LEXICON

No. 31

2001

IWASAKI LINGUISTIC CIRCLE

Tokyo

LEXICON No. 31 2001

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

KAORU AKASU　　HIROKO SAITO
AKIHIKO KAWAMURA　TAKAHIRO KOKAWA
RYUICHI HOTTA

1.　Introduction

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

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

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

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

2. Entries

2.1. Headwords and subheadwords

One of the most remarkable changes made in $OALD^6$ is that derivatives and compounds are unnested, though some derivatives still do remain where they were.[1] Consequently, it has become much easier for users to find particular words that they are looking for.[2] However, some idioms have become more difficult to locate, a point we will return to later.

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

Table 1

Alphabet	pages	headwords	$+OALD^6, -OALD^5$	$-OALD^6, +OALD^5$
C	200–3	120	15	4
H	600–3	72	13 (2)	2
P	1000–3	75	10 (2)	2
T	1400–3	106	9 (1)	9
Total	16	373	47 (5)	17
	per page	23.31	2.94	1.06

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

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

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

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

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

and those items deleted:

> cheeriness, cheese-paring, Chianti, chiaroscuro

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

2.2. Idioms and phrasal verbs

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

Table 2

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

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

> **cheek** IDM **cheek by jowl (with sb/sth)** .... **turn the other cheek** .... **with tongue in cheek** ⇨ Tongue.[4]

Here is the treatment given in $OALD^6$:

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

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

The next table indicates the change of phrasal verb entries:

Table 3

Alphabet	$+OALD^6, -OALD^5$	$-OALD^6, +OALD^5$
C	1	0
H	0	0
P	1	1
T	1	0
Total	3	1
per page	0.19	0.06

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

2.3. Miscellanea

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

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

> heart *n*   ▶ **-hearted** (in compound *adjs*) having feelings or a nature as specified: *kind-hearted* ○ *faint-hearted*. ($OALD^5$)
> heart *noun* **-HEARTED 4** (in adjectives) having the type of character or personality mentioned: *cold-hearted* ◇ *kind-hearted*.[5] ($OALD^6$)

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

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

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

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

2.4. Word breaks

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

(K. Akasu)

3. Pronunciation

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

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

3.2. Notation and presentation

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

as before: both quality and length differences are shown as in /iː/ vs. /ɪ/ and /uː/ vs. /ʊ/. Symbols /i/ and /u/ for the weak vowels in **happy**, **dub*i*ous**, **sit*u*ation**, or **stim*u*late** continue to be used in the sixth edition.

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

3.3. American English pronunciation

3.3.1. However, a more substantial difference when compared with the fifth edition, especially for those users outside Britain, is that in the new edition, the American variety of pronunciation is shown explicitly next to the British pronunciation. Information about American pronunciation was included in the fifth edition also, but it was not written out when it was predictable by rule. For example, **farm** only had /fɑːm/ because the American /fɑɚm/ (or, according to the $OALD$ system of transcription, /fɑːrm/) could be predicted from the spelling. However, linking /r/ for the non-rhotic varieties of British English was always shown in $OALD^5$ even though they are also predictable from spelling: **father** was accompanied by the transcription /ˈfɑːðə(r)/ with the parenthesized *r* indicating the fact that when this word is followed by a word starting with a vowel, the /r/ sound would be pronounced. Both of these *r*'s appear equally obvious, and it seems that the previous edition, showing linking /r/ (for British English) but not the rhoticization of vowels, was still clearly centered around non-rhotic varieties of British English.

3.3.2. In the new edition, presentation of the American pronunciation extends to the "predictable" cases as well as to those not so obvious: the above mentioned **farm** is transcribed /fɑːm; *AmE* fɑːrm/ this time. The diphthong of the word **go** used to be represented by /gəʊ/ only, because this being merely the *phonemic* (as against phonetic) transcription, the users were to apply the phonetic form of their own dialect (RP [əʊ], AmE [oʊ], or even Cockney [ʌʊ] etc.) to the representation. However, it did look

rather strange when **momentarily** was transcribed as /ˈməʊməntrəli; US ˌməʊmənˈterəli/ in $OALD^5$, the fact which was pointed out by the present writer in 3.3.1 in Ichikawa et al. (1996). The system in the new $OALD^6$, giving /ˈməʊməntrəli; AmE ˌməʊmənˈterəli/ with the diphthong for the American form shown as /oʊ/, looks much more sensible.

3.3.3. Another sound for which the American variant was omitted from the older edition because it could be replaced automatically from the given British form was the vowel for words like **hot**: /ɒ/. This is a slightly rounded vowel in RP but is an unrounded vowel, similar to the first vowel in **f*a*ther**, in AmE. Only /ɒ/ was given in $OALD^5$, but in the new edition, **hot** is transcribed as /hɒt; AmE hɑːt/.

3.3.4. Unpredictable to the learner is which of the words containing RP /ɒ/ becomes /ɔː/ in AmE; as was witnessed above, **hot** is /hɑːt/ in AmE, but **dog** is /dɔːg/. Both belong to the same phoneme /ɒ/ in RP. For such words, $OALD^5$ explicitly showed both variants and $OALD^6$ continues to do so, too.

3.3.5. On the other hand, words that share the same vowel as **thought**, which is rounded in RP but is changing to and merging with the unrounded /ɑː/ in AmE, have been given only a single transcription, namely /ɔː/, in $OALD^6$, the same as in $OALD^5$. EPD gives both /θɑːt/ and /θɔːt/ (in this order) for AmE, and LPD used to show two variant pronunciations, /ɒː, ɑː/ in its first edition but now only gives /ɑː/. Both pronunciation dictionaries transcribe the British vowel of **thought** with /ɔː/.

3.3.6. We have so far looked at the symbols and system of transcription used in $OALD^6$ and now we shall pick out some of the pronunciation differences found between British and American English at the morphological and lexical distributional levels and see how they are treated in $OALD^6$.

3.3.7. It is known that there is a difference in pronunciation between British and American English of certain suffixes: -ary, -ery, -ory, -mony as in **dictionary**, **stationery**, **dormitory**, **ceremony**, have a full vowel in AmE whereas in RP they are reduced to a schwa or even deleted. These were presented as /ˈdɪkʃənri; US -neri/, /ˈsteɪʃənri; US -neri/, /ˈdɔːmətri; US -tɔːri/, /ˈserəməni; US -məʊni/ in $OALD^5$, reflecting the differences.

The same transcriptions are kept in the new edition except, of course, where the notation has changed: for example, /əʊ/ → /oʊ/ etc.

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

The different vowels of so-called **ask**-words (RP /ɑː/ vs. AmE /æ/) were and continue to be shown.

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

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

3.3.10. However, not all American differences have been recognized, even in $OALD^6$, and the following headwords are given only the British pronunciation although they may not be pronounced with the same phonemes by Americans: **anti-** (no mention of the popular /-taɪ/ version), **Asian** (/ˈeɪʃn; ˈeɪʒn/. No mention of most Americans pronouncing it /ˈeɪʒn/. However, under **version**, /AmE ˈvɜːrʒn/ is given.), **ballet** (no /bæˈleɪ/ of AmE), **marry** (/ˈmeri/ not mentioned, even though according to Wells' recent poll for LPD^2, for more and more Americans this word is homophonous with **merry**), and **semi-** (/-aɪ/ not noted).

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

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

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

3.4. Variants of British pronunciation

3.4.1.   In Ichikawa et al., we saw that the variants of pronunciation chosen for General British and the order they were presented when more than one existed were descriptive and more or less matched the results of the opinion poll carried out by Wells for the first edition of his *LPD*: in other words, *OALD*'s pronunciations reflected reality.

3.4.2.   The pronunciations given in the new edition do not seem to have been changed greatly from the last edition except for the presentation of American English variants as mentioned above, but one item that was taken up by Ichikawa et al. (1996: 150) as not reflecting the British English poll preference, i.e. **schism** /ˈsɪzəm/, has been changed to /ˈskɪzəm; ˈsɪzəm/.

3.5. Stress

3.5.1.   Not only word stress but also stress on phrasal verbs and idioms are shown in *OALD*[6], a kind of information increasingly being included in learners' dictionaries published in Japan but still rare in English monolingual dictionaries. *OALD* was the first monolingual dictionary to indicate stress on idioms, and as can be seen from Takebayashi et al. (1975: 109) and Takahashi et al. (1992: 79), stress marks on compounds and idioms were first shown only when unpredictable but later the marking was extended to all idioms.

