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A Comparative Analysis of the Two American Learners' Dictionaries

— *NHD* and *RHWD*

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1. Introduction

It was in the early 1960s when the English taught in Japanese schools switched from British to American English. I still remember the day when I opened my new English textbook as a 9th grader. For two years we had been taught English that was based on British English. It was now American English that we were studying; American spelling, American pronunciation, American vocabulary, and American grammar. However, it is not true to say that the English taught in Japanese schools all shifted to American English immediately. Even now a mixture of British and American English (tilted heavily towards American English) prevails in Japanese schools. Although American English is favored for political, economic, and

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geographical reasons, British English has survived for various reasons. Good learners' dictionaries that are based on British English may be one of the main reasons for it. For many years Japanese students as well as teachers have been consulting British dictionaries, specifically *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, (first published in 1948) by Hornby, whose experience in teaching English in Japan led him to compile a dictionary for students learning English as a foreign language. Since then many learners' dictionaries based on British English have been published and welcomed in Japan. The most successful among them may be *LDCE*³, *OALD*⁵, and *COBUILD*². However, not all readers are happy about the situation. Many people have been waiting for dictionaries to be published for learners of American English for the reasons stated above. Therefore, the new learners' dictionaries that are based on American English are very welcome to Japanese teachers as well as to the learners.

The present critical essay tries to clarify the features of *The Newbury House Dictionary of American English* (abbreviated to *NHD*) and *Random House Webster's Dictionary of American English* (abbreviated to *RHWD*) by analyzing and comparing them. Comparison is also made with British learners' dictionaries to examine whether their American counterparts have succeeded in reaching the standard that British dictionaries have achieved and whether they are able to produce any originality.

Five aspects of the dictionaries — entries, pronunciation, definition, examples, and grammar and usage — are examined from the perspective of Japanese learners/teachers of English.

2. The first wave of American-oriented learners' dictionaries

Both *NHD* and *RHWD* are called 'American-oriented' learners' dictionaries of American English, as opposed to 'British-oriented' counterparts like *LDAE* and *OSDAE*. When our linguistic circle thoroughly reviewed the latter two, it was hoped that the American lexicography, with its cherished history of 'college dictionaries', would pay much more attention to EFL dictionary markets worldwide (Higashi et al. 1986: 91). We would thus be able to celebrate the (rather late) arrival of the new American-oriented learners' dictionaries.

The British-oriented dictionaries, especially *LDAE*, are said to have been commercially successful in the United States since they were first published in 1983. However, it should be pointed out that they are still intolerably British in some respects (cf. Ilson 1986: 65ff). For this reason at least, we should celebrate the publication of the two American-oriented works.

What indeed is an 'American-oriented learners' dictionary of American English? To answer this seemingly simple question, the following four questions should be posed first: (1) What are the distinctive features of American (general-purpose) dictionaries?, (2) What are the distinctive features of (foreign) learners' dictionaries?, (3) How different are ESL dictionaries from EFL ones?, and (4) What is American English? The rest of this section is devoted to answering these questions one by one in order to facilitate our analysis of *NHD* and *RHWD*.

2.1. Distinctive features of American general-purpose dictionaries and those of foreign learners' dictionaries of English

Summarised below are some design features shared by American general-purpose dictionaries or AGPDs (Ilson 1986, Algeo 1990, Béjoint 1994: 48ff)¹⁾:

- (1) Word coverage
 - (a) AGPDs tend to boast of many entries (see also Landau 1984: 84–88).
 - (b) AGPDs usually include proper names either in the main word list or in appendices.
 - (c) AGPDs tend to ignore obsolete or archaic words.
 - (d) AGPDs are not particularly generous in their treatment of Briticisms.
 - (e) Until recently AGPDs tended not to include taboo words or ethnonyms.
- (2) Entry structure
 - (a) AGPDs tend to have separate articles for noun compounds.
 - (b) On the other hand, AGPDs tend to treat different parts-of-speech items in one main entry.
- (3) Orthographic syllabification is usually shown.

- (4) Respelling systems are used to indicate pronunciations.
- (5) Encyclopaedic definitions are not unusual.
- (6) In polysemous entries, the most common or frequently occurring senses appear first.
- (7) Synonym essays and usage essays are usually given.
- (8) Usage labels
 - (a) American English is usually shown unmarked.
 - (b) The label 'formal' is not used.
- (9) AGPDs are full of pictorial illustrations.
- (10) AGPDs usually have long appendices, which most often give encyclopaedic information.

Note that these are typical characteristics of AGPDs — there are exceptions, of course.

Now, let us compare the above features with those of monolingual learners' dictionaries or MLDs.²⁾ Béjoint (1994: 73) enumerates six characteristics of MLDs:

- (1) The language described is the usual, everyday variety, not the formal or literary.
- (2) Preference is given to the quality of the treatment of words rather than to the quantity of words.
- (3) Particular care is taken in the treatment of the more frequent words.
- (4) The obligatory or preferred syntactic patterns of verbs (at least) and sometimes nouns and adjectives, the countability or uncountability of nouns, the irregular forms of plurals, comparatives, conjugations, etc. are all indicated.
- (5) Pronunciation is indicated by means of the IPA.
- (6) Many examples, sometimes authentic but always representative of normal, everyday usage, are given.

The comparison of these two lists bring the following findings:

- (I) Contrasting features
 - (a) The number of entries — quantity is important in AGPDs, while quality is more important in MLDs.
 - (b) Pronunciation systems — respelling systems are prevalent among AGPDs, while the IPA is obligatory in MLDs.
- (II) Shared features

Word coverage — obsolete or archaic words are not included in AGPDs, nor are formal or literary terms in MLDs.

- (III) The features not mentioned in the MLD list
 - (a) Encyclopaedic entries.
 - (b) Poor coverage of Briticisms, taboo words, and ethnonyms.
 - (c) Analytic macrostructure.
 - (d) Treating different parts-of-speech items in one main entry.
 - (e) Syllabification.
 - (f) Encyclopaedic definitions.
 - (g) Frequency-based sense ordering.
 - (h) Synonym essays and usage essays.
 - (i) Usage labels: 'American' unmarked, 'formal' not used.
 - (j) Pictorial illustrations.
 - (k) Encyclopaedic appendices.
- (IV) The features not mentioned in the AGPD list
 - (a) Focus on frequent words.
 - (b) Grammatical information.
 - (c) Copious example sentences and phrases.

At first sight, AGPDs and MLDs belong to totally different categories, but they do not seem to be perfect strangers to each other. Contrasting features are not so many, and the two types of dictionary are rather similar in their vocabulary coverage. Moreover, Béjoint's list for MLDs is obviously incomplete. Some of the 11 features that are mentioned in the AGPD list but not in the MLD list, i.e. (III), are shared by British EFL dictionaries (e.g. (c), (e), (g), (h), and (j)), and others could be introduced in them (e.g. (a), (f), and (k)).

That being so, what will interest us when reviewing the two brand-new American-oriented MLDs? There are two questions that emerge from opposing views:

- Q1: To what extent do *NHD* and *RHWD* preserve the tradition of American lexicography?
- Q2: To what extent do *NHD* and *RHWD* satisfy the necessary conditions of MLDs?

It should be noted that since *RHWD* is "based on the Random House family of dictionaries" (*RHWD*: viii), it seems highly probable that it in-

herits some features of the Random House series, especially its college edition. It should also be noted that if *RHWD* is a direct descendant of *RHD* and *RHCD/RHWCD*, then it is a descendant of *ACD*, which is renowned as one of the best college dictionaries, and consequently a descendant of Thorndike's school dictionary (Algeo 1990: 1999). Considering the fact that "Thorndike's ideas are very similar to those put forward by Sweet . . . , which were later used by the compilers of [British] dictionaries for foreign students" (Béjoint 1994: 47), we should not be surprised if we find some similarities between *RHWD* and British MLDs. Then, another question is posed:

Q3: How different are *NHD* and *RHWD* from both British MLDs and British-oriented American learners' dictionaries (i.e. *LDAE* and *OSDAE*)?

2.2. Intended users: EFL or ESL?

Let us move on to the third question posed at the beginning of this section, which is now re-numbered:

Q4: How different are ESL dictionaries from EFL ones?

The two abbreviations 'ESL' and 'EFL' are often used interchangeably as in the introductory guide in *RHWD* (p. viii): "[*RHWD*] is designed for anyone who is learning or studying English as a *second* or *foreign* language" (emphasis added). It seems that *NHD* also uses the two terms interchangeably, for it was compiled by "ESL and EFL teachers" (p. vii). Still, the present author wonders if the two terms are interchangeable, and he doubts if ESL dictionaries should exactly be the same as their EFL counterparts.

In fact, Prof. Dalgish, chief editor of *RHWD*, admits that "learners will . . . vary in the degree of first-language literacy that they bring to the learning process. Moreover, learners will be in varying educational contexts: some will be in English as a second language situations, others in English as a foreign language situations, and others in bilingual settings, to mention a few" (Dalgish 1995: 330). There is a country like the United States which is a typical melting pot on the one hand, but on the other

hand there is a country like Japan where the illiteracy rate in the first language is amazingly low (but unfortunately the literacy rate in English is not necessarily very high!). Can one and the same dictionary satisfy the needs of these quite different user groups at once? The present author does not expect a positive answer.

Perhaps lexicographers are in a dilemma — Prof. Dalgish continues: "Learners' dictionaries that home in too narrowly on any of these considerations will not have a lucrative market; trying to appeal to all such categories will almost inevitably dilute any strengths that a solid focus would bring" (Dalgish 1995: 330). He is also in such a dilemma — his *RHWD* is "An ESL Dictionary for Learners of English as a Second Language" (front cover), but it also gives Japanese users a special gift: the Japanese translation of "How To Use This Dictionary To Learn American English" (pp. xxii–xxiv), together with its Spanish and Chinese translations. When he says *RHWD* is "a bridge to more advanced reference books used by native speakers of English" (*RHWD*: viii), he intends his dictionary to be used by ESL learners, or probably ESL learners *in* the United States. Such an idea as regarding MLDs, whether for ESL users or EFL, only as a 'bridge' to dictionaries for native speakers is open to discussion (cf. Stein 1990: 402, Zöfgen 1991: 2897, Nakamoto 1994: 3–4). In the meantime let us wait for the results from our analysis of *NHD* and *RHWD*, which is made from the viewpoint of Japanese users, teachers, and lexicographers.³⁾

2.3. What is American English?

This is another seemingly easy question with a simple answer: American English is the English spoken in America. If this is true, here is another question: Is American English the same as the language originating in America? Not necessarily so.

'American English' should be looked at from both diachronic and synchronic perspectives. Diachronically, 'Americanisms'⁴⁾ are "words and meanings originating in American English" (Algeo 1988: xviii), and therefore they are not necessarily used exclusively in America today because "many of them have spread to use in English worldwide" (Algeo 1988: xviii).

On the other hand, the term 'American English' is usually used in MLDs in its synchronic sense as in the explanation: "[*RHWD*'s] primary focus is *current* American English" (*RHWD*: viii, emphasis added). Thus, they are not necessarily words and meanings originating in American English — some of them (like *diaper*) originate in British English (or even Latin and Greek).

If MLDs do not usually give etymological information which is not regarded as a necessary feature of MLDs by Béjoint (see 2.1.), then just telling the learner which words and meanings are Americanisms and not specifying which are current American words and meanings may not be very helpful.⁵⁾

Is that all the MLD lexicographer should think about American English?

Before concluding this section, here is one more question to be answered:

Q5: Is 'American English' an English used exclusively, or chiefly, or usually, etc. in America?

Let us use the term 'American English' in its synchronic sense here. There are at least two fundamental jobs every MLD lexicographer should do. First, s/he should mark American English as such, especially when "information on British English is also provided" (*RHWD*: viii) in the dictionary. In this sense the MLD should not follow the AGPD, in which American English is usually shown unmarked (see 2.1.). Second, s/he should tell the learner to what extent the word or meaning to be explained is 'American'. In other words, s/he should show whether the word/meaning is 'variety-specific', 'variety-favored', or 'variety-neutral' (Benson et al. 1986: 42). Needless to say, reliable linguistic data is essential to make these tasks meaningful.

Incidentally, the present author, who teaches English at several universities in Tokyo, must confess that he is still uncertain which variety of Englishes should be taught in the classroom. It is often said that in Japan American English should be taught instead of British and other varieties. However, RP is still influential and thus "many ELT practitioners have

regarded it and continue to regard it as the only model which should be offered to foreign learners" (McArthur 1989: 57). Naturally, it comes first in British-oriented EFL dictionaries. Besides, satellite broadcasting is now available in Japan not only from the United States but from the United Kingdom. British English may not be very important for an ESL learner in the United States, but it is probably more important for an EFL learner in other countries including Japan (see 2.2.). This discussion should arouse our natural curiosity about the two dictionaries to be reviewed, both of which are named dictionary of "American English", so in which sense and to what extent are they 'American' dictionaries? (K. Nakamoto)

3. Entries

3.1. Number of Entries

To begin our discussion on entries, we first look at the numerical aspect of the entries in both dictionaries. In order to see about how many linguistic forms are included as entries in the dictionaries, we have selected every fortieth page of each dictionary from page 1 onwards as sample material, and have thus obtained 26 pages out of *NHD* and 22 pages out of *RHWD*. However, it must be noted here that a page is devoted to "full-page contextual illustration" in the sample material of *RHWD*; since we did no modification to our sampling method, the actual number of pages on which explanation is done by text is 21. Each sample material represents about 2.6% of each dictionary. The result of our analysis is shown in Table 3.1, in which each figure represents the estimated number derived by calculation, the actually counted numbers of which are given within the

Table 3.1

	<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>
Headwords	21,123 (547) [48.9%]	28,035 (718) [57.5%]
Derived Forms	5,638 (146) [13.1%]	6,169 (158) [12.7%]
Idioms and Phrasal Verbs	6,178 (160) [14.3%]	3,944 (101) [8.1%]
Inflected Forms	10,233 (265) [23.7%]	10,581 (271) [21.7%]
Total	43,172	48,729

parentheses. The figures in brackets show the percentage of the number in question in comparison with the "Total" number of entries.

The number of entries mentioned on the back cover of *NHD* is "more than 40,000." As far as our research is concerned, the figure contains not only the number of headwords, derived forms, and idioms, including their variants, but also that of inflected forms (including their variants). *RHWD*, on the other hand, does not mention the number of entries contained in the dictionary.¹⁾ As Table 3.1 shows, *RHWD* contains about 7,000 more headwords (variants included) than *NHD*. But *NHD* has 1.6 times more idioms and phrasal verbs than *RHWD*.

3.2. The Vocabulary

3.2.1. In order to check whether the dictionaries include minimum basic vocabulary, we made reference to *CLEJD*, where words and phrases considered as basic for the learners are explicitly marked in terms of four levels; we picked out all the 422 such basic words and phrases from those which begin with the letter "t" in *CLEJD*. As a result, the comparison yielded nothing more than a trivial conclusion that both the dictionaries, on the whole, satisfy the minimum standard for being intermediate learner's dictionaries in view of the basic vocabulary required. However, one thing must be noted here concerning contracted forms, such as **that'd**, **there's**, **they'll**, and so on. *CLEJD* lists 23 examples of such contracted forms for **that**, **there**, **they**, and **this**, but only **they'd**¹ (for *they would*), **they'd**² (*they had*), **they'll** (*they will*) and **they've** (*they have*) are included in *RHWD*, and none of these contracted forms are found in *NHD*. In passing, among four intermediate learner's American English dictionaries, that is, *LDAE*¹, *OSDAE*, *NHD*, and *RHWD*, only *NHD* lacks information on the contracted forms of [pronoun + auxiliary] construction. If the dictionaries are designed to help intermediate learners do some passive decoding activity, it may be plausible to claim that they ought to include such contracted forms in that those contracted auxiliaries, though contracted, might play important roles in the course of decoding.

3.2.2. Apart from the notion of the basic vocabulary, we also carried out a direct comparison of entries between *NHD* and *RHWD*. We checked,

Table 3.2

	<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>
Total Number of Words and Phrases	162	301
Single Words	88 [54.3%]	261 [86.7%]
Hyphenated	28 [17.3%]	13 [4.3%]
Root and Affixal	0 [0%]	29 [9.6%]
Abbreviated	0 [0%]	14 [4.7%]
Contracted	1 [0.6%]	8 [2.7%]
Compound Words and Phrases	74 [45.7%]	40 [13.3%]

one by one, the main entries in the section "t" in both dictionaries to establish what kind of words are missing and what kind of words are more likely to be included in each dictionary. Table 3.2 shows the numerical result of the analysis, in which the total number of words and phrases which are included in one dictionary but missing in the other is shown at the top.

Figures within brackets indicate the percentage of the number in question as compared with the total.

One prominent aspect of the result is that "Root" and "Affixal" morphemes, such as **-tact-**, **-tail-**, and **trans-** are only observable in *RHWD*. Information of this kind would help learners understand the way English words are formed in general, in that in each entry, *RHWD* gives brief etymological information together with an array of sample words in which the root or the affix is used.

"Abbreviated" words are those which end in a period, like **tbls.** for *tablespoon* or *tablespoonful*, and **Thurs.** for *Thursday*. And "Contracted" forms involve those in which a portion of a word is replaced with an apostrophe, thus, we have **'tis**, **'tho'**, and so on. The four contracted forms of [pronoun + auxiliary] pattern we discussed in the previous subsection, such as **they'd**, fall into this category. The only contracted form which is found in *NHD* but missing in *RHWD* is **'til**.²⁾

Note that almost half of the *NHD* vocabulary missing in *RHWD* is made up of compound words and phrases, and to take into consideration our previous indication that *NHD* contains 1.6 times more idioms and

phrasal verbs than *RHWD*, it may be plausible to claim that *NHD* is more likely or positive in including compounds as (main) entries than *RHWD*. On the other hand, more than 85% of *RHWD* vocabulary which is not listed in *NHD* is made up of single words.

A closer look at this, so to speak, complementary distribution of words further reveals that *RHWD* is somehow more technically flavored than *NHD* in that about 58 examples out of 250, where the number of root (or affixal) forms, abbreviated forms, and contracted forms are excluded, are technical or archaic terms in one way or another. For example, we have medical terms: **thrombus**, **tonsillectomy**; names of plants: **tamarind**, **taro**, **trefoil**; names of animals, fishes, and birds: **tapir**, **tarpon**, **turtle-dove**; musical terms: **turning fork**, **tremolo**, **ti**; religious terms: **Torah**, **Trinity**; archaic words: **thee**, **thou**, **troth**; and other technical terms, such as **tautology** and **theorem**. On the other hand, we have only 9 examples out of 161 *NHD* vocabulary items which can be considered technical without question. These are, **Taurus**, **teleprocessing**, **therapeutics**, **thermonuclear**, **topiary**, **transcendentalism**, **triglyceride**, **tympanum**, and **typology**. And the majority of the *NHD* vocabulary items, especially the compounds, relate rather to the household, thus, we have **table wine**, **time card**, **traffic jam**, and such.

Names of country are not included in either of the dictionaries, but *RHWD* contains names of nationality and language so that **Taiwanese**, **Tanzanian**, **Thai**, **Tunisian**, and **Turkish** are confirmed in the section "t." *NHD* does not provide this type of vocabulary in the main A-Z part, but it has a list of countries, nationalities, and languages in its appendix 3.

3.2.3. As the titles of the dictionaries indicate, *NHD* and *RHWD* are dictionaries of American English. In this subsection, we briefly examine how American these dictionaries are in terms of the entries included. Here we have made reference to *CLEJD* again. We have picked out whatever entries in the section "t" are labeled as either "American English," "Mainly American English," "Informal American English," or "American Slang" in *CLEJD*.³⁾ As a result, we get 123⁴⁾ entries in all. Table 3.3 shows the number of such "American" entries included in the four intermediate learner's American English dictionaries.

Table 3.3

<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>	<i>LDAE</i> ¹	<i>OSDAE</i>
52	43	33	24

As is obvious from the table, although the number of 52 itself does not seem high in that more than half of the sample entries are still left unlisted, it is plausible to claim that *NHD* is, in a sense, more American than any other dictionaries in terms of the type of entries included. 15 examples including **temblor**, **tush**, **teeter-totter**, etc., are only found in *NHD*, while the number of those which are only confirmed in *RHWD*, *LDAE*¹, and *OSDAE* are 5 (**thrift institution**, **thunderhead**, **tie one on**, **toe the mark**, and **trundle bed**), 4 (**take-out**, **toll-free**, **track meet**, and **triplex apartment**), 4 (**pick up the tab**, **ten-gallon hat**, **on the ticket**, and **tractor-trailer**), respectively.

3.3. Presentation of Inflected Forms

In this subsection, we will mainly look at the manner in which entries are presented in both dictionaries. The notion of entries here includes not only "headwords" but also "inflected forms," "derived forms," and "variant forms" of any sort. On the whole, both the dictionaries lack consistency in the way that they present these forms, and thus, there is strong possibility that the information so provided will leave learners in some confusion.

3.3.1. Although it is not clearly mentioned, *NHD* shows the plural forms of nouns if the inflectional patterns do not observe the regular rule.⁵⁾ Thus, in accordance with the "GUIDE TO THE DICTIONARY,"⁶⁾ (henceforth, referred to as the "GUIDE") for nouns, such as **bush**, **church**, **lens**, **box**, **buzz**, and **enemy**, the dictionary presents their plural forms. Although the "GUIDE" says nothing on the [-o ⇒ -oes] pattern, *NHD* shows plurals of the *o*-ending nouns which follow the pattern, such as **echo**, **potato**, and **hero**. As far as the result of our research on *NHD* is concerned, we have found no cases in which irregular plural forms, which are not generated by the simple suffixation of *-s*, are missing from the dictionary. However, although the regular plural suffixation is to be ap-

plied, *NHD* gives plurals for the abbreviated nouns, such as **piano**, **dynamo**, and **photo**, and several other cases of inconsistency must be pointed out among those which observe the regular suffixation. For example, *NHD* shows the plural form of **chimney** on one hand, but no plural forms are given for other nouns which follow the [-y ⇒ -ys] pattern, such as **boy**, **toy**, **monkey**, and **valley**, on the other. The same is true for the *o*-ending nouns. *NHD* gives **ghettos**, but it does not show plurals for other foreign nouns like **solo** and **torso**. And although headwords like **kangaroo** and **cameo** are accompanied by their plurals, **bamboo** and **studio**, which also end in *o* preceded by a vowel, are not. The information being redundant rather than being deficient, the inconsistency of this type may not necessarily cause confusion. However, if the presentation of the redundant information is meant to help the less confident learners in generating plurals, it may be plausible to claim that the dictionary should give some inflectional information not only on those *f*-ending nouns which observe [-f ⇒ -ves] pattern as **thief**, for example, but also on those which observe the regular rule as **belief**, the plural form of which is not shown in the article.

RHWD, on the other hand, does not explain anything about the formation of plurals in its "Guide to the Dictionary," (henceforth, referred to as the "Guide") and the dictionary seems to presuppose some grammatical knowledge of the basic irregular patterns of plural formation. Indeed, for the nouns which end in *sh*, *ch*, *x*, or *z*, *RHWD* does not show their plural counterparts.⁷⁾ Thus, *RHWD* users cannot rely on such a simple principle as the one employed in *NHD* that they simply add *-s* automatically to the headword whenever its plural form is not shown in the article. Rather, they are required to decide what inflectional pattern the headword observes. This is quite a burden for non-advanced learners. Obviously, this may lead the learners into some confusion. For example, the dictionary does not show the plural forms for **epoch**, **monarch**, and **stomach**, which do not follow the [-ch ⇒ -ches] pattern as is observed in the case of **church**. Plural forms generated by the [-y ⇒ -ies] pattern are shown, but the treatment of [-y ⇒ -ys] pattern is somewhat different. *RHWD* gives plurals of the [-y ⇒ -ys] pattern if the *y* is preceded by *e*, such as **chim-**

neys, **monkeys**, and **valleys**, but it does not if the *y* is preceded by *a* (**play**) or *o* (**boy**, **toy**).

Animal names can have zero plural forms. *RHWD* indicates the possibility of the zero form in three ways. If the noun only has the zero plural, the dictionary just shows the same spelling as the headword after the label *pl.*, as in **deer**. In those cases where the headword has both the inflected and the zero forms, plurals are shown in either of the following ways⁸⁾:

salmon: **-ons**, (*esp. when thought of as a group*) **-on**

flounder²⁾: (*esp. when thought of as a group*) **-der**, (*esp. for kinds or species*) **-ders**

This type of information looks helpful for learners who have not yet fully understood the notion of collectivity, but since no indication is given on the difference between these two manners of presentation, we do not know for sure whether or not the order of listing is designed to imply that the notion of **flounder** is much more likely to be thought of as a group than kinds or species while that of **salmon** is not. *NHD* shows zero forms together with their inflected counterparts, but it does not provide any further information concerning which to use in a specific context.

RHWD has an appendix which lists irregular and alternate plural forms of nouns, but the information is somehow incomplete in that **cactus**, **criteria**, **louses**, and **moneys**, which are given in the A-Z main part, are missing in the diagram even if their singular counterparts are shown in the list.

3.3.2. Inconsistency can be observed also in the manner of presenting inflected forms for verbs in both dictionaries.

The "GUIDE" in *NHD* claims that it shows all the irregularly⁹⁾ inflected forms of the verbs. When they are listed, the array follows the order "past tense, past participle (if different from past tense), gerund (= present participle), third person singular." And if there are more than two forms for one category, the variants are conjuncted by non-boldfaced *or*:

hide (1) / | *v.* **hid** / |, **hidden** / | or **hid**, **hiding**, **hides**¹⁰⁾

However, the rule is violated for some verbs:

sew / | *v.* **sewed** or **sewn** / |, **sewing**, **sews**

Here, the learners may conclude that **sew** has two possible inflected forms for not only the past participle but also for the past tense, which is not actually the case. No inflectional diagram is given for **hurt** and **set** although these verbs do not follow the regular rule, and **apply** is accompanied only by its *-ing* form. **beat**, **become**, **begin**, **blow**, **break**, and **see** lack their irregular past participle forms in their inflectional diagrams. For **swing**, the dictionary gives the form **swang** as its past tense.¹¹⁾

In its appendix 4, *NHD* provides a list of irregular verbs, but the use of this list may rather disturb the understanding of the irregular inflections of verbs. First of all, the list gives wrong information; **begin**, **bite**, and **blow** do not change their forms for the past tense and the past participle in the list. Secondly, variant forms shown in the A-Z main part are not given in the appendix 4 except for **hang**.¹²⁾

RHWD says nothing particular in its "Guide" on the presentation of inflected forms of verbs. In general, the dictionary seems to give inflectional diagrams if the verbs do not follow the regular rule. Inflected forms are listed in the order "past tense, past participle (if different from past tense), gerund (= present participle)." The third person singulars are not given even if the regular rule is not applicable. If variant forms are possible, variants are conjuncted by the non-boldfaced *or*. However, as in *NHD*, the manner of presentation is rather inconsistent, and, thus, may cause some confusion among learners. For some verbs, the distinction is not made between the past tense and the past participle:

get () / / v., **got** () / / or **got·ten** () / / **get·ting**, n.

As is shown above, since "**got** or **gotten**" is given for **get**, the learners may misunderstand that **get** has two possible variants for both the past tense and the past participle.

RHWD also has an appendix which lists irregular forms of verbs. But the diagram is incomplete in that some variant forms are missing even if they are shown in the body part.

