device was formerly used to measure the altitude of a celestial body. This explanation is the translation of the definition given in *ADEL*. It must have been added considering the possibility that many users of the dictionary had never seen such a tool before.

As for the word *Rabbit*, the difference between a rabbit and a hare is explained in the brackets: [hare 野兎ニ似テ体小サク且ソ脚及ヒ耳モ亦短シ]. The explanation says that a rabbit resembles a hare, but is smaller in size and its legs and ears are shorter. This explanation is also the translation of the definition given in *ADEL* and *DEL*.

MeEJ gives a similar explanation for the entry word while *WEJ1* does not. Therefore it endorses the possibility that the compilers of *WWJ* referred to *MeEJ* while compiling their dictionary.

8.3. The Difference between Explanations after the Icons and Those in Square Brackets

It does not seem that the compilers of *WWJ* made a clear distinction between the explanation put after the icon ☞ and that put in square brackets. The only apparent difference is that explanations after the icon ☞ are usually longer than those in square brackets. For example, the word *Rabbit* has the explanation led by an icon as follows:

☞ 本詞ノ隠語ハ最モ不利ナル買物ヲ為シタル時ニ之ヲ称シテ “Hare brought the rabbit” ト云フ此語ハ或人ガ外国人ニ兎ナリト偽リテ猫ヲ売リタル昔話ヨリ来タリタルナリト

This is an explanation of the phrase “Hare brought the rabbit.” It says that

it is a slang expression used when someone suffered the most loss when doing some shopping. It is said that the expression originates from an old tale of a man who deceived a customer into buying a cat, telling him that it was a rabbit. This explanation is neither in *ADEL* nor in *DEL*. It is not clear where it came from.

The attempt to provide extra information for an entry word can already be seen in *MeEJ* and *WEJ1*. However the compilers of the dictionary seem to have been uncertain about how to provide such information for the user's convenience.

(Section 8 by Takahashi)

9. Illustration

The second installment mentioned that *EJ* makes use of the illustrations in *ADEL* (Kokawa *et al.* 1996: 111–15). Among the three dictionaries, *MeEJ* gives no pictorial illustrations, though it claims that it is based on ‘Webster's National Pictorial Dictionary’ (*DEL*). One reason is that the main dictionary of *DEL* the editor referred to does not have so many illustrations as *ADEL* (see Table 6 below). The editor also seemed to feel that they were not important or necessary in either practical English or reading foreign literature and the like.

The other two dictionaries *WEJ1* and *WWJ* include some illustrations in the text. Table 6 shows how many of them are taken by each dictionary from *ADEL*. All the illustrations in A, D, J, O and T are looked into.¹⁾

TABLE 6

A	42	29	(24)	151	(33)
D	21	14	(12)	105	(23)
J	10	12	(10)	27	(10)
O	23	20	(20)	53	(22)
T	64	58	(45)	176	(39)

The left number shows that of illustrations in *WEJ1*, while the second shows that of *WWJ*. The third in the parentheses shows the number of the same illustrations that are both in *WEJ1* and in *WWJ*. The fourth shows those in *ADEL*, while the right number in parentheses shows that of *DEL* only for reference. The survey suggests that *ADEL* offers the two dic-

tionaries some illustrations. *WWJ* has a large number of the same illustrations as those in *WEJ1*. Or it could be argued that *WWJ* imitates or copies *WEJ1*. The interesting fact is that the only exception where they differ in the illustrations is *Tide*. The others are the same or almost the same in the two. *WEJ1* devotes more space to illustrations. Comparing the 1859 edition of *ADEL* with the illustrations under 22 classifications, we see that the 1885 edition gives a larger number of illustrations under more than 50 headings. The groups with a larger number of illustrations consist of Architecture, Botany, Ichthyology, Mechanics · Machinery, Ornithology and Quadrupeds. This seems to have some influence on the illustrations in *WEJ1* as well as in *WWJ*.

Some illustrations in *WEJ1* are not taken from *ADEL* but from *DEL* or some other dictionaries. Four illustrations in section A are taken from *DEL*, while one is taken from *CED* or *ID*. Two in section D, three in O, and three in T are all taken from *DEL*. The source of *Almond* and *Olive* has not yet been ascertained. Such is the case of *Tamarind* and *Tide*. *Trunk* is not properly placed in the entry. It could be asserted that not all the illustrations are directly taken from *ADEL*.

In *WWJ* a similar trend is seen. In some illustrations, not *ADEL* but *DEL* is referred to. For example, *Angle*, *Jay*, *Oat* and *Top*. The illustration of *Acerose-leaves* is the same as that in *ID*. In the entry *Telescope*, only the same illustration as that in *WEJ1* is used, although a few others are given in *ADEL*, which clearly confirms the fact that *WWJ* undoubtedly imitates *WEJ1*. Or it might be argued that the editors in *WWJ* considered the quality of illustrations in *WEJ1* superior, as the publisher of *WEJ1* had the experience of exporting *Nishikie* (modern prints of *Ukiyo-e*) to foreign countries (cf. Suzuki 1985: 107).

From the lexicographical point of view, no consistency is found, as the illustrations mainly follow those in *ADEL* or *DEL*, which also cannot be considered to have shown a consistent principle in presenting illustrations. It is conceivable that *WEJ1* and *WWJ* only follow the examples of their great predecessor *EJ* in this area.

(Section 9 by Dohi)

10. Supplement and Appendix in Later Editions

The last section briefly mentions the revised editions. *MeEJ* is one of the first dictionaries in which most of the materials are taken from Webster's dictionaries. But regrettably, it was never revised or enlarged, which caused it to become forgotten, even among students of English studies.

WEJ1 in its title page claims it was published in 1887, but the publication date in the back matter tells us it was issued in 1888. The back matter in later editions shows that the first edition seems to have been issued in November 1887. The second edition entitled 『訂正増補和訳英字彙』 *Teisei-Zoho-Wayaku-Ei-Jūi* (*WEJ2*) was issued about a year later in 1888. Its striking feature is that the text of the dictionary is enlarged by about 90 pages, and the appendix is also greatly expanded by about 350 pages, clearly because of the direct inclusion of the appendix in *ADEL*. The following added in the appendix is particularly characteristic of the appendix of *ADEL*: A Vocabulary of Prefixes and Suffixes, A Pronouncing Gazetteer of the World, A Pronouncing Biographical Dictionary, Geographical Terms, of which the second and the third are taken from the editions issued later than 1884 (Hayakawa To appear: 162-64). The fourth edition (1890) newly includes about 75 pages of A Classified Selection of Pictorial Illustrations in This Work.¹⁾ The sixth edition (1891) is the next one which undergoes a major revision, as it contains, in over 240 pages, a Supplement of New Words and Phrases. The major revision is also found in its 19th edition (1899), where A Classified Selection of Pictorial Illustrations is replaced by A Handbook for All the Technical Terms and Phrases in Commerce. This seems to sum up its revision.²⁾ This fact shows that *WEJ* is issued under the strong influence of Webster's dictionaries, often trying to revise or enlarge itself.

WWJ, on the other hand, cannot be said to have been revised or enlarged as often as *WEJ*. *WWJ1* was issued several months later than *WEJ1*. A larger number of pages in *WWJ* do not necessarily ensure a larger number of headwords (cf. 4.3.1.). Its 14th edition (1891), revised by a Sanskrit scholar Fumio Nanjo, includes A Pronouncing Biographical Dictionary of about 180 pages, while its 16th edition (1891), issued only a few months later and revised by the same scholar, is greatly revised and extended. It is

interesting to note that the 16th edition has, in over 270 pages, a Supplement of headwords. A detailed study of *WEJ6* and *WWJ16* might show Webster's influence and also to what extent the two differ.³⁾

The two competing dictionaries were so often reprinted and issued that they could be reasonably considered to have had a larger influence on English education than original Webster's dictionaries. *WWJ* survived, thanks to the editor's recognition that the dictionary was weak in the coverage and translation of technical and scientific terms. This led him to recruit a lot of scholars to improve the content and translation equivalents (cf. 3.1.5.) and to produce two other dictionaries: 『新訳英和辞典』 *Shinyaku-Eiwa-Jiten* (1902) and 『模範英和辞典』 *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten* (1911), which will be referred to in the next installment.

(Section 10 by Dohi)

11. Conclusion

As has been made clear, regarding many facets of the information given, the three dictionaries in the 1880s are heavily indebted to Webster's dictionaries, and utilize resources from them.

As to headwords, *MeEJ* almost completely takes words from *DEL*, and in the latter part also takes words from *ADEL*. *WEJ1* takes the headwords from *ADEL*, deleting mainly the words labeled obsolete or rare, and also some technical words. *WWJ* is not so straightforward in that it takes a large number of words from *ADEL* as well as from *CED*.

