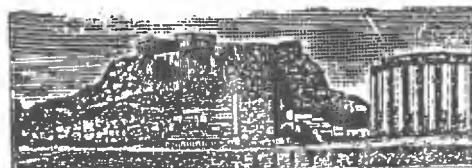
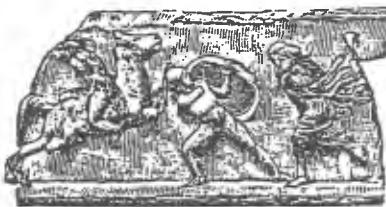


Appendix B: Illustrations of *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, and *Standard*

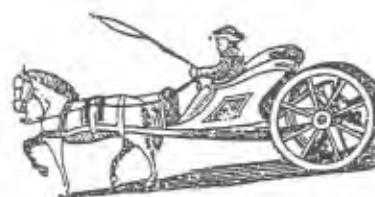
[Abbess (一例).]

Fig. 1: *MoEJ*

[Acronolis あてね／＼.]

Fig. 2: *MoEJ*

[Amazons (一例).]

Fig. 3: *MoEJ*

[Gig (一例).]

Fig. 4: *MoEJ*

[Gila monster.]

Fig. 5: *MoEJ*

An English Gig of 1754.

Fig. 7: *Standard*Fig. 6: *SEJ*The Gila Monster (*Heloderma suspectum*). 1/15Fig. 8: *Standard*An Analysis of *The New Oxford Dictionary of English*KAORU AKASU  
HIROKO SAITO  
KAZUYUKI URATAKYOHEI NAKAMOTO  
YUKIYOSHI ASADA  
KOICHI OMIYA

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## 1. Introduction

It is widely held that 1995 was a very special year for both anyone interested in (EFL or ESL) dictionaries and for such specialists as lexicographers and applied linguists as well.<sup>1)</sup> So, too, was the year 1998, when there debuted three major English dictionaries, namely, *the New Oxford Dictionary of English* (*NODE*, hereafter), the fourth edition of *Collins English Dictionary* (*CED*), and the new edition of the *Chambers Dictionary* (*CD*). These are general-purpose dictionaries for native speakers of English, whereas the four major dictionaries that caught attention in 1995 were learners' dictionaries for non-native speakers of English. On the face of it, these two types of dictionaries are unrelated, with different objectives and distinct target audiences. Whether or not that is the case, as far as *NODE* is concerned, will be part of the research questions to be asked

later in this analysis.

*NODE* lists Judy Pearsall as Editor and Patrick Hanks as Chief Editor, which, naturally, sets one to wondering what they share and what they do not in the making of *NODE*. Mr. Hanks was kind enough to supply the following information, which makes a fairly long quotation but might be of considerable interest in deciphering this connection:<sup>2)</sup>

As Chief Editor, Current English Dictionaries, I outlined the general lexicographical objectives at the outset (e.g. definitions that focus on TYPIFICATION rather than trying to state NECESSARY CONDITIONS; the relationship between word meaning and word use; examples chosen to illustrate natural and typical usage; the use of corpus evidence; the inclusion of grammatical information; the emphasis on current English; the description of certain obsolete senses in the "word histories" rather than as part of the meaning; the emphasis on breadth of technical coverage; and the inclusion of proper names). The chief editor was also responsible for quality control throughout the project, reading and giving feedback on the text as it was compiled, and contributing definitions in certain specialist areas, for example linguistics and languages. As Chief Editor of Current English Dictionaries I was responsible for many other titles besides *NODE* throughout the period of its planning and compilation.

Ms Pearsall was appointed as managing editor of *NODE* in 1995, in the second year of the project. She was responsible for managing the team of lexicographers and for all aspects of the execution of the plan. She and I compiled some features jointly, such as the INTRODUCTION and the USAGE NOTES.

What follows is an analysis of *NODE*'s displayed features: headwords, pronunciation, definition, illustrative examples, grammatical information, and etymology, and we will endeavor to make a critical, constructive, and as well as comprehensive evaluation of the dictionary.

## 2. Lemmata

### 2.1. Databases

Computers are more and more used in the preparation of dictionaries (cf. Knowles 1990). Machine-readable corpora of spoken as well as written English are almost indispensable for the present-day lexicographer. *NODE*

is a corpus-assisted dictionary, and so are two other new (editions of the older) dictionaries published in the same year, *CED*<sup>4</sup> and *CD*. Below is a list of the databases on which these three dictionaries are based:

- NODE*: the British National Corpus (= BNC, 100 million words); 'the citation database of the Oxford Reading Programme' (40 million words); 'a specially commissioned reading programme . . . targeted previously neglected specialist fields'.
- CED*<sup>4</sup>: the Bank of English (323 million words)
- CD*: BNC (100 million words); 'Chambers wordtrack'

Emphasising the importance of linguistic 'evidence', both *NODE* and *CED*<sup>4</sup> explain main features of their corpora in the front-matter articles (*NODE*: vii, *CED*<sup>4</sup>: ix). However, *CD*, which shares the same corpus with *NODE*, does not mention anything about either BNC or 'Chambers wordtrack' in its *Preface* (*CD*: ix) but only gives a very brief description about them on the front flap of the dust jacket. This may create an impression that *CD* is less dependent on its corpora than the competitors.

### 2.2. Size

Next, *NODE* is statistically compared with its closest rivals (*CED*<sup>4</sup> and *CD*), its predecessor (*OERD*<sup>1</sup>), and *COD*<sup>10</sup> which is now an abridged edition of *NODE*<sup>10</sup>:

- NODE*: '350,000 words, phrases, and definitions'
- CED*<sup>4</sup>: '180,000 references; 196,000 numbered definitions'
- CD*: 'Over 215,000 references; Over 300,000 definitions'
- OERD*<sup>1</sup>: 'Over 200,000 definitions; 115,000 spellings'
- COD*<sup>10</sup>: '240,000 words, phrases, and definitions'

At first glance *NODE* seems to be the biggest dictionary of all, but such a hasty conclusion is obviously unfair. A simple comparison of these sheer figures is more misleading than informative. It is never clear, for instance, how many words and phrases (but not definitions) *NODE* contains, nor is what 'references' refers to in *CED*<sup>4</sup> and *CD*. The above list does show that *NODE* is bigger than *COD*<sup>10</sup>, if these figures are all correct, but there is nothing certain about other comparisons.

Instead, the list proves that the five British dictionaries all employ the American system of entry counting, which does not simply count the total number of headwords but includes every word or phrase appearing in boldface type as an entry (Landau 1984: 84). This is probably because of the presumption that the more entries one can claim, the better (*ibid.*).

A quick comparison of words and compounds included on the five randomly selected pages of *NODE*<sup>2)</sup> with those in the corresponding sections of *CED<sup>4</sup>* and *CD* reveals that *NODE* is the smallest:

#### *NODE v. CED<sup>4</sup>*

Words/compounds included in *NODE*, but not in *CED<sup>4</sup>* ..... 41

Words/compounds included in *CED<sup>4</sup>*, but not in *NODE* ..... 98

#### *NODE v. CD*

Words/compounds included in *NODE*, but not in *CD* ..... 63

Words/compounds included in *CD*, but not in *NODE* ..... 100

Supplementary comparisons of words with the prefix *electro-* or *hydro-* and of compounds beginning with *home*, *life* or *side* show slightly different results:

<i>NODE v. CED<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>electro-</i>	<i>hydro-</i>	<i>home</i>	<i>life</i>	<i>side</i>
<i>NODE yes, CED<sup>4</sup> no:</i>	25	12	15	12	31
<i>NODE no, CED<sup>4</sup> yes:</i>	69	48	9	4	8

<i>NODE v. CD</i>	<i>electro-</i>	<i>hydro-</i>	<i>home</i>	<i>life</i>	<i>side</i>
<i>NODE yes, CD no:</i>	31	21	12	12	23
<i>NODE no, CD yes:</i>	53	54	20	18	13

### 2.3. Coverage

Results of the examinations in the preceding section are summarized as follows:

- Both *NODE* and *CED<sup>4</sup>* include proper names (see 2.4). Our survey shows that *CED<sup>4</sup>* has slightly more encyclopedic entries than *NODE*. *CD* is not an encyclopedic dictionary, but it occasionally includes proper names, especially place names (see note 4 in 2.4);
- *CED<sup>4</sup>* and *CD* tend to include more lexical items than *NODE*, although compounds, whether semantically opaque (e.g. *life office*, *side chair*) or transparent (e.g. *potato pancake*, *potato salad*), are well covered by *NODE*;<sup>3)</sup>

- Scientific and technical terms are rather poorly covered by *NODE* compared with the other two (see 2.5);
- *CD* is eager to include more derivatives, which are usually undefined and grouped together within a single entry. A typical example is an entry for **amatory**, where *CD* includes four undefined derivatives (*amatorial*, *amatorially*, *amatorian*, *amatorious*), *CED<sup>4</sup>* includes one (*amatorial*) as an alternative form of the headword, and *NODE* includes *amatory* only;
- *CD*, which is 'the official reference source for the board-game Scrabble' (*CD*: ix), is 'famous for explaining words of the past in addition to words of the present' (*ibid.*), and thus has the language of Shakespeare (e.g. *potato finger*, *venewe*), Spenser (e.g. *amate<sup>1</sup>*, *vengeable*) and Thackeray (e.g. *potentiary*), none of which are included in either *NODE* or *CED<sup>4</sup>*;
- Also, *CD* tends to keep obsolete or rare terms (e.g. *galage*, *potatory*). The Scottish dictionary includes more Scottish words such as *galdragon* ('an obsolete Shetland word for a sorceress or witch'). *Potatory* is in *CED<sup>4</sup>* but not in *NODE*, and the others are all omitted by both;
- None of the three dictionaries seems superior to its competitors in the coverage of neologisms.

All in all, both *CED<sup>4</sup>* and *CD* tend to include more words, while *NODE* is more selective about what to include and probably more courageous when deciding what to exclude.

Filling a dictionary with novel words is much easier than pruning it of obsolescent ones (Landau 1984: 162). This is, or was, partly because traditional citation files often fail to tell when a given word has become obsolete. As Landau (1984: 162) points out, even if a particular lexical item is not collected in a citation file, it does not prove that the item does not exist. Drawing negative conclusions from a traditional citation file is always difficult (*ibid.*; see also Zgusta 1971: 46).

However, traditional citation files are being superseded, or complemented, by machine-readable corpora (see 2.1). A well-compiled corpus is a useful tool for not only picking up neologisms but also finding rare words, which should appear in the corpus only very infrequently. The comparison of the front-matter articles of the three dictionaries has created an impression that *NODE* and *CED<sup>4</sup>* are more dependent upon their corpora than *CD*.

(see 2.1). Then it is not surprising at all if *NODE* gives a more selective vocabulary list (than *CD* at least) by omitting rare words.

If *CD* is particularly targeted on those who are interested in word games including Scrabble, it should cover as many words (and spellings) as possible, regardless of the status of each lexical item. In such a dictionary concise definitions and brief encyclopedic explanations will suffice. Obviously, *NODE* has not followed this lexicographic policy.

It seems that *NODE* places more emphasis on the amount of information at microstructure level, while the other two at macrostructure level. *NODE* often gives more detailed information than *CED*<sup>4</sup> and *CD* whether linguistic (e.g. a very long usage note at **alternative**) or encyclopedic (see 2.4).

#### 2.4. Encyclopedic entries

The first edition of *CED* (1979) ‘achieved commercial success in Britain for the native-speaker encyclopaedic dictionary’ (Ilson 1990: 1969). The commercial success of *CED*’s adoption of the American approach to lexicography has encouraged Oxford lexicographers to shift from the traditional ‘linguistic’ dictionary to a more encyclopedic one, or more precisely, to separate their dictionaries into linguistic dictionaries (e.g. *COD*) and encyclopedic (e.g. *OEED*). *NODE*, like its predecessors, *OEED* and *OERD*<sup>1</sup>, is an encyclopedic dictionary with ample number of proper names (cf. *NODE*: xi).<sup>4</sup>

Proper names ‘are part of the language, and their formal features, such as spelling, pronunciation, inflexion, and so on, should certainly be shown in a dictionary’ (Svensén 1993: 51). This is a practical but less powerful reason for the inclusion of encyclopedic material into a dictionary. Encyclopedic entries in *NODE* ‘are designed to provide not just the basic facts (such as birth and death dates, full name, and nationality), but also a brief context giving information about, for example, a person’s life and why he or she is important’ (*NODE*: xi). Thus, the reader is informed that Tony Blair is the youngest Prime Minister in Britain since 1812, and that Noam Chomsky is a theoretical linguist who opposed American involvement in the Vietnam War and the Gulf War. Giving main-entry status to these

two people, *CED*<sup>4</sup> fails to provide such purely encyclopedic extra information. Including proper names in a dictionary is one thing; deciding what kind of information is given in their entries is another.

Besides, an explanation of a common word, say *rice*, may be extended beyond its linguistic meaning to an encyclopedic article. *NODE* gives 46-word ‘additional boxed information’ at **rice**. Encyclopedic entries are not the sole source that gives an encyclopedic flavour to a dictionary; in fact ‘there are elements of encyclopedic character in almost all dictionaries’ (Zgusta 1971: 199; cf. Landau 1984: 6).

In passing, selected trademarks (e.g. *Xerox*) are usually included in not only encyclopedic dictionaries (*NODE*, *CED*<sup>4</sup>, *OERD*<sup>1</sup>) but even ‘linguistic’ ones (*CD* and *COD*<sup>10</sup>). Proprietary names that have derivatives (e.g. *John xeroxed three copies of the report*) are more likely to be treated in a dictionary (cf. Svensén 1993: 52).<sup>5</sup>

#### 2.5. Specialist vocabulary

Any general dictionary certainly covers frequently used everyday words such as *the*, *do*, etc. Included among them are originally scientific or technical terms like *cat*, *rose*, *television*, etc. Scientific and technical words proper ‘tend to be far from the top in frequency lists based on corpora of ordinary language’ (Béjoint 1988: 356) and therefore ‘appear in general dictionaries . . . only after the nomenclature has reached a certain dimension’ (ibid.; cf. Svensén 1993: 49). Then the larger general dictionaries tend to become ‘a collection of subject-field dictionaries merged with a general dictionary’ (Landau 1984: 21).<sup>6</sup>

*NODE* is no exception. It states that ‘[o]ne of the most important uses [roles?] of a dictionary is to provide explanations of terms in specialized fields which are unfamiliar to a general reader’ (*NODE*: x) and contains ‘52,000 scientific and technical words and senses’ (dust jacket), which is approximately 15% of the whole text (cf. 2.2). Like *CED*<sup>4</sup>, but unlike *CD*, it used named specialist consultants, a similar practice adopted by American college dictionaries.

Lexicographers must consider two things: the selection of the domains to be represented and the extent of the representation of each. Béjoint

(1988: 361) concludes in a rather pessimistic tone that 'lexicographers can only rely on tradition and on their own intuition'. If this is true, lexicographers should stop to ask themselves what is the *raison d'être* of scientific and technical terms in a general dictionary.

A dictionary user as a crossword puzzle solver may need a dictionary that covers a wide range of domains and contains as many terms as possible belonging to each domain. If a user is particularly interested in natural history, however, s/he may want a dictionary that gives comprehensive information about flora and fauna.

The approach that *NODE* employed is twofold: its 'specially commissioned reading programme has targeted previously neglected specialist fields as diverse as computing, complementary medicine, antique collecting, and winter sports' (*NODE*: vii). Besides, '[o]ther research includes a detailed and comprehensive survey of plants and animals throughout the world' (*ibid.*).

Our survey has revealed that *NODE* tends to include fewer scientific and technical words than *CED<sup>4</sup>* and *CD* (see 2.2 and 2.3), although this does not imply that *NODE* has neglected specialist vocabulary altogether. It has not been proved, either, that *NODE* is far superior to its competitors in the coverage of names of animals and plants.

As in the case of proper names (see 2.4), it is more important to consider what kind of information is given how much in the entries for specialist vocabulary.

