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Iwasaki Linguistic Circle

c/o Kenkyusha Limited  
11-3 Fujimi 2-Chome  
Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 102-8152  
Japan

Shigeru Takebayashi, Chairman

## An Analysis of the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English*<sup>1)</sup>

YURI KOMURO

### 1. Introduction

The Oxford University Press published the *Oxford Collocations Dictionary for Students of English* (hereafter abbreviated as *OCDSE*) in 2002 and completed its trilogy of phraseological dictionaries. Like its companions, the *Oxford Phrasal Verbs Dictionary for Learners of English* (2001) and the *Oxford Idioms Dictionary for Learners of English* (2001), the *OCDSE* was compiled mainly on the basis of the 100 million word British National Corpus (viii). The dictionary is also available in the form of the CD-ROM called *Oxford Phrasebuilder Genie*, which also contains the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the 6th edition (2000).

It can be said that the *OCDSE* is the first *pedagogically oriented* electronic corpus-based English collocations dictionary available in the form of a paper dictionary. According to Nuccorini (2003: 373), the first English dictionary with the word *collocation* in its title is Douglas-Kozłowska and Dzierżanowska's *Selected English Collocations* (1982). The collocations in this dictionary were all drawn from a collection of British texts dating from after 1960 (p. 11). The first collocations dictionary based on an electronic corpus is *A Dictionary of English Collocations* (1994) compiled by Göran Kjellmer. It is a three-volume dictionary based on the 1-million-word Brown Corpus, and includes not only what we generally regard collocations, but also lexical bundles. This is a scholarly work, but the very small size of the corpus on which it is based severely limits its pedagogical value. *The Collins Cobuild English Collocations on CD-ROM* (1995) is a CD-ROM for teachers and advanced learners that provides

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access to 10,000 words that appear more than 500 times in the Bank of English (of 200 million words) and shows their most frequent twenty collocates. Real examples extracted from the corpus are shown in the KWIC (Key Word In Context) format and can be also shown in full sentence.

There has been no firmly established structure of a collocations dictionary so far, but as Nuccorini (2003: 367) says, there is one common feature:

English monolingual collocational dictionaries agree on one point: they are meant for encoding purposes and are consistently addressed to advanced learners and translators. This means that both the macro- and micro-structure are devised and organised to help the user write in English. Their shared purpose remains a unifying element even though the types of headwords, of collocates and of the information given are quite different in each dictionary.

The back cover of the *OCDSE* says that “Learning how words can be combined in English will allow you to say what you mean — and say it more naturally”. A collocations dictionary can help its users to produce not only *correct*, but also *natural* texts. Also, in the process of selection of a most appropriate word, users may be able to clarify or develop or even reshape the idea that they want to express. The *LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations* (1997)<sup>2</sup> edited by Jimmie Hill and Michael Lewis, another EFL collocations dictionary, therefore strongly encourages users to browse through the entry, explaining a beneficial effect of browsing or scanning as follows in the introduction (p. 9):

### Browsing

Apart from looking for the collocation which says exactly what you mean, you can use an entry, particularly one of the longer ones, to help you to re-activate lots of half-remembered combinations. Use the entry in this way when you are preparing an essay or a talk.

The present paper aims to assess the *OCDSE*'s performance as a corpus-based EFL dictionary of collocations from the foreign learner's point of view. After giving an overview of the *OCDSE*, the focus will be on its

coverage in order to find out what kinds of collocations or word-combinations the *OCDSE* actually regards as of practical use. I will take a comparative approach in the analysis of coverage, and the following three dictionaries are used for comparison: the *BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations* (1997) (hereafter abbreviated as *BBI*), the *Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Collocations* (1995) (hereafter abbreviated as *KDEC*), and the *Kenkyusha Luminous Japanese-English Dictionary* (2001) (hereafter abbreviated as *KLJED*). (For more information about each dictionary see Section 7.)

## 2. The definition of 'collocation' in the *OCDSE*

There has been so far no agreement on the definition of 'collocation' among linguists, and the compilers of the *OCDSE* explain collocation in the section called 'What is collocation?' in 'Introduction' as follows: "Collocation is the way words combine in a language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing" (vii). This linguistically loose definition of collocation reflects clearly the coherent editorial policy of this dictionary. It is not a linguistically precise definition of collocation, which general users would not understand or care about, but users' needs for production that forms the basis of judgement as to what collocations or word-combinations are to be included. In their paper explaining the principles and practice of the compilation of the *OCDSE*, Lea and Runcie (2002: 819) argue for "a pragmatic and fairly wide-ranging definition of collocation for the purposes of the dictionary, based firmly on the needs of the user".

Although there is no theoretical account of collocation provided, it is explained that they see collocation on a cline with 'free' word-combination such as *see a man|car|book* at one end, and with 'fixed and idiomatic' word-combination such as *see the wood for the trees* at another, and that anything that comes between them can be seen as collocation. They divide collocation further into three categories: weak collocation, medium-strength collocation, and strong collocation. *See a film* is given as an example of a 'weak' collocation, while *see danger|reason|the point* are examples of 'strong' collocations (vii). An example of a 'medium-strength' collocation is *see a*

*doctor*, although it is NOT included at the entry for *doctor* or *dentist*. According to Hill (2000: 64), learners are generally unsuccessful in making efficient use of their knowledge of independent lexical items, especially in the area of 'medium-strength' collocations. The *OCDSE* therefore attaches pedagogical significance to 'medium-strength' collocations and claims to give them a good coverage.

### 3. The inclusion policies

Under this broad definition of collocation, the *OCDSE* basically tries to include lexical strings of words they believe to be pedagogically significant, rather than collocations in the linguistically precise sense. In 'Which collocations are included in this dictionary?' in 'Introduction' three basic questions asked as the criteria are given: "Is this a typical use of language? Might a user of this dictionary want to express this idea? Would they look up this entry to find out how?" (viii). In other words, what is most important as a criterion for inclusion is whether the dictionary provides what intermediate to advanced learners of English would need in order to produce *natural* or *native-like* English. More specifically, the dictionary claims to give an extensive coverage of collocations from 'weak' to 'strong' and exclude free word-combinations and idioms (viii). With some 'strong collocations', whose meaning may be (partially) opaque, a gloss may be provided to clarify the meaning.

'Frequency' is a major, deciding factor in inclusion, as well as 'usefulness to users', and these two factors are considered interdependent. Collocations native speakers produce frequently are considered to be the ones users are also likely to need to express their idea in more natural English, and the most frequent collocations turned out to be 'medium-strength' collocations (Lea and Runcie 2002: 822–25). Accordingly, word-combinations which are not strictly collocations may also be included if they have high enough frequency in the corpus data.

The emphasis on the typical led to a fairly inclusive approach in terms of the perceived 'strength' of collocations . . . The dictionary does include a number of items that are so fixed that they might properly be called compounds: examples are *grey area* and *learning*

*curve*; . . . the learner is not to know the most appropriate expression is so idiomatic that it qualifies as a compound, and the distinction may not therefore be very useful.

(Lea and Runcie 2002: 821)

In their view, 'typicality' is judged by 'frequency', not by 'lexicographer's intuition', and Lea and Runcie (2002: 824) conclude that "What learners of English really need to know are the collocations that native speakers actually use, in the course of writing and speaking on any subject but collocation; not necessarily what 'springs to mind' when a native-speaker is asked to name a collocation".

British English is chosen as the standard, and 'moderately formal language', which is explained as "the language of essay and report writing, and formal letters" (viii–ix), is considered the most appropriate style level for the potential users. Collocations from some technical fields and spoken language are also included and labeled as such. Japanese learners of English would very much appreciate information about American English, however.

## 4. Methodology of selection of material

### 4.1. The headword list

The *OCDSE* claims to contain 9,000 headwords, most of which are commonest words and considered to be familiar to upper-intermediate learners (x). The headword list, which consists of nouns, verbs, and adjectives, was drawn up based on the *Oxford Wordpower Dictionary*<sup>3)</sup>, another Oxford product for intermediate learners, and the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*<sup>4)</sup>, one of the best-known learners' dictionaries for the advanced (Lea and Runcie 2002: 825). How to draw up a headword list that meets users' needs would require a full, in-depth discussion, so that I will not go further than mention some problems in this paper. First, although it is stated that very common words such as *make* and *do* ought to be excluded (Lea and Runcie 2002: 826), there seems to be some inconsistency in the inclusion. While *make*, *do*, *have*, and *give* are not included, another delexical verb *take* is given an entry, albeit very short. Treatment of verbs that usually deserve a long entry in a general dictionary, and that

generate a number of phrasal verbs does not seem quite systematic either, as *come*, *get* and *set* are not included, but *go*, *bring*, *keep*, and *put* are. Second, the headword list contains some culture-specific items. For example, are foreign learners of English likely to talk about or write about *A level*? Even when they need to do so, they can always refer to the entries for *exam* and *test*. Among *basketball*, *football*, and *hockey*, it is of course *football* that boasts the longest entry, and the entry for *cricket* is longer than that of *basketball* and that of *hockey*, even longer than that of *tennis*. Since some collocates found at these entries are common to quite a few sports and there is a special page for Sport, the relevant collocations could have been presented more efficiently. Third, some headwords such as *bailiff*, *focal point*, *firing squad* and *physique* appear to be too difficult or technical for the target users. There seems to be still room for improvement in terms of the headword list.

#### 4.2. Collocations

Basically, all the collocations in the *OCDSE* are derived from corpus data. Lea and Runcie (2002: 820) explain that lexicographers checked the frequent collocates of a given word in the corpus, going through concordance lines and using MI-score and T-score, and that “A few of the collocations included in the Oxford Collocations Dictionary have as few as three citations in the 100 million word BNC” (825). Lexicographers are also supported by a collocation-extract software program developed by the team (820). As for those new words in computing and the like, the Internet was used as a supplementary source (viii).

However, it is not the case that collocations of high frequency were blindly taken from the corpus and presented in the entries. Lexicographers’ intuition plays an important role in compiling lists of *typical* words to go with the headword, but not those of frequent words. Rare though it was, the corpus data was supplemented by lexicographers’ intuition when the data did not include items that would be expected to be in. Some words were judged to be excluded from the lists if they appeared highly frequently merely because they were semantically related to the popular topics of the time when the data was collected (Lea and Runcie 2002: 824).

#### 5. The entry structure

Now that editorial policies have been explained, the entry structure will be looked at in this section. Information contained in the entry deals almost exclusively with the combinatorial behaviour of the headword. Figure 1 is the entry for *damage*, which may be considered as a typical noun entry. The headword is presented in bold, together with its part of speech in italics. (There is no information about the pronunciation provided.) Different parts of speech of a word are given separate entries, so that the entry for the verb *damage* follows immediately after the one for the noun. Within an entry, different word senses are given separate numbered sections<sup>5</sup>, each with a short definition or pointer to the appropriate meaning: “**1** harm/injury” and “**2 damages** money you can claim from sb”. (However, when there is only one word sense, no definition or pointer is provided.) The plural in bold face in the definition for the sense 2 shows that the headword takes the plural form in this sense. Collocates are grouped and presented together according to their parts of speech. At the noun entry, adjective collocates are first given at the section marked with ●ADJ. Then, verb collocates that take *damage* as its object are given at ●VERB + DAMAGE, and verb collocates that take *damage* as its subject at ●DAMAGE + VERB. ●PREP. represents prepositions and contains ones that are used with *damage*. Usually at the end of the section are given other miscellaneous phrases (●PHRASES). Within each section, collocates are further, semantically or thematically grouped into subsections, which are separated by a vertical bar and are claimed to be arranged “in an order that tries to be as intuitive as possible” (x). Within a subsection, collocates are arranged in alphabetical order. For example, the first string of the adjective section goes: “considerable, enormous, great, serious, severe, substantial, untold | minor, slight | extensive, widespread | irreparable, irreversible, lasting, long-term, permanent”. Phrase or sentence examples are given to some collocate subsection: “damages incurred by the unfairly sacked workers”, “He decided to sue the company for damages”. However, the criteria for which word senses to give examples are not explained.

**damage** *noun***1** harm/injury

● ADJ. **considerable, enormous, great, serious, severe, substantial, untold** | **minor, slight** | **extensive, widespread** | **irreparable, irreversible, lasting, long-term, permanent** *The incident did permanent damage to relations between the two countries.* | **criminal, malicious, wilful** *He was prosecuted for criminal damage to a vehicle.* | **accidental** *The insurance policy covers the building for accidental damage.* | **emotional, environmental, mechanical, psychological, structural** | **brain** *She suffered serious brain damage at birth.*

● VERB + DAMAGE **cause, do, inflict** *The earthquake caused widespread damage to property.* ◊ *They inflicted severe psychological damage on their opponents.* | **suffer** | **repair** | **prevent**

● PREP. **~ by** *The palace suffered extensive damage by fire in 1825.* **~ from** *Crops are sprayed with chemicals to prevent damage from insects.* **~ to** *lasting damage to the environment*

● PHRASES **the cost/value of the damage** *The cost of the damage is estimated at around \$2 billion.* **the extent of the damage** *At the moment it is difficult to assess the extent of the damage.*

**2** damages money you can claim from sb

● ADJ. **heavy, substantial**

● VERB + DAMAGES **incur, suffer** *damages incurred by the unfairly sacked workers* | **claim, seek, sue (sb) for** *He decided to sue the company for damages.* | **assess** *The court will assess the damages.* | **apportion, award (sb) | pay (sb) | obtain, receive, recover, win** | **be liable for, be liable in (law)** *If goods are lost in transit, the carrier will be liable for damages.*

● DAMAGES + NOUN **action, claim** *A woman is to bring a civil damages action against the men she alleges murdered her son.* | **award**

● PREP. **in ~** *They are claiming £45 million in damages.* | **~ for** *He received damages for personal injury.* **~ of** *She was awarded damages of £90 000.*

● PHRASES **an action/a claim for damages** *The judge upheld her claim for damages against her former employer.*

**6. The types of collocations covered****6.1. Formal categories**

As is mentioned above, collocates are grouped together according to their parts of speech. The types of collocation dealt with in the *OCDSE* are shown with some examples below:

1. Under noun headword:	
adjective + noun collocations	<i>brief conversation, mutual cooperation</i>
quantifier + noun collocations	<i>an element of compulsion, a cup of coffee</i>
noun + verb collocations	<i>controversy arises, a competition takes place</i>
verb + noun collocations	<i>carry on a conversation, go into competition</i>
noun + noun collocations	<i>credit account, credit limit, crisis management</i>
preposition + noun collocations	<i>on credit, under curfew</i>
noun + preposition collocations	<i>a crime against . . . , competition between . . .</i>
phrases	<i>a letter of credit, the scene of the crime</i>
2. Under verb headword:	
adverb + verb collocations	<i>fully comprehend, exactly coincide</i>
verb + verb collocations	<i>fail to comprehend, refuse to compromise</i>
verb + preposition collocations	<i>correspond with . . . , compromise on . . .</i>
phrases	<i>curse the day, pick and choose</i>
3. Under adjective headword:	
verb + adjective collocations	<i>go crazy, remain calm</i>
adverb + adjective collocations	<i>totally convincing, absolutely correct</i>
adjective + preposition collocations	<i>be crazy at . . . , be curious about . . .</i>
phrases	<i>fed and clothed, chilled to the bone</i>

Unlike some other collocations dictionaries such as the *BBI* and the *KDEC*, the *OCDSE* includes no grammatical construction patterns. It may be wise to exclude descriptions of grammatical behaviour of a headword, regarding it as being outside the scope of a collocations dictionary,

Figure 1: the entry for *damage* (noun) from the *OCDSE*

and focuses on lexical behavior of a headword, especially when the dictionary is subject to severe space restrictions. Such grammatical patterns as the *BBI* and the *KDEC* cover are found in general learner's dictionaries, so that they may be left out unless more detailed semantic information about their use is provided.

It must be noted that 'VERB' at the noun entry contains not only verbs, but also any kinds of phrases that take a headword noun as an object or a subject, and that can form the predicate of a sentence. For example, at the entry for *rule*, *be bounded by*, *be fettered by*, and *be governed by* are listed under the VERB + RULE section, and similarly, *be applicable* is listed together with *apply* and *operate* under the RULE + VERB section.

When a constituent of a collocation typically takes a certain grammatical form, it is shown in that form. For example, the collocation *be teething* at the BABY + VERB section at *baby* shows that the verb is typically used in the progressive in this collocation (viii). Another example can be taken from the adjective section in the entry for *happy*. It includes a list of adverbs that *happy* goes with typically in the negative: "far from, not altogether, not at all, not entirely, not exactly, not particularly, not too, not totally". There is observed another way to indicate the grammatical context. At the entry for *believe*, among the adverbs *seriously* is listed with a gloss saying "only used with negatives"; however, no other example of this kind can be found by the writer.

## 6.2. 'Word collocation' and 'category collocation'

The ties between the components of a collocation are lexical, as *little* cannot be used instead of *small* in *small fortune* though they are synonymous. Collocations of this type are called 'word collocations' in the *OCDSE* and equate to collocations in the general sense. The *OCDSE* recognizes and includes another type of collocations named 'category collocations'.

