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Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (5):
Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten (1911) by Naibu Kanda *et al.* and
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1. Introduction

This edition of our series focuses on *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten* (*MoEJ*) and *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten* (*SEJ*) — the last two noteworthy English-Japanese dictionaries published during the Meiji era (1868–1912). This period is associated with the start of Japan's modernization, which saw the country go through drastic and rapid transformation from a feudal society into a modern industrial state. Toward the end of the Meiji era, Japan, which had closed its doors to the outside world half a century previously, rose to the ranks of the world's major powers. As contact and transaction with foreign countries increased dramatically, more importance was accordingly attached to the English language. *MoEJ* and *SEJ* outstrip the early-Meiji English-Japanese dictionaries both in content and sophistication, so much so that the latter do not bear comparison with the former. This paper makes a comparative analysis of *MoEJ* and *SEJ* in the indication of pronunciation, the selection of headwords, run-on entries, translation equivalents, explanations, sentential examples, and pictorial illustrations. Previous dictionaries upon which they drew are also brought into perspective, when appropriate. As in the previous installments, the life of the country when they appeared is portrayed and the profiles of the editors are given.

(Section 1 by Yamada)

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2. Historical Background

In 1895 the Sino-Japanese War ended. Japan's victory brought rapid development of Japanese capitalism and the rise of Japan's international status. In 1902 the Anglo-Japanese Alliance was formed. It was because both Japan and the Britain hoped to prevent Russia from ruling Manchuria. Two years later the Russo-Japanese War began. At first Japan was victorious at every battle, but later Japan proved to be extremely weak in its economy. Russia, on the other hand, became politically unstable. Therefore, both Japan and Russia were obliged to stop the war as soon as possible. The war ended in April 1905. The 1905 peace conference in Portsmouth resulted in a disappointing agreement for the Japanese people, because they had had to make a lot of sacrifices for the war, although it contributed to the Japan's economic interests in Korea and southern Manchuria. While Japan was fighting the war, the country completed its industrial revolution.

Japan annexed Korea in 1910, when a Korean assassinated Hirobumi Ito, the former governor-general of Korea. Four years before Japan had established the South Manchurian Railway and continued to dominate the area.

In 1914, when World War I broke out, Japan took advantage of the opportunity and declared war against Germany, pursuing the development and stability of its position in the East Asia. The 1917 Russian Revolution caused the Allied Powers to dispatch troops to Siberia, and Japan was to send a lot of men there and to other areas to control the revolution. During the war Japan's economy and industry improved greatly because of the changes to the cotton market and the demand for ships. But domestic inflation in Japan forced people to live a hard life. In 1918 a number of 'rice riots'¹⁾ occurred all over Japan and the government had to mobilize troops to quell them. Japan suffered from economic depression in 1920.

It is surprising how much the Japanese government felt the need to teach the English language. As early as 1872, when the new educational system was implemented, English became an required subject in junior high schools and the language could even be taught in an elementary

school. A survey shows there were only eighty-two schools where English was taught in 1874. The passion for studying English declined, though, in the early 1870s on account of a reassessment of the Japanese tradition and respect for the Eastern values. It was Arinori Mori²⁾ who revived the ardor for studying English when he was installed as Minister of Education in 1885.

Under these conditions, *An English Reader* written by Naibu Kanda before he went abroad became an excellent textbook in that its chief purpose was to develop users' English ability not only in reading but also listening, speaking and writing. Kanda, indeed, was very active in various fields. In the English education alone, he was called one of the forerunners who taught the new method of English teaching.

The study of English was considered very important as Japan won a victory over China and its international recognition rose in 1895. Also, Japan had to gain international status. English education was in its heyday in 1905 when Japan triumphed over Russia with much difficulty. After the Sino-Japanese War a number of schools or departments were established where English was taught: Seisoku English School (1896), Tokyo Gaikokugo School (1897), Tsuda English Juku (1900), etc. Studying English became very popular in many universities such as Tokyo University, Keio Gijuku University, and Waseda University. Thus more and more people got the opportunity to learn the language and a great number of adaptations and translations of English writings were published in those days.

3. The Compilers and their Dictionaries

3.1. The compilers

3.1.1. Naibu Kanda (1857-1923)

Naibu Kanda was born on February 27, 1857 in Yedo (present Tokyo). In 1868 he became the adopted child of Kohei Kanda, who was a famous scholar of Dutch studies. As English was gaining predominance over Dutch in those days, Kanda started to study English under the tuition of his father when he was ten years old, and four years later he went over to the U.S.A. with Mori Arinori to study English. In order to enter Amherst College, Mass., he stayed at the house of Rev. E. T. Corwin for about six

months and studied not only English but also American history, geography, the Bible, etc. Knowledge from these various fields contributed to his career of compiling dictionaries later. In 1871 Kanda entered Amherst High School and studied English, Latin, Greek and natural history. He entered Amherst College in 1875, and there he was awarded the Kellogg Prize at a speech contest. In April 1878, he was baptized a Christian. His interest and passion in Christianity were so great that he once had desire to devote himself to the religious world. In March 1879, Kanda graduated from Amherst College and returned to Japan. His eight-year stay in America enabled Kanda to use English as if it were his mother tongue. His wife is said to have helped him study his native language.

In 1880 Kanda became an English teacher at the preparatory school of Tokyo University and devoted himself to English education. After that he taught Latin and Greek as well as English at a number of schools. In the following year Kanda established Seisoku Preparatory School with Yujiro Motoyama and Masakazu Toyama in Tokyo. Their purpose was to give an ideal education to students that involved good character building and academic programs. He was a very passionate educator as the second president of the school from 1890 until 1923, when he passed away.

Kanda was not only engaged in the field of English education at many schools but also worked passionately when Tokyo YMCA was established. He also made great efforts in popularizing *romaji* (Roman characters) to describe the Japanese language. In addition to these tasks, he was involved in such English magazines as *The Student* and *The Sun* by writing English articles or working as the chief editor of such magazines. In this way his achievements were very remarkable in the English education.

In 1899 Kanda published English textbooks and grammar books that were written from the viewpoint of the Natural Method, while in those days the grammar translation method was popular in the world of English education. This was the first step of the new method of English education and since then he worked hard to make practical English widespread. His English textbooks and grammar books were to be the most influential for a long time. The reasons were that they contained various and rich materials, that the editing principle was based on the new teaching method, i.e.

the Natural Method, and that they were written in excellent standard English.

In the following year Kanda visited some countries to observe English teaching methods. This trip gave him a lot of new ideas. He went to the United Kingdom, Germany, France, India, etc. After returning from abroad to Japan, Kanda was more powerful in making the new method known to the world of the English education.

In 1909 he went to the U.S.A. as a member of a commercial observation trip and visited more than fifty American big cities. He promoted friendly relations between Japan and the U.S.A. In 1921 Amherst College invited Kanda to its 100 year anniversary as a guest and gave him LL.D. On December 1923, Kanda died at the age of sixty-seven.

3.1.2. Iwae Irie (1866–1929)

Iwae Irie was born on April 2, 1866 in Fukushima Prefecture. His father was a doctor on a retainer for a feudal lord. His family moved to Kawagoe, Saitama Prefecture when Irie was three years old. There, Irie began to have private tuition in English from Yotei Oda when he was six or seven years old. At that time it was not so easy to buy English books even in Tokyo, Oda got them all the way from Yokohama and taught Irie English readers.

In 1882 Irie entered Saitama Normal School for elementary school, when he was sixteen. While the study of the Chinese classics was very popular in those days, Irie was fascinated by English and spend most of the time studying English. Irie willingly visited anyone who had English knowledge and had no hesitation in asking them to teach English, especially English pronunciation. He was so passionate a reader of English that Irie, indeed, read a lot of English books in a variety of fields with Webster's Dictionary as an aid.

After graduating from this school, Irie started as a teacher in Matsuyama, Saitama Prefecture. He had such interest and passion as to go to Ginza, Tokyo on foot in order to attend an English lecture every Saturday. It was about 28 km from his residence to Ginza so he had walk all night.

He resigned the profession and became a student of English Law (at

what is now Chuo University). He attended it at night and worked very hard while teaching at a primary school in Nihonbashi, Tokyo. Next he studied at Meiji Gakuin, struggling against poverty. Irie got interested in German and studied it for about ten years from then onward. Three months before graduating from Meiji Gakuin, he got a job as an English teacher at Tohoku Gakuin, Sendai. Although he was employed as an English teacher, he devoted himself to the study of German and whenever there was a chance to converse in the language, he lost no time in acquiring the ability to speak German. At Tohoku Gakuin, Irie had to teach not only English but also other subjects such as German, history, philosophy and ethics. Such a broad teaching schedule was helpful for him to edit English dictionaries.

In 1892, when he was twenty-seven, he got married in Sendai. After working for about ten years at Tohoku Gakuin, he moved to Nagano Prefecture to be the chief English teacher of Nagano High School. It was at the school that Irie taught students by the oral method and it seemed to be a very shocking method to the world of English education (for it was so striking an event in those days). The result of the method was so successful that it made Irie so famous that he was asked to work at Sanshodo, Tokyo. He went up to Tokyo in 1903. 『和独辞典』 *Wadoku-Jiten* [*Japanese-German Dictionary*], which was published in the same year, was one of his achievements there.

Around this time Irie got interested in Lafcadio Hearn and worshipped him greatly. In 1907 his great efforts finally bore fruit with the publication of 『註解和英辞典』 *Chukai-Waei-Jiten* [*Japanese-English Dictionary with Explanatory Notes*] by Shobunkan. It was well received and earned a great reputation. After that he was more absorbed in working to compile dictionaries. His greatest achievement, 『モダン英和辞典』 *Modern-Waei-Jiten* [*A Modern Japanese-English Dictionary*] was published in 1925 from Yuhodo.

Irie died on December 4, 1929. He was one of the most diligent scholars and devoted himself to making dictionaries.

3.2. The dictionaries

3.2.1. *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten* (*MoEJ*)

This dictionary was issued from Sanseido in 1911. It was compiled by Naibu Kanda and another eleven authors. *MoEJ* was essentially the enlarged and revised version of *Shin-yaku-Eiwa-Jiten* (*SyEJ*) published in 1902. Its compilers were Naibu Kanda, Tokitaka Yokoi and other four specialists. Only Kanda was an English scholar and the others were in charge of giving definitions of the terms in such fields as agriculture, philosophy, psychology and astronomy. It had 1,136-page text plus 108-page appendixes. The dictionary had a more detailed explanation of headwords than the precious dictionaries of that kind. It became very popular and sold well.

The English title of *MoEJ* is *Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary* and it measures 16.5 cm × 8.5 cm × 5.4 cm (6.5 in × 3.3 in × 2.1 in). The preface includes the guide to the dictionary, the keys of phonetic symbols and the list of abbreviations used in the dictionary. Eight appendixes follow the dictionary text. They comprise the list of the abbreviations, foreign phrases used in the U.S. and the U.K. with equivalent English expressions, the list of main foreign place names and person's names, synonyms and antonyms etc.

One of the characteristics of *MoEJ* is that it was made by referring to such British and American dictionaries as *Century*, *Standard*, 'Webster' (presumably *WIDEL*) and *The Oxford English Dictionary* as it claims in its preface. There are about four thousand illustrations in *MoEJ*, most of them are copies of those found in *Century*. *MoEJ* became an extensively encyclopedic dictionary, incorporating headwords explanations, and pictorial illustrations of cultural and technical items.

3.2.2. *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten* (*SEJ*)

This dictionary, with the English title *A New English-Japanese Dictionary*, was issued from Shobunkan in 1912. It was compiled solely by Iwae Irie. It measures 15.5 cm × 7.5 cm × 5.0 cm (6 in × 2.9 in × 2 in). (Nagashima, 1970) *SEJ* consists of the preface by the author, the explanatory notes, the keys to pronunciation, the list of abbreviations the contents of the appen-

dices, and the 1427-page dictionary text. The 225-pages of appendices consist of forms of irregular verbs, usage of prepositions, affixes, foreign place names, etc.

Although the compiler made use of *Century*, *Standard* and other materials when he worked on it, it has a lot of unique features. Compared with *MoEJ*, *SEJ* has fewer equivalent Japanese words, but it abounds in glosses, explanations and usage notes in addition to Japanese translations. There are very detailed notes on English grammar and many of them remain useful even today. As Irie says in the preface to the dictionary, almost every headword has exemplary phrases or sentences as well as its definitions.

(Sections 2 and 3 by Tsuya)

4. Pronunciation

This is the list comparing the phonetic representations in *SEJ*, *Century* and *Standard* with corresponding IPA symbols.

List 1:

IPA	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>Century</i>	<i>Standard</i>
/æ/	à ask, grass	à ask, fast, aunt, grasp	g ask, chant, dance, fast
/ɑ:/	ā arm, far	ā far, father	ǎ arm, calm, father
/i:/	ē mete, eve ee eel, feel ī machine	ē mete, meet	î machine, eve, meet, bier
/ɔə o:/	ô lord, order	ô nor, song, off	ō nor, abhor, walk
/ou/	ō old, note	ō note, poke, floor	ō no, glory, note, pour

List 2 (different)

IPA	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>Century</i>
/æ/	ǎ	a
/ɛ/	ē	e
/u/	o; ōō; u	u
/ɜ: ɔ:/	ē; ī; ū	ē
/i/	ê; â	ā; ē
/ə/	ê; e; a; i; ō	ā; ē; ō; i; o

been much more influenced by *Century*. However, there are some differences in the descriptions between *SEJ* and *Century*, which will be apparent from List 2.

