

Historical Development of English-Japanese
Dictionaries in Japan (6):
*Inouye-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten (Inouye's English-Japanese
Dictionary, 1915)* by Jukichi Inouye

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1. Introduction

The last installment refers to *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten* (hereafter abbreviated to *MoEJ*)¹⁾ (*Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary*)²⁾ (1911) and *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten (SEJ)* (*A New English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1912), which could be considered to be an encyclopedic dictionary and a dictionary focussing on English usage³⁾, respectively. Both were published at the end of the Meiji era.

This article deals with *Inouye-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten (IEDJ)* (*Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1915), published in the fourth year of the Taisho era. As will be made clear later, this dictionary could be considered to be a work that is modeled on the two English-Japanese dictionaries above but is largely based in its contents on the British dictionary, *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (COD)* (1911) which was issued at the time *IEDJ* was being compiled. In other words, *IEDJ* is a dictionary that apparently follows the form of the two preceding bilingual dictionaries but that does in fact include or copy almost all the contents of the concise British dictionary. *MoEJ* is a typical encyclopedia-oriented dictionary, while *SEJ* is the first grammar-and usage-oriented dictionary. (For more on the monumental work of *SEJ* as well as *MoEJ*, see Kokawa *et al.* 2000.) Inouye's dictionary *IEDJ* cannot be examined without reference to the influence of these two dictionaries. *IEDJ*, on the whole, could be

considered as a dictionary that tries to be not only lexical-oriented but also culture- or information-oriented; that is, *IEDJ* is a combination type dictionary that looks like both *MoEJ* and *SEJ*.

IEDJ was published in the same year another more influential and original dictionary was issued; *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten (Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary)* by Hidesaburo Saito, which will be dealt with in the next installment, and is also said to have been compiled under the strong influence of *COD*. Inouye's dictionary and Saito's dictionary, as well as *MoEJ*, are said to have had the most fierce competition particularly during the Taisho era (Fukuhara 1949: 125). In this respect, Inouye's dictionary and Saito's dictionary were the two most memorable and important mainstream dictionaries in changing the method or direction of compilation of later English-Japanese dictionaries, in that many of them would follow British dictionaries, such as *COD* and *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English (POD)* (1924). *IEDJ* was issued about two months later than Saito's dictionary, but in this installment *IEDJ* is first dealt with.

Here the text of the dictionary is mainly dealt with: entries or head-words, phrases and examples, grammar and usage, pronunciation, labels, translation equivalents and cultural description. Historical background and the author or editor are also briefly referred to, but, as has been the case with the dictionaries dealt with so far, no mention is made of etymology in *IEDJ*, though *COD* includes brief information. It is a fact that etymologically unrelated words came to be treated as different entries but etymology was not taken seriously in those days.⁴⁾

2. Historical Background

IEDJ was published in 1915, just when the world was engrossed in the battles of World War I. Japan had been through and won two important wars in the two decades preceding it: the Sino-Japanese War in 1894 and the Russo-Japanese War in 1904–5. Each war coincided with either of two stages of Japanese industrial revolutions (the first for light industries, and the second for heavy industries), and these domestic developments also helped the nation win the wars. These were the days of Japanese imperi-

alistic expansion, which culminated in and was put to an end by World War II. The victory in the war against China brought Japan reparations and Taiwan. Five years after the war with Russia, Japan annexed Korea. The results of the two wars made the world aware that Japan had transformed itself from an undeveloped, feudalistic country into a modernized, imperialistic military power, possibly on a par with European countries and the U.S.

For better or worse, that was exactly the status and the image that Japan, which had to reconcile itself with unfair treaties with the West for decades, had been craving since the Restoration of Imperial Rule in 1867. Japan had been making incessant efforts to modernize and westernize itself for nearly half a century throughout the Meiji era (1868–1912), and Japan finally achieved its goal, mainly through absorption of western knowledge and technologies. (Naturally, the existence and use of good, comprehensive bilingual dictionaries including English-Japanese were indispensable.) A number of Japanese went to Europe and America to study, while many westerners came to Japan to teach their arts and sciences, in most cases with exceptionally good reward. Between 1881 and 1898, 6,177 Britons, 2,764 Americans, 913 Germans, 619 Frenchmen and 45 Italians visited Japan as teachers and engineers at the invitation of the Japanese government (Nippon Steel Human Resources Development Co., Ltd. 1987: 57). These figures may show which countries Japan mostly turned to for what they needed, and how helpful and necessary good English-Japanese dictionaries must have been for that aim.

In the Meiji era, the Japanese education system saw an extensive development. In 1886, compulsory education started at four years and was extended to six years in 1907. 'Compulsory' as it was, school attendance was rather low in the early days (28.1% in 1873: male 39.9%, female 15.1%). In 1910, however, 98.1% of the Japanese children (roughly six to twelve years of age) went to school (male 98.9%, female 97.3%). It was technically allowed to teach foreign languages in these elementary schools too, but in practice English was only taught at higher levels. Access to foreign language learning at public institutions was still limited to the chosen few in those days. (Before World War II, a very limited number of families could

afford higher education, such as high schools, universities, and normal schools.)

In 1886, the Imperial University (to be renamed the Tokyo Imperial University in 1897) was established as the apex of the country's higher education. By 1939 eight other Imperial universities were set up in the major cities in Japan (Kyoto, Sendai, Fukuoka, Sapporo, Osaka and Nagoya), as well as in Korea (Seoul) and Taiwan (Taipei) under Japanese rule. Also, many private schools for higher education, including those for women and those founded by foreign missionaries, were erected in the Meiji era. Many of them became major private universities after World War II. A large number of excellent foreign teachers were employed in these public and private institutions.

Such educational developments and the absorption of knowledge from abroad certainly bore fruit in the latter half of the Meiji era. In the 1890s, Japanese scholars began to impress and contribute to the world with many of their innovative, epoch-making findings and inventions, mainly in the fields of science and technology. Sakichi Toyota devised an automatic weaver in 1897. Fusakichi Omori invented the seismometer in 1901. Umetaro Suzuki discovered vitamin B₁, while Shibazaburo Kitazato, who studied under Robert Koch in Germany, is known for his development of a pure culture of the tetanus virus and the preparation of its antibody.

The lives of ordinary people, especially of city dwellers, became fairly modernized and westernized, in such areas as food, clothing and housing. Electric lights, wireless communication, the telephone, and at the end of the Meiji era, automobiles, were imported and put in use. Railways were constructed to connect major cities and regions of the country. Japan had little participation in World War I, while European powers were fully occupied by warfare. As a result, Japanese businesses edged its way into the world market, enjoying an all-time economic boom and prosperity at home. However, the gap between the lives of urban, wealthy, educated people and those of rural, poor, common people became tremendous.

Inouye's *IEDJ* was published in the days when Japan successfully completed its first fairly long but restless stage of modernization initiated by the government and the industries, in which the country had just estab-

lished itself as a newly emerged and growing power in the world.

(Section 2 by Kokawa)

3. The Author and the Dictionary

3.1. The author — Jukichi Inouye (1862–1929)

Jukichi Inouye, one of the three most prominent English scholars of the late Meiji and Taisho eras, was born in Tokushima Prefecture in 1862 as the second son of Takanori Inouye, a progressive politician at the time. At the age of eleven, Inouye was sent with his brother and several others from the region to study in the U.K., and being the youngest, he stood out from the group. After he finished primary education, Inouye entered Rugby School, at whose entrance examination he did so well, especially in mathematics, as to obtain a scholarship of 40 pounds a year. In 1879 he was accepted to King's College, London, and studied chemistry for two years. In 1881 (at the age of 19) he transferred to Royal School of Mines to study mining and metallurgy with the intention of becoming a mining engineer after returning to his home country.

When he came back to Japan in 1883 (at the age of 21) after studying for eleven years in England, his colourful career started. By an odd chance he embarked on a new career as a teacher. In 1886 he was appointed to a teaching post at Daiichi Koto Chu Gakko (now the Faculty of Liberal Arts at Tokyo University) and taught mathematics and English. In 1893 (at the age of 31) he worked as a subeditor for the *Japan Gazette* in Yokohama and his articles were well received, but he resigned because he disapproved of the company's anti-Japanese policy on the Sino-Japanese War. The following year he was appointed to the post of secretary-translator at the Foreign Office and was four years later promoted to secretary of the Legation. Until he retired in 1918 in order to concentrate on the compilation of 『井上和英大辭典』 *Inouye-Waei-Dai-Jiten* (*Inouye's Comprehensive Japanese-English Dictionary*) (hereafter *IWDJ*)¹⁾, he lived in Belgium, the US, Spain and Sweden. During these years he also taught English at several schools in Tokyo such as Tokyo Senmon Gakko (now Waseda University) and Koto Shogyo Gakko (now Hitotsubashi University) and his lectures were edited under the title 『井上十吉講述英語學講義

録』 *Inouye Jukichi Kojutsu Eigogaku Kougi Roku* [A Collection of Lectures on English Linguistics by Jukichi Inouye], which was published for three years in succession from 1897. Through his lectures and publications, Inouye introduced a number of works of English and American literature to Japan, and promoted Japanese culture overseas. He translated Japanese literary works into English and wrote many essays and books on Japanese customs and cultures in English: for example, *Home Life in Tokyo* (1910).

Although he first got involved in a dictionary project in 1887 as a proof-reader on the 『附音挿圖和譯英字彙』 *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-Jii* (*An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix. New edition.*)²⁾, it is in his later years that he put his heart and soul into the compilation of dictionaries. His ideal background — experience of living abroad, of working at an English newspaper company and of teaching — certainly helped him to become an excellent lexicographer. The first dictionary he worked on full-time and edited is 『新譯和英辭典』 *Shinyaku-Waei-Jiten* (*Inouye's Japanese-English Dictionary*) (hereafter *SWJ*) (1909) published by Sanseido and it received much critical acclaim. This work marked the beginning of a new era of Japanese-English dictionaries, as it was the first Japanese-English dictionary entirely designed for Japanese learners of English. 『井上英和中辭典』 *Inouye-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten* (*Inouye's Smaller English-Japanese Dictionary*) (hereafter *IECJ*) (1916) is also worth mentioning because uniquely it transliterates the pronunciation in kana for the intermediate. He compiled about ten dictionaries of different types in all, and two major works that made him well known are *IEDJ* (1915) and *IWDJ* (1921).

His second Japanese-English dictionary *IWDJ* (1921) made such a commercial success. The fact that all the example sentences were written by Japanese lexicographers with no help from native speakers³⁾ may show Inouye's total confidence in his own knowledge of English. The dictionary sold so well that it led to the situation in which a formal complaint was filed against him by the competitive publisher Sanseido, which was suffering a drop in sales of *SWJ*, that the editor had promised not to compile the

same kind of Japanese-English dictionary (cf. *Chugwai Eiji Shimibun* Vol. 28 No. 5).

It is said that Inouye asked for twenty percent royalties on sales of his dictionaries because of his best selling dictionaries. His smaller English-Japanese dictionaries are said to have been even used by elementary school pupils. Before and after the Taisho earthquake (1923) his dictionaries, either English-Japanese or Japanese-English, sold so well that the book titled *Nihon Eiyu den*, as well as Fujii (1962), says that the sales of his English-Japanese dictionaries (mainly *IEDJ* and *IECJ*) eventually amounted to more than two million copies (1936: 432). Even if what the book and Fujii say seems to be an exaggeration, it is true that Inouye's dictionaries were the best sellers and the best known in the Taisho era⁴⁾.

In 1924 Inouye founded Inouye's English Correspondence School. After he died of stomach cancer at the age of 68, he was officially commended for his long-standing and invaluable contribution to English education in 1929.

3.2. The dictionary

IEDJ is the third dictionary Inouye was engaged with. According to Fujii (1962: 109–11), Inouye was asked to work on this project by a colleague at the Foreign Office, who was a brother-in-law of the publisher's wife. *IEDJ* was the first English-Japanese dictionary to include the name of the author in its official title (Kojima 1999: 382). The title was registered as a trademark in 1921 and it has been notified at the reverse of the title page since (sometime in) 1922. This was probably done in order to prevent his name from being used for any other publication without permission in the same way as 'Webster' was used for general English dictionaries. In any case, this also tells us that Inouye was a respected authority on English at the time.

According to the foreword, Inouye began working on the *IEDJ* project in 1909 when his *SWJ* was published. During the seven years it took to compile this work, the first edition of *COD* came out in 1911 and it exerted considerable influence over *IEDJ* (cf. Sections 4 and 6).

The dictionary measures 172 mm high × 107 mm wide × 80 mm thick

(7.0 in × 4.4 in × 3.3 in) and was the popular size of the time (see the Appendix 1). It consists of the title page, two pages of 'Foreword' in English and one page in Japanese, 4 pages of front matter, the main text (pp. 1–2326) and the 26 pages of the appendix. The front matter contains:

Guide to the Dictionary	p(p). 1–2
Abbreviations of Labels	2
Key to Pronunciation	3
Abbreviations	4
Abbreviations of Literary Authors	4

The contents of the appendix are:

Table of Irregular Verbs	p(p). 1– 4
Table of Compound Irregular Verbs ⁵⁾	4– 5
Table of Names that are Hard to Read	6–16
Table of Nicknames	17–19
Table of Currency of Different Countries	20–21
Table of Weights and Measures	21–25
Table of Standard Time	26

A typical entry consists of a headword with syllabication and stress marks, the pronunciation in round brackets, the indication of part(s) of speech, subject field and register labels if necessary, the Japanese equivalents, and illustrative examples. No pictorial illustrations are provided, which seems to have followed *COD*. All the examples are placed together after all the different word senses listed, so that it is not self-evident which examples correspond to which meanings. After phrase examples are given, the entry is divided into two columns and full-sentence examples are arranged on the left with their Japanese translations on the right, for the sake of clarity.

The dictionary sold so well that as many as 147th reprint was made in 1927. *IEDJ*⁶⁾ dominated the dictionary market in Taisho period together with *MoEJ* (1911) and 『熟語本位英和中辞典』 *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten* (*Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary*) by Hidesaburo Saito published in the same year as *IEDJ*.

(Section 3 by Komuro)

4. Entries

4.1. Headwords

Headwords are one of the categories in the dictionary structure that is to be mentioned in every article on lexicography, because they show the general character of the dictionary under review or examination: lexical-oriented, encyclopedic-oriented or both. To show the way a dictionary is compiled, it is preferable that as wide a sample as possible should be examined, that is, as many entries as possible. But sampling will also tell a partial character, if not the whole picture, of the dictionary and the method of random sampling is used here.

When Inouye, editor of the dictionary *IEDJ*, started to compile an English-Japanese dictionary, he seemed to have in mind advanced learners as dictionary users. This could be said because right after or just before he completed the work he began to compile an intermediate dictionary, *IECJ*, for less advanced students in middle schools, i.e. junior and senior high schools, which was to be published only a year later. As is already mentioned in section 3, Inouye had the experience of teaching university level students, and they seemed to be one of the target users of his dictionary. Based on an interview with him, the article written by Shibuya in a magazine *Eigo no Nippon* (*The Nippon*) (Vol. 8. No. 10) mentions Inouye's advice that students should read more popular scientific books rather than literary works in order to be good students of English, which came from his experience as a student of mining and metallurgy as well as an English teacher. (Note also that Omura (1979: 178-84) says that he is also a lover of detective stories or mysteries.) His belief that extensive reading would enable students to acquire a large vocabulary naturally made him attempt a dictionary with a large number of entries as his ideal dictionary.

As had always been the case with the dictionaries dealt with in this series of the installments, Inouye probably thought that there was nothing for it but to refer to a monolingual dictionary or dictionaries. We are interested in what he consulted in compiling the dictionary. His two successive articles for a newspaper soon after the publication of his dictionary, which were also reprinted in *IECJ*, suggest the possible source(s) (cf. Nakao *et al.* 1977: 100 footnote 3). In "Jisho Hensan no Kushin" [Difficulties

in Compiling the English-Japanese Dictionary] (Inouye 1915b), he refers to five concise or abridged dictionaries close at hand at the turn of the twentieth century (the following titles are given with their text page numbers excluding appendices shown in square brackets, and some of their ambiguous titles or titles on the spine are made explicit in accordance with the title page): ① *Annandale's the Concise English dictionary* (1903?)¹⁾ (*CoED*) [784 pp.] (*The Concise English Dictionary*, edited by Charles Annandale), ② *A modern dictionary of the English Language* (1910)²⁾ (*MDEL*) [764 pp.] (*A Modern Dictionary of the English Language*, without the name of the editor), ③ *The Students' Standard Dictionary* (1897)³⁾ (*SSD*) [814 pp.] (*Students' Edition of a Standard Dictionary of the English Language*, edited by James C. Fernald *et al.*), ④ *Chambers's [sic] English Dictionary* (1898)⁴⁾ (*ChED*) [1197 pp.] (edited by Thomas Davidson), and ⑤ *The concise Oxford Dictionary* (1911) (*COD*) [1041 pp.] (*The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, edited by H. W. Fowler and F. G. Fowler), which were all published, reprinted or revised in the 1900s or 1910s. All the dictionaries except the third are British (or Scottish) dictionaries. This is partly because he had education in Britain, and was probably more familiar with the dictionaries or reference books there (cf. 4.1.3.). It also seems to be the case that at the turn of the twentieth century only a few concise dictionaries were available in the United States, except the abridged or smaller dictionaries of Websterian tradition and those of Funk & Wagnall's *Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (*Standard*) (cf. Simpson, Algeo)⁵⁾. It cannot be asserted that these five dictionaries are the only ones Inouye consulted, but it is quite reasonable to suppose that they were influential in compiling *IEDJ*.⁶⁾

It should not be forgotten that, before his dictionary came on the market, there were two distinctive English-Japanese dictionaries available: *MoEJ*, which includes a lot of encyclopedic entries (and is said to have sold well), and *SEJ*, which is filled with grammatical and usage information (but did not sell well) (Kokawa *et al.* 2000). It is taken for granted that the two dictionaries had a partial influence on Inouye's dictionary.

The preface of *IEDJ* in which Inouye says it took around seven years to finish the work makes it likely that he started the work in 1909. It will be

made clear whether or not he also had an idea of referring to American dictionaries (cf. 4.1.3.), because the dictionaries in Websterian tradition were particularly influential until the end of the Meiji era (cf. Dohi *et al.* 1998). Inouye probably knew of *The Oxford English Dictionary (OED)*, but not all of the fascicles were available (and the assumption this writer made is that no reference was made to *OED*). No explicit statement has been found that he compiled the dictionary based on a particular concise dictionary or dictionaries. A few years later after he started the compilation, *COD* was published. After its publication, there were found some articles to the effect that the dictionary is concise but very useful for reading. See, for example, the column of 'Gossip' in the issue on April 15, 1912 of *Chugwai Eiji Shimbun: A Semi-Monthly Journal Devoted to the Study of English*.⁷ It is conceivable that the editor's experience as a user of the dictionary, as well as reading such articles, may have persuaded him to make good use of the concise British dictionary for compiling his work.

A brief survey and comparison was made of *IEDJ* and the five dictionaries above. The result clearly shows that *IEDJ* is far more heavily dependent, if not entirely so, on *COD* than on the other dictionaries: *CoED*, *ChED* and *SSD* include many entries that are not found in *IEDJ*, while *MDEL* does not include many entries found in *IEDJ* and *COD*.

4.1.1. Manner of presentation

The presentations in *COD* and *IEDJ* are partially the same and partially different. On capitalization of initial letters, little difference is found between the two; proper names or proper terms are capitalized. Diacritical marks are often given in headwords in *COD* (which is always the case with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*), but they are given not in headwords but in pronunciation in *IEDJ*. There seems to be some similarity of presentation between *IEDJ* and *MoEJ* or *SEJ*. Headword hyphenation is shown in *IEDJ*, but not in *COD*. The way of showing stress is different from *COD*: the turned period (·) is normally placed after the accented vowel in *COD* (p. xii), while in *IEDJ* there are found the signs of a primary accent (') and a secondary accent (''), which are considered to have been influenced by *SEJ* (or *Standard* or *N Standard*). Another feature, quite the same as both

MoEJ and *SEJ* (or *Standard* or *N Standard*), is that *IEDJ* adopts what (*N Standard*) calls the German double hyphen (≡) as 'a means of distinguishing a hyphenated compound from a syllabicated word' (*N Standard*, Introductory, p. xii) (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000: Section 5.1.), while a single hyphen is employed in *COD*. Run-on entries or derived forms are shown in boldface in *COD* and *IEDJ*. They are all spelt out without using a dash (in *MoEJ*) or a swung dash (in *SEJ*). Some derived forms ending in *-ly* and *-ment* are sometimes given as main entries (*absolutely*, for instance) as well as run-on entries both in *COD* and in *IEDJ*. The layout in the text is somewhat similar to that of *MoEJ* in the way of utilizing the space (see Kokawa *et al.* 2000: Section 6.1.). The facts have led this writer to say that *IEDJ* is a dictionary that partly follows *COD* which apparently follows the form or presentation of *MoEJ* or *SEJ*. The *IEDJ* method of showing inflexion follows that of *COD*, which implies that users are required to have fundamental knowledge of English grammar.