## 2.6. World English

The three new dictionaries all highlight the coverage of other varieties of English than British English (*NODE*: xvi, *CED<sup>4</sup>*: ix, *CD*: ix). It is particularly noteworthy that *NODE* openly states that its 'underlying approach has been to get away from the traditional, parochial notion that "correct" English is spoken only in England and more particularly only in Oxford and London' (*ibid.*).

However, *NODE* does not seem to significantly surpass the other two dictionaries in this respect. Out of the two words (*bakkie* and *larrikin*) and one British sense of *ale* ('any beer other than lager, stout, or porter') cited

in the front-matter article to illustrate *NODE*'s good coverage of world English (*ibid.*), *larrikin* is included in *CD* and all three are covered by *CED<sup>4</sup>*.<sup>7)</sup> Our survey has not proved, either, that *NODE* is an exceptionally international dictionary compared to its rivals, especially *CED<sup>4</sup>*. The 'radical' approach of *NODE* would rather be contrasted with older Oxford dictionaries, a notable example being the first edition of *OED*, of course (cf. Landau 1984: 71–72).

## 2.7. Macrostructure

Ilson (1990: 1973) lists four criteria for classifying the macrostructure of a dictionary: (1) single (i.e. one A-Z list) or multiple; (2) open-plan (e.g. with noun compounds as main entries) or nested (e.g. with noun compounds as sub-entries); (3) phrasal verbs: main entries, sub-entries, or run-outs; and (4) homographing by part of speech (e.g. *cap<sup>1</sup> n, cap<sup>2</sup> v*). The following table shows the results of a comparison of our three dictionaries:<sup>8)</sup>

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>NODE</i>	single	open <sup>9)</sup>	sub	no
<i>CED<sup>4</sup></i>	single	open	main	no
<i>CD</i>	multiple	nested	run-out	no

*NODE* has a similar macrostructure to *CED<sup>4</sup>*, and as far as the treatment of phrasal verbs is concerned, it is the closest to recent British-made English learners' dictionaries (e.g. *OALD<sup>5</sup>*). As phrasal verbs are given main-entry status in *CED<sup>4</sup>*, a user must know before looking up *get up*, for instance, that it is a lexical unit, which comes after *get together* in *NODE* and *CD* but after *Gettysburg Address* in *CED<sup>4</sup>*. *CD* 'avoids dispersing the vocabulary and keeps together words that belong together, emphasizing links in language' (*CD*: ix). This is a well-established approach and certainly has some advantages. However, a user should be careful enough not to miss *laryngal*, *laryngectomy*, *laryngismus*, for instance, all found under the main entry *larynx*.

## 2.8. Syllabification

None of the three dictionaries display orthographic syllabification, ‘a standard feature of American monolingual dictionaries’ (Ilson 1990: 1973; see also Ilson 1986: 57). The first edition of *CED* (1979) showed syllabification with dots (·) and the plus sign (+) (cf. Sakurai et al. 1981: 97–98). The then revolutionary system was not employed by its later editions. Neither *NODE* nor *CD* showed interest in such an elaborate lexicographic practice. In this respect, the three general-purpose dictionaries for native users are different from American college dictionaries.

The information about syllabification is useful to writers and typists. It is one of the important features of the ‘active’ dictionary. However, a general-purpose dictionary such as *NODE* is usually used as a ‘passive’ dictionary. Then, is syllabification a useless piece of information in a monolingual native-speaker dictionary? Not necessarily. A classic research revealed that spelling was most frequently looked up, apart from meaning (Barnhart 1962). It seems highly probable that the user will look up syllabification as well as spelling.

The reason why current British general-purpose dictionaries are reluctant to display orthographic syllabification is probably partly because splitting a word at the end of a line tends to be avoided nowadays, and partly because printing headwords without either dots, the plus sign, or whatever looks more beautiful and easier to look up (and perhaps cheaper).<sup>10)</sup>

(K. Nakamoto)

## 3. Pronunciation

### 3.1. Transcription symbols used in *NODE*

**3.1.1.** It is written in the Introduction (p. xvii) that “*NODE* uses the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) to represent the standard accent of English as spoken in the south of England (sometimes called Received Pronunciation or RP).” Twenty years ago, it was very rare for dictionaries targeted at native speakers to employ the IPA: diacritics and respelling were used in such dictionaries to show how the words were to be pronounced. However, in the 80’s, Oxford dictionaries one after another changed their transcription systems from diacritics and respelling to that

of using the IPA: *POD*<sup>7</sup> in 1984, *OED*<sup>2</sup> in 1989, and *COD*<sup>8</sup> in 1990. A.C.Gimson, who was President of the International Phonetic Association at the time and who had been undertaking the task of revising Daniel Jones’ *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, was Special Consultant for pronunciation for the first edition of *CED* (1979), one of the first dictionaries for native speakers of English to switch to the IPA. EFL dictionaries were much quicker than this to employ the IPA though, and Hornby’s *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary*, first published in Japan and reprinted six years later by OUP, employed the IPA in 1942. Nowadays, IPA symbols are widely used in dictionaries published in Britain, whether the targeted users are accustomed to using such a transcription system or not.

The consonant and vowel symbols and what sounds they stand for are shown at the bottom of every page throughout *NODE* for users who may not be familiar with the IPA. Again, the supposition that native speakers of English may not be used to interpreting the IPA symbols has made compilers of *NODE* to avoid using the IPA when commenting on pronunciation in the “Usage” columns: e.g.,

**scone** /skɒn/, skəʊn/ ▶ **noun** a small unsweetened or lightly sweetened cake made from flour, fat, and milk and sometimes having added fruit, typically served with butter.

— **ORIGIN** early 16th cent. (originally Scots); perhaps from Middle Dutch *schoon(broot)* ‘fine (bread)’.

There are two possible pronunciations of the word **scone**: the first rhymes with **gone** and the second rhymes with **tone**. In US English the pronunciation rhyming with **tone** is more common. In British English, the two pronunciations traditionally have different regional and class associations. The first pronunciation tends to be associated with the north of England, and the northern working class, while the second is associated with the south and the middle class. In modern British English, however, it has become fashionable among certain middle-class people to adopt the first pronunciation.

### 3.1.2. Some notes about the symbols used

**3.1.2.1.** Although *OED*, *SOD*, *COD*, *POD* and *NODE* all use the IPA now, the choice of symbols for some of the phonemes is not uniform. Among these dictionaries targeted towards native speakers of English, *SOD*, *COD* and *NODE* share the same system of transcription.

**3.1.2.2.** In *NODE* and the other two dictionaries, the vowel in the word *bed* is transcribed with the symbol /ɛ/ (IPA symbol for Cardinal Vowel 3: open-mid, front vowel), and that of *cat* with the symbol /a/ (Cardinal Vowel 4: open, front vowel) where the other dictionaries use /e/ and /æ/ respectively. It is true that the RP pronunciation of the *bed* vowel has become lower and lies closer to Cardinal No. 3 [ɛ] rather than to No. 2 [e], and that the vowel of *cat* is being pronounced as a lower, more centralized sound that might more accurately be transcribed as /a/ (the two sound changes are obviously related), and the editors may have wanted to reflect this fact in the dictionary.

**3.1.2.3.** In words like *careful* where the /eə/ phoneme is followed by a consonant, the realized sound does become monophthongized to [ɛ:], but when word-final, it is still a diphthong [eə] for most speakers. It therefore looks strange when we find the transcription for *hair* (the sample word given for this sound) to be /ɛ:/. In *NODE*, pronunciation is not given under the headword *hair* (see 3.2.1), but words like *Kildare*, *Flaubert*, and *compère* are transcribed as ending with a long monophthong, according to this system. The process is monophthongization of a diphthong in an environment of a following consonant and not vice versa, so the more natural phonemic transcription would be to use /eə/ instead of /ɛ:/.

**3.1.2.4.** Two more symbols used in *NODE*, *SOD*, and *COD* and not in other dictionaries, are /ʌ/ for the vowel in *my* and /ʌɪə/ for *fire*. Cardinal 14 [ʌ] is an open-mid, unrounded, back vowel. However, this symbol is usually used to describe the vowel in *run*, which is a central rather than a back vowel. The starting point of the vowel in RP *my* is front-to-central and very low, as is the starting point for the vowel in *fire*, and it does not seem reasonable to use the same symbol for the vowel in *run* and for the starting points of *my* and *fire*.

**3.1.2.5.** The weak vowel at the end of words like *cosy* is given the symbol

/i/ which is now a widely spread transcription reflecting the change in pronunciation of RP, known as “happY Tensing” (higher tongue position and tensing resembling the vowel in *see* rather than that of *sit*).

**3.1.2.6.** Possible deletion of the weak vowel is shown with parentheses: e.g. *parenteral* /pə'rent(ə)r(ə)l/, but syllabic consonants are not marked in *NODE*.

### 3.1.3. Stress

**3.1.3.1.** The system of marking word stress, where pronunciation is given, follows the system of other dictionaries that use IPA. Secondary stress is shown only when it occurs before the primary stress, and not after.

Unlike recent EFL dictionaries, *NODE* does not show in any way the possibility of stress shift, as can be witnessed in *Japa'nese* becoming '*Japa,nese* 'food' in order to avoid two strong stresses coming next to each other. This is something that native speakers do without thinking, and need not be included in a dictionary like *NODE*.

**3.1.3.2.** However, there is information about stress that even native speakers of English may once in a while be uncertain about, such as that of compounds and phrases: e.g. is it ,**big** 'm**outh** or 'big ,**m**outh? What about **big top** (of a circus)? *NODE* does not contain information of this kind (stress alone is not shown in this dictionary, and pronunciation is not transcribed for “easy” words such as *big*, *mouth*, or *top*. See 3.2.1.).

**3.1.3.3.** Likewise, stress marking is rather random and not sufficient for conversions where the forms of two or more words are the same but the different parts of speech are distinguished by the placement of stress (and consequently, different vowel quality): the different pronunciations between the verb and noun forms of *decrease* is shown in *NODE*, but not for *increase*; the two different stress patterns of *refund* are shown, but they are not for *record* or *reform*, and so on. There does not seem to be any systematic rule behind this marking and non-marking of the differences.

**3.1.3.4.** Syllabification for pronunciation is not shown in *NODE*. Nor are syllable divisions marked for writing purposes: with the word processor taking care of words at the end of each line for writers, there is no longer any need for such information in dictionaries. (See 2.8.)

### 3.1.4. The variety of English represented in *NODE*

The variety of English represented in *NODE*, as was cited in 3.1.1, is the kind spoken in the south of England, and although American English pronunciations are sometimes mentioned in usage notes (e.g. *Caribbean*, *research*, *scone*, etc.) and despite the fact that the new dictionary boasts of “including thousands of regionalisms encountered in standard contexts in the different English-speaking areas of the world” (p. xvi), neither American English nor other rhotic accents such as Scottish English have been taken into account for pronunciation. The post-vocalic r’s and “linking r’s” can only be worked out from the spelling, although “intrusive r’s” within a word are transcribed with (r): e.g. *drawer* /'drə:(r)ə/.

### 3.1.5. Foreign Pronunciations

*NODE* uses more symbols than any other Oxford English dictionaries to transcribe foreign words in their original pronunciations. The following symbols have been added to the usual list: β (Spanish), γ (Spanish), ζ (Hungarian), ρ (French), ε (German), γ (German), ī (Irish, Russian), ρ̄ (French). However, no phonetic description is given for these sounds: only the symbol and the sample foreign word that contains that sound. It must be added here that only European words are given their original pronunciations in *NODE*. So *Paris* is given its French pronunciation alongside the anglicized pronunciation, but *Tokyo* only the English version, /'təʊkiəu/.

## 3.2. Recent trends in pronunciation preferences

3.2.1. It is announced in the Introduction (p. xvii) that in *NODE*, pronunciations are not given for “ordinary, everyday words such as *bake*, *baby*, *beach*, *bewilder*, *boastful*, or *budget*” because native speakers of English do not need information about the pronunciation of such words. Pronunciations are given only “where they are likely to cause problems for the native speaker of English, in particular for foreign words, foreign names, scientific and other specialist terms, rare words, words with unusual stress patterns, and words where there are alternative pronunciations or where there is a dispute about the standard pronunciation.”<sup>1)</sup> Both Stanley (1999)

and Landau (1999) are critical about this omission, saying that “[o]ne goes to a good dictionary to have one’s doubts about the sense, pronunciations, and usage of words resolved. Silence gives no answer to a user’s questions” (Stanley, p. 81.) and that “the omission of pronunciations for many words is retrogressive and unfortunate.” (Landau, p. 254.)

We have already looked at the inconsistency in the marking of stress of conversions (are these not “words with unusual stress patterns”? ). Next, we investigate the situation of “words where there are alternative pronunciations or where there is a dispute about the standard pronunciation.”

3.2.2. The BNC does not contain information about which words are “likely to cause problems” of pronunciation, and the editors of *NODE* have not been very good at guessing, because there is a discrepancy between the information (or lack thereof) given by *NODE* and the recent trend of pronunciation preferences as reported by J.C. Wells, editor of *LPD*.

In preparation for the second edition of *LPD*,<sup>2)</sup> Wells conducted a poll of British English pronunciation preferences in 1998 among nearly two thousand respondents (native speakers of British English of all ages), who answered questions on about one hundred items of uncertain or disputed pronunciation.<sup>3)</sup> Although approximately 37% of the respondents were from places other than the south of England, the area whose accent that *NODE* claims to describe (49% of the people were from the south of England), only some of the items on the questionnaire showed significantly different pronunciation preferences according to the respondent’s regional origin (such results are marked on his list), and therefore I have decided to use this list as a reference for checking the pronunciations in *NODE*. At least we know that the words have been judged by a phonetician as having uncertain or controversial pronunciation. All the items on Wells’ list were looked up in *NODE* for comparison. The following are the results.

3.2.2.1. Words from Wells’ list that *NODE* had more or less the same variations of pronunciation, presented in the same order, are as follows:

absorb, alto, booth, Caribbean, chrysanthemum, ecosystem, evolution, falcon, February\*, financial, forehead, garage, gibberish, gigabyte, historic\*, ideology, incomparable, length, lure, mall, Muslim, niche, nuclear, onerous, Polynesia, questionnaire, real, respiratory, restaurant, schedule, scone\*, simultaneous, sure, transferable, yours.

(35 words out of the total of 96 items on the list: 36%).) The words with \* have the pronunciation explained in their Usage notes.

**3.2.2.2.** Table 1 shows the words from Wells' list that *NODE* did not give any pronunciation for. *NODE* considered that these were not disputable. There were 47 words on this list, which is 49%. The results of the poll have been tabulated alongside the words, and from this we can see that some variant pronunciations are negligible: e.g. *ominous* has a variant with the first syllable pronounced with the diphthong /əu/, but only 2% of the respondents preferred this pronunciation, and so it is reasonable to omit this variant from a dictionary with limited space. On the other hand, however, we can see that *NODE* has failed to notice words like *careless*, *chance*, and many more that actually have a variation preferred by more than 30% of the respondents. *NODE* has, as it were, treated them as having no alternative pronunciations and failed to see the fact that they may be undergoing a change.

**3.2.2.3.** Table 2 shows the words in the left column that had pronunciation given in *NODE* (so the editors were aware of variants) but the order that these variants were presented did not agree with Wells' results. (14 words, which is 15%).) Here again, the actual percentages of preferences are cited, and it tells us that for example, *Asia* has two competing variants with the middle consonant realized as /ʃ/ or /ʒ/. The survey results came out as the voiced variant being preferred over the voiceless one by two percent, but this difference is very small and considering the fact that /ʃ/ had been the prevalent pronunciation for this word in RP, *NODE* can be said to have made the right choice. However, with *finance*, the first variant in *NODE*, with primary stress on the second syllable, is supported by only 19% in the poll. Likewise for *perpetual* and *quagmire* *NODE* gives first place to the less supported variant.