Most symbols used in *SEJ* are the same as in *WIDEL*, which are generally called the "Websterian transcription." For example, short "ē", "o" and long "ōō" and "ū" as well as the systematic use of diacritics. (Through the Meiji period, Noah Webster's dictionaries had a great influence on English-Japanese dictionaries in Japan. (Dohi *et al.* 1998) Moreover, *Century* itself was much influenced by Webster. *Century* was based on *The Imperial Dictionary* (Nagashima: 1970). As was remarked in Kokawa *et al.* (1996), *Imperial* was influenced by Webster.)

In addition, Irie introduced such devices as were seldom, if ever, adopted in other preceding dictionaries. For instance, /au/ in the IPA is represented in /ou/ in *Century*, but in the Websterian transcription two different representations, /ou/ and /ow/, are listed for this one and the same phoneme in the list of phonetic explanation in the front matter. This diphthong was not listed in the front matter of *SEJ*. As regards consonants, both "g" and "g" in *SEJ* stand for /g/ in IPA, but the former could be found in few, if any, dictionaries. This is also the case with "c" and "e," which correspond to /k/ in the IPA.

In respect of the actual indication in the A-Z dictionary part, the majority of the pronunciation for the entry words are indicated only by putting diacritics to the headword. However, in many cases, phonetic symbols are shown in parentheses after the headword besides diacritic marks. Those seem to be the cases in which the spelling of the headword is so far from the pronunciation and cannot be neatly represented only by means of diacritics, and in cases where variant pronunciations are possible.

It is mentioned in *MoEJ*'s preface that *Century*, *Standard*, *Webster* and *OED* were referred to with respect to the phonetic descriptions. *MoEJ* describes phonetic symbols in more detail than its predecessor, *SyEJ*. The list of detailed phonetic explanation comparing seven English dictionaries runs to six pages. The practical ways to pronounce each word are tabularized briefly with reference to Japanese pronunciation which are of great help to the Japanese user.

IPA	WIDEL	MoEJ	Century	IPA	WIDEL	MoEJ	Century
/ɪ/	ĩ	ĩ; ỹ	ı	/æ/	á	á	á
/ɛə eə/	â; ê	â; ê	ã	/i:/	ē; ee; ĩ	ē; ĩ	ē
/au/	ou; ow	ou	ou	/ou/	ō	ō	ō
				/e/	é	é	é

MoEJ's phonetic descriptions are mostly influenced by Webster, as will be apparent from the table below.

There are a few descriptions unique to *MoEJ*. One example is the sound of last vowel in the word 'circus,' which is represented in *MoEJ* as 'circus.'

As regards the indication of sounds of headwords, though diacritics are attached to every headword, most words are followed by phonetic symbols in parentheses. Both devices are in Webster's system. Those with symbols in parentheses are for the pronunciation of words which are difficult to represent only by diacritics.

(Section 4 by Matsuka)

5. Entries

In this section, we will investigate *MoEJ* and *SEJ* in terms of entries. We take three major American English dictionaries¹⁾ in circulation at the time of the creation of *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, that is, *WIDEL*, *Century*, *Standard*, to see in what way and to what extent these American dictionaries contributed as the archetype for the compilation of *MoEJ* and *SEJ*.

Section 5.1. deals with the manner in which entries are presented in each dictionary, and section 5.2. is devoted to the detailed discussion on the numerical basis.

5.1. Manner of presentation

In *MoEJ*, all headwords are printed with their initial letters capitalized in accordance with the tradition observed in the previous English-Japanese dictionaries. However, a symbol of "||" is introduced to indicate that the entry following the symbol is a proper name or proper term, thus it is to be written with an initial capital letter.²⁾ On the other hand, *SEJ* uses

initial capital letters only for proper names or proper terms. This system does not follow the traditional manner of description of the time, and as far as our research indicates, *SEJ* is the first dictionary in Japan to bring in this policy. Among the three American dictionaries, which may have been frequently referred to by the compilers of *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, *WIDEL* uses initial capital letters for all the entries, while *Century* and *Standard* restrict the use of initial capitals only to proper names or proper terms.

Headwords are separated in accordance with syllables, and are accompanied by diacritical marks in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. It is characteristic of *WIDEL* to use the diacritical marks for the illustration of pronunciation of the entries. Entries in *Standard* are separated in accordance with syllables, but the range of diacritical marks are limited to those which indicate the place of the stress, that is, "ˈ" and "ˌ." In *Century*, no marks are attached to entries themselves concerning pronunciation including their syllabic structures.

Another common feature observed between *MoEJ* and *SEJ* is the use of German double hyphen "≧" for hyphenated compounds, which, among the three American dictionaries, is introduced only in *Standard*.³⁾

5.2. Influence of *WIDEL*, *Century*, and *Standard*

5.2.1. Total number of entries

By way of demonstrating the approximate number of entries that are included in the dictionaries, we have selected approximately 4% of the pages of each dictionary text part as our sample material. In *MoEJ*, we have counted 2,264 main entries and 103 run-on entries on the 75-page sample material. Since the dictionary text part is 1,843 pages, the estimated number of the main entries derived by calculation is 55,634, and that of the run-on entries is 2,531. On the other hand, the number of main entries we have obtained from the 59-page sample material of *SEJ*, of which the entire dictionary text part is 1,427 pages, is 714 and that of run-on entries is 839. Thus, the estimated number of the main and the run-on entries is 17,269 and 20,292, respectively.

5.2.2. Sample data

Another sample material distinct from the one in 5.2.1. is prepared for the purpose of detailed comparison among *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, and the three American dictionaries. The sampling procedure takes the following steps. First, the first 150 main entries are picked up from the letter A, F, K, P, and T in *SEJ* together with the run-on entries included within the paragraphs headed by these 150 main entries. The numerical result of the sampling is shown in Table 5.1.⁴⁾

Table 5.1

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
Main	160	155	158	150	156	779
Run-on	213	228	111	144	152	848
Total	373	383	269	294	308	1,627

Next, main entries included within the range of those first 150 main entries in Table 5.1, that is, **a** ~ **acquaint** for the letter A, **Fabian** ~ **female** for F, **Kaaba** ~ **kotow** for K, **pa** ~ **papism** for P, and **T** ~ **taw** for T, are extracted from *MoEJ*. Table 5.2 shows the number of entries thus obtained.

Table 5.2

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
Main	616	535	382	416	362	2,311
Run-on	31	46	10	10	5	102
Total	647	581	392	426	367	2,413

The total number of entry types obtained as a result of the sampling procedure above is shown in Table 5.3. The list of these entry types is then considered as the basic sample material in our analysis.

Table 5.3

A	F	K	P	T	Total
667	591	403	440	403	2,504

Lastly, we compare the sample material with entries in each of the three American dictionaries, and check which entry is included in which dictionary. The result of the comparison is shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4

	<i>WIDEL</i>	<i>Century</i>	<i>Standard</i>
Main	1,977	2,371	1,700
Run-on	148	8	678
Total	2,125	2,379	2,378

5.2.3. Run-on entries

The first thing to be pointed out concerning the comparison between Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 is that the number of run-on entries in *SEJ* is so high that these entries occupy more than 50% of the entire entries, which strikingly contrasts with the case for *MoEJ*, where approximately only 4.2% of entire entries are run on.

It must be also noted here that the manner of running on entries in each dictionary is quite dissimilar. In *MoEJ*, those which are run on are either hyphenated compounds (41 out of 102), of which a constituent is its headword, or derivatives of headwords such as those ending in *-ness* or *-ly*. Thus, it may be plausible to claim that *MoEJ* employs a commonsense policy.

To the contrary, *SEJ* runs on entries in a rather deviant way in that all the entries within a single paragraph are listed in terms of alphabetical order. Thus, **fancy** is listed at the end of a paragraph headed by **fancied**, in which **fanciful**, **fancifully**, and **fancifulness** are run on together with **fancy** in this order. Moreover, the run-on **fancy** allows a further run-on entry, **fancy=sick**. The reason why **fancied** is entitled to head the paragraph rather than **fancy** is simply because it comes first in terms of alphabetical order among these 6 entries. Thus, to give another instance, **kindliness** heads a paragraph in which **kindly** and **kindness** are run on in this order. Incoherency between a main entry and run-on entries is also observable in *SEJ*, and entries with the same spelling are sometimes put into a single paragraph regardless of their semantic and etymological attributes. For example, **page** meaning "a servant" is included as a run-on entry within a paragraph headed by **page** meaning "one side of a leaf of a book." It is highly doubtful whether users of the dictionary can find a target word

when it is run on in such a manner.

The high proportion of run-on entries observed in *SEJ* can reasonably be attributed to the strong influence by *Standard* when we look at figures in Table 5.4, where 7% and only 0.3% of all the sample entries in *WIDEL* and *Century* respectively are run on, while the ratio rises to 30% in *Standard*.⁵⁾ Table 5.5 shows that out of 1,627 sample entries from *SEJ*, 1,608 entries are confirmed in *Standard*, 323 entries of which are run-ons (row <i>). And 288 entries out of these 323 run-on entries in *Standard* are also run on in *SEJ* (row <ii>). What we would like to point out here is that 228 entries of these are either listed as a headword or not included in any way in *WIDEL* and *Century*, that is, they are treated as run-on entries only in *Standard* (row <iii>). Thus, 26.9% of run-on entries in the sample material from *SEJ* are run on only in *Standard*. The proportion further contributes to our current speculation that *SEJ* is highly influenced by *Standard* when we consider the fact that the numbers of run-on entries in *SEJ* which are also run on only in *WIDEL* and in *Century* are 15 and 1, respectively (row <iii>).

Table 5.5

	<i>WIDEL</i> (run-on)	<i>Century</i> (run-on)	<i>Standard</i> (run-on)
< i >	1,538 (74)	1,597 (4)	1,608 (323)
< ii >	74	3	288
< iii >	15	1	228

The similar tendency is also observable in *MoEJ* as is indicated in Table 5.6. In *Standard* we have checked 2,289 entries out of the 2,413 sample entries from *MoEJ*, and 636 of them are run-on entries in *Standard*. 74 out of these 636 run-on entries are also run on in *MoEJ*, and 47 of them are run on only in *Standard*. That is, 46.0% of the 102 run-ons in the sample material from *MoEJ* are run-on entries only in *Standard*. Again, the figure contrasts well to the fact that 3 entries are run on only in *WIDEL*, and that no example can be found in the sample material which is run on only in *Century*.

Table 5.6

	<i>WIDEL</i> (run-on)	<i>Century</i> (run-on)	<i>Standard</i> (run-on)
< i >	2,062 (139)	2,298 (6)	2,289 (636)
< ii >	30	0	74
< iii >	3	0	47

5.2.4. Choice of entries

As we have discussed in 5.2.3., it is highly probable that *Standard* plays an essential role in the introduction of run-on entries both in *MoEJ* and in *SEJ*. However, in terms of the type of the entries to be included within the dictionary text part, none of the three American dictionaries seem to exercise any prominent influence over the two English-Japanese dictionaries under analysis, that is, no clear identification can be made as to which entry comes from which dictionary. For one thing, the number of entries in one dictionary increases to as much as 50,000, and what is more, it is almost impossible to investigate all the preexisting English-Japanese dictionaries and foreign English dictionaries in circulation.

The figures in Table 5.7 shows that we have confirmed 2,062 entries in *WIDEL*, 2,298 in *Century*, and 2,289 in *Standard* out of the 2,413 sample entries from *MoEJ*. The number of entries which are only found in each dictionary is 16, 40, and 23, respectively. The same is true of *SEJ*, thus, out of 1,627 sample entries, 1,538, 1,594, and 1,608 entries are confirmed in *WIDEL*, *Century*, and *Standard*, and the number of entries only found in each dictionary is 4, 5, and 9, respectively.

Table 5.7

	<i>WIDEL</i>	<i>Century</i>	<i>Standard</i>
<i>MoEJ</i>	16/2,062	40/2,298	23/2,289
<i>SEJ</i>	4/1,538	5/1,594	9/1,608

On the other hand, there are 51 entries in our sample material which are confirmed either in *MoEJ* or in *SEJ* but not in any of the three American dictionaries. The number of those which are found only in *MoEJ* is 47, and those only in *SEJ* is 5;⁶⁾ one entry, that is, **felt** ≠ **bat**, is found both in

MoEJ and in *SEJ*. The investigation of the English-Japanese dictionaries analyzed in our previous installment, namely, *MeEJ*, *WEJ1*, and *WWJ*⁷⁾ reveals that few of these 51 entries are included in them, and only the *MoEJ* entry **fellow** = **student** is confirmed in the three dictionaries. *WWJ* has **fawn** = **coloured** and **keen** = **eyed**, which are found only in *MoEJ*, and **felt** = **hat** is listed as the solid **felthat**.

5.2.5. Prefixes and suffixes

The treatment of prefixes and suffixes in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* shows a slight tendency of these dictionaries to follow *Century* and *Standard* rather than *WIDEL*. See Table 5.8,⁸⁾ where the number of prefixes and suffixes found in each dictionary is shown. The figures in parentheses are those which are included only in the corresponding dictionary in the top row. As you can see, out of the 25 affixes we find in the *MoEJ* sample material, 9 were confirmed in *WIDEL*, 17 in *Century*, and 23 in *Standard*. Note that 6 affixes out of *Standard*'s 23 examples are only found in *Standard*. Although *SEJ* does not contain affixes as entries in its dictionary text part, it has a list of these grammatical constituents as an appendix at the end of the dictionary, where 17 examples are confirmed within the range of our sample material. Note that 12 and 13 of the examples are found in *Century* and *Standard*, while the number of entries found in *WIDEL* is 7.