There is another area of collocation that might be called 'category collocation', where a word can combine with any word from a readily definable set. This set may be quite large, but its members are predictable, because they are all words for nationalities, or measure-

ments of time, for example. At the entry for *walk*, one of the groups of collocates is given as 'three-minute, five minutes', etc.: the 'etc.' is to indicate that any figure may be substituted for 'three' or 'five' in these expressions. (ix)

Some other examples of 'measurements of time' are *7-night*, *two-week* etc. at the entry for *holiday* and *three-year*, *two-year* etc. at *contract*. This may be quite useful if users do not know the grammatical rule that attributive nouns are normally singular and preceded by a hyphen (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1333). Or some users may not know that they can simply say "a three-year contract" instead of "a contract valid for three years" or "a contract that runs [holds good] for three years". Examples of the same kind are *five-point*, etc. at the entry for *agenda*, *five-mile*, etc. at *run*, and *200-piece*, etc. at *jigsaw*. Ordinal numbers also form category collocations. For example, *first*, *second*, etc. is given under the adjective section of the noun entries for *anniversary*, *act* (sense 4), *gear* (sense 1), and *round* (sense 4). A set of adjectives such as *weekly*, *monthly* and *yearly* also belong to this group, and they are found at entries such as *subscription* (annual, monthly, yearly, etc.), *tenancy* (weekly, yearly, etc.), *basis* (daily, monthly, weekly, etc.), and *check-up* (annual, monthly, etc.). Below are shown some examples of entries that have 'nationalities' as collocates:

*capital* (British, Japanese, etc.), *currency* (European, Japanese, etc.), *speaker* (Japanese, Russian, etc.), *ambassador* (British, French, etc.), *blood* (Mediterranean, Spanish, etc.), *silk* (Chinese, Thai, etc.) *passport* (EU, Mexican, French, etc.), *cheese* (Dutch, Swiss, etc.), *cooking* (Chinese, Italian, etc.), *ancestry* (Celtic, French, etc.)

It is interesting to see national characteristics reflected in some entries. However, is it really necessary to include *Dutch* and *Swiss* at *cheese* and *Chinese* and *Thai* at *silk*? As for *cooking*, a phrase example "traditional English cooking" is provided for the adjective collocate *traditional*, and this may kill two birds with one stone. (Although "French regional cooking" is given as an example of *Chinese*, *Italian*, etc., this can be an example for *regional* and illustrate two collocations.)

## 7. Coverage

This section will look into some of the formal categories (cf. Section 6.1) and argue the utility of the kinds of collocations actually included from the perspective of foreign learners of English.

First, verb + noun collocations will be looked at. According to the semantic function they perform in a piece of writing, collocations can be divided into two types: collocations that convey particular ideas economically and precisely and those that add meanings or describe ideas more accurately or vividly (Hill *et al.* 2000: 93). For example, if a learner does not know the verb + noun collocation *live up to expectations*, it would be difficult to express the idea of it concisely and produce a sentence like *The show failed to live up to our expectations*. On the other hand, the adverb *totally* in *I was totally exhausted at the time I advanced to the final* merely intensifies the adjective *exhausted*, and is not an essential element to make the main point. Verb + noun collocations (as well as verb + adjective + noun collocations) can be considered to be “the single most important kind of collocation” (Hill *et al.* 2000: 116).

Second, adjective + noun collocations will be examined as they play both semantic functions mentioned above. Suppose a user is looking for an adjective to describe a change made which is only superficial and not important at the entry for *change*. The user may be unable to express his or her idea until he or she finds *cosmetic*. In this case, *cosmetic change* is a collocation that enables the user to name a concept. At the same time, it can be a collocation that enables us to express an idea *more* accurately. Suppose a user is not quite happy about describing a certain change as *small* or *minor change*. The user seeks for a more appropriate word and finds *cosmetic*, which may be better to mark his or her disapproval at the change.

Third, verb + adverb collocations and adverb + adjective collocations will be examined particularly in terms of intensification. Lorenz (1998: 53) explains the communicative effects intensification brings about as follows:

By amplifying and downtoning adjectival qualities, as in *crucially important* or *hardly significant*, we express assertion or caution, emphasis or doubt, and we take a committed or a non-committal stance

towards the message in question. More than their mere denotation would suggest, intensifiers therefore convey speaker-stance, in some cases even to the point of creating a sense of identity and group membership.

Since correct use of intensifiers can be considered a step forward to natural English, it will be interesting to see how the *OCDSE* treats this issue.

Another type to be analyzed is verb + verb collocations, which are unique to the *OCDSE*, and they are not generally called ‘collocations’. Lexical patterns treated here are quite different from ones in the other sections. What are included in this category seem to be auxiliary verbs, adjectives used predicatively followed by to-infinitive, verbs followed by to-infinitive, and anything that often or typically goes with the headword and that can form the predicate of a sentence as a whole. It will be discussed how helpful users would find this type of collocational information.

In order to throw light on character of the *OCDSE*, the analysis will be made in parts in comparison to two other dictionaries dealing (mainly) with collocations and one Japanese-English learner’s dictionary, though it is difficult to make a direct comparison since all the dictionaries that will be examined differ considerably in their editorial policies, compilation process, size etc. (See the table below.) It is claimed on the back cover that 150,000 collocations of 9,000 nouns, verbs and adjectives are provided with over 50,000 examples in context in the *OCDSE*. The *BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations* (1997), a monolingual collocations dictionary for advanced learners of English, was compiled by three native speakers of English, with little or no access to corpus data, and makes a contrast to the *OCDSE* in that it relies largely on the compilers’ linguistic intuitions and theories. It is claimed on the front cover that the *BBI* contains 18,000 entries and 90,000 collocations. The number of entries is twice as large as that of the *OCDSE*, but the amount of collocational information per entry is much smaller. The *Kenkyusha Dictionary of English Collocations* (1995), a bilingual English-Japanese dictionary of collocations compiled on manually collected citations, will be also examined in order to see the difference or similarity between a monolingual

collocations dictionary and a bilingual one. There is no mention of the number of headwords; however, according to my estimate based on sampling, the *KDEC* has about 19,295 headwords<sup>6)</sup>. The headword list consists mainly of nouns, verbs and adjectives, but includes a few adverbs, prepositions, and pronouns as well (vii). All the collocations are basically shown in phrase or sentence examples in this dictionary, so that the number of examples amounts to as many as 380,000 (vi). Sometimes more than one example is given for one collocation, so that the number of collocations contained is likely to be smaller. However, the *KDEC* is the largest of all the dictionaries being discussed.

	<i>OCDSE</i>	<i>BBI</i>	<i>KDEC</i>
page size	233 mm × 155 mm	216 mm × 140 mm	247 mm × 170 mm
page (A to Z)	892	386	2,782
headwords	9,000	18,000	19,295
collocations	150,000	90,000	—
examples	50,000	—	380,000

In addition, the *Kenkyusha Luminous Japanese-English Dictionary* (2001), an encoding dictionary for Japanese learners of English, will be included in this comparison because it sees the importance of collocational information in writing and provides a number of boxed sections of collocations. For example, the entry for *kiroku* (= record) has a collocations box providing the following verb + *record* collocations and adjective + *record* collocations:

Lexical collocations at the entry for *kiroku* (= record) in the *KLJED*

verb + noun:		adjective + noun:	
記録から漏れる	escape <i>record</i>	オリンピック記録	the Olympic <i>record</i>
記録する	makes <i>record</i> (of ...)	簡潔な[詳しい]記録	a brief [detailed] <i>record</i>
記録に留めておく	retain <i>records</i> (of ...)	空前の記録	an all-time <i>record</i>
記録を上回る	exceed the <i>record</i>	公式記録	an official <i>record</i>
記録を更新する	better the <i>record</i>	校内最高記録	a school <i>record</i>

記録を調べる	examine [check] the <i>record</i> (of ...)	コース記録	a course <i>record</i>
タイ記録を出す	equal [tie] the <i>record</i> ...	国内最高記録	a national <i>record</i>
		古代の記録	an ancient <i>record</i>
		最速記録	a speed <i>record</i>
		自己最高記録	a personal <i>record</i>
		支出記録	an expenditure <i>record</i>
		成長記録	one's growth <i>record</i>
		統計上の記録	statistical <i>records</i>

While the *OCDSE* and the *BBI* are targeted at learners of various nationalities, the *KLJED* tries to meet Japanese learners' needs specifically. While the *KDEC* is rather for highly advanced learners of English such as academics and translators, the *KLJED*, a learner's dictionary, may be considered to reflect the Japanese learners' needs more.

### 7.1. Verb + noun collocations

A feature of the *OCDSE* as a corpus-based collocations dictionary becomes notable when its coverage of verb + noun collocations is compared to that of the *BBI* and the *KLJED*. Basically, the *OCDSE* aims to reflect typical or frequent use of word-combinations in a native-speaker corpus, which are what editors assume learners would need (cf. Section 3). As a result, the *OCDSE* covers fewer semantic categories in proportion to the number of collocates included, compared to non-corpus-based encoding dictionaries such as the *BBI* and the *KLJED*. For example, at the entry for *rule*, the *OCDSE* lists 35 verbs, which are grouped into ten semantic categories, under the first sense of 'what you can or cannot do, say, etc.' (see Table 1). For the corresponding sense, the *BBI* contains 20 verbs, and the *KLJED*, 14 verbs in the collocation box. In addition to the collocates contained in the *OCDSE*, the *BBI* lists *set down* and *comply with*, which should fall into group 1 and group 2 respectively, and four more collocates of three semantic groups: *adopt*, *stretch*, and *rescind* and *revoke*. The *KLJED* has *prescribe* and *set up*, which should belong to group 1, and *respect* and *ignore* can enter group 2 and 7, respectively. It has

Table 1: Comparison of verb collocates of *rule*

	<i>OCDSE</i>	<i>BBI</i>	<i>KLJED</i>
1	draw up, establish, formulate, impose, issue, lay down, make, set out	draw up, establish, impose, lay down, set down	formulate, prescribe, set up
2	abide by, adhere to, follow, go by, observe, play by, stick to	abide by, obey, observe, comply with	respect
3	be in line with, conform to		
4	be in breach of, break, disregard, fall foul of, flout, violate	be in breach of, fall foul of	be in breach of
5	apply, enforce	apply, enforce	apply, enforce
6	bend, relax	bend, relax	bend, relax
7	waive	waive	ignore
8	tighten up		tighten
9	be bound by, be fettered by, be governed by		
10	interpret, understand		
11		adopt, stretch	
12		rescind	
13		revoke	
14			remodel, rewrite, change
total	35	20	14

three more collocates, which could form another semantic category: *remodel*, *rewrite* and *change*. Although both the *BBI* and the *KLJED* contain much fewer verb collocates overall, the *BBI* covers nine semantic categories, and the *KLJED*, eight. Since the main function of verb + noun collocations is to name a concept that a user has in mind, the coverage of broader semantic categories may be given priority over that of collocations that have high frequencies in the corpus from the same semantic group.

Also, collocations included in the *OCDSE* may differ in some cases

considerably from those which Japanese lexicographers predict that users would find useful. It is interesting to see that only four out of the eleven verb collocates of the noun *delay* included in the *OCDSE* overlap with those in the collocation box in the *KLJED*. The verbs that appear in the both dictionaries are asterisked.

Table 2: Comparison of verb collocates of *delay* between the *OCDSE* and the *KLJED*

<i>OCDSE</i>	<i>KLJED</i>
be subject to, be plagued by, experience, face, suffer*, cause*, lead to, avoid*, prevent, reduce*, apologize for	suffer*, cause*, avoid*, reduce*, brook no —, create, produce, eliminate, give rise to, increase

A similar difference can be observed when the verb collocates of the noun *compliment* are compared to those in the *BBI*, the *KLJED*, and the *KDEC*. In Table 3 below, the collocates are semantically grouped together, on the basis of the categories in the *OCDSE* and the *BBI*. A glance at the table tells that the coverage of the *OCDSE* is different from the other three. Only three out of ten semantic categories are covered by all the four dictionaries, and the three collocations *pay somebody a compliment*, *accept a compliment*, and *return a compliment* are included in the all of them. One collocation, *mean something as a compliment*, is unique to the *OCDSE*. Noticeably, the *BBI* and the *KLJED* have a strikingly similar coverage. Since they are both not corpus-based, it may be said that editors' view about learners' needs are reflected more directly in the types of collocations included. It is interesting that a collocations dictionary compiled by native speakers and a Japanese-English encoding dictionary compiled by non-native speakers agreed on almost the same inclusion. The *KDEC*, the biggest of all, provides the most collocates, and is similar to the *BBI* and the *KLJED* in its coverage. *Shower*, *angle for*, *fish for a compliment*, and *bandy compliments* are included in the all dictionaries except the *OCDSE*, which may carry some implications for inclusion.

Table 3: Comparison of verb collocates of *compliment* in the four dictionaries

	<i>OCDSE</i>	<i>BBI</i>	<i>KLJED</i>	<i>KDEC</i>
1	pay sb	pay smb.	pay make present	pay make offer
2		shower lavish	shower heap	shower overdo throw toss
3	mean sth as			
4	get receive			get receive
5	accept acknowledge	accept	accept	accept acknowledge
6	regard sth as take sth as	take smt. as	take . . . as	
7	repay return	return	return	echo return
8		angle for fish for	angle for fish for	angle for fish for
9		bandy ~s	bandy ~s	bandy ~s
10				shrug off fend off
total	10	9	11	18

## 7.2. Adjective + noun collocations

Adjectives in adjective + noun collocations can be divided into two types: quality-modifying adjectives and category-naming adjectives. For example, the entry for the noun *speech* lists the following 30 adjectives for the sense of 'formal talk':

brief, little, short | interminable, long, long-winded, rambling | keynote, major | eloquent, excellent, good | emotional, impassioned, rousing, stirring | boring | impromptu | public | televised | political | opening | closing | acceptance, after-dinner, Budget, campaign, con-

ference, farewell, inaugural

From *brief* to *impromptu* are adjectives that modify the content of a speech, and from *public* to *inaugural* are adjectives that describes the type of a speech. These two kinds of adjective collocates serve quite a different function. In the Introduction, the *OCDSE* explains that "A student who chooses the best collocations will express himself much more clearly and be able to convey not just a general meaning, but something quite precise" (vii) by comparing the grammatically correct two sentences:

This is a good book and contains a lot of interesting details.

This is a fascinating book and contains a wealth of historical detail.

The use of quality-modifying adjectives promotes preciseness or vividness of expression. On the other hand, category-naming adjectives may greatly contribute to succinctness. For example, if learners do not know the collocation *inaugural speech*, then it would be difficult to describe succinctly the first speech made by a new president at the ceremony.

As for the coverage, there seems to be neither clear difference nor strong similarity between the *OCDSE*, the *BBI*, and the *KDEC*, when the entries for *speech* (in the sense of "formal talk") are compared (see Table 4). The *KLJED* has the following adjectives at the entry for *enzetsu* (speech) and most of them are more or less the same as the ones in the table: *welcome* [*welcoming*], *stirring* [*moving*], *keynote*, *inaugural*, *acceptance*, *political*, *campaign*, *agitative*, *presidential*, *funeral*, *long and boring*, *poor*, *short* [*brief*], *pointless*. Unlike the case of verb + noun collocations, it seems that generally, the more collocates are covered, the more semantic categories are covered in the case of adjective + noun collocations in the *OCDSE*.

## 7.3. Adverb + adjective collocations

The *OCDSE* recognizes importance of intensifying adverbs and gives a good coverage of them in general. Here are some examples:

impressive    decidedly, enormously, extremely, highly, hugely, immensely, mightily, most, particularly, really, tremendously, truly, very  
rich            enormously, extremely, fabulously, filthy (*informal*), im-

Table 4: Comparison of adjective collocates of *speech*

	<i>OCDSE</i>	<i>BBI</i>	<i>KDEC</i>
1	brief, little, short	brief, short	brief, short
2	interminable, long, long-winded, rambling	long; long-winded; rambling	long and boring, long, rambling, long-winded
3	keynote, major	keynote	keynote
4	eloquent, excellent, good	eloquent	eloquent, excellent, admirable, splendid etc.
5	emotional, impassioned, rousing, stirring	passionate; rousing, stirring	emotional, impassioned, rousing, stirring
6	boring	boring	boring
7	impromptu	impromptu, unrehearsed	impromptu, unrehearsed
8	public		public
9	televised		television, televised
10	political	political	political
11	opening		opening
12	closing		
13	acceptance, after-dinner, budget, campaign, conference, farewell, inaugural	acceptance; after-dinner; campaign; farewell; inaugural; nominating; welcoming	acceptance, after-dinner, campaign, farewell, inaugural, welcoming, etc.
total	30	21	93

successful	mensely, incredibly, seriously, striking ( <i>informal</i> ), very astonishingly, enormously, extremely, highly, hugely, outstandingly, particularly, phenomenally, remarkably, spectacularly, very
stupid	bloody ( <i>taboo</i> ), damn/damned, exceptionally, extremely, fucking ( <i>taboo</i> ), incredibly, monumentally, particularly, really, very
worried	deeply, desperately, dreadfully, extremely, frantically, genuinely, particularly, really, seriously, terribly, very

Although its full treatment of intensifying adverbs is a welcome policy, the *OCDSE* also has some adverbs whose inclusion needs to be ques-

tioned. First, as all the above examples show, the *OCDSE* includes *very* as a possible choice at a number of entries. Some entries such as *cloudy*, *fixed* and *handy* give only *very* as intensifiers. Probably, it is more instructive and space-saving to indicate the unacceptability of use of *very* when it cannot be used, since learners are not likely to be aware of the fact that even an apparently all-purpose intensifying adjective *very* is by no means universally applicable as one cannot say, for example, *\*very awake*, *\*very asleep*, or *\*very apart* (Sinclair *et al.* 1992: 758). Second, taboo words such as *bloody* and *fucking* may not be suitable for inclusion, when the dictionary claims that the type of texts its target users are likely to produce is “what might be called ‘moderately formal language’ — the language of essay and report writing, and formal letters — treating all subjects — business, science, history, sport, etc . . . at the level of the educated non-specialist” (viii–ix). In addition, *bloody* and *fucking* go with almost any word. Third, a set of adverbs of ‘degree’ are often given at entries for adjectives that describe feelings; however, it is doubtful whether they merit inclusion in a collocations dictionary as they combine with quite a few adjectives without lexical restrictions.

anxious	a bit, a little, quite, rather, slightly, somewhat
annoyed	faintly, a little, quite, rather, slightly, somewhat
excited	a bit, a little, pretty, quite, rather
nervous	a bit, a little, pretty, quite, rather, slightly, somewhat
scared	a bit, a little, pretty, quite, rather

Perhaps, a series of these adverbs (*a bit, a little, pretty, quite, rather*) should be treated in such a way as avoids redundancy if they are included.

