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An Analysis of *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, Third Edition

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1. Introduction

This is a critical review of *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (abbreviated to *COBUILD*[3]). Five people have joined to analyze the new edition and compare it with other major learners' dictionaries as well as the previous editions. We have focused our attention on (1) Headwords, Superheadwords, and Frequency Bands; (2) Pronunciation; (3) Definition; (4) Examples; (5) Usage; (6) Grammar and (7) Pragmatics.

We have sampled the new dictionary to find how many, and what kind of words, definitions, examples, etc. have been newly added or revised. We have also surveyed the dictionary to find what kind of changes and improvements have been made in usage, grammar, and pragmatics.

In the new edition, the title of the dictionary has been slightly altered. The new title seems to suggest that the new edition has incorporated a larger number of entries and more refined kinds of definitions, more information on usage, grammar, and pragmatics for "advanced learners." Naturally, we want to know in what respects the dictionary is improved and enriched for them.

On this matter, no information is given in the Introduction to the new edition. However, it says that the Bank of English on which the dictionary is based "now contains around 400 million words of English," instead of 20 million words in the 1980s for the first edition, and 200 million words in the 1990s for the second edition. The spoken component in the corpus has been steadily increased and makes up a total of 20 million words.

Efforts have been made to cover more information on American English. The Introduction (p. xi) says:

> For this edition, the coverage of American English has been greatly extended, and the advice of experts together with evidence from our extensive US corpora, we have made a large number of additions that feature meanings and usages that are characteristic of American English, to ensure a more comprehensive coverage of that variety.

The increased number of words in the corpus, and the wider coverage of American English, together with other improvements explained in the Introduction, may account for the revised title of the dictionary.

The overall survey gives an impression that the changes to the definitions, examples, and grammatical information in the new edition are relatively minor. No change has been made to pronunciations. On the other hand, a substantial number of new headwords have been added (but not as many as the dictionary boasts). Usage information has been enriched and is given in small capitals within square brackets after the definition. Also, pragmatic information has been reorganized and its specific function is given in the Extra Column so that learners can identify it more clearly. We believe these changes contribute to easier access to the dictionary.

We are afraid that previous editions of *COBUILD* dictionaries have not attracted Japanese users as much as they deserved.

The fact that *COBUILD* came out last among the three most highly praised learners' dictionaries put out by British publishers may have been the reason why it is less popular than two of its rivals, namely *OALD* and *LDCE*. Another reason for the smaller circulation could be that *COBUILD* is regarded as a dictionary for encoding rather than decoding. Definitions that exemplify typical grammatical structures such as subjects, verb patterns, objects, etc. and collocations in a full sentence are very informative and useful for writers. For many Japanese readers, however, a conventional definition in brief wording makes it easier to identify the meaning they want. This goes against the belief of the editors and lexicographers of the dictionary who emphasize the importance of full sentence definitions.

More emphasis has been placed on reading than writing in schools and universities in Japan. Although the necessity for encoding is recognized and students are encouraged to write and speak in English, only slow steps have been taken in this direction. This is an unhappy situation, since English is used almost every sphere of global activity, but it is the status quo in the use of English dictionaries in our country. We hope that the efforts made to facilitate easier access to the dictionary attract larger numbers of readers as well as writers.

2. Headwords, Superheadwords, and Frequency Bands

This section discusses the differences found in *COBUILD*[3] in comparison with the previous edition of the dictionary, concerning its headwords (2.1), superheadwords (2.2), and frequency bands (2.3).[1] We will refer back to some problems pointed out in the analyses of former editions (Kojima *et al.* 1989 and Masuda *et al.* 1997) whenever necessary and see if they have improved or not. As well as reviewing any disadvantages, we will also pay attention to other problems concerning superheadwords and frequency bands in particular.

2. 1. Headwords

In this subsection, we will compare *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3] in terms of (1) the presentation of entries, (2) the numerical changes of entries, (3) new entries and deleted entries.

2.1.1. Method of presentation

The overall headword presentation style in this new edition of the *COBUILD* dictionary is the same as in the previous edition. For example, headwords are presented in bold face, one letter protruded into the left side margin. Symbols used to show the run-ons and phrasal verbs (◆ and ▶, respectively) are still employed in *COBUILD*[3] although the symbol for cross references (●) has been replaced by a black solid arrow (for ordinary cross reference) and a double-line arrow (for cross reference to additional information).

A major improvement in terms of the entry presentation is that inflected forms are now put in parentheses so that users can recognize a headword and its inflected forms more easily than in the previous edition, in which inflected forms are demarcated from the headword only by the use of commas when no pronunciation is presented, for example, for compounds. Compare the 2 editions below.

2nd edition (*COBUILD*[2]: 596)	3rd edition (*COBUILD*[3]: 554)
fag /fæg/ **fags**	**fag** /fæg/ **(fags)**
fag end, fag ends; also spelled **fag-end**.	**fag end (fag ends)** also **fag-end**
faggot /fægət/ **faggots**.	**faggot** /fægət/ **(faggots)**
Fahrenheit /færənhaɪt/.	**Fahrenheit** /færənhaɪt/
fail /feɪl/ **fails, failing, failed**	**fail** /feɪl/ **(fails, failing, failed)**

The introduction of parentheses for inflected forms also results in the disappearance of the (sometimes) fluctuating use of periods in the line of headwords. In *COBUILD*[2], we find inconsistency in that the headwords *fag end, faggot*, and *Fahrenheit* have a period at the end of the line while the headword lines for *fag* and *fail* do not end with a period.[2] On the contrary, *COBUILD*[3] has totally abandoned the use of a period at the end of the headword line so that this inconsistent use of the period no longer exists.

In spite of the improvement mentioned above, the nesting problem pointed out in the analysis of the former edition (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 24) remains unsolved in the new edition. Run-ons of the same word-form are put separately under the different senses of the headword, thus causing a

word-finding problem on the part of dictionary-users. For example, we still can find four run-on adverbs *positively* under the senses 1, 4, 6, and 10 of the adjective *positive* whereas the same adverb is set up as an independent headword with two distinctive senses.[3] There seems no need to run on if the word in question is also treated as a headword.

2.1.2. The number of headwords

Although the back cover proudly announces that this dictionary carries over 110,000 references in this edition, which means an increase of about 35,000 references compared to the previous edition[4], we cannot accept this claim uncritically, the reason for which has already been pointed out in the analyses of the former editions such as Kojima *et al.* (1989: 46) and Masuda *et al.* (1997: 20).

The introduction to this edition also claims that it has increased the size of the dictionary and, at the same time, improved the style of presentation (*COBUILD*[3]: x). It is true that the book itself has become a little larger, but the total number of pages has decreased by more than 120 pages from 1951 to 1824. Even if the increase in the number of lines per page (approximately from 164 to 170 lines on average) is taken into account, we cannot naïvely agree that "a lot of space for new and additional entries" has been made for this edition.

In order to roughly estimate the increase in the number of headwords in this edition, we carried out a sampling test, extracting entries from every 50 pages of the new edition (which amounts to 36 pages) and comparing them with the equivalent parts of the previous edition. The result of the sampling test is shown in the following table.

Table 1 Headword comparison between *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3]

	2nd ed.	3rd ed.	Balance
Total pages	1951	1824	−127
The number of headwords in the sampling	636	667	31
Estimated number of words per page	17.67	18.53	0.86
Estimated total number of headwords	32,230	33,798	1,568

As this result shows, *COBUILD*[3] is estimated to carry an average of 18.53 words per page, which means an increase of 0.86 words compared with the previous edition. And the estimated total number of headwords in the present edition is 33,798 words, presumably resulting in an increase of more than 1,500 words in the entire volume. However, we cannot be convinced that this figure justifies the dictionary's claim for "thousands of new words and meanings" on its back cover.

2.1.3. Headwords newly adopted

Now we shall go on to look at new entries in *COBUILD*[3]. In the 36-page sampling used above, 35 new headwords are found. 9 headwords among them (*divorcé, divorcée, homeboy, home field, homegirl, Pvt., rejigger, stuffed animal, stuffed toy, teakettle, witness stand*) are labeled either as [AM] or [mainly AM].[5] This means that they are (mainly) used in the American variant of English. This result substantiates the dictionary's claim that "the coverage of American English has been greatly expanded" (*COBUILD*[3]: xi).

The most noticeable point in the choice of new entries is that *COBUILD*[3] is quite willing to adopt words related to information technology (henceforth, IT)[6]. Aside from the newly adopted entries listed in the introduction to this new edition such as *chat room, dot-com, WAP, e-business, telemarketing, and electronic publishing* (*COBUILD*[3]: x), we can find new entries such as *homepage, keypad, keystroke* in our sample. In order to evaluate this dictionary's sensitivity to IT-related terminology, let us look at the tables on page 7, which show the different treatment of IT-related words among 4 dictionaries: *COBUILD*[3], *COBUILD*[2], *OALD*[6], and *LDOCE*[3]. Table 2 shows whether the recently coined prefix *e-* (meaning "electronic") and words with this prefix are adopted in each dictionary or not. Additionally, Table 3 shows, in the same manner, the difference of adoption in terms of the word *web* (meaning *the World Wide Web*) and its compounds.

Table 2 Comparison of the treatment of words with prefix *e-*.

	COBUILD		*OALD*[6] (2000)	*LDOCE*[3] (1995)
	3rd (2001)	2nd (1995)		
e-	○	×	○	×
e-business	○	×	△	×
e-commerce	○	×	△	×
e-fit	×	×	△	×
e-mail	○	○	○	○
e-solution	△[7]	×	×	×
e-store	△	×	×	×
e-zine	○	×	×	×

Table 3 Comparison of the treatment of words including *web*.

	COBUILD		*OALD*[6] (2000)	*LDOCE*[3] (1995)
	3rd (2001)	2nd (1995)		
web	○	○	○	×[8]
webcam	○	×	×	×
webcast	○	×	×	×
web page	○	×	△	×
web site	○	×	△	×
webzine	○	×	×	×

As expected, *COBUILD*[3] carries the most IT-related words in comparison with the previous edition and the other two dictionaries. This is partly because it is a more recent publication. But this could also mean that *COBUILD*[3] reflects the most up-to-date states of word uses, at least in the field of computer technology.

2.1.4. Deleted Headwords

Here we briefly pay attention to the words deleted in the new edition. In the sample, only 4 headwords found in the 2nd edition have disappeared in the new edition: *cowling, gay liberation, GCE, and key word.* Although this result may not be extensive enough to make persuasive generaliza-

tions, we can at least say that *COBUILD*[3] has the tendency to delete words which have specialized meanings in a certain respect. The use of the word *cowling* could be limited to a context related to the field of aeronautics or hobby modeling because it means a part of an airplane. The phrase *gay liberation* refers to a specific political movement which was popular at a certain period of time. Likewise, *GCE* is the word used exclusively in the British educational system. Finally, *key word* is used mainly in the field of language teaching according to the definition given in *COBUILD*[2]. In this respect, the dictionary's claim that it "gives priority to the English of most general utility worldwide" (*COBUILD*[3]: xi) can be justified.

2.2. Superheadwords

In this subsection, we focus on the system of superheadwords, which was first introduced in the previous edition and can now be regarded as one of the distinguishing features of the *COBUILD* dictionary.

2.2.1. The list of superheadwords

The same 96 words are given the superheadword status as in *COBUILD*[2]. The explanations provided for each subsections of superheadwords remain almost unchanged except for slight changes in the cases of *out* and *still*. Although the second subsection of *out* was only described as "adjective uses" in *COBUILD*[2], the description of "ADVERB USES" has been added in the new edition.[9] In the case of the superheadword *still*, the third subsection is now described as "EQUIPMENT" instead of "apparatus" as in the previous edition. Another change to be noted is that *like* is divided into three parts with the addition of the subsection "NOUN USES AND PHRASES".

2.2.2. The format

The noticeable change in the presentation of superheadwords is that a kind of menu system was introduced. In the newly adopted menu system, a superheadword is placed in the center of the top line of an enclosed box whose side lines are indented from both margins by a couple of spaces, and the grammatical or semantic explanations of individual subentries are

presented in capital letters with the number at the beginning. See the sample below.

light

① BRIGHTNESS OR ILLUMINATION
② NOT GREAT IN WEIGHT, AMOUNT, OR INTENSITY
③ UNIMPORTANT OR NOT SERIOUS

(*COBUILD*[3]: 896)

It is clear from this change of presentation that the new edition has tried to be more user-friendly. Although in the previous edition, the users did not know how many subsections were listed under a superheadword until the end of the entry in question, the newly employed menu tells them how a multi-section entry is divided into subsections, and it also gives them some information about the differences of grammatical categories or some information about phrasal verbs. In this way, *COBUILD*[3] seems to have tried to bridge the gap between external access and internal access in that users can find different senses or uses of a word (internal structure) as soon as they look up a superheadword (external structure).[10]

This way of presentation seems innovative at first glance, but a similar method had already been adopted in monolingual learners' dictionaries such as *LDOCE*[3] as well as in English-Japanese dictionaries published in Japan (cf. Kenkyusha's *LIGHTHOUSE* series). The menu system employed in *LDOCE*[3] can be regarded as much more detailed and user-friendly than the one in *COBUILD*[3] with every paragraph heading provided in the menu (cf. *LDOCE*[3]: 1246: for *run*). On the other hand, *LIGHTHOUSE*[4] is a bit more pedagogical than *COBUILD*[3] in that it provides the users with some information of semantic extensions through the process of metaphor and/or metonymy and helps them to comprehend a more schematic meaning of a word, even if the list is not always exhaustive. Although we have to admit that the principal role played by the menu for the superheadwords in *COBUILD*[3] is different from those

of *LDOCE*[3] and *LIGHTHOUSE*[4], the menu in *COBUILD*[3] leaves much to be improved. This disadvantage is closely connected with the problems to be discussed below.

2.2.3. Inconsistent adoption of superheadwords

We can say that the introduction of the menu system discussed above is the reflection of *COBUILD*'s efforts to improve the usability of the superheadwords, but unfortunately, there is no improvement in the policy of adopting superheadwords in the current edition. As was mentioned in the analysis of the previous edition (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 23f.), the application of superheadwords is still somewhat unreasonable. The problem is that some of the subsections under some superheadwords are based on the difference of grammatical classes while others are divided in terms of semantic difference. Nearly half of the superheadwords are classified into subsections exclusively on the basis of the grammatical distinctions, i.e. different classes of speech. And about a third of them are subdivided according to the semantic differences. However, the principle of dividing subsections of other superheadwords is rather arbitrary. For example, while the verbs *go, hold*, and *make* have a subsection for phrasal verb uses, the verbs *set* and *take* don't. In addition, the word *run* is not given the status of superheadword, which seems quite unreasonable considering its semantic diversity and a large number of different phrasal verbs.

The entry *wound* has two subsections, one is for the past tense form of the verb *wind* and the other is for the word denoting "injury". The decision to give this entry superheadword status is certainly reasonable because there is a difference of pronunciation between these two subentries. However, resorting to the difference of pronunciation as the basis for giving the superheadword status is unsatisfactory. This is because *COBUILD*[3] does not treat the inflected forms of the verb *lie* as independent headwords. The users of this dictionary will not be able to find the past tense form of the verb *lie* unless they know it is an inflected form of *lie*. This is incongruous with the dictionary's overall principle of giving the status of independent headword to the inflected forms of irregular verbs.

We also cannot understand why *lot* is not divided into subsections while *deal* has two subsections. Just the same as *deal, lot* has quantifier uses as well as noun uses.

The words *Miss* and *miss* are put under the same superheadword regardless of their orthographical difference (only the former has its initial letter capitalized). If this difference of spelling can be ignored[11)], it is quite unreasonable why *May* (the name of the 5th month of the year) and *may* (auxiliary) should not be treated under the same superheadword.

In addition, explanations given in the menu are sometimes confusing. For example, the second subsection of the word *lie* is described as "THINGS THAT ARE NOT TRUE", although *lie* in this sense can be used as a verb as well as a noun. There is always a possibility that a user can overlook its verb use in this sense because of the description "THINGS".

2.3. Frequency Bands

We now turn our attention to Frequency Bands, another outstanding feature of the *COBUILD* dictionary. In this subsection, we will see if there are any changes in the frequency rating of the words given 4 and 5 bands in the previous edition.[12)] Through an overall survey of the words included in these two bands, we will be able to point out some problems of frequency information in *COBUILD*[3].

2.3.1. Usefulness of frequency information

The first question to be raised concerning the frequency bands adopted in *COBUILD*[3] is the discrepancy between the frequency labeling of the words and the levels of the users' English proficiency. As the title clearly shows, *COBUILD*[3] is compiled mainly for the use of advanced learners, which necessarily means that most of the (potential) users of this dictionary have already acquired some basic vocabulary of English. It follows that if users find a certain word labeled with 5 bands, the information that the word is among the most frequently used words would not be so meaningful to them because they are expected to have already acquired some knowledge about the use and meaning of it. What advanced-level learners of English need most is not limited to the labeling which tells

them whether a certain word is frequently used or not. They also need to know, for example, whether the word they want to use is used in the spoken variant of English more frequently than in the written one or vice versa, or in which sense the word is used more often.[13)]

The frequency information of the headwords, however, is quite helpful to language researchers in general, not to mention lexicographers in that, by comparing the different frequency rating between the two editions of the same dictionary, they can grasp changing states of the language from the numerical point of view. In this sense, it is not a waste of time and space to take a careful look at the differences in the frequency rating between the two editions of the *COBUILD* dictionary. First, let us compare the two editions in terms of the number of words in the frequency bands.

Table 4 Comparison of Frequency Bands between 2nd ed. and 3rd ed.

Frequency Bands	Total Number of Words		Examples
	2nd	3rd	
◆◆◆◆◆	700	680	the, and, of, to, like, go, paper, return
◆◆◆◆◇	1,200	1,040	argue, bridge, danger, female, obvious, sea
◆◆◆◇◇	1,500	1,580	aggressive, medicine, tactic
~~◆◆◇◇◇~~	~~3,200~~	~~3,200~~	~~accuracy, duration, miserable, puzzle~~[14)]
◆◇◇◇◇	8,100	8,100	abundant, crossroads, fearless, missionary

The numbers given in Table 4 are based on the introductions to both editions (*COBUILD*[2]: xiii and *COBUILD*[3]: xlii). It seems that the changes are limited to the higher 3 bands, and the numbers of words in lower 2 bands remain the same. But as we will see below, the figures given in the 2nd edition are rough estimates. Therefore, we cannot obtain any meaningful result by just comparing the numbers on this table.

2.3.2. Words labeled with 5 bands

Now we go on to a closer examination of words labeled with 5 bands,

the total number of which is "approximately 680 words" (*COBUILD*[3]: xlii) (679 words, to be exact). In comparison with the previous edition, it seems that about 20 words have been downgraded. However, the number of 5-band words has actually increased. As is apparent in the list presented in *COBUILD*[3] (xlii-xliv), each superheadword is counted only once regardless of how many subsections it has. On the contrary, in *COBUILD*[2], each subsection of superheadwords seems to have been counted separately. If we excluded the same word forms counted more than once, the total number of the 5-band words in *COBUILD*[2] would be 664. Thus, we can claim that there is indeed an increase of 15 words in this band. Look at Table 5 to validate this claim.

Table 5 Adjusted numbers of 5-band words.

		Total
Total number in the 2nd ed.		713
Adjustment for multiple counting in the 2nd ed.	−49	664
Decrease in the 3rd ed.	−10	654
Increase in the 3rd ed.	25	679
Total number in the 3rd ed.		679

While 10 words were excluded from the most frequently used word list of the previous edition, 25 words were raised to the 5-band status, of which 19 words are calendric terms covering the names of 12 months of the year and 7 days of the week. A kinship term *husband* is also included in this list while *wife* had already been ranked in the most frequent band in the previous edition. A color term *yellow*, which was a 3-band word in *COBUILD*[2], is also included among the most frequently used words. Other words raised to this status are *best*, *hold*[15)], *Miss*[16)], and *sixteen*.

The words excluded from the 5-band list are: *don, don't, er, grey, newscaster, oh, seek, sir, stock, and would-be.* The fact that three of them (*don, don't, would-be*) have no band in *COBUILD*[3] can be regarded as one of the refinements of frequency rating thanks to the expansion of the corpus, although it possibly suggests that there could have occurred some

sort of error in the frequency counting of the previous edition.

2.3.3. Words labeled with 4 bands

COBUILD[3] says that the number of words labeled with 4 bands is "approximately 1040 words" (xlii) (but it turned out to be 1044 words, to be exact), which could mean a decrease of about 160 words from the previous edition. But the actual number of a decrease does not correspond to this figure for the reason stated in the previous subsection, i.e. multiple-counting of subsections of superheadwords.

The most noticeable change concerning the 4-band list is that adjectives of nationality as *Japanese* and *Korean* are downgraded to band 3, which account for the largest part of those excluded from the 4-band word group. The other headwords whose frequency decreased from the 4-band to 3-band level are proper nouns: *Gulf, Olympic*, and *Wall Street*.