3.3.3. According to the "GUIDE," *NHD* gives the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives when they accept the *-er* and *-est* suffixation, or when they have irregular forms. Thus, when only periphrastic forms

are possible for an adjective (adverb), no explicit information is given in the article. This might mislead the learners if an adjective they are looking up is the one which is not usually used in a comparative or a superlative structure, such as **main** and **perfect**, for *NHD* does not have a systematic method of indicating such information. Irregular forms are given for adjectives like **good**, **well**, **bad**, and **many**, but **ill** is left unmarked. Some adjectives, such as **old**, **late**, and **far**, have two types of inflectional pattern. *NHD* gives four possible forms for **far**, **later** and **latest** for **late**, but no information is given on the comparatives and superlatives for **old**.

The "GUIDE" explains that the inflectional rule is applicable "if the adjectives are of one syllable, or if they are of two syllables and the second syllable ends in a *y* preceded by a consonant," while Quirk et al. (1985: 462) claim that the inflected forms are possible not only for *y*-ending adjectives but also for *ow-*, *le-*, *er-*, *ure-*ending ones when they are of two syllables and these endings are preceded by a consonant. *NHD* gives inflected forms only for those which end in *y* with one exception; that is **gentle**, which ends in *le*. Thus, in *NHD*, adjectives like **narrow**, **simple**, **clever**, **mature** are considered to have periphrastic forms. The treatment on these adjectives resembles *LDAB*¹, which gives no inflected forms for *ow-*, *le-*, *er-*, *ure-*ending adjectives including **gentle**. The prudential attitude toward the inflected forms is also observable when we look at the treatment of those adjectives, for which Quirk et al. (1985: 462) admit the possibility of being both the periphrastic and the inflected forms, such as **quite**, **common**, **solid**, **cruel**, **wicked**, **polite**, **pleasant**, and **handsome**. Although *AHD* gives inflected forms for all of these adjectives, *NHD* has inflected forms only for **quiet** and **polite**.¹³⁾ One remark must be made on the manner of showing the comparative and superlative forms in *NHD*. When a headword contains the adjective item and the adverb item in its article, it is only the first listed item which is given the inflected forms. For a dictionary to be considered user-oriented, inflectional information should be presented for each part of speech whether or not inflected forms to be shown happen to be the same in the end.¹⁴⁾

The "Guide" in *RHWD* mentions nothing particular on the presentation of the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs

except that the dictionary shows the inflected and irregular forms. Since *RHWD* does not indicate whether or not an adjective (adverb) is normally used in the comparison, the same type of confusion might occur as the one we have pointed out for *NHD*. The attitude of *RHWD* toward the inflected forms is more positive than *NHD* in that it gives inflected forms for those which end in *ow*, *le*, *er*, and *ure*, and for some of those which are claimed in Quirk et al. (1985: 462) to have both the inflected and the periphrastic forms, that is, **quiet**, **common**, **cruel**, **polite**, and **handsome**. *RHWD* also shows inflected forms for **soon**, **fast**, and **hard**. *RHWD* gives even **liker** and **likest**¹⁵ for **like** although they are labeled "(Poetic)." However, the presentation of inflected forms in *RHWD* lacks consistency. *RHWD* shows inflected forms of a headword before it gives definitions and examples. When a headword contains several parts of speech, the dictionary first arrays all parts of speech labels for the headword in the same order in which the dictionary gives definitions and examples, and inflected forms are given after the corresponding parts of speech:

much () | | *adj.*, **more** () | | **most** () | | *n.*, *pron.*, *adv.*,
more, **most**.

When adjectival definitions and adverbial definitions are given next to each other, the presentation of inflected forms observes the following manner:

hard () | | *adj.* and *adv.*, **-er**, **-est**.

However, as is usually the case for *RHWD*, not all the articles follow this pattern:

ill () | | *adj.*, **worse** () | | **worst** () | | *n.*, *adv.*
well¹ () | | *adv.*, *adj.*, *comparative* **better**, *superlative* **best**, *interj.*

In the case of **ill**, inflected forms are missing after the *adv.* label. Thus, learners might wonder whether or not the irregular forms **worse** and **worst** are applicable to **ill** when it is used as an adverb. It must be noted here also that labels *comparative* and *superlative* are not confirmed for adjectives and adverbs other than **well**¹. *RHWD* seems to have a tendency to show more variant forms in its array of inflected forms compared with

NHD.¹⁶ However, compare the way in which variants are given for **old** and **late** below:

old () | | *adj.*, **old·er**, **old·est** or **eld·er**, **eld·est**, *n.*
late () | | *adj.*, **lat·er** or **lat·ter**, **lat·est** or **last** () | | *adv.*, **lat·er**, **lat·est**.

The unsystematic use of conjunction *or* might not correctly convey to the learners the alignment attributed between a comparative form and a superlative form, namely that a certain comparative variant can be paired with a certain superlative variant, but not with another.

3.4. Presentation of Derived Forms

In *NHD*, some derived forms are shown at the end of items, parts of speech of which are thought to be semantically (or, etymologically) the origins of the derivation. Thus, **printable**, for example, is given at the end of verb item of **print** rather than the noun item. However, there are other cases in which derived forms are simply shown at the end of the articles regardless of their derivational history. Thus, **editorially**, which is given as the derived form of **editorial**, is shown at the end of the article where the adjective item precedes the noun item. **disconnection** is given as the derived form of the adjective **disconnected**, but the word should be shown within the article headed by the verb entry **disconnect** as long as it is listed in the dictionary.

In *RHWD*, derived forms are all arrayed at the end of each article. Thus, as we have pointed out, the derivational relationship is not clear as to which item in the article is semantically (or, etymologically) connected with the derived form. However, it must be noted here that the treatment of derived forms is rather more considerate than that of *NHD* in that *RHWD* gives their inflected forms when their inflectional patterns are not of the regular type. For example, the noun **causality**, which is given as a run-on entry for the adjective **causal**, is accompanied by its plural ending **-ties**, and the past tense (and the past participle) and the gerund endings are given for the verb **tap dance**, a run-on entry for the noun **tap dance**. The comparative and superlative endings are given for adjectives when

they observe the inflectional rule; thus, **wheezy**, a run-on entry for **wheeze**, is followed by **-ier** and **-iest**. (T. Osada)

4. Pronunciation

4.1. Overview

4.1.1. Both *NHD* and *RHWD* are titled "Dictionary of American English" and it is a matter of course that the pronunciations given are those heard in the United States. *NHD* declares in its "Guide to the Dictionary" (p. xii) that it shows the pronunciations "used by speakers of the most common American English dialects." *RHWD* does not mention the type of pronunciation that they give, but it is obvious that it gives the pronunciations that are common in the United States.

4.1.2. *NHD* employs a transcription system based on the IPA, while *RHWD* employs two systems, i.e. the diacritical system and the IPA-based system, providing each entry with the two types of symbol. Both dictionaries present IPA-based symbols between slashes and, in *RHWD*, diacritical symbols are put in parentheses before IPA-based symbols:

NHD **green** /grɪn/
RHWD **green** (grĕn) /grɪyn/

The diacritical system employed in *RHWD* is the same as that found in *RHD*². The reason for employing the two types of symbol is that the diacritical system "is designed to focus learners on *English* sound-spelling correspondences" while "many learners are already familiar with the IPA pronunciation system" (Guide to the Dictionary, p. ix). *RHWD* seems to intend that its transcription should serve as a "bridge" from the IPA-based system, with which many learners are familiar, to the diacritical system, which *RHWD* considers to be desirable and "standard in most American monolingual dictionaries." (p. viii)

4.1.3. The vowel symbols employed in *NHD* and *RHWD* are shown in Table 4.1. The framework used here is from the "standard lexical sets" in Wells (1982: 122) with some modification (cf. Akasu et al. 1996: 20). Slashes for the IPA-based symbols are left out while the diacritical symbols of *RHWD* are put in parentheses as in the dictionary.

Table 4.1

	<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>		<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>
KIT	ɪ	(i)	NURSE	ɜr	(ŭr) ɜr
DRESS	ɛ	(e)	NEAR	ɪr	(ēr) ɪər
TRAP	æ	(a)	SQUARE	ɛr	(âr) ɛər
BATH	æ	(a)	START	ɑr	(ār) ɑr
PALM	ɑ	(ă)	NORTH	ɔr	(ôr) ɔr
LOT	ɑ	(o)	FORCE	ɔr	(ôr, ôr) ɔr, ɔwr
CLOTH	ɔ	(ô, o)	CURE	ur	(oor) ur
THOUGHT	ɔ	(ô)	happy	ɪ	(ē) iy
STRUT	ʌ	(u)	habit	ɪ	(i) ɪ
FOOT	ʊ	(oo)	comma	ə	(ə) ə
FLEECE	i	(ē)	letter	ər	(ər) ər
GOOSE	u	(oo)	manUal	u	(oo) uw
FACE	eɪ	(ā)	regUlar	ə	(ə) ə
PRICE	aɪ	(ī)			
CHOICE	ɔɪ	(oi)			
MOUTH	au	(ou)			
GOAT	ou	(ô)			

The consonant symbols are not listed here because they are essentially the same with those used in other materials. For minor differences of the consonant symbols, see 4.3.1.

4.2. Transcriptions of vowels

4.2.1. In this chapter, we examine the IPA-based transcriptions of vowels in the two dictionaries. The diacritical transcriptions in *RHWD* have already been discussed in Dohi et al. (1991: 27) as an analysis of the pronunciation system of *RHD*² and so they are not discussed here.

4.2.2. The most striking differences between the two dictionaries are the symbols employed for the vowels which appear in the lexical set FLEECE and GOOSE. In *NHD*, these vowels are transcribed as /i/ and /u/, while *RHWD* gives /iy/ and /uw/.

The transcriptions in *RHWD* are based on the analysis in which these vowels are phonemicized as a combination of a vowel and a glide. The transcriptions of this kind, which reflect the fact that these vowels are often

diphthongized in American speech, have been popular in the United States since the era of American structural linguists. They can still be seen nowadays in some pronunciation coursebooks. The dictionaries and textbooks published in Japan, on the other hand, employ /i:/ and /u:/ for those vowels, so that most of the Japanese learners of English are not at all familiar with the transcriptions /iy/ and /uw/ and must be puzzled by them.

The use of the symbols /i/ and /u/ for the vowels in the lexical sets FLEECE and GOOSE, as in *NHD*, has been discussed several times (cf. Higashi et al. 1986). From the phonological point of view, the use of /i/, /u/ for the vowels in FLEECE and GOOSE and /ɪ/, /ʊ/ for the vowels in KIT and FOOT is fully adequate. For pedagogical purposes, however, it is desirable that the former two vowels, which are relatively long, be transcribed with a length mark, i.e. /i:/ and /u:/, even though it is redundant phonologically. This is especially preferable for those learners whose native language has a phonemic opposition between long and short vowels, because those learners, given the notations without a length mark, will miss the relative length of the vowels in English. This is also true of the use of /ɔ/ for the vowel found in the lexical set THOUGHT in both dictionaries.

4.2.3. For most of the speakers in the United States, there is no longer a distinction between the vowels which appear in the lexical sets LOT and PALM (and also THOUGHT for many speakers).

Both *NHD* and *RHWD* distinguishes the THOUGHT vowel from the other two.

For the vowels for the lexical sets LOT and PALM, *NHD* transcribes them into the same symbol /ɑ/, while *RHWD* distinguishes them as in *RHD*² and gives the symbols /ɒ/ and /ɑ/ respectively. As far as American speech is concerned, the distinction between these two vowels seems to be unnecessary, at least in learner's dictionaries. There is another problem in *RHWD*. The symbol chosen for the LOT vowel, i.e. /ɒ/, is an IPA symbol that denotes a low back round vowel, usually employed for the LOT vowel in RP. The use of this symbol for the unrounded American LOT vowel is erroneous and will mislead the learners, especially those who are familiar with the dictionaries published in Britain.

4.2.4. For transcribing the five diphthongs which appear in the lexical sets FACE, PRICE, CHOICE, MOUTH and GOAT, *NHD* employs sequences of two vowel symbols, i.e. /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /aʊ/ and /oʊ/ respectively. This convention is established in EFL/ESL dictionaries published in Britain and it is quite a reasonable choice.

RHWD transcribes these five diphthongs with sequences of a vowel symbol and a semi-vowel (or glide) symbol, i.e. /ey/, /ay/, /ɔy/, /aw/ and /ow/. Although they are less difficult to understand than /iy/ and /uw/, Japanese learners may feel somewhat uncomfortable with them.

4.2.5. Both *NHD* and *RHWD* employ /ɜr/ for the vowel that appears in the lexical set NURSE. This vowel is phonemicized as a mid central vowel followed by a consonant /r/, and its transcription as /ɜr/ (or sometimes as /ər/) is fairly common in some dictionaries, including *CIDE* and *LDAE*^{1,1)} This is, however, rather problematic in that the transcription /ɜr/ (or /ər/) gives learners an impression that they should pronounce a mid central non-rhotic vowel /ɜ/ (or /ə/) first and then the consonant (semi-vowel) /r/. The result is that they will pronounce it as a diphthong at best, like the ones found in the lexical sets NEAR, SQUARE, START, etc., which is wrong. The situation is that the NURSE vowel is a mid central rhoticized (i.e. r-colored) monophthong. In order to get rid of such a serious misunderstanding, it is strongly recommended that this vowel not be transcribed with a sequence of symbols but with one vowel symbol which implies rhoticity, i.e. /ɜ:/ or /ə:/ (or, more preferably, with a length mark, i.e. /ɜ:/ or /ə:/).

4.2.6. *NHD* gives /ɪr/, /ɛr/, /ɑr/ and /ʊr/ for the vowels (or diphthongs) which appear in the lexical sets NEAR, SQUARE, START and CURE. Although this is phonologically adequate, pedagogically it is not. Since the pre-vocalic /r/ and the post-vocalic /r/ give different acoustic impressions to learners (the former is more consonant-like and the latter more vowel-like), it is more preferable to employ the symbol /ə/ for the second element of those vowels, so that their characteristics as diphthongs are better understood.

In *RHWD*, the transcriptions of the vowels in START and CURE are the same as in *NHD*, while the vowels in NEAR and SQUARE are transcribed as /ɪər/ and /ɛər/ respectively. The symbol /ə/, which is phonologically redun-

dant, stands for a glide which is heard in these vowels. By employing /ɪər/ and /eər/, *RHWD* distinguishes the pronunciations of **ferry** (fer'ē) /'feriɪ/ and **fairy** (fâr'ē) /'færiɪ/ (in *NHD*, both words are transcribed as /'feri/, implying that they are homophones). In the same way, **mirror** and **weary** is transcribed as (mir'ər) /'mɪrər/ and (wēr'ē) /'wiəri/ (in *NHD*, /'mɪrər/ and /'wiəri/) respectively.

4.2.7. As to the vowels which appear in the lexical sets NORTH and FORCE, *NHD* does not distinguish them and transcribes both as /ɔr/, while *RHWD* gives the latter /owr/ as well as /ɔr/, corresponding to the diacritical transcriptions (ōr) and (ôr) respectively. Since this distinction is decreasing in the United States, learner's dictionaries no longer need to make a distinction between them. To make matters worse, the notation /owr/ is totally inadequate. This transcription inevitably leads learners to believe that the vowel in FORCE is a kind of triphthong like [ouə]. It is possible to phonemicize this vowel as the GOAT vowel (transcribed as /ow/ in *RHWD*) followed by the consonant /r/, but employing /owr/ in a dictionary is improper, inclining too much towards phonological analysis (or too automatic a translation from the diacritical system). It should be abandoned.²⁾

4.3. Transcriptions of consonants

4.3.1. For transcriptions of consonants, only a few statements are needed.

In both dictionaries, the IPA-based symbols for consonants are essentially the same. The only difference is a typographical one: the use of ligatures /tj/ and /dʒ/ for the affricates in *NHD* (not in *RHWD*).

Both dictionaries employ /y/ for the initial sound of *yes*, which would be transcribed as /j/ in the original use of the IPA.

4.3.2. Since in practice *NHD* and *RHWD* are the first EFL/ESL dictionaries from publishers in the United States, it is natural that we expect them to include some information about what is called "voiced t", one of the most typical characteristics of American speech. Regrettably, they do not say anything about this, except that *NHD* mentions it as a general feature in the "Guide to the dictionary" (p. xiv). It explains that /t/ is

voiced "after a vowel or /r/ and before an unstressed vowel or a syllabic /l/" and asserts that this phenomenon "is considered predictable and is not represented by a special symbol." The situation is more complicated, however, as was pointed out in Akasu et al. (1996: 22). Even if the editors of this dictionary consider that learners should know only the most typical circumstances where /t/ is voiced, it would be more user-friendly to indicate the possibility of voicing in each entry. The two learner's dictionaries from British publishers, i.e. *CIDE* and *LDAE*³, are far more satisfactory as they indicate t-voicing.

4.4. Transcriptions of syllabic consonants

4.4.1. The transcriptions of syllabic consonants are shown in Table 4.2. Notice that *RHWD* (but not *NHD*) employs a diacritic /,/ to indicate the syllabicity of consonants.

When /l/ or /n/ is preceded by a homorganic stop, neither dictionaries put /ə/ between the two consonants.³⁾ This is quite an adequate decision because in these contexts /l/ and /n/ are almost always syllabic. On the other hand, both dictionaries put /ə/ in all the other cases. Although less often than in the cases above, /ə/ is also sometimes dropped in these contexts, and it is preferable to indicate the possibility of dropping /ə/ in one way or another. After all, trying not to pronounce /ə/ in these circumstances will bring about better results for foreign learners.

Table 4.2

	<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>		<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>
people, chapel	/pəl/	/pəl/	button	/tɪ/	/tɪ/
table, symbol	/bəl/	/bəl/	sudden	/dn/	/dn/
rifle, beautiful	/fəl/	/fəl/	lesson	/sən/	/sən/
little, metal	/tl/	/tɪ/	season	/zən/	/zən/
middle, idol	/dl/	/dɪ/			
final	/nl/	/nɪ/	rhythm	/ðəm/	/ðəm/
wrestle, pencil	/səl/	/səl/	prism	/zəm/	/zəm/
puzzle, hazel	/zəl/	/zəl/			
uncle, nickel	/kəl/	/kəl/			
single, legal	/gəl/	/gəl/			

4.4.2. In intervocalic positions, the symbols /t/, /d/, /n/, /tn/, /dn/ in *NHD* cause some ambiguity. For example, the word **analyst** (which is trisyllabic) is transcribed as /'ænɪst/ and the users will misunderstand that it is dissyllabic and that the consonant /l/ is non-syllabic.⁴⁾ In *RHWD*, **analyst** is transcribed as /'ænlɪst/. It is certain that the use of the diacritic /,/ eliminates the ambiguity as found in *NHD*, but we are afraid that this symbol causes difficulties because most learners are not familiar with it. It is preferable that the word be transcribed as /'ænlɪst/.

4.5. Stress

4.5.1. Both *NHD* and *RHWD* admit secondary stresses after the primary stress, as other American dictionaries do, except when the secondary stress immediately follows the primary. Only in dissyllabic words does *NHD* (but not *RHWD*) indicate a secondary stress immediately after the primary.

Compound adverbs such as **downstairs** and **underground** are double-stressed in *RHWD*, while only some of them are double-stressed in *NHD*. In addition, numerals such as **thirteen** and **fourteen** are all double-stressed in *RHWD*, while there are some careless discrepancies in assigning stress patterns to those numerals in *NHD*.⁵⁾

RHWD, as in *RHD*², provides all the compounds with stress patterns, which is helpful for learners. *NHD* gives no stress patterns to the two-word entries including hyphenated words. Indicating stress patterns of compound words, irrespective of whether they are solid, hyphenated or separate, seems to be a "must" in learner's dictionaries nowadays and it is very much hoped that all the two-word entries will be provided with indications of stress.

(A. Kobayashi)

5. Definition

Both *NHD* and *RHWD* explain little about definitions. *NHD*, for example, simply says in one place, "The definitions are composed in an easy-to-understand, limited vocabulary," (Foreword: vii) and in another, "Meanings are given in simple English that is easy to understand." (Guide to the Dictionary: xv) Although it refers to limited vocabulary for the

writing of the definitions, *NHD* does not describe it as *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁵ do¹⁾. It does not offer any explanation for the order of definitions, that is, whether the sense order is based on frequency, or on some other principles. The sense order of *RHWD*, as is described in the Guide to the Dictionary (xii), is "Usually, the most common or frequently occurring meanings appear first among the definitions." It does not refer to limited defining vocabulary or other features of its definitions except that they are displayed in small capital letters when they serve as cross references.

We believe definitions in learners' dictionaries should differ from those of the conventional monolingual dictionaries in several ways. Strevens (1987: 77), with reference to *OALD* and *LDCE*, finds the main differences in the LD "the use of controlled and simplified language in framing definitions, in deference to the learner's reduced command of English; copious use of citations and examples to support the bare definition; the inclusion of much information about differences between British and American usage, etc."

Our main concern, therefore, is to compare and analyze the definitions of *NHD* and *RHWD* and examine them to clarify the measures adopted to serve the non-native English learners. Needless to say, they must also contain "exact definitions and paraphrases of the concepts", as Lipka (1990: 31) points out.

5.1. Sense order

First, we will compare *NHD* and *RHWD* to examine how they arrange the order of senses of the headword. We will also compare them with some British learner's dictionaries which have had long experience in this field of study, so they will serve as model dictionaries for EFL. Comparison with *OSDAE* and *LDAE*²⁾ will be interesting, because as *OSDAE* puts it (Preface: vii), they are prepared 'to serve learners of American English.' In the process, we will find out if the senses are properly ordered.

5.1.1. As mentioned above, *RHWD* says that it gives the most commonly used meanings first. Although *NHD* says nothing about the sense order, it seems to have employed a similar policy as well. To illustrate, the defini-

Table 5.1

<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>
1 kind, friendly, pleasant:	1 pleasing; agreeable; delightful:
2 pretty, attractive:	2 kind; thoughtful:
3 proper, well-behaved:	3 requiring or showing great skill, care, or tact:
4 pleasing, enjoyable:	4 fine; subtle:
5 refined; discriminating:	

tion of **nice** is compared (illustrative examples are omitted) in Table 5.1.

Although the sense divisions of the two dictionaries are different, both seem to give what they think the most common meanings first.

Nice is known to have developed various senses through its history. The sketchy semantic flow of *nice* given in *OED*² is 'foolish' → 'fastidious' → 'particular, precise' → 'fine; subtle, delicate' → 'agreeable, delightful' → 'kind, considerate, pleasant.'

While all the senses in *NHD*, and the definitions 1, and 2 of *RHWD* are most commonly used meanings in the Present Day English,³ the definitions 3, 4, and 5 of *RHWD* are less common, older meanings of *nice*. *COBUILD*² lists the fourth sense of *RHWD*, but all the other listed meanings are similar to those of *NHD*. *NHD* seems to have limited its senses to those that are most commonly used in present day English, but excluded less frequent meanings. Words used in the definition are easy ones.

Generally, the defining vocabulary in *RHWD* is more difficult than that of *NHD*. The target users of *NHD* seem to be intermediate rather than advanced learners. *RHWD* seems to target more advanced learners than *NHD*⁴.

5.1.2. Naturally, sense order in *NHD*, and *RHWD* reflects the American usage and differs from the British one in British dictionaries. Simplified definitions of **film** (noun) in *RHWD* are compared with those of *NHD*, *LDCE*³, and *OALD*⁵ in Table 5.2⁵.

LDAE lists the third sense of *RHWD* as the first sense, and the first sense of *RHWD* comes as the second sense. Here, *LDAE*'s sense order does not seem to reflect American English⁶. In *OSDAE*, the order is the same as that of *NHD*. In *LDCE*³ and *OADE*⁵ the sense 1 is labeled as *especially BrE*. Also, *LDCE*³ gives the sense 4 *BrE* 'a metal container with

Table 5.2

<i>RHWD</i>	<i>NHD</i>	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>OALD</i> ⁵
1 a thin layer or coating:	1	5	3
2 a thin haze, blur, or mist:	—	—	—
3 a roll or sheet of thin plastic for taking photographs	2	3	2
4 MOTION PICTURE	3	1 (<i>BrE</i>)	1 (<i>BrE</i>)
5 a. the motion-picture industry	—	—	—
b. motion picture as a form of art or entertainment	—	2	—

film in it that you put inside a camera to take photographs.' British dictionaries label both British usage and American usage. American dictionaries, on the other hand, do not give these labels. In this respect, British dictionaries are user-friendlier. Ilson (1986: 62) recognizes a similar imbalance in the coverage of British vocabulary in American college dictionaries.

5.2. Sense division and scope of coverage

When the entry has more than one word class, dictionaries like *LDCE*³ set up an independent headword for each word. Many dictionaries list several word classes in one entry. They group word classes as subentries. This treatment is reasonable when the entry has several senses. If several word classes are mixed up in a long series of definitions separated only by numbers, users will take more time to find the meaning they are looking for. Maybe, different word classes can come together if the entry is a simple one with one or two senses. *NHD* employs this policy in entries like **ad lib** (*v.n.adj.*), **drawl** (*v.n.*), **jaundice** (*n.v.*), **neigh** (*n.v.*), **sniff** (*v.n.*), etc. The definition, however, should be improved to cover the senses of each word class of these entries. *RHWD* separates definitions of different word classes even in simple entries with only a few senses. When transitive and intransitive meanings of a verb are similar, they are often covered by one definition.

RHWD's typefaces should be changed when two or more than two word classes are defined under the entry. The same typefaces for all word classes are inconvenient because readers will not know where the new word classes begin. If each word class is emphasized with the bold face or

if it begins with the new paragraph, readers will be much helped.

5.2.1. *RHWD* covers considerably a wider scope of definitions than *NHD*. For example, it offers eight senses for **taste** (noun); *NHD* gives only three for the same word. We have already compared the headword *film* in four dictionaries, and found that *RHWD* gives more senses than the British advanced learners' dictionaries.

It seems that large parts of definitions of *RHWD* are handed down from its parent Random House Dictionaries. Sometimes, *RHWD* simplifies the definitions, and omits some senses. In *RHWD*, **baby** has four senses instead of five of *RHWD*. Further, the last sense is subdivided into two instead of five. But in the process of simplification, the subdivision became meaningless. The fourth definition of **baby** in *RHWD* is: '*Informal. a. (sometimes disparaging and offensive). a girl or woman. b. something that requires one's attention or of which one is esp. proud.*' Here, there is no reason to classify the two senses into one group.⁷⁾

5.2.2. The sense division of an entry like *take* is very complex. In *RHWD*, the senses of this verb are divided into 48, then follow phrasal verbs and other expressions from 49–65. In *NHD*, definition is from 1–19, and phrasal verbs and other expressions follow from 20–57.

Naturally, some senses of *take* in *RHWD* are missing from *NHD*. Major senses missing are: the definition 17 (to carry with one), 19 (to use as a means of transportation), 30 (to make (a video, etc.) (of)), 31 (to write down), 32 (to apply oneself to; study). None of these senses could be deduced from the definition 1–19 of *NHD*. We believe these senses are very important for a learners' dictionary⁸⁾, and should be included in the definition. At least, they are more important than the definition 15 of *NHD*, '(for a man) to have sex with a woman.' On the other hand, there are some senses that are not included in advanced learners' dictionaries. The definitions 4 (to happen), 6 (to experience), 11 (to become part of), 14 (to defeat), 16 (to acknowledge), 17 (to disagree), and 18 (to control, manage) in *NHD* do not seem to correspond to senses in *RHWD*. On what bases do the lexicographers decide to include and/or omit the senses in the entry?

It is understandable that a dictionary that targets intermediate learners

has to limit the scope of definitions. However, it should cover all major senses of important verbs like *take*.