3.5.2.   However, a change can be seen between *OALD*[5] and *OALD*[6] that can be said to be retrogressive. Shifting the primary stress to an earlier secondary-stressed syllable in order to avoid clashing of strong stresses, is a common and unconscious strategy used by native speakers of English:

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

3.6. Additions to the explanation of pronunciation

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

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

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

(H. Saito)

4. Definition

4.1. Defining vocabulary

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

Table 4

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

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

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

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

garbage, in general[1], geography, girlfriend, give away, give out, give up, be going to, go up, good at, good for, gram, grandparent, grandson, grape, greenish, greyish, guitar

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

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

One of the most serious problems concerning DV is its treatment of the different senses of words and fixed phrases. As most of DV words consist of basic vocabulary of a language, they are typically polysemous and generate quite a few fixed phrases. From the user perspective it cannot be justified to use, say, *be to*, which is actually used defining *forbid* (1b, *OALD*[5])

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

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

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

> *OALD*[5]   **1 (a)** pleased; delighted . . . . **(b)** relieved: . . . . **(c)** grateful for sth: . . . . **(d)** willing and eager to do sth: . . . .   **2** causing or bringing joy: . . . .
>
> *OALD*[6]   **1** pleased; happy: . . . .   **2** grateful for sth: . . . .   **3** very willing to do sth: . . . .   **4** bringing joy: full of joy.

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

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

> *OALD*[5]   **1 (a)** waste material, esp domestic waste; rubbish (1): . . . . **(b)** a place or container for disposing of this: . . . .

OALD[6]   **1** waste food, paper, etc. that you throw away: .... **2** a place or container where waste food, paper, etc. can be placed: ....

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

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

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

OALD[5]   **1** **(a)** a man in relation to a child or children born from an OVUM that he has fertilized (FERTILIZE 1)

OALD[6]   **1** a male parent of a child or an animal; a person who is acting as the father to a child

OALD[5]'s *father* uses two words from outside its DV: OVUM and FER-

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

In this connection, one should be reminded that *OALD*[5] sometimes does not mark words outside its DV (e.g. *fertilized* in the case above) and that there are some cases where *OALD*[6] still follows in its predecessor's footsteps. This is another point to which we would like to draw attention: as DV has become one of the selling-points in the highly competitive EFL dictionary market, dictionary makers try to make their DVs appear smaller in number and also to make exceptions to their DVs appear fewer than there really are (Kawamura (2000a)). With all the welcome features of *OALD*[6]'s DV mentioned above, it is not free from this unfavorable trait. While *OALD*[6] claims to have only one type of exception to its DV, proper names (p. 1531), it actually has at least one more, root words. They are used to define their derivatives and compounds without marking them in small capital letters. *OALD*[5] admits using these words as part of its DV when they are used in their own entries and gives *bleary* used for *blearily* and *bleary-eyed* in its entry as an example. Surprisingly enough, the very word is used in the same way in *OALD*[6]'s definition for *blearily*, though it fails to mention the use as an exception (Kawamura (2000a)). To make matters worse, the adverb has become an independent headword in this revision: this exception cannot be justified. The same goes for other entries like *abstract* used for *abstraction*.

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

4.2. Sense Description

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

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

On the other hand, $OALD^6$ has split it as follows:

> **1** the bar joining the two upright posts of a football goal.
> **2** the bar between the seat and the handlebars of a man's bicycle.
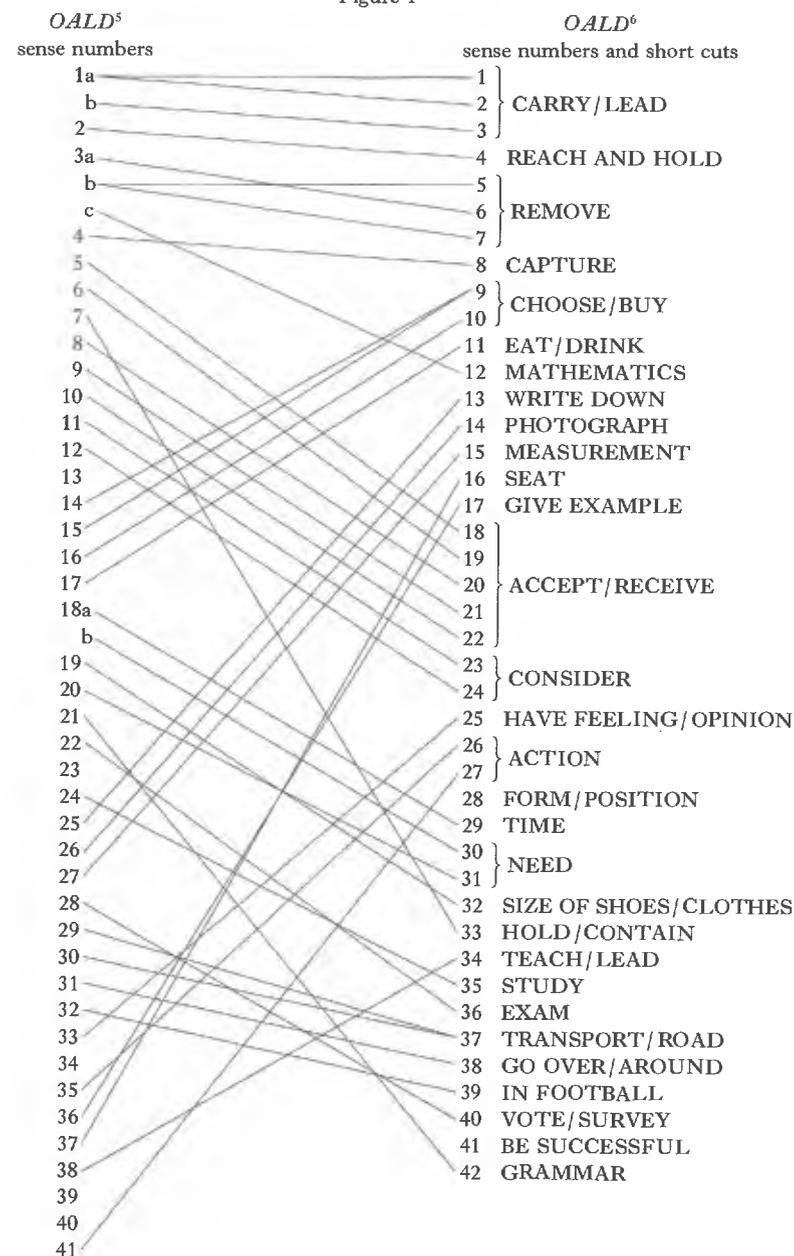
It is apparent that this distinction makes it easier for us to know exactly what a crossbar looks like. The following definitions of *forceful*, taken from $OALD^5$, $OALD^6$, and $LDOCE^3$ are another case in point:

$OALD^5$　　strong and firm; Assertive
$OALD^6$　　**1** (of people) expressing opinions firmly and clearly in a way that persuades other people to believe them **2** (of opinions, etc.) expressed firmly and clearly so that other people believe them **3** using force
$LDOCE^3$　　**1** a forceful person expresses their opinions very strongly and clearly and people are easily persuaded by them **2** forceful arguments, reasons etc are strongly and clearly expressed, and help persuade you that something is true

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

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

Figure 1

OALD⁵ sense numbers / OALD⁶ sense numbers and short cuts

1 |
2 } CARRY/LEAD
3 |
4　REACH AND HOLD
5 |
6 } REMOVE
7 |
8　CAPTURE
9 |
10 } CHOOSE/BUY
11　EAT/DRINK
12　MATHEMATICS
13　WRITE DOWN
14　PHOTOGRAPH
15　MEASUREMENT
16　SEAT
17　GIVE EXAMPLE
18 |
19 |
20 } ACCEPT/RECEIVE
21 |
22 |
23 } CONSIDER
24 |
25　HAVE FEELING/OPINION
26 } ACTION
27 |
28　FORM/POSITION
29　TIME
30 } NEED
31 |
32　SIZE OF SHOES/CLOTHES
33　HOLD/CONTAIN
34　TEACH/LEAD
35　STUDY
36　EXAM
37　TRANSPORT/ROAD
38　GO OVER/AROUND
39　IN FOOTBALL
40　VOTE/SURVEY
41　BE SUCCESSFUL
42　GRAMMAR

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

Although there are quite a few promotions and demotions of the individual senses, it is hard to discern any particular patterns in the changes represented in Figure 1. However, it is fair to suppose that corpora have come to be used more thoroughly than in the former edition. The above changes of order may well reflect the corpus evidence. In this connection, Akasu et al. (1996: 35) have pointed out that the senses of *film* are arranged in exactly the same order: (1) movie, (2) photographic film and (3) thin coating or layer by *CIDE*, *COBUILD*[2], *LDOCE*[3], and *OALD*[5], and this still holds true for *OALD*[6] as far as the three senses are concerned. As we have seen in 4.2.1, however, *OALD*[6] has a tendency to draw finer distinctions of meaning than *OALD*[5], and it has three senses under the first short cut of MOVING PICTURES: those of movie, the making of a movie, and footage.

