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An Analysis of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, Sixth Edition

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1. Introduction

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (hereafter OALD) was the first, of the so-called "big four" published in 1995, to launch its revised edition. Naturally, it will be of great interest for anyone involved in lexicography and its related fields to see the kind of improvement that has been made in this renowned work within the highly competitive arena of English monolingual learners' dictionaries.

Obviously, this new, sixth edition has been enlarged as well as revised. It has, in its main body, 1,508 pages whereas its predecessor contains 1,392 pages — a difference of 116 pages and approximately eight percent more space than the fifth edition.¹⁾ It will be interesting to see what aspect or aspects are covered in this sixth edition's additional pages.

In what follows, we will examine and analyze *OALD*⁶'s following dimensions: entries, pronunciation, definition, examples and collocations,

and grammatical information. In so doing, we will mainly refer to its former edition, $OALD^5$, for purposes of comparison, and other dictionaries will be adduced where necessary and appropriate.

2. Entries

2.1. Headwords and subheadwords

One of the most remarkable changes made in *OALD*⁶ is that derivatives and compounds are unnested, though some derivatives still do remain where they were. 11 Consequently, it has become much easier for users to find particular words that they are looking for. 21 However, some idioms have become more difficult to locate, a point we will return to later.

A survey carried out on the following pages of $OALD^6$ offers a general picture of the dictionary's additions and deletions in terms of headwords, including subheadwords. The entry items covered for C are *checkbook* to *chimney pot*; for H are *heaped* to *hedgehog*; for P are *pressure cooker* to *prime mover*; and for T are *turquoise* to *tzarist*. The results are shown below:

Table 1

Alphabet	pages	headwords	+OALD ⁶ , -OALD ⁵	-OALD6, +OALD
С	200-3	120	15	4
Н	600-3	72	13 (2)	2
P	1000-3	75	10 (2)	2
Т	1400-3	106	9 (1)	9
Total	16	373	47 (5)	17
	per page	23.31	2.94	1.06

Notes: (i) $[+OALD^6, -OALD^5]$ means those entries appearing in $OALD^6$, but not in $OALD^5$, whereas $[-OALD^6, +OALD^5]$ designates the opposite. (ii) Numbers in parentheses indicate run-ons.

The estimated number of headwords included in the whole dictionary, according to the figures above, will be 35,155 ($23.31 \times 1,508$), which is far less than the number claimed on the back cover: 80,000 references. Although we need to take into account the fact that the pages surveyed are just a little bit over one percent of the whole dictionary, it would be safe to

say that the *OALD*⁶'s figure includes all those words and phrases printed in bold type, such as idioms and phrasal verbs.³⁾ Also, there are a huge number of variant spellings and other types of variant forms, such as those of American English, given in bold type after headwords and these must also count as references. In fact, most of these variants given in parentheses, e.g. (also **tike**), s.v. *tyke* are also entered elsewhere as headwords, with cross references to their main entries.

As the table above shows, there are many more entry items added than deleted. The estimated number of newly introduced words is 4,430 ($2.94 \times 1,508$), which nearly agrees with the number given on the back cover: 4,500 new words and meanings. Here are the entry items added anew, say, for C:

chenille, the chequered [checkered] flag, cherry-pick, chewy, chicane, Chicano, chickadee, chickenshit, chief executive, chief executive officer, chief inspector, chief justice, chief superintendent, child restraint, child seat

and those items deleted:

cheeriness, cheese-paring, Chianti, chiaroscuro

It is worth noting that, out of the fifteen items above, six are America- or American English-related, namely, the checkered flag, Chicano, chickadee, chickenshit, chief executive, chief justice, whereas four of them are Britain- or British English-linked, namely, the chequered flag, chicane, chief inspector, chief superintendent. One may well infer that $OALD^6$ is much more sensitive to the American variety of English than its predecessor. I hasten to add that this does not mean that British English is neglected or put in the background. In fact, it is safe to say that the new edition is better balanced in its treatment of these two major varieties of English.

2.2. Idioms and phrasal verbs

Next, we will examine the entries for idioms and phrasal verbs. Another survey has been conducted on the same pages as in Table 1 to see how many of them are added and deleted in the new edition. The following table shows the change in idiom entries:

Table 2

Alphabet	$+OALD^6, -OALD^5$	$-OALD^6$, $+OALD$	
С	0	2	
H	12	3	
P	4	1	
T	3	0	
Total	19	6	
per page	1.19	0.38	

It is apparent that more idioms are entered than deleted in $OALD^6$, which may be a welcome feature. However, there is a systematic change made in the presentation of idioms in $OALD^6$, which we consider to be a step backward. In the former edition $(OALD^5)$, a large number of idioms were listed for more than one entry, given their full form in bold, and they were cross-referenced as in the following example:

cheek by jowl (with sb/sth).... turn the other cheek.... with tongue in cheek ⇒ Tongue.4)

Here is the treatment given in OALD6:

cheek by jowl (with sb/sth) turn the other cheek . . . — more at Rose n., Tongue n.

The idiom in question is with tongue in cheek. It is true that you may be able to find it, referencing through this particular entry, but it does not seem like an easy job. It is far from being user-friendly.

The next table indicates the change of phrasal verb entries:

Table 3

Alphabet	+OALD ⁶ , -OALD ⁵	-OALD6, +OALD			
С	1	0			
H	0	0			
P	1	1			
Т	1	0			
Total	3	1			
per page	0.19	0.06			

Obviously, there is no marked change made between the two editions as far as phrasal verbs are concerned.

2.3. Miscellanea

We will take note of some other changes introduced in $OALD^6$ here. First, as we saw in the previous subsection, an unnesting of entries took place. With it came an enormous number of cross references in a variety of forms such as see \sim , see also \sim , compare \sim , more at \sim , the equal sign "=", [SYN] or [OPP]. It may be seen as a natural consequence of the unnesting mentioned above that $OALD^6$ has come to have so many cross references, because it has to have a link between unnested entry items.

Secondly, combining forms that were given subheadword status in $OALD^5$ has been systematically demoted, some even deleted, in $OALD^6$, which subtracts from its user-friendliness. Compare the following examples:

heart n ▶ -hearted (in compound adjs) having feelings or a nature as specified: kind-hearted ○ faint-hearted. (OALD⁵) heart noun -HEARTED 4 (in adjectives) having the type of character or personality mentioned: cold-hearted ♦ kind-hearted.⁵⁾ (OALD⁶)

On the face of it, the difference may not look as significant as we claim it is. However, it tries the user's patience.

Thirdly, phrases used with the definite article, such as the Union Jack and the United States are given with the definite article preceding the headword. This is a whole new, interesting attempt made by $OALD^6$, and it will be a while before we call this new headword-form a success or failure.

The following are welcome changes effected in the new edition: the entering of comparatives and superlatives in full form, e.g. **prettier**, **prettiest**, rather than **-ier**, **-iest** (s.v. *pretty*); giving main-entry status to present and past participles used as adjectives, e.g. *heaving* and *heaped*; giving idioms as headwords in the way that they are actually used, e.g. *hearing things* rather than *hear things*; the entering of plural forms of some particu-

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lar noun phrases in full, e.g. chests-of-drawers and maids-of-honour/honor. All of these will add to the user-friendliness of $OALD^6$.

2.4. Word breaks

Indication of word breaks or word divisions has come back; the disappearance of which Ichikawa et al. (1996: 146) expressed keen regret for. Wehmeier (2000) confessed that there was a worldwide protest against $OALD^5$'s abolition of syllabication. Take the word economically, for example. It was economically in $OALD^3$, and economically in $OALD^4$, and now economically in the present edition. What I would regard as most regrettable is the fact that there is no explanation provided for $OALD^6$'s policy of word breaks. It is true that the role or value of syllabication has diminished immensely. It does not follow from this, however, that we are not in need of it any more. The explanation may not have to be as specific as the one given in the front matter of $OALD^3$, but at least some basic principles should be given in order for users to understand both what is meant by those raised dots in headwords and why some words have raised dots in them and others do not.

(K. Akasu)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. While the editors of the dictionary changed from the members of the previous edition, the phonetics editor for the sixth edition is the same as before: Michael Ashby. Principles underlying the description of pronunciation, as set out on the inside of the back cover (two pages devoted to "pronunciation and phonetic symbols") are, on the whole, the same as for $OALD^5$. For example, "[t]he British pronunciations given are those of younger speakers of General British. This includes RP (Received Pronunciation) and a range of similar accents which are not strongly regional."

In this section, we shall mainly examine what changes there are between $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$ concerning information on pronunciation.

3.2. Notation and presentation

3.2.1. The system of transcription, using IPA symbols, remains the same

as before: both quality and length differences are shown as in $/i\iota/v_8$. $/\iota/v_8$ and $/u\iota/v_8$. Symbols $/i/v_8$ and $/u/v_8$ for the weak vowels in **happy**, **dub***i***ous**, **situation**, or **stimulate** continue to be used in the sixth edition.

3.2.2. Noticeable is the list of the pronunciation key at the bottom of every page, with the IPA symbols arranged in order of vowels (from /æ/ to /υə/), semi-vowels, and consonants (from /b/ to /ŋ/) with a sample word beneath each symbol, repeated every four pages.¹⁾ This replaces the guide to the abbreviation of grammatical labels shown at the bottom of every page of $OALD^5$.

3.3. American English pronunciation

- **3.3.1.** However, a more substantial difference when compared with the fifth edition, especially for those users outside Britain, is that in the new edition, the American variety of pronunciation is shown explicitly next to the British pronunciation, Information about American pronunciation was included in the fifth edition also, but it was not written out when it was predictable by rule. For example, farm only had /fa:m/ because the American /fazm/ (or, according to the OALD system of transcription, /fa:rm/) could be predicted from the spelling. However, linking /r/ for the nonrhotic varieties of British English was always shown in OALD⁵ even though they are also predictable from spelling: father was accompanied by the transcription $f(x) = \frac{1}{r} \int_{-r}^{r} f(x) dx$ with the parenthesized r indicating the fact that when this word is followed by a word starting with a vowel, the /r/ sound would be pronounced. Both of these r's appear equally obvious, and it seems that the previous edition, showing linking /r/ (for British English) but not the rhoticization of vowels, was still clearly centered around nonrhotic varieties of British English.
- 3.3.2. In the new edition, presentation of the American pronunciation extends to the "predictable" cases as well as to those not so obvious: the above mentioned **farm** is transcribed /fa:m; AmE fa:rm/ this time. The diphthong of the word **go** used to be represented by /gou/ only, because this being merely the phonemic (as against phonetic) transcription, the users were to apply the phonetic form of their own dialect (RP [ou], AmE [ou], or even Cockney [Au] etc.) to the representation. However, it did look

rather strange when **momentarily** was transcribed as /məuməntrəli; US ,məumən'terəli/ in OALD⁵, the fact which was pointed out by the present writer in 3.3.1 in Ichikawa et al. (1996). The system in the new OALD⁶, giving /məuməntrəli; AmE ,moumən'terəli/ with the diphthong for the American form shown as /ou/, looks much more sensible.