Table 1

Words whose pronunciation is not given in <i>NODE</i>	Wells' pronunciation preference survey results (%)
<b>absurd</b>	/s/ 77 /z/ 23
<b>applicable</b>	stress on 2nd syll 84, on 1st syll 16
<b>association</b>	/s/ 78 /ʃ/ 22
<b>board-bored</b>	same 81 different 11 vary 7
<b>careless</b>	/ə/ 44 /e/ 38 /ɪ/ 14 /i/ 3
<b>chance</b>	/a:/ 69 /æ/ 31
<b>circumstances</b>	/æ/ 66 /a:/ 24 /ə/ 11
<b>coupon</b>	/k/ 94 /kj/ 6
<b>delirious</b>	/ɪə/ 54 /i/ 46 sharp rise in /ɪə/ in Eng.
<b>during</b>	/dʒ/ 65 /dʒ/ 34 /d/ 2; /ʊə/ 87 /ɔ:/ 7 /ɜ:/ 6
<b>electronic</b>	/elek/ 61 /i,lek/ 14 /i,ilek/ 11 /elik/ 8
<b>ephemeral</b>	/e/ 86 /i:/ 14
<b>false</b>	/ɔ:/ 52 /ɒ/ 48; /ls/ 89 no /l/ 7 /lts/ 5
<b>halt</b>	/ɒ/ 52 /ɔ:/ 48
<b>jumped</b>	/mpt/ 76 /mt/ 24
<b>jury</b>	/ʊə/ 77 /ɔ:/ 13 /ɔ:/ 10 decline in /ʊə/
<b>justifiable</b>	stress on 3rd syll 75 on 1st syll 25
<b>lava-larva</b>	same 72 different 20 vary 8
<b>luxurious</b>	/k/ 67 /g/ 33; /ʒ/ 50 /ʃ/ 26 /zj/ 13 /sj/ 11
<b>mischievous</b>	stress on 1st syll 73, on 2nd syll 27
<b>necessary</b>	/e/ 78 /ə/ 22
<b>newspaper</b>	/z/ 57 /s/ 43
<b>ogle</b>	/əʊ/ 76 /o/ 24 (oldest 5, youngest 51)
<b>ominous</b>	/ɒ/ 98 /əʊ/ 2
<b>one</b>	/ʌ/ 70 /ɒ/ 30 (predominates in north 67)
<b>oral</b>	/ɔ:/ 87 /ɒ/ 13
<b>ordinary</b>	/ri/ 34 /eri/ 34 /əri/ 32 (/ri/ on decrease)
<b>palm</b>	/a:/ 85 /a:ll/ 13 /æl/ 1
<b>patronize</b>	/æ/ 97 /eɪ/ 3
<b>poor-pour</b>	same 49 different 40 vary 11
<b>premature</b>	stress on 1st syll 59, on 3rd syll 41
<b>prestigious</b>	/i/ 91 /i:/ 9
<b>princess</b>	stress on 2nd syll 60, on 1st syll 40
<b>project n.</b>	/ɒ/ 84 /əʊ/ 16
<b>puncture</b>	/ŋkʃ/ 87 /ŋʃ/ 6 /nʃ/ 4 /ŋkʃ/ 3
<b>really</b>	/ɪə/ 80 /i:/ 19 /ɪ/ 1
<b>regulatory</b>	stress on 3rd syll 55, on 1st syll: /lət/ 33 /leɪt/ 13
<b>says</b>	/e/ 84 /eɪ/ 16
<b>short cut</b>	stress on 1st syll 59, on 2nd syll 41
<b>situation</b>	/tʃ/ 65 /tʃ/ 35
<b>source-sauce</b>	same 64, different 28, vary 8
<b>tune</b>	/tʃ/ 64 /tʃ/ 35 /t/ 1
<b>vacation</b>	/veɪ/ 61 /və/ 39 American influence?
<b>voluntarily</b>	/ter/ 40 /vnl/ 32 /teər/ 15 /tær/ 12
<b>white</b>	/w/ 77 /hw/ 23
<b>with</b>	/ð/ 85 /θ/ 15
<b>youths</b>	/ðz/ 82 /θs/ 18

Table 2

Words whose pronunciations in NODE do not reflect recent trends	Wells' Pronunciation Preference Survey (%)
<b>Asia</b>	/ə/ 51 /ɛ/ 49
<b>associate v.</b>	/s/ 69 /ʃ/ 31
<b>controversy*</b>	stress on 2nd syll 60, on 1st syll 40
<b>direction</b>	/aɪ/ 54 /aɪə/ 15 /ɪ/ 15 /ə/ 15
<b>equinox</b>	/e/ 92 /i:/ 8
<b>finance n.</b>	stress on 1st syll 81, on 2nd syll 19
<b>gradually</b>	/dʒu/ 49 /dʒu/ 29 /dʒ/ 22
<b>irrefutable</b>	stress on 3rd syll 93, on 2nd 7
<b>kilometre*</b>	stress on 2nd syll 57, on 1st 43
<b>longitude</b>	/ŋg/ 85 /ndʒ/ 15
<b>necessarily</b>	stress on 3rd syll 72, on 1st syll 28
<b>perpetual</b>	/tjuəl/ 57 /fʊəl/ 37 /fəl/ 5
<b>quagmire</b>	/o/ 62 /æ/ 38
<b>scallop</b>	/æ/ 51 /ɒ/ 49

3.2.2.4. Headwords under which usage notes discussing variants of disputed pronunciation are included and that have not been mentioned above, are: **Celt/Celtic, comparable, contribute, decade, diphtheria, distribute, et cetera, formidable, harass, integral, lieutenant, pronunciation, and research.**<sup>4)</sup>

### 3.3. Summary

The overall impression we get is that *NODE* is not as keen on describing pronunciation as it is with other aspects of the language. Utilization of the language corpus has become the big thing in dictionary making, but unfortunately, we are still waiting for an up-to-date corpus of pronunciation. The last ten years saw the publication of two very good pronunciation dictionaries in Britain, the *LPD* and the renewed *EPD*, by Longman and Cambridge respectively, and the fact that Oxford lacks works in this field is their weakness.

The British are extremely conscious about pronunciation, and with articles about 'Estuary English' and complaints about pronunciation heard

on television and radio appearing in the newspapers almost regularly, a dictionary like *NODE* with its size and interest in up-to-date usage of the English language should surely have at least included the transcription of the pronunciation of all headwords.

(H. Saito)

## 4. Sense description

### 4.1. Introductory remarks

In this section, the sense description of *NODE* will be examined from a number of aspects. First, the core sense and subsense structure will be considered. Then, specific entries will be looked into according to their types and, in so doing, reference will be made, where appropriate, to the division, arrangement, and presentation of the senses of words entered. Lastly, usage labels will be discussed.

### 4.2. Core senses and subsenses

*NODE* has introduced a "new" system of sense description:<sup>1)</sup>

Linguists, cognitive scientists, and others have been developing new techniques for analysing usage and meaning, and the *New Oxford Dictionary of English* has taken full advantage of these developments. Foremost among them is an emphasis on identifying what is 'central and typical' . . . . The layout and organization of each entry in the dictionary reflect this new approach to meaning. Each entry has at least one core meaning, to which a number of subsenses, logically connected to it, may be attached (*Preface*, p. vii).

The entries *ring* and *take* will be taken here as examples:

**ring**<sup>1</sup> 1 A small circular band, typically of precious metal and often set with one or more gemstones, worn on a finger as an ornament or a token of marriage, engagement, or authority.

**take** 1 lay hold of (something) with one's hands; reach for and hold

In his analysis of *ring*, Langacker (1988: 51) observes that "[i]n the case of *ring*, . . . , the sense 'circular piece of jewelry worn around finger' is presumably the category 'prototype,'" which coincides with the description

above. However, this sense of *ring* comes first in other dictionaries, too, such as *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup> and *LDOCE*<sup>3</sup>, which in fact makes it difficult to say for sure that the description is based on some cognitive theory. It may be that frequency or some other factors are involved. Norvig and Lakoff (1987: 196), who take a somewhat different view of cognitive semantics, analyzed the various senses of the verb *take* and argued for the core semantic sense as represented in the following sentence:

John took the book from Mary.

Neither *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup> nor *LDOCE*<sup>3</sup> lists this sense as primary. Taken together, the facts seem to support *NODE*'s statement quoted above.<sup>2)</sup>

*NODE* goes on to explain in the *Preface* that “[t]he text design is open and accessible, making it easy to find the core meaning and so to navigate the entry as a whole.” The verb *navigate* used in the preceding quotation is a case in point. Take a look at the entry *navigate* here:<sup>3)</sup>

**navigate** **2** sail or travel over (a stretch of water or terrain), especially carefully or with difficulty: . . . ■ make one's way with difficulty over (a route or terrain)

It would seem fair to say this use of *navigate*, as represented in *NODE*, is a fairly recent one and that this particular meaning is an extension of sense 2. Is the description easy enough to grasp the verb's meaning in that context, as *NODE* claims?

This arrangement of core senses and subsenses reminds one of those systems that have been adopted by monolingual learners' dictionaries recently published in the United Kingdom, especially *LDOCE*<sup>3</sup>'s “sign-posts” and *CIDE*'s “guide words.”<sup>4)</sup> This is one of the areas of *NODE* where the lexicographical practice of learners' dictionaries makes itself felt.

#### 4.3. Common words

In this subsection, we will go into common words. The following are part of the definitions of *film*, *spring n*, and *tea*:<sup>5)</sup>

<b>film</b>	<b>1</b> a thin flexible strip of plastic or other material coated with light-sensitive emulsion for exposure in a camera, used to produce photographs or motion pictures: — ① . . . ■ thin layer covering a surface: — ② <b>2</b> a story or event recorded by a camera as a set of moving images and shown in a cinema or on television: — ③
<b>spring</b>	<b>noun</b> <b>1</b> the season after winter and before summer, . . . — ① <b>2</b> an elastic device, typically a helical metal coil, that can be pressed or pulled but returns to its former shape when released, used chiefly to exert constant tension or absorb movement. — ② <b>3</b> a sudden jump upwards or forwards: — ③ <b>4</b> a place where water or oil wells up from an underground source, or the basin or flow formed in such a way: — ④
<b>tea</b>	<b>1</b> a hot drink made by infusing the dried, crushed leaves of the tea plant in boiling water, and usually adding a small amount of milk. — ① ■ the dried leaves used to make such a drink. — ② <b>2</b> the evergreen shrub or small tree which produces these leaves, native to South and East Asia and grown as a major cash crop. — ③ <b>3</b> a light afternoon meal consisting typically of tea to drink, sandwiches, and cakes. — ④

The arrangement of these definitions in *NODE* have been compared with that of the corresponding entries of the following dictionaries: *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup>, *LDOCE*<sup>3</sup>, *CED*<sup>4</sup>, *COD*<sup>9</sup>, and *CD*. The results are given in Table 3. The table below shows clearly that *NODE* is much closer to learners' dictionaries than are general-purpose dictionaries. It may be inferred from this

Table 3

	film	spring n	tea
<i>COBUILD</i> <sup>2</sup>	③ ① ②	① ② ④	① ② ④
<i>LDOCE</i> <sup>3</sup>	③ ① ②	① ② ④ ③	① ② ④
<i>CED</i> <sup>4</sup>	③ ① ②	③ ④ ② ①	③ ② ① ④
<i>COD</i> <sup>9</sup>	② ① ③	③ ② ④ ①	③ ② ① ④
<i>CD</i>	② ① ③	③ ② ④ ①	③ ② ① ④

that frequency plays a significant role in the sense descriptions within *NODE*. This again is another manifestation of learners' dictionaries' influence on *NODE*.

#### 4.4. Ergative verbs

The following are some of the entries of typical ergative verbs:

- boil** 1 heat (a liquid) to the temperature at which it bubbles and turns to vapour: . . . ■ (of a liquid) be at or reach this temperature
- break** 1 separate or cause to separate into pieces as a result of a blow, shock, or strain
- change** 1 make or become different
- close** 1 move or cause to move so as to cover an opening
- open** 1 move or adjust (a door or window) so as to leave a space allowing access and vision: . . . ■ (of a door or window) be moved or adjusted to leave a space allowing access
- smash** 1 violently break (something) into pieces: . . . ■ be violently broken into pieces; shatter
- vary** 1 differ in size, amount, degree, or nature from something else of the same general class: . . . ■ introduce modifications or changes into (something) so as to make it different or less uniform

A quick glance reveals no attempt made in *NODE* to systematically describe the meanings of ergative verbs. Davidse and Geuskens (1998) analyzed what they called ECIs (ergative causativizations of intransitives). It is suggested that the behaviors of *gallop*, *canter*, and *trot* as verbs are quite similar with regard to the "causing types" that they set up, with the last one being slightly different. It happens that *NODE* defines *gallop* and *canter* in exactly the same fashion; *trot* is defined somewhat differently, which is arguably a coincidence.

#### 4.5. Phrasal verbs

Next, we will take up phrasal verbs. It is a popular view that they deserve special attention in English lexicography and lexicology. Thus, they are given a distinct place in *NODE* as are the phrases: *out of place*,

*kick the bucket*, *you can't have your cake and eat it (too)*. Accordingly, *give in*, *give out*, *give up*, and the like are listed together at the end of the verb *give*. It should be noted, however, that *take away* is found in an illustrative example of one of the subsenses of *take* 1, and that *hold up* is given as a subentry to one of the subsenses of *hold*<sup>1</sup>. Apparently, transparent phrasal verbs, such as *get into*, *look at*, *ring up*, and *stand up*, are given as relevant main entries whereas non-transparent or idiomatic phrasal verbs, like *get down*, *look after*, *ring in*, and *stand for*, are placed together at the end of the main entry. Yet, the picture is not as simple as it may seem, for some idiomatic phrasal verbs, such as *bring down*, *go with*, and *strike out*, do appear in the main entry when these same forms are also end-listed with other idiomatic meanings. Things are even more complicated when idiomatic phrasal verbs appear in the main entry alone, with no pertinent subentries at the end, which is indeed the case with the following phrasal verbs: *buy off*, *lock up*, *sell out*, *wash over*, and others. Because the same verb form may appear in more than one place, complications arise for the general user when he or she initiates a search for phrasal verbs. In fact, an identical problem occurs with *NODE*'s entries of phrases, though we will refrain from analyzing phrase problems here.

#### 4.6. Encyclopedic and specialist entries

*NODE* boasts of having included two kinds of vocabulary under the headings of "Specialist Vocabulary" and "Encyclopedic Material" in its *Introduction* (pp. x–xi). It is true that there are some new words entered in *NODE*, but, as will be seen below, the definitions or explanations are, in many cases, abridged or rewritten versions of those used in *OERD*<sup>2</sup>. Note the following examples:

**Oxford English Dictionary** *NODE* the largest dictionary of the English language, prepared in Oxford and originally issued in instalments between 1884 and 1928.

**OERD**<sup>2</sup> the largest dictionary of the English language, prepared in Oxford and originally issued in instalments between 1884 and 1928 under the title *A New Oxford Dictionary on Historical Principles* (NED). It was published under

the present title in twelve volumes with a supplement in 1933. Based on historical principles, it was edited until his death in 1915 by Sir James Murray. Preparation for the dictionary was begun by the Philological Society of London in 1857. . . .

### quasar

**NODE** *Astronomy* a massive and extremely remote celestial object, emitting exceptionally large amounts of energy, which typically has a starlike image in a telescope. It has been suggested that quasars contain massive black holes and may represent a stage in the evolution of some galaxies.

### OERD<sup>2</sup>

*Astron.* an apparently starlike source of light visible in large telescopes, often associated with intense radio emission. The spectra of quasars show large red shifts, suggesting that they are as far away as the most remote galaxies. Quasars must therefore be very massive and emit exceptionally large amounts of energy, the origin of which is not yet understood. It has been suggested that quasars contain massive black holes and may represent a stage in the evolution of some galaxies.

The affinity between the definitions of the two dictionaries is obvious. It is generally the case that the entries in *OERD<sup>2</sup>* are longer and more informative. As far as encyclopedic material is concerned, the inclusion of it is a clean break from "tradition," which may well be looked upon as a welcome step in the right direction.