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

OALD[6]	30 short cuts for 42 senses
LDOCE[3]	21 signposts for 47 senses[2)]
CIDE	14 guide words for 14 senses[3)]

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

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

4.2.4.   *OALD*[6] has introduced the so-called full-sentence definitions, originally adopted by *COBUILD*[1] (1987). While this definition style takes more space than what are called traditional definitions, at least the former can provide us with more information, such as typical subjects of verbs, collocations, and so forth. Let us look at the following definitions of *twinkle*:

OALD[5]	**2**	(of sb or their eyes) to have bright lively expressions esp because one is amused
OALD[6]	**2**	if your eyes **twinkle**, you have a bright expression because you are happy or excited

OALD[6]'s definition is arguably much easier to understand and it is, nevertheless, as informative as *OALD*[5]'s. It is, therefore, fair to say that the introduction of sentence definition is another welcome feature, at least in this case.

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

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

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

$OALD^5$ a very fine piece of work, esp the best done by a particular artist; a MASTERPIECE.

$OALD^6$ a very good piece of work, especially the best work by a particular artist, writer, etc. **[SYN]** MASTERPIECE

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

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

4.2.8. It appears that more entries have been provided with pictorial illustrations in this revision, as in *jug*, *right-angled* (cross-referenced to *triangle*) and *single-breasted* (cross-referenced to pictures on page A4). The illustration under *jug* depicts its lip also, so that the entry for *lip* has got a cross-reference to the illustration. Such words as *lip* in this particular sense are more easily comprehensible using pictorial illustrations than verbal definitions. So these additions may be regarded as another welcome feature of $OALD^6$.

4.3. Coverage

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

Table 5

alphabet	pages	headwords	+6, −5	−6, +5
B	100–1	45	4	1
F	500–1	30	5	5
O	900–1	50	7	6
S	1300–1	42	6	2
Total	8	167	23	14

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

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

Table 6

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

Note: New senses with no labels are not included.

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

thoroughly.

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

> *OALD*[5]   a special article in a newspaper, usu written by the EDITOR (1), giving her or his opinion on an issue of current importance.
>
> *OALD*[6]   an important article in a newspaper, that expresses the editor's opinion about an item of news or an issue; in the US also a comment on radio or television that expresses the opinion of the STATION or NETWORK.

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

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

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

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

4.4. Labels

4.4.1.   *OALD*[5] divided its labels into three categories: (1) those indicating a particular attitude or the appropriateness of words in a particular situation, such as *approving* and *informal*, (2) those showing other restrictions on the use of words, such as *AmE* and *old use*, and (3) those marking specialised use in particular fields, such as *anatomy, computing, grammar*, and *law* (inside front cover), whereas *OALD*[6] has omitted mention of the last. As we will consider the last group later in 4.4.3, let us now examine the first two groups. While most of *OALD*[5]'s labels correspond to those used in *OALD*[6], the labels of *euph(emistic)*, *rhet(orical)*, *sexist*, and *catch-*

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

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

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

Table 7

group	labels	
I	*BrE*	14[4)
	formal	8
	written	8
	spoken	6
	literary	2
	technical	2
	old-fashioned	1
	literary	1
	rare	1
	grammar	1
	chemistry	1
	law	1
II	*dated*	3
	euph	2
	approv	1
	US	1
	commerce	1
	music	1
III	4 instances	

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

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

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

Table 8

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

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

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

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

The entries belonging to group III are as follows:

at sb's behest	*dated* → *old use*
fop	*derog* → *old-fashioned*
for *conj.*	*fml* → *literary*
sugar *n.* 4	*infml* → *spoken*

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

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

4.5. Miscellaneous

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

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

4.5.2.   For word meanings, the following two types of note deserve special mention: **WHICH WORD** and **VOCABULARY BUILDING**. The former deals with the differences between near synonyms and gives guidance on which of them to choose in particular contexts, and the latter helps to increase one's vocabulary. Again, it might be added that notes of this kind have long been in use in English-Japanese learners' dictionaries published in Japan.

4.5.3.   Another type introduced in this revision is `HELP` notes, some of which give information on pragmatics like the following: "Some people find this use offensive" (e.g. *by God!*). Considering the importance of pragmatic information for foreign learners, the enhanced coverage of such information in $OALD^6$ is a most favorable feature.

4.5.4.   From the user perspective, the fact is worth noting that $OALD^6$ has introduced into its front matter an article entitled "Understanding definitions" (pp. x-xi). This article mentions that the dictionary has included such abbreviations as *sb* in its DV (see 4.1.1), which is not so important in itself, because the inclusion of particular items into DV has no direct relationship with users' understanding of definitions. Much more important is to make the DV-based definitions more easily comprehensible. As the article in question is meant to explain those abbreviations and defining patterns used in the dictionary in order to "make understanding the definitions simpler" (p. x), it is, indeed, a unique attempt by $OALD^6$ deserving of note and, thus, a favorable feature.[7] This is a very short article, only two pages long, but it is certainly a positive step forward, however small.

(A. Kawamura and K. Akasu)

5.   Examples and collocations

5.1. Scope of study

In Section 5, we will look at the verbal illustrations in $OALD^6$ including collocations and fixed expressions incorporated in them, as compared to those in its previous version ($OALD^5$) and in its main competitor, $LDOCE^3$. $OALD^5$ presents 90,000 'corpus-based' examples as one of the main features of the dictionary and states this clearly in its cover blurb as well as in its preface. In the new sixth edition, however, nothing about these categories of information is announced as a feature either on its cover or in the preface. We have selectively compared illustrative phrases and sentences in the three dictionaries and tried to show how they have changed or are comparable. As samples, we have picked up all the verbal illustrations in the four pages of $OALD^5$ (pages 51, 151, 251, 351, i.e. those in the entries of *Aquarius — archbishop, bursar — busily, contorted — contraindication, drag* (*noun*) — *drat*), and then extracted the corresponding information from $OALD^6$ and $LDOCE^3$. As an extended scope of study, examples in every 100 pages from p. 451 through to p. 1351 in $OALD^5$, as well as their parallel parts in $OALD^6$ and $LDOCE^3$ are also examined for some of the features studied below.

5.2.   Verbal illustrations in $OALD^5$ and $OALD^6$

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

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

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

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

In contrast, items such as *aqueous* (techn), *arboreal* (techn), (*go for a*) *burton* (old-fashioned, BrE, informal), *bus* (sense 2, AmE), *bushel* (sense 2, AmE informal), *contradistinction* (formal), *dragon* (sense 2, disapproving, especially BrE), *dragoon sb into sth/doing sth* (written), *dram* (especially ScotE), which have the labels indicated in brackets in *OALD*[6], as well as *dramatics*, which have the label 'derog' in *OALD*[5], are deprived of their verbal illustrations. Examples for phrasal verbs and idiomatic expressions such as *burst in, burst in on, bury your differences, bury the hatchet* and *contract sth out (to sb)* are also curtailed. The sixth edition of *OALD* is somewhat larger in size than the fifth, but the number of columns in each page (2) and the standard number of lines in each column (77) are the same. The increased space of the dictionary, only eight-odd percent, may disappear anywhere in the course of revision full of new features. It is quite understandable that one should cut down on something in order to make room for something more important, but is the reduction of examples for the above-mentioned items really reasonable or justifiable?

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

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

One point to mention about the changes in actual exemplification. We find an illustrative sentence '*I hate you!' she burst out.* for the phrasal verb *burst out* in *OALD*[5]. In *OALD*[6], we find '*For heavens*' [sic] *sake!' he burst out.* for the same lexical item. This sort of consideration, in this case the alteration of the subject pronoun from *she* to *he*, may appear very minor but is in fact quite important from a viewpoint of avoiding the "alleged" stereotype image (here, of women being often hysteric).

5.3.   Glosses for verbal illustrations in *OALD*[5] and *OALD*[6]

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

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

Glosses for verbal illustrations in EFL dictionaries are in fact very im-
portant. In most bilingual EFL dictionaries, illustrative phrases and sen-
tences are followed by target language equivalents to help the user under-
stand the source language examples.[3] In contrast, monolingual EFL dic-
tionaries usually present examples just as they are, and do not always
paraphrase their meaning. Hence the necessity of opportune, appropriate
glosses for verbal illustrations, especially in "advanced" learner's dictio-
naries whose illustrations are derived from corpora rather than editor-
invented examples. Corpus materials have the merit of being authentic,
but unfortunately they are often deprived of sufficient context and pre-
sented somewhat "abruptly," and the dictionary user may sometimes have
difficulty understanding their meaning. Timely glosses help her/him out.