The presentations of the two dictionaries are partially different: the headwords in *COD* are shown in boldface, and the run-on entries are shown in bold headword forms with light suffixes or derived forms in small capitals, such as **MANUALLY**. Hyphenated words and compounds are usually placed after examples (and sometimes in the definitions). In *IEDJ* all the entries are given in bold in an alphabetical order (cf. *MoEJ*). The headwords and run-on entries are sometimes systematically divided in the entries like *hair* and *harbour*, while they are sometimes not in other entries like *hand* and *hard*. The alphabetical order in *IEDJ* sometimes causes a difficulty in looking up words, because some entries are placed where they should not be. For example, between the headwords of *hard*³ and *hare*, are placed several words as if they were the main entries or headwords: *hard*≡*a*≡*lee*, *hard*≡*bake*, **harden*, *hard*≡*favoured*, **hardihood*, *hardily*, **hardly*, *hardly*≡*earned*, *hard*≡*metal*, *hardness*, **hardship*, *hard*≡*tack*, and **hardy*. (The words with an asterisk are given as headwords in *COD*.) Or *handily* and *handiness* are not grouped together under the entry of *handy* but are placed between *handicraftsman* and *handiwork* as if they were the derived forms of the entry *handicraft*. All of this is because the alphabetical order is strictly followed. Some are derived forms, and some are com-

pounds, and users do not always find the arrangement reasonable. This arrangement reminds us of the strictly alphabetical order in *SEJ* (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000: Section 5.2.3). The editor should have adopted a less confusing layout like that of *MoEJ* when the order is used.

4.1.2. Influence of *COD* on *IEDJ*

Table 1 below shows to what extent the entries in *IEDJ* correspond with those in *COD*. All the bold entries of the seven sections in *IEDJ* are counted, including variants and hyphenated words and compounds⁸⁾, while all the bold entries in *COD* are counted as well as part of the hyphenated words and compounds located after the examples, such as *h.-brother* in the entry of *half*, meaning *half-brother*, in comparison with *IEDJ* when they are given there. The seven sections surveyed are as follows: *about*¹–*act*¹, *early*–*effusively*, *hackle*²–*head*², *jab*–*jocular*, *mail*¹–*market*², *oaf*–*off*, and *table*¹–*tamarind*. Note also that there is not always an exact one-to-one correspondence between the entries. The principle in *IEDJ* is that pairs or sets of words having the same form but membership of different classes or parts of speech are assigned to separate entries: for example, in the entries *above* and *hat* there are two entries in *IEDJ* while there is one in *COD*. In a case like *off*, there are given five entries in *IEDJ*, while there is only one in *COD*. Here the counting is based on the entries in Inouye's dictionary.

Table 1 The number of entries in *IEDJ* and *COD*

	A	E	H	J	M	O	T	total
<i>IEDJ</i> (i)	280	155	311	178	298	218	114	1554
(ii)	96	75	67	53	107	135	53	586
(iii)	6	30	176	30	51	39	55	387
(iv)	58	60	171	113	106	49	19	576
<i>COD</i> (v)	268	139	158	190	96	263	268	1382
(vi)	99	75	51	144	55	69	106	599
(vii)	8	5	5	2	6	7	3	36

As regards *IEDJ*, the figures in the first row (i) show the number of main entries or headwords, while those in (ii) show the number of run-on entries, both of which are considered to have been taken from *COD*. The

figures in (iii) show the number of words and compounds in *IEDJ* that are usually given after the phrases or examples in *COD*, whereas (iv) gives the number of those that are not found in *COD*. As regards *COD*, (v) is the number of main entries, and (vi) is that of run-on entries, while (vii) gives the number of entries that are not found in *IEDJ*. (The pages surveyed amount to nearly 96 in the 2,326-page *IEDJ*, and 41 in the 1,041-page *COD* respectively, with the result that the sampled pages in both account for about four percent.)

It is estimated from the survey that *IEDJ* contains around 75,000 entries including run-on entries and compounds, which number is in fact larger than that of *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, though *MoEJ* boasts 100,000 entries (*Chugwai Eiji Shimbun* Vol. 18. No. 5) and *SEJ* says that it includes 80,000 entries (*ibid.*, Vol. 19. No. 19), both of which are an exaggeration when the survey of Kokawa *et al.* (2000: Section 5.2.1.) is taken into account. But the number of 75,000 entries is also far smaller than that of 200,000 entries touted in the advertisement of *IEDJ* (*ibid.*, Vol. 22. No. 17). This implies that each publisher wanted to be proud of the large number of entries because it was considered 'the more (entries), the better (dictionary).' The survey also shows that approximately 50,000 bold entries (and 10,000 hyphenated words) are estimated to be included in *COD*. The figures shown in (iv) also make us realize that *IEDJ* does not merely copy or follow the entries of *COD* as nearly one fifth of the entries surveyed (576 out of 3,103) in *IEDJ* do not come from *COD*. On the other hand, the figures in (vii) explicitly show that most of the entries in *COD* are included in *IEDJ*, and it is not at all clear why some *COD* entries are excluded: *happening*, *harassment*, *talented* and *talker*, for example, were considered to be merely derived forms and unnecessary, and less than half of the entries omitted are main entries. On the whole, the figures above support the claim that the entries in *IEDJ* are heavily dependent on those in *COD*.

Here a question should be posed: Why is it that the editor Inouye mainly made use of the British dictionary *COD* rather than the other concise British, (Scottish) or American dictionaries close at hand? To answer the question, let the preface of *COD* be quoted (cf. Sugai 1941: 35–36, McArthur 1986: 136): "The book is designed as a *dictionary*, and not

as an encyclopaedia; that is, *the uses of words and phrases . . . are its subject matter*, and it is concerned with *giving information about the things for which those words and phrases stand only so far as correct use of the words depends upon knowledge of the things . . .* One of these peculiarities is *the large amount of space given to the common words that no one goes through the day without using scores or hundreds of times . . .*; chief among such words are the prepositions, the conjunctions, the pronouns, and such 'simple' nouns and verbs as *hand* and *way*, *go* and *put*." (p. iii) (Emphasis is added by this writer.) *COD* is mainly concerned with lexical entries and a small number of encyclopedic entries like geographical names, such as *Malacca* and *Malaga*. For usage of the English language short illustrative phrase or sentence examples are provided, in addition to idiomatic phrases. Keep in mind the other parts of the preface: "The *words*, or *senses of words*, given are meant to be such only as *are current . . .*" (p. iv), ". . . to include many words and senses that are fossilized, having in themselves no life or capacity for further development, but kept extant by being enshrined in perhaps *a single proverb or phrase that is still in use . . .*" (p. v) and ". . . if we give fewer scientific and technical terms, we admit *colloquial, facetious, slang, and vulgar expressions* with freedom, merely attaching a cautionary label . . ." (p. v) (This writer's emphasis.) These claims are considered to have been influential in making Inouye think that *COD* includes what he wanted to be included in *IEDJ*, and this led him to make use of *COD* in compiling *IEDJ*. Here it should also not be forgotten that he is the author of a Japanese-English dictionary *SWJ*, in the preface of which he writes as follows: "Japanese-English dictionaries . . . there are in plenty; but excellent as some of them are in their way, the majority are sadly to seek with respect to the *commonest words and phrases* in our language . . . my plan has been to collect as far as possible all Japanese *words, phrases, and sentences in common use . . .*" (p. i) (Emphasis is this writer's.) The work of compiling a Japanese-English dictionary is radically different from that of an English-Japanese dictionary, but the way of thinking that a large number of common words with their examples or idiomatic expressions shown should be included in a dictionary and the preface in *COD* is considered to be related to his selection of the dictionary in compiling *IEDJ*.

4.1.3. Additional entries

Table 1 above shows that Inouye also tries to include additional entries. Most of such entries are assumed to be encyclopedic rather than lexical. The reason he includes more entries seems to be that the editor was fully aware of *MoEJ* filled with encyclopedic matter. The entries in *IEDJ* and *MoEJ* are often different⁹⁾, because the latter is not compiled based on *COD* (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000). While compiling the dictionary, the editor is considered to have been conscious of the two rival dictionaries, especially *MoEJ*. It could be safely said that he endeavors to compile a dictionary which includes not only common usage in English but also more encyclopedic entries to compete against *MoEJ*.

As has often been the case in English-Japanese dictionaries dealt with, the rival dictionaries of *MoEJ* and *SEJ* include abbreviations, acronyms, and expressions from foreign languages in the appendices, but Inouye avoids their conventional method of excluding such entries in the text and includes them there. It is a forward step for users, who tend to look up the entries they consult not in the appendices but in the text. In this respect, *IEDJ* is more timesaving and user-friendly than the other two. (Note that *MDEL* as well as *COD* employs this arrangement.)

What kind of new entries are added in *IEDJ*? This writer decided to choose and examine 448 entries in four sections (A, H, J and M) that are not found in *COD*, granted that nothing is incorporated from the addenda

Table 2 Types of new entries in *IEDJ*

	A	H	J	M
Words or compounds with subject field labels	32	58	21	36
Compounds without labels	2	65	22	21
Abbreviations	6	6	3	5
Foreign expressions	1	5	8	13
Derivatives	5	7	4	4
Variants	3	4	7	6
Proper noun related words	2	6	29	6
Others	7	20	19	15
Total	58	171	113	106

list of its 1914 edition¹⁰. The result of the brief survey is shown in Table 2, but, because not all of the entries are explicitly given subject field labels even in cases they are considered to be necessary (for example, *manganite* is labeled 【鑛】 (mineralogy), whereas *manganese*, *manganesian*, *manganic* and *manganous* are not), the numbers in Table 2 show the general picture of the new entries surveyed.

In A, more than half are encyclopedic: most (27 out of 32) are technical terms of plants or animals, such as *Abutilon* and *Acalepha*, labeled as 【植】 (botany) and 【動】 (zoology) respectively. (It could be safely said that far more entries related to plants or animals are included in *IEDJ*.) About one fourth consists of derivatives, abbreviations, foreign expressions, or variants. In H, one third (58 out of 171) are related to technical terms, more than half (32 out of 58) of which are concerned with plants or animals, words related to ornithology (*hawk* < *owl*), conchology (*hammer* < *shell*) and ichthyology (*hag* < *fish*) being in the decreasing order. There are more compounds without labels, with heads or modifiers being *hand-*, *half-*, *hard-*, *hair-*, and *head-* (like *handbreadth*, *half* < *face*, *hard* < *gotten*, *hair* < *compasses*, *head* < *hunter*). In J there can be found a number of words derived from proper nouns, *Japan*, *Jamaica* or *Java*: *Japanism*, and *Jamaican*, for instance. Nearly the same number of compounds without labels, like *jewel* < *box* and *job* < *price*, are included as those with technical labels, such as *Jack* < *in* < *prison* and *jacana*, botanical terms being the largest. In M nearly a quarter consist of foreign expressions, abbreviations, derivatives, or variants, and about half of them are foreign expressions. (Isobe (1929b: 177) says that Inouye also had a good knowledge of Latin, Greek and French, and consequently it is conceivable that he should try to give many foreign expressions in the text for readers.) One third out of 106 are technical terms, the largest number of words related to plants (*mango* < *tree*) or animals (*mantis* < *shrimp*), with some words related to navigation (*main* < *boom*) or entomology (*Mandibulata*). The survey of the total reveals that about one third consists of technical terms, while compounds without labels come second, which amount to a quarter. Words derived from proper nouns, foreign expressions, derivatives, and abbreviations come in decreasing order. This survey supports the assumption that *IEDJ* endeavors

to include more encyclopedic entries and compounds for reading. In this respect, the editor's claim is rationalized that inclusion of technical vocabulary, which is also touted in the advertisement, is one of the three main characteristics (*The Nippon* Vol. 8. No. 10.).

Where do the additional entries come from that are included in *IEDJ*? A survey was conducted of the 448 entries, by reference to the four concise dictionaries, but the result shown in Table 3 is not very satisfying.

Table 3 Where the additional entries can be found

<i>ChED</i> only	16	<i>MDEL</i> only	87
<i>CoED</i> only	20	<i>SSD</i> only	14
<i>ChED</i> & <i>MDEL</i>	19	<i>ChED</i> & <i>CoED</i>	13
<i>MDEL</i> & <i>CoED</i>	16	<i>SSD</i> & <i>ChED</i> or <i>MDEL</i> or <i>CoED</i>	16
<i>ChED</i> , <i>MDEL</i> & <i>CoED</i>	18	<i>ChED</i> , <i>MDEL</i> , <i>CoED</i> & <i>SSD</i>	19
Other combinations	15	None	195

More than half of the total (253 out of 448) can be found in one or more than one of the four dictionaries, while more than forty percent (195) can be found in none of them. One thing is remarkable: contrary to this writer's expectation, the entries in *IEDJ* surprisingly often correspond with those in *MDEL*, one latest dictionary that is "specially suitable for the use of pupils in Secondary Schools and the upper classes of Elementary Schools" (p. ii), partly because "Prefixes, abbreviations, and foreign words and phrases are arranged in the body of the Dictionary in their proper alphabetical order" (p. ii), and this seems to have had an effect on the arrangement in *IEDJ*. See, for examples, *H.C.M.*, *hdqrs.*, *mal de mer* and *Marathon race*.

The survey was revised: reference was made to other encyclopedic dictionaries of *WNID*, *Century 2* and *N Standard*, all of which are published not in Britain but in the United States. It seems that around the turn of the twentieth century, no dictionary in one or two volumes like *WNID* or *Standard* was published in Britain (cf. Simpson: 1963-64), and the advertisement of Inouye's dictionary refers to those large or unabridged dictionaries as other possible sources of information, though it says that Inouye's dictionary includes more entries than can be found in them. *WNID* was issued 1909¹¹), while *Century 2* was revised in 1911, the same year *COD*

was published. *Standard* was issued in 1893–94, but, while Inouye was engaged with the dictionary *IEDJ*, a new edition *N Standard* was published in 1913. There is no claim that Inouye made use of these (encyclopedic) dictionaries, and it would also have been possible for him to make use of various British encyclopedias available, if he had wanted to, such as *Encyclopaedia Britannica* 11th edition (1910–11). Assuming that he referred to the three most up-to-date American dictionaries or encyclopedia for more entries, this writer made a decision to compare the additional 195 entries between *IEDJ* and the three. The survey gives a more convincing or promising result that nearly three quarters (153 out of 195) could be found in one or more than one of them.

Table 4 Where the 195 entries could be found

<i>WNID</i>	10	<i>Century 2</i>	4
<i>N Standard</i>	6	<i>WNID & Century 2</i>	11
<i>WNID & N Standard</i>	31	<i>Century 2 & N Standard</i>	13
<i>WNID, Century 2 & N Standard</i>	78	None	42

The fact that the largest number of entries are to be found in *WNID* does not absolutely mean that *WNID* is the most likely source of reference for the entries, because half of its entries are given in “a lower section, in a somewhat smaller type and narrow columns, containing various minor words, foreign words and phrases, abbreviations etc” (p. vi), in contrast with those given in an upper section containing the main words of the language. (Note that the former 1890 edition of *WIDEL* does not employ such an arrangement, and includes less entries surveyed.) This survey shows that the additional entries in *IEDJ* that are not to be found in the concise dictionaries mentioned could be found in one or more than one of the three larger encyclopedic dictionaries. Further survey might show that the entries found in neither of them (accounting for nearly one fifth of the total entries), like *acajou* ≡ *wood*, *hair* ≡ *tweezers*, *javelin* ≡ *wasp*, and *mango* ≡ *butterfly*, could be found in a technical dictionary or others. (*OED* includes eleven entries, as far as the survey is concerned, and the fact leads this writer to conclude that he should also have consulted *OED* as one of the reference sources, which means that the assumption he made in sec-

tion 4.1. has turned out to be wrong.)

The conclusion is that there is a strong likelihood that the editor depends on some dictionaries or reference works, such as *SSD*, *ChED*, *MDEL* and *CoED*, for additional entries. He also depends on other larger or encyclopedic reference works, such as *WNID*, *Century 2*, or *N Standard* (as well as *OED*) for more entries that are nowhere to be found in the concise dictionaries referred to. In order to boast of the large number of entries in a competitive dictionary market, it was considered to be necessary or imperative for the editor to include a larger number of words. As the result, the advertisement boastfully says that the dictionary includes more entries than could be found in *WNID*, *Standard* or *OED*. The fact clearly shows that the dictionary editor endeavors to include as many technical or special entries as possible, associating the dictionary including far more entries with a better dictionary for a large number of users, without thinking of their real (or doubtful) usefulness or the quality of a better dictionary. This writer wonders why the editor endeavors to include such entries as can be found in no dictionary. In those days no consideration was made by the editor of what the dictionary was meant for, what users would look for, or what types of user were intended. It is quite doubtful whether some technical terms or compounds were really necessary for users in reading popular scientific English, except for a small group of very advanced users or specialists who might need them. In this sense, *IEDJ* may have been compiled for specialists and may be partly conceived as a specialist dictionary. This has caused the dictionary to be a mixed blessing for both immediate or advanced learners and specialists.

4.1.4. Summary

The method of presentation of the entries and what is included in *IEDJ* is briefly referred to. The dictionary is consistent, because the entries are in principle separately given according to their parts of speech. In *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, the run-on entries or the words ending in *-ly* and *-ness* are not spelt out, while all such entries are in *IEDJ*. There is a danger in *IEDJ* that users might get the impression that some derived forms or compounds are sometimes randomly placed even though they are in a strictly

alphabetical order. The arrangement may not always be user-friendly in looking up words. Inouye made such an arrangement under the strong influence of *COD* and *MDEL* as well as *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. Inouye was wise enough to have made good use of *COD*, and even tries to include many encyclopedic entries for advanced users, which made the dictionary well received, popular and best-selling (cf. 3.2.). But seen from a lexicographical point of view, the important fact is ignored that entries should not be given in a confusing way for users. There is also a doubt why and whether it was necessary for the editor to compile a dictionary that includes not only those entries in some concise and larger dictionaries but also some entries that are found nowhere else. The doubtful way of thinking "the more, the better" could be traced back to around the 1910s, the early days of the twentieth century. (cf. Dohi *et al.* 1998: Section 10.)

4.2. Examples

As is already mentioned, Inouye had the experience of compiling a Japanese-English dictionary *SWJ* before he was engaged in *IEDJ*. The former is highly valued as it is considered to have been the first dictionary that does not follow the model of Hepburn's Japanese-English dictionary (1867) (Kojima 1999: 375-77). Inouye gives a number of illustrative examples in it. As will be mentioned in 4.2.1, the experience led him to compile a dictionary in which are given a lot of illustrative examples in English, for the purpose of which *COD* was considered to be exactly the right dictionary and far more useful and invaluable than the other concise dictionaries at that time. Here the same question should be posed: Why does Inouye select *COD*? The preface of *COD* is quoted again: "Another peculiarity is *the use, copious for so small a dictionary, of illustrative sentences as a necessary supplement to definition when a word has different senses . . . or when a definition is obscure and unconvincing until exemplified*; these sentences often are, but still more often are not, quotations from standard authors; they are meant to establish the sense of the definition . . ." (p. iii) (Emphasis is again this writer's.) (cf. Allen 1986: 2)

When a comparison is made of *COD* with the other dictionaries referred to, there is one feature far more conspicuous: though compiled for

native speakers of English, *COD* is full of illustrative phrases or examples. (See the Appendix 2 at the end of this installment.) Among the five dictionaries surveyed, *CoED* and *SSD* include a small number of short or phrase examples, but far less emphasis is placed on giving examples. *ChED* and *MDEL* give few or no examples. The survey makes it clear that *COD* surpasses the others in giving examples and idioms, especially in the usage of common words like nouns, verbs and adjectives, even if they are not always complete sentences or are given in a very condensed style called telegraphese. It is conceivable that it is somewhat doubtful whether *COD* without examples or idiomatic expressions was selected as an ideal or a better dictionary by the editor. When the fact is taken into account that in those days more and more attention was paid to English usage of common words and phrases (cf. Section 1 footnote 3), *COD* is the very dictionary Inouye was looking for or eager to depend on in the compilation of his bilingual dictionary. Another possible reason his dictionary is largely based on *COD* is that he might have been conscious of and followed the example of *SEJ*, full of instructive usage description and a number of illustrative examples and phrases. (Note that the advertisement for *SEJ* says that it includes 50,000 examples.) To compile a better dictionary than *SEJ*, he may have thought that there was no choice but to make use of the text of *COD*, the dictionary of dictionaries.