When we turn our attention to the words newly included in the 4-band list, we can find that 8 words have moved up into the 4-band list. Among them are 3 color terms: *orange, pink*, and *purple*. 2 ordinal numbers have also been upgraded from the 1-band to the 4-band group (*hundredth* and *sixteenth*[17]). In addition, a kinship term *uncle* has now gained the status of 4-band word. The other words are *cream* and *navy*. Conversely, 4 words seem to have decreased their frequency in the corpus and have moved down from the 5-band to 4-band group: *grey, oh, sir*, and *stock*.

2.3.4. Points to be improved

The survey of the words included in the 4-band and 5-band groups reveals that the frequency bands still need to be improved in order to meet the users' demand. The first point to be noted is that, to our regret, the frequency information about individual senses of a headword is still not given in *COBUILD*[3], which is the disadvantage pointed out in the analysis of the previous edition (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 26). Take, for example, the word *run*. *COBUILD*[3] gives us the information that this word is one of the most frequently used words. However, considering the fact that this dictionary lists different senses in the order of their frequency, we cannot help wondering how frequent the use of, for example,

the 42nd sense of *run*. Is *run* in this sense used frequently enough to be included among 5-band words? The same question arises when we look up run-ons. For example, the adverb *positively* is nested in the entry of the adjective *positive*, which has 4 bands. This is quite confusing to users because the independent headword *positively* has only 1 band. Is there such a wide gap in terms of frequency between the nested *positively* and the headword *positively*?

In addition, we doubt if the inclusion of cardinal and ordinal numbers into higher bands is necessary. Considering the fact that the target users of this edition are advanced learners of English, the information that numbers are among the most frequently used words would not be so meaningful. The same can be said of calendric terms. In fact, *LDOCE*[3] does not give any frequency information for these kinds of words.

Another question concerning the frequency information is the *COBUILD*'s treatment of proper nouns. The word *US* is included in band 5, and band 4 lists such proper nouns as *BBC*, *City* (the financial district of London), *UK, United Nations* (as well as its abbreviation, *UN*). These words are excluded from the subject of frequency rating in *LDOCE*[3] with the exception of *City*, which is treated under the headword *city*. In addition to these proper nouns, 13 adjectives of nationality are given the 4-band status. We do not intend to deny the fact that these words are used very frequently, but we still wonder whether simply listing them alongside other high-frequency words is appropriate enough to give the users helpful information about English. These words are, more or less, encyclopedic entries, and their frequency quite often depends not on the importance of the words themselves but on the degree of the topicality of their referent in the real world. The adjective *Lebanese*, for example, is included among the 4-band words, but is this word more important for advanced learners of English than a 3-band word, say, *medicine*? The answer to this question is definitely in the negative, and this inconsistency in the frequency rating seems to have come from the mechanical counting of word uses by the computer-based corpus.

Related to the question raised above is the inclusion in band 4 of numerous words often used in the fields of politics, economics, and

international affairs. Obviously, *COBUILD*[3] reveals the propensity for these kinds of words in the higher frequency bands. For example, the abbreviations *Co.* and *Corp.* are included in the 4 band list while neither of them have frequency graphs in *LDOCE*[3].[18)]

We have to conclude that the high rating in the frequency of these words is also the result of automatically obtained data through the use of the computer corpus. The size of the Bank of English, the corpus used in the compiling of *COBUILD* dictionaries, was dramatically expanded during these six years, i.e. between the publication of the previous edition and the current one. It could naturally mean that the data collected during this period of time are exclusively from the source focusing mainly on current affairs in the world. This, in turn, leads to a situation in which the more topical the referent of a word is, the more often it is taken up in the media or by the general public. This results in the frequent appearances of the word in question in the corpus, which will finally be reflected in the frequency information. (Kozaki)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. Transcription system

As far as the transcription system is concerned, there is no change from the previous edition. The pronunciation guide section on p. xxxviii (henceforth the Guide) of the current edition is a verbatim copy of the previous one. Pronunciation keys are provided by using phonetic symbols adapted from those of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), and systematic vowel differences between RP and General American are explained in the Guide and left unmarked in the main body of the dictionary. For example, the pronunciation key for the short "o" vowel is /ɒ/, and the Guide states the vowel quality in General American English is /ɑː/. To show non-systematic differences, General American pronunciation is provided after code AM (e.g. /kɑ̲ːnt, AM kæ̲nt/ for can't).

The present edition retains the strong prescriptive orientation of the previous edition. As is stated in the Guide, the basic principle is "If you pronounce it like this, most people will understand you." Thus, *COBUILD*[3] provides only one pronunciation key for the majority of its entry words, and when more than one pronunciation is common in British English, an alternative pronunciation is provided. For General American, only one pronunciation is given. There seems to be little revision concerning pronunciation keys to individual entry words. In fact, some misleading pronunciation keys that we pointed out in our review of the previous edition remain unchanged. The keys for *issue* and *ate* are /ɪ̲sjuː, ɪ̲ʃuː/ and /e̲t, e̲ɪt/, respectively, indicating /ɪ̲sjuː/ and /e̲t/ are possible General American pronunciations.

In the apparent absence of revisions in terms of the transcription system or pronunciation keys for individual entry words, the reader is referred to our review of the previous edition for the use of superscript /r/ (Section 3.2) and treatment of weak forms (Section 3.4). The following two features, however, are unique to *COBUILD*[3] and worth mentioning here again. The first is its clever use of italicized vowel symbols to show possible vowel reduction as in *accept* /æksə̲pt/. This convention saves space and provides an accurate description of vowel reduction. The other is the treatment of stress shift. When a syllable bearing primary stress comes after a secondary stressed syllable as in *disappointing* /dɪsə̲pɔ̲ɪntɪŋ/, both vowel symbols are underlined, indicating that depending on a context in which the word occurs, the first syllable may bear the primary stress as in "a disappointing result." The guide contains a concise explanation of stress shift under the heading of "Words in Context."

3.2. Comparison of *COBUILD*[3] and *LPD* pronunciation entries

Presented in the remainder of this section is a comparison of pronunciation entries between *COBUILD*[3] and the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* (*LPD*, 2nd edition). *LPD* presents the results of three opinion polls concerning preferred pronunciations of selected lexical items for both British (2 polls) and General American English (1 poll). The results are given in the form of bar charts, which makes it easier to identify these words. Pronunciations given for such words in *LPD* and the pronunciation keys for the same words in *COBUILD*[3] were compared to examine (1) possible conditions under which more than one RP pronunciation is given in *COBUILD*[3], (2) possible conditions under which one pronuncia-

tion is selected from several possible pronunciations for RP and (3) the adequacy of General American pronunciation description.

Of the 139 words to which *LPD* shows multiple British pronunciations and the results of the opinion poll(s), 49 have two pronunciations, and 90 have only one in *COBUILD*³. When two pronunciations are given in *COBUILD*³, these words tend to have high frequency and/or there is little preference for one pronunciation over the other in *LPD*. Such words include: *ate, chance, economic, either, exit, falcon, financial, issue, kilometer, mall, nephew, poor, sandwich, yours*, etc. There are a few exceptions, however. Of the 49 words with two pronunciations, 4 (*equinox, falcon, schism,* and *subsidence*) have no black diamond (i.e. not in the top five frequency bands), and there are rather strong preferences for *equinox* (92% of the poll respondents preferred /ekwɪnɒks/ over /iːkwɪnɒks/) and *schism* (71% preferred /skɪzm/ over /sɪzm/, the latter being a traditional pronunciation).

Let us now turn to the 90 words for which *COBUILD*³ has only one pronunciation. There seems to be no criterion based on word frequency in determining whether to show one or two pronunciation keys. One might consider it reasonable to give alternative pronunciations to high frequency words, but this is not the case. For example, *real* has five diamonds (i.e. in the most frequent band) in *COBUILD*³ and the *LPD* poll results show little preference (55% /riːl/, 45% /rɪəl/), but *COBUILD*³ only has /riːl/. For another five-diamond word *sure*, /ʃʊəʳ/ (54%) is the only pronunciation in *COBUILD*³ and /ʃɔːʳ/ (46%) is not mentioned.

In most of the cases, though, a single pronunciation key given in *COBUILD*³ is the one that is preferred by a higher percentage of opinion poll respondents in *LPD* as in *real*, and *sure*. But there are some cases where the opposite is true. For such words, *COBUILD*³ tends to choose a less preferred pronunciation that is more traditional (i.e. supported by the older generations). For *newspaper* (4 diamonds), for example, /njuːs-/ (43%, traditional) is the only pronunciation given in *COBUILD*³ in spite of the fact that /njuːz-/ (57%, preferred by young people) is the first entry in *LPD*. The same is true for *primarily*, and *salt*. *COBUILD*³ only shows more traditional /praɪmərɪli/ (49%) and /sɔːlt/ (43%) and suppresses

/paɪmerɪli/ (51%) and /sɒlt/ (57%). This conservative criterion manifests itself in such entry words as *schism, nephew* and *questionnaire*, for which much less preferred, but nonetheless more traditional pronunciations (/sɪzm/ 29%, /nevjuː/ 21% and /kestʃəneəʳ/ 6%) are given as second alternative pronunciations.

As far as the description of American pronunciation is concerned, there seems, unfortunately, to be much room for improvement. When two RP pronunciation keys are given and one of them is not an acceptable American pronunciation as in *ate* and *issue* mentioned above, the lack of a separate American English entry gives the reader the impression that both are acceptable American pronunciations. This was the case not only for the two words just mentioned but for many other entries such as *been, crescent, mall, nephew, questionnaire, sandwich*. One possible solution would be to introduce a new code such as RP, and put the common pronunciation first and introduce the one that is only acceptable for RP after this code, for example, /mɔːl, RP mæl/. There are also cases where by far the most dominant American pronunciations are not properly shown. For example, pronunciation keys for *baptize* and *booth* are /bæptaɪz/ and /buːð/, respectively, missing General American /bæptaɪz/ and /buːθ/. A thorough revision of American pronunciation would make *COBUILD*³ a better reference source for learners of American English. (Takagi)

4. Definition

4.1. Overview

4.1.1. Extent of the survey

We have compared definitions in the second and third editions of *COBUILD* and counted the definitions that have been added, deleted, or changed in the new edition. Table 1 shows the results of the count. The count is based on every one hundred pages of both editions (figures in parentheses represent the second edition).

Table 1

	number of def.	added	deleted	changed
backrest~backwards	32 (32)	0	0	2
burglary~burning	37 (37)	0	0	2
comparable~compassionate leave	26 (26)	0	0	4
design~delicacy	35 (30)	5	0	4
embassy~embroil	31 (30)	1	0	4
flint~float	41 (41)	0	0	5
H~hack	39 (39)	0	0	9
ineradicable~infantile	38 (37)	1	0	1
like-minded~limit	47 (47)	0	0	2
morale~more	31 (29)	2	0	4
overeat~overhaul	27 (27)	0	0	2
powerblue~powerline	34 (34)	0	0	1
reinforced concrete~rejoinder	28 (25)	3	0	2
seduce~see	31 (31)	0	0	3
spice~spin	40 (41)	0	1	4
teacher~tear	37 (33)	4	0	3
undersea~undertake	33 (32)	1	0	3
total	587 (571)	17	1	58

4.1.2. We have found seventeen new definitions in the survey. Fifteen of them are definitions for the new lexical units that have been incorporated in the third edition. They include headwords like **deism**, **delayed action**, **delaying tactic**, **deli**, **deliberative**, **embolism**, **morale booster**, **morale-boosting**, **reinvent**, **rejigger**, **tea dance**, **teakettle**, **team player**, and **underspend**. The remaining two new definitions have been added because of the sense subdivision of **in extremis** and **teapot**. Only one definition in the second edition has been deleted. We estimate that about 10% of the definitions have been changed. In most cases, the changes are partial ones. We will elaborate on the changes later. The remaining 90% of the definitions are unchanged. We can say that the revisions made in the third edition are not very extensive as far as the definitions are concerned. Since most of the definitions remain the same, the problems pointed out in our review of *COBUILD*[2] also remain. For the sake of space, therefore, we will concentrate mainly on the changes in

the new edition. See Masuda *et al.* (1997: 30–43) for the problems that are not dealt with here[19].

4.2. Definition Sentences

4.2.1. Aims of the new edition

We begin from the prefatory material to find the aims of the new edition. Then, we will carry out surveys to find the nature and extent of the changes in the definitions in the third edition from A-Z sections by comparing them with the definitions in major learner's dictionaries as well as those in *COBUILD*[2]. Finally, we will propose some improvements.

4.2.1.1. We can see no major changes in the policy of sentence definitions as set out in the Preface. Definitions are written in full sentences as they have been since the first edition. The reason for full English sentences in the definitions is explained on p. xiii.

> For some users who expected the brief traditional definitions, COBUILD definitions were so generous that they seemed almost wasteful. But when you look closely at the way the definitions are phrased you will see that every word is chosen to illustrate some aspect of the meaning . . . . Hence there is no apology for full sentence definitions — far from it.

The definition guide section on p. xviii also says:

> . . . the definitions (or explanations, as we often call them) are written in full sentence . . . . We have chosen to explain words in the way because we think that this makes them much easier to read and understand. It also enables us to give a lot of information about the way a word or meaning is used by speakers of the language.

4.2.1.2. The defining style explained in the Guide to the Definition section remains virtually the same as that of the second edition as regards the use of bold face, information about collocates and structures, information about the grammatical structure, information about context and usage, and other kinds of definition.

4.2.1.3. Subdivisions of the definition can be found more easily in the new edition because they are given in squared digits such as 1, 2, and

3. Also, examples for each "meaning split" are indicated with the mark ❑ after the definition so that readers can find them more easily.

4.2.2. New Definitions and the Deleted Definition

There are seventeen new definitions and one deleted definition. As we have mentioned above, new lexical units account for fifteen of the new definitions. The remaining two new definitions come from sense subdivisions of **in extremis** and **teapot**.

4.2.2.1. The following are some of the newly incorporated definitions:

delayed action: A **delayed action** mechanism causes a delay on the device it is fitted to, so that it does not work as soon as you switch it on or operate it.

deliberative: A **deliberative** institution or procedure has the power or the right to make important decisions. [FORMAL]

reinvent: 1 To **reinvent** something means to change it so that it seems different and new. 2 If someone is trying **to reinvent the wheel**, they are trying to think of a new way of doing something that has been done in the same way for a very long time.

team player: If you refer to someone as a **team player**, you mean that they work well with other people in order to achieve things.

4.2.2.2. In the third edition, additional definitions have been added to **in extremis** and **teapot** (as **a tempest in a teapot**):

in extremis

COBUILD[2]: If someone or something is **in extremis**, they are in a very difficult situation and have to use extreme methods.

COBUILD[3]: 1 If someone or something is **in extremis**, they are in a very difficult situation and have to use extreme methods.

2 You can say that someone is **in extremis** when they are very ill and likely to die.

teapot

COBUILD[2]: A **teapot** is a container with a lid, a handle, and a spout, used for making and serving tea.

COBUILD[3]: 1 A **teapot** is a container with a lid, a handle, and a spout, used for making and serving tea. 2 If you describe a situation as **a tempest in a teapot**, you think that a lot of fuss is being made about something that is not important.

4.2.2.3. In the sampling, one definition has been deleted. In the second edition, **spigot** used to have two definitions. In the third edition, it has only one.

spigot

COBUILD[2]: **1** In British English, a **spigot** is a type of valve that controls the flow of a liquid from one source to another. **2** In American English, a **spigot** is a faucet or tap.

COBUILD[3]: A **spigot** is a faucet or tap. [AM]

We suppose that the additions and the deletion are the result of the larger corpus that reflects more accurate language use.

4.2.3. Changes in the Definitions

From the comparison of definitions in the second and third editions, we have found that quite a considerable number of definitions are shorter than those in the second edition, as the Preface declares. The reason for shorter definitions explained in the Preface (xiii) is: "In this third edition, we have worked hard on simplifying the wording in definitions even further, and reducing the length and complexity of definitions in order to make them easier to understand." For beginners and intermediate learners, easy definitions are welcome. However, for advanced learners, informative definitions are often more desirable than easy but less informative ones. Easier and shorter definition sentences can end up conveying a reduced amount of information. For this reason, we will examine whether examples have been shortened and made easier without informational loss.

4.2.3.1. There are some minor changes. Readers must be attentive to find them. Here is one illustration.

voyeurism

COBUILD[2]: If you describe someone's behaviour as **voyeurism**, you disapprove of them because you think they enjoy watching other people's sufferings or problems.

COBUILD[3]: If you describe someone's behaviour as **voyeurism**, you disapprove of them because you think they enjoy watching other people's

suffering or problems.

We wonder if "sufferings" in the second edition and "suffering" in the third edition have the same meaning or not. Although *COBUILD*[3] gives no sense distinction between the uncountable form of the word and the plural form, *OALD*[6] gives a sense subdivision to the two forms of the word. *LDCE*[3] does not explicitly distinguish two senses, but it seems that the word has two senses.

OALD[6] **1** [U] physical or mental pain:

Death finally brought an end to her suffering. This war has caused widespread human suffering.

2 (sufferings) [pl.] feelings of pain and unhappiness:

The hospice aims to ease the sufferings of the dying.

LDCE[3] [countable, uncountable] physical or mental pain and difficulty, or an experience of this: *the suffering of innocent people during a war*

The definition of *OALD*[6] suggests that sense **1** has an abstract meaning whereas sense **2** is more concrete. In *LDCE*[3], the first half of the definition corresponds to sense **1** of *OALD* and the latter half to sense **2**. If so, the change in the third edition seems unnecessary.[20)]

4.2.3.2. The changes in the definitions of **woe** and **blast out** are a little more conspicuous.

woe

COBUILD[2]: **2** You can refer to someone's problems or misfortunes as their **woes**.

COBUILD[3]: [2] You can refer to someone's problems as their **woes**.

The omission of "misfortunes" in the third edition may not affect the whole; nevertheless it still represents a loss of information.

blast out

COBUILD[2]: If something is **blasting out** music or noise, or if music or noise **is blasting out**, loud music or noise is being produced.

COBUILD[3]: If music or noise **is blasting out**, loud music or noise is being produced.

In **blast out**, the first part of the definition in the second edition has been deleted. However, the deletion means that an important piece of grammatical information has been lost from the definition. The definition

in the second edition indicates explicitly that the subject can be a piece of equipment such as a loudspeaker that produces music; also, it can be music that is being produced. In the third edition, the second subject remains in the definition but the first subject can be retrieved only from the example.

It is difficult to judge whether simplification of the definition in these cases is an improvement or not.

4.2.3.3. Many definitions have been shortened and modified in an effort to make them easier to read. For example, the fifth definition of **hack** in the third edition has been shortened by uniting the two "because clauses" that explain the reasons for the disapproval.

hack

COBUILD[2]: **5** If you refer to a politician as a **hack**, you disapprove of them because they have gained power by being loyal and obedient to their party and not because they are particularly talented or popular.

COBUILD[3]: [5] If you refer to a politician as a **hack**, you disapprove of them because they are too loyal to their party and perhaps do not deserve the position they have.

In the process of unification, however, the reasons for the disapproval have been weakened. We prefer the longer definition in this particular case.[21)]

4.2.3.4. In the case of **blazing**, a very important piece of information has been blurred. Many defining sentences in *COBUILD* begin "If you use . . . to describe . . . " Definitions in this type of phrasing show the selectional restriction of the headword. Learners will understand that *blazing* is strongly associated with weather, and not with, say, a meal. Thus, they will use the word to write a sentence such as "The weather was blazing hot" but they will not write a sentence like "The stew was blazing hot."

blazing

COBUILD[2]: **1** You use **blazing** or **blazing hot** to describe the weather when it is very hot and sunny.

COBUILD[3]: [1] **Blazing** sun or **blazing hot** weather is very hot.

OALD[6]: **1** (also blazing hot) extremely hot:

LDCE[3]: **1** extremely hot

From the simplified definition in the third edition, learners will understand that "blazing sun" and "blazing hot weather" are typical expressions, but they may be not so certain that "blazing hot stew" is unidiomatic and not acceptable.

We do not mean to denigrate the shortened definition because it is still much informative than that of *OALD*[6] and *LDCE*[3].

4.2.3.5. As part of the same effort, the seventh definition of **power** in the third edition has been simplified.

power

COBUILD[2]: **7** The **power** of something is the physical strength or the electronic capability that it has to move or affect things.

COBUILD[3]: 7 The **power** of something is the ability that it has to move or affect things.

Obviously, "the ability" is shorter than "the physical strength or the electronic capability" and learners may think the explanation easier to understand. However, a specific sense of the definition in the second edition, i.e. electronic capability, is lost in the third edition. As a result, the definition becomes rather too general and vague.[22)]

4.2.3.6. There are quite a few definitions that have been changed and made easier to understand, if not shorter. Compare the second sense of **flip side** in the second and third editions.

flip side

COBUILD[2]: **2** The **flip side** of an argument or idea is the opposite argument or idea.

COBUILD[3]: 2 The **flip side** of a situation consists of the less obvious or less pleasant aspects of it.

