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An Analysis of *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*

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An Analysis of *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*

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1. Introduction

Several dictionaries of American English have been analyzed in this journal, but most of the articles concentrated on monolingual dictionaries for native speakers (with the exception of the articles by Higashi *et al.* 1986 and by Masuda *et al.* 1999), because it was not until recently (since the middle 1990s) that major American publishers became interested in issuing dictionaries of (American) English for foreign learners.

This analysis will focus on the *Longman Advanced American Dictionary* (hereafter abbreviated to *LAAD*) issued in late 2000. The dictionary is selected because Longman EFL dictionaries have always been the focus of

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attention in pedagogical lexicography not only in Japan but also in other parts of the world since the publication of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDCE)¹* (1978) (cf. Dolezal and McCreary 1999). The recently issued dictionaries in Britain, whether dictionaries for general or native users or those for EFL or ESL learners, are compiled based on corpora. The dictionaries after the 1990s rely heavily on a kind of corpus: the British National Corpus or the Bank of English, for example. In contrast, most American dictionaries are considered to have been compiled based on their files, and not necessarily on (electronically collected) corpora (cf. *RHWD*)¹. In the USA, the American National Corpus, the counterpart of the British National Corpus, is now under construction and it will take time for publishers to issue dictionaries where the descriptions are given based on the corpus (see the Web site <http://www.cs.vassar.edu/~ide/anc/>).

Under these circumstances, Longman or Pearson Education Limited is one of the most energetic British publishers in issuing a new learners' dictionary *LAAD*. The publisher has its sister or intermediate-level dictionary, *Longman Dictionary of American English (LDAE)* (1983¹, 1997²), as well as *Longman Interactive American Dictionary* (1997)². This means that *LAAD* is not the first dictionary of its kind for the publisher. Longman also issued another type of dictionary of American English: *Longman American Idioms Dictionary (LAID)* (1999). It seems reasonable to suppose that British publishers are more interested in issuing dictionaries of English that are based on the corpus of English used in the USA (cf. Ilson 1998: 228–29), or they have managed to issue dictionaries that include American English because more corpora where more American English is included have been, and are now being collected (cf. the back cover of *OALD*⁵ ‘the 40 million word Oxford American English Corpus’). There are already available a few dictionaries with ‘American English’ on their title pages, such as *Oxford American Dictionary* (1980) and *Oxford Student's Dictionary of American English (OSDAE)* (1983¹, 1986²), though they make no mention of corpora. Remember that *Oxford American Wordpower Dictionary* (1998), *The Oxford American Dictionary of Current English* (1999) and *Cambridge Dictionary of American English* (2000) are also

recent corpus-based dictionaries of American English³. The publication of these recent dictionaries shows that more attention is and will be paid to (the description of) American English since British dictionaries have not showed any great interest in doing so (cf. *OALD*⁵, *COBUILD*²).

Neither introduction nor preface is to be found in the *LAAD* (it could be assumed that users seldom read them), and it is not clear what the dictionary is based on for its compilation. *LDAE*² includes its preface without introduction (which also seems to have been left out because users will be unlikely to read one) and gives a clue:

“... based on ... Longman Corpus Network. . . over 328 million words from all types of written texts, and from real conversations recorded across the US. . . Longman Learner’s Corpus. . . of over 8 million words of writing in English by learners of the language.”
(Preface, ix)

Its acknowledgments also says (cf. the introduction in *LAID*):

“. . . Longman Corpus of Spoken American English. . . of 5 million words . . . 80-million-word Longman Corpus of Written American English.” (vii)

The Web site of Longman dictionaries (<http://www.awl-elt.com/dictionaries>) gives us the following information about its corpus:

“The *Longman Advanced American Dictionary* is the first truly corpus-based dictionary of American English at the advanced level, utilizing The Longman Spoken American Corpus, which contains 5 million words of demographically collected speech; The Longman Written American Corpus of 50 million words; a large newspaper corpus from the Linguistic Data Consortium of 85 million words (cf. Landau 2001: 292, 295); The 10-million word Longman Learners’ Corpus.”

The scale of the corpora is clearly getting larger. The expression ‘corpus-based’ means that the dictionary is compiled based on, but not completely bound or restricted by, the Longman American Corpus. There is available the dictionary *LDCE*³, but it is not made clear whether *LAAD* made any use of the corpora for the dictionary. The Internet access gives more

information that is not found on the back cover of *LAAD*:

"over 4,000 encyclopedic entries for people, places, and organizations (cf. the advertising leaflet that gives the number of 3,000 people, places and events); 2,000-word Longman Defining Vocabulary; 66,000 natural examples sentences; 24,000 collocations and phrases; 16-page, full color photo and illustration section," in addition to 84,000 words and phrases claimed there.

The dictionary can be considered to be the counterpart of *LDCE*³ because it is based on corpora both in spoken and written American English. A newspaper article for its advertisement in addition to Stern's article (n.d.) tells more about the spoken corpus:

"The Spoken American Corpus is a 5-million-word database gathered from 12 regions across the continental United States . . . The participants (said to be 2,000, according to the leaflet) were chosen to be representative for gender, age, ethnicity, and educational experiences. The demographic breakdown follows the latest U.S census statistics: Gender (Male 50%, Female 50%), Age (18–24 20%, 25–34 20%, 35–44 20%, 45–60 20%, 60+ 20%), Ethnicity (White 75%, Black 13%, Hispanic 8%, Asian 4%), Education (Degree/Higher degree 33%, College 33%, High school 33%)." (*The Daily Yomiuri*, February 5, 2001, cf. Summers 1999: 260)

It is interesting to examine to what extent and on what description of American English the spoken as well as the written corpus has an effect in the *LAAD*.

The dictionary under examination has the expressions 'Advanced' and 'American' in its title. The former could be used when it is compared with *LDAE* (cf. 2.4.2.), while the latter used when compared with the *LDCE* that is considered to be more British English corpus-oriented or based on the far less American English corpus. The fact will be made clear that *LAAD* describes American English as the norm or unmarked variety and gives far less description of British English and other varieties of English. It should not be forgotten that more encyclopedic matter is included in *LAAD* (cf. 2.3.). When necessary, reference will be made of other (learners') dictionaries issued in the USA and Britain to make an appropriate

comparison.

In this article the following points are the focus of attention:

- 1 entries and information on frequency,
- 2 pronunciation,
- 3 definition and defining vocabulary,
- 4 grammar and usage notes,
- 5 (sentence) examples and phrases including collocation,
- 6 labels and descriptions on pragmatic information,
- 7 illustrations,
- 8 a user survey of the dictionary from the viewpoint of advanced Japanese learners.

2. Entries

2.1. Method of presentation

An important fact to remember is that *LAAD* gives the variety of American English as unmarked forms or norms. This is the case not only for entries but also for pronunciation, idiomatic phrases, collocation, and so forth. Unlike *LDCE*³, no label that indicates *AmE* (American English) is found, and *BRITISH* and *CANADIAN* are the only labels given. For example, no label is shown for *marvelous*, but the entry *marvellous* says it is the British and Canadian spelling. No label is found in *elevator* either, while the sixth sense in *lift*² says 'BRITISH an ELEVATOR.' This suggests that it is possible that *LAAD* users cannot tell whether some entries are chiefly used in American English: *cater-corner* (or *kitty-corner*), *dogie*, *ornery*, and *potato chip*, for example. More noticeable examples can be found in the illustration pages of 'American Homes' (p. 423) and 'The Automobile' (p. 427) in *LAAD*, where only expressions in American English are found. In contrast, the full page illustrations of 'Car' (p. 169), 'House' (p. 170), and 'Kitchen' (p. 689) in *LDCE*³ give not only expressions in British English but also their counterparts in American English. This editorially different policy is adopted mainly because *LAAD* is based on the American English corpus, and partly because most of the mainstream American (college) dictionaries do not show the American variety with the label like *AmE* or *N Amer.* (North America(n) in *CAOD*),

though the method of showing the two varieties was employed over half a century ago in the USA (cf. *ACD*).

Which is more instructive for users or ‘user-friendly’, *LAAD* or *LDCE*³? It depends on the users, but from the viewpoint of foreign learners the presentation in the latter is considered to be preferable. A brief survey of *LAAD* shows that *license*¹ is in, *licence* is not; inflexions of *canceled* and *cancelled* are in, but *traveled* and *travelled* are not; *fiber* is in, *fibre* is not; *center*, *centre*, *curb*¹, *kerb*, *defence*, *defense*¹, *labor*, *labour*, *tire*, *tyre* are all in. It purports to be a dictionary of American English, but it is somewhat doubtful whether it has been compiled on a definite principle like frequency of words, as far as part of the entries are concerned (see Ilson 1998: 227).

2.2. The number of entries

We are interested in the new entries and those that have been deleted in *LAAD*. First surveyed are the same sixteen parts in the 1999 article on *LDCE*³ (Urata *et al.* 1999: Section 2)¹¹. For a more objective or wide-scale comparison, additional twenty parts are taken for sampling: every fiftieth and fifty-first pages (i.e., pages 50, 51 . . . 1,000, and 1,001).

Table 1 shows the result of the surveys of the 16-part and the additional 20-part (the latter accounts for 40 pages and nearly the same number of

Table 1 The number of entries in *LAAD*

	<i>LAAD</i>		cf. <i>LDCE</i> ³	
	16-part	20-part	16-part	20-part
(1) Main entries (headwords)	880	1058	837	987
(2) Run-on entries	[+11, -14]	[+25, -27] ²		
(3) Inflexions	[+34, -6]	[+38, -17]		
(4) Entries after also ~	[+2, -14]	[+3, -6]		
(5) Variants*	[+6, -3]	[+11, -12]		
(6) Others	31	21		
(7) The entries or forms without change	140	190		

(NB) *The second headwords belong here.

[+] [-] marks show the added and deleted number of entries in the sections surveyed.

pages in the 16-part survey) based on the entries in *LAAD* in comparison with *LDCE*³. It shows the general picture of the dictionary, because there is not always an exact one-to-one correspondence of the entries between the two: the category (6), for example, includes run-on entries in *LDCE*³ that are ranked up to main entries in *LAAD* and *vice versa*.

The survey reveals that there seems to be no significantly larger number of entries in *LAAD*. The numbers of the types of entries or forms are not so different. A noticeable difference lies in the larger number of inflexions of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, though it is not necessarily clear whether a consistent principle is applied (*catfish* and *dogfish* in comparison with *fish*¹, for example) (cf. 9.7.). Table 1 leads us to say that the estimated number of entries categorized above excluding the main entries and variants is well over 8,500, including about a thousand added inflection forms.

Another survey was conducted of the number of main entries in an additional 13-part (in pages 1050, 1051 . . . 1650, and 1651): *LAAD* has 734 entries, while *LDCE*³ has 736. Table 1 taken into consideration, *LAAD* includes 2672, and *LDCE*³ 2560. The number of main entries in *LAAD* is not significantly large: it is just more than four percent larger than *LDCE*³. *LAAD* back cover touts ‘84,000 words and phrases’, while *LDCE*³ says it includes ‘over 80,000 words and phrases.’ (Remember that *LDCE*² says on the back cover that it includes ‘56,000 words and phrases’ and ‘83,000 meanings of words and phrases.’ This writer wonders why there is such a difference between *LDCE*³ and *LDCE*².) The number of entries claimed is puzzling, because our survey has led us to estimate the total main entry (including variants) at around 43,000, about half of the advertised number ‘84,000’ (cf. Landau 2001: 113). This makes it quite likely that (less than) half consists of not only run-on entries, inflexions, those forms shown in also ~ style, but also collocation expressions, phrasal verbs, set phrases, spoken phrases and so forth shown in boldface (cf. Landau 2001: 110). More attention is paid to the newly added main entries than the deleted items in *LAAD* in comparison with *LDCE*³.

2.3. Entries not found in *LAAD* in comparison with *LDCE*³

A brief mention is made of the 94 deleted main entries in the 16-part survey. 37 (nearly 40 percent) are composed of the entries originally (i.e., in *LDCE*³) labeled (*BrE*), (*especially BrE*), or (*BrE informal*), such as *dogsbody* (*BrE*), and other varieties of English. Fifteen have a label, like (*technical*), (*formal*), (*old-fashioned*), (*poetic*) and so on: *doggo* (*old-fashioned*), for instance. Four entries related to England and Ireland are also deleted: *poteen*, for instance. The rest constitute a third of the whole entries.

Another survey of the additional 33-part also provides a convincing explanation of the deleted entries: the entries labeled (*especially BrE*) or (*BrE*) are the largest (84 out of 196), and also deleted are 26 entries related to Britain (*GCSE*), British spelling, including British meanings as well as related to cricket. Also gone are seventeen entries with a few labels like *formal* given as well as six entries of other varieties of English. All of these constitute more than two-thirds of the deleted entries. The survey clearly reflects the fact that they are deleted because of the difference between the British corpus and the American corpus, and it is quite natural that British-related entries are more likely to be left out.

2.4. New entries in *LAAD* in comparison with *LDCE*³

2.4.1. New entries

The 16-part survey gives 110 new entries, though not all are entirely new because some are found in *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*, New Edition (1998) (*LDELc*²): 41 are found in *LDELc*², and 69 in *LAAD*. The same is also true for the 33-part survey³. Table 2 below shows several categories of the 383 new entries, with an example shown in parentheses.

The last category accounting for over 40 percent contains too many expressions to analyze in detail. To illustrate this fact, a number of fields and their examples are given below:

airplane (*test-fly, widebody*), car (*anti-lock brakes, parking brake*), children (*play clothes, potty chair*), computer (*clock speed, glare screen*), economy (*controlled economy, earned income*), education (*continuation*

Table 2 The category and number of new entries in *LAAD*

	16-part	33-part	Total
(1) Biographical entries (including the names of tribes) (<i>William Clinton</i>)	33	58	91
(2) Geographical entries (including names of areas) (<i>Dodge City</i>)	9	31	40
(3) Entries related to religion, Bible and theology (<i>Daniel</i>)	6	12	18
(4) Entries labeled SLANG or INFORMAL (<i>gat</i>)	6	6	12
(5) American-related entries (<i>Selective Service</i>)	3	8	11
(6) Entries labeled FORMAL or OLD-FASHIONED (<i>occlude</i>)	2	5	7
(7) Entries labeled CANADIAN (<i>humidex</i>)	2	0	2
(8) Variants (<i>wide open</i>)	2	11	13
(9) Participle adjectives (<i>extended</i>)	1	7	8
(10) Entries labeled SPOKEN (<i>Lordy</i>)	1	5	6
(11) Abbreviations and acronyms (<i>GED</i>)	0	8	8
(12) Trademark (<i>Rolodex</i>)	0	3	3
(13) Foreign expressions (<i>ante meridiem</i>)	0	3	3
(14) Affixes, combining forms (-intensive)	1	2	3
(15) Racism ⁴ (cf. 7.3.) (<i>Flip</i>)	0	1	1
(16) Others	45	112	157

school, doctor's degree), fashion (*fashion sense, fashion statement*), fireworks (*bottle rocket, Roman candle*), fish (*catfish, lamprey*), food (*orzo, pot pie*), hair (*hair tonic, hair weave*), things in the kitchen (*dish rack, dishwashing detergent*), medicine (*antacid, osteoporosis*), musical instrument (*bass drum, ocarina*), animal (*doberman pinscher, potbellied pig*), plant (*gladiola, wildflower*), principle (*voluntarism, volunteerism*), real estate-related (*land grab, landholder*), sports (*farm team, starting line-up*), television (*closed captioned, V-chip*), transportation (*mass transit, motorman*), social life (*carpool, category killer*), war (*antiballistic missile, battlefield*) and weights and measures (*half-inch, half-pound*), as well as workers (*beekeeper, dockworker*), derived words (*thinkable, valueless*), verbs (*carom, segue*) and old-fashioned expressions or things (*mimeograph, silent movie*).

As could be surmised, this category includes words and compounds: the entries consist of over 40 percent more compounds than words. Compared

with *OALD*⁶, *LAAD* gives *anti-lock brakes* (as well as *anti-lock braking system*) as an entry, for instance (cf. *RHWCD*², *NOAD*, *CAOD*). The definition in *OALD*⁶ leads learners to think that the presentation in *LAAD* seems better than *OALD*'s, because *anti-lock* is closely connected to *brake*, or *anti-lock* and *brake* collocate with each other. A compound entry is preferable in such a case, which treatment might require further research of users.

Table 2 also indicates that *LAAD* does not necessarily contain many lexical entries specifically related to America and the largest number of the new entries are related to biographical elements (23.8 percent), which accounts for double the number of the geographical entries (10.4 percent) (cf. 2.5.). It is interesting to note that it includes entries related to the Bible and religion, which constitute a fundamental part of Western societies. It is clear that more emphasis is put on giving an entry status to participle adjectives, such as *disgusted* and *selected* (cf. Landau 2001: 117). The use of corpora also has made it possible to give some spoken, slang or informal entries, such as *gat* (SLANG), *gator* (INFORMAL), *gaydar* (SPOKEN, HUMOROUS), *horsepuckey* (SPOKEN, OLD-FASHIONED), *loosey-goosey* (SPOKEN INFORMAL), *roofies* (SLANG), and *wiener dog* (SPOKEN)(the third, fourth and last entries cannot be found anywhere). It could be said that the whole number of new entries with a spoken label shown may not be significantly larger than *LDCE*³, but *LAAD* is an invaluable source of reference.

2.4.2. The new entries surveyed in other dictionaries

Further survey of whether the new entries can be found in other dictionaries was conducted in two of the most up-to-date learners' dictionaries issued in Britain and based on the corpora of British and American English: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, Sixth Edition (*OALD*⁶) (2000) (cf. Oxford Corpus Collection on the back cover) and *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (*COBUILD*³) (2001) (Introduction, x-xi). The result is not at all satisfying: less than a sixth of the new *LAAD* entries are found (60 in the former, and 55 in the latter). First and foremost, the difference between the two and *LAAD* lies in the fact that they do not give geographical and bio-

graphical entries in the body of the dictionary (*OALD*⁶ 'Geographical names' in Appendix 2 is not taken into account here).

Next a survey was done of some recent intermediate level dictionaries in the USA and compiled for foreign learners⁵: *The Newbury House Dictionary of American English* (*NHD*) (1996) ('more than 40,000' on the back cover), *Random House Webster's Dictionary of American English* (*RHWD*) (1997) ('over 50,000' on the front cover), and *The American Heritage English as a Second Language Dictionary* (*AHED*) (1998) ('over 40,000' in Introduction). The result is similarly disappointing; geographical and biographical entries are in principle excluded⁶. Less than a sixth of the new *LAAD* entries at the most are to be found. *RHWD* (with 60 entries included) scores nearly the same as *OALD*⁶ and *COBUILD*³, while *AHED* (41 entries) and *NHD* (33) cover far less. The last two give geographical entries in the appendices (*AHED* pp. 983–89, *NHD* pp. 1013–16, 1030), like *OALD*⁶, which employ quite the opposite editorial policy to *LAAD*. (No such entry in *RHWD*.)

The entries are compared with four representative American college dictionaries dating from the 1990s (cf. Landau 1994)⁷: *Merriam-Webster Collegiate Dictionary*, Tenth Edition (1993) (*MWCD*¹⁰) [entry number not given], *The American Heritage College Dictionary*, Third Edition (1993) (*AHCD*³) [entry number not shown], *Random House Webster's College Dictionary*, Second Edition (1997) (*RHWCD*²) ['over 160,000 entries' on the jacket] and *Webster's New World College Dictionary*, Fourth Edition (1999) (*WNWCD*⁴) ['over 163,000 entries' on the jacket]. The result is that 298 out of the 383 entries (more than three quarters) can be found in either of the four American dictionaries or more than one dictionary⁸. This explains that the entries in *LAAD*, whether encyclopedic or lexical, are not necessarily unique or unusual, compared with those in the American college dictionaries.

The entries that are not found in the four college dictionaries were again looked up in two recent dictionaries in North America: *The Canadian Oxford Dictionary* (1998) (*CAOD*) and *The New Oxford American Dictionary* (2001) (*NOAD*), because they are also based on corpus (see their prefaces). This survey shows that 35 out of the rest (85 entries) are found

in either (*beavertail* in *CAOD*, and *organization chart* in *NOAD*, for instance) or both. 50 entries are still nowhere to be found. Why not? They are variants (*half crazed*), compounds (*bottle cap*), or taken from the American spoken corpus (*star-sixty-nine*). The three types make up more than 80 percent of the 50 entries. It is not surprising that some, especially those taken from the spoken corpus, are not found in the other dictionaries.

The surveys show that the new entries are not necessarily recent coinages and it is not unnatural that they are given for entries in a dictionary for foreign learners. The reason for entries basically depends on whether or not they are frequently used, but it is not necessarily clear whether it is the only criterion as entries of less frequency are also to be included in a dictionary for advanced learners. Some entries in *LAAD* are not found in intermediate dictionaries for EFL learners but found in college dictionaries, and that fact makes it reasonable to say that *LAAD* is more ‘advanced.’

2.5. Encyclopedic entries in *LAAD*

Table 2 demonstrates that *LAAD* is lexical- and encyclopedic-oriented: it looks like a dictionary steering a middle course between *LDCE*³ and *LDEL*². It is not easy for lexicographers to make a concrete decision on which entries are added or deleted, whether lexical or encyclopedic. One of the criteria is the frequency of words and phrases, especially in lexical entries. Does the same principle also apply to encyclopedic ones? It does in some cases, but not always. In terms of encyclopedic matter, learners’ dictionaries will be much more difficult to compile. In English magazines, newspapers or books (or in the Web sites), for example, learners often find a plethora of proper nouns (including biographical and geographical names). The more ‘advanced’ learners’ dictionaries are, the more important it will be to include as many proper nouns as possible, but there seem to be no decisive or definite principles on which to judge entry. They should include entries in reference books like a dictionary of cultural literacy: *The Dictionary of Cultural Literacy*, Second Edition (1993) (*DCL*²), for instance. Its preface says, “Over ninety percent of what one needs to

know has remained stable in all subjects except the obvious ones of recent history, science, and technology . . . even in those subjects, the core contents of a first-rate school curriculum are not arbitrary elements, and in most areas of learning they do not change either rapidly or radically over time.” (p. viii) This being the case, a few methods of dealing with encyclopedic matter are possible: one is based on frequency of words and phrases, especially those in ‘recent science and technology’ as well as ‘recent history.’ The second could be based on the surveys of users’ strong preferences (cf. Stark 1999: 174). The third and most important could be from the educational viewpoint of cultural literacy, since this does not always coincide with the first and second. Frequency may be indeed important, but it is not always the only criteria of what counts in selecting encyclopedic matter. They should also be selected from the educational point of view of objective (or less subjective) importance in each subject field. The proof of this idea still needs further research.

Table 3 shows the breakdown of (1) the biographical and (2) the geographical entries in Table 2. Table 4 below gives the breakdown of the biographical entries. Note that around a dozen of the names of tribes and their chief names are excluded.

Tables 3 and 4 demonstrate that *LAAD* entries are more likely to be connected to America and Europe, while they are from a variety of groups, reflecting the Longman American Corpus of English. So far as the biographical entries of American people are concerned, some may be (well) known, such as *Bill Gates* (a businessman, starting the Microsoft computer company) and *Flannery O’Connor* (a writer), but some may not, like *Dale Earnhardt* (a race car driver) and *Mark Spitz* (an Olympic

Table 3 The classification of the biographical and the geographical entries

	16-part	33-part	total		16-part	33-part	total		
(1)	America	13	35	48	(2)	America	4	12	16
	Europe	19	23	42		Europe	4	7	11
	Others	1	0	1		Africa	1	4	5
						Others	0	8	8

(NB) America includes North and South America, and Europe includes Russia.

Table 4 The classification of the biographical entries

(1) Area		(2) Classification based on career	
(A) USA	40	(A) Writers, poets	23
(B) Europe		(B) Painters, photographers	12
(a) UK	10	(C) Scientists, engineers	8
(b) Germany	8	(D) Composers, musicians, singers	6
(c) France	7	(E) Statesman, activists	5
(d) Italy	3	(F) Priests, those related to religion	4
(e) Others	9	(G) Those related to sports, racing	4
		(H) Businessmen	3
		(I) Philosophers	3
		(J) Others	9

swimmer). The corpora, however large they may be, do not and will not always make it easy for lexicographers to decide precisely who will be given an entry in a dictionary for foreign learners, because new or up-to-date entries do not always stand still.

Another survey was conducted of whether the names of the 42 US Presidents and the 51 US states as well as their capital cities are mentioned. *LAAD* scores high except the President's name of Andrew Jackson. All the states and capital cities are given. The US Departments are mentioned in the main entries. Public holidays are given except Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday and Election Day (there is no entry of National Holiday)⁹⁾.

The last stage is the comparison between *LAAD* and *DCL*² to make sure if the former is cultural literacy-oriented. The entries in two sections of 'World History since 1550' and 'American History since 1865' in *DCL*² are checked against *LAAD*. It is impossible to find all the entries in the two sections, since some phrases like "Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country," as well as laws, acts and scandals like Watergate, are included in *DCL*². The comparison of the biographical entries between *LAAD* and *DCL*² including tribes, family names, and groups, led us to realize that *LAAD* endeavors to be cultural literacy-oriented, as it gives 85 of the 112 entries in the first section in *DCL* (that includes 269) and 97 of the 130 entries in the second (that

includes 263) respectively. But compilers should be careful, especially when the entries given have some cultural connotations or allusions. *Dodge City* given in 2.4.1 is an example (cf. *LDEL*C², *NODE*, *CAOD*, *NOAD*). It should be carefully examined whether only encyclopedic entries with short definitions, like *Dodge City*, are sufficiently useful for learners who are not always familiar with them. In terms of encyclopedic entries and information shown in cultural notes, *LDEL*C² is more useful: *baseball*, *community college*, *commuter*, *congress*, *Deep South*, *driving licence*, *East Coast*, for example. Not only the number of such entries and the amount of information but their usefulness (or redundant uselessness) for foreign learners remains to be examined in further research (cf. 9.6. and 9.8.).