5.2.3. *Take* and several other verbs like *make*, *get*, *do*, etc. are difficult entries to define because the meaning of these verbs is almost void by itself. *Take* generates a variety of similar but distinct meanings when combined with other words. This explains why dictionary definitions are different from each other. If a dictionary tries to list every possible sense that is derived from these combinations, its definitions will be infinitely long. It will be better to abstract a few central meanings and give phrases and collocations from which learners might infer the particular meanings.

Anyway, something must be done to alleviate the burden of finding the meaning that learners want from 48 senses. Entries with multiple meanings can more easily be read if they are properly grouped. A good example for sense grouping is offered in *LDCE*^{3,9)} A dictionary that targets learners should not impose an unnecessary burden on them by giving fine sense distinctions as Dalgish (1995: 235) suggests.

5.3. Information incorporated in the definition

Although the dictionary size of *NHD* is smaller than that of *RHWD*, definition in terms of lines devoted to explain each entry is nearly the same. Both dictionaries give about three lines per one main entry. *NHD* usually provides a full sample sentence for each definition (for analyses of illustrative examples, see Section 6). It also devotes a fairly large part of its space to bold face phrasal verbs and other expressions. *RHWD* allots its space more to definitions. Definitions are sometimes followed by a full sample sentence, but more often a phrase or nothing explains them. As a result, *RHWD* has more space to make subtle divisions of senses and sub-senses whereas *NHD* makes broader divisions, and sometimes leaves out senses that it thinks unimportant or unnecessary.

Perhaps, dictionaries for native English speakers do not need various pieces of extra-linguistic information such as encyclopedic¹⁰⁾ and pragmatic explanations in the definitions, because native speakers are supposed to know this information. They do not need linguistic information for word combinations either. They know what sorts of adverbs, adjectives,

nouns, verbs, prepositions, etc. are combined to form idioms, collocations, and the typical phrases. For dictionaries that target non-native learners, however, those pieces of information, whether they are linguistic or extra-linguistic, are vitally important.

We will examine what kind of information *RHWD* and *NHD* provide, or do not provide, and what measures they adopt to help learners understand the meaning of the word.

5.3.1. Selectional restrictions are very important information for learners. Both dictionaries give such information mainly in parentheses like; **blond** (of a person) having light-colored hair¹¹⁾ (*RHWD*), and **plump** (referring esp. of woman and children) round in shape, chubby or full-figured¹²⁾ (*NHD*). *NHD* seems to give more pieces of information on selectional restrictions here than *RHWD*, although the advantage is marginal. For example, it defines **handsome**: good-looking, attractive (usu. of a man)¹³⁾. (For collocational information see 6.2.2.)

5.3.2. *RHWD* gives more detailed explanation on extralinguistic information than *NHD*. To illustrate, the definition for **door** is compared. (*NHD*): 1. a movable panel to permit entrance to or exit from a building, room, vehicle, etc. (*RHWD*): 1. a movable barrier of wood, glass, or metal for opening and closing an entrance way, cupboard, cabinet, or the like, usually turning on hinges or sliding in grooves. 'A movable panel' in *NHD*, and 'a movable barrier' in *RHWD* are both 'genus' of the door. 'To permit entrance to or exit,' and 'for opening and closing' are the 'differentia' and show the function of the door. Both definitions have nearly the same meaning, but 'for opening and closing' in *RHWD* is easier to understand and is a more common expression than 'to permit entrance to or exit from' in *NHD*. Also, readers can infer more common combinations of words: 'open/close a door,' from *RHWD*, whereas *NHD* deduces, 'enter/exit from a door.' (Of course, it does not cause serious problems because readers can find the common combinations in the illustrative examples. Still, if the target readers for *NHD* are intermediate learners, it should use expressions which are more common and easier to understand.)

Besides the two major components of the definition, *RHWD* gives information on the most common material of the door: wood, glass, or metal.

Table 5.3

	<i>NHD</i>	<i>RHWD</i>	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>OALD</i> ⁵
document	○	×	×	×
feedback	○	×	×	○
flame	○	×	×	×
workstation	○	○	×	×
import	○	×	○	×
lurk	○	×	×	×
folder	×	×	○	×
navigate	×	×	×	×
surf	×	×	○	×
vaccine	×	○	○	×
virus	×	○	○	○

Since expressions like 'turn on hinges,' and 'slide in grooves' are closely related to a door, they are useful for intermediate as well as advanced learners.

5.3.3. Technical terminology from various fields of science and technology has enriched English vocabulary. Incorporating technical terms is one of the main features of learners' dictionaries. One of the features listed on the back cover of *NHD* says, "business and computer terms like CEO, download, and laptop illustrate words and concepts drawn from the worlds of commerce and technology."

Many new computer-related technical terms have been invented, but perhaps many more everyday words have come to obtain computer-related senses. We will discover whether these senses are included in *NHD*, and *RHWD*. *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁵ are examined for comparison. Results are illustrated in Table 5.3. Entries from *document* to *lurk* are chosen from the list at the Appendixes of *NHD*. Entries from *folder* to *virus* are chosen from outside the list of *NHD*.¹⁴⁾

5.3.4. Pragmatic information including labels and notes in parentheses such as 'approving, disapproving, offensive, insulting, humorous, etc.' in the definition can be very useful for non-native learners of English. Since evaluations of words vary from language to language, learners will be greatly helped by the information. Learners' dictionaries should include as many pieces of information on them as possible. A good example will be

entries like **lady**. This word is usually used as a polite/respectful way of referring to a woman. However, we feel that there are cynical or offensive senses in the adjective use of the word in combinations like *a lady clerk, a lady doctor, a lady helper, a lady mayor*, etc., and also in nouns such as *a cleaning lady, a wash lady, and ladies of the night*. Learners should be advised whether these combinations are a natural, polite way of referring to or addressing women, or whether they should refrain from using them.

The definition of **lady** is (*NHD*) 1 (polite word for) a woman, esp. of good social standing. Naturally, learners will think that from this definition, the above combinations are just as polite, unless they consult the entries like **bag lady**. *RHWD* gives better definitions for the offensive senses of **lady**. The definition 4 says: This word is used as a term of address for a woman, **a.** as a polite term; usually in the plural, **b.** as an offensive term (usually in the singular). Also, the definition 9 (adjective) gives: *Sometimes Offensive. female: a lady cabdriver.*

Slender and **slim** have approving senses as shown in *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁵. For example, in *LDCE*³ **slender** is defined as: 2 thin or slight; light and graceful. In *OALD*, it is defined as: (*approv*) (of people or their bodies) thin esp in attractive or graceful way. **Slim** is defined with a similar approving sense: 1 someone who is slim is attractively thin (*LDCE*³); 1 (*approv*) not fat or thick (*OALD*⁵). Definitions with approving senses for those words are useful both because they indicate that they have the pragmatic information and because they help discriminate the differences of senses from words like **thin, lean, skinny**, etc.

In *NHD*, **slender** and **slim** are defined as: 1 thin, slim; and 1 thin, slender respectively. Learners cannot learn from these definitions that **thin** is 'a general word to describe people who have little or no fat on their bodies, but it often sounds a little negative.' Whereas, 'If you want to make clear that someone is thin in a pleasant way, you say they are **slim** or (less common) **slender**.'¹⁵ In *RHWD* part of this sense is given. **Slender** is defined as: 2 thin or slight; light and graceful, but **slim** is not given the approving sense. 1 slender, as in the width around one's body or form.

Generally speaking, American learners' dictionaries are not very eager to give information on word evaluations.

5.3.5. As for the inclusion of vulgar and taboo senses, learners' dictionaries on both sides of the Atlantic differ considerably in their treatment. Most taboo words are excluded from the entry in *NHD* and *RHWD*. We believe that dictionaries should include that meaning rather than omitting it when an everyday word has a taboo sense. Otherwise, learners may use that word unwittingly. *NHD* does not include obscene sense of **cock, screw, pussy, prick**, etc. *RHWD*'s definition includes a taboo sense of **pussy**, but taboo senses of other words are excluded. British learners' dictionaries such as *OALD*⁵ and *LDCE*³ incorporate all the above stated vulgar senses with labels to notify that they are vulgar/taboo.

Words with offensive senses against homosexuals are listed with labels to notify that they are offensive. This is a better treatment.

Words with other discriminatory senses should be treated in a similar way. **Cripple** is described as 'an offensive word for someone who is physically unable to use arms or their legs properly' in the first definition of *LDCE*³. In *OALD*⁵, it is labeled as (*sometimes offensive*). No word is given in *NHD* to show that this entry has an offensive sense. *RHWD* says it is '1. *Sometimes Offensive.*' *NHD* should include warning in the definition or in the parenthesis against using the word carelessly.

5.4. Improvements to be made

We have already mentioned some shortcomings in the definitions in *NHD* and *RHWD*. We also have suggested improvements.

From now on, we will focus on some other types of problematic definitions in *NHD* and *RHWD* that should be improved.

5.4.1. Definitions of *NHD* are sometimes bizarre and sometimes out of lexicographical tradition. For example, **ear** is defined as '1 one of the two organs for hearing and balance, located on either side of the head.' The definition itself may not be wrong. However, the usual definition of **ear** is 'the organ of hearing.' Even if it functions as the organ for balance, this function is ignored in most dictionaries. Various body organs have two or more than two functions. *Nose* can be an organ for articulation as well as for respiration and olfaction, but only the latter senses are given in dictionaries, including *NHD* and *RHWD*. *Mouth* is more closely related to

articulation, but no definition is given for this sense in *NHD*, although it gives speech-related senses in bold face phrases, which will be mentioned soon. We think *mouth* should be defined with a speech-related sense because in our understanding, the mouth is more closely related to speech than the ear is to the balance. This can be exemplified by the bold face phrases in *NHD* such as **by word of mouth, to have a big mouth, to open one's big mouth**, etc. that are all related to speech. No phrases can be found that show that 'ear' is related to the balance. Rather, they are all related to hearing: **to be all ears, to go in one ear and out of the other, to have a good or tin ear**, etc. *RHWD* gives speech-related senses in the definitions of **mouth**: 3. the opening in the face thought of as the source of speaking, and 4. talk, esp. loud, empty, or boastful talk, or disrespectful talk or language.

The first definition of **fat** (noun) in *NHD* is 'the layer of flesh under the skin.' This is a very strange definition because it lacks the most important attribute (differentia) of fat, i.e. 'greasiness.' Or, the genus itself may be changed to 'GREASY substance' just like one given in *OALD*⁵: 1 (a) a white or yellow greasy substance in the bodies of animals and humans, under the skin. *RHWD* gives this sense as the second definition 'animal tissue containing much of this substance.' The first sense is 'an oily substance found in certain animal tissue and plant seeds, and used in cooking . . .'¹⁶

5.4.2. Sometimes, *NHD* does not give a definition at all. The seventh definition of **make** is: to make, (syn.) to enact. Kuhn (1980: 115–121) would say that this is another case of 'a definition that does not define.' **Blue** is defined just as '1 having the color of,' but it does not say what color it is. Also, **yellow** is defined as 'a primary color, such as the yellow of a lemon.' This is against one of the basic principles of the definition: 'the definition must not contain the word to be defined unless it is defined in some other place.' Lexicographers of *NHD* should be more careful to observe the principles of defining proposed by Zgusta¹⁷ and Landau (1984: 124–132).

5.4.3. Definitions of function words are often difficult because they have little lexical content. In many cases, it will be better to explain how a particular function word is used rather than to give semantic explanations.

NHD is unsatisfactory because in many cases definitions of function words are too dependent on meanings, and the amount of information is often far too small. For example, *NHD* gives only 24 lines for the description of **that** including the pronunciation, the definitions, examples, bold face phrases, and the usage note. Three word classes are recognized; the pronoun, the adverb, and the conjunction. For the pronoun, it gives only one definition, and five bold face phrases. The definition goes 1 'referring to s.t. specific (but not nearby).'¹⁸ The adverb has a short definition: 'so; as much as,' and the conjunction is not defined, but an example is given followed by the usage note that explains the difference of **that** and **which** used as a relative pronoun.

RHWD gives far better descriptions. It gives a total of 61 lines, including four word classes. They are the pronoun, the adjective, the adverb, and the conjunction. Each word class has more detailed descriptions. For example, the pronoun contains five definitions, all of which begin with parentheses that explain how the word is used. Other word classes are provided with similar explanations.

Even *RHWD* may be not enough. *LDCE*³ gives a total of 140 lines, including four word classes, each of which is given independent headword status.¹⁹ The figure also includes the usage note on spoken-written differences, grammar, and the punctuation. Anyway, *NHD* should devote more space to the description of the function words. (H. Masuda)

6. Examples

Together with definitions, examples constitute the central part of learners' dictionaries. Currently, the EFL dictionary is so geared as to transcend receptive use associated with the traditional alphabetical dictionary and to be useful for (some) productive purposes. This fact makes the role of examples all the more important and demanding. One of the key characteristics of the latest generation of EFL dictionaries, published in the U.K. in 1995, is use of large corpora, which is clearly reflected in the shape of examples provided. How about examples in *NHD* and *RHWD*, which have just come onto the market to join the ranks of the British-made EFL dictionaries with some 50-year tradition behind them?

This section tries to examine examples of *NHD* and *RHWD* comparatively in number, length, presentation of grammar and collocation, and special devices, and also with those in the foregoing EFL dictionaries, where necessary.

6.1. Number and Length

Generally, *NHD* uses space generously for examples, while *RHWD* does so economically. *NHD* seems to make it a rule to provide at least one full-sentence example (often of more than one clause) for each entry or sense, but *RHWD* provides as few or as little as is minimally necessary. Many cases are observed in which the former presents one sentential example or more whereas the latter gives just a phrasal example or nothing:

extemporaneous . . . *adj.* not written down, unrehearsed: *The politician made some extemporaneous remarks before his formal speech.* (*NHD*)

adj. spoken or performed without preparation; impromptu: *an extemporaneous speech.* (*RHWD*)

pawnbroker . . . *n.* a person who makes loans with interest against the value of personal values: *The pawnbroker offered me 50 dollars for my watch.* (*NHD*)

n. [count] one whose business is lending money at interest on personal property deposited with the lender until claimed later. [no examples] (*RHWD*)

However, this is not the case where exemplification of grammar is involved (see 6.2.1.).

NHD's sentential-example principle makes its examples easy to understand in that they are self-contained with contextualization and explanatory with exemplification and without difficult vocabulary items. With all these characteristics associated with the invented example, there should be no problem in establishing that *NHD* uses that kind of example:

wily . . . *adj.* . . . *He is a wily old man who likes to take advantage of people.*

run . . . *v.* . . . **5** . . . *I have to run now; I'm late for a meeting.*

6 . . . *She runs errands, like taking her daughter to dance class on Saturday morning.*

31 . . . **to set up** . . . **b.** . . . *The police had an undercover agent invite the criminal to a hotel for a phony buy; they set him up.*
outsourcing¹⁾ . . . *n.* . . . *We have a policy of outsourcing; for example, we once had our accounting department do our payroll, but now an outside specialist does it.*

Many classic examples of the invented example are included, which seem to be specially made for the dictionary entry. Examples of *NHD* are likely to have been so prepared as to make for maximally smooth understanding of the meanings of items in question by the user, almost at the expense of other functions examples are supposed to fulfill (see 3. and 3.1.). Pushing this aspect rather too far, examples of *NHD*, including excessive contextualization, are self-contained but inevitably lengthy. As a result they suffer some of the criticisms addressed not only to the invented example but also to the citation (unnaturalness, lengthiness, obscurity of points at issue, etc.; cf. Hausmann and Gorbahn 1989: 45). The last two can obscure or take away from the examples of *NHD* the important property of signaling referential clues to the user.

In contrast, *RHWD* adopts an economical or rather stingy approach in its provision of examples:

24. look up . . . **b.** . . . [\sim + *obj* + *up*]: *looking words up in the dictionary.*

c. . . . [\sim + *obj* + *up*]: *to look him up next time.*

wicked . . . **5.** . . . *has a wicked tennis serve.*

miss¹ . . . *v.* **1.** to fail to hit: [\sim + *obj*]; *missed the first pitch.*

mirror . . . *n.* . . . **1.** . . . *looked in the mirror to comb her hair.*

cow¹ . . . **1.** . . . *The cows were kept for their milk.*

sheep . . . **1.** . . . *Sheep are grown for their wool and meat.*

12 crack up . . . **c.** . . . [*no obj*]: *He cracked up at the sight of her in those old frumpy pajamas.*

There are some phrase examples initiated by a verb in *-ing* rather than the conventional infinitive with or without *to*, which, without having much obvious significance in itself, may slightly puzzle the user. Some "quasi-sentential" examples are found, from which allegedly meaningless subjects have been omitted. Top priority seemingly on the economy of space, they can result in awkward, or worse, unhelpful and uninformative examples

which are deprived of information on selectional restriction, context, and even extra-linguistics²). In *RHWD* the majority of examples do not take a complete sentence form and the sentential examples consist predominantly of one clause. Consequently, examples portraying useful contexts for learning purposes toward successful future production of items concerned (like their rival's at **run 5** above) are hard to come by. Despite a few demanding vocabulary items (e.g. 'frumpy' in that at **crack up**) cropping up, a general survey leads to the conclusion that *RHWD* basically employs invented examples too.

6.2. Information on Grammar and Collocation³

Presentation of grammatical and collocational information is one of the major responsibilities due to examples (Drysdale 1987, etc.). Although grammatical codes and definitions also come into play here, it is examples that can most clearly and powerfully exhibit into what constructions an item can enter and with what other words it is likely to keep company. Accordingly the rest of this section examines examples of the two dictionaries and also other comparable dictionaries⁴.

6.2.1. Even a limited investigation should suffice to show that *RHWD*'s examples give better coverage of grammar than *NHD*'s and that the former does nearly as well as other leading EFL dictionaries like *LDCE*² and *OALD*⁴. A few of the examples follow. *RHWD* indicates the exclusively attributive or predicative use of adjectives explicitly by means of examples plus codes, while *NHD* does so implicitly only by examples⁵:

awake . . . *adj.* . . . *The baby is awake now and wants to eat.* (*NHD*)
adj. [*be + ~*] **4.** . . . *I was awake all night.* (*RHWD*)

Generally, *RHWD* lists more grammatical patterns with the same meaning than its rival. As far as the example below is concerned, with clever use of parentheses *RHWD* does even better than *OALD*⁴:

provide . . . *v.* **1.** . . . *Parents provide their children with food, clothes, and shelter.* (*NHD*, emphasis added)
v. . . . **1.** . . . [*~ + obj + for + obj*]: *to provide benefits for employees.* [*~ + obj (+ with) + obj*]: *to provide employees (with) benefits.* (*RHWD*,

emphasis added)

v **1** [*Tn, Tn·pr, Dn·pr*] ~ **sb (with sth); ~ sth (for sb)** . . . *The firm have provided me with a car.* ○ *Can you provide accommodation for thirty people?* . . . (*OALD*⁴, emphasis added)

RHWD exhibits more of various constructions into which an item can enter than *NHD*. In the following sense of **occur**, *RHWD* is on a par with *LDCE*²:

occur *v.* **3** *phrasal v. insep. to occur to s.o.* . . . *It suddenly occurred to me that I knew how to solve that problem!* (*NHD*, emphasis added)
v. [*no obj*] . . . **3.** [*not: be + ~ -ing; usually: ~ + to + obj*] . . . *An idea just occurred to me.* [*~ + to + obj + that clause*]: *The thought occurred to me that we should save money.* [*It + ~ + to + obj + (that) clause*]: *It never occurred to me (that) we would not have enough money.* . . . (*RHWD*, emphasis added)

occur to sbdy. *phr v* [*T no pass.*] (of an idea) to come to (someone's mind): *Didn't it occur to you that he might be late?* | *The possibility that she might be wrong never even occurred to her.* | *It suddenly occurred to me that we could use a computer to do the job.* (*LDCE*², emphasis added)

Both *NHD* and *RHWD* show separability of phrasal verbs equally well through examples and other means:

12 *phrasal v. sep. to pay s.o. or s.t. off:* . . . **b.** . . . *I finally paid off the 30-year mortgage on my house. || I paid it off.* (*NHD*)
9. *pay off* . . . **b.** . . . [*~ + off + obj*]: *He paid off the debt.* [*~ + obj + off*]: *He paid the debt off.* (*RHWD*)

6.2.2. The tables are turned when it comes to provision of information on lexical collocation. *NHD* outperforms *RHWD* by a fairly considerable margin:

bring . . . *v.* . . . **3** to cause to happen, (syn.) initiate: *He brought the conversation to a close (the water to a boil, grief to his parents).* (*NHD*)
3. to cause to occur or exist; produce: [*~ + obj*]: *The medicine brought rapid relief.* [*~ + obj + obj*]: *All his money couldn't bring him happiness.*
4. [*~ + obj + to + obj*] . . . to cause to come into a particular position, state or condition: *The jokes and funny scenes brought laughter to the*

audience. (RHWD)

deprive . . . 1 . . . *The military dictatorship deprived people of their freedom (rights, peace of mind, etc.).* (NHD)
 . . . *to deprive a child of affection.* (RHWD)

NHD supplies additional possible collocations in parentheses. A comparative look at **bring** above, where RHWD applies finer sense discrimination than NHD, confirms the observation in 6.2.1. and illustrates the point being made in this section⁶). In the case of **control** (n.), where RHWD just has "have control over," "be under control," and "at the controls," NHD offers in addition "be in control of," "go/get/be out of control," and "take control of" through their examples⁷). It is true that NHD contains a wealth of lexical collocations but some do not look as useful as the others:

Kleenex . . . *Please use Kleenex to wipe their eyes (nose, glasses, etc.).*
unbelievable . . . *That story (explanation, statement, etc.) is unbelievable.*

6.3. Special Devices

As was touched upon above, NHD and RHWD employ brackets in some of the examples for indication of further collocational possibilities (6.2.2.) and optional items (6.2.1.) respectively. NHD also uses brackets for the latter purpose:

prejudiced . . . *The defendant's mother was not allowed to be a witness because the judge thought she would be prejudiced (in her son's favor).*

RHWD encloses glosses in brackets following examples which can be difficult to understand or confusing, as in some other EFL dictionaries:

catch . . . 5. . . *He was caught with his guard down (= He was not prepared).*
err . . . 2. **err on the side of** . . . *It is better to err on the side of punctuality (= It is better to be early than late).*

There are some other devices in use. NHD uses "(or)" to introduce an alternative in examples:

postscript . . . *She added a postscript (or) a P.S. at the bottom of her letter.*

Characteristically, the dictionary sometimes takes care of two different

parts of speech of a headword item in a single entry, without setting up separate sub-entries. In cases like this the indication of part(s) of speech is attached to the item(s) appearing in the example(s):

optimum . . . *n.adj.* . . . *the best outcome (use, condition, etc.) possible:*
The <n.> optimum that we can expect is a 7 percent return on money invested. || That is the <adj.> optimum rate possible at this time.

In RHWD, as has been seen so far, some examples are preceded by grammar codes in square brackets. Identification of (un)countability of nouns, in senses where both are possible, is affixed to the examples by the same means:

equity . . . *n.* . . . 2. . . [*noncount*]: *The landlord has more than \$35,000 equity in that building.* [*count*]: *Since they paid off their mortgage, they now have an equity equal to the value of the house.*

(S. Yamada)

7. Grammar and Usage

7.1. Grammar

7.1.1. Grammatical information provided by RHWD and NHD will be discussed in this section. As S.I. Laudau (1984: 88) says, it is necessary for any ESL dictionary to contain sufficient grammatical help, because it greatly benefits foreign learners who try to use English. In order for them to take full advantage of it, it should also be accurate and clear. It can, therefore, be said that both the quantity and the quality of the grammatical information are among the essential factors in determining the value of an ESL dictionary.

Some aspects of grammar, i.e. inflections and derivations of nouns, adjectives and verbs, in RHWD and NHD have already been dealt with in section 3. It has also been pointed out there that we can find unsystematicity of, and deficiencies in, the presentation of inflected and derived forms. We will deal in detail with other types of grammatical information on nouns, adjectives, and verbs.

7.1.2. First, we will examine the treatment by RHWD and NHD of the countability and uncountability of nouns. Both dictionaries, like others of

the same kind, tell the readers whether a noun or a sense of a noun is countable, uncountable, or both. *RHWD* uses the grammar code [*count*] when it is countable, and [*noncount*] when uncountable. If it is both countable and uncountable, the code [*count*] is put immediately before the countable example phrase or sentence, and [*noncount*] appears just before the uncountable one.¹⁾ *NHD*, on the other hand, basically applies [U] to an uncountable noun or sense of a noun, and a countable one is left unmarked, i.e. the countability is indicated by the absence of a grammar code.²⁾ But if a noun or a sense of one is both countable and uncountable, then the code [C; U] is attached to it. And when the sense of a noun with more than one is countable and another is uncountable, the codes [C] and [U] are applied to their respective senses. Both *RHWD* and *NHD* provide the grammar codes to run-on derivative nouns as well as main entries. Moreover, they, like other ESL dictionaries, also give the readers information on whether a particular noun is what Quirk et al. (1985: 297–304) call a singular or a plural invariable one, whether a particular noun is used only with a singular or a plural verb, whether a particular noun is always or usually preceded by the definite article, etc.

As for the presentation of these types of information, *RHWD* is highly systematic in its own way, whereas *NHD* is not. The latter dictionary, for example, fails to apply the grammar code [U] to many uncountable nouns like **backgammon**, **baseball**, **bronchitis**, **meat**, **midnight**, **teamwork** and **terrorism**, to mention only a few.³⁾ This may cause a serious problem for the dictionary users, because they are supposed to take a noun without the grammar code [U] as a countable noun. The unsystematicity of *NHD* is also detected in the presentation of grammatical information on singular invariable nouns. If we take nouns denoting sciences as an example, we can find at least four different patterns: **economics** *n.* [U] *used with a sing. v.*, **macroeconomics** *n.* [U], **mathematics** *n.* [U] *pl. used with a sing. v.*, **physics** *n. pl. used with a sing. v.* Although *NHD* has some other types of similar inconsistency, we do not think it necessary to enumerate them.

We have two more points to mention as to the treatment of nouns by *RHWD* and *NHD*; one is that of collective nouns, and the other is that of grammatical collocation or complementation of nouns. In British English a

collective noun used in the singular is followed either by a singular or a plural verb, while in American English a singular verb is the usual one that follows it. This fact is not incorporated in either *RHWD* or *NHD*, although the former carries a usage note to that effect under the main entry **collective noun**. Both dictionaries indicate collective nouns like **audience**, **family**, **team**, etc. as ordinary countable nouns. This cannot be said to be a problem in itself because both claim to be the dictionary of "American English," yet many earnest foreign learners certainly hope to discover linguistic fact, which *LDCE*³ shows with pertinent grammar codes with regard to frequently used, important collective nouns.

The other point on which to make a comment is about grammatical collocation or complementation of nouns. Many nouns are typically followed by a particular preposition, a *to*-infinitive, a *that*-clause, etc. This kind of information is abundantly provided by *OALD*⁵ and *LDCE*³ with the relevant grammar codes, which we can see by looking up **claim**, **doubt**, **familiarity**, **relationship**, etc. *RHWD* gives it only rarely; *NHD*, not at all. It seems to be true that there is no problem if it is contained in example phrases or sentences, and it can indeed be said that both dictionaries have much information of this kind incorporated in them. But the problem is that in this case foreign learners cannot judge whether or not the combination found in an example is a frequent and typical one. If this kind of information is given by using a grammar code, it helps them greatly because it is very important to them when they try to use English.