4.2.1. Manner of presentation

IEDJ radically differs from *MoEJ* and *SEJ* in that all the examples, whether phrases or sentences, are placed after all the sub-senses, whereas *COD* examples, like those in *SEJ* and *MoEJ*, are grouped together after each sub-sense. Like the order of entries or headwords, in *IEDJ* the phrase examples are given first and merely arranged in an alphabetical order of the first letter, with the result that phrase examples, phrasal verbs and idiomatic phrases are grouped together: in the entry *make*, for example, *to make a journey, to make away, to make him a duke, to make or mar, and to make up one's mind* are placed in an alphabetical order, which makes it difficult for some users to distinguish which is which. It could be said that *IEDJ* is less user-friendly than *MoEJ* and *SEJ* because such an arrange-

ment does not always help users (with the possible exception of some advanced users) to recognize in which sense the word is used in a given phrase example. (The good point is that all the phrase examples are accompanied by Japanese translations, which is not always the case with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*.)

Square brackets [], single parentheses (), or double parentheses (()) are used in some examples. The second device is only occasionally employed in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. They may function well if they are applied accurately, and as long as users understand them correctly. The editor is considered to have used them to show more expressions in the available space. The square brackets are used for showing alternative expressions with similar or same meanings: *to pay* [*settle*] *an account*, and *to fall* [*get*] *into the [a] habit (of)*, for example. The single parentheses are useful in marking off optional words or phrases: *It is (of) no earthly good your coming*, and *to set (a person's) teeth on edge*, for instance. The double ones are used to show alternatives: *hit ((miss)) the mark*, *told me of ((about)) his difficulties* and *to spend ((lose, waste)) time*, for example. But some examples are not always accurate in giving the intention: *Bread is ((cut)) too thick* may be an awkward example, and it could be enclosed in single parentheses. Compare the examples *My hands are full [I have my hands full]* and *You may take it from me (take my words for it)*, or *[to live] from hand to mouth* and *to talk tall [ad.]*, most of them confusing the users. It is not certain and sometimes doubtful whether the editor takes into account the idea of idiomatic or natural expressions. The device is useful, but accuracy and naturalness should be given precedence over showing quantities of examples.

Another form of examples, sentence examples, do not follow such an order, though the same problem arises that it is not always clear in which sense the word is used in the given example. As is mentioned in 3.2, the entry is divided into two columns: the sentence examples are given on the left, with the Japanese translations on the right. Some examples directly taken from or based on *COD* are typically given first and followed by some other examples. Some are short and easy to understand, some taken from other sources, some of his own inventing, and some long and taken

from traditional or literary sources like the Bible (the example for *abundance* is taken from *Matthew* 12: 34; *Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh*) or famous authors such as Shakespeare (in the entry for *accord*, a sentence taken from *King Henry VI* (second part) iii, 1, 269; *My heart accordeth [accords in IEDJ] with my tongue*). But, curiously enough, which literary sources the examples come from is only occasionally referred to, and it is not clear to what extent the literary figures or authors like J. Dryden given in the front matter are explicitly shown in the text: the second example or quotation above does not refer to the author, for example.

Even though some phrases and examples are taken from *COD*, they have undergone some modifications in *IEDJ* so that users find them useful. For example, *to* is added in front of the infinitive, *to be* is added before the adjectives, the object is supplied as *a thing*, *a person* or some suitable noun is given. The subject is also sometimes provided. These are highly appreciated because users unaccustomed to English misunderstand them without any clear and supplementary indication of usage.

A small survey was made of the entries in A, H, and M that give examples in the text. As far as the sections the survey was made of are concerned, more than fifteen percent of entries (271 out of 1728) have examples. There seem to be more examples in noun entries, and the result is as follows: nouns (140 entries), adjectives (61), verbs (47), and adverbs (10), prepositions (3), and others like past participles (10)¹². But here the total number of the entries that include one or more than one example should be taken into account. There are more examples shown in the entry of preposition (3 out of 4, including the entry *malgre* which is not found in *COD*). Verbs include the second largest number of examples (47 out of 156). Next come adjectives (61 out of 316). In the case of nouns, examples are given in 140 entries out of 1080. In adverbs, examples are included in 10 entries out of 86, most of which are *-ly* adverbs. The survey led this writer to say that, when the proportion of the entries with each part of speech labeled is taken into account, the dictionary tries to show examples in the common words of prepositions, verbs, adjectives and nouns. A few entries have more than ten sentence examples (the figures in square brack-

ets are the number of examples given): *make* (v.) [40], *account* (n.) [21] (see the Appendix 2), *hand* (n.) [15], *have* (v.) [14], *about* (prep.) [13], *head* (n.) [13], and *man* (n.) [11]. 64 entries out of 271, which amount to more than a quarter, have one or more than one sentence example. Far more entries give phrase examples. 253 entries out of 271, which amount to more than ninety percent, give phrase examples. Some entries show more than ten phrase examples (the figures in square brackets are the number of examples): *make* (v.) [48], *hand* (n.) [46], *head* (n.) [33], *account* (n.) [30] (see the Appendix 2), *absolute* (a.) [19], *man* [19], *hair* (n.) [18], *hang* (v.) [17], *hard* (a.) [14], *mark* (n.) [11], *accent* (n.) [10] and *act* (n.) [10]. This fact reveals that Inouye endeavors to give examples in basic vocabulary or to show some technical terms (see the entry of *absolute*, for example). This is undoubtedly because he put a special emphasis on showing examples in English, based on his experience as a Japanese-English dictionary compiler, even if there might be a possibility that he was conscious of *SEJ*. It should be mentioned that he was not always aware in which entries sentence or phrase examples should be given because consistent principle, if any, is not always followed in the treatment of the two types of examples: for instance, in the entries of *abroad*, *absolutely*, *absorb*, *accord*, *accredited*, and *acquit*, some sentence examples are given, whereas no example is shown in the entries of *ache*, *achieve*, *accurate*, *acquire*, and *abridge*. Particularly noticeable is the fact that he gives at least one phrase example in more than three times as many entries, especially in the encyclopedic entries, such as *maple*. Phrase examples take up less space, and he clearly tried to make good use of space (cf. 4.2.).

4.2.2. Influence of *COD* on *IEDJ*

The brief survey shows that *IEDJ* undoubtedly makes good use of *COD*. It reflects the fact that in those days there was no idea of imitating or plagiarizing other dictionaries, or of copyright. As is mentioned below, *COD* has more influence on the phrase examples. In terms of sentence examples, the entry for *have* has the highest proportion of the same or similar examples as *COD* (11 out of 14), but the two entries for *make* (21 out of 40) and *account* (no same examples, though some of them are com-

posed or invented based on those on *COD*) (see the Appendix 2), with more than twenty examples, do not include so a high proportion of *COD* examples (cf. Kojima 1999: 377, Machida 1981: 37–39). This writer assumes that the editor was sometimes careful in that he did not plagiarize or imitate all the examples in *COD*, and he endeavored to show more for users, though they are often invented. In contrast, the number of entries with phrase examples is larger than that with sentence examples. What is especially remarkable is that more entries include the same phrase examples as *COD*: some entries with more than ten phrase examples follow *COD* examples, such as *make* (v.) (39 out of 48), *hand* (n.) (35 out of 46), *account* (n.) (25 out of 30), *head* (n.) (28 out of 33), *hang* (v.) (13 out of 17), *hard* (a.) (12 out of 14), *man* (n.) (14 out of 19), and *mark* (n.) (8 out of 11). The entries with five or fewer examples shown include many of the same phrase examples from *COD*: 20 out of 30 entries have at least half of the same examples. Let some be given here: *above* (prep.), *acceleration*, *half* (n.), *hard* (ad.), *have* (v.), *manner*, *manual*, *many*, *mark* (v.) and *market* (n.). This means that *COD* plays an important part in giving the examples, especially the phrase examples (see 4.2.3. below).

4.2.3. Influence of other dictionaries on *IEDJ*

It is also important to note that the survey has found that there are many sentence examples that do not copy those of *COD*, and that some entries only include phrase examples that are not found in *COD*. Particularly noticeable is the fact that the dictionary is conspicuously abundant in the phrase examples related to encyclopedic or technical matter: *absolute*, *accent*, *accessory*, *act*, *harmonic*, *majesty*, *mallow*, *mantis*, *maple* and *march*, for instance. Remember the Fowlers' preface: "In attaching this great importance to illustration . . . we are merely acting . . . upon the principles of the O.E.D. . . . we have often followed even in that part of our book (A–R) in which the O.E.D., . . . was before us . . . ; and in the latter part (S–Z), where we had no longer the O.E.D. to depend upon . . . ; for many of the more difficult . . . words, we have collected the quotations given in the best modern dictionaries (the *Imperial*, the *Century*, the *Standard*, Cassell's *Encyclopaedic*, Webster, & c.)" (p. iv) Reading this preface may have

persuaded Inouye to decide that he also tries to make use of the dictionaries for phrases and examples.

The preface also seems to suggest some possible sources of the examples in *IEDJ*. As far as the sections surveyed are concerned, evidence has been found that a few examples or quotations in Inouye's dictionary are influenced by *WNID* or (*N*) *Standard: abroad, absolute, accent, accommodate, accredited, and acetate*, for instance (cf. Machida 1981: 56). It is also true that some examples are undoubtedly taken from *Century 2*, some of which are naturally the same as those in *Imperial: abroad, abrupt, absent¹, absolutely, abundance, accuse* and *accomplish*. Only a few come from *Imperial*, which are not found in *Century 2: absent, accelerated* and *accord*. (There might be a possibility that some, which might also be included in other dictionaries, are taken from *MoEJ* or *SEJ*.) Not all of the sources of the examples in *IEDJ* could be ascertained.

It is a noteworthy feature that *IEDJ* includes a large number of examples, which feature is not found at all in *MoEJ* but is similarly found in *SEJ*. There are a number of examples not found in the monolingual dictionaries, but it seems quite likely that the editor often had no difficulty in inventing or composing sentence examples because he was an excellent English teacher and worked for the translation section in the Foreign Office. (Isobe (1929b: 177–78) says that Inouye was once praised for his good writing in English by a native teacher of English, who said he made no grammatical mistake.)¹³⁾ It seems that he put great emphasis on sentence examples in some entries of core vocabulary, such as *about, above, hand, have, head, and make*, as if the dictionary were intended to be used for encoding.

4.2.4. Summary

There is no doubt that *COD* is the main source of the examples in *IEDJ*, but it is not the only source of reference. In the phrase examples *COD* is very useful as it gives a large number of examples in core or basic vocabulary, and it is quite reasonable that the editor made good use of *COD*, while it is also a fact that he tries to show more examples, especially the phrase examples related to encyclopedic matter. In the sentence ex-

amples, the editor also heavily depends on *COD*, but he endeavors to make a good use of the dictionary in that *IEDJ* made it possible for ordinary users to decode the difficult telegraphese content of *COD*. In some entries, he supplies more examples for users as if it were an active dictionary, though it is meant as a passive dictionary. It is not clear how many people knew the dictionary is heavily dependent on the British dictionary, but his effort in adapting the difficult-to-use *COD* for Japanese users should be highly appreciated.

In the newspaper article mentioned above (4.1.), he writes that he consulted a few German-English and French-English dictionaries for idiomatic phrases. No attempt has been made to look for such dictionaries. The brief survey of the phrases in *IEDJ* shows that some phrases are taken from the concise dictionaries, and that the editor endeavors to give a large number of examples not only in *COD*, but in other sources, so that the dictionary might be more useful in looking up usage in common words and encyclopedic matter.

4.3. Grammar and usage

Inouye had issued several books of his lectures on English (cf. 3.1.), but as is mentioned above, he owes many of the examples in the dictionary to *COD*, and even grammatical description in some entries are taken from or based on *COD: beware* on verb inflexion; *blessed* on pronunciation and usage difference from *blest*; *brother* on the plural form and difference from *brethren*; *busy* on the usage of its postpositional prepositions; *dare* on verb inflexion; and *do* on usage, for example. But it should be admitted that Inouye endeavors to give many sentence examples, in which basic knowledge of grammar and usage is required. He cannot have taken into account the idea such as selection restriction: compare the definitions of *abridge* and *abrogate* showing typical objects, and *accede* showing prepositional objects between *COD* and *IEDJ*, for example. He was not conscious of structures or sentence patterns, either. *IEDJ* does not give the same part of speech or description as *COD: to lay hand [sic] on, to hang out* ☐, *harvest (vi.)*. Inouye sometimes paid no attention to detailed description in *COD: abysmal* (in the expression *abysmal ignorance*), *acceptor* (preferred to *ac-*

cepter in the sense), and *academe* (used by mistake in poetic style for the Greek Academy, a college, university), while he sometimes did: *haft* (*n.*) (handle of dagger, knife, & c.), *hair* (*n.*) (*pl. hairs* in collective sense is archaic), and *halcyon* (on *halcyon days*). It is also a fact that grammatical information not found in *COD* is sometimes found in *IEDJ*: *harass* (*v.*) (sometimes with *out*) and *hammer* (*v.*) (with *away*). These facts mean that the editor was sometimes more aware of definitions, sometimes of grammatical description, and sometimes of information not found in *COD* and obtained from other sources, with the result that inconsistent and sometimes careless description on grammar and usage is to be found.

It must not be forgotten that some entries in *IEDJ* give collocation information after the translation equivalents: *jealous* ((+ *of*)) and *march* ((+ *away, forth, past, out*)), for instance. It is a very important piece of information on collocation or information on prepositions or particles, and most of this kind of information is based on *COD*, which is under the strong influence of *OED*. How useful it is for users is not certain, but it should be kept in mind that this kind of lexical information is given in *IEDJ*, which is based on *COD*. In this respect, *COD* is considered as the first concise dictionary that gives more lexical information on collocation. *IEDJ*, perhaps unconsciously, also is the first English-Japanese dictionary to give such information.

Inouye composed many examples based on the expressions in *COD*. Fortunately *COD* is more concerned with matters lexical rather than encyclopedic. *IEDJ* cannot be considered to be original or creative in that the dictionary does not seem to include the editor's own observation of English usage. Without *COD*, usage in *IEDJ* could not have been so highly appreciated.

(Sections 4.1–4.2 by Dohi, Section 4.3 by Tominaga)

5. Pronunciation

This section describes the phonetic transcription of *IEDJ*, comparing it with that of *COD*, and with that of *SEJ* and *MoEJ* in particular. *IEDJ* employs a 'respelling system' in the transcription of pronunciation. The pronunciation is shown in parentheses after each headword using diacriti-

cal marks. The symbols of vowels and consonants are separately listed in 'Key to Pronunciation' with keywords (see the Appendix 1, Photograph 7). In some cases, a symbol used in other dictionaries, and/or a corresponding Japanese vowel is given as a reference. In addition, symbols of accents¹⁾ and boundaries of syllables and words are described in 'Guide to the Dictionary.' Table 5 is a list of phonetic symbols used in *IEDJ*.

Table 5

Vowels				Consonants	
key word(s)	<i>IEDJ</i>	key word(s)	<i>IEDJ</i>	key word(s)	<i>IEDJ</i>
man	a	father	ä	pain	p
path	à	heap	ē	bat	b
men	e	thought	ā	tell	t
fin	i	move	ö	down	d
lot	o	feud	ū	kill	k
foot	u	lurk	èr	gag	g
cup	u	fine	ī	church	ch
sofa	a	host	ō	George	j
husband	à	face	«ā»	fall	f
moment	ε	choice	«oi»	veil	v
father	èr	about	ou	thing	th
actor	ɔ	heart	«är»	that	th
regular	u	hair	«är»	sit	s
receive	e	lure	«ūr»	zone	z
village	ā	poor	«ör»	shall	sh
		hear	«ēr»	vision	zh
		short, port	«ör»	house	h
Other features				man	m
' primary accent				nose	n
" secondary accent		al''er-a'tion (ä''tēr-a'shōn)		bank	n
				ray	r
- syllable-boundary				long	l
= word-boundary		cof'fee=cup'' (-=kup'')		wait	w
in a compound				wheel	hw
				yet	«y»

* The symbols in « » are not included in 'Key to Pronunciation' of *IEDJ*.

* The symbols for foreign sounds are omitted in Table 5.

* The key words in Table 5 do not necessarily coincide with those given in 'Key to Pronunciation' of *IEDJ*.

The choice of phonetic symbols varies among dictionaries. Table 6 compares some vowel and consonant symbols used in *IEDJ* with those used in other dictionaries. As far as the phonetic symbols are concerned, *IEDJ* most closely resembles *CoED*.

Table 6

key word	<i>IEDJ</i>	<i>SEJ/MoEJ</i>	<i>COD</i> ²⁾	<i>ChED</i>	<i>CoED</i>	<i>WNID</i>	<i>Century 1 & 2</i>
<i>cup</i>	u	ò, ù	(ù)	u	u	ũ	u
<i>regular</i>	u	ũ	u	ū	ū	ù	ū
<i>foot</i>	ʊ	ɔ, ɔ̃, ʊ	(ɔ̃)	oo	ʊ	ɔ̃	ù
<i>lurk</i>	ér	ẽr, ìr, ûr	(er)	èr	èr	ûr	èr
<i>move</i>	ö	ɔ, ɔ̃, ʊ	(ɔ̃)	õ	ö	õ	ö
<i>that</i>	th	th	(dh)	th	TH	th	ʦH
<i>bank</i>	ŋ	ŋ	(ng)	ng	ng	ng	ng
<i>George</i>	j	j, (d)ġ	(j)	j	j	j	ġ

One of the most noticeable characteristics of the 'respelling system' is one-to-one correspondence between a symbol and a sound. *SEJ* and *MoEJ* mainly use the 'diacritical system' in which the diacritics are put on head-words. In this case, the same vowel or consonant may be represented by different symbols depending on the spelling. For instance, in *SEJ* and *MoEJ*, three different symbols are used to indicate the same vowel: (ɔ) in *move*, (ɔ̃) in *mōon* and (ʊ) in *ryde*. On the other hand, in *IEDJ*, they are all transcribed by the symbol (ö). Both systems have advantages and disadvantages. The 'respelling system' may be simpler and easier for users than the 'diacritical system' in that the number of symbols is smaller.

Table 5 shows that breve symbols are not used for short vowels in *IEDJ*. The symbols (a), (e) and (u) are used in two ways. For example, (u) is pronounced [ʌ] when followed by a consonant within a syllable but is pronounced [ju] when in a syllable-final position. Compare the symbol (u) in *cup* (kup) and *regular* (reg'u-lèr). Table 6 shows that some dictionaries, such as *SEJ*, *MoEJ* and *WNID*, use different symbols for the two vowels. Instead of using different symbols with complicated diacritics, *IEDJ* uses the same symbol for both. *IEDJ* distinguishes the quality of the vowel in terms of the position of the vowel in a syllable. The symbols (à) and (ér)

are also used in two ways: in accented syllables and in unaccented syllables. The effort to reduce the number of symbols and to make them simple can be observed in *IEDJ*.

The predecessors of *IEDJ*, *SEJ* and *MoEJ*, seem to follow the pronunciation represented in American dictionaries. *IEDJ* is believed to have been greatly influenced by *COD* published in 1911 (Nakao *et al.* 1977: 100). Although *IEDJ* does not state the variety of English pronunciation it represents, it is interesting to see whether *IEDJ* adopts some aspects of Received Pronunciation (RP) under the influence of *COD*. Some examples will be examined in the following paragraphs.

As for rhoticity, 'Note on Pronunciation' of *COD* states that the r before a consonant or mute e is not trilled, whereas *IEDJ* does not mention it at all. As for the transcription of so-called 'ask' words, *IEDJ* uses the symbol (à) as in American dictionaries. *WNID* and *Century 1 & 2* use the symbol (à) according to the pronunciation of Eastern New England (ENE). On the other hand, *COD* does not specially give the pronunciation of this group of words as written in its 'Preface.'

Another example is a group of words which are named CLOTH words³⁾ by Wells (1982: 136). The vowels of CLOTH words are currently pronounced the same as the vowel of *thought* in General American (GA) but the same as the vowel of *lot* in RP, ENE and Scottish English. Wells states that the change of vowel quality from *thought* to *lot* in CLOTH words is a twentieth-century development (1982: 234). Table 7 (i) compares the transcription of some CLOTH words among several dictionaries. The description of two vowels, (aw) and (ò), for *loss* and *often* in *COD* reflects the transition period. *IEDJ* almost always consistently uses the symbol (o) for CLOTH words. It agrees with *ChED* and *CoED* which represent Scottish English. One interesting example is the word *laurel*. Its vowel has never been pronounced with the vowel of *thought* in RP (Wells 1982: 136). In fact, *COD* transcribes it (ò). However, *IEDJ* transcribes it (à) as other dictionaries do. The influence of *COD* cannot be observed in this group either.