2.6. Comparison of the entries between *LAAD* and other EFL dictionaries

2.6.1. Comparison between *LDCE*³ and *LAAD*

To make it clear whether *LAAD* contains a number of new entries based on the corpus, a survey was conducted: a few articles from the American magazines *TIME* and *NEWSWEEK* were randomly chosen¹⁰⁾. It is quite likely that a good number of words are not found in *LAAD*: *militarization*, *mongrel*, *swank* (hotel) as well as *cyberdating*, *Webdating*, *cyberlove*, *cybersweetie*, *cybercourtship*, for instance (cf. *LDCE*³¹¹⁾). Neither are found proper nouns such as *Mia Farrow*, *IMAX*, (Seattle) *Mariners*, *Sony* and *Starbucks*, as well as *Twentieth Century Fox*, and *Mickey Mouse* (which only shows its adjective use). It is clear that *LAAD* endeavors to give more entries, even if some are self-evident or not so difficult to understand, such examples include: (lexical entries) *angioplasty*, *back-to-back*, *bliss*², *cardiovascular*, *chat room*, *chump change*, *dizzying*, *endocrinologist*, *kudzu*, *miscue* (n.), *newbie*, *no-hitter*, *nontoxic*, *one-of-a-kind*, *postmenopausal*, *prenatal*, *snake oil*, *supermodel*, *top-grossing* and *whassup*; (encyclopedic or proper noun entries) *Academy Award*, *Oscar* ; *Kareem Abdul-Jabbar*, *Beatles*, *George Bush*, *Walt Disney*, *Bob Dylan*, *Allen Ginsberg*, *Saddam Hussein*, *Jack Kerouac* (though 'Beat Generation' in small capitals in the definition is not in), *Mike Tyson*; *Bangladesh*, *Kinshasa*, *Pyongyang*, *Zimbabwe*. Some lexical entries are technical, but it could be safely said

that *LAAD* has turned out to be a useful dictionary mainly because it is compiled from a corpus.

2.6.2. Comparison between *LAAD*, *OALD*⁶ and *COBUILD*³

Another survey was conducted: a comparison was made of entries between *LAAD*, *OALD*⁶ and *COBUILD*³. For practical purposes, several articles from the American newspaper *USA TODAY* were read¹². Only new entries in *LAAD* were chosen. The next survey set out to discover whether 50 entries chosen are found in the two dictionaries. As is often the case with EFL dictionaries, it is true that many words or phrases in the newspaper are missing in *LAAD*: *caregiving*, *computer graphics*, *midlifer*, *sandwich generation*, and *win-win* (noun) as well as *Six Flags Great Adventure* (a favorite of day-trippers from New York City), for instance. Here let this writer give 50 entries, though some are admittedly easy to guess: (40 lexical entries) *animatronic*, *aquifer*, *backlot*, *bluesy*, *cardiologist*, *convergence*, *crossover*², *diva*, *draft pick*, *du jour*, *envision*, *free agent*, *frequent flier*, *gee-whiz* (adj.), *home-school* (v.), *KO* (v.), *moviemaking*, *newbie* (the word given above), *nontraditional*, *onstage*, *phone-in*, *postseason* (adj.), *pre-med* (adj.), *preseason* (adj.), *R*² (= Republican, though D(emocrat) is not in), *redshirt* (v.), *retrofit* (v.), *running back*, *Sen.*, *starting point*, *telecom*, *tight end*, *touch screen*, *training camp*, *undiminished*, *unfazed*, *vexing*, *wetland*, *wide receiver*, *worshiper*; (10 encyclopedic or proper noun entries, including acronyms) *AARP*, *Associated Press*, *Jane Austen*, *Big Apple*, *CBS*, *Federal Aviation Administration*, *Ganges*, *Grammy*, *Mylar* and *Tampa* (a city in Florida). It has turned out that the Longman dictionary gives far more: *OALD*⁶ gives 20 of the 50 entries (including 2 proper nouns), while *COBUILD*³ gives 18 out of 50 (with a proper noun). As far as this brief survey is concerned, *LAAD* ranks higher as it is practically more useful (and it serves the readers' needs better).

2.7. Frequency of words

2.7.1. Change of frequency information

Information on frequency is invaluable, and *LDCE*³ and *LAAD* are the only dictionaries that provide EFL learners with frequency information

on both spoken and written English (cf. five frequency bands shown by black diamonds in *COBUILD*³, xlvi). *LAAD* gives the same kinds of frequency information as *LDCE*³ (though only the latter gives some graphs on the information): S1, S2, S3, W1, W2, and W3 (cf. Guide to the Dictionary: 3 Frequency, xix). Learners should be aware that it is taken for granted that words or entries in some classes are excluded among the frequent ones in Longman dictionaries (cf. Kilgarriff 1997: 142–43). Here a survey is made of whether there is any change of information on frequency. The entries surveyed in *LAAD* are those beginning with the letters A, B and C. The number amounts to 878 (264 in A, 232 in B, and 382 in C). 199 of the 878 entries (22.7%) start to give information in *LAAD*, while 156 entries with frequency shown in *LDCE*³ have none. 255 show no change, and 424 belong to the group where they go up or down in spoken and/or written frequency.

Mention is first made of the 156 entries that have no frequency given in *LAAD*. Those in the category of either S3/W3 (18 entries), S3 (62), or W3 (37) amount to 117 (75.0%). This explains that S3 or W3 entries tend to go down in frequency, and S3 entries, especially, are more likely to be omitted from the 3,000 most frequently used words. This is confirmed by the fact that the rest (39 entries) are composed of many entries with S2 (30) in comparison to those with W2 (3) (16 of which are given more than two diamonds in *COBUILD*³). Some deletions are considered to be reasonable: some are formal or technical, such as *allocate*, *beneath*¹, *calcium*; some are labeled *BrE* or *nonstandard*, or considered to be British-related, such as *backwards*, *borough*, *bugger*¹, *chat*¹, *cheque*, *cos*¹ (S1 in *LDCE*³), *cottage* and *cross*³. Some might have another way of expression: *alternative*¹, *bin*¹, and *blind*¹.

In terms of the 199 entries (22.7%) with new frequency information. S3 entries account for 73 (36.7%), W3 for 49 (24.6%), S2 for 33 (16.6%), S3/W3 for 13 (6.5%), W2 for 11 (5.5%), and others for 20 (10.1%). This survey also demonstrates that frequency information on spoken words and phrases is more often susceptible to change, because S2 and S3 entries account for more than half (53.3%), in comparison to W2 and W3 entries (30.2%). Either S1 or W1 entries (11) are given here: *analyst*, *anymore*,

Table 5 The classification of spoken and/or written frequency

S frequency up (<i>cute</i>)	66	W frequency up (<i>candidate</i>)	40
S frequency down (<i>blah</i> ²)	128	W frequency down (<i>dell</i>)	35
S and W frequency up (<i>cool</i> ¹)	36	S and W frequency down (<i>concerned</i>)	58
S up and W down (<i>access</i> ¹)	33	S down and W up (<i>crowd</i> ¹)	28

*awhile, both*², *boy*², *campus, cannot, certain*¹, *class*², *congress*, and *cookie*. Some are related to typical American or culture specific expressions such as *congress*, but most are not overly technical or culture bound.

Those entries that have not been modified in the frequency in *LAAD* are 255 (29.0%). The largest number of entries are included among the most frequent S1/W1 words, nearly half of the group (46.3%). Those entries only with either spoken or written frequency numbers account for 66 (25.9%).

Table 5 above shows a breakdown of the rest of the 424 entries (48.3%) with an example of each category given. The table again demonstrates that spoken entries' frequency more easily tends to go up or down. Some interesting examples are found in the last two categories. Some of them show quite the opposite frequency: W2 or W3 in *LDCE*³, but S2 or S3 in *LAAD*. *Bicycle*¹, *catalog*¹, *consent*¹, *content*² and *curriculum* are such examples. Is it because of the difference of corpus? They seem to prove that the entries with lower frequency are more likely to go up or down.

On the whole, it seems certain that part of the entries (118 out of 878) may constantly have high frequency in both spoken and written English. S3 entries are susceptible to change, coming in and going out of the frequent word list. Further research based on more corpora will give more information on frequency.

2.7.2. Comparison between *LAAD* and *COBUILD*³

Only frequent entries beginning with the letter A are surveyed in both *LAAD* and *COBUILD*³. The latter shows a six graded frequency with diamond marks (including the entries with no diamond mark), and contains about 3,200 words with more than two diamonds, while *LAAD* shows 3,000 frequent words by the symbols S and W. Their total numbers

Table 6 The correspondence of frequency between *LAAD* and *COBUILD*³

	<i>LAAD</i>	S1/W1	S2/W2	S3/W3
<i>COBUILD</i> ³	5 diamonds	35	0	0
	4 diamonds	7	15	0
	3 diamonds	0	11	9
	?	1	0	3

do not have an exact correspondence, but the Longman 3,000 words roughly or approximately corresponds to the number of frequent words in *COBUILD*. Here the following method of comparison is adopted: five diamonds correspond to S1/W1, four diamonds to S2/W2, and three diamonds to S3/W3 (cf. Kilgarriff 1997: 149–51). The result is shown in Table 6. The table shows that, even if there is a difference of corpus between *LAAD* and *COBUILD*³, it does not necessarily make a significant difference in frequent words, rather, there seems to be a greater similarity between them.

Another survey was conducted in section A: how many words are differently treated in the two dictionaries? The entries with S or W frequency information in *LAAD* are compared with the more-than-two-diamond entries in *COBUILD*. (*LAAD* gives frequency information by parts of speech, while it is not in *COBUILD*. This results in the fact that far more detailed frequency information can be found in *LAAD*.) 38 entries (out of 264) (14.4 %) are only found in *LAAD*, while 41 (out of 223) (18.4 %) are included in *COBUILD*³. (*COBUILD*³ does include 10 adjective forms of proper nouns, like *Afghan*, as well as the months *April* and *August*. When they are excluded, there are 29 entries (13.0 %) left.) This means that there is a difference in frequency information, which is especially the case for S3 or W3 entries (25 out of 38) in *LAAD*, but the frequency difference between the two dictionaries has turned out to be not so large (cf. Kilgarriff 1997: 142–143).

The principle of frequency information in *LAAD* is somewhat different from *COBUILD*'s, but it does not mean that their entries in the frequency list completely differ. When more entries in *LAAD* (or *LDCE*) give frequency information, and those in *COBUILD* show both spoken

and written frequency information, the comparison will enable us to make their similarity or differences clear and will be more instructive for learners. It is also hoped that the use of corpus will help lexicographers to give frequency information on not only entries but also their meanings¹³⁾.

2.8. Summary

Based on the corpora of American English, *LAAD* is located halfway between an American version of the more lexical-oriented *LDCE*³ and the encyclopedic-oriented *LDELc*², a natural fruit of these dictionaries. Some lexical items are given with a spoken label shown. The encyclopedic feature is prominent in the biographical and geographical entries. Advanced learners' dictionaries should include more encyclopedic entries, though no absolutely definite principle has been established, and, for the time being, a type of dictionary, such as a dictionary of cultural literacy, could be regarded as a good model reference when compiling encyclopedic-oriented dictionaries.

(Dohi)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. Overview

The method of transcribing pronunciation is almost the same as that of *LDAE*², which, in turn, was basically the same as that of *LDAE*¹. Therefore, *LAAD* takes over the merits and demerits of the two editions of the preceding learner's dictionary of American English by Longman.

3.2. Transcriptions of vowels

3.2.1. Table 1 shows the list of phonetic symbols for vowels used in *LAAD*, given in its guide to pronunciation on pp. 1701–1703 (this section is henceforth referred to as the Guide). The symbols are based on the IPA system and are generally adequate, especially from the phonological point of view.

3.2.2. As discussed in Higashi *et al.* (1986: 72) and in Masuda *et al.* (1999: 22), length marks for the vowels in *beat* and *boot* are desirable, and for the vowels in *bought* and *shirt* as well. Because length marks are not

Table 1 The vowel symbols in *LAAD*

i	beat, feed
ɪ	bit, did
eɪ	date, paid
e	bet, bed
æ	bat, bad
ə	box, odd, father
ɔ	bought, dog
ʊ	boat, road
ʊ	book, good
u	boot, food, student
ʌ	but, mud, mother
ə	banana, among
ɔː	shirt, murder
aɪ	bite, cry, buy, eye
aʊ	about, how
ɔɪ	voice, boy
ɪr	beer
ɛr	bare
ɑr	bar
ɔr	door
ʊr	tour

employed in this dictionary, /i/ and /ɔː/ can represent both strong and weak vowels, and as mentioned in 3.4.1, it is sometimes difficult to interpret the value of these symbols. In addition, as in the case of *drawing* /'drɔɪŋ/, a hyphen is sometimes needed to show that the sequence of /ɔ/ and /ɪ/ does not represent the diphthong of *boy*, which would be unnecessary if /ɔ/ were accompanied by a length mark.

The diphthongs in words like *beer*, *bare*, *bar*, *door* and *tour* are transcribed /ɪr/, /ɛr/, /ɑr/, /ɔr/ and /ʊr/, respectively. Phonologically, it is adequate to use the same symbol /r/ in both prevocalic and postvocalic positions, but pedagogically it is preferable to use a hooked schwa (ɔ̄) for the second elements of such diphthongs to indicate their vowel-like quality, as discussed in Masuda *et al.* (1999: 23).

3.2.3. Variation between /ɔr/ and /ɔɪr/¹⁴⁾ in words like *north* and *more* is not shown in *LAAD*, which seems reasonable because these two vowels

have undergone a merger in most parts of the United States.

3.2.4. Variation between /ɔ/ and /ɑ/ is regularly indicated in words like *sorry, gong, cloth, wash and launch*.²⁾ In words like *caught* and *law*, single variants containing /ɔ/ are shown, despite the fact that variants containing /ɑ/³⁾ are regularly shown in *LPD*² and *EPD*¹⁵, and are given the first position in the former and as single variants in the latter.

The Guide (p. 1701) says, “The vowels /ɔ/ and /ɑ/ are both shown, but many speakers do not use the sound /ɔ/. These speakers say /ɑ/ in place of /ɔ/, so that *caught* and *cot* are both said as /kɑt/,” though actually, as long as words like *caught* and *law* are concerned, /ɑ/ is not shown at all in *LAAD*. Interestingly enough, in *LDAE*¹, published in 1983, we find the Guide (p. 792) saying, “... some Americans do not use the sound /ɔ/ in many of the places we have shown it . . .” *LDAE*² (p. 934), published in 1997, gives exactly the same explanation as we find in *LAAD*, using the expression *many speakers* (emphasis mine). If we can take this change in expression as reflecting the recent prevalence of THOUGHT-LOT merger⁴⁾ in the United States, it is time for learner’s dictionaries to show variants with /ɑ/ for the words like *caught* and *law*. Of course, as the Guide (p. 1701) says, it is impossible to show all American dialects and all possible pronunciations, but some precedence should be given to this trend over others in the indication of the current pronunciation of American English.

3.2.5. Though the vowel /ɛ/ in words like *marry* and *narrow* is also widespread, leading to “the well-known American possibility of homophony in pairs such as *merry-marry, herald-Harold . . .*,”⁵⁾ it is not shown in *LAAD*, nor in any other learner’s dictionaries of American English. According to *LPD*², the poll in 1993 showed that 53% of American English speakers preferred /'meri/ to /'mæri/ as the pronunciation of *marry*, and both *LPD*² and *EPD*¹⁵ show /ɛ/ for such words. Considering the fact that the younger generation in the poll showed a more clear-cut preference (over 60%) for /'meri/, we would like to suggest that the coming editions of *LAAD* and other learner’s dictionaries should include variants with /ɛ/ for these words.

3.3. Transcriptions of consonants

3.3.1. Though the symbols for consonants are much the same as those used in other dictionaries, several observations are in order regarding consonants.

3.3.2. The consonant at the beginning of words like *which* and *white* is transcribed as /w/. It was /hw/ in *LDAE*¹ and /(h)w/ in *OSDAE*. *LDAE*² adopted the plain /w/ for the sound, and *LAAD* seems to have followed suit.⁶⁾ It is in fact a trend in American English, especially in large cities and among young people, to pronounce /w/ rather than /hw/ in these words⁷⁾, and probably this fact underlies the decision to use /w/. According to Wells, however, learners of EFL are recommended to use plain /w/ if they are following the RP model, but /hw/ if they are following the General American model (*LPD*²: 835).

3.3.3. Yod dropping in words like *news, tube* and *due* is regularly indicated in *LAAD*. *LDAE*¹ gave variants with yod in the second place (e.g. *news /nuʷz, nyuʷz/*) but *LDAE*² abandoned them, and *LAAD* continues this policy. This seems quite adequate, since a poll in 1993 revealed that most American speakers preferred the variants without yod for *news* (86%), *tube* (91%) and *due* (91%), as shown in *LPD*².

3.3.4. Voiced /t/ is very well indicated in *LAAD*.⁸⁾

3.3.5. *LAAD*, as well as *LDAE*², is unique among English dictionaries of any kind in indicating the possibility of /t/ realized as or together with a glottal stop, but some problems remain. The Guide (p. 1703) gives a note on /t^ɾ/ as follows:

This symbol means that many speakers pronounce a *glottal stop* in place of or together with /t/. A glottal stop is the sound in the middle of the expression *uh oh*. For example, in the words **button** /'bʌt^ɾn/ and **football** /'fʊt^ɾbɔl/, the *t* does not sound the same as in the word *ton* /tən/; it sounds like a short period of silence. The glottal stop usually occurs before a syllabic /n/ or a consonant that begins the next syllable.⁹⁾

We get an impression that /t^ɾ/ in *LAAD* indicates the possibility of not only a glottal stop but of other realizations of /t/ put together under the same name of *glottal stop* for the sake of convenience: unreleased /t/ may

Table 2 /t̪/ in LAAD

following sound	/t̪/	/t/
/m/	enchantment, nutmeg	(not found)
/n/	footnote, fitness, cotton	(not found)
/p/	outpace, hatpin, saltpeter	footpath
/b/	football, footboard, shortbread	whiteboard, sweetbread, hatbox
/t/	cattail	(not found)
/d/	shutdown	footdragging
/k/	nutcracker, streetcar, catkin	hotcake
/g/	shotgun, outgoing, roentgen	rotgut
/f/	eventful, potful, catfish	rightful, thoughtful, flatfish,
/s/	catsuit	outside, outset
/ʃ/	nutshell,	outshoot, outshine (hyphenated: sweatshirt, -shop)
/θ/	(not found)	heartthrob
/l/	atlas, outlaw, outlet	footlight, spotless, Atlantic
/r/	outrage, tightrope, footrest	heartrending
/w/	whitewash, whitewater	whitewall, outworn (hyphenated: software, -wood)

appear in *football*, /t/ with nasal plosion in *cotton*, and /t/ with lateral plosion in *atlas*.

If this device has been employed just for the purpose of helping users prepare to hear something ‘like a short period of silence’ (p. 1703) in place of an ordinary /t/, perhaps we should not be too particular as to what kind of sound is covered by /t̪/.

But as can be seen even from the limited number of examples given in Table 2, it must be difficult for users to work out in what environments they should expect to hear glottal stops in place of or together with /t/, which suggests that this device does not make sense even from the pedagogical point of view. The symbol /t̪/ could be helpful to users if the diacritic /̪/ were assigned a little more carefully and consistently.

It therefore seems necessary to reconsider the priority given to glottal stops in a learner’s dictionary like *LAAD*, and if this device is continued, a careful check of the transcriptions seems necessary.

3.3.6. Syllabic consonants in word-final positions are mostly well indi-

cated, except in words ending with /ə/ + /n/ + syllabic /l/, where transcriptions vary between /-ənl/ and /-ənəl/. Strangely, the transcription for the last two syllables is /-ʃənl/ in *national* but /-ʃənəl/ in *international* and *multinational*, and /-sənl/ in *personal* but /-sənəl/ in *interpersonal*.¹⁰⁾ Since there seems to be no phonetic difference in the pronunciation of the word-final sounds between the two groups, the transcriptions should be unified to /-ənəl/.

3.3.7. “In the middle of a word,” according to the Guide (p. 1702), “a hyphen or stress mark after /n/ or /l/ shows that it is syllabic: **botanist** /'bat̪nɪst/ and **catalog** /'kætlɒg/ are three-syllable words.” The use of a hyphen as in *threatening* /'θret̪nɪŋ/¹¹⁾ might be helpful, since the presence of a hyphen makes the /n/ look like a word-final one. However, it would be too much to expect the user to tell if a word-medial /l/ or /n/ is syllabic from the presence or absence of a stress mark after the sound in question: can the average user tell that /l/ of *analytic* /ænə'lɪtɪk/, preceding a stress mark, is syllabic, while the /l/ in *unlisted* /ʌn'lɪstɪd/, following a stress mark, is not? Moreover, as seen in the case of *Italy* /'ɪt̪li/, containing a syllabic /l/ without a stress mark following it, the reverse is not true.

The word *botanist* /'bat̪nɪst/ is given as an example of a word-medial syllabic /n/, which gives the impression that the presence of /t̪/ indicates the syllabicity of the following /n/. However, as seen in *partner* /'part̪nər/ and *fitness* /'fit̪nɪs/ with nonsyllabic /n/ after /t̪/, this is not always the case.

It is discussed in Higashi *et al.* (1986: 83) that word-medial syllabic consonants would be best indicated by employing either a schwa in parenthesis (e.g. /æn(ə)'lɪtɪk/) or an italic schwa (e.g. /ænə'lɪtɪk/) to represent syllabicity, if it is difficult to employ the diacritic // to do so.

3.4. Transcriptions of stress

3.4.1. As discussed in Higashi *et al.* (1986: 89–91), the absence of stress marks on monosyllables sometimes makes the transcriptions of strong and weak forms of monosyllabic function words ambiguous. In *LAAD*, as we have seen in 3.2.2, the employment of the symbols /ə/ and /i/ for both strong and weak vowels makes the matter complicated. For example, *were*

and *we* are transcribed as /wə/ and /wi/ respectively, while *are* /ər; strong ar/ and *he* /(h)i; strong hi/ are given both strong and weak forms. The average user might think *were* and *we* do not have strong forms, or, for that matter, can not tell the difference between the strong and weak forms of *he*, except that the possibility of the absence of /h/ can be guessed. We should also note that in *LAAD*, there is no difference in transcription between the strong form and the prevocalic weak form of *the* (/ði/), or between *fur* and the weak form of *for* (/fər/).

Assignment of stress marks on monosyllables as well as on longer words would make *LAAD* more useful.

3.4.2. According to the Guide (p. 1701), the secondary stress in the second syllable of a two-syllable word is marked only when “it is necessary to show that the second syllable must not be shortened, as in **starlit** /'star,lit/ compared to **starlet** /'starlit/.” The vowel symbols which need this treatment are /ɪ/, /i/ and /ə/, all of which can stand for both strong and weak vowels.

However, this treatment is totally forgotten with /ə/ (e.g. *homework*)¹²⁾ mostly forgotten with /i/ (e.g. *carefree*),¹³⁾ and it is only with /ɪ/ (e.g. *windmill*) that secondary stress marks are almost regularly assigned in this position.

Even if the secondary stress marks were well assigned at appropriate positions of such words, however, the average user would not be able to realize that *homesick* /'houm,skɪk/ and *homespun* /'houm,spən/, for example, appearing next to each other, have the same stress pattern, irrespective of presence or absence of the secondary stress mark. It would be more user-friendly to assign the secondary stress mark on every two-syllable word containing the secondary stress in the second syllable, as practiced in *LUMINOUS* and other learner’s dictionaries by Kenkyusha.

3.4.3. It is one of the features of Longman dictionaries that they indicate stress shift, and we highly approve of this tradition maintained in *LAAD*. Yet, unfortunately, stress shift is indicated sparingly and often inconsistently, with little improvement compared with that in *LDAE*¹. Such typical words as *international*, *fundamental* and *energetic* are still unmarked, and while *rationalistic* is assigned the mark /ɪ/, *nationalistic* is

not.

3.4.4. As discussed by the writer in Urata *et al.* (1999: 74), it goes against the needs of users that stress patterns of phrases and idioms, once indicated in *LDCE*¹, have been given up and completely neglected in dictionaries by Longman.

3.5. Summary

The phonetic symbols used in *LAAD* are generally adequate, and the transcriptions are for the most part written carefully and consistently, though there remains some room for improvement. It is regrettable that there are cases in which the order of priority given to current tendencies in pronunciation seems to be questionable. Assignment of stress marks on monosyllables is desirable, and employment of length marks for vowels would make *LAAD* far more useful at least to Japanese learners.

(Shimizu)

4. Definitions

In this section, we investigate the structure of the defining module in *LAAD*. The core discussion of this section is based on a comparison with *LDCE*³, and we will see how some *LAAD* features are inherited from *LDCE*³. Section 4.1. is devoted to an examination of the defining vocabulary, while in 4.2., we look at how definitions are designed.

4.1. Defining vocabulary

As it is widely known, one of the characteristic features of *LDCE*³ as an EFL/ESL dictionary is that the number of words used in its defining statements is restricted in some way or another within the range of a word collection termed “The Longman Defining Vocabulary” (*LDCE*³: xvi). The notion of the controlled defining vocabulary is also introduced in *LAAD*, thus, all the “definitions in this dictionary are written . . . using the [sic.] The Longman American Defining Vocabulary of about 2,000 common words” (*LAAD*: xviii).

Since both dictionaries have a list of all the words included in each “Defining Vocabulary,” a detailed comparison is possible. In 4.1.1., we

first look at the basic policy claimed in each dictionary toward the notion of the controlled defining vocabulary. The numerical results of the comparison is given in 4.1.2., where we also discuss how these policies are reflected in the building of each glossary and the composition of the actual defining statements in the dictionary body part.¹⁾

4.1.1. Design of the defining vocabulary

In both dictionaries a page of information is given, in which a brief explanation is made on how the defining vocabulary is actually treated in composing the defining statements of each headword.²⁾ Since no obvious statement is made in *LAAD* that any modification has been introduced into the building of its defining vocabulary, it seems reasonable to claim that, in the end, *LAAD* and *LDCE*³ share an almost identical policy toward the usage of the defining vocabulary; nevertheless, the overall impressions derived from these two versions of annotations are somewhat different. Here, we briefly discuss a couple of points which contribute to two distinct interpretations.

Within both dictionaries, the list of the defining vocabulary contains some entries that are accompanied by word class labels. *LDCE*³ (p. 1316) explains that such words are used in definitions only in the word classes specified in the list, while *LAAD* (p. 1692) acknowledges that words with no word class indication can be used in any of their usual parts of speech.

As for the treatment of possible phrasal verbs within the actual definitions, *LDCE*³ claims that all the phrasal verbs were properly listed in the index³⁾:

Phrasal verbs are not used in definitions, except for the ones included in the list. Other phrasal verbs which are common in English and could be formed from words in the defining vocabulary list (such as **put up with**) are not used.