- **3.3.3.** Another sound for which the American variant was omitted from the older edition because it could be replaced automatically from the given British form was the vowel for words like **hot**: $/\mathbf{p}/$. This is a slightly rounded vowel in RP but is an unrounded vowel, similar to the first vowel in **father**, in AmE. Only $/\mathbf{p}/$ was given in $OALD^5$, but in the new edition, **hot** is transcribed as /hot; AmE hart/.
- 3.3.4. Unpredictable to the learner is which of the words containing RP $|\mathbf{p}|$ becomes $|\mathbf{p}|$ in AmE; as was witnessed above, **hot** is $|\mathbf{hat}|$ in AmE, but **dog** is $|\mathbf{dat}|$. Both belong to the same phoneme $|\mathbf{p}|$ in RP. For such words, $OALD^5$ explicitly showed both variants and $OALD^6$ continues to do so, too.
- 3.3.5. On the other hand, words that share the same vowel as **thought**, which is rounded in RP but is changing to and merging with the unrounded $|\alpha:|$ in AmE, have been given only a single transcription, namely $|\alpha:|$, in $OALD^6$, the same as in $OALD^5$. EPD gives both $|\theta\alpha:t|$ and $|\theta\alpha:t|$ (in this order) for AmE, and LPD used to show two variant pronunciations, $|\alpha:|$ in its first edition but now only gives $|\alpha:|$. Both pronunciation dictionaries transcribe the British vowel of **thought** with $|\alpha:|$.
- **3.3.6.** We have so far looked at the symbols and system of transcription used in $OALD^6$ and now we shall pick out some of the pronunciation differences found between British and American English at the morphological and lexical distributional levels and see how they are treated in $OALD^6$.
- 3.3.7. It is known that there is a difference in pronunciation between British and American English of certain suffixes: -ary, -ery, -ory, -mony as in **dictionary**, **stationery**, **dormitory**, **ceremony**, have a full vowel in AmE whereas in RP they are reduced to a schwa or even deleted. These were presented as /'dɪkʃənri; US -neri/, /'stetʃənri; US -neri/, /'dɔːmətri; US -tɔːri/, /'serəməni; US -məuni/ in OALD⁵, reflecting the differences.

The same transcriptions are kept in the new edition except, of course, where the notation has changed: for example, $|\partial u| \rightarrow |\partial u|$ etc.

3.3.8. The phenomenon of yod-dropping, where the /j/ after alveolar consonants such as /s, t, d, n/ are dropped in AmE but not in RP, was also already reflected in $OALD^5$ for words like **new(s)**, **suicide**, or the suffix **-tude**, and continue to be recognized in $OALD^6$.

The different vowels of so-called **ask**-words (RP $/\alpha$:/ vs. AmE $/\alpha$ /) were and continue to be shown.

3.3.9. Famous differences in pronunciation of such words as asphalt, controversy, herb, ice cream, laboratory, leisure, lever, lieutenant, magazine, missile (and other -ile words), privacy, route, schedule, squirrel, suggest, tomato, vase are noted in both editions.

American English pronunciations not given in $OALD^5$ have been added, in the new edition, for **curry** and **hurry**, 2) and the variant / arrind3/ is also a new addition to the American English notation for **orange** which, in $OALD^5$, only carried / or-/.

3.3.10. However, not all American differences have been recognized, even in $OALD^6$, and the following headwords are given only the British pronunciation although they may not be pronounced with the same phonemes by Americans: **anti-** (no mention of the popular /-tai/ version), **Asian** (/'eɪʃn; 'eɪʒn/. No mention of most Americans pronouncing it /'eɪʒn/. However, under **version**, $|AmE|_{v3:r3n}|_{is given.}$), **ballet** (no /bæ'leɪ/ of AmE), **marry** (/'meri/ not mentioned, even though according to Wells' recent poll for LPD^2 , for more and more Americans this word is homophonous with **merry**), and **semi-** (/-ai/ not noted).

To sum up, as is mentioned in the preface of the sixth edition, "the Phonetics Editor has improved [the] representation of the pronunciation of American English" especially by making the differences more explicit than before. This user-friendly presentation is an improvement in a learners' dictionary, and also in line with Gimson's policy: "... the foreign learner will expect his information on pronunciation to be given clearly at the point of entry and, as far as possible, not to rely on reference to general rules stated in the Introduction to the dictionary" (Gimson (1981: 251)). Gimson was, after all, responsible for the pronunciation of *OALD* from

1980 up to his death in 1985; in 1980, after he took over from the previous pronunciation editor Windsor Lewis, Gimson changed the notation and introduced the system still followed by the recent *OALD*'s.

In $OALD^6$, some new additions to the American variant descriptions have also been made. However, we found that there are some American variants left out, and we feel that as for pronunciation, OALD is still weighted towards British English rather than paying equal attention to the American variant.

3.4. Variants of British pronunciation

- **3.4.1.** In Ichikawa et al., we saw that the variants of pronunciation chosen for General British and the order they were presented when more than one existed were descriptive and more or less matched the results of the opinion poll carried out by Wells for the first edition of his *LPD*: in other words, *OALD*'s pronunciations reflected reality.
- **3.4.2.** The pronunciations given in the new edition do not seem to have been changed greatly from the last edition except for the presentation of American English variants as mentioned above, but one item that was taken up by Ichikawa et al. (1996: 150) as not reflecting the British English poll preference, i.e. **schism** /'sɪzəm/, has been changed to /'skɪzəm; 'sɪzəm/.

3.5. Stress

- **3.5.1.** Not only word stress but also stress on phrasal verbs and idioms are shown in $OALD^6$, a kind of information increasingly being included in learners' dictionaries published in Japan but still rare in English monolingual dictionaries. OALD was the first monolingual dictionary to indicate stress on idioms, and as can be seen from Takebayashi et al. (1975: 109) and Takahashi et al. (1992: 79), stress marks on compounds and idioms were first shown only when unpredictable but later the marking was extended to all idioms.
- **3.5.2.** However, a change can be seen between $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$ that can be said to be retrogressive. Shifting the primary stress to an earlier secondary-stressed syllable in order to avoid clashing of strong stresses, is a common and unconscious strategy used by native speakers of English:

compare the stress of the word **afternoon** in **Good after'noon**. and '**afternoon** '**tea**. Such changes of positioning of stress are not obvious or even known to most (at least Japanese) learners. LDOCE, for instance, uses the \triangleleft mark to show possibility of stress shift, and $OALD^5$ used to show stress marks on examples. E.g., under 'well-'known, we were given examples like this: 'well-known 'actors/'facts/'landmarks/quo'tations. However, in $OALD^6$, the examples are presented without the shifted stress marks. The phenomenon itself is explained in "pronunciation and phonetic symbols" (inside the back cover of $OALD^6$) using **afternoon** and **well-known** as examples, and it is hard to understand the reason why the markings have been omitted from the recent edition.

3.6. Additions to the explanation of pronunciation

Lastly, there are two new items connected with pronunciation added to the "pronunciation and phonetic symbols" section at the end of the dictionary. One is about the American tapped /t/. The condition under which this occurs and comparison with British English are briefly mentioned here. This is obviously the result of trying to incorporate American pronunciation into the dictionary.

The other item new to the sixth edition is the pronunciation of /t/ at the end of a word as a glottal stop. This reflects the pronunciation in American English, which is also a widely spread, on-going change in British English.³⁾

Although LAAD marks voiced /t/ and glottalized /t/ for all corresponding words in the main part of the dictionary, neither of the above ways of pronunciation is actually marked in $OALD^6$.

(H. Saito)

4. Definition

4.1. Defining vocabulary

4.1.1. A comparison was made between the defining vocabularies of $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$. The results are shown in Table 4. $OALD^6$ claims to use "just under" 3,000 words (p. 1531), while its predecessor uses 3,500 words. In fact, it is clear from the above that $OALD^6$ has reduced its

Table 4

	+6, -5	-6,+5
A	12 (156)	78 (249)
D	12 (154)	69 (209)
G	18 (80)	19 (82)
M	14 (119)	35 (142)
P	25 (238)	57 (273)
Т	10 (162)	39 (197)
Total	91 (909)	297 (1152)

Notes: (i) [+6, -5] and [-6, +5] signify those items which appear only in $OALD^6$'s defining vocabulary and those only in $OALD^5$'s defining vocabulary, respectively. (ii) Numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of defining vocabulary items listed under the letter concerned.

predecessor's defining vocabulary (DV hereafter) by a large number. The fewer words dictionary definitions are written with, the easier they will be to comprehend, which is the theoretical basis of DV. We will see in this subsection whether this reduction has led to comprehensibility or readability of definitions for their supposed users. Let us examine $OALD^6$'s DV more closely.

The eighteen items under the letter G on the [+6, -5] side are as follows:

garbage, in general¹⁾, geography, girlfriend, give away, give out, give up, be going to, go up, good at, good for, gram, grandparent, grandson, grape, greenish, greyish, guitar

The nineteen items under G on the [-6, +5] side:

gallery, gang, gap, gathering, gear, generation, gesture, glad, glow, goodness, gossip, gratitude, greatly, greedy, grief, grind, grip, guarantee, guidance

One of the most serious problems concerning DV is its treatment of the different senses of words and fixed phrases. As most of DV words consist of basic vocabulary of a language, they are typically polysemous and generate quite a few fixed phrases. From the user perspective it cannot be justified to use, say, be to, which is actually used defining forbid (1b, OALD⁵)

even if both of the items are included in the DV. It is therefore interesting that in only eighteen items on [+6, -5] side we can find as many as eight fixed phrases: in general, give away, give out, give up, be going to, go up, good at, and good for. It may be safe to say that the inclusion of them is the result of their attempt to take fuller control of fixed phrases in the DV by making them explicit. This is no doubt a welcome feature of $OALD^6$'s DV.

Apart from the above samples, $OALD^6$ also includes in its DV several abbreviations, often used in dictionary definitions, such as sb and sth, Americanisms like railroad, and neologisms such as CD (Kawamura (2000a)). Considering worldwide dominance of American English, the inclusion of Americanisms is advantageous in that it can help to make definitions in $OALD^6$ accessible to a wider range of users.

4.1.2. OALD⁶ claims to have reduced OALD⁵'s DV by more than 500 words while incorporating many new items (see 4.1.1). How has it managed to do such a difficult task? Ichikawa et al. (1996: 152) made the point that OALD⁵'s DV includes many synonyms. Let us compare the definitions of glad, which word is among the [-6, +5] group above:

- OALD⁵ 1 (a) pleased; delighted (b) relieved: (c) grateful for sth: (d) willing and eager to do sth: . . . 2 causing or bringing joy:
- OALD⁶ 1 pleased; happy: 2 grateful for sth: 3 very willing to do sth: 4 bringing joy: full of joy.

Notice that three of the adjectives used in *OALD*⁵'s definition above, namely *delighted*, *relieved*, and *eager* do not appear in *OALD*⁶ as they are deleted from the DV. It seems safe to say that *OALD*⁵'s DV was revised to reduce the redundancy mentioned above by striking some synonyms and near synonyms off the list.