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

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

One slightly marked change from *OALD*[5] to *OALD*[6] is the apparent
abolition of what may be regarded as "exemplifying gloss," led by the
abbreviation "eg." We found four instances in *OALD*[5] in our extended
survey. They are: *All the blood drained from his face* (eg on hearing bad
news). (s.v. drain *v*. 1) / *Your (very) good health* (eg said before drinking to
wish sb good health)! (s.v. health) / *The farmer sometimes used to pay me in
kind* (eg with a sack of potatoes). (s.v. kind[2] IDM) and *Thousands came to
pay their last respects to the murdered policeman* (eg by attending his
funeral). (s.v. pay[2] IDM). The first instance was rendered into the subordi-
nate clause in an ordinary illustrative sentence in *OALD*[6]: *All the colour
drained from his face when I told him the news*. The second example disap-
peared in *OALD*[6], and the third item, *in kind*, lost its illustration in the
sixth edition as well. In the fourth instance, the context in which the
expression can be used is stated categorically in the new edition: *Many
came to pay their last respects* (= by attending sb's funeral). As in the case of
ie used in *OALD*[5] and replaced by the equal sign (=) in *OALD*[6], the
abbreviation *eg* may at first be puzzling to some users. Surely this device
of "*eg* glossing" may not be absolutely essential in dictionary description
and can be done without as in the cases above, but was it really justified to
streamline it? We assume that it is a powerful instrument that has been
inherited from the good old Oxford tradition of verbal exemplification
(incidentally, we can find all the four instances above as they are in the

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

5.4.   Verbal illustrations in *LDOCE*³ and *OALD*⁶

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

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

The number of lines in each column in the A–Z section of *LDOCE*³ is

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

> *The dark glasses give her an* **air of mystery**. [*OALD*⁶, s.v. mystery 3]
> **an air of mystery** *There was an air of mystery about him.* [*LDOCE*³, s.v. mystery 3]
> **by bus** *I go to work by bus.* | **bus driver**/fare etc *The bus fare is 60p.* [*LDOCE*³, s.v. bus¹]
> *Shall we walk or go by bus? . . . a bus company/driver* [*OALD*⁶, s.v. bus *noun* 1]
> **bus tables** *Sherry had a job bussing tables.* [*LDOCE*³, s.v. bus² 2]

*LDOCE*³'s practice has the merit of being able to present canonical forms of each expression as well as the forms actually used in the sentence (see the example of *bus tables* above). However, it sometimes appears to take much more space than seems necessary (see the examples of *an air of mystery* and *by bus* above), compared with the elegant fashion of presentation by *OALD*⁶. It would perhaps be fairer to defend *LDOCE*³ by saying that its use of boldface is much more visually effective, as *LDOCE*³'s boldface print stands out far more than its *OALD*⁶ counterpart.

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

5.5.   Glosses for verbal illustrations in *OALD*[6] and *LDOCE*[3]

As we mentioned in 5.1., we extended the scope of the sample survey here and included the following ranges in the three dictionaries (*OALD*[5], *OALD*[6] and *LDOCE*[3]): *flourish (n.) — fluke, head (v.) — health, killer — king, mole — monetarist, pavement artist — pay-as-you-earn, quarter — queen, scissors — score, sprat — spread, tilth — time (n.), week — weighbridge* (these are items found in every 100 page starting p. 451 in *OALD*[5]). We found 53, 65, and 63 glosses for verbal illustrations in *OALD*[5], *OALD*[6], and *LDOCE*[3], respectively. The numbers of glosses themselves are similar in *OALD*[6] and *LDOCE*[3], but we have further statistics. *OALD*[6] does not give any glosses to 27 examples to which *LDOCE*[3] provides some verbal paraphrase, but *LDOCE*[3] fails to give glosses to only 8 items which *OALD*[6] annotates. 21 items that *LDOCE*[3] gives glosses to fails to be mentioned in *OALD*[6], and 29 vice versa. What is quite notable is that *LDOCE*[3] gives the status of independently numbered subentry to the items (especially fixed expressions) that are merely treated as verbal illustrations with glosses in *OALD*[6]. It means that they are given definitions, instead of glosses, in *LDOCE*[3]. In *OALD*[6], 3 items that are exemplified and glossed in *LDOCE*[3] are given the status of independent entry. What do these statistics imply? Perhaps *LDOCE*[3] is more explicit, by giving more paraphrases of phrases or sentences cited, in the form of either a gloss or a definition. Apparently Oxford just presents examples and tends to leave the understanding of their meaning more to the user than does Longman. But it is just a barely discernible difference, and when we look at the actual practice of glossing, *OALD*[6] employs very essential, pertinent wording. Thus, we cannot conclude that *LDOCE*[3] is decidedly more helpful to the user. We would, however, like to mention one example here where a gloss in *OALD*[6] would have helped a confused learner. *OALD*[6] fails to give any paraphrase for the verbal illustration *Do you have the time?* (s.v. *time, noun* 2), while *LDOCE*[3] presents a timely gloss "(= used to ask someone if they know what time it is)." Some learners of English supposedly fail to grasp the meaning of the phrase in the given situation and get confused as to how to respond, assuming the phrase to mean, "Do you have the time available (to do something)?" Although the example in *OALD*[6] is preceded (rather

remotely) by the definition "the time shown on a clock in minutes and hours," a timely gloss would not have been redundant.[4]

5.6.   Use of boldface in *OALD*[5], *OALD*[6] and *LDOCE*[3]

The three dictionaries employ boldface in presenting what *OALD*[6] calls "common phrase" in examples (p. ix), which seem to include fixed expressions and typical collocations. In the sample parts mentioned in 5.1, we found only 7 instances of designation in boldface in *OALD*[5] (namely, *independent arbitration, burst into flames, burst into tears / song, burst out crying / laughing, without fear of contradiction, contraflow system* and *take drastic action*). In contrast, *LDOCE*[3], published in the same year as *OALD*[5], has by our count 57 boldface expressions in the same sample range. Probably with the more extensive use of corpus materials and possibly occasioned by *LDOCE*'s practice, *OALD*[6] marks many more phrases in verbal illustrations in boldface and our sample count amounted to 21, three times the number found in *OALD*[5]. The items which were not presented in boldface in *OALD*[5] but found highlighted in boldface in *OALD*[6] are: *aquiline nose / features, go to arbitration, am bursting, burst onto the . . . scene, in short bursts, dead and buried, buried alive, contradict oneself, in direct contradiction to, emotionally drained.* Besides these, some expressions that were not found in *OALD*[5] have been newly introduced in *OALD*[6] with boldface accentuation (*full to bursting, subject to contract,* etc), although others were left out from examples of use in the latest edition (e.g. *independent arbitration, without fear of contradiction*). One expression, which was marked in boldface in *OALD*[5], has now come to be presented in mere lightface in *OALD*[6] (*contraflow system*). We are in the age of employing large-scale corpus data for the compilation of EFL dictionaries (*OALD*[6] proclaims the use of Oxford Corpus Collection and British National Corpus on its back-cover blurb) and it is easier than ever to identify what phrases are typical or common just by referring to and looking through the search results of corpora obtained in the form of, say, a KWIC concordance. It is quite important for the EFL learner to know what expressions are common, typical or rather "fixed" in English, both for the interpretive and productive purposes of the language. *OALD*'s increase of boldface

marking of "common phrases" are really welcome. *LDOCE*³'s use of bold-face is more extensive and it highlights not only such items as *by bus*, *sign a contract* and *drama school*, but also such expressions as *bus driver/fare*, *blocked drains* and *the drama of* (as in *We all shared in the drama of the rescue*). The question of what items an EFL dictionary should identify as fixed expressions and collocations and highlight them to get the most effective result for the EFL user may need further, perhaps more empirical discussion.

(T. Kokawa)

6.   Grammar and usage notes

6.1.   Grammar of nouns

6.1.1.   Classification and coding of nouns

The coding system of the different types of nouns has undergone some changes in *OALD*⁶. We find an apparently minor but potentially very important shift of policy in the coding system from *OALD*⁵ to *OALD*⁶. Firstly, consider the comparative table below which shows how noun codes compare in the two editions.

Table 9

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

The nine codes in *OALD*⁵ have been reduced to seven in *OALD*⁶. The two lost codes are [pl v] and [sing v]. The nouns belonging to each of the two codes in *OALD*⁵ come under [pl.] and [U], respectively in *OALD*⁶. The code [pl.] in *OALD*⁶ corresponds both to [pl] and [pl v] in *OALD*⁵. The difference between them was that a [pl] noun behaved as a plural both morphologically and syntactically, while a [pl v] noun was a singular mor-

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

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

The classification in *OALD*⁶ shows another change towards a consistent treatment of nouns. In *OALD*⁵, the nouns coded as [CGp], [Gp] and [sing or pl v] could all agree with verbs either in the singular or in the plural, but their code names failed to reflect this common property. In comparison, *OALD*⁶ gives them the codes [C + sing./pl.v.], [sing. + sing./pl.v] and [U + sing./pl.v.]. These three code names are so interrelated that the relationship among the three is easily understood. In this respect, the classification in *OALD*⁶ is thus more systematically made than that in *OALD*⁵.