7.1.3. We will proceed to the discussion of grammatical information on adjectives, but it will be focused only on *RHWD*, because *NHD* provides nothing except for irregular, confusing and many, if not all, regular comparative and superlative forms.

RHWD tells the users, as other major ESL dictionaries do, whether an adjective is exclusively used attributively, predicatively, or postpositively. It applies to run-on derivative adjectives as well as main entries. The grammar codes used are [*before a noun*], [*be + ~*], and [*after a noun*], respectively. This information is very useful for foreign learners, but the code [*be + ~*] could be misleading, because the adjectives used only predicatively can function as an object complement as well as a subject

complement. Moreover, a subject complement can follow not only a form of the verb *be* but also other kind of link verbs like *appear*, *grow*, *remain*, etc. *LDCE*³ uses the code [not before noun]; *CIDE*, [after v]. Therefore, we would propose that *RHWD* adopt [after a verb] as the grammar code for those adjectives which are restricted to predicative position.

Next, grammatical information on the comparison of adjectives will be examined. One of the important classifications of adjectives is into gradable and nongradable ones, the former having comparison as one of their syntactic characteristics. Many adjectives form their comparison by inflection, many others take periphrastic forms, and a small group of adjectives can take both inflectional and periphrastic forms. These facts are reflected in ESL dictionaries in varying degrees. *RHWD* only shows the comparative and superlative forms of the adjectives whose comparison is realized by inflection. It is true of run-on derivative adjectives as well as main entries. The problem here is that this information, because gradable adjectives which can be compared and nongradable ones which cannot are not distinguished by *RHWD*, might mislead the dictionary users into believing that all the adjectives without inflectional forms can take periphrastic forms. What *RHWD* can do to let the users avoid this misunderstanding is to make a clear distinction, as some ESL dictionaries do, between gradable and nongradable adjectives. If this distinction is made, they can feel confident that the adjectives with no inflectional forms given and the code indicating gradability applied can take periphrastic forms. For instance, *COBUILD*² uses the grammar code "ADJ-GRADED" for the gradable adjectives with nongradable ones unmarked; *CIDE*, [not gradable] for nongradable adjectives with gradable ones unmarked. The users will benefit greatly if *RHWD* follows suit and distinguishes the two types of adjectives by adopting some relevant grammar code. Moreover, they will find it highly useful if the adjectives taking both inflectional and periphrastic forms are marked as such. So far, this has not been done by any dictionary as far as the present author knows.

Before proceeding to the grammatical information on verbs, we will make a brief comment on complementation of adjectives. They are frequently followed by a prepositional phrase, a *that*-clause, a *to*-infinitive,

etc. With some adjectives, the complementation is obligatory. Information of this kind is highly important to ESL learners. *RHWD* shows it with the grammar codes like [*be* + ~ + *about*], [~ + (*that*)*clause*], and [~ + *to* + *verb*]. The amount of this kind of information provided by *RHWD* seems to be rather small as compared with that in *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁵. For example, these two dictionaries indicate the complementation patterns of **absent**, **adequate**, **agreeable**, **alive**, **ambitious**, etc., to which *RHWD* does not attach any codes. This fact applies to many other adjectives, too.

7.1.4. Our next topic is grammatical information on verbs. First, let us see how it is treated by *NHD*. Unlike other ESL dictionaries, and general monolingual dictionaries for that matter, it does not distinguish transitive and intransitive verbs.⁴⁾ They are simply labeled "v." without any further grammatical information except for irregular and confusing conjugations. Since foreign-born learners need detailed information on grammar, especially on verbs, and, as S.I. Landau (1984: 30) remarks, they "have some familiarity with the pedagogical tools of foreign-language instruction," ordinary ESL dictionaries do not only make a distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs, but they also indicate various syntactic patterns of verbs. If *NHD* is to be of full service to the readers as an ESL dictionary, the conditions must be satisfied that at least one transitive or intransitive example phrase or sentence be given according to whether the verb takes an object or not; that if it has both transitive and intransitive uses, at least two examples, one transitive and the other intransitive, be provided; and that if it has two or more syntactic patterns, the same number of examples illustrating them be given. Unfortunately, we have to say that *NHD* leaves much to be desired. To give just one instance, although **drink 1** and **teach 1** can be used intransitively as well as transitively, each of them has only one example sentence that indicates the transitive use. This kind of insufficiency applies to many other verbs. In the cases like this, the learners have no way of knowing that these two verbs have the two types of use, and may mistakenly be led to believe that they are transitive verbs.

RHWD, on the other hand, distinguishes transitive and intransitive verbs. Transitivity and intransitivity are basically indicated with the grammar codes [~ + *obj*] and [*no obj*], respectively, the swung dash standing for

the verb concerned. Not only does this apply to main entries but it is also true of run-on derivative verbs. If an intransitive verb is followed by an important element like a prepositional phrase, an adverb, a *to*-infinitive, etc., it is marked with the relevant code like [\sim + *for* + *obj*], [\sim + *around*], [\sim + *to* + *verb*], etc. A transitive verb which takes a complex structural pattern is provided with the pertinent code like [\sim + *obj* + *into* + *obj*], [\sim + *obj* + *obj*], [\sim + *that clause*], [\sim + *obj* + *to* + *verb*], [\sim + *obj* + *verb-ing*], etc. When a verb or a sense of a verb has two or more syntactic patterns, the codes are placed immediately before their respective example phrases or sentences. These types of grammatical information are so valuable for ESL learners that they must not be opaque or ambiguous. The present author believes that, in terms of the intelligibility of grammar codes, *RHWD* ranks highest in that all the items used for them are spelled out except for “*obj*” representing “object.” But this is a double-edged sword as a dictionary must always struggle with lack of space in order to provide as much information as possible.

There are two serious problems with *RHWD*'s presentation of the grammar codes for verbs.⁵⁾ The first is that the code [\sim + *to* + *verb*] is ambiguous because it is applied to both transitive and intransitive verbs. For instance, we can find “[\sim + *to* + *verb*]: *They stopped to say hello.*” in **stop 3** and “[\sim + *to* + *verb*]: *She likes to play baseball.*” in **like² 1**. The same is true of the code [\sim + *verb-ing*], which you can confirm by looking up **come 1** and **hate 2**, for example.⁶⁾ Since *RHWD* makes a clear distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs elsewhere, these two codes provide the fly in the ointment unless it disambiguates them by adopting the codes like [I: \sim + *to* + *verb*] vs. [T: \sim + *to* + *verb*] and [I: \sim + *verb-ing*] vs. [T: \sim + *verb-ing*].⁷⁾ The second problem is that the treatment of the object complement is both wrong, or at least vague, and unsystematic. It is wrong in that the object complement, if it is a noun, is represented as the object in many cases. For instance, we can find “[\sim + *obj* + *obj*]: *They named their baby Frederick.*” in **name 4**. Thus, the code [\sim + *obj* + *obj*] becomes ambiguous because it also refers to a completely different syntactic pattern exemplified by a sentence like *She handed me the note*, which can correctly be provided with the code [\sim + *obj* + *obj*]. The problem is further that the

object complement is expressed by another code “*noun*,” which means that the presentation of the sentence pattern <S + V + O + C> is unsystematic because it is indicated by the two different grammar codes [\sim + *obj* + *obj*] and [\sim + *obj* + *noun*]. If we look up **call 8** and **9**, for instance, we can find “[\sim + *obj* + *obj*]: *My friends call me Ray.*” and “[\sim + *obj* + *noun*]: *She called me a liar.*”, respectively. *RHWD* uses the code “*adjective*” when the object complement or the subject one is an adjective, and “*noun*” when the subject complement is a noun.⁸⁾ Moreover, *CIDE*, for example, adopts the code [T + *obj* + *n*] for a sentence like *They've called the twins Katherine and Thomas*. It follows from these facts that it is considered to be better for *RHWD* to universally apply the grammar code “*noun*” to the object complement if it is a noun. This method will eliminate both the ambiguity and the unsystematicity in this respect, with the code [\sim + *obj* + *obj*] being solely attached to ditransitive verbs.

RHWD, like others of its kind, gives the readers useful information on the voice and the aspect of verbs. It tells them whether a verb is usually used in the passive or active voice, and whether it is usually used in the progressive aspect or not used that way. A grammar code like [*usually*: *be* + \sim -*ed*] is attached to a passive verb; the code [*not*: *be* + \sim -*ing*], to one which does not take the progressive form. These two codes are provided fairly abundantly, whereas only rarely are the other two given, i.e. [*no passive*] and [*usually*: *be* + \sim -*ing*] referring respectively to a verb which is not used in the passive voice and one which is usually used in the progressive aspect. The code [*no passive*] seems to stand out in a peculiar way from the other three, and so it should be [*not*: *be* + \sim -*ed*] in order to be in harmony.

The treatment of phrasal verbs by *RHWD* and *NHD* remains to be discussed. Both dictionaries enter prepositional and phrasal-prepositional verbs as phrasal verbs. *RHWD* applies the grammar code [*no obj*] to intransitive phrasal verbs like **run along**, codes like [\sim + *after* + *obj*] and [\sim + *up* + *to* + *obj*] to intransitive and phrasal-prepositional verbs like **look after** and **look up to**, respectively, and in the case of transitive phrasal verbs like **call off**, in most of which the adverb particle can follow as well as precede the object noun phrase, codes like [\sim + *off* + *obj*] and [\sim

+ *obj* + *off*] are placed immediately before their respective illustrative examples.⁹ *NHD*, on the other hand, presents them as “*phrasal v. to run along*,” “*phrasal v. incep. to look after s.o. or s.t.*,” “*phrasal v. insep. to look up to s.o.*,” and “*phrasal v. sep. to call s.t. off*,” respectively.

The problem with *NHD*'s presentation of phrasal verbs is, as is often seen elsewhere, that it is inconsistent. To cite just one example, when a phrasal verb has intransitive as well as transitive separable uses, *NHD* employs at least three different ways to show them: “*phrasal v. sep. to take (s.t.) off*,” “*phrasal v. sep. to blow s.t. up*,” and “*phrasal v. to drop off/ phrasal v. sep. to drop s.o. or s.t. off* (entered separately).” Only the last seems to be satisfactory with the other two being self-contradictory because the separability and the intransitivity do not match up. However, *NHD* has merit here. By using the abbreviations “*s.o.*” and “*s.t.*,”¹⁰ it can help the readers to recognize with ease what kind of object the phrasal verb takes. The users of *RHWD*, on the other hand, cannot realize it readily, because it adopts “*obj*” which does not specify the nature of the object. Moreover, *NHD* can save plenty of space by employing the grammar code “*phrasal v. sep.*,” in which case it does not necessarily have to give two illustrative examples to each separable phrasal verb in order to indicate the separability, while *RHWD* just has to do it, which takes up much space. Another problem with the latter dictionary is that many separable transitive phrasal verbs like **bring about**, **mop up**, **show off**, etc. are presented as if they were inseparable with only the code of the type [~ + *about* + *obj*] and a corresponding example being given. In these cases, the readers might well be misled to the false conclusion that the particle used is not an adverb which is usually accented, but a preposition which is not. We would propose, therefore, that *RHWD* specify, as *LDAE*¹ does, the part of speech of the particle in the code instead of repeating the particle itself. This method will bring great benefit to the dictionary as well as its users in that the latter can get useful guidance on the stress pattern, and the former can save space because, in many cases, one example suffices even for separable phrasal verbs, the users being able to understand by the word-class code “*adv.*” or “*adverb*” that they are usually separable.

7.1.5. The last item we have to examine concerning grammatical infor-

mation is that on idioms. It is true that both *NHD* and *RHWD* enter a good many of them, which the foreign learners certainly find very useful, yet there is room for improvement in both of them. *NHD* is inconsistent in the treatment of the object in idioms containing a transitive verb or a preposition. Sometimes it is indicated with the abbreviations “*s.o.*” and/or “*s.t.*”; at other times it is not. Thus, we can find **to give s.o. *heat**, **to get to the *bottom of s.t.**, etc. on the one hand, and **to bring to *life**, **to turn one's *back on**, etc. on the other.¹¹ Unless the object is marked with one or the other, or both, of the abbreviations, not only does the inconsistency assert itself but the learners are often left confused as well. This applies particularly in the case of a prepositional object. If it is not clearly indicated, they may come under the false impression that the “*on*” in the last idiom cited, for example, is an adverb, and so does not take an object, because it often happens that they actually come across idioms like **to get a *move on**, **to *work things through**, etc. in which “*on*,” “*through*,” etc. are adverbs.

RHWD has a similar problem: the treatment of the object in idioms with a transitive verb in them is unsystematic, so that at least four different ways of presenting it appear in the dictionary: “**beat someone to the *draw**,” “**take or bring (someone) to *task**,” “**know by *sight**, [*know* + *obj* + *by* + ~],” and “**take (something) in *stride**, [*take* + *obj* + *in* + ~].” The first pattern seems to be simple and the best. As for the second and the fourth, the parentheses may be taken to mean the possibility of the word within them being omitted. The code “*obj*” in the third pattern is vague in that it does not specify the nature of the object, i.e. whether it refers to the animate or the inanimate. In the grammar code of the fourth, as well as the third, there is a redundant repetition of the words making up the idioms. Another type of unsystematicity is to be observed in the presence or absence of the code [*no obj*] before a certain group of idioms. It is applied, for instance, to those like **touch *base**, **go to *bed**, **make *money**, etc., while **play *ball**, **go to *town**, ***take place**, etc. lack it. Still another type of inconsistency can be detected in the use of the swung dash. Although it is basically employed to represent the whole idiom, as the “Guide to the Dictionary” says, exceptions abound in which

it refers to the main entry under which an idiom is entered. Thus, we can often find a code like [*put + obj + to + ~*] to be preceded by idioms like **put (someone or something) to *shame**, which is the exception to the rule that makes the code [*~ + obj*] follow many idioms like ***turn one's back on**. The problems mentioned here can be settled by inserting "**someone**" and/or "**something**" in idioms themselves to represent the object of a transitive verb or a preposition, instead of applying inconsistent grammar codes, which contributes also to the specification of the nature of the object.

7.2. Usage

7.2.1. The information on usage contained in *RHWD* and *NHD* will now be examined. We will deal first with usage labels, and then with usage notes. According to Pyles and Algeo (1970: 128–129), let us suppose that usage labels are classified into the following five categories: status or level (e.g. nonstandard, substandard), style (e.g. formal, informal, slang), currency (e.g. rare, archaic, obsolete), locality (e.g. American, British), field (e.g. psychology, chemistry, linguistics). *RHWD* carries labels of all the five kinds; *NHD*, all but those of status. Moreover, the former dictionary adopts a unique label "*Baby Talk*" indicating the use by small children and their parents, etc.; the latter, "*lit.* (i.e. literally)" as supposedly against "*fig.* (i.e. figurative)." The way *RHWD* applies a certain kind of label to certain relevant items is almost identical with that of *RHWCD*. As a whole, *RHWD* is less generous in applying usage labels than *NHD*, which sometimes gives them to run-on derivatives as well.¹²⁾ The problem that the two dictionaries have is that they do not give the definition of the labels in the front-matter pages, without which ESL learners may find some of them useless, or at least too vague to get the benefit intended. Only important points will be discussed hereafter.

With regard to status, *RHWD* provides the label "*Nonstandard*" to a few words and senses like **ain't**, **lay¹ 19**, **learn 5**, etc., whereas *NHD* carries no such labels, which means that it enters almost no nonstandard items. Both of these policies can be justified because whether to give the information on status or not depends upon each dictionary's compiling principles. If emphasis is laid on the necessity of knowledge on the part of

ESL learners that they should avoid employing certain words and senses which native speakers of English often use, then *RHWD*'s policy is to be justified; that of *NHD*, by the emphasis upon the importance of allotting more space to other kinds of information essential for ESL dictionaries.

As for the style labels, *RHWD* carries "*Slang*," "*Informal*," "*Offensive*," "*Disparaging*," "*Vulgar*," and "*Literary*," the first two being applied far more often than the others; *NHD*, "*slang*," "*infrml.* (i.e. informal)," "*frml.* (i.e. formal)," "*pej.* (i.e. pejorative)," "*vulg.* (i.e. vulgar)," "*litr.* (i.e. literary)," the first three greatly outnumbering the others in the frequency of application. Two points are to be noticed readily concerning the way these labels are provided. One is that *NHD* attaches the label "*infrml.*" to many words and senses which are given the label "*Slang*" or which are left unmarked by *RHWD*. The other point is that *NHD*, like others of its kind, adopts the label indicating formality, while *RHWD* does not. If we accept the idea that formal language does not occur in the United States except on very rare occasions, as S.I. Landau (1984: 207) observes, then *RHWD*'s policy of rejecting the label "*Formal*" is not without reason. However, this practice seems to be more like that of a general monolingual dictionary, and *NHD*'s policy will certainly be the one more suitable for an ESL dictionary. If *RHWD* indicates formal words and senses as such, the users can refrain from employing them in an informal situation.

The currency label adopted by *NHD* is "*old usage*" alone, whereas *RHWD* provides "*Older Use*" and "*Archaic*," the difference between them being unclear as it gives no explanation in the front-matter pages, but according to *RHWCD*, the former means a word or a sense "commonly used in the early part of the 20th century; now heard primarily among older members of the population," and the latter indicates one which was "current roughly up to 1900, but now employed only as a conscious archaism." The locality label used by *NHD* is "*Brit.*" alone; *RHWD* adopts "*Brit.*," "*Australian*," "*South Africa*," etc., the first label having by far the highest frequency of use. Both dictionaries leave American usage unmarked except that *RHWD* has labels showing such regional dialects within the United States as "*Western U.S.*," but the readers may expect them to apply, as other ESL dictionaries such as *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁵ do,

a label like "Am." or "U.S." to words, senses and expressions that belong only to American English. *NHD*'s unique label "lit." does not seem to make sense, or is at least a white elephant. A sense of a word or expression is either literal or figurative, and the dictionary marks the latter with the label "fig.," so that all the senses without it are literal by definition. The label "lit." is, therefore, meaningless, and not only that but takes up some space as well. Furthermore, it is applied inconsistently and only partially.

7.2.2. Usage notes contained in *NHD* and *RHWD* will be discussed here. The number of those appearing in the former is much larger than that in the latter. Those which are provided in the latter dictionary deal mainly with grammatical information on words whose usages require special attention, and sometimes with semantic differences between related or seemingly synonymous words. Many notes given by *RHWD* are also to be found in *RHWCD*, and the contents of those in the two dictionaries agree to a great extent, although those of the ESL dictionary are somewhat abridged and simplified in many cases. On the other hand, there are also many usage notes which *RHWD* covers but which *RHWCD* does not. These are ones that are not necessary for native speakers but that benefit foreign learners greatly. For example, a usage note under the main entry **because** shows them the grammatical difference in use between the conjunction *because* and the group preposition *because of*; one under **midnight** gives them a comment to the effect that the word is not usually used with the definite article.

Usage notes given by *NHD* explain, as its "Foreword" proudly declares, "shades of meaning, cultural references and important grammatical information." Although those with the first and the third kinds of information contained in them are also found in *RHWD*, and in other ESL dictionaries, for that matter, those carrying the information on cultural aspects, the number of them being fairly numerous, are unique to *NHD* as far as the present author knows. We can find this kind of usage notes under the main entries **barbecue**, **baseball**, **melting pot**, etc., the last of which, for example, describes the reason why the phrase "melting pot" which has been the image of American society until recently is being replaced in part by the phrases "tossed salad" or "mosaic." (Y. Takano)

8. Conclusion

When learners consult a dictionary, they are looking for various pieces of information. Then, what sort of information should an EFL dictionary offer? What differences are there between the information in EFL dictionaries and in dictionaries for native users? And, how should it be presented? Some of the questions are answered in British learners' dictionaries. The answers they found include: (1) Building English corpus to find out the right entries and proper scope of definitions based on word frequency. (2) Adopting IPA to represent the right pronunciation. (3) Using restricted vocabulary to write the definitions that are easy to understand. (4) Giving as many full sentence examples as possible. (5) Incorporating information on stylistic labels, word combinations, grammar, usage, pragmatics, etc. in the dictionary. (6) Giving full-blown pictorial illustrations.

These features together with other features of EFL dictionaries have made British learners' dictionaries very popular in Japan.

We have found, however, neither *NHD* or *RHWD* utilize these achievements fully. Nor have they succeeded in providing originality in their dictionary making very much¹⁾. Following are the results of our survey of the two dictionaries. We have pointed out some shortcomings which we hope will prompt improved new editions of American learners' dictionaries.

8.1. Entries

The total number of entries calculated for *RHWD* exceeds the one for *NHD* by about 5,500 in accordance with its physical priority. However, *NHD* contains 1.6 times more idioms and phrasal verbs than *RHWD*. Minimum basic vocabulary provided in *CLEJD* is largely contained in both dictionaries, and the number of entries regarded as American English is rather high, especially in *NHD*, compared with *LDAE*¹ and *OSDAE*. However, both the dictionaries must deal with their inconsistency in their manner of presenting inflected forms for nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, especially as such inconsistency, which is observable even for the basic vocabulary, might mislead learners to some confusion.

8.2. Pronunciation

NHD gives pronunciation using the IPA-based system, while in *RHWD* pronunciation is given both with the diacritical system and the IPA-based system. For the transcription of vowels, those in *NHD* seems to be more familiar for Japanese learners of English except that a length mark is not used at all. Both dictionaries inadequately transcribe the vowel in nurse as /ɜr/, since this vowel is not a diphthong, but a monophthong. For syllabic consonants, *RHWD* uses a diacritic indicating syllabicity (though it is feared that many learners will not understand it). For indication of stress, *RHWD* is far more satisfactory than *NHD*, especially for its thorough indication of compound stress.

8.3. Definition

Using restricted defining vocabulary has come to be one of the main features of major British learners' dictionaries. *NHD* has followed the trend saying that definitions are written "in an easy-to-understand, limited vocabulary," though it does not bother to list the defining vocabulary.

RHWD seems to have inherited most parts of its definitions from its parent dictionaries. Easy words and phrasing are the tradition of Random House Dictionaries. Naturally, *RHWD*, which targets advanced learners, uses more difficult words to write the definitions than *NHD*.

Sense order and scope of coverage are based on frequency and importance. *NHD*, a dictionary for beginners and intermediate learners, has limited its definitions to the minimum, and has excluded less frequent and older senses.

Sense flow in *RHWD* is sometimes awkward. This, we assume, comes from mechanical omission of (sub)senses of the parent dictionary on which *RHWD* is based.

Like many ESL dictionaries, *RHWD* gives full-blown pictorial illustrations, but they are not very attractive or informative compared with the ones in *LDCE*³. *NHD* gives, though not full-blown, pictorial illustrations as well. Although most illustrations are useful, some of them such as the picture of *egg*, *leaf*, and *rope* do not seem to add any information to the definition.

NHD will be required to improve its definitions. There are many senses that are not covered in entries like *take*. It should rewrite some of the definitions so that they are well balanced because some definitions contain unnecessary information while others lack necessary pieces of information. There should be no definitions that do not define.

RHWD's definitions are better balanced and more sufficiently defined than *NHD*. Effort should be made, however, to make the definitions more readable by changing the typeface for different word classes. We hope there will be something original in the definition of the second version of *RHWD*. The present edition is just an average ESL dictionary and does not seem to contain anything that is uniquely *RHWD*'s.

8.4. Examples

The overall value of a dictionary can not be properly estimated without taking into consideration its target usership, the purposes and the contexts in which it is to be used. Components of a dictionary can not be properly assessed without looking at them in relation to the other parts. For example, *RHWD* may be less to blame for its uninformative quasi-sentential examples and limited presentation of collocational possibilities through examples, considering that it is principally addressed to ESL students²⁾ with constant exposure to the language, and that definitions containing information on selectional restriction compensate for the inadequacy of collocational information in examples to some extent.

NHD, intended for intermediate or below students, generously uses space for examples, which are long (sentential) but easy, and self-contained and explanatory. *RHWD*, which is for advanced students, gives less space for examples probably to make room for other purposes (e.g. more headwords and subsenses to be included)³⁾, though it exhibits various grammatical constructions through examples.

Examples in each dictionary, put together according to distinct principles, have distinct features, and are not without success. On the whole, however, they are neither well-balanced nor well-integrated parts of the dictionaries yet. Both dictionaries ought to adopt a more flexible and effective approach. *NHD* should make better use of space allocated for ex-

amples without sticking slavishly to the sentential-example principles. There are many (sub)entries in which provision of various specimens and combinations is welcomed by the reader over a single lengthy example including some not-to-the-point elements. On the other hand, *RHWD* should be more generous with supplies of examples to better exploit their potential, especially examples as learning aids and referential clues.⁴⁾ For both purposes more lexical collocations should be covered by examples. Depending on the item, typical context should be portrayed by the example to enable the student to use as well as to understand the item properly.

8.5. Grammar and Usage

The results gained from the examination of grammatical and usage information given in *RHWD* and *NHD* suggest, on the whole, that the former can be counted among the respectable ESL dictionaries, while there seems to be much room for improvement in *NHD*. *RHWD* contains almost all the features that are expected of an ESL dictionary, though it does not add anything new except for the highest possible degree of intelligibility by spelling out, instead of abbreviating or clipping, almost all the terms used in grammar codes. However, it must weigh the advantages and disadvantages of the pursuit of intelligibility attained only by taking up much precious space, which could be allocated to other kinds of important information. Anyway, *RHWD* will make a valuable ESL dictionary if it removes the unsystematicity and the deficiencies pointed out above. *NHD*, on the other hand, lacks the total amount of grammatical information required of a usable ESL dictionary. With phrasal verbs, idioms and the information on usage, it will be satisfactory if it rids itself of the above-mentioned deficiencies as well as simple errors. We hope that *NHD* will add in the second edition those kinds of detailed grammatical information on content words, especially on verbs, that are provided by other major ESL dictionaries.

NOTES

Section 1

We wish to thank Prof. Nobuyuki Higashi and Prof. Rober H. Thornton for reading and suggesting improvements. All errors that remain are our responsibility.

Section 2

1) Categorised here as 'general-purpose dictionaries' are 'unabridged dictionaries', 'large desk dictionaries', and their abridged versions, i.e., 'college dictionaries' (cf. Algeo 1990: 1997ff).

2) Although it is necessary to consider whether EFL dictionaries should have different aims and therefore different design features from those for ESL users (see 2.3.), the term 'monolingual learners' dictionaries' (MLDs) is here used in its broader meaning, subsuming both EFL and ESL dictionaries.

3) Incidentally, it would also be interesting if we were to discuss 'user-friendliness' from two contrasting viewpoints: one from the AGPD user and the other from the MLD user. Should user-friendly features of AGPDs necessarily differ from those of MLDs?

4) The term *Americanism* is ambiguous as in *NWD*'s definition (sense 2): "a word, phrase, or usage *originating in or peculiar to American English*" (emphasis added). Here it is used in its diachronic sense.

5) But this does not mean etymological information is simply a white elephant in MLDs, in which etymology has been, and still is, quietly playing an important role. For instance, in MLDs, as in AGPDs, etymological criteria are usually applied to separate homographs (cf. Dalgish 1995: 331). Besides, it is one thing to say that the learner should be exposed to current English, and it is another thing to say that s/he could learn something from a brief history of a particular word.

Section 3

1) Most of the imported learner's dictionaries distributed through Japanese publishing houses are accompanied by illustrative material designed to suit Japanese consumers. And as a matter of fact, some numerical information, which differs from the one we obtained, is given in the booklet to *RHWD*. However, since the booklet itself is not published by Random House, Inc., we do not take that illustrative material into consideration here.