Also to be noted is that, by and large, definitions in $OALD^6$ are longer than in $OALD^5$, which may well have something to do with $OALD^6$'s reduction of its DV items. Consider the following entry of garbage:

OALD⁵ 1 (a) waste material, esp domestic waste; rubbish (1): (b) a place or container for disposing of this: . . .

OALD⁶ 1 waste food, paper, etc. that you throw away: 2 a place or container where waste food, paper, etc. can be placed:

It is true that a more restricted vocabulary gives rise to a tendency for definitions to become longer, and criticism is often leveled at their lengthiness or wordiness. However, as may be seen above, longer definitions do not necessarily lead to their being difficult. Rather, we find $OALD^6$'s revised definitions to be more readable. From the user perspective, comprehensibility should come before brevity when it comes to EFL dictionaries. It may be concluded, therefore, that $OALD^6$'s attempt to reduce its DV and still write good definitions should be taken favorably. In this connection, one interesting feature of $OALD^6$'s definitions should be pointed out. In a phrase, they are self-contained definitions. That is, no pronouns in a given definition refer to any words or phrases outside its definition. That is not the case in $OALD^5$, as exemplified by the entry above, garbage 1 (b). This is a desirable, if not essential, treatment because users do not always look through all the definitions entered in a particular entry they refer to.

4.1.3. It should be noted that the above [+6, -5] group includes two adjectives expressing the shades of colors: greenish and greyish, which are listed as exceptions to $OALD^5$'s DV (p. 1417). $OALD^6$ has tried to decrease the number of exceptions to its predecessor's DV. If a DV allows too many exceptions to occur in dictionary definitions, it will be simply meaningless. Accordingly, the inclusion of these adjectives may be regarded as a welcome addition.

 $OALD^6$ seems to use far fewer words printed in small capital letters, which are used to indicate the items outside DV. For example, here are the definitions of *father*, taken from $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$:

- OALD⁵ 1 (a) a man in relation to a child or children born from an Ovum that he has fertilized (Fertilize 1)
- OALD⁶ 1 a male parent of a child or an animal; a person who is acting as the father to a child

OALD5's father uses two words from outside its DV: OVUM and FER-

TILIZE even for the definition of one of the most basic words in the English language. This definition may be scientifically correct, but to be scientifically correct is one thing and to be lexically correct is quite another. $OALD^6$'s definition of father is much more easily comprehensible than $OALD^5$'s.

In this connection, one should be reminded that OALD⁵ sometimes does not mark words outside its DV (e.g. fertilized in the case above) and that there are some cases where OALD6 still follows in its predecessor's footsteps. This is another point to which we would like to draw attention: as DV has become one of the selling-points in the highly competitive EFL dictionary market, dictionary makers try to make their DVs appear smaller in number and also to make exceptions to their DVs appear fewer than there really are (Kawamura (2000a)). With all the welcome features of OALD6's DV mentioned above, it is not free from this unfavorable trait. While OALD6 claims to have only one type of exception to its DV, proper names (p. 1531), it actually has at least one more, root words. They are used to define their derivatives and compounds without marking them in small capital letters. OALD5 admits using these words as part of its DV when they are used in their own entries and gives bleary used for blearily and bleary-eyed in its entry as an example. Surprisingly enough, the very word is used in the same way in OALD6's definition for blearily, though it fails to mention the use as an exception (Kawamura (2000a)). To make matters worse, the adverb has become an independent headword in this revision: this exception cannot be justified. The same goes for other entries like abstract used for abstraction.

Lastly, one might be reminded that definitions are not the only dictionary article users read. If DV is expected to make definitions more easily accessible to the intended users, it is far from sufficient for DV to be used exclusively for definitions. $OALD^5$ does not control its vocabulary used in bracketed explanations in the definitions, such as selectional restrictions, and neither does $OALD^6$. As we have seen above, $OALD^6$ has improved its DV in several ways. Nevertheless, it is not free from commercialism and there is still room for improvement in its DV.

4.2. Sense Description

4.2.1. The clearest difference made in this revision concerning sense distinction may be the abolition of sub-division of senses like 1a, 1b, and so on. However, this does not mean that $OALD^6$ divides different senses of a word more roughly than $OALD^5$. On the contrary, there are many entries where we can note improvements in the sense distinction. For example, $OALD^5$ lists only one meaning of *crossbar*:

a bar that goes across and between two things, eg the bar joining the two upright posts of a football goal, or the front and back of a bicycle frame.

On the other hand, OALD6 has split it as follows:

- 1 the bar joining the two upright posts of a football goal.
- 2 the bar between the seat and the handlebars of a man's bicycle.

It is apparent that this distinction makes it easier for us to know exactly what a crossbar looks like. The following definitions of *forceful*, taken from $OALD^5$, $OALD^6$, and $LDOCE^3$ are another case in point:

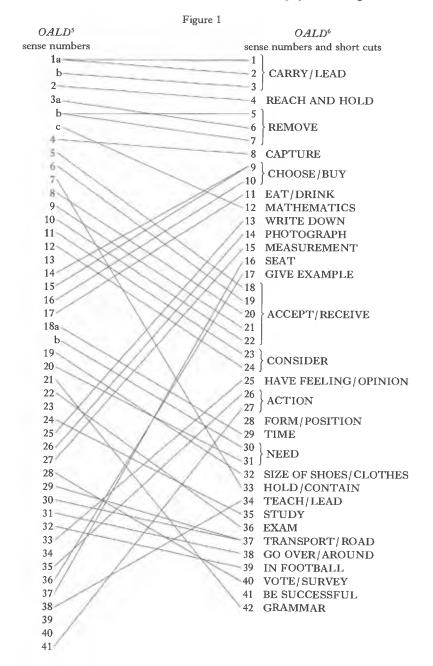
OALD⁵ strong and firm; ASSERTIVE

OALD⁶ 1 (of people) expressing opinions firmly and clearly in a way that persuades other people to believe them
2 (of opinions, etc.) expressed firmly and clearly so that other people believe them 3 using force

LDOCE³ 1 a forceful person expresses their opinions very strongly and clearly and people are easily persuaded by them
 2 forceful arguments, reasons etc are strongly and clearly expressed, and help persuade you that something is true

As may be seen, $OALD^5$'s definition is quite simple and straightforward but may be considered vague or not specific enough, whereas $OALD^6$'s definitions, with selectional restrictions given, carry much more information. In a phrase, they are more sophisticated. Note that, though they differ in style, the first and second definitions represent about the same semantic content in both $OALD^6$ and $LDOCE^3$. Similar examples can be seen in such entries as outsider, rough-and-ready, and since adv.

4.2.2. The dictionary does not mention anywhere in the volume the way



 $OALD^6$ has arranged the different senses of words. We should assume, therefore, that there is no change made in its basic policy. Let us then consider the arrangement of senses of take, for instance. The figure above shows the correspondence relations between the senses as listed in $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$.

Although there are quite a few promotions and demotions of the individual senses, it is hard to discern any particular patterns in the changes represented in Figure 1. However, it is fair to suppose that corpora have come to be used more thoroughly than in the former edition. The above changes of order may well reflect the corpus evidence. In this connection, Akasu et al. (1996: 35) have pointed out that the senses of *film* are arranged in exactly the same order: (1) movie, (2) photographic film and (3) thin coating or layer by CIDE, COBUILD², LDOCE³, and OALD⁵, and this still holds true for OALD⁶ as far as the three senses are concerned. As we have seen in 4.2.1, however, OALD⁶ has a tendency to draw finer distinctions of meaning than OALD⁵, and it has three senses under the first short cut of MOVING PICTURES: those of movie, the making of a movie, and footage.

4.2.3. While $OALD^5$ did not adopt any particular means to help users find the meaning they are looking for, $OALD^6$ has introduced what it calls "short cuts." This is quite similar to $LDOCE^3$'s signposts and CIDE's guide words in nature. It seems fair to say that OALD is adopting selectively some of its competitors' features at each revision. Given here is the number of short cuts, as well as signposts and guide words, used in the entry for *take*:

OALD⁶ 30 short cuts for 42 senses LDOCE³ 21 signposts for 47 senses²⁾ CIDE 14 guide words for 14 senses³⁾

On the face of it, $OALD^6$ uses the largest number of markers. However, a superficial comparison of the figures is simply misleading or even erroneous because each of the dictionaries has its own system. Attention should be drawn to the fact that there is an additional system of "menus" employed in $LDOCE^3$, which group together several related signposts or

individual senses of phrases in order to help users find particular meanings more quickly. In the case above, $LDOCE^3$'s 47 senses of take are grouped into ten headings in its menu. The short cuts also must have the same purpose, namely to help users find the sense they are looking for, especially when they are looking at longer entries with, say, more than five or six meanings. If there are too many markers without such general headings as menus, however, it can be a kind of burden for users to look through all of them. In addition, close examination of each short cut seems to suggest that they have been chosen quite randomly (see Figure 1). The front matter says merely that "short cuts show the general meaning or context of each meaning" (p. vii). While short cuts can be a helpful guide to users, $OALD^6$'s use of them leaves much to be desired.

4.2.4. OALD⁶ has introduced the so-called full-sentence definitions, originally adopted by COBUILD¹ (1987). While this definition style takes more space than what are called traditional definitions, at least the former can provide us with more information, such as typical subjects of verbs, collocations, and so forth. Let us look at the following definitions of *twinkle*:

OALD⁵ 2 (of sb or their eyes) to have bright lively expressions esp because one is amused

OALD⁶ 2 if your eyes **twinkle**, you have a bright expression because you are happy or excited

OALD⁶'s definition is arguably much easier to understand and it is, nevertheless, as informative as OALD⁵'s. It is, therefore, fair to say that the introduction of sentence definition is another welcome feature, at least in this case.

4.2.5. It is well known that some grammatical words such as prepositions are difficult to define, and so $OALD^5$ bracketed its explanations for how individual prepositions should be used. In other words, it appears to have distinguished definitions of content words (traditional definitions) from those of grammatical words, where DV is not applied (Kawamura (2000b)). $OALD^6$ has abolished the bracketing in this revision, but it is hard to say whether this abolition means that DV has come to be applied to explanations of these grammatical words, since $OALD^6$ sometimes uses

words outside its DV without marking them as such. The word *artery*, for instance, is used to define *pressure point* 1 though it is definitely not listed among the DV, which is an editorial error.

4.2.6. Two symbols of [SYN] and [OPP] have been introduced into $OALD^6$ to show synonyms and antonyms of headwords or particular senses. While these additions are another welcome feature of this new edition, it is to be noted that some of the [SYN] words were actually used as part of definitions in $OALD^5$. Let us compare the definitions of *chef-d'oeuvre*, for instance:

OALD⁵ a very fine piece of work, esp the best done by a particular artist; a MASTERPIECE.

OALD⁶ a very good piece of work, especially the best work by a particular artist, writer, etc. [SYN] MASTERPIECE

There is no significant difference between the two definitions above except the addition of a [SYN] symbol.