The transcription of vowels in words such as *morning* and *mourning* is interesting. They are pronounced with different vowels in GA and ENE but pronounced with the same vowel in RP. The two vowels used to be

Table 7

(i) CLOTH words

key word	IEDJ	SEJ	MoEJ	COD	ChED	CoED	WNID	Century1&2
loss	o	ō	ô	(aw, ɔ)	o	o	ô ⁴⁾	ô
often	o	ô, ɔ	ô	(aw, ɔ)	o	o	ô	ô
laurel	â	â	â	ō	aw	â	ô, ɔ	â, o

(ii) morning vs. mourning

key word	IEDJ	SEJ	MoEJ	COD	ChED	CoED	WNID	Century1&2
morning	ōr	ôr	ôr	or	or	or	ôr	ôr
mourning		ōr	ōr	(ōr)	ōr	ōr	ōr	ōr

distinguished in RP but seem to have merged by the end of nineteenth century (Takebayashi 1996: 261). Table 7 (ii) compares the transcription of vowels in *morning* and *mourning* among several dictionaries. Most dictionaries, including *ChED* and *CoED* which represent Scottish English, distinguish the two vowels. Note that *COD*, which represents conservative RP, distinguishes the two vowels as well.⁵⁾ *IEDJ* is the only exception which uses the same symbol for both. The use of (ōr) for both groups in *IEDJ* reflects RP of the beginning of twentieth century.

To conclude, *IEDJ* is not affected by *COD* as far as pronunciation is concerned. The publication of *COD* apparently influenced *IEDJ* in other areas, but not in the area of pronunciation. As regards the transcription of pronunciation and its explanation, *IEDJ* is not necessarily satisfactory. When the phonetic transcription of *IEDJ* and that of *SEJ* and *MoEJ* are compared, it is found that *IEDJ* shows little improvement. *IEDJ* differs from *SEJ* and *MoEJ* in using a smaller number of symbols in its 'respelling system.' Another difference is that *IEDJ* started to use the same symbol (ōr) for vowels in words such as *morning* and *mourning*. It disagrees with the transcription of *COD* but agrees with RP of the beginning of twentieth century. *IEDJ* represents the mixture of American and British pronunciation.

(Section 5 by Sugimoto)

6. Japanese Equivalents

6.1. Microstructure

In the last installment, it was claimed that the overall format of English-Japanese dictionaries had come to be quite similar to that of the present-day English-Japanese dictionaries in the days of the publication of *MoEJ* and *SEJ* (Kokawa *et al.* 2000: 19). This claim can also be verified by taking a look at entries in *IEDJ*, a dictionary published four years after the publication of *MoEJ* and three years after the publication of *SEJ*.

In principle, a major entry in *IEDJ* consists of the following components: (1) a headword, (2) the pronunciation in parentheses, (3) the inflection for irregular forms, (4) the part of speech, (5) subject and usage labels, (6) Japanese equivalents, (7) phrase examples, idioms, set phrases and phrasal verbs, (8) compounds and derivatives, and finally (9) a list of example phrases and sentences.

IEDJ used *kanji* and *hiragana* for its Japanese equivalents, while *SEJ* and *MoEJ* used *kanji* and *katakana* for their Japanese equivalents. Compare:

educate *vt.*

- 養育する; (子供を)仕込む(智的・道徳的の訓練をなす). ● 教育する. ● 馴らす. (*IEDJ*)
- 教育スル, 仕込み [例 *to ~ a child or a bird; to ~ the eye or the taste*]. (*SEJ*)
- 教育ス, 教化ス, 教訓ス, 仕込み; 練(+)ル, 馴(+)ラス. (*MoEJ*)

Compared to *SEJ* and *MoEJ*, *IEDJ* is more similar to the present-day English-Japanese dictionaries, as the present-day English-Japanese dictionaries also use *kanji* and *hiragana* for their Japanese equivalents. *IEDJ* uses *kanji* and *hiragana* when giving Japanese translations for example phrases and sentences, which is also similar to the technique applied in the present lexicography:

tangible *a.*

- 觸知せらるゝ. ● 明確なる, シツカリしたる, 實在的. ● 【法】 感官にて認知し得べき, 實體の. — *tangible distinction*, 確たる區別. — *tangible scheme*, 實行的畫策.

IEDJ, however, uses *katakana* when giving Japanese equivalents to foreign loan words. Compare:

waffle *n.*

ワッフル(一種の菓子). (*IEDJ*)

ワーフル(一種ノ菓子). (*SEJ*)

わっふる[一種の菓子]. (*MoEJ*)

Only *MoEJ* uses *hiragana* to transcribe the word *waffle* in Japanese. It does so to distinguish foreign loan words from Japanese equivalents written in *kanji* and *katakana*. *IEDJ* is also similar to the present-day English-Japanese dictionaries in this respect, for it is conventional to write foreign loan words in *katakana* in the present-day Japanese orthographical system.

One of the outstanding features of *IEDJ* is that it gives abundant examples for many of its entries (cf. 4.2.). This is a remarkable contrast to *MoEJ*, which gives illustrative sentences rather sporadically and unsystematically. All the example phrases and example sentences are accompanied by Japanese translations. This is another noticeable difference from *MoEJ* and *SEJ*.

Sometimes collocations with prepositions are indicated after Japanese translations, but this is done so infrequently and not very systematically (cf. 4.3.). In fact, most of these indications are merely copies from the entries in *COD*. Usage notes are also given every now and then, but most of them are Japanese translations of those in *COD* (cf. 4.3.).

6.2. Use of *furigana*

It was mentioned in the last installment (Kokawa *et al.* 2000: 21) that both *SEJ* and *MoEJ* used *furigana* to indicate pronunciation of words written in *kanji* or Chinese characters. This system is taken over by *IEDJ*; not all *kango* or words written in *kanji* are accompanied by *furigana*, but most *kango* that are difficult to read are presented with *furigana*. The *furigana* are all in *katakana* and are put in square brackets (for explanation of the Japanese orthographical system, see Kokawa *et al.* 1996: 99ff.). Consider the following examples:

eclampsia *n.* 【醫】子癇, 急癇[きつ], 間代搐搦[けんぱく].

tangle *vt.* ● 絡[か]ます(毛髪・絲等を).

walk² *n.* ● 散歩, 徜徉[きょうぎ], 遊山[ユウサン], 遠足, 徐歩[ソウポ], 歩行運動.

Academic terminology, which was often written in *kanji* in those days, is often accompanied by *furigana*. For example, *eclampsia* is a medical term, and the equivalents 急癇 and 搐搦 are presented with the *furigana* [きつ] and [けんぱく], respectively.

The last installment (Kokawa *et al.* 2000: 21) also pointed out that *furigana* sometimes represented loose translations (or *wago* translations) of entry words in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. This practice is taken over in *IEDJ* as well. Japanese equivalents in *kanji* are usually considered to be formal, and their loose translations in *wago* or colloquial Japanese must have been of use for dictionary users who were not familiar with formal *kango* equivalents. Consider the following examples:

earlobe *n.* 耳朶[みみた], 耳垂[みみだり].

tadpole *n.* 蝌斗[かど].

The *furigana* for the two Japanese equivalents of the word *earlobe* are not literal pronunciations of the word but colloquial Japanese words for the body part. Similarly, in the second example, the *kango* translation 蝌斗 is literally pronounced as [kato]. The *furigana* [かど] does not indicate the pronunciation of the *kango* equivalent; rather it is the loose translation or colloquial Japanese translation of the word *tadpole*.

6.3. Sense discrimination and arrangement of Japanese equivalents

6.3.1. Presentation of Japanese equivalents

When an entry word has several different senses, each sense group is demarcated by the Japanese numerals in *IEDJ*. Systematic use of numbers has also been applied in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000: 6.5.), and it is still used in present-day English-Japanese dictionaries.

A brief survey reveals that the sense discrimination and arrangement of sense groups in *IEDJ* are quite similar to those in *COD*. It could be said

that most of the Japanese definitions in *IEDJ* are literal translations of the word definitions in *COD*.

However, when the literal translation might have become lengthy or redundant, *IEDJ* opted for adopting concise Japanese equivalents. In choosing appropriate Japanese equivalents, it seems that *IEDJ* depended heavily on both *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. *IEDJ* typically presents several different equivalents for one sense group of an entry word. This may be because *IEDJ* borrowed the Japanese equivalents from both of the two preceding dictionaries. Consider the word definition in *IEDJ* for the entry word *table*. *COD* provides the following definition: "Article of furniture consisting of flat top of wood or marble &c. & one or more usu. vertical supports esp. one on which meals are laid out, articles of use or ornament kept, work done, or games played; . . ." Instead of translating this definition literally, *IEDJ* selects and adopts concise Japanese equivalents from the equivalents provided for this word in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. *IEDJ* provides seven different equivalents for this sense of the word *table*: テーブル, 卓, 食卓, 檯, 細工檯, 遊戯檯, 仕事檯. Four of these equivalents (卓, 食卓, 檯, 細工檯) are common in both *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. Two of these equivalents (テーブル, 遊戯檯) may be from *MoEJ*. The equivalent 仕事檯 is the only original equivalent found in *IEDJ*. The influence of *SEJ* and *MoEJ* on the Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ* will be discussed in more detail in 6.5.1.

6.3.2. Indication of collocations

6.3.2.1. Indication of selection restriction

IEDJ indicates selection restriction for its entry words, albeit rather unsystematically. This practice is not applied in *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. The information on selection restriction is taken as it is from *COD* and translated into Japanese. The selection restriction is indicated either before or after the Japanese equivalents. Consider the following examples:

eat *vt.*

Masticate & swallow (solid food); swallow (soup); . . . (*COD*)

● 食ふ; 吸ふ(スープ等を). (*IEDJ*)

■ 食フ [例 *to ~ bread*; *to ~ dinner*] (*SEJ*)

● 食(ク)フ, 喰(ク)フ, 喫(ク)ス. (*MoEJ*)

tall *a. & adv.*

(Of person) of more than average height; (of tree, steeple, mast, &c.) higher than the average or than surrounding objects; of specified height, . . . (*COD*)

● (人につき) 脊の高き, 丈高き. ● (樹木・塔・檣等の) 高き; (*IEDJ*)

■ 丈高き [例 *a ~ man, tree, mast, building*; *He is six feet ~*]. (*SEJ*)

● セイノ高(タ)キ, 丈高(タ)キ. (*MoEJ*)

Since the information on selection restriction in *IEDJ* is often a literal translation of that in *COD*, the information in *IEDJ* is usually placed where the information is in *COD*. Thus, in the case of *eat*, (solid food) and (soup) are translated as (スープ等を), and placed after the Japanese equivalents 食ふ and 吸ふ. In the case of *tall*, (Of person) and (of tree, steeple, mast, &c.) are translated as (人につき) and (樹木・塔・檣等の) respectively, and are placed before the Japanese equivalents of each sense group.

Neither *SEJ* nor *MoEJ* indicates the selection restriction for the verb *eat* and the adjective *tall*. *SEJ*, however, provides the two words with examples; thus the dictionary users are able to infer the nouns that may collocate with the verb and the adjective by looking at the examples. *IEDJ* is more convenient than *SEJ* and *MoEJ* in that it indicates the selection restriction explicitly by incorporating the information into its definitions of the entry words.

6.3.2.2. Indication of prepositions

IEDJ is also different from *SEJ* and *MoEJ* in that it presents prepositions that occur with main entry words. *IEDJ* says in the front matter (p. 2) that it provides entry words with prepositions that may accompany them and puts the prepositions or prepositional phrases in double parentheses after the Japanese equivalents. Let's take the word *talent* as an example:

talent *n.*

Special aptitude, faculty, gift, (*for music &c., for doing*; see *Matt.* xxv. 14–30), high mental ability, whence **talented**², **talentless**, aa.; . . . (*COD*)

● 才能, 技倆, 才幹, 手腕, 能力, ((+ *for music, for doing*)) (*IEDJ*)

- 才, 才能 [例 *a ~ for music: a man of great ~*]. (SEJ)
 ● 才(才), 才能(才), 才幹(才), 才器(才*), 技倆(才). (MoEJ)

In this case, *IEDJ* shows that the preposition *for* may follow the word and also shows the possible objects such as *music* and a gerund. As we can see from the above example, this practice of presenting prepositions is adopted from *COD*. The entry of the word *talent* in *IEDJ* is quite similar to that in *COD*, including the indication of the preposition. There are other similar examples, such as *encroach*, *tarry*² (*vi.*), *wait*¹ ●.

Indication of prepositions that regularly collocate with entry words is not consistently done in *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. Thus, *IEDJ* is different from the other two dictionaries in this respect.

6.4. Definition of derivatives

It has been asserted by preceding students that most of the word definitions in *IEDJ* are literal Japanese translations of those in *COD* (see Kojima 1999: 383–85, Nagashima 1996: 199). The practice of providing Japanese equivalents for derivatives of main entry words is not applied in *COD*, but this is also a practice inherited from *SEJ* and *MoEJ* for the benefit of Japanese dictionary users. Derivatives of main entry words are often presented as run-on entry words in *COD*. However, *IEDJ* gives derivatives main entry status and provides them with definitions. This is a different principle taken by *IEDJ*; for *COD* does not give definitions to derivatives, especially in the case of the adverbs produced by the addition of the suffix *-ly* and the nouns derived by the addition of the suffix *-ness*.

Let's take the words *earnestly* and *earnestness* as examples. The adverb *earnestly* is a derivative of the adjective *earnest* and is presented as a main entry word in *IEDJ*. It is accompanied by the Japanese equivalents: 眞面目に, 熱心に, 切に. The noun *earnestness* also seems to be given the main-entry status, and is provided with the Japanese equivalents: 眞面目, 熱心, 本氣. In *COD*, both *earnestly* and *earnestness* are run-on entries of the adjective *earnest*, and neither of them are provided with definitions. Compare:

*earnest*¹ *a. & n.* Serious, zealous, not trifling; ardent (*desire &c.*);

in e., serious(ly), not jesting(ly). Hence **earnestly**² *adv.*, **earnestness** *n.* (*COD*)

earnestly, *ad.* 眞面目に, 熱心に, 切に. **earnestness**, *n.* 眞面目, 熱心, 本氣. (*IEDJ*)

IEDJ follows *SEJ* and *MoEJ* in providing Japanese equivalents to the derivatives, but it does so more consistently than *SEJ* and *MoEJ*.

When providing definitions to derivatives, *IEDJ* seems to have consulted *MoEJ* and *SEJ* in search of appropriate Japanese equivalents. For the word *earnestness*, for example, it appears that *IEDJ* adopted the equivalents from both *SEJ* and *MoEJ*:

earnestness *n.*

眞面目, 熱心, 本氣. (*IEDJ*)

■ 熱心 [例 *to seek or ask with ~*; *to engage in a work with ~*]. ■ 本氣, 眞摯, マジメ [例 *a man of great ~*; *The charge was maintained with much ~*]. (*SEJ*)

● 熱心, 熱誠, 切實. ● 本氣, 眞實, 眞摯, 實儀. (*MoEJ*)

IEDJ presents three Japanese equivalents to the word *earnestness*. Of the three, the first equivalent 眞面目 is also presented in *SEJ*, although there it is written in *katakana*. The second and the third equivalents, 熱心 and 本氣, respectively, appear in both *SEJ* and *MoEJ*.

Needless to say, it is too rash to jump to the conclusion that *IEDJ* depended on *SEJ* and *MoEJ* for its Japanese equivalents based only on the above evidence; for it is difficult to think of any other appropriate Japanese equivalents besides the ones that *IEDJ* presented even without the consultation to the two preceding dictionaries. Sections 6.5.1. and 6.5.2. discuss the influence of *SEJ* and *MoEJ* on the Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ* in more detail.

6.5. Influence of *SEJ* and *MoEJ* on *IEDJ*

6.5.1. The base of Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ*

As mentioned in 6.3.1., *IEDJ* often adopts its Japanese equivalents from both *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. When literal Japanese translation of the definitions in *COD* might have made the definitions in *IEDJ* redundant and unclear,

IEDJ adopted concise Japanese equivalents from the preceding two English-Japanese dictionaries to avoid the situation. Take an example:

tale *n.*

True or usu. fictitious narrative esp. one imaginatively treated, story, as *tell him a t.*, *a true t. of the Crusades*, *old wives' tt.*, *marvellous legendary tt.*, *t. of a tub*, idle fiction, *prefer to tell my own t.* (give my own account of the matter), *thing tells its own t.* (is significant, requires no comment, explains itself); malicious report whether true or false, as *all sorts of tt. will get about*, *tell tt. (out of school)*, report esp. with malicious intention what is meant to be secret, *talebearer*, person who does this, so *talebearing* a. & n.; *taleteller*, one who tells tt. (in either sense); (archaic, rhet., poet.) number, total, as *the t. is complete*, *shepherd tells his t.* (of sheep). (*COD*)

● 話, 物語, 作話. ● 告口, 悪口, 密告. ● 【古・修・詩】 數, 總數. (*IEDJ*)

① 話, 物語 [例 *a fairy*-~]. ② 空談, ワルクチ. ③ 俗間ノ傳説, 荒唐ノ談 [例 *folk*-~]. ④ 計算, (又) 數, 量, 額 [例 *to measure value by* ~]. (*SEJ*)

● 話(タテ), 物語(ワザワザ), 作話(ワザワザ). ● ムダ話. ● 言付口(ワザワザ), 悪口(ワザワザ). ● 十計算(ワザワザ). ● 十數(タテ), 總數(ワザワザ), 高(タテ). (*MoEJ*)

By comparing *IEDJ* and *SEJ*, we can see that *IEDJ* adopted three Japanese equivalents from *SEJ*: 話, 物語, 數; while, as the comparison between *IEDJ* and *MoEJ* shows, *IEDJ* adopted six Japanese equivalents from *MoEJ*: 話, 物語, 作話, 悪口, 數, 總數. It seems that *IEDJ* tends to adopt more Japanese equivalents from *MoEJ* than it does from *SEJ*. Examples besides the one presented above are: *earth*¹ (*n.*), *ease*¹ (*n.*), *eccentric* (*a.*), *echo*² (*n.*), *economic* (*a.*); *tabard* (*n.*), *tabernacle* (*n.*), *table* (*n.*), *tablet* (*n.*), *taboo* (*n.*); *waddle* (*vi.*), *wager* (*n.*), *waft* (*vt.*), *wage*¹ (*n.*) and *wail* (*vi.*).

Nagashima (1996: 196) points out that Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ* are based on *MoEJ*. To illustrate his point he gives examples such as *act* (*n.*), *adaptation*, *analogy*, *control* (*n.*), *perception*, *universality* and *validity*. He continues that *IEDJ* can be considered a revised version of *MoEJ* in terms of its Japanese equivalents. He even speculates that Inouye had the commercial intention of superseding *MoEJ*, the most popular English-Japanese dictionary of the time. He supports his speculation by asserting that

the publishers of *The New Standard English-Japanese Dictionary*, the revised version of *MoEJ* published in 1919, wanted to recapture the market share that had been lost due to the publication of *IEDJ* (*ibid.*).

6.5.2. Definitions of run-on entries in *IEDJ*

As discussed in 6.4., *IEDJ* provides the derivatives of its main entry words with definitions. When presenting the definitions, *IEDJ* often adopted Japanese equivalents from *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. What is remarkable is that *IEDJ* presents Japanese equivalents to the derivatives even when *SEJ* and *MoEJ* do not. The provision of Japanese equivalents to derivatives is consistent in *IEDJ*, and the principle is similar to the one taken by some of the present-day English-Japanese dictionaries.

Let us take the entry of the noun *tact* in *IEDJ* as an example:

tact *n.*

● 分別, 頓知, 氣轉, 手練[タテ], 敏捷, 如才なきこと, 巧妙. ● 【音】 拍節. **tactful**, *a.* 感覺ある, 分別ある, 頓智ある, 手練ある, 如才なき, 巧なる. **tactfully**, *ad.* 感覺上, 分別を出して, 頓智にて, 手練を以て, 巧に.