#### 4.7. Function words

We will turn our attention to so-called *function words* as opposed to *content words* that have hitherto been dealt with. The entries *down* and *in* consisted of 39 and 44 lines in *COD<sup>9</sup>*, respectively, while the counterparts in *COD<sup>10</sup>* now have no more than 29 and 17 lines, though a single line in the latter may contain slightly more letters. The same is true of other entries including *as*, *from*, *of*, *the*, and *with*. It might well be inferred that *NODE*'s sense description of function words is something simple and laconic in style. Observe the following figure which shows the correspondence of the particular senses of a preposition *with* between *NODE* and

*COD<sup>9</sup>*:

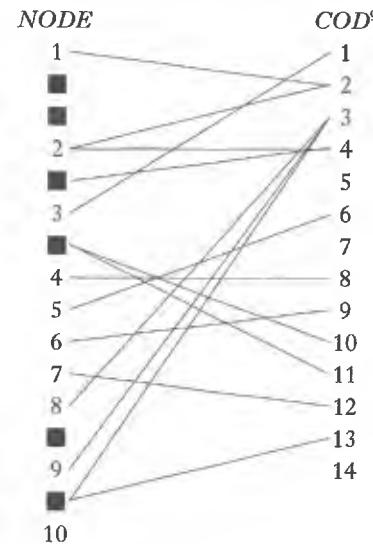


Figure 1

It is easy to see that, as shown by Figure 1, *NODE* covers almost all the senses of *with* in *COD<sup>9</sup>* except a few and that, in turn, there are some areas of meaning covered by *NODE*'s entry, but not by *COD<sup>9</sup>*'s. In addition, it is worthy of note that *NODE* has made drastic changes in the arrangement of the senses concerned. The inference that was made above has proved to be wrong.

One further comment seems to be in order. *COD<sup>10</sup>* makes a striking contrast with *NODE* in that the entry in question contains no illustrative examples despite the fact that the sense arrangement and description of the two dictionaries are almost the same. It is quite unfortunate that the many examples accorded *COD<sup>9</sup>*, which we consider constitute part of its good quality, have been lost in the new edition. This new policy, it is surmised, is to be ascribed to the publishing house's policy of product differentiation.

#### 4.8. Derivatives

Adverbs ending in *-ly* will be reviewed here. Some such adverbs as

*beautifully*, *friendly*, and *lucidly* are given as run-ons to relevant entries and others like *apparently*, *fortunately*, and *probably* are given headword status in *NODE*, which is the approach commonly adopted by learners' dictionaries. It should be noted, however, that two of the latter three adverbs, i.e. *apparently* and *fortunately* are given as run-ons in *CED<sup>4</sup>* and that so, too, are *apparently* and *probably* in *COD<sup>9</sup>*. According to *COBUILD<sup>2</sup>*, *probably* is a word with five diamonds, indicating that it is one of the most frequently used words, the number of which is "approximately 700," whereas its adjectival form is included in the bottom band. By the same token, *apparently* is a four-diamond word while *apparent* receives three diamonds. *Fortunate* and *fortunately* are both words with two diamonds. Assuming that the frequency evidence provided by *COBUILD<sup>2</sup>* is correct, *NODE* is on the right track. It would be advisable, as well as helpful, if *NODE* could make explicit its criteria for deciding whether particular items should be placed as headwords or run-ons.

#### 4.9. Coverage

A survey has been conducted between *NODE* and *CED<sup>4</sup>* to see which of the two dictionaries covers wider areas of meaning of words. All entries on the following pages of *NODE*, including subsenses but excluding phrases and phrasal verbs, have been closely compared with their corresponding entries in *CED<sup>4</sup>*. The results are shown in Table 4.

It follows from the table below that, as far as these pages are concerned, *CED<sup>4</sup>* covers a slightly wider range of meaning than does *NODE*. There are several other things that are worthy of notice. First, *CED<sup>4</sup>* by and large makes finer distinctions in its description of word meanings than does *NODE*. For instance, the subsense of *asset* in *NODE* corresponds to the three senses of *assets* in *CED<sup>4</sup>*, and the sense of *eloquence* in *NODE* subsumes the three different senses of the corresponding entry in *CED<sup>4</sup>*. Secondly, in the entry of *assessment*, there is no definition made after the grammatical term [count noun], which is immediately followed by two illustrative examples. The general reader will be hard pressed to decipher the meaning. Preferable is the practice exemplified by the entry of *assay* in which both terms of [mass noun] and [count noun] are followed by

Table 4

alphabet	pages	headwords	+ NODE, - CED <sup>4</sup>	- NODE, + CED <sup>4</sup>
A	100–1	53	15	26
E	600–1	64	15	11
L	1100–1	76	18	14
R	1600–1	56	24	37
Total	8	249	72	88
	per page	31.125	9	11

Notes: i) The numbers of headwords indicate entries shared by *NODE* and *CED<sup>4</sup>*. ii) Subsenses in *NODE*, marked by ■, and subsenses in *CED<sup>4</sup>*, headed by numbers and letters like 1a and 1b, are each counted as single units.

definitions and examples. Which leads on to the third point. In the first entry of *embalm* appears a label *figurative*, followed by a definition and an illustrative example. By contrast, the second example of the entry *ember*, preceded by the same label, has no definition provided. Obviously, the former treatment is more user-friendly. Lastly, *NODE* gives a fuller description of selectional restrictions than does *CED<sup>4</sup>*. Take *ripe* for example. *NODE*'s entry has one core sense and seven subsenses, out of which six are prefixed by some selectional restriction, which makes it easy to discriminate among the particular senses. On the other hand, there are ten, numbered senses given in *CED<sup>4</sup>* and it is the first sense alone that has its selectional restriction defined. This is yet another phase that characterizes *NODE* as being affected by features of a learner's dictionary.

#### 4.10. Labels

Another survey has been carried out on the same pages of *NODE* as in the previous subsection to see what kinds of usage labels are used in the dictionary, and a comparison has been made between the corresponding entries of *NODE* and *CED<sup>4</sup>* with reference to labels. The words and senses, subsenses included, with some kind of label were classified into three groups: (I) those entries with some label in *NODE*, but without any

label in *CED<sup>4</sup>*; (II) those entries with no label in *NODE*, but with some label in *CED<sup>4</sup>*; and (III) those entries with some label in both dictionaries. In so doing, the qualifier *chiefly* as in *chiefly Law* (s.v. *assignee*) was disregarded. According to *NODE*, the usage labels break down into three major types: register labels showing currency and level of formality, labels showing regional distribution, and subject field labels. The results are shown in the following table:

Table 5

groups	types			total	per page
	register	region	field		
( I )	19	9	18	46	5.75
( II )	5	5	20	30	3.75
(III)	14	9	14	37	4.625

Table 5 suggests that, in general, *NODE* is far more aggressive in applying usage labels than is *CED<sup>4</sup>*, while the latter is especially keen on labeling subject fields. It is worth noting that the label of *archaic* is frequently used in *NODE*. Of the nineteen register-related labels in group (I), *archaic* counts eleven. It is not clear, however, whether or not this labeling is based on corpus evidence or subjective judgment.<sup>6</sup> Also worth mentioning is that seven out of nine region-related labels in group (I) are those of *Brit.* (= British). It appears that *NODE* is sensitive to the British variety of English, which requires more data and research to give a definitive answer. Moreover, half of the fourteen occurrences of register labels in group (III) are *informal* in *NODE* and that, in five of these seven entries, *CED<sup>4</sup>* attaches the label *Slang*.<sup>7</sup> In other words, it seems as if there is an *informal-slang* correspondence here. Although it is understandable from the explanations of the terms given in both dictionaries that these two labels are not exclusive of each other, one may well conclude that *NODE* is quite permissive in its use of the label *informal*. Thus, words such as *bitch* 2, *jerk*<sup>1</sup> 2, and *nuts* are labeled *informal* in *NODE*.<sup>8</sup>

(K. Akasu)

## 5. Examples

### 5.1. Introductory remarks

Let us compare the two dictionaries *NODE* and *CED<sup>4</sup>* in their description of the verb *diagnose*:

*CED<sup>4</sup>* 1 to determine or distinguish by diagnosis. 2 (tr) to examine (a person or thing) as for a disease.

*NODE* [with obj.] identify the nature of (an illness or other problem) by examination of the symptoms: *two doctors failed to diagnose a punctured lung*. ■ (usu. **be diagnosed**) identify the nature of the medical condition of (someone): *she was finally diagnosed as having epilepsy* | 20,000 men are **diagnosed with** skin cancer every year.

*CED<sup>4</sup>* gives some semantic information about the verb, but, with no examples, does not tell us about how it behaves in a sentence. The opposite is true of *NODE*.

One of the most visible features of *NODE* is its presentation of illustrative examples.<sup>10</sup> In the sheer number ('over 70,000 examples', as the dictionary claims on the dust jacket) and comprehensiveness of the supportive quotations provided, other dictionaries like *CED* and *CD* are no match for *NODE*. It is especially in sharp contrast to *CD*, which gives the impression that illustrative examples are almost nonexistent, sounding almost like a dictionary of definitions, as it were.

### 5.2. Corpus-based approach

Recent developments in corpus-based lexicography have had a profound impact on pedagogical lexicography in particular. Major ESL/EFL dictionaries have all benefited from these developments. Availability and extensive use of, and easy access to, large amounts of corpus material, with the help of the latest concordancing technology, has made it easier for the lexicographer to look at two or more words in partnership and study their collocational environments. The lexicographer can see their syntactic behavior, how they are used in partnership with other words, thus 'identifying combinations that are not merely frequent but also statistically significant' (xii). This advantage has translated into several good corpus-based dictio-

naries for the non-native learners.

Still, most general dictionaries for the native speaker seem to have remained unaffected — in a visible way at least — by these advances in lexicography. With the exception of *TED*, English dictionaries for the native speaker did not seem to include citations taken more or less exclusively from large computer-based corpora. The user cannot be sure whether and how far information from such corpora was used as the basis for sample phrases and sentences in other dictionaries.

*NODE*, then, no doubt is in line with the developments in ESL/EFL dictionary-making. Its corpus-based approach *NODE* stresses in its *Introduction* (xiii) by showing concordance lines in KWIC form for the verb *end*, just the same way *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup>, the leading corpus-based dictionary, does for *play* and *light*.

### 5.3. Collocations

As a dictionary designed primarily for the native speaker, the dictionary marks a new departure in its presentation of illustrative examples, adopting a similar system to that used by recent ESL/EFL dictionaries like *OALD* from the same publisher or *CIDE*. Particularly significant or important patterns, or the headword and the characteristic phrasing around the word, are highlighted in bold, or bold italics in examples. Thus, grammatical or syntactic patterns and lexical collocational patterns are emphasized for our attention.

To show *NODE*'s ESL/EFL dictionary-like systematic or principled way of providing illustrative examples, take a look at the table below.

Phrases and sentences in italics are the illustrating citations given in *NODE* for the names of the week. The leftmost column indicates the types of example. Their principled treatment of grammatical and lexical partnerships or collocations is highly visible here.<sup>2)</sup> Though this is a closed set of related words, easier to treat in a systematic and comprehensive way, we discern some conscious effort throughout on the part of the *NODE* authors to be systematic in giving collocational information. The following examples from the entry *keep* will help get a glimpse of the principled comprehensiveness of *NODE* in providing quotations.

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
on ~	<i>I saw him on Monday</i>	<i>come to dinner on Tuesday</i>	<i>a report goes before the councillors on Wednesday</i>	<i>the committee met on Thursday</i>	<i>he was arrested on Friday</i>	<i>the match will be held on Saturday</i>	<i>they left town on Sunday</i>
on ~ s	<i>She's only in the office on Mondays</i>		<i>they finish early on Wednesdays</i>		<i>The cleaning woman came on Fridays</i>	<i>the counter is closed on Saturdays and Sundays</i>	<i>many people work on Sundays</i>
	<i>the Monday before last</i>	<i>the following Tuesday</i>	<i>Tuesday afternoon</i>	<i>the music programme for Thursdays in April</i>			
[as modifier]			<i>on a Wednesday morning</i>	<i>Thursday morning</i>	<i>Friday evening</i>	<i>Saturday night</i>	<i>Sunday evening</i>

**keep** 2 continue or cause to continue in a specified condition, position, course, etc.: [no obj., with complement] *she could have had some boyfriend she kept quiet about | keep left along the wall |* [with obj., and complement] *she might be kept alive artificially by machinery.*

- [no obj., with present participle] continue doing or do repeatedly or habitually: *he keeps going on about the murder.* ■ [no obj.] (of a perishable commodity) remain in good condition. ■ [no obj., with adverbial] *Brit.* be in a specified state of health: *he had not been keeping well for the past three months.* ■ [with obj., and present participle] make (someone) do something for a period of time: *I have kept her waiting too long.* ■ *archaic* continue to follow (a way, path, or course): *the friars and soldiers removed, keeping their course towards Jericho.*

There are many other examples in which quotations are given to indicate grammatical patterns of headwords.

It may be wrong, however, to expect of a dictionary like this the comprehensiveness of learners' dictionaries. Observe the following entry of *meet*, taken from *NODE* and *OALD*<sup>5</sup>:

*NODE* 1... ■ go to a place and wait there for (a person or their

- means of transport) to arrive: *Stuart met us off the boat.*  
**OALD<sup>5</sup>** 2 to go to a place and wait there for a particular person to arrive: [Vnpr] *Will you meet us at the station/off the train?* [Vn] *The hotel bus meets all incoming flights.*

So far we have seen mainly examples of what is called grammatical collocations. The dictionary of course explicitly indicates lexical collocations in the illustrative examples: *she was too tired to argue the point; she married above her; he was getting a lot of mileage out of the mix-up; the Act will make no difference to my business.*

And examples are not only to show collocational patterns, but also to clarify or illustrate meanings, to show how a word or lexeme is used, in a broad sense: *the star Alpha Aquarii (Aquarii); acetous formation (acetous); visits to Father Christmas's grotto (grotto); the adult birds were already moulting into their winter shades of grey (moult).*

#### 5.4. Figurative usage

There are cases in which no explicit definition is given for a sense or grammatical pattern or some other usage of a lexeme and the only explanation of meaning is an illustrative example. One typical case is figurative usage of a word. The label ‘figurative’ is used before examples illustrating such usage. Sometimes no explanation of meaning is given in the form of definition:

- firebreak** an obstacle to the spread of fire: *a fire-resistant door designed to be a firebreak* | figurative *a firebreak against the spread of revolution from Russia.*
- spring** (verb) 1 move or jump suddenly or rapidly upwards or forwards: *I sprang out of bed* | figurative *they sprang to her defence.*  
 (noun) 1 . . . figurative *he was in the spring of his years.<sup>3)</sup>*
- river** ■ a large quantity of flowing substance: *great rivers of molten lava* | figurative *the trickle of disclosures has grown into a river of revelations.*

The user is expected to be able to infer the relevant sense from the example and the definition for non-figurative usage.<sup>4)</sup> In the first example,

for instance, the extended figurative meaning ‘an obstacle to the spread (of something)’ may be intuitively understood by the native user, or even by the non-native user. Is *spring*, then, ‘transparent’ enough for the user to understand the meaning easily?

Compare this with the following example:

- brake<sup>1</sup>** ■ figurative a thing that slows or hinders a process: *constrained resources will act as a brake on research.*

You may well wonder why *brake* is defined for its figurative use, while *firebreak* and many others are not.

Leaving the discussion on whether to use the label figurative aside,<sup>5)</sup> this is a very convenient practice for the lexicographer. Still, one of the tasks of the lexicographer should be to state explicitly what a sense of a lexeme is, not drawing on the user’s linguistic intuition. The degree of ‘inferability’ should not be used as the basis for inclusion (or non-inclusion) of an explicitly stated definition.<sup>6)</sup>

The same applies to some derivative forms like the adjectival use of participles (*reassuring; encouraging, encouraged*).