4.2.7. It is to be mentioned that descriptions of selectional restrictions have increased in number. A comparison was made of all the entries on the following eight pages of $OALD^6$ with the corresponding entries in $OALD^5$ in terms of selectional restrictions: pp. 200–1, 600–1, 1000–1, and 1400–1. Three instances were found to be newly added under *cheerless*, *cheery*, and *hearty adj*. 3. On the other hand, no selectional restrictions in $OALD^5$ have been removed. Considering the usefulness of selectional restrictions in EFL dictionaries, these additions are no doubt a welcome feature of this new edition.

4.2.8. It appears that more entries have been provided with pictorial illustrations in this revision, as in jug, right-angled (cross-referenced to triangle) and single-breasted (cross-referenced to pictures on page A4). The illustration under jug depicts its lip also, so that the entry for lip has got a cross-reference to the illustration. Such words as lip in this particular sense are more easily comprehensible using pictorial illustrations than verbal definitions. So these additions may be regarded as another welcome feature of OALD⁶.

4.3. Coverage

4.3.1. A survey was conducted between $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$ to see which of the two editions covers a wider range of meaning of their headwords. All entries common to both $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$, including subentries, on the eight pages of $OALD^6$ were compared with the corresponding entries in $OALD^5$. The results are shown in the following table:

Table 5

alphabet	pages	headwords	+6, -5	-6,+5
В	100-1	45	4	1
F	500-1	30	5	5
0	900-1	50	7	6
S	1300-1	42	6	2
Total	8	167	23	14

Note: The numbers of headwords indicate those of entries common to both $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$.

It is clear from the table above that $OALD^6$ covers a considerably wider range of meanings. In order to see what kind of senses have been added, all the new senses on the eight pages above and the following twenty-two additional pages (pp. 200–1, 300–1, 400–1, 600–1, 700–1, 800–1, 1000–1, 1100–1, 1200–1, 1400–1, and 1500–1) have been investigated in terms of their labels. The table below shows labels allocated to the new senses and their number of occurrences:

Table 6

labels	AmE	informal	BrE	disapproving	humorous	technical
occurrences	12	5	3	2	1	1

Note: New senses with no labels are not included.

It reveals that the largest number of new senses, excepting those with no labels, have AmE labels, as in *checker* 1 and *twin bed* 2. As we have seen in 4.1.1, $OALD^6$ has introduced Americanisms into its DV and it may be safe to say that $OALD^6$ pays much more attention to American English than before. In addition, it is remarkable that the second largest group has *informal* labels. $OALD^6$ seems to have included informal expressions more

thoroughly.

When considering the coverage of meaning in the two editions, it is not sufficient to count the new senses. It is also necessary to examine more closely the definitions of senses common to both $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$. Compare the following definitions, taken from the entry *editorial n*.:

- OALD⁵ a special article in a newspaper, usu written by the EDITOR (1), giving her or his opinion on an issue of current importance.
- OALD⁶ an important article in a newspaper, that expresses the editor's opinion about an item of news or an issue; in the US also a comment on radio or television that expresses the opinion of the Station or Network.

We find that information on American English usage is added on in $OALD^6$, which is another favorable feature in view of the worldwide spread of American English.

4.3.2. The new edition naturally updates information covered in its definitions. Look at the following example:

simulate 2 to create particular conditions that exist in real life using computers, models, etc., usually for study or training purposes

This sense is given in $OALD^5$, but it fails to mention "computers." Similar updating can be seen in *juicer* and *single n*. 2, among others.

4.4. Labels

4.4.1. OALD⁵ divided its labels into three categories: (1) those indicating a particular attitude or the appropriateness of words in a particular situation, such as approving and informal, (2) those showing other restrictions on the use of words, such as AmE and old use, and (3) those marking specialised use in particular fields, such as anatomy, computing, grammar, and law (inside front cover), whereas OALD⁶ has omitted mention of the last. As we will consider the last group later in 4.4.3, let us now examine the first two groups. While most of OALD⁵'s labels correspond to those used in OALD⁶, the labels of euph(emistic), rhet(orical), sexist, and catch-

phrase have been taken off the list, and four labels, spoken, written, literary, and rare, have been incorporated. It is to be noted, incidentally, that sexist has been integrated into offensive and that Scot has become ScotE in the list of Abbreviations and grammar labels (inside front cover).

It is worthy of note that the presentation of each label has become more user-friendly in two ways. First, most of the labels used in $OALD^6$ are spelled out: fml, for instance, becoming formal. Secondly, some seemingly difficult labels have been replaced with more familiar terms, joc, used to mean "jocular," changing to humorous.

4.4.2. A survey was made on the eight pages of $OALD^6$ (pp. 100–1, 500–1, 900–1, and 1300–1) to see what kind of labels are used in this edition, and all the entries common to both $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$, including idioms and phrasal verbs, were compared with the corresponding entries of $OALD^5$ regarding labels. The entries where there was any differ-

Table 7

group	labels	
	BrE	144)
	formal	8
	written	8
	spoken	6
	literary	2
1	technical	2
	old-fashioned	1
	literary	1
	rare	1
	grammar	1
	chemistry	1
	law	1
	dated	3
	euph	2
II	approv	1
	US	1
	commerce	1
	music	1
III	4 instances	

ence in the labels are classified as follows: (I) those entries with some label in $OALD^6$, but without any in $OALD^5$; (II) those entries with no label in $OALD^6$ but with some in $OALD^5$; and (III) others where there is some difference in the labels.⁵⁾ The results are shown in Table 7.

The table above shows that $OALD^6$ has included many more labels than its predecessor. Most noticeable is the use of the label BrE that has been added to entries like behove, outmanoeuvre, and sugar lump, which were not marked as such in the previous edition. This might be taken as being reflective of the policy that $OALD^6$ seems to have strengthened, to treat British English as a variant of the English language.

Let us now turn to two of the labels, namely spoken and written, that

Table 8

	1 abic o		
	$OALD^6$	$LDOCE^3$	$COBUILD^2$
forage v.	written	_	none
outmanoeuvre	written	_	none
outpace	written	?	none
outré	written	Military and the	a formal word
outrun	written	_	none
outshine	written	=	none
outspread	written	_	?
suggestion 4	written	_	none
believe it or not	spoken	spoken	none
believe (you) me	spoken	spoken	none
don't you believe it!	spoken	spoken	?
not believe your ears/eyes	spoken	spoken	none
would you believe (it)?	spoken	spoken	none
God/Heaven forbid (that)	spoken	spoken	used mainly in spoken British English ⁶⁾
sugar n. 4	spoken	spoken	an informal us

Notes: (i) The question mark and "none" indicate that there is no corresponding entry given in the dictionary in question and that no relevant description is provided of the style or status of the headword or sense concerned, respectively. (ii) $LDOCE^3$ has no label equivalent to written, which is represented by the mark (—).

have been newly introduced into $OALD^6$. Those entries in the dictionary that have been found, in the survey mentioned above, to be labeled as either *spoken* or *written* were compared with the corresponding entries in $LDOCE^3$ and $COBUILD^2$. The results are given in Table 8.

As far as the label *spoken* is concerned, an obvious parallelism exists between $OALD^6$ and $LDOCE^3$. One may also say that Table 8 implies, though weakly, that, on the one hand, there is an overlap between *written* and *formal*, and another between *spoken* and *informal*, on the other.

The entries belonging to group III are as follows:

at sb's behest $dated \rightarrow old$ usefop $derog \rightarrow old$ -fashionedfor conj. $fml \rightarrow literary$ sugar n. 4 $infml \rightarrow spoken$

One plausible explanation for the changes above is that they are the results of further corpus evidence and reflect better the actual changes of their use in the language.

4.4.3. Although it has left out the explanatory paragraph for labels belonging to the last group, $OALD^6$ still makes frequent use of these fields. Moreover, some of them are used in other ways. While grammar is used as a field label for aspect 4, the very word is used as a short cut for take 42 (see Figure 1). We also find some other cases where the boundary between labels and other forms of information is blurred to some extent. For example, how is the following bracketed explanation for single n. 5 "(especially in tennis)" different from a short cut like "IN BASEBALL" for strike n. 4 or a label such as "sport" for server 2? There is no marked difference at all among them. All of these three are intended to show the context in which particular senses are used.

4.5. Miscellaneous

4.5.1. Among *OALD*⁶'s innovations is the introduction of **ORIGIN** notes which "provide fascinating insights into the etymologies of some colourful words and expressions" (*Preface*). *OALD*⁶ may be the first of its kind to incorporate etymological information into monolingual EFL dictionaries.

However, it may be pointed out that many English-Japanese dictionaries published in Japan have long made use of such information in one way or another because they are thought to be helpful to users in remembering the meaning of words or in grasping semantic development. In spite of its usefulness, the number of these notes is very small: there are only two in the thirty pages investigated in Table 6: tuxedo and the writing is on the wall | see the writing on the wall.

- **4.5.2.** For word meanings, the following two types of note deserve special mention: **WHICH WORD** and **VOCABULARY BUILDING**. The former deals with the differences between near synonyms and gives guidance on which of them to choose in particular contexts, and the latter helps to increase one's vocabulary. Again, it might be added that notes of this kind have long been in use in English-Japanese learners' dictionaries published in Japan.
- **4.5.3.** Another type introduced in this revision is HELP notes, some of which give information on pragmatics like the following: "Some people find this use offensive" (e.g. by God!). Considering the importance of pragmatic information for foreign learners, the enhanced coverage of such information in $OALD^6$ is a most favorable feature.
- 4.5.4. From the user perspective, the fact is worth noting that *OALD*⁶ has introduced into its front matter an article entitled "Understanding definitions" (pp. x-xi). This article mentions that the dictionary has included such abbreviations as *sb* in its DV (see 4.1.1), which is not so important in itself, because the inclusion of particular items into DV has no direct relationship with users' understanding of definitions. Much more important is to make the DV-based definitions more easily comprehensible. As the article in question is meant to explain those abbreviations and defining patterns used in the dictionary in order to "make understanding the definitions simpler" (p. x), it is, indeed, a unique attempt by *OALD*⁶ deserving of note and, thus, a favorable feature. This is a very short article, only two pages long, but it is certainly a positive step forward, however small.

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5. Examples and collocations

5.1. Scope of study

In Section 5, we will look at the verbal illustrations in OALD⁶ including collocations and fixed expressions incorporated in them, as compared to those in its previous version $(OALD^5)$ and in its main competitor, $LDOCE^3$. OALD⁵ presents 90,000 'corpus-based' examples as one of the main features of the dictionary and states this clearly in its cover blurb as well as in its preface. In the new sixth edition, however, nothing about these categories of information is announced as a feature either on its cover or in the preface. We have selectively compared illustrative phrases and sentences in the three dictionaries and tried to show how they have changed or are comparable. As samples, we have picked up all the verbal illustrations in the four pages of OALD⁵ (pages 51, 151, 251, 351, i.e. those in the entries of Aquarius — archbishop, bursar — busily, contorted — contraindication, drag (noun) - drat), and then extracted the corresponding information from OALD6 and LDOCE3. As an extended scope of study, examples in every 100 pages from p. 451 through to p. 1351 in OALD5, as well as their parallel parts in OALD6 and LDOCE3 are also examined for some of the features studied below.