As for examples, *MeEJ* is indebted more to *ADEL* rather than to *DEL*. *WEJ1* could be said to be a dictionary that imitates *MeEJ*, as so many of its examples are just the same as those given in *MeEJ*, compared with the number of those that are not. *WWJ* is more complex in that it is indebted to the former two dictionaries, *MeEJ* and *WEJ1*, but also tries to be a dictionary with more examples, including quotations from *ADEL*.

MeEJ is the first English-Japanese dictionary that separated different word senses into groups. The sense demarcation is based on *DEL* in many cases. *WEJ1* also adopted this principle of separating the senses in different sense groups.

ADEL and *ECD* both had great influence over English-Japanese dictio-

naries that were compiled and published in 1880s. In fact, it was mainly from *ADEL* that *WEJ1* and *WWJ* inherited the encyclopedic information. *MeEJ*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ* all include encyclopedic information in their entries, but *WWJ* is the most encyclopedic of the three.

The translations in *MeEJ*, *WEJ1* and *WWJ* are mostly the same. *WEJ1* may have copied the translations from *MeEJ* in earlier entries. *WWJ* may also have copied its translations from those of *WEJ1*. However, some of the translations in *WWJ* may have their source in *EJ1* or *ECD*.

Translations in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* are generally *kango*-oriented, for most of their translations were borrowed from their predecessors, in many of which the influence of *ECD* and *EJ* is evident. *TJ2* was also used to supplement the description of technical words in *WWJ*.

Difficult *kango* terms were accompanied by corresponding *wago* terms to help the users' comprehension. *Wago* terms were added either to paraphrase the meaning of *kango* or to show the pronunciation of *kango*. *WWJ* provides more *wago* explanations than *WEJ1*.

WEJ1 and *WWJ* include illustrations mainly from *ADEL*, and *WEJ1* has a larger number of them. *WWJ* seems to have imitated *WEJ1*, as most of the illustrations in *WWJ* are just the same as those in *WEJ1*.

Pronunciation notations in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* are clearly influenced by *ADEL* or *DEL*, as they employ the same pronunciation and the same presentation.

Both *WEJ1* and *WWJ* make use of subject labels. Their labeling also seems to be based on *ADEL*. The encyclopedic information is often provided with subject labels.

MeEJ, *WEJ1* and *WWJ* were all innovative in terms of including encyclopedic information in their entries. The information was usually the translation of word definitions or notes of *ADEL*. Actually this seems to be the reason why *WEJ1* and *WWJ* carry the word 和訳 *wayaku* (Japanese translation) in their titles.

NOTES

Section 1

- 1) The original title is shown in parentheses, and the translated title in square brackets.
- 2) On abbreviations of the dictionaries referred to in this installment, see the Cited Dictionaries And Their Abbreviations at the end of the article.
- 3) This writer would like to express special gratitude to Dr. Isamu Hayakawa for kindly letting him know about his forthcoming book.
- 4) *EJ* includes the following: headwords, syllabication, parts of speech, accent, pronunciation, translation equivalents, examples and idioms, grammar and usage, register or style, illustrations, appendix with a table of irregular verbs.
- 5) The preface by Shimada in the second edition says that approximately 8,000 copies of the first edition were sold. Ida (1980: 11) writes that *WEJ* had its 34th edition issued in 1909 (the 42nd year of Meiji). Suzuki (1985: 108) writes that *WEJ* was issued until 1923 (the 12th year of Taisho). The numbers of some editions in Japanese title pages do not correspond with those in English titles, which is also the case of *WWJ*.
- 6) Sanseido (1982: 32) says that more than two million copies of *WWJ* were printed by the end of 1900, but the number is quite doubtful, when the preface of the 41st edition (1900) is taken into account, as Iwasaki quotes (1935: 86): . . . more than ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND copies having found their way to all parts of the Empire of Japan. . . .
- 7) We would like to express our special gratitude to Prof. Shigeru Takebayashi and Prof. Keisuke Nakao for their encouragement, and also to Prof. Robert H. Thornton for the final draft.

Section 2

- 1) This section is largely based on Matsumura (1983, 1984, 1985) as well as Sakurai (1933).
- 2) The terms Seisoku (regular) and Hensoku (irregular) were originally applied to the courses of education. Later they came to be used in teaching and learning English, which is clear in this quoted passage.
- 3) Some of the English expressions for Japanese are taken from A. Campbell and D. Noble (1993).
- 4) Hayakawa (To appear: 22, 49–50) points out that *The Elementary Spelling Book* of 1866 revised by W.G. Webster, son of N. Webster, and L. Webster, daughter of N. Webster, was widely used in Japan. (cf. Ikeda 1967: 15–16.)
- 5) See Shin (1994) on W. Lobscheid and his *English and Chinese Dictionary* (1866–69). After this writer found the *ECD* in the National Archive that contains not only a preface but also dedications, he happened to know the articles by Nasu (1995, 1997).
- 6) This is found in the second page of the preface dated on April 28th 1866 by W. Lobscheid, as quoted here: Great difficulty has been experienced in the selection and rejection of the English words. Though all those words marked as obsolete and “little used” in Webster have been omitted, there are still some, which a missionary, and others which a merchant may not require. . . .” According to the publisher’s notice, the work was begun in 1864, so the selection of headwords in *ECD* seems to have been based on the 1859 edition of the dictionary by Webster, or its 1847 edition, as

the editor Lobscheid had a contact with Commodore Perry (Nasu 1997: 226). The expression “little used” is not found in Webster, and it seems to be used for “rare.” (cf. Shin 1994, Nasu 1995.) This idea might have given a hint on the selection of headwords in *WEJ1* and *WWJ* (cf. 6.2.2.2.).

- 7) The title page says *The Imperial Dictionary, English, Technological, and Scientific, on the Basis of Webster’s English Dictionary, with the . . .* The preface on page iv dated on October 1860 for the 1863 edition says “. . . it appeared advisable to select some appropriate existing Dictionary as a basis, without, of course, interfering with copyright. Fortunately, on this point no difficulty was experienced. The American Dictionary of Dr. Webster presented itself as being by far the most suitable for the purpose. In its etymologies, its copious vocabulary of English words, and its clear and accurate definitions, it stood unrivalled. Its high claims were universally recognized throughout the United States; and in this country too, where it had obtained a pretty wide circulation, it was acknowledged to be superior to all other English Dictionaries.” (cf. Hayakawa 1997: 76.) Ida (1980: 10) says that the English dictionary by Webster which *ID* mentions is the 1828 edition. There might be a possibility of Ogilvie referring to the 1840 edition (cf. Kashiwabara 1984: 213).
- 8) It does not distinguish two kinds of dictionaries: *A Primary School Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language* (1867), and *A Primary School Dictionary of the English Language* (1849), and it is not clear which dictionary is meant. (cf. Sugawara 1989.)
- 9) Ikeda (1967: 18) points out that there is Webster’s Unabridged Dictionary (*i.e.*, *An American Dictionary of the English Language* Revised edition. 1744p. New Haven, 1847) in a high school of Tōo Gijuku in Aomori Prefecture in Northern Japan. But now it does not exist. The 1847 edition seems to have been the oldest that used to exist.
- 10) Last but not least, the National Archive in Tokyo now has some kinds of Webster’s dictionaries. The oldest edition of Webster’s Unabridged Dictionary is its 1863 printing of the 1859 edition, and the institution has a series of, but not successive, Unabridged dictionaries (Hayakawa To appear: 132–43).

Section 3

- 1) This section, except 3.1, 3.1.2, 3.2.1, and 3.2.2, is largely based on the following works: Seki (1996), Takeuchi (1995), Ikubunkan Gakuen Hyakunenshi Hensan Iinkai (1989), Saito (1991) and Sanseido (1982).
- 2) Hosaka (1990: 80) says that H. Nagamine used an 1864 edition of the Webster’s Unabridged Dictionary. Nagamine is said to have been involved in the translation from the section of F (Seki 1996: 292).
- 3) It is considered from Saito (1991: 45) that Saito, as an assistant editor, helped T. Tanaka with compiling *WWJ*, as it was only about half a year after he was involved in the compilation that *WWJ* was finished.
- 4) *MeEJ* was issued in eight parts. Here is given their respective date of publication. The numbers in the parentheses show the numbers of text pages. Part 1 (1–100) June 1884; Part 2 (101–204) December 1884; Part 3 (205–316) September 1885; Part 4 (317–484) March 1886; Part 5 (485–688) October 1887; Part 6 (689–872), Part 7 (873–984) and Part 8 (985–1270) March 1889. J and O are included in part 5, and T in part 8. The original eight-part dictionary is larger than the bound edition, measuring 28.4 cm high × 19.6 cm wide (11.2 in × 7.7 in). The bound edition was also issued in

March 1889. This writer would like to express special gratitude to Jiro Seki for showing him part of the original *MeEJ*. Jiro Seki is a descendant of the author of the dictionary.