The definition of *tea leaf* has also been improved. Although the definition of **tea leaf** in the second edition was not in the wrong, it was a strange definition. People usually think of *tea leaves* as dried leaves that they use to make tea rather than leaves that are left after the tea has been drunk. The definition in the third edition is shorter, and easier to understand. Moreover, it accords better with common sense.[23)]

tea leave

COBUILD[2]: **Tea leaves** are the small pieces of dried leaves that are left in a teapot or a cup after the tea has been drunk.

COBUILD[3]: **Tea leaves** are the small pieces of dried leaves that you use to make tea.

4.2.3.7. According to the Style of Presentation section of the Introduction to the first edition of *COBUILD* (p. xvi), "The wording of each explanation shows the basic word class . . . . An entry for a transitive verb like *conceal* will begin, 'If you conceal something, you . . . ' This suggests that the verb in this sense is typically used with a human subject and a wide range of direct objects . . . "

For learners who use a dictionary for encoding, this type of information is quite useful. However, some definition sentences have been changed in a way that blurs the syntactic information such as the typical subjects and objects.

The twelfth sense of **top**, for example, is used as a transitive verb. In the second edition, the definition sentence indicates that the sentence begins either with a human subject (someone), or with a non-human subject (something). In the third edition, these pieces of information are not overtly indicated.

top

COBUILD[2]: **12** If someone or something **tops** a list, poll, or chart, they are mentioned or chosen more times than anyone or anything else.

COBUILD[3]: 12 To **top** a list means to be mentioned or chosen more times than anyone or anything else.

Typical objects such as "poll and chart" have also been deleted from the definition sentence. The definition of the verb in the form "to top a list . . . " suggests a wide range of subjects and a very limited object. We consider simplification of the definition by omitting important syntactic information should be avoided.

4.2.3.8. Another kind of information has been lost in the case of **comparison** (e.g. stand or bear ~).

comparison

COBUILD[2]: **5** If you say that someone or something **stands or bears comparison with someone or something else**, you mean that they are as good, or almost as good.

COBUILD[3]: [5] If someone or something **stands or bears comparison with another person or thing**, they are as good, or almost as good

In this particular definition, the first part of the clauses ("if you say that . . . , you mean . . .) has been deleted. This goes against one of *COBUILD*'s previous policies because "the words 'if you say that . . . ' very often signal metaphoric, figurative, and other non-literal meanings," (page xvi) and because the shortened definition does not say that the phrase **stand or bear comparison** expresses ones judgment rather than being an objective statement.

However, not all the definitions that begin in the form "If you say . . . you mean . . . " have been changed. In fact, most of them remain the same. For example, the definition of the third sense of **bleat** in the new edition is the same as that in the second edition.

bleat [3]

If you say that someone **bleats** about something, you mean that they complain about it in a way which makes them sound weak and irritating.

We have the impression that these changes have been made rather inconsistently to give space for new lexical units.

4.2.3.9. We noted in the review of the previous edition of *COBUILD* that the lexicographers of the second edition were making efforts to avoid awkward noun-pronoun agreement. For example, they tried to avoid the awkwardness of using plural personal pronouns with reference to a singular antecedent in the definition of **pretender** in the second edition. We also praised the use of plural nouns and corresponding plural personal pronouns instead of a singular noun with "he or she" as its pronoun.

The preference for the plural noun and the plural pronoun correspondence just stated above may not be applied consistently, as the next example shows.

float

COBUILD[2]: **9** If a company director **floats** his or her company, he or she starts to sell shares in it to the public.

COBUILD[3]: [9] If a company director **floats** their company, they start to sell shares in it to the public.

In the definition paragraph of **director**, the noun in question is given in the plural form.

director

COBUILD[3]: [3] The **directors** of a company are its most senior managers, who meet regularly to make important decisions about how it will be run.

The fluctuation may indicate that the question of noun-pronoun agreement in the definition sentences remains unsettled among lexicographers.

4.3. Suggestions for Improvements

4.3.1. Superheadwords and menus

We would like to propose some changes to the presentation of definition paragraphs. We have found that users are not very happy about the way *COBUILD* presents the definitions for long entries. This is because users cannot find the meaning they want quickly. Most learners consult a dictionary to find the meaning of the unfamiliar words/phrases that they come across while reading. They also look up words/phrases in a dictionary when they want to confirm syntactic information while writing. Naturally, they want to do things quickly. If they cannot find the information they want easily, they will be frustrated. This often happens when learners are looking up long entries in the dictionary.

Learner's dictionaries such as *OALD*[6] and *LDCE*[3] try to solve the problem by giving so called "shortcut" and "signpost" respectively at the top of the definition paragraphs for long entries. In addition, *LDCE*[3] lists "menus" for longer entries so that learners can very easily find out which paragraph they should read.

4.3.1.1. To help learners find the meaning they want quickly, *COBUILD*[2] employed "superheadwords" for entries with several subentries and words with many subsenses. *COBUILD*[3] has created "a menu at the top of each of these superheadwords." The menus look like the ones in *LDCE*[3], but they are considerably different. Most of the menus in *COBUILD*[3] divide entries according to their grammatical functions. The menus in *LDCE*[3] list several sense groups in the entry.

4.3.1.2. The menu for **live**, for example, has two grammar-based sections in *COBUILD*[3]: **live** ① VERB USES and **live** ② ADJECTIVE USES. **Live**

(used as a verb) is defined in ten paragraphs. *LDCE*[3] gives separate entry status for different parts of speech of the same word, so the menu does not divide the word on a grammar basis. In *LDCE*[3], the menu for the verb **live** has seven sense-based sections: ① **IN A PLACE/TIME**, ② **LIVE IN A PARTICULAR WAY**, ③ **BE ALIVE** ④ **SEXUAL RELATIONSHIP**, ⑤ **LIVE FOR A REASON**, ⑥ **IN YOUR MIND**, and ⑦ **OTHER MEANINGS**.

Since longer sections such as ①, ②, and ③ have further sense subsections (signposts), learners can quickly decide to which paragraph within the subsections they should proceed. Let us take an example. Suppose a Japanese student wants to know whether it is possible to replace 'grow' in the sentence "Cactuses can grow in hot and very dry desert" with 'live'. The construction of "a plant (subject) + live (verb)" is not obvious for Japanese learners. A student who consults *LDCE*[3] will read the menu of **live** and will decide ① should include the wanted information. The student will also notice that among the four signposts of ①: **1 IN A PLACE/HOME 2 PLANT/ANIMAL 3 AT A PARTICULAR TIME 4 TO BE KEPT SOMEWHERE**, 2 is the right one to read, and will be happy to find the definition "a plant or animal that lives in a particular place grows there or has its home there."

Students who consult *COBUILD*[3] will read the definition of **live** from the beginning and will eventually come across the fourth paragraph. It reads: "To live means to be alive. If someone lives to a particular age, they stay alive until they are that age." However, they will be not sure if this definition can be applicable to plants unless they find the second illustrative example, "*A perennial is a plant that lives indefinitely*."

We can understand the reason why most students are tempted to consult *LDCE*[3] rather than *COBUILD*[3].

4.3.1.3. Many long entries in *COBUILD*[3] do not have menus at all. **Work** has 41 paragraphs, but they all come within one long entry. Similarly, **way** with its 93 paragraphs does not have a menu. Other basic headwords such as **come**, **day**, **eye**, **know**, **open**, **place**, **put**, **run**, **say**, **see**, **time**, **word**, etc. have no menus, either.

4.3.1.4. Some long entries in *COBUILD*[3] have menus that give sense-based sections. **Make** has six sense groups in the menu: ① CARRYING OUT AN ACTION; ② CAUSING OR CHANGING; ③ CREATING OR PRODUCING; ④ LINK VERB USES; ⑤ ACHIEVING OR REACHING; ⑥ STATING AN AMOUNT OR TIME and ⑦ PHRASAL VERBS. Six sections in *COBUILD*[3] may be not enough since there are fifteen sections in *LDCE*[3]. Nonetheless, they are still helpful. We wonder why the lexicographers of the third edition do not offer more menus like the one in **make**. We hope that the next edition gives a much larger number of menus that are sense based. The menus should be more detailed with many sense sections. Hopefully, there also should be something like signposts. They can help learners easily access the wanted information for each longer entry.[24)]

4.3.1.5. The definition styles of *COBUILD* are oriented toward encoding rather than decoding. The *COBUILD*-style definition sentence with typical subjects and objects may be unnecessary for decoding dictionaries because they are contextually evident. Many learners' dictionaries like *OALD*[6] and *LDCE*[3] do not offer usually these pieces of information for this reason. Instead, they give more entries, finely divided sense distinctions, etc. If the editors of *COBUILD* are thinking of increasing the number of headwords and definitions by shortening the definition paragraphs, or by reducing the amount of information, *COBUILD* will look more like a conventional dictionary. (Masuda)

5. Examples

5.1. Overview

5.1.1. Aims of the revision of examples in the new edition

The Introduction to the dictionary does not a give full explanation of the aims of the revision of examples. It briefly notes on page ix that "For the third edition, we have again used the vast resource of the Bank of English to update many of the definitions and examples in the book . . . "

5.1.1.1. The explanation of Examples on page xiv of the third edition does not differ significantly from the explanation of Examples in the second edition except that it says "there are about 105,000 examples" instead of 100,000 examples in the second edition.

5.1.1.2. Table 1 shows the result of the survey of examples conducted on

the same pages as those of definitions in a similar way (figures in parentheses represent the second edition).

Table 1

	examples	new	deleted	revised	replaced
backrest~backwards	48 (48)	0	0	0	2
burglary~burning	58 (60)	0	2	0	0
comparable~compassionate leave	54 (54)	0	0	1	0
design~delicacy	61 (57)	4	0	0	3
embassy~embroil	56 (55)	1	0	0	3
flint~float	60 (60)	0	0	2	1
H~hack	44 (44)	0	0	1	0
ineradicable~infantile	70 (69)	1	0	0	0
like-minded~limit	71 (71)	0	0	1	1
morale~more	69 (68)	2	1	1	0
overeat~overhaul	54 (54)	0	0	0	1
powerblue~powerline	63 (64)	0	1	0	1
reinforced concrete~rejoinder	44 (38)	6	0	0	0
seduce~see	78 (78)	0	0	0	1
spice~spin	64 (64)	0	0	0	0
teacher~tear	45 (44)	1	0	0	0
undersea~undertake	58 (56)	2	0	1	0
total	997 (984)	17	4	7	13

Table 1 indicates that seventeen examples have been added. New lexical units account for most of the new examples, but there are a few additions. Thirteen examples in the second edition have been replaced with new ones in the third edition. That is, there are thirty new examples in total. The percentage of new examples in the third edition is estimated at about 3%. The percentage of all the changes to examples, including revised or deleted ones added is estimated at about 4%. The changes in the new edition are very small. We can say, therefore, that most problems with examples pointed out in the review of the second edition still remain.[24] For this reason, we concentrate our survey on the examples that have been replaced with older ones and those that have undergone changes. For problems with examples, see Masuda *et al.* (1997: 48–53)

5.1.1.3. In the second edition, all the examples in the first edition were replaced with new ones. The reason for the replacement is explained on the page xxii of the Example section of the Guide to the Dictionary Entries of the second edition:

> Because this is a completely new edition of the dictionary, we have chosen examples which we have never used before in any of our dictionaries or other reference books. This makes the dictionary a valuable resource for both students and teachers . . .

Apparently, a different policy on examples has been adopted in the third edition. Most examples used in the second edition are used again in the new edition. Using the same examples causes some problems which we will discuss later.

5.2. Examples added and deleted

5.2.1. New examples

As we have mentioned, new lexical units incorporated in the third edition account for most of the new examples. Here are some of them.

delayed action: *For all we know, there may be delayed action bombs in the dam. . . . a type of delayed-action parachute.*

deliberative: *. . . a deliberative chamber like the House of Commons.*

reinvent: 1 *They have tried to reinvent their retail stores. He was determined to reinvent himself as a poet and writer.* 2 *Some of these ideas are worth pursuing, but there is no need to reinvent the wheel.*

reinvention (nested in reinvent): *. . . a reinvention of the styles of the 1940s.*

5.2.2. Deleted examples

A few examples in the second edition have been deleted. For example, **Burmese** had two example phrases, but in the third edition, there is no example. Two example phrases of **mordant** have been reduced to one in the third edition.

Burmese

COBUILD[2]: **1** *. . . the Burmese ambassador.* **2** *. . . more than 5,200 Bur-*

mese.

COBUILD[3]: no example

mordant

COBUILD[2]: *. . . his mordant wit. . . . a mordant sense of humour.*

COBUILD[3]: *. . . a book in which he discussed with a mordant wit the nasty racism of little middle class English children.*

Loss of examples in place names generally does not affect informational value very much. Advanced learners can easily understand these phrases without consulting a dictionary. Therefore, the deletion is justifiable. Likewise, the reduction of two similar phrases in **mordant** does not cause users any trouble because the example in the third edition is much more informative.

5.3. Changes and replacements in examples

5.3.1. Minor changes

Among the 997 examples surveyed, there are only seven examples that have undergone changes. Moreover, those changes are not very important ones. For instance, one of the examples of the second sense of **compare** in the second edition was "*Some commentators compared his work to that of James Joyce.*" In the third edition the first word, "some" is omitted but the rest remains the same. Similarly, "*She flits from one dance partner to another*" in the second edition (in **flit**) has been changed to "*She flits from one partner to another*" omitting "dance" in the third edition.[26)]

5.3.2. Replaced examples

Thirteen examples have been replaced in the third edition. The reason for the replacement may be that the examples in the second edition were too specific and became outdated.

5.3.2.1. The examples in the following definitions show how they have been changed.

embattled

COBUILD[2]: **2** *The commander of British forces in Bosnia was yesterday stranded close to the embattled town of Zepce.*

COBUILD[3]: [2] *Both sides say they want to try to reach a political settlement in the embattled north and east of the island.*

embody

COBUILD[2]: **2** *Albanian Radio has given details of a new draft constitution which embodies reforms first called for by President Ramiz Alia . . .*

Mr Clinton is outspoken in his support for a multilateral trading system embodied by the GATT.

COBUILD[3]: [2] *UK employment law embodies arbitration and conciliation mechanisms for settling industrial disputes.*

In the British system the executive is supposedly embodied by the Crown and the legislative by Parliament

overhaul

COBUILD[2]: *The win kept alive Becker's challenge to overhaul Stefan Edberg as the world No. 1*

COBUILD[3]: *Argentina need to beat Peru by at least four goals to overhaul Brazil and reach the final itself.*

power

COBUILD[2]: **1** *. . . a power struggle at the top of Albania's ruling Communist Party.*

COBUILD[3]: [1] *. . . a political power struggle between the Liberals and National Party.*

5.3.2.2. We appreciate the efforts to renew the examples in these ways, but authentic examples are very specific by nature. As long as they are authentic examples chosen from the corpus, they will remain specific in terms of names, places, and/or time of events. If the dictionary needs both authentic and the most updated examples, all the examples should be replaced with new ones chosen from the latest collection in the corpus. If lexicographers modify the examples so that they can stand firm and free from the place/event context, they will look like examples invented specifically for the dictionary.

5.4. For improvement

In the new edition, we have estimated that about 4% of the examples have been changed. This may cause some problems because authentic examples are necessarily specific in terms of names and events[27)]; they tend

to become outdated very quickly. In the third edition, outdated examples have been cleverly replaced with ones that are more general. However, we believe that a dictionary that uses authentic examples chosen from the corpus should renew all the examples every time a new edition is published, as it was done in the second edition. The explanation of Examples on page xxii of the second edition says, "This makes the dictionary a valuable resource for both students and teachers, showing how the words have been used in books, newspapers, magazines, broadcasting, and conversation." (Masuda)

6. Usage

In this section, the usage information provided by *COBUILD*[3] will be discussed. By "usage information" we mean the information about any limitations on the use of words or senses with respect to locality, field, style, and so forth. This kind of information is usually given by means of usage labels and usage notes in ordinary dictionaries, but *COBUILD*[3] carries usage notes only rarely, if ever.[28] We will therefore focus our attention on usage labels, which will be dealt with by comparing them diachronically with those in *COBUILD*[2] and synchronically with those in *OALD*[6].

For this discussion, the present author checked all the usage labels in ninety pages in total (the first thirty pages of **A**, **L**, and **W** sections), which account for approximately five percent of the whole A-Z pages of the dictionary. What follows is based on the findings derived from the examination of the usage information in the ninety pages.

6.1. The presentation of usage information

The way *COBUILD*[3] presents usage information differs greatly from that adopted by *COBUILD*[2]. We can locate and understand the information in the former dictionary faster and more easily than that in the latter. In general, as seen in the examples below, the second edition gave it usually at the end, and sometimes at the beginning, of the definition in the form of a phrase[29] as if it were part of the definition, whereas the third edition employs usage labels as other major dictionaries do including

OALD[6], placing them in principle immediately after the definition and before the example(s) if any, in small capitals within square brackets.

affiliation 1

COBUILD[2]: If one group has an **affiliation** with another group, it has a close or official connection with it; a formal use.

COBUILD[3]: If one group has an **affiliation** with another group, it has a close or official connection with it. [FORMAL]

leader 4

COBUILD[2]: In British English, the **leader** of an orchestra is the most senior violin player, who acts as a deputy to the conductor.

COBUILD[3]: The **leader** of an orchestra is the most senior violin player, who acts as a deputy to the conductor. [BRIT]

The usage information in *COBUILD*[3], in comparison with that in *COBUILD*[2], is easily and clearly recognizable as such, and is more user-friendly.

6.2. The usage labels used

COBUILD[2] and *COBUILD*[3] are also very different in the number of usage labels used,[30] the latter having far more than the former. The second edition showed usage information by means of thirteen labels: **American, British, formal, informal, journalism, legal, literary, medical, offensive, old-fashioned, spoken, technical,** and **written.** All of these labels are retained and eight new ones are added in the third edition: COMPUTING, DIALECT, HUMOROUS, MILITARY, RUDE, TRADEMARK, VERY OFFENSIVE, and VERY RUDE. The labels **American** and **British** in the second edition are abbreviated to [AM] and [BRIT] respectively in the third edition, and the usage labels in both editions are often modified by the term "mainly" as in [mainly BRIT], [mainly FORMAL], [mainly SPOKEN], and so forth.[31]

6.3. The validity of the usage labels

6.3.1. Careful consideration should be given to the validity of the usage labels adopted by *COBUILD*[3]. In order to do it, that is, to examine whether necessary labels are lacking, whether unnecessary ones are included, and whether there are any problematic labels, we will begin by seeing what types of labels *COBUILD*[3] has. Usage labels that often appear in various kinds of dictionaries can be classified into seven categories: locality, currency, temporality, field, medium, style, and status labels.[32] The following table indicates how *COBUILD*[3] classifies label types.[33]

Table 1

types of labels	individual labels
locality	AM*, BRIT*; DIALECT
currency	
temporality	OLD-FASHIONED*
field	COMPUTING, JOURNALISM*, LEGAL*, MEDICAL*, MILITARY; TECHNICAL*
medium	SPOKEN*, WRITTEN*
style	FORMAL*, HUMOROUS, INFORMAL*, LITERARY*, OFFENSIVE*, RUDE, TRADEMARK, VERY OFFENSIVE, VERY RUDE
status	

6.3.2. We will now check the types of usage labels and the individual labels belonging to them in terms of their validity. First of all, a glance at the table above may make us wonder why currency and status labels are not employed. In the case of ESL dictionaries like *COBUILD*[3], the labels such as "nonstandard" showing the status of words or senses are not necessary. The users of such dictionaries, who are learning English as nonnative speakers, hope to get a working knowledge of standard English, and they do not have to know about nonstandard usage. Moreover, we can expect that native speakers, when communicating with them, usually take care not to use nonstandard English. ESL dictionaries, therefore, would

do better to exclude words and senses to which status labels have to be attached.

The absence of currency labels like "rare" in *COBUILD*[3], which are employed in *OALD*[6], can also be fully justified. The inclusion or exclusion of the labels indicating currency depends on the ESL-dictionary editor's attitude toward rarely used words or senses. On the one hand, native speakers of English do use them even if the frequency of their use is low, because they are part of standard English. If the editor judges that foreign learners should know them as receivers of messages even though they do not use them themselves, then the inclusion of currecy labels makes sense. On the other hand, foreign-born ESL learners can expect native speakers to employ more frequently used words, and so do not have to bother to remember words or senses with a low frequency. If the editor thinks that way, the exclusion of the labels indicating currency from his or her dictionary is just as reasonable. It follows therefore that the two different approaches, that is, the presence of currency labels as in *OALD*[6] and their absence as in *COBUILD*[3], are both justifiable in the case of ESL dictionaries.