5.2. Verbal illustrations in OALD⁵ and OALD⁶

There are few formal changes in terms of presentation of verbal illustrations and collocations from $OALD^5$ to $OALD^6$ except that the demarcations between examples are indicated by diamonds (\diamondsuit) in $OALD^6$ instead of circles (\bigcirc) found in $OALD^5$, and the glosses for examples have come to be led by the universal symbol "=" instead of a Latin abbreviation "ie", which may have puzzled some users at first.

First we counted and compared the verbal illustrations including collocations in the sample range of the two editions to see how they have changed.¹⁾ We found 95 phrases and 120 sentences as illustrations in the fifth edition, versus 68 and 142 in the sixth. The tendency seems to be more selective in presenting phrasal illustrations to make room for 'more full-sentence illustrations' in *OALD*⁶. We have also studied the changes in the numbers of illustrative phrases and sentences in each numbered sense

division in each entry, and what kind of items tend to be given more illustrations or less.

What we found out was a rather straightforward tendency: more examples for words of daily use (many of which are already given copious examples in $OALD^5$) and informal items, and less for idioms and stylistically restricted (including technical) words. For instance, words like contract, drain, and even the very simple and commonplace word bus, are given a number of more verbal illustrations in $OALD^6$. Also, items such as drag (added examples are: He's such a drag. | Having to work late every day is a drag. | a drag queen (= a man dressed in women's clothes usually in order to entertain people) $(OALD^6)$) as well as go down the drain have more examples in $OALD^6$, while archly, which did not have an illustration in $OALD^5$, was given an example with colloquial tenor ('Guess what?' she said archly.)

In contrast, items such as aqueous (techn), arboreal (techn), (go for a) burton (old-fashioned, BrE, informal), bus (sense 2, AmE), bushel (sense 2, AmE informal), contradistinction (formal), dragon (sense 2, disapproving, especially BrE), dragoon sb into sth/doing sth (written), dram (especially ScotE), which have the labels indicated in brackets in OALD⁶, as well as dramatics, which have the label 'derog' in OALD⁵, are deprived of their verbal illustrations. Examples for phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions such as burst in, burst in on, bury your differences, bury the hatchet and contract sth out (to sb) are also curtailed. The sixth edition of OALD is somewhat larger in size than the fifth, but the number of columns in each page (2) and the standard number of lines in each column (77) are the same. The increased space of the dictionary, only eight-odd percent, may disappear anywhere in the course of revision full of new features. It is quite understandable that one should cut down on something in order to make room for something more important, but is the reduction of examples for the above-mentioned items really reasonable or justifiable?

Expressions mainly used in certain varieties of English can be helpfully illustrated by authentic examples with its likely linguistic surroundings, (for example, *dram* is exemplified in *OALD*⁵ with a sentence "*He's fond of his wee dram*.") and American English, one of the two main varieties of the

English language, may have to be given equal consideration as its British counterpart in exemplification. Moreover, it is no less significant for stylistically marked expressions to be presented with appropriate illustrations, as the user, who is a non-native speaker of English, should be able to clearly visualize the situations and nuances in which such expressions as those with the label "disapproving" are used and how s/he should be careful in using them. In fact, words and phrases with such "attitude" labels as "approving," "disapproving," "humorous," "ironic," and "offensive" in EFL dictionaries may be one of the fields for which felicitous exemplification is most necessary.²⁾

One point to mention about the changes in actual exemplification. We find an illustrative sentence 'I hate you!' she burst out. for the phrasal verb burst out in OALD⁵. In OALD⁶, we find 'For heavens' [sic] sake!' he burst out. for the same lexical item. This sort of consideration, in this case the alteration of the subject pronoun from she to he, may appear very minor but is in fact quite important from a viewpoint of avoiding the "alleged" stereotype image (here, of women being often hysteric).

5.3. Glosses for verbal illustrations in OALD5 and OALD6

Glosses that complement verbal illustrations have been elegant and helpful in the previous editions of OALD. Our selective comparisons of the fifth and the sixth editions reveal that in the latest edition of OALD, they seem to have been further enriched or made more helpful. Six glosses were newly added to the verbal illustrations already found in $OALD^5$: arable land/fields (= used or suitable for growing crops); the Archbishop of Canterbury (= the head of the Church of England); Shells were bursting (= exploding) all around us.; a contour map (= a map that includes these lines); 'I will' and 'I shall' are usually contracted to 'I'll' (= made shorter).; You've just contradicted yourself (= said the opposite of what you said before). Among them, the second one is in fact a very important, welcome cultural information, whose presentation may appear incidental but is actually essential for EFL dictionaries which aims for the user's true understanding of the meaning of a word or a phrase. Two glosses were left unchanged and one example, which had a gloss in $OALD^5$, lost one (His evidence is in

direct contradiction to (ie directly contrary to) that of the other witnesses.) perhaps because they thought they could spare it just for the understanding of the sentence. One gloss was rewritten to make an easier phrase $(May\ I\ use\ your\ toilet\ --\ I'm\ bursting!$ (ie I have an urgent need to urinate $(URINE).) \to I'm\ bursting\ (for\ a\ pee)!$ (= I need to use the toilet right now.)) This is a considerable change for the better because the gloss in $OALD^6$ is easier to understand as it spares the user the trouble to refer to the entry urine, and because the formality of the original sentence and the gloss coincide. In one instance, the illustrative phrase and its gloss in $OALD^5$ (an aquiline nose (ie one curved like an eagle's beak)) were incorporated into the definition (a person with an aquiline nose or aquiline features has a nose that is thin and curved, similar to that of an EAGLE). There were eight instances in which $OALD^5$ had a verbal illustration with a gloss, but $OALD^6$ has no corresponding illustration, and seven instances vice versa.

Glosses for verbal illustrations in EFL dictionaries are in fact very important. In most bilingual EFL dictionaries, illustrative phrases and sentences are followed by target language equivalents to help the user understand the source language examples.³⁾ In contrast, monolingual EFL dictionaries usually present examples just as they are, and do not always paraphrase their meaning. Hence the necessity of opportune, appropriate glosses for verbal illustrations, especially in "advanced" learner's dictionaries whose illustrations are derived from corpora rather than editorinvented examples. Corpus materials have the merit of being authentic, but unfortunately they are often deprived of sufficient context and presented somewhat "abruptly," and the dictionary user may sometimes have difficulty understanding their meaning. Timely glosses help her/him out.

Just looking through the sampled parts of $OALD^{5/6}$, we find several types of glosses at work: 1) paraphrase from harder to easier: 'I will' and 'I shall are usually contracted to 'I'll' (= made easier). 2) paraphrase from figurative to literal: Her life was slowly draining away (ie She was slowly dying). 3) paraphrase from idiomatic to non-idiomatic: She burst into tears (= suddenly began to cry). 4) paraphrase from precise or fixed to explanatory: The drains (= the system of pipes) date from the beginning of the century. | a drag queen (= a man dressed in women's clothes usually in order to

entertain people) 5) supplementary explanation: arable land/fields (= used or suitable for growing crops) 6) syntactic paraphrase: His evidence is in direct contradiction to (ie directly contrary to) that of the other witnesses. 7) "in short" paraphrase: Who were the contractors on/for the new motorway? (ie who built it?) 8) additional (but often essential) information: the Archbishop of Canterbury (= the head of the Church of England). Thus, we see that glosses have different functions besides the most important one of simply clarifying meaning. They may even serve as a good model for paraphrasing and help the user enrich their power of expression. Considering the importance and helpfulness of glosses in EFL dictionaries, the gradual but steady revision and improvement of glosses as found in the new edition of OALD is very favorable.

One slightly marked change from OALD⁵ to OALD⁶ is the apparent abolition of what may be regarded as "exemplifying gloss," led by the abbreviation "eg." We found four instances in OALD5 in our extended survey. They are: All the blood drained from his face (eg on hearing bad news). (s.v. drain v. 1) / Your (very) good health (eg said before drinking to wish sb good health)! (s.v. health) | The farmer sometimes used to pay me in kind (eg with a sack of potatoes). (s.v. kind² DM) and Thousands came to pay their last respects to the murdered policeman (eg by attending his funeral). (s.v. pay² [DM]). The first instance was rendered into the subordinate clause in an ordinary illustrative sentence in OALD6: All the colour drained from his face when I told him the news. The second example disappeared in OALD⁶, and the third item, in kind, lost its illustration in the sixth edition as well. In the fourth instance, the context in which the expression can be used is stated categorically in the new edition: Many came to pay their last respects (= by attending sb's funeral). As in the case of ie used in OALD⁵ and replaced by the equal sign (=) in OALD⁶, the abbreviation eg may at first be puzzling to some users. Surely this device of "eg glossing" may not be absolutely essential in dictionary description and can be done without as in the cases above, but was it really justified to streamline it? We assume that it is a powerful instrument that has been inherited from the good old Oxford tradition of verbal exemplification (incidentally, we can find all the four instances above as they are in the

fourth edition of *OALD*, but without parentheses), and that it provides lexicographers with a very effective tool for glossing. It gives the effect of some "human explanation" touch, and also has the advantage of not being too categorical in specifying the context in which the expressions are used. It might as well have stayed in the arsenal of example glossing in the dictionary.

5.4. Verbal illustrations in LDOCE³ and OALD⁶

Here we would like to compare the latest (sixth) edition of OALD with one of its major competitors, the third edition of LDOCE. We should note that the latter was published in 1995, in the same year as the previous (fifth) edition of OALD was brought to market and that five years have passed since then. Thus $LDOCE^3$ is basically comparable to $OALD^5$. We know, however, that competitive reference works continually improve with revisions, with positive stimulus from their rivals, and we assume comparisons here are not totally irrelevant. We are also looking forward to the day of the newer edition of $LDOCE^3$ s publication and being able to compare it with $OALD^6$ in the near future.

First, we counted the number of verbal illustrations in $OALD^6$ and $LDOCE^3$ found in the sample range that we mentioned in 5.1. The result was 41 illustrative phrases and 109 illustrative sentences in $LDOCE^3$ versus 72 phrases and 137 sentences in $OALD^6$. Judging only by this information, we can assume $OALD^6$ has a little more verbal illustrations than $LDOCE^3$. There were 18 instances in which $OALD^6$ presents a sense with some verbal illustration(s), but LDOCE does not present the sense itself, and 7 instances vice versa. Besides these instances of $OALD^6$ giving more senses, $OALD^6$ seemingly tend to give more illustrations for senses and entries with multiple verbal illustrations. Possibly, these are items the dictionary deems important. For instance, $OALD^6$ presents 5 phrases and 24 sentences as illustrations for the entry burst (verb and noun), while $LDOCE^3$ gives 5 phrases and 13 sentences for the same item. Similarly, the number for the item contract (verb and noun) is 9 and 14 in $OALD^6$, and 0 and 14 in $LDOCE^3$, respectively.