Table 5.8

	<i>WIDEL</i>	<i>Century</i>	<i>Standard</i>	N/A	Total
<i>MoEJ</i>	9 (0)	17 (1)	23 (6)	1	25
<i>SEJ</i>	7 (0)	12 (0)	13 (2)	3	17

5.2.6. Compound entries and orthography

A very interesting phenomenon is to be observed when we look at entries in terms of their orthographic aspect. In the course of our survey of the state of registration of entries in each dictionary (see 5.2.2.), we have found that some of the compound entries are spelled in different ways in different dictionaries and that the grouping of these variant entries shows a certain tendency.

To illustrate, we compare compound entries which are commonly confirmed in *MoEJ* and in the three American dictionaries, and investigate what type of orthography is employed in each dictionary among "separated," "hyphenated," and "solid." We have found 5 cases where entries in *MoEJ* are spelled in different ways from those in the other three dictionaries. And the cases where entries in *Century* and in *Standard* are different from those in other dictionaries are 5 and 3, respectively. To the contrary, however, as many as 115 examples are checked in the case of *WIDEL*. Of these 115 compound entries, 86 are spelled either as hyphenated like **knitting-machine**, or as solid like **kingwood** in *MoEJ*, *Century*, and *Standard*, while they are listed as separated in *WIDEL*. 26 examples of hyphenated compounds in three dictionaries like **fairy-land** are solid in *WIDEL*, and 4 solids like **fatherlasher** are hyphenated. See Table 5.9.⁹⁾

The same is true of the examples in relation to *SEJ*. Thus, only one example is confirmed in which *SEJ* employs different spelling of a compound from the three other dictionaries. In the case of *Century*, 5 compounds are spelled differently, and no example can be found in *Standard*. On the other hand, we obtain 51 examples, for which only *WIDEL* gives different orthography from other dictionaries. As is shown in Table 5.9, 34 hyphenated compounds in *SEJ*, *Century*, and *Standard* are separated in *WIDEL*, 17 hyphenated compounds are spelled as solid, and 1 solid is written with hyphenation.

Table 5.9

	separated	hyphenated	solid	Total
<i>MoEJ</i>	86	4	26	115
<i>SEJ</i>	34	1	17	51

5.3. Summary

As we have discussed so far, although it seems difficult to identify the direct source of entries included in the English-Japanese dictionaries under analysis, a certain tendency is to be observed if we look at entries in terms of the manner in which they are presented. That is, *MoEJ* and *SEJ* are created in a transitional period of the dictionary making in Japan,

where Websterian dictionaries are somehow relinquishing their authority as archetypes, and larger dictionaries, namely, *Century* and *Standard*, are gaining more acceptance instead. Of these two American English dictionaries, it is *Century* that is usually made mention of in the precedent investigations (see Nagashima 1970 and Machida 1981) in so far as the influence on *MoEJ* or *SEJ* is concerned. However, our research on entries reveals that *Standard* has exercised no less influence on *MoEJ* and *SEJ* than *Century*.

Finally, along the lines of our speculation that *Standard* plays an important role for the compilation of *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, it is very interesting to note here that the relationship between the archetype of dictionary making and the title of the dictionary, and the comparison among a series of titles *MoEJ* has undergone may shed some light on the issue, “which dictionary serves as the main source?” As is mentioned in section 3, *MoEJ* is, in effect, the revised edition of *Shin-yaku-Eiwa-Jiten* (*SyEJ* for short) published in 1902.¹⁰ Then *MoEJ*, *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten*, was published in 1911 with the part of its original title *Shin-yaku* replaced with *Mohan*. Note that, as far as our research indicates, *MoEJ* is the first English-Japanese dictionary which employs the word 模範 *mohan* as a Japanese equivalent for the entry **standard**. When we recall the case of *WWJ* by Tanahashi and Eastlake, where the Japanese title goes *Webster-Shi-Shinkan-Daijisho-Wayaku-Jū*¹¹ after the title of its obvious source, *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary*, the fact that “模範” and “standard” are first linked with each other in *MoEJ* is very implicative of the relationship between *MoEJ* and *Standard* although the word “standard” is not yet used in the English title of *MoEJ*, *Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary*. But the validity of our speculation may be verified by the fact that the word “standard” finally appeared when *MoEJ* was further revised and published in 1919 under the new title *Mohan-Shin-Eiwa-Daijiten*, of which the English counterpart goes *The New Standard English-Japanese Dictionary*.

(Section 5 by Osada)

6. Japanese Equivalents, Language Notes and Verbal Illustrations

6.1. Format of Presentation

In Section 4 of our paper it was argued that in the days of the publication of *MoEJ* and *SEJ* the overall format of an English-Japanese dictionary had come to assume the appearances quite similar to those in present-day English-Japanese dictionaries, and that is also true of the presentation of Japanese equivalents in the two dictionaries. (cf. Appendix A, Photocopies 2, 3, 5–8) The dictionaries of the preceding age (notably *MeEJ* (1884–89), *WEJ1* (1887) and *WWJ* (1888)) had gone through the transition (or development) of their page and entry layouts into the present-day format (see Dohi *et al.* 1998: 79ff and 94ff.) *MeEJ* adopted a circle (○) for demarcation of sense groups, but its page and entry design was not largely different from the earliest English-Japanese dictionaries, such as *ETSJ*. *WEJ1* used semicolons for the similar purpose and abandoned the column separation between English headwords and the rest of the entry, achieving a certain degree of economy of space while somewhat approaching today's formats, but still maintained a traditional way of starting a new line every time a new illustrative phrase or sentence was presented. *WWJ* used numbers to indicate sense divisions, but made frequent line changing. In *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, columns and entries had come to assume the appearances quite similar to those in our contemporary English-Japanese dictionaries, although in both each page is much more vertically oblong than today's standard format and consists only of one column each page. All components of an entry including illustrative phrases and sentences as well as run-ons (compounds, derivatives, and in the case of *MoEJ*, set phrases and sentences) are incorporated into the entry without changing lines midways (i.e. without leaving space at the end of a line except in the last line). Different parts of speech are treated as run-ons within an entry, whose changes indicated with a bold dash in *MoEJ* and with a dash plus bold Roman numerals in *SEJ*. Also, it is often the case in both dictionaries that if there is some space at the last line of the preceding entry, the next entry utilizes the space to accommodate the little overflow at the end of the line to economize space. In fact, it is not an obsolete practice in Japanese lexicography today, although we presume that this is not at all common in

Western reference materials. Both dictionaries thus achieve economy of space (much larger amount of information per text space than their predecessors) which approaches the level of today's English-Japanese dictionaries, at least formally, and here we see a certain degree of perfection of the basis of entry design which is still employed as a standard today, accomplished at this stage of the development of English-Japanese lexicography.

6.2. Microstructure of the two dictionaries

A typical major (i.e. full) entry in *MoEJ* includes the following components (see also Sections 4 and 5): a headword in boldface with diacritical marks, the pronunciation in parentheses, the inflection for all verbs and some nouns and adjectives, the part of speech, subject and usage labels, Japanese equivalents, idioms, phrasal verbs and set phrases in bold italics, followed by compounds and derivatives in boldface roman if any (see Section 5 above.) If the entry contains the same lexical item in other part(s) of speech, the same structure is started again after a bold dash (e.g. —, *vt.* . . .) Illustrative phrases and sentences are not given except in some very limited cases of some function words, such as *A, After, By, Can, In, Have, That, When* and *Whether* as well as in a very small number of basic words, such as *Bear (v.), Beat (v.), Charge (v. and n.), Light (a.)*, and that, very sporadically. No illustrations are attached to such items as *Be, Should, Where, Which* and *Would*. *MoEJ* seems to be taking the stance of leaving grammar to language classes and grammar books, which is in remarkable contrast to *SEJ*'s approach (see below). An illustrative sentence or phrase is not accompanied by its Japanese translations. Occasionally, collocations with prepositions are indicated after an 'index' icon (e.g. ☞ *in* railway shares (s.v. *Dabble*.) Dummy entries are large in number, but cross-references for 'further' information are rare in *MoEJ*.

On the other hand, a typical entry in *SEJ* is first made up of the following categories of information: headwords in boldface with diacritics, the part of speech, the irregular plural form for a noun if any, subject and usage labels, and Japanese equivalents often followed by brief explanations. Every sense of a major entry is almost always followed by illustrative phrases or sentences, which is one of the most conspicuous features of this

dictionary. In fact, this feature is proclaimed by Irie in the first part of the dictionary's preface. Japanese translations for such verbal illustrations, however, are not given for such verbal illustrations in *SEJ*, either. Now these categories are followed by compounds, idioms, set phrases and sentences after a thinner dash, and then subentries for the same word in different parts of speech starts as in the case of *MoEJ*, but this time after a bold dash and bold roman numerals (**I, II, . . .**). At the end of an entry come derivatives as run-ons. A large number of long and detailed language notes, which constitute another most outstanding feature of this dictionary and which will be discussed more in detail below, are scattered in abundance all through the dictionary.

6.3. Use of *furigana* (indications of pronunciation for *kanji*, or Chinese characters) in the two dictionaries

Most words in *kanji* in *MoEJ* are accompanied by quarter-sized *furigana* (four characters are accommodated in the space of one normal-sized character) in *katakana* (one of the two sets of syllabary in Japanese) immediately after it.¹⁾ (For the uses, functions and positions of *kanji*, *furigana*, *kango* and *wago* as well as *katakana* and *hiragana* in the Japanese language and their mutual relationships, see Kokawa *et al.* (1996: 99ff.)) *SEJ* appends *furigana* much more sparingly, using normal-sized *katakana*. Both *MoEJ* and *SEJ* present as *furigana* not only the precise pronunciation of *kanji* but its loose translations in *wago* as well, just as their predecessors did (see Kokawa *et al.* (1996: 101)), for example (ユフヤケ) for 晚霞 in *MoEJ* and (マワタ) for 蚕綿 in *SEJ*. In fact, when *SEJ* employs *furigana* it is in many cases such loose translations, when *MoEJ* gives the literal pronunciation of *kanji* words. Example: 老耄 (オイボレ) in *SEJ* (s.v. *dotage*) as opposed to 老耄 (ラウマウ), 耄碌 (マウロク) in *MoEJ* (s.v. *Dotage*). Even in the days of the publication of *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, when learning English was for rather the highly-educated chosen few or for those who were especially linguistically-talented and/or -oriented, as opposed to our age when all Japanese youngsters are supposed to learn the English language starting at the compulsory junior high school level, *furigana* appended for a dignified but awesome sea of *kanji* must have been a great

help and comfort for those who sought help in an English-Japanese dictionary. It may be the use of quarter-sized types that allowed *MoEJ* to present *furigana* so abundantly throughout the dictionary, and that in turn must have made *MoEJ* appear somewhat more accessible and informative to the contemporary user than *SEJ*.

6.4. Labels in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*

Both *MoEJ* and *SEJ* list the labels that they use in the front matter of each dictionary. *MoEJ* lists 62 subject labels starting from 【醫】 ('medicine') to 【論】 ('logic'), in addition to seven usage labels ([俗] [稀] [俚] [方] [英] [米] [古俚]: 'slang', 'rare', 'popular', 'dialect', 'British', 'American' and 'popular archaic' respectively.) Besides these Japanese labels, *MoEJ* employs 31 English abbreviations that indicate regionality (particular varieties of English) or original languages. Among them, Anglo-Ind(ian), E(ast). Ind(ies), Pig(eon). Eng(lish), South America, Scot(ch) and U.S. may be the ones that represent particular regionality. Labels in *SEJ* are almost as much varied: 58 subject labels (from (美) 'fine art' to (造) 'ship-building'), 11 labels of regionality ((愛) 'Irish,' (米) 'American,' (米, 地) 'American regional,' (地) 'regional,' (英) 'British,' (英, 地) 'British regional,' (濠) 'Australian,' (方) 'dialect,' (北英) 'Northern England,' (新英) 'New England' and (蘇) 'Scottish'), five style labels ((卑) 'vulgar,' (隱) 'cant,' (古隱) 'archaic cant,' (俗) 'slang'), three chronological labels ((廢) 'obsolete,' (古) 'archaic' and (近) 'early modern'), one label of frequency ((稀) 'rare'), eight labels of original language ((梵) 'Sanskrit,' (獨) 'German,' (仏) 'French,' (以) 'Italian,' (歐) 'European,' (拉) 'Latin,' (露) 'Russian' and (支) 'Chinese') and two grammar labels ((複) 'plural' and (單) 'singular'). Much of the information concerning labels, both in system and in actual application, must have come from the source dictionaries that they referred to, but the variety of non-subject labels that we find especially in *SEJ* is amazing. In fact, it appears little different from the labeling practice that had been employed until quite recently (down to 1970s and perhaps to 80s) in many levels of English-Japanese lexicography in our country. In so far as the information comes from another source, we cannot review the actual applications of labels in the two dictio-

naries. Here we will just point out the ambiguity of difference between the labels such as 'regional' and 'dialect,' and between 'popular' and 'slang' (the Japanese labels are at least ambiguous) and the fact that items such as *awful* (as in 'an awful fool' (*SEJ*'s actual illustration!)), which is not labeled in *MoEJ* and the use of *been* as in 'He has been to Paris' (not described in *MoEJ*) are labeled as 'slang' in *SEJ*, which seem rather unusual in today's standards. The former may be labeled as 'informal' or at least 'colloquial' in today's lexicography, and the latter may be left unlabeled as quite standard even in writing. It may represent the change of style in the last 80-odd years or it may be just that lexicography these days did not have in its arsenal the labels of milder informality.