(*LDCE*³: B16)

To the contrary, *LAAD*, with a proviso added, admits the use of extra phrasal verbs when necessary:

Phrasal verbs formed by combining words in the Defining Vocabulary (for example, **put up with**) are NOT used in definitions in the

dictionary, except in a very small number of cases where the phrasal verb is extremely common and there is no common equivalent. So, for example, **give up** (as in **give up smoking**) and **take off** (as in **the plane took off**) are occasionally used.

(*LAAD*: 1692)

The treatment of prefixes and suffixes is controversial in that unlimited application of affixes to the original vocabulary turns the once-controlled defining glossary so productive that the potential number of words available in definitions ends up far beyond the officially claimed 2,000. Both dictionaries do admit that combinations of affixes and entries in the defining vocabulary can be used in definitions, but their manners in which they present examples may lead the users to distinct understanding of the annotations. *LAAD* gives a sample word *nervousness* (formed by adding the suffix *-ness* to *nervous*) to illustrate the actual combination of an affix with an entry from the vocabulary list to be used in definitions, but *LDCE*³ shows no example of this type; rather, it gives *acceptable* and *agreement* as samples which are listed in the table.

LAAD also admits the possibility where compound words formed from words in the vocabulary list are used in its definitions only “if the meaning is completely clear” (p. 1692) as in the case of *businessman*, which is formed from *business* and *man* in the original list. No annotation is made on compound words in *LDCE*³, however, even though compound words of this type appear in its defining statements.

Having compared these instances, it might be plausible to claim that annotations in *LDCE*³ are emphasizing the closed nature of the index: the virtue of the controlled defining vocabulary that dictionary users are not bothered with the burden of repeated reference of the dictionary body part in order to understand defining statements themselves as long as they are familiar with the words listed in the index. Thus, the information in *LDCE*³ is idealistic. To the contrary, *LAAD* is rather realistic or straightforward about the inevitability of restricting the number of words available in defining statements, and it acknowledges the open nature of the defining vocabulary.

4.1.2. Comparison

*LDCE*³ lists 2,043 entries in its defining vocabulary table. Of these entries, 19 are accompanied by a suffix or a preposition in parentheses as in *your(s)* and *according (to)*, and 1 entry is separated by a comma as in *actor, actress*, so the total number of words and phrases in the list is 2,063. In addition to this main list, *LDCE*³ has a list of 30 prefixes and suffixes which can be added to the words on the main list.

On the other hand, 2,081 entries are included in the *LAAD* defining vocabulary table; of which 20 are accompanied by a suffix or a preposition in parentheses (*feeling(s), six(th), etc.*); 2 are separated by a comma (*actor, actress* and *god, God*); and *lead* is followed by a slash with its past participle, thus, *lead/led*. The total number of words and phrases in the index is, then, 2,104. A list of 30 prefixes and suffixes is also attached to the main table.

Entries in the affix table of both dictionaries are identical, but 60 words and phrases in the *LDCE*³ defining vocabulary table are not found in the *LAAD* table, and conversely, 101 from the *LAAD* defining vocabulary table are not found in the *LDCE*³ table.⁴⁾

Being an American English dictionary, some entries in the *LDCE*³ defining vocabulary which are considered characteristic of British, are not listed in the *LAAD* vocabulary. These words include *parliament, petrol, cheque*, and *autumn*. In addition, some *LDCE*³ entries are replaced with more American flavored expressions in *LAAD*. For example, in place of *railway, cinema, and aircraft* in *LDCE*³, *LAAD* employs *railroad, movie, and airplane*, respectively.

The indefinite article *a*, ordinal numbers *tenth* (in the form of *ten(th)*) and *eighth* are newly introduced in the *LAAD* index; the lack of these words has been an obvious deficiency in the *LDCE*³ defining vocabulary.

A very important point to be noted here concerning the nature of defining vocabulary in *LAAD* is that the criterion is not clear as to which words or phrases are to be included in the list, especially for those words and phrases which can be produced by the proper application of the combining principles which we have discussed in 4.1.1. That is to say, when we examine the inclusion and exclusion of words and phrases by

comparing the two versions of defining vocabulary, we, in some cases, find no significant differences between the words and phrases which are included in the *LAAD* list (whether newly introduced or inherited from the *LDCE*³ vocabulary), and those excluded from the list. This is because both of them are composed of elements already listed in the defining vocabulary and the meanings of both items are equally transparent. Here, we look at several of such cases with words containing affixes.

LAAD excludes 9 *LDCE*³ entries ending in *-ing*: *annoying, confusing, disappointing, embarrassing, insulting, relaxing, shocking, surprising, and threatening*. Although these adjectives are still used in defining statements in *LAAD* without being written in small capital letters,⁵⁾ since original verb forms of these present participles are included in the vocabulary list and the meanings of these derivatives are easily anticipated by analogy, such treatment in *LAAD* of these words using the “verb + *-ing*” structure may plausibly be said to observe the condition we have seen in 4.1.2., that is the meaning of a derived word must be clear from its components if it is used in the definitions. Thus, if our speculation is on the right track that words are not necessarily included in the vocabulary list when they are available by combining entries in the defining vocabulary, provided the meaning of the derived form is transparent, it may be reasonable to expect the verb *disgust*, rather than *disgusting*, to be newly added to the table in *LAAD*. However, the reverse is true: it is *disgusting* that is included in the *LAAD* table.

The frequency level of each word appears to account for this case. In *LAAD*, *disgusting* ranks between 1,001 and 2,000 among the most frequently spoken English words, while its original verb form, *disgust*², is classed outside the first 3,000 most frequently used English words, spoken or written. However, it is interesting to point out here that, in *LDCE*³, *disgusting* is not used in definitions except for the headword *revolting*, in which the word is used only as a synonym rather than a part of its defining statement, even though the word also ranks between 1,001 and 2,000 in spoken English in *LDCE*³. This fact demonstrates that the frequency of a word is not necessarily related to its membership in the vocabulary list. In Table 1, the frequency status of the 10 *-ing* ending adjectives is given

Table 1 Defining vocabulary and word frequency

Word	S	W	LAAD Entry	Word	S	W	LAAD Entry
disgust (v.)	N/A	N/A	no	insult	N/A	N/A	yes
disgusting	2	N/A	yes	insulting	N/A	N/A	no
annoy	N/A	N/A	yes	relax	2	3	yes
annoying	3	N/A	no	relaxing	N/A	N/A	no
confuse	N/A	N/A	yes	shock (v.)	N/A	N/A	yes
confusing	3	N/A	no	shocking	N/A	N/A	no
disappoint	N/A	N/A	yes	surprise (v.)	N/A	3	yes
disappointing	N/A	N/A	no	surprising	N/A	N/A	no
embarrass	N/A	N/A	yes	threaten	3	2	yes
embarrassing	N/A	N/A	no	threatening	N/A	N/A	no

*S : frequency status in spoken English

*W : frequency status in written English

*N/A: not one of the 3,000 most frequent words

together with that of their original verb forms, but no reasonable implication can be determined as to why the *-ing* form is adopted for the first pair, *disgust/disgusting*, while the verb stem is chosen for the rest of the pairs.

The problem of the opaque standards for the inclusion of words and phrases into the defining vocabulary holds true to those words ending in *-able*, *-ly*, and *-ment* suffixes.⁶⁾

No *-able* ending words are newly added to the *LAAD* list, and only *noticeable* (N/A) is eliminated in *LAAD* even though it is still used in definitions in normal typefaces. Other words with the same structure, such as *acceptable* (N/A), *comfortable* (S1; W2), *desirable* (N/A), *enjoyable* (N/A), *reasonable* (S3; W3), and *suitable* (N/A), remain in the *LAAD* table, the base verb forms of which are also listed in the table. Since *LAAD* allows non-defining-vocabulary words of the “verb + *-able*” structure to be used in definitions if the original verbs are listed in the table, it appears rather consistent to abandon these 6 *-able* ending adjectives, as in the case of *noticeable*.

While a total of 3 adverbs ending in the suffix *-ly* (these are: *definitely* (S1; W3), *deliberately* (N/A), and *extremely* (S2; W2)), is omitted in the

LAAD table, another total of 16 adverbs with the same morphological structure and the same degree of clearness in meaning (for example, *immediately* (S2; W2) and *recently* (S2; W1)), remain in the table with their base adjectives.⁷⁾ Also it must be noted here that the 3 adverbs removed from the list appear in the defining statements in *LAAD* in normal typefaces. Moreover, 6 *-ly* ending adverbs are added to the *LAAD* vocabulary, of which 4 entries, *monthly* (N/A), *previously* (N/A; W3), *publicly* (N/A; W3), and *seriously* (S2; W2), have already been used in *LDCE*³ definitions. The remaining 2 entries, *barely* (S3; W2) and *yearly* (N/A), are not used in *LDCE*³ definitions. Except for *barely*, the *LAAD* defining vocabulary includes the base adjective forms of the 5 new entries.

Among *LDCE*³ entries with the “verb + *-ment*” structure, *achievement* (N/A) and *measurement* (N/A) are eliminated in the *LAAD* defining vocabulary, but are still used in definitions. The only new entry in the *LAAD* table which ends in the suffix *-ment* is *announcement* (S3; W3), which appears four times in *LDCE*³ definitions and once as a signpost in the *LDCE*³ headword *attention*. The base verb form, *announce*, is also listed in *LAAD*.

4.2. Structure of definitions

In this subsection, we deal with the internal structure of the definition part of *LAAD*. We first look at the arrangement of defining statements in 4.2.1., and then, in 4.2.2., we compare signposts and phrases in *LAAD* with those in *LDCE*³.

4.2.1. Definitions

Not all the defining statements in *LAAD* are entirely revised, if not absolutely new, and distinct from those in *LDCE*³. For example, definitions allocated to the word *cereal* are completely the same in both dictionaries.

And sometimes these identical definitions are given in different order:

cleanser

*LDCE*³ 1 a liquid used for removing dirt or MAKE-UP (1) from your face

2 a chemical liquid or powder used for cleaning surface

inside a house, office etc

LAAD 1 a chemical liquid or powder used for cleaning surface

inside a house, office etc

2 a liquid used for removing dirt or MAKEUP from your face

This is because *LAAD* inherits the *LDCE³* policy which gives definitions in accordance with their frequency status when a headword has more than one meaning. Thus, considering the variations in time, size, and register of the source corpus, it is reasonable that the order is not necessarily the same between *LDCE³* and *LAAD*, even if each defining statement happens to be completely the same.

As we have seen in 4.1., the types of words available in definitions are different between *LDCE³* and *LAAD*, so in such cases where *LDCE³* definitions contain those words and phrases which are abandoned and cannot be produced by simple combination of existing entries in the *LAAD* defining vocabulary, the lexicographers have no choice but to modify the defining statements in one way or another.⁸⁾

Here we look at some patterns to see how definitions including the *LDCE³* unique entry *fond* are transformed or represented within the scope of *LAAD* defining vocabulary.

The first pattern below illustrates the simple replacement of the equivalent expression. Here “like” substitutes for the phrase “are fond of”:

old

LDCE³ 21 **good old/poor old/silly old etc** *spoken* used to talk to or about someone you are fond of

LAAD 11 **good/poor/silly etc. old sb** used to talk to or about someone you like

However, not all the defining statements in *LAAD* are identical to their corresponding defining statements in *LDCE³*, thus, such simple word-to-word substitution is not always employed.

A certain portion of a defining statement in *LDCE³* can be omitted when it is employed in *LAAD*, with the remaining part of the statement unchanged. In the following example, “become very fond of you or” is missing in the *LAAD* definition. The reason for the deletion of this part might be that the phrase contains the word which does not constitute the

defining vocabulary anymore, and that the lexicographers found the part redundant when it is replaced with its immediate counterpart “like”:

capture

LDCE³ 6 **capture sb's heart** to seem attractive to someone so that they become very fond of you or love you

LAAD 7 **capture sb's heart** to seem attractive to someone so that they love you

Also, *LDCE³* definitions can be paraphrased into entirely distinct expressions in *LAAD*, where the use of the abandoned vocabulary is not needed any more, or inappropriate:

kindly¹

LDCE³ 5 **think kindly of** to have fond thoughts about someone

LAAD 6 **think kindly of sb** FORMAL to remember how nice someone was

In the next example, the *LDCE³* definition is, for some reason, recomposed into another definition, which signifies a slightly different concept from the original:

she¹

LDCE³ 2 c) used to talk about a vehicle or machine that you are very fond of

LAAD 2 used to talk about a car, ship or other vehicle that has been mentioned already

4.2.2. Signposts and phrases

LAAD inherits the use of signposts from *LDCE³* with a change in the visual effects: signposts shown in capital letters between black triangles are instead written in white lower-case letters on a black background strip. Compare the two types of indicators:

LDCE³ ►SIGNPOST◀

LAAD ▶SIGNPOST◀

Except for this formal modification, our brief survey on signposts under the letter C in both dictionaries reveals no drastic changes between the two dictionaries. In *LAAD*, 131 headwords, including run-on entries, have definitions navigated by signposts, and in *LDCE³*, there are 139 such

headwords. The number of entries which hold signposts in both dictionaries is 121. Therefore, there are 18 entries which have signposts in *LDCE*³ but not in *LAAD*, and there are 10 entries which have signposts in *LAAD*, but not in *LDCE*³. For example, *chapter* has 6 definitions, 4 of which are led by signposts in *LDCE*³, but these 4 indicators are abandoned in *LAAD* even though corresponding definitions still exist in the latter. We do not find any significant reasons or factors why *LAAD* newly introduces or withdraws signposts in these particular entries.

On the whole, it may be plausible to claim that the navigating systems in the two dictionaries are basically the same, but when we look closer at each signpost within an entry, we observe that many small adjustments have been made.

A definition with no signpost in *LDCE*³ can be navigated by a newly introduced signpost in *LAAD*:

card¹

- LDCE*³ **20** [C] the thing inside a computer that the chips (CHIP¹(4a)) are fixed to, that allows the computer to do specific things
LAAD **12** [example] [C] the thing inside a computer that the CHIPS are attached to, that allows the computer to perform specific operations

And some definitions led by a phrase in *LDCE*³ are redesigned to follow a new signpost⁹⁾:

carry¹

- LDCE*³ **28** **carry one/two/three etc** to put a number into the next row to the left when you are adding numbers together
LAAD **8** [mathematics] [T] to put a number into the next row to the left when you are adding numbers together

In *LAAD*, phrases, with their meaning following, are listed in frequency order among other definitions. The difference between a signpost and a phrase is that, while the former is “a synonym, a short definition, or the typical subject or object of a verb,” the latter is an expression which “contains the word [headword] and has its own distinct meaning” (*LAAD*: xviii).

Some definitions are printed on a gray background box which is headed by a label SPOKEN PHRASES. *LAAD* explains that “the label SPOKEN indicates a phrase that is typically used in speech, rather than in writing,” and that some words “with many spoken meanings . . . have special ‘spoken phrases’ boxes” (p. xxiii). Actually, a SPOKEN PHRASES box appears only when several numbered definitions are given in a row, and no box is allocated to a definition if it is the only definition labeled as SPOKEN among others.¹⁰⁾ Since the gray box so designed stands out, this is a better way to draw the attention of users than to put label signs one by one before each definition. However, it must be noted here that *LAAD* claims that it gives definitions in frequency order. Since the probability that definitions labeled as SPOKEN should occur consecutively may have nothing to do with the policy that definitions are given in frequency order, it is highly unlikely that the definitions within the boxes are actually arranged in this manner.

(Osada)

5. Grammar, Usage Notes and Language Notes

5.1. Grammatical information

Grammatical information in *LAAD* consists of three parts: parts of speech, inflections, and syntax. This classification is exactly the same as *LDCE*³. In this section, the focus is on some minor changes in comparison with the other advanced EFL dictionaries: *LDCE*³, *OALD*⁶ and *COBUILD*³.

5.1.1. Parts of speech

There are 18 parts of speech in *LAAD*: *adj.*, *adv.*, *auxiliary verb*, *conjunction*, *determiner*, *interjection*, *modal verb*, *n.*, *number*, *phr.v.*, *possessive pron.*, *possessive adj.*, *prefix*, *prep.*, *pron.*, *quantifier*, *suffix*, and *v*. When compared with *LDCE*³, ‘predeterminer’ is omitted, and ‘possessive pron.’ and ‘possessive adj.’ are included.

The category of determiners has been reclassified. For example, *LAAD* reclassifies **all**¹, **both**¹ and **half**¹ as *quantifiers*, **such**¹ as a *determiner* and **rather** as an *adv.*; such words were labelled as *predeterminers* in *LDCE*³.

On the other hand, **my, your, his, her** and **our** (classified as *determiners* in *LDCE³*) were reclassified as *possessive adj.* in *LAAD* and **mine, yours, his, hers** and **ours** (classified as *pron.* in *LDCE³*) has been reclassified as *possessive pron.*

5.1.2. Inflections

The basic policy in *LAAD* is that “irregular inflections” are always shown and “regular inflections” are not shown, except where there is a possibility of confusion or if the regular inflection has a difficult pronunciation (see: *Guide to the Dictionary*, xx). *LDCE³* and *OALD⁶* also describe only irregular inflections, while *COBUILD³* gives both. Table 1 shows the differences among those dictionaries with respect to the 6 points examined:

- (1) regular inflections: (v) work-worked, like-liked,
(n) book-books, bus-buses,
(adj) young-younger-youngest, nice-nicer-nicest
- (2) vowel + y: play-played (v), monkey-monkeys (n)
- (3) consonant + y: try-tried (v), baby-babies (n), happy-happier-happiest (adj)
- (4) doubling: stopped (v), planned (n), fat-fatter (adj)
- (5) irregular inflections: go-went-gone (v), child-children (n), good-better-best (adj)
- (6) AmE and BrE: the difference between AmE and BrE

The inflections of all the words that end with ‘-y’ are shown in *LAAD*, but Table 1 Regular and irregular inflections

		<i>LAAD</i>	<i>LDCE³</i>	<i>OALD⁶</i>	<i>COBUILD³</i>
1	regular	×	×	×*	○
2	V + y	○	×	×	○
3	C + y	○	×	○	○
4	doubling	○	○	○	○
5	irregular	○	○	○	○
6	AmE, BrE	×	○	○	○

*The inflections of adjective -er, -est are given.

not in *LDCE³*. *LAAD* is more user-friendly in that users are made aware of the rule of the inflections if they get confused.¹⁾

LAAD describes American English as unmarked, as shown in the example below.

get	
(<i>LAAD</i>)	<i>past tense got past participle gotten present participle getting</i>
(<i>LDCE³</i>)	<i>past tense got / / past participle got especially BrE gotten / / especially AmE, present participle getting (getting, got, gotten / /)</i>
(<i>OALD⁶</i>)	HELP In spoken AmE the past participle gotten / / is almost always used.
(<i>COBUILD³</i>)	(gets, getting, got or gotten) Gotten is an American form of the past tense and past participle.

There is also a difference in the presentation of inflections. The order used for inflections in *LAAD* and *LDCE³* is “third person singular present tense — past tense — past participle — present participle” and in *COBUILD³* and *OALD⁶* “third person singular present — present participle — past tense — past participle.” Considering that the table of irregular verbs is usually given in the appendix of a dictionary where the order “infinitive — past tense — past participle” is adopted, *LAAD* and *LDCE³* seem more familiar to Japanese students than *OALD⁶* and *COBUILD³*.

5.1.3. Grammar codes

The grammar codes in *LAAD* remain as they were in *LDCE³*²⁾, except that the code [also + plural verb *BrE*] is omitted in *LAAD* (e.g. *family, committee*).

5.1.3.1. Presentation of grammatical information

There are some differences in the presentation of the complementation of verbs among the various EFL dictionaries. Below are the grammatical descriptions of the sentence for the verb *give* in the Longman dictionaries.

give

(*LDCE*²) *v* [T + obj(i) + obj(d)] *Give me the tickets.*

(*LDCE*³) *v* [T] **give sb sth** *A policeman gave me a ticket for speeding.*

(*LAAD*) *v.* [T] **[give sb sth]** *Here, give me your coat. I'll hang it up for you.*

The difference depends on whether or not they show grammatical function. In *LDCE*², the abbreviations such as *obj.* for object were used. The presentation, however, in *LDCE*³ changed: the written-out form description such as **give sb sth** was adopted. *LAAD* follows the policy of *LDCE*³. It is clear that the presentation has been simpler and less functional.

This can be compared with the descriptions in *OALD*⁶ and *COBUILD*³:

give

(*OALD*⁶) *verb [VNN]* *Give your mother the letter.*

(*COBUILD*³) *VERB Vnn* *They gave us T-shirts and stickers . . .*

*OALD*⁶ and *COBUILD*³ follow the part of speech or pattern description such as **[VNN]** as used in *OALD*⁵ and *COBUILD*². They show **[VNN]** (or *Vnn*) to make it clear that a verb is followed by more than one noun phrase. These dictionaries are also different from the function-oriented approach of *LDCE*^{2,3}.

Moreover, *LDCE*³ and *LAAD* still use **[I]** for intransitive verbs and **[T]**, but *COBUILD*³ and *OALD*⁶ gives neither. *OALD*⁶ only gives the words ‘intransitive’ and ‘transitive’ for the explanation in *Study Page* (B6–7).

5.1.3.2. Table of grammar codes

It should be noted that some grammar codes are used in *LAAD* that are not found in the table or that are only explained in the *Guide to the Dictionary*.

[not in passive] (see *puzzle*²)

[usually in passive] (see *schedule*²)

[adv. only after verb, adj. not before noun] (see *out*)

[singular, usually in questions and negatives] (see *answer*² 5)

Conversely, the following code in the table is not found in the relevant entries and it is somewhat unclear why the grammar code is given.

[get lost/trapped/caught etc.]

lost 2 *We get lost driving around the city.*

trap × (no description of “get trapped”)

catch 9 *Steph's hair got caught in the machine, and they had to cut it.*

5.2. Usage notes

Hartmann and James (1998) define usage notes as follows: A discursive paragraph providing additional information on a word or phrase, and inserted close to the respective dictionary entry. In GENERAL DICTIONARIES or LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES, usage notes, sometimes specially marked out on the page in boxed panels, draw the reader's attention to synonymous and related words or phrases, explanations of idiomatic expressions, stylistic or other restriction on USAGE.

Dictionaries differ in their ways of giving usage information. For

Table 2 Category and number of usage notes

	<i>LAAD</i>	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>OALD</i> ⁶	<i>COBUILD</i> ³
synonym	190* ¹	129* ¹	162* ²	—
grammar	83	70	32	—
formality/politeness	16	18	—	—
spelling	8	19	—	—
AmE/BrE	—	7	20	—
others* ³	6	10	5	—
no title	3	—	1	122
cross-reference	○	○	○	×
the number of boxed panels	272	188	223	122*⁴

*1: word choice (*LAAD*, *LDCE*³)

*2: which word and vocabulary building (*OALD*⁶)

*3: spoken and written, collocation, style, punctuation etc.

*4: boxed panels painted gray. (*COBUILD*³)

example, *LAAD*, *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁶ show the difference between *different to* and *different than* in a boxed panel of usage notes, while *COBUILD*³ gives discursive sentences beginning with ♦ mark after definitions. Moreover definitions and examples also give usage information. The focus here is on the boxed panels part of which include usage information of more than a category.

The usage notes in *LAAD* have partially changed but are basically based on those in *LDCE*³. 152 out of the 272 panels in *LAAD* are the same as in *LDCE*³: 36 have been deleted and 120 added. *UK-US difference* in *LDCE*³ was deleted (e.g. *just*, *presently*, *really*) and no reference is made to British English (e.g. *burn*, *fed up*, *hire*, *inclusive*). *LAAD* pays more attention to synonyms than any other topic and the synonyms in usage notes are in principle referred to in the related entries.⁴⁾ Gillard and Gadsby note “... they [learners] do not usually have access to a range of synonyms for particular meanings. They are much more likely to use the same word each time they express a particular idea.” (1998: 161) They compared the frequency of the words *big*, *enormous*, *massive* and *huge*, for example, in the Longman Learners’ Corpus (LLC) with the British National Corpus and came to the conclusion that “the learners are far more likely to use the word *big* to express the idea, where a native speaker is almost as likely to use one of the other available words.” (*ibid.*) Just as *LDCE*³ used the LLC in compiling the usage notes, so the new notes in *LAAD* are also considered to be based on the analysis of the LLC that made it possible to distinguish a number of synonyms which are often difficult for learners (e.g. *cook*, *make*, *fix*, *prepare*; see *cook*¹). The synonym information will help learners to use the dictionary for not only decoding but also encoding.

Table 3 Usage notes in same entry

	<i>LAAD</i>	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>OALD</i> ⁶	<i>COBUILD</i> ³
total of boxes	272	188	223	122
boxes in same entry	—	152	57	25

Table 3 above shows the number of usage notes in the other dictionaries that correspond to the same entries in *LAAD*.

They do not always give the same information. For example, *COBUILD*³ has 25 notes, but only 5 notes include the same information as *LAAD*. It should not also be forgotten that the same usage information is found in different entries: the synonyms (e.g. *sufficient*, *enough*, *satisfactory*, *will do*) in the usage notes of **adequate** in *LAAD* are given in the entry **enough** in *OALD*⁶, for example.

5.3. Language Notes

In the middle of *LAAD*, between **marmalade** and **marmoreal** (pp. 879–98), there is an appendix titled “Language Notes” which gives further information on ‘*Prepositions*, *Words followed by prepositions*, *Intensifying adjectives*, *Idioms*, *Modal verbs*, *Make and Do*, *Phrasal verbs*, *Articles*, *Collocations*, *Synonyms*.’ These are taken from the 20 language notes in *LDCE*². Regrettably, there is no cross-reference in the entries concerned (e.g. *preposition*, *idiom*, *collocation*), although more detailed information is found in these notes.

5.4. Summary

No grammatical information on British English is found. In inflections, *LAAD* does not compare with *COBUILD*³, but is more user-friendly than *LDCE*³ as it describes the inflections of the words that end with ‘-y’. Grammatical description codes in *LAAD* follow those in *LDCE*³. Usage notes have increased that may be based on the learners’ corpus, which makes *LAAD* more encoding-oriented.

(Isozaki)

6. Examples and Fixed Expressions

This section tries to identify characteristics of *LAAD* in terms of its examples and treatment of collocations and fixed expressions by comparing it (mainly) to *LDCE*³, its British counterpart, and also to *OALD*⁶, one of its competitors.