2) It must be noted here, however, that the fact that *NHD* does not have any abbreviated or contracted forms in Table 3.2 does not necessarily mean that the dictionary itself contains none of these types. Figures in the table only show the number of words which are found in one dictionary but not in the other. Thus, even if we are to find an abbreviated form in one dictionary, it will not count if the same form is also observable in the other.

3) In order not to step into the area of meaning, one thing we kept in mind in selecting such entries was to exclude those which have other non-American-specific definitions.

4) Of these, 49 entries are not included in either of the four dictionaries in Table 3.3.

5) In this section, the regular plural formation rule refers only to the pattern in which suffix *-s* is added to the original noun with no other morphological modification; other patterns are considered irregular.

6) The "GUIDE" explains several patterns in which the plural formation is not done by the simple addition of the suffix *-s*. The illustration covers the cases where the noun ends in *sh*, *ch*, *s*, *x*, and *z*, to which *-es* is added, and the cases where the noun ends in a *y*

preceded by a consonant, in which the *y* is changed to an *i* and *-es* is added.

7) For nouns ending in *s*, such as **lens** and **gas**, *RHWD* shows their plurals.

8) For **reindeer**, *RHWD* employs different manner:

reindeer: **-deer**, (*occasionally*) **-deers**

9) In this section, the regular inflectional rule of a verb refers to the pattern in which *-ed* is added to the original verb for the past tense and the past participle, *-ing* for the gerund and the present participle, and *-s* for the third person singular. Other inflectional patterns are considered irregular.

10) Pronouncing symbols are inserted between slashes "/" or parentheses "(")" in the actual dictionary descriptions. However, in this section, for the sake of saving space, we omit all such information concerning pronunciation.

11) *OED*² gives **swang** as a possible past tense form, but it is accompanied by the label "rarely," and *AHD*, which usually provides as many variant forms as possible, does not show the form. And it must be noted here that Appendix 4 of the dictionary, which lists the irregularly inflected forms of verbs, gives the "swing, swung, swung" pattern.

12) However, there is inconsistency here, too. Although the appendix shows **hanged** as its past participle, in the article headed by **hang**, **hanged** is labeled as the past tense form.

13) In *LDAE*¹, only **cruel** has inflected forms. *NHD* and *LDAE*¹ also share the prudential attitude toward several other adjectives or adverbs, such as **fast**, **hard**, **soon**, and **often**, for which *AHD* and *OSDAE* give the inflected forms.

14) The same remark can be made about the presentation of *-es* suffixed forms of verbs and nouns. *NHD* does not show the plural form of a noun when the *-es* suffixed form of the headword is given in its verb item even if it is the noun that is listed as the first item of the headword.

15) **liker** and **likest** are not listed even in *AHD*, which seems to show every inflected form of adjectives (adverbs) possible.

16) For example, although labeled as "(Slang)," *RHWD* gives even **badder** and **baddest** for **bad**, for which *AHD* has only **worse** and **worst**.

Section 4

1) In the new edition of *LDAE* (*LDAE*²), the symbol /ə/ is employed. It is commended as the most preferred transcription for that vowel (except that it lacks the length mark /:/).

2) In Higashi et al. (1986), the use of /o˞r/ in *LDAE*¹ was severely criticized on the same ground and in its new edition, *LDAE*², it has been abandoned. *LPD* gives /ɔ˞r/ as well as /ɔ˞r/ to the FORCE vowel.

3) In *NHD*, the final syllables of the words **capital**, **hospital**, **mental** and **vital** are transcribed as /təl/, while in the words **crystal**, **hostel**, **hostile**, **mantel**, **mantle** and **pistol** the final syllables are transcribed as /-təl/. In the same way, the final syllables of **anal**, **banal**, **channel**, **final** and **journal** and those of **criminal**, **kennel**, **panel**, **penal**, **tunnel** are transcribed as /-nəl/ and /-nəl/ respectively. It is not clear on what grounds the distinctions have been made.

4) The word **analyze** is transcribed as /'ænləɪz/ in *NHD*. As the symbol for the secondary stress denotes the syllable boundary, the syllabicity of /l/ is barely implied. Most learners, however, will not understand the syllabicity of /l/ from this transcription. For this same reason, the use of a hyphen for the syllable boundary in *LDAE*² as in /'ænl-ɪst/ does not seem to be practical, for all the effort to avoid ambiguity.

5) In *NHD*, some compound adverbs such as **downstairs** are double-stressed (/ ' __ ' __ /)

while others such as **underground** are finally-stressed (/ ' __ ' __ /). The numerals **fourteen**, **fifteen**, **seventeen** and **nineteen** are indicated as / ' __ ' __ / while **thirteen**, **sixteen** and **eighteen** as / __ ' __ /.

Section 5

1) According to *LDCE*³, definitions are written within a defining vocabulary of 2000 words. *OALD*⁵'s defining vocabulary is 3500. The problems for using restricted vocabulary is discussed in Béjoint (1994: 64), but its importance should be recognized.

2) For comparison of definitions of *LDAE* and *OADA*^E, see Higashi et al. (1986: 96-111).

3) The most common sense seems to be "pleasant" since all the first definitions in major EFL dictionaries include this sense; 'pleasant, agreeable,' in *OALD*⁵, 'pleasant, attractive or enjoyable,' in *LDCE*³, and 'attractive, pleasant, or enjoyable,' in *COBUILD*². Although *OALD*⁵, *LDCE*³, and *LDAE* include an ironic sense of nice 'bad, unpleasant,' the American counterparts do not. In *LDAE*², it is dropped. Is the ironical sense less frequently used in American English?

4) All the words of *NHD* in the Table 5.1 are listed in the defining vocabulary of *OALD*⁵, but *subtle* and *discriminatory* in *RHWD* are not.

5) The dashes in Table 5.2 signify that there are no corresponding definitions.

6) In *LDAE*² the sense order is changed, but the first sense in American dictionaries still comes last.

7) In *RHD*² it is divided into six subsenses: **5. Informal a. Sometimes Disparaging and Offensive.** a girl or woman, esp. an attractive one. **b.** a person of whom one is deeply fond; sweetheart. **c.** (sometimes cap.) an affectionate or familiar address (sometimes offensive when used to strangers, casual acquaintances, subordinates, etc., esp. by a male to a female). **d.** a man or boy; chap; fellow. **e.** an invention, creation, project, or the like that requires one's special attention or expertise or of which one is especially proud. **f.** an object; thing.

We can see the sense relationships in this subdivision, but not in *RHWD*.

8) Incidentally, one of the missing senses 'carry with one' is the first sense of *OALD*⁵ and *LDCE*³. Other senses that are not included in *NHD* are included in them.

9) It is not based on abstracted meaning of *take*. It divides the senses into 11 groups according to the context in which the word is used.

10) According to Béjoint (1994: 31) and others, most American dictionaries are encyclopedic. We welcome that. However, the treatment can go wrong in entry selections and the definitions. See, for example, the headword **Kodak** in *NHD*.

11) *OALD*⁵ gives a more informative explanation for **blond** (also, esp. of a woman **blonde**). It suggests that either a woman or a man can have hair of that color, but the word is more often applied to a woman especially when it is spelled blonde.

12) *RHWD* does not include this selectional restriction.

13) Selectional restrictions on **pretty** and other related words are given in the USAGE NOTE of **handsome**, but they should be written in each entry word.

14) Obviously, Table 5.3 indicates that *NHD* is not very keen to include the computer-related senses.

15) See *LDCE*³'s USAGE NOTE of **thin**.

16) In *WCD*¹⁰, it is defined as '1: animal tissue consisting chiefly of cells distended with greasy or oily matter.'

17) The principle 3 says: 'The defined word may not be used in its definition, nor may derivations or combinations of the defined word unless they are separately defined.' (Cited from Landau)

18) In *OALD*⁵ **that** (pronoun) has four definitions: **1** (used for referring to a specific person or thing, esp when he, she or it is not near the speaker or as near the speaker as another). **2** (used for referring to sb/sth already mentioned, known or understood). **3** (used esp in the plural for specifying particular people or things). **4** (used for specifying sth/sb of a particular type):

19) *OALD*⁵ gives five word classes and a total of 87 lines.

Section 6

- 1) *RHWD* does not include this among its headword list.
- 2) In the example of **miss**¹, for instance, who missed the first pitch, playing what (sport)?
- 3) Collocation can be broken down into two categories: grammatical and lexical. In this section, however, the former is discussed under grammar for convenience.
- 4) On the assumption that both *NHD* and *RHWD* use invented examples (see 6.2.), those dictionaries on the same principle were consciously chosen for comparison.
- 5) *RHWD* has "[before a noun]" for attributives. Likewise, *LDCE*² and *OALD*⁴ have "[A]" and "[F]", and "[attrib]" and "[pred]" respectively.
- 6) *LDCE*² offers much more varieties than *NHD* does for this sense of "bring."
- 7) *NHD* also gives "in control," "out of control," "(to get, have, or keep) under control," and "to take control" in bald between the sense numbers and the definitions.

Section 7

- 1) The grammar code [*count*; *noncount*] can sometimes be found. The present author has spotted it under the main entry **bombardment**. In the case of run-on derivative nouns, it is more freely adopted. See **misjudge** and **tempt** for example.
- 2) This method is the same as that which is employed by *OALD*⁵.
- 3) It is true, as S.I. Landau (1984: 89) suggests, that it would be a difficult problem for native speakers of English to decide whether a particular noun is countable or uncountable, because they can make almost any noun plural. However, since the nouns cited are usually marked uncountable by other major ESL dictionaries, they seem to be simple errors.
- 4) Interestingly, this is a feature shared by many children's dictionaries like *Merriam-Webster's Elementary Dictionary* (1994) in which a verb is simply marked "**vb**" and *The American Heritage Children's Dictionary* (1994) in which it is marked "**verb**."
- 5) There are also some minor problems, but we do not comment on them here, just hoping that they will be dealt with in the second edition.
- 6) These two features are shared by *OALD*⁵, *COBUILD*², and *CIDE*.
- 7) Interestingly, in **trouble 4** we can find the code [*no obj*; ~ + *to + verb*], which seems to be a simple error but serves as a clue to the solution. *LDAE*¹, by the way, uses the codes like [T + to-v-ing], [I + v-ing], etc.
- 8) As far as the present author knows, there is one exception. In **remain 1**, the subject complement is marked "*obj*."
- 9) The "Guide to the Dictionary" shows the code "[~ + *obj* + *prep*.] OR [~ + *prep*. + *obj*]" where the phrasal verb and its code are explained. This is certainly wrong and the first "*prep*." must be "*adv*." or "*adverb*"; the second, "*prep*./*adv*." or something like that.

Also, though the swung dash is usually used to represent the main-entry verb, we can sometimes see it used to stand for the entire phrasal verb, which can be confirmed by looking up those under **go** and **grow**, for example.

10) A similar method is employed by *LDCE*³, *OALD*⁵, etc.

11) The asterisk means that the word with it is the main entry under which the idiom in question is entered.

12) In examining the application by *RHWD* and *NHD* of usage labels and usage notes, the entries covered are those beginning with B, M and T, and some others that are important in terms of usage problems, which amount approximately to 17% of all the pages for the former dictionary and 15% for the latter.

Section 8

- 1) *RHWD* lists root entries. This is a new attempt to show the etymology which is absent in British learners' dictionaries.
- 2) It is definitely addressed to EFL students in Japan, China, and Spanish-speaking countries, too, at least, since the translations of the instructions in these languages are included.
- 3) This creates the impression that the dictionary is more receptively oriented.
- 4) In preparing examples for both dictionaries, more emphasis should be placed on this aspect of referential aid. *NHD*, with fewer subsenses of polysemous items, is "referenceable" even if it is not particularly well-marked. But the device mentioned in Note 7 of Section 6 makes consultation easier. *RHWD*, with highly polysemous entries, is not necessarily referenceable in spite of the bracketed grammar codes in front of some examples, which are supposed to help reference. They have the following shortcomings to be corrected. First, they are not typographically salient enough. Second, "obj[ect]" should be further divided into personal and nonpersonal as in *LDCE*² and *OALD*⁴. Third, adverbials like the underlined part below should also be included in the indication and the code should be attached to each example where variants may occur:

put . . . 10. [~ + *obj*] to apply to a use or purpose: *She put her knowledge to good use.*
(emphasis added)

DICTIONARIES

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The American heritage children's dictionary. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1994.

AHD: *The American heritage dictionary of the English language*, 3rd ed. Houghton Mifflin, 1992.

CIDE: *Cambridge international dictionary of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.

CLEJD: *College lighthouse English-Japanese dictionary*. Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1995.

*COBUILD*²: *Collins COBUILD English dictionary*, New ed. London: HarperCollins, 1995.

*LDAE*¹: *Longman dictionary of American English: A dictionary for learners of English*. Harlow: Longman, 1983.

*LDAE*²: *Longman dictionary of American English*, New ed. Harlow: Longman, 1997.

*LDCE*²: *Longman dictionary of contemporary English*, New ed. Harlow: Longman, 1987.

*LDCE*³: *Longman dictionary of contemporary English*, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995.

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An Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Third Edition

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1. Introduction

This is the third of the *LDCE* analysis that appeared in *Lexicon*. The first one in two parts was published in 1979 (No. 8) and 1980 (No. 9) immediately after the publication of the dictionary (1978). After a decade, the second analysis also in two installments (No. 18 (1989) and No. 19 (1990)) came one year after the issue of the New Edition of the dictionary (1987). In the lexicographical studies, *LDCE* was mainly compared with the following dictionaries: *CULD*, *LDAE*, *BBI*, *COBUILD*, *OALD*, *WNCD*; and in those researches we pointed out some major problems to be dealt with and several flaws to be remedied. It would be too much to say that the editing board of the *LDCE* headed by Ms. Della Summers responded to our suggestions and comments, but it was a pleasant surprise for us and other Japanese users to find the second edition of the dictionary improved and revised as we wished.

According to the Preface by R. Quirk, the new edition of the Dictionary has two core features: coverage and definition, and in the Introduction by Della Summers four solutions to the learners' problems are provided: Fast Access, Spoken English, Frequency, and Phrases and collocations. And the data for these features are based on the British National Corpus, Longman Lancaster Corpus, and Longman Learner's Corpus.

The front matter consists of Short Forms and Labels (inside front cover), Pronunciation Table and Special signs (i), Acknowledgements (iv), Contents (viii), Preface by R. Quirk (ix-x), Introduction by Della Summers, Director of Dictionaries (xi), Explanatory Chart (xii-xiii), and Guide

to the Dictionary (xiv-xxii). The Dictionary A-Z has 1668 pages, which is a considerable increase on the previous editions: the first edition with 1280 pages and the second with 1229.

Six aspects of the dictionary — entries, pronunciation, definition, examples, grammatical information, illustration — are compared with those aspects of the previous editions and with those of other competing dictionaries from the standpoint of foreign learners/teachers of English.

2. Entries

2.1. *LDCE*³ claims to contain "over 80,000 words and phrases," which is an increase of no less than 24,000 or 42 percent over its predecessor (56,000). An estimated 41,000 are listed as headwords¹, and the rest include entries of phrases and idioms, phrasal verbs, run-on derivatives, collocations, and other vocabulary items printed in dark type². In this section, focusing our attention on headwords, phrases and idioms, phrasal verbs, and run-on derivatives, we will compare *LDCE*³ with *LDCE*² to find out about the innovations in the new edition. We will also try to see whether the words that advanced learners are likely to look up are included in it.

2.2. Let us first look at the changes in the number of entries between the two editions. The following table (Table 1) shows the result of comparison made on an average of 2.5 pages of every one hundred of *LDCE*³.

Our sampling reveals an increase of 49.2% as a whole. Phrases and idioms, among others, have brought the greatest change in number, and also

Table 1

	<i>LDCE</i> ²	<i>LDCE</i> ³	Plus / Minus
Headwords	707	842	+135 (+19.1%)
Phrases & Idioms	115	484	+369 (+320.9%)
Phrasal verbs	60	64	+4 (+6.7%)
Run-on derivatives	138	132	-6 (-4.3%)
Total	1020	1522	+502 (+49.2%)

noticeable is the increase in headwords. It is worthy of note that one of the innovations lies in the addition of many entries of "headwords" and "phrases and idioms", the salient features of which we will examine in more detail.

2.3. The method of presenting headwords is much the same as in the second edition except, for example, that affixes (e.g. *osteo-*, *-ory*) are incorporated in the dictionary body instead of being listed in the appendices, and that the plural forms of some words (e.g. *dogs*, *thongs*), whose meanings were shown as separate headwords, are grouped together under their singular forms. There are, in addition, some alterations in the treatment of homographs (e.g. *beck*, *oriental*).

In our sampling, there are a total of 179 new entries of headwords. 57 of them are words which were in fact included in *LDCE*² but were treated differently: some were entered as run-on derivatives (e.g. *catcher*, *humiliation*, *potentially*, *starless*) or as variants (e.g. *beauty salon*, *doggie*, *pound sterling*), while others like *fashion house*, *law firm*, *remaining* were shown in the example sentences under the headword entries. Listed as separate headwords in *LDCE*³, they are easier to find and explained more clearly than in *LDCE*².

Apart from the above, our sampling includes 122 newly added words, and the most conspicuous feature of them is that 87, or 71.3% are compounds. The numbers of those that are written as two words, hyphenated, and written as a single word are 56, 7, and 24 respectively. Examples of each are:

(1) Compounds written as two words:

beauty contest, control key, controlled experiment, convenience store, conventional oven, dodge ball, dog handler, glee club, human resources, humpback whale, hung parliament, lawn chair, law school, post-viral syndrome, potato peeler, pot roast, potted plant, pound cake, staple gun, starter pack, third class, voice mail, voice print, voodoo economics, voting booth, voting machine, etc.

(2) Hyphenated compounds:

dog-end, glass-eyed, hung-up, fast-track, etc.

(3) Compounds written as a single word:

bedchamber, beefburger, docudrama, fastball, hungover, lawmaker, layover, osteoarthritis, potholder, starfruit, thirtysomething, voltmeter, etc.

The addition of many compounds as headwords suggests that the third edition of *LDCE* has come even closer to the American lexicographical tradition in a way, and it could be thought of as an attempt at user-friendliness for finding words. Another feature of the newly added words is that 20 (16.4%) are labeled as *AmE* in contrast to 10 (8.2%) of *BrE*. Some examples of American words are *D.O.A.*, *docent*, *fashion plate*, *lawn bowling*, *lawn sign*. From the standpoint of Japanese learners and lexicographers as well, inclusion of more American words in learner's dictionaries is a blessing in that we are generally more exposed to American English than to British English.

2.4. Much more striking differences lie in the entries of phrases and idioms. *LDCE*³ treats both (not only the latter) as separate meanings, paying particular attention to the spoken variety of English. What deserve special mention are: (i) a marked increase in entries, and (ii) a wider coverage of spoken phrases. The increase in number is largely due to the fact that phrases of various kinds are treated in the same way as idioms (i.e. "a group of words with a meaning of its own that is different from the meanings of each separate word put together") would be in traditional dictionaries. Of a total of 381 new entries in our sampling, 157 are new additions, while 224 are those which were treated in other ways in *LDCE*². That is, some were given as collocations or example phrases, and others were shown by means of grammar codes. The following are some of the examples, classified according to their previous treatment, which are now given higher status and treated as separate meanings in *LDCE*³.

(4) (Collocations →):

go to bed with, at your earliest convenience, make sth fast, be humanly possible, in other words, have a think, etc.

(5) (Examples →):

conventional medicine, glassy eyes/stare, safety-minded, voluntary society, set opinions, start young, etc.

(6) (Grammar codes →):

the beauty of, be glad of sth, be glad to do sth, be hungry for, be void of, the remainder, etc.

Also among the newly added items, there are several phrases that would not be treated as separate entries in traditional dictionaries. For example,

(7) catch yourself doing sth, gleam with happiness/joy etc., political/religious orientation, otherwise known as, be remembered for sth/as sth, be back where you started, etc.

What is expected of learner's dictionaries is to give full information on a wide variety of common phrases, regardless of idiomaticity, for decoding as well as encoding message; an entry such as *would-be actor/murderer etc* (i.e. "someone who hopes to have a particular job or intends to do a particular thing", s.v. *would-be*), although it is not an idiom in the strict sense of the word, proves to be useful for understanding an actual example in "Does this mean that a sentence of life imprisonment is just as effective as a death sentence in deterring *would-be criminals* from violent acts?"³) Because frequency of particular combinations is a great factor in deciding what to enter as phrases, the quantity of computerized corpora is likely to attract our attention; yet their quality is no less important, as *LDCE*³ rightly says "we believe that any corpora that consist largely of newspapers, scripted radio broadcasts, or old-fashioned written material cannot be used as resource on which to base an accurate description of the language, particularly not of frequency of usage."⁴) Since the Longman Corpus Network has spoken as well as written material, it has been made possible to cover a wide variety of phrases. Most importantly, *LDCE*³ gives a lot of definite and reliable information on spoken phrases, based on its Spoken English Corpora which are claimed to be natural and unscripted; phrases that are typically used in speech, rather than in writing, are labeled as *spoken*, and some important words have special "spoken phrases" boxes or paragraphs.

In our sampling, there are 68 entries of spoken phrases. 36 of them are independently labeled as *spoken*, while 32 are given in the separate boxes of "spoken phrases" under either *mind* (v.) or *think* (v.). Since information of

this kind is completely new to this edition and particularly helpful to the learner in producing language, let us quote all our examples below to give an overview of the innovation in *LDCE*³.

(8) Phrases labeled as *spoken*:

(you) beauty! <*AustrE*>, just because . . . , a busy bee, think you're the bee's knees <*BrE*>, the Beeb, where's the beef? <*especially AmE*>, you won't catch me doing sth, you'll catch it <*BrE*>, what do you do (for a living)?, that will do!, do as you're told, what will you do for sth?, could do with, what shall we do with?/what have you done with?, it's a dog's life, doggone it <*AmE old-fashioned*>, as far as I'm/we're concerned, as far as sth is concerned, as far as I know/as far as I can remember, I wouldn't go as far as to say, far from it, far be it from me to do sth, so far so good, not so fast, my humble apologies, in my humble opinion, give sb the hump/get the hump <*BrE*>, a hundred per cent, there's no law against (it), to my mind <*BrE*>, great minds think alike, have a potter/go for a potter, Don't (you) start! <*BrE*>, you started it!, this big/may etc, sth gets my vote.

(9) "Spoken phrases" box under *mind* (v.)

never mind, never you mind, mind you <*BrE*>, would/do you mind, I wouldn't mind, do you mind!, if you don't mind, if you don't mind my saying so, mind! <*BrE*>, mind out! <*BrE*>, don't mind me, I don't mind if I do.

(10) "Spoken phrases" box under *think* (v.)

I think, I think I'll, I think so/I don't think so/I think not, I thought (that), I should/would think, I can't think who/where/what, do you think (that) . . . ?, who/what etc do you think?, (now I) come to think of it, who would have thought?, I thought as much, just think!, you would have thought (that)/you would think (that), anyone would think (that), I wasn't thinking/I didn't think, to think (that) . . . !, think nothing of it, if you think . . . , you've got another think coming!, when you think about it, that's what you/they etc think!

Although many of the above phrases would not be treated on their own in general dictionaries because they are not so fixed as to be called idioms (e.g. *what do you do (for a living)?, do as you're told, you started it!, that's what you/they etc, think!*), making an explicit mention of spoken phrases of high frequency considerably enhances the value of *LDCE* as a learner's

dictionary. In fact, entries of this kind might be more necessary for the average learner than some true idioms of very low frequency. We appreciate the editors' efforts to cover a wide variety of phrases, both written and spoken, based on the corpora, and it is hoped that they will make further improvements in collecting and analyzing corpora of spoken and written texts that will be even more representative of the range of language varieties necessary for the users of *LDCE*.

2.5. Lastly, let us see briefly how far *LDCE*³ will meet the advanced learner's needs in reading texts. We have applied it to two articles of different subject matter from *Time* magazine, "Future Tech Is Now" (July 17, 1995, pp. 38–43) and "The U.N. at 50: Who Needs It?" (October 23, 1995, pp. 18–25). Our tentative examination of the texts reveals that there are some 50 words at least which are probably unfamiliar to the average Japanese college student, and that most of them are included in *LDCE*³. Some examples from the former article are *biogradable*, *genetic engineering*, **genome*, **Green revolution*, *superconductivity*, **voice mail*, and from the latter are *counterinsurgency*, *pork-barrel*, *supremo* (asterisked items are new additions to *LDCE*³). There are some entries that are not found in any of *OALD*⁵, *COBUILD*² or *CIDE*: **cookie-cutter*, *démodé*, *quietus*, *tocsin*. Although a few words are missing (i.e. *Blue Helmet*, *demolition derby*, *Lou Gehrig's disease*, *rattletrap*), the coverage in *LDCE*³ proves to be enough for us to understand the texts examined, and it will be true of other material that Japanese college students read in learning English. (K. Urata)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. As shown in Table 2, the phonetic symbols for transcribing British pronunciation in *LDCE*³ are much the same as those in the previous edition, while the symbols for showing American pronunciation have changed considerably, and this in turn has brought some change to the scheme for showing British pronunciation.

3.2. The phonetic symbols for consonants remain unchanged in this edition. They are so much the same in other dictionaries of this type that we do not need to make further reference to them here.

3.3. The introduction of /ɒ:/ for the vowel of *soft* and *thought* in Ameri-

can pronunciation seems to be the most remarkable change in the phonetic scheme of *LDCE*³. We welcome this change as it reflects the phonetic facts, since the tongue position of this vowel has been lowered and now it is more appropriate to transcribe it with /ɒ:/, rather than with /ɔ:/.¹⁾

3.4. The vowel of *home*, which used to be transcribed as /əʊ/ for both British and American pronunciation in the previous editions, is shown as /əʊ|ou/ in *LDCE*³. We welcome this, too, but it should be noted that this transcription is not due to any change in American pronunciation, but to the change in attitude towards differentiating British and American pronunciation.

3.5. Word-final postvocalic *r*, which used to be indicated as /r/ for both British and American pronunciation, is indicated separately in *LDCE*³. Consequently, vowels of such words as *fur*, *here*, *pair*, *star*, *war*, *tire* and the second vowels of *assure* and *father* are differentiated (See Table 2).²⁾

3.6. The weak vowel /ə/, appearing before /r/ when an r-diphthong is followed by a weak vowel as in *serious*, used to be transcribed as /ə/ to suggest that it may or may not appear. In *LDCE*³, it is separately indicated for British and American pronunciation, reflecting the phonetic fact that /ə/ in this position is more likely to appear in British pronunciation.³⁾

3.7. All the changes cited above are results of the efforts to differentiate British and American pronunciation and to show the sounds as accurately as possible. We thoroughly approve this attitude and welcome all these changes, though we cannot but wonder if *LDCE*³ can really afford to devote so much space to the separate transcription for British and American pronunciation.

3.8. As we pointed out before,⁴⁾ the symbol /ɜ:/ or /ɝ:/ for the vowel of *nurse* and the symbol /ɛ/ for the second vowel of *teacher* should be added to the scheme, in order not to give the impression that these monophthongs are pronounced as diphthongs.

3.9. There have been few changes in the British pronunciations given in the dictionary. It is worth noting, though, that the vowel of *poor* and *sure* is shown as /ɔ:/, instead of /ʊə/. This corresponds with the first pronunciation given in *LPD*, and seems to reflect the current tendency.⁵⁾

3.10. Stress shift is shown in *LDCE*³ far more carefully than in the pre-

vious editions. Lots of words, e.g., *adenoidal*, *Japanese*, *occupational*, *aboriginal* and *absentee* have been newly assigned the mark /◀/.