#### 7.4. Verb + verb collocations

The purpose of the inclusion of ‘verb + verb’ collocations, which is unique to the *OCDSE*, may be to enable users to produce natural English, that is a step forward from producing grammatically correct English or a lexically acceptable combination of words. However, there also seem to be some problems about selection of the items. The followings are examples of ‘verb + verb collocations’ randomly collected:

VERB + ACCEPT (sense 2)	be happy to, be prepared to, be ready to, be willing to   be reluctant to, be unwilling to   be unable to, refuse to   can/cannot, could (not), will/won't, would (not)   be forced to be
VERB + ADMIT	be forced to, have to, must   refuse to   be honest enough to, be prepared to, be the first to, be willing to, dare (to), have the courage to   be ashamed to, be embarrassed to, be loath to, be reluctant to, be unwilling to, hate to, not care to
VERB + AGREE (sense 1)	cannot   be inclined to
VERB + OPPOSE	vote to   continue to
VERB + ORGANIZE	seek to, try to   help (to)   be able to   manage to   fail to   learn (how) to   be difficult to   be easy to, be possible to
VERB + REFUSE	can't/couldn't, can/could hardly   be entitled to, have the right to   be/seem churlish to
VERB + THANK	must, want to, would like to

Certainly, the phrases listed above form a recurrent phrase with the headword; however, in some cases what connects a sequence of words that commonly co-occur is more grammatical than lexical. For example, *be difficult to*, *be easy to*, and *be possible to* at *organize* seem to be syntactic strings, though they may be found typical in the corpus data, and the inclusion of these phrases in a collocations dictionary is therefore questionable. Some items seem to have a pragmatic function when they are used at the sentence level. For example, *want* to at *thank* forms a spoken phrase "I want to thank . . ." used when you express your gratitude. At the entry for *want* in the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (2002) "I want to say/thank/tell etc." is given as a spoken phrase and is explained as "used for introducing something that you are about to say, especially at the start of a speech" with an example "I want to thank you all for being here.". Another example is *have to* and *must* at the entry for *admit*. The *Longman Advanced American Dictionary* (2000) explains "I have to admit" is "used when you are admitting something you are embarrassed about" with an example: "I have to admit I was a little drunk.". However, inclusion of these phrases sometimes does not seem consistent. If *be willing to* is included at *accept*, why not at *help*? If *be ashamed to* is included at *admit*,

then why not at *say*? If *must* is included under *thank*, then why *cannot*, which makes an idiomatic expression "I can't thank you enough for . . .", is not?

Inclusion of this type of phrases is beneficial to learners; however, it is quite doubtful whether users can actually put them into the typical context they are used in as they are not always accompanied by examples. At the entry for *agree*, phrases with a pragmatic function such as *couldn't agree more*, *I quite agree* and *I'm sure you will agree* are given under PHRASES with examples: *I couldn't agree more with what has just been said.* and *I'm sure you'll all agree that this issue is vitally important to the success of the company.* This approach seems better since these phrases are probably hard to be understood without any contextualization.

### 7.5. Conclusion

Although only four types of collocations have been examined, there seems to be a little bit too much emphasis placed on the corpus data in regard to coverage, as some of the examples cited in the above sections illustrate. Lea and Runcie (2002: 824) say that "What learners of English really need to know are the collocations that native speakers actually use, in the course of writing and speaking on any subject but collocation; not necessarily what 'springs to mind' when a native-speaker is asked to name a collocation." Acquisition of collocations frequently used by native speakers will certainly contribute to fluency. However, it does not mean that a good learner's collocations dictionary has only to represent accurately frequent, typical word combinations in a native-speaker corpus. Some differences observed between the *OCDSE* and the other three dictionaries may also imply that users' needs cannot be covered simply by providing frequent collocates retrieved from a native-speaker corpus, which is designed to be a representative sample of the current English. Although the *OCDSE* does provide good models with learners, taking the foreign learner's viewpoint may lead to improvement.

### 8. Suggestions for improvements

In this last section, I would like to make some suggestions on how to make

the dictionary an even more valuable tool. First, it is regrettable that the *OCDSE* provides no cross-references between related or synonymous headwords. With cross-references, more information would be accessible to users. For example, if the entry for *movie* is cross-referred to that for *film*, users can simply gain much more information. In addition, a cross-reference from a general word to a specific word may help users to make a more appropriate choice. Suppose that a user is trying to lexicalize a feeling of great anger and looks up the entry for *angry*. The user may be happy finding collocations such as *bitterly angry* and *extremely angry*. However, a cross-reference from *angry* to *furious*, for example, proposes another solution to the user, that is a choice of a different lexical item (as a starting point) to express the idea.

Second, information about incorrect use may be appreciated because collocations are by nature open-ended and no list could ever be exhaustive or definitive. In other words, all users find is (lists of) what is possible or correct, and here arises a problem. When a word combination a user has in mind is not listed in a dictionary, it may not be in because it is deviant. It may not be included because it is a free combination or on the borderline, but still is fully acceptable. There is no way for users to check whether or not the combination is acceptable. The *Longman Essential Activator* (1997), an encoding dictionary, tries to prevent learners from making mistakes by giving notes called 'Essential Help Boxes' based on the error analyses of the Longman Learner's Corpus. For example, at the concept *crime*, a help box reads: "Don't say 'he made a crime' or 'he did a crime'. Say **he committed a crime.**" At the concept *amount/number* the note is given that "Don't say 'a big number'. Say **a large number.**" *Taishukan's Genius Japanese-English Dictionary*, second edition (2003), a Japanese-English learner's dictionary for production, takes a similar approach. It marks "less-typical" collocations with a triangle ( $\Delta$ ) and "non-typical" collocations with a cross sign ( $\times$ ) in order to show the degree of acceptability (x). For example, the entry for *kibishii* (severe, strict, rigid, etc.) has an example to show less-typical use in contrast to typical ones: *The doctor ordered her to go on a rigid [*strict*,  $\Delta$ *severe*] diet.* At the entry for *katai* (hard, firm, rigid, etc.), a set of adjective collocates to go with the noun *cover* are

shown: *a book with a hard [*stiff*, *tough*,  $\Delta$ *rigid*,  $\Delta$ *firm*,  $\times$ *solid*] cover.* Some examples of incorrect collocations are: *make [ $\times$ do] two mistakes in arithmetic at machigau* (mistake), *enter [ $\times$ join] school*, *join [ $\times$ enter] the line at hairu* (enter, join), and *She was very (*much*) [ $\times$ badly,  $\times$ seriously] hurt to hear him say so.* at *kibun* (mood, feeling, etc.). These usage notes are made based on native speakers' intuitions, corpus data, and Japanese lexicographers' insights into learners' needs (x).

Third, more semantic information about synonymous collocates may be necessary in order to prevent users from making dictionary-oriented mistakes. The presentation of synonymous collocates in the same list may lead users to think that all the collocates are interchangeable, when they are not at all. For example, at section 1 of the entry for *change*, seven adjectives meaning 'small in degree and/or of little importance' (*cosmetic*, *marginal*, *minimal*, *minor*, *slight*, *small*, *subtle*) form one subsection. However, while *small* is a neutral word, *cosmetic* has a negative prosody. Although it is suggested in 'Introduction' to consult a general learner's dictionary such as the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, in order to make the best choice, a general EFL dictionary sometimes fails to give distinctive semantic features (cf. Komuro 2003: 134–35) to near-synonyms. Moreover, it is more desirable for a learner's dictionary to be self-contained.

The last suggestion to make concerns the entry structure. Although the *OCDSE* and other collocations dictionaries usually group collocates together and present them according to their parts of speech, the thematically structured entry might be able to help users more with their lexicalization of ideas (Komuro 2003). As Lea and Runcie (2002: 828) point out, it cannot be assumed that learners know from the outset the precise grammatical form that the lexical realization of their idea might take. The *Longman Essential Activator* presents words and phrases that share the same idea irrespective of grammatical categories with a heading to name the category, which may be applied to the entry structure of a collocations dictionary. Below is a proposed entry for the semantic unit *refuse* based on the data in the *OCDSE*, reorganized to give priority to meaning over form.

**REFUSAL** noun, **REFUSE** verb**1. to refuse something in a very clear and definite way**

**refuse flatly/point-blank/categorically** (= refuse in a firm and sometimes impolite way<sup>7)</sup>)

He flatly refused to discuss the matter<sup>8)</sup>./Gerard refused point-blank to co-operate.

**give a flat/point-blank/complete refusal**

**refuse pointedly** (= refuse clearly in a way that shows you are annoyed)

**2. to be refused**

**be met with by/with a refusal** Her appeals for funds to support the cause were met with blank refusal.

\*\*\*

The entry shows the users that there are (at least) two different grammatical structures to express the idea of refusing something in a very clear way. For the long-term benefit of the learners, it might be more effective to show lexical bonds that lie beyond parts of speech in order to develop users collocational competence as Stubbs (2002: 30) states that “the collocation is between semantic units, irrespective of grammatical category”.

**9. Concluding remarks**

It can be said that the significance of collocations has been increasingly recognized in the Oxford tradition. The *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English* (Volume 1: Verbs with Prepositions & Particles, 1975; Volume 2: Phrase, Clause & Sentence Idioms, 1983) is “the first large-scale phraseological dictionary of English to be compiled by native speakers” (Cowie 1998: 220). ‘General Introduction’ shows its foresight to see pedagogical importance of acquisition of collocations, as it begins with “Familiarity with a wide range of idiomatic expressions, and the ability to use them appropriately in context, are among the distinguishing marks of a nativelike command of English” (vi). A critical appraisal of the *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English*, the 4th edition (1989) by Takahashi *et al.* (1992) points out its good coverage and treatment of

collocations. Its fifth and sixth editions published in 1995 and in 2000 respectively, contain a language study page ‘Collocation’ consisting of three subsections: ‘What is collocations?’, ‘Types of collocations’ and ‘Collocation in this dictionary’. A good collocations dictionary was therefore expected to come out from Oxford, and the *OCDSE* lives up to our expectations. The *OCDSE* is probably of almost maximum size as a portable collocations dictionary, and its presentation of information is typographically neat. This dictionary should go in the list of dictionaries recommended to learners of English. In order to make this dictionary more accessible for less advanced learners, bilingualized versions would be widely welcomed.

## NOTES

1) I would like to express my deep sense of gratitude to Emeritus Prof. Keisuke Nakao for his suggestions, comments and encouragement at every stage of this study. I am also truly grateful to Mr. Michael Rundell for his comments and great help with the final draft.

2) This dictionary was compiled on the basis of *Selected English Collocations* (1982) and its companion volume, *English Adverbial Collocations* (1991).

3) Although it is not mentioned which edition was used, it may be assumed that the second edition published in 1993 was made use of for the compilation.

4) There is no mention of which edition was used, but it may be assumed that the latest version at the time, that is the 6th edition published in 2000 was used.

5) Homonyms are dealt with under the same entry. For example, the noun entry *bank* has four sections: “1 for money”, “2 by a river/canal”, “3 area of sloping ground”, and “4 mass of cloud, etc./row of machines, etc.”.

6) I selected ten pages from every hundredth page from page 1 onwards as sample materials and counted headwords, which are printed in bold. The table below shows the samples pages and the number of headwords in each section.

page	from	to	no. of headwords
1~10	abacus	abuse <sup>1</sup> n.	74
200~210	babble <sup>1</sup> n.	bank <sup>3</sup> n.	80
400~410	charge <sup>2</sup> v.	child	73
600~610	cross <sup>3</sup> adj.	curious	85
800~810	dress <sup>2</sup> v.	duckling	53
1000~1010	field <sup>1</sup> n.	finger <sup>1</sup> n.	57
1200~1210	help <sup>2</sup> v.	hiss <sup>2</sup> v.	87
1400~1410	launch <sup>3</sup> n.	leaning	45
1600~1610	moneymaker	morning	52
1800~1810	pilgrimage	place <sup>1</sup> n.	62
2000~2010	queen <sup>1</sup> n.	radio <sup>1</sup>	68
2200~2210	scull	secret <sup>1</sup> n.	54

2400~2410	stress <sup>2</sup> v.	study <sup>1</sup> n.	48
2600~2610	turner	understanding <sup>1</sup> n.	133

The average number of headwords per page is 6.935714, and the estimate number of the total headwords is about 19,295.

7) Quoted from the entry for *refuse* of the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (2002).

8) Quoted from the entry for *refuse* of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 6th edition (2000).

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Historical Development of English-Japanese  
Dictionaries in Japan (7):  
*Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten (Saito's Idiomatic  
English-Japanese Dictionary, 1915)*  
by Hidesaburo Saito

KAZUO DOHI	RUMI TAKAHASHI
YURI KOMURO	TETSUO OSADA
JUNKO SUGIMOTO	SATOKO ISOZAKI
TAKAHIRO KOKAWA	

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### 1. Introduction

The last installment deals with *Inouye-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten (Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary)* (hereafter abbreviated to *IEDJ*) in 1915, which

could be said to have been compiled under the strong influence of *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (COD)* (1911). Here we are mainly interested in an original, creative and influential dictionary *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten (Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary) (JECJ)* that was issued in two parts (and later combined into one volume) in 1915. Saito's dictionary is the only one still reprinted and available in the twenty-first century in Japan: it has an amazingly long history of nearly 90 years (through two enlargements). The title means, when literally translated, a medium-sized (English-Japanese) dictionary (*Chu-Jiten*) placing a special emphasis on the use of idiomatic expressions in English (*Jukugo-Hon'i*). It should be noted that part of the title *Chu* (medium-sized), which has been used in the titles of a number of bilingual (English-Japanese as well as Japanese-English) dictionaries, was adopted around the turn of the twentieth century (cf. Hayakawa 1998). *Idiomology* (translated into *kan'yogoho gaku* (慣用語法学) in Japanese) or *idiomological*<sup>1)</sup> is said to have been coined by the author Saito himself (see Section 4) (*s.v. idiomology* in *Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1913) and *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*, Second edition (1934)). It is considered that the term *idiom* covers more than the one suggested by H. Palmer (1938: xii): What are usually called "idioms" are generally nothing other than (a) collocations, (b) phrases and sayings, (c) rarer semantic varieties of words and collocations, (d) peculiar construction patterns and, in short, any word or form of wording that is likely to puzzle a foreign student. In the last section 11, Saito's second dictionary, *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten (Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary) (KEJ)* (1922), will also be briefly discussed. *JECJ* and *KEJ* as well as *IEDJ* are the only bilingual dictionaries with the authors' names given in their English titles.

*JECJ* is regarded as being completely different from *IEDJ* in that, while the latter obviously is heavily dependent on *COD* (see Dohi *et al.*, 2001), the former is considered to have been compiled or produced after Saito's earnest devotion to lifelong study of English: Saito's dictionary, *JECJ*, includes, or is heavily dependent on, the descriptions of his major works of English mentioned below (see Section 7.1), and there are found

not only lexical information but also idiomatic English expressions including collocation, his notes on description and/or prescription of English grammar and usage mainly based on his works. In this respect, it is thought of as the first dictionary that is more lexicon- and grammar-oriented in one volume, or a dictionary-cum-grammar. The dictionary includes much grammatical information that is found in not only most of the bilingual (English-Japanese) learners' dictionaries today at home but also most of the monolingual learners' dictionaries of English abroad, especially those issued in the last quarter of the twentieth century. We should remember *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten (A New English-Japanese Dictionary)* (1912) (*SEJ*) by Iwae Irie referred to in the series of the installments (Kokawa *et al.*, 2000), because it was also abundant in grammatical and usage information, but the descriptions do not seem to be so systematically organized as Saito's, or based on the author's own work. As will be made clear later, *JECJ* is considered to be original in the description in its microstructure and to have been compiled for advanced learners or teachers of English. The author was not necessarily satisfied with his successful product because he compiled the second dictionary *KEJ* for general users or less advanced learners several years later. He also tried to compile a larger, or what is often called unabridged, dictionary, but his death stopped him from completing it.

It is safe to say that *JECJ* is the first bilingual dictionary where the author attempts to give Japanese students systematically lexical and grammatical description, and Takebayashi (1978: 442) says, "Saito's dictionary was a monumentary [*sic.*] *English-Japanese dictionary of the Japanese, by the Japanese, for the Japanese,*" or more appropriately a bilingual dictionary "by a Japanese, for the Japanese" (italics are originally given). This is because Saito always studied English from the viewpoint of a Japanese or a teacher of English: he endeavored to make a contrastive study or comparison between English and Japanese. In this respect his dictionary includes a lot of "[the] editor's own original ideas and inventions" (Takebayashi: *ibid.*) that are to be found in a number of later mainstream bilingual dictionaries. This statement should be carefully examined below, especially with reference to grammatical description, collocation informa-

tion, and words' meanings. *JECJ* is radically different from *IEDJ* and other precedent dictionaries because it is more grammar- and usage-oriented, or idiomology-oriented.