- 5) S. Sugiura majored in chemistry, and J. Inoue majored in mine engineering after he did in chemistry, and A. Manase in agriculture. Some scholars in the early and middle Meiji era, who did not major in (English) linguistics or literature, were involved in compiling dictionaries, which was quite different from what it is now. Inoue was only involved in *WEJ1*. Inoue's monumental English-Japanese Dictionary will be dealt with in the future installment.
- 6) It is not at all clear whether A. Lloyd was involved in supervising *WEJ*. It could be safely asserted that the dictionaries in the 1880s such as *WEJ* and *WWJ* began to try to make themselves more authoritative by including a native speaker's preface.

Section 4

- 1) Sampling was done of the reprinted editions of the three dictionaries. There is a curious fact in *WWJ*; the Japanese title page shows that it is the second edition, while the English title page does not. The back matter shows that it was issued on the same day as that of the first edition (cf. Section 10 note 3). It seems that the reprinted edition is not in fact the first, as there are a few differences in the English title page between the reprinted edition and the microfiche of the first edition in the Diet Library. Here a comparison had to be made of headwords, examples and translation equivalents between the two. As far as the five parts examined are concerned, there is no telling the difference, with a few small changes in the explanatory notes, which enabled this writer to use the reprinted edition in sampling.
- 2) *A Dictionary of the English Language, Explanatory, Pronouncing, Etymological, and Synonymous, with a Copious Appendix*. Mainly abridged from the Quarto Dictionary of Noah Webster, LL.D. As revised by Chauncey A. Goodrich, D.D. and Noah Porter, D.D. By William A. Wheeler. . . . Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam.
- 3) *An American Dictionary of the English Language*. By Noah Webster, LL.D. Thoroughly revised, and greatly enlarged and improved, by Chauncey A. Goodrich, D.D. and Noah Porter, D.D., LL.D. . . . Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam. This is shown in the title page of the 1883 edition.
- 4) Each number includes one shown as an example, not as a headword.
- 5) An increasing number of headwords that are not listed in *DEL* but are in *ADEL* seem to be found in the sections after Q and R, which roughly corresponds to the description that the original author, Shimpachi Seki, seems to have been involved in A to R sections (cf. Seki 1996: 296).
- 6) *SPD* includes 7 words, while *DSL* does 4 words.
- 7) One out of 12 is found in *TJ2*, one is in *EJ2*, and two are in *MeEJ*.
- 8) The number is shown on condition that the editor of *WEJ1* referred to *MeEJ*. But this writer considers it to be quite unlikely.
- 9) A comparison of headwords between *WWJ* and *EJ1* or *EJ2* might have made a close relation between them more explicit.

Section 5

- 1) On *The Elementary Spelling Book*, refer to Hayakawa (To appear: 10-68).

Section 6

- 1) *Candlemas and Calvinism* are other examples.
- 2) Some examples that only *WWJ* attaches *wago* terms are: *Cab, Caboose, Cage, Cake, Calabash, Caleographical, Caleulary, Calends, Calipers*.

Section 7

- 1) Examples from *WEJ1* are [簿記] (bookkeeping) at *Balance-sheet* and [美術] (fine arts) at *Background*.

Section 9

- 1) The number shown in the table would be different according to the way of counting. Here all the pictures except those shown as a set are counted as one.

Section 10

- 1) Personal communication from Dr. Hayakawa.
- 2) Philologically speaking, *WEJ* seems to have two versions of the seventh edition. One version does not give the same date of publication as other later editions, and it is titled 「再訂増補 第七版」 *Saitei-Zoho-Dai-Nanahan* [The seventh edition, revised and enlarged]. This might not be the regular revised edition. It should also be noted that there exists another kind of *WEJ* revised by Kojiro Tatsumi (cf. Hayakawa To appear: 160-69). There might be some other versions, as the whole picture of each edition has not yet been completely ascertained. The back matter of *WEJ2* (1888) shows that it had already been printed before *WWJ* was issued but issued a few months later. This curious and interesting fact seems to imply that *WEJ1* was issued as a test dictionary and *WEJ2* was the real competitor of *WWJ*.
- 3) Philologically speaking, *WWJ* has several versions of the first edition. The main difference seems to be whether or not there is a preface by K. Shiga, whether no page is missing, or whether part of the text is wrongly placed in the appendix and the like. Some versions have their date of publication changed with a pen for calligraphy, when the date is not set on September 19.

CITED DICTIONARIES AND THEIR ABBREVIATIONS

- (The number in parentheses at the end shows the year the work referred to was issued.)
- ADEL* *An American Dictionary of the English Language*, Revised by C. A. Goodrich. Springfield: Merriam, 1859. (1863)
- AWD* *An American Dictionary of the English Language*, Revised by C. A. Goodrich and N. Porter. Springfield: Merriam, 1864. (1883, 1885)
- CED* *The Comprehensive English Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing & Etymological*, Ed. by J. Ogilvie. London: Blackie & Sons, 1864. (1870)
- DEL* *A Dictionary of the English Language*, Ed. by W. Wheeler. Springfield: Merriam, 1868. (1877)
- DSL* *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language* Second edition, Ed. by E. Satow & M. Ishibashi. London: Trubner & Co., Yokohama: Lane, Crawford. & Co.; Kelly & Co., 1879. Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.

- ECD *English and Chinese Dictionary, with the Punti and Mandarin Pronunciation* (『英華字典』), 4 vols. Ed. by W. Lobscheid. Hongkong: Daily Press, 1866–69.
- EJ1 *Fuon-Sozu-Eiwa-jii* (*An English and Japanese Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix*. New Edition.) (『附音挿圖英和字典』), Ed. by M. Shibata and T. Koyasu. Yokohama: Nishusha, 1873.
- EJ2 *Zoho-Teisei-Eiwa-jii* (*An English and Japanese Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix*. Second and Revised Edition.) (『増補訂正英和字典』), Ed. by M. Shibata and T. Koyasu. Yokohama: Nishusha, 1882.
- EJ2R *Zoho-Teisei-Eiwa-jii* (*An English and Japanese Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix*. Second and Revised Edition.) (『増補訂正英和字典』), Ed. by M. Shibata and T. Koyasu. Yokohama: Nishusha, 1887.
- ETSJ *Eiwa-Taiyaku-Syuchin-fisho* (*A Pocket Dictionary of the English and Japanese Language*) (『英和对訳袖珍辞書』), Ed. by T. Hori et al. Yedo: Yoshō Shirabesho, 1862.
- ETSJ2 *Kaisei-Zoho-Eiwa-Taiyaku-Syuchin-fisho* (*A Pocket Dictionary of the English and Japanese Language*. Second Edition.) (『改正増補英和对訳袖珍辞書』), Ed. by K. Horikoshi. Yedo: Kaiseijo, 1866.
- ID *The Imperial Dictionary, English, Technological, and Scientific*. 2 Vols, Ed. by J. Ogilvie. London: Blackie & Sons, 1847–50. (1863, 1865)
- MeEJ *Meiji-Eiwa-jiten* (*An English and Japanese Dictionary, for the Use of Junior Students, with the Addition of New Words and their Definitions, together with a Biographical Dictionary*) (『明治英和字典』). Ed. by Shimpachi Seki. Tokyo: Riku-Go-Kuwan, 1884–89. Reprinted edition of the bound edition. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.
- SJ1 *Wayaku-Eijisyo* (*An English-Japanese Pronouncing Dictionary*. Third edition revised) (『和訳英辞書』). Shanghai: American Presbyterian Mission Press, 1869. [Popularly known as *Satsuma Jisyo*]
- SJ2 *Taisho-Zoho-Wayaku-Eijirin* (*An English-Japanese Pronouncing Dictionary*. Fourth edition revised) (『大正増補和訳英辞林』). Shanghai: American Presbyterian Mission Press, 1871.
- SPD *The Standard Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language*, Ed. by P. Nuttall. London: Fredrick, Warne & Co., 1863. (n.d. but 1869 because it was bought in 1872.)
- TJ1 *Tetsugaku-jii* (*A Dictionary of Philosophy*) (『哲學字典』), Ed. by T. Inoue et al. Tokyo: The Imperial University of Tokyo, 1881. Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Meichofukyukai, 1980.
- TJ2 *Kaitei-Zoho-Tetsugaku-jii* (*A Dictionary of Philosophy*, Revised and enlarged) (『改訂増補哲學字典』). Ed. by T. Inoue and N. Ariga. Tokyo: Toyokan, 1884. Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Meichofukyukai, 1980.
- WEJ1 *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-jii* (*An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix*. New edition.) (『附音挿圖和訳英字典』), Ed. by Yutaka Shimada, revised by S. Sugiura, J. Inoue and A. Manase. Tokyo: M. Okura, 1887. Reprinted

- edition. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.
- WEJ2 *Teisei-Zoho-Wayaku-Ei-jii Dai-Nihan* (*An English-Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix*. Second Edition, with Copious Additions.) (『訂正増補和訳英字典第二版』), Ed. by Yutaka Shimada, revised by S. Sugiura, J. Matsushita and A. Manase. Tokyo: M. Okura, 1888.
- WGS3 *Kaitei-Zoho-Waei-Gorin-Shusei* (*A Japanese-English Dictionary and English-Japanese Dictionary*) Third edition (『改訂増補和英語林集成』), Ed. by J. C. Hepburn. Tokyo: Z. P. Maruya & Co. Limited, 1886. Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Kodansha, 1974.
- WWJ *Webster-shi-Shinkan-Daijisho-Wayaku-jii* (*Webster's Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language, Translated into Japanese by a Committee*. New edition) (『ウェブスター氏新刊大辞書和訳字典』), Ed. by F. Eastlake and I. Tanahashi. Tokyo: C. K. Sanshodo, 1888. Reprinted edition of the second edition. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.