6.3.3. As to the locality labels in *COBUILD*[3],[34] [DIALECT], which was absent in the second edition and which is employed in *OALD*[6] as well, seems to be a little problematic, or at least not so helpful to ESL learners. The other two locality labels, [AM] and [BRIT], which indicate national variation, are highly important to them in that the United States and the United Kingdom are the most influential of the English-speaking countries, and so the knowledge of words or senses used (almost) exclusively by either of the two nations is not at all useless. However, the label [DIALECT] hardly means anything except that a word or sense with the label is not commonly used everywhere in the English-speaking world. Therefore, few foreign learners of English would find it necessary or useful for ESL dictionaries to enter dialectal words or senses. Those ESL learners to whom they are indispensable must have a high level of English proficiency and should be ready to consult a general monolingual dictionary intended for native speakers. For ESL dictionaries, it would be better to use the space in order to provide the readers with more important information,

instead of entering dialectal usage. Fortunately or unfortunately, as the front matter of *COBUILD*[3] (p. xi) states that "Dialect words are seldom featured," no words or senses with the label [DIALECT] can in fact be found in the ninety pages mentioned at the beginning of this section.

In passing, a comment must be made on the treatment of American Enlgish by *COBUILD*[3]. Although the second edition focused on British English as its front matter (p. xx) stated, that in the third edition (p. xi) asserts with pride that "the coverage of American English has been greatly extended." We will verify at this point whether or not the third edition's assertion is true. First, in the ninety pages of *COBUILD*[3] mentioned earlier, we can find twenty-two new words and senses labeled either [AM] or [BRIT] which were not entered in *COBUILD*[2]. Of these, fifteen items have the label [AM], while the number of those labeled [BRIT] is only seven, which is less than a half. Second, there were, in the second edition, many instances in which a British word or sense was entered without its American equivalent although there is one. In the third edition, however, when a British word or sense is entered, its American equivalent is given, if there is one, in the ticked box.[35] Judging from these two facts together with others we will not go into here, it can be said for certain that *COBUILD*[3] has the right to claim that it has put far more emphasis on American English than the second edition.

6.3.4. *COBUILD*[3] as well as *COBUILD*[2] employs [OLD-FASHIONED] as a temporality label. There is nothing wrong with it; in fact, it is necessary for an ESL dictionary to provide foreign learners with information about old-fashioned words and senses. Although they tend to be used mainly by older people and youngsters may seldom use them, ESL learners as recipients of messages can derive great benefit from the knowledge of them.

OALD[6] uses as temporality labels not only "old-fashioned," but it also employs "old use" which indicates that words or senses with the label are no longer used in contemporary English. The present author is of the opinion that an ESL dictionary does not have to enter obsolete expressions, which we may come across only in literature written before the twentieth century. No foreign learners with excellent English ability who

want to read a nineteenth-century novel would ever try to consult an ESL dictionary instead of one for native speakers. Thus, the COBUILD dictionaries' attitude toward temporality labels, that is, the adoption of the label [OLD-FASHIONED] alone, may be more reasonable than that of *OALD*[6].

6.3.5. The field labels in *COBUILD*[3] seem to be very problematic, firstly because of their unsystematic presentation, secondly because the amount of information conveyed has been decreased in some cases compared with *COBUILD*[2], and thirdly because the field label [TECHNICAL] does not mean much or it is too vague. While *COBUILD*[3], by comparison with the second edition, has a highly systematized method of providing usage information on the whole, there is much room left for improvement in the presentation of information on specialized fields. It employs at least three ways of doing it as the following examples show.

accrue 1
If money or interest **accrues**, it gradually increases in amount over a period of time. [TECHNICAL]

account 2
In business, a regular customer of a company can be referred to as an **account**, especially when the customer is another company.

acquirer
In business, an **acquirer** is a company or person who buys another company. [TECHNICAL]

In the first example, the field label alone is given after the definition; in the second, the labeling phrase alone is placed at the beginning of the definition; and in the third, both of them are applied. This seems to be too unsystematic and some kind of consistency may be desired.

Another problem in the presentation by *COBUILD*[3] of information about field is that we can find some instances where the second edition gave us more information than the third does, as the following examples show.

wadi

COBUILD[2]: A **wadi** is a river in North Africa and Arabia which is dry except in the rainy season; a technical term in geography.

COBUILD[3]: A **wadi** is a river in North Africa or Arabia which is dry except in the rainy season. [TECHNICAL]

The second edition provides us with two pieces of information: first that "wadi" is a technical term, and second that it is used in geography, while the third edition gives us only one of them. Such decrease in useful information would be detrimental at least to some extent to the benefit of dictionary users.

A third problem with the field labels in *COBUILD*[3] is the label [TECHNICAL]. It is too generic to tell us much about a word or sense with it except that it is not usually used in our daily lives. The present author's proposal is that the dictionary give up applying the label [TECHNICAL] all together, and that it adopt, as *OALD*[6] does,[36] many more relevant labels designating a variety of specific specialized fields, if necessary, in addition to [COMPUTING], [LEGAL], [MEDICAL], [JOURNALISM], and [MILITARY] which are already employed.[37] If this proposal is accepted, we will be able to solve the two other problems as well that were aforementioned.

6.3.6. Our next topic for discussion is the style labels in the third edition. Since many different labels belong to this type, we will pick out only the important ones and give them careful consideration. First of all, let us think about the absence of a style label "slang" in *COBUILD*[3]. The two labels, [FORMAL] and [INFORMAL], which are indispensable to foreigners in the process of learning English, can be grouped together to constitute a subcategory relating to formality, to which often belongs another label "slang" in some other ESL dictionaries including *OALD*[6]. The fact that *COBUILD*[3] lacks the label would not put the users at any serious disadvantage in that they, as foreign learners of English, are usually advised to avoid slang expressions, and, here again, native speakers would refrain from using them when communicating with them. We can say therefore that an ESL dictionary does not have to contain words and senses to which the label "slang" must be attached.

The treatment by the third edition of insult and taboo expressions may be a little too strict. In the second edition, only one label "**offensive**" was mentioned as describing insult in its front matter, there being none indicating taboo; in *OALD*[6], both insult and taboo expressions are marked with their respective labels. It seems to be necessary for an ESL dictionary to have the labels describing insult and taboo, since foreign learners of English should have the idea of which words and senses are taboo or insulting. In *COBUILD*[3], not only are both kinds of expressions labeled as such, but each of them is grouped into two classes depending on the use or nonuse of the term "very." Thus, the third edition has the labels [OFFENSIVE] and [VERY OFFENSIVE] for insult expressions, and [RUDE] and [VERY RUDE] for taboo words and senses. Although, in theory, the classification of these expressions into two levels is a distinct possibility, yet in practice, it will not be much help to the dictionary users, who tend to think, as learners of English as a second or foreign language, that they have to know more about the language before they can make a minute distinction between simply offensive or rude expressions on the one hand and very offensive or rude ones on the other. As far as insult and taboo labels in ESL dictionaries are concerned, the method adopted by *OALD*[6] of applying one label to insult expressions and another to taboo ones can be considered to be the most appropriate.

6.3.7. The last item we have to consider concerning the validity of usage labels in *COBUILD*[3] is about those describing medium, that is, [SPOKEN] and [WRITTEN]. Although the information on words and senses that are (chiefly) used in either spoken or written language is greatly helpful to ESL learners, the present author is not fully convinced of the validity of the two medium labels employed in the third edition. The front matter gives us some knowledge of the Bank of English on which the dictionary is based: that it consists of four hundred million words; that it is divided into fifteen components, one of which is that for spoken English, within which twenty million words of informal speech are entered; that two-thirds of it consists of media English, that is, newspapers, magazines, radio and TV; and so forth. Nevertheless, it is not certain whether the size of the spoken

component and that of the written component are (about) the same, or whether all the data in the spoken component comes from impromptu, natural speech, that is, whether part at least of the data in it is gotten from scripted language being spoken.[38] If the size of the spoken component is far smaller than that of the written counterpart, there would be a possibility that the reliability of the label [WRITTEN] could be low, that of [SPOKEN] remaining high. It is because expressions that are at first found only or chiefly in the written component may begin to be entered into the spoken component as its size grows larger. And if the data in the spoken component contains a certain amount of scripted speech, which is not actual but believed usage as Quirk and Stein (1990: 244) states, the reliability of the label [SPOKEN] could be low in some cases. The present author thinks it would be better if *COBUILD*[3] had provided its readers with enough information by which to judge the reliability of the labels [SPOKEN] and [WRITTEN] accurately.

6.4. The compound labels used

We will now discuss what might be called compound labels in *COBUILD*[3] by comparing them with those in *COBUILD*[2] and *OALD*[6]. The labels that have been dealt with so far are what we might call single-unit labels, one of the two kinds of dictionary usage labels, the other being compound labels. A single-unit label is one with a single usage label within a pair of square brackets giving us a piece of usage informatin on the relevant word or sense, whereas a compound label is one with more than one usage label within a pair of square brackets providing us as many bits of usage information on the word or sense to which it is attached. Although the majority of labels in *COBUILD*[3] as well as in *COBUILD*[2] and *OALD*[6] are single-unit ones like [BRIT], [FORMAL], and [SPOKEN], compound labels such as [AM, FORMAL] and [INFORMAL, SPOKEN] do appear frequently.[39] In theory, we could work out a compound label like [AM, OLD-FASHIONED, INFORMAL, HUMOROUS, SPOKEN] that consists of as many as five units representing four types of usage information, which would be unreal when practical utility is taken into consideration. Realistically, only two- or at the most three-unit compound labels can serve the practical

purpose. In fact, almost all the compound labels in *COBUILD*[3] as well as *COBUILD*[2] are two-unit ones with a three-unit label [AM, INFORMAL, OFFENSIVE], for instance, appearing as a rare exception in the third edition, while *OALD*[6] applies three-unit labels far more generously though their actual frequency is relatively low. As to the number of compound labels attached to the relevant words or senses as well as that of different combinations of various individual labels to form compound labels, *OALD*[6] has much more of them than the two editions of the COBUILD dictionaries. By far the most common combination of individual labels in the formation of compound labels is that of a locality label and another one from a different type such as [BRIT, WRITTEN] and [AM, INFORMAL] in all the three dictionaries.[40]

6.5. The application of usage labels by *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3]

We will proceed to examine how far *COBUILD*[3] has been revised in terms of the application of usage labels as compared to *COBUILD*[2]. The author counted the words and senses, in the ninety pages mentioned at the beginning of section 6, which satisfy the conditions that they are entered in both *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3], and that single-unit labels which are employed in the second edition as well as the third[41] are attached to them in *COBUILD*[2] and/or *COBUILD*[3]. It was found that their total number is five hundred and forty-eight, of which there are four hundred and eighty-eight cases, that is almost ninety percent, where both editions apply the same label. Of the remainder, that is a little more than ten percent, there are forty-seven instances where only the third edition attaches a label, twelve in which only the second edition applies a label, and one where *COBUILD*[3] gives the label [OLD-FASHIONED] to a sense to which the second edition attaches the label "**literary**." Where the forty-seven label additions in *COBUILD*[3] are concerned, the label [BRIT] heavily outnumbers the others, there being twenty instances of it, followed by eight instances of the label [FORMAL], six instances of the label [SPOKEN], and so forth. Of the twelve label deletions by the third edition, five instances of the label [BRIT], two instances of the labels [TECHNICAL] and [WRITTEN], and so forth can be found.

The main reason for the additions and deletions of labels by *COBUILD*[3] is that the size of the Bank of English on which it is based has doubled since 1995 when the second edition was published,[42] which has made it necessary to revise the application of usage labels. Another, hopefully minor, reason may be that the mistaken omission and attachment of labels in *COBUILD*[2] has been corrected in the third edition. All in all, the fact that the overwhelming majority of labels remain unchanged would be indispensable to the continuity between the two editions of the same dictionary. In fact, a dictionary cannot be dependable which makes too many changes in the application of usage labels each time its new edition appears.

6.6. The reliability of the usage labels applied

Our last topic for discussion in this section is the extent to which the usage labels are reliable that are actually applied to the relevant words, which we will consider by comparing those in *COBUILD*[3] and *OALD*[6]. The author counted the number of monosemous headwords, in the aforementioned ninety pages, which satisfy the conditions that they are entered in both *COBUILD*[3] and *OALD*[6], and that single-unit labels which are adoped in both the dictionaries are applied to them in *COBUILD*[3] and/or *OALD*[6]. The number was found to be two hundred and sixteen in all, of which ninety-eight words, that is approximately forty-five percent of the total, are provided with the same labels in both of the dictionaries. The remaining one hundred and eighteen words can, here too, be classified into three categories: one in which only the words in *COBUILD*[3] have a label, the number of words belonging to this category being twenty-four; another where only the words in *OALD*[6] have a label, the number being seventy-two; and the other in which the two dictionaries apply different labels to the same words, the number being twenty-two. The main items indicating the different attitudes of *COBUILD*[3] and *OALD*[6] toward the application of usage labels are presented in the following table.

Table 2

labels applied		number of words
COBUILD[3]	*OALD*[6]	
FORMAL	no label	11
BRIT	no label	6
OLD-FASHIONED	no label	2
no label	*formal*	21
no label	*BrE*	16
no label	*written*	14
no label	*informal*	9
FORMAL	*technical*	6
WRITTEN	*formal*	4
LITERARY	*formal*	4
FORMAL	*written*	3
LITERARY	*written*	3

The difference in the labeling attitude between the two dictionaries is that they depend on different corpora for the analysis and description of the English language, and that they differ in the criteria by which to attach usage labels to the relevant words. In general, although it is only natural that dictionaries adopt different approaches in their applicaiton of labels, the users are certain to get confused when more than half of the instances are those, as in *COBUILD*[3] and *OALD*[6], where a word or sense in one dictionary has one usage label and that in another dictionary has a different label. In such cases, reliability of dictionaries in terms of usage labels actually attached to the relevant words or senses could be said to be low, as the users are at a loss as to which one to rely on for the accurate information on the style, locality, and so forth of words and senses. A consoling fact about *COBUILD*[3] and *OALD*[6] is that there are no instances where a word is given the label [FORMAL] in one dictionary and *informal* in the other, or [SPOKEN] in one and *written* in the other. (Takano)

7. Grammar

There are no prominent differences between the grammatical notation used in *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3]. The following section gives an

overview of the grammatical information offered in *COBUILD*[3].

7.1. Types of Grammar Information

7.1.1. According to the explanation in the front matter (p. xxv), the types of grammar information in *COBUILD*[3] are: 1) the word class of the word, 2) restrictions or extensions to its behaviour, 3) the patterns that the word most frequently occurs in. The word class is printed in upper case, the structure pattern is printed in a combination of upper and lower case, and the restrictions and extensions are printed in lower case. The word is printed in italics when used within a pattern. A slash is used to separate alternatives.

The patterns are given immediately after the word class for all word classes except verbs. The verb patterns are given next to the examples and in the same order as the examples. The grammar information is printed in the extra column.

In short, the types of grammar information and grammar notation in *COBUILD*[3] is almost the same as those in *COBUILD*[2].

7.1.2. The notations used for 'word classes' and 'words and abbreviations used in patterns' in *COBUILD*[3] are exactly the same as those in *COBUILD*[2]. On this bases we can surmise that the lexicographers in charge of grammar information in the COBUILD project considered the grammar notation system employed in *COBUILD*[2] efficient in denoting the language facts.

In fact, the grammar notation system in *COBUILD*[2] was highly evaluated in some of the critiques that analyzed and compared the presentation of grammar information in *COBUILD*[2] with that in the other learner's dictionaries published in the memorable year 1995 (cf. Bogaards 1996, Herbst 1996, Aarts 1999).

7.2. Presentation of Structural Patterns

7.2.1. In the process of analyzing the corpus data for the compilation of *COBUILD*[1], editors observed that almost every word sense seemed to be associated with a certain structural pattern (Sinclair 1987: 109). This helped the editors sort out structural patterns to be featured for certain

word senses.

One of the criticisms of *COBUILD*[1] was the arrangement of the examples, which were not given in the same order as the patterns in the extra column. In *COBUILD*[2], the examples and their corresponding patterns were presented in the same order, although some small slips remained (cf. Masuda *et al.* 1997: 52, Herbst 1996: 332, Aarts 1999: 20).

7.2.2. The presentation of verb patterns in the extra column was even further improved in *COBUILD*[3]. In this edition, the patterns are not only given in the same order as the examples but are shown next to the corresponding examples. Compare the first sense of the verb **believe** in *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3]:

believe /bɪliːv/ **believes, believing, believed** ◆◆◆◆◆

1 If you **believe** that something is true, you think that it is true; a formal use. You can say **'I believe'** to indicate that you are not completely sure that what you are saying is accurate or to make a statement sound more factual and less emotional. *Experts believe that the coming drought will be extensive... I believe you have something of mine... The main problem, I believe, lies elsewhere... We believe them to be hidden here in this apartment... 'You've never heard of him?'—'I don't believe so.'*

VERB
=think
V that
V n to-inf
V so/not
Also V n adj

Fig. 1 The excerpt of the entry for **believe 1** in *COBUILD*[2]

believe /bɪliːv/ **(believes, believing, believed)** ◆◆◆◆◆

1 If you **believe** that something is true, you think that it is true, but you are not sure. [FORMAL] ❑ *Experts believe that the coming drought will be extensive... I believe you have something of mine... The main problem, I believe, lies elsewhere... We believe them to be hidden here in this apartment... 'You've never heard of him?'—'I don't believe so.'*

VERB
= think
V that
V n to-inf
V so/not
Also V n adj

Fig. 2 The excerpt of the entry for **believe 2** in *COBUILD*[3]

The example sentences are exactly the same in both *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3]. The patterns are shown in four lines for this sense in both editions. However, we notice that there are two lines skipped between the pattern *V that* and *V n to-inf* in *COBUILD*[3], while there is no such gap in *COBUILD*[2]. The editors added this gap so that the pattern could be

placed alongside the corresponding example. In order to show the pattern *V n to-inf* next to the example sentence 'We believe them to be hidden here in this apartment', the two lines that show the example sentences with the pattern *V that* were left blank.

This device is an innovation newly introduced in *COBUILD*[3], and there is no question that this helps users understand more clearly.

7.3. Verb Codes in *COBUILD*[3]

7.3.1. Aarts (1999) pointed out that the verb codes in *OALD*[5] and *COBUILD*[2] were virtually the same (p. 29). She selected 22 verbs and compared their structural patterns between the following pairs: *OALD*[4] and *OALD*[5]; *LDOCE*[2] and *LDOCE*[3]; *COBUILD*[1] and *COBUILD*[2]. She also listed the verb codes shown in *CIDE*, but she made no comparisons with *CIDE* since only the first edition has been published.

7.3.2. The change of verb codes from *COBUILD*[1] to *COBUILD*[2] was quite drastic. The codes using function labels were all replaced with the codes using category labels. This change of codes made the codes in *COBUILD*[2] much more explicit and hence much easier for readers to decipher. Mnemonic codes for verb patterns were first devised in *OALD*[4], and in the following edition they were revised and became even more explicit. The verb codes of *COBUILD*[2] are similar to those in *OALD*[5], since both dictionaries use category labels.

7.3.3. A new edition of *OALD* was published in 2000. In a critique that analyzes *OALD*[6] from various perspectives (Akasu *et al.* 2001), the verb codes of *OALD*[5] are compared with those of *OALD*[6]. Although there are some changes between the two editions, the codes themselves are almost the same. Therefore, we decided to compare the verb codes of *OALD*[6] and *COBUILD*[3], using the same method employed by Aarts (1999):

Table The major verb codes in *OALD*[6] and *COBUILD*[3] —— a comparison following Aarts's method

	OALD[6]	*COBUILD*[3]
Copular		
1. become angry/president	V-ADJ, V-N	V adj; V n
Intransitive		
2. faint	V	V
Monotransitive		
3. admire sb/sth	VN	V n
4. believe (that ...)	V (**that**)	V that
5. doubt (whether sth is true)	V **wh-**	V whether
6. wonder (what to do)	V **wh-**	V wh
7. refuse (to leave)	V **to** inf	V to-inf
8. enjoy (singing)	V **-ing**	V n/ing
9. want (sb to do sth)	VN **to** inf	V n to-inf
10. hate (sb doing sth)	VN **-ing**	V n -ing
Ditransitive		
11. send (sb sth)	VNN	V n n
12. teach (sth to sb)	VN	V n *to* n
13. promise (sb that ...)	VN (that)	V n that
14. ask (sb whether...)	V **wh-**	V n wh
15. show (sb how to...)	V **wh-**	V n wh
16. advise (sb to do sth)	VN **to** inf	V n to-inf
Complex transitive		
17. drive (sb mad)	VN-ADJ	V n adj
18. elect (sb chairman)	VN-N	V n n
19. know (sb to be a liar)	VN **to** inf	V n to-inf
20. make (sb do sth)	VN inf	V n inf
21. set (sb thinking)	VN **-ing**	V n -ing
22. get (sth repaired)	VN-ADJ	V n -ed

Although there is a difference in use of capital letters and small letters the table above shows that the verb codes in the two dictionaries are virtually the same.

7.4. Abbreviations of Word Classes

7.4.1. The abbreviations in the special entries of *COBUILD*[1] were newly devised at the behest of the editor in chief, who lamented that there was a "lack of an adequate terminology for talking about language" due to "the demise of traditional grammar" (Sinclair 1987: 105).