Here we are mainly interested in the following aspects or microstructure of *JECJ*: entries, pronunciation, grammar and usage, examples or verbal illustrations, translation equivalents (sometimes in comparison with *SEJ*, *IEDJ*, and *COD* as well as *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten (Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary)* (1911) (*MoEJ*)). Saito's educational and teaching career is also mentioned: it is an amazing fact that the author never studied abroad, quite unlike Jukichi Inouye, editor of *IEDJ*, who was brought up and educated in Britain for ten years. Also are concisely dealt with whether Saito is under the influence of other grammarians or teachers of English, what idiomology is, and descriptions in his concise and revised dictionary *KEJ*. No pictorial illustration and appendix are found in *JECJ* like *COD*. The following aspects of *JECJ* will not be looked into here: two later enlargements of *JECJ*; to what extent, if any, P. M. Roget's well known dictionary *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* (in the 32nd edition [i.e., impression] issued in 1874)<sup>2</sup>) is related to *JECJ* descriptions (Omura, Takanashi, and Deki Volume 5 1980: 206); to what extent *JECJ* has an influence on an English-Chinese dictionary (Machida 1981: 34). There are a few articles (Ishii 1975, Kan'no 1997) discussing how Saito is under the influence of E. Satow and M. Ishibashi's *English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language*, Third edition (*DSL*) (1904), in examples and translation equivalents, and nothing of their articles will be referred to.

*JECJ* is worthy of special mention because it includes much original description based on his works of English that is nowhere found in an influential concise dictionary of English *COD* at the time, though *JECJ* is partly regarded as being under an influence of *COD*. It is the first dictionary that includes both lexical information and detailed grammatical descriptions taken from his works of English: the author compiled a dictionary-cum-grammar for Japanese. Last but not least, it should be mentioned that there appeared twice the so-called revised editions in 1917 and 1919, but they are considered to have been what is now regarded as the impressions with some corrections added, because except for such

minor alterations as are found in *katakana* pronunciation (e.g. *advantage*), parts of speech (e.g. *ask*), examples (e.g. *arm*), and underlined translations (e.g. *astray*), no fundamental and major change is found of the pages of the text (cf. Omura 1960: 395).

## 2. Educational Background<sup>1)</sup>

The series of installments usually mention the historical background in the society of Japan, and the previous series of articles by Kokawa *et al.* (2000) and Dohi *et al.* (2001) include the descriptions around the turn of the twentieth century. We will briefly mention an aspect of English education here at the beginning of the age.

There are some features found in the latter Meiji period (roughly between the latter 1890s and the middle 1910s). Sakurai (1970: 209, 213, 219) gives the number of Chu Gakko [middle schools] and their students, some of which including those in the Taisho period are tabulated below for comparison.

This shows that an increasing number of students studied (English) toward the end of the Meiji era (1868–1912) and in the Taisho period (1912–26), which inevitably led to the situation a larger number of students wanted to go on to secondary schools and to have higher education, but the small number of schools for higher education did not make it possible for all of them to do so. This compelled the government to establish a number of secondary or higher schools or universities: for example, Daigaku rei [the University Order] in 1918. The number of middle school students at the end of the Taisho period shown at the bottom in Table 2.1 is much larger than that of Koto Gakko [higher

Table 2.1: The number of schools and students

Year	the number of schools	the approximate number of students
1892	61	16,000
1902	257	94,600
1912	314	132,500
1919	345	169,800
1926	518	316,700

middle school] students (Table 2.2A) and that of university or college students (Table 2.2B) (Sakurai 1970: 219). It is noticeable that after the 1890s more emphasis was placed on women's education, resulting in the situation at the end of the same period the number of Koto Jo Gakko [girls' higher schools] and their students (Table 2.2C) outnumbered that of middle schools and their students (Sakurai: *ibid.*).

Meanwhile, there were issued a number of magazines, journals or newspapers for studying English: more than 30 kinds, most of which lasted for a short period, began to be issued for ten years between 1905 and 1914 just before the publication of *JECJ*, for example (Fujii 1995: 135–67). In connection with Saito, *Eigo no Nippon (The Nippon)*, a monthly magazine or bulletin for Seisoku Eigo Gakko [Seisoku English School] appeared in 1908. More works in English by Japanese came to be published, and textbooks of English were edited by Japanese, a few typical examples of which were done by Saito. Japanese teachers came to play a major role in English language teaching. At the end of the Taisho period there were more than a hundred of Shihan Gakko [teachers' schools] (Table 2.2D). There began to grow around the turn of the century more interest in language teaching, and accordingly several books on the subject were written, such as M. Toyama's *Eigo Kyojuhu* [Teaching Method of English] (1897), who became the Minister of Education the following year. Saito, as a school principal, was also interested in teaching method. For example, one of his articles titled "English, as it is taught, and as it ought to be taught" is contributed to *The Gaikoku Gogaku Zasshi: A Monthly Magazine devoted to the Study of Foreign Language* (Vol. 1, No 4.) (1897). A translated version (with notes) of Henry Sweet's *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899) appeared in 1901. *Eigo Kyoju (The English*

Table 2.2: The number of schools and students

1926	the number of schools	the approximate number of students
A	31	18,100
B	37	52,100
C	862	326,200
D	104	51,300

*Teachers' Magazine*) began to be issued in 1906. More reference books and dictionaries for Japanese and studies of English came on the market to meet the widespread demand of students and teachers.

It is worthy of special mention in connection with historical development of lexicography in Japan that 1902 saw the appearance of 中学校教授要目 [the points of teaching (the English language) in middle schools] formulated by the then Education Minister, part of which, quite interestingly, says that 適當ノ機会ニ於テ辞書ノ用法ヲ授ケ漸次對訳ニアラサル辞書ノ使用ニ慣レシムヘシ [it is necessary at an available opportunity (for teachers) to give students lessons on how to use dictionaries in order to gradually make them familiar with such references that rarely consist of only entries with their translation equivalents] (Sakurai 1970: 164). Later in 1911 the wording was a little changed: 適當ノ時期ニ於テ予習ヲ課シマタ辞書ノ用法ヲ授ケ其ノ使用ニ慣レシムヘシ [it is necessary at an available opportunity (for teachers) to give students homework of preparing for lessons and to give them lessons on how to use dictionaries in order to make them familiar with such references] (Sakurai 1970: 200). This demonstrates that the importance of dictionaries and how to make a proper use of them was only partially but officially at an early stage of language education recognized around a century ago. (Section 2 by Dohi)

### 3. The Author and the Dictionary

#### 3.1. The author<sup>1)</sup>

Hidesaburo Saito (1866–1929) was one of the most famous persons in the world of English education in Japan. He never studied abroad, but he studied English very hard and made constant efforts to describe English from the viewpoint of Japanese with an unyielding spirit. When he was 30 years old, he established Seisoku Eigo Gakko [Seisoku English School] in Tokyo, managed it and taught a large number of male students (Deki 1998: 11). He wrote a lot of English textbooks which he used as the textbooks of his school, and compiled the grammar-oriented bilingual dictionaries for Japanese. He was bold and a man of sturdy build, like a lion<sup>2)</sup> (Omura 1960: 496, 520), and there was something heroic about him. He drank like a fish and often quarreled with his bosses or colleagues

because of his confidence in his ability. It seems that his forceful personality made it possible for him to write a large number of works.

Hidesaburo Saito was born in Sendai in 1866. His father, Eirai Saito, worked for the clan (what is now considered as a tax collector) and he was said to be very strict with his children and educated them with eagerness, while Hidesaburo's mother was gentle and affectionate. Eirai Saito loved to gain knowledge in many fields, such as mathematics, science, astronomy, and so on, and he personally taught his son the ABC's of English. After he died in 1904, Hidesaburo wrote on his father's tomb "Here lies one who was a lover of peace and ever did his duty." (Omura 1960: 5)

In 1871, at the age of only five, he entered Shin'mikan, a school of English in Yokendo, *Daimyo* Domain School in his hometown. He learned quickly and his English pronunciation was excellent. Then, in 1874, he entered Miyagi Eigo Gakko [Miyagi English School], one of the seven English schools of the government (Sakurai 1970: 97–101), in which mainly foreign teachers taught English, mathematics, history, geography, and physical education. He was taught English by Charles L. Gould from Ohio in America. Later Saito looked back on these days and wrote "I learned my English at the expense of my Japanese" (*s.v. Gisei* in *Saito's Japanese-English Dictionary*).

In 1879, he went up to Tokyo and entered Tokyo Daigaku Yobimon [the Preparatory School for Tokyo University] and quit the school the next year. Then he entered Kobu Daigakko [the Imperial College of Engineering] in 1880 and studied naval architecture and chemistry. Saito wrote "My first intention was to become an engineer" (*s.v. Kangae* in *Saito's Japanese-English Dictionary*). But in this university he was more interested in English so that he read a lot of English books including *The Encyclopaedia Britannica*. He studied under James M. Dixon (1856–1933), an American educator born in Scotland. Saito often visited his house to study English. He was so influenced by Dixon that Saito's style of writing became quite similar to his. But he was expelled from the College. The reason was because he broke the rules of the dormitory (*Miyagiken Toshokan Kaikan Kinen Jigyō Koenkai Kiroku* 1998: 6). At this time, he was baptised a Christian.

After his expulsion from the Imperial College, he returned to Sendai and gave private English lessons at home, then helped to open Furukawa Eigo Juku [Furukawa English School].<sup>3)</sup> In 1887 when Daini Koto Chu Gakko [the Second Higher School] was opened in his hometown Sendai, he was appointed associate professor of the school. And he married Torako who is said to have been fashionable in those days. But he resigned from the school because of a quarrel with his American boss who complained that Pope's *Essay on Man* was difficult for Japanese students. Saito insisted, "It may be difficult for Americans, but we Japanese can understand."

Then he moved to Gifu Prefecture, and took up the position of lecturer of Gifu Chu Gakko [Gifu Middle School]. During this period, he was not only absorbed in English literature such as the works of Chaucer, Shakespeare, Emerson, Dickens, and Thackeray, but also read the works of Herder, Schiller, Goethe, and Molière. At the same time, he studied German, French, Latin, Greek, and Middle English. He resigned from the school when the schoolmaster recommended that he take an examination for the license of an English teacher in junior high schools. Saito refused the suggestion and said "Who can examine me?" because he had much confidence in his English ability.

He moved from Gifu through Nagasaki and Aichi to Tokyo. In Nagasaki, he worked for Chinzei Gakkan [Chinzei High School], and contributed articles to the weekly newspaper, *The Kyushu Times* (cf. Fujii 1968: 481). In Aichi, he worked for Aichi Jinjo Chu Gakko [Aichi Middle School] (1893). Then he moved back to Tokyo and was appointed lecturer of Daiichi Koto Gakko [the First Higher School] (1893). At this time he published *English Conversation-Grammar* (1893) and was promoted to professor of the school.

In 1896, he established Seisoku English School in Tokyo with the aid of the president of the publisher Kobunsha, and became the principal of the school. The meaning of the name of this school *Seisoku* (正 *Sei* means right and 則 *Soku* means rule) is "to understand quickly in reading" in English teaching method, which is in contrast to the anomalous method in other schools. Saito devoted himself to teaching English all his life.

At first, there were less than 10 students (cf. Deki 1998: 28), but after Saito resigned from the First Higher School and concentrated on teaching in Seisoku, the number of students gradually increased to over 3000. So many students were attracted to his lectures that those students who could not enter the crowded classroom listened to the lectures through the windows outside in the rain. (Omura 1960: 295). Also he published *The Yorozu Weekly* (万 *Yorozu* means everything): *A Popular Newspaper and Guide for Students of English*, which lasted only around half a year. In this paper, there was much information about Seisoku English School. Shunsui Sagawa who was one of the lecturers of Seisoku published a monthly magazine *The Nippon*. Saito was very glad when he heard the project of the magazine. In 1904, Saito was appointed part-time instructor of Tokyo Imperial University. At this University many students were attracted to his lectures, too. But he resigned because some professors felt embarrassed that the large number of questions in Saito's exams would prevent the students from studying their major subjects.

In this period, Saito studied English steadily and published some of his major works, such as *Practical English Grammar* (1898–99), *Advanced English Lessons* (1901–02), *Monographs on Prepositions* (1904–06), and *Studies in Radical English Verbs* (1909–11).

In 1915, *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten* (*Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary*) was published by Nichieisha. This has been widely recognized and still found in bookstores today.<sup>4)</sup> In 1922, *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten* (*Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary*) was published for general users (cf. *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten* Omura, Takanashi, and Deki Volume 5 1980: 81). In 1923, the Great Kanto Earthquake occurred. The school buildings of Seisoku English School and its printing department were burned down and also manuscripts of *Saito Waei-Dai-Jiten* (*Saito's Japanese-English Dictionary*) which was in progress were reduced to ashes in the fire. But he started again from scratch and completed it all by himself and had the dictionary issued by Nichieisha in 1928. He had the plan to compile another unabridged English-Japanese dictionary, finishing the manuscripts from A to H. But he got sick around the time of the disaster. Receiving medical treatment, he passed away in 1929 due to rectum

cancer. His illness and death prevented him from completing the unabridged dictionary.

He was awarded Kun-Goto-Zuiho-Sho [the Fifth Rank of the Order of the Sacred Treasure] in 1922, and Kun-Yonto-Zuiho-Sho [the Fourth Rank of the Order of the Sacred Treasure] soon after his death.

Saito did not study abroad, devoting himself to studying English and educating students, some of whom acquired an outstanding ability of English and became excellent English teachers. His works of English and dictionaries deserve far more recognition, and are worthy of special mention in the history of English studies and education as well as lexicography in Japan. (Section 3.1 by Isozaki)

### 3.2. Saito's dictionaries

#### 3.2.1. *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten*

*Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten* titled in English as *Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary* compiled by Hidesaburo Saito was issued in 1915 by Nichieisha, the publishing department in his school, Seisoku Eigo Gakko, on account of the serious breakdown in relations with the owner of Kobunsha, the former publisher of most of his textbooks and works. For the economic reason of covering the publishing costs of other works by Saito, the issuing of the dictionary was unavoidable.

The size of one-volume edition is approximately 7.7 inches (19.5 cm) high, 5.1 inches (13.0 cm) wide, and 2.6 inches (6.5 cm) thick<sup>5)</sup>, which is about as large as *COD*. The cover color of *JECJ* somewhat reminds us of that of *COD*, though the former has a color of stronger reddish vermilion. It was originally issued in two volumes or parts (the first half includes 750 page A to M section and the second half M to Z section that finishes in 1594 page) and later integrated into one volume. (See the photos in the appendix.) Later editions or impressions (note that it is customary in Japan for books to put the date of publication after the back matter, which is exactly the opposite in Western countries) say that it was revised at least twice in two and four years later, but the fact that the main text page undergoes no change suggests that there was no major revision but the one with minor corrections. The one-volume dictionary consists of Preface (1–

6), Explanatory Note (7), Phonetic Symbol List (8–10), and the 1594 text, with no illustrations or pictures and no appendix, which is quite similar to the macrostructure of *COD*.

It is interesting to find that Saito made proofreading several times before issuing the original dictionary. There exist some of the drafts in the last stage of the proofreading. They demonstrate that until the last minute before the publication of *JECJ* Saito did the proofreading. It is surprising that, as far as the last proof-reading draft the present writer saw is concerned, the author did it at least five times, occasionally as many as seven or eight times, in at least ten months or a year. This seems to mean that the proofreading took the author well more than a year. It was done not only by the author but also by his two pupils (*JECJ* Introduction: 5). This shows how much time and energy he devoted to the compilation of his dictionary.

It is not exactly known how many copies were sold after its publication. Omura says that more than eight hundred thousand copies were sold in some twenty years after its publication in 1915 (Omura 1960: 395). (This may have been fairly possible since one of the later editions owned by the present writer shows its 211th impression issued in 1929.) *JECJ* is still in print in its revised edition issued by one of the major publishers in Japan, Iwanami Shoten, the founder of which was a student of Saito's school of English and of the First Higher School where Saito taught English (*Miyagiken Toshokan Kaikan Kinen Jigyo Koenkai Kiroku* 1998: 31). Three hundred and ten thousand copies of the revised editions have been sold for the last fifty years (1952–2002)<sup>6)</sup>. It is quite surprising that the estimated total number of over a million copies over so long years has been sold and used.

Soon after the publication of *JECJ*, there was a heated discussion or controversy between *Chugwai Eiji Shimbum (CES)* and *The Nippon*. Saito often contributed his own English translation of works and poems in Japanese to the latter magazine, because it was founded and edited by one of his former students, Shunsui Sagawa, whose name is mentioned in the preface (p. 5) of *JECJ* for his contribution to its proofreading. Not only Saito but also a number of teachers in Seisoku Eigo Gakko (SEG) (founded in 1892) contributed to the magazine. It is quite natural that the

magazine is considered to have been a kind of bulletin of the school. By contrast, the former magazine was edited and issued by Saito's rival, Yaichiro Isobe, who was particularly unfavorable to Saito's SEG. Isobe is the founder of, and often contributed to, the former magazine, which was issued by Kokumin Eigaku Kwai (KEK), another private school of English founded in 1889. Both were very popular among the students eager to study English. But Isobe may not have been amused that SEG was built next to KEK and attracted thousands of students. That may have been one of the reasons Isobe's students made a criticism of *JECJ* in the magazine *CES*.

After some critical reviews were made in public in *CES*, series of articles were written between Vol. 10, No. 12 (June, 1917) and Vol. 11, No. 7 (October, 1917) in *The Nippon*, arguing that the articles in *CES* are unreasonable and nitpicking. The matter will not be looked into in detail here, but this seems to have the first heated controversy on bilingual dictionaries between the two competing groups of English teachers in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries. This also makes us realize how influential SEG and *JECJ* were at the beginning of the twentieth century.

*JECJ* had two major revisions in 1936 and in 1952, both made by the late Professor Minoru Toyoda. The first revised and enlarged new edition in 1936 has 1714 pages. The difference between the original edition and the revised one is that International Phonetic Alphabet is introduced in place of *katakana* pronunciation and the newly added entries and meanings are given asterisks so as to make it clear that they are new. Another new edition in 1952 contains 1786 pages, and the new entries and meanings are again marked with asterisks. This means that, with the exception of pronunciation and the marked entries and meanings, the revised editions still include the content of the original edition.