6.5. Sense discrimination and arrangement of Japanese equivalents in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*

We have surveyed the arrangement of senses in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, as well as that in the three dictionaries (the *Century*, the *WIDEL* and the *Standard*) to which the former two may have made reference for compilation.²⁾ The results in two entries (*cock* (*n.*) and *spring* (*n.*)) are tabulated below. As far as we can see from the tables below, *SEJ*'s major recourse to the *Standard* at least for its ordering of equivalents is quite obvious. In the case of *MoEJ*, which material it mainly referred to is not very apparent. The arrangement of *Cock* (*n.*) in *MoEJ* is rather close to that in the *Standard*, while the line-up of the senses of *Spring* (*n.*) is quite similar to that in the *WIDEL*. It may be that the different compilers of *MoEJ* used different sources, possibly including foregoing English-Japanese dictionaries. As the source of reference is not always the same, the sense arrangement in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* does not usually have any correspondence with each other.³⁾

The most remarkable progress of the dictionaries of this period in terms of sense presentation is the systematic use of numbers to demarcate different groups of senses and present them in an orderly fashion, using white numbers in black background. The boundaries between sense groups are quite conspicuous, which makes it much easier to browse through an entry than, say, twenty years before, when dictionaries such as *MeEJ*, *WEJ1*

and *WWJ* were in popular use. It is especially true of a larger entry such as *run*, which accommodates 33 and 43 numbered senses just for intransitive verb uses in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* respectively.

Table 1. *Cock* (n.)

Sense	Century	WIDEL	Standard	MoEJ	SEJ
male of a domestic fowl	1-1*	1-1	1-1	1-1	1-1
male of any bird	1-2	1-1	1-2	1-2	1-2
male/female bird	1-3	—	1-3	—	—
cock-crow (ing) (time)	1-4	1-4	—	1-8	—
leader; chief person	1-5	1-3	1-4	1-3	1-3
fellow; chap	1-6	—	1-5	—	1-4
weathercock	1-7	1-2	1-11	1-7	1-8
faucet; bib-cock	1-8	1-5	1-6	1-4	1-5
firearm cock	1-9	3-2	1-7	1-5	1-6
a position of firearm cock	1-10	—	1-7	—	—
gnomon of a sundial	1-11	1-6	1-9	1-6	1-7
needle of a balance	1-12	1-7	1-10	—	—
a metal in a balance-wheel	1-13	1-8	1-8	—	1-6
curling tee	1-14	—	1-13	—	—
hoax; cock-and-bull story	1-15	—	1-12	—	1-9
act of cocking	2-1	2-0	2-1	2-1	3-1
particular shape given to a hat	2-2	2-0	2-2	2-2	3-2
small conical pile of hay	3-0	4-0	3-0	3-0	2-0
small boat	4-0	5-0	4-0	4-0	—
notch in an arrow	5-0	3-1	6-0	—	—
fight	6-0	—	—	—	—
cockle	8-0	—	5-1	—	—
male salmon	—	—	5-2	—	—
scarlet	10-0	—	—	—	—
corruption of <i>God</i> used in oaths	11-0	6-0	7-0	—	—

* ((noun) entry number)-(sense division number). Thus: 3-2 shows that the item appears in the sense #2 of the third (noun) entry. Entry numbers are actually given with superscripts in *The Century*, *The Standard* and *MoEJ*, but not in *WIDEL* and *SEJ*, for which numbers were given by the present author in order of noun entry appearance.

Table 2. *Spring* (n.)

Sense	Century	WIDEL	Standard	MoEJ	SEJ
act of springing or leaping	1a	1	5	1	5
flying back, recoil	1b	2	3	2	3
the beginning, birth, rise, origin	2	10	—	8, 9	7
the spring season	3	9	6	7	6
that which springs or shoots up	4	7	13	—	—
young person	5	—	14	—	—
offspring, race	6	7	15	—	—
water spring	7	5	7	5	8
source of supply	8	5	8	6	9
elastic body (coil spring, etc.)	9	4	1	4	1
(entomological sense)	10	—	—	—	—
active or motive power	11	6	4	—	4
elasticity	12	3	2	3	2
(nautical uses)	13	11	10	10	11
a quick and cheerful tune	14	8	12	—	—
a collection of teal (in falconry)	15	—	—	—	—
something sprung, warped or cracked	—	—	9	—	10
upward camber, arch	—	—	11	—	—

6.6. *SyEJ* (1902) and *MoEJ* (1911)

Here we would like to compare briefly *SyEJ* and *MoEJ*, the former being the direct antecedent of the latter. *SyEJ* was compiled by five scholars, headed by Lord (Baron) Naibu Kanda, who also led 11 scholars and produced *MoEJ* nine years later. Both works were published by Sanseido and said to have been conceived as the second and the third leading English-Japanese dictionaries from the same publishing house, following the success of *WWJ* published in 1888 (Machida 1981: 24-28, cf. Dohi *et al.* 1998). It is natural for us to presume that *SyEJ* had a great influence upon *MoEJ*, and in fact we found out that the relationship between the two was far beyond that. *MoEJ* turned out to be based simply on *SyEJ* and may be regarded as an enhanced, enlarged and updated version of *SyEJ*, the former having been created by making the latter larger, more informative, more user-friendly and more up-to-date both in terms of the information con-

tained and the ways to present it. The following example may reveal how the two dictionaries are related:

Labyrinth, *n.*⁴⁾ 1.⁵⁾ 螺堂(サザエダウ), 迷園[堂内又園内ノ通路曲折多岐容易ニ出デ難キ一恰モ我が国ノ所謂八幡藪ニ於ケルガ如キモノ]. 2. マグレ路, 迷路. 3. 入組メル事物, 難事. 4. (解)内耳. 5. (建)栄螺形絵様. [SyEJ]

Labyrinth, *n.* 1. 螺堂(サザエダウ⁶⁾), 八幡(ヤワタ)知ラズ, 迷園(メイエン)[堂内又園内ノ通路曲折多岐容易ニ出デガタキ一恰モ我が国ノ八幡藪ニ於ケルガ如キモノ]⁷⁾. 2. マグレ路, 迷路. 3. 入組メル事物, 難事. 4. 【解】内耳. 5. 【建】栄螺形絵様(サザエガタエヤウ), 乱(ミダ)レ模様(モヤウ). [MoEJ].

We studied 150 items (including headwords, run-ons and set phrases) in *SyEJ* and *MoEJ* as samples to see how and in what ways they are different. The result obtained is as follows:

sample range*1	no changes*2 observed	formal change only*3	items added in MoEJ	item(s) left out in MoEJ	items with change(s) in description	total number of items
A-Abase	3	2	11	1*4	33	50
L-Labyrinthian	10	2	25	0	13	50
Z-Zendavesta	20	13	4	2*5	11	50

*1 Items beginning with L were about in the middle of the A-Z text of *SyEJ*.

*2 Changes include additions. *3 Formal changes include the alterations of representation of proper names from in *kanji* to in *hiragana* (e.g. 英吉利 → いぎりす, 耶蘇教 → きりすと教, 羅馬 → ろーま) and the addition of the phrase 'the name of ...' (e.g. ...ノ金貨 → ...ノ金貨ノ名) *4 *Abaciscus* *5 *Zealant* and *Zelant*

Interestingly enough, we notice that apparently as the page number increases, the number of alterations made (and perhaps consequently, the 'zeal' for revision) decreases.⁸⁾ However, if we turn our eyes to the actual changes made in the *SyEJ* text for producing *MoEJ*, they are very substantial, comprehensive and very much to the point. Now we will look at some concrete examples:

Japanese equivalents that had been completely alien to our daily lives were rendered into down-to-earth expressions cleverly using *furigana*:

Abactor, *n.* 牛群偷盜者. [SyEJ]

Abactor, *n.* 家畜盜(カチクヌスピト), 家畜ドロバウ. [MoEJ]

Zain, *n.* 暗色ノ馬. [SyEJ]

Zain, *n.* 暗色馬(クロゲウマ). [MoEJ]

Overall in the dictionary much more Japanese equivalents are added, and equivalents that were in *SyEJ* became more varied and sophisticated, giving the user a wider and richer choice of equivalents to understand the meaning of the word in question:

Zeal, *n.* 熱心, 発憤 [SyEJ]

Zeal, *n.* 熱心(ネッシン), 熱中(ネッチュウ), 奮発(フンパツ), 躍起(ヤッキ), 銳意(エイイ). [MoEJ]

As can be seen in these examples, *MoEJ* presents the pronunciation for many *kanji* equivalents in quarter-sized *katakana* characters, to the great facility of the user in understanding the meaning of the Japanese equivalents. *SyEJ* uses full-size *katakana* symbols for that purpose, but as we pointed out in 6.3. the actual application is far too scarce compared to *MoEJ* and assistance for the user in this field seems rather insufficient.

MoEJ also gives such verbal explanations as cannot be found in *SyEJ*. Example:

Aback, *ad.* ... 2. (航) 裏帆ニ. ... [SyEJ]

Aback, *ad.* ... 2. 【航】裏帆(ウラボ)ニ[帆ノ其前面ヨリ風ヲ受ケテ帆柱ニ吹付ケラレタル状ニイフ]. ... [MoEJ]

In larger entries, we may see the changes in the arrangement of sense groups:

State, *n.* 1. 国, 国家. 2. 州. 3. 有様, 形勢, 状態. 4. 位, 身分. 5. 盛昌, 盛勢, 豪富. 6. 壯麗, 立派. 7. 高貴ノ人, 貴族. 8. 龍座, 天蓋. [SyEJ]

State, *n.* 1. 国(クニ), 国家(コクカ). 2. 国務(コクム), 政權(セイケン). 3. 州(シウ). 4. 位(クラキ), 身分(ミブン), 資格(シカク). 5. 有様(アリサマ), 形勢(ケイセイ), 状態(ジャウタイ), 様子(ヤウス). 6. 立派(リッパ)ナ

ル生活。豊(ユタカ)ナ暮(クラ)シ。7. 儀式(ギシキ), 花々(ハナバナ)シキ行列(ギヤウレット)。8. 威厳(キゲン), 威儀(キギ), 品格(ヒンカク)。9. 高貴(カウキ)ノ人, 身分アル人, 貴族(キゾク)。10. 龍座(リヨウザ), 天蓋(テンガイ)。11. [pl.] 議会(ギクワイ)。[MoEJ]

Here the rough correspondence is as follows: ([SyEJ]-[MoEJ]): [1]-[1], [2]-[3], [3]-[5], [4]-[4], [5, 6]-[6], [7]-[9], [8]-[10].

Increase and sophistication of information in *MoEJ* compared to *SyEJ* can be seen more clearly in the entries of function words. We will revisit this point later in this paper.

6.7. Japanese equivalents presented in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*

Japanese equivalents presented in the two dictionaries seem to have rather different orientation. We can cite some examples as follows:

[Japanese equivalents used in *MoEJ*]

Chauvinism, *n.* ムチャ尊奉, バカ義心, 慷慨(カウガイ)心。

Churning, *n.* 1. 乳カキマハシ, 攪乳。2. 一造(ヒトヅク)リノばた。

Cleave², *vi.* 1. ヒツツク, クツツク, ネバリツク, 固著ス。2. 恋着ス, 依附ス。

Coddle, *vt.* アマク育ツ, 御ポッチャン育テニス, カハユガリ過グ, アマヤカシテ弱クス。

Daft, *a.* 1. バカノ, アハウノ。2. 気違(キチガヒ)ノ。3. フザケル, ジャレル。

Fad, *n.* 1. 気マグレ, 物ズキ, 一時ノ嗜好, チョイトバヤリ。2. 気マグレ屋, ムヅカシ屋, 変物。

Sabulosity, *n.* 砂(スナ)ダラケ, ジャリダラケ。

Simpleton, *n.* バカ, アハウ, ノロマ, マヌケモノ, ボンツク, 甚六(ジンロク), 天保銭(テンパウセン)。

[Their counterparts presented in *SEJ*]

chauvinism, *n.* 過度ニ自国ヲ誇ル。

churning, *n.* 1. 攪乳スル。2. 一回ニ製造ノ牛酪量。

cleave, *vi.* 1. 粘着スル。2. 愛着スル[人ニ], 固執スル[主義ナド]。

coddle, *vt.* 1. アマヤカス[小兒, 病人ノ如ク], 柔軟ニスル。

daft, *a.* 1. 愚鈍ナル。2. (故ニ)狂気ナル。

fad, *n.* 1. 一時ノ流行熱, 幻想。2. 気ノ変ハリ易キ人。

sabulosity, *n.* 砂ノ如キ, 砂多キ。

simpleton, *n.* 愚人, 鈍物。

The overall tones are more or less the same throughout the two dictionaries. Many of the Japanese translations in *MoEJ* are worldly, informal and in a sense very lively, using language doubtless commonly used by the contemporary ordinary Japanese in their daily lives. It is not that Japanese equivalents presented in *SEJ* are too formal, but presumably that those found passim in *MoEJ* are rather exceptionally secular in their timbre. We should note that, as Nagashima (1970: 176) points out, in the preface of *SyEJ*, which may be regarded as an earlier version of *MoEJ*, the authors pronounced as follows:

“We mainly used formal words for the Japanese equivalents in our dictionary, but if we believed it necessary, there are many cases in which we used informal expressions. Informal locutions are chiefly taken from the language in Tokyo.”

They seem to have done it, however, beyond the level of “if they believed it necessary,” for English in one of the examples above (*Sabulosity*) should be very formal while its counterpart in Japanese 「砂ダラケ」 is quite informal. Too much employment of informalities may have brought about the incongruity of style levels between the source and the target languages in *MoEJ*. In that sense somewhat neutral Japanese equivalents employed in *SEJ* and in most other dictionaries may be a more no-nonsensical but safer choice.