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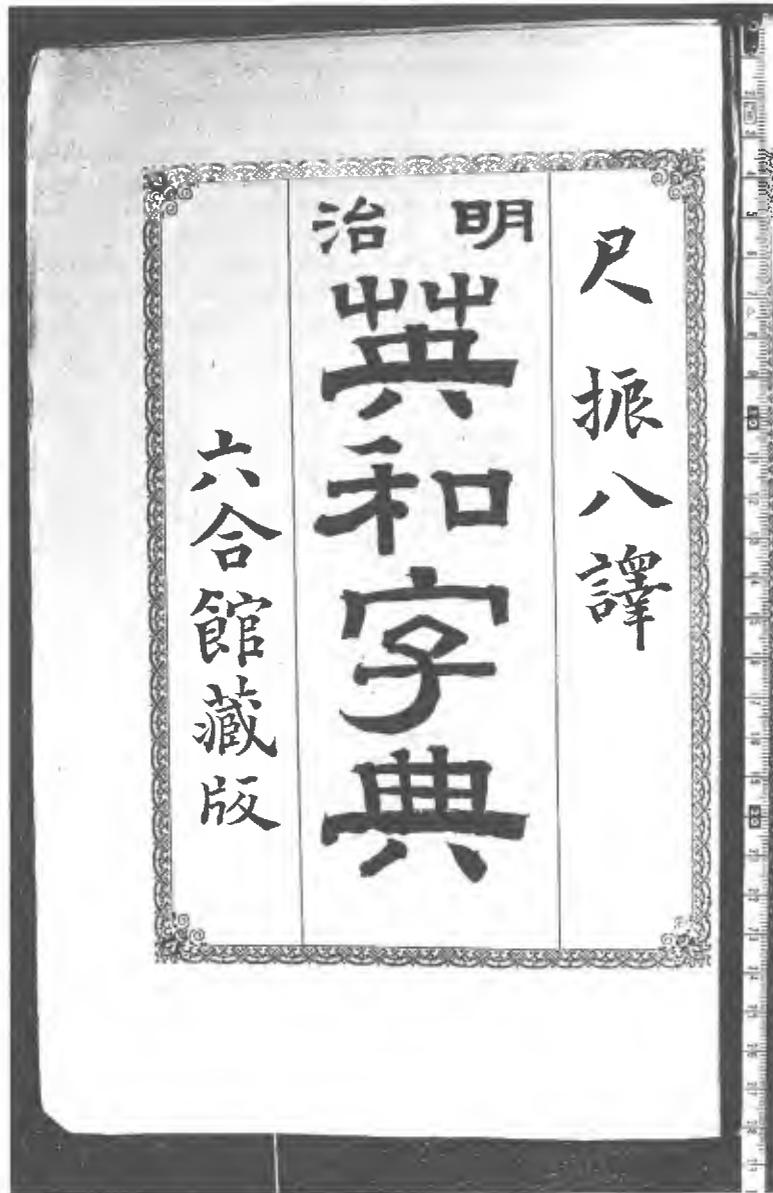
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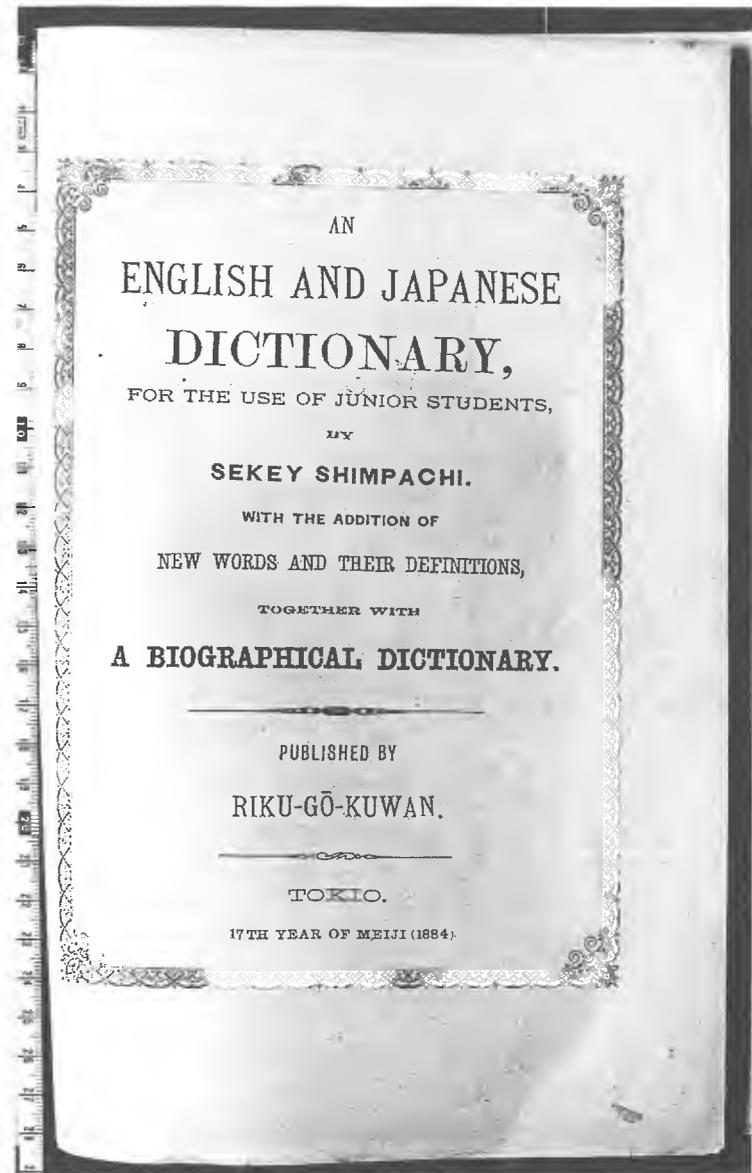
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APPENDIX: Photographic reproductions of *MeEJ*, *WEJ* and *WWJ*

Reproduced here are a few pages from *MeEJ*, *WEJ* and *WWJ*, by courtesy of Jiro Seki (尺次郎), a descendant of the original author, for *MeEJ*, of Keio Gijuku University Library (慶應義塾大学図書館, Mita, Tokyo) for *WEJ*, and of Waseda University Library (早稲田大学図書館, Waseda, Tokyo) for *WWJ*.



Photograph 1. Japanese title page, *MeEJ*.



Photograph 2. English title page, *MeEJ*.

AN

ENGLISH AND JAPANESE
DICTIONARY.

A ABA

<p>A.</p> <p>A book. 1本</p> <p>A man. 1人</p> <p>A station. 1所</p> <p>In a few days. 数日</p> <p>A great many years. 多年</p> <p>Aronic, Aronical. (名) 阿羅尼</p> <p>Aback, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Taken aboard, or all aboard. 上船</p> <p>aback. 阿巴</p> <p>Abacus, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abate, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abolitionist-ed-ing, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abolition, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abandon-ed-ing, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>To abandon a shipwrecked vessel. 阿巴</p>	<p>To abandon one's property. 阿巴</p> <p>To abandon one's self up to vice. 阿巴</p> <p>Abandoned, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>An abandoned fellow. 阿巴</p> <p>Abandoner, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abandonment, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abase-ed-ing, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>To abase one's self. 阿巴</p> <p>Abasement, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abash-ed-ing, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abasement, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abatable, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>Abate-ed-ing, (名) 阿巴</p> <p>To abate the price. 阿巴</p> <p>Abate, (名) 阿巴</p>
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Photograph 3. Dictionary text of *MeEJ*, page 1.

アールズ口下氏序
杉浦重剛校閱
井上十吉校閱
島田豊纂譯
曲直瀬愛校訂

東京
大倉書店藏版

附音
挿圖
和言英字彙

Photograph 4. Japanese title page, *WEJ1*.

JL
SA
144

AN
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Photograph 5. English title page, WEJI.

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LEXICON.