3.11. American pronunciations given in the dictionary remain almost the same except for the change in symbols.

3.12. Stress marks on idioms were far from satisfactory in *LDCE*², but it is very regrettable that *LDCE*³ seems to have given them up completely. This is something that goes against the needs of users. We hope that stress marks on idioms as well as on phrasal verbs will soon be assigned in this dictionary. It does not take up space to do that. And, in

Table 2 British and American Pronunciation of Vowels in *LDCE*² and *LDCE*³

	<i>LDCE</i> ²	<i>LDCE</i> ³
branch	/brɑ:ntʃ bræntʃ/	/brɑ:ntʃ bræntʃ/
palm	/pɑ:m/	/pɑ:m/
lot	/lɒt lɑ:t/	/lɒt lɑ:t/
soft	/sɒft sɔ:ft/	/sɒft sɔ:ft/
thought	/θɔ:t/	/θɔ:t θv:t/
home	/həʊm/	/həʊm həʊm/
fur	/fɜ:r/	/fɜ:r fɜ:r/
nurse	/nɜ:s nɜ:rs/	/nɜ:s nɜ:rs/
hurry	/'hʌrɪ 'hɜ:ri/	/'hʌrɪ 'hɜ:ri/
here	/hɪə/	/hɪə hɪr/
pierce	/pɪəs pɪərs/	/pɪəs pɪrs/
pair	/peə/	/peə per/
scarce	/skeəs skeərs/	/skeəs skers/
star	/stɑ:/	/stɑ: stɑ:r/
start	/stɑ:t stɑ:rt/	/stɑ:t stɑ:rt/
war	/wɔ:/	/wɔ: wɔ:r/
horse	/hɔ:s hɔ:rs/	/hɔ:s hɔ:rs/
assure	/ə'ʃʊə/	/ə'ʃʊə ə'ʃʊr/
assured	/ə'ʃʊəd -ərd/	/ə'ʃʊəd ə'ʃʊrd/
tire	/taɪə/	/taɪə taɪr/
tired	/taɪəd taɪərd/	/taɪəd taɪrd/
power	/paʊə/	/paʊə paʊr/
powerful	/'paʊəfəl 'paʊər-/	/'paʊəfəl 'paʊər-/
father	/'fɑ:ðə/	/'fɑ:ðə -ðər/
Saturday	/'sætədi -ər-/	/'sætədi -ər-/
serious	/'sɪəriəs/	/'sɪəriəs 'sɪriəs/

a way, it might be even more urgent than, for example, differentiating British and American pronunciation of the vowel of *home*, since stress patterns of idioms and phrasal verbs are not always self-explanatory.

(A. Shimizu)

4. Definitions

4.1. The definitions in *LDCE*³ have been made even easier to understand and to access than in *LDCE*². This is largely due to the non-use of round brackets in definitions, and to the introduction of “Signposts” in longer entries. We will focus on these two features first, and then we will look at the policy concerning the arrangement of meanings in *LDCE*³. The points we would like to stress in this section are user-friendliness and frequency.

4.2. As for the use of round brackets in definitions, there are big differences between *LDCE*² and *LDCE*³. While brackets were sometimes used in definitions in *LDCE*² to “show that part of a definition can be either included or left out” and to “give information about how and when a word is normally used,” they are not used at all in *LDCE*³, with the result that the kind of information previously given in brackets is now left out or, more often, given in other ways. Let us see some of the changes which result from the non-use of brackets. Compare the definitions in [2] (= *LDCE*²) and [3] (= *LDCE*³). (Cf. *LDCE*² F35)

<Brackets to show inclusion or exclusion of part of a definition>

(a) *bed and breakfast*

[2] (a private house or small hotel that provides) a place to sleep for the night and breakfast the next morning (s.v. **bed and breakfast**)

[3] a private house or small hotel where you can sleep and have breakfast, or this type of place (s.v. **bed and breakfast**)

(b) *ossify*

[2] to (cause to) change into bone (s.v. **ossify** 1)

[3] to change into bone or to make something change into bone (s.v. **ossify** 2)

<Brackets to give information on word use>

(c) *wow*

[2] (an expression of surprise and admiration) (s.v. **wow**¹ *interj*)

[3] used when you think something is impressive or surprising (s.v. **wow¹** *interjection*)

(d) *glean*

[2] to gather (facts or information) in small amounts and often with difficulty (s.v. **glean 1**)

[3] to find out facts and information slowly and with difficulty (s.v. **glean 1**)

(e) *palpitate*

[2] (of the heart) to beat fast and irregularly (s.v. **palpitate 1**)

[3] if your heart palpitates, it beats quickly and irregularly (s.v. **palpitate 1**)

(f) *glaucous*

[2] (of a leaf, fruit, etc.) covered with a fine whitish powdery surface (s.v. **glaucous**)

[3] a glaucous leaf or plant has a fine white powdery surface (s.v. **glaucous**)

The use of brackets in definitions has its advantages and disadvantages. It makes the definitions more precise and compact, but at the same time makes them the more complicated. Definitions like (a) and (b) are cases in point. Particularly in (b) where both transitive and intransitive uses of a verb are shown, the definition format in *LDCE³* seems to be more user-friendly as a learner's dictionary, though it may be rather space-consuming.

(c) is an example of defining an interjection, where no proper definition is given because the word has no real meaning. *LDCE³*'s definition in (c) which is introduced by the word "used" is rule-based. That is, "the definition consists of rules expressing how the lexeme being defined is used, i.e. for what purposes and in what contexts." (Cf. Jackson 1988, p. 135.) *LDCE³* makes an extensive use of this type of definition without putting them in brackets, with regard to spoken phrases (e.g. *just because*) as well as interjections and function words. Below is an example of a rule-based definition of a spoken phrase.

[3] **just because . . . spoken** used to say that although one thing is true, it does not mean that something else is true (s.v. **because 3**)

Next let us see (d), which illustrates the method of defining transitive verbs. There is a difference in the treatment of the object of a verb between the two editions. *LDCE²* maintained interchangeability of the headword and the definition by putting the object in brackets, whereas *LDCE³* ignores syntactic interchangeability and gives an easier definition without confronting the user with brackets. The same principle is also followed in defining prepositional phrases. Take a phrase *because of* for instance.

[2] **because of** by reason of; as a result of (s.v. **because 2**)

[3] **because of** as a result of a particular thing or of someone's actions (s.v. **because 2**)

As compared to *LDCE²*, *LDCE³*'s definition above is more user-friendly in the sense that it shows typical objects of the prepositional phrase in an easy-to-understand way, but it is done at the expense of syntactic interchangeability. Judging solely from the definitions, the difference in syntactic properties between *because of* (preposition) and *therefore* (adverb) is not clear enough, since *LDCE³*'s definition of *therefore* is "as a result of something that has just been mentioned" (s.v. **therefore**). *LDCE³*'s method of expressing typical objects of transitive verbs and prepositional phrases explicitly is a welcome feature in a learner's dictionary, but it means that we have to pay closer attention to their word classes and the grammar codes shown before the definitions and also the illustrative examples which follow them, particularly for productive purposes.

Now let us turn to (e) and (f), which are examples of full sentence definitions. This method of defining, which has been one of the distinctive features of *COBUILD* since its first publication, is occasionally used in *LDCE* for the first time in this new edition. It is especially used to show a typical subject of a verb (as in (e)) and to show selectional restrictions for an adjective (as in (f)). Definitions are written in natural English, in a way that is easier to understand than in a traditional way of bracketing additional information. Full sentences are also used to show a typical object as well as a typical subject of a verb as in the following examples.

[3] if a place commands a view, you can see something clearly from it (s.v. **command²** *v* 5)

- [3] if a ship docks or you dock a ship, it sails into a dock (s.v. **dock**² v 1)

Unlike *COBUILD*, *LDCE*³ gives full sentence definitions only when they seem easier to understand than traditional types of definition. The method used in *LDCE*³ is an eclectic approach. Although this may give an impression of being inconsistent, it is to be welcomed as a user-friendly approach, considering not only the advantages but also the disadvantages of using full sentences in definitions.

4.3. "Signposts" are shown in longer entries to help the user find the right definition easily and quickly. In the entry *organ*, for example, there are "signposts" such as ► **BODY PART** ◀, ► **MUSICAL INSTRUMENT** ◀, ► **ORGANIZATION** ◀, ► **NEWSPAPER/MAGAZINE** ◀, and ► **PLANT** ◀ before the definitions.

"Signposts" are words or short phrases of various kinds: synonyms, short definitions, hypernyms, typical subjects or objects of verbs, contexts and so on. They are usually equal to the most distinctive words or phrases used in the definitions. Some examples of signposts are given below. Note the relationship between the headword and the signpost on the one hand, and the signpost and the definition on the other.

<synonym>

► **HIT** ◀ to hit someone or something many times with your hand or with a stick (s.v. **beat**¹ v 2)

<short definition>

► **END AN ARGUMENT** ◀ to end an argument by agreeing on something (s.v. **settle**¹ v 3)

<hypernym>

► **ANIMAL** ◀ a very common animal that people keep as a pet or to guard a building (s.v. **dog**¹ n 1)

<typical subject>

► **DOG** ◀ if a dog begs, it sits up with its front legs off the ground (s.v. **beg**¹ v 7)

<typical object>

► **TOOTH** ◀ if a baby cuts a tooth, the tooth starts to grow (s.v. **cut**¹ v 15)

<context, purpose etc.>

► **IN PARLIAMENT** ◀ a process in which members of the British parliament vote for something by dividing into groups (s.v. **division** 8)

► **FOR BLOCKING LIGHT** ◀ something you use to reduce or block light (s.v. **shade**¹ n 2)

Generally speaking, the use of signposts is another welcome innovation in terms of user-friendliness. Regrettably, however, they are not noticeable enough as they are, because there are many other phrases and collocations that are also printed in dark type on the same page. There is some room for improvement in typography.

Besides signposts, there is another new device for easier access to the right definition. In some of the longer entries such as *sense*, there is a "menu" at the beginning of the entry to indicate the sections of meanings that are grouped together. The menu at **sense**¹ (n), for example, consists of ① **JUDGMENT/UNDERSTANDING**, ② **A FEELING**, ③ **MAKE SENSE**, ④ **SEE/SMELL/TOUCH ETC**, ⑤ **SKILL/ABILITY**, ⑥ **MEANING**, ⑦ **CRAZY/SILLY**, and ⑧ **OTHER MEANINGS**. It is indeed a useful guide, without any problems in layout at all. I never fail to look through any menu provided, before going through the definitions in the entry.

4.4. As for the arrangement of meanings, *LDCE*³'s policy is quite different from that of *LDCE*². *LDCE*³ lists meanings in order of frequency, and one of the most noticeable features in this connection is its treatment of phrases and idioms. While *LDCE*² listed idioms in alphabetical order after all the other definitions, *LDCE*³ arranges idioms and phrases treated as separate meanings in order of frequency. Take the entries for *contrary* for example. Let us see the differences in the arrangement of meanings between the second and the third edition of *LDCE*.

contrary

- [2] 1 [*the* + S] *fml* the opposite: *They say he is guilty, but I believe the contrary.* 2 **on the contrary** (used for expressing strong opposition or disagreement with what has just been said) not at all; no: . . . 3 **to the contrary** to the opposite effect; differently: . . . (s.v. **contrary**¹ n)

- [3] 1 **on the contrary** used for showing that you disagree completely

with what has just been said: . . . **2 to the contrary** showing that the opposite is true: . . . **3 the contrary** the opposite of what has been said or suggested: *They say he is guilty, but I believe the contrary.* (s.v. **contrary**¹ *n*)

“The opposite”, which is undoubtedly the most basic meaning of this word, was put first in *LDCE*², but comes last in *LDCE*³. This is presumably owing to its lowest frequency. It is a case in point which shows that priority is given to frequency in determining the arrangement of meanings.

Let us see another example from *LDCE*³. The following is an entry for *beg* where the meanings of the headword and of the phrases that contain it are arranged in order of frequency. Signposts in 2, 3, and 7 indicate a synonym, typical objects and a typical subject of the headword *beg*, and the definitions follow them in the dictionary. In 1, 4, 5 and 6, phrases that contain the headword *beg* are treated as separate meanings, and they are defined in the form of the phrases. Note that a common spoken phrase *I beg your pardon* is listed as the first meaning because of the frequency with which the word *beg* is used in the phrase.

beg

- [3] 1 I beg your pardon 2 ► ASK ◀ 3 ► MONEY/FOOD ◀
4 I beg to differ 5 beg the question 6 be going begging
7 ► DOG ◀ (s.v. **beg** *v*)

It is clear from the above that *LDCE*³ gives prominence to phrases and idioms by treating them as separate meanings, and by arranging them in order of frequency along with the other meanings instead of listing them on their own at the end of the entry. (K. Urata)

5. Examples

5.1. *LDCE*³ states in “Guide to the Dictionary” (p. xvi) that all the examples are based on what they find in the spoken and written corpus material in the Longman Corpus Network, adding “Some examples are taken direct from the corpus; some have been changed slightly from the corpus to remove difficult words; and some have been written specially for

the entry.” It is impossible to tell exactly how authentic *LDCE*³'s examples are, but we may safely say that even invented examples are based more or less on findings from the corpus material. On the whole, the examples are easy to understand. One of the new features which have made them easier to understand is *LDCE*³'s fuller treatment of the figurative use of some words. As for words which are often used in a figurative way, *LDCE*² occasionally showed their use by just giving examples preceded by a note (fig.), without providing any explanation. In what follows, the first and the second example sentences show the literal meaning of the word *grab*, and the third one shows its figurative use.

- [2] 1 to take hold of (a person or thing) with a sudden rough movement, esp. for a bad or selfish purpose: *He grabbed the money and ran off.* | *They grabbed her by the arm and forced her into their car.* | (fig.) *Don't miss this chance to travel — grab it before the boss changes her mind.* (s.v. **grab**¹)

*LDCE*² seems to have assumed that the figurative meaning of this word is self-evident. *LDCE*³, on the other hand, has abandoned this seemingly user-unfriendly way of showing the figurative use solely by giving examples. Instead, it treats it as a separate meaning and explains it more clearly.

- [3] 5 **grab a chance/opportunity** *informal* to take the opportunity to do or have something immediately: *Grab your chance to travel while you're still young!* (s.v. **grab**¹)

The figurative use of the word is given prominence and is explained fully in the third edition, which is a welcome new feature in terms of user-friendliness. Some more examples of similar cases are given below. Take note of the examples marked as “(fig.)” in *LDCE*² and their treatment in *LDCE*³.

- [2] 2 [A] causing this feeling: *looking down from a dizzy height* | (fig.) *She rose to the dizzy height (= important position) of vice-president.* (s.v. **dizzy**)
[3] 2 **the dizzy heights** *humorous* an important position: *Naomi had reached the dizzy heights of manageress.* (s.v. **dizzy**)

- [2] **1** [C; U] (the ability to make) the sound(s) produced in speaking and singing: . . . (fig.) “*I don’t think you should get married.*” “*Ah, the voice of experience!*” (= you are saying that because of your own (bad) experience) (s.v. **voice**¹)
- [3] **8 the voice of reason/sanity/experience etc** opinions or ideas that are reasonable, sensible, based on experience etc: “*Marriage is a very risky business.*” “*Ah, there speaks the voice of experience!*” (s.v. **voice**¹)

As is evident from the above, figurative examples marked as such in *LDCE*² receive fuller treatment in *LDCE*³.

5.2. The most noticeable feature to be mentioned here is *LDCE*³’s treatment of collocations. As compared to *LDCE*², collocations have increased greatly in number in the new edition. Thus at *settlement*, the number of collocations shown in dark type is two in *LDCE*², while it is five (or, we might say, as many as ten) in *LDCE*³. One finds in *LDCE*² such collocations as **reached a settlement** and **in settlement of**, while in *LDCE*³ one finds **reach/achieve a settlement**, **negotiated/political/peaceful etc settlement**, **divorce/peace/financial etc settlement**, **out-of-court settlement**, and **in settlement**.

In *LDCE*³, “collocations are shown in dark type, and are followed by a short definition in brackets, or an example, or both.” (“Guide to the Dictionary” p. xvi.) Let us illustrate the three different ways of presenting collocations, with examples taken from the entry for *step*.

take a step *Take two steps forward and one step back.* | **retrace your steps** (= go back the way you came) | **direct/bend your steps** *literary* (= walk in a particular direction) *The sun was setting as he bent his steps towards home.* (s.v. **step**¹ n 1)

Collocations are given far more prominence in *LDCE*³ than in *LDCE*², and this is undoubtedly a very welcome innovation, especially for productive purposes. What is more, *LDCE*³ claims that collocations are shown in frequency order, with the most important collocations coming first. At *express*, for example, collocations are shown in the following order.

express sympathy/fear/anger etc, **express interest**, **express opposition to**, **express thanks/gratitude**, **express yourself**, **can’t ex-**

press (s.v. **express**¹ v 1)

It is difficult to assess the extent to which *LDCE*³’s ordering of collocations represents real English in frequency, but their efforts to show them in order of frequency should be properly appreciated from an educational point of view. To sum up, the value of examples throughout the dictionary has been raised considerably owing to its thorough treatment of collocations: there is an abundance of collocations, which are given typographical prominence and clear explanation, arranged in order of frequency.

(K. Urata)

6. Grammatical Information

Grammatical information on the words contained in *LDCE*³ is comprised of three parts: the word class of a headword, the inflections of words, and the word’s syntax — the various patterns in which a word combines with other words to make (parts of) sentences. This section mainly reviews how the last category of grammatical information is provided in this new edition; that is, what kind of grammatical information is provided with regard to the word’s syntax and how it is presented as compared with the two predecessors, *LDCE*¹ and *LDCE*².

6.1. Word Class

As for the word class, there is not much to say, except that some minor reclassification of head words has been made. Five word classes are newly introduced: *number* (example: **two, third**¹, **hundred**), *modal verb* (example: **can, will**), *quantifier* (example: **much**², **most**²), *prefix* (example: **dis-**, **in-**) and *suffix* (example: **-ness**, **-able**). Even though the number of headwords under the new word class of *number* is quite small, their treatment lacks consistency. For instance, **first** and **second**¹ are classified as *number*, whereas the word class of *n* [C], and not *number*, is attached to **fifth** and **fourth**, and yet **third** and **ninth** are given, in a separate entry, both *number* and *n* [C]. The same inconsistent treatment holds true of *modal verbs*. The proper label-presentation is given only to **cannot**, **must**¹, **ought**, and **should**. Thus **cannot**, which is properly labeled as *modal verb*, **must**¹ as *modal verb* [negative short form **mustn’t**], **ought** as *modal verb*, and

should as *modal verb* [negative short form **shouldn't**] are in clear contrast with the others; **can** is labeled and presented as *strong v* [modal verb], **could** as *modal verb 3rd person singular could negative short form couldn't, may¹* as *modal verb negative short form mayn't, might¹* as *modal verb negative short form mightn't, shall* as *modal verb negative short form shan't, will* as [modal verb] *v*, and **would** as *v* [modal verb]. Thus we have four different presentations for one word class which comprises as few as ten headwords: we have the word class *modal verb* for **must¹**, *strong v* [modal verb] for **can**, [modal verb] *v* for **will**, and *v* [modal verb] for **would**. In addition, a more systematic presentation of the negative short form for each modal verb is required. Incidentally, it is puzzling that the *third person singular* form is cited only for **could**. Overall a much more careful and consistent treatment and presentation should be included.

6.2. Word Inflection

Concerning the word inflection, one innovation noticeable at first glance is that the irregular inflections of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are now fully spelled out, with their grammatical (or inflectional) notation placed in front. Thus, for example, we have the inflectional presentations of *plural oases* for **oasis**, *past tense rode/past participle ridden* for **ride**, and *comparative better superlative best* for **well¹**. In *LDCE²*, however, the inflectional presentations were shown in the simplest and the least space-consuming way; the respective forms were **-ses; rode, ridden; and better, best**. This welcome improvement derives from the principle of user-friendliness pervading the new edition.

6.3. Word's Syntax

6.3.1. Directionality in Presentation

One of the most widely known views of the lexicon is that "the lexicon is really an appendix of the grammar, a list of basic irregularities" (Bloomfield 1933: 274). This view conforms to a frequently articulated desideratum for an ideal lexicon — a lexicon that contains the minimum information necessary and that therefore has to provide a record of precisely the idiosyncratic information associated with each lexical item. Since a word's meaning is necessarily idiosyncratic, the inclusion of a word's

meaning in its lexical entry conforms to Bloomfield's characterization of the lexicon as a locus of idiosyncrasy. But how should we consider the inclusion of a word's grammar in its lexical entry?

Let us now examine the way in which word-grammatical information is provided in *LDCE³*. Comparing the newest edition with its immediate predecessor *LDCE²*, one of the major revisions is that the letter grammar codes such as [I] and [L], the total number of which was nine in *LDCE²*, are now drastically reduced to four. The letter codes retained in the newest edition are [I] (intransitive) and [T] (transitive) for the verb, and [C] (countable) and [U] (uncountable) for the noun. The other five letter codes that were employed in *LDCE²* but are eliminated in *LDCE³*, i.e. [A] (attributive), [F] (following the noun), [L] (linking verb), [P] (plural), and [S] (singular), are now spelled out in full and replaced by much more user-friendly terms. They are [only before noun], [not before noun], [linking verb], [plural] and [singular] respectively. The grammar codes used in the original *LDCE¹* amounted to as many as 80, which is twenty times the number of those in *LDCE³*. (The codes set up in *LDCE¹* were made up of 19 capital letters such as [A] and [C], the capital letter with an Arabic numeral such as [B3] and [T5], or the capital letter combined with a small letter and an Arabic numeral such as [Wa3] and [Wv5]. *LDCE¹* made use of six small letters and ten Arabic numerals altogether.) *LDCE¹* attracted considerable attention in TESL circles and was even labeled 'the revolutionary dictionary' for these 80 epoch-making grammar codes, but the drastic reduction in the number of grammar codes in the newest edition seems to imply that the pressure for user-friendliness has been so strong that it has forced the 'revolutionary' code presentations that *LDCE¹* once boasted to be changed into plain, explicitly written-out presentations. In view of user-friendliness, this directional change of presentation seems to be on the right track.

6.3.2. Grammatical Information on Verbs

The tendency to treat the lexicon as a locus of idiosyncrasy leads to collocational presentations of verbs in dark type instead of systematized presentations of word-grammar. For instance, in *LDCE²* **feed¹** had the systematized word-grammatical presentations of 1 [T (**on, with**)], 2 [I

(**on**), 3 [T + *obj + adv/prep*], 4 [T + *obj(i) + obj(d)*] and 5 [T], whereas **feed**³, its equivalent in *LDCE*³, has the collocational presentations of 1 [T] a) **feed sth to sb | feed sb on sth**, 2 [T], 3 [I], 4 [T] **feed sth with | feed sth into | feed sth to sb**. Space-consuming, expository presentations are employed to the detriment of systematicity in grammatical presentation. Another example to cite here for illustration is the grammar code for **stand** 12 'to accept successfully or without undesirable results' in *LDCE*¹. The original code [Wv6;T1, 3, 4: *usu. nonassertive*] in *LDCE*¹ was revised to **stand** 15 [T *usu. in questions and negatives; not in progressive forms*] [+ *v-ing*] [*v + obj + v-ing*] in *LDCE*². In *LDCE*³ the grammatical information about this specific meaning of **stand** is presented in a much more simplified way than in its two predecessors. It is subdivided into **stand** 9 [T], **stand** 10 [I, T] followed by **stand sth** and **stand sb doing sth** in dark type, and **stand** 11 [T]. The use of dark-type collocational presentations to show the grammatical pattern in 'written-out' form represents a major change in the policy of grammatical presentation. Thus we find the tendency toward a simpler presentation of word-grammatical information all the more noticeable in the latest edition. Yet, in terms of systematic informativeness the grammatical information given in *LDCE*² seems to have been of greater value to intermediate and advanced English learners, because those who can make full use of *LDCE*-type dictionaries must have a command of English at the intermediate or advanced level.

6.3.3. Grammatical Information on Adverbs

What seems to be a novel attempt from the viewpoint of grammatical information is that the grammatical label [sentence adverb] is attached to some adverbs and adverbials. Adverbs and adverbials are classified into adjuncts, subjuncts, disjuncts, and conjuncts depending upon how they modify a central element in a sentence or upon the way they link one clause with another. Of the four subclasses of adverbs, disjuncts and conjuncts are called sentence-modifying adverbs or "sentence adverbs." Disjuncts express the speaker's comment, evaluation and value judgment of, or attitude toward the content of what is being said. On the other hand, conjuncts express the speaker's assessment or judgment of the relation between two adjoining clauses or sentences. In *LDCE*³, however, the label

[sentence adverb] is attached to disjuncts and conjuncts without making any distinction between the two. Thus this bundling together of disjuncts and conjuncts under one label poses a problem; since disjuncts and conjuncts are syntactically and semantically different as mentioned above, it seems only proper that they be given different labels. My suggestion, therefore, is that [linking adverb] should be the proper label for conjuncts, whereas [sentence adverb] should be retained exclusively for disjuncts.

In addition to the problem of distinction, there is the problem of inconsistency of labeling: some disjuncts and conjuncts rightly bear the label [sentence adverb], but others do not. Disjuncts which have the label [sentence adverb] attached to them are **actually, admittedly, alas, allegedly, apparently, basically, briefly, certainly, clearly, commercially, essentially, evidently, fortunately, frankly, happily, hopefully, ideally, incredibly, indeed, ironically, maybe, naturally, normally, obviously, officially, originally, outwardly, personally, plainly, predictably, presumably, privately, probably, regretfully, regrettably, remarkably, reportedly, reputedly, sadly, seemingly¹⁾, seriously, significantly, specifically, supposedly, surely, technically, thankfully, theoretically, tragically, unfortunately, and unhappily**.

But it is also appropriate to include at least some of the following disjuncts as well: **academically, (more) accurately, advisably, altogether, amazingly, annoyingly, appropriately, arguably, artistically, assuredly, avowedly, bluntly, broadly, candidly, characteristically, cleverly, conceivably, confidentially, conveniently, decidedly, definitely, fatally, figuratively, flatly, generally, honestly, inevitably, likely, literally, luckily, mercifully, metaphorically, patently, perhaps, possibly, really, roughly, sensibly, simply, somehow, strictly, truly, truthfully, undoubtedly, unquestionably, and wisely**.

Some disjuncts appear as bold phrases in the form of either **to put it ~ly** or **~ly speaking**, but without the grammatical label [sentence adverb]. Some such examples are **to put it bluntly [simply]** and **broadly [comparatively, generally, roughly, strictly] speaking**.

These bold adverbial phrases as well as bold phrases such as **really and truly, rightly or wrongly, quite rightly, likely as not, funnily enough**

and single-form disjuncts are both semantically and functionally equivalent. Thus labeling like [sentence adverbial] for these adverbial phrases would make this dictionary more accessible for the users. Moreover, the fact that bold phrases such as **oddly enough**, **strangely enough**, **not surprisingly** bear the label [sentence adverb] whereas **funnily enough** and **quite rightly** do not is another case of inconsistency.

Conjuncts bearing the label [sentence adverb] include **accordingly**, **anyhow**, **anyway**, **consequently**, **equally**, **finally**, **firstly**, **further**, **furthermore**, **hence**, **incidentally**, **instead**, **lastly**, **likewise**, **meantime**, **meanwhile**, **moreover**, **nevertheless**, **nonetheless**, **otherwise**, **overall**, **second(ly)**, **similarly**, and **thus**. Equally important conjuncts such as **also**, **alternatively**, **altogether**, **besides**, **conversely**, **eventually**, **first**, **however**, **therefore**, and **third(ly)** should carry the label. Thus far we have shown that the treatment of the label [sentence adverb] in *LDCE*³ faces two other problems.