#### 5.5. Concluding remarks

There are some ‘discoveries’ or collocational information usually not found elsewhere:

- he quit as manager of struggling Third Division City; the efficiency of the Bavarians rivals that of the Viennese;<sup>7)</sup> the ferns began to change shape.<sup>8)</sup>*

In the meanwhile, there are cases in which you may wonder why this or that word or phrase is not highlighted. In the following examples, highlighted words are *not* highlighted in the original versions in the dictionary:

- I began to be curious about the whereabouts of . . .; the restaurant charged L15 for dinner . . . /he charged me 20,000 lire for the postcard.<sup>9)</sup>*

Or you may want to know which preposition *specialist*, for instance, is

frequently used with.<sup>10)</sup> You could add many more similar examples. This is not a learner's dictionary, so, as was stated before, it may not be fair if you want it to be more systematic and comprehensive in its treatment of collocation information. But it will be natural as a dictionary user to want the dictionary to be so. Why such information is missing is not necessarily clear.

There must be some error in editing in the following example:

**stitch** verb . . . [as adj., in combination] (-**stitched**) *English dresses*.

A typical description for such a pattern is as follows:

**orient** verb . . . [as adj., in combination **-oriented**] *market-oriented economic reforms*.

This may be, or may have already been, corrected in later impressions. The dictionary says, in the *Introduction* (xiv):

In the past, dictionaries have used made-up examples, partly because not enough authentic text was available and partly through an assumption that made-up examples were somehow better in that they could be tailored to the precise needs of the dictionary entry. Such a view finds little favour today, and it is now generally recognized that the 'naturalness' provided by authentic examples is of the utmost importance in giving an accurate picture of language in use.

It is arguable that, favored or not favored, constructed examples can also give such a picture. Nonetheless, dictionaries will certainly be more and more corpus-based, which seems to be an unavoidable course of event. The lexicographer should be cautious, however, about too much 'noise' in authentic examples which could take away from their exemplarity, like one found in *TED*:

**innocuous** If you say something is innocuous, you mean it is harmless or inoffensive, or appears to be. *Perched innocuously between Eccles Funerals and Eccles Thrift and Fancy stands the Adam and Eve Sauna Club.*

(Y. Asada)

## 6. Grammar

### 6.1. Introductory remarks

Grammatical information found in *NODE* is of three kinds: information about the parts of speech, the inflections, and the syntactic operation of words. As compared with other monolingual native-speaker dictionaries, an outstanding feature of *NODE* is that it gives extensive and detailed information especially about the syntactic operation of words. Another feature lies in the user-friendly way of presenting grammatical information: it is presented clearly without using confusing abbreviations or complicated grammar codes. From these, it will be immediately clear that *NODE* makes full use of the latest developments of foreign learners' dictionaries particularly in the case of grammatical information. As a native-speaker dictionary, *NODE* has something in common with *CED*, which, Jackson (1988: 148) says, 'makes more subclassifications of word-classes than do most monolingual dictionaries, though this is a feature that the foreign learners' dictionaries pay considerable attention to'.

Of the three kinds of grammatical information, we will first glance at the part-of-speech labelling, and then discuss the syntactic information in some detail. We will also touch on the usage notes included in the dictionary.

### 6.2. Parts of speech

Each part of speech is spelt out in full — and in bold — instead of using abbreviations such as 'n.', 'adj.', 'adv.' and 'v.'. Thus the part-of-speech labels found in *NODE* are 'noun', 'pronoun' (also 'relative pronoun' and 'interrogative pronoun'), 'adjective', 'determiner', 'verb', 'adverb', 'preposition', 'conjunction', and 'exclamation'. As a subclassification of verbs, transitive and intransitive uses are shown as [with obj.] and [no obj.] instead of conventional labels such as 'v.t.' and 'v.i.'. It is interesting to note that *NODE* adopts the transparent labels throughout the dictionary at the expense of space.

### 6.3. Syntactic information (1)

*NODE* states in the *Introduction* (p. xi) that it aims at 'giving guidance on language use as well as word meaning'. This reflects the fact that 'gram-

mar is once again being taught explicitly in state schools throughout Britain and elsewhere', and also reflects 'a recognition that different meanings of a word are closely associated with different lexical and syntactic patterns'.

*NODE* abounds in syntactic information. It is presented in two ways, that is, by pattern illustrations and pattern codes.

In the former case, strong or obligatory patterns are presented directly in round brackets before the definition, in bold. Here are some examples.

- (1) **fall** . . . (**fall over**) informal (of computer hardware or software) stop working suddenly; crash.
- (2) **linger** . . . (**linger over**) spend a long time over (something): *she lingered over her meal.*
- (3) **assert** . . . (**assert oneself**) behave or speak in a confident and forceful manner: *it was time to assert himself.*
- (4) **assassinate** . . . (often **be assassinated**) murder (an important person) in a surprise attack for political or religious reasons.
- (5) **wheel** . . . (**the wheel**) used in reference to the cycle of a specified condition or set of events: *the final release from the wheel of life.*
- (6) **lookout** . . . (**one's lookout**) Brit. informal a person's own concern: *if you can't take an interest in local affairs, that's your lookout.*
- (7) **wheel** . . . (**wheels**) informal a car: *she's got wheels now.*

(1) and (2) illustrate the patterns in which verbs are combined with a particular adverb or preposition, and (3) illustrates the pattern of a verb taking a reflexive pronoun as object. (4) indicates that the verb *assassinate* is often used in the passive voice. Information of this kind, which refers to the passive use of a verb or a sense of a verb, is found particularly in abundance in *NODE*. (5), (6) and (7) concern the use of nouns: the use of a noun or a sense of a noun with a definite article or a possessive pronoun, or in the plural.

#### 6.4. Syntactic information (2)

Let us look at the other way of presenting grammatical information. It is given in square brackets before the definition or the corresponding illustrative example(s). The kinds of syntactic information on nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs found in *NODE* are listed below. Asterisked

items are those explained in the *Introduction* (pp. xi-xii), while the rest are collected from the dictionary body. These are not exhaustive lists, but they will reveal that *NODE* presents syntactic information in a detailed and extensive way as a dictionary intended primarily for native speakers.

##### 6.4.1.

###### <Nouns>

- \*[mass noun], \*[count noun], \*[as modifier],
- \*[treated as sing.], [treated as pl.], \*[treated as sing. or pl.], \*[in sing.];
- [with modifier] (e.g. *oil* as in 'vegetable oil'),
- [with adj. or noun modifier] (e.g. *snob* as in 'a musical snob'),
- [with infinitive] (e.g. *obligation*),
- [with clause] (e.g. *feeling*),
- [with negative] (e.g. *sign* as in 'there was still no sign of her'),
- [in combination] (e.g. *rest* as in 'a chin-rest'), etc.

##### 6.4.2.

###### <Adjectives>

- \*[attrib.], \*[predic.], \*[postpositive];
- [with infinitive] (e.g. *ready*),
- [with clause] (e.g. *anxious; possible*),
- [with submodifier] (e.g. *ill* as in 'a terminally ill patient'),
- [with negative] (e.g. *single* as in 'they didn't receive a single reply'),
- [as complement] (e.g. *warm* as in 'I walked quickly to keep warm'),
- [in combination] (e.g. *born* as in 'a German-born philosopher'), etc.

##### 6.4.3.

###### <Adverbs>

- \*[sentence adverb], \*[as submodifier];
- [with submodifier] (e.g. *well* as in 'I should bloody well hope so'),
- [with superlative] (e.g. *next* as in 'Jo was the next oldest after Martin'),
- [with negative] (e.g. *yet* as in 'wait, don't go yet'),
- [in combination] (e.g. *slow* as in 'a slow-moving river'), etc.

#### 6.4.4.

<Verbs>

- \*[with obj.], \*[no obj.], \*[with adverbial];
- [no obj., with adverbial] (e.g. *melt*),
- [no obj., with adverbial of place] (e.g. *sit*),
- [no obj., with adverbial of direction] (e.g. *wander*),
- [no obj., with complement] (e.g. *feel*),
- [no obj., with present participle] (e.g. *keep*),
- [no obj., with infinitive] (e.g. *get*),
- [with obj. and adverbial] (e.g. *twist*),
- [with obj. and adverbial of place] (e.g. *lay*),
- [with obj. and adverbial of direction] (e.g. *blow*),
- [with obj. and complement] (e.g. *call*),
- [with obj. and present participle] (e.g. *set*),
- [with obj. and infinitive] (e.g. *expect*),
- [with obj. and clause] (e.g. *ask*),
- [with two objs] (e.g. *send*),
- [with infinitive] (e.g. *want* as in ‘we want to go to the beach’),
- [with clause] (e.g. *think* as in ‘she thought that . . .’),
- [with negative or in questions] (e.g. *mind*),
- [with direct speech] (e.g. *gasp* as in “It’s beautiful!,” she gasped . . .’),
- [in imperative] (e.g. *mind* as in ‘mind your manners!’),
- [reporting verb] (e.g. *admit*, *claim*, *demand*, *say*, *suggest*, *tell*), etc.

#### 6.4.5.

On the whole, the syntactic information listed above is transparent enough, and most of it is familiar to the user of learners’ dictionaries. Then, what particular features does *NODE* have as a native-speaker dictionary in presenting syntactic information? Counted among them are the distinction between count and mass nouns, the subclassifications of adverbs, and the treatment of verb patterns. We will discuss each of them in some detail.

#### 6.5. Count noun vs. mass noun

It is worth noting that *NODE* is the first native-speaker dictionary to

indicate the distinction between count and mass nouns. While this distinction has been part of important information in learners’ dictionaries, no mention has been made of it in any other native-speaker dictionaries, e.g. *COD*<sup>9</sup>, *CED*<sup>4</sup>, and *CD*. It has been a matter of dispute whether this kind of information is necessary in dictionaries designed for native speakers. Landau (1984: 88–90), who does not think it proper to include such information, says:

The native speaker can make almost any noun plural and, given the vastly greater scope and complexity of his possible range of expression compared to that of the learner of a foreign language, he may well have reason to do so. *Hornby* and other ESL dictionaries are certainly right to limit the ESL student to safe idiomatic uses, but we must be wary of presuming that practical guidelines for the foreign-born student of English have any theoretical basis or practical use for the native speaker (p. 89).

Stanley (1999) in his review of *NODE* casts doubt on the countable/non-countable distinction. His argument goes like this:

Whether it is wise to use the linguistic concept ‘mass noun’ (silence appears to mean ‘count noun’) seems doubtful. The terms *mass noun* and *count noun* are well explained in the grammar section of the introduction and in the entries for them. S.v. *mass noun* we are told that *happiness* is a mass noun, but that is not stated s.v. *happiness*, and indeed its plural is by no means uncommon (p. 80).

The distinction between a count and a mass noun is not an absolute one, because almost any mass noun can be used in a countable way.<sup>1)</sup> But to give information on the typical behavior of a noun or a sense of a noun regarding countability helps to clarify its meaning. If *NODE* is to cater for the needs of non-native as well as native users, it is to be hoped that it will retain and refine the countable/non-countable distinction in its future editions. As for words beyond the scope of learners’ dictionaries, *NODE* is at present the only native-speaker dictionary to turn to in order to find out about the countability of nouns. It can also be a valuable source of information for compilers of bilingual dictionaries.

## 6.6. Subclassifications of adverbs

The grammatical labels [sentence adverb] and [as submodifier] are very useful for understanding the meaning and use of adverbs. One of the advantages of *NODE* for grammatical information on adverbs is that these labels are attached not only to headwords but also to a number of run-on derivatives, such as *unusually* and *remarkably*. It merits praise in consideration of the fact that *CED* limits grammatical labels for adverbs (i.e. ‘sentence modifier’, ‘sentence substitute’, ‘sentence connector’ and ‘intensifier’) to headwords. But there is something to be desired. What is meant by the label [sentence adverb]? *NODE* defines it under the entry for *sentence adverb* as ‘an adverb or adverbial phrase that expresses a writer’s or speaker’s attitude to the content of the sentence in which it occurs (such as *frankly*, *obviously*), or places the sentence in a particular context (such as *technically*, *politically*)’. Sentence adverbs are thought to signify the same type of adverbs as disjuncts, because *NODE* defines ‘disjunct’ as ‘another term for SENTENCE ADVERB’ (s.v. *disjunct* 2). Accordingly, the label [sentence adverb] should only be applied to disjuncts.<sup>2)</sup> Regrettably, however, *NODE* attaches the label to some of the conjuncts as well. While no such label is given to conjuncts like *anyway*, *consequently*, *however*, *lastly*, *moreover*, and *therefore*, it is given to such adverbs as *accordingly*, *alternatively*, *ergo*, *finally*, and *furthermore* which fall into the same category as the former. In this connection, *CED* distinguishes disjuncts and conjuncts, and gives them separate labels ‘sentence modifiers’ and ‘sentence connectors’.

As for the label [as submodifier], it refers to ‘an adverb used in front of an adjective or another adverb to modify its meaning, for example *very* in *very cold* or *unusually* in *an unusually large house*’ (s.v. *submodifier*). Take *greatly* for instance. Of the two example sentences given in that entry, *NODE* places the label [as submodifier] before one example *they now have greatly increased powers*, while it gives no label to the other in which *greatly* modifies the meaning of a verb, i.e. *I admire him greatly*. To adduce some more instances, adverbs *awfully*, *decidedly*, *especially*, *exceedingly*, *particularly*, *uncommonly*, *remarkably*, *somewhat*, and *terribly* bear this label. Since the use of adverbs is complicated, the labels [as submodifier] as well as [sentence adverb] put before relevant definitions or examples contribute to

a clear understanding of the meaning and use of adverbs.

## 6.7. Verb patterns

*NODE* gives detailed and extensive information on verbs just as learners’ dictionaries do. In particular, the label [with adverbial]<sup>3)</sup> is the one which is not found in other native-speaker dictionaries such as *CED*<sup>4</sup> and *COD*<sup>5</sup>.

In the list of syntactic information on verbs given in 6.4.4, one finds the label [with direct speech], which corresponds to [V. speech] in *OALD*<sup>6</sup> and ‘V with quote’ in *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup>. It is attached to no small number of verbs or senses of verbs in *NODE*. Such information is not found in *CED*<sup>4</sup> and can be thought of as quite an unusual kind of information for a native-speaker dictionary. As mentioned in 6.3, the indication that a verb or a sense of a verb is typically used in the passive voice is another characteristic of *NODE* as a native-speaker dictionary.

Typographically, the pattern codes in *NODE* are easy to find in the entries as compared with the corresponding grammatical information in *CED*<sup>4</sup>. The quality and quantity of information on verb patterns draws largely on the techniques developed over the years in compiling learners’ dictionaries. However, since *NODE* is a passive dictionary primarily intended for native speakers, it does not always record the relevant patterns of a given verb in full or treat them systematically. Take perception verbs for instance. Under the entry for *hear*, *NODE* shows [with obj. and infinitive] but is silent about [with obj. and present participle], and in the case of the verb *see*, it does not show either [with obj. and infinitive] or [with obj. and present participle], both of which patterns are important constructions for the two verbs. Since *NODE* seems to aim at giving detailed information on verb patterns, it is desirable that some mention should be made of all important patterns, and that consistency should be achieved throughout the dictionary.

## 6.8. Usage notes

There are usage notes added at the end of a number of entries. They mostly deal with disputed usage of various kinds: spelling, pronunciation,

meaning, grammar, affixes, etc. The issues of political correctness are treated in several entries, too.

As for grammatical information, the relevant usage notes can be classified into three categories: the inflections, syntax in general, and the word's syntax. For the inflections of nouns, Latin plurals are discussed in such entries as *agenda*, *data*, and *media*. For the inflections of verbs, the past forms are commented on in the entries for *sneak*, *spring*, etc. For syntax in general, such terms as 'dangling participle', 'sentence adverb', 'split infinitive', and 'subjunctive' are discussed under their separate entries. Most importantly, there are many problematic points of syntax adequately explained in the usage notes for individual words: e.g. 'different from/to/ than' (s.v. *different*), 'due to' (s.v. *due*), 'be comprised of' (s.v. *comprise*), 'substitute . . . with/by . . .' (s.v. *substitute*), and 'the reason . . . is because' (s.v. *reason*). Individual problems with sentence adverbs are discussed in some detail at *hopefully*, *thankfully* and *regretfully*.