A

ABA

A

A. 美吉利字列ノ首字。
A. (文) 不定冠詞ニシテ一個又ハ成ルノ義
ヲ表シテ子音ヲ以テ始ムル單數名詞若ク
ハ集合名詞ニ冠ス (An 才見ヨ)。
A book. 一巻書。
A week. 一週日。
A fleet. 一艦隊。
A nation. 一國民。
— few 又ハ great many 等ノ形容詞ヲ
本詞ト名詞トノ間ニ插ムルハ複數ニモ亦
A few persons. 兩三人。 [之ヲ冠ス。
A great many years. 多年。
— 本詞ハ詞アリテ毎又ハ各ノ意ヲ表ハ
スアリ。
Twice a day. 毎日兩回。
Fifty dollars a month. 毎月五十弗。
— [各] 業符ノ名。

AA. [註] 各、等分(處方箋ニ用フル記號)。
A 1 (a-wun). 第一等保險船ノ記號; 第一
等ノ、上等ノ、最上ノ。
Aam, n. 和蘭ノ液量ノ名。
Aard'-vark, n. 食蟻獸[アリクビ]。

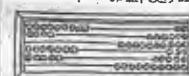


亞非利加ノ南
部ニ産スル獸
ニテ穴居シテ
糞ヲ食ス

Aard'-wolf, n. 狐ニ似タル此行肉食獸 (亞
非利加ノ南部ニ産スル)。
a-rin'le. } a. 龜本ノ高僧西條 [ア
Aa-rin'le-ul. } ロン]ノ、同僧ノ號ノ。

ām, fām, fār, pās or opēā, fāre; ēnd, ēve, tērm; in, ioe; ōdd, tōne, ōr;
ōūn, ēūbe, fūll; mōōn, fōōt; cow, oil; lūger or ipk, thēn, bonbon, chān, get.

Ab, n. [イスラエル]ノ帝國ノ第五月(大凡
本曆西ノ八月ニ當ル)。
Ab'a-cā, n. 芭蕉布ヲ織ル麻。
Ab'a-gist, n. 蒸餾ニテ社取スル人。
A-bäck', adv. [飯] 煎焼ニ吹キ寄ケラレテ
種ノ方ニ(臥位ノ鏡リタル并紙ノ位置ニ
云) 種ノ方ニ。
Taken aback, or all aback. 不意ヲ打
タレテ、不意ニ妨ガラレテ、吃驚シテ。
Ab'a-eot, n. 往時英國佛王ノ用ヒタル鐘
帽。 [人。
A-bāc'tor, n. [法] 一時ノ家賃ヲ徴去ル
人。
Ab'a-cūs, n. 苜蓿; [註] 圓柱ノ冠板。



上ノ一位トシ
次ヲ十位トシ
テ以下之ニ順
ズ

A-bād'don, n. 滅絶者; 惡鬼; 惡魔; 地獄。
A-bātt', prep. [註] 影地ノ方ニ、被覆ニ; 被
A-bāl'sance, n. Obeisance ヲ見ヨ。 [ニ。
Ab-ā'l'ten-āte, -ed; -ing, v. t. 覆ル(覆運又
ハ名義ヲ)、移ス(所右覆フ)。
Ab-ā'l'ten-ā'tion, n. [法] 覆ル丁、覆具。
A-bān'don, -ed; -ing, v. t. 捨ル、棄ル、放
捨スル、断念スル、從フ(轉惑ニ)、任ス(情
恣ニ)、[譯律] 損傷貨物ヲ保險者ニ委任
スル。
To abandon one's self to vice. 自ら
棄ル、善ヲテ棄ルニ耽ル。
To abandon study. 廢學スル。

A-ban-don' (a-ban-dong'), n. 放擲; 放
恣; 恣肆; 心醉。
A-bān'doned, a. 自棄シタル、放恣ナル、廢
習ニ染ミタル。

Photograph 6. Dictionary text of WEJI, page 1.



東京 三省堂藏版

博言學士イーストローキ
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ウヱブスター氏
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和譯字彙

Photograph 7. Japanese title page, WWJ.



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WEBSTER'S UNABRIDGED DICTIONARY, TRANSLATED INTO JAPANESE.

ABA

A. 1. 英吉利字母ノ首字ニシテ長短ノ正音及ビ開閉ノ開合其種四發音ヲ有ス...

An-rōn'ie, } a. [空] 猶本高僧亞倫(ア An-rōn'ie-a), n. 一(一)ノハ全世ノ職ノ...

am, same, fur, piss or open, safe; end, eye, fern; in, ice; odd, one, or; sun, cube, full; moon, rest; cow, oil; lizard or iguana, hen, bathtub, chair, get.

5m 70 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 80 1 2 3 4 5

What is 'reference science'?

TOM McARTHUR

It was born at a one-day conference at the University of Exeter in England in the spring of 1996. The birth was on time, the baby was small but in excellent health, and hardly made any noise...

Before I go on I'd like to look at a rather basic issue — the actual matter of inventing a science. Can one just invent a science when one feels like it? And if you do, how does it stay invented? Does a new science occupy new semantic or conceptual space...

Photograph 9. Dictionary text of WWJ, page 1.

- Reinhard Hartmann creating the Dictionary Research Centre, which has proved successful in getting lexicographers and other interested people to talk to each other.
-Study programmes at Exeter, from the doctoral level to the one-week InterLex course, that allow open-ended consideration of ev-

everything relating to lexicography. Nothing referential was arbitrarily excluded, and minds could extend themselves.

-The formulation over time of first EuraLex then AfriLex, then, this year, AsiaLex. These organizations, alongside the Dictionary Society of North America, provide a firm base for lexicographical debate, without which one could not contemplate anything more fundamental.

-The publication by Cambridge in 1986 of my *Worlds of Reference: Language, lexicography and learning from the clay tablet to the computer*. The book was widely and constructively reviewed, and the most enthusiastic reviewers were not lexicographers but librarians and computer people who seemed to feel that it gave them a history and even a charter. Lexicographers generally responded well, but some considered that I did not give enough attention to 'proper' lexicography. But then, the book wasn't about any single art, craft or science. It was about how we refer and inform, how we communicate, and how we know.

One of the most powerful developments since *WoR* was published has been our understanding of DNA. In a few short years humankind has uncovered and begun to map a referential software system that is built into us and all other life known to us. It seems to me that we need a framework within which we can ask such questions as 'How similar are human language and DNA?' and 'How similar to and different from DNA are our systems of information storage and retrieval?' It is not enough to talk about 'the language of the genes' and 'genetic letters'. Are these simply metaphors, or do language systems and gene systems share a basic pattern that could also underlie some third system that we have not yet encountered? This is just one of the possible areas that reference scientists might in due course look at.

We can consider next something not quite so cosmic, but nonetheless large: what at the end of *WoR* I described as a 'global nervous system'. In just ten years, that nervous system has immensely, almost incalculably, increased — a vast multiplex of old copper cable and new fibre-optics,

older ground TV and newer satellite TV, and many other things. Technology is one thing; however, content and use another, and part of that content and use relates to asking for information either from other humans by e-mail or from the system itself on, say, the World-Wide Web. Reference science has a place in observing and reporting on this largest and most integrated reference service humanity has ever known, into which many of the resources of the world's great libraries are currently being woven, to form the largest work of reference that has ever existed.

When pushed, users and observers of works of reference will concede that both the dictionary and the telephone directory have much in common, as do indexes, concordances, atlases, manuals, and catalogues (whether the mail-order kind or in libraries). It is hard, however, to conceive of the circumstances in which the compiler of a telephone directory, an atlas, a computer manual, or a catalogue would be accepted as members of Euralex or the DSN. Yet these varied products are linked by their reference function and a range of common techniques and technologies. The current computerization of all such materials only serves more fully to emphasize this point.

Indeed, they belong within something larger than, but closely associated with, traditional lexicography, have never had any generic names, and at the close of this century they need such names. On offer since at least 1986 have been, for the practical business of producing artifacts, such terms as reference art and reference technology, and since 1996 the term for their assessment has been reference science, the study of all aspects of organizing data, information, and knowledge in any format whatever, for any purpose whatever, using any materials whatever. The lack of such a level of study may be due in part at least to a historical current which, in the terminology of postmodernist literary theory, has 'privileged' the position of dictionaries and to some extent also encyclopedias, gazetteers, chronologies, concordances, and indexes (all in archetypal A-Z order) and along with them privileged the position of lexicography and its practitioners.

Lexicographers might, in Johnson's term, be 'harmless drudges', but their drudgery has for centuries been held in higher esteem than that of makers of catalogues, directories, time-tables, ready-reckoners, and travel

guides. It might be wise in McLuhan's age of information overload to seek greater egalitarianism in the worlds of reference, by focusing on reference itself rather than on language and alphabeticism (significant as these are), and to examine and exploit all techniques and insights associated with all works of reference from any time, place, language, and writing system.