Bold phrase adverbials like **in a sense**, **in actuality**, **in general**, **in (point of) fact**, **as a matter of fact**, **to be honest/frank**, and **to be sure** should be labeled [sentence adverb]. By the same token, bold phrase adverbials such as **in addition**, **on the contrary**, **on the other hand**, **if anything**, **by the way**, **first of all**, **after all**, **in the final/last analysis**, **above all**, **to begin with** and many others should bear the label [linking adverb].

(M. Matsuyama)

7. Illustrations

7.1. The total number of illustrated words has somewhat increased in *LDCE*³, though at first sight *LDCE*³ seems to contain much fewer illustrations accompanying entry words compared with *LDCE*². Of over 550 illustrations¹⁾ in *LDCE*², more than 350 have been purged, while only about 200 entry words have been newly accompanied by illustrations in *LDCE*³, which gives an impression that *LDCE*³ contains fewer illustrations. *LDCE*³ boasts "over 2300 words illustrated, including 24 pages of full colour"²⁾, though it is not clear what is required of a word to be counted as "illustrated". In order to assert that *LDCE*³ contains as many as 2,300 illustrated words, we would have to count as illustrated almost all the

words appearing in the illustrations whenever there are (parts of) pictures corresponding to them (e.g. parts of a car, organs of a human body, and both *sheet* and *newspaper* in a picture showing *a sheet of newspaper*). In the same manner, we could also estimate that some 2,000 words were illustrated in the "over 550" pictures in *LDCE*², and it should be noted that the number of illustrated words has not increased as greatly as suggested on the dust cover of *LDCE*³.

7.2. There has been a drastic change in the choice of words to be illustrated. Over 300 of the 470 pictures of nouns, which accounted for 85.5%³⁾ of all the pictures in *LDCE*², have disappeared, leaving lots of words such as *cat*, *blossom*, *flower*, *church* and *pot* without illustrations. Most of these nouns are of the kind that need no pictures⁴⁾ in a dictionary of this type, and we appreciate the efforts made to concentrate the use of illustrations where they are really needed as part of the definitions. About 100 nouns such as *thistle*, *commuters*, *satellite dish*, *bagel*, *samosa* and *mobile phone* have been newly illustrated. Apparently, most of these new pictures seem to have been added for cultural reasons, though there are cases for which we cannot guess why.

Although we rated highly the efforts shown in *LDCE*² to use illustrations as an important part of definitions of words with abstract meanings such as *degree*, *focus* and *refraction*, as well as those including ideas of process, such as *cartwheel* and *diffuse*⁵⁾, most of such pictures have been deleted, with only a few new ones added in *LDCE*³. Pictures showing groups of related objects, such as *the solar system* and *chairs*, have been one of the features of *LDCE*². Of the 54 such pictures, 24 have been purged, while several (e.g. *pieces* and *vegetable*) have been relocated in colour pages in *LDCE*³.

7.3. Very little space used to be devoted to pictures for illustrating words other than nouns in *LDCE*¹⁻², but now *LDCE*³ contains over 180 pictures illustrating verbs (of which 21 are for phrasal verbs), including excellent ones explaining the differences between related verbs (and verbal phrases), such as *hear-listen*, *nod-shake one's head* and *steal-rob* in the main pages. Five of the colour pages featuring verbs (Verbs in the Kitchen, Physical Contact1-2, Sounds, and Types of Walk) have been all successfully de-

signed to show the meanings of related verbs.

Pictures illustrating phrasal verbs such as *fill in*, *take off* and *tell off*, also have drastically increased in number, considering that *LDCE*² contained only 3 illustrated phrasal verbs, *mop up*, *prop up* and *roll out*, all of which have lost their pictures for some reason.

7.4. Illustrations for adjectives seem to have been greatly enriched, though most of the 17 pictures illustrating adjectives in *LDCE*² have been deleted. In the colour pages are lots of adjectives for describing people and clothes, as well as various conditions of being "broken", while in the main pages newly added illustrations explain the meanings of adjectives such as *boring*, *dizzy*, *sharp-blunt*, and *thick-thin* appropriately.

7.5. Prepositions and adverbs were hardly illustrated in the previous editions. In *LDCE*³, however, a whole colour page has been devoted to prepositions of position and direction, with a picture of a cycle race, and a newscaster using 15 prepositions in his on-the-spot broadcast. We appreciate this as an ambitious and successful innovation. Illustrations for adverbs are much the same as in *LDCE*², though it should be noted that adverbial phrases such as *arm in arm*, *neck and neck* and *with one's legs crossed* have been illustrated.

7.6. Colour pages have been well exploited by using them for showing colours and for describing people. It is worth noting that the pictures on the colour pages tell us that the editors of *LDCE*³ are well conscious of the fact that peoples of various ethnic backgrounds are now speaking English.

7.7. Generally speaking, we rate highly *LDCE*³'s ambitious attempts to illustrate and its attitude towards what and how to illustrate. Nevertheless, we sometimes cannot help wondering about the criteria for purging and adding illustrations. Why have *acorn* and *thistle* been illustrated while pictures illustrating any other nuts and flowers have totally disappeared? And now that *hand* has lost its detailed illustration, we cannot find out what to call our fingers!

7.8. A cross-reference is indispensable when the picture illustrating an entry word does not accompany it, so that the user looking up the word may have access to the illustration. If we take one of the colour pages titled RESTAURANT on page 918 for example, we find that a verbal phrase,

TAKE THE ORDER, and a compound noun, *coat stand*, are lacking cross-references under the entries. Four of the words illustrated there, *chef*, *apron*, *cutlery*, and *cheeseboard* are assigned cross-references under the entries but with wrong page numbers. The verb POUR not only lacks cross-reference, but is given an independent illustration of its own accompanying the entry word. Another such example is *waistcoat*, which is illustrated on both p.984 and p.1604, again lacking cross-reference under the entry. Just to mention a few more examples, *pattern*, *fabric* and *clothes* lack the cross-references to direct users to the colour pages titled PATTERNS AND FABRICS and DESCRIBING CLOTHING. We cannot but conclude that a systematic cross-check across all the illustrations has yet to be done to get rid of such flaws and to make the dictionary more useful, at the same time saving space for other essential elements, such as grammatical and usage information.

(A. Shimizu)

8. Conclusion

By way of concluding remarks, let us give a summary of the analysis.

As for Entries, the addition of many compounds as headwords and the inclusion of more specifically American items are welcome features of the new edition. And the efforts to cover a wide variety of phrases, both written and spoken, have made this edition useful for non-native learners of English. A brief test has proved the coverage in *LDCE* to be enough for the advanced learner's needs.

Concerning pronunciation, the symbols for showing American pronunciation have changed considerably, and the effort to differentiate British from American pronunciation and to show the sounds as accurately as possible is welcome. Although the stress shift is shown in this new edition far more carefully than in the previous editions, it is regrettable that the new edition has given up indicating stress marks on idioms and phrasal verbs.

In describing definitions, two technical devices newly adopted in this edition — the non-use of round brackets in definitions and the introduction of Signposts in longer entries — have successfully helped the dictionary users to understand and to access the definitions. Signposts would

serve better if they were typographically improved. "Menu" is also a useful guide. Meanings of a headword, along with its idioms and phrases treated as separate meanings, are arranged in order of frequency.

As for examples, the new edition treats the figurative use of a word as a separate meaning and explains fully the figurative example, which is a new feature in terms of user-friendliness. Collocations and examples are given special prominence so that they may be of use for productive purposes.

As for grammatical information, among the newly introduced word classes, number and modal verb, consistent treatment in label-presentation is required. The welcome improvement about word inflection and syntactic information is in written-out presentation systems for the great benefits of users. Reduction of the letter grammatical codes from nine in *LDCE*² to four in the new edition is also on the right track when it comes to user-friendliness. So is the use of dark-type collocational presentations to show the grammatical pattern in written out form. As regards sentence adverbs which pose problems, a suggestion — the use of [linking adverb] — is made by the reviewer.

As for illustrations, there has been a drastic change in the choice of words to be illustrated. Pictures illustrating verbs, verbals, phrasal verbs are successfully designed in this edition. Ambitious colour pages devoted to the illustration of prepositions and adverbs are informative. A systematic cross check across all the illustrations has yet to be done.

In preparing learner's dictionaries, there are two vital assignment problems. One is the handling of the language corpus and the other is dictionary user research. As the language database gets larger and more sophisticated, it gets more difficult to use it properly for dictionary-making. We believe the motto of the Longman dictionary "Corpus-based, but not corpus-bound" still to hold good with this edition. As English is coming near to the status of *lingua franca* in various parts of the world, users of EFL dictionaries will become larger in number and more variegated. It is hoped that the lexicographers at Longman will keep themselves informed about prospective users of the dictionary. The dictionary, which is placed between two extremes in terms of principal characteristics ("the *ALD* presenting (still) a traditional approach, *COBUILD* at the other extreme of

innovation, *LDOCE* somewhere in between". cf. Allen (1996), p. 44), will hold to a middle course, steered by lexicographical flexibility of the editorial team.

NOTES

Section 1

We wish to thank Prof. Robert H. Thornton for reading and suggesting improvements. All errors that remain are our responsibility.

Section 2

1) Our counting on every five pages estimates the number of headwords to be 40,944.
2) Cf. Shimizu et al. (1989, p. 236): "*LDCE*² says it contains some 56,000 entries, It should be noted that the term entry includes all boldfaced vocabulary entries in the main body as well as word beginnings and endings in the back matter sections."

3) From Thomas J. Swinscoe, *Reading for Real: An Intermediate Reading Text* (Tokyo: Newbury House/Shohakusha, 1994), p. 38. The entry-form in *LDCE*³ shows very clearly that the adjective *would-be* can be used in combination with a noun referring to a person who does something wrong, as well as a noun referring to a person who does a particular job. Cf. *OALD*⁵ (s.v. *would-be*).

4) *LDCE*³, dust cover.

Section 3

1) Some Americans do not distinguish the vowels of *cot* and *caught*. Wells (1982), p. 473.

2) Transcription for the vowel of *flower*, *flour*, *power* and *sour* in American pronunciation varies between /aur/ and /aur/ in *LDCE*³. This, however, seems to have nothing to do with phonological analysis, but comes from mere inconsistency.

3) Transcription varies again, when /aur/(or, /aur/? is followed by a weak vowel, thus *floury* is /'flauəri||'flauri/, while *flowery* is /'flauəri/ in *LDCE*³.

4) Shimizu, A. et al. (1990), p. 42.

5) In Pronunciation Table (p. i), however, *sure* is still given as the keyword of /uə/.

Section 6

1) Italicized *sentence adverb* in **seemingly** 2 should be [sentence adverb].

Section 7

1) *LDCE*², F 49.

2) *LDCE*³, dust cover.

3) Shimizu, A. et al. (1989), p. 230.

4) Landau says, "... simple words need no pictures: they need definitions." Landau (1984), p. 112.

5) Shimizu, A. et al. (1989), p. 230.

DICTIONARIES

- BBI Benson, Morton, Evelyn Benson, and Robert Ilson (comps.) *The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English: A Guide to Word Combinations*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1986.
- CIDE *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Cambridge: CUP, 1995
- COBUILD² *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, New Edition. London: Harper Collins, 1995.
- CULD *Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary*. Edinburgh: Chambers, 1980.
- LDAE *Longman Dictionary of American English. A dictionary for Learners of English*. New York: Longman, 1983.
- LDCE² *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, New Edition. Harlow: Longman, 1987.
- LDCE³ *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995.
- LPD *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*. Harlow: Longman, 1990.
- OALD⁵ *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 5th ed. Oxford: OUP, 1995.
- WNCD⁹ *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary*. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam, 1983.
- WCD¹⁰ *Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam, 1993.

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Diagrammatic Representation of Four Categories of English Dictionaries

ISAMU HAYAKAWA

0. Purpose of this Paper

Béjoint (1994: 32) states, "The basic question for anyone who attempts a typology is whether to derive categories from the observation of existing dictionaries or to create categories in theory and then see how existing dictionaries fit into them. Strictly speaking, the former would be a classification and the latter a typology." My intention of this paper is not to attempt a typology of English dictionaries from a purely theoretical viewpoint but to classify them from a historical point of view and represent them diagrammatically.

1. Four Categories of English Dictionaries

I have derived the following four categories of dictionaries from a rough survey of the history of English lexicography from the 16th to the 20th century.

1. academic dictionary versus practical dictionary
2. encyclopedic dictionary versus lexical dictionary
3. thematic dictionary versus alphabetic dictionary
4. comprehensive dictionary versus concise dictionary

These contrasts are to be briefly discussed in this section.

The contrast which has played the most important part in the history of English dictionaries is that between academic (professional) and practical (popular) dictionaries. They differ not only in the technique of lexicography but also in the type of users whose needs each type of dictionaries should meet. The following is a list of contrasting points between them.

Academic & Professional Lexicography	Practical & Popular Lexicography
linguistic purity based on standards standard-influencing for the language academy authoritative prescriptive	linguistic practicability based on practical use non-standard-influencing against the language academy non-authoritative descriptive
scholarly academic for the learned or scholars	educational practical for lay-people
illustrative sentences from literary works 'good' words literary words	illustrative sentences of everyday use 'hard' words technical words
excluding encyclopedic information	including encyclopedic information
exclusion of pictorial illustrations	inclusion of pictorial illustrations
inward development selection of entry words	outward development increase of entry words

This contrast began to be perceived in the 18th century. Matoré (1968: 190) referred to these types of dictionaries as 'qualitative' dictionary and 'quantitative' dictionary, but the terms seem to me not so implicative.

The second contrast is seen between a lexical dictionary and an encyclopedic dictionary. Needless to say, Johnson's English dictionary (1755) is a lexical dictionary. But it includes many quotations from several encyclopedias published in the first half of the 18th century. Therefore, it will be safe to say that Johnson's dictionary contains much encyclopedic information. In my opinion, Ogilvie's dictionary (1847-50) was the first encyclopedic dictionary including a great number of technical terms and their explanations. And under the influence of this dictionary, was compiled Webster's unabridged dictionary (1864), which is also a very encyclopedic dictionary with a variety of addenda.

The third contrasting feature is thematic and alphabetic arrangement of

entry words. Thematic arrangement was so popular in the early days of lexicography in England that we cannot turn a blind eye to it. Most thematic wordbooks which covered only several thousand English words were compiled especially for beginners and students. They developed into bigger dictionaries containing more than ten thousand entry words. Then it became difficult for a compiler to arrange the entries thematically. He had to arrange them alphabetically for users' convenience. But it took a long time to convert from thematic to alphabetic arrangement.

The fourth contrast is that between a comprehensive dictionary and a concise dictionary. This is closely related to the notions put forth by Kister (1977: 4): unabridged dictionary (more than 250,000 words), semi-unabridged dictionary (more than 130,000 words), and abridged dictionary (less than 130,000 words). The history of English lexicography indicates that the terms of 'unabridged' or 'abridged' are not adequate, because Johnson's unabridged and abridged dictionaries are supposed to have been compiled almost at the same time, and Webster's abridgement (1829) was edited by Worcester and had some characteristics totally different from those of Webster's unabridged dictionary (1828). Theoretically, it will be appropriate to use the terms 'extensive' and 'intensive' ('selective') coined by Wagner (1967: 94, 123-126), and Dubois and Dubois (1971: 13).

The above four categories of English lexicography can be paraphrased in more general and theoretical terms like these:

1. qualitative lexicography versus quantitative lexicography
2. macro-lexicography versus micro-lexicography
3. semantic lexicography versus formal lexicography
4. extensive lexicography versus intensive lexicography.

However, it should be born in mind that "The conclusion to be drawn from all the typologies proposed by various authors over the years is that it is impossible to classify dictionaries in a way that would be both orderly and applicable to all societies. Dictionaries come in more varieties than can ever be classified in a simple taxonomy." (Béjoint 1994: 37)

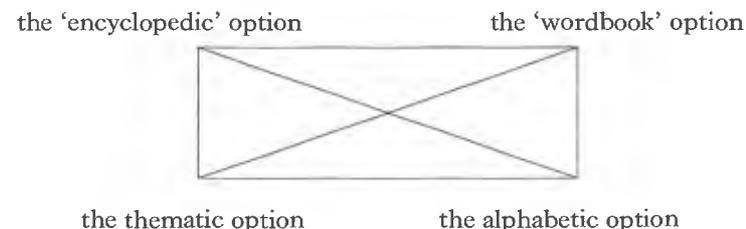
2. The Validity of Diagrams in Representing Typical Features of English Dictionaries

Before exhibiting a diagram to represent these four categories, I have to discuss the diagram itself in terms of validity or usefulness.

The four categories mentioned above not only characterise a whole picture of dictionaries so far published in Britain, but also turn out to be essential features for the description of an individual dictionary. An English dictionary can be described as a set of these features. For example, X is a comprehensive academic dictionary with entries alphabetically arranged, and Y is a concise practical dictionary with much encyclopedic information. However, this kind of statement about a dictionary may tend to remain diffuse or unfocused.

It is very difficult or nearly impossible to make a typology which shows distinctive characteristics of a dictionary explicitly. If Johnson's dictionary, for example, is classified into a category of an academic dictionary, it is thought to contain no practical element. This is not true. Johnson included many phrasal verbs in order to render his dictionary more practical. We can roughly say that the dictionary has 95% 'academicity' and 5% 'practicality'. We have to represent the degree of 'academicity'/'practicality', which is easy to include in a diagram. With the help of a diagram, we are able to form a true picture of each dictionary.

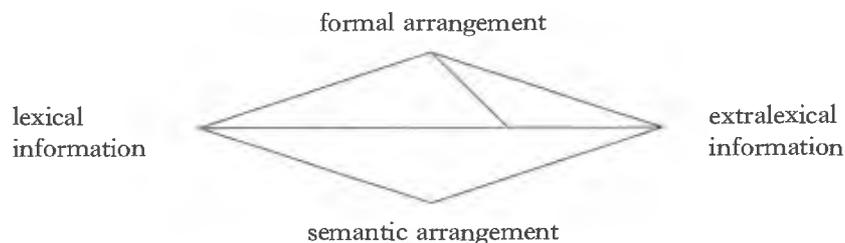
McArthur (1986b: 158) was the first to try diagrammatic representation of contrasting types of English dictionaries. He located four options of dictionaries on each corner of a 'reference rectangle'. Two points across the rectangle represent a contrary concept between two options. In the rectangle, there are two contrasting concepts, which have frequently been discussed in the history of English lexicography.



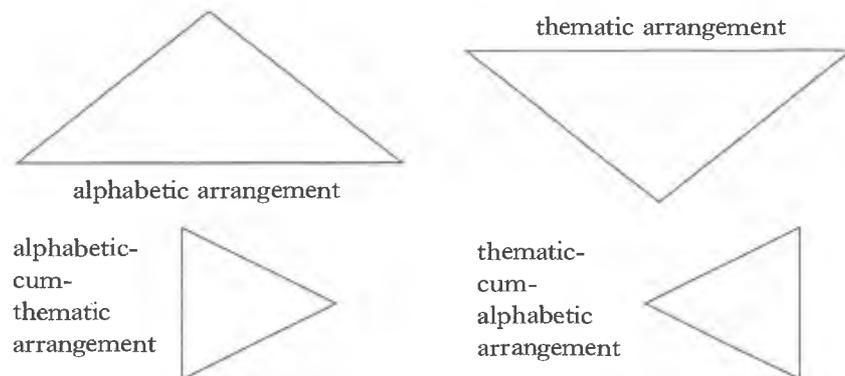
McArthur's original 'reference rectangle' may be very useful, but it is difficult to show some other features in his rectangle. It should be modified in two respects. One is the incorporation of other options or features in the diagram, and the other is the representation of the relative proportion of each feature. These two points are going to be fully considered in the next section.

3. Diagrammatic Representation of the Four Features of English Dictionaries

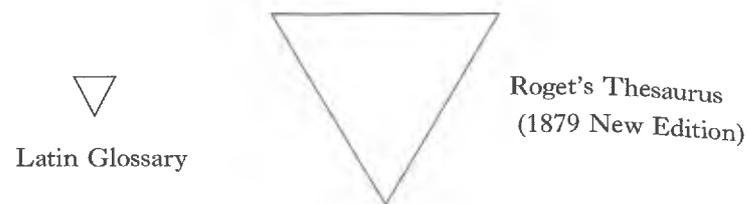
With a view to grasping a true picture of an English dictionary, I would like to propound diagrammatic representation incorporating the above four features into a triangle. The following is an alternative diagram, in which the four features and their comparative extent can be illustrated.



The first contrast between formal (alphabetic in English dictionaries) arrangement and semantic (or thematic) arrangement is exhibited by means of the upwardness and downwardness of a triangle.

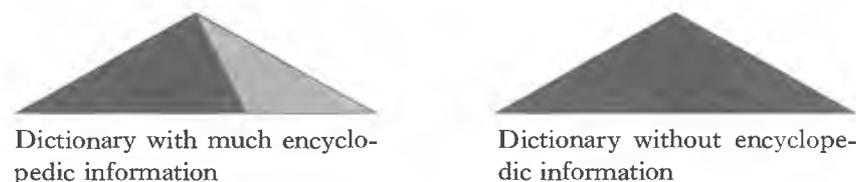


The upwardness of alphabetic arrangement suggests the primacy of alphabetisation over thematisation in the history of English dictionaries. Let us take two examples of thematic arrangement.



The left represents a Latin thematic glossary published in the 16th century, while the right represents an authoritative dictionary of English synonyms.

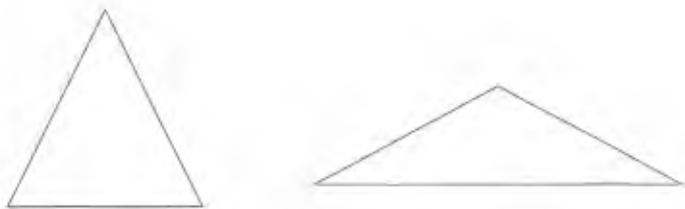
The choice must be made between thematic and alphabetic lexicography, while it is not a matter of choice between lexical and encyclopedic (extralexical) lexicography. Rather, it is a matter of degree, because most dictionaries contain both types of information. In order to represent the degree of 'encyclopedicity', it will be more adequate to use a diagram than any other means. It is quite easy to depict its degree in a triangle.



A dark grey area covers lexical information, and a light grey area covers encyclopedic information. The proportion of these two areas varies from dictionary to dictionary. The left diagram shows that about 60% of the dictionary is connected with lexical (interlinguistic) information and the remaining 40% encyclopedic (extralinguistic) information, which is sometimes included as the description in lexical entries and is sometimes contained in appendices inserted into the back part of a dictionary. The former is represented by an area separated by a broken line, and the latter by an area separated by a solid line.

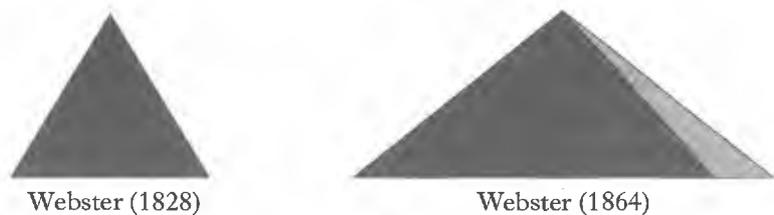
The most important feature of 'academicity' and 'practicality' has not

been shown in the above diagrams. This is also a matter of degree. And the proportion of 'academicity' and 'practicality' can be represented by the height/depth of a triangle.



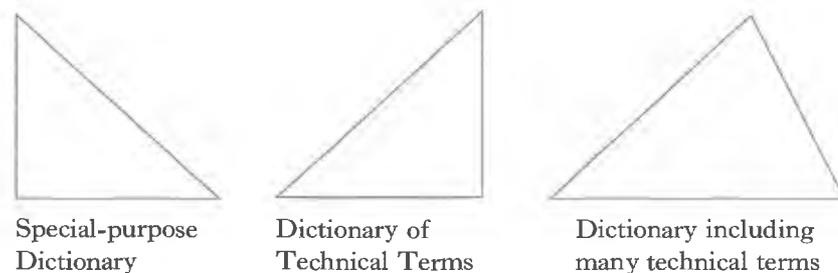
The left is a (formally arranged) academic dictionary with a high top, while the right is a (formally arranged) practical dictionary with a low top. The left represents, for example, Johnson's dictionary (1755) and the right Bailey's dictionary (1721), which were competing actively in the 18th century.

Webster's dictionaries published in 1828 and 1864 are almost identical in academicity, but differ in their total number of lexical items and the variety of addenda fixed to them. These points should also be shown in diagrams.



Webster (1864) occupies a larger area than Webster (1828). The larger dark grey area a triangle of a dictionary occupies, the greater number of entry words the dictionary contains. The addenda is represented by a light grey triangle in the right diagram.

It is also possible to make diagrams for specialised dictionaries, which are classified into two: specialised dictionaries such as those of etymology, synonyms, or idioms, and dictionaries of technical terms in various fields.

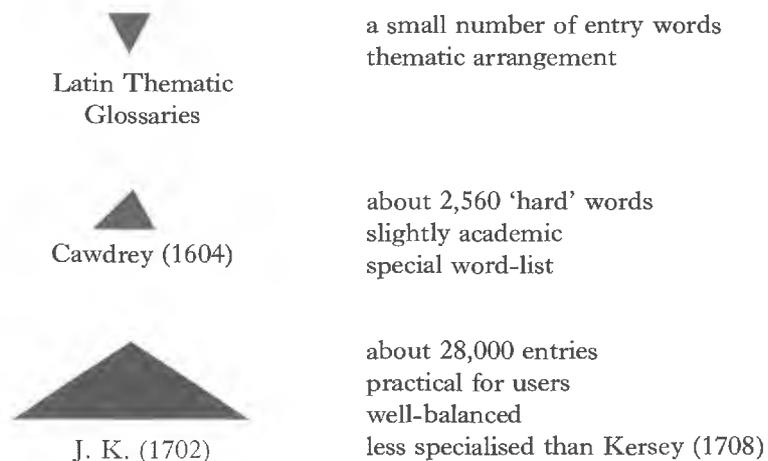


A special-purpose dictionary has a top swung to the left, while a dictionary of technical terms has a top swung to the right. Most specialised dictionaries are more academic than general-purpose dictionaries, which is represented by the height of a triangle. A general English dictionary is depicted as an isosceles triangle, but a dictionary including many technical terms has a triangle with a top slightly swung to the right.

4. Diagrammatic Representation of Typical English Dictionaries

Let us look at typical dictionaries in the history of English lexicography and exhibit a diagrammatic representation of them.