Another notable contrast that we find between the presentation of Japanese translations in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* is that, the former tends to present as many varieties of Japanese equivalents as the authors could have thought of in order to have a particular sense of an English word understood by the user, while the latter is likely to present one or a limited number of equivalents and leave the further explanation (and the rest of the space, for that matter) to short supplementary comments right after the equivalent(s)

mentioned, to illustrative phrases or sentences, as well as to detailed language notes:

Abrasion, *n.* 1. 擦リヘラシ, 擦リ剥ガシ, 搔キ除ケ, 磨剥(マハク); 擦レヘリ, 擦リ剥ゲ; 擦過傷(スリムケ); 摩滅(マメツ). 2. 【地質】水削(スキサケ), 海蝕(カイシヨク), [MoEJ]

abrasion, *n.* 1. 擦滅ラスㄱ. 2. (地質)水削, 海蝕. [SEJ]

Fairy, *n.* 豆仙人, 小仙女. [MoEJ]

fairy, *n.* 妖精[通例小サキ人形ヲナセドモ如何ナル形ニモ変化シ人ニ禍福ヲ与フルモノ] [SEJ]

Also, while the each Japanese equivalent in *MoEJ* is generally concise, it is often the case with the equivalents for English words in *SEJ* to be more like a lengthy explanation in Japanese than Japanese equivalent words. In other words, in such cases *SEJ* fails to mention ready-to-use Japanese counterparts. The following are typical examples:

Amphitheater, *n.* 1. 円形劇場(エンケイゲキヂヤウ), 円戯場(エンギヂヤウ)[往時ろーまニテ剣士又野獣ノ相闘ワラ観ルニ設ケシ楕円又円形の戯場]... [MoEJ]

amphitheater, *n.* 1. 楕円形ノ建築ニテ中央ニ広場ヲ有シ観覧場周囲ニ相重ナレリ, 昔, 希臘人ノ猛獣ヲ闘ハシメ勇士ヲ格闘セシメナドセシ所. [SEJ]

Marmalade, *n.* 果糕(クワカウ)[梨(ナシ), 林檎(リンゴ)等ノ果肉ヲ砂糖煮ニシタルモノ] [MoEJ]

marmalade, *n.* 果肉, 特ニ苦ガキ又ハ酸キ果肉ヲ砂糖煮ニシタルモノ[jamホドノ粘リニ] [SEJ]

This contrast, along with the difference of the whole entry counts in the two dictionaries (see Chap. 5), might have made *MoEJ* more appealing than *SEJ* to the dictionary user, who in many cases want more ready-to-use Japanese equivalents and more information presented in a concise fashion for their daily quick reference. We will discuss this point later again in 6.9 below.

6.8. Language notes, illustrative phrases and sentences, and descriptions of function words

In this section we would like to study the features that make *SEJ* distinctive from its predecessors, including *MoEJ*.

6.8.1. Language notes in *SEJ*

Probably the most striking feature of *SEJ* is the language notes given in abundance throughout the dictionary. Our sample survey⁹⁾ found 94 language notes in 41 entries¹⁰⁾ within the 56 pages (7.8%) out of the whole 1427 A-Z dictionary text (100%) of *SEJ*. If we presume the language notes in *SEJ* to be distributed evenly, which is actually not the case, there would be nearly 1,200 language notes for over 500 entries in the dictionary. One of the entries with the most language notes may be the definite article *the*, with 28 consecutive notes in 155 lines extending over nearly three pages in the dictionary (cf. Appendix A, Photocopies 6–8). In the case of *the*, many of them are on the grammatical meanings and uses of the word. They are rather extensive and comprehensive descriptions that may be found in a moderate-sized grammar book, but the notes in *SEJ* is not as systematic as descriptions in a grammar book. They are more like explanations in an English language class sporadically spouting out of an experienced teacher, who loves teaching and is very eager to share all his knowledge with the students. This characteristic prevails throughout the dictionary.

Among the language notes that we found in the sampled portions, more than half (55) are on grammar (grammatical meaning, sentence structure, etc) and usage of the words concerned. Usage includes such information as the modern use of the pronoun *thou* in poetry, among Quakers, etc and the two ways to read the number 1,100. 18 are the differentiation of the meanings of synonyms (e.g. *ability* and *capacity*; *naught*, *cipher* and *zero*) and expressions which are similar and confusing to non-native learners (e.g. *how you are* vs. *how it is with you*.) One is on the difference of British and American English (*street railway* vs. *tramway*). These are regular items in informative present-day learner's dictionaries. Nine are on disputable or preferable usage, and interestingly enough, one of them is apparently based on his personal judgement. It goes in effect¹¹⁾: "When we think of the

original meaning of words, 'roads' are wider than and more convenient for traffic than 'ways', it is more reasonable to use 'railway' as the British do than to use 'railroad' (as Americans mainly do) (s.v. *railroad*). However, many of the notes by Irie are to the point and very useful even for today's learners of English. Other notes include such non-vital information as etymology (*a* as in *once a year*), original meaning ('bees originally denote only females of the species, but we use the word both for males and females' (s.v. *bee*), cultural information (the images that are held of cockneys (s.v. *cockney*)) and linguistic (?) trivia ('this word is used three times in the New Testament' (s.v. *Abba*). The note to the first noun sense of *board* in *SEJ* is provided with such rather technical information as follows: 'What is large in length, more than 4.5 inches in width and less than 2.5 inches in thickness is called a board. That which is more than 1.5 [*sic*] inches thick is called a plank, and what is thin and 4 [*sic*] inches or less in width is called a batten.'

6.8.2. Descriptions of function words and the use of illustrative phrases and sentences in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*

To make it clear what makes Irie's dictionary distinctive from its predecessors, we would like to see briefly the overall structure of two entries of function words in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. (Information irrelevant to the discussion here such as diacritics is omitted.)

Be [conjugations and their pronunciation are listed here, including archaic forms *art*, *wast* and *wert*], *vi.* (four Japanese equivalents [アリ, 居(キ)ル; ナリ; ... セラル.] are listed here) **Be it so.** (two Jap. equivs.) — **If so be.** (a Jap. equiv.) — **To let be.** (three Jap. equivs.) [*MoEJ*]

Be, vi. 1. (four Jap. equivs. [有ル, 在ル, 居ル, 存在スル]) [例 (example) *We believe that God is*]. 2. (two Jap. equivs. [ニテアル, ナリ]) [例 *He is sick*]. 3. (a Jap. equiv. [起ル]) [例 *The fair was on Sunday*]. 4. (a Jap. equiv. [属スル]) [例 *Peace be to this house*]. — **Be it so,** (a Jap. equiv.); **if so be,** (a Jap. equiv.); **let it be, let be,** (two Jap. equivs.); **to be from,** (two Jap. equivs.) [例 *He is from New York*]; **to have been** (here, there, to see, etc.), (*slang*) (two Jap. equivs.) [例 *He has been to Paris; We had been to see her*]; **Be it cheap or dear, I will take it,** (a Jap. equiv.) — [Language notes] —

(one on *to be to* + infinitive with an illustrative sentence, and the other on the difference of *I have come* and *I am come* with an illustrative sentence). [*SEJ*]

Would. Will ノ過去. [past tense of Will] [*MoEJ*]

would. Will ノ過去. [past tense of Will] 1. (two Jap. equivs.) [(indicates) hope]. 2. (two Jap. equivs.) [condition] 3. (a Jap. equiv.) [determination] — [Language notes] (on nine topics in 38 lines, including the use of *would* indicating determination, past custom (also in contrast to *used to*), indirectness (as in *It would seem* or *Would you like . . . ?*), use of *would* in subjunctive mood, etc, with abundant verbal illustrations. [*SEJ*]

MoEJ's treatment of these items is definitely traditional, inaccurate and uninformative, while *SEJ*'s is truly innovative and helpful, approaching the descriptions in learner's dictionaries of our age. Putting the argument of the appropriateness of the illustrative phrases and sentences actually presented in Irie's dictionary aside, *SEJ*'s illustrations, which are found copiously both in each numbered sense and in language notes, are very effective in that they reinforce and materialize the information given before it and complete the very instructive descriptions in the dictionary. It is quite similar to the style of present-day English-Japanese dictionaries for learners, though the overall presentation is much less systematic in *SEJ*.

Thus, *SEJ* introduced a couple of pedagogical features practically for the first time in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries of our country, and demarcated itself from the dictionaries of Meiji era tradition down to the very successful *MoEJ*. In that sense, it is truly a remarkable and innovative dictionary, created by one single enthusiast of the English language. Unfortunately, as we will regret in the next section, it may not have come on the market at the right time and received due appreciation.

6.9. *MoEJ* and *SEJ* in terms of characteristics as reference materials

Both *MoEJ* and *SEJ* are very practical dictionaries, in that they are in many ways helpful to the Japanese learners of English. However, their

overall nature as reference materials are quite different. Here we would like to summarize the characteristics of the two and consider their advantages and disadvantages in terms of users' needs and popularity as commercial publications.

SEJ has much more information in one entry than *MoEJ*, including lengthy language notes, while *MoEJ* has much more entries (or headwords) than *SEJ* in the volume, and basically headwords that we find in *SEJ* are found in *MoEJ* without exception (See Section 5 above). This may lead to the danger of making potential buyers of *SEJ*, which was published a year after *MoEJ*, compare the two dictionaries and hastily conclude that *MoEJ* has more entries than *SEJ* and therefore is a better dictionary. The unique and rather arbitrary way of main entry/run-on arrangement of *SEJ* (See Section 5) may also make the dictionary appear less informative and user-friendly in the eyes of the users.

MoEJ is provided with *furigana* for most of the *kanji* words used in its Japanese equivalents, which is rather scarce in *SEJ*. This feature, combined with the fact that *MoEJ*'s equivalents have in many cases much more common touch than *SEJ*'s counterparts, may have made *MoEJ* look a much more accessible dictionary.

As to the presentation of Japanese equivalents, *MoEJ* has a tendency to give as many equivalents as possible or as the compilers thought of to get the senses of the original English words across to the users, while *SEJ* has the tendency to give less equivalents than *MoEJ* and further explain the exact meanings and nuances in glosses and language notes if necessary.

SEJ provides many detailed language notes, ranging from grammar, usage, meaning of the words in question, differentiation of synonyms, as well as cultural or encyclopedic knowledge to etymology and in a small number of cases, what may be called trivia. It is as if he could not stop his desire and zeal to impart everything that he knows to the potential users of his dictionary. As a whole, *SEJ*'s predecessors are no match for it in their description of essential (especially function) words. In addition, *SEJ* gives verbal illustrations to basically every sense of each word, to the great facility of the understanding of the meanings of the words concerned. It does not seem that economy of space was Irie's concern. When other

dictionaries give, say, 80–90% of the information necessary to fully explain a sense or usage of a word considering the space available, Irie seems to be trying to make a thorough explanation to his heart's content rather than to make a compromise explanation and leave much unsaid, when that remaining 10–20% can take up a considerable amount of space.

Looking at these features of the two dictionaries, we may visualize the images of the two as different kinds of dictionaries with a distinctively different orientation. *MoEJ* is more like today's concise English-Japanese dictionaries. It is with abundant ready-to-use Japanese equivalents presented in a compendious fashion. It is an ultimate practical tool to consult when the user is actually reading or trying to use English. On the other hand, *SEJ*'s image is closer to that of today's learner's English dictionaries. It is a very pedagogical, informative dictionary and when one sits and takes time to read a whole entry in *SEJ*, one can grasp the very good image of the word he wants to get acquainted with. In short, *MoEJ* is a very handy, reliable dictionary, while *SEJ* is a very helpful, 'readable' piece of reference work. The question is, how many people would sit and read a dictionary, even in the days of *SEJ*?

What the majority of people may expect from a dictionary is probably user-friendly, quick reference, rather than a thorough but sometimes leisurely and lengthy description of the author's knowledge of English. Many people would feel daunted when they look up the entry of *the* in *SEJ* and find non-stop language notes spread out in over 150 lines. If the macro- and the microstructure of *SEJ* could have been more organized and systematic as in the learner's dictionaries of our days, it would have been an even more excellent reference material.

MoEJ is in a sense the culmination of English-Japanese lexicography of the Meiji era, compiled by eminent scholars led by a big name of English education of the day. It is a well-balanced, concise piece of work full of easy-to-understand, practical information, incorporating numerous Japanese equivalents and copious technical words. *SEJ* is quite a unique and innovative dictionary, compiled by an English enthusiast all by himself. It was not as commercially successful as *MoEJ*, but it is not only encyclopedically but also lexically very informative, with extensive language notes

and verbal illustrations as its unique features. It heralded, however incompletely, a genre of modern English-Japanese lexicography, i.e. learner's dictionaries. In this sense, the days of *MoEJ* and *SEJ* are a turning point of English-Japanese dictionaries in Japan, which would lead to two momentous works by Jukichi Inoue (*Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary*, 1915) and Hidesaburo Saito (*Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary*, 1915 in two volumes). We will review these two dictionaries in the next two installments of our historical project.

(Section 6 by Kokawa)

7. Pictorial Illustrations

In provision of pictorial illustrations, the approaches adopted by the two dictionaries are in marked contrast: the encyclopedically oriented *MoEJ*, with some 4,000 illustrations (Section 3.2.1.), outnumbers the linguistically oriented *SEJ*, with 148.¹⁾ On the other hand, those of the latter, precise-looking in fine drawing, have aesthetic edge over those of the former, which are not so refined but still serve their intended purposes. Many illustrations in *MoEJ* are due to Webster's and Ogilby's dictionaries, *Century* (Kojima 1999: 404), and *Standard* (cf. Nagashima 1970: 177).

The illustrations in *MoEJ* center on such items as machinery and devices, plants (including those showing parts or internal structures), creatures (animals, insects, etc.), buildings and architecture.²⁾ The two most illustrated items, by far, in *SEJ* are machinery and devices, and buildings, each of which accounts for nearly 30% of the total. Unlike *MoEJ*, only a few animals and plants (six and seven instances respectively) are graphically represented. Human beings (races and professions, see Figs. 1 and 3 in Appendix B) are uniquely illustrated in *MoEJ*.