In this entry, the two words *tactful* and *tactfully* are presented as derivatives of the noun. If we refer to *COD*, both the adjective and the adverb are included in the entry for the noun *tact* as is done in *IEDJ*. However, *COD* provides no definition for them, as run-on entry words are not provided with definitions in this dictionary. *IEDJ* does provide the derivatives *tactful* and *tactfully* with appropriate Japanese equivalents, 感覺ある, 分別ある, 頓智ある, 手練ある, 如才なき, 巧なる and 感覺上, 分別を出して, 頓智にて, 手練を以て, 巧に, respectively. These Japanese equivalents are not adopted from *SEJ* or *MoEJ*. These two dictionaries do not include the two derivatives in their entries for *tact*, nor do they include them as main entry words. The consistent provision of the Japanese equivalents to all of the run-on entries seems to have made *IEDJ* more user-friendly than the other dictionaries. It became similar to the present-day English-Japanese dictionaries in this respect.

6.5.3. Style of Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ*

Although Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ* are often based on *MoEJ*, their style is rather different. Specifically, they are not as colloquial as the ones in *MoEJ*:

echo² *n.*

- Repetition of sound by reflexion of sound-waves. (*COD*)
 ● 反響, 山彦, 木霊[マユ]. (*IEDJ*)
 ● 反響(マユ), 山彦(マユ), 應聲, 回聲, コダマ. (*MoEJ*)

Comparing *IEDJ* and *MoEJ*, we notice that the Japanese equivalents 反響 and 山彦 in *MoEJ* are presented with *furigana* while in *IEDJ* they are not. The Japanese equivalent 木霊 is also written in *kanji* in *IEDJ*, while it is written in *katakana* and sounds more colloquial in *MoEJ*.

It was pointed out in the last installment (Kokawa *et al.* 2000: 21ff.) that *MoEJ* used abundant *furigana* for the convenience of dictionary users. The author of *IEDJ*, however, seems to have had more advanced learners of English in mind when he compiled the dictionary and spared the use of *furigana*, taking for granted that the dictionary users would be able to read and understand the Japanese equivalents provided in the dictionary without the help of *furigana*. Compare the Japanese equivalents given in *IEDJ* and *MoEJ* for the noun *want*¹. Seven out of the thirteen Japanese equivalents provided in *IEDJ* are the same with those in *MoEJ*: 缺乏, 不自由, 不足, 貧乏, 慾望, 需要, 要求. Nine out of the ten Japanese equivalents in *MoEJ* are with *furigana*, while none of the Japanese equivalents in *IEDJ* are accompanied by *furigana*:

want¹ *n.*

- 缺乏, 無きこと, 不足. ● 必要, 不自由, 窮すること, 貧乏 (+ *of*).
 ● 慾望, 需要, 要求. ● 慾望される物品, 需要される物. ● 【蘇・方】
 智力缺乏. (*IEDJ*)
 ● 缺乏(マユ), 不自由(マユ), 不足(マユ). ● 困窮(マユ), 貧乏(マユ). ● 缺乏物,
 必要(マユ)物. ● 慾望(マユ), 需要(マユ), 要求(マユ). (*MoEJ*)

6.5.4. Description of function words in *IEDJ*

The entries of function words in *IEDJ* are mostly literally translated into Japanese from those in *COD*. The number and the ordering of sense

groups in the entries for function words in both dictionaries are often quite similar. Let us take the preposition *of* as an example. The entry for the preposition *of* is divided into eight sense groups in *COD*, and each sense group has its counterpart in the entry for the preposition *of* in *IEDJ*. Moreover, the sense groups in *IEDJ* are in exactly the same order as those in *COD*:

of prep.

- ... 1. Removal, separation, point of departure, privation ...; 2. origin, derivation, cause, agency, authorship ...; 3. material, substance, closer definition, identity ...; 4. concern, reference, direction, respect ...; 5. objective relation ...; 6. description, quality, condition ...; 7. partition, classification, inclusion, selection ...; 8. belonging, connexion, possession ...¹⁾ (*COD*)
 ● を, より, から, (除去・分離・剝奪・出發點等を表はすとき). ● より, によりて, の爲に, に含まれて, にて, で, に, の, (起原・由來・原因・動機等を表はすとき). ● の, より成る, を含める, にて作れる, と云ふ, てふ, なる, (原料・材料・一層狹義の定限・同一等を示すとき). ● に就いて, に関して, を, にも, に於いて, (利害・配慮・關係・方向等を表はすとき). ● の, を, (目的を示すとき). ● ある, を有する, なる, の, (種類・性質・状態を表はすとき). ● の, のうちの, のうちより, 分けとりて, (分割・區分・分類・包括・選擇等を表はすとき). ● の, に屬する, に関する, (附屬・關係・所有を表はすとき). (*IEDJ*)

The example above clearly shows that the author of *IEDJ* literally translated the entry for the preposition *of* in *COD* into Japanese and rendered it as the entry for the preposition *of* in *IEDJ*. In each sense group, Inouye first presents the possible Japanese equivalents, and then summarizes the meanings of the equivalents in the parentheses. This summary of the meanings is the translation of the definitions in *COD*.

The entry for the prefix *for-* in *IEDJ* shows that even the usage note for the entry in *IEDJ* is the exact translation of that given in the entry for the prefix *for-* in *COD*:

for- *pref.*

formerly very common, but remaining only in dozen common words. Meanings: (1) away, off, apart, (*forby, forget, forgive*); (2) prohibition (*forbid, forfend*); (3) abstention, neglect, (*forbear, forgo, forsake, forswear*); (4) bad effect (*fordo*); (5) excess, intensity, (*forlorn, forpine, forworn*). (COD)

元数多ありしも今普通語にては十二位なり。●「離る、去る、別れる」の意(例. *forby, forget, forgive*). ●「禁止」の意(例. *forbid, forfend*). ●「否定」の意(例. *forbear, forgo, forsake, forswear*). ●「悪結果」の意(例. *fordo*). ●「過度」の意(例. *forlorn, forpine*). (IEDJ)

We can see that the usage note in COD (formerly very common, but remaining only in some dozen common words) is literally translated into Japanese in IEDJ as 元数多ありしも今普通語にては十二位なり. It is also worth mentioning that the illustrative words in IEDJ are mostly the same as the ones given in COD. Other examples are *in* (*prep.*), *to* (*prep.*) and *with* (*prep.*). Regarding *in* (*prep.*), the equivalents are not the exact translations of those in COD, but the examples are mostly taken from COD.

There are, however, some function words whose entry descriptions are quite different from those in COD. Let us compare the entries for the adverb *in* of IEDJ, SEJ and COD:

in² *ad.*

expr. Position bounded by certain limits or motion to a point enclosed by them, as: *come i.*, *send him i.*, *walk i.*, (into house, enclosed ground, &c.), *put a notice i.* (into a paper), *lock him i.*, *he is i.* (the house &c., exp. = at home); *i. with it*, put, take, it i.; *throw i. the harness* (to the bargain, in addition); *a coat with the woolly side i.* (nearest the body); *the Liberals were i.* (office); (Crick.) *before he had been i.* (batting) *five minutes*; *keep the fire i.* (burning); *train, boat, summer, is i.* (arrived); (with trans.vbs) *burn, cut, rub*, (thing) *i.* (so as to penetrate into another), *hem, cover, wall*, (thing) *i.* (so as to enclose it); *i. for*, involved in, committed to, (usu. something unpleasant, esp. *it*), also, engaged in competition for (race, prize, &c.); *be, keep, i.* (on friendly terms) *with*; *breed i. & i.* (repeatedly within same stock); *i. & out*, now i., now out. (COD)

●(ある制限或は運動の)内へ、中へ。●在宅にて、近く。●【俗】その上に。●【航】(帆を)上げて、収めて、... (IEDJ)

① 中ニ、内ニ。② 在宅ニテ、近ク [例 *The lady is ~; a vessel sailing ~ with the land*]. ③ (俗)其外ニ、其上ニ [例 *He found himself five dollars ~*]. ④ (航)捲キ上ゲテ、捲キ取メテ [例 *The sails are ~*]. ⑤ (法)権利ヲ有シテ、占有シテ [例 *~ by descent; ~ by purchase*]. (SEJ)

Comparing the entries above, clearly the entry of IEDJ is not a translation of the entry in COD. The Japanese equivalents used in the entry for the adverb in IEDJ are quite similar to those used in SEJ, and it is also noticeable that the usage label used in SEJ (俗) (which means *slang*) is also used in IEDJ. The similar definition and the common use of the same usage label suggest that IEDJ referred to SEJ when the entry for the function word was written. Other function words with definitions similar to those given in SEJ are *by* (*adv.*), *for* (*conj.*) and *from* (*conj.*). The author of IEDJ may have been persuaded to use SEJ as a reference when writing his entries for function words because SEJ was known for its detailed grammatical descriptions of entry words (for further detail, refer to the last installment Kokawa *et al.* 2000). Regarding the entries for function words in particular, the descriptions in SEJ were more accurate than those given in MoEJ.

6.6. Japanese equivalents of technical terms

As noted in section 4, IEDJ includes a large number of technical terms — especially those in the field of science — among its entry words. This may originate from Inouye's intention around the time of publication of the dictionary: to encourage Japanese youth to read more scientific books written in English for general readers from the West. He believed that reading scientific books in English would help Japanese youth not only learn practical English, but also acquire common sense (cf. 4.1).

6.6.1. The sample data

The first 100 main entry words for the letters E, T and W were taken as sample data to examine the technical terms in IEDJ. The words in the sample were compared with the entry words in COD, and those that were found in IEDJ but not in COD were considered entry words that Inouye chose to include without referring to COD, the dictionary upon which

IEDJ was mainly based.

There are 35 main entry words in the sample data from the letter E that cannot be found in *COD*. Among these 35 words, there are 14 words that have subject labels attached. These words can be considered technical terms of designated fields. Close observation reveals that there are 4 words that have the label 【植】 (botany) attached, and this was the largest number of words in any one designated field among the sample data. These 4 botanical words are followed by the 3 words that have the label 【動】 (zoology) attached.

Words labeled with either 【植】 or 【動】 are consistently large in number in *IEDJ* (cf. 4.1.3.). Under the letter T, there are 14 words that are in *IEDJ* but not in *COD*. There are 5 words that have subject labels attached, and 3 of them have the subject label 【動】. For W, there are 16 words that are included in *IEDJ* but not found among the entry words in *COD*. Of these 16 words, there are 6 words that have subject labels attached, and of these 6 words, 2 words have the label 【植】 and one has the label 【動】. What is interesting is that the rest have the labels 【鳥】 (bird), 【蛾】 (moth) and 【蝶】 (butterfly). Even though the latter three do not have the labels 【植】 or 【動】, they do carry the labels that belong to the scientific field.

Looking at the sample words that are included in *IEDJ* but not found in *COD*, the percentage of the words that have subject labels attached among those words is around 40% in all of the sample letters.²⁾ This indicates that Inouye may have made an effort to include many technical words in *IEDJ*.

It is interesting to consider what Inouye referred to when he gave Japanese equivalents to those technical terms. One possibility is that he adopted the same equivalent that *SEJ* and *MoEJ* used. It must have been a reasonable decision, for *MoEJ* itself was considered to be an encyclopedic dictionary (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000) and contained a large number of encyclopedic items among its entry words. If we take the main entry word *Echinoidea* as an example, *IEDJ* adopts the same equivalent that *MoEJ* gives:

Echinoidea n.

【動】海膽[?]類(學名). (*IEDJ*)
 (動)海膽屬. (*SEJ*)

【動】海膽類. (*MoEJ*)

6.6.2. Technical terms found only in *IEDJ*

There are, however, some technical terms that are found in neither *SEJ* nor *MoEJ*. In the sample data for the letter E, there are 35 main entry words that are included in *IEDJ* but not in *COD*. Among these 35 words, there are 14 words that have subject labels attached. Among these 14 words, 9 words are nowhere to be found in *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. It is interesting to search for the source of the Japanese equivalents of those words, but it is very difficult to ascertain what Inouye referred to while choosing the Japanese equivalents for those technical terms. In the sample data for the letter T, there are 14 main entry words that are in *IEDJ* but not in *COD*. Among these 14 words, there are 5 words that have subject labels attached. Four out of the 5 main entry words that have subject labels attached do not appear in *SEJ* or *MoEJ*. In the sample data for the letter W, there are 16 words that are in *IEDJ* but not in *COD*. Among these 16 words, there are 6 words that have subject labels attached. Four out of these 6 words do not appear in *SEJ* or *MoEJ*. From this we can surmise that most technical terms in *IEDJ* were taken from sources other than *SEJ* and *MoEJ*.

The possibility that Inouye used other reference books besides *SEJ* and *MoEJ* is supported by the sample main entry words in the data. In fact, there is a possibility that Inouye used *TJ3* as a reference while compiling *IEDJ*. *TJ3* was published three years before the publication of *IEDJ* and it must have been one of the most well-known dictionaries of technical terms of the time. It is reasonable to assume that the author of *IEDJ* may have referred to *TJ3* while compiling his dictionary.

There are two pieces of evidences in the sample data that support the possibility that Inouye used *TJ3* when giving Japanese equivalents to technical terms in *IEDJ*. The first can be seen in the entry of the word *tabes*:

tabes n.

【醫】羸削[?]，削衰，勞瘵[?]，脊髓勞. (*IEDJ*)
 (醫)全身羸瘦，消削，勞症. (*SEJ*)
 【醫】羸削(羸)，消削(削)，勞瘵(瘵). (*MoEJ*)

By comparing the Japanese equivalents in the three dictionaries, we notice that *IEDJ* adopted the Japanese equivalents from *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. What is interesting, however, is the last Japanese equivalent in *IEDJ*. The Japanese word 脊髄勞 means *tabes dorsalis* or locomotor ataxia. The Japanese equivalent for the word *tabes* is 勞; therefore, it is not precise to give the equivalent 脊髄勞 to *tabes*. In fact, *COD* gives the illustrative phrase *dorsal t.* followed by the description of the symptom of the disease in the entry of *tabes*. *IEDJ*, however, does not give this compound word as an example. It is *TJ3* that gives the Japanese word 脊髄勞 as the equivalent of the word *tabes*:

Tabes (Lat. *tabere*, to waste away; Ger. *Tabes*; Fr. *tabes*) 脊髄勞, (*TJ3*)

IEDJ may have referred to *TJ3* when giving Japanese equivalents to its technical terms and adopted the word 脊髄勞 as the Japanese equivalent of *tabes* without realizing the inappropriateness of the equivalent.

The other example is the entry word *wage-fund*. This word cannot be found in *SEJ* or *MoEJ*. *IEDJ* gives the Japanese equivalent 勞銀基金 to this compound word. *TJ3* does not have *wage-fund* as its entry word but has *wage-fund theory* as its main entry word. To *wage-fund theory*, *TJ3* gives the Japanese equivalent 勞銀基金說. Since Japanese word 說 corresponds to the word *theory*, 勞銀基金 corresponds to the word *wage-fund*. It may be inferred that the author of *IEDJ* looked up the word *wage-fund* in *TJ3* and used the equivalent in *TJ3* for his dictionary.

There are many other entry words in *IEDJ* that have the same Japanese equivalents found in *TJ3*. For example, *economics* (*n.*), *edict* (*n.*), *education* (*n.*), *effeminacy* (*n.*); *tact* (*n.*), *talent* (*n.*), *Taoism* (*n.*), *taste* (*n.*); *wage*¹ (*n.*), *want*¹ (*n.*). However, we cannot make the rash speculation that *IEDJ* depended heavily on *TJ3* when giving Japanese equivalents to those entry words, for those Japanese equivalents are also used in *MoEJ*. It seems more likely that *IEDJ* used *MoEJ* as the primary source when giving Japanese equivalents to technical terms. In this case, *TJ3* would probably have been used as the supplement; that is, Inouye might have referred to *TJ3* when he couldn't find appropriate Japanese equivalents in *MoEJ* or

SEJ.

6.7. Summary

IEDJ was a dictionary compiled for advanced learners of English. Therefore, it did not use as much furigana as the other dictionaries, *SEJ* and *MoEJ*. The style of its Japanese equivalents was not excessively colloquial compared to the style of *MoEJ*.

IEDJ provided its entry words with collocational information. It indicated grammatically compatible objects to verbs, for example. It also presented prepositions that could collocate with the entry words. The information was mostly translation of the information in *COD*, but it must have been of use for the Japanese users of the dictionary.

IEDJ was heavily dependent on *COD* when giving definitions to its entry words, including function words. Many definitions in *IEDJ* were Japanese translations of the definitions in *COD*. *IEDJ* was also based on *SEJ* and *MoEJ* in terms of its Japanese equivalents; *IEDJ* often adopted Japanese equivalents that were used in *SEJ* and *MoEJ*.

Derivatives of main entry words in *IEDJ* were provided with Japanese equivalents. *SEJ* and *MoEJ* also gave Japanese equivalents to derivatives, but the practice was done more consistently in *IEDJ*.

IEDJ included a large number of technical terms — especially in the field of science — as its entry words. This may have been due to the author's intention to encourage the Japanese youth of the time to read more scientific reading material, not only to improve their English, but also to obtain basic knowledge of science. When giving Japanese equivalents to those technical terms, *IEDJ* seems to have used not only *SEJ* and *MoEJ*, but also *TJ3*, an authorized dictionary of technical terms of the time.

In short, *IEDJ* can be considered a Japanese translation of *COD* with some improvements for the benefit of Japanese dictionary users.

(Sections 6.1–6.5.3 by Takahashi, Section 6.5.4 by Takahashi and Tominaga, Sections 6.6–6.7 by Takahashi)

7. Labels

A brief survey of *COD* and *IEDJ* shows that the latter includes far more

labels, many of which are not found in the former (and it should be added that *COD* does not always show the labels in *OED*) (cf. 6.6.). It should be noted that *MoEJ* and *SEJ* before *IEDJ* was issued give a large number of labels in the front matter, which is apparently considered to have had more influence on *IEDJ* (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000: Section 6.4). The fact that *IEDJ* tries to include a lot of encyclopedic entries (cf. 4.1.) naturally led the editor to employ more labels in his dictionary. *MoEJ* includes 62 specialized subject field labels and seven labels related to frequency, currency or style, while *IEDJ* has 68 subject field labels and 22 labels related to region, currency or style. Three fourths of the field labels in *IEDJ* (51 out of 68) coincide with those in *MoEJ*, and 41 out of 68 labels are the same as those in *SEJ*. The evidence reveals that the editor was more conscious of the field labels in *MoEJ* rather than those in *SEJ*.¹⁾ It should be noted that the labels related to field, currency or style follow those of *SEJ*, because 15 out of 22 coincide. *IEDJ* also includes seven labels that are found in neither of the two dictionaries: five of them are found in one or more than one of the five concise dictionaries, such as 〔希〕 (Greek), 〔西〕 (Spanish), 〔詩〕 (poetic), 〔修〕 (rhetorical), and 〔諧〕 (jocular). Two special labels found nowhere else are also to be found: one is 〔小兒〕 (children) which is in fact shown in *COD* in a form of (used by children) in some entries' definitions, like *papa*, and *mama*, and the other is 〔奧〕 (Austria), but this writer is rather doubtful whether the latter is really used in the text. The above facts have led this writer to conclude that the labels in the front matter in *IEDJ* could be said to have been under the strong influence of the two dictionaries in appearance, but the survey shows that in reality they are mainly shown based on the description in the text of *COD*. It should be added that some labels in *IEDJ* include specific fields, such as 〔獵〕 (hunting) or 〔蝶〕 (butterfly).

A brief survey shows that Inouye's dictionary even contains some labels that are not referred to in the front matter: at least 30 kinds can be easily found. Some are shown in parentheses in the definition in *COD*: *gulf* 〔大學・俗〕 (University slang), *hard*^d 〔聲音〕 (Phonetics), *hipe* (*vt.*) 〔相撲〕 (wrestling), and *morbidezza* 〔繪畫〕 (painting), for example. Some are given by referring to the definition or etymology: *gulf* 〔聖書〕 (*Luke* xvi.26),

Mahabharata 〔梵〕 [Skr.], *mannerism* 〔文藝〕 (art or literature), and *matin* 〔英國國教〕 (Church of England). There are some usage labels that are taken from other dictionaries: *absquatulate* 〔米俗〕 (American slang), which is considered to have been taken from *N Standard*, and (in the entry of *happen*) *happen* in with 〔俗〕 (slang) taken from *WNID* or *N Standard*, in both of which the expression is labeled (colloquial). There is a difference between *COD* and *IEDJ*: some labels are given only in *COD*; in *abscission* (*surg.*), *absolutism* (Theol.), *abutter* (law), *acaulose* (bot.), and *accelerated* (physics), while some are given only in *IEDJ*; in *abscess* 〔醫〕 (medicine), *absciss(e)* 〔數〕 (mathematics), *absinth(e)* 〔植〕 (botany), *absolution* 〔法〕 (law), *hamite*² 〔地質〕 (geology), *haugh* 〔蘇〕 (Scottish), *maltworm* 〔諧〕 (jocular or humorous), and *mangy* 〔俗〕 (slang). The labels of some entries that are not given in *COD* are supplied by the editor by reference to the concise dictionaries or some other sources: *malevolent* 〔占星〕 (astrology) (from *SSD*), *manes* 〔古羅馬〕 (old Roman) (from *MDEL*), *merculialize* 〔寫〕 (photography) (from *CoED*), and *merlon* 〔築城〕 (fortification) (from *CoED* or *ChED*) can be identified, but not in the entries like *hairlead* 〔印刷〕 (printing) and *half=butt* 〔球突〕 (billiards). Some are labeled 〔米〕 (US): (in the entry *handle*) *to fly off* [at] the *handle*, *to go off* the *handle* and (in the entry *happen*) *happen* in, the source of which has not been identified. (Curiously enough, the advertisement of the dictionary says that it avoids Americanisms.) Note also that there is a difference of translation of labels in the text, such as slang, colloquial, and popular, which are sometimes given different translations from the present-day usage of English-Japanese dictionaries as they are so confusing.