FEATURES OF A DICTIONARY





Kersey (1708)

much more academic than J. K.
(1702)
about 35,000 entries
slightly specialised in word-list



Bailey (1721)

concise
practical
encyclopedic information
including technical terms



Bailey (1730)

comprehensive
practical
encyclopedic information
including technical terms



Johnson (1755)

very academic
slightly lexically specialised
much lexical information
encyclopedic information in the
form of quotations
about 43,000 entry words



Richardson (1836-37)

very academic
quite specialised in the lexical de-
scription of entries
much lexical information



Webster (1806)

small
practical
6 kinds of addenda
about 28,000 entry words



Webster (1828)

rather academic
no appendix
about 70,000 entry words
well-balanced



Webster (1864)

comprehensive
various appendices
a large number of
entry words,
including many
technical terms
practical



rather academic
a specialised dictionary of English syn-
onyms
thematic arrangement

Roget (1879)

CITED DICTIONARIES

- Bailey, Nathan. 1721. *An Universal Etymological English Dictionary*. London: E. Bell et al.
- Bailey, Nathan. 1730. *Dictionarium Britannicum*. London: for T. Cox.
- Cawdrey, Robert. 1604. *A Table Alphabeticall*. London: for Edmund Weaver. (Reprint. New York: Scholar's Facsimiles & Reprints, 1976)
- Johnson, Samuel. 1755. *A Dictionary of the English Language*. 2 volumes. London: W. Strahan for J. and P. Knapton, T., et al. (Reprint. Tokyo: Yuhodo, 1983)
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- J. K. (Kersey, John) 1702. *A New English Dictionary*. London: H. Bonwicke. (Reprint. Robin C. Alston. Menston: Scolar Press, 1969)
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- Ogilvie, John. 1847-50. *The Imperial Dictionary, English, Technological, and Scientific*. 2 volumes. Glasgow: Blackie and Son.
- Richardson, Charles. 1836-37. *A New Dictionary of the English Language*. 2 volumes. London: William Pickering.
- Roget, Peter M. 1879. *Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*. New edition. Revised and enlarged by John Lewis Roget. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell.
- Webster, Noah. 1806. *Compendious Dictionary of the English Language*. New Haven: Increase Cooke.
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The Treatment of Vulgar Words in Major English Dictionaries (3)¹⁾

HIROAKI UCHIDA

4. Dictionaries in England

Before taking a look at a series of dictionaries published by Oxford University Press, we must see what the *OED* had done over the treatment of vulgar words. It is too well-known an episode that *OED*₁, completed in 1928, eschewed the strongest two of the Big Six, *fuck* and *cunt*. But these are not the only two that it should have included, considering the fully descriptive nature and purpose of this dictionary. Words we are dealing with here such as *ball*, *bullshit*, *cocksucker*, *crap*, *dick*, *faggot*, *jerk off*, *queer*, *screw*, *tit* and *twat* were all excluded from the original *OED*, never having seen the light of day until 1972 in the pages of the four-volume *Supplement of OED*. And so were the figurative definitions for *arse*, *bitch*, *piss* and *prick* omitted. It barely found a place, however, for the remaining four of the Big Six and a few others. In short, even the *OED* could not be so complete and fair about the treatment of vulgar words in the early 20th century, not being so much different from other dictionaries of the time. The Introduction to *OED*₃ mentions this briefly as one of its editorial policies:

... whereas in 1957, when we began our work, no general English-language dictionary contained the more notorious of the sexual words. 'nous avons changé tout cela,' and two ancient words once considered too gross and vulgar to be given countenance in the decent environment of a dictionary, now appear with full supporting evidence along with a wide range of colloquial and coarse expressions referring to sexual and excretory functions. (xv)

Of course we all know what the "two ancient words" are. And, needless to say, all of the terms are included with full definitions in the second edition

of *OED* that came out 56 years later in 1989.

The presence of this monumental *OED* had undoubtedly had a tremendous influence on all other dictionaries published later, especially on the two other popular ones from Oxford University Press, *OALD* and *COD*.

OALD was first published in Tokyo in 1942 for advanced learners of English as a foreign or second language under the title *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary*, reprinted as *A Learner's Dictionary of Current English* from Oxford University Press in 1948. From then on it has been revised and reprinted as one of the most popular and useful English dictionaries all over the world. Table 1 lists three editions of *OALD*; *OALD*₂ in 1963, *OALD*₃ in 1974, and *OALD*₄ in 1989, to see the most drastic part of the change made on the treatment of vulgar words. By looking at the table it is easy to trace its transition.

The prototype edition of *OALD*, published during the wartime in Tokyo, contains almost none of the words listed in Table 1, which gives us no reason to go further into details. *OALD*₂, revised in 1963, included many of the pre-excluded terms. Also for the first time some usage labels were set up as follows:

A small number of words in this Dictionary are marked 'taboo'. This is a warning that they should in no circumstances be used, even though they may be encountered in print. Other words and phrases are marked by the sign ↑, which is, to pedestrians and drivers of vehicles, a warning of danger and the need for caution. Any word or phrase marked by this sign should also be avoided. The sign is a warning that the word or phrase is either vulgar or in-correct. *Ain't* occurs in print, but its use is normally confined to dialect or to the illiterate and uneducated. (Stylistic Values: xi)

This "small number" of words, however, is confined to *bugger* only, as far as our words are concerned. Certainly *bugger* is a strong 'taboo' word in Britain, but then why not *piss* and *shit*, marked only with a ↑ and a note 'not in polite use'? Other words marked with a ↑ are *arse* and *snot*, and along with them one of the few listed racial slurs, *nigger*, which had been labeled as 'colloquial' in *OALD*₁. *Fart* and *turd* are just noted 'not in polite use', *bloody* marked as 'vulgar', and *queer* as 'modern use'. The reason for

this classification is a mystery.

*OALD*₃ made a new sign for taboo words; Δ. This has been used successively in the later editions. Taboo words in *OALD*₃ are defined as “words used when the speaker wishes to swear, or be indecent, or be offensive. They are all words that are likely to cause embarrassment or anger if they are used in the wrong situation. The learner of English is strongly advised to avoid using them” (xxvii). This is a very clear and instructive definition, and what is more, almost all of the terms listed in Table 1 and defined in this dictionary are marked Δ, with the exception of two words of profanity, *bloody* and *damn*. Even *bitch* and *whore* are taboo according to *OALD*₃, which are, in a way, actually and increasingly becoming taboo in the feminism society.

*OALD*₄ greatly increased its pages and entries, and simultaneously defined a number of new labels besides Δ indicating the evaluation of certain words as *derogatory*, *offensive*, *informal*, *euphemistic*, *jocular*, *sexist*, etc, which is also followed by *OALD*₅ with some amendments. The definitions of relative labels are cited below with the classification of the terms as Table 7.

In *OALD*₄, one figurative meaning of *fuck*, as ‘a sexual partner’, naturally when referred to a woman, was marked *sexist* for the first time, reflecting the non-sexist society. But then it should also have been adopted to *pussy* and *arse*, for they can be used in the same way. Moreover, the definition of *offensive* is not very clear; ‘words such as *arsehole* and *prick* . . . need not be used as terms of abuse’. Does this mean that *offensive* terms are the same as ‘terms of abuse’ or not? And how can only *cunt* be regarded *offensive* when *arsehole* and *prick*, and even *twat* that refers to the same thing in its literal meaning are not? Here again we cannot but doubt the definitional difference made between *offensive* and *derogatory*.

In *OALD*₅, though, as is obvious from Table 8 below, the definitions of labels are more simplified and the classification more organized. But still there are questions, like why the literal meaning of *balls* and *turd* are not marked with Δ, or, again, how *cunt* can be regarded *offensive* when others are not. Again, the difference between ‘*derog*’ and ‘*offensive*’ is vague, as in other dictionaries; some of the terms appear in both categories. And if the

(Δ) denotes words or senses likely to be thought offensive or shocking or indecent (though not necessarily by everyone or on every occasion), eg *wop*, *nigger*, *Christ!*; *fuck*, *prick*, *shit*, *piss*. Foreign learners should exercise great care in using these words. They should also note that words such as *wop* and *nigger* are generally used with the deliberate aim of giving offence . . .

(*derog*) ‘Derogatory’ words, etc imply that one disapproves of or scorns the person or thing referred to or described by those words, eg *puerile*, *skulk*, *swagger*.

(*offensive*) This label denotes words used to address or refer to people, usually with the deliberate intention of offending them, especially on account of their race or religion. Words such as *dago*, *wop*, *nigger* are almost always used offensively in this way; words such as *arsehole* and *prick* are often found shocking, but they need not be used as terms of abuse . . . (*OALD*₄: 1573–4)

(Δ)	fuck cunt cock ● shit piss fart bullshit arsehole jerk-off S.O.B. screw pussy twat dick ● prick crap turd ○ tit arse balls ○ bugger bloody
(<i>derog</i>)	cunt ○ shit ○ fart ○ twat ○ prick ○ bitch ● whore ●○ faggot ● queer ● bastard ○
(<i>offensive</i>)	cunt ●○
(<i>infml</i>)	twat ●○ dick ● balls ●○ bitch ○ faggot ● bugger ○ bloody ○ damn
(<i>sl</i>)	cock ○ turd ●
(<i>sexist</i>)	fuck ●

Table 7 Classification of the terms by usage labels in *OALD*₄.

two terms for homosexuals are regarded *offensive*, shouldn’t *bitch* and *whore* be, too? They can even be categorized under *sexist*, considering that one sense of *fuck*, as a woman as a sexual object, was in *OALD*₄. Or perhaps things would be much easier if *offensive* should be reserved for racial/religious slurs only. To summarize the whole thing, *OALD* makes too fine and complicated distinctions that are relatively hard to understand, compared to how they did it twenty years ago. As words and their meanings are being diversified little by little, a dictionary should follow them as precisely as possible in its own devices, and labeling their usage is surely one of them. But making classifications too fine can obscure the

- (△) Taboo words are likely to be thought obscene or shocking by many people and should be avoided by learners. Examples are *arse*, *bloody*, *shit*.
- (*derog*) Derogatory expressions show that the user feels disapproval or scorn, eg *brat*, *fuddy-duddy*, *pedantic*.
- (*offensive*) Such expressions are used to address or refer to people in a way that is very insulting, especially in connection with their race or religion, eg *nigger*, *wop*, *yid*. (*OALD*₅: inside front cover)

(△)	fuck cunt cock shit piss fart bullshit arsehole○ S.O.B. screw pussy twat dick prick crap turd○ tit arse balls○ bugger bloody
(<i>derog</i>)	cunt○ shit○ twat○ dick○ prick○ arse○ bitch● whore○ queer● bastard●○
(<i>offensive</i>)	cunt●○ faggot● queer●
(<i>infml</i>)	balls● bitch○ faggot●
(<i>sl</i>)	fart○ turd●
(<i>sexist</i>)	—

Table 8 Classification of the terms by the usage labels in *OALD*₅.

connections of each word, while making them too rough does not tell learners much, so the burden of labeling is always very tough.

COD was first published in 1911, preceding the completion of *OED*, and has gone through a number of revisions up to present as one of the most utilized general dictionaries all over the world. The newest edition is *COD*₉ in 1995, which means that it has continued to be a best-seller for more than eighty years. It has played the leading role of the Oxford dictionaries, if not all, and certainly must have a lot to tell in its eighty-year life. Again, the reason for listing the three *COD*s, *COD*₅ in 1964, *COD*₆ in 1976, and *COD*₇ in 1982, in Table 1 is to see the most drastic part of the change; not much had changed before the fifth edition, nor has after the seventh, as regards to vulgar words. This is seemingly commonplace and an ordinary course for a dictionary to take, but it also means an important fact that *COD*₁ treated vulgar words nearly in the same way as *COD*₅. That is to say, surprisingly enough, *COD*₁ does not exclude three of the Big Six,

shit, *piss* and *fart*, in spite of the time of its publication. Some of the other vulgar words like *arse* and *turd* are listed as well, all of which even the unabridged *Webster's New International Dictionary* (1909) felt too shy to record. The terms are noted 'indecent', 'not in decent use', 'not in polite language' etc., the definitions far from complete, but still it is sufficient to tell that the blame and expurgation against vulgar words then had been much weaker in England than in America as far as dictionaries were concerned. Even in the Preface to *COD*₁, a fairer attitude of the editors toward these words can be inferred, much different from Merriam-Webster's across the ocean:

In another class of words and senses the test of currency has led us to diverge in the opposite direction from the practice usual in dictionaries of this size; if we give fewer scientific and technical terms, we admit colloquial, facetious, slang, and vulgar expressions with freedom, merely attaching a cautionary level; when a well-established usage of this kind is omitted, it is not because we consider it beneath the dignity of lexicography to record it, but because, not being recorded in the dictionaries from which our word-list is necessarily compiled, it has escaped our notice; we have not, however, consulted slang dictionaries nor made any attempt at completeness in this respect. (v)

This Preface to the first edition appeared up to *COD*₅, which means the basic policy had not changed until in the 1960s. In *COD*₆, two clear usage labels, (*vulg.*) and (*derog.*), were set up for the first time, defined as "vulgar, used only by those who have no wish to be thought either polite or educated", and "derogatory, used only contemptuously". *COD*₇ made almost the same classification as this, with a few more terms added, shown in Table 9 below. The terms for homosexuals should have been classified as (*derog.*), but otherwise it is very clear, partly because of the absence of the words labeled *offensive* here.

In *COD*₈, however, they have revised the whole work, including the labeling of vulgar terms, and it has become much more complicated than before. Again, clear in Table 10, it is now difficult to tell how the line was drawn between the labels *derog.* and *offens.* as far as these terms were

(<i>vulg.</i>)	fuck ●○ cunt ● cock ●○ shit ●○ piss ● fart ●○ motherfucker ○ bullshit ○ arsehole ● S.O.B. ○ screw ● pussy ● twat ● dick ● prick ●○ crap ●○ turd ●○ tit ● arse ● ball ●○ bugger ○
(<i>derog.</i>)	cunt ○ twat ○ prick ○ bitch ●
(<i>colloq.</i>)	bastard ○ bitch ○
(<i>sl.</i>)	piss ○ jerk off ● faggot ● queer ●

Table 9 Classification of the terms by the usage labels in *COD*₇.

<i>coarse sl.</i>	fuck ●○ cunt ● cock ● shit ●○ piss ●○ fart ●○ bullshit ○ jerk off ● screw ● pussy ● twat ●○ dick ● prick ● crap ●○ turd ●○ tit ●○ arse ●○ ball ●○ bugger ○ bloody ○
<i>derog.</i>	prick ○ faggot ○ queer ● whore ○
<i>offens.</i>	cunt ● arsehole ● bitch ● faggot ●
<i>sl.</i>	cock ○ S.O.B. ○ bitch ○ bastard ○

Table 10 Classification of the terms by the usage labels in *COD*₈.

concerned; the explanations go as “*derogatory* denotes uses that are intentionally disparaging” and “*offensive* denotes uses that cause offense, whether intentionally or not” (Guide to the Use of the Dictionary: xxxii). The new label *coarse sl.* is not defined elsewhere, but as a matter of course it replaces *vulgar*. This label is not very accurate, since treating the Big Six and others with long-used history as *slang* is objectionable. *COD*₈ defines *slang* as “a use of the most informal kind, unsuited to written English and often restricted to a particular social group” (xxxii); the first two put aside, the third, the most generally mentioned condition, does not seem to apply to them.

LDCE was first published as a new type of dictionary by Longman in 1978, and is indeed the newest series listed in Table 1. Revised once in 1987, it now has the third edition out in 1995. From the first edition, it has positively adopted the labeling system which became popular among the U.S. dictionaries in the 1980s. *LDCE* classified the terms rather finely into

taboo (+ sl)	fuck ●○ cunt ●○ cock ● shit ●○ piss ●○ fart ● bullshit ○ jerk off ● son of a bitch ● screw ● pussy ●○ twat ○ dick ● prick ●○ crap ●○ turd ○ arse ●○ balls ●○ bugger ●○
derog	bitch ● queer ● (+ infml)
infml	faggot ● queer ● (+ derog)
slang	cock ○ tit ● bastard ○ bloody ○ (+ not polite) damn ○

Table 11 Classification of the terms by the usage labels in *LDCE*₁.

at least four categories; *taboo*, *derogatory*, *informal* and *slang*, as shown in Table 11 above. *Taboo* is explained, “Unpleasant words connected with sex or the bowels are marked taboo. These should be avoided in formal society, or when talking to strangers or children”; whereas for *derogatory*: “Some words show that the speaker dislikes the person or thing he is talking about. These are marked *derog* (= derogatory). They include rude words, to be avoided about race and nationality, of which the worst are also marked *taboo*” (Guide to the dictionary: xxiv). It was quite thoughtful of *LDCE* to put two contemptuous terms for women and homosexuals, *bitch* and *queer*, into the ‘*derog*’ category, but not quite so to treat the other two, *whore* and *faggot*, differently. *Whore* is even marked as ‘*old use and biblical*’, which is not its only usage, and if *bitch* is regarded as derogatory, calling a woman a *whore* should be as well.

In *LDCE*₂, some modifications were made with some of the new terms and meanings added. The definitions for labels themselves changed to simpler forms. ‘*Derog*’ became a label “showing attitude”, which refers to a word that “shows that the speaker dislikes or disapproves of something”, while ‘*taboo*’ showed “other limitations on use”, referring to “a very offensive word which should always be avoided” (F46). *Asshole*, not present in *LDCE*₁, is naturally marked ‘*taboo slang*’, and *whore* ‘*esp. old use or derog*’, whereas *faggot* changed to ‘*derog sl*’. For a number of terms, their figurative or literal meanings were newly added. Figurative usage for *fart*, *screw*, *dick* and *prick* are labeled, respectively, ‘*sl*’, ‘*taboo sl*’, ‘*derog sl*’ and ‘*taboo derog sl*’. The literal meaning of *twat*, which was oddly absent in *LDCE*₁, is marked ‘*taboo sl + old-fash*’.

<i>taboo</i>	fuck ●○ cunt ●○ cock ● shit ●○ fart ● motherfucker ○ cocksucker ○ jerk off ● screw ●○ pussy ● twat ●○ prick ●○ turd ○ balls ○ whore ○ bugger ●○
<i>informal</i>	piss ● bullshit ○ pussy ○ turd ● tit ● bitch ●○ faggot ○ queer ●
<i>slang or spoken</i>	fart ○ arsehole ○ S.O.B. ○ dick ●○ crap ●○ tit ○ arse ●○ faggot ● bastard ○ bloody ○

Table 12 Classification of the terms by the usage labels in *LDCE*₃.

In *LDCE*₃, the labeling has become far simpler. Now there are only *taboo*, *slang*, and *informal*, no longer *derog*. Its explanation simply goes as “*Slang or taboo*, but especially *taboo*, show that you should be careful about using a word, even in an informal situation” (Guide to the Dictionary: xx). What was formerly ‘*derog*’ like *bitch* and *queer* is explained in words in its definition as ‘an insulting word for a woman that you dislike or think is unpleasant’ or ‘a word meaning HOMOSEXUAL, considered offensive when used by people who are not homosexual’. The compounds that were excluded in the former editions, *motherfucker* and *cocksucker* are labeled *taboo*, which might have also been proper to be labeled *derog* in the former method, and *bullshit* is just labeled *informal*, not even *taboo* anymore. Looking at other words labeled *taboo* in Table 12, there is enough ground to claim that *LDCE*₃ considers taboo words to be fewer in number in the 1990s than in the past. However, what is more noteworthy in *LDCE*₃ is the order of its definitions listed. Now many dictionaries adopt the method of listing the most used and popular meaning of a word as its first definition. Here in *LDCE*₃ an important change can be seen in the list of definitions for the four terms, *fuck*, *cunt*, *shit* and *arsehole*. They are most popular for their usage as expletives and epithets derived from their original literal meanings. But now in *LDCE*₃ this figurative meaning precedes the literal; that is, for example, *fuck* is defined as ‘*Fuck off!* an offensive way of telling someone to go away’ in the first place, preceding the literal definition ‘to have sex with someone’. This is another factor to support the *disvulgarization* of taboo words from the lexicographical point of view, and with other dictionaries following suit in future editions, it can

further be confirmed.²⁾

Lastly, *PED* is the smallest and the least popular dictionary listed in Table 1. Even Kister (1977) fails to review it in his book, and that it has not been reprinted so many times tells of its poor demand. It was first published by Penguin Books in 1965, and up to the second edition (1969) had it kept fairly good sales, but that didn’t seem to last in the 1970s. However, the reason for listing *PED* here is that this dictionary is essential in the history of lexicography as far as vulgar words are concerned. Namely, *PED* is the first dictionary in about 200 years since the time of Ash and Bailey to bring back all the four-letter words into print.³⁾ As is clear from Table 1, most of the terms are listed save a few omissions, mainly compounds, and defined precisely, if not completely. Moreover, this was far from the result of chance or ignorance of the trend, for the editors’ positive attitude toward the treatment of these terms are clearly shown in its Preface:

As regards colloquialisms and slang, the aim has been to be as inclusive as possible. Such words form so important a part of current spoken English and of contemporary fiction that they must be represented as fully as possible in any dictionary that aims at recording the vocabulary of modern English. . . . The marking of a word as (*vulg*) is a warning that it is considered highly offensive by most social groups.
(v)

Penguin has always been affirmative about taboo words, publishing a series of slang dictionaries. And also we should not forget the fact that they are the original publisher of the unexpurgated version of the controversial *Lady Chatterley’s Lover* by D.H. Lawrence.⁴⁾ In any case, *PED* was the first and the most innovative dictionary to treat vulgar words justly, and it might even have been difficult for *AHD*₁ to list all the Big Six without *PED* having previously been published.

5. The Conclusion and Prospects for the Future

From the observations above, let us summarize the relationship of vulgar words and dictionaries as the following:

- 1) Some particular words and expressions, namely the ones listed in Table 1 and a few others, were once considered too vulgar to be defined or even treated in dictionaries of general use, completely neglected in the 19th to mid-20th century lexicography, save a few privately printed slang dictionaries.
- 2) After the World War II, more precisely in the 1950s and 1960s, there were conflicts in lexicography whether to treat vulgar words as proper lexica, and some of the dictionaries gradually began to include these words in accordance with their social acceptance, while others kept their conservative policy.
- 3) From 1970 onward, none of the unabridged dictionaries felt too shy to list and define vulgar words in their pages, and even most of the abridged and collegiate dictionaries followed suit, leaving the ones that did not as exceptions.
- 4) The terms most regarded as vulgar in dictionaries are the ones that refer directly to sex and excretion in their literal sense. They include the Big Six four-letter words, popular slangs of sex acts such as *screw*, *bugger* and *jerk off*, sexual organs and other inexposable bodily parts like *pussy*, *dick* and *asshole*, excretory *crap* and *turd*, etc. Probably the two compound words *motherfucker* and *cocksucker* are considered the most vulgar at present, for they are still excluded in some dictionaries.
- 5) The terms of contempt for women/homosexuals, e.g. *bitch*, *faggot*, are indirectly related to sex, but instead of being regarded as vulgar, they are considered as derogatory epithets, and even as offensive slurs for particular groups that can be the object of discrimination, and they are and should be treated in the same way as racial and religious slurs in many dictionaries.
- 6) The terms of profanity such as *damn*, *hell* and *bloody* are no longer regarded as vulgar or even taboo in the 20th century dictionaries, and should be treated separately from other taboo words.
- 7) Most present-day dictionaries are adopting the labeling system in which the words in question are classified into several categories according to their usage and how they are socially evaluated. The terms of our concern are most likely labeled as *taboo*, *vulgar*, *obscene*, *coarse slang*, etc. Some explain the usage of terms in the form of usage notes, varying from the simple 'sometimes considered vulgar' in *WNCD*₁₀ to the 30-line explanation of *fuck* in *AHD*₃.⁵⁾
- 8) Many of the figurative meanings of the terms that are considered

- vulgar in their literal sense are increasingly being defined as mere slang, without any *vulgar* or *obscene* labels attached. Some of them, especially as terms of abuse or epithets, are often labeled *derogatory* and/or *offensive*. These two labels are used in many dictionaries, but most of them do not make any clear distinctions between the two in using them. What is regarded *derogatory* can be *offensive* at the same time, and vice versa; there does not seem to be much significance in drawing the line between them. Otherwise, in light of most of the racial and religious slurs being labeled *offensive*, all that evoke sexual prejudice and discrimination, such terms with usage that refers to women as a sexual object as *fuck*, *cunt*, *ass* and *lay*, should be as well. On the other hand, the terms with mere epithet usage without any sexual connotation such as *shit*, *prick* and *asshole* can be labeled *derogatory*. But some terms can certainly be used in both ways, and it is indeed difficult to draw a straight line between the two.
- 9) As for the labeling system, some dictionaries, such as *LDCE*₃, are moving toward a more simplified direction in which the categories of labels are fewer in number, while others, such as *OALD*₅, are moving toward the other direction in which many new categories are added, making classifications finer and more complicated. Making finer distinctions are compatible with the growing diversification of the word usage, but it should not be forgotten that many of the usage can be interpreted in several ways, making it difficult for a dictionary to follow every diversified usage of a term via labeling. On the other hand, too much generalization can lead to unkindness to the readers, so we must settle somewhere in between.
 - 10) What is considered taboo or vulgar can change in the course of time, to the extent that it is not considered taboo or vulgar any longer, as we can see in what happened to all the profanity terms. So a day might come when some of the most formerly-considered-vulgar terms such as *fuck* and *shit* are defined with no *taboo* or *vulgar* labels attached, because a dictionary follows the social trend, and the present social trend does not necessarily regard these terms as vulgar anymore. On the other hand, many words that can be racially, religiously, socially or sexually discriminative are increasingly becoming taboo, giving such terms the chance to be labeled so in the future dictionaries.
 - 11) In some of the latest dictionaries such as *LDCE*₃, the order of defi-

nitions for a number of vulgar terms has changed in a very suggestive way; the figurative meanings have come to precede the literal ones to be the first definition. This can be one of the convincing points for supporting the theory of *disvulgarization* of the terms. When a vulgar term is used figuratively, it loses the original vulgar impact it had in its literal sense. And if the figurative definition of a vulgar term precedes the literal in a dictionary, it means the term is more likely to be used in a figurative rather than literal way, since the definitions should be ordered according to the frequency of use. Thus the *disvulgarization* of vulgar terms is already reflected in some dictionaries, and we can further be convinced of it with others following suit.

Following these points, further and more detailed studies should be made. Béjoint points out that there has been "no book-length study of English-language dictionaries from that angle" (Béjoint 1994: 126) so far, with the exception of a few like Wilson (1987). I hope that this work will trigger further studies by others successively, which does not mean that I am out of it for good.

NOTES

1) This paper is the final 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) I have made up the word *disvulgarization* to refer to the process of vulgar words losing their taboo impact, which is verified throughout my MA thesis and successive studies. See Uchida (1997) for its observation from another aspect.

3) Here of course we are not taking into account a number of dictionaries of slang and unconventional English published either publicly or privately. For a brief and comprehensive chronological history of vulgar words studied in the English society, see McArthur (1996).

4) See details in Uchida (1997).

5) For want of space, it is a shame I cannot quote this whole explanatory note attached to the definition of *fuck* in *AHD*.

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Appendices

	A C D	A H D	A H D 2	A C H D 3	R H D 2	R H 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 D 2	O A L L D 3	O A L L D 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.

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編集後記 昨年の忘年会の挨拶でもお知らせしたが、英国の Routledge 社刊行の *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998) の見出し語として岩崎研究会の機関誌 *Lexicon* が載り、*Lexicon* “The title of the journal of the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle (Tokyo), published in 1972.” と紹介された。*Lexicon* が完全に国際的な学術誌として認められたのである。これはひとえに執筆者を始めとして、会員諸氏の尽力の賜物であるが、同時に25号(1995)から掲載論文を全て英文として国際化を計った成果でもある。また30年にわたり *Lexicon* の発行の経済的基盤を支えてきた『ユニオン英和』、『ライトハウス英和・和英』、『カレッジ・ライトハウス英和・和英』の執筆者の方々の汗の結晶とも言えよう。これを機会に我々は掲載論文の一層の質的向上を計りたい。従来は一部に論旨が必ずしも明確でなかったり、単に項目を列挙しただけのものも見受けられたが、今後はそのようなことのないよう、更に厳密な審査を委員の方々に望むとともに、今後とも特に若手の会員諸氏の意欲的な投稿を切に希望する。

(S. T.)