### 3.2.2. *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten*

The second dictionary by Saito is titled *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten* (*Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary*) (*KEJ*). The dictionary to be discussed in more detail in Section 11 in this installment was issued in 1922 by the same publisher Nichieisha. The size is approximately 6.0 inches

(15.2 cm) high, 3.5 inches (8.8 cm) wide, 2.0 inches (5.0 cm) thick. (cf. Deki 1982: 1) The dictionary consists of Preface, Explanatory Note, Phonetic Symbol List, and the 1896-page text, with the 33-page appendix<sup>7)</sup>: the list of difficult personal names with their pronunciations, the list of declension of adjectives and adverbs, the list of conjugation of verbs, the list of weight and measures, the list of foreign currency, the list of precious stones and their connotation, the list of colors and their connotation, and the list of national flowers. The appendix partly accounts for the influence of the rival dictionary of *JECJ*, *IEDJ*, because the latter includes in its appendix a few similar lists like the list of difficult personal names. It has not been made clear how many copies of *KEJ* were sold.

(Section 3.2 by Dohi)

## 4. Saito and Idiomaticity

### 4.1. Saito and other grammarians or teachers of English

Saito was taught English by several native speakers, British or Scottish and American, since his childhood. It is conceivable that every teacher had an influence on his study of English. James M. Dixon from Scotland, at the Imperial College of Engineering in Tokyo (later grew to be Tokyo University), should not be forgotten. Dixon wrote several textbooks for university students: more often-quoted and better-known are *A Handbook of English* (1881), *English Lessons for Japanese Students* (1886b), *English Composition* (1889), *How to Use the Articles. How to Use "Shall" and "Will"* (1892) and the best known *Dictionary of Idiomatic English Phrases* (1888). Examining Saito's major works below (Section 7.1) makes us realize that the author also includes some of the same or similar contents as Dixon's works: prepositions, articles and (auxiliary) verbs, for example.

In the introduction in the second edition (1889a) of *English Lessons for Japanese Students* Dixon says:

... The general fault of the English of Japanese is that it is too bookish ... The idiomatic phrases that are perfectly intelligible to a child at home, and are given only in very complete dictionaries, under the head, perhaps, of the preposition which enters into their construction, prove very puzzling to a foreigner ... (p. 1)

He goes on to say:

It is almost essential that a thorough treatment of prepositions, with praxis, should be given to the class . . . the teacher should trace out the meaning of prepositions of allied meaning; comparing *about* with *around*, *in* with *on* and *at*, *above* with *over*. A foreigner who can use English prepositions freely and correctly, has grasped a very powerful lever, which will stand him in good stead in any kind of composition . . . or in any kind of conversation, scientific, social, religious, or political." (p. 14)

As for the articles, he says, "This article is perhaps the most [*sic.*] remarkable case in which grammar has to be referred to Logic for explanation . . ." (p. 10)

Both editions (1886b, 1889a) contain the articles, auxiliary verbs, how to ask questions in English, conditional sentences, various hints arranged alphabetically, and prepositions, as well as accents and prosody, and spelling. His *Handbook* (1886a) similarly includes accent, spelling, prosody, the substantives, the article, the pronoun, adjectives and adverbs, the verbs (mainly auxiliary verbs), prepositions, conjunctions, interjections, indirect narration, and some hints in composition. These two books *Handbook* (1886a) and *English Lessons* (1886b) include the topics of the same category: the articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, in addition to accent and prosody. They are very interesting in their contents, because Saito also writes the books on the articles and prepositions as well as verbs. Even supposing that Dixon's books have an indirect influence on Saito's works, the former are in principle written for practical purposes: for university students to become used to idiomatic usage of English rather than English grammar. Regarding memorizing a short lyric, Dixon (1889a: 8) mentions as one of the four good results that students will acquire 'many of the purest English phrases and idioms.'

To make sure that Dixon has a greater influence than any other English teacher, let this writer give just a few other books or textbooks issued or reprinted around the turn of the twentieth century. The remarkable fact is that there were issued some textbooks written for Japanese students of English by native English teachers invited to Japan: Cox (1880) and

Seymour (1890), for example. Some grammar books issued in Great Britain or the USA were also imported and reprinted in Japan: Bain (1863), and Nesfield (1895, 1896), for instance.

Swinton (1877), one of whose works was partly translated by Saito himself, includes etymology, syntax, and analysis in the text. Cox (1880) includes definition of terms, law of assimilation, sounds in the English language, words (prefixes, suffixes, compounds), inflection, classification of words, on the nature of the sentence, questions for examination, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Seymour (1890) gives nouns, pronouns, articles, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and order of words. Their contents taken into account, it is interesting to note that prepositions take up more space, followed by verbs. Cox (1880) and Seymour (1890) as well as Dixon (1886b) devote nearly half of the text to explaining the use of these two parts of speech, which seems to show that Japanese students had (and still now have) a lot of difficulty in their appropriate use or they lack the due recognition of these parts of speech. In this regard, these kinds of textbooks intended for Japanese students are considered to have been practical in that they give more prominence to points where students often make mistakes. Saito's works are also practical purpose-oriented, and Saito may have studied those works for reference.

Bain's third edition (1879) includes the sentence, the parts of speech, inflexion, derivation, syntax, examples of analysis, government, order of words, of purity, punctuation and parsing, sometimes explaining each entry or word in detail. By far influential seems to have been Nesfield (1895) (cf. Abe 1955), originally meant for Indian students (cf. Omura, Takanashi and Deki 1980 Volume 5: 223). He wrote some works on English grammar and composition, the most popular one of which is *Idiom, Grammar and Synthesis* (1895) originally issued as one of the five successive books of Nesfield's English Grammar Series (cf. Omura 1960: 213). It was reprinted by some publishers in Japan around the turn of the twentieth century. The book is easy to use or understand because it often deals with common words with examples and explanation added, and is considered to have been instructive for Japanese students. It is quite

conceivable that Saito owes some of the idea of his description to the book: for example, some grammatical terms in Saito's works might have been adopted from Nesfield's, such as collective noun, generalizing use and individualizing use of the definite and indefinite articles, factitive verb. Similar or almost the same explanation is found for pronouns: for example, both say the pronoun *they* in the expression 'They say that he is rich' is an indefinite demonstrative pronoun. There is to be found 'Idiom in Words, Phrases, and Constructions' in Part II in Nesfield's book. In section 3 'Words followed by Prepositions' of Chapter 18 'Preposition [*sic.*] and Prepositional Phrases' in his book, four types are to be found: (a) nouns followed by prepositions, (b) adjectives and participles followed by prepositions, (c) verbs followed by prepositions, and (d) adverbs followed by prepositions. In the same section he says, "Particular words are followed by particular prepositions . . . we say, "He died *of* fever." We do not say, "He died *through* fever, or *by* fever, or *from* fever, or *owing to* fever, or *on account of* fever, or *with* fever." (p. 220) This may seem trivial or quite natural for native speakers, but difficult or complex for foreign students. Although not wholly comprehensive, Nesfield's work seems to have been regarded as practically invaluable for Saito.

Before or while Saito was engaged in his several works or textbooks of English in his *Seisoku Eigo Gakko*, there were imported and reprinted some books such as the ones by Nesfield, or native teachers like Dixon were invited to teach English to Japanese students, which sometimes resulted in compiling a few textbooks. Their books for Japanese might have been instructive because, as Dixon says, they are usually intended to be "devoted to the elucidation of special points that are apt to trouble the students" (1889a: 3). Although they are not always systematic in that they do not necessarily give descriptions based on a theory or grammar, textbooks should be practically useful rather than be systematic and theory-oriented. See the preface in Dixon (1892), which focuses on the use of two auxiliary verbs of *will* and *shall* and the use of the articles:

. . . It is the fruit of much study devoted to the two subjects of which it treats. These are by general consent the stiffest portions of our English syntax for foreign students, and it is scarcely possible to attach too much

importance to a thorough and systematic investigation of the difficulties they offer... The distinction in the use of these two words is one of the most admirable niceties in English idiom, and cannot be neglected by earnest students. As for the articles, the great difficulty lies in massing the various rules and exceptions under a limited number of heads. . . .

Some works, especially those by Dixon, seem to have been a great help as well as a stimulus when Saito was working on his textbooks, because all he needed was what is necessary for Japanese students to be a better speaker or writer of English. Saito planned to write textbooks or books of English in a number of areas. It is safe to say that his major works are the works on English grammar and the works on English verbs and those on prepositions. This somewhat reminds us of the similarity to or influence of Dixon's and Nesfield's works. Saito's contrastive study between English and Japanese and devoted study of English idioms (which include a wide variety of English expressions including collocation) enabled him to publish a number of works on English. Quite a number of the descriptions in his works are incorporated into his dictionary, which results in the difference from traditional or precedent dictionaries and the originality of the dictionary.

Around the turn of the twentieth century, an increasing amount of attention was paid to English usage. Let the present writer give a few examples of reference books by Japanese authors. 『應用英和新辭典』 (*The-saurus of Every-Day English*) (1903) and 『英和例解要語大辭典』 (*A Dictionary of English Particles and Other Grammatically Important Words*) (1911) are both compiled by S. Katsumata, who later compiled a better-known dictionary 『英和活用大辭典』 (*Kenkyusha's Dictionary of English Collocations*) (1939). 『英文法辭典』 (*A Grammatical Dictionary of the English Language*) (1915) is compiled by I. Irie, author of *SEJ*. (The authors including Saito never studied abroad.) These books with numerous examples (and occasional explanations) are intended for Japanese to become accustomed to usage of individual words. It is interesting that Katsumata (1911), which deals with the selected entries ranging from *a* to *little*, says in the preface that the purpose of the book is to explain in minute detail complicated uses of the articles, prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns and

so forth with a number of appropriate and illustrative examples of usage. He says that they are closely related to English grammar and idiom. Saito and Katsumata as well as Irie all take a keen interest in English usage. The facts demonstrate that Japanese teachers of English at that time began to pay more attention to English usage from a very practical point of view of decoding and encoding the language. (Section 4.1 by Dohi)

#### 4.2. Idiomology

The term 'idiomology' is considered to be of Saito's coinage, and it is often pointed out that the term does not conform to derivation patterns. According to word formation rules, it should be 'idiomatology', instead of idiomology (Ichikawa 1940: 469). Whether it is ill-formed or not, idiomology has its entry in *Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1913) and *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*, Second edition (1934), and is defined as the study of idioms in both of them (cf. Omura 1960: 525–26). However, the term is not included in the *OED*. The earliest written record of Saito's use of this term is the heading "STUDIES IN ENGLISH IDIOMOLOGY" on the cover and title page of the original copy of the first volume of *Monographs On Prepositions* (1904) (Deki 1983: 829). Taking it into consideration that Saito had a deep knowledge of the classics, it is reasonable to assume that Saito deliberately invented the term to show the direction of his studies. However, Saito left no clear or definite definition of 'idiomology' though its concept is explained (often so enthusiastically) in many of his works. The present section therefore aims to clarify Saito's idea of idiomology.

Trying to explain the concept of idiomology, Saito often uses 'science/scientific' or 'system/systematic' as a keyword. He may have applied the idea of valency in chemistry to his analysis of the English language. Saito's specialty at university was engineering (cf. Section 3.1), and he compares English to chemistry in the preface (cf. Section 7.2). He observed how words behaved in context and analyzed them according to their 'valencies' such as presence of article, construction patterns, and preceding and/or proceeding prepositions. His scientific/systematic study does not mean linguistic or theoretical study of English, but means 'extensive' or 'exhaus-

tive' description of words in practice (Kojima 1999: 392).

Another keyword is, of course, 'idiom/idiomatic,' but it should be made clear at the outset that what Saito called 'idioms' or 'idiomatic expressions' are not the same as idioms or idiomatic expressions in their generally accepted linguistic sense of the present, and that idiomology does not therefore mean mere study of idioms. In the Preface of his *JECJ*, he writes:

Words are nothing in themselves, and everything in combination. In the case of words, combination comprises construction and association. A verb without its constructions is no verb . . . ; and association is what makes the most significant words what they are. By association are meant the *idiomatic*, *proverbial*, and *conventional* expressions in which each word usually occurs . . . each word being presented in all its idiomatic, conventional, and proverbial associations. (p. 1)

This is a quote from his own paper read at the Second English Teachers' Conference held in 1914. It seems that "construction" is used to refer to syntactic patterns, and "association" to lexical behaviour. The meaning of a word is closely related to the collocational and syntactic patterns it occurs in, and that is exactly what he tried to show and actually did in the dictionary. Idiomatic expressions may be considered to include what we usually call collocations and idioms today. Knowledge of grammar is not enough for foreign learners to produce native-like English, and it is knowledge of typical lexical patterns, which are considered to be stored as units in native-speakers' mental lexicon, that enables learners to sound natural (cf. Pawley and Syder 1983).

Saito repeatedly mentions in his works of grammar the significance of acquisition of idiomatic usage, that is to say typical and therefore natural use of English. Below are provided relevant parts of an introduction and two prefaces of his grammar books in chronological order.

1) The present work is an attempt to supply the want, so widely felt, of an elementary text-book, which shall so combine theory with practice as to enable the beginner to gain an insight into the genius of the language and to speak and write it with grammatical correctness and *idiomatic propriety* [italics added].

— Preface of *English Conversation-Grammar* (1893: i)  
(quoted in Omura 1960: 143)

2) The main design of this book is to help clear away the difficulties which the Japanese student experiences in mastering *the idiomatic usages of the English language*. It is an attempt to meet a want which has long been felt by both teachers and students of English in this Empire [italics added].

— Preface of *Practical English Grammar* Vol. 1 (1898)  
(quoted in Omura 1960: 185)

3) The study of English is reducible to system . . . If English is to be studied at all, it ought to be studied as a science . . . No grammar, rhetoric, or lexicon in existence treats of the living physiology of the language, the multifarious functions of each individual word, the nice distinctions and delicate shades of meaning peculiar to each word and phrase, the spirit and genius of *English idiom*.

(The whole text here is originally in italic; however, for the sake of clarity, italics remains only for emphasis.)

— Preface of *Advanced English Lessons* Vol. 1 (1901: ii–iii)  
(quoted in Omura 1960: 221–22)

Probably Saito had developed his idea of idiomology through his grammar study (cf. Section 7), and all the results of his studies led him to the compilation of *JECJ*.

Saito felt a strong need for a new English dictionary that provides its users with idiomatic expressions and realized his idea in *JECJ*. The previous quote from Preface continues to say, “The dictionary required is one that shall be the *ne plus ultra* of accurate translation, with the definitions in rational, systematic, genetic order — each word being presented in all its idiomatic, conventional, and proverbial associations.” Saito was emphatic about the close relationship between form and meaning. He demarcates different senses of a headword in relation to words that co-occur with it, and presents them with complementation patterns, collocations and/or selectional restriction in *JECJ* (cf. Section 8.7). Detailed descriptions of selectional restriction and collocational information exemplify Saito’s idea of idiomology. As it will be illustrated in Section 9.3, *JECJ* is not dependent for such descriptions on its precedents such as *MoEJ* and *SEJ*,

in which can be seen the strong influence of English dictionaries such as *Standard* and *Century* (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000), and *IEDJ*, which is heavily dependent on the *COD* (cf. Dohi *et al.* 2001). Saito did use some dictionaries as sources of reference (cf. Section 8.5); however, he, rather, used them to supplement his comprehensive linguistic knowledge gained by extensive reading and his own publications on grammar (cf. Section 7).

It is often the case that each sense of a verb entry is provided with several different equivalents according to objects that the headword takes. For example, fourteen senses of the verb *break* in its transitive use are given with its object(s) to be taken. They are indicated either in Japanese or in English and placed in round brackets preceding the definition and examples. (Below placed in square brackets are the present writer’s translation given to the original Japanese text. Note that information given in round brackets is original.)

【他動】 [= vt.] (堅い物を) [= something hard] 砕く, 割る, かく。

② (門戸, 城壁ふどを) [= gate, wall etc.] 破る. (the enemy’s line) 敵陣を破る. (a line of defence) 防禦線を破る. (prison or jail) 破獄する. (the seal) 開封する. (a door open) 門を破り開ける.

③ (約束ふどを) [= promise etc.] 破る. (one’s word) 破約(食言)する. (the law) 掟を破る(犯す). (the commandments) 破戒する.

④ (a lamp or a window) 毀す, 崩す, 潰す, 破砕する. (an army) 軍勢を解く. (a banknote) 札をくづす. (a bank) 銀行(博奕宿の身代)を潰す(破産せしむ).

⑤ (the ranks) 隊伍を亂す. (the surface of the water) 水面を亂す. (the skin) 傷ける. (the peace) 治安を妨害する.

⑥ (an arm or a leg) 折る. (one’s neck) 頸の骨を外す. (a lance with someone) 仕合をする. (又)論鋒を向ける.

⑦ (a rope or a chain) 切る, 絶つ. (the thread of a story) 話の鎖を途切る.

⑧ (續くものを) [= something continuing] 斷つ, 途切る, 不通にする. (a relation with someone) 関係を絶つ. (an electric current) 電流を絶つ(停電せしむ). (the silence) (所謂)静肅を破る. (a white surface) 白面上の黒星と成る. (one’s sleep) 夢を覺ます. (one’s fast) 朝飯を食ふ(は斷食を破る). (a journey) 途中で下車して(又乗る).

⑨ (強いものを) [= something strong] 弱らす, 挫く, 我を折る. (one’s spirit) 勇氣を挫く. (one’s will) 我を折らしむ. (one’s heart) 力を

落とさせる(斷腸). (**the back of** a man) 荷が重過ぎる. (**the back** or **the neck of** the day's work) あらまし片付ける(至難ふ部分を遣つて了ふ).

● (in a horse — 馬ふどを) 馴らす. (a horse **to** the rein) 馬を乗り馴らす.

⑩ (荒蕪地, 新道ふどを) [= wasteland, a new road etc.] 開く, 開墾する.