6.1.2.   Coding differences between *OALD*⁶ and *OALD*⁵

We will now look at some individual changes from *OALD*⁵ to *OALD*⁶. We have taken 724 samples of nouns from *E* to *eyrie*, thus covering 53 pages. Of all the 724 nouns, 629 have their corresponding entries in *OALD*⁵. For 152 nouns (21 percent of the total), we have found some kind of difference or lack of correspondence in the codes of the two editions.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

earth :	(also Earth, the Earth) [U, sing.]
efficiency :	(efficiencies) [pl.]
electronics :	(electronics) [pl.]
eleven-plus :	(usually the eleven-plus) [sing.]
entanglement :	(entanglements) [pl.]

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

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

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

6.2. Grammar of verbs

6.2.1. Coding differences between *OALD*[6] and *OALD*[5]

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

Table 10

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

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

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

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

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

dency to favour surface structures over deep structures.

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

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

Table 11

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

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

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

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

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

6.2.2.   Individual cases to note

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

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

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

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

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

Another type of misleading coding occurs in an example sentence for the verb *surprise,* "Would it surprise you to know that I'm thinking of leaving?" coded as [VN to inf]. This was also the case in $OALD^5$. At first glance, the part "it surprise you to" certainly corresponds literally to [VN to inf], but what is problematic here is that there is no explicit explanation or comment indicating that this construction of *surprise* — represented by [VN to inf] — can only occur when the subject is *it,* in apposition to the following infinitive phrase "to know." I would like to suggest that, when the subject must be *it,* this condition should be made clear in, for example, a help note.[4] This misleading coding is so systematic that we find more examples of this problem for the verbs *astonish, embarrass, interest,* and the like. Furthermore, consider in a similar way the verbs *appear, chance,*

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

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

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

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

6.3. Usage notes

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

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

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

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

(R. Hotta)

7. Conclusion

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

market for EFL dictionaries. One may well infer that the *OALD*⁶'s lexicographers, writers, and compilers have come to the realization that more information covering American English is in greater demand in this part of Asia, including both Japan and Korea. It is a well-known fact that, in a variety of ways, this geographic area is closely tied with the United States. The assumption that they make much of Japan as a market is well supported and evidenced by the fact that copies of *OALD*⁶ are sold in Japan in two colors, whereas these copies of *OALD*⁶ sold in England are all in black and white.¹⁾ The two-colored pages of *OALD*⁶ are visually more legible, with headwords and other indices marked out very clearly. The inclusion of more information on American English in the dictionary translates into a relative demotion of British English. As pointed out in 2.1, however, it might be more appropriate to state the following: that the new *OALD*⁶ is now far better balanced than its previous editions in its treatment of the two main varieties of English on either side of the Atlantic Ocean. In other words, the dictionary has become less anglocentric.²⁾

NOTES

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

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

Section 2
 1) *OALD*⁶ says on the treatment of these words that "[s]ome words that are derivatives of other, more frequent words, do not have their own entry in the dictionary, because they can be easily understood from the meaning of the word from which they are derived (the root word)" (p. viii). That may be all right semantically. However, think of the following arrangement, for example: *heartiness* is run on to *hearty,* while *heartily* is given headword status, ten words away. Is it easy to look up these words?
 2) Cowie (1983: 141) "suggest[s] as a general principle that the interpretive function places a high premium on ease of access and thus on the strict alphabetical ordering of entries."

3) It says on the dust jacket of *OALD*⁵: 63,000 references, 11,600 idioms and phrasal verbs; a total of 74,600. In addition, one might be reminded that "4,500 new words and meanings" are added to the new edition (back cover).

4) Incidentally, the arrow ⇨ had its place in the former edition. It is among the symbols used in the dictionary and is given the interpretation (inside the front cover): See . . . . That is not the case in *OALD*⁶. Nowhere is an explanation to be found. The symbol, however, is actually used in the body, e.g. ⇨ note at REASON (s.v. *pretext*), which must be among the editorial faults.

5) Both of these phrases are entered as headwords.

Section 3

1) The same presentation has been used in *SOD*.

2) The fact that they were left out from the fifth edition was pointed out by the present writer in Ichikawa et al. (1996: 149).

3) *LAAD* also includes explanation of the voiced, tapped /t/ (transcribed /t̬/ in the main part of the dictionary) and the glottalized /t/ (transcribed /tˀ/) under "American English Sounds" near the end of the dictionary (p. 1703).

Section 4

1) Both *OALD*⁵ and *OALD*⁶ give phrases, indented, in their DV lists, and these are counted in this article.

2) Some headings in the menu, though not counted here, function virtually as signposts.

3) *CIDE* takes a different system than *LDOCE*³ and *OALD*⁶. It divides different senses of a polysemous word according to its core meanings and groups them together. The number of senses entered in *CIDE* is therefore smaller than those of the other two, even though they cover almost the same range of meanings.

4) Eight out of the fourteen items given *BrE* are spelling-related, as in *behaviour* and *belabour* as opposed to *behavior* and *belabor*, respectively.

5) Two notes of caution are in order. First, such labeling changes between the two editions as *arch(aic)* → *old use*, *derog(atory)* → *disapproving*, and *techn(ical)* → *computing* are not counted here because these labels are virtually identical or equivalent to each other. Second, qualifiers like *often*, *rather*, and *especially* as in "often *ironic*," "*rather dated*," and "*especially AmE*" are also ignored.

6) This comment "used mainly in spoken British English" is attached only to the entry **Heaven forbid**, but not to **God forbid** in *COBUILD*².

7) It may be interesting to note that Japanese distributors of monolingual EFL dictionaries, *OALD*⁶ included, make a point of appending separate booklets, written in Japanese, on how to use them.

Section 5

1) In the count, out of expediency, collocational alternatives (e.g. *archaic attitudes/views/practices*) are regarded as one.

2) On the exemplification of marked lexical items, especially of "old words," see Stein (1999: 56ff.).

3) Among the four major British EFL dictionaries, *OALD*⁵/⁶ and *LDOCE*³ have glosses for verbal illustrations.

4) The same sort of consideration is undoubtedly necessary for the expression "What do

you do?" as many EFL learners (at least in Japan) confuse it with "What are you doing?" and produce an inappropriate answer. For this fixed expression, both *OALD*⁶ and *LDOCE*³ give felicitous comments.

Section 6

1) As for color names, *LDOCE*³ is also inconsistent, as follows: *black* ([U]), *blue* ([C, U]), *brown* ([C, U]), *green* ([C, U]), *grey* ([C, U]), *orange* ([C]), *pink* ([C, U]), *purple* ([U]), *red* ([C, U]), *scarlet* ([U]), *violet* ([C, U]), *white* ([U]), and *yellow* ([U]).

2) Ichikawa et al. (1996: 170) state that "it is quite doubtful whether the distinction between [adv] and [pr (epositional phrase)] can be always clearly drawn, as the verbs concerned are used with either [adv] or [pr]."

3) As far as I have collected from nouns beginning with the letter *e*, the information [passive] is deleted in *OALD*⁶ from *embarrass, embitter, encircle, endow, enfeeble, enrage, ensconce, enshroud, ensnare, evict, exhilarate*, and *express*. In comparison, the information is added for *emboss, engineer, enlarge, ennoble, enslave, entangle, enthuse, etch, evidence, except, excuse, exemplify, exercise, exhume*, and *expurgate*.

4) In general, if a construction is always used under a certain condition, this condition should be made clear. Such a case is observed, for example, in a passive usage of *say*. One of the example sentences for the verb goes, "He is said to have been a brilliant scholar," which is coded as [VN to inf]. As this construction is used only in passive sentences, this restrictive usage information should be, and really is, properly given in the following help section, declaring "This pattern is only used in the passive." But this kind of treatment is not thorough.

Section 7

1) Ms. Wehmeier informed us that copies of *OALD*⁶ sold in Korea and Germany are also in two colors (personal communication). Incidentally, in the early 1990's, when the market for bilingual dictionaries became fierce in Japan, English-Japanese and Japanese-English dictionaries first began to be published in two colors.

2) See Akasu et al. (2000: 109–110) for the notions of anglocentrism and anglorelativism.

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*COBUILD*¹: *Collins COBUILD English language dictionary*. London: Collins, 1987.

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

KAZUO DOHI   RUMI TAKAHASHI
YURI KOMURO   SAORI TOMINAGA
JUNKO SUGIMOTO   TAKAHIRO KOKAWA

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 usage[3], 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 Idiomological 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 headwords, 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 B_1, 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 Dictionay

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 『附音挿図和譯英字彙』 *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 speakers[3] 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 Shimbun* 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 era[4].