7.4.2. The abbreviations used for grammar notations were revised and increased in number in the following edition. Although the abbreviations are explicit, some lexicographers pointed out that the users might still find it difficult to interpret the abbreviation in *COBUILD*[2] (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 59f., Aarts 1999: 23).

7.4.3. Despite the problem indicated above, *COBUILD*[3] uses the same abbreviations for the 74 "word classes" it defines. The "words and abbreviations used in patterns" are also the same as those used in *COBUILD*[2]. According to the list in the front matter, there are 56 such words and abbreviations in *COBUILD*[3] (p. xxiv).

This suggests that the editors of *COBUILD*[3] were confident that, the grammatical codes used in *COBUILD*[3] would provide much richer grammatical information than those used in other learner's dictionaries, once the users got accustomed to them.

7.4.4. *COBUILD*[1] was the first learner's dictionary to present the definitions in full sentences. The innovation is handed down to *COBUILD*[3], and helps to provide the users with additional grammatical information on entry words such as collocations.

According to the explanation in the front matter (p. xviii), the definitions in *COBUILD*[3] explain the words as they occur in their typical grammatical structure or structures. In other words, as Herbst comments in his analysis of *COBUILD*[2], the definitions themselves serve as generalized example sentences illustrating the words that they explain (Herbst 1996: 326). Herbst was writing about the definitions in *COBUILD*[2], but the statement also holds true for those in *COBUILD*[3], as the definitions in the two editions are largely the same.

Therefore, the grammatical codes in the extra column are supported not only by the examples but also by the sentence definitions themselves, which illustrate the structural patterns of the words (op. cit. p. 332).

The lucidity of the sentence definitions in *COBUILD*[3] compensate for the intricacy of its grammar notation. (Takahashi)

8. Pragmatics

In the previous installment, Masuda *et al.* (1997) pointed out that *COBUILD*[2] uses a PRAGMATICS label in the extra column to indicate that a given word sense implies pragmatic information. *COBUILD*[3] also points out word senses that imply pragmatic information using special labels in the extra column, although the labels have undergone drastic modification.

8.1. Pragmatic Information in *COBUILD*[2]

Before examining the pragmatic information in *COBUILD*[3], we will briefly review how pragmatic information is presented in *COBUILD*[2].

8.1.1. In its front matter, *COBUILD*[2] offers the following explanation on its method for indicating pragmatic information (p. xxxiv):

> For every word sense where there is pragmatic information which is important for correct use, we
> (a) show this in the extra column with the word PRAGMATICS and
> (b) include additional information in the definition about how, when, and why the word or expression is used.

8.1.2. *COBUILD*[2] classifies pragmatic information into six types according to its functions. They are: (1) *Functions*, (2) *Discourse organizers*, (3) *Speaker/hearer relationship*, (4) *Attitudes and feelings*, (5) *Emphasis* and (6) *Expressing certainty and uncertainty*.

8.1.3. The PRAGMATICS label is used to indicate all of the six information types listed above. Therefore, the label only denotes the existence of pragmatic information implied in the given word sense; the type of the information becomes clear only when the dictionary user reads through the definition of the word sense in question.

This was an inconvenience that the users of *COBUILD*[2] had to put up

with, and the new edition of the dictionary attempted to overcome this disadvantage.

8.2. The Number of Pragmatic Labels in *COBUILD*³

8.2.1. In the last installment, Masuda *et al.* (1997) estimated that there were approximately 4,300 pragmatic labels in *COBUILD*², or 2.2 labels per page.

The number of pragmatic labels in *COBUILD*³ was estimated in a similar way. The survey was conducted using a sample of 182 pages (about 10% of the dictionary pages). According to the survey count, there were 2.7 pragmatic labels per page in the third edition. This means that there are about 4,925 pragmatic labels in *COBUILD*³.

8.2.2. The above figures show that there is an approximately 14% increase in the number of pragmatic labels in *COBUILD*³.

8.3. The Types of Pragmatic Information in *COBUILD*³

8.3.1. *COBUILD*² used the PRAGMATICS label to indicate six information types that the given word senses implied. However, this practice burdened the dictionary users with some inconvenience, as discussed in **8.1.3.**

8.3.2. *COBUILD*³ tried to overcome this difficulty by reorganizing the classification of pragmatic information.

*COBUILD*³ classified the pragmatic information into six categories according to its functions: (1) *Attitudes* (*approval / disapproval*), (2) *Emphasis*, (3) *Feelings*, (4) *Formulae*, (5) *Politeness* and (6) *Vagueness*.

*COBUILD*³ does not use the label PRAGMATICS for all of the information types; instead, the function of each information category is used as a label. Thus, the name of the information category is abbreviated so that it can fit into the extra column.

The pragmatic labels themselves have become self-explanatory and easy to understand; the users no longer need to refer to the definition in order to decide which type of pragmatic information the label in question designates.

8.3.3. Following are summaries of the meanings of the pragmatic labels in *COBUILD*³, based on the explanation given in the front matter (p. xxii-xxiii):

(1) *Attitudes*

Two labels come under this information type: approval and disapproval. These labels are assigned to words and expressions that express the attitude of the speaker or writer towards the person or thing chosen as a topic: e.g. **broadminded** approval, **busybody** disapproval

(2) *Emphasis*

This label is used to indicate that the given word or expression emphasizes the point that the speaker or writer is making: e.g. **breathtaking**

(3) *Feelings*

This label indicates the feelings of the speaker or writer about something, or towards someone: e.g. **blimey, babe**

(4) *Formulae*

This label is assigned to words and expressions that are rather fixed and used on particular occasions, such as greetings or apologies: e.g. **sorry, bon voyage**

(5) *Politeness*

This label is used to indicate that the given words and phrases are used as polite or even euphemistic expressions: e.g. **elderly**

(6) *Vagueness*

This label is assigned to words and expressions that are used to indicate how certain the speaker or writer is about the truth or validity of his or her statements. This type of pragmatic information is called 'hedging' or 'modality' in conventional grammar: e.g. **presumably**

8.4. The Comparison of Pragmatic Labels in *COBUILD*² and *COBUILD*³

In the front matter of *COBUILD*² (p. xxxiv-xxxvii), each function type of the pragmatic information is explained using corresponding examples. In the next section, we will look up the example word senses given for each function type in *COBUILD*² to see how they are labeled in *COBUILD*³.

8.4.1. Functions

8.4.1.1. Firstly, the words that are used in order to get someone do something are considered to have this pragmatic function in *COBUILD*[2]; for example, words used in cases of orders, persuasion, or advice. The words **suppose** and **advise** are given as examples. Following are the entries for these two words in *COBUILD*[3]:[43)]

> **suppose**: 7 You can use **'do you suppose'** as a polite way of suggesting or requesting that someone does something politeness
>
> **advise**: 4 If an official document states that you **are advised** to do something, it is telling you the correct or appropriate thing to do. ϕ[44)]

As shown in the seventh word sense of **suppose**, the label is given as politeness in *COBUILD*[3]. This label is explicit and the user can see that the phrase is used as a polite expression at the first glance. On the other hand, in the entry for **advise**, the pragmatic label is no longer assigned to the phrase. The reason for this is unclear.

8.4.1.2. Secondly, this type of pragmatic information comprises words that express feelings. An example given in *COBUILD*[2] is the word **hate**. *COBUILD*[3] gives the following corresponding entry for the word:

> **hate**: 3 You can use **hate** in expressions such as **'I hate to trouble you'** or **'I hate to bother you'** when you are apologizing to someone for interrupting them or asking them to do something. politeness

In the above example, the label politeness is attached to the entry. This label enables the users to understand clearly that the verb **hate** is used as a part of a polite expression.

8.4.1.3. Thirdly, a response to a request or question also comes under this function type. An example provided in *COBUILD*[2] is the verb **ask**. We find the following entry in *COBUILD*[3]:

> **ask**: 9 You reply **'don't ask me'** when you do not know the answer to a question, usually when you are annoyed or surprised that you have been asked. feelings

In this case, the label feelings is attached to the entry.

We can see from above that although the example word senses were once classified into the same pragmatic information category, they are classified rather differently in *COBUILD*[3].

8.4.2. Discourse Organizers

According to the explanation in *COBUILD*[2], discourse organizers are "words and phrases which help to organize speech or writing so that it is easy for hearers or readers to understand" (p. xxxv). The examples given are the words **story** and **happen**. The following are their entries in *COBUILD*[3]:

> **story**: 9 In British English, you use **to cut a long story short** to indicate that you are going to state the final result of an event and not give any more details. In American English, you say **to make a long story short**. ϕ
>
> **happen**: 5 You use **as it happens** in order to introduce a statement, especially one that is rather surprising. ϕ

There are no labels assigned to the above two entries. This suggests that a function type corresponding to *discourse organizers* does not exist in *COBUILD*[3]. The other examples of *discourse organizers* referred to in the last installment (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 65) also appear without pragmatic labels in *COBUILD*[3]. See the phrases **added to this** and **added to that** in the entry for **add** and **bring** 11 .

8.4.3. Speaker / hearer Relationship

This is a function of the category that comprises words and phrases that "are chosen by a speaker because of the relationship or feelings they have

towards the person they are speaking to" (p. xxxvi). The example given is the word **son**. *COBUILD*³ gives the following entry:

son: 3 Some people use **son** as a form of address when they are showing kindness or affection to a boy or a man who is younger than them. feelings

The labels for the words that were judged to have this function in *COBUILD*² vary in *COBUILD*³. The following are other vocatives (with their labels in the parentheses): **dad** (*COB*² ϕ; *COB*³ ϕ), **mom** (*COB*² ϕ; *COB*³ ϕ), **darling** (*COB*² PRAGMATICS; *COB*³ feelings), **sir** (*COB*² PRAGMATICS; *COB*³ politeness), **madam** (*COB*² PRAGMATICS; *COB*³ politeness), **mate** (*COB*² ϕ; *COB*³ ϕ).

8.4.4. Attitudes and Feelings

Although there is the word 'feelings' in the name of this pragmatic category, entries that are regarded to have this function are defined as words and expressions that are used "to express your attitude to the person or thing that you are talking about" (p. xxxvi). According to the explanation in *COBUILD*², words that express *feelings* belong to the type mentioned in 8.4.1.2.

Two adjectives are given as examples for this type in *COBUILD*²: **plain-spoken** and **pig-headed.** The following are the corresponding entries in *COBUILD*³.

plain-spoken: If you say that someone is **plain-spoken**, you mean that they say exactly what they think, even when they know that what they say may not please other people approval

pig-headed: If you describe someone as **pig-headed**, you are critical of them because they refuse to change their mind about things, and you think they are unreasonable disapproval

One of the improved features of *COBUILD*³ is that it marks words that show attitudes with the labels approval / disapproval. With the aid of these two labels, the users immediately know that the word in question not only expresses attitudes of speakers or writers, but also whether their attitudes towards someone or something are positive or negative.

8.4.5. Emphasis

The words and expressions considered to have this pragmatic function are used to emphasize the point that the speaker or the writer is making. The examples given for this category in *COBUILD*² are **scot-free** and **fact**. *COBUILD*³ gives the following entries:

scot-free: If you say that someone got away **scot-free**, you are emphasizing that they escaped punishment for something that you believe they should have been punished for emphasis

fact: 10 You say **the fact remains** that something is the case when you want to emphasize that the situation must be accepted emphasis

This function type is the only one used in both *COBUILD*² and *COBUILD*³. It seems that the label emphasis is assigned to all entries whose definition contains the verb 'to emphasize' in *COBUILD*³.

8.4.6. Expressing Certainty and Uncertainty

This is a pragmatic function of the category that comprises words and expressions that "allow speakers and writers to show how certain they are about the truth or validity of their statements" (p. xxxvii). The examples for this type are **guess** and **actuality**. Following are their entries in *COBUILD*³:

guess: 6 You say **I guess** to show that you are slightly uncertain or reluctant about what you are saying vagueness

actuality: 1 You can use **in actuality** to emphasize that what you are saying is true, when it contradicts or contrasts with what you have previously said. emphasis

The name of this function type seems to have been changed to *vagueness* in *COBUILD*³. Referring to other examples, it seems that most of the words and phrases judged to have this pragmatic function in *COBUILD*² are labeled vagueness in *COBUILD*³. There are examples such as **apparently, maybe** 1**, probably** and **suppose** 3.

8.4.7. Summing-up

*COBUILD*² and *COBUILD*³ both use the same number of function types for pragmatic information. The function types themselves, however, are rather different in the two editions.

*COBUILD*² explains the functions of pragmatic information in considerable length and with some ambiguity. For example, in the case of '*attitudes and feelings*,' the words and expressions regarded to have this function do not include words and expressions that denote the speaker's feelings.

Contrary to the function types for pragmatic information in *COBUILD*², the names of function types in *COBUILD*³ are succinct and self-explanatory. For example, the function type '*expressing certainty and uncertainty*' is called '*vagueness*' in *COBUILD*³.

Using succinct names for pragmatic labels is indispensable for *COBUILD*³, since it adopts the new principle of presenting explicit pragmatic labels in the extra column. This saves the users from having to decide on their own what kind of pragmatic information is implied in a given word sense.

There are three function types newly introduced in *COBUILD*³: '*formulae*,' '*feelings*' and '*politeness*.' A function type that is common in both *COBUILD*² and *COBUILD*³ is '*emphasis*.' On the other hand, three function types in *COBUILD*² are completely done away with in *COBUILD*³, namely: '*functions*', '*discourse organizers*' and '*speaker / hearer relationship*.'

8.5. Presentation of Pragmatic Information in *COBUILD*³

8.5.1. Use of Semicolons

Masuda *et al.* (1997) argued in the last installment that it is convenient to enclose pragmatic information in parentheses to distinguish it from the word definition. In fact, this method has been applied in various dictionaries, the latest example being *OALD*⁶. *COBUILD*², however, does not adopt this convention. Instead, it uses a semicolon to separate the pragmatic information from the word definition, especially when the pragmatic information had something to do with "the speaker's view point" (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 67). It may be worth checking whether the use of semicolons changed in *COBUILD*³.

8.5.1.1. In *COBUILD*³, there are cases where pragmatic information after a semicolon is omitted. As *COBUILD*³ uses self-explanatory pragmatic labels, the pragmatic information after a semicolon becomes redundant. Take the adjective **balanced** as an example:

***COBUILD*²**: 3 Someone who is **balanced** remains calm and thinks clearly, even in a difficult situation; used showing approval. PRAGMATICS

***COBUILD*³**: 3 Someone who remains calm and thinks clearly, even in a difficult situation. approval

As the above two citations show, the pragmatic information placed after a semicolon in *COBUILD*² (in this case, *used showing approval*) was omitted in the entry for the word in *COBUILD*³. The information after the semicolon became redundant, as the label approval clearly conveys the same meaning as the omitted text. The omission of pragmatic information after a semicolon is most noticeable with the words that have approval or disapproval labels attached. There are also other examples such as **cliché, discerning, narcissism, reasoned,** and **simple-minded.**

8.5.1.2. There are cases, however, where the redundancy is left as it is. This happens when pragmatic information is not placed after a semicolon, but incorporated in the word definition. Take the adjective **stout** as an

example:

COBUILD[2]: **3** If you use **stout** to describe someone's actions, attitudes, or beliefs, you approve of them because they are strong and determined PRAGMATICS

COBUILD[3]: 3 If you use **stout** to describe someone's actions, attitudes, or beliefs, you approve of them because they are strong and determined approval

In this case, the pragmatic implication is conveyed in the phrase "you approve of them" in the definition. In *COBUILD*[2], this phrase plays an important role in conveying the word's positive meaning. In *COBUILD*[3], however, the phrase is redundant in that it restates what is already clearly indicated by the label, namely, that the adjective is used with a positive meaning. There are other examples such as **anarchist** 2, **conceited, plump, rock-solid, timely.**

8.5.1.3. There seems to have been some effort to eliminate this redundancy, for parts of definitions are either omitted or rewritten wherever possible. Take the noun **gall** as an example:

COBUILD[2]: **1** You can use **gall** to refer to someone's behavior when you disapprove of it because it is bold or risky, or does not show enough respect for someone or something PRAGMATICS

COBUILD[3]: 1 If you say that someone has the **gall** to do something, you are criticizing them for behaving in a rude or disrespectful way disapproval

In *COBUILD*[3], the phrase "when you disapprove of it" in the definition is omitted and the whole definition is rewritten so that there is no overlap with the label disapproval. Unfortunately, there do not seem to be many similar cases.

8.5.2. Consistency of Pragmatic Information

In the last installment, Masuda *et al.* (1997) pointed out that there was some inconsistency in the presentation of pragmatic information in *COBUILD*[2]. It was indicated, for instance, that forms of address such as **darling, madam, sonny** and **sir** had pragmatic labels, while words such as **daddy, mummy** and **honey** did not even though they are also used as forms of address (cf. 8.4.3.).

In *COBUILD*[3], the latter three still do not have any pragmatic labels, and we can see that this inconsistency remains unresolved. In this edition, the word **sonny** does not have the pragmatic label attached, either. We have no clear idea why the label was removed.

It was also pointed out in the last installment that while the phrasal verb **push in** had a pragmatic label, there was no pragmatic label for **push around**. The phrasal verb **push around** is still presented without a pragmatic label in *COBUILD*[3].

The last installment also pointed out that the third sense of the adjective **rotten** did not have a pragmatic label. In *COBUILD*[3], it does.

Being consistent in presenting pragmatic information may not be an easy task. The editors of *COBUILD*[3], like the editors of *COBUILD*[2] before them, clearly tried to provide as much pragmatic information as possible, as the importance of learning the pragmatic conventions is emphasized in the front matter of this edition.[45)]

To resolve the inconsistency, lexicographers must carefully check each word sense. As the number of references increases, the task will grow even more laborious.[46)]

8.6. Explanation of Pragmatic Information

The last installment suggested that in *COBUILD*[2], it might have been more appropriate to present the explanations on pragmatic information on special pages similar to the Language Notes in *LDOCE*[2] (Masuda *et al.* 1997: 68).

Reading the explanation of pragmatic information in the front matter of *COBUILD*[3], we notice that the general explanation given in *COBUILD*[3] is almost the same as that given in *COBUILD*[2]. In fact, the only real

difference is the last four lines of the fourth paragraph on page xxii, which are newly added in *COBUILD*[3]. Another minor change is that the verb *to praise* on the fifth line of page xxiii in *COBUILD*[3] used to be the verb *to complain* in *COBUILD*[2].

The whole explanation of pragmatic information in *COBUILD*[3] is just two pages long, including the excerpts from the dictionary entries. There are only one or two lines of explanation for each pragmatic label. To us, this seems rather brief.

It is difficult, for example, to know the criteria or standards used for the pragmatic labeling of each entry. Let's take the words **guess** and **actuality** as examples. The words are classified in the function category '*expressing certainty and uncertainty*' in *COBUILD*[2].[47] Although they belong to the same category in *COBUILD*[2], they are labeled differently in *COBUILD*[3]. These examples were discussed before in **8.4.6.**, but we cite the entries again:

guess: 6 You say **I guess** to show that you are slightly uncertain or reluctant about what you are saying vagueness

actuality: 1 You can use **in actuality** to emphasize that what you are saying is true, when it contradicts or contrasts with what you have previously said emphasis

The function category '*expressing certainty and uncertainty*' apparently seems to have been remodeled into the category '*vagueness*' in *COBUILD*[3]. In fact, the phrase **I guess** is assigned the label vagueness. The phrase **in actuality**, however, is assigned the label emphasis instead of vagueness. It is not difficult to infer why the label emphasis was assigned to this phrase. *COBUILD*[3] has the tendency to label a word [phrase] sense emphasis if the verb "to emphasize" is used in the definition of the word sense. The procedure seems almost automatic.

Even if we take this tendency into consideration, the labeling of the phrase **in actuality** is awkward. As this phrase is often used to denote the speaker's certainty about what he or she is saying, it is natural to assert

that the label vagueness fits the phrase best. It is not clear why the label emphasis has the precedence over the label vagueness. Did the lexicographers in charge of pragmatic information judge that the usage of the phrase to emphasize one's statement is more important than its usage to denote the certainty of one's statement? How was this decision made?

8.7. Tentative Suggestions for Improvement

Following are some tentative suggestions for improvement of pragmatic labels in the future editions of *COBUILD*.

8.7.1. Firstly, it may benefit the users if the future edition of *COBUILD* offers a more detailed explanation of the pragmatic information and its use of pragmatic labels. It would be of use if the criteria for pragmatic labeling were clearly stated.

8.7.2. Secondly, it may be better to consider the possibility of giving more than one pragmatic label to a word sense. The pragmatic information associated with a word sense is not always simple enough to denote with only one pragmatic label. It would be convenient if multiple pragmatic labels were given for a word sense if necessary. For example, if multiple pragmatic labels were allowed, the above-mentioned phrase **in actuality** could have been marked with two labels: vagueness and emphasis. Assigning more than one pragmatic label to a word sense would be beneficial to users, but of course it would also be difficult for the *COBUILD* dictionaries to adopt. *COBUILD* uses its extra column to offer this type of information, thus it has very limited space in which to add the information. One solution would be to put the pragmatic information into inexplicit codes, but this would be less convenient for the users.