⑫ (some news **to** a person — 隠しある事を) 漏す. 明かす. (bad news **to** the family) 遺族に凶報を伝える.

⑬ (まじふいを) [= spell] 解く.

⑭ (a person **of** a habit — 人の癖を) 直す. (**oneself of** a habit) 我癖を直す.

In the above entry, Japanese equivalents that first appear are underlined, but the translations for the phrases including the headword are not always underlined. (For more detailed explanation about underlined senses, see Section 8.3.1.3.) It is clearly shown that there is no one-to-one match between an English word and its Japanese translation equivalents, and that users need to adapt the Japanese translation equivalent for *break* according to its object collocates.

In the case of the verb *break*, the basis of this fine distinction of word meaning had been already formed in *Studies in Radical English Verbs (SREV)* (1909–11) (cf. Section 7.2.3). The section named '(14) TO BREAK: TYPICAL EXPRESSIONS' in *SREV* (1933: 92–98) lists a total of more than 185 expressions, which illustrate a large variety of objects *break* takes, and the information given in the round brackets and the examples in *JECJ* overlaps to a great extent the expressions covered in *SREV*. Below are shown the corresponding expressions in *SREV* to the object collocates given in round brackets from the sense 2 to the sense 6. When there is no match between them, it is marked by a dash (—).

Descriptions in *JECJ*

- ② (the enemy's line)  
(a line of defence)  
(**prison** or **jail**)  
(**the seal**)

Expressions in *SREV*

- 19. A line of defence is **broken**.  
65. **To break prison (jail)**  
(b) You did wrong in **breaking** the seal.  
24. The seal of the letter was **broken**.

(a door **open**)

119. **To break** a door or a safe **open**.

120. Open the door, or I will **break** it **open**.

③ (**one's word**)

83. **To break one's word**

(**the law**)

37. He has **broken the law**

(**the commandments**)

—

④ (a lamp or a window)

6. The window is **broken**. A **broken** bottle or lamp.

(an army)

—

(a banknote)

27. I must **break** a ten-yen note.

(**a bank**)

51. **To break** a bank

⑤ (**the ranks**)

96. **To break the ranks**

(the surface of the water)

14. A falling stone **breaks** the surface of the water.

(the skin)

21. A blow **breaks** the skin.

(**the peace**)

38. He has **broken the peace**

⑥ (an arm or a leg)

7. One **breaks** an arm or a leg.

(**one's neck**)

74. A Japanese never **breaks his neck**.

81. **To break one's neck**

(**a lance with** someone)

53. **To break a lance with**

It is also worth noting that Saito tries to distinguish between generic words used to denote the range of possible object collocates (e.g. a relation with someone, a banknote) and actual collocates (e.g. one's word, one's heart) by using different typefaces. Actual constituents of expressions that Saito calls 'verbal phrases' and 'special uses' in his *SREV* are given in bold print.

Similarly, when a different meaning of a verb is closely connected with a preposition it is followed by, prepositions are given at the beginning of each sense in round brackets with general indication of prepositional objects. For example, the entry for *agree*, relevant part of which is provided below, shows that when you share the same opinion with someone else, you agree *with* him or her *about* it, but when you accept someone else's suggestion or proposal, you say that you agree *to* it.

**Agree** . . . (in some point — 何の點が)一致する, 似る. (in opinion — 意見が)合ふ. They all **agree in** this respect. 此點に於ては何れも一致して居る.

② (**with** onc — **about** a matter — **on** the subject — 誰と何に就て)同意する。I **agree with** you. 君と同意。We have **agreed about** the matter. 彼件に就ては同意だ。I can not **agree with** you **on** this point. 此(論)點丈は御同意が出来ぬ。...

⑦ (**to** a proposal — 相談ふどに)應ずる, 承諾する, 承知する。(**to** = *assent to* — a statement — 言を)容れる。I can not **agree to** such a proposal. 承知出来ぬ。

Showing a preposition in bold face helps users find the right meaning more quickly, and when engaged in an encoding task, learners can tell which preposition to use in order to convey their idea.

Saito's approach to description of meaning and behaviour of a word seems virtually the same as the proposition that "[e]very distinct sense of a word is associated with a distinction in form" (Sinclair qtd. in Moon 1987: 89), which underlies the Cobuild project started and developed at Birmingham in the 1980s. The fine sense distinction based on collocation can be put to good use with the information updated (Kojima 1999: 387). However, Saito sometimes seems to depend too much on form as a criterion for sense demarcation, and this issue will be discussed in more details in Section 8.7.2.

Idiomatic usage of a headword is also shown by means of examples, too. The entry for a common word is abundant in examples in *JECJ*, and many of them are fixed expressions, proverbs or idioms. The *COD* seems to be one of his resources. The examples given at the sense 2 of *word* are provided below as an example. (Japanese translations given are omitted here.)

#### Words and deeds.

**His actions** are not in keeping with **his words**.

He is honest **in word and deed**.

The Edokko is **bold in word** only.

I informed them **by word of mouth**.

I will **take you at your word**.

**To suit the action to the word**.

**On the word** — with the word.

**Words are but wind**.

**Fair words**.

**Fine words butter no parsnips.**

**Words and things.**

Do not **take words for things**.

He **has not a word to throw at a dog**.

A woman will **have the last word**.

I have **said the last word** on the matter.

**The last word has** (not yet) **been said** on the subject.

**There are two words to that bargain.**

All the phrases in bold apart from the second and the last three are found in the form of phrases in the entry for *word* in the *COD*. (The *COD* has *the last word*, but not *say the last word*. The twelfth example *words and things* is *words or things* in the *COD*.) However, it seems that Saito preferred giving examples at the sentence level, and that he invented sentence examples based on the *COD*. ("The Edokko" in the third example in the above list "The Edokko is **bold in word** only." means someone born and bred in (former downtown) Tokyo, and they are considered to be high-spirited and speak boldly.) Another important source of idiomatic expressions is *SREV*, which may be illustrated by comparison of the examples in *JECJ* to *SREV* below.

#### Examples in *JECJ*

② **To break Priscian's head.**

③ **To break leave.**

**To break the record.**

**Record-breaker.**

④ **To break camp.**

**To break to pieces.**

**To break a fly upon a wheel.**

**To break bread with** someone.

⑤ **To break steps.**

⑥ **To break anything short.**

⑦ (No examples)

⑧ **The railway communication is broken.**

**Broken English.**

#### Expressions in *SREV*

78. **To break Priscian's head**

—

97. **To break the record**

—

62. **To break camp**

—

55. I have **broken bread** with him.

60. **To break bread**

66. **To break step**

—

22. He explained in his **broken English**.

- An unbroken line of emperors.** 23. Japan boasts an **unbroken** line of sovereigns.
- ⑨ **A broken constitution.** —  
**A broken soldier.** (c) A **broken** soldier kindly bade to stay.
- The bush **broke** the fall. 39. The blanket was held to **break** the fall.
- ⑩ **A horse-breaker.** —  
**An unbroken colt.** —
- ⑪ Somebody will have to **break the ice.** 92. **To break the ice**  
 I only mean to **break ground.** 59. I shall only **break ground** on the subject.
- ⑫ **To break wind.** 68. **To break wind**  
**To break a jest.** 52. **To break a jest**  
**To break cover (or covert).** 63. **To break cover(t)**
- ⑬ The slightest mistake will **break the spell.** 90. A little child's voice **broke the spell.**
- ⑭ (No examples)

Saito's English idiomology does not end in showing the commonest (collocational and syntactic) patterns of words. His ultimate goal is to match those patterns of English with those of Japanese, that is to say to devise the formulae for successful translation from English to Japanese and vice versa. For example, while an English transitive verb very often takes an inanimate subject, the subject of a transitive verb has to be a human being or an animate thing in Japanese (Ishiwata and Takada 1990: 105). Hence, translating the following English sentence (A0) directly word by word (A1) does not produce a natural Japanese sentence. Instead, it works out if one translates the object of the transitive verb, which is the agent, as the subject of the Japanese sentence and translates the subject of the transitive verb as the cause of an action (A2).

- (A0) The song reminded me of my holiday in Spain.  
 (A1) Sono uta wa watashi ni supein deno kyuuka wo omoi dasaseta.  
 (A2) Sono uta wo kiite supein deno kyuuka wo omoi dashita.  
 (When I heard the song, I remembered my holiday in Spain.)

The sense 2 of the verb *remind* in *JECJ* deals with the pattern of 'remind one of something', and Saito gives translation equivalents for *remind* embedded in a whole sentence construction pattern, so that users may be led to production of natural translation.

- ② (one of something) (無意志主格が何を) 聯想せしむ。  
 (主格の爲に何を) 思ひ出す。

After the verb pattern in round brackets is first given a literal translation "(an inanimate subject makes one) remember (something)," which sounds rather awkward. Then, a free translation follows: "(because of the subject, one) remembers (something)." The change in way of expressions is illustrated by examples.

You **remind** me of my brother (= when I see you, I *think of* my brother). 君の顔を見ると弟を思出す(君は弟に似て居る). These stone-walls **remind** us of the good old times. 此石垣を見ると昔が偲ばれる。

The English paraphrase in the round brackets matches the Japanese translation. In this way Saito tries to formulate a regular relation of English to Japanese translation, which may ultimately enable learners to produce an English sentence that would sound the most natural to native speakers. Glosses of this kind are given at many other entries: *bring*, *enable*, *justify*, *render*, for example. Saito calls this type of transitive verbs "idiomatic transitive" in his *Advanced English Lessons* (1934: 182) (cf. Section 7.3.1).

Hidesaburo Saito is said to be one of the greatest three English scholars of the era. Unlike the other two, Naibu Kanda, who went to high school and college in the USA, and Jukichi Inouye, who spent his childhood in England and gained a native-like command of English, Saito was never out of Japan and acquired a great proficiency in English. This may be why Saito more clearly saw what prevented Japanese students from producing 'natural' English. Saito had the foresight to describe meaning in relation to lexical behaviour of words, and he deserves more credit, considering it is only recently that collocational behaviour of words received proper attention and treatment in EFL dictionaries. His approach to description of the

English language, which is based on contrastive study of English and Japanese, contributed substantially to English education and lexicography in Japan. (Section 4.2 by Komuro)

## 5. Entries

In this section, we examine entries in *JECJ*. For the purpose of comparative investigation, we take two English-Japanese dictionaries, that is, *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, three American English dictionaries, *Century*, *Standard*, and *WIDEL*, and one British English dictionary, *COD*. All these dictionaries were in circulation at the time when *JECJ* was in its compiling procedure, and it is highly probable that these dictionaries have some influence on entries in *JECJ* in one way or another. In Kokawa *et al.* (2000: 17–18), we point out that “*MoEJ* and *SEJ* are created in a transitional period of the dictionary making in Japan, where Websterian dictionaries are somehow relinquishing their authority as archetypes, and larger dictionaries, namely, *Century* and *Standard*, are gaining more acceptance instead.” Then the new lexicographic masterpiece *COD* came out in 1911, that is, the year *MoEJ* was published and one year before *SEJ*. Although it is hard to imagine that *MoEJ* and *SEJ* were compiled under the influence of *COD*, its influence on *IEDJ*, which came out in the same year as *JECJ*, is obvious as is claimed in Dohi *et al.* (2001: 65). Thus, the focus in this section is to see how much *JECJ* entries observe the tradition of existing English-Japanese dictionaries, on one hand, and how much they are influenced by *COD*, on the other.

### 5.1. Manner of presentation

The distinctive feature of *JECJ* entries in terms of their typographical aspect is that they are printed in sans serif, and as far as dictionaries we have studied in this series of installments are concerned, *JECJ* is the first dictionary to employ sans serifs for its entries<sup>1)</sup>.

*JECJ* presents its main entries with their initial letters capitalized, which can be claimed to have followed the tradition of precedent English-Japanese dictionaries. Recall our discussion in Kokawa *et al.* (2000) that *MoEJ* also employs the system of capitalized initial letters for main

entries, and that the dictionary uses parallel vertical lines “||” to indicate that the entries which follow the symbol are proper names. The problem of *JECJ* in this respect is that the dictionary does not introduce the use of such symbols, which results in the dictionary having no method to distinguish entries which are to be written with their initial letters capitalized from entries which are not to.

Entries borrowed from foreign languages are printed in sans serif slant faces. Among the precedent dictionaries we study in this section, that is *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *WIDEL*, *Century*<sup>1)</sup>, *Standard*, and *COD*, it is only *COD* that presents foreign entries in this manner<sup>2)</sup>. However, not all those slant typed entries in *JECJ* are printed in slant in *COD*, thus, **Aqua** in *JECJ*, but **aqua** in *COD*, for example.

Derivatives are placed at the end of each paragraph in the form of run-on entries, but only their suffixes are given as in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*; the system which is not employed in *WIDEL*, *Century*<sup>1)</sup>, *Standard*, and *COD*. Our sample data<sup>3)</sup> reveal that most of these derivatives are **-ly** ending adverbs (76 out of 148) and **-ness** ending nouns (44), followed by **-ity** (9) or **-tion** (9) ending nouns. When more than one derivatives are given to a main entry, their suffixes are arranged for the generated derivatives to form the alphabetical order. Thus, in the case of **Fashionable**, where two suffixes **-bly** and **-ness** are given, **-ness** precedes **-bly** in accordance with the alphabetical order of their generated derivatives **fashionableness** and **fashionably**. The system of presenting derivatives in a simple alphabetical order is also employed in *WIDEL*, *Standard*, *MoEJ*, and in a rather deviant way in *SEJ*<sup>4)</sup>, but not in *COD*.<sup>5)</sup> In *JECJ*, these suffixes are simply presented with an extended hyphen preceding them whether the endings of main entries are replaced with suffixes or suffixes are merely added to the main entries:

**Fashion-a-ble: —ness; —bly**

In this respect, the *SEJ* system is relatively easy for users to understand in that derivatives are given as a combination of a wavy line, which represents main entries, and suffixes if no replacement is needed, and whole spellings are given if the endings of main entries are replaced with suffixes:

**faction: ~-al; ~-ist; factious**

All run-on entries are accompanied by their corresponding parts of speech labels, but translation equivalents are not provided to all of them. And it seems that there are no systematic rules to this. To take run-on entries ending with suffix **-ment**, **abasement** under the main entry **Abase** is empty, but **abatement** under **Abate** has translation equivalents<sup>6)</sup>:

**Abase:** 【他動】(人格ふとを)下げる, 落とす, 卑くする. —'ment 【名】  
**Abate:** 【他動】減ずる. (熱を)下げる, さます. (價を)引く, まける.  
 (激しいものを)和げる. (強いものを)弱くする. 【自動】減ずる,  
 減退する. (苦痛ふとが)静まる, 和らぐ. (風ふとが)止む, 風  
 ぐ. (熱が)下がる, さめる. —'ment 【名】減少, 減退.

The orthography of entries in *JECJ* is rather vague from the point of view of today's American or British English spelling. For example, some **-er** ending lemmas such as **Caliber** and **Center** are chosen as main entries, on one hand, but **-re** ending lemmas like **Litre**, **Lustre**, and **Sabre**, are also presented as main entries, on the other. In fact **Centre** as a main entry is also given in *JECJ* but the dictionary gives it only a cross reference to its **-er** ending counterpart. Some entries with a syllable, which is spelled out as **our** in British English but **or** in American English, are presented with the letter **u** in parentheses, thus, **Colo(u)r**, **Favo(u)r**, **Hono(u)r**, **Labo(u)r**, and **Rigo(u)r**, for example. These words are written with the letter **u** in them when they are used in example phrases or sentences. Some entries are followed by their alternative spellings within parentheses, but in **Fiber**, for example, it is the alternative **Fibre** which is used in example sentences:

**Fi'ber** (or —'bre) (ファイバ〜) 【名】(動植物組織の)纖維(せんゐ). (よ  
 り—人格などの)素質. A man of **fine fibre** — of **coarse fibre**.  
 上品な人, 下卑た人. **Every fibre of one's being** (= *the whole  
 man*). 心身(の賛同など).

**5.2. Numerical aspect****5.2.1. Sample data**

In order to estimate the total number of entries in *JECJ*, we have counted the total number of 1,110 entries, of which 917 are main entries and 193 are run-ons, on 71 sample pages, which correspond to approximately 4.5% of the 1594-page dictionary text part. In the light of this, the estimated number of the main entries derived by calculation is 20,587, and that of run-on entries is 4,333, thus, 24,920 entries in *JECJ* in all.

Table 5.1: Estimated number of entries in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ*

	Main entries	Run-on entries	Total	Total number of pages
<i>JECJ</i>	20,587	4,333	24,920	1,594
<i>MoEJ</i>	54,135	2,531	56,666	1,843
<i>SEJ</i>	17,076	19,228	36,304	1,427

As we look at Table 5.1, the number of entries in *JECJ* is rather small compared with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*; *MoEJ* contains approximately 2.3 times as large number of entries and *SEJ* about 1.5 times larger in terms of the total number of entries.<sup>7)</sup> Although we must admit that the condition of the page space, that is, the number of lines and strokes on each page, is not equal among the three dictionaries, it may be plausible to claim that *JECJ* provides more information for each entry among the three dictionaries when the total number of pages is taken into consideration.

For the purpose of detailed discussion of entries in *JECJ*, we have prepared a sample material covering *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *WIDEL*, *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *Standard*, and *COD*. The basis of this sample material consists of the first 200 main entries picked up from the letter A, F, P, and T, and 141 main entries from the letter K<sup>8)</sup> in *JECJ* together with the run-on entries headed by these main entries. The sample data range from **A** to **Acrlmony** for the letter A, **F** ~ **Federate** for F, **K** ~ **Kursaal** for K, **P** ~ **Parhelion** for P, and **T** ~ **Temporal** for T. We also picked up all the entries in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* which are listed within the scope of our sample

material here. As a result, we have 703 types of entries in the letter A, 550 in F, 452 in K, 615 in P, and 634 in T, that is 2,954 types of entries altogether, in our sample material. These 2,954 entries are then checked in terms of whether they are confirmed in *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *Standard*, *WIDEL*, or *COD*. Table 5.2 shows how many entries are picked up as sample entries from each dictionary.