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 Idiomological 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 **manual**LY. 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 compounds[8], 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: *about¹–act¹*, *early–effusively*, *hackle²–head²*, *jab–jocular*, *mail¹–market²*, *oaf–off*, and *table¹–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
IEDJ	(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
COD	(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: *happen*ING, *harass*MENT, *talent*ED and *talk*ER, 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 different[9], 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 edition[10]. 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

ChED only	16	*MDEL* only	87
CoED only	20	*SSD* only	14
ChED & *MDEL*	19	*ChED* & *CoED*	13
MDEL & *CoED*	16	*SSD* & *ChED* or *MDEL* or *CoED*	16
ChED, MDEL & *CoED*	18	*ChED, MDEL, CoED* & *SSD*	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 1909[11], 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

WNID	10	*Century* 2	4
N Standard	6	*WNID* & *Century* 2	11
WNID & *N Standard*	31	*Century* 2 & *N Standard*	13
WNID, *Century* 2 & *N Standard*	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, absent*[1]*, 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 accents[1] 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)	*IEDJ*	key word(s)	*IEDJ*	key word(s)	*IEDJ*
m*a*n	a	f*a*ther	ä	*p*ain	p
p*a*th	à	h*ea*p	ē	*b*at	b
m*e*n	e	th*ou*ght	ą	*t*ell	t
f*i*n	i	m*o*ve	ö	*d*own	d
l*o*t	o	f*eu*d	ū	*k*ill	k
f*oo*t	ų	l*u*rk	ėr	*g*ag	g
c*u*p	u	f*i*ne	ī	*ch*urch	ch
sof*a*	a	h*o*st	ō	*G*eorge	j
husb*a*nd	à	f*a*ce	«ā»	*f*all	f
mom*e*nt	ę	ch*oi*ce	«oi»	*v*eil	v
fath*er*	ėr	ab*ou*t	ou	*th*ing	th
act*o*r	ǫ	h*ea*rt	«är»	*th*at	*th*
reg*u*lar	u	h*ai*r	«ār»	*s*it	s
rec*ei*ve	e	l*u*re	«ūr»	*z*one	z
vill*a*ge	ą	p*oo*r	«ōr»	*sh*all	sh
		h*ea*r	«ēr»	vi*s*ion	zh
		sh*or*t, p*or*t	«ōr»	*h*ouse	h
Other features				*m*an	m
′ primary accent		al″er-a′tion (ą″tẹr-a′shǫn)		*n*ose	n
″ secondary accent				ba*n*k	n
				*r*ay	r
- syllable-boundary		cof′fee=cup″ (-=kup″)		*l*ong	l
= word-boundary				*w*ait	w
in a compound				*wh*eel	hw
				*y*et	«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	IEDJ	SEJ/MoEJ	COD²⁾	ChED	CoED	WNID	Century 1 & 2
cup	u	ȯ, ŭ	(u̇)	u	u	ŭ	u
regular	u	û	u	ū	u̇	u̇	ụ̈
foot	ụ	ọ, o͝o, ụ	(o͝o)	oo	ụ	o͝o	u̇
lurk	ėr	ẽr, ĩr, ûr	(er)	ėr	ėr	ûr	ėr
move	ö	ọ, o͞o, ụ	(o͞o)	o͞o	ö	o͞o	ö
that	th	ŧh	(dh)	th	TH	th	ŦH
bank	ṇ	ṇ	(ng)	ng	ng	ng	ng
George	j	j, (d)ġ	(j)	j	j	j	ḑ

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 headwords. 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: (ọ) in *mọve*, (o͞o) in *mo͞on* and (ụ) in *rụde*. 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 [jʊ] when in a syllable-final position. Compare the symbol (u) in *cup* (kup) and *regular* (reg′u-lėr). 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 (ėr)

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 (ŏ), 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 (ŏ). However, *IEDJ* transcribes it (ạ) 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	Century 1 & 2
loss	ọ	ŏ	ô	(aw, ŏ)	o	o	ộ⁴⁾	ô
often	ọ	ô, ŏ	ô	(aw, ŏ)	o	o	ộ	ô
laurel	a̦	a̦	a̦	ŏ	aw	a̦	ô, ŏ	â, o

(ii) *morning* vs. *mourning*

key word	IEDJ	SEJ	MoEJ	COD	ChED	CoED	WNID	Century 1 & 2
morning	ōr	ôr	ôr	or	or	or	ôr	ôr
mourning	ōr	ôr	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.*
> (1) ● 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*)
> (2) 教育スル，仕込ム［例 *to ~ a child or a bird; to ~ the eye or the taste*]． (*SEJ*)
> (3) 教育ス，教化ス，教訓ス，仕込ム；練(ネ)ル，馴(ナ)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，しっかりしたる，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[キカ]，間代搐搦[チヂ].
tangle *vt*.   ● 絡[カ]ます(毛髪・絲等を).
walk² *n*.   ● 散歩，徜徉[キウヤ]，遊山[ユサ]，遠足，徐歩[ソロル]，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 [キカ] and [チヂキ], 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[ミタ]，耳埀[ミミ].
tadpole *n*.   蝌斗[オマヤシ].

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* [オマヤシ] 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(ラ)フ，喫(キツ)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(タカ)キ，丈高(タケダカ)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 **talent**ED[2], **talent**LESS, aa.; . . . (*COD*)
    ● 才能，技倆，才幹，手腕，能力，《+ *for* music, *for* doing》(*IEDJ*)

❶才, 才能 [例 *a* ~ *for music: a man of great* ~]. (*SEJ*)
●才(サイ), 才能(サイノウ), 才幹(サイカン), 才器(サイキ), 技倆(ギリョウ). (*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 **earnest**LY[2] adv., **earnest**NESS 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*)
❶熱心 [例 *to seek or ask with* ~; *to engage in a work with* ~]. ❷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)
>> ❶話，物語 [例 *a fairy*-〜]. ❷空談，ワルクチ. ❸俗間ノ傳説，荒唐ノ談 [例 *folk*-〜]. ❹計算，(又)數，量，額 [例 *to measure value by* 〜]. (SEJ)
>> ●話(ハシ)，物語(モガタリ)，作話(ツクリバナシ). ●ムダ話. ●言付口(イイツケグチ)，悪口(ワルクチ). ⦿†計算(ケサン). ❼†數(カズ)，總數(ソウスウ)，高(タカ).   (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[シュレン]，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，木靈[ダマ].   (*IEDJ*)
● 反響(ハンキヤウ)，山彦(ヤマビコ)，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 木靈 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(ケツボウ)，不自由(フジイウ)，不足(フソク). ● 困窮(コンキウ)，貧乏(ビンボウ). ● 缺乏物，
必要(ヒツエウ)物. ● 慾望(ヨクボウ)，需要(ジユエウ)，要求(エウキウ).   (*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，…… に關して，…… 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・狀態を表はすとき). ● …… 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，…… に關する，(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*)

■ 中ニ，内ニ．■ 在宅ニテ，近ク［例 *The lady is* ～; *a vessel sailing* ～ *with the land*]．■ (俗)其外ニ，其上ニ［例 *He found himself five dollars* ～]．■ (航)捲キ上ゲテ，捲キ収メテ［例 *The sails are* ～]．■ (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[ニ]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[キサ], 削衰, 勞瘵[ラウサ], 脊髓勞.   (*IEDJ*)
   (醫) 全身羸瘦, 消削, 勞症.   (*SEJ*)
   【醫】 羸削(ルサキク), 消削(キサクク), 勞瘵(ラウサイ).   (*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 脊髓勞 means tabes dorsalis or locomotor ataxia. The Japanese equivalent for the word *tabes* is 勞; therefore, it is not precise to give the equivalent 脊髓勞 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 脊髓勞 as the equivalent of the word *tabes*:

> **Tabes** (Lat. tabere, to waste away; Ger. 𝔗𝔞𝔟𝔢𝔰; Fr. tabes) 脊髓勞、
> (*TJ3*)

IEDJ may have referred to *TJ3* when giving Japanese equivalents to its technical terms and adopted the word 脊髓勞 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 〖墺〗 (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*[1] ❹ 【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. Inouye 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 Idiomological 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

用英和新辞典』) (ABC Publishing Office, 1903) with M. Swan as a coauthor, and *A Dictionary of English Particles and Other Grammatically Important Words* (『英和例解要語大辞典』) (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* (『新英和大辞典』) (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 his 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 (ȯ) in *WNID* indicates that this vowel has quality somewhere between (a̱), (ō) and (ŏ).