6.1. Editorial policies

As regards editorial policies, the explanations about examples, idioms and collocations given in the ‘Guide to the Dictionary’ in *LAAD* are almost the same as the ones in *LDCE*³ (for features of examples of *LDCE*³, see Urata *et al.* 1999: 80ff.). No significant difference in editorial policies seems to exist between the two dictionaries. There is, however, a (formal) change in the way in which collocations are presented. In *LDCE*³, collocations are shown in bold type by themselves, and are followed by a short definition in brackets, or an example, or both. In *LAAD*, however, collocations are printed in bold and embedded in examples. They are followed by a short definition in brackets when necessary. One sense of the noun *word* with the signpost [NEWS] is given below to illustrate this.

[*LDCE*³]

... **word gets out/around** (= people hear about something) *If word of the royal visit gets out, we'll have the press here in force.* | **The word is (that)/word has it (that)** (= people are saying that) *The word is that Ben is leaving after Christmas.* | **no word from** *There's been no word from Susan since July.* | **send/bring word** (= send or bring a message) | **spread/pass the word** (= tell other people the news)

[*LAAD*]

... *There's been no word from Susan since July.* | **Word has it that** (= people are saying that) *Judy's going to be promoted soon.* | **Word has already gotten out** (= people have heard) *about the factory closures.* | **send/bring word** (= send or bring a message) | **spread/pass the word** (= tell other people the news)

As Akasu *et al.* (2001: 33) point out, *LDCE*³ style has the advantage of showing canonical forms, but the disadvantage of being space-consuming. *LAAD* avoids this redundancy and saves a little more space.

Another improvement in the presentation is that *LAAD* puts spoken phrases together in a box headed ‘SPOKEN PHRASES’ and highlights it (e.g. *ask, get, give, go, harm, have, hear*, etc.). These boxes were already present in *LDCE*³ (see entries for *mind* and *think*, for example), but it has been carried out more systematically and made more visible in *LAAD*. It may provide users with easier access within an entry if ‘SPOKEN PHRASES’

boxes are used, rather than simply attaching a ‘spoken’ label to fixed phrases that are typically used in speech and arranging them together with other senses according to frequency order (cf. 4.2.2.). Further empirical user studies are, however, needed to prove this point.

6.2. Examples

As the basis for a quantitative and qualitative analysis of examples of *LAAD* a brief survey was conducted as follows¹: 250 entries common to *LDCE*³ and *LAAD* were randomly chosen, and the number of examples was counted within those entries. (10 headwords were chosen from every letter, except X and Z, from which five headwords were chosen².) These entries were then compared to the corresponding entries in *OALD*⁶. The results are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1 The numbers of phrase and sentence examples in *LDCE*³, *LAAD* and *OALD*⁶.

	phrase	sentence	total
<i>LDCE</i> ³	120	428	548
<i>LAAD</i>	65	543	608
<i>OALD</i> ⁶	217	594	811

Although *LAAD* employs fundamentally the same editorial policies as *LDCE*³, its contents are quite different. The survey showed us that there are about 10%³) more examples in *LAAD*. This was probably partly made possible by the change in the style of presentation of collocations mentioned above, and because most of the examples and the collocations embedded in them were not simply copied from *LDCE*³, but are either substantial revisions, or are completely new ones specially written for *LAAD*. Only 48 out of 608 examples (7.9%) were found to be identical to those in *LDCE*³. Although there are some entries that are almost same as the corresponding ones in *LDCE*³ (e.g. *lovely*), most examples have been replaced by new ones in *LAAD*. The noun *disappointment* is an example of an entry that has been enriched with additional collocational information and complementation patterns in *LAAD*. The examples appearing at

this entry in both the dictionaries are provided below for comparison.

[LDCE³]

1 to sb's (great) disappointment *To her great disappointment none of her tomatoes grew well.*

2 The movie was kind of a disappointment. | be a disappointment to sb *Frankly, I've been a disappointment to my father; he wanted me to be a lawyer.*

[LAAD]

1 [+with] *The Pope described his disappointment. | [+over] Waters expressed disappointment over the company's decision to lay off more workers. | [disappointment (that)] It was a great disappointment that my marriage didn't work. | [+at/in] The company accepted the ruling, but stressed its disappointment in the outcome of the trial. | McGee expressed disappointment at not being chosen for the job. | To her great disappointment, she was turned down for the transfer.*

2 The Giants have been a disappointment all season. | [be a disappointment to sb] *Kate feels like she's a disappointment to her family. | [be a disappointment for sb]* *Low sales of the album have been a disappointment for the band.*

Two more collocational patterns (**great disappointment** and **express disappointment**) and five more complementation patterns ([+with], [+over], [+at/in], [disappointment (that)], [be a disappointment for sb]) have been added to LAAD.

Naturally, words that have different frequency rates in American English compared with British English are also treated differently. For example, words and senses that are more frequent in American English are given fuller treatment in LAAD. In LDCE³, *trash* is marked S3 (the 3,000 most frequent words in spoken English) and is given three meanings with only one example. LAAD, on the other hand, marks *trash* S2 (the 2,000 most frequent words in spoken English), and adds two more meanings and the following collocations and fixed expressions: *Will someone take out the trash* (=take it outside the house)? | *Just put it in the trash.* | **on the trash heap (of sth)** (sense 3) | **one man's trash is another man's treasure** (sense 5).

Another distinctive feature of LAAD is that it has reduced the number

of phrase examples and tried to include more sentence examples. OALD⁶ and LAAD are not strictly comparable, as these two dictionaries differ in terms of size, design, editorial policies etc. However, the number of phrase examples in OALD⁶ is outstanding among the three. While (good) sentence examples have the advantage of being able to show the typical contexts and grammatical constructions in which a word in question is used at a sentence level, the disadvantage is that they are space-consuming. One definite advantage of a phrase example is, on the other hand, is its economy of space⁴. The best use should be therefore made of the advantages which each type of examples offers. The following examples are given at the entry for *optimum* in LAAD and in OALD⁶.

[LAAD]

Under optimum conditions, as many as 50 meteors per hour may be seen. | Winter squash needs plenty of moisture to reach the optimum size.

[OALD⁶]

optimum efficiency/growth/health ◇ the optimum use of resources ◇ the optimum conditions for effective learning

In this particular case, OALD⁶ manages to provide more collocational information about the headword, but uses less space. OALD⁶ seems to have a tendency to show as many collocations as possible by means of short phrases rather than full sentences. The entry for *environmental* shows a contrast between LAAD and OALD⁶.

[LAAD]

An oil spill of that size will cause a lot of environmental damage.

[OALD⁶]

1 the environmental impact of pollution ◇ *environmental issues/problems ◇ an environmental group/movement ◇ environmental damage*
2 environmental influences ◇ *an environmental health officer*

Although the above example is an extreme case, LAAD might have made a better use of phrase examples in order to increase the amount of linguistic information.

The comparison of the examples given at *accessory* may, however, show

effective use of a sentence example in *LAAD*.

[*LAAD*]

2 something such as a piece of equipment or a decoration that is not necessary, but that makes a machine, car, room etc. more useful or more attractive: *Accessories such as a carrying case and battery recharger are free with the purchase of a cellular phone*

[*OALD*⁶]

1 an extra piece of equipment that is useful but not essential or that can be added to sth else as a decoration: *bicycle accessories* ◇ *a range of furnishings and accessories for the home*

The sentence example in *LAAD* is successful in giving a concrete idea of what accessories are, while the phrase examples in *OALD*⁶ shows the range of objects which the word can be applied to, and which *LAAD* manages to include in the definition.

6.3. Fixed expressions

Another way in which *LAAD* is crucially different from *LDCE*³ is in the inclusion of variants of fixed expressions. Fixed expressions often differ slightly from variant to variant, though the differences are usually less fixed. *LAAD* shows the pattern(s) and form(s) that represent typical American usage only (based on their corpus data), whereas *LDCE*³ tries to cover two major varieties, both British and American English. Table 2 below compares the descriptions of some fixed expressions (complementation, complex prepositions, collocations and idioms) in the two dictionaries.

It is an unwelcome feature, from the point of view of a Japanese learner of English, that *LAAD* does not indicate which items are exclusive to American English, following the tradition of American lexicography (Ilson 1986: 61) (cf. 2.1.). We expect a dictionary to tell us whether or not a word or expression in question is peculiar to a certain variety, especially when its meaning differs between varieties (for example, *wash up*, which means “to clean one’s body” in American English and “to do the dishes” in British).

Table 2 The variant forms described in *LDCE*³ and *LAAD*

entry	<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>LAAD</i>
annoyed	[+ with], [+ about/by]	[+ at/with]. [+ about/by]
different	[+ from] [+ to] [+ than] <i>AmE</i>	[+ from] [+ than]
membership	[+ of] [also + in] <i>AmE</i>	[+ in]
behalf	on behalf of also in behalf of <i>AmE</i>	on behalf of sb/on sb's behalf also in behalf of sb/in sb's behalf
weekend	at the weekend/at weekends <i>BrE</i> , on the weekend/on weekends <i>AmE</i>	over the weekend
hospital	in/to/from hospital <i>BrE</i> in/to/from the hospital <i>AmE</i> be admitted to (the) hospital	in the hospital was admitted to the hospital
dip	have/take a dip	take a dip
guess	have a guess at <i>BrE</i> , take a guess at <i>AmE</i>	take a guess
table	lay the table <i>BrE</i> set the table <i>especially AmE</i>	set the table
time	tell the time <i>BrE tell time</i> <i>AmE</i>	tell time
shoot	shoot the bull/shoot the <i>informal</i> breeze <i>AmE informal</i>	shoot the bull/breeze <i>informal</i>

6.4. Idioms

LAAD's exclusive description of the American variety of English also applies to the treatment of idioms. We first compared *LAAD*, *LDCE*³ and *OALD*⁶ to the *Longman American Idioms Dictionary* (1999) (*LAID*), which contains idioms used in contemporary American English, in order to examine the quantitative difference in coverage of American idioms. A total of 246 items randomly chosen from five sections (B: **bridge** — **bypass**, E: **eagle** — **eel**, L: **laugh** — **leg**, P: **phrase** — **pity**, T: **tip** —

Table 3 The numbers of idioms in *LAID*, *LAAD*, *LDCE³* and *OALD⁶*

	B	E	L	P	T	total
<i>LAID</i>	58	47	45	46	50	246
<i>LAAD</i>	49(42)*	36(29)	36(25)	33(22)	41(30)	195(148)
<i>LDCE³</i>	46(31)	33(23)	34(18)	34(20)	36(19)	183(111)
<i>OALD⁶</i>	40(22)	33(21)	31(14)	34(15)	37(21)	175(93)

*The number in round brackets indicates the number of items accompanied by (an) example(s).

top) were checked against *LAAD*, *LDCE³* and *OALD⁶*.

The total number of idioms included is slightly bigger in *LAAD*, but the difference is too small to be of any particular significance, as our sample is rather small. Instead, the difference seems to lie in idioms which the two Longman dictionaries do not share. Direct comparison of *LAAD* and *LDCE³* in the first section, i.e. from **bridge** to **bypass**, shows that each gives wider coverage of its own home variety. *LAAD* includes 24 idioms that do not appear in *LDCE³*, and many of them are more typical of American English: *be too big for your britches*, *more bang for the/your buck*, *bum rap*, *bum steer*, *crash and burn*, (*have*) *bought the farm*. On the other hand, *LDCE³* contains 25 idioms that are not included in *LAAD*, and most of them are characteristic of British English: *it's as broad as it's long*, *have a broad back*, *stony broke*, *hit the buffers*, *like a bull at the gate*, *not go a bundle on*. It may well be appropriate to regard this as a reflection of corpus data which the two dictionaries are based on.

More idioms are provided with examples in *LAAD* (76%) than in *LDCE³* (60.7%) and *OALD⁶* (53.1%). This result corresponds to that derived from the comparison in the number of examples between *LDCE³* and *LAAD* (see Table 1), but does not correspond to the comparison between *LAAD* and *OALD⁶*. It is difficult for foreign learners to get the gist of the meaning of an idiom because of its stylistic markedness, metaphorical meaning, and/or pragmatic functions. It is therefore desirable to provide more corpus-based, appropriate illustrative examples to show the register and context in which an idiom is typically used. Especially when even a large corpus of more than 200 million words often does

not provide enough instances of the kinds of idioms which are expected or very likely to be covered in EFL dictionaries (Moon 1998: 81), corpus-based examples are valuable sources of real language for users.

6.5. Summary

As a result of the change in the presentation of collocations and the complete exclusion of information about British English, more space was created in *LAAD* in comparison with *LDCE³*. The results of our random samplings show that *LAAD* provides more (sentence) examples than *LDCE³*. However, when it is compared to *OALD⁶*, the number of examples given for headwords is not particularly large. Nevertheless, our brief survey suggests that *LAAD* tries to illustrate more idioms as well as headwords. *LAAD* is probably of most use when we are reading something written about things and events in the US in American English, and is of particular benefit for those who live in the United States and are learning English there.

(Komuro)

7. Labels

This section examines usage labels in *LAAD* mainly in comparison with *LDCE³*, to which is added an occasional comment on some pragmatic aspects of information that can be conveyed by the labels with or without supplementary devices in *LAAD*. Since labels are differently employed from dictionary to dictionary, information concerning the use of a particular word or sense of a word in one dictionary tends to be different in another. This kind of information may be given explicitly by means of a special label, or may be included rather tacitly as part of the definition. Or sometimes there may be a special note added to give a somewhat detailed account of the usage in question (cf. Landau 2001: 217).

7.1. Types of labels used in *LAAD*

LAAD gives a list of twenty-four labels on the inside front cover, classifying them into four categories as follows. (As will be mentioned later, the underlined items are those that are not used in *LDCE³* but have

been incorporated into *LAAD*.)

1. Words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude: APPROVING, DISAPPROVING, FORMAL, HUMOROUS, INFORMAL.
2. Words which are used in a particular context or type of language: BIBLICAL, LAW, LITERARY, NONSTANDARD, NOT TECHNICAL, OLD-FASHIONED, OLD USE, POETIC, SLANG, SPOKEN, TECHNICAL, TRADEMARK.
3. (a) Swear words that should be used with caution, or should not be used at all: IMPOLITE, TABOO, VULGAR.
 (b) Insulting and offensive words that should not be used: OFFENSIVE, RACIST.
4. Some words and spellings from other varieties of English have been included. These are labeled as follows: BRITISH, CANADIAN.

The labeling system in *LAAD* is for the most part quite similar to that in *LDCE*³, but some changes are also found, that is, some labels are missing or others newly introduced. We will study these changes in *LAAD* in some detail now.

7.2. Differences in labeling between *LDCE*³ and *LAAD*

7.2.1. Deleted labels

Some labels used in *LDCE*³ are missing from *LAAD*. They consist of three kinds: (1) most of the country or regional labels, (2) the label *dialect*, and (3) labels showing word origins. Of these three, the label *dialect*, which is meant to mark a word or sense that is only used in a particular part of either Britain or the United States, in fact appears very rarely in *LDCE*³. Only eight instances are found on its CD-ROM version: *aye*¹ 2, *commode* 2, *frit*, *grand* 4, *nay*, *patty*, *summat*, and *tad*. This explains its disappearance in *LAAD*.

As for country or regional marking, *LDCE*³ lists eleven different labels (*AmE*, *AustrE*, *BrE*, *CanE*, *CarE*, *IndE*, *IrE*, *NZE*, *PakE*, *SAfrE*; *ScotE*) on the inside front cover, while *LAAD* includes only two of them, namely, ‘BRITISH’ and ‘CANADIAN’. This is because *LAAD* focuses on English used in America without paying hardly any attention to outside varieties except for some instances in British and Canadian English. But the label ‘AMERICAN’ might as well have been retained for words or senses of words that are

restricted to American English. To the advanced learner of English as a foreign language, it would be very helpful if the dictionary retained the label AMERICAN, because in communicating with people who are not familiar with an American variety of English, one will need some knowledge about whether a particular word or sense is limited to American usage or it belongs to the common core of English.

*LDCE*³ states on its inside front cover that “words which are used in English but which came from another language and are still thought of by speakers of English as foreign words are marked to show the language they came from,” and such labels as *French*, *German*, *Italian*, *Latin*, and *Spanish* are provided. *LAAD* has done away with those labels. To give a few examples, words and phrases from French (e.g. *bon vivant*, *cause célèbre*, *chef d'œuvre*), from German (e.g. *verboten*, *wunderkind*, *zeitgeist*), from Italian (e.g. *fettuccine*), from Latin (e.g. *inter alia*, *sine qua non*, *tempus fugit*), and from Spanish (e.g. *adios*, *mañana*) are marked concerning their origin in *LDCE*³, whereas they are not marked at all in *LAAD*. It is a matter of debate whether learner’s dictionaries should include some information about etymology, but we think that at least words and phrases that sound foreign to speakers of English should be labeled as such in learner’s dictionaries; otherwise, some users would feel all the more puzzled about the strange spellings and/or pronunciations of those words.

7.2.2. Added labels

As compared to *LDCE*³, six new labels have been incorporated into *LAAD*, namely, ‘DISAPPROVING’, ‘NONSTANDARD’, ‘IMPOLITE’, ‘VULGAR’, ‘OFFENSIVE’, and ‘RACIST’. These labels read as warnings and are attached to words and senses that would sound unfavorable to various degrees. Let us see some examples.

<DISAPPROVING>

superstitious DISAPPROVING influenced by the belief that some objects or actions are lucky or unlucky or cause particular results

social climber DISAPPROVING someone who tries to get accepted into a higher social class by becoming friendly with people who belong to that class

<NONSTANDARD>

ain't SPOKEN, NONSTANDARD a short form of “am not,” “is not,” “are not,” “has not,” or “have not”

gimme¹ NONSTANDARD a way of writing the spoken short form of “give me”

<IMPOLITE>

So what? SPOKEN, IMPOLITE used to say that you do not think that something is important (s.v. *so*)

snot 1 IMPOLITE the thick MUCUS (= liquid) produced in your nose

<VULGAR>

shitty VULGAR very bad or disgusting

screw² 7 VULGAR to have sex with someone

<OFFENSIVE>

slut OFFENSIVE a woman who has had many sexual partners

shorty SPOKEN, OFFENSIVE someone who is not very tall

<RACIST>

spic, spik RACIST a Spanish-speaking person

nigger RACIST a black person

These kinds of labels are very informative to non-native speakers because definitions alone do not fully convey their unfavorable connotations. Table 1 shows how these example words are treated in respect of attitude or status in *LDCE³* and in its previous edition *LDCE²* for comparison. A minus sign (—) means that there is no corresponding label to the one used in *LAAD*. An asterisk (*) means that corresponding information is given as part of a definition.

A glance at Table 1 indicates that *LAAD* does not follow the labeling policy of *LDCE³*, which makes much less use of labels than *LDCE²* in favor of qualifications within definitions, but that it employs labels in almost as many cases as *LDCE²*. It is worth noting that the labels marking negative attitude in *LAAD* are more varied than those in *LDCE²*, with four different labels in the former, *disapproving*, *vulgar*, *offensive* and *racist*, corresponding to only two in the latter, *derog[atory]* and *taboo*. Also worthy of note is the fact that the label *taboo* which has been used in the three successive editions of *LDCE* is replaced by *vulgar* or *racist*. This is in accordance with the recent trend in lexicography mentioned in Jackson and Amvela (2000: 140) that “many dictionaries no longer use the label

Table 1 Labeling for some words in *LAAD* and their treatment in *LDCE³* and *LDCE²*

	<i>LAAD</i>	<i>LDCE³</i>	<i>LDCE²</i>
superstitious	disapproving	—	—
social climber	disapproving	—	derog
ain't	nonstandard	—*	nonstandard
gimme (= give me)	nonstandard	—*	nonstandard
So what?	impolite	—	—
snot (= mucus)	impolite	—*	not polite
shitty	vulgar	taboo	taboo
screw (= have sex)	vulgar	taboo	taboo(sl)
slut	offensive	—*	derog
shorty	offensive	—*	(humor) derog
spic, spik	racist	—*	derog (sl)
nigger	racist	taboo	taboo (sl)

‘taboo’” in favor of other labels, such as ‘vulgar’ or ‘coarse slang’. It appears from the above table that *LAAD* tries to give more exact information about unfavorable connotations of particular words or senses in a simpler way than *LDCE³* does, by using explicit labels rather than by indicating restrictions within definitions.

Out of the six labels in question, ‘RACIST’ seems to be the most specific one, which partly reflects a recent growing awareness of the rights of the minorities. We will discuss this label in some detail in the next subsection.

7.3. The label ‘RACIST’

Cowie, in his book on the history of EFL dictionaries, observes that “as the new editions of the 1980s were planned and compiled, it became clear that usage labelling was a matter calling for vigilance and sensitivity, especially in the treatment of vocabulary relating to gender and race” (1999: 162). While a label ‘sexist’, which is found in *OALD* in its fourth and fifth editions (1989, 1995), is not included in any editions of *LDCE* or *LAAD*, special mention has been made with regard to racially offensive words in *LDCE* since its second edition (1987). Let us take such words as *nigger* and *yid* for example and examine the differences of their treatment in *LDCE^{1,2,3}* and *LAAD*.

nigger

<i>LDCE</i> ¹	<i>taboo sl</i> a BLACK person; NEGRO
<i>LDCE</i> ²	<i>taboo sl</i> a black person (considered extremely offensive)
<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>taboo</i> an extremely offensive word for a black person
<i>LAAD</i>	RACIST a black person

yid

<i>LDCE</i> ¹	<i>taboo derog</i> a Jew
<i>LDCE</i> ²	<i>taboo derog</i> a Jew (considered extremely offensive)
<i>LDCE</i> ³	<i>taboo</i> an extremely offensive word for a Jewish person
<i>LAAD</i>	RACIST a Jewish person

There has been an increased awareness and sensitivity exhibited in these successive editions, with the qualification ‘extremely offensive’ put at the beginning of the definitions in *LDCE*³ on the one hand, and with a more specific label ‘RACIST’ introduced into *LAAD* on the other.¹⁾ Other examples of words that bear the label ‘RACIST’ are *Chink, coon, cracker, dago, gook, greaser, gringo, half-breed, honky, Jap, kike, Polack, sheeny, spade, wetback, whitey, wop, yellow, and yellow peril.*

LAAD also gives information about racial offensiveness from a different angle. Some words are labeled as ‘OLD-FASHIONED’ accompanied by the further qualification ‘now considered offensive’, instead of being restricted by means of the straightforward label ‘RACIST’. Take an entry for *colored* as an example.²⁾

colored 2 OLD-FASHIONED a word used to describe people who have dark or black skin, now considered offensive

This implies that *colored*, which used to be a neutral term, would sound racist if used today. It reflects the changes in the connotation of the word, and this is obviously a useful piece of information for non-native speakers of English, who are relatively ill-informed about any subtle changes in the language.³⁾ Other such examples include *darkie, Jewess, mulatto, Negro, oriental, pickaninny, redskin, and squaw*.⁴⁾

7.4. Some pragmatic information

Each dictionary has its own way of giving a wide variety of pragmatic information (cf. Nuccorine 1993, for instance). Svensén (1993: 6) states that “[t]he pragmatic information provided in dictionaries is primarily concerned with the occurrence of the words and their combinations in different dimensions of language. Such information is most often provided by means of *subject field* and *register label*” It is also provided in definitions and special usage notes, particularly in learner’s dictionaries.

We will illustrate some pragmatic information provided in *LAAD* by looking at two examples: a particular use of the word *youth*, and some specific comments on politeness.

7.4.1. Example One: Pragmatic information about the countable use of *youth*

The word *youth* can be used both as an uncountable collective noun and as a regular count noun. When used as a count noun in the form of *a youth* or *youths*, the word seems to bear a negative connotation. Crystal (1984: 72) makes a succinct comment on the different shades of meaning: “‘The youth of the world’ are pleasant-sounding beings. ‘The youths of the world’ are not so quite palatable.” The pragmatic information about this usage found in *LDCE*^{1,2,3} and *LAAD* is as follows:

<i>LDCE</i> ¹	3 [C] <i>often derog</i> a young person, esp. a young male: <i>a group of youths</i>
<i>LDCE</i> ²	2 [C] <i>often derog</i> a young person, esp. a male TEENAGER: <i>a gang of youths</i> — see CHILD (USAGE) <USAGE at child> “A youth is an older, usually male, teenager, but this word <i>often shows disapproval</i> : <i>The police arrested several youths who were fighting</i> .
<i>LDCE</i> ³	2 [C] a word meaning boy or young man, especially a TEENAGER, <u>used especially when you disapprove of them</u> : <i>gangs of youths hanging about on street corners</i> — see CHILD (USAGE) <USAGE NOTE at child> “The word youth is often used for an older male teenager (15+) <u>in official reports about crimes or bad behaviour</u> . <i>The police are seeking two youths who raped a teenage girl</i> . In official names youth includes both sexes Often the phrase young

people is used for this age group in everyday English: *a disco full of young people dancing.*

LAAD 2 [C] a word meaning a TEENAGE boy, used especially in newspapers: *Horton teaches at a school for troubled youths in San Diego.*

<USAGE NOTE at *child*> “The noun **youth** is often used for an older male teenager (15+) in official reports about crimes or bad behavior. *The police are seeking two youths in connection with the attack.* When it is used before a noun, **youth** includes both sexes Often the phrase **young people** is used for this age group in everyday English: *There's nothing for young people to do in this town.*

We see a variety of pragmatic information — underlined in the above quotations — presented in these dictionaries by a label, as part of a definition, and/or in a special usage note. *Youth* as a count noun is a ‘derogatory’ or ‘disapproving’ word signifying ‘especially a male teenager’, often used ‘in official reports about crimes or bad behavior’. An unfavorable aspect of the word is also shown by the examples given in *LDCE*³ and *LAAD*.

Of the four dictionaries, *LDCE*³ gives the most detailed information. *LAAD* is quite similar to *LDCE*³ in this regard but has one regrettable point. According to its labeling system, it ought to have attached the label ‘DISAPPROVING’ to this sense at the entry for *youth*. As a learner’s dictionary of American English, *LAAD* is nonetheless fairly rich in pragmatic information concerning this word. Let us quote from three other American learner’s dictionaries for comparison.

NHD 2 [C] a young man: *a youth involved in a crime.*

RHWD 5 [count] a young person, esp. a young man.

CDAE •A youth is a boy or a young man: *Three of the youths were arrested for cocaine possession.* [C]

NHD and *CDAE* only imply a negative connotation in the illustrative examples, while *RHWD* gives no such information at all. It would be difficult for the learner to grasp a negative connotation of the countable

use of this word from these dictionary descriptions.