8.7.3. Thirdly, the variety of pragmatic labels could be increased to offer more detailed information on pragmatic convention. For instance, it is difficult for non-native speakers to understand figurative expressions in a foreign language. As an example of a figurative expression in English, *OALD*[6] gives the following sentence (See the inside of the front cover of the dictionary):

He didn't want to cast a shadow on their happiness.

In this case, *to cast a shadow* means 'to spoil.' *COBUILD*[3] does not mention this figurative use in its entry for **cast**. It would have been better if it did, and the label such as figurative would have been of use. (Takahashi)

9. Conclusion

9.1. Introduction

We have analyzed *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, Third Edition from seven points of view: headwords and frequency bands; pronunciation; definition; example; usage; grammar; pragmatics. The main points of the analysis are the following.

9.2. Headwords and Frequency Bands

Overall, no fundamental change in terms of headwords, superheadwords, and frequency bands can be found in *COBUILD*[3] in comparison with *COBUILD*[2]. As regards headwords, we greatly appreciate the sensitivity of the new edition to recent developments in information technology, although there still remain problems concerning the treatment of run-ons. The expansion of IT-related words in the entries is definitely an advantage of *COBUILD*[3] over other learners' dictionaries.

The introduction of the menu system for superheadwords can be regarded as an improvement in that the menu will certainly be of much help to users. The decision to employ superheadwords, however, still seems have been made ad hoc. Hopefully, a consistent principle will be introduced in the next edition.

With respect to frequency bands, the expansion of the corpus seems to have resulted in a refinement of frequency information. In light of the problems pointed out above about the frequency rating of this dictionary, however, we have to add that depending blindly on computer-based data does not always give the best results in the realm of dictionary making. Therefore, we must keep in mind that lexicographers' raison d'etre lies in an area where computers fall short.

9.3. Pronunciation

The new edition retains the previous edition's prescriptive principle on

which suggested pronunciations are given. It attempts to give a single pronunciation model for non-native learners to follow, and alternative pronunciations are given only sparingly for RP alone. This is a reasonable choice for a dictionary for non-native learners of English, and this feature, together with the clever use of italicization for vowel reduction and the description of stress shift, makes *COBUILD*[3] a good reference for RP. Although General American pronunciation is given, its description leaves much room for improvement, and we suggest that thorough revision in this respect would make *COBUILD*[3] a better reference for General American.

9.4. Definition

There are no fundamental changes in the structure of definition sentences. They are presented in full sentences in the same way as previous editions: sentences show typical subjects, verb patterns, objects, and collocations. There are a few new definitions, shortened and easier definitions, and improved definitions. Some shorter and easier definitions, however, have lost some parts of their informational value. It is hard to say whether shorter and easier definitions are better than their longer but more informative counterparts. Most of the definition sentences have suffered no change. We believe this is because the lexicographers of *COBUILD*[3] have felt no need for the change. We also consider that definition sentences are very informatively constructed. However, we think that the manner of presentation of the definitions for longer headwords should be improved. Since the new edition has introduced menus for longer headwords, it should be improved so that learners can find the sense subdivisions they want more easily in the next edition. In addition, there should be many more menus.

9.5. Examples

There are no fundamental changes in the way examples are presented. In fact, only a small number of examples has been renewed. The vast majority of them are the same as those in the second edition. Although choosing new examples from the huge corpus takes time and it must be

difficult work, we believe that all the examples should be renewed. Authentic examples chosen from the corpus constitute one of the major features of the *COBUILD* dictionary.

9.6. Usage

The usage information in *COBUILD*[3] is easier to spot than that in *COBUILD*[2], as it is presented in the third edition in small capitals within square brackets, whereas in the second edition it was given in the form of a phrase as if it were part of the definition. The number of different kinds of usage labels has been increased to twenty-one in *COBUILD*[3] from thirteen in the second edition. *COBUILD*[3] has put far more emphasis on American English than the second edition, which focused on British English.

Currency and status labels are not employed in *COBUILD*[3], which is justifiable, as is the lack of a label indicating slang expressions, which other ESL dictionaries often adopt. Labels like [DIALECT] and [TECHNICAL] which are a little too vague, as well as others like [JOURNALISM] and [MILITARY] which are peculiarly technical, do not seem to be very helpful to ESL learners. The labels describing insult and taboo expressions are divided into two levels, but ESL dictionary users may expect them to be simplified. For the medium labels [SPOKEN] and [WRITTEN] to be accurate and significant, the size of spoken and written components in the Bank of English on which *COBUILD*[3] is based should be (relatively) the same, and all the data in the spoken component should consist of natural speech that is not scripted.

As far as the words and senses we have examined are concerned, almost ninety percent of the labels applied by *COBUILD*[2] remain unchanged in the third edition, which is natural because they are two editions of the same dictionary. When a comparison of the application of labels to the relevant monosemous headwords was made between *COBUILD*[3] and *OALD*[6], it was found that in approximately fifty-five percent of instances the two dictionaries attach different labels to the same words, which makes their reliability decrease, since users cannot decide with confidence that the labels applied are reliable.

9.7. Grammar

The grammar notation of *COBUILD*[3] is almost the same as that in *COBUILD*[2], but the verb patterns are arranged differently in the extra column. In *COBUILD*[3], the verb patterns are presented in the same order as the example sentences and also shown next to the corresponding examples.

The verb patterns in *COBUILD*[3] proved to be virtually the same as those in *OALD*[6]. Verb patterns consisting of category labels now seem to be in the mainstream; in fact, *LDOCE*[3] also adopts them.

The grammar codes in *COBUILD*[3] are quite numerous, and this may make them difficult to decipher in spite of their explicitness. However, it may be that the complexity of the grammar notation in *COBUILD*[3] is counterbalanced by the clarity of its sentence definitions.

9.8. Pragmatics

The pragmatics in *COBUILD*[3] may be the only feature that has been drastically changed from *COBUILD*[2]. The number of pragmatic labels has been increased throughout *COBUILD*[3], and a system for labeling word senses using self-explanatory labels has been introduced. Thus, users no longer need to judge by themselves what sort of pragmatic information is implied in the entry.

However, the explanations of the pragmatic information and its system of labeling are rather brief in *COBUILD*[3]. This makes it difficult to grasp the system used for labeling the word senses in the dictionary.

COBUILD dictionaries are unique in having devised pragmatic labels to help users understand the use and meaning of words and expressions. It would be even better if the types of labels were increased and the labeling was made more consistent throughout future editions of *COBUILD*.

NOTES

1) In dictionary analyses, the terminology *main entry* is often used to refer to the individual word forms presented as index of alphabetical word list. In this analysis, however, we will use the term "headword" following the definition by Hartmann (2001).

2) This fluctuating uses/disuses of periods can also be found in prepositions and phrasal verbs.

3) A more serious word-finding problem occurs on the CD-ROM version of this dictionary because users are very unlikely to see the nested adverbs unless they know adverbs are often nested separately from the independent headword of the same word form.

4) On the back cover of the previous edition is written a statement that touts "Coverage of over 75,000 references."

5) Both *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3] include *divorcee*, the headword spelled without the diacritic.

6) The compound *information technology* itself was first adopted in *COBUILD*[2].

7) The triangle means that the word in question is not treated as a headword but is included in the examples under the entry of the prefix *e-*.

8) *LDOCE*[3] has the headword *web*, but it does not cover the sense of *the World Wide Web*.

9) The notational difference concerning the use of capital letters is due to the change referred to in 2.2.2. below.

10) Hartmann (2001: 66) explains external access and internal access as follows:

External access can be achieved by such devices as alphabetic macrostructure (supported by running heads and other guidewords) and separate indexes; internal access can be helped by section marks (such as numbered senses) indicating specific search target sections inside the microstructure.

11) The fourth subsection of *close*, which is used for a proper noun with a capital C, is also treated as the same entry as the other subsections. The same is true of the 6th subsection of *right*, which is used in British titles.

12) For lack of time and perseverance on the part of the author of this section, we have to confine our survey of words in the other bands to the 3-band words beginning with the letter *a*. It turned out that all the 3-band words with the initial *a* in the new edition were also labeled with 3 bands, except for the adjectives for geographical names.

13) In terms of the spoken-written distinction, the frequency information given in *LDOCE*[3] is quite helpful to learners.

14) Although in the introduction to *COBUILD*[2], the word *rope* was also presented as an example of 2-band word, *COBUILD*[3] deleted it from the introduction for an unspecified reason. The headword *rope* still has 2-band frequency in *COBUILD*[3].

15) All the subsections of the superheadword *hold* are given 5 bands in *COBUILD*[3] while, in the previous edition, only the second subsection had 5 bands with all the other subsections labeled 4 bands.

16) See 2.2.3 for the discussion about the problem concerning the *COBUILD*'s treatment of this word as a superheadword.

17) The cardinal number *sixteen* has also been upgraded from band 2 to band 5.

18) As regards the frequency difference between *COBUILD*[3] and *LAAD*, see Dohi et al. (2002: 19).

19) Major problems which Nakamoto pointed out included: (a) the use of uninformative wording in the definitions, (b) inconsistent information on collocations, (c) definitions that did not define, etc. As for (a), he cited the use of "mean" in the definition sentence of ruin: "To ruin something means to severely harm . . . . " The same definition sentence remains in the third edition. We believe that it would be more informative if subjects such as "you" and "the storm" were used. Thus, the defining sentence would be, "If a storm ruins something, it severely harms . "

As for (c), he cited compound headword **hay fever** as an example. The definition sentence in the second edition was, "If someone suffers from hay fever, their nose, throat, and eyes become inflamed, usually because they are allergic to the pollen of some grasses or flowers." The definition lacked the "genus proximum" (Zgusta 1971: 252) In the third edition, the definition has been slightly altered, but the definition style remains the same. "If someone is suffering from hay fever, they sneeze and their eyes itch, because they are allergic to grass or flowers."

20) *CIDE* gives two uncountable and one countable illustrative example for this word without the definition. *MED* gives one uncountable and one countable examples. Both dictionaries seem to support *OALD*[6].

21) Even so, compared with *LDCE*[3] the third edition is much more informative.

LDCE[3]: 2 an unimportant politician

OALD[6]: 2 (disapproving) a person who does the hard and often boring work for an organization, especially a politician

22) *OALD*[6] gives this sense: 11[U] energy that can be collected and used to operate a machine, to make electricity, etc: *nuclear* / *wind* / solar power ◇ engine power

23) Other dictionaries do not list **tea leaf** as a lexical item. *MED* gives the following explanation in **tea**: 1 [uncount] a hot brown drink made by pouring boiling water onto the dried leaves of the tea bush. The leaves are called tea leaves and can be bought in small paper bags called tea bags that are put into a cup or teapot. This definition supports that *tea leaves* are used to make tea.

24) The enrichment of the superheadwords was suggested in the Introduction to the second edition. Although the promise was kept and extended, we don't think the superheadwords are yet satisfactory.

25) Major problems with the examples pointed out by Nakamoto included (a) difficult words, (b) unclear contexts, (c) entries with no examples, etc.

26) We are afraid that the omission of "dance" gives an impression that "she is a promiscuous woman."

27) The same argument has been offered in Landau (2001: 307).

28) *COBUILD*[3] presents a usage note in one of three ways. It is placed either immediately after the definition, in the gray-colored box, or in the ticked box. For the examples of usage notes, see **actor** and **what 7**, **lay** and **well**, **aerodynamics** and **learn**, respectively.

29) From now on till the end of this section, the phrases used in *COBUILD*[2] to show usage information will be called "labels" for convenience' sake.

30) We are dealing here with the labels which are mentioned and explained in the front matter of the two dictionaries.

31) Henceforth, we will not pay attention to the modifying term "mainly."

32) Pyles and Algeo (1970: 128–129) and S.I. Landau (2001: 217–218) classify usage labels into five and eight categories respectively, and *COBUILD*[3] as well as *COBUILD*[2] divides them into only two, that is, "geographical" and "style," but the present author believes it is the best to group them into seven types for our purpose here, although the style labels might be subclassified.

33) The labels with an asterisk are those which appear in *COBUILD*[2] as well as *COBUILD*[3].

34) Although the locality labels mentioned in the front matter of *COBUILD*[3] are only [AM] and [BRIT], the label [DIALECT] somehow being classed as a "style label," others like [AUSTRALIAN], [NORTHERN ENGLISH], and [SCOTTISH] can also be found in the A-Z pages.

35) See **advert 3**, **aerodrome**, **lacquer 2**, **larder**, **wagon 2**, and **weal** for examle.

36) *OALD*[6] uses "chemistry," "finance," "geology," "music," "politics," and "sport," to

name only a few.

37) It would be doubtful whether the last two labels, [JOURNALISM] and [MILITARY], are really necessary for ESL learners.

38) On this point, the introduction to *LDCE*[3] says, "All the recordings used are of natural speech, not radio or TV programmes or language that is in any way scripted."

39) Sometimes we can also find, in all the three dictionaries, what could be called alternative labels like [FORMAL or LEGAL], [OLD-FASHIONED or HUMOROUS], and so forth with the word "or" connecting the two units, instead of a comma which means "and."

40) On a few rare occasions, we can find what might be called complex labels like [AM; also BRIT, INFORMAL] in all three dictionaries which means "the word or sense with the label belongs to American English as a whole and informal British English."

41) When the labeling phrases like "in business" and "technical in business" in the second edition are changed into the label [TECHNICAL] in the third, or "technical in medicine" into [MEDICAL], they are considered here to represent the same usage information.

42) As for the detailed account of the increase in the size of the Bank of English, see the front matter of the two dictionaries.

43) In the quoted entries, the pronunciation, style label, example sentences [phrases], and all notes in the extra column other than the pragmatic labels are omitted. This convention is followed throughout this section.

44) This mark (ϕ) is used to indicate that no labels are provided for a word sense in question.

45) The following is an excerpt from the front matter of *COBUILD*[3] (p. xxii):

> Different languages use different pragmatic strategies. In order to use a language effectively, and be successful in achieving your goals, you need to know what the pragmatic conventions are for that particular language. It is therefore important that learners of English are given as much information as possible about the ways in which English speakers use their language to communicate.

46) According to the back covers of *COBUILD*[2] and *COBUILD*[3], the number of references increased from 75,000 in *COBUILD*[2] to 110,000 in *COBUILD*[3].

47) See p. xxxvii of *COBUILD*[2].

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Quantitative Analysis of English Rhythm Spoken by Japanese Learners
—— Focusing on Vowel Duration ——[1)]

JUNKO SUGIMOTO

1. Introduction

Rhythm plays one of the key roles in a spoken language. When people study the pronunciation of a foreign language, they usually start with the practice of words, mainly focusing on vowels and consonants, and then move on to bigger units such as sentences. Unfortunately, they often do not have enough chances and time to practice the rhythm of the language. However, the acquisition of rhythm should be one of the most crucial goals because the correct rhythm of a language may facilitate the listener's understanding of the messages.

The term rhythm can be defined as the regular recurrence of beats (cf. Couper-Kuhlen 1993). Isochrony is the key notion in the description of speech rhythm. In the study of rhythm, the binary classification between stress-timed rhythm and syllable-timed rhythm is widely known and acknowledged. Abercrombie (1967: 97) stated that every language in the world is spoken with either of the two kinds of rhythm. In stress-timed rhythm, stresses are said to recur isochronously, whereas in syllable-timed rhythm, syllables are said to recur isochronously.

English is recognized as a representative of stress-timed rhythm. In stress-timed rhythm, stresses recur at approximately equal intervals. When a stressed syllable is followed by several unstressed syllables, unstressed syllables will be compressed. On the other hand, when a stressed syllable is directly followed by another stressed syllable, the syllable will be pronounced relatively slowly. The duration of syllables is controlled in

this way so that the isochrony of stresses will be maintained.

In contrast, Japanese belongs to the group of syllable-timed rhythm. Strictly speaking, Japanese is often described as mora-timed rhythm. A mora is a unit that is smaller than a syllable. In mora-timed rhythm, morae recur at approximately equal intervals. In other words, each mora is pronounced with approximately the same duration. Since a mora coincides with a syllable in many cases, mora-timed rhythm can be considered as a subgroup of syllable-timed rhythm.

English and Japanese are described as having different types of rhythm. Many researchers agree and get the impression that rhythm of English and Japanese are different. In the comparison of two languages, however, it is necessary to use an objective criterion rather than relying on impressionistic judgement. Since acoustic instruments such as the sound spectrograph have been available, many researchers have attempted to find physical evidence for the dichotomy of rhythm. They measured inter-stress intervals for stress-timed rhythm, and measured syllable duration for syllable-timed rhythm.

For instance, Roach (1982) measured inter-stress intervals and syllable duration of six languages: three so-called stress-timed rhythm languages, English, Russian, and Arabic, and three so-called syllable-timed rhythm languages, French, Telugu, and Yoruba. Roach's results showed no statistical difference in the inter-stress intervals and syllable duration between stress-timed and syllable-timed rhythm languages. Roach concluded that the distinction between stress-timed and syllable-timed rhythm is based only on auditory and subjective impression.

Dauer (1983) carried out a similar experiment. Dauer measured inter-stress intervals for five languages: English, Thai, Spanish, Italian, and Greek. Among the five languages, English is described as having stress-timed rhythm. However, Dauer's results showed that inter-stress intervals of English were not significantly more isochronous than other languages. Many acoustic studies failed to quantitatively prove the difference between stress-timed and syllable-timed rhythm. Then, where does this difference in rhythm among languages come from?

People are said to have a perceptual tendency towards isochrony. Allen

(1975: 76) discovered that people have a tendency to underestimate the duration of long intervals and overestimate that of short ones in order to balance the intervals and perceive them as isochronous. Similarly, Lehiste (1979) found out that when people listen to speech, they tend to hear stresses as more isochronous than they really are. Because of these reasons, the notion of isochrony is still considered as good evidence for the dichotomy of rhythm. Nevertheless, is it truly impossible to find the physical criterion to describe speech rhythm? There is the need for the method to quantify rhythm of various languages.

2. Pairwise Variability Index

The Pairwise Variability Index (PVI) is one method which makes it possible to compare rhythmic differences across languages objectively. It was devised by researchers at the University of Cambridge. PVI focuses on the difference of duration between adjacent vowels. If adjacent vowels are similar in duration, PVI value will come out small. On the other hand, if the duration of adjacent vowels differs greatly, PVI value will come out large. PVI can be interpreted as "Rhythm Index" because vowel duration is strongly related to rhythm. When a speaker wants to control the duration of a syllable, s/he accomplishes it by controlling the vowel duration. If successive vowels are similar in duration, it suggests that successive syllables are similar in duration. Thus, a smaller PVI value corresponds to syllable-timed rhythm. On the other hand, a larger PVI value corresponds to stress-timed rhythm because the duration of successive vowels tend to vary in order to keep the isochrony of stresses.

A number of studies have been conducted using PVI by the researchers at the University of Cambridge. The first attempt was to compare rhythm between accents of English. Low *et al.* (2000) used PVI to observe the rhythmic difference between British English and Singapore English. Singapore English is said to have syllable-timed rhythm. Low *et al.* prepared two sets of sentences: F set and R set. F set is the sentences whose vowels are all full vowels. On the other hand, R set is the sentences in which a full vowel and a reduced vowel appear alternatively. The important point is that reduced vowels are shorter than full vowels in

English. Low *et al.* (2000)'s results showed that PVI of F set was low for both British and Singapore English, whereas PVI of R set differed between British and Singapore English. PVI of R set was high for British but not for Singapore English, meaning that Singapore English speakers pronounced reduced vowels longer than they should be. This is the reason why Singapore English is perceived as having syllable-timed rhythm. Nolan and Hoshino (2000) compared British English and Caribbean English by using exactly the same procedure. They found out that the R set of Caribbean English showed lower PVI, which confirms that Caribbean English is often perceived as having syllable-timed rhythm.

PVI can be applied not only to the comparison between accents of English but also to the comparison between languages. Grabe *et al.* (1999) compared the acquisition of rhythm between English and French by using PVI. They measured vowel duration of French utterances and calculated PVI. Their results revealed that French has lower PVI than English, which supports the idea that French has syllable-timed rhythm. Results of the three works are summarized in Figure 1 below.

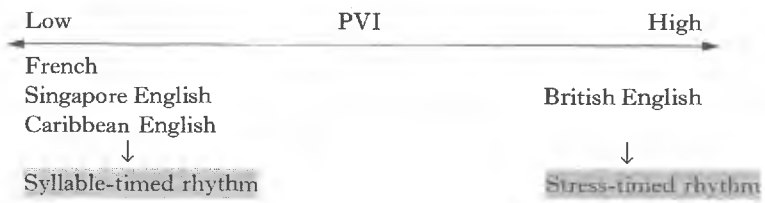

Figure 1 PVI comparison between stress-timed and syllable-timed rhythm

PVI has a number of methodological advantages over the measurement of inter-stress intervals and syllable duration. One of the difficulties in measuring inter-stress intervals is the identification of stresses. Stresses are realized differently among languages. For instance, in English, stresses are realized by the combination of pitch, intensity, and duration. Hearers can only recognize that a specific syllable is stressed by comparing it with other syllables. In addition, although there are some basic rules, the locations of stresses are not fixed in English sentences. Because of these

reasons, the identification of stresses is very difficult.