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 $14 \div 35 \times 100 = 40\%$
     T $5 \div 14 \times 100 = 35.7\%$
     W $6 \div 16 \times 100 = 37.5\%$

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)*. (『井上英和中辞典』), ed. by J. Inouye. Tokyo: Shiseido, 1916. (1919)
IEDJ	*Inouye-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten (Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary)*. (『井上英和大辞典』), 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)*. (『井上和英大辞典』), 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)*. (『模範英和辞典』), 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-Tomosha, 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)*. (『詳解英和辞典』), 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)*. (『新譯和英辞典』), 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. Motora, 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)*. (『附音挿図和譯英字彙』), 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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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).
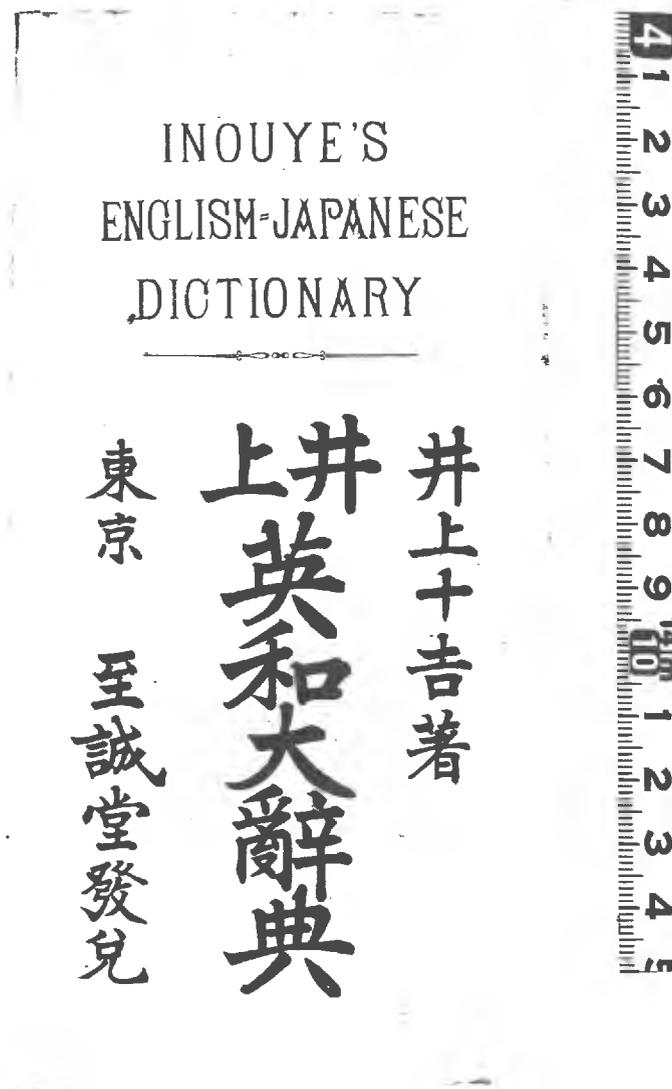
Photograph 1. Title page.

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.

II   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 INOUYE.

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專ら取材の廣汎と譯語の的確とを期し專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顚蕀午夜に入らざれば寢に就かず鉛槧に付してより尚且つ三春秋此間予が自ら讐校刪定せしこと多きは十數囘少きも尚八九囘を下らず更に友人を勞して數囘の校正を經たり。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し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。

大正四年八月下浣　　　　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的見地より一々アルファベット順に從へり.
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ぬるものは ⊖⊜⊛ 等の符號を附して區分せり. 熟語に在りては㊀㊁㊂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㊀㊁㊂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剌比亞數字 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れるを示す. 但し文例挿入の都合より品詞の異るが爲め別見出となりたる同一語も亦其右肩に小亞剌比亞數字を附せり.
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にありては然らず.
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 參照] などあるは黑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 (-) は音級 (syllable) を示し複連字符 (=) は複合語たるを示す. 但し音級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. 形容詞又は副詞は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 卽ち主強音) 及び ″ (secondary accent 卽ち從強音) 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擧示せり.

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

2   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
きを簡約したる符號とす.

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
語の有無兩樣同一義なるを示す符號とす.

20. 詩形學上押韻を示す塲合 例へば triolet (abaaabab 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	【獵】……狩獵
【植】……植物	【美】……美術	【衞】……衞生
【數】……數學	【紋】……紋章	【生物】……生物學
【音】……音樂	【藥】……藥學	【齒】……齒科
【論】……論理	【倫】……倫理	【軍】……軍事
【文】……文法	【心】……心理	【園】……園藝
【商】……商業	【船】……船舶	【蜂】……蜂類
【航】……航海	【測】……測量	【蛙】……蛙類
【力】……力學	【染】……染色	【羅】……羅典語
【建】……建築	【藝】……藝術	【希】……希臘語
【法】……法學	【陸】……陸軍	【米】……米國專用語
【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	【董】……董學	【伊】……伊太利語
【理】……物理	【光】……光學	【蘇】……蘇格蘭專用語
【天】……天文	【鑛】……鑛物	【獨】……獨逸語
【地】……地理	【劇】……演劇	【露】……露西亞語
【磁】……磁力	【言】……言語學	【墺】……墺地利語
【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	【彫】……彫刻	【稀】……稀用語
【菌】……細菌	【農】……農學	【古】……古語
【宗】……宗敎	【機】……機械	【卑】……卑語
【神】……神學	【經】……經濟	【俗】……俗語
【政】……政治	【石】……石工	【謔】……諧謔語
【魚】……魚類	【礮】……礮術	【方】……方言
【貝】……貝類	【博】……博物	【詩】……詩的用語
【蟲】……蟲類	【史】……歷史	【戲】……戲謔
【鳥】……鳥類	【詩】……詩形學	【修】……修辭的用語
【哲】……哲學	【修】……修辭學	【小兒】……小兒醫

Photograph 6.

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: =獨 ch, ハ行の音にして語尾又
は母音の後に來る時は母音の列に
依り其音を定めらる, 例へば ach
(ach, アハ), ech (ech, エヘ), ich
(ich, イヒ), och (och, オホ), uch
(uch, ウフ), nicht (nicht, ニヒト)
の如し, 普通はヒ音なり (milch, ミ
ルヒ), 他の場合は mädchen (mäd-
chen, メードヘン) 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.
n̄: =佛 n, bon ton (bon̄ ton̄) の如し.
ŋ: =ng, bank (baŋk) 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: =th 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 (hwēl) の如し.
z: zone に於ける z の如し.
zh: =sh の濁音, vision (vizh'ǝn) の
如し.

母 音

a: syllable の終なる時は ーア,
Mecca (mek'a) の如し.
a: 次に子音ある時は ーア, man, cat
の如し.
ā: ーア, husband (huz'bånd) の如し.
ä: =ah, father (fä'thér) の如し.
ạ: =aw, all (ạl) の如し.
ạ: ぢ に近し manage (man'ɡi) の
如し.
e: syllable の終なる時は ーイ, re-
ceive (re-sēv') の如し.
e: 次に子音ある時は ーĕ, men (men)
の如し.
é: =er, ur, fa'ther (fä'thér) の如し.
ē: =e long, he (bē) の如し.
ĕ: =e short.
ǝ: =ぢ と ㆜ の間の音, mo'ment (mō'-

mǝnt) の如し.
ẽ: =佛 e, de (de) の如し.
ĭ: =i short, fin (fin) の如し.
ī: =i long, fine (fīn) の如し.
o: =o short, hot (hot) の如し.
ō: =ō long, host (hōst) の如し.
ō̄: =ōō, move (mōv) の如し.
ọ: actor (akt'ǝr) の如し.
ou: =アウ, out, about の如し.
u: syllable の終なる時は ーyu.
u: 次に子音ある時は ーア, con-
spicuous (kǝn-spik'u-us) の如し.
ᵫ: =ㇷ, foot (fut) の如し.
ū: =u long, feud (fūd) の如し.
u: =佛 u, ㇢とㇺの間の音, plus
(plu) の如し.
ü: =佛 ü, milieu (mē'lyë') の如し.

Photograph 7. Key to pronunciation.

4   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.*	pronounciation.
collect.	collective	*pred.*	predicate.
compar.	comparative.	*pref.*	prefix.
conj.	conjunction.	*prep.*	preposition.
exclam.	exclamation.	*pres.*	present.
def. art.	definite article.	*pres. p.*	present perfect, present participle.
fem.	feminine.		
imper.	imperative.	*pron.*	pronoun.
ini.	indicative, indirect.	*p. subj.*	past subjunctive.
		refl.	reflexive.
indef. art.	indefinit 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籍の全名を舉ぐる餘地なき時に用ひたるもの)

Bi.   Bible (1611 年出版の欽定譯聖書).
Bu.   蘇國詩宗 Robert Burns (1759-1796).
By.   詩宗 Lord George Byron (1788-1824).
Di.   大小說家 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 (1688-1744).
Sh., Shakes. 沙翁, 大劇曲家 William Shakespeare (1564-1616).
Th.   大小說家 William M. Thackeray (1811-1863).

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

INOUYE
ENGLISH-JAPANESE
DICTIONARY

A

A, a, [*pl.* As, A's, Aes] 英字母の首字. ⊜【音】い甲音. ⊜【論】第一の 假定者又は假定物. ⊜【歌】第一の既知數.