The number of lines in each column in the A-Z section of LDOCE³ is

about the same as in $OALD^6$ (approximately 76 lines, as it varies with the spaces between entries in $LDOCE^3$), and $LDOCE^3$ has more pages from A to Z (1668 pages) than $OALD^6$ (1508 pages). What brings about the difference, then? One of the factors which allow $LDOCE^3$ to give fewer examples than $OALD^6$ may be the way $LDOCE^3$ presents typical collocations and idiomatic expressions in boldface, along with illustrative phrases or sentences that contain them. In other words, $LDOCE^3$'s presentation is basically repetitive. Take the following expressions as examples:

The dark glasses give her an **air of mystery**. [OALD⁶, s.v. mystery 3] **an air of mystery** There was an air of mystery about him. [LDOCE³, s.v. mystery 3]

by bus I go to work by bus. | bus driver/fare etc The bus fare is 60p. $[LDOCE^3$, s.v. bus¹]

Shall we walk or go by bus? . . . a bus company/driver $[OALD^6$, s.v. bus noun 1]

bus tables Sherry had a job bussing tables. [LDOCE³, s.v. bus² 2]

LDOCE³'s practice has the merit of being able to present canonical forms of each expression as well as the forms actually used in the sentence (see the example of bus tables above). However, it sometimes appears to take much more space than seems necessary (see the examples of an air of mystery and by bus above), compared with the elegant fashion of presentation by OALD⁶. It would perhaps be fairer to defend LDOCE³ by saying that its use of boldface is much more visually effective, as LDOCE³'s boldface print stands out far more than its OALD⁶ counterpart.

Also, $LDOCE^3$ starts a new line for every new numbered sense or expression in a major, important entry, and that includes fixed expressions such as dead and buried, bury the hatchet/bury your differences and bury your head in the sand under the entry bury in $LDOCE^3$. This practice is doubtless user-friendly in terms of ease of lookup, but again takes up more space than its Oxford competitor. Perhaps these factors, among other facets of entry design, give more space for verbal illustrations to $OALD^6$. It calls to mind as always the difficulty of making user-friendliness and elegance as a reference material compatible with each other in the dictionary compilation.

5.5. Glosses for verbal illustrations in OALD⁶ and LDOCE³

As we mentioned in 5.1., we extended the scope of the sample survey here and included the following ranges in the three dictionaries (OALD⁵, $OALD^6$ and $LDOCE^3$): flourish (n.) — fluke, head (v.) — health, killer king, mole — monetarist, pavement artist — pay-as-you-earn, quarter — queen, scissors — score, sprat — spread, tilth — time (n.), week — weighbridge (these are items found in every 100 page starting p. 451 in OALD5). We found 53, 65, and 63 glosses for verbal illustrations in OALD⁵, OALD⁶, and LDOCE³, respectively. The numbers of glosses themselves are similar in OALD6 and LDOCE3, but we have further statistics. OALD6 does not give any glosses to 27 examples to which LDOCE³ provides some verbal paraphrase, but LDOCE³ fails to give glosses to only 8 items which OALD⁶ annotates. 21 items that LDOCE³ gives glosses to fails to be mentioned in $OALD^6$, and 29 vice versa. What is quite notable is that $LDOCE^3$ gives the status of independently numbered subentry to the items (especially fixed expressions) that are merely treated as verbal illustrations with glosses in OALD⁶. It means that they are given definitions, instead of glosses, in LDOCE³. In OALD⁶, 3 items that are exemplified and glossed in LDOCE³ are given the status of independent entry. What do these statistics imply? Perhaps *LDOCE*³ is more explicit, by giving more paraphrases of phrases or sentences cited, in the form of either a gloss or a definition. Apparently Oxford just presents examples and tends to leave the understanding of their meaning more to the user than does Longman. But it is just a barely discernible difference, and when we look at the actual practice of glossing, OALD6 employs very essential, pertinent wording. Thus, we cannot conclude that LDOCE³ is decidedly more helpful to the user. We would, however, like to mention one example here where a gloss in OALD⁶ would have helped a confused learner. OALD6 fails to give any paraphrase for the verbal illustration Do you have the time? (s.v. time, noun 2), while LDOCE³ presents a timely gloss "(= used to ask someone if they know what time it is)." Some learners of English supposedly fail to grasp the meaning of the phrase in the given situation and get confused as to how to respond, assuming the phrase to mean, "Do you have the time available (to do something)?" Although the example in OALD⁶ is preceded (rather remotely) by the definition "the time shown on a clock in minutes and hours," a timely gloss would not have been redundant.⁴⁾

5.6. Use of boldface in OALD5, OALD6 and LDOCE3

The three dictionaries employ boldface in presenting what OALD6 calls "common phrase" in examples (p. ix), which seem to include fixed expressions and typical collocations. In the sample parts mentioned in 5.1, we found only 7 instances of designation in boldface in OALD5 (namely, independent arbitration, burst into flames, burst into tears | song, burst out crying | laughing, without fear of contradiction, contraflow system and take drastic action). In contrast, LDOCE³, published in the same year as OALD⁵. has by our count 57 boldface expressions in the same sample range. Probably with the more extensive use of corpus materials and possibly occasioned by LDOCE's practice, OALD6 marks many more phrases in verbal illustrations in boldface and our sample count amounted to 21, three times the number found in OALD5. The items which were not presented in boldface in OALD5 but found highlighted in boldface in OALD6 are: aquiline nose | features, go to arbitration, am bursting, burst onto the . . . scene. in short bursts, dead and buried, buried alive, contradict oneself, in direct contradiction to, emotionally drained. Besides these, some expressions that were not found in OALD5 have been newly introduced in OALD6 with boldface accentuation (full to bursting, subject to contract, etc), although others were left out from examples of use in the latest edition (e.g. independent arbitration, without fear of contradiction). One expression, which was marked in boldface in OALD5, has now come to be presented in mere lightface in OALD6 (contraflow system). We are in the age of employing large-scale corpus data for the compilation of EFL dictionaries (OALD6 proclaims the use of Oxford Corpus Collection and British National Corpus on its back-cover blurb) and it is easier than ever to identify what phrases are typical or common just by referring to and looking through the search results of corpora obtained in the form of, say, a KWIC concordance. It is quite important for the EFL learner to know what expressions are common, typical or rather "fixed" in English, both for the interpretive and productive purposes of the language. OALD's increase of boldface

marking of "common phrases" are really welcome. LDOCE3's use of boldface is more extensive and it highlights not only such items as by bus, sign a contract and drama school, but also such expressions as bus driver/fare, blocked drains and the drama of (as in We all shared in the drama of the rescue). The question of what items an EFL dictionary should identify as fixed expressions and collocations and highlight them to get the most effective result for the EFL user may need further, perhaps more empirical discussion.

(T. Kokawa)

Grammar and usage notes

Grammar of nouns

6.1.1. Classification and coding of nouns

The coding system of the different types of nouns has undergone some changes in OALD6. We find an apparently minor but potentially very important shift of policy in the coding system from OALD⁵ to OALD⁶. Firstly, consider the comparative table below which shows how noun codes compare in the two editions.

Table 9

$OALD^5$	$OALD^6$		
[C]	[C]		
[U] [sing v]	[U]		
[pl] [pl v]	[pl.]		
[sing]	[sing.]		
[CGp]	[C + sing./pl.v.]		
[Gp]	[sing. + sing./pl.v]		
[sing or pl v]	[U + sing./pl.v.]		

The nine codes in OALD5 have been reduced to seven in OALD6. The two lost codes are [pl v] and [sing v]. The nouns belonging to each of the two codes in OALD5 come under [pl.] and [U], respectively in OALD6. The code [pl.] in OALD⁶ corresponds both to [pl] and [plv] in OALD⁵. The difference between them was that a [pl] noun behaved as a plural both morphologically and syntactically, while a [pl v] noun was a singular mor-

phologically but behaved as a plural syntactically. In short, the difference was based on morphology, i.e. on whether a given noun took a singular or a plural form. The elimination of this coding difference shows that $OALD^6$ takes into consideration syntactic behaviors more than morphological ones. This is exemplified by such nouns as cattle, clergy, people, police, and poultry — all of which are now treated as [pl.] despite their apparent singular s-less forms — and by such exclusively plural nouns as jeans, shears, scissors, and trousers.

In addition, another similar trend appears in the change from [sing] and [sing v] to [sing.] and [U], respectively. Notice that, in spite of their apparent plural forms and their s-ending, nouns designating academic subjects. games and diseases are now treated as [U] nouns (e.g. economics, electronics, linguistics, statistics; billiards, bowls, darts, draughts; measles, mumps, and shingles). This shift of emphasis to syntactical behaviors is mostly a welcome improvement, because it is simpler to classify nouns according to one principle — in this case syntax — rather than according to the combined principles of syntax and morphology.

The classification in OALD6 shows another change towards a consistent treatment of nouns. In OALD⁵, the nouns coded as [CGp], [Gp] and [sing or pl v could all agree with verbs either in the singular or in the plural, but their code names failed to reflect this common property. In comparison, OALD6 gives them the codes [C + sing./pl.v.], [sing. + sing./pl.v] and [U + sing./pl.v.]. These three code names are so interrelated that the relationship among the three is easily understood. In this respect, the classification in OALD6 is thus more systematically made than that in $OALD^5$.

6.1.2. Coding differences between OALD⁵ and OALD⁵

We will now look at some individual changes from OALD⁵ to OALD⁶. We have taken 724 samples of nouns from E to eyrie, thus covering 53 pages. Of all the 724 nouns, 629 have their corresponding entries in OALD5. For 152 nouns (21 percent of the total), we have found some kind of difference or lack of correspondence in the codes of the two editions.

If we look at coding changes, we notice that there are five patterns of

change. The first pattern is the addition of new codes. Examples include such nouns as *eyebrow* and *eyelash*, which are coded as [usually pl.], and to which $OALD^5$ gave no such code. The same is true of *entrenchment* and *eccentricity*, which are coded as [C, usually plural] while $OALD^5$ only gave [C]. Other examples show the addition of such codes as [U, C] and [U, sing.], which both correspond to [U] in $OALD^5$. The addition of such information might be regarded as an improvement in itself. But it is of no use unless users fully understand the usage difference suggested between [U] and [C] or between [U] and [sing.] as well as the data on which the addition of information is based.

On the contrary, the second pattern is the deletion of certain codes in particular cases. Examples include *embezzlement*, *extrusion*, *exhumation*, *expropriation*, and *extinction*, where [C, U] or [U, C] in $OALD^5$ corresponds to [U] only in $OALD^6$. Another example is *extreme*, which was coded as [C usu pl] in $OALD^5$, but is not coded at all in $OALD^6$. But these additions and deletions of codes are both unsystematic.

The third pattern is the reversal of the order of two codes. For example, [U, C] in $OALD^5$ has become [C, U] in $OALD^6$. This applies to such nouns as endorsement, equivocation, exaction, explication, and exploration. On the other hand, [C, U] has become [U, C] in the definitions of emphasis and extradition. What meaningful difference lies between [C, U] and [U, C] has been often discussed, but this question remains unanswered.