7.4.2. Example Two: Some pragmatic information about politeness

In *LAAD*, information about politeness is provided by qualifications within definitions or in a few usage notes that are devoted to politeness. *LAAD* has a label for impoliteness (‘IMPOLITE’) but none for politeness. Its users are expected to find information about politeness in definitions, given in the forms of ‘used in order to be polite’, ‘used as a polite way of (doing something)’, ‘used to politely (do something)’, ‘used to avoid (doing something)’, and so on, which is much the same policy as is followed in *LDCE*³. Here are some examples from *LAAD*.

elderly 1 old, especially used in order to be polite: *Some elderly residents cited concerns over crime levels.*

sorry/I’m sorry SPOKEN c) used as a polite way of introducing disappointing information or a piece of bad news: *Sorry, but that part is out of stock.*

I was wondering if/whether a) SPOKEN used to politely ask someone to help you: *I was wondering if you could babysit tomorrow night.*

let sb go b) a phrase meaning “to dismiss someone from their job,” used to avoid saying this directly: *We’ve had to let three people go this month.*

Since this kind of information is very important in terms of pragmatics in learner’s dictionaries, it might not be unreasonable to adopt an explicit label ‘POLITE’ in *LAAD*, just as *COBUILD*³ has introduced a specific one signaling ‘politeness’. In *COBUILD*³, the polite connotation of the word *elderly*, for example, is not only mentioned in the definition (i.e. ‘You use **elderly** as a polite way of saying that someone is old’), but it is also shown by a noticeable label **politeness** put in the extra column.

7.5. Summary

On the whole, the labeling system in *LAAD* is similar to that in *LDCE*³, but there are some substantial changes. We welcome the newly introduced labels that are concerned with particular words or senses of words that

imply a negative attitude towards the persons or things denoted: particularly 'DISAPPROVING', 'IMPOLITE', 'VULGAR', 'OFFENSIVE', and 'RACIST'. These labels will be in the best interests of EFL users because they can help them "avoid giving unnecessary offence through the choice of unsuitable terms" (Cowie 1999: 167). But *LAAD* has one drawback: it lacks the label 'AMERICAN'. It may be common practice among American dictionaries to remain silent about Americanisms, but EFL learners, especially those outside the United States — Japanese learners of English, for example — would benefit greatly from the label.

(Urata)

8. Illustrations

The features of illustration in *LAAD* are as follows:

- 1) For entries
 - a: illustrations for words (e.g. *juggle, kink*)
 - b: illustrations for verbs/phrasal verbs (e.g. *suck, turn on/off*)
 - c: illustrations for sentences (e.g. *arm, dress*)
 - d: encyclopedic illustrations (e.g. *baseball, vegetables*)
 - e: photographs of famous American people (e.g. *Woody Allen, Bill Gates*)
- 2) Full-page illustrations (16 pages)
- 3) Cross-reference (cf. *cucumber and squash* → *vegetables*)¹⁾

The total number of illustrated entries is 356 in *LAAD*. In comparison with *LDCE*³, *LAAD* gives illustrations in an additional 243 entries and 113 (about 30%) are the same as in *LDCE*³, although some of the latter have been replaced by new illustrations. There has been the drastic change in the choice of words to be illustrated. Above all, 45 photographs of famous American people are added. And the illustrations describing the difference between American and British English are deleted (e.g. *pans, pins, scissors*) (cf. 2.1.). Most of the new pictures apparently have been added for cultural reasons, though there are some cases in which the reason for inclusion is unclear. By way of example, words incorporated into Japanese from English (e.g. *model, parade*) and the words for which Japanese clearly has corresponding words (e.g. *neighbors, volcano*) are such

that they need no pictures in a dictionary of this type, while the illustrations of *ago, circle, length, nod* in *LDCE*³ but not in *LAAD* are of great help. Some illustrations would be easier to find out if the captions showed the corresponding number of their definition (e.g. *level*) or the entry number of the headword (e.g. *slide*). However, the exact nature of illustrations to assist learners is a complex area beyond the scope of this article, and further research for users is required.

(Isozaki)

9. User Research

9.1. Introductory remarks

In order to get a clear picture of the use of *LAAD* and other monolingual English dictionaries by Japanese users, user research is inevitable. Our research consists of three parts: a questionnaire, a written test, and interviews. After establishing a rough profile of Japanese users of English dictionaries through the questionnaire, the test and interviews were carried out in order to collect empirical data on dictionary use for encoding and decoding, respectively. The first two parts are the monolingual version of Kanazashi (2001), who reports the use of English-Japanese dictionaries. This replication has been done in hope of overcoming the difficult situation that Hartmann (2001: 94, see also Hartmann (1998: 145)) regrettably regards as one of the limitations of research on dictionary use: "The various studies that have been carried out are difficult to evaluate and compare because the methods employed and the settings in which they take place are so diverse. Hardly any have been replicated by others, to verify assumptions and findings. . ." Thus, the research design and methodology applied in the questionnaire and the test are basically the same as the bilingual version, as reproduced below, although the dictionaries referred to by the subjects are different. The results of the questionnaire are analyzed independently of the bilingual version, but those of the test are compared with those of the bilingual version. In discussing the data that we obtained through the test and the interviews, the results of the questionnaire are referred back to. At the end of this section, the possibilities for further related studies are suggested.

9.2. A questionnaire survey¹⁾

The questionnaire is the method that is “capable of eliciting a large quantity of data about a large number of people in a short time and with less expense than other means, e.g., interviews” (Diab 1990: 60–61). It was therefore applied as the first part of this research. Five features were investigated in the present questionnaire survey, which is translated from Japanese into English and reproduced below.

- (1) How long have you studied English?
- (2) How often do you use an English-Japanese dictionary, a Japanese-English dictionary, and a monolingual English dictionary for your English studies? Please circle one of the following six choices that is the closest to the frequency of your dictionary use: <every day, twice or three times a week, once a week, twice or three times a month, once a month, once a year, never>.
- (3) Please name the dictionary you use most frequently.
- (4) On what occasions do you use each type of English dictionary? Please number the following in order of frequency (from 4 for the most frequent item to 1 for the least frequent, and nil for the occasion that you do not use a dictionary).
 - while reading English books, newspapers, magazines etc.
 - while translating English into Japanese
 - while writing English letters, essays etc.
 - while translating Japanese into English
- (5) For what purposes do you use an English-Japanese dictionary and a monolingual English dictionary? Please number the following in order of frequency (from 10 for the most frequent item to 1 for the least frequent, and nil for the purpose that you do not use a dictionary for).
 - checking whether a word exists
 - checking spelling
 - checking pronunciation
 - checking part of speech
 - looking up meanings
 - finding synonyms or antonyms
 - finding collocations
 - checking grammar (verb pattern, countability of a noun, etc.)
 - finding cultural information
 - finding etymology

The results of this questionnaire survey are reported and discussed in 9.6.

9.3. A written test²⁾

Next, we designed an experimental test in order to examine to what extent the subjects were familiar with dictionary conventions.

Tono (1984) managed to find some significant facts about the dictionary users’ receptive skills by employing an experimental technique. Our written test is similar to Tono’s test in that:

- (1) it is a dictionary-using task, and from the subjects’ answers to the questions one may be able to improve the way of presenting information in English dictionaries;
- (2) it is an experimental test in which “some factors are isolated and kept under close control and a particular action is carefully measured” (Diab 1990: 62). For example, in answering the questions, the subjects are asked to look up the words in question *only* in the dictionaries that the researcher specifies.

But the test differs from Tono’s in two other respects:

- (1) it was intended to test the dictionary users’ knowledge of dictionary conventions which they usually need for writing and speaking English; it focuses on users’ productive rather than receptive skills;
- (2) it does not include any invented words so as to minimize the risk of making the researcher look like an outsider.

9 English sentences that contain 12 underlined words in all are presented, and the subjects are asked to judge, by looking up the words in the dictionaries that we have specified, whether or not they can find any inappropriateness in the sentences. They are also asked to give the reasons for their judgements, because it is of great importance whether these judgements are based on their previous knowledge or the descriptions given in the dictionaries. The sentences are:

- (1) The flycatchers that inhabit this area are mostly pied.
- (2) Her askew hat looked so funny that all her classmates laughed at her.
- (3) The boys had a hard time playing football yesterday, because the ground was more moist than usual.

- (4) Our English teacher was baptised as a Protestant three years ago.
- (5) He had a narrow escape from the ablaze building.
- (6) Although this book has less pages than that dictionary, this is more thick than that.
- (7) All the sailors on the afloat ship were relieved, because the heavy storm had passed.
- (8) You can't say my grandfather is older than my grandmother just because his hair is more white than hers.
- (9) You can't expect to eat many fish here because this country is inland.

This test is divided into three sections, each containing sentences (1)–(3), (4)–(6), and (7)–(9), and these are printed on different sheets. These sheets are shown to the subjects separately so as to eliminate the chance of the subjects' simultaneous view of (1) and (9), both of which contain an adjective that is mainly used attributively, of (2), (5), and (7), all of which contain a word that is usually not used attributively, and of (3), (6), and (8), all of which contain an adjective which is not premodified by *more* but suffixed by *-(e)r* when used comparatively.

Among these 12 words, all but *flycatcher*, *baptise*, *escape*, and *fish* are used contrary to the information given in the dictionaries (but not necessarily in opposition to native speakers' intuition). For example, *pied* is described in *LAAD* as [only before noun], which means that this word is only used attributively, but in (1) it is used as a predicative adjective. Or, in (3) there is a phrase *more moist*, but this is against what *LAAD* says, which explicitly gives the comparative form of *moist*, namely, *moister*.

The subjects are divided into two groups, and those in Group A are asked to look up the underlined words in a set of dictionary entries we have specified. The descriptions in the dictionaries that we expected the subjects in Group A to pay attention to are the following.

- (1) for the problem word pied: the grammar label [only before noun] in *LAAD*
- (2) for askew: the indication of part of speech "adv." and the example "*There's Jerry, with his collar open and his tie askew.*" in *LAAD*
- (3) for moist: **moister**, the fully-spelt comparative form of *moist*, in *LAAD*

- (4) for baptise: the code [Vn-n] and the example "*I was baptised a Catholic.*" in *OALD*⁵, although a native speaker might judge the original sentence perfectly acceptable
- (5) for ablaze: the grammar label [not before noun] in *OALD*⁶
- (6) for thick: an example sentence which contains *thicker*, the comparative form of *thick*, in *LAAD*
- (7) for afloat: the grammar label [not before noun] in *LAAD*
- (8) for white: **whiter**, the fully-spelt comparative form of *white*, in *OALD*⁶
- (9) for inland: the grammar label [A], the initial of *attributive*, in *LDELC*²

The subjects in Group B, provided with a different set of dictionary entries for the problem words, are expected to pay attention to the following.

- (1) for the problem word pied: (no relevant information in *OALD*⁶)
- (2) for askew: the grammar label "adv., adj. [not before noun]" in *OALD*⁶
- (3) for moist: (no relevant information in *OALD*⁶)
- (4) for baptise: (the same as Group A)
- (5) for ablaze: **be ablaze**, which indicates that *ablaze* is used after *be*, in *LAAD*
- (6) for thick: **thicker**, the fully-spelt comparative form of *thick*, in *OALD*⁶
- (7) for afloat: the grammar label [pred] and examples such as "*The life-jacket kept him afloat.*" in *OALD*⁵
- (8) for white: (no relevant information in *LAAD*)
- (9) for inland: the grammar label [only before noun] in *LAAD*

The subjects not only have to locate the relevant information in each entry, but also must understand what it means in order to give a correct answer to the question. The results of this test are reported and discussed in 9.7.

The reasons for the inclusion of four "dummy" or non-problematic words (*flycatcher*, *baptise*, *escape*, *fish*) should be explained here. Without these, the subjects might have noticed that all the sentences were rendered inappropriate by the underlined words. They might then have tried to correct the wrong usage even if they did not understand the grammar label

or other information in the entry. On the other hand, too many dummies would have wasted the subjects' time and energy. There seems to be no clear guidepost as to what percentage of dummy words should be included in a test like this, but four out of 12 should not be considered as too many. Another reason is that all the problem words listed above are adjectives. It would be rare for a user to consult a dictionary for adjectives only at any one time. This test already contains three *mores*, which may make it look like a test on adjectives. If all the underlined words were adjectives, the subjects might concentrate on the grammar of adjectives too eagerly, which they do not usually do. In short, the dummy words will serve as 'red herrings' and help make the test more like a realistic dictionary lookup.

9.4. Personal interviews

Finally, we found it informative to supplement the questionnaire and the test by adopting a third investigative technique that would allow us to observe the subjects' dictionary use from a different angle. We chose as a third technique the personal interview, in which the subjects are asked to read an article in a music magazine,³⁾ look up a phrasal verb and four words (*leaf through*, *excel*, *exclaim*, *first-hand*, and *gravitate*) in three dictionaries (*LDCE*², *LAAD*, and *COBUILD*³), compare the three entries, judge which entry is the best and which is the worst, and tell the reasons for the judgments. As for the reasons, the subjects are asked to check as many of the following as appropriate:

- because the entry has a wealth of information
- because the entry is short
- because the definition is easy to read, understand, etc.
- because the example sentence is easy to read, understand, remember, etc. or informative

for the best entries, and

- because the entry does not have much information
- because the entry is too long
- because the definition is difficult to read, understand, etc.
- because the example sentence is difficult to read, understand,

remember, etc. or uninformative

for the worst entries. All the interviewees face the question sheets and dictionary entries in the following order.

leaf through: [LDCE²] **leaf through** *phr v.* to turn the pages of (a book, magazine, etc.) quickly without reading much: *I was leafing through an old school magazine when I came across your photo.*

[LAAD] **leaf through** *sth phr v.* to turn the pages of a book quickly, without reading it thoroughly or carefully: *We spent the evening leafing through my old scrapbook.*

[COBUILD³] If you **leaf through** something such as a book or magazine, you turn the pages without reading or looking at them very carefully. □ *Most patients derive enjoyment from leafing through old picture albums.*

excel: [LAAD] **excel** *v.* to do something very well, or much better than most people: *Rick has always excelled at foreign languages.*

[COBUILD³] If someone **excels** in something or **excels** at it, they are very good at doing it. □ *Caine has always been an actor who excels in irony . . . Mary was a better rider than either of them and she excelled at outdoor sports . . . Academically he began to excel . . . I think Krishnan excelled himself in all departments of his game.*

[LDCE²] **excel** *v.* to be the best or better than: *When it comes to singing, she really excels.* | *He's never excelled at games.* (= isn't very good at them) | *What a marvellous meal, Jim! You've really excelled yourself.* (= done even better than usual)

exclaim: [COBUILD³] **exclaim** Writers sometimes use **exclaim** to show that someone is speaking suddenly, loudly, or emphatically, often because they are excited, shocked, or angry. □ *'He went back to the lab', Iris exclaimed impatiently . . . He exclaims that it must be a typing error.*

[LDCE²] **exclaim** *v.* to speak or say loudly and suddenly, because of surprise or other strong feeling: *She exclaimed in delight when she saw the presents.* | *He exclaimed at the size of the bill.* | *"Good heavens!" he exclaimed. "It's six o'clock already."*

[LAAD] **exclaim** *v.* to say something suddenly because you are surprised, excited, or angry: *"Wow!" exclaimed Bobby, "Great car!"*

first-hand: [COBUILD³] **First hand** information or experience is gained or learned directly, rather than from other people or from books. □ *School trips give children firsthand experience not available in*

the classroom.

[LAAD] **first-hand adj.** **first-hand experience/knowledge/account etc.** experience, knowledge, an account etc. that has been learned or gained by doing something yourself: *Wilson knew from first-hand observation how cruel students could be to each other.*

[LDCE²] **firsthand adj., adv.** (learnt) directly from the point of origin: *I heard her news firsthand, (= from her) | It's not firsthand information, so I don't know if you can completely believe it.*

gravitate: [LDCE²] **gravitate to/towards** sthg. phr v. 1 to be attracted by and move gradually towards: *In the 19th century, industry gravitated towards the north of England. | From amateur tennis he eventually gravitated to the professional circuit.* 2 to fall or be drawn towards something, under the influence of gravity: *However often you mix it up in the water, the mud will gravitate towards the bottom again.*

[COBUILD³] If you **gravitate** towards a particular place, thing, or activity, you are attracted by it and go to it or get involved in it. □ *Traditionally young Asians in Britain have gravitated towards medicine, law and engineering.*

[LAAD] **gravitate v.** to be attracted to something and therefore move toward it or become involved with it: *Originally he wanted to be an actor, but gravitated toward singing after he moved to Nashville.*

The interviewees' opinions are reported and discussed in 9.8.

9.5. Choice of subjects

Our subjects consist of 6 graduate students, 57 university students, 28 college students, 9 students at a technical school, 2 high school students, and 7 others: 109 in all. 56 are female, and 53 are male. They have been divided randomly into Group A and Group B, who were provided with different dictionaries in the test (see 9.3.). They are also divided into two groups in another way, namely, Group M and Group non-M: 11 subjects who major(ed) in English are classified into Group M, and all others are in Group non-M. The latter grouping has been done because the subjects' exposure to English is considered to be one of the major factors that affects the results of the test and the interview.

9.6. The results of the questionnaire survey⁴

The first question in the questionnaire is "How long have you studied English?" 107 subjects answered this question. The answers ranged from "3 and a half years" to "46 years", with the mean value 9.5 years, and the mode 7 years. The mean for Group M was 22.3 years (excluding a subject who did not take the test), which was significantly greater than that for the rest, 8.1 years. This indicates that even if the subjects in Group M scored higher than those in Group non-M in the test, it should not automatically be attributed to their majoring in English; it might be simply because they had studied English longer.

The dictionaries that the subjects said they used most frequently were mostly English-Japanese dictionaries such as *GENIUS* (by 38 subjects), *LIGHTHOUSE* (12), *C-LIGHTHOUSE* (7), *READER* (4).⁵⁾ 9 subjects mentioned pocket-size electronic dictionaries. 8 subjects did not name any dictionary. Two facts may be especially worth noting in relation to the present research: (1) the fact that the use of monolingual dictionaries is far less frequent than that of English-Japanese dictionaries: only 4 subjects named a monolingual English dictionary, no one mentioning *LAAD*; and (2) that all the 4 who named *READER* are in Group M, whereas 35 out of 38 who named *GENIUS* are in Group non-M who have recently entered a university/college/technical school, which seems to suggest that many of them know that it is wise to use different dictionaries for different purposes. The former is supported by the result of question (2), and the latter was confirmed through the interviews.

The results of the other items of the questionnaire are reported in the tables below. First, Table 1 shows how many subjects use English-Japanese, Japanese-English, and monolingual English dictionaries with the frequency specified.

Next, Tables 2, 3, and 4 tabulate the answers to question (4): the number of subjects who use an English-Japanese, Japanese-English, monolingual English dictionary, respectively, on four specific occasions with a frequency graded from 4 (most frequent) to 1 (least frequent) and 0 (never). The answers are from 106 subjects, including all 11 in Group M and 95 in Group non-M. For the sake of brevity, the number of subjects

Table 1 Frequency of dictionary use

frequency	English-Japanese		Japanese-English		monolingual	
	Group M	G. non-M	G.M	G. non-M	G.M	G. non-M
every day	8	5	0	3	0	0
2/3 times a week	1	39	4	15	3	1
once a week	1	32	1	10	2	1
2/3 times a month	1	13	3	17	1	3
once a month	0	6	0	16	1	3
once a year	0	1	2	13	3	7
never	0	0	1	22	1	81

Table 2 Occasions on which the subjects use an English-Japanese dictionary

frequency	reading English books etc.		translating English into Japanese		writing English letters etc.		translating Japanese into English	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
4 (most frequent)	6	12	5	78	0	3	0	2
3	2	30	4	10	5	23	0	25
2	1	17	1	4	5	27	4	25
1 (least frequent)	2	15	1	3	1	16	7	25
0 (never)	0	21	0	0	0	26	0	18
means	3.1	2.0	3.2	3.7	2.4	1.6	1.4	1.7

Table 3 Occasions on which the subjects use a Japanese-English dictionary

frequency	reading English books etc.		translating English into Japanese		writing English letters etc.		translating Japanese into English	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means	0.8	0.6	0.5	1.3	2.8	2.0	3.7	2.9

who gave each answer are omitted, and only the mean values are shown in Tables 3, 5, and 6.

Note that the means indicated at the bottom of Tables 2, 3, 4 (and also 5 and 6) are merely arithmetic averages calculated from the graded frequencies. They are not means in the strict sense of the word, because a large number of subjects in Group non-M answered "nil" concerning

Table 4 Occasions on which the subjects use a monolingual English dictionary

frequency	reading English books etc.		translating English into Japanese		writing English letters etc.		translating Japanese into English	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
4 (most frequent)	5	10	1	4	3	2	1	1
3	3	4	1	4	4	4	1	2
2	1	1	3	4	1	3	1	1
1 (least frequent)	0	1	1	2	1	0	3	5
0 (never)	2	79	5	81	2	86	5	86
means	2.8	0.6	1.3	0.4	2.5	0.3	1.1	0.2

Japanese-English and monolingual English dictionaries, and because the differences between consecutive numbers are not equal. If a subject uses a dictionary very frequently on one occasion and rarely on the other three occasions, the difference between "4" and "3" is assumed to be larger than that between "3" and "1". The means should therefore not be taken as significant as such. Thus, one should not jump to the conclusion that the subjects in Group non-M use an English-Japanese dictionary for translating Japanese into English significantly more often than for writing English, merely on the basis that there is a numerical difference of 0.1 points.

However, the following can be derived from Tables 1 and 2, 3, 4:

- (1) bilingual dictionaries are used far more frequently than monolingual ones;
- (2) the dictionary is used for receptive purposes more frequently than in productive contexts;
- (3) every subject uses a dictionary to translate English into Japanese;
- (4) every one of Group M uses an English-Japanese dictionary on every occasion listed;
- (5) more than half of Group M use an English-Japanese dictionary most frequently for reading English while the vast majority of Group non-M do so for translating English into Japanese;
- (6) a monolingual English dictionary is the most frequently used in reading activities;
- (7) all but one in Group M use a monolingual English dictionary while only 15 subjects in Group non-M use one.

Two hypotheses may be put forward by this contrast between the two categories of users: (a) English teaching in Japan is largely based on translation at beginner's level, but higher up the learners move away from too much dependency on translation, and learn to use dictionaries for other purposes, and (b) many Japanese who do not major in English keep a monolingual English dictionary at a respectful distance, regarding it as too difficult for them to use. Fortunately, more than half of those whom we interviewed to ask for opinions on monolingual dictionaries had ever used one, which enhances the reliability of the interview.

Finally, Tables 5 and 6 below, each of which is divided into three parts owing to its horizontal spread, show the number of subjects who use an English-Japanese dictionary and a monolingual English dictionary, respectively, for each of ten purposes specified (from "checking whether a word exists" to "finding etymology"), with the frequency graded from 10 (most frequent) to 1 (least frequent) and 0 (never). 107 subjects answered. 1 of 11 in Group M and 77 of 96 in Group non-M wrote "0" for all the purposes regarding a monolingual dictionary because they did not use one for any of these purposes, but their answers are treated here as well.

Tables 5 and 6 reveal that the subjects use a dictionary for meaning by far the most frequently. Meaning is followed by spelling, grammar, and

Table 5.1 Purposes for which the subjects use an English-Japanese dictionary

frequency	whether a word exists		spelling		pronunciation	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means (each group)	3.5	4.4	6.3	7.0	8.4	6.0
means (whole group)	4.3		6.9		6.2	

Table 5.2 Purposes (continued)

frequency	part of speech		meaning		synonym/antonym		collocation	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means (e.)	4.5	5.6	9.9	9.9	4.4	4.3	5.2	5.4
means (w.)	5.5		9.9		4.3		5.4	

Table 5.3 Purposes (continued)

frequency	grammar		cultural information		etymology	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means (e.)	6.6	6.4	3.5	1.0	2.7	1.4
means (w.)		6.4		1.2		1.6

Table 6.1 Purposes for which the subjects use a monolingual English dictionary

	whether a word exists		spelling		pronunciation	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means (each group)	3.2	0.9	2.3	0.6	3.3	0.7
means (whole group)		1.1		0.9		1.1

Table 6.2 Purposes (continued)

	part of speech		meaning		synonym/antonym		collocation	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means (e.)	2.4	0.6	8.7	1.8	4.1	0.7	4.8	1.0
means (w.)		0.8		2.5		1.1		1.6

Table 6.3 Purposes (continued)

	grammar		cultural information		etymology	
	M	non-M	M	non-M	M	non-M
means (e.)	6.1	0.9	3.8	0.7	3.5	0.4
means (w.)		1.5		1.0		0.8

pronunciation in the case of an English-Japanese dictionary, and by collocations and grammar in the case of a monolingual English dictionary. Cultural information and etymology are not referred to by many subjects.

9.7. The results of the test⁶⁾

108 subjects (10 in Group M and 98 in Group non-M) were tested.

First, the results of the test given by 54 subjects in Group A and as many subjects in Group B are summarized in Tables 7 and 8.

It is important to see whether the subjects judged the grammatical inappropriateness of a particular problem word by referring to the grammar label or other keys in the dictionary or from their previous knowledge, which is shown in separate columns in the tables above.

From Tables 7 and 8, two facts which may have been suspected by many can be reconfirmed: that the indication of a comparative form by fully-spelt word near the beginning of an entry is fairly noticeable, and that a grammar label is more transparent when it is explained in simple words than when it is shown in an abbreviated grammatical term. Examples were also proved to be useful whether or not there is another key to the question.