Of course, it is only relatively recently that lexicography has been systematically critiqued, a development that has however proved both successful and useful. Nowadays, lexicographers no longer simply compile dictionaries according to formulas that seldom change but are liable as they work to develop theories about what they do and novel practices tied to those theories. Given this advance, is it asking too much to say now: Look beyond this recently-raised consciousness and recognise a greater link with other professionals and products.

It is not surprising that the academic world has paid little or no attention to the making of directories and catalogues. So crucial, however, is the business of organizing information in our time, and on a global basis, that it may soon be difficult — impossible — to avoid bringing all the tools and vehicles of reference together within one subject area with one name. This will happen, I suspect, if for no other reason than that anything informative and referential, when stored in a computer, becomes quite simply a database, regardless of whatever name or function or prestige or lack of prestige it might traditionally have had. The electronic revolution is a leveller.

At the moment, however, I feel that we can identify three areas of immediate concern to reference science, the first with a traditional name, the second with a new name, and the third with no name at all:

- The first is lexicography, that aspect of reference art and technology which deals wholly or mainly with language and pre-eminently with words, regardless of the format used (in the main alphabetic, thematic, or a hybrid of the two).
- The second is encyclopedics, that aspect of reference art and technology which deals with information about the world, and for me includes atlases, gazetteers, almanacs, and manuals (and ties in

with textbooks).

-The third covers tabulations (such as time-tables), directories (as for telephone subscribers), and catalogues (among other things). It may prove to be several areas and require us to conclude that certain divisions of reference science necessarily overlap with other disciplines and activities, such as library science and social and business life, because they have common concerns.

Fairly obviously, the bulk of research and commentary in reference science in the immediate future will concern dictionaries and probably also encyclopedics. I anticipate, however, that increased interest in databases, hypertext, multimedia, and information structures at large — from satellite linkups to DNA — will ensure that more attention is paid to my third, unnamed element, which to date has been the part of the iceberg below the referential waterline.

It seems to me that there are all sorts of fertile possibilities within the framework made possible by the concept reference science. I will close by looking at only one of these, a contrast that has become important in lexicography in recent years: macrostructure and microstructure. This dichotomy is usually interpreted as covering on the one hand the overall ('macro') organization of a dictionary and on the other any single entry within such a work (the 'micro' organization). I would argue here, however, that the contrast is valuable not only in terms of dictionaries and their entries (and by extension library catalogues and whatever their constituent units may be) but also in other levels of organization among information, knowledge, and communication structures.

Thus, just as an entry is microstructural within the macrostructure of a dictionary, so such a dictionary is microstructural within a publisher's list of dictionaries. Such a reference list is in its turn microstructural within the macrostructure of all publisher's reference lists everywhere. The same is true with each bibliographical catalogue in a library, which is microstructural within the macrostructure of all bibliographical collections within all libraries and similar institutions in a city, state, or the world — especially if such resources are linked electronically. Again, within such a

system as the World-Wide Web, each website is microstructural within the WWW at large.

Such matters can become discussable if we have such a framework as reference science, whose findings and postulations can feed back into the practical business of making books and other artifacts. Reference science could be a liberating and integrating discipline, in which lexicography would not be eclipsed but strengthened, not downgraded but upgraded, in intriguing theoretical and practical ways. The term proposed is, I suggest, neither a cute neologism nor a novelty for its own sake, but at the close of this century a necessity.

Contemporary Lexicography, with Particular Attention to the User's Perspective

R.R.K. HARTMANN

Introduction

May I start by congratulating the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle and its founders on your special occasion: the 35th anniversary which you are celebrating this year. 35 years ago I had no idea that I would be making a professional career in the United Kingdom, eventually moving to Exeter where I was fortunate to start a number of ventures which you have probably heard about and for which you have invited me here.

To introduce the topic of my lecture, I should like to quote from the result of my most recent venture, the *Dictionary of Lexicography*, compiled in collaboration with Gregory James:

LEXICOGRAPHY The professional activity and academic field concerned with **DICTIONARIES** and other **REFERENCE WORKS**. It has two basic divisions: lexicographic practice, or **DICTIONARY-MAKING**, and lexicographic theory, or **DICTIONARY RESEARCH**. The former is often associated with commercial book publishing, the latter with scholarly studies in such disciplines as **LINGUISTICS** (especially **LEXICOLOGY**), but strict boundaries are difficult to maintain and, in any case, are being bridged by such means as professional training, societies, conferences and publications. There are as yet no internationally agreed standards of what constitutes a good dictionary, but human ingenuity (and computer technology) produces new types every day against the background of various historical traditions, to meet people's insatiable need for rapid access to **INFORMATION**, linguistic as well as encyclopedic. [. . .]

In this crucial entry we distinguish between practical lexicography (dictionary-making) and theoretical lexicography (or dictionary research,

which is the term that I prefer over 'metalexigraphy'). Both dictionary-making and dictionary research can be sub-divided into a number of specialist branches. One of these, the study of dictionary use, will be the subject of the rest of my discussion here.

The user perspective

I do not claim — and have never claimed — to have invented the 'user perspective', although together with my students at Exeter I have made a significant contribution to render the topic academically respectable since the 1980's.

It would be impossible to give you a complete account of the various approaches to the study of dictionary use, but I can mention some investigative techniques that have been developed and illustrate them by reference to pioneering authors. Those who are not versed with the literature in this branch of dictionary research may find my state-of-the-art paper, Article 12 in the three-volume *Encyclopedia of Lexicography* (Hartmann 1989), a possible starting point.

I find it useful to distinguish six basic research methods: the critical review, the case study, the questionnaire, the interview, the personal protocol, and the experiment, and I will provide one example for each.

Any reader of *Lexicon* will be familiar with the text genre of the 'book review', and several members of the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle have successfully engaged in this activity in the context of evaluating dictionaries, moving from the expression of personal opinions to factual criticism based on relatively objective criteria. One particularly interesting approach in this direction was Dieter Zimmer's (1986) review of half a dozen German-English and English-German dictionaries in the style of a *Which* type product survey, measuring (on a scale of 20) the relative success of each of these dictionaries in providing translation equivalents for a select list of notoriously difficult words and phrases. For me, the striking result was not so much the conclusion that this post-war generation of bilingual dictionaries performed surprisingly well, but that the standard of measurement was a real task, the sort that might face an average translator any day.

Many dictionary reviews still more often reflect the superficial views of

a single critic rather than an assessment of how particular users have fared with the reference work in question in a range of typical look-up situations. The dictionary review is, in this sense, not 'representative' of wider classes of events, such as the foreign learner engaging in the performance of a translation exercise. The same may be true of the so-called 'case study' in which the aim is to obtain a detailed description of an individual event.

One example of a case study that I find interesting is Josh Ard's classic (1982) attempt to prove that bilingual dictionaries tend to encourage foreign-language learners to choose one-to-one or word-for-word translation equivalents while writing in the target language, and thus to promote interference errors. To this end, he filmed students in a language laboratory during a composition task. His observations seemed to confirm his hunch, but also demonstrated that banning the bilingual dictionary from the exercise would not prevent such errors altogether. Unfortunately, Ard's study is flawed by the simple fact that he only obtained detailed records of two subjects, a Japanese girl who used her dictionary a lot and a male Arab student who did not!

If it is representativeness we require, we must consider techniques that will give us data for more subjects than just one or two. The 'questionnaire' is the method that can survey a relatively large sample population. One of the most famous questionnaire studies is that by Clarence Barnhart (1962) in which he determined that the most popular information category for American college students is meaning, while the least important is etymology. I attempted to collect data of this kind on a very different group: learners of German in the schools and colleges of South West England. I found, among other things, that 90% of the subjects used the dictionary regularly for translation, that the bilingual dictionary was far more popular than the monolingual, and that learners had received practically no instruction on how to use their dictionaries.

Research by means of questionnaire surveys has been criticised on the grounds that it can only collect indirect evidence of attitudes, not document actual practices. The fourth technique I want to illustrate, the 'personal interview', moves another step further towards direct observation. One of my Ph.D. students, Turki Diab, used this technique, in combina-

tion with others, to collect evidence on whether and how nursing students in a university medical school refer to dictionaries in their work. This is a category of L.S.P. learners that had never before been surveyed, least of all in a Middle Eastern country. Such interviews allow us not only to get an accurate picture of which monolingual or bilingual reference works are consulted, chiefly in decoding tasks such as technical reading, but also what could and should be done to improve their users' reference skills.

What all these four research techniques have in common is the limitation that they capture views by indirect means rather than by factual observation of real contexts of consultation. A more direct method of gathering data is the 'protocol' or diary approach as pioneered by Hans Krings, whose (1986) study of the translation process in advanced German learners of French was entitled 'what goes on in the minds of translators'. The title was deliberately provocative: Krings was interested in eliciting evidence of certain mental operations, not by looking inside people's brains, which is impossible, but by encouraging the subjects to 'think aloud', i.e. to verbalise what they were doing. These think-aloud protocols were based on transcribed tape recordings and analysed in terms of so-called equivalent search diagrams. In this manner it is possible to picture the decision strategies, including any exhibited during dictionary reference acts, and learn more about what users do to obtain (or fail to obtain) required information.