The fourth pattern is the merging of two individual codes into one combined code where two definitions become one. The noun *emendation* can be cited as an example. $OALD^5$ gives two definitions and codes as follows: (a) "[C] a letter, word, etc that is emended" and (b) "[U] the action of emending a text." But these two individual definitions and codes are unified in $OALD^6$: "[C, U] (formal) a letter or word that has been changed or corrected in a text; the act of making changes to a text." The same pattern affects *encouragement*, *enrolment*, *error*, *etching*, and *excision*. This method of combining two codes may help editors to gain space, but, from the viewpoint of users, it is not a favorable method because of its ambiguity. The combined coding of this kind cannot be called user-friendly, and $OALD^6$ should backpedal on this change.

The reverse of the fourth pattern is found where some combined definitions coded [C, U] are now presented as separate definitions with [C] and [U]. This is a welcome improvement in itself, in the sense that users are no longer faced with possible ambiguity on usage. See for example entitlement and exemption.

None of the five patterns of change above is completely systematic, although some individual changes can be regarded as improvements in themselves. But when we step beyond the changes of codes themselves, we find a favorable refinement in the method of illustrating particular forms. Although $OALD^5$ made use of this method sporadically, only in the new edition is this policy usefully applied to an increasing number of cases. This direct morphological information, which illustrates actual forms, is certainly useful, because it helps to complement information given by codes. The method is well comparable with that adopted by $LDOCE^3$. In the examples given below, the form which should be taken in a particular usage is explicitly shown before the code:

earth: (also Earth, the Earth) [U, sing.]

efficiency: (efficiencies) [pl.] electronics: (electronics) [pl.]

eleven-plus: (usually the eleven-plus) [sing.]

entanglement: (entanglements) [pl.]

To these particular words $OALD^5$ did not give such illustrations. Of course this kind of information could often be obtained in $OALD^5$ by looking at the forms used in example phrases or sentences, but explicit illustration would be more helpful for users. The extension and refinement of this feature in $OALD^6$ is definitely a favorable improvement. This method will hopefully be further systematized in future editions.

Lastly, I would like to point out minor code problems for certain nouns. Of the twelve zodiacal nouns, the second definition of *Capricorn*— "a person born under the influence of this sign, that is between 21 December and 20 January, approximately"— is coded as [C], while its eleven equivalents are all coded as [sing.]. Color nouns are also treated inconsistently. They are all treated differently: *black* ([U]), *blue* ([U, C]), *brown* ([U, C]), *green* ([U, C]), *grey* ([U, C]), *orange* ([U, C]), *pink* ([U, C]), *purple* ([U, C]),

red ([C, U]), scarlet ([U]), violet ([U]), white ([U]), and yellow ([U, C]). Inconsistency is evident here.¹⁾

6.2. Grammar of verbs

6.2.1. Coding differences between OALD⁵ and OALD⁵

The coding system of verbal constructions has not changed as much from $OALD^5$ to $OALD^6$ as from $OALD^4$ to $OALD^5$. The codes are all transparent. But the number of codes, which was twenty-eight in $OALD^5$, have been reduced to twenty-two. The table below compares the coding system in $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$.

Table 10

$OALD^5$	$OALD^6$	
[V]	[V]	
[Vpr] [Vadv] [Vp]	[V + adv./prep.]	
[Vn]	[VN]	
[Vnpr] [Vnadv] [Vnp]	[VN + adv./prep.]	
[Vnn]	[VNN]	
[V-adj]	[V-ADJ]	
[V-n]	[V-N]	
[Vn-adj]	[VN-ADJ]	
[Vn-n]	[VN-N]	
[V.that]	[V that] [V (that)]	
[Vn.that]	[VN that] [VN (that)]	
[Vpr.that]	No equivalent	
[V.wh]	[V wh-]	
[Vn.wh]	[VN wh-]	
[Vpr.wh]	No equivalent	
[V.to inf]	[V to inf]	
[Vn.to inf] [V.n to inf]	[VN + to inf]	
[Vpr.to inf]	No equivalent	
[Vn.inf (no to)]	[VN inf]	
[V.ing]	[V -ing]	
[Vn.ing] [V.n ing]	[VN -ing]	
[V.speech]	[V speech] [VN speech]	

We find five major changes between the two editions. The first change occurs when prepositional phrases, adverbs and particles are now all treated as related parts of one unit. This is exemplified in $OALD^6$ by [V (N) + adv./prep.] where, for example, "adv./prep." can cover any of the predicative parts of the following three sentences: "The dog is there," "The dog is in," and "The dog is in the house." This coding system — also adopted by $LDOCE^3$, $COBUILD^2$ and CIDE — is considered reasonable.²⁾ But there remains a problem in cases where either an adverb or a prepositional phrase only can occur. The sentence illustrating care, "Don't you care about this country's future?" is an example. In $OALD^5$, it was preceded by the code [Vpr], but $OALD^6$'s similar sentence is preceded only by [V] instead of [V + adv./prep.]. In this case, it would be convenient if the code [Vpr] were possible. Nevertheless this coding change generally contributes to more practical and easier decoding.

The second change is the loss of the three codes [Vpr.that], [Vpr.wh] and [Vpr.to inf], whose common element was a pr (epositional phrase) after the verb. Therefore, sentences which belonged to each of the three codes in $OALD^5$ are coded in $OALD^6$ only as [V that], [V wh-] and [V to inf]. In fact, most of such relevant example sentences seem to be absent from $OALD^6$. For this problem, see *explain*, *prove*, *report*, *request*, *say*, *shout*, and *suggest*.

The third change appears when, in $OALD^6$, the codes [V (that)] and [VN (that)] are first introduced to explain that the conjunction "that" can be left out in the case described. This information seems somewhat superfluous, because the fact that "that" can be left out has always been evident in example sentences which parenthesize the "that" in question. According to Quirk et al. (§ 15.4), the rule for the omission of "that" seems to depend on the context more than on the kind of verb. A code distinction of this kind, therefore, appears to be unnecessary.

The fourth change concerns the analysis of the syntactic relationship between the object and the infinitive or between the object and the present participle. In $OALD^5$, [Vn.to inf] was distinguished from [V.n to inf], and [Vn.ing] from [V.n ing]. In $OALD^6$, the two groups are integrated in [VN + to inf] and [VN -ing], respectively. This integration reflects a ten-

dency to favour surface structures over deep structures.

The fifth change refers to the code [Vn-n] in $OALD^5$, which has partly been treated differently in $OALD^6$. The sentence "She's employed as a shop assistant." can be used as an example. It was coded as [Vn-n] in $OALD^5$, whereas a similar sentence is coded as [VN] only in $OALD^6$. This comparison shows that, in $OALD^5$, [Vn-n] can apply not only to the sequence [Verb + Noun + Noun] but also to the sequence [Verb + Noun + as + Noun], while in $OALD^5$ the latter sequence is not regarded as belonging to [Vn-n], but analyzed as [VN] plus an as-phrase. The treatment in $OALD^6$ seems more acceptable in that [VN] plus an as-phrase is parallel with many other combinations analyzed as [VN] plus prepositional phrases.

We will now compare the two editions in order to see how and how much the codes of verbal constructions are used. The comparative research has been done with all the verbs between *earmark* and *eyeball*. Consider the table below which shows statistics about the two editions:

Table 11

	OALD ⁵	OALD ⁶
Verbs	241	256
Codes	684	522
Codes per Verb	2.84	2.04
Rate of Codes without Examples	7.6%	7.3%

The most outstanding change is found in the number of coded constructions. The average number of codes per verb has decreased from 2.84 to 2.04. But, in itself, this decrease does not necessarily mean that $OALD^6$ has reduced the value of the verbal coding system. On the contrary, the system is undoubtedly more consistent and clearer to users. The decrease is, among others, due to the fact that [V(n)pr], [V(n)adv] and [V(n)p] in $OALD^5$ have been integrated in [V(N) + adv./prep.] in $OALD^6$, as we have seen earlier.

The codes preceded by "also" indicate that they are not followed by example sentences. Given that every code should be illustrated by an

example in principle, the fewer these cases, the better. In this respect, $OALD^6$ is improved by 0.3 percent compared to $OALD^5$, although this is not such a big step forward. In fact, the codes [also V] and [also V speech] constitute about half of the cases of coding without example sentences.

Aside from coding, it should be noticed that complementary grammatical information — such as [usually passive] and (not used in the progressive tenses) — is sometimes given in brackets or parentheses. For this kind of information, there is not a big change between the two editions, although we find some sporadic deletions and additions. For example, elapse and exist give "(not usually used in the progressive tenses)," which was not mentioned in $OALD^5$ at all. As for information of passivization, $OALD^6$ unsparingly uses the [passive] label by applying it to fifty-eight verbs among all the verbs beginning with the letter e, while $LDOCE^3$ applies it to only twenty-six for the same range. But the treatment in $OALD^6$ seems rather inconsistent, as, compared to $OALD^5$, we have fifteen additions as well as twelve deletions.³⁾ Pattern frames, which show how verbs collocate with prepositions, adverbs, object nouns and so on, is made as good use of in $OALD^6$ as in $OALD^5$, as in " \sim sth (with sb)," " \sim A for B," and " \sim contracts" for the verb exchange.

6.2.2. Individual cases to note

In $OALD^6$, we find a good representation of the different usage between British and American English of the subjunctive mood of verbs in constructions with a *that*-clause. This is definitely a great step forward from $OALD^5$. In $OALD^5$, the usage distinction was not usually specifically mentioned or, if it was, was only done implicitly in example sentences with *should* parenthesized. On the contrary, $OALD^6$ treats this distinction explicitly as in:

[V that] The situation required that he be present. (BrE also) The situation required that he should be present.

Giving two whole sentences in which the only difference is the presence or absence of *should*, this treatment looks too kind to users at first. But it should be understood to result from an emphasis on the distinction be-

tween the two varieties of English. Of course, this practice is observed in many more relevant cases such as ask, command, demand, insist, order, propose, recommend, request, and suggest. In order to make this treatment more systematic, it would be necessary and desirable to add to this group such words as advise, agree, decide, determine, move and urge. The same treatment is applied to that-clauses governed by particular adjectives, which are represented by an example sentence for the adjectives desirable and important. In this case, it would be more convenient for users if this practice were applied to more relevant adjectives such as advisable, essential, imperative, necessary, urgent, vital, and proper.

There are types of coding in which the treatment of constructions are systematically misleading. One type concerns such constructions as "It is believed that the couple have left the country." This example sentence, given for the entry believe, is coded [VN (that)]. But what can the "N" after the "V" represent? The active equivalent of this sentence would be "(They) believe that the couple have left the country," and it would, therefore, be natural to attribute the code [V that] to it. In fact, $OALD^5$ gave the straightforward code [V.that] to such an example sentence. Unfortunately, the deceptive coding in $OALD^6$ is consistently applied to many more examples. See for instance the example sentences for accept, argue, ascertain, believe, emphasize, envisage, establish, estimate, expect, prove, say, and suggest.