Table 7 Answers to the questions in the test by the subjects in Group A

prob- lem word	keys to finding the inappropriateness	number and percentage of subjects who correctly pointed out the inappropriateness (n = 54)			
		by refer- ring to grammati- cal informa- tion in the dictionary	by reading examples in the dictionary	from his/ her previous knowledge	row total ⁷⁾
pied	[only before noun]	15 (28%)	—	1 (2%)	15 (28%)
askew	adv. and an example	11 (20%)	14 (26%)	1 (2%)	26 (48%)
moist	moister	34 (63%)	—	6 (11%)	39 (72%)
ablaze	[not before noun] and examples	14 (26%)	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	14 (26%)
thick	an example	—	10 (19%)	15 (28%)	25 (46%)
afloat	[not before noun] and examples	14 (26%)	0 (0%)	3 (6%)	15 (28%)
white	whiter	19 (35%)	—	17 (31%)	34 (63%)
inland	[A] and examples	0 (0%)	6 (11%)	0 (0%)	7 (13%)
column total		107 (25%)	30 (11%)	44 (10%)	175 (41%)

Table 8 Answers to the questions in the test by the subjects in Group B

prob- lem word	keys to finding the inappropriateness	number and percentage of subjects who correctly pointed out the inappropriateness (n = 54)			
		by refer- ring to grammati- cal informa- tion in the dictionary	by reading examples in the dictionary	from his/ her previous knowledge	row total ⁷⁾
pied	(no information)	—	—	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
askew	[not before noun] and examples	20 (37%)	2 (4%)	2 (4%)	24 (44%)
moist	(no information)	—	—	9 (17%)	9 (17%)
ablaze	Be ablaze and examples	6 (11%)	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	7 (13%)
thick	thicker	21 (39%)	—	6 (11%)	24 (44%)
afloat	[pred] and examples	0 (0%)	7 (13%)	9 (16%)	15 (27%)
white	(no information)	—	—	10 (19%)	10 (19%)
inland	[only before noun]	2 (4%)	—	0 (0%)	2 (4%)
column total		49 (18%)	9 (6%)	38 (9%)	92 (21%)

LAAD rather inconsistently takes three approaches to the indication of the comparative and superlative forms of monosyllabic adjectives. It provides some adjectives with its comparative and superlative forms in bold and in fully-spelt forms (as with **moist**), it sometimes has an example sentence which contains the comparative or superlative form (as with **thick**), or these forms are not shown (as with **white**). The absence of a label may drastically decrease the percentage of right answers, which becomes clear by the simple comparison of Groups A and B concerning the total numbers of those who pointed out the inappropriateness of *more moist*: 72% correctly pointed it out using *LAAD*, whereas only 17% did so using *OALD*⁶ with no relevant information except that *moist* is a monosyllabic adjective. It is doubtful that there is any good reason why the comparative form of *white* is not within reach of the users of *LAAD*.

The same holds true with the indication of whether an adjective func-

tions attributively or predicatively. *LAAD*'s labels to attributive and predicative adjectives, that is, [only before noun] and [not before noun], respectively, were used fairly effectively by the subjects, compared to [A] in *LDELc²* and [pred] in *OALD⁵*, both of which no subject made use of at all.

LAAD labels *askew* as an adverb with no reference to its adjectival use unlike *LUMINOUS*, which labels it as “副, 形 **P**” (adverb, predicative adjective). In *LAAD*, apart from *askew*, there are at least two such words, which Quirk *et al.* (1985: 408) refer to as *a*-words: *aslant* and *astray*.⁸ Concerning these two, users of *LAAD* have other keys that would prevent them from using *askew* attributively: the label “*adv. [not before noun]*” attached to *aslant*, and the collocational information **go astray** and **lead sb astray** which precedes two senses of *astray*, respectively. But the entry for *askew* in *LAAD* lacks keys other than “*adv.*,” and nearly twice as many subjects retrieved useful information from *OALD⁶* with the label “*adv., adj. [not before noun]*” as from *LAAD*, which focuses on the adverbial use, in the test in which *askew* is wrongly used as an adjective. It is seemingly inconceivable that the subjects in Group A pointed out the inappropriateness by reading the example sentence with a construction quite different from sentence (2) outnumbered those who did so by checking the part of speech. A possible interpretation would be that indicating the usage *in plain English* is more effective than the indication of part of speech. The bilingual version of this test has provided strong empirical evidence to the supposition that <限定> and <叙述> are more helpful than **A** and **P** for attributive and predicative adjectives, respectively; and that among the three labels indicating that an adjective has no comparative form, [比較なし], directly translated as “no comparison,” was understood by the largest number of subjects, which was followed by (ϕ 比較), translated as “phi comparison,” which was followed by **C**, a *c* with a slash through it.

The results of the test can be divided into some parts in various ways. First, the comparison of the percentage of right answers between Group M and Group non-M enables us to see the influence of the subjects' exposure to English on the results.

Table 9 The results of the test given by the subjects in two groups

problem word	number and percentage of subjects in Group M who correctly pointed out the grammatical inappropriateness (n= 10)			number and percentage of subjects in Group non-M who correctly pointed out the grammatical inappropriateness (n= 98)		
	by referring to grammatical information	by reading examples	from his/her knowledge	by referring to grammatical information	by reading examples	from his/her knowledge
<i>pied</i>	5 (50%)	—	1 (10%)	10 (10%)	—	1 (1%)
<i>askew</i>	7 (70%)	2 (20%)	0 (0%)	24 (24%)	14 (14%)	3 (3%)
<i>moist</i>	5 (50%)	—	3 (30%)	29 (30%)	—	12 (12%)
<i>ablaze</i>	7 (70%)	0 (0%)	1 (10%)	13 (13%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
<i>thick</i>	2 (20%)	3 (30%)	7 (70%)	19 (19%)	7 (7%)	14 (14%)
<i>afloat</i>	4 (40%)	2 (20%)	4 (40%)	10 (10%)	5 (5%)	8 (8%)
<i>white</i>	4 (40%)	—	7 (70%)	15 (15%)	—	20 (20%)
<i>inland</i>	1 (10%)	2 (20%)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	4 (4%)	0 (0%)
<i>subtotal</i>	35 (44%)	9 (18%)	23 (29%)	121 (15%)	30 (6%)	59 (8%)
<i>total</i>		57 (71%)			210 (27%)	

Table 9 shows a marked difference in the percentage of correct answers between Groups M and non-M, with the former scoring well over twice as high as the latter. The conclusion follows naturally that those who have been exposed to English to a greater extent obtained a higher score in this test. This tendency can be seen when one compares the number and percentage of the subjects in each group who pointed out the inappropriateness by using the dictionary: 44 right answers (55%) by subjects in Group M, and 151 (19%) by those in Group non-M. The discrepancy between these groups is more conspicuous in retrieving information on attributive and predicative uses of adjectives (30 right answers (60%) by subjects in Group M and 81 right answers (17%) by those in Group non-M) than on whether the comparison is inflectional or periphrastic (14 answers (47%) and 70 answers (24%), respectively).

In order to see if the subjects' previous look at related labels made any

Table 10 Understanding of dictionaries by the subjects who faced the question sheets in different orders

	number and percentage of successful retrievals of relevant information from the dictionary by the subjects who faced the sheet (n = answers to 2 or 3 questions by 108 subjects)		
	first (n = 288)	second (n = 287)	third (n = 289)
by referring to grammatical information	44 (15%)	52 (18%)	60 (21%)
by reading examples	9 (3%)	15 (5%)	15 (5%)
total	53 (18%)	67 (23%)	75 (26%)

difference to their answers, we have compared the answers on the question sheets that were presented to the subjects first, second, and third. As there were three question sheets, the table could be divided into six columns according to which sheets they faced first, second, and third. But for the sake of simplicity, the only thing that really matters here is whether the sheets were presented to the subjects first, second, or third. This requires the division of the table into three columns rather than six. For example, all the answers on the sheets presented to the subjects first are treated in the column “faced the sheet first”, irrespective of which of the other two sheets was presented next.

Table 10 clearly shows that the subjects improved their performance by themselves. They are expected to perform even better given proper instruction — the same conclusion as drawn from the bilingual version.

9.8. The results of the interviews

24 subjects, including 10 in Group M and 14 in Group non-M, granted the one-to-one interview. Table 11 shows the number of subjects who judged the entry in one of *LDCE*², *LAAD*, and *COBUILD*³ to be the best and the worst of the three. The answers by the subject who did not understand what the words meant even after reading the dictionary entry are excluded from the table.

We gather from this table that none of these entries in *LAAD* were regarded as particularly good or bad by many interviewees. Apart from

Table 11 The subjects' evaluations on the entries of the three dictionaries

word/phrase to look up	the best			the worst		
	<i>LDCE</i> ²	<i>LAAD</i>	<i>COBUILD</i> ³	<i>LDCE</i> ²	<i>LAAD</i>	<i>COBUILD</i> ³
<i>leaf through</i>	16	5	3	2	3	19
<i>excel</i>	14	7	3	6	6	12
<i>exclaim</i>	15	7	2	0	6	18
<i>first-hand</i>	6	4	13	12	7	3
<i>gravitate</i>	11	9	3	7	3	12

the entry for *firsthand*, *LDCE*² was by far the most popular, while *COBUILD*³ was the least.

Why is *COBUILD*³ not evaluated highly? What is it that separates *LDCE*² from *LAAD*? Or, since this is an analysis of *LAAD*, we may as well put it as “why is *LAAD* not evaluated as highly as *LDCE*²?” In order to answer these questions, we have to analyze the reasons that the subjects gave for their evaluations. Tables 12 and 13 show the number of subjects who gave each of the four reasons for their judgments of the dictionaries to be the best and the worst, respectively.

The fact that “definition” was most frequently checked by the subjects for both the best and the worst entries is not surprising, as 10 out of 13 interviewees who had used a monolingual English dictionary used one for

Table 12 The reasons the subjects gave for their judgments to be the best

	the number of subjects
the wealth of information	35
the brevity of the entry	20
easy-to-understand definition	98
easy-to-understand example(s)	54
other reasons	1

Table 13 The reasons the subjects gave for their judgments to be the worst

	the number of subjects
the scarcity of information	26
the lengthiness of the entry	34
difficult definition	68
difficult example(s)	29
other reasons	4

looking up meanings the most frequently, and 2 the second most frequently. However, it is interesting to see that the second most frequently checked reason was “example(s)” for the best entries but “the lengthiness” for the worst. In other words, examples are liable to be praised if they are easy to understand but not criticized as much if they are difficult; while an entry tends to be recoiled from if it is too long but it does not attract users as much for its brevity. From this it may be surmised that good examples should be given as long as they do not make the whole entry too long (if the results were to the contrary, the conclusion would be “examples should be given with great care so as not to make the whole entry too long.”) Now, let us take a look at each phrase and word in question.

The greatest discrepancy in popularity between *LAAD* and *LDCE*² is seen with *leaf through*. As the reason for their setting a high valuation on *LDCE*², 11 subjects gave the easy definition, 7 gave the example, and 5 gave the brevity. Urata *et al.* (1999: 75–78) state that the non-use of round brackets in definitions in *LDCE*³ has made them easier to understand (than those in *LDCE*²) by “ignor[ing] syntactic interchangeability and giv[ing] an easier definition without confronting the user with brackets,” (*ibid.* 1999: 77) but we have obtained the subjects’ opinions to the contrary. 7 said that the use of brackets in the definition of *leaf through* is welcomed, 3 said that they were bothered by the use, and all others (14) did not mind facing the brackets.

As for the reasons for their evaluations on three entries for *excel*, the same tendency as with *leaf through* is observed. However, it is worth noting that all the 6 who regarded *LAAD* as the worst gave the scarcity of information as the reason. 2 subjects explicitly expressed their insecurity with being provided with only one example sentence.

The greatest discrepancy in unpopularity between *LAAD* and *LDCE*² is seen with *exclaim*. It is amazing that no one judged *LDCE*² the worst; it was chosen as the best on the ground of its easy example (11 checks), its easy definition (10), and the wealth of information (6). By contrast, of the 6 who judged *LAAD* the worst, 5 gave the scarcity of information, of whom 2 again felt insecure with only one example.

4 subjects explicitly expressed their unfamiliarity with or even hatred of

the full sentence definition beginning with “*If you . . .*” as with *leaf through* and *excel*. Including them, 12 gave the difficult definition as the reason for their judgment of *leaf through* in *COBUILD*³ to be the worst, and 7 for their judgment of *excel*. Particularly unwelcome was the use of “writers” at the beginning of the definition of *exclaim* in *COBUILD*³, which 5 severely criticized as “unimportant,” “irrelevant to the meaning of the word,” and so on.

*COBUILD*³ states in its introduction that the sentence definition “sets out the meaning in the way one ordinary person might explain it to another.” (p. xiii) Regrettably, not many Japanese students seem to be used in the situation in which one explains the meaning of words in English, which leads to the Japanese-antagonism of this and other dictionaries that adopt the sentence definition. In order for this dictionary to be popular, deliberate teaching is necessary.

The popularity of *COBUILD*³ with *first-hand* is largely due to its definition (checked by 13 subjects, compared to the example by 6 and the wealth of information by 1), in which the headword comes first, whereas the repetition of *experience*, *knowledge*, and *account* makes the entry in *LAAD* look redundant, and the phrase “from the point of origin” in *LDCE*² is more abstract than “directly, rather than from other people or from books” in *COBUILD*³.

The subjects’ opinions on *first-hand* most typically reveal the fact that they tend to judge an entry for its definition: 22 checked the easy definition, while 9 checked the example, 3 the wealth of information, and 1 the brevity. The argument on the brackets by Urata *et al.* (1999: 75–78) is supported by the result that 12 out of 23 did react negatively to the use of brackets around *learnt* in *LDCE*², criticizing it as “not clear” and claiming that “it is incomprehensible why the brackets are used,” which accounts for the unpopularity of *LDCE*² solely with this word. On the other hand, brackets to reword some phrases in examples were welcomed by 12 subjects, because they are helpful for understanding the examples. But 2 opposed to it, claiming that they were looking up the dictionaries while reading a text, and too much information in the example distracts users’ attention from the reading; what they wanted to read was the text rather

than the examples.

Gravitate is the word which the greatest number of subjects judged *LAAD* to be the best among the words in question. The most frequently checked reason is the easy definition (by 7 subjects). But the example in *LAAD* was not as welcomed as the definition. 2 of 3 who judged it to be the worst gave the example as the reason, and another who did not judge it the worst said that the example was flawed by the fact that *gravitate* appears "only in the second half of the sentence," that is, it took him some time before he reached the headword while reading the definition. A place name, *Nashville*, is used in the example. Only 3 of 24 subjects noticed or at least guessed the musical connotation of *Nashville* (cf. *LDELIC²*, s.v. **Nashville**). They did not expect to retrieve encyclopedic information from dictionaries, which is suggested by their low frequency of looking for cultural information as shown in Tables 5 and 6. One may wonder whether *LAAD* intends to provide cultural information in this example. If it does, few subjects appreciated it. If it does not, it should be replaced by a more informative or shorter example.

Some definitions contain difficult words such as *thoroughly*, *emphatically*, and *gravity*, which 3 English teachers in Group M regarded as user-antagonistic, bearing their teaching in mind. Their students would appreciate if these words were not used in the definition, even though *thorough* and *-ly* are included in *LADD*'s "American Defining Vocabulary."

To sum up, we have found out that users can largely be classified into two types: those who want to retrieve information quickly and get back to the text, and those who want to retrieve extra information about the words they look up, especially from examples. An entry can be judged to be either good or bad on the basis of examples. A balanced description of entries is called for.

9.9. Suggestions for further studies

Finally, we would like to suggest how further studies could be conducted in relation to this present research, especially the interview.

The unpopularity of *COBUILD³* is attributed not only to the subjects' unfamiliarity with this defining style, but also to the setting of the inter-

views: the subjects looked up the words while reading an English magazine. Although Table 4 shows that occasions on which the subjects in both Groups M and non-M use a monolingual English dictionary is "while reading English," the opinion that they would have evaluated the dictionaries differently if they had used them for other purposes was voiced by 4 subjects, one of whom in Group M answered question (3) of the questionnaire, "I most frequently use *READER²* for my English studies but *GENIUS²* for other purposes." In reading, they mainly search for the meaning of the words, which is why long entries with much extra information are not welcomed. That users are discouraged from going through long entries has been supported empirically by Tono (1984). If they were asked to look up the same words while writing English in another interview, the results might be quite different.

Another factor that has affected the results is that all the four words and the phrase to be looked up in the dictionaries in the interview are used in their core senses in the reading text. It would be interesting to see what the results would be if some of the words were used in less known senses (see Bogaards 1998, who conducted an experimental test to investigate subjects' search for less known senses).

One could even study the psychological bias and try to eliminate it in user research. For example, in the bilingual version which tested 20 female and 25 male subjects, the percentage of "wrong answers" and "no answers" to questions about 11 grammar labels used in English-Japanese dictionaries by male and female subjects may arouse our interest: 12 "wrong answers" (5.5%) by women, 23 "wrong answers" (8.4%) by men, 133 "no answers" (60.5%) by women, and 154 "no answers" (56.0%) by men. Would this mean that women are generally more afraid of making mistakes than men? On the other hand, the present monolingual version suggests otherwise: 53 "wrong answers" (11.8%) by female, 40 "wrong answers" (9.6%) by male, 238 "no answers" (53.1%) by female, 249 "no answers" (59.9%) by male. In order to see if the difference between sexes indeed affects the results of the tests, one has to design another test in which other variables (the numbers of male and female subjects, their proficiency in English, their familiarity with dictionaries, etc.) are con-

trolled to be the same. If the results of these tests were proved to be biased by the difference between sexes, one would have to think of ways of encouraging either of the sex who feel hesitant to give any answer.

Another bias may be detected by the fact that reasons for the subjects' judgments of entries to be the best were checked more frequently (208 checks) than those to be the worst (161), as Tables 12 and 13 show. It is assumed that some subjects, especially those in Group non-M, refrained from, or did not feel like explicitly criticizing a dictionary as the worst. As Jackson (1988: 125) puts it, "[t]he dictionary has an imputed function as the authority on the language."

(Kanazashi)

10. Conclusion

Longman Advanced American Dictionary has been analyzed from various points of view. The focus of attention has been on entries, pronunciation, definitions, examples and fixed expressions, grammar and usage notes, labels, and user research. In summary, the main points of this analysis are the following.

10.1. Entries

LAAD based on the corpora of American English includes both lexical and encyclopedic entries, following the tradition of American dictionaries. The use of corpora has made it possible to give new spoken entries and also confirmed the practical usefulness for reading newspapers and magazines. It remains to be seen whether or not the entry of the variety of American English as unmarked will be instructive and highly valued. The solution of what encyclopedic matter is needed requires further research. The mainstream advanced EFL learners' dictionaries will contain not only lexical but encyclopedic matter. The latter is indispensable, but far more difficult to evaluate because they do not necessarily depend on frequency.

10.2. Pronunciation

The phonetic symbols used in *LAAD* are generally adequate, and the transcriptions are for the most part written carefully and consistently,

though there remains some room for improvement. It is regrettable that there are cases in which the order of priority given to the current tendencies in pronunciation seems to be questionable. Assignment of stress marks on monosyllables is desirable, and employment of length marks for vowels would make *LAAD* far more useful at least to Japanese learners.

10.3. Definitions

LAAD lists a total of 2,134 entries in its defining vocabulary, where 60 entries are abandoned from the *LDCE*³ defining vocabulary and 101 new entries are introduced. Some British oriented expressions are replaced with American flavored ones. However, the problem in the *LAAD* defining vocabulary lies in that the criterion for the selection of entries is not adequately clear. This is particularly evident when considering words with affixes. Essentially, *LAAD* inherits the *LDCE*³ conventions, and with the exception of some improvements in the visual effects, no special modification has been introduced to the way it gives definitions for each headword.

10.4. Grammar, usage notes and language notes

In comparison with *LDCE*³, no grammatical information on British English is found. The class of determiners was reclassified: *predeterminer* is deleted, and *possessive pron.* and *possessive adj.* are added. In inflections, *LAAD* does not compare with *COBUILD*³, but is more user-friendly than *LDCE*³ as it describes the inflections of the words that end with '-y'. Grammatical description codes in *LAAD* follow those in *LDCE*³. Usage notes have increased that may be based on the learners' corpus, which makes *LAAD* more encoding-oriented.

10.5. Examples and fixed expressions

Although *LAAD* employs basically the same editorial policies as *LDCE*³, most examples are newly written for *LAAD* based on Longman American Corpus data. However, an economical change made in how to present collocational information yielded some space together with exclusion of information about British variants of multiword expressions such as collocations and idioms. The space seems to have been devoted to inclusion of

more sentence examples and more Americanisms in *LAAD*.

10.6. Labels

The labeling system of *LAAD* is similar to that of *LDCE*³, but there are several substantial changes. *LAAD* has incorporated some explicit labels that serve as warnings to learners of English, for instance, ‘DISAPPROVING’, ‘IMPOLITE’, ‘VULGAR’, ‘OFFENSIVE’, and ‘RACIST’. Another change is the disappearance of a national label referring to Americanisms, without which learners abroad cannot hope to gain any idea of whether a particular word or sense belongs to the common core of English or it is restricted to American usage. This research has also touched on the way some pragmatic information is conveyed by labels, qualifications within definitions, and/or special usage notes.

10.7. User research

We have conducted three-part user research on *LAAD* and other dictionaries, and discussed its results. Among the main findings was the fact that *LAAD* was not evaluated as highly as *LDCE*², which had been published by the same publisher more than 10 years before. This is due not only to the user-antagonism of definitions, but also to that of examples, in which there is much room for improvement. We have also suggested ways of conducting further studies in relation to the present one.

The emergence of *LAAD* has been most welcome because many have been eagerly waiting for a corpus-based dictionary of American English for advanced learners. But there are areas that need improvement. For example, *LAAD* inherits descriptions from *LDCE*³ which lack deeper considerations, and further elaborations are required for definitions. While recognizing the usefulness of encyclopedic information, many hope for a full-fledged American learner’s dictionary, having detailed descriptions of the core vocabulary of American English, which is comparable to its British counterpart *LDCE*³.

NOTES

Section 1

- 1) The abbreviations of the dictionaries are given in the last part of the article.
- 2) Reference to CD-Rom dictionaries is only occasionally made in this article.
- 3) The first says in its preface (iv) that it is ‘based on our analysis of a multi-million-word corpus of American English’ and the second mentions in the jacket it is ‘based on Oxford’s exclusive 200-million-word database of English.’ The last says (vi) that it ‘was written using the Cambridge International Corpus . . . that includes some 100 million words of written and spoken American English.’

Section 2

- 1) The 16 parts surveyed are as follows: *beauty* — *beeline*, *cat* — *catharsis*, *control*¹ — *convent school*, *do*¹ — *dogwood*, *far*¹ — *fast-track*, *glacial* — *gleeful*, *humane* — *huntsman*, *law* — *laywoman*, *mime*¹ — *mindset*, *organization* — *otherworldly*, *posture*¹ — *pound sterling*, *relief* — *remember*, *set*² — *severance pay*, *staple*¹ — *starting price*, *think*¹ — *thorax*, and *voice*¹ — *vow*².
- 2) No survey is made of phrasal verbs here, but there is so much description missing in the phrasal verb entry *get*. It should also be mentioned that grammatical information should be consistent and explicit in run-ons. In the entry *landless*, for example, *n. [plural]* is found. The assumption may be that the expression *the landless* is treated as a plural noun. This implicit information is rather difficult or puzzling to understand. It is not clear why *landless* as well as entries such as *famous*², *impossible*² and *unemployed*², are given as a noun entry, and why they are different from the entries *poor* and *rich* treated under their adjective entries. In these cases consistency and explicitness should be given precedence.
- 3) The main entries in *LAAD* are compared with those in *LDELc*². The result is that more than a third (134 out of 383) are given in the latter: proper nouns including encyclopedic matter account for more than forty percent.
- 4) Some entries usually labeled *offensive* or *racist* are surveyed by reference to Norri (2000), because “*America has been a melting pot since the beginning of European immigration*” (sv. *melting pot*, but no entry ‘salad bowl’). The entries related to nationality, and racial or cultural group were looked into. 13 out of 20 in the former, and 11 out of 20 in the latter, are not given the label *racist*. (cf.7.3.)
- 5) ‘Intermediate level dictionaries’ are those dictionaries in which the entry number is said to be around 50,000.
- 6) *AHED* and *RHWD* give *IL* and *III*. for entries, for instance, saying that they are abbreviations of Illinois. But the entry *Illinois* is nowhere found in the body of the dictionary, because it may be taken for granted that users understand what it is.
- 7) ‘College dictionaries’ are those dictionaries where the entry number touted is said to be around 150,000. The entry numbers of the following two dictionaries lead us to suppose that college dictionaries includes three times more than those of intermediate dictionaries mentioned above (cf. Landau 2001: 30).
- 8) The four dictionaries except *MWCD*¹⁰ give biographical and geographical entries in the body, not in the appendices. The survey of the appendices in *MWCD*¹⁰ was made for comparison.
- 9) The appendix in *NHD* includes ‘American and Contemporary Cultural References. Business and Technology Terms’ (pp. 1006–11). The survey of the cultural terms (222

entries in 1006–7 pages) shows that most (210) are given in *LAAD*. It also makes us realize that some cultural or encyclopedic entries should be included even if they do not belong to words and phrases of high frequency in compiling a learners' dictionary.

10) The *TIME* articles in 2001 surveyed are as follows: "Dating game" (pp. 88–89) June 4; "Ichiro the hero" (pp. 40–45) June 11, and "The power of yoga" (pp. 30–36) July 16. Those from *NEWSWEEK* are as follows: "Japan's young slackers" (pp. 14–15) June 4; "The lion tamer" (pp. 55–57) June 25, and "Why North Korea is number one" (pp. 44–45) July 9th.

11) Concerning the entries beginning with *cyber-*, *LAAD* only includes *cybercafe* and *cybercrime* as new entries in comparison with *LDCE*³, while the new word supplement in the updated edition *LDCE*^{3S} includes far more: *cyberforensic*, *cyberfraud*, *cyberkidnapper*, *cyberland*, *cyberporn*, *cyberpunk*, *cybersickness*, *cybersquatter*, *cybersquatting*, *cyberstalking*, *cyberterrorism*, *cyberterrorist*, *cyberwindow*. The brief survey of the two sections with the letters A and C reveals that *LDCE*^{3S} has more than double new entries.

12) The *USA Today* articles in 2001 surveyed are as follows: "Greatest lessons aren't academic" (9B, 11B) February 22; "George Lucas looks to the future of film" (10B) February 23; "Grammy go the way of Eminem, U2, Steely Dan" (11B) February 23; "Hands-free cellphones devices can leave the driving to you" (11B) July 11; "It's not all 'me': Boomers happy to help" (7B) July 12; "Life in the fast lane" (9B, 11B) July 13; "Six ways to combat global warming" (1A–2A) July 16; "Titans a sellout at home again" (6B) July 17; "Grad rate plan would have KO'd big time school from postseason" (6B) July 17; "Surf divas" (1B–2B) July 18, and "Air services takes on a touch of tech" (8A–9A) July 18.