The most important feature of the usage notes in *NODE* is that they generally take a descriptive approach to various points of usage. According to the *Introduction* (p. xiv), they are based on substantial amounts of real data (i.e. the British National Corpus, the citations collected by the Oxford Reading Programme, and other sources) and try to report the language as it is. Their attitude is most clearly expressed in the statement that 'the usage notes must give guidance that accords with observed facts about present-day usage' (p. xv). Take *hopefully* for example. According to the usage note in that entry, its use as a sentence adverb accounts for more than 90 percent of citations for the word in the British National Corpus. As well as giving an account of the actual use of the word, this note describes a popular attitude to the usage in question: 'it is, however, widely believed incorrect'. The usage notes in *NODE* generally take a descriptive approach, but they also give a warning about disputed usage whenever necessary, taking account of the strong opposition to it.

Another important feature is that aspects of usage are examined from a historical perspective in many places. To mention just a few, a historical account is given of the distinction between *hanged* and *hung* under the entry for *hang*. Aspects of linguistic sexism are considered more or less

historically in the usage notes for *man* and *they*. This approach to usage problems is quite welcome in that adequate historical examination often illuminates aspects of present-day usage.<sup>4)</sup>

### 6.9. Concluding remarks

The distinction between count and mass nouns and the detailed indication of verb patterns, both of which are generally counted among the most important features of learners' dictionaries, have been introduced into *NODE* on a large scale. This dictionary boasts a wealth of grammatical information as compared with other native-speaker dictionaries. Regrettably, there are some cases of inconsistency. It is to be greatly hoped that the compilers of *NODE* will refine the treatment of grammatical information in its future editions, which will make the dictionary more useful for both native and non-native users.

(K. Urata)

## 7. Etymology

### 7.1. Preliminary remarks

Recent standard English dictionaries have tried their best to make etymology as accessible and stimulating as possible, devising their own system of presentation to invite an interested reader to the etymological world. Most of them have included in their introductions a brief history of the English language (e.g. *AHD*<sup>3</sup>, *CED*<sup>4</sup>, *CD* and *COD*<sup>5</sup> *inter alia*, but nothing of the kind in *NODE*<sup>6)</sup>), and have generally avoided specialist explanation, such as the use of hypothetical (proto-language) forms and cryptic abbreviations which tend to oust the non-specialist reader from this enchanting world. *NODE* says in its *Introduction* that '[i]nformation is presented clearly and with a minimum of technical terminology, and the perspective taken is that of the general reader who would like to know about word origins but who is not a philological specialist' (p. xiv).

But there are various attitudes to user-friendliness. *AHD*<sup>3</sup>, for example, has incorporated a special paragraph of 'word history' for extra detailed information 'at entries whose etymologies are of particular interest' (p. xlvi), and appended a unique 'Indo-European Appendix' for informed

readers of etymology.<sup>2)</sup> *NODE*, on the other hand, has adopted a different approach, making every effort to present etymological information in a readable and attractive way without creating a special section for the purpose.<sup>3)</sup> In addition to the ordinary description of etymology, i.e. an explanation of the ‘morphological development’ of a word, *NODE* has embarked on an ambitious enterprise, an explanation of ‘sense development’.

Detailed etymological information will be found in dictionaries intended for specialist readers, e.g. *OED*<sup>2</sup> and *SOD*<sup>4</sup> or Onions’s *SODEE* and Klein’s *CEDEL*.<sup>4)</sup> Such detailedness, however, is not required for a standard English dictionary whose principal purpose is to provide a general knowledge of current usage of English words. Therefore, etymology in a standard dictionary of current English plays a subsidiary role, i.e. to give some useful historical information to help understand the apparent incongruity of various current meanings of a word. The kind of etymology that is required is one which will attract the general reader’s attention and give them some rewarding information about the word from a historical viewpoint. This seems to be the goal that *NODE* is intended to attain.

## 7.2. Etymology of *etymology*

Now we shall examine in some detail how *NODE* offers etymological information. By way of illustration, the etymologies of the words *etymology* and *etymon* are given below, together with those in three Oxford dictionaries, *COD*<sup>9</sup>, *COD*<sup>8</sup>, *SOD*<sup>4</sup>, and in some other standard dictionaries recently published, which are, in reverse order of publication: *CED*<sup>4</sup>, *CD*, *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup>, *WNWCD*<sup>3</sup>, *MWCD*<sup>10</sup>, *AHD*<sup>3</sup>. N.B. 1: *etymology* and 2: *etymon*.

<i>NODE</i>	1 – ORIGIN late Middle English: from Old French <i>ethimologie</i> , via Latin from Greek <i>etumologia</i> , from <i>etumologos</i> ‘student of etymology’, from <i>etumon</i> , neuter singular of <i>etumos</i> ‘true’. 2 – ORIGIN late 16th cent. (denoting the original form of a word): via Latin from Greek <i>etumon</i> ‘true thing’ (see ETYMOLOGY).
<i>COD</i> <sup>9</sup>	1 [Old French <i>ethimologie</i> via Latin <i>etymologia</i> from Greek

<i>COD</i> <sup>8</sup>	<i>etumologia</i> (as ETYMON, -LOGY)] 2 [earlier in the sense ‘the literal sense or original form or a word’; Latin from Greek <i>etumon</i> , neut. of <i>etumos</i> ‘true’] 1 [OF <i>ethimologie</i> f. L <i>etymologia</i> f. Gk <i>etumologia</i> (as ETYMON, -LOGY)] 2 [L f. Gk <i>etumon</i> (neut. of <i>etumos</i> true), the literal sense or original form of a word]
<i>SOD</i> <sup>4</sup>	1 LME. [OFr. <i>ethimologie</i> (mod. <i>étymologie</i> ) f. L <i>etimologia</i> (med.L <i>ethymologia</i> , <i>ethim-</i> ) f. Gk <i>etumologia</i> , f. <i>etumologos</i> student of etymology, f. <i>etumon</i> : see next, -OLOGY.] 2 L16. [L f. Gk <i>etumon</i> use as n. of neut. sing. of <i>etumos</i> true.]
<i>CED</i> <sup>4</sup>	1 [C14: via Latin from Greek <i>etumologia</i> ; see ETYMON, -LOGY] 2 [C16: via Latin, from Greek <i>etumon</i> basic meaning, from <i>etumos</i> true, actual]
<i>CD</i> <i>RHWCD</i> <sup>2</sup>	1 & 2 [Neuter of Greek <i>etymos</i> true] <sup>5)</sup> 1 [1350–1400; ME < L <i>etymologia</i> < Gk <i>etumología</i> ; see ETYMON, -LOGY] 2 [1560–70; < L: the origin of a word < Gk <i>étymon</i> the essential meaning of a word seen in its origin or traced to its grammatical parts, neut. of <i>étymos</i> true, actual, real]
<i>WNWCD</i> <sup>3</sup>	1 [ME & OFr <i>ethimologie</i> < L <i>etymologia</i> < Gr: see fol. & -LOGY] 2 [L < Gr <i>etymon</i> , literal sense of a word, etymology, neut. of <i>etymos</i> , true IE *seto- < base *es-, to be > is, L <i>sum</i> , <i>est</i> ]
<i>MWCD</i> <sup>10</sup>	1 [ME <i>ethimologie</i> , fr. L <i>etymologia</i> , fr. Gk fr. <i>etymon</i> + -logia -logy] (14c) 2 [L fr. Gk, literal meaning of a word according to its origin, fr. <i>etymos</i> true; akin to Gk <i>eteos</i> true — more at SOOTH] (ca. 1576) Cf. <i>'sooth adj</i> [ME, fr. OE <i>soth</i> ; akin to OHG <i>sand</i> true, L <i>esse</i> to be] (bef. 12c)
<i>AHD</i> <sup>3</sup>	1 [Middle English <i>etimologie</i> , from Old French <i>ethimologie</i> , from Medieval Latin <i>ethimologia</i> , from Latin <i>etymologia</i> , from Greek <i>etumologia</i> : <i>etumon</i> , true sense of a word; see ETYMON + -logia, -logy.] 2 [Latin, from Greek <i>etumon</i> , true sense of a word, from <i>etumos</i> , true.]

*NODE* is unique in its way of presenting etymology. Instead of confining it within brackets, it is headed by the word ‘ORIGIN’ introduced by a dash. This is a good practice because it will easily attract the reader’s attention as compared to bracketed etymology, which might be ignored. The etymological information given first in *NODE* is the date of the earliest record of the word.

### 7.3. Dating and sense

Dating divides the dictionaries into two types: those which give the date and those which do not. Among those which belong to the former group, American *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup> (after the Old English period) and *MWCD*<sup>10</sup> (after the Middle English period) give more precise dates than British *NODE* and *CED*<sup>4</sup>. While *CED*<sup>4</sup> gives dates by century, *NODE* following *SOD*<sup>4</sup> further divides centuries subsequent to the Middle English period into three stages: *early*, *mid* and *late*.<sup>6</sup> As to *etymology*, the earliest date given in *MED* is (a 1398) for Trevisa’s translation.<sup>7</sup> This date is variously reinterpreted according to the principles adopted by each dictionary. The earliest date given in *OED*<sup>2</sup> for *etymon* is 1570–6. *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup> has a date a decade earlier than the one which *OED*<sup>2</sup> cites while *MWCD*<sup>10</sup> has adopted the latest date. When it enters the twentieth century, *NODE* begins to give a more precise date, by decade, as in *hijack*: ‘1920s’ and *pataphysics*: ‘1940s’.<sup>8</sup> But not every word is endowed with first dates. Words lacking in dating include some foreign words and those relating to proper nouns.<sup>9</sup>

When the sense for the earliest recorded use is not given in the definitions of the entry or is different from the first defined sense, *NODE* indicates the original sense in round brackets as in *etymon* above, in *classical*: ‘late 16th cent. (in the sense “outstanding of its kind”)’, and in *girth*: ‘Middle English (in sense 2)’. More elaborate description may be found in some words, e.g. *tease*:

Old English *tāsan* (in sense 2), of West Germanic origin; related to Dutch *teezen* and German dialect *zeisen*, also to *TEASEL*. Sense 1 is a development of the earlier and more serious ‘irritate by annoying actions’ (early 17th cent.), a figurative use of the word’s original sense.

As is shown in this example, explaining sense development in some detail is one of the special features of *NODE*, which will be examined later in 7.6.<sup>10</sup>

When a word with more than one part of speech has the first recorded use earlier than that for the part of speech given first, a remark to this effect may be made as in *early*: ‘Old English (as an adverb) . . . The adjective use dates from Middle English.’ When a word with some discrete senses deserves special mention, a detailed explanation of its sense development will be given often with a date supplied to each sense, e.g. *magazine*:

late 16th cent.: . . . The term originally meant ‘store’ and was often used from the mid 17th cent. in the title of books providing information useful to particular groups of people, whence sense 1 (mid 18th cent.). Sense 3, a contemporary specialization of the original meaning, gave rise to sense 2 in the mid 18th cent.

### 7.4. Morphological development

The morphological description follows the date in *NODE*, *SOD*<sup>4</sup>, *CED*<sup>4</sup> and *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup> while in *MWCD*<sup>10</sup> the date is put at the end. *NODE*, *CED*<sup>4</sup>, *AHD*<sup>3</sup>, and *COD*<sup>9</sup> explain the morphological development in plain language, whereas all the others except *CD* use either a symbol or abbreviation to show ‘descended from’: ‘<’ in *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup> and *WNWCD*<sup>3</sup>, ‘f.’ in *COD*<sup>8</sup> and *SOD*<sup>4</sup>, ‘fr.’ in *MWCD*<sup>10</sup>.<sup>11</sup> In *NODE* no distinction is made between borrowing and genetic development, and both processes are described with the same word ‘from’. When a borrowed word is not directly adopted from a language but indirectly by way of another language, the word ‘via’ is used to show it.

No mention is made of Middle English in *COD*<sup>9</sup>, *COD*<sup>8</sup>, *CED*<sup>4</sup>, and *CD*. (*CD* alone skips the intervening route, simply giving the ultimate source or the etymon.) That the word *etymology* had ‘-th-’ in its history cannot be known in *CED*<sup>4</sup>, *CD*, and *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup>. But all citations in *MED* under the entry *etimologīe* (with a variant form *ethimi-*) have forms with ‘-th-’ only.

*NODE*, *RHWCD*<sup>2</sup>, *WNWCD*<sup>3</sup>, *AHD*<sup>3</sup>, *COD*<sup>8</sup> and *COD*<sup>9</sup> make a gram-

matical comment on the difference of endings of two Greek word forms, *etumon* and *etumos*. All dictionaries trace its word history as far back as the Greek word *etymon*. *WNWCD*<sup>3</sup> goes further to assume the Indo-European hypothetical form of the word \**seto-* and still further its base form \**es-* ‘to be’. *MWCD*<sup>10</sup> takes a similar attitude, but, instead of giving an asterisked form, gives an attested cognate word or words introduced by ‘akin to’. *NODE* and *SOD*<sup>4</sup> alone give the intermediate Greek form *etumologos* ‘student of etymology’, which suggests that both dictionaries attach weight to the sense development of a word.

When it refers to a hypothetical language form, *NODE* adopts the same principle as *MWCD*<sup>10</sup> does but with some difference. *NODE* refers to the ultimate Indo-European root by citing its attested cognates, Latin and/or Greek (and occasionally Sanskrit), introduced by the phrase ‘from an Indo-European root shared by’ as in *mean*<sup>2,12)</sup>. When indicating that a native English word has a Germanic origin, *NODE* often cites Dutch and German, the closest relatives to English — all these belonging to the West Germanic language group — not in old language forms but in modern forms introduced by ‘related to’ as in *mead*<sup>1</sup>:

Old English *me(o)du*, of Germanic origin; related to Dutch *mee* and German *Met*, from an Indo-European root shared by Sanskrit *madhu* ‘sweet drink, honey’ and Greek *methu* ‘wine’.

Only *NODE* gives full etymological information under *etymology* while all the rest (CD excepted) refer the reader who has looked up *etymology* to *etymon* for further information. This would be a good practice. For this way of giving etymological information under that entry which most readers will try first enables them to obtain the whole etymological information in one place without being forced to roam around a dictionary for the etymon.

British dictionaries have a general tendency to give their morphological information more selectively than American counterparts, as is typically seen in *AHD*<sup>3</sup> or *WNWCD*<sup>3</sup>. So, while it is generous in offering semantic information, i.e. ‘sense development’, *NODE* tends to be somewhat sparing with morphological information.

## 7.5. Grammatical explanation

Occasional grammatical explanation is added to a particular word form, as is seen above in *etymology*: ‘... *etumon*, neuter singular of *etumos* “true”.’ Such grammatical comments are often found to explain the inflectional forms of a word or sometimes to explain the way the word was formed, i.e. word formation. Examples are:

- em** Middle English: originally a form of *hem*, dative and accusative third person plural pronoun in Middle English; now regarded as an abbreviation of **them**.
- view** ... *vieu*, feminine past participle of *veoir* “see”, from Latin *videre*.
- pea** mid 17th cent.: back-formation from **PEASE** (interpreted as plural).

English has adopted some foreign words or phrases in the original forms, mostly from Latin, but a very limited number of them are accompanied with grammatical analysis. Most of them are given translations only as in *peccavi*: ‘Latin, literally “I have sinned”.’ and *noli me tangere*: ‘Latin, literally “do not touch me”.’<sup>13)</sup> The following words, on the other hand, are grammatically explained:

- via** late 18th cent.: from Latin, ablative of *via* ‘road, way’.
- exeat** early 18th cent.: from Latin, ‘let him or her go out’, third person singular present subjunctive of *exire* (see **EXIT**).

Thus, it appears to be that the more familiar foreign words have their grammatical forms explained.

Many English grammatical terms were directly borrowed from Latin grammatical terms, which in turn had been loan translations of Greek expressions as *NODE* shows us:

- adjective** ... The term was originally used in the phrase *noun adjective*, translating Latin *nomen adjективum*, a translation of Greek *ονόμα επίθετον* ‘attributive name’.
- subject** ... Senses relating to philosophy, logic, and grammar are derived ultimately from Aristotle’s use of *to hupokeimenon* meaning ‘material from which things are made’ and ‘sub-

ject of attributes and predicates'.