The facts clearly show that the editor tries in every way to include more encyclopedic information with labels attached in the entries, which is in accordance with his principle of giving additional entries that are not given in *COD*. But the labels in the dictionary do not necessarily correspond with or include those in *COD* and it is not clear whether he really recognized the usefulness of labels to users. It is not clear either whether he succeeded in making them useful for students or readers, but in principle he endeavors to give a large number of labels in *COD*, with the result that he often ignores the labels given in the front matter in *IEDJ*, and caused

them to be inconsistent and ad hoc.

(Section 7 by Dohi)

8. Cultural Information and Miscellaneous Matter

There is a prominent feature in *IEDJ*: giving encyclopedic, cultural or factual explanations in some entries. This is considered to have been given by the editor based on the description in *COD*. It is true that some explanations in the dictionary are built on *COD*: *bell*¹ (*bell, book & candle*), *cabal* (*the Cabal*), *city* (*City Company*) and *comedy* (*Old, Middle, New Comedy*), for instance. In many entries he gives cultural descriptions or explains what they are, which is not at all given in *COD*. For example, in the entry *blue*², it refers to the distinction of dark blue and light blue, in association with Oxford University and Cambridge University, and Eton College and Harrow School (note that *Eton* is included, but *Harrow* is not, in *IEDJ*). Let some of such entries be listed: *admiralty* (on Admiralty in Britain), *agnomen*, *army* (on Army Council), *Ave Maria*, *canon* (in connection with the Church of England), *chapel* (on the kinds of chapel in the Church of England), *chemist* (on the difference between chemist-and-druggist), *Chiltern Hundreds*, *college* (in comparison with university), *dinner* (in comparison with supper), *earl*, *fellow* (in education), and *public* (on public school). Some of the descriptions, like *Ave Maria*, *chapel* and *Chiltern Hundreds*, might have been based on references with encyclopedic information, such as *Century* or (*N*) *Standard*, along with his life abroad. Information is given on not only education or educational institutions but also many other aspects of life, such as the armed forces and religion. Some entries even include information on the USA: *cool*³ (on the expression cooling period) and *department* (on the difference from *office* in British English), for example. This is considered to have been very instructive in a dictionary with many encyclopedic entries. Compared with *MoEJ* which only gives translation equivalents (though filled with illustrations), *IEDJ* endeavors to give as many entries of such kind as possible. Inoue thought it necessary to give an explanation for learners in some entries, especially those related to life abroad (and, probably, to be superior to its competitor *MoEJ*). As a result, the dictionary came to include detailed description on

culture or life in Western countries, especially Great Britain (or the USA). This fact has led this writer to say that the editor endeavors to make his dictionary filled with cultural or factual information, which is not necessarily given in *COD* or *MoEJ* either. This seems to have been one of the reasons the dictionary became very popular. In this respect, the dictionary could be partially called a dictionary of culture and up-to-date information.

IEDJ is not consistent in its treatment of connotation of words, which is partially treated in *COD* and plays a prominent role in *POD*. This is pointed out by Fukuhara (1949: 111–21), who gives the example of *dog* in *POD*: “quadruped of various breeds allied to wolf & fox, noted for serviceableness to man in hunting, shepherding, guarding, & companionship, & for antipathy to cats (female, *bitch*; young, *puppy*, *whelp*; set of puppies, *litter*; sounds, *bay*, *bark*, *howl*, *whine*, *yelp*, *yap*, *snarl*, *growl*; bear young, *whelp*, *pup*, *litter*; cf. *kennel*, *bow-wow*; adj., *canine* . . .).” (Compare the definition with *COD*’s “quadruped of many breeds wild & domesticated,” or that in *COD* 10 (1999) “a domesticated carnivorous mammal probably descended from the wolf, with a barking or howling voice, an acute sense of smell, and non-retractile claws.”) *Phoenix* is an example given in *COD* (Kunihiro 1960: 17–18): (Myth.) “bird, the only one of its kind, that after living five or six centuries in Arabian desert burnt itself on funeral pile & rose from the ashes with renewed youth to live through another cycle.” (Compare this definition with *POD*’s: “bird fabled to burn itself on a pyre & rise renewed from the ashes.”) For foreign learners, such information is important in recognizing the words in the culture they are used. *IEDJ* sometimes follows and gives a literal translation in Japanese in some entries, such as those related to animals or zoology; *chameleon*, *halcyon*, *Newfoundland*, while it does not in others: *crocodile* (in the expression of crocodile tears), *mongoose*, *mushroom*, *ostrich*, *pelican*, *scorpion*, *swallow*³, *swan*, and *turtle*¹ (*dove*). This means that the editor thinks that only translation equivalents should be given, and does not think it is very important to give associative or connotative explanation as part of the word. Whether he was conscious of this or not, the dictionary, under the strong influence of *COD*, is the first dictionary that partially gives such connota-

tive meanings in translation, more of which will be found in later dictionaries.¹⁾

The worst or the most unreasonable thing in *IEDJ* is that it does not show encyclopedic matter in pictures or illustrations. *MoEJ* includes far more pictures in the text as if it were partly a picture dictionary. The reason *IEDJ* has no pictures is because it is more influenced by *COD* than by *MoEJ*. *COD* is a dictionary for native speakers, and not for foreign students. Even if native speakers understand encyclopedic entries by reading the definitions (but this writer suspects that it is quite doubtful whether such really is always the case), it does not guarantee that foreign students also understand only by reading the translation equivalents, especially in cases of technical terms or culture-specific vocabulary. The editor should have been more conscious of the two preceding dictionaries in the way of dealing with encyclopedic matter, especially *MoEJ*. Or possibly no picture is given because the editor tries to include more entries rather than seemingly redundant and space-consuming illustrations. He ignores the assumption that the more encyclopedic a dictionary is, the more difficult it could be for general users or students to understand or recognize the entries defined only in words.

IEDJ has no cross reference marker, such as an index marker, while one is given in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. This means that the editor does not think highly of the system, though are included so many entries with no information given or with equal signs, in which users have to take the trouble to refer to another entry or other entries again.

(Section 8 by Dohi)

9. Conclusion

The advertisement in *IECJ* gives several special features of *IEDJ* as the very dictionary of dictionaries: ① a large number of entries, ② clear or unambiguous translation equivalents, ③ an abundance of examples, ④ detailed explanation, ⑤ a number of idioms or set phrases, ⑥ explanation of technical terms, ⑦ new words, ⑧ correct pronunciation, ⑨ user friendliness for retrieval of information, ⑩ skillful editing, ⑪ clear printing, and ⑫ good bookbinding. Here the brief evaluation is given as our conclusive

remark based on the survey. With regard to the number of entries, it is undoubtedly clear that the dictionary includes most of the entries of *COD* and also tries to include more entries, especially encyclopedic matter, some of which are overly technical. It could be safely said that the editor endeavors to give many translation equivalents, depending more on *MoEJ* than on *SEJ*, including those of technical terms. *IEDJ* often uses formal written Japanese equivalents, sparing the use of *furigana*, whereas *MoEJ* often uses rather colloquial ones. A number of examples are directly or indirectly taken or imitated from the examples in *COD*, and additional examples are also shown, and it is particularly remarkable that many encyclopedic examples are also included. As for the detailed explanation, the dictionary is considered to have been very useful for users not accustomed to life in foreign countries, especially in Britain or the United States, though the explanations are said to be given inconsistently or subjectively. With regard to idioms or set phrases, the dictionary includes most of the idioms and set phrases in *COD* as well as those taken from other sources of reference. But it is doubtful whether the dictionary gives a detailed explanation of technical terms, though it is partly a dictionary of technical terms. What does it mean by the expression 'new words'? When they are meant to be those entries that are not included in *MoEJ*, *SEJ* and other preceding dictionaries available at that time, it surely includes words that are found in neither *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, some concise dictionaries, *Century*, *N Standard* nor *WNID*. With regard to pronunciation, *IEDJ* is not so much influenced by *COD*. It mainly represents American pronunciation but also incorporates an aspect of British pronunciation. What does the expression 'user-friendly or user-friendliness' mean? In terms of the alphabetical arrangement, the dictionary is partly user-friendly, but not always so, as is mentioned in section 4. This writer is not sure what is meant by the term 'skillful editing'. When it means that the dictionary uses space economically, it is not the first example, but in terms of the fact that it could be considered to be a Japanese translation edition of *COD*, *IEDJ* is skillfully edited as it adapted the difficult concise dictionary for use by Japanese learners. The dictionary probably had a clear printing for a few or even several years after it was issued, but it is not certain whether later editions

or impressions were clearly printed, as it was so often reprinted. The dictionary did not wear well long in spite of the phrase 'good bookbinding'. It is interesting to find that not only contents but also other aspects in dictionary compilation are mentioned as selling points.

Reading some essays by a few students or scholars of English such as Fukuhara (1949) has made us realize that *IEDJ* was one of the three most popularly known dictionaries in the Taisho era. *MoEJ* is said to be an encyclopedic dictionary and compiled by collaboration of many scholars especially in technical terms, while *SEJ* is more usage-oriented and compiled by one great man's labor. The two dictionaries surely had an effect on the compilation of *IEDJ*. The survey of a small part of the dictionary shows that it endeavors to be superior to both dictionaries: it tries to be both encyclopedic and usage-oriented. The editor could not possibly ignore the two dictionaries, especially *MoEJ*. He was fortunate enough to obtain and make use of the British dictionary for native users, *COD*. *COD* gives mainly lexical entries with detailed definition that is very difficult to decode correctly, as well as compounds or hyphenated words, and derivatives. It is also filled with usage information with illustrative examples as well as common phrases and idiomatic expressions. It was considered to be the ideal dictionary by the editor.

But the editor was not satisfied with the information given in *COD*, and he tries to give more entries and information as well as encyclopedic and practical matter, partly because he was at the forefront of the study of English and thought it necessary to give worldly information since he worked for the Foreign Office while he was compiling his dictionary. In spite of the fact that he was not necessarily happy with the fame he won because of compiling some best-selling dictionaries for Japanese users (Omura 1967: 143), his experience of studying abroad, teaching at colleges or universities and working as a journalist or writer in an English newspaper and for the government all surely contributed to his practical compilation of dictionaries. His acquired sense of the English language as well as his practical knowledge of the world seems to have made the dictionary popular and well received among users in Japan.

To sum up, *IEDJ* is a dictionary that includes lexical information under

the strong influence of *COD* and encyclopedic information. The dictionary is full of technical or special terms, surpassing *MoEJ*. It is a dictionary abundant in concrete phrase and sentence examples, as well as encyclopedic phrases. It could be seen as a trailblazing dictionary of language and culture, complete with up-to-date and factual information. It could also be said that it started to be compiled as a learners' dictionary, ending up as a sort of a jack-of-all-trades dictionary, especially in technical terms.

COD is no easy dictionary for non-native users to decode correctly. Its information is given in the condensed, telegraphese style, and it is not clear how many Japanese users became acquainted with it. *IEDJ*, which may be called a dictionary that literally translated the text of *COD* (cf. Nagashima 1991: 3115) and was well adapted for Japanese users, is a very convenient and useful dictionary. This conversely means that *COD* is a superior dictionary though it is quite difficult for ordinary users to make a proper reference. In a historical perspective, *MoEJ* would continue to be a dictionary full of encyclopedic entries. *IEDJ* and another influential dictionary *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten (Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary)* would change the course of dictionary compilation in Japan, because both dictionaries made good use of *COD*, which is lexical-oriented rather than encyclopedic. Dictionaries issued later than 1915 would follow or imitate the method of making use of the British references, such as *COD* and *POD* as well as the great *OED*. In the historical development of lexicography of English-Japanese dictionaries, 1911 is the memorable year *COD* was issued, and 1915 is regarded as the starting point of the new period of lexicography. Since then, lexicography in Japan has been, and still is, undoubtedly under the strong influence of British dictionaries.

Notes

Section 1

- 1) The original title is given in parentheses, and the translated title in square brackets.
- 2) For abbreviations of the dictionaries referred to in this installment, see the Cited Dictionaries and Their Abbreviations at the end of the article.
- 3) Before *SEJ* was published, there had already been a trend toward making much of basic or fundamental words in a dictionary around the turn of the twentieth century in Japan, especially in those works by S. Katsumata, who is the original and well known author of his collocation dictionary. His dictionaries, such as *Thesaurus of Every-Day English* (『應

用英和新辭典₁) (ABC Publishing Office, 1903) with M. Swan as a coauthor, and *A Dictionary of English Particles and Other Grammatically Important Words* (『英和例解要語大辭典₁』) (Yuhodo, 1911), are considered to be examples for later dictionaries. It should not be forgotten that a lot of works by Saito as well as his original dictionary mentioned below also deal with common words like articles, verbs and prepositions in detail.

4) It took more than ten years after *IEDJ* was issued before the information on etymology was included in a bilingual dictionary in Japan. The first (mainstream) dictionary that gives etymological information, *Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary on Bilingual Principles* (『新英和大辭典₁』) (Kenkyusha, 1927), will be dealt with in a future installment.

Section 3

1) The preface reads: "The compilation of this dictionary has taken just four years and a half [sic]. During the first eighteen months I worked at it in the mornings and evenings as the daytime was spent at my office; but when I saw how slowly the work was progressing, I resigned my post at the Foreign Office and have devoted myself exclusively during the last three years to this dictionary."

2) See our previous installment Dohi *et al.* (1998).

3) The preface quoted at 1) continues: "I should add that this work is entirely Japanese. In its compilation I have not consulted any foreigner; indeed, I have hardly spoken to one during the years I have been engaged on it."

4) When the sales of *IEDJ* and *IECJ* are taken into account, the number of two million copies could be judged to be reasonable. This writer saw the 147th edition (1927) of *IEDJ*, and also had the opportunity to see the 238th edition or printing (1938) and 247th edition (1943) of *IECJ*. The advertisement of the 238th edition says that more than two million copies of Inouye's dictionaries sold, and the back matter in the 247th edition says five thousand copies were reprinted. Granted that the same number of copies of *IEDJ* and *IECJ* were reprinted regularly, the total number of copies amounts to nearly two million. To this fact is added another reason *IEDJ* sold well; the advertisement of *IWDJ* (1921) shows that it was a specified or recommended dictionary in middle schools around 1920. This is one of the reasons Inouye's English-Japanese dictionaries were the best known and best selling not only in the Taisho era but also in the Showa era. We would like to express special gratitude to Dr. Isamu Hayakawa for offering to lend his copies (of 45th and 238th editions) of *IECJ*.

5) Verbs such as *become*, *forbid*, *misdeal*, and *outgrow* are included in this table.

6) According to Sugai (1941: 76), the supplement of 100 pages was published in 1928, which we could not confirm.

Section 4

1) The dictionary this writer referred to has no publication year in the title page, but it has the same number of pages as is given in Inouye's article, so here it is regarded as the same dictionary Inouye refers to there. The dictionary is considered to have been formerly titled *A Concise Dictionary of the English Language* (1886), but it is not clear when the title was changed.

2) The second edition of *MDEL* is used, but there is no difference between the first and the second except that the latter includes an appendix of Select List of Classical and Mythological Names.

3) The title of *Students' Standard Dictionary* first confused this writer, because there was published at that time *The Student's English Dictionary* (1895) edited by Charles Annandale. But the important thing to note is that the title *Standard* is explicitly given and there was

published *Students' Edition of a Standard Dictionary of the English Language*, the first abridged edition of *A Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1893-94). Another important fact mentioned is that the text has 814 pages, excluding the appendices.

4) This writer wonders why Inouye refers to *Chambers's* [sic] *English Dictionary* rather than *Chambers's* [sic] *Twentieth Century Dictionary of the English Language* (1901), a revised edition of the former (cf. Allen 1986: 1). The latter seems to have been more popularly known in those days as well as in later years (cf. Sakuma 1995: 4, Okakura 1937: 223). The reason for his mentioning or selecting the former dictionary could be that the former has more text pages (1197 pages) than the latter (1150 pages), excluding the appendices. Both were reprinted and considered to have been readily available.

5) Little has been mentioned of abridged or concise editions of the *Standard Dictionary*, but a brief survey in the Internet access to the Library of Congress (USA) and the British Library (UK) has made it clear that at least several kinds of abridged editions had already been published before Inouye's dictionary was published in 1915. Below are given in chronological order those smaller editions of the *Standard Dictionary*, with their respective year of publication shown in parentheses.

① *Students' Edition of a Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1897), ② *The Standard Intermediate-School Dictionary of the English Language* (1899), ③ *The Comprehensive Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1902), ④ *The Introductory Standard Dictionary* (1902), ⑤ *The Office Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1902), ⑥ *The Grammar-School Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1902), ⑦ *The Concise Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1902), ⑧ *A Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1905), ⑨ *The Vest-Pocket Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1906), ⑩ *The Practical Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1914). Two more dictionaries were published in 1915: *The High School Standard Dictionary of the English Language* and *The Desk Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. (For the ninth book, this writer would like to express special gratitude to Mr. Koichi OMIYA who informed him of its copyright years of 1906 and 1913 after he made its survey in the British Library.)

No convincing reason is given by Inouye himself why the first dictionary was selected, but there could be some reasons: (a) a reprinted edition was issued in Japan in 1899 by Kyoyekishosha and was readily available, (b) it is the oldest and most often reprinted dictionary of the abridged editions of the *Standard Dictionary* (the 1910 impression of the *Students' Edition* gives the copyright years of 1897, 1902, 1905, 1906, and 1909), and has the second largest number of pages, and (c) the title *Students' Edition* was considered more suitable for compiling his dictionary. This writer saw the 1898, 1905 and 1910 impressions but he made use of the 1910 printing because there was no substantial difference in the text between the 1898 impression and the 1910 impression.

One thing should be added. This writer wonders why it is that Inouye does not mention any Webster's dictionaries. *A Dictionary of the English Language* (G. & C. Merriam), with the title on the spine of *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, for example, was issued in 1898, and there seems to be no reason why he makes no reference to Webster's dictionaries rather than *Standard* dictionaries.

6) It should not be forgotten that around the turn of the twentieth century far more concise dictionaries were issued in Britain than in the USA. Sakuma (1995: 4), for example, mentions (a reprinted edition of) *Nuttall's Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (Frederick Warne, 1886) revised by J. Wood, and the name of James Stormonth though he refers to neither *Etymological and Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language* (William

Blackwood and Sons, 1871), *A Dictionary of the English Language, Etymological, Pronouncing, and Explanatory* (William Blackwood and Sons, 1884), nor a few smaller dictionaries of his. Let this writer give some more examples: *Cassell's English Dictionary* (Cassell, 1891), *Collins' New Pocket Dictionary of the English Language* (Collins, 1912), *Blackie's Standard Shilling Dictionary* (Blackie and Son, 1903), *The Royal English Dictionary and Word Treasury* (Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1894), *An English Dictionary* by J. Ogilvie (Blackie and Son, 1867). The facts make it likely that they may also have been in some way or other influential in the compilation of bilingual (English-Japanese) dictionaries in Japan. The five concise dictionaries in the latter group except the first are mentioned in the advertisement of the monthly journal *Gakuto* (Vol. 15, No. 9) in 1911. Soon after this, the title of *COD* is found in its monthly bulletin of international bibliography (Vol. 15, No. 12).

7) Other articles in the journal include the one that makes reference to *COD* as a dictionary which is difficult to look up though cheap and instructive, and the one that reprints the review by *Modern Language Teaching* (Vol. 18, No. 21, 1911).