The titles to illustrations in *MoEJ* come in square brackets with the initial letter capitalized. *SEJ* tends to preserve the title or captions in the source dictionaries from which illustrations have been adopted, while *MoEJ* just provides the headword item or the minimum form (see Figs. 4, 6, and 7). The titles in both dictionaries end with a period.³⁾

In *MoEJ*, scientific names, magnification, and other auxiliary information to illustrations are not always carried over from the source dictionary

(see Figs. 5 and 8). However, the corresponding sense number is indicated when the illustrated item is polysemous⁴⁾ (see Figs. 3 and 4). Short glosses in Japanese are appended to explain the illustrated items or specify their meanings (see Fig. 2, “あてね” meaning “of Athens”). The special note “(一例)” (meaning “one example”) is inserted to indicate that the illustration represents only one example of the whole semantic range or of a number of kinds (see Fig. 1). These helpful features are not found in *SEJ*, verbal support to illustrations of which is all in English.⁵⁾

8. Conclusion

The two dictionaries have been studied as to pronunciation, entries, equivalents, examples and notes, and pictorial illustrations, as well as the backgrounds of their publication, the authors' profiles, and their macrostructures. Short summaries of the dictionary component analyses follow.

8.1. Pronunciation

In the way of the representation of pronunciation, *Century* and Webster's dictionaries influenced both *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. Many of the phonetic symbols in both dictionaries are the same or similar to those of *Century* and Webster's dictionaries. In particular, the phonetic transcriptions to headwords in both dictionaries are based on the Websterian system. *Standard's* influence can also be detected. For example, some of the key words used in the phonetic explanations in both dictionaries coincide with those found in *Standard's* as well as in *Century's*.

8.2. Entries

For some time before *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, Webster's dictionaries had been considered to be the norm to follow when compiling English-Japanese dictionaries. This situation somehow changed with the publication of such large dictionaries as *Standard* and *Century*. Although some Websterian traditions (e.g. diacritical marks for phonetic notation) can be observed in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, a survey of the compound entries in both dictionaries reveals a strong tendency toward the orthography of *Century* or *Standard* rather than *WIDEL*. As far as affixes are concerned, there are slightly

more coincidences between *MoEJ* or *SEJ* and *Century* or *Standard* than between the former and *WIDEL*. In *SEJ* the initial letters of headwords of proper nouns only were capitalized after the examples of *Century* and *Standard*.

Standard influenced *MoEJ* and *SEJ* in the following three ways. Both *MoEJ* and *SEJ* employ run-on entries (though the latter's system needs improvement as discussed in Section 5). There are quite a few instances which were treated as run-ons both in *MoEJ* or *SEJ* and *Standard* but as main entries in *WIDEL* or *Century*. The use of German double hyphens in compound nouns is adopted in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*.

8.3. Japanese equivalents, et cetera

The presentation of Japanese equivalents in an English-Japanese dictionary reaches a culmination with *MoEJ*, which provides copious, concise Japanese translations helpfully sorted out in numbered sense groups. This established a good "model" for the dictionaries to come as the dictionary's Japanese title *Mohan* suggests. *SEJ*, on the other hand, is packed with unique features, such as language notes, abundant illustrative phrases and sentences, at least one attached to each sense group basically, and extensive treatment of important items, especially function words, though these may not have been given systematically by today's standards.

8.4. Pictorial illustrations

The two dictionaries' distinct compiling principles exactly translate into their approaches to the provision of pictorial illustrations: *MoEJ* with an encyclopedic orientation incorporates some 4,000 illustrations while *SEJ* with a heavy linguistic orientation only 148. In quality, the latter outshines the former. While *SEJ* faithfully represents the verbal support to illustrations (titles and captions) from the source dictionaries, *MoEJ* provides only the headword item or the minimally relevant part. Nevertheless, the verbal support in *MoEJ* is added with useful information (corresponding sense numbers and short glosses) for Japanese students.

The two dictionaries, compiled on the distinct principles, firmly estab-

lished themselves in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries. They will be remembered for their departure from the total dependence in the compilation process upon the foregoing English dictionaries for native speakers. The "encyclopedic" *MoEJ*, featuring thousands of illustrations, which enjoyed very wide appeal to the late Meiji people, was commercially much more successful than the "linguistic" *SEJ*, which looks solid and serious. The former developed through revision (1919) into 『三省堂英和大辞典』 (*Sanseido's Encyclopaedic English-Japanese Dictionary*, 1928). However, history tells that the latter, with abundant user-friendly considerations, set the tone for the genre of the highly linguistically oriented learner's English-Japanese dictionary, which continues up to the present. This trend was strongly taken to new heights during the following Taisho era (1912–26) by lexicographical giants. As our next paper shows, the publication of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (1911) proves to be significant.

(Sections 7 and 8 by Yamada)

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NOTES

Section 2

1) A series of popular disturbances that erupted throughout Japan from late July to mid-September 1918. Unparalleled in modern Japanese history in their magnitude, diffusion, and violent intensity, they brought about the collapse of the Terauchi cabinet (1916–18). The outbreak of the rice riots coincided with the peak of an inflationary price spiral that affected rents, consumer goods, and especially rice. This precipitous rise in rice prices caused economic hardship and engendered popular hostility toward rice merchants and toward government officials, who failed to intervene with remedial action.

2) Arinori Mori, who was born in the Satsuma domain (now Kagoshima Prefecture), was a distinguished statesman, diplomat, and an advocate of Western thought in the Meiji period. He organized Japan's first modern intellectual society, the Meirokusha in 1873. He worked hard as the first Minister of Education (1885–1899). Mori was assassinated by a Shintoist fanatic in 1889.

Section 5

1) The first impression of *WIDEL* was printed in 1890, and those of *Century* and *Standard* were in 1891 and 1894, respectively; none of these first impressions were available in our analysis.

2) The use of the symbol “||” is already introduced in *WIDEL*, but it is an indication of “words from foreign languages, both ancient and modern, which have not become anglicized.”

3) *Standard* claims that the reason for the adoption of the German double hyphen is “To avoid the confusion that often arises, especially in a dictionary, from using the same form of hyphen for the division of syllables and the joining of the parts of compound words . . .”

4) The reason for the fact that the number of main entries here is more than 150 is that there are some cases where a headword is accompanied by one or more variant forms. For example, **abatis** is immediately followed by its variant form **abattis**, which counts as two rather than one.

5) As is already pointed out in Dohi *et al.* (1998), the system of running on entries which are related in one way or another to the word heading the paragraph is first introduced in *WEJ1* (1888) among the English-Japanese dictionaries in Japan. Thus, it might be the case that the system has been transplanted from *WEJ1* rather than from *Standard*. However, since many other features are adopted from *Standard*, as we discuss in this section, it may rather be plausible to claim that the idea of a run-on entry is also borrowed from *Standard*.

6) The number for *SEJ* includes a case in which **knot grass** is misspelled as **knot glass**.

7) For the detailed discussion on *WWJ*, *MeEJ*, and *WEJ1*, see Dohi *et al.* (1998).

8) It must be noted here that the one which falls into the “N/A” column in *MoEJ* examples, that is, the affix which is included in *MoEJ*, but not in *WIDEL*, *Century*, or *Standard*, is the genuine suffix **-acal**, but those in *SEJ* examples are **-fast** in **steadfast**, **-k** in **hark** or **walk**, and **-t** in **height**, **poet**, **comet**, **act**, or **fact**, none of which is treated as a suffix in present dictionaries.

9) The reason why the numbers in the total column are different from the ones obtained by the simple addition of the numbers in the three columns on the left is that some compounds are of more than two constituents like **father-long-legs**. The entry is written as **father-long-legs** in *MoEJ*, *Century*, and *Standard*, but it is introduced as **father longlegs** in *WIDEL*; in terms of the link between **father** and **long**, hyphenated is treated as separated, but in terms of the link between **long** and **legs**, hyphenated is treated as solid.

10) The English title of *SyEJ* is *An English-Japanese Dictionary*.

11) The English title of *WWJ* is *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language, Translated into Japanese by a Committee*.

Section 6

1) The authors remark at the end of the preface of *MoEJ* as follows: “In most cases we added *furigana* for *kanji* which you may find difficult to read. However, if the same *kanji* are repeated time and again, we gave *furigana* to only the first instances, and omitted in others. Thus if there are *kanji* words you find hard to read, look for *furigana* in the preceding dozen or so lines.”

2) *MoEJ* states in its preface that it ‘utilized the *Century*, the *Standard*, the *Webster* and the *Oxford* (whatever dictionaries they may refer to) for deciding what symbols to use for

some of the pronunciations it described’.

3) Also, having been published only a year after the publication of *MoEJ*, *SEJ* must have had little time to refer to the former in the course of its compilation.

4) We only cited the relevant information in each entry and much of the information given in the actual dictionaries, unless relevant, is omitted here (e.g. diacritical marks on the headwords, pronunciation, etc). The sense numbers are actually presented as was discussed in 6.5. above, while *furigana* in *MoEJ* are actually supplied in the manner explained in 6.3. above. Also, old Chinese characters are replaced by their modern, simplified counterparts which are used in the present-day Japanese language.

5) The actual sense numbers are roman numerals in white against black backgrounds in *SyEJ* and Chinese numerals in white against black backgrounds in *MoEJ*.

6) *MoEJ* actually presents these *furigana* in quarter-sized *katakana* syllabic characters for many *kanji* equivalents.

7) Incidentally, Japanese equivalents presented here (in the first sense of *labyrinth* in *SyEJ* and *MoEJ*) sound very unique (and in a sense very fascinating!) by today’s standards, and presents very interesting clues as to the language that they used in those days.

8) To do the compilers of *MoEJ* justice, we hasten to add that it may depend on the nature of items in the particular parts of the A to Z dictionary contents.

9) We examined 4 pages in every 100 pages, i.e. pp. 1–4, 101–104, . . . , 1401–1404.

10) Entries found with language notes are as follows: *a* (indefinite article), *a* (as in *The house is a building* (i.e. under construction.)), *abandon*, *abase*, *abate*, *Abba*, *abbreviation*, *abettor*, *ability*, *because*, *become*, *bed*, *bee*, *beef*, *before*, *beg*, *begin*, *behind*, *cockney*, *cold*, *description*, *destine*, *English*, *fortunate*, *hot*, *hov*, *naught*, *persuade*, *peruse*, *railroad*, *Scriptural*, *think*, *this*, *those*, *thou*, *though*, *thousand*, *who*, *whoever*, *whole*, *whose*.

11) The original notes are all in Japanese.

Section 7

1) Out of the 148 illustrations in *SEJ*, 111 (75%) are provided for the same items as *MoEJ*; 38 (25.7%) look (almost) alike, 9 (6.1%) partially alike or close, and 64 (43.2%) are totally different from each other.

2) Classification here is so rough that vehicles and weapons are grouped under “devices and machinery,” with the purpose of giving just a general idea.

3) The one at “gig” in *SEJ* (Fig. 6) is an exception.

4) This was already practiced by preceding dictionaries (e.g. *WIDEL*).

5) As in *WIDEL*, the illustration of “canopy” in *SEJ* is with “one form of canopy.”

CITED DICTIONARIES AND THEIR ABBREVIATIONS

(The number in parentheses at the end shows the year the work referred to was issued.)

- Century* *The Century Dictionary, An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*. Ed. by W.D. Whitney. New York: The Century Co., 1889–91. (1903)
- ETSJ* *Eiwa-Taikyaku-Shuchin-Jisho (A Pocket Dictionary of the English and Japanese Language)* (『英和對譯袖珍辭書』). Ed. by Tatsunosuke Hori *et al.* Yedo: Yoshō Shirabesho, 1862.
- MeEJ* *Meiji-Eiwa-Jiten (An English and Japanese Dictionary, for the Use of Junior Students, with the Addition of New Words and their Definitions, together with a Bio-*

- graphical Dictionary*) (『明治英和字典』). Ed. by Shimpachi Seki. Tokyo: Riku-Go-Kuwan. 1884-89. Scholarly reprint of the bound edition. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.
- MoEJ* *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten (Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『模範英和辭典』). Ed. by Naibu Kanda et al. Tokyo: Sanseido, 1911.
- SEJ* *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten (A New English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『詳解英和辭典』). Ed. by Iwae Irie. Tokyo: Shobunkan, 1912. Second edition. Tokyo: Hakuikudo, 1913. Scholarly reprint of the second edition. Tokyo: Meichofukyukai, 1985.
- Standard* *A Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. Ed. by I.K. Funk. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1893-94. (1895)
- SyEJ* *Shin-yaku-Eiwa-Jiten (Sanseido's New English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『新譯英和辭典』). Ed. by Naibu Kanda et al. Tokyo: Sanseido, 1902.
- WEJ1* *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-Jii (An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix: New Edition)* (『附音挿圖和譯英字彙』). Ed. by Yutaka Shimada, revised by S. Sugiura, J. Inoue and A. Manase. Tokyo: M. Okura, 1887. Scholarly reprint. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.
- WIDEL* *Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language*. Ed. by Noah Porter. Springfield: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1890. (1893)
- WWJ* *Webster-shi-Shinkan-Daijisho-Wayaku-Jii (Webster's Unabridged Dictionary of the English Language, Translated into Japanese by a Committee: New edition)* (『ウェブスター氏新刊大辭書和譯字彙』). Ed. by F. Eastlake and I. Tanahashi. Tokyo: C. K. Sanseido, 1888. Scholarly reprint of the second edition. Tokyo: Yumani Shobo, 1995.