13) *Word Frequencies in Written and Spoken English based on the British National Corpus* (Pearson Education Limited, 2001) was published, but it is too late to make a comparison.

Section 3

1) *LDAE*¹ indicated this variation as /ɔr/ and /o"r/, while *OSDAE* did not. It is no longer shown in *LDAE*², though some dictionaries, such as *NHD* and *MWCD*¹⁰, still show it.

2) The word *laundry*, which is typically used as the keyword for this word group, happens to be given a single variant with /ɔ/, together with *laundromat*.

3) In both of the pronouncing dictionaries /ɔ:/ with a length mark is employed, which is preferable for indicating the quantity of the vowel.

4) Wells (1982: 473–6)

5) Wells (1982: 480)

6) *MWCD*¹⁰, *RHWD* and *CDAE* still give /hw/ in the first position, while *NOAD*, like *OALD*⁶, uses /(h)w/.

7) Takebayashi (1996: 309)

8) The only cases of unreliable transcriptions in connection with voiced /t/ encountered by the writer are: *automatically* /-t-/, *recitative* /-t-/, *ratatouille* /,rætə'uɪl/, and *multiparty* /'mʌltɪ,plɑɪ/.

9) Glottal stops are reported to appear with or in place of /t/ in various positions. According to the note in *LPD*² (p. 327), [?] is found as an allophone of /t/ only at the end of a syllable and if the preceding sound is a vowel or sonorant. It is used in both BrE and AmE where the following sound is an obstruent or a nasal or a semivowel or non-syllabic /l/.

10) Most of such words used to be transcribed as /-ənəl/ in *LDAE*¹, and this strange variation in transcription began with *LDAE*², probably through careless rewriting after a change in the principle of transcription, specifically, from /-ənəl/ to /-ənl/.

11) Strangely enough, no example with a hyphen is given in the *LAAD* Guide. However, in the *LDAE*² Guide we find the word *botanist* transcribed /'bat̩n-ɪst/, which suggests that the *LAAD* Guide has been copied from *LDAE*² very carelessly.

12) The second vowels in *homework* /'houmwr̩k/ and in *homeward* /'houmwr̩d/ are transcribed exactly alike. It is as if the editors of *LDAE*² did not even think of the necessity for assigning secondary stress marks on /ə/ when they introduced this symbol into their dictionary, and those of *LAAD* have not noticed it yet.

13) Only *shoetree* /'ʃu,tri/ has been found with the secondary stress mark on the second syllable.

Section 4

1) In the course of our research on the defining vocabulary in *LDCE*³ and *LAAD*, we find some small errors that clearly should be corrected in the future editions of *LAAD*.

The *LDCE*³ defining vocabulary word *contain* is not listed in *LAAD* defining vocabulary, thus, in such cases where *LAAD* inherits definitions from *LDCE*³, the word is to be replaced with the entries in the *LAAD* defining vocabulary. Compare the two definitions allocated to *elaborate*¹:

elaborate¹

*LDCE*³ containing a lot of small details or parts that are connected with each other in a complicated way

LAAD having a lot of small details or parts that are connected with each other in a complicated way

However, if we look at other definitions, the discarded *contain* is still used without any notification that the word is not included in the defining vocabulary. Thus, definitions of *abalone* in both dictionaries, for example, are identical:

abalone a kind of SHELLFISH which is used as food and whose shell contains MOTHER-OF-PEARL

LAAD claims that not only definitions, but also signposts, which we discuss in 4.2.2., are "written using only the words in the Longman American Defining Vocabulary" (*LAAD*: xviii). But *yes* and *replace*, for example, which are included in *LDCE*³ defining vocabulary, but not in *LAAD*, are used as signposts for headwords *all right/sure*² and *change¹/relief/relieve/succeed*, respectively. Moreover, as in the case of *contain*, these words are used in defining statements with no indication that the words are not in the defining vocabulary.

2) An interesting point here is that each annotation in *LAAD* is almost completely the same as those written in *LDCE*²; however, the actual background intention of this restoration or alternation is not known.

3) As Murata (1999) points out, the annotation in *LDCE*³ that no other phrasal verbs than those listed in the table are used in definitions has turned out to be untrue. We must acknowledge that the criterion for an expression to be considered a phrasal verb may vary within the literature, and the scale employed in Murata (1999) is, as he admits, rather wide as to include not only idiomatic *get rid of* and *take part in*, but also non idiomatic phrases as *come from* and *stay at*. It is worth noting here, however, that in Murata (1999), it is reported that although only 10 phrasal verbs are listed in the defining vocabulary, as many as 49 types of phrasal verbs are found in the first 4 pages from the letter P, Q, R, and S, that is to say, only 16 pages altogether.

4) The spelling variations between American English and British English such as *center*

vs. *centre* and *grey* vs. *gray* are considered identical.

5) In *LAAD*, as well as in *LDCE*³, words and phrases that are not in the defining vocabulary are written in small capital letters.

6) Through the following three paragraphs, we add the frequency status specified in *LAAD* to each word to ensure that the frequency does not explain its inclusion or exclusion.

7) For two more *-ly* ending adverbs, *especially* (S1; W1) and *probably* (S1; W1), *LAAD* does not give their original adjectives in the table.

8) For the cases of obvious deficiencies in relation to the use of deleted vocabulary in *LAAD*, see footnote 1.

9) Other small adjustments include the simple replacement of an *LDCE*³ signpost with an American flavored word as in *carry*¹, where the original ► **SHOP** ◀ is replaced with █. The alternation is somehow mandatory when the one used in *LDCE*³ is removed in the *LAAD* defining vocabulary as in *gauge*¹, where **railroad** is used for ► **RAILWAY** ◀, which is not a member of the defining vocabulary in *LAAD*.

10) A small handbook supplemented to *LAAD*, which is introductory illustrative material together with a list of defining vocabulary annotated with Japanese equivalents to suit Japanese consumers, claims that the box is new to *LAAD*. The claim is true but somehow misleading since the SPOKEN PHRASES box is nothing more than a visual indicator to draw the attention of users to definitions otherwise labeled as "spoken" individually, and the label "spoken" has already been introduced in *LDCE*³. Thus, what is given in the SPOKEN PHRASES box is, essentially, retrievable without the help of the box.

Section 5

1) The inflections of *lay* and *pay* are given in all the dictionaries.

2) The number of the grammar codes in the 16 parts examined in section 2.2 is 432 in *LAAD* and 457 in *LDCE*³.

3) *OALD*⁶ also partially adopts the written-out presentation before definitions.

4) *COBUILD*³ shows synonyms in an extra column using a “=”mark without explanation of the subtle shade of meaning between them.

Section 6

1) The method employed for the analysis of *OALD*⁵ by Ichikawa *et al.* (1996) was adopted.

2) The entries referred to are: *accept*—*accident*, *blame*¹—*blank*³, *constantly*—*constitutional*¹, *disappoint*—*disarmament*, *envelope*—*envoy*, *format*¹—*formidable*, *glamorize*—*glaring*, *honest*—*honeyed*, *imply*—*importation*, *journey*¹—*joyless*, *kind*¹—*kindred*¹, *likelihood*—*lilliputian*, *mate*¹—*maternal*, *noticeable*—*nought*, *optimistic*—*or*, *preference*—*prehensile*, *quantitative*—*quarrel*¹, *remove*—*rend*, *slush*—*small*², *token*¹—*toleration*, *understand*—*undertaker*, *virtual*—*visa*, *whoever*—*wholesaler*, *Xerox*—*X-ray*², *yeti*—*yin*, *zing*¹—*zip*².

3) According to the information given in the leaflet, *LAAD* contains "66,000 true-to-life examples based on the Longman Spoken and Written Corpus" and 24,000 collocations.

4) Another advantage of phrase examples is more commercial, and it is that the publishers can increase the total number of examples.

Section 7

1) As is mentioned in Bauer (1994: 145–46), *COD* introduced "the overtly prescriptive

marking 'R' [= racially offensive]" in its seventh edition, but it was "discarded in favour of the overtly critical term 'offensive'" in its eighth. This change of attitude in *COD*⁸ is in complete contrast to the attitude found in *LDCE*³ and *LAAD*.

Among the latest dictionaries for learners of English, *COBUILD*³ follows much the same labeling policy as *OALD*⁶ in reference to some very offensive words like *nigger*, employing a 'danger' sign as well as a label and a qualification in the definition. As is shown below, they evidently give a warning more visibly than *LAAD*.

nigger

<i>OALD</i> ⁶	(Δslang) a very offensive word for a black person
<i>COBUILD</i> ³	Nigger is an extremely offensive word for a black person. ΔVERY OFFENSIVE

2) *OALD*⁶ marks it as '(old-fashioned or offensive)', while *COBUILD*³ as '[OLD-FASHIONED, OFFENSIVE]'.

3) Cf. Norri (2000: 93): "It is well known that as time passes many of the appellations that are today considered socially acceptable become tainted and are replaced by others, which in turn attract the stigma — and so the cycle continues." As for the terms designating Americans of African heritage, it is observed that "*Negro*, *coloured*, *black*, *Afro-American* and *African American* have successively enjoyed their heyday as the accepted term" (*ibid.*).

4) Cf. Usage Note to *redskin* in *NOAD*: "In time, however, through a process that in linguistics is called *pejoration*, by which a neutral term acquires an unfavorable connotation or denotation, *redskin* lost its neutral, accurate descriptive sense and became a term of disparagement."

Section 8

1) For example, there is no picture in the entry *arm*¹ to which the entry *akimbo* refers.

Section 9

1) This section is largely based on Kanazashi (2001), which includes all the five questions, although Questions (4), and (5) in the bilingual version do not make any distinction between the three types of dictionaries.

2) This section is largely based on Kanazashi (2001), although the dictionaries the subjects referred to are different. Six questions are common to the bilingual and monolingual versions of the test.

3) "A keyboard challenge — Rob Cowan meets Vladimir Ashkenazy to talk about the Shostakovich Preludes and Fugues" in *Gramophone*, Vol. 77, June 1999.

4) The results of the questionnaire are analyzed in the same way as Kanazashi (2001).

5) Few subjects wrote which edition of these dictionaries they used.

6) The results of the test are analyzed in the same way as Kanazashi (2001), except that the bilingual version does not divide the subjects into Groups A and B.

7) If a subject says that s/he pointed out the inappropriateness of a problem word both by referring to the dictionary and from his/her knowledge, the answer counts as a token of *both* types, although it counts as 1, rather than 2, in the column of the row total. If a subject corrected the sentence using another key (e.g. a semantic key), it also counts as a right answer.

8) It is incomprehensible why *awry* is labelled only as "adj." in *LAAD* although the first sense is headed by *go awry*. *LUMINOUS* says that *awry* can be used both as an adverb

and a predicative adjective.

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The Meaning of English Spatial Prepositions — Sense or Reference? —

KIYOKO SOHMIYA

The aim of this article is twofold. The first is to illustrate that the prototype approach to the meaning of English spatial prepositions, not to mention componential analysis, is not doing very well. Close examination of the prototype analysis of *over* by G. Lakoff reveals a discrepancy between theory and practice. Whereas the theory denounces the two-valued Aristotelian logic, thereby emphasizing the fuzziness of human cognition, the practice turns out to be just another version of classical, formal semantics which is akin to componential analysis. The components are stipulated and grouped together in an arbitrary way, leaving room for equally well-motivated alternative accounts. Worse yet, this prototype/componential analysis fails to produce any coherent picture as the preposition's meaning. The truth is, no account that tries to capture the meaning of spatial prepositions by means of *sense* as defined by G. Frege will serve the purpose.

The second aim of this article is to argue that English spatial prepositions including *over* have no sense but only reference. They refer to the action of walking. In fact, walking is a family of actions, each of which is designated by different spatial prepositions. This is why the meanings of spatial prepositions are best understood by imagining a situation or a relation in space. They refer to the action of walking, in the same way as a proper name refers to a person.

1. Approaches to English spatial prepositions

1.1. G. Lakoff's account of *over*

The account of the meaning of *over* presented in G. Lakoff (1987) illustrates how the concept of *radial structure* is central to his version of prototype theory, in the same way as *necessary and sufficient* is central to componential analysis: both are ideals the two competing theories aim at but never really achieve. Between the two theories, prototype theory suffers from a more serious theoretical flaw. An attempt to define the word meaning in terms of explicit links and structures undermines the foundation of prototype theory because such an attempt is theoretically incompatible with prototype theory.

Prototype theory, in its earliest version stipulated by E. Rosch (1973), claimed that the meaning of a category is a gestalt image which is created by the best example, some good examples, and peripheral examples of the category. The category *bird*, for example, has robins as the best example, and sparrows, larks, doves, etc. as good examples. The best example is the prototype. The best and the good together make up the *core meaning* of the category. The core meaning and the peripheral examples form an internal structure, which then creates a gestalt image. This is how a speaker comes to possess a fuzzy outline of an image as the category's meaning. The image is important. The gestalt, the outline of the whole, precedes the internal parts.

When Rosche said *internal structure*, she did not mean a clear-cut, principled, well-defined radial structure like the one Lakoff is trying to establish. The birds do not form a radial structure. Nor do vegetables or furniture. Prototype theory was immensely different from its rival, componential analysis. It was R.M.W. Dixon that gave Lakoff a push toward a more rigid, formalistic account of meaning.

In the explanation below, the underlined parts show my own interpretation or naming.

Dixon (1982) showed how in the Dyirbal language in Australia the membership of some categories are determined because of their core meanings and experientially-based links, thus creating a radial structure in a principled way. The category *balan*, for example, includes women, fire,

and dangerous things, hence the title of his 1987 book: *Women, Fire, and Dangerous things*. In this book, Lakoff slightly modifies Dixon and stipulates women as the unique core member. The core is linked with the sun, most birds, and crickets, because in their myth these are believed to be the moon's wife, spirits of dead human females, and old ladies, respectively. This is the mythic link. This link stands strong against the challenge of time and change in the people's life style. The sun is in turn linked with fire, light, stars, fireflies, and anything that burns, which are then linked with water, rivers, and swamps, things that extinguish fire. These are both semantic links. (Lakoff himself does not give a clear explanation.)

The danger link is also important in category formation in Dyirbal. Stone fish and other harmful fishes are put into this category to make them stand out from the other fish, which belongs to another category, *bayi*. Stinging nettles and stinging trees are also marked by calling them by this category, as opposed to the other plants, which belong to a third category, *balan*. These marked members naturally belong to *balan* because its core, woman, is also a marked human being; *balan* is a marked category. The core, the well-motivated links, and the peripheral members create a beautiful radial structure. As Lakoff says, Dixon's achievement is remarkable (p. 95).

The unmarked member of human beings, men, forms the core of *bayi*. This category also has mythic, danger, semantic, and domain-of-experience links. It also presents a radial structure. Hawks are included in this category through a danger link. The other birds belong to *balan* because Dyirbal people's myth says that birds are human females. The links are correlated.

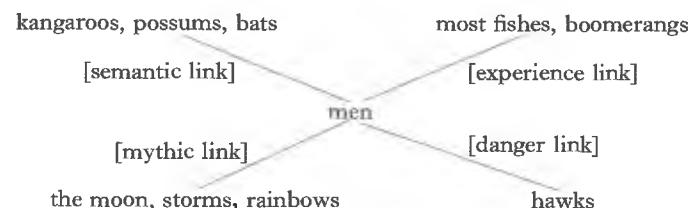


Figure 1 *bayi*: men, kangaroos, the moon, most fishes, hawks

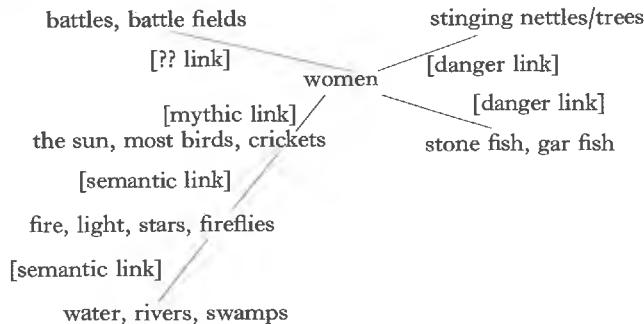


Figure 2 *balan*: women, the sun, fire, water, stinging nettles, stone fish

In his analysis of *over*, G. Lakoff aimed and failed to establish a radial structure like the ones in Figures 1 and 2. According to him, the core meaning of *over* is represented in sentences like the following.

- (1)-a The bird flew over the yard.
- b Sam drove over the bridge.
- c Sam walked over the hill.
- d Sam climbed over the wall.
- e The dog jumped over the fence
- f Sausalito is over the bridge.
- g Sam was passed over for promotion.

These sentences cluster around the following features to create the core image schema. Image schema is a sense; it is a bundle of features like the following (pp. 420–425).

- ① The landmark (LM) extends vertically or horizontally
- ② LM and the trajector (TR) have contact or no contact
- ③ TR moves above LM, or the path begins and ends on the ground
- ④ The endpoint is focused on or it is not.

We should note here that the term *image schema* is used rather ambiguously. Each sentence represents an image schema of *over* on one hand; and, on the other hand, the whole group of sentences also represents one. The latter is a fuzzy amalgamation of the former.

The core image schema is linked to several extended image schemata or

senses through various links. *A transformational link*, for example, leads to the following sentence:

- (2) The power line stretches over the yard.

This sentence depicts the image schema where TR and LM have no contact, TR is not moving, and no path is created. This schema is static, as opposed to schema (1), which is dynamic. This dynamic-static opposition apparently led Lakoff to call this link transformational. By the way, some native speakers of English find sentence (2) hard to accept, whereas "The power line stretches over the house" would be fine.

A third sense of *over* is that of covering. Unlike image schema (2), which is one-dimensional, this schema presents TR as a two-dimensional entity, and TR covers LM, as the following sentences exemplify.

- (3)-a The city clouded over.
- b I walked all over the hill.
- c There was a veil over her face.
- d Look over my corrections.

Insofar as the dynamic relation between TR and LM is not as important as the end result of covering of LM by TR, this sense is basically a variant of sense (2); therefore, it is also considered to be linked to the core meaning through transformation.

A fourth sense of *over* which also makes use of a transformational link is illustrated by the following sentences. Here, TR is equivalent to LM.

- (4)-a Turn the page over.
- b The fence fell over.
- c The rebels overthrew the government.
- d He turned the question over in his mind.

As the reader might have noticed, image schemata (1), (3), and (4) above contain metaphors ((1)-g, (3)-d, (4)-c, and (4)-d). They are derived from each of these image schemata. Other metaphorical sentences depend more specifically on the image schemata of particular sentences. For example, *Harry still hasn't gotten over his divorce* is a metaphorical extension of sentence (1)-c, and *The play is over* of (1)-f. Apart from all these, however,

there are two groups of metaphorical sentences that are given special treatment by Lakoff. They have their own image schemata to represent, and are connected with the core meaning through metaphorical links.

- (5)-a The bathtub overflowed.
- b I overate.
- (6) Do it over.

Sentences (5)-a and (5)-b share the sense of excess, and they count as metaphorical extensions of (1)-e. Sentence (6) has the sense of repetition or re-doing *it* from the beginning to the end, and therefore it is a metaphorical extension of (1)-b. They are given the special treatment because they represent the now classic image schemata of Container and Path, respectively.

This analysis leads us to the following radial structure. Lakoff calls it an instance of Wittgenstein's *family resemblance* (p. 435).

The question arises, however, whether this diagram really captures the meaning of *over*. According to this diagram, the core meaning of *over* is a mysterious abstraction from all the image schemata that are represented by the core sentence group (1). The group is quite heterogeneous, but it is differentiated from group (2) and (3) by the feature *dynamic*. Then (2) and (3) are differentiated by whether it is one-dimensional or two-dimensional; whether TR is a line or a cover. Group (1) is also not *reflexive*,

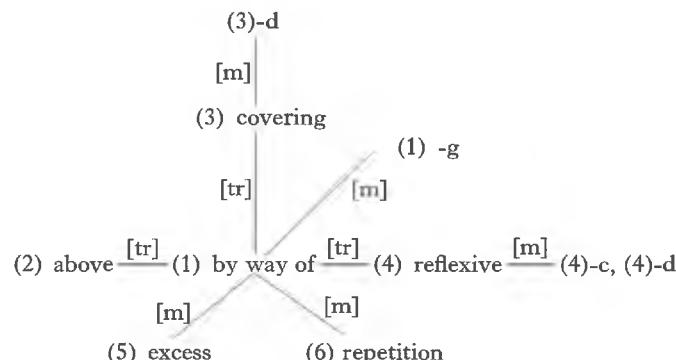


Figure 3 Radial structure of over

which is the one feature that distinguishes (1) from (4). Lastly, the feature *metaphorical* differentiates (1) from both (5) and (6). As a result, we come to have the following list of features at our disposal for discussing the meaning of *over*. The first four features are repeated here from page 3, and the rest are new additions.

- ① The landmark (LM) extends vertically or horizontally
- ② LM and the trajector (TR) have contact or no contact
- ③ TR moves above LM, or the path begins and ends on the ground
- ④ The endpoint is focused on or it is not.
- ⑤ TR is dynamic or static
- ⑥ TR is a line or a cover
- ⑦ TR is reflexive or not
- ⑧ TR and LM are abstract or not

Taking all these features into consideration, we come to notice that there are possible alternatives to Lakoff's classification. In his analysis, features ① and ⑥ are the defining characteristics. We can easily imagine, however, one which gives feature ② top priority. Then the semantic representation of *over* would look quite different from the one we have now. In conclusion, there is an arbitrary element involved in Lakoff's analysis of the core meaning of *over*.

Transformational link sounds scientific and convincing at first, but it actually refers in a vague way to the differences between dynamic and static, one and two-dimensional, and reflexive and non-reflexive image schemata. When the defining features change, the internal structure will change. But there will always be transformational links radiating in multiple directions from the core image schema.

A third arbitrary element is observed in his uneven treatment of metaphors. The two groups of metaphors, (5) and (6), are stipulated as distinctive image schemata and contribute to increase the number of links in the radial structure for no other reason than that the metaphors of Container and Path are theoretically important for cognitive semantics. Otherwise they could be categorized into sense (4) and/or (1), just like the other metaphorical sentences.

These three observations lead us to wonder whether Figure 3 is merely

a fictitious construct produced from a theory-driven imagination. It has the spirit of a deductive approach. Inferences and conclusions are allowed only within the boundary of the given premises which the theory advocates.

A fourth criticism is even more serious. As Bennett (1997) also notes, the above analysis of *over* is so heavily feature-oriented that it ends up being a notational variant of componential analysis. While denouncing two-valued logic and emphasizing the fuzziness of meaning in theory, Lakoff is driving at a rigid, formalistic description of meaning in practice.

Lastly, no coherent picture results as the core meaning of *over*. Instead we are given a group of different and yet similar image schemata, as figures 4 and 5 illustrate. It is impossible to draw an image schema of all the image schemata put together. Instead we are given individual uses.

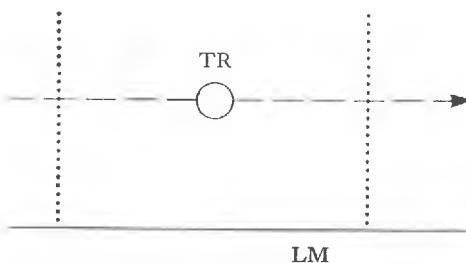


Figure 4 The bird flew over the yard (Lakoff, p. 421).

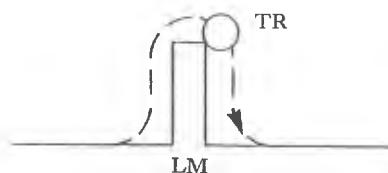


Figure 5 Sam climbed over the wall (Lakoff, p. 422).

1.2. Other accounts

Researchers long noted that English spatial prepositions form a rather clear-cut semantic field. They used the linguistic tools of the times to explicate their meanings and their sense relations. G. Leech (pp. 126–128)

discussed the seven spatial prepositions, *over*, *under*, *in front of*, *behind*, *on the left of*, *on the right of*, and *beside/by*, making use of semantic components like HORIZONTAL, LATERAL, PROXIMATE, and DIRECTIONAL. The first three components successfully differentiate the seven prepositions into four classes. They also explain the polysemy of *by* as in the following sentences.

- (7) The shell exploded *by* the wing of the airplane.
- (8) Place the one coin *by* the other.
- (9) The red car was parked *by* the green one.

	HORIZONTAL	LATERAL	PROXIMATE
by (7)	*	*	+
by (8)	+	*	+
by (9)	(+)	+	+

However, the last of the four components, DIRECTIONAL, is rather tricky. You have to know in advance that *over* and *under*, for example, would be totally synonymous without this component. Then it assigns them a right-headed and a left-headed arrows to show that they are in a contrastive relation. *In front of* and *on the left of* also have a right-headed arrow, but it means nothing but a relative difference from *behind* and *on the right of*, respectively.

Bennett (1975; 1997) also adopts componential analysis in his account of *over*. He uses such components as LOCATIVE, SOURCE, PATH, and GOAL. He claims that these components are very useful in describing the core meaning of the preposition, and that other than Lakoff's treatment of *reflexive* and *rotated* senses and Lakoff's use of metaphorical extensions, there is no significant difference between his analysis and Lakoff's.

In recent years, prototype theory has been much preferred among linguists who are interested in prepositional meanings. Among them are G. Lakoff (1987), as we already discussed, A. Herskovits (1986), B. Wege (1990), R. Dirven (1993), J. Taylor (1993; 1995), B. W. Hawkins (1993), and S. Lindstromberg (1998).

Herskovits' theoretical position is somewhat in between prototype theory and the traditional structuralist approach, which admits one rather abstract meaning that belongs to the linguistic structure and a multiple

number of concrete uses which can vary according to the context. She claims that spatial prepositions have a single, ideal, geometric meaning plus sense shifts and tolerance shifts. The ideal meaning of *on*, for example, is as follows.

on: for a geometric construct X to be contiguous with a line or surface Y; if Y is the surface of an object Oy, and X is the space occupied by another object Ox, for Oy to support Ox.

This definition says the ideal meaning of *on* is that of contiguity and support. Sense shift occurs when we realize attachment co-occurs with contiguity and support. Hence the following expression.

- (10) the apple on the branch
- (11) the medal on a chain

Tolerance shift occurs when the ideal meaning is only approximately true, as in the following sentence, which depicts a situation where there is a table-cloth between *Ulysses* and the table, or there are some inconspicuous books between the book and the table.

- (12) Ulysses is on the table.