An even more sophisticated research technique is the 'experimental test' in which several subjects are observed under strict laboratory conditions, as it were, while various factors are kept under close control. The prototype experiment was the one reported in Yukio Tono's (1984) Gakugei University dissertation in which he confronted students with texts containing nonsense words which had to be looked up in specially constructed mini-dictionaries. What Tono was able to prove conclusively in this manner was the fact (suspected by some of us for a long time) that users of bilingual dictionaries, when faced with long entries for words with multiple senses, will only go as far as the first or second sense of the word (and not proceed through the whole text of a particular entry) in order to find the most appropriate equivalent. Tono has explored a number of other

experimental research designs to chart user reference behaviour; most recently he has established a Website <<http://www.u-gakugei.ac.jp/~tefldpt/tonolab/userstudy/index.html>> with annotated bibliographical references to the literature on the user perspective, a most laudable undertaking.

The limits of the user perspective

There are, however, at least seven limitations of such user studies, and to research on dictionary use in general.

The number and scale of such studies is still too small, and there is still only a very restricted circle of centres and scholars to develop the appropriate expertise.

The target populations observed are still extremely limited. Most of the time students in educational settings are used as guinea-pigs, but we know next to nothing about other user groups, e.g. secretaries, technicians, journalists, librarians, scientists.

The types of reference works observed in use are still based mostly on general dictionaries, both monolingual and bilingual, in contexts of formal learning, but very little is known about the use of specialised dictionaries and other reference works such as thesauruses, encyclopedias, atlases and electronic dictionaries of all kinds.

The various studies that have been carried out are difficult to evaluate and compare because the methods employed and the settings in which they take place are so diverse. Hardly any have been replicated by others to verify assumptions and findings, and eclectic combinations of different techniques (as recommended by Diab 1990) are still rare.

The results of various studies are of limited generalisability. It is hardly likely that the conditions observed in a European school are similar to those in a Japanese school, or vice versa, or that trends observed for one language or proficiency level are the same in another language or proficiency level.

Many factors and variables have hardly been studied at all, e.g. differences in personality, attitude, learning styles, or the influence of different institutional regulations (such as syllabuses or examination conditions).

Finally, it has occurred to me — and no doubt to other people — that

most user studies are 'ex-post', which means that they are carried out with existing products. What we should also consider is the possibility of surveying potential users for a new product. (We did a limited questionnaire survey of potential readers before starting our work on the *Dictionary of Lexicography*; and two years ago our M.A. students at Exeter pursued a project to test the opinions of students and staff at the university about the sorts of information categories that should be offered in a 'Dictionary of the University of Exeter' which might have been produced but never was.)

Conclusion

Nevertheless, with all these reservations, I hope to have made a sufficiently strong case for user research. What the user perspective has demonstrated is that different users vary greatly in their reference needs and reference skills.

And when all the available methods have been refined and applied, and all necessary studies of potential and actual users have been done, we can then also improve the teaching of the necessary skills (e.g. by 'workbooks', cf. Stark 1990) in order to further improve the quality and effectiveness of dictionaries and dictionary users alike. As I said just over 10 years ago (Hartmann 1987:28), "we must do more in research and instruction".

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LEXeter in Japan: A joint lecture by Dr Tom McArthur and Dr Reinhard Hartmann

KYOHEI NAKAMOTO

Lexicography is in full bloom not only in Great Britain but also here in Japan. Seeing is believing — visit a large bookshop in central London or Tokyo, and you'll see piles of dictionaries, monolingual or bilingual, brand-new or outdated, seriously compiled or only cobbled together.

Lexicography is an ambiguous term. It covers both 'compiling dictionaries' and 'studying dictionaries' (cf. Svensén 1993: 1). The latter is sometimes called 'metalexigraphy', though both Tom and Reinhard prefer another term, 'dictionary research'.

Lexicography in the sense of 'dictionary-making' has a long history both in the UK and Japan, and the two countries have influenced each other in compiling various word books. English-Japanese dictionaries have learned much from British EFL dictionaries, and British lexicographers must also have learned something from Japanese colleagues who are renowned for their kindness. Am I boasting too much if I say many of the 'user-friendly' access structures in the learner's dictionary originated in *Eiwa-jiten*?

Lexicography is young, however, in the sense of 'dictionary research', said Reinhard. I partly agree and partly disagree with him. If lexicography is compared with, say, philosophy, it is still an infant, or possibly a toddler. However, if we take into account that the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle, even though it is not a lexicographical society, has devoted itself to dictionary research for 35 years, it is almost as old as me! In the very first 'dictionary analysis' by the circle (Ito et al. 1968), such topics as dictionary typology and theory and practice of lexicography were discussed, and as for the 'user perspective', it argued that 'lexicographers must always remember their users' (p. 184, my translation). I have to admit, however, neither

lexicographers nor dictionary researchers have seriously studied how their dictionaries are actually used by the average user. This fact brings us a question: Who does this job? Who studies dictionaries from the user perspective? If nobody does, all I can do is to repeat Reinhard's hope in his optimistic tone:

Who needs dictionaries? We all do, linguists and learners, laymen and experts, mothers and children. Let us hope that the next generation of users will be even better served than ours. (Hartmann 1979: 8).

Lexicography may only be a tiny portion of the cosmos or what Tom calls a 'reference science'. For him the dictionary isn't the only reference tool, even though it does occupy the central position. If the encyclopaedia is the closest sibling, the song book provided in a karaoke parlour is a newborn granddaughter. Newspapers, Yellow Pages, and even web site homepages share some common features with the dictionary.

Lexicography might have put on a little too much fat. New dictionaries, new monographs, new journal papers, and new lexicographical societies appear every year somewhere on the Earth. We are floating in the sea of information on lexicography in both its senses. Besides, a single dictionary may be packed with too much information. I liked Tom's metaphor — he compared Shinjuku to a huge reference book overloaded with information. The poor gentleman who came to Japan for the first time in his life had to be escorted to his hotel by a kind but a little inquisitive Tokyoite. Who can blame him for his ignorance of geographical knowledge (and that of the exotic language)? Lots of skyscrapers, railway lines, underground passages, shopping complexes (as well as strange Japanglish expressions!) all surrounded him. Now imagine you are in the world of lexical, morphological, phonetic, semantic, syntactic, pragmatic, cultural etc. information. Are you sure you can go to the place where you want to go and find and decode the necessary information successfully? Surely, various kinds of information should be sorted out and presented in a 'user-friendly' fashion, just as the poor *gaijin* could have enjoyed walking around the megalopolis all by himself if he had had a 'foreigner-friendly' map.

Lexicography throws the lexicographer into a dilemma. If the lexicogra-

pher broadens the scope too much, s/he may get lost in the lexicographical universe and may never be able to solve problems s/he faces every day. If s/he only desperately tackles those problems, on the other hand, s/he never knows where lexicography comes from and where it is heading for. In this sense, it would be helpful and amusing to the lexicographer if there were

a Museum of Reference and Information. It is an intriguing possibility. Future generations could go into the complex at one end, as they go today into Disneyland . . .

. . . As we move from the third to the fourth great shift in the information skills, we shall need such things to help us keep our balance, to remember where we have come from, as well as how far we still have to go. (McArthur 1986: 185)

Lexicography is a promising infant. The fourth shift in the information skills has already begun, and reference 'books' in an electronic format are near at hand, even if they may still be, in a sense, primitive tools. I have a dream of being an honourable owner of a gizmo that tells me everything: from the meaning of a word, the correct pronunciation, collocation, and grammatical construction, through a biography of a famous lexicographer, and the name of the road on which Queen's Building of Exeter University is located, to the e-mail addresses of Tom and Reinhard. Perhaps this is a childish dream, but how about this: an electronic dictionary specially designed for the dictionary researcher who tries to know how the dictionary user actually uses a dictionary. It automatically records the following facts: what kind of information the user wanted, what word s/he looked up, which sense of a polysemous word s/he read, what collocation s/he needed, how long it took him/her to understand the information provided, and so on. Such a dictionary may also be a future product, but am I too enthusiastic a Star Trekker?

Lexicography fascinates both LEXeter scholars and Iwasaki members, and we at last got together at the Kenkyusha English Centre in Tokyo on the 1st of September, 1997. The joint lecture attracted 57 people from inside and outside the circle, including lexicographers, linguists, publishers, English teachers, and those who are interested in dictionaries and reference science.