8) A comparison of the entries in *COD* and *IEDJ* is sometimes difficult because several kinds of entries in the former are included as main entries in the latter. In *COD* run-on entries are usually given after the expressions (w)hence . . . , also . . . , so Some derived forms are shown, like (-)acred, and these compound forms are counted as one. *IEDJ* sometimes gives as an entry abbreviated forms, like *Jan* (s.v. *January* in *COD*), and the forms shown in parentheses (also . . .), like *acclimate* (s.v. *acclimatize* in *COD*). Some examples in *COD* shown in the entries of prefixes are given as main entries in *IEDJ*: *obconical*, *obcordate* and *obovate*. Some variant forms are shown more than once in the text: *obi* is also shown as a variant in the entry of *obeah*. Some entries in square brackets, i.e. the one related to etymology, are given as main entries, like *hatti=sherif*. Some main entries are given from the information in the definitions in *COD*: *hackneyed* or *marbled* is shown by reference to the explanation (esp. in p.p.) in the entry for *hackney* or *marble*. Part of the definition are used or given as main entries, like *economics* and *hazel-nut*. Or some examples are given as main entries, such as *east wind*. These facts led this writer to say that Table 1 gives a general picture, but from the non-native users' point of view, it is undoubtedly clear that Inouye endeavors to make use of all kind of information related to lexical entries and to give as many entries as he could to enlarge the number, which should be constructively criticized.

9) For the sake of reference, a comparison between the entries in *IEDJ* and those in *MoEJ* is made. The figures below show the number of entries that are not to be found in *COD* but which are to be found in both *IEDJ* and *MoEJ*.

A	24 (out of 58)	H	53 (out of 171)
J	29 (out of 113)	M	18 (out of 106)

The result shows that the further we go, the less coincidence is to be found, meaning that the editor clearly endeavors to give more entries that are nowhere to be found in *MoEJ*. The total figure makes us realize that less than 30 percent of the same entries in *IEDJ* and *MoEJ* are to be found.

10) There are in fact to be found in *IEDJ* some entries that are given in the addenda of *COD*: for example, *Harrovian* (*a.*), (*n.*).

11) There is a title page missing in the edition of *WNID* this writer referred to. But it is regarded as the 1909 edition as it only includes the preface dated in 1909.

12) The treatment is not consistent in *IEDJ* because past participles are often given as an adjective and sometimes as a past participle.

13) As is already mentioned in section 3, in *SWJ* the editor says in the preface that he was

helped by two Japanese in the work. The similar thing could also be said in *IWDJ*, because he says that "this work is entirely Japanese. In its compilation I have not consulted any foreigner, indeed, I have hardly spoken to one during the years I have been engaged on it . . ." This means that Inouye compiled the work all by himself, supplementing the invented examples in the text. The same thing can be applied to *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, but it is not clear why Inouye and the editors of *MoEJ* and *SEJ* chose such a method of not consulting native speakers even if they had a good command of English.

Section 5

- 1) The term accent used in *IEDJ* corresponds to stress.
- 2) *COD* does not show the pronunciation of a word when it can be easily inferred from the spelling. The pronunciation of a word is rewritten with diacritical marks only when the pronunciation cannot be inferred from the spelling.
- 3) The CLOTH words set is one of the standard lexical sets which are used by Wells (1982).
- 4) The symbol (ô) in *WNID* indicates that this vowel has quality somewhere between (a), (ø) and (ö).
- 5) The transcription of these two groups of vowels in *COD* is inconsistent and imperfect. *COD* uses two symbols, (or) and (ōr). However, when the two groups of words are equally spelled *or* as in *short* and *port*, the difference in pronunciation is not shown.

Section 6

- 1) There is no numbering in the original definitions in *COD*.
- 2) The percentage was calculated as follows:

E	14 ÷ 35 × 100 = 40%
T	5 ÷ 14 × 100 = 35.7%
W	6 ÷ 16 × 100 = 37.5%

Section 7

1) At the turn of the twentieth century, some monolingual dictionaries already employed many kinds of subject field labels (for example, *CoED* includes more than 80 labels), with the result that it is also the case with some dictionaries issued here in Japan: for example, nearly 80 subject field labels are included in 『英和雙解熟語大辭典』 (*A Dictionary of English Phrases*) (Yuhodo, 1909) by N. Kanda and T. Nannichi.

Section 8

1) Another piece of lexically important information in *POD* can be found in the latter half of the definition of *dog*. The dictionary shows some related words, which is "unorthodox techniques" (McArthur 1992: 414-15). Let what the Fowlers say in the preface be quoted: ". . . an experiment in collecting words that form a series and letting the reader know where to find them; he may fairly expect to be told not only the meaning of an ox . . . but also what are the words for the ox of various ages and sexes . . . and so forth . . . ; an effort has been made to provide for this want by giving lists to which each word of such series contains a reference" (p. v). This kind of information may be considered, if applied wholly systematically, to constitute integrated lexical information, which is first pointed out by Watanabe (1928: 372-73) and further explained by Fukuhara (1949: 120-31) and Kunihiro (1960: 18-19).

IEDJ does not seriously take this information into account, but in the entry of *dog*, some

domesticated breeds are given: *wolf-dog*, *greyhound*, *spaniel*, *hound*, *mastiff* and *terrier*, which information is not to be found in *COD*. In this respect, *IEDJ* is considered to have been useful to those who have not acquired a large vocabulary.

The lexical information in *COD* as well as that in *POD* is utilized and given on large scale in the description of the entries in *Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary on Bilingual Principles* (1927).

CITED DICTIONARIES AND THEIR ABBREVIATIONS

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

- Century 1* *The Century Dictionary, An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*, ed. by W. D. Whitney. New York: The Century Co., 1889-91. (1903)
- Century 2* *The Century Dictionary, An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*, Revised and enlarged edition. 12 vols., ed. by B. E. Smith. The Century Co., 1911. (1914) Scholarly reprint of the 1914 Impression. Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1980.
- ChED* *Chambers's English Dictionary*, ed. by T. Davidson. Edinburgh and London: W. & R. Chambers, 1898. Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Sanseido, 1901. (1904)
- COD* *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, ed. by H. W. Fowler and F. G. Fowler. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1911. (1921)
- COD 10* *The Concise Oxford Dictionary*. Tenth edition, ed. by J. Pearsall. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- CoED* *The Concise English Dictionary*, ed. by C. Annandale. London Glasgow and Dublin: Blackie and Son Limited, 1903? (n. d. but before 1905)
- IECJ* *Inouye's-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten (Inouye's Smaller English-Japanese Dictionary)*. (『井上英和中辭典』), ed. by J. Inouye. Tokyo: Shiseido, 1916. (1919)
- IEDJ* *Inouye-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten (Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary)*. (『井上英和大辭典』), ed. by J. Inouye. Tokyo: Shiseido, 1915.
- Imperial* *The Imperial Dictionary, English, Technological, and Scientific*. 2 vols., ed. by J. Ogilvie. Glasgow and Edinburgh: Blackie & Son, 1847-50. (1863)
- IWDJ* *Inouye-Waei-Dai-Jiten (Inouye's Comprehensive Japanese-English Dictionary)*. (『井上和英大辭典』), ed. by J. Inouye. Tokyo: Shiseido, 1921.
- MDEL* *A Modern Dictionary of the English Language*, London and New York: Macmillan, 1910. (Second edition. London: Macmillan, 1911.)
- MoEJ* *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten (Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary)*. (『模範英和辭典』), ed. by N. Kanda et al. Tokyo: Sanseido, 1911.
- N Standard* *Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. New York and London: Funk and Wagnalls Company, 1913. Scholarly reprint. Tokyo: Hon-No-Tomoshia, 1995.
- OED* *The Oxford English Dictionary*. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1933.
- POD* *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English*, ed. by F. G. Fowler and H. W. Fowler. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1924.
- SEJ* *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten (A New English-Japanese Dictionary)*. (『詳解英和辭典』), ed. by I. Irie. Tokyo: Shobunkan, 1912. Second edition. 1913. Scholarly reprint of the second edition. Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1985.
- SSD* *Students' Edition of a Standard Dictionary of the English Language*, ed. by J. C. Fernald et al. New York and London: Funk & Wagnalls Company,

1897. (1910).
- SWJ* *Shinyaku-Waei-Jiten (Inouye's Japanese-English Dictionary)*. (『新譯和英辭典』), ed. by I. Inouye. Tokyo: Sanseido, 1909.
- TJ3* *Ei-Doku-Futsu-Wa Tetsugaku-Jii: Dictionary of English, German and French Philosophical Terms with Japanese Equivalents*. (『英獨佛和哲學字彙』), ed. by T. Inouye, Y. Matora, R. Nakashima. Tokyo: The Maruzen Kabushiki-Kaisha, 1912. Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Maruzen Company Ltd., 1921. Scholarly reprint of the 1921 Impression. Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1980.
- WEJ* *Fuon-Sozu-Wayaku-Ei-Jii (An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix. New Edition)*. (『附音押図和譯英字彙』), ed. by Y. Shimada, revised by S. Sugiura, J. Inoue and A. Manase. Tokyo: M. Okura, 1887. Scholarly reprint. Tokyo Yumani Shobo, 1995.
- WIDEL* *Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language*, ed. by N. Porter. Springfield, Mass: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1890. (1896)
- WNID* *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*, ed. by W. T. Harris. Springfield. Mass: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1909.

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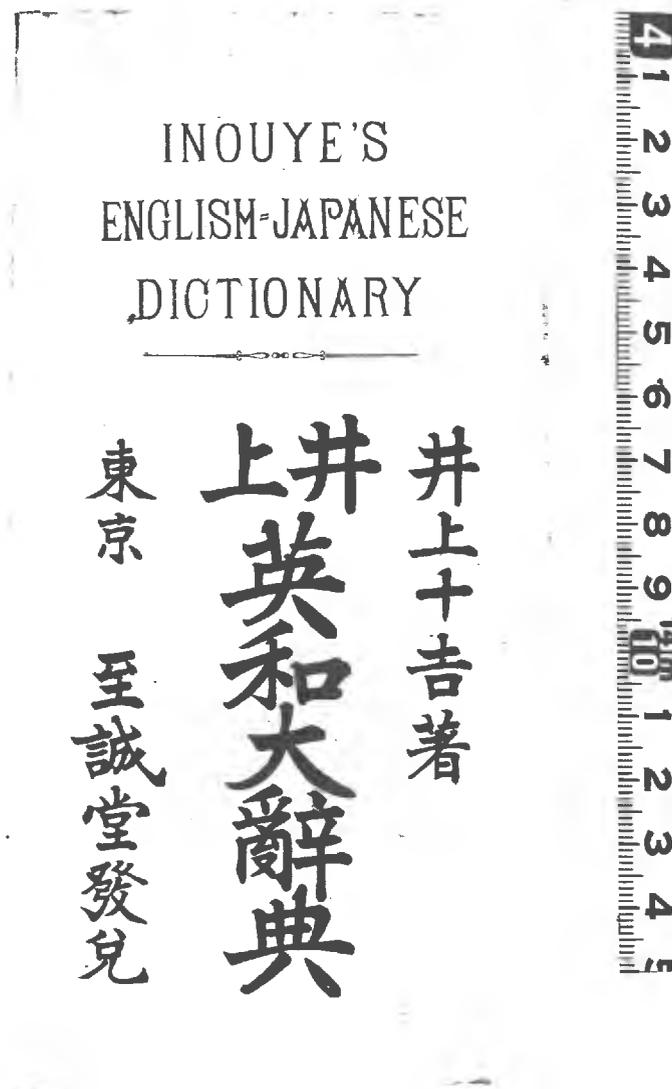
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APPENDIX 1

Reproduced here are a few pages from *Inouye's-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten*, by courtesy of The Tsubouchi Memorial Theatre Museum (演劇博物館) of Waseda University (Waseda, Tokyo).



Photograph 1. Title page.

FOREWORD.

Of making many dictionaries there is no end. Another, and yet another, you exclaim; poor public, how bewildered it will be! My good sir, do not waste your breath; your poor public can take good care of itself. The lexicographer is no quacksalver who palms off his worthless pills upon the ignorant; he trusts to the discernment of the public to make a judicious choice of the wares that are laid before it. He knows that his work must stand on its own merits. An author may labour for a few weeks, or even for a few months, to turn out a book of temporary interest, something to catch the public eye for a while; but he does not devote years and years to hard toil for a mere comet of a season; he cannot persevere so long unless he sincerely believes that his work is one of high excellence. He is aware that if it is superior, it will supplant those which have appeared before it and will hold the field until it is in its turn superseded by others of greater worth.

No book is more exposed to searching criticism than the dictionary. In other fields of literature tastes differ, and the poetry, fiction, and essays which do not appeal to some find favour with others; many read them uncritically and follow their own fancies in their choice. But it is different with dictionaries. Every one who consults a dictionary is its critic; the schoolboy and the man of business, the casual reader and the profound scholar praise or condemn it according as they find or miss in it the words they look for or the renderings they expect to alight upon. It must always meet a running fire of criticism; but it bravely holds on until, upon the

Photographs 2 & 3. Foreword in English.

FOREWORD

appearance of a more successful rival, it reaches its field of honour. It vanishes altogether or takes refuge in the bibliophile's shelves. Its remains are sent to the paper-mill perhaps to make new sheets for its rival or are relegated to the street stall to make wrappers for trumpery articles.

But why waste the precious years on a work whose existence is so precarious? The precariousness comes of competition. Competition which is the life of trade, is as the very breath of his nostrils to the lexicographer. Though the trader knows that his goods may at any moment be outclassed or undersold, does he on that account shut up shop? And why should the lexicographer? Besides, even small service is true service while it lasts. The dictionary may help the plodding student on the path of knowledge and pull the blundering schoolboy through his lessons and examinations; and will they not, in after years when they have attained their object in life, look back with tenderness to their quondam friend in need? The gratitude of his readers is the author's highest meed. The book itself, it is true, may disappear, and with it the profits must go. But what matters? While they come in, we eat, drink, and make merry. And that is enough: what more can we hope for in this transitory world of ours?

JUKICHI INOUE.

August, 1915.

Photograph 3.

自序

明治四十二年三月予が新譯和英辭典を公にするや幸に江湖の非常なる歡迎を受けたり。爾來更に本書の編纂に志してより實に七年専ら取材の廣汎と譯語的的確とを期し専門術語の考究の如き新文字の蒐集の如き公暇一切の塵事を排し拮据艱策午夜に入らざれば寢に就かず鉛槧に付してより尙且つ三春秋此間予が自ら讐校刪定せしこと多きは十數回少きも尙八九回を下らず更に友人を勞して數回の校正を経たり。著者にありては既にベストを盡せりと云ふべし。若し脱誤あらば大方の君子希くは示教を吝む勿れ。今完成に臨み諸友人より多大の援助を負へるを彰かに併せて發行者至誠堂主人及び印刷所凸版印刷株式會社が利害の念を後にして汲々として本書の爲に盡力せられたる勞苦を謝す。

大正四年八月下院

著者識す。

Photograph 4. Foreword in Japanese.

凡例

1. 見出語及び熟語の排列は實際の見地より一々アルファベット順に従へり。
2. 譯語は重に現代語を用ひ漢語・雅言・俗語をも交へたり。
3. 一語にして數義を兼ねるものは◎◎◎等の符號を附して區分せり。熟語に在りては◎◎◎等を用ひたり。又譯語中＝として數義ある他語を註したる場合には◎◎◎等を用ひて本語の區分との混同を避けたり。
4. 同一語原の語及び複合語は紙面經濟の爲め一見出に接續したるもの多しと雖も其排列は檢索の利便を謀らんが爲め飽くまで全篇のアルファベット順を棄ることなし。
5. 見出語の右肩に小亞刺比亞數字^{1, 2, 3}等を附したるものあるは主として同一綴字語にして語原の異なるを示す。但し文例挿入の都合より品詞の異なるが爲め別見出となりたる同一語も亦其右肩に小亞刺比亞數字を附せり。
6. 固有名詞は頭字 (capital letter) を用ひて區別し若し轉義として普通名詞たる場合は◎ [c] の如く小字を記す。普通名詞の固有名詞たる場合も亦◎ [M] の如く特示す。
7. 他國語の見出語はイタリックを用ふ。既に英語化したるものありては然らず。
8. =等にて同意義語を示す時は檢索に便せんが爲めイタリック體を用ひたり。又 =Paraguay tea 或は [domesticated dog 参照] などあるは黒イタリックの條下を見れば其全文記載しあるを示すものなり。
9. 見出語中の單連字符 (-) は音綴 (syllable) を示し複連字符 (=) は複合語たるを示す。但し音綴を切らざる語中に用ひたるハイフェン (-) は複合語たるを示す。
10. 形容詞又は副詞 (見出語の下に再記を略して往々 —, a 又は —, ad. とせり。
11. 音の抑揚は ' (primary accent 即ち主強音) 及び " (secondary accent 即ち從強音) を以て示せり。
12. 不規則動詞の語尾變化は各語の下に [past.....; p.p.....] として註したれども便利の爲め卷末に表示したり。
13. 見出語其他に【羅=.....】などあるは其語の羅典語にして英譯.....なるを示す。又 (=希.....) などあるは其語の希臘語.....と同義なるを示す。
14. 名詞の次に [pl.] とあるは複數の變化を示し單に [pl.] とあるは複數のときの意味たるを示す。
15. 形容詞の比較級も不規則なるものは之を舉示せり。

Photographs 5 & 6. Guide to the dictionary, and the abbreviations of labels.

41 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 1 2 3 4 5

- 凡 例
16. 《the+》などとあるは其語が定冠詞等を伴ふことを示し《+from》などとあるは其語が前置詞などを伴ふを示す。
 17. 熟語及び文例中 black 《green》 tea, 紅 《綠》茶 に於けるが如く () は black tea, 紅茶; green tea, 綠茶とすべきを節約したる符號とす。
 18. 同じく beside [wide of] the mark, ⊖ ⊖ に於ける如く [] は beside the mark とするも wide of the mark とするも同義なるを示す符號とす。
 19. 同じく (God) save the mark! の如き () は括弧内の語の有無兩様同一義なるを示す符號とす。
 20. 詩形學上押韻を示す場合例へば triolet (abaabab の押韻) とあるは第一第三第四第五第七の行の同韻、第二第六第八の行の同韻なるを示す。

略 語 符 號

【動】.....動物	【電】.....電氣	【礦】.....採礦
【植】.....植物	【美】.....美術	【畜】.....衛生
【教】.....教學	【終】.....終章	【生】.....生物學
【音】.....音學	【樂】.....樂學	【論】.....論學
【論】.....論理	【倫】.....倫理	【算】.....算學
【文】.....文法	【心】.....心理	【圖】.....圖藝
【商】.....商業	【船】.....船舶	【機】.....機械
【航】.....航海	【測】.....測量	【織】.....織類
【力】.....力學	【染】.....染色	【語】.....語言學
【建】.....建築	【醫】.....醫學	【宗】.....宗學
【法】.....法學	【陸】.....陸軍	【木】.....木國專用語
【解】.....解剖	【海】.....海軍	【英】.....英國專用語
【醫】.....醫學	【化】.....化學	【佛】.....佛蘭西語
【生】.....生理	【監】.....監學	【伊】.....伊太利語
【理】.....物理	【光】.....光學	【葡】.....葡萄牙專用語
【天】.....天文	【礦】.....礦物	【獨】.....獨逸語
【地】.....地理	【劇】.....演劇	【露】.....露西亞語
【磁】.....磁力	【言】.....言語學	【奧】.....奧地利語
【古生】.....古生物	【工】.....工學	【愛】.....愛爾蘭專用語
【昆】.....昆蟲	【獸】.....獸醫	【西】.....西班牙語
【織】.....織物	【影】.....影射	【葡】.....葡萄牙語
【菌】.....細菌	【農】.....農學	【古】.....古語
【宗】.....宗教	【機】.....機械	【學】.....學語
【神】.....神學	【經】.....經濟	【俗】.....俗語
【政】.....政治	【石】.....石工	【語】.....語學
【魚】.....魚類	【砲】.....砲術	【方】.....方言
【貝】.....貝類	【博】.....博物	【詩】.....詩的用語
【蟲】.....蟲類	【史】.....歷史	【體】.....體辭
【鳥】.....鳥類	【詩】.....詩形學	【修】.....修辭學的用語
【哲】.....哲學	【修】.....修辭學	【小兒】.....小兒語

Photograph 6.