As has been seen in some of the above examples, it is one of *NODE*'s special features that etymologies are often given to a particular sense or to some different senses of a word to explain its 'sense development'.<sup>14)</sup>

Most native English words, of Germanic origin, have directly descended from their Old English ancestors, but almost all modern forms are reflexes of Anglian dialect forms of Old English, not of 'standard' West-Saxon dialect forms, as is shown in *NODE*:

**wold** Old English *wald* 'wooded upland', of Germanic origin; perhaps related to **WILD**. Compare with **WEALD**.

**old** Old English *ald*, of West Germanic origin . . .<sup>15)</sup>

But some Old English etymons are given in a different way. Of the following two examples, two different West-Saxon forms are given in the first, and in the second both Anglian and West-Saxon forms are given:

**wield** Old English *wealdan, wieldan* 'govern, subdue, direct', of Germanic origin; related to German *walten*.<sup>16)</sup>

**hold** Old English *haldan, healdan*, of Germanic origin; related to Dutch *houden* and German *halten*; the noun is partly from Old Norse *hald* 'hold, support, custody'.

There are some Old English words which have undergone changes in form, pronunciation or meaning that were caused by their closely-related Old Norse counterparts in the early stages of their development. Some Old English words have been completely replaced by their Old Norse cognates. Explanation on these points is found in *NODE* in words like:

**egg** Middle English (superseding earlier *ey*, from Old English *ēg*): from Old Norse.<sup>17)</sup>

**die<sup>1</sup>** Middle English: from Old Norse *deyja*, of Germanic origin; related to **DEAD**.

**skirt** Middle English: from Old Norse *skyrt* 'shirt'; compare with synonymous Old English *scyrte*, also with **SHORT** . . .

But no such comment is found in *sister*, which *AHD*<sup>3</sup> explains thus: 'Middle

English, partly from Old English *sweostor* and from Old Norse *systir*; see **swesor-** below.'

Disparities between spelling and pronunciation are sometimes explained in some detail in *NODE* as in the following words:

**once** Middle English *ones*, genitive of **ONE**. The spelling change in the 16th cent. was in order to retain the unvoiced sound of the final consonant.

**among** (chiefly Brit. also **amongst**) Old English *ongemang* (from *on* 'in' + *gemang* 'assemblage, mingling'). The *-st* of *amongst* represents *-s* (adverbial genitive) + *-t* probably by association with superlatives (as in *against*).<sup>18)</sup>

As has been seen in the above example *among*, an etymologically erroneous addition of some sound is also explained in *NODE*. For similar examples concerning the final *-d*, see *bound*<sup>3</sup> and *expound*. The following examples are concerning the loss of the medial *-d-* and *-b-*, and the apparent absence of a possessive ending:

**advance** . . . The initial *a-* was erroneously assimilated to **AD-** in the 16th cent.

**debt** Middle English *dette*: from Old French, based on Latin *debitum* 'something owed', past participle of *debere* 'owe'. The spelling change in French and English was by association with the Latin word.

**lady** . . . In **LADY DAY** and other compounds where it signifies possession, it represents the Old English genitive *hlāfdīgan* '(Our) Lady's'.

Other examples include *victual* and *tuft* as to the insertion of the medial consonants, and *Childemas* and *child* as to the form of their plural forms. However, this is not always the case since no explanation is found in words that seem to deserve a special comment as in *perfect*: 'Middle English: from Old French *perfet*, from Latin *perfectus* "completed", from the verb *perficere* . . .', where the later insertion of the medial *-c-* is left unexplained.<sup>19)</sup> Since the first citation of *perfect* with the medial *-c-* in *OED*<sup>2</sup> is dated 1526 (Tindale) and, in *MED*, is dated a1500 (under **parfit** 3(c) *Chartier Quad.(2)*: the only example with the medial *-c-*), the date given in *NODE* is prob-

ably to the form without *-c-*, but the etymology given in *NODE* remains silent about it.

### 7.6. Sense development

During the long history of English many words have undergone various kinds of semantic change. For example, *fowl* was once used as a general term for a bird and *deer* was applied to denote an animal in general. *NODE* makes a brief comment on *fowl*: ‘... originally the general term for a bird ...’ and a very useful one on *deer*:

Old English *dēor*, also originally denoting any quadruped, used in the (now archaic) phrase *small deer* meaning ‘small creatures collectively’; of Germanic origin; related to Dutch *dier*, and German *Tier*.

*Meat*, however, is neglected.<sup>20)</sup>

Another type of semantic change is found in *nice*, which had a great success in the linguistic world, and *silly*, which has disgraced itself, of which *NODE* gives a detailed account:

**nice** Middle English (in the sense ‘stupid’): from Old French, from Latin *nescius* ‘ignorant’, from *nescire* ‘not know’. Other early senses included ‘coy, reserved’, giving rise to ‘fastidious, scrupulous’; this led both to the sense ‘fine, subtle’ (regarded by some as the ‘correct sense’), and to the main current senses.

**silly** late Middle English (in the sense ‘deserving of pity or sympathy’): alteration of dialect *seely* ‘happy’, later ‘innocent, feeble’, from a West Germanic base meaning ‘luck, happiness’. The sense ‘foolish’ developed via the stages ‘feeble’ and ‘unsophisticated, ignorant’.

We also come across a comment on metanalysis, which is called ‘wrong division’ in *NODE*, as in *atchbone*, *adder*<sup>1</sup>, *apron*, *cherry*, *pea*, and *umpire*:

**adder**<sup>1</sup> ... The initial *n* was lost in Middle English by wrong division of *a naddre*; compare with **APRON**, **AUGER**, and **UPMPIRE**.

**cherry** ... The final *-s* was lost because *cherise* was interpreted as plural (compare with **CAPER**<sup>2</sup> and **PEA**).

### 7.7. Internal etymology and folk etymology

One of the special features that *NODE* proudly offers us is its ‘internal etymologies’ which ‘are given within entries to explain the origin of particular senses, phrases, or idioms’ (p. xiv). Some such etymologies may be found in the sense in question following the definition as in *cut VERB* at sense 14 (**cut it**) [ORIGIN: shortened form of the idiom *cut the mustard*], or *cut and run* in the PHRASES section [ORIGIN: originally a nautical phrase, meaning ‘cut the anchor cable because of some emergency and make sail immediately’].<sup>21)</sup> Some other examples:

**beware (or fear) the Greeks bearing gifts** proverb [ORIGIN: with allusion to Virgil’s *Aeneid* (ii. 49).]<sup>22)</sup> N.B. In PHRASES under **Greek**.

**Caesar’s wife** [ORIGIN: with reference to Plutarch’s *Caesar* (x. 6) ‘I thought my wife ought not even to be under suspicion.’] N.B. In PHRASES under **Caesar**.

**it isn’t over till the fat lady sings** [ORIGIN: by association with the final aria in tragic opera.] N.B. In PHRASES under **lady**.

Some ‘internal etymologies’, which will concern ‘sense development’ as well, may find their places in the ORIGIN section at the bottom of the entry, as in *case*<sup>1</sup> and *subject* referred to earlier.<sup>23)</sup>

Another special feature of *NODE* is that it has included ‘widely held but often erroneous folk etymologies for the benefit of the general reader’ (p. xiv), e.g. *sparrow grass* for ‘asparagus’. This is a stimulating and welcome attempt because it will not merely entertain native readers but also help supply non-native readers with some idea of what kind of association native speakers might have when they see or hear a particular word. Here are some examples:

**monty** of unknown origin; the phrase is only recorded recently. Among various (unsubstantiated) theories, one cites the phrase *the full Montague Burton*, apparently meaning ‘Sunday-best three-piece suit’ (from the name of a tailor of made-to-measure clothing in the early 20th cent.); another recounts the possibility of a military usage, *the full monty* being ‘the full cooked English breakfast’ insisted

upon by Field Marshal *Montgomery*.

**helpmate** late 17th cent. (as *helpmeet*): from an erroneous reading of Gen. 2: 18, 20, where Adam's future wife is described as 'an help meet for him' (i.e. a suitable helper for him). The variant *helpmate* came into use in the early 18th cent.

## 7.8. Other etymologies

Brief etymologies — but fairly long ones may sometimes be found as will be seen below — are also supplied for abbreviations, symbols, proper nouns and affixes.<sup>24)</sup>

<b>U<sup>3</sup></b>	abbreviation of <b>UPPER CLASS</b> ; coined in 1954 by Alan S.C. Ross, professor of linguistics, the term was popularized by its use in Nancy Mitford's <i>Noblesse Oblige</i> (1956).
<b>IHS</b>	Middle English: from late Latin, representing Greek <i>IΗΣ</i> as an abbreviation of <i>Iēsous</i> 'Jesus' used in manuscripts and also a symbolic or ornamental monogram, but later often taken as an abbreviation of various Latin phrases, notably <i>Iesus Hominum Salvator</i> 'Jesus Saviour of Men'. <i>In Hoc Signo (vinces)</i> 'in this sign (thou shalt conquer)', and <i>In Hac Salus</i> 'in this (cross) is salvation'.
<b>Minotaur</b>	from Old French, via Latin from Greek <i>Minōtauros</i> , from <i>Minōs</i> (see <b>MINOS</b> ) + <i>tauros</i> 'bull'.
<b>Zhdanov</b>	named after the Soviet Politburo official Andrei Zhdanov, the defender of Leningrad during the siege of 1941–4.
<b>-ing<sup>1</sup></b>	Old English <i>-ung</i> , <i>-ing</i> , of Germanic origin.
<b>-ing<sup>2</sup></b>	Middle English: alteration of earlier <i>-ende</i> , later <i>-inde</i> . <sup>25)</sup>

## 7.9. Japanese loanwords

*NODE* includes a large number of loanwords from Japanese, far more than 150 words excluding biographical and geographical proper names. Only a few of them have dated etymologies, and some are given 'Japanese' as the sole etymological information. Those which have dates with or without further etymological information include:

<b>aikido</b>	1950s: from Japanese <i>aikidō</i> , literally 'way of adapting the spirit', from <i>ai</i> 'together, unify' + <i>ki</i> 'spirit' + <i>dō</i> 'way'.
<b>hibakusha</b>	mid 20th cent.: Japanese, from <i>hi</i> 'suffer' + <i>baku</i> 'ex-

<b>shiatsu</b>	plosion' + <i>sha</i> 'person'. 1960s: Japanese, literally 'finger pressure'.
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Those which have some etymological information with or without dates include:

<b>akebia</b>	1837: modern Latin, coined by J. Decaisne, French botanist, from Japanese <i>akebi</i> .
<b>basho</b>	Japanese, from <i>ba</i> 'place' + <i>shō</i> 'victory, win'. <sup>26)</sup>
<b>otaku</b>	Japanese, literally 'your house', alluding to the reluctance of such young people to leave the house.
<b>tanka<sup>1</sup></b>	Japanese, from <i>tan</i> 'short' + <i>ka</i> 'song'. <sup>27)</sup>
<b>yakuza</b>	Japanese, from <i>ya</i> 'eight' + <i>ku</i> 'nine' + <i>za</i> 'three', referring to the worst hand in a gambling game. <sup>28)</sup>
<b>yukata</b>	Japanese, from <i>yu</i> 'hot water' (because originally worn indoors after a bath) + <i>kata(bira)</i> 'light kimono'.

Those which have nothing other than 'Japanese' include:

*Fuji*,<sup>29)</sup> *juku*, *matsuri*, *sayonara*, *tansu*, and *tanto*.<sup>30)</sup>

There is a fly in the ointment for those willing to learn some Japanese through the etymologies provided by *NODE*. Apart from those pointed out in the footnotes, more mistakes remain to be corrected. Since it offers excellent etymological information as to words of Indo-European origin, *NODE* ought to banish inadequacies lurking in words of Asian origin.<sup>31)</sup>

The translation system of *NODE* in the etymology section needs reconsideration. That it gives English translation only to the whole words might sometimes mislead the general reader. Take, for example, a Malay word, *orang-utan*: '... from Malay *orang huan* "forest person".'<sup>32)</sup> Word order plays an important role in Malay compounds, the head being modified by the following word: e.g. *Bahasa Malaysia*, 'the Malaysian language'. Therefore, the etymological information for *Orang Asli*: 'Malay, from *orang* "person" and *as(a)li* "of ancient origin" (from *asal* "source or origin").' is more accurate and enlightening. Or that in the Japanese *aikido* or *yukata* shown above, in which the meaning of the whole phrase is given either in the definition or etymology, followed by each constituent form with its

corresponding meaning, ideally with further information to help understanding of the relation between parts and the whole, as in the latter word.

### 7.10. Encyclopaedic information in etymology

*NODE* abounds in encyclopaedic information in its etymologies, often showing the reader literary and Biblical sources. This, of course, results from its encyclopaedic and user-friendly principles of editing. Most readers, who are not etymology enthusiasts, will feel comfortable at finding a familiar name in the etymology, especially a household name in a literary world, e.g. Shakespeare, Scott, Keats and Dickens. We also come across Biblical references in the etymologies as well as in the definitions. Just to give a few examples: *salad days* [from Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra* (I. v. 72).], *oyster*, and *greeneyed monster* referring to Shakespeare; *dirge* [Ps. 5:8], *Mammon*, *manna*, and *a beam in one's eye* under *beam* referring to the Bible. *Tweedledum* and *Tweedledee* and *Cheshire cat* both refer us to Lewis Carroll, *orc* and *hobbit* to Tolkien, *sour grapes* under *sour* to Aesop, *Pangloss* to Voltaire, and *pander* and *derring-do* to Chaucer. We could wander through a literary world to our heart's content.<sup>33)</sup>

### 7.11. Concluding remarks

All things considered, *NODE* seems to be quite successful in presenting etymological information in a standard dictionary of current English. Etymology in *NODE* is very useful not only to native users but to non-native users because it reveals many aspects of the English language and culture, together with its encyclopaedic entries. It is well worth browsing through and, in doing so, the reader will find invaluable information of various sorts. *NODE*'s ambitious attempt to include sense development in etymology is well worth the effort because it enables the user to get the word into perspective. It might be said that *NODE* has shown to us one of the desired ways which etymology in a standard dictionary should take in the future, and with success.

(K. Omiya)

### 8. Conclusion

By way of conclusion, two points will be made here. The first one concerns the alleged novelty of *NODE*, while the second relates to a common thread that is purported to run through the dictionary.

*NODE* is proud to announce that it is an enterprising endeavor supported by new ideas, as claimed in the *Preface*:

The *New Oxford Dictionary of English* is a completely new dictionary, written on new principles. It builds on the excellence of the lexicographical traditions of scholarship and analysis of evidence as set down by the *Oxford English Dictionary* over a century ago, but it is also very much a new departure. The *New Oxford Dictionary of English* is a dictionary of current English and it is informed by currently available evidence and current thinking about language and cognition (p. viii).

As we saw from time to time in the preceding sections, the most remarkable feature of *NODE* is that it has integrated into a native-speaker dictionary a variety of designs and devices that have characterized most, if not all, EFL dictionaries, such as the inclusion of encyclopedic material, the adoption of the IPA, the specification of selectional restrictions, and the introduction of grammatical terms relating to countability/uncountability of nouns, to name just a few. Apparently, *NODE* does contain a sufficient number of features to emphasize its newness. But a qualifying comment seems to be in order, however. It might be better said that *NODE* is new within the tradition of Oxford dictionaries, considering the fact that some of the features of learners' dictionaries referred to above have already been taken up and incorporated in some way or other by other dictionaries of its kind. This is not to say, of course, that *NODE* is not better. But, be that as it may, it is an educated guess that the various methods and techniques devised for learners' dictionaries would be more likely adopted or adapted by native-speaker dictionaries, despite the fact that the two types of dictionaries in question differ from each other in the kinds of information that they are supposed to provide the user with. One may well say that, in this sense, *NODE* is a standard-bearer.