On behalf of my fellow old LEXonians, may I thank Dr Tom McArthur and Dr Reinhard Hartmann for their lectures, Kenkyusha Ltd for its support, and the National Language Research Institute for inviting the two scholars to Japan. Finally, I proudly mention that this joint lecture celebrated the 35th anniversary of the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle and the 90th anniversary of Kenkyusha Ltd.

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私の長崎

小島義郎

私は1928(昭和3)年8月21日に長野市の川中島で生まれた。父は当時長野県立農学校の教師をしていたが、昭和4年度から長崎の県立中学校に転任となったので、私は生後半年余りで長野を去り、長野のことは何も記憶に残っていない。それから小学校の6年の2学期に東京に移るまで長崎市で育ったのである。よく人様から出身地を聞かれて答えに窮してしまう。というのは、私の生まれ故郷は長野であり、父方の実家は熊本市であり、いちばん長く住んでいるのは東京であるが、今でも私の心の故郷は長崎だからだ。だから、一々説明するのがお互いに煩わしいようなときは「長崎です」と答えることにしている。

今でもよく長崎を訪れるが、私の幼い記憶にある長崎とは随分変わってしまった。長崎は原爆被災都市である。私の住んでいた所は浦上の天主堂と小さな谷を隔てて向かい合っている丘の中腹だった。原爆の爆心地からわずか200メートルの地点である。その時いればもちろん今日の私はない。私の家のあった場所には今は右手で天を指している平和祈念像が立っている。

原爆で壊れる前の浦上天主堂は幕末にフランス人の神父が建てたもので、彼らは200年という長い歳月を経てなお信仰を守っている人々を見つけて驚喜したという。浦上地区はカトリック信者の非常に多い所で、小学校などは先生も生徒もほとんどがカトリック信者という状態だった。もっとも私はかなり離れた町中の師範学校の附属小学校に通っていたが、近所の子供とはよく遊び、天主堂にも一緒に通ったことを覚えている。カトリック地区なので、クリスマスは盛大に祝うが正月は割にひっそりしていた。農家の人たちが毎朝4時、5時の早いミサに通う下駄の音でよく目がさめたものだった。夕方になるとアンジェラスの鐘が鳴り、農民の人たちが鋤を置いて祈っていた情景も思い出す。それはミレーの「晩鐘」そのものの風景だった。

長崎は今でも海、山の自然が美しく、人々の心の優しい所である。今はなくなってしまったが、当時は港の兩岸を行き来する連絡船が頻繁に通い、市電の乗り換え切符で乗れた。対岸には三菱造船所があり、戦艦武蔵が建造された所である。私の通っていた小学校の近くにはシーボルト(Philip F. von Siebold)の屋敷

跡があり、そのあたりでもよく遊んだ。鳴滝という地区でシーボルトの鳴滝塾のあった所である。

長崎といえば歴史的には1641年に平戸から移された出島のオランダ商館で知られるが、それと関連してオランダ通詞、唐通詞、それに古くはポルトガル語の南蛮通詞、シヤム通詞などもいた。通詞は世襲制で全部で111家あったという。『ブーフハルマ』の吉雄永保、『諸厄利亜興学小筈』『諸厄利亜語林大成』で知られる本木正栄、『英和对訳袖珍辞書』の堀達之助などは名門通詞の家柄である。唐通詞には中国からの帰化人が多かったようである。その人たちは始めは住居唐人とよばれ町中に住んでいた。そういう人たちは中国から高僧を招いて多くの寺を作った。今「寺町」という地域にある国宝の興福寺、崇福寺などはそういう寺で、私の小学校からは割に近いのでよく側を通った。

長崎の市中を流れる中島川には観光ポイントの一つ「眼鏡橋」が掛かっているが、この唐風の石のアーチの技術も興福寺の2代目住職の黙子如定が1634(寛永11)年に伝えたものだという。この技術はまず九州に広まり、後に木橋ではあるが岩国の錦帯橋に伝わった。子供の頃にはもちろんそんな事実は知らなかったが、風景は記憶の中に焼き付いている。

長崎は祭りの多い所である。はた(凧)上げ大会、ペーロン(唐風ボート)競争、精霊(しょうろう)流し、おくんち(御九日)など、長崎人は祭り好きであり勤勉ではない。聞いているところでは、貿易がうまくいくと、奉行所から銀何枚という褒美が出て、それでしばらくは遊べたからだともいう。

最近グラバードというのが観光の目玉だというのが、私は寡聞にして知らなかった。もちろん今ではグラバード(Thomas Blake Glover)は幕末に、日本で最初の洋風住宅を建てたイギリス商人ということは知っているが、私の子供時代には公開されていなかったように思う。ただ、そのある南山手一帯には、現在は「…番館」と呼ばれている洋風住宅があって、白系ロシア人などが多く住んでいたが、私の絵の先生もそこに住んでいてよく絵を習いに行ったことを覚えている。当時、長崎は軍の要港といって、警戒が厳重で港周辺の景色を写真はおろかさけちすることも禁じられていた。だから美しい港を描くこともできず残念だったのも覚えている。大浦の天主堂、オランダ坂もこの付近にあるが、坂が多くてまさに坂の町という印象である。

私の住んでいた頃から戦争を挟んで60年の歳月が流れた。もうそろそろ忘れてもいい頃だと思うのだが、歳をとるにつれて益々懐かしさが増す。よく痴癡になると子供の頃のことしか分からなくなるというのが、そうならないように願うのみである。

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(1997年1月～12月, アイウエオ順)

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編集後記 岩崎研究会の生みの親ともいえる小島義郎君が今年の8月21日にめでたく古希を迎えられる。小島君が岩崎研究会創立の功労者であることは以前 *LEXICON* の2号(1973)および11号(1982)の編集後記で述べたのだが、その後入会した若い会員諸君のためにここで再び繰り返し強調しておきたい。昭和37年(1962)の夏ごろから小島君の呼びかけで研究会を開こうではないかということになったが適当な集会所がないので困っていた。たまたま岩崎民平先生がこれを耳にされて、「それなら私の家を使ったらどうか」と助け船を出されたのである。私宛の第1回目の読書会の案内状に小島君は「うまくいけば面白い会になりそうです」と書いているが、2人も研究会が現在のように会員が200名近くの大所帯となり、年刊の機関誌 *LEXICON* が30号に迫ろうとするような研究会になろうとは夢にも思っていなかった。最初の出席者は僅か数名だった。そのうちに大学院生なども出席するようになり、次第に会員数が増していったのである。

小島君は実に有能多才な逸材で在学中から目立っていたが、私が感心するのは卒業後の勉強ぶりであり、これは是非若い人たちに見習ってもらいたい。小島君は授業を立派にこなしながらなおかつ論文を書き、NHKの英語講座を8年間も務め、その上各種の著書を刊行する、といった超人的な仕事を行なった。なかでも『ライトハウス和英辞典』は従来の和英辞典に大改革を加えたもので、我が国の和英辞典の歴史において特筆すべきものである。現在は英語辞典史を執筆中と伝えられるが、一日も早く完成されることを祈る。小島君と私とは皮肉にもほぼ同じ時期に心臓を患ったがお互いに自重して仕事を続けたものである。(1998年3月10日 S.T.)

研究会の重鎮、東信行先生はこの3月31日をもってめでたく東京外国語大学を定年退

官された。1973年に茨城大学から転任されて以来、ちょうど25年間、東外大で教鞭を執られたわけである。この間先生は、数多くのすぐれた門下生を育てられ、またご自身のご研究および大学行政の面においても多大の成果をあげられた。これらについては、『東信行教授還暦記念論文集』巻末の資料に譲るが、超人的なお仕事ぶりには、ただ驚嘆するばかりである。

われわれの研究会の関連でいえば、先生は、周知のとおり、月例会の主宰者として会員の指導にあたってこられた。「学校文法の会」は1977年から今日に至るまで、また「辞書学の会」も、1975年3月に中尾啓介先生から引き継がれて、94年9月に宮井捷二先生にバトンを渡されるまで、ともに20年の長きにわたっている。

研究会では、この機会に先生の会へのご貢献と会員のご指導に感謝の意を表すとともに、今後のご活躍とご健康を祈念すべく、2月23日に竹橋のKKRホテル東京で退官祝賀会を開催した。会の詳細は『英語青年』5月号の「片々録」が伝えるとおりであるが、100名近い参加者が会場を埋め尽くし、きわめて和やかな雰囲気のうちに行進して、大盛會裏に幕を閉じた。閉会直前に、中尾先生から、電気通信大学が4月から東先生を迎えることが、当日の教授会で正式に決まったとのニュースが披露された。

なお、祝賀会に先だって、2月23日午後3時から東外大で「形と意味」と題する先生の最終講義が行われたが、これについては研究会の *Newsletter* 第5号に宮井先生がお書き下さる予定である。(1998年4月15日 S.T.)



東信行教授退官記念祝賀会（於 KKR ホテル東京 1998年2月23日）