Table 5.2: Number of sample entries in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ*

		A	F	K	P	T	Total
<i>JECJ</i>	Main	200	200	141	200	200	941
	Run-on	41	62	19	35	41	198
	Subtotal	241	262	160	235	241	1,139
<i>MoEJ</i>	Main	641	469	416	558	546	2,630
	Run-on	36	38	10	11	7	102
	Subtotal	677	507	426	569	553	2,732
<i>SEJ</i>	Main	168	134	169	215	223	909
	Run-on	229	201	111	183	244	968
	Subtotal	397	335	280	398	467	1,877

### 5.2.2. Compound words

In Table 5.3, we list entries which are confirmed only in *JECJ* among dictionaries we study in our research. As we see, 12 out of 19 such entries are accompanied by a German double hyphen (=), which indicates that the entries are used as the first half in forming compound words<sup>9</sup>. In *JECJ*, these entries are given the label of 【複合詞】 (an element of compound words).<sup>10</sup>

Table 5.3: Entries not confirmed in other dictionaries than *JECJ*

A	F	K	P	T
N/A	face= fancy= far= Faraday farm= father= feather=	<b>Kant</b> knock= know= Korea	pace tua pack= pandects	<b>table=</b> tail= tally= tantrums tatters

Although no special note is given to the use of this label in *JECJ*, the label, which is also employed in *KEJ*<sup>11</sup>, is unique to the dictionaries by Saito. By contrast, compound words themselves are quite rare in entries in *JECJ*, and we confirm only 11 entries in our sample material (Table 5.4). As far as our sample material is concerned, *JECJ* only contains compound words which are also listed in *COD*. Although the use of German double hyphens in compound words, which is already introduced in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, originates in *Standard* and the symbol is not used in *COD*, we see no special relationship between *JECJ* and *Standard* in terms of the treatment of compound words. Of the 11 entries, three compounds, **Able=bodyed**<sup>12</sup>, **Fag=end**, and **Fair=spoken**, are not in fact the entries in *COD*, but the fact that *COD* provides these compounds as examples of **able**, **fag**, and **fair** indicates some influence of *COD* in the choice of *JECJ* entries.

Table 5.4: Number of compound words in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ*

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
<i>JECJ</i>	2	5	0	2	2	11
<i>MoEJ</i>	15	96	65	75	83	334
<i>SEJ</i>	3	34	33	21	29	120

### 5.2.3. Affinity of entries to preceding dictionaries

Table 5.5 shows the number of entries which are included in *JECJ* but not confirmed in *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *COD*, *WIDEL*, *Century*<sup>1</sup>, and *Standard*.<sup>13</sup> The figures in parentheses express the rate to the number of entries in *JECJ*. Thus, out of 241 *JECJ* sample entries in the letter A, for example, 5 entries are missing in *MoEJ*, which corresponds to approximately 2.1% of the *JECJ* sample entries. And in our sample material, 9% of *JECJ* entries are not contained in *MoEJ*. The lower the ratios, the larger the range of vocabulary overlap between *JECJ* and each dictionary examined in Table 5.5. One interesting point here is that the ratios in *SEJ* are quite high, actually the highest of all, which suggests that the target domain of entries in *SEJ* and that in *JECJ* are different from each other even though these two dictionaries share the feature of being modern learners' dictionaries<sup>14</sup>.

Table 5.5: Number of *JECJ* entries not confirmed in *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *COD*, *WIDEL*, *Century*<sup>1</sup>, and *Standard*

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
<i>MoEJ</i>	5(2.1%)	25(9.5%)	14(8.8%)	28(11.9%)	30(12.4%)	102(9%)
<i>SEJ</i>	15(6.2%)	50(19.1%)	27(16.9%)	42(17.9%)	36(14.9%)	170(14.9%)
<i>COD</i>	17(7.1%)	22(8.6%)	19(12%)	9(3.8%)	7(2.9%)	74(6.6%)
<i>WIDEL</i>	0(0%)	20(7.6%)	14(8.8%)	15(6.4%)	25(10.4%)	74(6.5%)
<i>Century</i> <sup>1</sup>	4(1.7%)	3(1.1%)	7(4.4%)	8(3.4%)	6(2.5%)	28(2.5%)
<i>Standard</i>	2(0.8%)	6(2.3%)	7(4.4%)	4(1.7%)	5(2.1%)	24(2.1%)

Note that the figures in parentheses are lower in the letter P and T compared with those in A, F, and K in the third line. This means that the ranges of vocabulary overlap between *JECJ* and *COD* are larger in the letter P and T compared with those in A, F, and K. In other words, entries in P and T are more *COD* flavored than entries in A, F, and K. To recall our discussion in Section 3.2.1 that the very first print of *JECJ* was in two volumes, the first half dealing with the letter A to M and the second half M to Z, it may be plausible to claim that this imbalance might have something to do with the manner in which *JECJ* was originally published.<sup>15)</sup>

Another point to be noted here is that the ratios in the column A, especially the ones for *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, and *WIDEL* are extremely low compared with the ratios in other letters. A simple speculation about this imbalance of ratios between the letter A and the letters F, K, P, and T is that these three precedent dictionaries are well referred to at the very early stage of compiling procedure, assuming that the compilation begins from the letter A. Table 5.6 lists *JECJ* entries which we confirm only in one of above six dictionaries under examination, and the name of the dictionary is given in parentheses. We must admit that the number of entries obtained within the scope of our sample material here is rather small to make a generalized comment on the result; nevertheless, as far as our sample material is concerned, the peculiarity of the column A still holds in a sense, especially the fact that every single entry in *JECJ* is confirmed in *WIDEL*. As we see in Table 5.6, only entries beginning with the letter A, that is, **Accouterments** and **Accoutrements**, are related to *WIDEL*,

while other entries beginning with F, K, and P are confirmed only in *COD*.

Table 5.6: Entries in *JECJ* which can be confirmed only in one dictionary among *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *COD*, *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *Standard*, and *WIDEL*

A	F	K	P	T
<b>Accouterments</b> ( <i>WIDEL</i> )	<b>Fatalistically</b> ( <i>COD</i> )	<b>Knowability</b> ( <i>COD</i> )	<b>Padshah</b> ( <i>COD</i> )	N/A
<b>Accoutrements</b> ( <i>WIDEL</i> )	<b>Fearsomeness</b> ( <i>COD</i> )		<b>Paraguay</b> ( <i>COD</i> )	

Apart from the peculiarity of the letter A, what we see from Table 5.6 is that *COD* certainly has some influence on the choice of entries listed in *JECJ*. In Table 5.7, we picked up entries from *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ* which are not included in *COD*, but can be confirmed either in *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *Standard*, or *WIDEL*.<sup>16)</sup> The number of entries and ratios in parentheses in the column *JECJ* are the same as those in Table 5.5, in which we have seen the affinity of the vocabulary in *JECJ* to the vocabulary in other dictionaries under examination. In Table 5.7, we examine the affinity of the vocabulary in *JECJ* to the vocabulary in *COD*, *MoEJ* to *COD*, and *SEJ* to *COD*, respectively, to see whether *COD* has any influence on the choice of entries. Since *MoEJ* was published in 1911 and *SEJ* in 1912, it is highly unlikely that *COD*, the first edition of which was published in 1911, has any influence on these dictionaries. The point here is to examine how much *JECJ* is *COD*-flavored compared with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*.

Table 5.7: Number of entries in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ* which are not included in *COD*

	<i>JECJ</i>		<i>MoEJ</i>		<i>SEJ</i>	
	Entries not found in <i>COD</i>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>COD</i>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>COD</i>	Total number of entries
A	17(7.1%)	241	289(42.7%)	677	88(22.2%)	397
F	22(8.6%)	256	224(44.2%)	507	92(27.5%)	335
K	19(12%)	158	227(53.3%)	426	118(42.1%)	280
P	9(3.8%)	234	272(47.8%)	569	128(32.2%)	398
T	7(2.9%)	238	203(36.7%)	553	125(26.8%)	467
Total	74(6.6%)	1,127	1,215(44.5%)	2,732	551(29.4%)	1,877
I	1	1	16.42	2.42	7.45	1.67
	[× 1]		[× 6.79]		[× 4.46]	
II	0.06	0.41	1	1	0.45	0.69
	[× 0.15]		[× 1]		[× 0.65]	
III	0.13	0.6	2.21	1.46	1	1
	[× 0.22]		[× 1.51]		[× 1]	

As in Table 5.5, the left column in each dictionary shows the number of entries which are not confirmed in *COD*, and the figures in parentheses indicate the rate to the number of entries shown in the right column. Thus, 6.6% of *JECJ* sample entries, 44.5% of *MoEJ* sample entries, and 29.4% of *SEJ* sample entries are not found in *COD*. The line headed by the Roman numeral I shows two types of ratios in which the basis is set on *JECJ*. The first ratios given in the left columns in each dictionary indicate that the number of entries which are included in *MoEJ* but not in *COD* is 16.42 times higher than the number of entries which are included in *JECJ* but not in *COD*, and that the number of entries which are included in *SEJ* but not in *COD* is 7.45 times higher than the number of entries which are included in *JECJ* but not in *COD*, respectively. The second ratios given in the right column indicate that *MoEJ* has 2.42 times more entries than *JECJ*, and *SEJ* has 1.67 times more entries than *JECJ*, respectively. The foundation of this comparison is based on the simple speculation that when two given dictionaries are different merely in terms of the size of their vocabulary, the figure in the left column and the one in the right

might be close to each other, if not the same. Thus, we divide the figures in the left columns by those in the corresponding right columns to see how close the rates of the number of non-*COD* entries in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* are to that of *JECJ*, the basis of the line I. The results are given in brackets. When the rate of the number of non-*COD* entries is close to *JECJ*, the result given in the brackets is close to the figure "1." Likewise, in the line II, the basis is set on *MoEJ*, and the basis is set on *SEJ* in the line III.

The fact that the number of non-*COD* entries in *MoEJ* is 16.42 times more than *JECJ* implies that entries in *JECJ* are more *COD*-flavored than *MoEJ*. Since the total number of entries included in the two dictionaries is not the same, it is quite reasonable that the larger one contains more non-*COD* entries than the smaller one. But when we consider the ratio of the total number of entries that *MoEJ* has 2.42 times more entries than *JECJ*, the figure of 16.42 is unusually high; the rate of the number of non-*COD* entries in *MoEJ* to that in *JECJ* is 6.79 times higher than the rate of the total number of entries in *MoEJ* to that in *JECJ*. And the same is true of the case with *SEJ*. Compared with *MoEJ*, the number of non-*COD* entries in *SEJ* is rather lower; nevertheless, the figure of 7.45 is still too high in comparison with the figure 1.67, thus, we have the multiple of 4.46 between them. And as the figure 1.51 in the line III shows, the gap between *MoEJ* and *SEJ* is far narrower than the gap between *SEJ* and *JECJ* in terms of the affinity of the vocabulary to *COD*. One interpretation of this result is that it is quite natural in that *MoEJ* and *SEJ* are not compiled under the influence of *COD*, but to put it the other way around, the result also confirms that *JECJ* is definitely affected by *COD*, and that *JECJ* is not simply small in the total number of entries (that is, quantitative aspect) compared with *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, but it shifts the target domain of the vocabulary (that is, qualitative aspect) toward the newly published British dictionary.

In the light of this, let us examine *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ* with reference to preceding American dictionaries, that is, *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *Standard*, and *WIDEL*. The same comparative survey as we have done with *COD* is made on the three American dictionaries, and the results are shown in Table 5.8, Table 5.9, and Table 5.10.

Table 5.8: Number of entries in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ* which are not included in *Century*<sup>1</sup>

	<i>JECJ</i>		<i>MoEJ</i>		<i>SEJ</i>	
	Entries not found in <i>Century</i> <sup>1</sup>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>Century</i> <sup>1</sup>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>Century</i> <sup>1</sup>	Total number of entries
A	4(1.7%)	241	18(2.7%)	677	3(0.8%)	397
F	3(1.2%)	256	22(4.3%)	507	4(1.2%)	335
K	7(4.4%)	158	31(7.3%)	426	8(2.9%)	280
P	6(2.6%)	234	31(5.4%)	569	14(3.5%)	398
T	6(2.5%)	238	36(6.5%)	553	15(3.2%)	467
Total	26(2.3%)	1,127	138(5.1%)	2,732	44(2.3%)	1,877
I	1	1	5.31	2.42	1.69	1.67
	[× 1]		[× 2.19]		[× 1.01]	
II	0.19	0.41	1	1	0.32	0.69
	[× 0.46]		[× 1]		[× 0.46]	
III	0.59	0.6	3.14	1.46	1	1
	[× 0.98]		[× 2.15]		[× 1]	

Table 5.9: Number of entries in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ* which are not included in *Standard*

	<i>JECJ</i>		<i>MoEJ</i>		<i>SEJ</i>	
	Entries not found in <i>Standard</i>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>Standard</i>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>Standard</i>	Total number of entries
A	2(0.8%)	241	17(2.5%)	677	0(0%)	397
F	6(2.3%)	256	30(5.9%)	507	7(2.1%)	335
K	7(4.4%)	158	23(5.4%)	426	3(1.1%)	280
P	4(1.7%)	234	33(5.8%)	569	5(1.3%)	398
T	5(2.1%)	238	44(8%)	553	11(2.4%)	467
Total	24(2.1%)	1,127	147(5.4%)	2,732	26(1.4%)	1,877
I	1	1	6.13	2.42	1.08	1.67
	[× 1]		[× 2.53]		[× 0.65]	
II	0.16	0.41	1	1	0.18	0.69
	[× 0.39]		[× 1]		[× 0.26]	
III	0.92	0.6	5.65	1.46	1	1
	[× 1.53]		[× 3.87]		[× 1]	

Table 5.10: Number of entries in *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, and *SEJ* which are not included in *WIDEL*

	<i>JECJ</i>		<i>MoEJ</i>		<i>SEJ</i>	
	Entries not found in <i>WIDEL</i>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>WIDEL</i>	Total number of entries	Entries not found in <i>WIDEL</i>	Total number of entries
A	0(0%)	241	70(10.3%)	677	4(1%)	397
F	20(7.8%)	256	75(14.8%)	507	17(5.1%)	335
K	14(8.9%)	158	79(18.5%)	426	23(8.2%)	280
P	15(6.4%)	234	95(16.7%)	569	30(7.5%)	398
T	25(10.5%)	238	93(16.8%)	553	50(10.7%)	467
Total	74(6.6%)	1,127	412(15.1%)	2,732	124(6.6%)	1,877
I	1	1	5.57	2.42	1.68	1.67
	[× 1]		[× 2.3]		[× 1.01]	
II	0.18	0.41	1	1	0.3	0.69
	[× 0.44]		[× 1]		[× 0.43]	
III	0.6	0.6	3.32	1.46	1	1
	[× 1]		[× 2.27]		[× 1]	

Contrary to the case of *COD* above, what we learn from these three tables is that, as far as our sample material is concerned, we do not find any prominent gaps between *JECJ* and the two preceding dictionaries in comparison with the three American dictionaries. In the line I in each table, *MoEJ* shows relatively high ratios against *JECJ*, but they are not striking enough to claim that entries in *JECJ* are more affected by the three American dictionaries than *MoEJ*. One possible reason for this trivial result might lie in the fact that the sizes of these American dictionaries are far larger than that of *COD*. According to Kojima (1999), the estimated number of entries in *Century*<sup>1</sup> is approximately 200,000, that of *Standard* is 304,000, and that of *WIDEL* is 175,000, while that of *COD* is only 40,000<sup>17)</sup>. In the light of this, it is highly possible that not a few entries in the English-Japanese dictionaries are to be confirmed in those large American dictionaries in one way or another regardless of the actual reference to archetype dictionaries by the compilers of the English-Japanese dictionaries. And if that is really the case, it is difficult to posit that

*JECJ* is more like either of these American dictionaries than *MoEJ* or *SEJ*. However, it must be noted here that the triviality of the results in the last three tables, when taken into account with the result in Table 5.7, further appeals the influence of *COD* on *JECJ*.

#### 5.2.4. Summary

In this section, we have examined entries in *JECJ* in comparison with two precedent English-Japanese dictionaries, namely, *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. In terms of its manner of presenting headwords, *JECJ* observes traditions employed in the existing English-Japanese dictionaries as we have seen in the system of indicating derivatives. Thus, we must admit that it is highly impractical to claim that Saito did not make any reference to *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. Nevertheless, when it comes to the type of entries included in *JECJ*, we have confirmed no prominent influence from these dictionaries as long as our survey on entries are concerned: we have not found such headwords in *JECJ* which are only included either in *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, for example. Rather, the results of our survey have revealed that the target domain of the *JECJ* vocabulary is different from those of *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, and that the publication of *COD* has played an important role in this disparity. The number of entries which are included in *JECJ* but not in *MoEJ* is 102 as is already shown in Table 5.5, of which 85 (83%) are confirmed in *COD*, while the number of entries which are included in *MoEJ* but not in *JECJ* is 1706, and only 548 (32%) of them are confirmed in *COD*. The cases with *SEJ* are similar: the number of entries which are included in *JECJ* but not in *SEJ* is 170 (Table 5.5), of which 140 (82%) are confirmed in *COD*, while the number of entries which are included in *SEJ* but not in *JECJ* is 920, and 413 (45%) of them are confirmed in *COD*. Entries in *JECJ* are indeed *COD*-flavored to a considerable degree when they are compared with the entries in *MoEJ* or *SEJ*.