Another type of misleading coding occurs in an example sentence for the verb *surprise*, "Would it surprise you to know that I'm thinking of leaving?" coded as [VN to inf]. This was also the case in $OALD^5$. At first glance, the part "it surprise you to" certainly corresponds literally to [VN to inf], but what is problematic here is that there is no explicit explanation or comment indicating that this construction of *surprise* — represented by [VN to inf] — can only occur when the subject is it, in apposition to the following infinitive phrase "to know." I would like to suggest that, when the subject must be it, this condition should be made clear in, for example, a help note. This misleading coding is so systematic that we find more examples of this problem for the verbs *astonish*, *embarrass*, *interest*, and the like. Furthermore, consider in a similar way the verbs *appear*, *chance*,

emerge, happen, and seem, as in the sentence "It seems that they know what they're doing," coded as [V that].

I will now mention the treatment of phrasal verbs. It is noteworthy that in the Study Page of $OALD^6$, we have detailed explanations of the meaning and grammar of phrasal verbs. "Grammar of phrasal verbs" explains particularly explicitly and precisely how to use them syntactically. Moreover, the introduction of double arrows showing the positional changeability of the constitutive elements of phrasal verbs has solved the problem of not knowing whether phrasal verbs in question are separable or inseparable, a problem that could not be dealt with satisfactorily in the preceding edition. Furthermore, nouns deriving from phrasal verbs are treated clearly thanks to the method adopted in ODPV.

But regrettably, there are also some misleading points concerning phrasal verbs. For example, the phrasal verb *count on sb/sth* has two additional codes, namely [+ to inf] and [+-ing]. The former code correctly suggests that the whole phrase should have the construction "count on sb/sth to do," but the second code — [+-ing] — is followed by the example sentence "Few people can count on having a job for life," whereas the code should suggest that the whole construction should be "count on sb/sth doing." Inconsistency of this kind about the valency coding of phrasal verbs is yet to be remedied.

Another point I have noticed about verbal syntax is that $OALD^6$, as does $LDOCE^3$, now accepts the construction "help+bare infinitive," though only in an example sentence. Note that this construction was not recorded in $OALD^5$.

6.3. Usage notes

One of the remarkable features in $OALD^6$, where usage notes are concerned, is its use of small symbols indicating whether it is about misleading words, vocabulary building, grammar points, the difference between British and American usage, etc. The number of usage notes itself has hardly changed, but their content has been largely renewed. Of all the 220 usage notes, 87 subjects are common in both editions, but 133 have been deleted from $OALD^5$, and 128 have been added to $OALD^6$. One of the

most prominent features in $OALD^6$ is detailed presentation of collocations for some important words, especially adjectives. $OALD^5$ also gave collocational information of this kind, but it was only explained in places rather than exemplified in detail. In comparison, $OALD^6$ generously illustrates collocations with many examples. See the collocation tables in the usage notes of the adjectives big, classic, continuous, double, electric, fast, naked, narrow, sensual, small, and wide, and of the nouns condition and landscape, and of the adverb almost.

Another important innovation for the usage notes concerns the usage difference between American and British English. Besides those notes labeled "British/American," regional difference is mentioned quite often, at least much more often than in $OALD^5$. A survey reveals that fifty-six entries in the usage notes mention regional usage with (BrE) or (AmE) at least in some way.

As far as grammatical notes are concerned, the grammatical agreement between nouns and verbs is dealt with satisfactorily. The note for none indicates that it is followed by a verb in the singular or in the plural depending on the kind of noun that comes after none of. Similar treatments are found in the notes for each, neither, per cent, and proportion, the last two of which were not given notes in $OALD^5$. Another kind of grammatical information which is as useful to users involves the different usage of what are called plain adverbs and ly-adverbs. Such notes are given to deep (vs. deeply), quick (vs. quickly/fast), right (vs. rightly), slow (vs. slowly), tight (vs. tightly), and wrong (vs. wrongly/wrongfully). None of these notes were given in $OALD^5$.

(R. Hotta)

7. Conclusion

As previously mentioned, the most remarkable feature in the new $OALD^6$ is its extensive treatment of American English. At least two plausible reasons exist for this phenomenon. First, the accumulated corpus evidence of American English is richer and more readily accessible to lexicographers than ever before. Secondly, an added commercial dimension seems to be involved here. As we understand it, Japan is a major, if not the main,

market for EFL dictionaries. One may well infer that the OALD6's lexicographers, writers, and compilers have come to the realization that more information covering American English is in greater demand in this part of Asia, including both Japan and Korea. It is a well-known fact that, in a variety of ways, this geographic area is closely tied with the United States. The assumption that they make much of Japan as a market is well supported and evidenced by the fact that copies of OALD⁶ are sold in Japan in two colors, whereas these copies of OALD6 sold in England are all in black and white. 1) The two-colored pages of OALD6 are visually more legible, with headwords and other indices marked out very clearly. The inclusion of more information on American English in the dictionary translates into a relative demotion of British English. As pointed out in 2.1, however, it might be more appropriate to state the following: that the new OALD6 is now far better balanced than its previous editions in its treatment of the two main varieties of English on either side of the Atlantic Ocean. In other words, the dictionary has become less anglocentric.²⁾

NOTES

We would like to express our profound gratitude to Professor Nobuyuki Higashi first of all, who has given us unstinting support, offering helpful suggestions throughout the writing of this paper. Our thanks go also to Ms. Sally Wehmeier, Chief Editor of $OALD^6$, who provided us with copies of Press Releases and relevant information for our critique. Last but not least, we owe special thanks to Mr. Joseph Dilenschneider for reading parts of our manuscripts and helping to improve them. Whatever errors remain are our own.

Section 1

1) The number of lines in each column is basically the same in both editions (77 lines), though there are some fluctuations from page to page.

Section 2

- 1) OALD⁶ says on the treatment of these words that "[s]ome words that are derivatives of other, more frequent words, do not have their own entry in the dictionary, because they can be easily understood from the meaning of the word from which they are derived (the root word)" (p. viii). That may be all right semantically. However, think of the following arrangement, for example: heartiness is run on to hearty, while heartily is given headword status, ten words away. Is it easy to look up these words?
- 2) Cowie (1983: 141) "suggest[s] as a general principle that the interpretive function places a high premium on ease of access and thus on the strict alphabetical ordering of entries."

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- 3) It says on the dust jacket of *OALD*⁵: 63,000 references, 11,600 idioms and phrasal verbs; a total of 74,600. In addition, one might be reminded that "4,500 new words and meanings" are added to the new edition (back cover).
- 4) Incidentally, the arrow ⇒ had its place in the former edition. It is among the symbols used in the dictionary and is given the interpretation (inside the front cover): See.... That is not the case in *OALD*⁶. Nowhere is an explanation to be found. The symbol, however, is actually used in the body, e.g. ⇒ note at REASON (s.v. *pretext*), which must be among the editorial faults.
- 5) Both of these phrases are entered as headwords.

Section 3

- 1) The same presentation has been used in SOD.
- 2) The fact that they were left out from the fifth edition was pointed out by the present writer in Ichikawa et al. (1996: 149).
- 3) LAAD also includes explanation of the voiced, tapped /t/ (transcribed /t/ in the main part of the dictionary) and the glottalized /t/ (transcribed /t[¬]/) under "American English Sounds" near the end of the dictionary (p. 1703).

Section 4

- 1) Both OALD⁵ and OALD⁶ give phrases, indented, in their DV lists, and these are counted in this article.
- 2) Some headings in the menu, though not counted here, function virtually as signposts.
- 3) CIDE takes a different system than LDOCE³ and OALD⁶. It divides different senses of a polysemous word according to its core meanings and groups them together. The number of senses entered in CIDE is therefore smaller than those of the other two, even though they cover almost the same range of meanings.
- 4) Eight out of the fourteen items given BrE are spelling-related, as in behaviour and belabour as opposed to behavior and belabor, respectively.
- 5) Two notes of caution are in order. First, such labeling changes between the two editions as $arch(aic) \rightarrow old$ use, $derog(atory) \rightarrow disapproving$, and $techn(ical) \rightarrow computing$ are not counted here because these labels are virtually identical or equivalent to each other. Second, qualifiers like often, rather, and especially as in "often ironic," "rather dated," and "especially AmE" are also ignored.
- 6) This comment "used mainly in spoken British English" is attached only to the entry Heaven forbid, but not to God forbid in COBUILD².
- 7) It may be interesting to note that Japanese distributors of monolingual EFL dictionaries, $OALD^6$ included, make a point of appending separate booklets, written in Japanese, on how to use them.

Section 5

- 1) In the count, out of expediency, collocational alternatives (e.g. archaic attitudes | views | practices) are regarded as one.
- 2) On the exemplification of marked lexical items, especially of "old words," see Stein (1999: 56ff.).
- 3) Among the four major British EFL dictionaries, OALD^{5/6} and LDOCE³ have glosses for verbal illustrations.
- 4) The same sort of consideration is undoubtedly necessary for the expression "What do

you do?" as many EFL learners (at least in Japan) confuse it with "What are you doing?" and produce an inappropriate answer. For this fixed expression, both OALD⁶ and LDOCE³ give felicitous comments.

Section 6

- 1) As for color names, $LDOCE^3$ is also inconsistent, as follows: black ([U]), blue ([C, U]), brown ([C, U]), green ([C, U]), grey ([C, U]), orange ([C]), pink ([C, U]), purple ([U]), red ([C, U]), scarlet ([U]), violet ([C, U]), white ([U]), and yellow ([U]).
- 2) Ichikawa et al. (1996: 170) state that "it is quite doubtful whether the distinction between [adv] and [pr (epositional phrase)] can be always clearly drawn, as the verbs concerned are used with either [adv] or [pr]."
- 3) As far as I have collected from nouns beginning with the letter e, the information [passive] is deleted in OALD⁶ from embarrass, embitter, encircle, endow, enfeeble, enrage, ensconce, enshroud, ensnare, evict, exhilarate, and express. In comparison, the information is added for emboss, engineer, enlarge, ennoble, enslave, entangle, enthuse, etch, evidence, except, excuse, exemplify, exercise, exhume, and expurgate.
- 4) In general, if a construction is always used under a certain condition, this condition should be made clear. Such a case is observed, for example, in a passive usage of say. One of the example sentences for the verb goes, "He is said to have been a brilliant scholar," which is coded as [VN to inf]. As this construction is used only in passive sentences, this restrictive usage information should be, and really is, properly given in the following help section, declaring "This pattern is only used in the passive." But this kind of treatment is not thorough.

Section 7

- 1) Ms. Wehmeier informed us that copies of $OALD^6$ sold in Korea and Germany are also in two colors (personal communication). Incidentally, in the early 1990's, when the market for bilingual dictionaries became fierce in Japan, English-Japanese and Japanese-English dictionaries first began to be published in two colors.
- 2) See Akasu et al. (2000: 109-110) for the notions of anglocentrism and anglorelativism.

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	versity Press, 1995.

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COBUILD²: Collins COBUILD English dictionary, New ed. London: HarperCollins, 1995. EPD: English pronouncing dictionary. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997.

LAAD: Longman advanced American dictionary. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd., 2000.

LDOCE³: Longman dictionary of contemporary English, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995. Longman pronunciation dictionary. Longman, 1st ed.: 1990, 2nd ed.: 2000.

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