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APPENDIX

Reproduced here are a few pages and illustrations from *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, and *Standard*, by courtesy of Waseda University Library (早稲田大学図書館, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo) for *Standard*, of the Library of Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (東京外国語大学附属図書館, Kita-ku, Tokyo) for *MoEJ*, of Chuo University Library (中央大学図書館, Hachioji-shi, Tokyo) for the original *SEJ*, and of Meichofukyukai, the publisher (名著普及会, Tokyo) for the scholarly reprint of *SEJ*. Due to the condition of the original *SEJ* (the first quarter missing), photocopy 4 and 5 are taken from the scholarly reprint.

1294 the—the

二角ノコトアリテハ The lion is a noble beast ノ如シ

The lion is a noble beast. A lion is a noble beast. Lions are noble beasts.

ノ三文並ニ同義ナリトス。—theノ新カレテ舊ノ義ニシテ別ニ名ニ存スルニシテ舊ノ義ニシテ別ニ名ニ存スルニシテ...

the—the 1295

his friend 又ハ such a man as will desert his friend ノ意ナリ。—theノ名詞ノ類ニテハ後述スルニセザルニテ...

1296 the—the

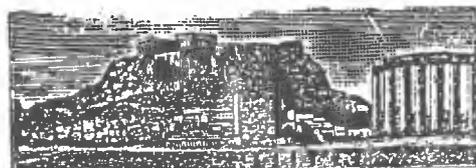
Newman; Father Dominic; Lord Fannyson; General Wolsley; Captain Jay; Henry, King of England; Richard, Duke of Gloucester; Elizabeth, daughter of Henry; John, nephew to Robert; John Jones, undertaker; Longman and Co., booksellers and stationers; Saint John; Doctor Wpoo; Lawyer Hoy; Auctioneer Bailey; Farmer Whistler; Neighbor Brown; Dame Margaret; 和名は the post House ニシテ Post House トイヘズ...

the—the 1297

【華語等ニテ】theノ義ニシテ。 (註) theノ義ニシテ。 the same thing ノ義ニシテ。 the same thing ノ義ニシテ。 the same thing ノ義ニシテ...

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

[Abbess (一例).]

Fig. 1: *MoEJ*

[Acronolis あてねノ.]

Fig. 2: *MoEJ*

[Amazons (一).]

Fig. 3: *MoEJ*

[Gig (一).]

Fig. 4: *MoEJ*

[Gila monster.]

Fig. 5: *MoEJ*

an English gig of 1754

Fig. 6: *SEJ*

An English Gig of 1754.

Fig. 7: *Standard*The Gila Monster (*Heterodermia suspectum*). 1/15Fig. 8: *Standard*An Analysis of *The New Oxford Dictionary of English*

KAORU AKASU KYOHEI NAKAMOTO
HIROKO SAITO YUKIYOSHI ASADA
KAZUYUKI URATA KOICHI OMIYA

1	Introduction	(53)
2	Lemmata	(54)
3	Pronunciation	(62)
4	Sense description	(71)
5	Examples	(81)
6	Grammar	(87)
7	Etymology	(95)
8	Conclusion	(109)

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.¹⁾ 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:²⁾

As Chief Editor, Current English Dictionaries, I outlined the general lexicographical objectives at the outset (e.g. definitions that focus on **TYPIIFICATION** 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*⁴ 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*⁴: the Bank of English (323 million words)
CD: BNC (100 million words); 'Chambers wordtrack'

Emphasising the importance of linguistic 'evidence', both *NODE* and *CED*⁴ explain main features of their corpora in the front-matter articles (*NODE*: vii, *CED*⁴: 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*⁴ and *CD*), its predecessor (*OERD*¹), and *COD*¹⁰ which is now an abridged edition of *NODE*¹¹:

- NODE*: '350,000 words, phrases, and definitions'
*CED*⁴: '180,000 references; 196,000 numbered definitions'
CD: 'Over 215,000 references; Over 300,000 definitions'
*OERD*¹: 'Over 200,000 definitions; 115,000 spellings'
*COD*¹⁰: '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*⁴ and *CD*. The above list does show that *NODE* is bigger than *COD*¹⁰, 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*²⁾ with those in the corresponding sections of *CED*⁴ and *CD* reveals that *NODE* is the smallest:

NODE v. *CED*⁴

Words/compounds included in *NODE*, but not in *CED*⁴ 41

Words/compounds included in *CED*⁴, 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</i> v. <i>CED</i> ⁴	<i>electro-</i>	<i>hydro-</i>	<i>home</i>	<i>life</i>	<i>side</i>
<i>NODE</i> yes, <i>CED</i> ⁴ no:	25	12	15	12	31
<i>NODE</i> no, <i>CED</i> ⁴ yes:	69	48	9	4	8
<i>NODE</i> v. <i>CD</i>					
<i>NODE</i> yes, <i>CD</i> no:	31	21	12	12	23
<i>NODE</i> no, <i>CD</i> yes:	53	54	20	18	13

2.3. Coverage

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

- Both *NODE* and *CED*⁴ include proper names (see 2.4). Our survey shows that *CED*⁴ 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*⁴ 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*;³⁾

- 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*⁴ 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*¹, *vengeable*) and Thackeray (e.g. *potentiary*), none of which are included in either *NODE* or *CED*⁴;
- 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*⁴ 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*⁴ 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*⁴ 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*⁴ 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. *OEDD*). *NODE*, like its predecessors, *OEDD* and *OERD*¹, is an encyclopedic dictionary with ample number of proper names (cf. *NODE*: xi).⁴⁾

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*⁴ 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*⁴, *OERD*¹) but even 'linguistic' ones (*CD* and *COD*¹⁰). 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).⁵⁾

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).⁶⁾

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*⁴, 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*⁴ 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*⁴: 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*⁴.⁷⁾ Our survey has not proved, either, that *NODE* is an exceptionally international dictionary compared to its rivals, especially *CED*⁴. 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*¹ *n*, *cap*² *v*). The following table shows the results of a comparison of our three dictionaries:⁸⁾

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

NODE has a similar macrostructure to *CED*⁴, 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*⁵). As phrasal verbs are given main-entry status in *CED*⁴, 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*⁴. *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*, *laryngectomee*, *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).¹⁰⁾

(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*⁷ in 1984, *OED*² in 1989, and *COD*⁸ 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 /ɛə/ phoneme is followed by a consonant, the realized sound does become monophthongized to [ɛ:], but when word-final, it is still a diphthong [ɛə] 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 /ɛə/ 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 **ˌJapa'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 **ˌbig 'mouth** or **'big ,mouth**? 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* /'drɔ:(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), v (German), γ (German), j (Irish, Russian), ʔ (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, /'təʊkiəʊ/.

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.”¹⁾ 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*,²⁾ 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.³⁾ 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 (%)
absurd	/s/ 77 /z/ 23
applicable	stress on 2nd syll 84, on 1st syll 16
association	/s/ 78 /ʃ/ 22
board-bored	same 81 different 11 vary 7
careless	/ə/ 44 /e/ 38 /i/ 14 /i:/ 3
chance	/ɑ:/ 69 /æ/ 31
circumstances	/æ/ 66 /ɑ:/ 24 /ə/ 11
coupon	/k/ 94 /kj/ 6
delirious	/ɪə/ 54 /ɪ/ 46 sharp rise in /ɪə/ in Eng.
during	/dʒ/ 65 /dʒ/ 34 /d/ 2; /uə/ 87 /ɔ:/ 7 /ɜ:/ 6
electronic	/,elek/ 61 /i,lek/ 14 /,ɪlek/ 11 /,elɪk/ 8
ephemeral	/e/ 86 /i:/ 14
false	/ɔ:/ 52 /ɒ/ 48; /ls/ 89 no /l/ 7 /lts/ 5
halt	/ɒ/ 52 /ɔ:/ 48
jumped	/mpt/ 76 /mt/ 24
jury	/uə/ 77 /ɜ:/ 13 /ɔ:/ 10 decline in /uə/
justifiable	stress on 3rd syll 75 on 1st syll 25
lava-larva	same 72 different 20 vary 8
luxurious	/k/ 67 /gl/ 33; /z/ 50 /ʃ/ 26 /zj/ 13 /sj/ 11
mischievous	stress on 1st syll 73, on 2nd syll 27
necessary	/e/ 78 /ə/ 22
newspaper	/z/ 57 /s/ 43
ogle	/əu/ 76 /ɒ/ 24 (oldest 5, youngest 51)
ominous	/ɒ/ 98 /əu/ 2
one	/ʌ/ 70 /ɒ/ 30 (predominates in north 67)
oral	/ɔ:/ 87 /ɒ/ 13
ordinary	/ri/ 34 /eri/ 34 /əri/ 32 (/ri/ on decrease)
palm	/ɑ:/ 85 /ɑ:l/ 13 /æ/ 1
patronize	/æ/ 97 /ei/ 3
poor-pour	same 49 different 40 vary 11
prematire	stress on 1st syll 59, on 3rd syll 41
prestigious	/ɪ/ 91 /i:/ 9
princess	stress on 2nd syll 60, on 1st syll 40
project n.	/ɒ/ 84 /əu/ 16
puncture	/ŋktʃ/ 87 /ŋtʃ/ 6 /ntʃ/ 4 /ŋkj/ 3
really	/ɪə/ 80 /i:/ 19 /ɪ/ 1
regulatory	stress on 3rd syll 55, on 1st syll: /lɒt/ 33 /leit/ 13
says	/e/ 84 /ei/ 16
short cut	stress on 1st syll 59, on 2nd syll 41
situation	/tj/ 65 /tʃ/ 35
source-sauce	same 64, different 28, vary 8
tune	/tj/ 64 /tʃ/ 35 /t/ 1
vacation	/veɪ/ 61 /və/ 39 American influence?
voluntarily	/'ter/ 40 /'vɒl/ 32 /'tɛər/ 15 /'tær/ 12
white	/w/ 77 /hw/ 23
with	/ð/ 85 /θ/ 15
youths	/ðz/ 82 /θs/ 18

Table 2

Words whose pronunciations in NODE do not reflect recent trends	Wells' Pronunciation Preference Survey (%)
Asia	/ɜ/ 51 /ʃ/ 49
associate v.	/s/ 69 /ʃ/ 31
controversy*	stress on 2nd syll 60, on 1st syll 40
direction	/aɪ/ 54 /aɪə/ 15 /ɪ/ 15 /ə/ 15
equinox	/e/ 92 /i:/ 8
finance n.	stress on 1st syll 81, on 2nd syll 19
gradually	/dʒu/ 49 /dʒu/ 29 /dʒ/ 22
irrefutable	stress on 3rd syll 93, on 2nd 7
kilometre*	stress on 2nd syll 57, on 1st 43
longitude	/ŋg/ 85 /nɔ/ 15
necessarily	stress on 3rd syll 72, on 1st syll 28
perpetual	/tʃuəl/ 57 /tʃuəl/ 37 /tʃəl/ 5
quagmire	/v/ 62 /æ/ 38
scallop	/æ/ 51 /v/ 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.**⁴⁾

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:¹⁾

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:

ring¹ 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*² and *LDOCE*³, 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*² nor *LDOCE*³ lists this sense as primary. Taken together, the facts seem to support *NODE*'s statement quoted above.²⁾

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:³⁾

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*³'s "signposts" and *CIDE*'s "guide words."⁴⁾ 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*:⁵⁾

- film** 1 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
 2 a story or event recorded by a camera as a set of moving images and shown in a cinema or on television: — ③
- spring** noun 1 the season after winter and before summer, . . . — ①
 2 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
 3 a sudden jump upwards or forwards: — ③
 4 a place where water or oil wells up from an underground source, or the basin or flow formed in such a way: — ④
- tea** 1 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
 2 the evergreen shrub or small tree which produces these leaves, native to South and East Asia and grown as a major cash crop. — ③
 3 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*², *LDOCE*³, *CED*⁴, *COD*⁹, 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> ²	③ ① ②	① ② ④	① ② ④
<i>LDOCE</i> ³	③ ① ②	① ② ④ ③	① ② ④
<i>CED</i> ⁴	③ ① ②	③ ④ ② ①	③ ② ① ④
<i>COD</i> ⁹	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 Geyskens (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*¹. 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*². 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*² 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.

OERD²

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*² 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*⁹, respectively, while the counterparts in *COD*¹⁰ 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*⁹:

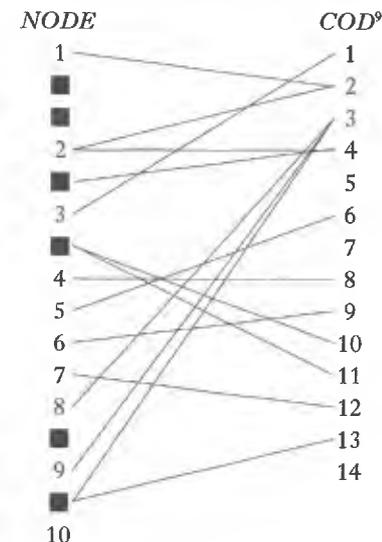


Figure 1

It is easy to see that, as shown by Figure 1, *NODE* covers almost all the senses of *with* in *COD*⁹ except a few and that, in turn, there are some areas of meaning covered by *NODE*'s entry, but not by *COD*⁹'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*¹⁰ 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*⁹, 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*⁴ and that so, too, are *apparently* and *probably* in *COD*⁹. According to *COBUILD*², *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*² is correct, *NODE* is on the right tack. 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*⁴ 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*⁴. The results are shown in Table 4.