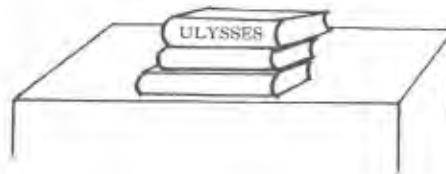


Figure 6 Ulysses is on the table (Herskovit, p. 14).

Herskovits claims that hers is not a prototype analysis, because the ideal meaning is a very abstract geometric relation which functions as a central model to shape the category, unlike a prototype, which is concrete and of obscure nature.

Other researchers exhibit the same inclinations as Lakoff which are typical of prototype theorists, except J. Taylor. Taylor (1986) presents a radical, meaning-chain analysis. According to him, there is no such thing as core meaning, and therefore no radial structure. Instead, each sense of

a polysemous word share some feature(s) with and partially overlaps with one another, thus creating a meaning chain. The whole of the meaning chain is vaguely recognized by the speech community as the word's meaning.

The meaning-chain theory is allegedly more true to Wittgenstein's concept of family resemblance. It might be. To a linguistic theory, however, adopting such a stance amounts to abandoning the higher goal of explanation and limit itself to the task of describing how language looks arbitrary and wayward at first glance. Worse still, the description will be an endless task.

All these studies, whether they use a geometric, radial, or componential approach, share one important characteristic: they all search for the sense of prepositions. So far, no satisfactory result has ensued from these sense-oriented studies. They only make the meaning of prepositions look more complicated than it really is. This is because these analyses are sent off the track. In the rest of this article I would like to illustrate that the right way to deal with the meanings of spatial prepositions is to search for their reference.

2. Reference as the meaning of English spatial prepositions

2.1. Sense and reference

Most analyses of word meaning in recent years have been searching for sense. Meaning relation is equivalent to sense relation. A bundle of semantic components makes up a sense. Different uses of a word is attributed to sense extension. Image schema is equivalent to sense. A radial structure is a representation of the sense relations of a polysemous word like *over*.

This explains why pronouns like *it*, and *them*, deictics like *here*, *I*, and *today* did not attract much attention in lexical semantics. People thought they lack the kind of sense which is worth analyzing. Neither did proper names like *Mary* and *Tom* create much enthusiasm except in the philosophy of language.

These essentially senseless words, however, do convey a sense of reality and presence. When someone says, *Listen to this*, you automatically pay

attention to what *this* refers to. When someone says *I'm meeting Sally* and you don't know the person called Sally, you still get a feeling of intimacy and co-existence from the name. This kind of responses and feelings is made possible by the fact that these words have reference. Reference connects us to the real world. Reference plays a much greater role in language than many people think.

G. Frege said every linguistic expression has *sense*, and that *sense* determines *reference*. F. de Saussure said that a linguistic sign always has *concept* as its inseparable part. His *concept* is a close parallel of Frege's *sense*. The truth is, however, that some words have reference as their primary meaning, and spatial prepositions are among them. They serve the purpose of bringing back the feel of spatial orientation, as in walking, standing, or other bodily experiences. What looks like the meaning of spatial prepositions is their connotative meaning. They have no denotative meaning.

2.2. The activity of walking as the reference of English spatial prepositions

Walking is one of the most basic bodily experiences of human beings. It can even be a defining characteristic for homo sapience. The heavy brain, free hands, easy articulation of speech sounds, and efficient communication must have been greatly promoted when our ancestors stood up straight and walked on their feet. Walking is such an important, universal experience for us that it is no wonder that some natural languages like English refer to it with special names such as *on*, *over*, *at*, *in*, *from*, *to*, *off*, and *under*.

Sense-reference dichotomy as defined by Frege is very useful in the field of semantics. A linguistic expression designates something in a particular manner. What is designated is the expression's *reference*; the manner of presenting the designation is its *sense*. *Sense* and *reference* are thus two different planes of meaning. *Sense* is conceptual, denotative, and public. *Reference* is perceptual and experiential. Frege said *sense* determines *reference*. My position is: *sense* can determine *reference*; *reference* brings forth connotations, images and feelings; connotations, images and feelings

are private.

The U.S. President, for example, has Mr. G. Bush as its reference and the concept of the U.S. President as its sense. The proper name George Bush has reference only. Speakers of English know Mr. Bush in one way or another through their own experience. Upon hearing *the U.S. President* or *George Bush*, they picture (gestalt) images of him and feel various feelings toward him. These images and feelings are private in the sense that they are confined to one consciousness and often vary from person to person. They are connotative. Unlike *sense*, which is public, these private, connotative meanings are not efficient materials of communication. This is why researchers have directed their attention to *sense*, *concept*, *denotative meaning*, or whatever they called *sense*. I believe, however, that these private elements help make expressions vivid and powerful, and that there are more linguistic devices in the English language than many linguists consider whose main function is to convey feelings or feels by making reference to real-world experiences. The category of spatial prepositions is one of them.

The spatial prepositions like *on*, *over*, *at*, *in*, *from*, *to*, *off*, and *under* refer to different aspects of the experience of walking. In walking, you have to first stand *on* the road or the floor. Then you take steps forward, making an arch-like movement of your legs. Preposition *over* directly refers to this action. That is to say, the verb may have the action as its *sense*; the preposition has the action as its reference; this is how and why it creates a sense of spatial orientation. Then, you might notice something on your way and stop *at* that point. You might get into a building and stay *in* there for some time. You intend to walk *from* somewhere *to* some destination, but you might get *off* the track for some reason. All these are possible because there is a road *under* your feet.

Each of these prepositions are considered to be highly polysemous by most researchers. I contend that calling a spatial preposition polysemous is like calling a proper name polysemous. In both cases, what we have is not multiple senses but a single reference and multiple connotations. In the rest of this article, I focus on the first three prepositions *on*, *over*, and *at* for closer examination of their usage.

2.3. On

The preposition *on* refers to the situation where someone's foot is touching and over a road. Your feet are in direct contact with the road. The road takes your weight and you are supported by it. All these are physical facts which you learn by experience. Herskovits' ideal meaning of *on*, contiguity and support, is thus derived in a natural way from the experience of walking. An important thing is not that *on* contains the semantic components *contiguity* and *support* but that the experience of walking allows us to look at some other situations as similar to walking.

The ability to see similarity in different things and situations is *analogy*. A fly on the ceiling and a picture on the wall, for example, remind us of the way we stand on the road. Clothes can stand out well when someone wears them. Hence the following sentences:

- (13) The fly is on the ceiling.
- (14) There is a picture on the wall.
- (15) Pink looks good on her.

Metaphorical extension is an easy step to make. It is a jump, again by analogy, from the physical to the abstract, as the following sentences illustrate:

- (16) I'm on the committee.
- (17) She will act on his advice.
- (18) I'll speak on horses today.

Usually you are on the road; the road is not on you. However, in some situations, you feel as if you were the one who is under someone's feet and take the weight. As if you were the road instead of the walker. Such a change of perspective is easy to make when a word's meaning is not *sense* but *reference*. *Sense* prescribes the way you should look at a thing; it presents the word's *reference* in a certain way. *Reference*, on the other hand, is a real-world entity; it has multiple aspects and there are multiple angles to look at it. The following sentences illustrate the case where you feel as if you were under someone's feet:

- (19) My boyfriend walked out on me.

- (20) You hung up on your father?
- (21) Have a drink. It's on me.

Also from experience, you know that the road is narrow and long. This is the general image of a road. A river or the sides of anything (as opposed to its end) is narrow and long, which enables the speaker to say the following:

- (22) The city is on the Hudson/*on the entrance of the harbor.
- (23) He's sitting on my left (side).

By the way, *off* means *not on*, either vertically or horizontally. Or analogically.

- (24) I got off the chair.
- (25) I pulled off the road.
- (26) The meeting was put off.

A large amount of conventionalism must be involved in such cases as the following:

- (27) We played on the night of July 7.
- (28) You'll be on your best behavior, right?

Native speakers of English learn, through years of practice in their early childhood, to perceive *night* and their own *behavior* as something like a road. These uses do not strike me, a non-native speaker of English, as natural as the other uses. They require years of cognitive training. Possibly, *on* is selected because no other prepositions depicts these cases better.

2.4. Over

The preposition *over* refers to the way you move your legs when you walk. Your legs create an arch over the ground, are above the ground, and at every step you cover the ground underneath your legs and end up standing on the ground ahead. This explanation solves all the puzzles over *over*. It looks overwhelmingly polysemous because its reference itself is a rather complex and dynamic movement. Once you accept the referential meaning, however, *over* ceases to be polysemous. Some uses which Lakoff categorized in different image schemata now come to belong together

because they are part of the same one action. For example:

- (29) The bird flew over the yard. (Lakoff's (1)-a)
- (30) The dog jumped over the fence. (Lakoff's (1)-e)
- (31) Sausalito is over the bridge. (Lakoff's (1)-f)
- (32) The power line stretches over the yard. (Lakoff's (2))
- (33) I walked all over the hill. (Lakoff's (3)-b)
- (34) The bathtub overflowed. (= Water flowed over the bathtub.) (Lakoff's (5)-a)

We should note that in all these examples and in the others in this article the prepositions not only refer to the activity but also convey the actual sense of spatial orientation. The point is that these feels are produced by virtue of direct reference.

Analogy licenses the speaker to say the following:

- (35) Look over my corrections. (Lakoff's (3)-d)
- (36) We talked over coffee.

Usually, the speaker empathizes with the agent who does the walking. Sometimes, however, a change of perspective occurs and the speaker empathizes with the ground on which walking takes place. In the following sentences, the speaker empathizes with *Sam* and *me*. In such cases, *over* can connote suffering:

- (37) Sam was passed over for promotion. (Lakoff's (1)-g)
- (38) He picked Sue over me.

This use of *over* reminds us of sentences like the following where *under*, the semantic opposite of *over*, conveys a negative patient-like connotation:

- (39) She was a little under weather today.

2.5. *At*

The preposition *at* denotes a situation where the walker finds something on his/her way and stops to look *at* it. You zoom in and pick out the specific object out of its environment. This is why *at* always implies delimitation and the lack of inner structure. When you hear *Alice is at A*, you understand there are also *B*, *C*, *D*, etc. *A*'s inner structure is irrelevant

because what is important is its outer boundary.

The above explanation plus analogy successfully captures the shared meaning of *at* in a variety of sentences like the following:

- (40) We met at Cody's bookstore.
- (41) At these words, he left.
- (42) The storm was at its worst.
- (43) Let's do one thing at a time.
- (44) What are you at?

Sentence (40) implies that *we* singled out *Cody's* out of all the buildings or other landmarks. They might have met inside the bookstore, but the speaker's perspective remains outside. (41) implies that other words had been uttered before these intolerable words. In (42), the state of the storm is regarded as a transient phase. The speaker is implicitly referring to the storm's other possible states as well. Likewise, *a time* implies a band of times in (43). Lastly, *at* can connote a sense of selection and targeting as in (44). All these uses are possible because of the meaning of *at*: an action of zooming in on a specific point along the road.

Citing Lindkvist (1978), Lindstromberg says that *at* is more common before proper names like *Ritz* than before building nouns like *restaurant* (p. 167). This strikes us as a natural course of things once we accept the meanings of spatial prepositions as aspects of walking. *At* only requires a delimited point of reference, whereas *in* requires something that has an inside.

Lindstromberg also observes that one of the senses of *at* is to contribute or reinforce the idea that the object is a target, as in the following sentence (p. 170):

- (45) Don't throw it at him. It could hurt. Throw it to him.

He claims that *at* and *to* take a target and a recipient as their object, respectively. In our theory, *to* refers to a goal. It is the end of the road the walker is on. The goal is somewhat distant from the walker, and this creates psychological distance. This is one of the reasons why *throw to* sounds more indirect and less aggressive than *throw at*.

Another reason is the following: we have seen *to* can be more polite than

at, but it is still a spatial preposition; the nouns following the spatial prepositions designate mere places, not people. *For*, on the other hand, refers to something abstract and therefore higher than a place. Hence the interesting contrast in connotation in the following examples:

- (46) How could you do this to me? How dare you!
- (47) Did you do it for me? Oh, thank you!

In (46), *me* is a sufferer, something as lowly as dirt on the ground, a mere goal on the road. In this context, the use of *to* is more possible than *for*. In (47), *me* is a motivation, something much more respectable than any part of the ground. Hence the use of *for*. However, going into details regarding *for* vs. *to* will be beyond the scope of this article.

The theory of reference I am proposing in this article solves the pseudo-polysemy of *at* as well as other spatial prepositions. Now we don't need to worry over the multiple "senses" of *at* as Lindstromberg does (pp. 165–174):

Actions or events take place at points along a route when

1. LM is a point, not an area.
2. LM is an intersection.
3. LM is a boundary or extremity of some kind (because *at* suggests extreme nearness to or contact with the point at which one thing ends and another begins).
4. LM is a target.

All these uses can be captured as a natural consequence of the referential meaning of *at*.

3. Spatial prepositions and other reference-oriented expressions in English

There are more linguistic categories and devices than we might think which are designed to directly refer to real-world entities rather than have abstract senses. They include:

1. Deictic expressions and pronouns: I, you, here, today, this, that, it, etc.
2. Numbers and other signs: #1, #2, (1), (2), A, B, C, etc.

3. Interjections: ouch, wow, yuck, hurray, voila, etc.
4. Onomatopoeia: bow-wow, mew, bubble, splash, rattle, ding-dong, etc.
5. Proper names: Jane, Gregg, Socrates, George Bush, etc.
6. Sound-symbolic expressions: petit, teeny, gloom, crunch, etc.
7. Idiomatic expressions: rain cats and dogs, spic-and-span, there you go, etc.
8. Spatial prepositions: on, over, at, in, from, to, off, under, etc.
9. Phonetic modulation: intonation, length of pause, pitch difference, etc.

Putting phonetics aside, these reference-oriented expressions numbered 1 through 8 above share some interesting characteristics with each other. First of all, many of them are short. This comes as no surprise considering the fact that except for imitative expressions their primary function is to refer to a thing, a feel, a sensation, an action, etc. They are tags. Tags can be short and simple so long as they serve the purpose of referring to experience. They can be short because there are far fewer entities to be labeled and tagged in this world than attributes and properties to be depicted. This reminds us of the fact that many basic content words are also short. Although, unlike reference words, common nouns such as *dog* and *cat* indirectly refer to the animals by means of their sense, these are such familiar animals that their prototypical images, their reference, play an important part in daily communication. Such basic words tend to be short. Shortness and reference go together. This might be the reason why nicknames are shorter than their official counterparts.

Secondly, these reference words are often employed in colloquialisms. Direct reference is more possible when utterances take place in a real setting than in an abstract writing or other lofty situation. It makes daily communication easy, fast and effective because it refers to things close by, and summons familiar images and feelings that the hearer himself knows by experience. The point is that these reference words have experiential basis, and that they work effectively when speakers share experience.

Talking of colloquialisms, spatial prepositions often appear as part of colloquial phrasal verbs. Phrasal verbs like *come on*, *wait on*, *flow over*, *put up with*, *give in*, etc. are so common and ubiquitous in casual conversations

between native speakers that I used to wonder what's the use of learning two different levels of words; for a non-native speaker of English like myself, these phrasal verbs demand as much time and effort to learn as more formal content words do. The fact is, however, that they summon familiar feels to native speakers which they have acquired through bodily experiences like walking on the road; and communication becomes so much more vivid and lively if the speaker uses them. They have reference. Whereas content words have sense. The English language exploits both routes to understanding and effective communication.

Thirdly, the reference-oriented words don't contribute much content to the sentence. Just like pronouns and numbers, neither proper names nor interjections carry exact content. Nor do spatial prepositions. In sentences like *On hearing the news, she turned pale*, and *Turn the page over, on and over* are totally dispensable. In *I'll speak on insects*, *The power line stretches over the yard*, and *We met at Cody's bookstore*, *on*, *over*, and *at* can be replaced by *about*, *above*, and *in*, respectively, without changing the truth-conditional meaning of the sentence. In fact, the speaker can use wrong prepositions or not use them at all without causing any miscommunication. This is because what they contribute is the sense of reality, not the concept.

Fourthly, some of them convey, if any, private connotative meanings. Their primary function is reference, but the human mind, obsessed with the meaning imperative, keeps creating meanings. So, for example, #1 tends to connote superiority over #2 and other numbers, *teeny* means not only small but also cute and lovable, *over* is good while *under* is bad, and *on* is normal while *off* is abnormal. The name *Jane*, for example, brings forth all one's memories with her and feelings toward her. They are *Jane's* meanings. The speakers know, however, that these meanings are not official or public; they are connotative and private.

Lastly, whereas *sense* prescribes a perspective, reference does not. Spatial prepositions and proper names in particular allow for multiple perspectives. A real person or a real activity is not a mere bundle of semantic components; they are a multi-dimensional, context-dependent, space-time complex. The speaker can look at them from various perspectives. Thus

over comes to have many uses as we have seen, just as *Jane* has many aspects: a mother to Nicole, a PC freak, a reputed "green thumb", etc. It all depends on which perspective you take.

4. Conclusion

In this article we have shown that spatial prepositions can be analyzed as referential expressions. The English language has a richer system of reference than people generally think. In other words, the language reflects the real world in a more direct way than many theoretical linguists say.

In the course of analysis we have also seen that *metaphorical links* and *transformational links* in some cognitivist literature are no longer needed. Metaphor can be replaced by analogy. *Metaphorical extension* turns out to be just another name for something as simple and familiar as referential similarity. As for transformational link, dynamic and static readings of a spatial preposition correspond to different phases of the same one activity of walking.

The activity of walking has turned out to be crucial in explicating the meanings of spatial expressions such as *on*, *over*, *at*, *in*, *from*, *to*, *off*, and *under*. It is very likely to shed light on the whole cluster of other spatial or non-spatial prepositions such as *up*, *down*, *below*, *before*, *behind*, *beyond*, *by*, *along*, *with*, and *for* in future research.

There is one category of referential expressions that I left out in this article: manner verbs. *Roll*, *romp*, *skip*, *scurry*, *saunter*, etc. conjure up vivid images of movements because they are imbued with referential elements. These words are a package of sense and reference. Also, they are often sound-symbolic. Ordinary dictionaries could never get their meanings across to the readers. The readers will have to see or do the actions themselves in order to grasp the words' meaning. Future research agenda will have to include these verbs and probably some other manner words as well.

Direct reference is not only performed on the lexical level. Sentences can directly refer to reality by being iconic to the state of affairs. Iconicity is observed in sentence patterns and other word orders. This will make the referential system of English even richer. However, it is far beyond the

scope of this article, and I only mention it here.

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(2001年1月～12月、アイウエオ順)

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松田徳一郎教授追悼

松田さんと *LEXICON*

中尾 啓介

発刊30周年というこの種の研究誌としては慶賀すべき、そして会員一同としてこれを誇らしく手にするときに、その号がその名前の考案者、発案者であった松田徳一郎さんの追悼号として編集されなければならないのは、月並みな言葉ではあるが、時の流れの非情を感じさせる。

同じ昭和8年生まれ、しかも数ヶ月にしろ自分より若い友人の追悼の文を草することは寂しい。松田さんとの交友はこの岩崎研究会を通してはじまった。昭和一桁後期生まれは、戦後の学制改革で旧制中学——新制高校と6年間を連続して同じ学校で過ごしたという共通の体験をもつ数少ない世代に属しており、そのことだけでも奇妙な連帯感がある。松田さんは山形県の出身、私は島根県と同じ程度の田舎から来ていることも重なって、親しく友人としてお付き合いを頂いた。

LEXICON という名前が生まれたときの様子を想い出す。十数名の参加者による例会が終わった後に研究誌の名称の候補となるものを各自一つ紙に書いて提出を求められた。候補に挙がった名前は、漢字、ひらがな、英語、その他、さまざまであった。それらが黒板に書き上げられてその中から一つ、無記名で投票した結果、最大得票数を得たこの名前に決まった。この候補は松田さんが出されたものであった。その折の率直な感じは、この名称はやや特殊化しすぎではないかとの印象であった。ところがその思いはまもなく消えた。この三十年間の流れをみるとこの研究誌がこの名称に即した内容になっており、松田さんがその命名によって示唆しておられたことと、この研究会の路線とは見事に一致したものとなっている。また最初から英語名としてスタートしたことも先見性があったといえる。今ではその名前は国内では勿論、辞書関係については世界の学会にも知れ渡っている。松田さんは岩崎研究会のトレードマークとも言うべき *LEXICON* の名づけ親である。そして当時の最先端の研究書2点を取り上げ、創刊号、第2号にそれぞれ書評を、そして第4号には論文「英語音韻論の変遷と英詩の韻律論」を寄稿して積極的にその搖籃期を支えられた。

生前の松田さんのご活躍については、すでに「岩崎研究会 Newsletter」8号で高橋作太郎、熊谷智子、川田秀樹の三人の方が、また「東京外語会会報」No. 93では東信行氏が、それぞれ追悼の言葉の中で触れておられる。「Newsletter」3号では松田さんご自身で岩研「新言語学の会」のことを記しておられる。また、辞書との係わり合い、そのお仕事の様子は堀内克明氏との対談「英和辞書編集作法」(「英語青年」, 1994)でその一端を知ることができる。しかし、今にして思えば、ぜひともこの LEXICON 誌上で松田流の辞書論、辞書編集の原理とその実践を総括するご高説をうかがいたいものであった。

あの元気な姿で一緒にプレーをした松田さんとはすでに幽明界を異にしているのは信じがたいことである。テニスの好敵手を失ったことも残念であるが、岩崎研究会にとっての喪失感は言葉では表せないものがある。

松田徳一郎先生を偲んで

宗宮 喜代子

1968年

松田先生がまだ30歳代でいらした頃、英米語学科の3年生だった私はお名前だけは知っていた先生の研究室を訪ねました。教育実習に行く予定の中学校で変形文法のアルゴリズムを探り入れた英語の授業をしていると聞き、それに向けて心の準備をするために「アルゴリズム」とはどんなものなのか感触を得たいと思ったのでした。

当時アメリカのインディアナ大学から帰国なさったばかりの先生のことは多分誰もが知っていたのでしょう。アメリカ政治思想史を卒論のテーマに考えていました私ですら、こういうことは松田先生のところへ、ということくらいは分かっていました。先生は一面識もなく突然やってきて「英語教育への変形文法理論の適用の可能性」について質問する学生に戸惑われたことと思いますが、それでも穏やかに対応して下さり、私の方は先生に不安を受けてもらつた形で安心して教育実習に向かったことを記憶しています。

やり続けること

その後も、先生は、振り向けばそこにあり行く道を照らしてくれる灯台のような存在でした。遅まきに英語学に入門した私はその後も長い間五里霧中の状態でしたが、先生の「やり続けること。継続は力なり。」と「大学は勉強できない者を教育するところ」というお考えのお陰で、なんとか院を修了し、生き延びることができました。先生が常日頃から仰っていたこの言葉は実は両刃の剣であり、厳しい戒めのことばでもありました。今でも、「気を抜かないこと、至らなさを知ること」と、先生のお声が聞こえてくる気がします。

『現代アメリカ言語学史』

年月が流れました。「やり続けること」は先生の現実でもあり、大業績『リーダーズ英和辞典』の他にも常時いくつかの仕事が同時進行中でした。私も M. ガイス著の言語学入門書の編注や A. ニューマイヤー著『現代アメリカ言語学史』の翻訳の仕事に参加し、大いに学びました。原稿が校閲から戻ってくると、細部に至るまで先生のチェックが入っていて感銘を受けたことを覚えています。

サンフランシスコで会いましょう

1999年の夏は特別な夏になるはずでした。松田先生と奥様は英米の視察旅行をアメリカ西海岸から始められる予定であり、ちょうどバークレーで在外研究中だった私は先生ご夫妻と現地でお会いすることになっていました。4月と7月に几帳面な文字の書簡が届き、「8月に」、「予定通りに」と先生らしい言葉少ない文面が夏を待つおられる心情をかえってよく表すようでした。

しかし、出発を4日後に控えた8月14日、先生から国際電話がかかりました。「行けなくなりました。人間ドックで良くなくて。でも、早く切ればそれで終わり。」前期の授業を全部済ませてからのドクター・ストップでした。即入院、闘病という、全く違う生活が始まりました。

あれから2年以上が経ちます。先生が亡くなられてから7ヶ月余り。忙しい日本の生活の中ですべては夢の中のことのようだ、そして先生は今ごろ本当はアメリカやイギリスを旅しておられるような気がします。そして今でも、振り向けばいつもそこに松田先生がいらっしゃるように思えます。

投稿規定

松田徳一郎教授略歴

1933年(昭和8年) 山形県西村山郡左沢町に生まれる。
1957年 東京外国語大学英米科卒業・東京外国語大学英米科副手
1958年 東京大学大学院人文科学研究科英語英文学専攻課程入学。同年9月 Indiana University 大学院言語学科に special student として入学
1964年 帰国。同年10月東京外国語大学留学生課程日本語非常勤講師
1965年 明星大学人文学部英語英文学科助教授
1966年 東京外国語大学留学生課程専任講師(日本語担当)
1967年 同助教授
1968年 同特設日本語学科助教授・大学院修士課程担当
1979年 同外国语学部教授
1992年 同博士課程担当
1996年 同定年退官・東京外国語大学名誉教授
1996年 日本大学教授
2001年6月10日食道癌のため逝去。68歳

主な業績

辞書 『現代英和辞典』研究社、監修・共同執筆編集

『リーダーズ英和辞典』研究社、監修・共同編集執筆

『リーダーズ・プラス』研究社、監修・共同編集執筆

『リーダーズ英和辞典』第2版 研究社、監修・共同編集執筆

『リーダーズ英和中辞典』研究社、監修・共同編集執筆

論文 “A Transformational Analysis of the Old English Pastoral Care”

“Three Contributions of Generative Grammar to Language Teaching”

“From My Card File: Comments on the Even Stressing of Noun + Noun Combinations in English”

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宮井 捷二

編集後記

松田さんが亡くなられたことは岩崎研究会にとって最大の損失である。松田さんは長年にわたって理論言語学の集まりを軸として、会の貴重な理論的な面での支柱であった。私はかつて外語大の教授会で、松田さんを「英会話から生成文法まで教えられる稀な人」と紹介したことがある。本号を松田さんに捧げて、心から哀悼の意を表したい。

皮肉なことに、今年は岩崎研究会創立40周年、LEXICON創刊30周年の記念すべき年に当る。しかしこの記念号は来年に回さざるをえない。次号では会員諸氏の力作が多数集まることを念願している。

(S.T.)