01 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 1 2 3 4 5

凡 例

發 音 符 號

子 音

- b: bat, rob に於ける b の如し。
 ch: church に於ける ch の如し。
 ch: = 攝 ch, ㄱ 行の音にして唇尾又は唇音の後に來る時は唇音の列に依り其音を定めらる。例へば ach (ach, アハ), ech (ech, エヘ), ich (ich, イエ), och (ock, オホ), ueh (ueh, ユフ), nicht (nicht, ニヒト) の如し。普通は t 音なり (milk, ミルク)。他の場合に mädchen (mädchen, マードヘン) の如し。但し此音は氣音なり。
 d: down, bad に於ける d の如し。
 f: fall, if に於ける f の如し。
 g: = hard g, gag の如し。
 h: house に於ける h の如し。
 j: = soft g, George (jorj) の如し。
 k: kill に於ける k の如し。
 l: long, fill に於ける l の如し。
 m: man に於ける m の如し。
 n: nose に於ける n の如し。
 n: = 唇 n, bon ton (bon ton) の如し。
 ng: = ng, bank (bank) の如し。
 p: pain に於ける p の如し。
 r: ray, ring に於ける r の如し。
 s: sit, miss に於ける s の如し。
 sh: shall に於ける sh の如し。
 t: tell, hit に於ける t の如し。
 th: thing に於ける th の如し。
 th: = ch の濁音, that (that) の如し。
 v: veil に於ける v の如し。
 w: wait に於ける w の如し。
 hw: wheel (hwel) の如し。
 z: zone に於ける z の如し。
 zh: = sh の濁音, vision (vizh'qn) の如し。

母 音

- a: syllable の終る時は -ア, Mecca (mek'a) の如し。
 a: 次に子音ある時は -ア, man, cat の如し。
 à: = ア, husband (huz'hànd) の如し。
 á: = ah, father (fá'thér) の如し。
 a: = aw, all (al) の如し。
 a: = á に近し manage (man'áj) の如し。
 e: syllable の終る時は -イ, receive (re-séiv) の如し。
 e: 次に子音ある時は -é, men (men) の如し。
 é: = er, ur, fa'ther (fá'thér) の如し。
 é: = e long, he (hé) の如し。
 é: = e short.
 g: = é と ㄱ 間の音, mo'ment (mó'-mánt) の如し。
 e: = 唇 e, de (de) の如し。
 i: = i short, fin (fin) の如し。
 i: = i long, fine (fin) の如し。
 o: = o short, hot (hot) の如し。
 ô: = ô long, host (híst) の如し。
 ô: = ô, move (môv) の如し。
 o: actor (akt'ô) の如し。
 ou: = アウ, out, about の如し。
 u: syllable の終る時は -ウ, conspicuous (kon-splé'u-us) の如し。
 u: 次に子音ある時は -ウ, u: = う, foot (fut) の如し。
 u: = u long, feud (fúd) の如し。
 u: = 唇 u, ㄱ と ㄷ 間の音, plus (plú) の如し。
 u: = 唇 u, milleu (mó'lyú) の如し。

Photograph 7. Key to pronunciation.



凡 例

引用略字

a.	adjective.	pass.	passive.
abs.	absolute.	pl.	plural.
art.	article.	possess.	possessive.
attrib.	attributive.	p.p.	past participle.
ad.	adverb.	pr.	pronunciation.
collect.	collective.	pred.	predicate.
compar.	comparative.	pref.	prefix.
conj.	conjunction.	prep.	preposition.
exclam.	exclamation.	pres.	present.
def. art.	definite article.	pres. p.	present perfect.
fem.	feminine.	pron.	pronoun.
imper.	imperative.	p. subj.	past subjunctive.
ind.	indicative, indirect.	refl.	reflexive.
indef. art.	indefinite article.	rel.	relative.
inf.	infinitive.	sing.	singular.
int.	interjection.	subj.	subjunctive.
interrog.	interrogative.	suf.	suffix.
mas.	masculine.	superl.	superlative.
n.	noun.	v.	verb.
neg.	negative.	v. aux.	auxiliary verb.
neut.	neuter.	vi.	intransitive verb.
obje.	objective.	vt.	transitive verb.
part.	participle.		

人名書名略語

(文例中に作者又は書種の全名を擧ぐる餘地なき時に用ひたるもの)

- Bi. Bible (1611 年出版の欽定譯經書)
- Bu. 蘇國詩宗 Robert Burns (1759-1796).
- By. 拜倫 Lord George Byron (1788-1824).
- Di. 大小説家 Charles Dickens (1812-1870).
- Camp. 蘇國詩伯 Thomas Campbell (1777-1844).
- Dry. 詩伯 John Dryden (1631-1700).
- Gold. 文豪 Oliver Goldsmith (1728-1772).
- Joh. 文豪 Samuel Johnson (1709-1784).
- Mac. 歷史家 Lord Macaulay (1800-1899).
- Po. 詩伯 Alexander Pope (1689-1744).
- Sh., Shakes. 沙翁, 大劇曲家 William Shakespeare (1564-1616).
- Th. 大小説家 William M. Thackeray (1811-1863).

Photograph 8. The abbreviations of grammatical terms and literary authors.



INOUE

ENGLISH-JAPANESE

DICTIONARY

A

A, a, [pl. As, A's, Aes] 英字母の首字。●【音】い音。●【動】第一の限定者又は限定物。●【數】第一の既知數。

A1 (a wun), ● Lloyd (海上保險組合)の船船格附(27)にて第一等船格の記號。●【a】(俗)最上等の,第一等の。

a¹, an, indef. art. 無音 h 以外の子音の前には a, 無音 h の前には an (例, a house; an heir), 但し無抑揚發音の時は有音 h の前にも a と書く; 又 l, m, n, s, x が el, em, en, es, eks と發音せらる; 時は其前に an を用ふ (例, an M. P.); eu, u 以外の母音の前には u (例, an umbrella; a usurper, a eucharist), 但し one の前には o を用ふ。many, such, what の後及び how, so, as, too, [+adj.] の後, 又一見數數のとき語の前 (例, a dozen men [= a dozen of men]), 又數數を示す形容詞 few, good many, great many の前にも用ふ。● 一の, 或ち, 凡て, の, (顯き意にて)。● (固有名詞の前にて)……の如き人又は物。● (all of, many of 等の次に) 同一の。● 毎に (此場合は本來 prep.)。A horse stood on a hill for an hour. 馬が小山の上に一時間立って居た。He is a [an] historian of high reputation. 彼は名高い歴史家である。

What a long time you have been Many a time he saw such a one. A Mr. Smith came here to-day. A European entered a university in Japan. He is not so good a penman as This is as fine a shop as any in this village. It is too large a house for me to A dozen men ran out of the house. There are a few diligent boys and a great many idle ones in this class. A good many people know him by A Napoleon or a Bismarck is needed to restore order in the country. He asked if the river was all The man works for a shilling a day; his master's income is a thousand pound a year. a², prep. 現在分詞の前にも用ふれど殆ど意味なし, 特に go, eat の現在分詞 While their house was a building, they lived in lodgings. The man ran up the beifry and set the bells a ringing. "I am going a milking, sb.," she A., associate (會員, 圖書員, 理事員)の略。a-s, pref. ● 重なる語。例へば arise. ● on の意. abed=on bed, a

Photograph 9. Dictionary Text, page 1.

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Photograph 10. Back matter.

APPENDIX 2

Reproduced here for comparison is the entry **account** from *IEDJ*, *COD*, *MDEL*, *ChED*, *CoED*, and *SSD*.

- ac-count**¹ (ak-kount'), *vt. & vi.* 思ふ, 考へる. —to **account for**, ① 勘定(算)する, ……に對して責任を有する. ② 説明する, 理由を明かにする. ③ 殺す, 打つ. —to be much (little) **accounted of**, 重きを措かれる(措かれぬ), 重要視せられる(せられぬ).
I **account** him an honest man. 余は彼を正直な人と思ふ.
He is not **accounted** much of. 彼は餘り重きを措かれぬ.
You must **account** to the treasurer for money received. 君は領收金に就いて會計簿に勘定しなければならぬ.
How do you **account** for these curious phenomena? 君は此等の不思議の現象を如何に説明しますか.
His idleness **accounts** for his 彼の男の懶惰なのでなせ貧乏で.
That **accounts** for it. [poverty. それで解つた. しあるかと分る.]
In the hunt he **accounted** for three partridges and two hares. その獵に彼は鶉(鶉)三羽と兔二匹とを打ちとめた.
ac-count² (ak-kcunt'), *n.* ① 利益. ② 計算書. ③ 推重, 重要 (人格・物品に對し). ④ 報告, 記事, 敘述 (算). —**account book**, 計算簿, 會計簿. —**account current**, 當座勘定, 交互計算. —**account sales**, 賣上勘定書. —**cash account**, 現金勘定, 現金取引. —**for account of**, ……の爲に, の勘定にて. —**for account of a person**, 人の爲に賣買する, 人の計算にて. —**in account with**, 取引をして. —**joint account**, 共同出資. —**money of account**, 計算貨幣. —**on account**, ① ……の理由で, の爲に. ② 内金として. —**on no account**, 決して……せぬ, どうあつても……せぬ, どうしても……せぬ. —**sale for the account**, 延賣買, 延取引(算). —**sale of account**, 掛賣買. —**the great account**, 最後の審判(神の). —to ask an **account**, 勘定を求むる. —to balance [square] **accounts** (with), 收入決算する, 損益勘定する. —to call [bring] a person to **account**, 收入決算する, 損益勘定する. —to cast **accounts**, 勘定する. —to find one's **account** in a thing, 物より利益を得る, 私利を貪る. —to go to one's **account**, 死する. —to lay one's **account** with [for, on] a thing, 當(算)にする, 期待(算)する, 豫想する. —to leave a thing out of **account**, 勘定に入れざる, 度外視する, 無視する. —to make **account of**, 重きを措く, 尊重する, 貴ぶ. —to open an **account** with a bank, 銀行と取引を開始する. —to pay [settle] an **account**, 勘定を済ます. —to place [pass] to **account** (of), ……の勘定に組入れる. —to render [send in] an **account**, 殘金の精算書を送る. —to take a thing into **account**; to take **account of** a thing, 勘定に入れる, 斟酌(算)する, 考へる. —to turn a thing to one's **account** [to **account**], 利用する, 利益になる様にする.
He paid a hundred pounds on 彼は内金として百磅を支拂へり.
account. [owe me.
Here is the **account** of what you 是が費下の借勘定書です.
Send the **account** with the goods. 品物と共に勘定書を送れ.

- Make out a detailed *account* of all those articles. 「*account*.」
 He started business on his own. 彼は自分で商賣を始めた。
 A large proportion is shipped on *account* of manufacturers. 大部分は製造者の勘定で積出される。
 He keeps at home now, on *account* of his great age. 「so doing.」 彼は今や高 齢の爲め家に引籠って居る。 「それないだらう。」
 You will not find your *account* in He will turn that to his own *account*. 「*account*.」 君はそんな事をしては利益を得ない。彼はそれを自分の利益となる様にするだらう。
 He has turned that affair to good. By your *account*, the loss was small. 「*account*.」 「*affair*.」 彼はかの事件を旨〔?〕く利用した。君の話に據れば損失は僅かであった。 「であった。」
 By all *accounts*, it was a terrible. The man who was caught by the police could not give a satisfactory *account* of himself. 世間一般の話ではそれは大惨事。警官に捕はれた男は身上〔?〕に就いて満足の辯 解をなし得なかつた。 「人達です。」
 They are persons of great *account*. He is a politician of no *account*. 彼等は大に重きを措かれて居る。彼は平凡〔?〕政治家です。
 He is held in high *account* by all who know him. 「*itself*.」 彼は彼を知って居る人には皆大に尊敬されて居ます。
 The thing is of little *account* in On no *account* will I allow you to go to the river-side. 「*rats*.」 其事はそれだけでは些細な事だ。どうしてもき前が河端に行くことは許しません。
 The dog gave a good *account* of the We must take these circumstances into *account*. 「*account*.」 犬は鼠を澤山片附けた。吾人は此等の事情を斟酌しなげればならぬ。 「*ってしまった。*」
 Poor fellow, he is gone to his *account*. 「*account*.」 可憐〔?〕さうにあの世の人にならね。 「*ってしまった。*」
ac-count'a-bil'i-ty (ak-kount'a-bil'i-ti), *n.* 責任, 責務。
ac-count'a-ble (ak-kount'a-bl), *a.* 辯明すべき, 責ある, 責を負ふべき, 責に當り得べき。—*accountable* for a thing, 物の説明となり得る。—*accountable* for a thing to a person, 事物に就いて人に責任が有る。
 His conduct is *accountable* if it is attributable to a misunderstanding. 彼の舉動は誤解に基くものとせば之を辯明し得ん。
ac-count'a-ble-ness (ak-kount'a-bl-nes), *n.* 辯明すべきこと, 責を負ふべきこと, 責あること。
ac-count'ant (ak-kount'ant), *n.* 勘定方〔?〕, 會計官, 會計掛, 主計〔?〕。—*accountant-general*, *n.* 監査長。 **ac-count**'ant-ship (ak-kount'ant-ship), *n.* 勘定方の職, 會計官の職, 會計係の職, 主計の職。

IEDJ

account¹, *v.t. & i.* Consider, regard as, (followed by obj. & complement or infin.; *a. him a hero, wise, to be guilty*). *Be accounted of*, be esteemed (alw. w. *little, much, &c.*). *Account for*: give reckoning (of money held in trust); answer for (conduct, performance of duty); explain the cause of; serve as explanation of (*that accounts for it*); (sport) be responsible for the death of, kill. [f. OF *aconter* f. LL *acomptare* for *AC(*computare* L = COMPUTE); the form *acompt* is due to 14th-c. correction in F passing into E, the oldest E being *acunte* (see AC-)]

account², *n.* (1) Counting, calculation, in phrr. *cast accounts* (reckon up), *money of a.* (names not of coins, but of sums, as guinea). (2) Reckoning of debit and credit, in money or service. Statement of money received and expended, with balance; so *open or close an a. with, render or send in, pay or settle, an a.; a. current* (whence *a/c* = account), one kept going w. occasional entries; *joint a.*, in which two persons not otherwise partners count as one; *keep aa.*, enter all expenditure for comparison w. income; *balance or square aa. with some one*, receive or pay the balance due; *cash, profit-and-loss, &c., a.*, headings of subdivision in ledger; *sale for the a.*, on the Stock Exch., not for cash, but payable at next periodic settlement; *A in a. with B*, having credit relations with; *for a. of*, to be sold for (person); *on a.*, as interim payment; *on one's a.*, for his service; *on one's own a.*, for and at one's own purposes and risk, whence generally *on a. of*, because of, and *on no a.*, by no means, certainly not. A favourable result of the reckoning, profit; *find one's a. in*, profit by, *turn to a.*, make useful. Statement of administration as required by creditor; *ask, demand, yield, render, an a., call or bring to a.*; extended from money to conduct generally, so *the great a.*, Day of Judgment, *gone to his a.*, dead; *give a. of*, find cause of, explain, (in sport) *give a good a. of*, dispose of (opponents, game) successfully. (3) Estimation. Person or thing *of*, or *held in, some or no a.*; *make little a. of*; *take into, leave out of, a.*; *take a. of*; *lay one's a. with*, include in one's calculations, expect. (4) Narration, report, description, of event, person, &c. [f. OF *acon* (à to + cont f. LL *comptum* for *computum* f. L *computare* COMPUTE)]

accountable, *a.* Bound to give account, responsible, (*for* things, *to* persons, or abs.); explicable (somet. followed by *for*). Hence **ACCOUNTABILITY**, **ACCOUNTABLENESS**, *nn.*, [f. ACCOUNT¹ + -ABLE]

accountant, *n.* (Law) one liable to render account; defendant in an action of account. Professional keeper and inspector of accounts; *a.-general*, chief *a.*, in public offices; whence **ACCOUNTANTSHIP** *n.* [F (15th c.) *acomptant* part. of *acomptier* OF *aconter* ACCOUNT¹]

COD

ac-count', *n.* a reckoning; a bill (for money due); a record or description; a report: *v.* to reckon; to judge; to estimate; to value. **ac-count'-a-ble**, *adj.* liable to be called upon to explain; responsible for. **ac-count'-ant**, *n.* one who is skilled in keeping accounts; one whose profession is to keep or check accounts. **accountant-general**, *n.* an officer of Chancery who receives all moneys paid into that court. **on account of**, by reason of; on behalf of. **on account**, on credit, without paying at once; by part payment. **to account for**, to explain. **to turn to account**, to make good or profitable use of. [O.F. *acconter* < L. *ad* + *computo*, I reckon.]

MDEL

Account, *ak-kownt'*, *n.* [O.E. *accmpt*—*ac* for *ad*, and O.Fr. *compte*, a calculation, from L. *computo*, to compute, reckon. The modern Fr. *compte*, *compter*, present the same change of *m* into *n* as our own word.] A reckoning, enumeration, or computation; a list of debts and credits, or charges; a statement of things bought or sold, of payments, services, &c.; an explanatory statement of particulars, facts, or events; narrative; relation; description; reason or consideration; ground (on all *accounts*); profit; advantage (to turn to *account*); regard; behalf; sake (trouble incurred on one's *account*); *stockbroking*, the operations on the stock-exchange performed during the period before the ordinary settling-day.—*To make account of*, to hold in estimation or esteem; to value: with an adjective of quantity, as *much*, *little*, *no*, &c.—*Account current*, the statement of the successive mercantile transactions of one person with another, drawn out in the form of debtor and creditor, and in the order of their dates.—**Account**, *ak-kownt'*, *v.t.* To deem, judge, think, or hold in opinion.—*v.i.* To render an account or relation of particulars; to answer in a responsible character; to give reasons; to explain: followed by *to* before a person, *for* before a thing.—**Accountability**, *ak-kownt'a-bl'i-ti*, *n.* The state of being accountable or answerable.—**Accountable**, *ak-kownt'a-bl*, *a.* Liable to pay or make good in case of loss; responsible for a trust; liable to be called to account; answerable to a superior.—**Accountableness**, *ak-kownt'a-bl-nes*, *n.* The state of being accountable; accountability.—**Accountably**, *ak-kownt'a-bl*, *adv.* In an accountable manner.—**Accountant**, *ak-kownt'ant*, *n.* One who makes the keeping or examination of accounts his profession; an officer in a public office who has charge of the accounts.—**Accountantship**, *ak-kownt'ant-ship*, *n.* The office or employment of an accountant.—**Account-book**, *ak-kownt'-buk*, *n.* A book in which accounts are kept.

CoED

Account, *ak-kownt'*, *v.t.* to reckon: to judge,

value.—*v.i.* (with *for*) to give a reason: to give an account of money held in trust. [O. Fr. *acconter*—L. *ad*, to, *computare*, to reckon. See **Compute**, **Count**.]

Account, *ak-kownt'*, *n.* a counting: statement-value, sake: a reckoning as to money, as in phrases like, 'to render an account,' 'to settle an account,' 'to square accounts' with any one, &c.—**Account current**, or open account, a course of business dealings still going on between two persons, or a person and a bank; **On or To account**, an instalment or interim payment; **In account with**, in business relations requiring the keeping of an account with some one; **For the account**, for settlement on the regular fortnightly or monthly settling-day, instead of for cash (of sales on the Stock Exchange); **For account of**, on behalf of; **To make account of**, to set value upon; **To take into account**, to take into consideration; **To take no account of**, to overlook.

Accountable, *ak-kownt'a-bl*, *adj.* liable to account: responsible (*for*, of the thing; *to*, of the person).—*adv.* **Accountably**.

Accountableness, *ak-kownt'a-bl-nes*, **Accountability**, *n.* liability to give account, responsibility to fulfil obligations.

Accountant, *ak-kownt'ant*, *n.* one who keeps, or is skilled in, accounts.

Accountantship, *ak-kownt'ant-ship*, *n.* the employment of an accountant.

Account-book, *ak-kownt'-book*, *n.* a book in which accounts are kept.

ChED

ac-count', *ac-count'*, *v.* I. *t.* 1. To hold to be; consider; estimate; deem. 2. To credit; attribute. 31. To count; compute. II. *i.* 1. To furnish or receive an accounting; give a reckoning (*with* or *to* a person *for* a thing); answer. 2. To give a rational explanation; refer to some cause or natural law: followed by *for*. [< O.F. *acconter*, < LL. *accmpto*, < L. *ad*, to, + *computo*; see **COMPUTE**.]

ac-count', *n.* 1. A record or statement of business transactions, etc.; reckoning; computation; score; a business relation involving such a record; any record, narrative, statement, or description; also, mental record; note; notice. 2. A statement of reasons, causes, etc.; an explanation; reason; ground. 3. The act or time of rendering a reckoning; judgment; the judgment-day. 4. Importance; concern; interest; also, consideration, as of the value of a thing; estimation; esteem. Syn.: see **HISTORY**.

ac-count'a-bl(e), *ac-count'a-bl*, *a.* 1. Liable to be called to account; answerable; responsible. 2. Capable of being accounted for.—**ac-count'a-bl'i-ty**, *n.* **ac-count'a-bl(e)-ness**.—**ac-count'a-bly**, *adv.* **ac-count'ant**, *ac-count'ant*, *n.* One who keeps or is skilled in accounts: an examiner of accounts.

SSD

会員研究業績

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