It follows from the table below that, as far as these pages are concerned, *CED*⁴ covers a slightly wider range of meaning than does *NODE*. There are several other things that are worthy of notice. First, *CED*⁴ 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*⁴, and the sense of *eloquence* in *NODE* subsumes the three different senses of the corresponding entry in *CED*⁴. 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	+ <i>NODE</i> , - <i>CED</i> ⁴	- <i>NODE</i> , + <i>CED</i> ⁴
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*⁴. ii) Subsenses in *NODE*, marked by ■, and subsenses in *CED*⁴, 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*⁴. 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*⁴ 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*⁴ 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*⁴; (II) those entries with no label in *NODE*, but with some label in *CED*⁴; 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*⁴, 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.⁶⁾ 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*⁴ attaches the label *Slang*.⁷⁾ 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*¹ 2, and *nuts* are labeled *informal* in *NODE*.⁸⁾

(K. Akasu)

5. Examples

5.1. Introductory remarks

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

*CED*⁴ 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*⁴ 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.¹⁾ 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*², 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.²⁾ 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 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*⁵:

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.*

OALD⁵ **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.*³⁾
- 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.⁴⁾ 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:

brake¹ ■ 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,⁵⁾ 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.⁶⁾

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;*⁷⁾ *the ferns began to change shape.*⁸⁾

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 post-card.*⁹⁾

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

frequently used with.¹⁰ 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 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*⁹, *CED*⁴, 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.¹⁾ 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.²⁾ 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]³⁾ is the one which is not found in other native-speaker dictionaries such as *CED*⁴ and *COD*⁹.

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*⁵ and 'V with quote' in *COBUILD*². It is attached to no small number of verbs or senses of verbs in *NODE*. Such information is not found in *CED*⁴ 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*⁴. 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.⁴⁾

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 feature 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*³, *CED*⁴, *CD* and *COD*⁹ inter alia, but nothing of the kind in *NODE*¹⁾), 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*³, for example, has incorporated a special paragraph of 'word history' for extra detailed information 'at entries whose etymologies are of particular interest' (p. xliii), and appended a unique 'Indo-European Appendix' for informed

readers of etymology.²⁾ *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.³⁾ 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*² and *SOD*⁴ or Onions's *SODEE* and Klein's *CEDEL*.⁴⁾ 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*⁹, *COD*⁸, *SOD*⁴, and in some other standard dictionaries recently published, which are, in reverse order of publication: *CED*⁴, *CD*, *RHWCD*², *WNWCD*³, *MWCD*¹⁰, *AHD*³. N.B. 1: *etymology* and 2: *etymon*.

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

- etumologia* (as ETYMON, -LOGY)]
2 [earlier in the sense 'the literal sense or original form or a word'; Latin from Greek *etumon*, neut. of *etumos* 'true']
- COD*⁸ 1 [OF *ethimologie* f. L *etymologia* f. Gk *etumologia* (as ETYMON, -LOGY)]
2 [L f. Gk *etumon* (neut. of *etumos* true), the literal sense or original form of a word]
- SOD*⁴ 1 LME. [OFr. *ethimologie* (mod. *étymologie*) f. L *etimologia* (med.L *ethimologia*, *ethim-*) f. Gk *etumologia*, f. *etumologos* student of etymology, f. *etumon*: see next, -OLOGY.]
2 L16. [L f. Gk *etumon* use as n. of neut. sing. of *etumos* true.]
- CED*⁴ 1 [C14: via Latin from Greek *etumologia*; see ETYMON, -LOGY]
2 [C16: via Latin, from Greek *etumon* basic meaning, from *etumos* true, actual]
- CD* 1 & 2 [Neuter of Greek *etymos* true]⁵⁾
- RHWCD*² 1 [1350–1400; ME < L *etymologia* < Gk *etymologia*; see ETYMON, -LOGY]
2 [1560–70; < L: the origin of a word < Gk *étymon* the essential meaning of a word seen in its origin or traced to its grammatical parts, neut. of *étymos* true, actual, real]
- WNWCD*³ 1 [ME & OFr *ethimologie* < L *etymologia* < Gr: see fol. & -LOGY]
2 [L < Gr *etymon*, literal sense of a word, etymology, neut. of *etymos*, true IE *seto- < base *es-, to be > IS, L *sum*, *est*]
- MWCD*¹⁰ 1 [ME *ethimologie*, fr. L *etymologia*, fr. Gk fr. *etymon* + *-logia* -logy] (14c)
2 [L fr. Gk, literal meaning of a word according to its origin, fr. *etymos* true; akin to Gk *eteos* true — more at SOOTH] (ca. 1576) Cf. ¹*sooth* *adj* [ME, fr. OE *soth*; akin to OHG *sand* true, L *esse* to be] (bef. 12c)
- AHD*³ 1 [Middle English *etimologie*, from Old French *ethimologie*, from Medieval Latin *ethimologia*, from Latin *etymologia*, from Greek *etumologia*: *etumon*, true sense of a word; see ETYMON + *-logia*, -logy.]
2 [Latin, from Greek *etumon*, true sense of a word, from *etumos*, 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*² (after the Old English period) and *MWCD*¹⁰ (after the Middle English period) give more precise dates than British *NODE* and *CED*⁴. While *CED*⁴ gives dates by century, *NODE* following *SOD*⁴ further divides centuries subsequent to the Middle English period into three stages: *early*, *mid* and *late*.⁶ As to *etymology*, the earliest date given in *MED* is (a 1398) for Trevisa's translation.⁷ This date is variously reinterpreted according to the principles adopted by each dictionary. The earliest date given in *OED*² for *etymon* is 1570–6. *RHWCD*² has a date a decade earlier than the one which *OED*² cites while *MWCD*¹⁰ 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'.⁸ But not every word is endowed with first dates. Words lacking in dating include some foreign words and those relating to proper nouns.⁹

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 7.6.¹⁰

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. *maga-zine*:

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*⁴, *CED*⁴ and *RHWCD*² while in *MWCD*¹⁰ the date is put at the end. *NODE*, *CED*⁴, *AHD*³, and *COD*⁹ 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*² and *WNWCD*³, 'f.' in *COD*⁸ and *SOD*⁴, 'fr.' in *MWCD*¹⁰.¹¹ 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*⁹, *COD*⁸, *CED*⁴, 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*⁴, *CD*, and *RHWCD*². But all citations in *MED* under the entry *etimologġe* (with a variant form *ethimi-*) have forms with '-th-' only.

NODE, *RHWCD*², *WNWCD*³, *AHD*³, *COD*⁸ and *COD*⁹ 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*³ goes further to assume the Indo-European hypothetical form of the word **seto-* and still further its base form **es-* 'to be'. *MWCD*¹⁰ 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*⁴ 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*¹⁰ 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*^{2,12}. 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*¹:

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*³ or *WNWCD*³. 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** . . . *vueue*, 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".'¹³ 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 adjectivum*, a translation of Greek *onoma epitheton* '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’.¹⁴

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 . . .¹⁵

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*.¹⁶

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 *ǣg*): from Old Norse.¹⁷

die¹ Middle English: from Old Norse *deyja*, of Germanic origin; related to *DEAD*.

skirt Middle English: from Old Norse *skyrta* ‘shirt’; compare with synonymous Old English *scyrte*, also with *SHORT* . . .

But no such comment is found in *sister*, which *AHD*³ 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*).¹⁸

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*³ 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 *Childermas* 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.¹⁹ Since the first citation of *perfect* with the medial *-c-* in *OED*² 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.²⁰⁾

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 *aitchbone*, *adder*¹, *apron*, *cherry*, *pea*, and *umpire*:

adder¹ . . . The initial *n* was lost in Middle English by wrong division of *a naddre*; compare with **APRON**, **AUGER**, and **UMPIRE**.

cherry . . . The final *-s* was lost because *cherise* was interpreted as plural (compare with **CAPER**² 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’].²¹⁾ Some other examples:

beware (or fear) the Greeks bearing gifts proverb [ORIGIN: with allusion to Virgil’s *Aeneid* (ii. 49).]²²⁾ 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*¹ and *subject* referred to earlier.²³⁾

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.²⁴⁾

U³ abbreviation of **UPPER CLASS**; coined in 1954 by Alan S.C. Ross, professor of linguistics, the term was popularized by its use in Nancy Mitford's *Noblesse Oblige* (1956).

IHS Middle English: from late Latin, representing Greek *ΙΗΣ* as an abbreviation of *Iēsous* 'Jesus' used in manuscripts and also a symbolic or ornamental monogram, but later often taken as an abbreviation of various Latin phrases, notably *Iesus Hominum Salvator* 'Jesus Saviour of Men'. *In Hoc Signo (vinces)* 'in this sign (thou shalt conquer)', and *In Hac Salus* 'in this (cross) is salvation'.

Minotaur from Old French, via Latin from Greek *Minōtauros*, from *Minōs* (see **MINOS**) + *tauros* 'bull'.

Zhdanov named after the Soviet Politburo official Andrei *Zhdanov*, the defender of Leningrad during the siege of 1941–4.

-ing¹ Old English *-ung*, *-ing*, of Germanic origin.

-ing² Middle English: alteration of earlier *-ende*, later *-inde*.²⁵⁾

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:

aikido 1950s: from Japanese *aikidō*, literally 'way of adapting the spirit', from *ai* 'together, unify' + *ki* 'spirit' + *dō* 'way'.

hibakusha mid 20th cent.: Japanese, from *hi* 'suffer' + *baku* 'ex-

plosion' + *sha* 'person'.

shiatsu 1960s: Japanese, literally 'finger pressure'.

Those which have some etymological information with or without dates include:

akebia 1837: modern Latin, coined by J. Decaisne, French botanist, from Japanese *akebi*.

basho Japanese, from *ba* 'place' + *shō* 'victory, win'.²⁶⁾

otaku Japanese, literally 'your house', alluding to the reluctance of such young people to leave the house.

tanka¹ Japanese, from *tan* 'short' + *ka* 'song'.²⁷⁾

yakuza Japanese, from *ya* 'eight' + *ku* 'nine' + *za* 'three', referring to the worst hand in a gambling game.²⁸⁾

yukata Japanese, from *yu* 'hot water' (because originally worn indoors after a bath) + *kata(bira)* 'light kimono'.

Those which have nothing other than 'Japanese' include:

Fuji,²⁹⁾ *juku*, *matsuri*, *sayonara*, *tansu*, and *tanto*.³⁰⁾

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.³¹⁾

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".³²⁾ 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.³³⁾

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.¹⁾ 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 Scahill 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*¹⁰'s *Preface* (pp. vii-viii).

2) Pages 51 (*aluminium bronze — amazing*), 351 (*coati — coccolithophore*), 751 (*gal^l — gall^l*), 1451 (*pot^s — pot-herb*), and 2051 (*vendace — vent^s*).

3) *NODE* is bigger than *OERD*¹:

<i>NODE</i> v. <i>OERD</i> ¹	<i>electro-</i>	<i>hydro-</i>	<i>home</i>	<i>life</i>	<i>side</i>
<i>NODE</i> yes, <i>OERD</i> ¹ no:	28	19	12	14	23
<i>NODE</i> no, <i>OERD</i> ¹ 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*⁴ 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 *Simonix* is only mentioned in the etymology.

6) *COD*¹⁰ 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*¹⁰: 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*⁴.

8) Idioms are run-outs in all.

9) In *OERD*¹, open and hyphenated compounds are given under the headword of the first word. But there are exceptions. (See *OERD*¹: 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*² and *HEED*/*CEED* do not give syllabificational information, whereas *LDOCE*³ and *CIDE* do.

Section 3

1) Almost exactly the same wording is used in *COD*¹⁰.

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*³ says, “Entries containing more than one sense are arranged . . . with the *central* and often the most commonly sought meanings first” (p. xxxix), and *CED*¹ 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*² 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*⁹.

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*² 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*⁴, ‘[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*⁴ (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*².
- 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*¹, 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*¹: '... 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*² 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*¹ 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. *Laocoon* 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 '*sa*' 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*¹.
- 31) See, for example, *issei*, *nisei* and *sansei* 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*³ [Malay *ōrang hūtan*: *ōrang*, man + *hūtan*, 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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- CD*: *The Chambers dictionary*. Edinburgh: Chambers Harrap, 1998.
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- CED*⁴: *Collins English dictionary*, 4th ed. Glasgow: HarperCollins, 1998.
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- CIDE*: *Cambridge international dictionary of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.
- COBUILD*²: *Collins COBUILD English dictionary*, New ed. London: HarperCollins, 1995.
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- COD*⁹: *The concise Oxford dictionary*, 9th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995.
- COD*¹⁰: *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.
- LDOCE³:** *Longman dictionary of contemporary English*, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995.
- LPD:** *Longman pronunciation dictionary*. Harlow: Longman, 1990.
- MED:** *Middle English dictionary*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1952–.
- MWCD¹⁰:** *Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary*, 10th ed. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 1993.
- NODE:** *The new Oxford dictionary of English*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1998.
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- OERD¹:** *The Oxford English reference dictionary*, 1st ed. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1995.
- OERD²:** *The Oxford English reference dictionary*, 2nd ed. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press, 1996.
- POD⁷:** *The pocket Oxford dictionary of current English*, 7th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1984.
- RHWCD²:** *Random House Webster's college dictionary*, 2nd ed. New York: Random House, 1997.
- SOD⁴:** *The shorter Oxford English dictionary*, 4th ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1993.
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編集後記 岩崎研究会も着実に力をつけてきたようだ、一昨年の忘年会で紹介した Routledge 社刊行の *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998) を当研究会の若手の諸君が中心となって翻訳し、研究社から出版される運びとなったのは誠に喜ばしいことである。ぜひ総力を結集してよい辞典としてもらいたい。そのためにはもちろんそれぞれの専門において業績を積み重ねてこられた会の「長老」の方々の助言も必要であるが、何といても 21 世紀を担う若手諸君に頑張ってもらわなければならない。会にとってはもう 1 つ新しい活躍の分野が拓けたわけである。と同時に従来の論文や辞書の分析においてもなお一層の前進を期待したい。本号は *LEXICON* の 20 世紀の最終号となるわけで、今までの 30 年以上に渉る会の歩みを思い浮べると感無量の方は私だけではあるまい。(S. T.)