Syllable boundaries are also difficult to locate. The syllabification rule of a language differs depending on researchers. Even if you agree on the number of syllables and their boundaries on the phonemic level, it is often difficult to locate the boundaries on the phonetic level because there is combination of sounds which is difficult to segment. In the calculation of PVI, the only requirement is the measurement of vowel duration. Unlike stresses or syllable boundaries, vowels are easy to identify. The demarcation of vowels is generally easier and simpler than the demarcation of syllables. It is also relatively easy to control the phonetic contexts of vowels. Most of all, PVI enables us to measure and calculate the rhythm index by using exactly the same criterion for all languages. Therefore, PVI is a very useful method to quantify rhythm of various languages.

In this paper, the same procedure as Low *et al.* (2000) will be used to analyze rhythm of Japanese and English spoken by Japanese learners. The purposes of the experiment are (i) to compare rhythmic differences of Japanese and English by using PVI, and (ii) to investigate the characteristics seen in the rhythm of English spoken by Japanese by comparing it with English spoken by British speakers.

3. Materials and methods

3.1. Sentences used in the experiment

English vowels are divided into two groups: strong vowels and weak vowels. Strong vowels of English include short vowels, long vowels, and diphthongs. Long vowels and diphthongs have longer duration than short vowels when compared in the same phonetic contexts. Weak vowels include /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ as well as /ə/, /i/ and /u/. In contrast, Japanese has only five vowels all of which are short vowels. Thus, English has a wider variety of vowels than Japanese.

As for English sentences used for this experiment, eight sentences were used in total. According to the study by Low *et al.* (2000) done for Singapore English, English sentences were divided into two groups: S set and S-W set[2]. All vowels of the four sentences in S set are strong vowels. On the other hand, the vowels of the four sentences in S-W set were made

of alternations of strong and weak vowels. Each English sentence consisted of eight vowels.

As for Japanese sentences, eight sentences were used. Since Japanese does not have the distinction between strong and weak vowels as English, eight Japanese sentences cannot be divided into subgroups. Each Japanese sentence consisted of twelve vowels. In Japanese, high vowels, /i/ and /u/, are often phonologically devoiced between voiceless consonants. Devoiced vowels are phonetically realized in different ways: they may be devoiced, be shorter in duration, or be completely deleted. Devoiced vowels are usually very difficult to identify and segment. In addition, the degree of vowel devoicing varies according to various factors such as speakers, accents, rate of speech, and style. To avoid such difficulties, the phonetic contexts which induce vowel devoicing were excluded.

For both English and Japanese, grammatically and semantically simple sentences were selected. Also, all sentences were relatively short so that speakers could read each sentence in one breath group. In order to measure the duration of vowels, segmentation is crucial. Sequences of vowels were avoided because it is often impossible to locate the boundary between two vowels. For the same reason, a sequence of a vowel and a semivowel, or a sequence of a semivowel and a vowel were avoided as far as possible. All sentences used in the experiment are listed in Table 1.

Table 1 Sentences used in the experiment

(a) English sentences

Set	Code	Sentences
S set	S1	This big chair takes up too much space.
	S2	I know Ted came back late last night.
	S3	I'd like fourteen first-class stamps, please.
	S4	Miss Smith baked cakes on my birthday.
S-W set	S-W1	Everybody skates in winter.
	S-W2	Jack believes in ghosts and fairies.
	S-W3	John decided not to buy them.
	S-W4	Nancy says she wants to see him.

(b) Japanese sentences (with English translation)

Code	Sentences (Japanese/English translation)
J1	*Asano sanpoga sobono nikkada.* (My grandmother's daily routine is to take a walk in the morning.)
J2	*Kadono misega kujini shimaru.* (The shop at the corner closes at nine.)
J3	*Kagono nakamiha kudamonoda.* (There are fruits inside the basket.)
J4	*Sorosoro shingakkiga hajimaru.* (The new term starts soon.)
J5	*Shimaneni sumukotoni kimeta.* (I decided to live in Shimane.)
J6	*Aneha sakunen hatachini natta.* (My elder sister became twenty last year.)
J7	*Denwaga nattanode mega sameta.* (I woke up because the telephone rang.)
J8	*Kazokude sapporoni dekakeru.* (Our family will go to *Sapporo*.)

3.2. Subjects

Two groups of English and Japanese speakers were asked to participate in the recording. Each group consisted of five speakers: two female speakers and three male speakers. The first group was native speakers of British English (BF1, BF2, BM1, BM2 and BM3). All speakers come from Southeast area of England. The average age of this group was 31.8.

The second group was native speakers of Japanese (JF1, JF2, JM1, JM2 and JM3). All speakers come from Tokyo area of Japan, and had studied English for more than ten years in Japan. At the time of recording, they had lived in London for more than ten months but less than twenty-two months. They had no previous experience of living abroad. Although they did not have difficulty in communicating in English, all speakers were judged to have a strong Japanese accent by the author. The average age of this group was 29.4. Japanese subjects were asked to read both English and Japanese sentences.

3.3. PVI formula

PVI was calculated for (i) Japanese sentences spoken by Japanese, (ii) English sentences spoken by Japanese, and (iii) English sentences spoken by British. For English sentences, PVI was calculated for S set and S-W set separately for both Japanese and British speakers.

The formula of PVI is given below (Low *et al.* 2000: 383):

$$\mathrm{PVI} = 100 \times \left[\sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \left| \frac{d_k - d_{k+1}}{(d_k + d_{k+1})/2} \right| / (m-1) \right]$$

(where m = number of vowels in utterance;
d = duration of the kth vowel)

The formula shows that PVI is calculated by taking the durational difference between successive vowels, and the mean duration of the successive vowels. The durational difference between successive vowels is divided by their mean duration. The absolute values are summed and divided by the number of differences. The formula normalizes the speaking rate of speakers. Therefore, the difference of speaking rate among speakers will not interfere with the results. In order to make the final PVI value easier to handle, the output is multiplied by 100 (cf. Grabe *et al.* 1999; Low *et al.* 2000).

3.4. Recording

Recording session was carried out in an anechoic room of the Department of Phonetics and Linguistics at University College London. The sentences read by speakers were recorded onto DAT tape.

Enough time to read through the sentences was given to all speakers before the recording. The speakers were instructed to read each sentence in one breath group without a pause or hesitation in between, and to read in comfortable speaking rate. They were also instructed to read each sentence without imagining any specific context. If a subject made a mistake or violated the instruction, s/he was asked to repeat the sentence from the beginning.

Speakers pronounced the words and read the sentences in different ways. One case is the realization of vowels. The examples are "chair" ([tʃeə] or [tʃeː]) and "believe" ([bə'liːv] or [bɪ'liːv]). The qualities of vowels used by Japanese speakers when they read English sentences were different from those used by British speakers. Another case is the difference in use of an intonation pattern in few sentences. Such inter-speaker and inter-group realizational differences of vowels and intonation were ignored because the main focus of this experiment is to measure vowel duration.

3.5. Measurements

The data was transferred onto a PC and analyzed by the SFS program (Speech Filing System © University College London). The vowel duration was established by using the measurement box. The wide-band spectrogram was mainly used, but also the narrow-band spectrogram and the amplitude waveform were used when they were necessary.

Whether the segmentation is going to be easy or difficult depends on the types of consonants which surround the vowel. The most important point in segmentation is to use the consistent criteria for all sentences and for all speakers. The most difficult groups of consonants to segment were liquids and semivowels. In both cases, the most noticeable cue of segmentation was the energy drop. The finishing point of formant transition was also used as a cue where it was observed. The criteria of segmentation were mainly based on Peterson and Lehiste (1960).

Two Japanese speakers inserted an extra vowel incorrectly. Since the main point is to observe how Japanese speakers control English vowels, these inserted vowels were not taken into consideration. Even though the major vowel devoicing contexts were avoided, vowel devoicing and vowel

elision were still observed. They were excluded from the calculation of PVI.

Grabe *et al.* (1999) excluded the final vowel in the calculation of PVI because they wanted to remove the influence of final syllable lengthening. In this study, two versions of PVI were calculated for all sentences. The difference between PVI with all vowels and PVI without the final vowels was very small. Statistically, there was no significant difference between PVI with all vowels and PVI without the final vowel ($p \geq 0.5$). Thus, the influence of final syllable lengthening was not observed in this experiment. In this study, PVI with all vowels were used.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Hypotheses

From the descriptions and previous works on rhythm, some predictions can be made. The following four hypotheses are presented with brief explanations.

<Hypothesis 1> Japanese sentences will show lower PVI than English sentences. Since mora-timed rhythm of Japanese is a subgroup of syllable-timed rhythm, Japanese is predicted to show lower PVI value than English which is stress-timed.

<Hypothesis 2> PVI of English spoken by Japanese will be higher than that of Japanese but lower than that of English spoken by British. PVI of English spoken by Japanese is predicted to show influence of Japanese rhythm to a certain extent.

<Hypothesis 3> PVI of English will differ between S set and S-W set for British speakers but not for Japanese speakers. For British speakers, PVI of S-W set should be higher than that of S set. On the other hand, for Japanese speakers, PVI of S-W set and S set may be the same because Japanese does not have weak vowels.

<Hypothesis 4> For English, Japanese speakers' PVI of S-W set will be lower than British speakers'. British speakers' PVI of S-W set is expected to be high because weak vowels are shorter than strong vowels. In contrast, Japanese speakers' PVI of S-W set may not be high as British speakers' because Japanese does not have weak vowels.

4.2. A comparison using all sentences: Japanese vs. English spoken by Japanese vs. English spoken by British

Table 2 summarizes PVI of Japanese and English sentences used in this study. Each speaker's PVI is shown by the average of all sentences. Figure 2 shows the comparison among PVI of Japanese (40.3 ± 3.5), English spoken by Japanese (41.6 ± 6.5) and English spoken by British (56.7 ± 4.3).

Table 2 PVI of Japanese, English by Japanese, and English by British

Japanese Speakers			British Speakers	
Code	PVI of Japanese (by Japanese)	PVI of English (by Japanese)	Code	PVI of English (by British)
JF1	39.5	36.6	BF1	60.1
JF2	44.2	53.2	BF2	58.5
JM1	34.7	35.2	BM1	51.7
JM2	39.3	39.0	BM2	61.9
JM3	43.8	43.8	BM3	51.5
Average	40.3	41.6	Average	56.7
SD	±3.5	±6.5	SD	±4.3

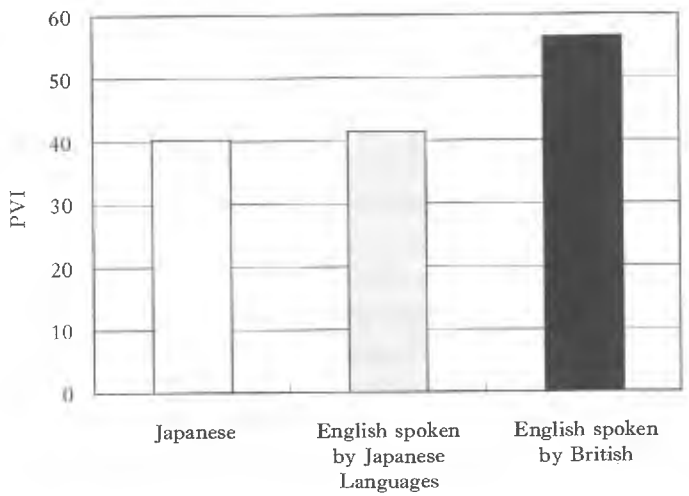

Figure 2 PVI comparison among Japanese, English spoken by Japanese, and English spoken by British

Firstly, speech rhythms between Japanese spoken by Japanese and English spoken by British were compared. PVI of Japanese (40.3 ± 3.5) was significantly lower than that of English spoken by British (56.7 ± 4.3) (t test, $p \leq 0.001$). In other words, the vowel duration varies more in English than in Japanese. This result supports Hypothesis 1: Japanese will show lower PVI than English, meaning that Japanese is more syllable-timed than English. The difference in PVI value reflects the difference of rhythm between English and Japanese. The perceptual and subjective impression that English and Japanese have different kinds of rhythm is supported quantitatively.

Secondly, the characteristics of rhythm of English spoken by Japanese can be investigated by comparing it to that of English spoken by British. PVI values were from small to large in the order of Japanese, English spoken by Japanese, and English spoken by British. Although the PVI of English spoken by Japanese was slightly higher than that of Japanese, no significant difference between the two existed (t test, $p \geq 0.5$). In contrast, the PVI of English spoken by Japanese was significantly lower than that of English spoken by British (t test, $p \leq 0.001$). Interestingly, English spoken by Japanese is more similar to Japanese than English spoken by British as far as PVI is concerned.

These results do not support Hypothesis 2: PVI of English spoken by Japanese will be higher than that of Japanese but lower than that of English spoken by British. In fact, there was no statistical difference between PVI value of Japanese and that of English spoken by Japanese. In foreign language acquisition, the native language of the learners often influences the target language. Similar levels of PVI of Japanese and English spoken by Japanese strongly reflect the transfer of Japanese rhythm to English by Japanese learners.

4.3. A comparison focusing on S set and S-W set of English

The rhythm of Japanese and English were compared in more detail by calculating PVI separately for S set and S-W set of English sentences. Table 3 summarizes British speakers' and Japanese speakers' PVI of S set and S-W set.

Table 3 PVI of S set and S-W set of English spoken by British and by Japanese

English spoken by British			English spoken by Japanese		
Speaker	S set	S-W set	Speaker	S set	S-W set
BF1	36.5	83.8	JF1	29.0	44.3
BF2	31.2	85.7	JF2	43.3	63.1
BM1	29.7	73.6	JM1	25.6	44.7
BM2	38.5	85.3	JM2	32.4	45.6
BM3	32.2	70.7	JM3	35.2	52.3
Average	33.6	79.8	Average	33.1	50.0
SD	±3.3	±6.4	SD	±6.0	±7.2

4.3.1. Japanese vs. S set and S-W set of English spoken by British

Figure 3 shows the comparison among PVI of Japanese (40.3 ± 3.5), S set by British speakers (33.6 ± 3.3), and S-W set by British speakers (79.8 ± 6.4).

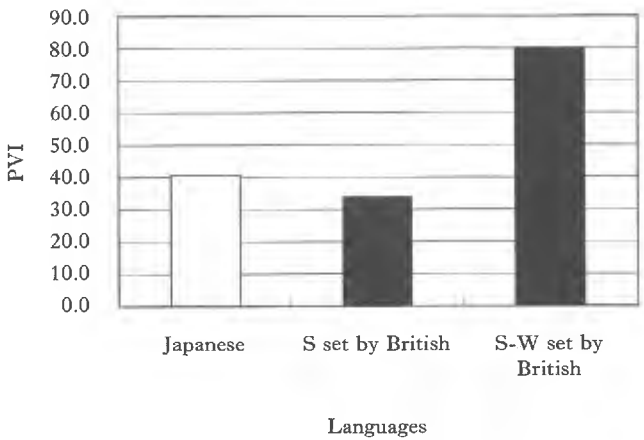

Figure 3 PVI comparison among Japanese, S set, and S-W set of English spoken by British

PVI was from large to small in the order of S-W set, Japanese, and S set. An interesting point is revealed when PVI of S set and S-W set were compared respectively with that of Japanese. PVI of S set by British speakers (33.6 ± 3.3) was significantly lower than that of Japanese (40.3 ± 3.5) (t test, $p \leq 0.025$), whereas that of S-W set (79.8 ± 6.4) was significantly higher than that of Japanese (t test, $p \leq 0.001$).

The results point out that Japanese sentences are similar to S set of English, but are quite different from S-W set of English with regard to PVI. In other words, the rhythm of Japanese and English are similar if English sentences consist of strong vowels alone. The fact that PVI of S set was similar to that of Japanese is an interesting point. Japanese only has five short vowels. On the other hand, English has a wider variety of strong vowels which include not only short vowels but also long vowels and diphthongs. Therefore, the duration of vowels among English may be expected to differ more greatly than Japanese. However, in fact, PVI of S set of English was lower than that of Japanese. On the other hand, PVI of S-W set of English was much higher than that of Japanese. The rhythmic difference between Japanese and English becomes prominent especially when both strong and weak vowels are used. Weak vowels are considered to be the key to differentiate between Japanese rhythm and English rhythm. How Japanese speakers pronounce weak vowels in S-W set is an important point.

PVI of S set and S-W set of English spoken by British were also compared in Figure 3. PVI of British speakers' S-W set (79.8 ± 6.4) was significantly higher than that of S set (33.6 ± 3.3) (t test, $p \leq 0.001$). This result is consistent with that of Low *et al.* (2000) and of Hoshino and Nolan (2000). British speakers' PVI of S-W set was higher because the duration of weak vowels are notably shorter than that of strong vowels in English.

4.3.2. Japanese vs. S set and S-W set of English spoken by Japanese

Figure 4 shows the comparison among PVI of Japanese (40.3 ± 3.5), S set by Japanese speakers (33.1 ± 6.0), and S-W set by Japanese speakers (50.0 ± 7.2).

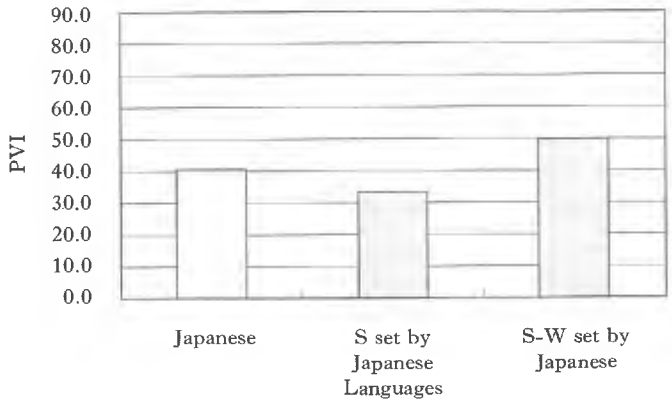

Figure 4 PVI comparison among Japanese, S set, and S-W set of English spoken by Japanese

PVI was from large to small in the order of S-W set, Japanese, and S set. PVI of Japanese speakers' S-W set (50.0 ± 7.2) was significantly higher than that of Japanese (40.3 ± 3.5) (t test, $p \leq 0.025$), whereas there was no significant difference between Japanese speakers' PVI of S set and that of Japanese (t test, $p \geq 0.100$). Furthermore, Japanese speakers' S-W set (50.0 ± 7.2) was significantly higher than that of S set (33.1 ± 6.0) (t test, $p \leq 0.01$).

These results only partly support Hypothesis 3: PVI will differ between S set and S-W set for British speakers but not for Japanese speakers. PVI of S set and S-W set differ not only for British speakers but also for Japanese speakers. In the same way as British speakers, Japanese speakers' PVI of S-W set was higher than that of S set. Since Japanese does not have weak vowels, Japanese speakers may have difficulties in pronouncing weak vowels. Nevertheless, the high PVI of S-W set by Japanese speakers proves that they are making an effort to reduce the duration of weak vowels as native speakers do. As in British speakers, PVI of S-W set was higher than that of Japanese, and PVI of S set was actually lower than that of Japanese although there was no significant difference.

4.3.3. S set and S-W set by British vs. S set and S-W set by Japanese

Finally, PVI of S set and S-W set between Japanese speakers and British speakers were compared. Figure 5 shows PVI of S set and S-W set of Japanese and British speakers.

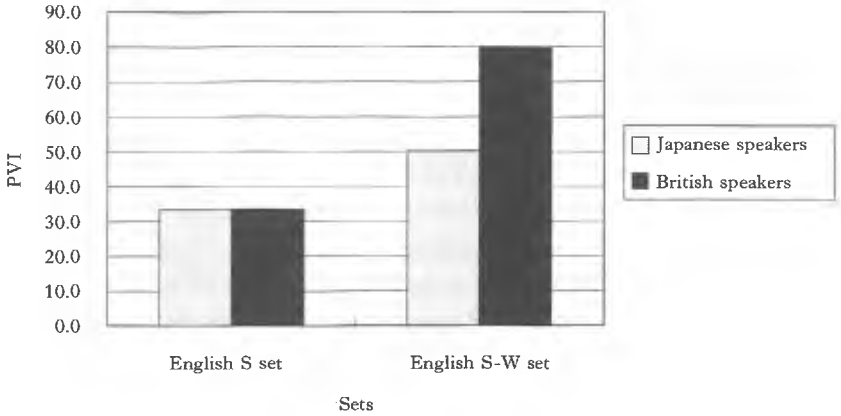

Figure 5 PVI comparison of S set and S-W set between Britisn and Japanese speakers

Interestingly, as for S set, there was not much difference between the two groups of speakers. Though Japanese speakers' PVI (33.1 ± 6.0) was slightly lower than British speakers' (33.6 ± 3.3), there was no significant difference (t test, $p \geq 0.5$). As for the comparison of S-W set, British speakers' PVI of S-W set (79.8 ± 6.4) was significantly higher than Japanese speakers' (50.0 ± 7.2) (t test, $p \leq 0.001$).