Another dominant theme of *NODE* manifests itself in the following statement made, again, in the *Preface*: "The *New Oxford Dictionary of*

*English* views the language from the perspective that English is a world language." To what extent is this true? A theory of profound interest in the field of intercultural communication, proposed by Bennett (1986), explains the stages of development of intercultural sensitivity. He states that three stages of ethnocentrism are postulated on the one hand and another three of ethnorelativism on the other and they form into a continuum.<sup>1)</sup> This developmental model is used to identify the level of intercultural sensitivity of individual trainees (and trainers as well), which, it is hoped, may, in turn, be extended to identify the stage where dictionaries stand relative to their "linguistic sensitivity." It is apparent that *NODE* has made a conscious effort to include varieties of English other than the two major ones of British and American English. *NODE* concedes, however, that "[o]ften, the aim has been to find out whether a particular word, sense, or expression, well known and standard in British English, is used anywhere else." Accordingly, it would seem that *NODE* is fairly out of "anglocentrism" and yet is at the stage of ACCEPTANCE. Marr (1998) observes the following:

This isn't really an English dictionary. It's the first draft of a world language dictionary.... This is a book which leans out, almost recklessly, into the future. Its publication marks a moment when 'English' is no longer primarily the language of the English, even for the British themselves.

His observation correctly indicates the lines along which *NODE* is headed, but it has not yet come as far as he alleges. To put it another way, the dictionary still has a long way to go toward even higher levels of "anglo-relativism."

## NOTES

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to Professor Nobuyuki Higashi, without whose unflagging support and assistance this paper of ours would not have been possible. Our thanks go also to Mr. Patrick Hanks, who provided us with copies of Press Releases and his biographical information. Last but not least, we owe special thanks to Mr. Joseph Dilenschneider and Professor John Seahill for reading parts of our manuscripts and helping to improve them. Whatever errors remain are our own.

### Section 1

1) The dictionaries in question are the third edition of *LDOCE*, the second edition of *COBUILD*, the fifth edition of *OALD*, and the *CIDE*, which is an entirely new arrival. Allen (1996: 41), for instance, writes, "1995 was an unusual year for ELT publishing," and Bogaards (1996: 277) remarks, "1995 was a particularly fruitful year for the pedagogical lexicography of English."

2) Personal communication, 8 June, 1999.

### Section 2

1) If the former editions of *COD* were 'Concise' versions of *OED*, the latest tenth edition is obviously an abridged version of *NODE*. See *COD*<sup>10</sup>'s *Preface* (pp. vii-viii).

2) Pages 51 (*aluminium bronze — amazing*), 351 (*coati — cocolithophore*), 751 (*gal<sup>1</sup> — gall<sup>1</sup>*), 1451 (*pot<sup>4</sup> — pot-herb*), and 2051 (*vendace — vent<sup>2</sup>*).

3) *NODE* is bigger than *OERD*<sup>1</sup>:

<i>NODE</i> v. <i>OERD</i> <sup>1</sup>	electro-	hydro-	home	life	side
<i>NODE</i> yes, <i>OERD</i> <sup>1</sup> no:	28	19	12	14	23
<i>NODE</i> no, <i>OERD</i> <sup>1</sup> yes:	1	3	4	2	5

4) *NODE* has '12,000 encyclopedic entries' (dust jacket) including 'more than 4,500 place-name entries, 4,000 biographical entries, and just under 3,000 other proper names' (*NODE*: xi). *CED*<sup>4</sup> contains 'over 18,500 encyclopedic entries' (dust jacket). *CD* is a 'linguistic' dictionary, but it does explain some place names. However, the criteria for the selection are mysterious. For instance, *Brussels*, *Paris*, *Rome* and *Venice* are included, but *Berlin*, *London*, *Madrid* and *Vienna* are not.

5) Sometimes, only derived forms may be included when their parent trademarks have lost their popularity. For instance, *NODE* defines the verb *simonize*, but its parent proprietary name *Simoniz* is only mentioned in the etymology.

6) *COD*<sup>10</sup> has treated 'very common words' such as *be* and *go* briefly and omitted some transparent compounds which 'are easily analysable into their component parts' like *beach ball* and *hen house*. Instead, it has included 'many more words and meanings... belonging to specialist and scientific fields' (*COD*<sup>10</sup>: vii-viii). *Beach ball* is included in *NODE*, but *hen house* is not.

7) *Larrikin* is labelled as *Australian* in *NODE* and *CD*, but *Austral. and N.Z. slang* in *CED*<sup>4</sup>.

8) Idioms are run-outs in all.

9) In *OERD*<sup>1</sup>, open and hyphenated compounds are given under the headword of the first word. But there are exceptions. (See *OERD*<sup>1</sup>: xvii.)

10) The fifth edition of *OALD* (1995) has abolished syllabification for the first time in the history of this series. Among other ELT dictionaries published in the same year, *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup> and *HEED/CEED* do not give syllabification information, whereas *LDOCE*<sup>3</sup> and *CIDE* do.

### Section 3

1) Almost exactly the same wording is used in *COD*<sup>10</sup>.

2) Not yet published at the time of writing of this paper.

3) Details of this survey can be browsed on Well's web page given in the reference at the end of this article. The words taken up to compare with how *NODE* treats them are from his list on the Internet web page, titled "LPD Pronunciation Preference Survey 1998:

Concise findings, listed alphabetically."

- 4) According to the list by Minamide (1998).

#### Section 4

1) This notion of core meaning or central meaning is not entirely new. For instance, *AHD*<sup>3</sup> says, "Entries containing more than one sense are arranged . . . with the *central* and often the most commonly sought meanings first" (p. xxxix), and *CED*<sup>1</sup> states, "Where the editors consider that a current meaning is the 'core meaning' in that it illustrates the meaning of other senses, the *core* meaning may be placed first" (p. xv) (emphasis added). One might be reminded that Patrick Hanks, who is the chief editor of *NODE*, was the editor of *EWD* and of both the first and second editions of *CED*.

2) Hanks (1979: 38) made the point that "any attempt to write a completely analytical definition of any common word in natural language is absurd. . . . What a good dictionary offers instead is typification: the dictionary definition summarises what the lexicographer finds to be the most typical common features . . . of the use, context, and collocations of the word." It is not too much to say that this observation of his is also behind the core sense adoption.

- 3) Sense 1 is omitted as irrelevant because it is an intransitive use.

- 4) The same point is made in Landau (1999: 251).

5) Numbers are added to each relevant sense or subsense for ease of comparison. Note that some other minor definitions are left out of consideration in this context.

6) *NODE* states the following: "The information presented in the dictionary about individual words is based on close analysis of how words behave in real, natural language. Behind every dictionary entry are examples of the word in use . . . which have been analysed to give information about typical usage, about distribution (whether typically British or typically US, for example), about register (whether informal or derogatory, for example), about currency (whether archaic or dated, for example), and about subject field (whether used only in Medicine or Finance, for example)" (p. xii).

7) In the remaining two entries (*lump*<sup>2</sup> and *ripper*), the same label of *informal* is shared by the two dictionaries.

- 8) These three words given as examples were all labeled *slang* in *COD*<sup>9</sup>.

#### Section 5

1) They vary in length and complexity from straightforward (*why did he do it?* (why)) to longer 'two-liners' (*they were arrested to help fill the quota of arrests the security police had to make during the crackdown.* (quota)). Most of them tend to be longer than those given in other comparable dictionaries.

2) In the case of the names of the months, *December* alone has an example for its use as modifier (*a December day*).

- 3) There are similar examples in summer and autumn.

- 4) The label 'figurative' itself may perhaps help.

- 5) See, for example, Osselton (1995).

6) It should be appreciated, however, if a new or unfamiliar sense of a word otherwise available is brought to light by this practice.

- 7) *COBUILD*<sup>2</sup> has *An epidemic to rival that which killed 26,000 in 1989 may hit the UK.*

8) The whole description of this particular usage is as follows: [no obj., with complement] alter in terms of: *the ferns began to change shape.* Something is wrong with this

particular description.

- 9) The phrase *charge for* is highlighted in another example: *museums should charge for admission.*

- 10) The answer can be found, not in *specialist*, but in *diet*: *a specialist in diet.*

#### Section 6

1) *NODE* states in the *Introduction*: 'Occasionally, a mass noun may be used in the plural, with the sense "different types of X" or "portions of X", as in *the panel tasted a range of bacons*. Such uses are recorded in the *New Oxford Dictionary of English* only when they are particularly important' (p. xi). As for the word *happiness* mentioned in Stanley (1999) above, it is treated as a run-on derivative in *NODE*. No mention is made of the countability of nouns unless they are treated as headwords.

2) The definition of 'sentence adverb' varies from grammarian to grammarian. Cf. Chalker and Weiner (1994, s.vv. *sentence adverb*, *sentence adverbial*) for the definitions of 'sentence adverb': 1. A term covering CONJUNCTS and DISJUNCTS. 2. Another term for DISJUNCTS only; distinguished from CONJUNCT, which may then be labelled CONNECTOR'. The term 'sentence adverb' as defined in *NODE* corresponds to the second definition here.

3) Cf. *Introduction*: 'The label [with adverbial] is used to mark a verb which takes an obligatory adverbial, typically a prepositional phrase, without which the sentence in which the verb occurs would sound unnatural or odd' (p. xii).

4) Cf. Burchfield (1996: xi): 'Anyone who has spent nearly thirty years, as I did, editing a major dictionary on historical principles is bound to prefer an historical approach to English usage to one that is limitedly descriptive. Judgements based on the distribution of competing constructions or pronunciations are intrinsically fragile and diminished in value if the constructions are not also examined historically'.

#### Section 7

The author of this section owes much to Professor N. Higashi's article on etymology in M. Sakurai et al. 1981, pp. 98–108.

1) *NODE* has no introductory articles or appendices except for those showing the compiling principles and the use of the dictionary. An additional article on the history of English would certainly provide the interested reader with some historical background or perspective necessary to appreciate the detailed etymological information of English words as displayed in ORIGIN.

2) But this is a sort of scholarly work and remains far too difficult for the general reader to appreciate.

3) Sporadic comments on etymology are found in the Usage Notes. See, for example, the Notes at *hoi polloi* and *mickle*.

4) Japanese readers are proud to have an excellent etymological dictionary: Y. Terasawa's *KDEE*.

5) N.B. *Etymology* has no independent entry, but is explained under the entry *etymon*.

6) In *CED*<sup>4</sup>, '[w]ords first appearing in the language during the Middle English period or later are dated by century' but those directly descended from Old English are not dated (pp. xxii–xxiii). No description is given of the date of first recorded uses in *NODE*. According to the date ranges defined in *SOD*<sup>4</sup> (p. xvi), *Middle English* covers '1150–1349 or, in some contexts, 1469' and *late Middle English* '1350–1469'. Cf. the entries *Old English* and

**Middle English** in *NODE*. For both **Middle English** and **Old English**, a late period is distinguished: see, for example, the entries for *fancy* and *May*.

- 7) In *MED*'s practice, the dates enclosed in parentheses mean the composition dates.
- 8) But some words are given a broad date: e.g. *internet*: late 20th cent. and *kerogen*: early 20th cent.
- 9) For example, *Anglo-Saxon, burra, hiba, hibiscus, Huguenot, lyonnaise, Prince Charming*, and *rare bird*.
- 10) Sometimes etymological information takes up so much space for an entry that the word seems to exist as if for explaining its etymology: e.g. *hearse*, which has 77 words of etymological explanation, most of which sense development accounts for, as against its 9-word-long definition. Other such examples are: *God Save the Queen* (also *King*), *obsequies*, and *ye<sup>2</sup>*.
- 11) 'Cent.' is the only abbreviation found in *NODE*'s etymology.
- 12) Cf. *acre* and *pepper*. In indicating the relationship to an Indo-European root, *NODE* does not always give Latin and/or Greek cognates. Sometimes it cross-refers readers to another entry as in the case of *mean<sup>1</sup>*, in which readers are cross-referred to *mind*, where a detailed morphological information is given. Sometimes it contents itself with merely giving the meaning of an Indo-European root as in *meal<sup>1</sup>*: '... from an Indo-European root meaning "to measure".'
- 13) In this entry, the Biblical allusion is mentioned not at ORIGIN but at the subsense of sense 1.
- 14) These could also be called 'internal etymology', although not found immediately following the relevant definition but placed at the bottom of the entry. See the next subsection 7.7.
- 15) The West-Saxon forms of these words are *weald* and *eald* respectively.
- 16) *OED<sup>2</sup>* explains that these two verb forms have eventually yielded the modern form.
- 17) The date is given to the current form of the word (*egg*), not to the Old English one (*æg*)
- 18) As to this final *-t*, no such comment is made at *midst*.
- 19) Likewise, no mention is made of the insertion of their silent consonants at *doubt* and *indict*.
- 20) Cross-referencing is rather scarce in *NODE*, which is a great pity. An encyclopaedic dictionary like *NODE* should take full advantage of cross-referencing as long as the space permits in order to provide the interested reader with as much information as it possibly can. Cf. the entries *adder<sup>1</sup>* and *cherry*, where the reader is adequately cross-referred to the relevant words.
- 21) This etymological explanation is not easy to detect and Sunday etymologists might overlook them.
- 22) It is very helpful to give the location of the relevant passage where a reader with an inquiring mind could get further information. It would be more helpful to cross-refer the reader to the relevant entries, e.g. *Laocoön* and the *Trojan Horse*.
- 23) See note 14.
- 24) Abbreviations and proper nouns may be explained either in the definition section or in the etymology section.
- 25) Almost all affixes seem to have etymologies. A suffix *-trix* has a usage note concerning etymology.
- 26) An obviously wrong etymology is given here. Replace the whole etymology with 'Japa-

nese, from *basho* "place (for the sumo tournament)".'

- 27) In this case, *ka* should be translated into 'song, poetry', or simply 'poetry', as is correctly done in *renga*: Japanese, from *ren* "linking" + *ga* (from *ka* "poetry").'
- 28) Since 'za' is not at all an independent form, it should be 'za, san' or simply 'san', meaning 'three'.
- 29) A variety of Japanese apple, not the mountain.
- 30) This should be divided into *tan* 'short' + *tō* 'dagger, sword', as in *tanka*<sup>1</sup>.
- 31) See, for example, *issei, nisei* and *sansai* for inadequacy. The words with erroneous etymology include *Shotokan, sumo*, and a Malay word *orang-utan*, for which see the next note.
- 32) The letter 't' is missing in the second word, the correct form of which is *hutan*, meaning 'forest'. Cf. *AHD*<sup>3</sup> [Malay *orang hutan*: *orang*, man + *hutan*, wilderness, jungle.]
- 33) At *spam* we can meet 'Monty Python'!

#### Section 8

- 1) According to Bennett (1986), the first stage of ethnocentrism is that of DENIAL, the second DEFENSE, and the third MINIMIZATION, whereas the first level of ethnorelativism is that of ACCEPTANCE, the second ADAPTATION, and the last INTEGRATION. He explains, "[P]ersonal development will be discussed in terms of stages of growth as these relate to intercultural sensitivity. This conceptualization of personal growth posits a continuum of increasing sensitivity to difference, moving from 'ethnocentrism' through stages of greater recognition and acceptance of difference, here termed 'ethnorelativism'" (p. 27), and also notes that "[a] denial of difference is the purest form of ethnocentrism" (p. 33).

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- CED*<sup>4</sup>: *Collins English dictionary*, 4th ed. Glasgow: HarperCollins, 1998.
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- COBUILD*<sup>2</sup>: *Collins COBUILD English dictionary*, New ed. London: HarperCollins, 1995.
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- COD*<sup>9</sup>: *The concise Oxford dictionary*, 9th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995.
- COD*<sup>10</sup>: *The concise Oxford dictionary*, 10th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- EPD*: *English pronouncing dictionary* (Daniel Jones 15th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997.
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- HEED/CEED*: *Harrap's [Chambers] essential English dictionary*. Edinburgh: Chambers Harrap, 1995.

- KDEE: *The Kenkyusha dictionary of English etymology*. Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1997.
- LDOCE<sup>3</sup>: *Longman dictionary of contemporary English*, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995.
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- POD<sup>7</sup>: *The pocket Oxford dictionary of current English*, 7th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1984.
- RHWCD<sup>2</sup>: *Random House Webster's college dictionary*, 2nd ed. New York: Random House, 1997.
- SOD<sup>4</sup>: *The shorter Oxford English dictionary*, 4th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1993.
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