AI (â wun), ⊜ Lloyd (海上保險組合) の船舶格附(誌)にて第一等船舶の記 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). 但し無知撥音の時は有音 h の前にても most *an* と書く; 又 *l, m, n, s, x* が el, em, en, es, eks と發音せらるる時は其前に *an* を用ふ (例. *an* M.P.); eu, ü 以外の母音の前には *an* (例. *an* umbrella; *a* usurper, *a* eucharist), 但し *one* の前には *a* を用ふ. *many, such, what* の後及び *how, so, as, too,* (+*adj.*) の後, 又一見複數のごとき語の前 (例. *a* dozen men [=*a* dozen of men]), 又複數を示す形容詞 *few, good many, great many* の前にも用ふ. ⊜ 一の, 或る, 見て, の, (置き意にて). ⊜ (固有名詞の前にて) ......の如き人又は物. ⊜ (*all of, many of* 等の次にて) 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て居た.
He is *a* [*an*] historian of high reputation. 彼は名高い歷史家である.
                                  「away!
What *a* long time you have been 大層永い間君は留守だったねえ.
Many *a* time he saw such *a* one. 前樣な物を彼は度々見た.「した.」
A Mr. Smith came here to-day. スミスさんと云ふ人が今日來る.
A European entered *a* university 一歐洲人が日本の大學に入學し in Japan.   「you are. た.
He is not so good *a* penman as 彼は君ほどの能筆ではない.
This is as fine *a* shop as, any in 此店は村中で何[れ]れにも劣らぬ this village.   「live in. 位立派である.
It is too large *a* house for me to 此家は僕が住むには大き過ぎる.
A dozen men ran out of the house. 男が十二人家から駈け出た.
There are *a* few diligent boys and 此級には勤勉な生徒も二三人は居 *a* great many idle ones in this るが怠惰者(だうもの)が頗る多い. class.   「sight.
A good many people know him by 澤山の人が彼の顔を知って居る. A Napoleon or *a* Bismarck is need- 此國の秩序を挽回するにはナポレ ed to restore order in the coun- オンかビスマークの如き人物を try.   「of *a* depth. 要する.   「と彼が聞いた.
He asked if the river was all 此河は何處も同じ深さであるか The man works for *a* shilling *a* あの男は一日一志で働いて居るが day; his master's income is *a* その主人の收入は一年に一千磅 thousand pound *a* year. だ.   「に階すること多し.

a², *prep.* 現在分詞の前に用ふれど殆ど意味をなし, 特に go, set の現在分詞 While their house was *a* building, 彼等はその家の普請中は下宿して they lived in lodgings. 居た.
The man ran up the belfry and set 其男は鐘樓に駈け上って鐘を鳴ら 'the bells *a* ringing.   「said. し始めた. 「と彼女が言った.」
" I am going *a* milking, sir," she 私は牛乳を搾(しぼ)りに参る所です

A., associate (會員, 圖會員, 理會員) の略.

a⁻, *pref.* ⊜ 意を强める時. 例へば *arise.* ⊜ on の意, *abed=on bed, a*

Photograph 9. Dictionary Text, page 1.

Photograph 10. Back matter.

APPENDIX 2

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

ac-count¹ (ak-kount'), *vt.* & *vi.* 思ふ, 考へる. —to *account* for, ㊀ 勘定(ｶﾝ)する, ……に對して責任を有する. ㊁ 説明する, 理由を明かにする. ㊂ 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ない.
You must *account* to the treasurer for money received.	君は領收金に就いて會計掛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 poverty.	あの男の懶惰なのでなぜ貧乏で}{あるから分る.}
That *accounts* for it.	それで解った.
In the hunt he *accounted* for three partridges and two hares.	その猟に彼は鷓鴣(ｼｬｺ)三羽と兎二匹とを打ちとめた.

ac-count² (ak-kount'), *n.* ❶ 計算, 勘定. ❷ 利益. ❸ 計算書. ❹ 揣重, 重要 (人格・物品に對し). ❺ 報告, 記事, 敍述(ｼﾞｭﾂ). —*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*, ㊀ ……の理由で, の爲に. ㊁ 内金として. —on no *account*, 決して……せぬ, どうあっても……せぬ, どうしても……せぬ. —sale for the *account*, 延賣買, 延取引(ｷﾞ). —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*, 問責(ｾｷ)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(ｱﾃ)にする, 期待(ｷ)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*, 勘定を濟ます. —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, 酙酌(ｼｬｸ)する, 考へる. —to turn a thing to one's *account* [to *account*], 利用する, 利益になる樣にする.

He paid a hundred pounds on *account*.	彼は内金として百磅を支拂へり.
Here is the *account* of what you owe me.	是が貴下の借勘定書です.
Send the *account* with the goods.	品物と共に勘定書を送れ.

IEDJ

Make out a detailed *account of* all those articles.   その物品悉皆の明細書を書上げて
⌜*account.*   くれ.
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繰出される.
He keeps at home now, on *account* of his great age.   彼は今や高齢の爲め家に引籠って
⌜so doing.   居る.   ⌜られないだらう.⌝
You will not find your *account* in   君はそんな事をしては利益を得⌜
He will turn that to his own *ac-count*   彼はそれを自分の利益となる樣に
⌜*account.*   するだらう.
He has turned that affair to good   彼はかの事件を旨[く]く利用した.
By your *account*, the loss was small.   君の話に據れば損失は僅かであッた.   ⌜*affair.*   ⌜であッた.⌝
By all *accounts*, it was a terrible   世間一般の話ではそれは大慘事⌜
The man who was caught by the police could not give a satisfactory *account* of himself.   警官に捕はれた男は身上[に]に就いて滿足の辯解をなし得なかッた.   ⌜人達です.⌝
They are persons of great *account*.   彼等は大に重きを措かれて居る⌜
He is a politician of no *account*.   彼は平凡[な]政治家です.
He is held in high *account* by all who know him.   彼は彼を知って居る人には皆 大に尊敬されて居ます.
⌜*itself.*
The thing is of little *account* in   其事はそれだけでは些細な事だ.
On no *account* will I allow you to go to the river-side.   どうしても御前が河端に行くことは許しません.   ⌜*rats.*
The dog gave a good *account* of the   犬は鼠を澤山片附けた.
We must take these circumstances into *account*.   吾人は此等の事情を斟酌しなければならぬ.   ⌜ってしまった.⌝
⌜*account.*
Poor fellow, he is gone to his   可憐[な]きうにあの世の人にな⌜

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 misunder-standing.   彼の擧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[かた], 會計官, 會計掛, 主計 [じ]. ―*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

accou·nt[1], 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 *accomptare* for *AC(*computare* L = COM-PUTE); the form *accompt* is due to 14th-c. correction in F passing into E, the oldest E being *acunte* (see AC-)]
accou·nt[2], 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 *acont* (*à* to+ *cont* f. LL *comptum* for *computum* f. L *com-putare* COMPUTE)]
accou·ntable, a. Bound to give account, responsible, (*for* things, *to* persons, or abs.); explicable (somet. followed by *for*). Hence **accounta**BI′LITY, **accou·ntable**NESS, nn., [f. ACCOUNT[1] + -ABLE]
accou·ntant, 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 **accou·ntant**SHIP n. [F (15th c.) *accomptant* part. of *accompter* OF *aconter* ACCOUNT[1]]

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-kount', *n.* [O.E. *accompt—ac* for *ad*, and O.Fr. *compte*, a calculation, from L. *computo*, to compute, reckon. The modern Fr. *conte*, *conter*, 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-kount', *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-kount'a-bil'i-ti, *n.* The state of being accountable or answerable.—Accountable, ak-kount'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-kount'a-bl-nes, *n.* The state of being accountable; accountability.—Accountably, ak-kount'a-bli, *adv.* In an accountable manner.—Accountant, ak-kount'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-kount'ant-ship, *n.* The office or employment of an accountant.—Account-book, ak-kount'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, *computāre*, 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.* Account'ably.

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'ᵈ, ac-count', *v.* I. *t.* 1. To hold to be; consider; estimate; deem. 2. To credit; attribute. 3. 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*. [< OF. *aconter*, < LL. *accompto*, < 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-bil'i-ty, *n.* ac-count'a-bl(e-ness(e.—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

（2000 年 1 月〜12 月，アイウエオ順）

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編集後記

　21 世紀最初の *LEXICON* として，*OALD* 新版の分析と日本の英語辞書史研究の 2 編の論文を掲載した第 31 号をお届けする．

　岩崎研究会がわずか数名のささやかな会として，故岩崎民平先生のお宅を会場にお借りして発足したのは 1962 (昭和 37) 年であったが，来年で創立 40 周年を迎えることになる．発足当時は誰もこのように長続きし，今日のような隆盛を見ることなど想像もしていなかった．今日あるのは偏に故岩崎先生をはじめとして，会を支えて下さった会員諸氏のおかげである．また，本誌が『ユニオン英和』『ライトハウス英和・和英』『カレッジライトハウス英和・和英』など本会員編集の辞書の印税から醸出金を主な発行費としていることを忘れてはならない．本誌も今では Hartmann & James: *Dictionary of Lexicography* の見出し語にあげられたり，海外から度々送本を依頼されたりするようになった．今回も力作揃いと自負しているが，今後さらに質の向上を計り，なお一層の発展を期したい．

<div align="right">（Y. K.）</div>