These results support Hypothesis 4: Japanese speakers' PVI of S-W set will be lower than British speakers'. Although Japanese speakers' PVI of S-W set was higher than their PVI of S set, it was not high enough to reach the level of British speakers'. In other words, although Japanese speakers are making an effort to reduce the duration of weak vowels, their effort is not enough. In spite of the difference between Japanese and English vowels, as far as the durational variation is concerned, Japanese speakers seem to have no problem in the pronunciation of strong vowels because PVI value of S set was not different between Japanese and British.

The results altogether point out that the weak point of Japanese speakers is the pronunciation of weak vowels.

4.4. Characteristics of English rhythm spoken by Japanese

So far, PVI comparison was made only between the averages of speaker-groups or between S set and S-W set. However, when the average is compared, the inter-speaker differences are ignored. Each speaker has his/her individual tendency and weak points. This section focuses on such inter-speaker variations. Inter-speaker variation of English spoken by Japanese was observed in detail. The control of vowel duration of S-W set is focused in this section because it appears to be the weak point of Japanese speakers when speaking English.

Among Japanese speakers, JF2 showed the highest PVI (average 60.7) and JF1 showed the lowest PVI (average 42.6) for S-W set among all Japanese speakers. This result indicates that JF2's PVI of S-W set is the closest to British speakers' (average 79.8). Does this mean that JF2 is good at controlling the vowel duration like British speakers? The sentences S-W3 is picked up and the duration of vowels are observed in detail below.

Table 4 shows the measured vowel duration of S-W3 by British speakers (average), JF1, and JF2. Table 4 is transformed to Figure 6. The vowel duration is shown as a percentage by taking the total vowel duration of the sentence as 100% to avoid that the difference of speaking rate among speakers affecting the comparison.

Table 4 Vowel duration of S-W3 "John decided not to buy them." by British speakers, JF1 and JF2

	/ɒ/	/ɪ, ə/	/aɪ/	/ɪ, ə/	/ɒ/	/ə/	/aɪ/	/ə/
British speakers	0.1152*	0.0412	0.1336	0.0506	0.0820	0.0380	0.1978	0.0591
JF1	0.1448	0.0573	0.1318	0.0753	0.1188	0.1008	0.1772	0.1783
JF2	0.1591	0.0380	0.1034	0.0955	0.1006	0.0853	0.1790	0.2741

*second

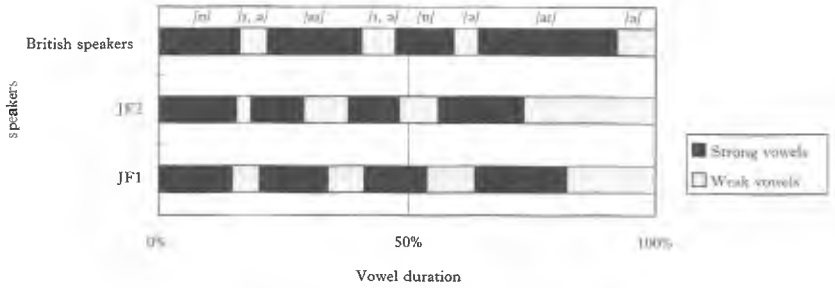

Figure 6 Comparison of vowel duration of S-W3 "John decided not to buy them."

British speakers' average clearly showed the alternation of long strong vowels and short weak vowels. Strong vowels were apparently longer than weak vowels. As a result, British speakers' PVI value became large. JF1 and JF2 showed some characteristics seen in rhythm of English spoken by Japanese. One characteristic is that there is not much difference in duration between strong and weak vowels. In JF1's case, a strong vowel /ɒ/ of "not" and a weak vowel /ə/ of "to," a strong vowel /aɪ/ of "buy" and a weak vowel /ə/ of "them" were similar in duration. In the same way, in JF2's case, a strong vowel /aɪ/ and a weak vowel /ɪ, ə/ of "dec*i*d*e*d," and a strong vowel /ɒ/ of "not" and a weak vowel /ə/ of "to" were similar in duration. Another characteristic of Japanese English rhythm is that the last weak vowel is very long. For both JF1 and JF2, the last weak vowel /ə/ of "them" was longer than the preceding strong vowel /aɪ/ of "buy." In English, a function word such as "them" is usually not stressed. Since JF1 and JF2 pronounced a weak vowel of "them" longer than it should be, it may sound unnatural to native speakers of English. These results also indicate that the similarity in PVI values between British speakers (average) and JF2 did not truly reflect the actual duration of vowels. Since PVI focuses on the difference of duration between successive vowels, PVI of S-W3 does not differ much between that of JF2 and that of British speakers, in spite of this important difference. This is a weak point of PVI method because it only focuses on the absolute value of the difference of duration between successive vowels: even if the duration of two vowels is reversed,

PVI values could be the same.

5. General discussion

Rhythm of languages has long been considered to consist two distinct categories: stress-timed and syllable-timed rhythm. By using PVI, speech rhythm can be represented as a continuum. The next important step is to plot each language along the continuum. PVI makes it possible to quantify rhythm of languages using one objective criterion: the durational variation of vowels. In case of English and Japanese, PVI values were significantly far apart along the rhythm continuum.

If an English sentence happens to consist only of strong vowels, as in S set of the experiment, that English sentence will have rhythm similar to syllable-timed rhythm. In fact, PVI of S set spoken by British speakers showed close resemblance to PVI of Japanese. Japanese speakers' PVI of S set was not much different from British speakers'. In other words, Japanese speakers were good at pronouncing syllables of approximately equal length, which they are used to doing when they speak their native language. In reality, sentences which only consist of strong vowels are rare in English since the frequency of weak vowels is very high.

Vowels are one of the major factors which characterize rhythm of languages. In other words, the inventory and distribution of vowels affect the rhythm of a language. Dauer (1983) explained that vowel reduction is one of the important phonological features which determine rhythm of a language. If a language has vowel reduction, it tends to have stress-based rhythm. On the other hand, if a language does not have vowel reduction, it tends to have syllable-based rhythm. English and Japanese match with this description. English has weak vowels and Japanese does not. Does a language which has stress-timed rhythm happen to have weak vowels, or does a language which has weak vowels in its vowel system happen to have stress-timed rhythm? It may be a circular argument. One thing which is clear is that weak vowels are the ones which make English rhythm sound very different from Japanese rhythm.

As far as PVI is concerned, Japanese learners had no problem in S set but in S-W set. Therefore, Japanese learners' weak point is to control the

duration of weak vowels differently from that of strong vowels. Japanese learners need to study what weak vowels are, and where they are used in English sentences. For instance, they must practice the stress pattern of polysyllabic words, and study the division between function and content words. In this experiment, Japanese learners' effort to reduce the duration of weak vowels was recognized. However, their effort was not enough. They must bear in mind that English weak vowels are even shorter than they think they are.

In spoken English, the distribution of strong and weak vowels is not regular but is very complicated. Japanese learners can start practice by using the controlled sentences which have a regular alternation of strong and weak vowels. Some examples are given below (S = strong vowel; W = weak vowel).

SW	Jane and Lucy go to school together.
WS	She studies English every week.
SWW	This is a present for Jonathan.
WWS	Can you tell me the way to the library?

Duration of vowels is strongly related to stresses. If the duration of a vowel is longer than surrounding vowels, that syllable tends to be perceived as stressed. If a Japanese learner pronounces a weak vowel longer than it should be, the native speakers of English may perceive the syllable as stressed. The correct control of vowel duration may lead to the correct realization of stresses, thus, to the correct acquisition of English stress-timed rhythm.

To summarize, the rhythm of English spoken by Japanese was studied using the Pairwise Variability Index (PVI) which reflects the durational difference of successive vowels. The results of the experiment indicate that Japanese speakers have a problem in controlling the duration of weak vowels in contrast with strong vowels. The lack of weak vowels in the vowel system of Japanese is considered to be one of the main causes of this problem. The durational control of weak vowels could be the key to improve English rhythm of Japanese learners.

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NOTES

1) This paper is a slightly revised version of my MA thesis submitted to University College London in 2000. I am very grateful to my supervisor Mr. John Maidment for his suggestions and comments on my original thesis.

2) S set in this experiment corresponds to F set, and S-W set corresponds to R set of Low *et al.*'s (2000) experiment.

岩崎研究会の歩み

岩崎研究会の歩み [1962–2002]

[研究会組織]: 岩崎研究会(略称: 岩研; 英語名 Iwasaki Linguistic Circle)が1962(昭和37)年に組織されてから，昨年(2002年)で40年が経つ．機関誌 *Lexicon* の創刊 (1972) から数えても30年になる．これをひとつの節目として，研究会の歩みをその活動を中心に簡単に振り返っておこう．

岩崎研究会は，1962年に東京外国語大学の卒業生が5人ほど集まり，岩崎民平先生 (1892–1971) のお宅で勉強会を開いたことから始まる．最初に用いたテキストは，Block-Trager, *Outline of Linguistic Analysis*. その後会員は着実に増え，創立10年ころは50名を超えるほどになり，近年は200名近い数を維持している．この会は，竹林滋会長，小島義郎副会長の指導のもと，各地の大学・高等学校の教員や元教職関係者，あるいは出版関係者などから大学院生・学部学生に至るまでの多様な会員によって組織運営されている．会費は，会員の手になる辞書のいくつか(『ライトハウス英和辞典』『ライトハウス和英辞典』など)の印税の一部を会の運営・活動資金(特に機関誌 *Lexicon* の発行)に当てていることもあって，低く抑えられている．事務・会計の担当や *Lexicon* の編集には，会員の有志が交代でかなり長期にわたって当たってきている．研究会の例会の会場にも，変化があった．主なものは，以前は八丁堀の東京都勤労福祉会館，家の光会館，私学会館，国立教育会館などであったが，ここ15年ほどは研究社のお茶の水ビル，(1989年秋からは)富士見ビル，また(理論言語学部会では)外国語大となっている．

[研究会活動，特に例会]: 研究会は，定例で会合をもち，英語学の諸分野に関連する英文の研究書・論文を輪読やレポート形式で読み進めている．出席者は，分野とか時期によって変動があるが，おおよそ10名から25名くらいが多い．例会は，3部会に別れて交互に開くのがかなりの期間決まりになっていた．その中で最初から今日まで変わることなく続いているのは，「辞書学の会」(司会: 中尾啓介氏，東信行，宮井捷二氏)の集まりである．1977(昭和52)年1月に始まった「学校文法の会」(司会: 桜井雅人氏，清水あつ子氏，東信行)もその後中断することなく開かれている．辞書学の会と共に，最初からあった「新言語学の会」(後に「理論言語学の会」，司会: 小島副会長，松田徳一郎氏，馬

場彰氏)に学校文法の会が加わってからは，これらの部会の間で，通常3週間毎の(1975年4月以来)金曜日に夕刻から2，3時間研究会がもたれてきたが，1987(昭和62)年12月から言語学の会が他と離れて，会場を外語大に移して，例会を月一回の形で土曜日に開き，主として生成文法のテキストや論文を取り上げた．都合があって，1991(平成3)年秋に中断，休会中であったが，1998年6月より再開されて，原則として毎月第4土曜日に外語大で最近話題の論文を分担してレポートしている． 辞書学の会と学校文法の会のほうは，しばらく従来の方式を交互に続けたが，1988(昭和63)年4月以来，原則として，毎月第1金曜日に交替で会をもつ形に変わってほぼ15年になる．

使用テキストを一部記すと

〈辞書学〉: J. H. Friend, *The Development of American Lexicography 1798–1864*.

S. Landau, *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography*.

H. Jackson, *Words and Their Meaning*.

〈理論言語学〉: N. V. Smith and D. Wilson, *Modern Linguistics*.

F. J. Newmeyer, *Grammatical Theory: Its Limits and Its Possibilities*.

Ruldolf P. Botha, *The Conduct of Linguistic Inquiry: A Systematic Introduction to the Methodology of Generative Grammar*.

F. J. Newmeyer (ed.), *Linguistics: The Cambridge Survey*, Vol. 1.

〈学校文法〉: R. Quirk & S. Greenbaum, *A University Grammar of English*.

R. Quirk, *et al.*, *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*.

Talmy Givón, *English Grammar: A Function-Based Introduction*.

1998(平成10)年1月から第4の部会が発足した．「コーパス言語学の会」である．世話人を赤須薫氏，司会者を朝尾幸次郎氏として毎月第2木曜日に例会を開いている．取り上げてきたテキストは，

T. McEnery and A. Wilson, *Corpus Linguistics*.

G. Kennedy, *An Introduction to Corpus Linguistics*.

S. Granger (ed.), *Learner English on Computer*.

10年ほど前から，従来の分科会のほかに，岩研とつながりをもった研究集団ないしは勉強グループができている．その一つ辞書学の研究グループ「プロジェクトB」は，竹林会長，中尾啓介氏の指導の下に，比較的若手の会員が江戸期に始まる英和辞書の発達史を実証的に調査研究して，その成果を逐次英文の論文に仕上げ，*Lexicon* に発表することを目的にしているが，すでに相当の業績を挙げている．また，そのメンバーを中核として，10名あまりが定例的に

集まって辞書学文献の読書会(最近 iLex と称することになった．会場: 電気通信大学，後に早稲田大学)を開いている．代表は小川貴宏氏．他に竹林会長を中心とする音声学の研究グループ(十数名)も私的な性格の読書会(会場: 研究社，商船大学，現在は外語大)を続けている．

数はまだ少ないが，海外の辞書学研究者による講演会を岩研主催で開くこともある．1993 年 1 月に Peter Sharpe 氏の講演が研究社本館であった．また 1997 年 9 月 1 日には Dr Tom McArthur と Dr Reinhard Hartmann のジョイント講演会が研究社英語センターで行われた．

[機関誌など]: 機関誌 *Lexicon* (ISSN 0385–566x; 編集兼発行者: 岩崎研究会，代表者: 竹林滋)は，年に一回 6 月 29 日(岩崎民平先生のご命日)に発行されることになっている(第 19 号，第 20 号は特別で，共に 1990 年に発行)．言語学・辞書学関係の論文が主に掲載されるが，*Lexicon* の大きな特色になっているのは，ほぼ毎号載る英語辞書の詳細な「分析」である．これは数名の会員が組織的に精密な調査・検討を踏まえて，共同執筆するもので，おそらく辞書批評としては，岩研が他に先駆けて行ってきた特異なタイプと言えよう．また第 18 号～24 号と続いた小川繁司氏の筆になる「刊行辞書一覧」は，前年度に日本・英米で出版された辞書類を克明に紹介した総覧であったが，残念ながら氏が急逝されたため中止に至った．

Lexicon が刊行され続けてきたこの 30 年ほどの間に，「辞書学」と言う名も研究分野も定着し，広い範囲で認知されてきたし，それを専門とする研究者も増え，一部の大学で辞書学が講じられるようになっている．*Lexicon* は一時あまりにも分厚くなり(第 21 号は 400 ページを超える)，印刷などのコストがかさむこともあって，論文の行数制限を厳しくせざるを得なくなった．他方，新世紀にかけて海外の学者との交信・往来がますます盛んになり，特に辞書の分析を英語で書く要望・必要が出てきた．これに対応するため，第 25 号 (1995) からは掲載論文はすべて英文によるものとし，論文審査制度を設けている．会員の研究活動を記録する意味で，第 5 号 (1976) から各号巻末に会員の前年の研究業績を紹介している．

Lexicon に掲載された主な英語辞書分析は，これまでに 3 回にわたってまとめられ，『英語辞書の比較と分析』第 1，2 集 (1981)，第 3，4 集 (1989)，第 5，6 集 (2002) (研究社)として公刊されている．

近年は，辞書学の国際的専門雑誌である *International Journal of Lexicography* に会員の執筆した論文，書評が載るようになった．このことも大いに注目してよいことである．*IJL* に始めて掲載された会員による *COD*8 版の批評

(1992) が，編集長 F. R. Ilson から "a stunning review" というコメントをもらったが，最近ではこうした共同批評は，H. Jackson により "team reviewing" と称され，辞書書評の有力な手法として注目されるようになった．

さらに今後の明るい展望につながることであるが，研究会の会員の中に，特に辞書学の研修・学位取得などを目標に，たとえばエクセター大学・バーミンガム大学などに留学するものが増えているし，辞書学関係の国際学会に参加して，発表や聴講をする有志も多くなってきている．

[刊行業績]: 岩崎研究会の会員の関心や活動は，英語学・言語学の諸分野に及ぶが，辞書学や辞書編集に関わるものが多い．その結果，英和辞書・和英辞書などの作成・編集・執筆に会員が中核的な働きをして刊行されてきた辞書類はかなりの数になる．主なものを挙げると，『ユニオン英和辞典』『ライトハウス英和辞典』『ライトハウス和英辞典』(英和と和英が同一編者で内容面でも「相互乗り入れ」を図った辞書は他に例がないと思われる)『ルミナス英和辞典』『ルミナス和英辞典』『ポケット英和辞典』などがある．また執筆者として会員多数が参加した辞書としては『新英和中辞典』『リーダーズ英和辞典』*The Kenkyusha Japanese-English Learner's Dictionary*『新英和大辞典』などがある．

辞書以外でも会員の手になる教科書，参考書，翻訳書，専門著書なども相当数出版されている．その中には数点の『還暦記念論文集』も含まれる．

なお，2000 年から始まったばかりであるが，英語学・英語辞書編集史に関連する基本資料を徐々に整えることになった．岩崎研究会蔵書が会員の活動に役立つ日がやがて来るであろう．

[親睦]: 岩研は，読書会から始まったものであることからも分かるように，同人会的な性格も有している．会員の親睦を深めるもっとも大きな機会は，忘年会で，数十名が集まる．また会長をはじめとする会員の還暦・退官・古希などの記念祝賀会や岩崎研究会創立 25 周年記念パーティなどが研究会主催で盛大に開かれて，会員はもちろん，関係の深い方々も集まった．

『岩研 Newsletter』が 1994 年から若い会員(主に辞書学の読書グループ iLex に所属)の支援によって発行されている．紙面には，会員のエッセイ，近況報告，自己紹介，自著紹介，お知らせ，文献探しの欄などがあって，会員に情報交換の場を提供している．

(東　信　行)

会員研究業績

（2002年1月～12月，アイウエオ順）

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（1）投稿は岩崎研究会会員に限る.（2）論文の内容は未発表のものに限る.（3）用語は英語に限り，原則として native check を受けたものとする.（4）注（note）は後注とし，章ごとに通し番号を付ける.（5）ギリシャ字，ロシヤ字以外の特殊文字はできるだけローマ字化してほしい．音声記号は国際音声学協会（IPA）所定のものを用いる.（6）引用文献: 単行本については著(編)者名，書名，版，発行所，発行年，頁; 論文については著者名，論文名，所載誌名，巻号，発行年，頁を記入すること.（7）枚数: 論文はワープロ原稿で，1行はアルファベットの小文字で 70字，450行以内．A4判のハードコピー1部にフロッピーディスクを添える.（8）原稿はすべて論文審査委員による審査の上採否を決定する．共同執筆論文を別として，論文の掲載は毎号1人1篇とする.（9）都合により短縮を求めることがある．印刷上の体裁および論文の掲載年度については編集委員に一任する.（10）抜刷は20部までを無料で，別に本誌1部を呈上する.（11）原稿は随時受付ける.

編集後記

昨年(2002年)は本来ならば岩崎研究会創立40周年とその機関誌 *Lexicon* 創刊30周年を記念する号を発行するはずであったが，松田徳一郎教授の急死という事態に直面して，急遽同氏の追悼号となったのは会にとって誠に悲しむべきことであった．従って本号は1年遅れの記念号ということになる．

岩崎研究会の40年間の歩みについては東教授の詳しい紹介が掲載されているのでいまさらここで述べる必要はないが，*Lexicon* もまた会の発展とともに順調に成長を続け，ここに33号を刊行する運びとなったことは極めて喜ばしいことである．本誌は創刊以来国内の特に英語辞書関係者の関心を呼んできたのだが，何といっても特筆すべきは1995年の25号から掲載論文をすべて英文としたことであった．これによって本誌は海外の学者からも注目され，一躍国際的な学術誌となった．特に本誌の中核である英語辞書の分析は数人の分担によってなされるため，“team review” という名称で最近は呼ばれ，高い評価を受けるようになった．しかし狭い国内の学会から広い世界に登場するとなると，それだけ批判の目も厳しくなることも覚悟しなければならない．

最近少し気になるのは単著の論文，それも辞書学以外の論文が少々減少気味なことで，ここは特にまだ専任の地位になく非常勤の職だけに甘んじている若い人たちに頑張って頂きたいと思う．自己の存在を示す絶好の場所なのであるから．（S. T.）