Among those 102 non-*MoEJ* entries in *JECJ*, 24 are *-ly* ending adverbs and 19 are *-ness* ending nouns. An interesting point to be noted here is that the stems of 21 of those *-ly* ending adverbs and the stems of all those *-ness* ending nouns are included as entries in *MoEJ*. Thus, **acquisitively** is not, but **acquisitive** is listed in *MoEJ*, for example. We see similar

results in cases with *SEJ*. That is to say, we have found 31 *-ly* ending adverbs and 22 *-ness* ending nouns in the 170 non-*SEJ* entries in *JECJ*, and except for 6 *-ly* ending adverbs, stems of these derivatives are all listed in *SEJ*. In terms of the notion of the encyclopedic dictionary and the linguistic (learners') dictionary, one possible interpretation of this might be that *JECJ* is somehow focusing on enriching linguistic information. This speculation is fueled by another fact that the number of compound words, which, in most cases, are encyclopedic rather than linguistic, is low in *JECJ* vocabulary as we have already pointed out in Section 5.2.2: 323 (19%) of 1706 non-*JECJ* entries in *MoEJ* and 114 (12%) of 920 non-*JECJ* entries in *SEJ* are compound words. And we must not forget that the characteristics of *JECJ* we have seen so far are induced by the thorough reference to *COD*: 21 out of 24 *-ly* ending adverbs and 17 out of 19 *-ness* ending nouns in non-*MoEJ* entries and 28 out of 31 *-ly* ending adverbs and 20 out of 22 *-ness* ending nouns in non-*SEJ* entries are all included in *COD*; 313 out of 323 *MoEJ* compound words and 109 out of 114 *SEJ* compound words are not found in *COD*. (Section 5 by Osada)

## 6. Pronunciation

This section discusses the phonetic transcription of *JECJ* which uses a 'katakana transcription system' together with a 'diacritical system.' In *JECJ*, pronunciation of a word is shown by putting diacritical marks on each headword, and by rewriting it in parentheses after each headword using *katakana*. The phonetic symbols used in *JECJ* are listed in the "Phonetic Symbol List" (pp. 8–10) with keywords and notes. The next two sections describe the 'diacritical system' and the 'katakana transcription system' in detail.

### 6.1. Diacritical system

#### 6.1.1. Vowels

At the beginning of the "Phonetic Symbol List" (p. 8), Saito writes that diacritical symbols of vowels are given only when pronunciation is irregular or exceptional, that is to say, when it cannot be inferred from the spelling. Table 6.1 lists the diacritical phonetic symbols of vowels given in

Table 6.1: Diacritical phonetic symbols of vowels used in *JECJ*

IPA and keyword	symbol	IPA and keyword	symbol
/æ/ as in <i>man</i>	ǎ	/eɪ/ as in <i>face</i>	ā, ei, eig, ay, ey
/æ or a:/ as in <i>ask</i>	à	/ɔɪ/ as in <i>choice</i>	oi, oy
/e/ as in <i>men</i>	ě, ěa	/aʊ/ as in <i>about</i>	ou, ough, ow
/i/ as in <i>fin</i>	ĩ, ỹ	/aɪ/ as in <i>fine</i>	ī, ĩe, igh, ĩgn, ỹ, uy
/ɑ/ as in <i>lot</i>	ǒ, ǎ	/oʊ/ as in <i>host</i>	ō, oa, oe, ōw
/ʌ/ as in <i>cup</i>	ũ, ô, (w)ô	/ju:/ as in <i>feud</i>	ū, ew
/ʊ/ as in <i>foot</i>	o, oo, u	/aɜ:/ as in <i>heart</i>	är
/ɑ: / as in <i>father</i>	ā	/eə/ as in <i>hair</i>	äre, äir, ère, èar
/i:/ as in <i>heap</i>	ē, ee, ēa, ĩ, ĩē	/ɪə/ as in <i>hear</i>	ēre, ēar
/ɔ:/ as in <i>thought</i>	ā, ȧw, ȧu, ȧugh, ôught	/ɔə/ as in <i>short</i>	ôr, ar
/u:/ as in <i>move</i>	u, o, oo	/oə/ as in <i>port</i>	ôr, ôre)
/ɜ:/ as in <i>lurk</i>	ēr, ěarn, ĩr, ũr, (w)or		

the “Phonetic Symbol List.” In English, the same vowel sound can be spelled in a number of different ways. For example, the vowel /ʌ/ corresponds to *ô* in *come* but *ũ* in *cup*. The advantage of a diacritical system is to remind users of the relation between spelling and pronunciation. On the other hand, its disadvantage may be a large number of symbols which users have to memorize. They have to learn that two or three different symbols may represent the same vowel.

As for the symbols of strong vowels, *JECJ* has a close resemblance to *SEJ* and *MEJ* which also use a ‘diacritical system.’ In *MEJ*, its editor explains in its “Foreword” that *MEJ* tries to keep the symbols as simple as possible and avoids making up a new symbol. It mostly follows the phonetic symbols that Websterian dictionaries use. *JECJ* seems to follow the same principle. *JECJ* is different from *SEJ* and *MEJ* in that it does not use diacritics for weak vowels. Both *SEJ* and *MEJ* use several different symbols to transcribe weak vowels. The examples are *â*, *ɑ*, *ê*, and *û*. In contrast, *JECJ* does not use such symbols and uses symbols of strong vowels in weak syllables as well. In his book *Spelling and Pronunciation* (1904), Saito writes one section on weak vowels and explains how they should be pronounced using diacritical symbols. The reason why he did not use them in *JECJ* is unknown.

### 6.1.2. Consonants and suprasegmental features

*JECJ* does not use diacritics for consonants as other dictionaries such as *SEJ* and *MEJ* do. Therefore, users may have difficulty in pronouncing a word correctly in cases where pronunciation cannot be inferred from the spelling. One example is the pronunciation of *th*. The spelling *th* can be pronounced in two different ways in English: a voiceless dental fricative /θ/ or a voiced dental fricative /ð/. There is no rule to infer pronunciation from the spelling alone. Therefore, users have to rely on *katakana* transcription to make a decision whether to pronounce *th* with a voiceless or voiced dental fricative.

Another example is a so-called ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ pronunciation of *g* and *c*. The basic rule is that when *g* and *c* are followed by *i*, *e*, and *y*, they are pronounced /dʒ/ and /s/ respectively. They are pronounced /g/ and /k/ elsewhere. However, there are many exceptions to this rule. Since *JECJ* does not use diacritics for consonant letters, users cannot make the distinction between the words which follow the rule and the words which do not. Furthermore, the consonants in the “Phonetic Symbol List” are incomplete because it does not include a voiced post-alveolar fricative /ʒ/.

In *JECJ*, a hyphen indicates a syllable boundary. A primary stress of a polysyllabic word is indicated by a symbol ‘ at the end of a stressed syllable as in *dic’-tion-a-ry*.

## 6.2. Katakana transcription system

In addition to the diacritical system, pronunciation of a word is rewritten in *katakana* after each headword. *Katakana* is one of the three Japanese orthographic systems and it is usually used for loan words. In the following discussion, the phonetic transcription of *katakana* is given in square brackets whenever necessary.

### 6.2.1. Vowels

Table 6.2 lists the *katakana* letters used to rewrite English vowels in *JECJ*.

Table 6.2: *Katakana* letters of vowels used in *JECJ*

Short vowels and long vowels		Diphthongs	
IPA and keyword	<i>katakana</i>	IPA and keyword	<i>katakana</i>
/ɪ/ as in <i>fin</i>	イ [i]	/aɪ/ as in <i>fine</i>	アイ [ai]
/ʊ/ as in <i>foot</i>	ウ [u]	/ɔɪ/ as in <i>choice</i>	オイ [oi]
/ɑ/ as in <i>lot</i>	オ [o]	/aʊ/ as in <i>about</i>	アウ [au]
/e/ as in <i>men</i>	エ [e]	/eɪ/ as in <i>face</i>	エーイ [e:i]
/æ/ as in <i>man</i>	ヱ, ア [a]	/oʊ/ as in <i>host</i>	オーウ [o:u]
/ʌ/ as in <i>cup</i>	ヱ, ア [a]	/ju:/ as in <i>feud</i>	ユー [ju:]
(/æ or ɑ:/ as in <i>ask</i> )	ア [a]		
		/aɔ:/ as in <i>heart</i>	アール [a:ru]
/i:/ as in <i>heap</i>	イー [i:]	/ɪə:/ as in <i>hear</i>	イーヤ [i:ja]
/u:/ as in <i>move</i>	ウー [u:]	/eə:/ as in <i>hair</i>	エーア [e:a]
/ɔ:/ as in <i>thought</i>	オー [o:]	/ɔə:/ as in <i>short</i>	オール [o:ru]
/ɑ:/ as in <i>father</i>	アー [a:]	/oə:/ as in <i>port</i>	オーウル [o:uru]
/ə:/ as in <i>lurk</i>	ア〜 [a:]	/oə:/ as in <i>more</i>	オーア [o:a]

### 6.2.1.1. Short vowels

Among six English short vowels used in contrast, two vowels /ʌ/ and /æ/, can be transcribed as ア [a] in *katakana*. To distinguish the two, *JECJ* employs two different diacritics: one is a diacritic ˆ for /ʌ/, and the other is ˜ for /æ/, for example, カット for *cat* and カット for *cut*. Unfortunately, however, *JECJ* states in the notes of the “Phonetic Symbol List” that these diacritics are only introduced in the “Phonetic Symbol List” but not used in the dictionary. Therefore, a pair of words such as *cat* /kæt/ and *cut* /kʌt/ are both transcribed as カット [katto] in *JECJ*. The distinction between /æ/ and /ʌ/ is completely lost in *katakana* transcription. At least when a vowel /æ/ is preceded by velar plosives /k/ and /g/, it is better to write them as キヤ [kja] and ギヤ [gja]. Thus, *cat* should be キャット [kjatto] instead of カット [katto]. They are easy for Japanese to pronounce and also they will sound more similar to English pronunciation.

### 6.2.1.2. Long vowels and diphthongs

*JECJ* uses a dash — to indicate the length of long vowels. The use of a swung dash ~ for /ə:/ seems to indicate its rhoticity, though there is no explanation on the vowel quality. Since the same *katakana* letter ア [a] is

used for both /ɑ:/ and /ə:/, users may find it difficult to distinguish the two. Compare, for example, *father* /fɑ:ðə/ transcribed ファーヱア〜 [fa:dza:] and *further* /fə:ðə/ transcribed ファ〜ヱア〜 [fa:dza:]. The only difference between the two is a dash and swung dash.

*JECJ* uses the combination of *katakana* for diphthongs. The transcription of diphthongs is very inconsistent. Among non-rhotic diphthongs, /eɪ/ and /oʊ/ are transcribed differently from the others. Two elements in /eɪ/ and /oʊ/ are separated by a dash and the second elements are written in small fonts, in order to emphasize the prominence of the first elements. Since all English diphthongs, except for /ju:/, are falling diphthongs, the first elements are more prominent than the second ones. Therefore, it is appropriate to use a dash and a small font not only for /eɪ/ and /oʊ/ but also for the other falling diphthongs.

The transcription of the second elements of rhotic diphthongs is also inconsistent. *JECJ* uses the letter ル [ru] for /aɔ:, ɔə, oə/ to indicate its rhoticity, but ア [a] or ヤ [ja] elsewhere. To use ル [ru] can be particularly misleading since a tap [ɾ] separates the two elements of a diphthong. The transcription of the vowels /ɔə/ and /oə/ is the most problematic case. In General American (GA), vowels in words such as *horse* and *morning* are pronounced /ɔə/, while those in *hoarse* and *mourning* are pronounced /oə/. *JECJ* lists three different *katakana* transcriptions for these vowels. However, if you study *JECJ* in detail, you will find four different transcriptions: オーア [o:a], オール [o:ru], オーウル [o:uru], and オーウア [o:ua]. *JECJ* constantly uses オール [o:ru] for words with the vowel /ɔə/. On the other hand, for words with the vowel /oə/, three different transcriptions (オーア [o:a], オーウル [o:uru], and オーウア [o:ua]) are used rather arbitrarily. There is a possibility that Saito transcribed them by his own subjective impression since no principle regarding the use of three transcriptions can be observed. It is a problem of *JECJ* that words which should be pronounced with the same vowel are transcribed as if they are pronounced differently.

### 6.2.2. Consonants and suprasegmental features

Table 6.3 lists the *katakana* letters used to rewrite English consonants

Table 6.3: *Katakana* letters of consonants used in *JECJ*

IPA and keyword	<i>katakata</i>				
	+/a/ type	+/i/ type	+/u/ type	+/e/ type	+/o/ type
/t/ as in <i>tin</i>	タ [ta]	テイ [ti]	トゥ [tu]	テ [te]	ト [to]
/d/ as in <i>do</i>	ダ [da]	デイ [di]	ドゥ [du]	デ [de]	ド [do]
/f/ as in <i>fish</i>	ファ [fa]	フィ [fi]	フ [fu]	フェ [fe]	フォ [fo]
/h/ as in <i>hat</i>	ハ [ha]	ヒ [hi]	フ [hu]	ヘ [he]	ホ [ho]
/v/ as in <i>very</i>	ヴァ [va]	ヴィ [vi]	ヴ [vu]	ヴェ [ve]	ヴォ [vo]
/θ/ as in <i>think</i>	ツァ [tsa]	ツイ [tsi]	ツ [tsu]	ツェ [tse]	ツォ [tso]
/ð/ as in <i>this</i>	ツァ [dza]	ツイ [dzi]	ツ [dzu]	ツェ [dze]	ツォ [dzo]
/s/ as in <i>sit</i>	サ [sa]	スイ [si]	ス [su]	セ [se]	ソ [so]
/z/ as in <i>zoo</i>	ザ [(d)za]	ズイ [(d)zi]	ズ [(d)zu]	ゼ [(d)ze]	ゾ [(d)zo]
/r/ as in <i>rule</i>	ラ [ra]	リ [ri]	ル [ru]	レ [re]	ロ [ro]
/l/ as in <i>lake</i>	ラ [ca]	リ [ci]	ル [cu]	レ [ce]	ロ [co]
/j/ as in <i>year</i>	ヤ [ja]	ユイ [ji]	ユ [ju]	ユエ [je]	ヨ [jo]
/w/ as in <i>wait</i>	ワ [wa]	ウイ [wi]	ウ [wu]	ウエ [we]	ウオ [wo]
/ŋ/ as in <i>sing</i>	/g/ of Nagasaki dialect				

in *JECJ*. It mainly picks up letters which are not included in the traditional Japanese syllabary. Note that the *katakana* letter used to represent the same consonant changes its shape depending on the following vowel. An interesting case is a velar nasal /ŋ/. *JECJ* explains that /ŋ/ should be pronounced with /g/ of Nagasaki dialect. What Saito calls Nagasaki dialect here seems to indicate the use of /ŋ/ in place of /g/<sup>2)</sup>. For instance, it indicates that the word *sing* which is transcribed スイング [singu] should be pronounced [siŋu]. In some areas in Japan, voiced velar plosives are replaced by velar nasals in intervocalic positions. Nagasaki is not usually known to have this type of dialect (cf. *Linguistic Atlas of Japan*). The reason why Saito chose Nagasaki dialect as reference is unknown. There is the possibility that the same type of pronunciation was heard in part of Nagasaki at the time. Since Saito lived in Nagasaki for less than half a year in 1892, he might have heard the same type of pronunciation.

Saito also writes an interesting note on word-final alveolar nasal /n/. Saito transcribes it as -ン [ヌ] [-nɯ] and explains that ヌ [nu] should not be pronounced. It seems to indicate that the tongue should touch the alveolar ridge but will not be released so that the vowel [u] will not be

heard. The consonants in the “Phonetic Symbol List” are not complete because here again /ʒ/ is missing.

### 6.2.2.1. Use of extra *katakana* letters

*JECJ* uses many *katakana* letters which are not included in the traditional Japanese syllabary in order to make the phonetic transcription close to the English pronunciation. The examples are テイ [ti], デイ [di], スイ [si], and ズイ [zi]. In Japanese, when alveolar consonants are followed by /i/, they are realized as post-alveolar<sup>3)</sup> consonants. For example, a sequence of /t/ and /i/ becomes [tʃi] and a sequence of /s/ and /i/ becomes [ʃi]. By allowing an alveolar consonant in front of /i/, the contrast between a pair of words such as *tin* テイン [tin] and *chin* チン [tʃin], or *sea* スイー [si:] and *she* シー [ʃi:] is preserved. As a result, *JECJ* succeeds in transcribing the words more closely to English pronunciation, and it also keeps the contrast between the two words. *JECJ* also uses an extra set of *katakana* letters for a voiced labiodental fricative: ヲ, ヱイ, ヱ, ヱエ, ヱォ [va, vi, vu, ve, vo]. Because of this, *base* [bers] and *vase* [veys] are transcribed differently as ベーイス [berisu] and ヱェーイス [verisu].

### 6.2.2.2. Use of diacritics

To transcribe English consonants using *katakana*, *JECJ* uses a diacritic ˆ in three cases. The first case is the use of ˆ over liquid letters to make the distinction between English /r/ and /l/. In *JECJ*, /r/ is written with no diacritic as in *right* ライト [raitō], whereas /l/ is written with a diacritic as in *light* ライト [raitō]. Although the contrast of /r/ and /l/ is preserved on the level of symbols, it is likely that Japanese users will pronounce both /r/ and /l/ with an alveolar tap [ɾ], since it is the only liquid in the Japanese sound system.

The second case is the distinction between /f/ and /h/ when followed by a high back vowel /u/. The contrast between /f/ and /h/ will be lost when followed by /u/, since /f/ is replaced by [ɸ], and /h/ is realized as [ɸ] before /u/. To make the distinction, a letter フ [ɸu] with no diacritic is used when /f/ is followed by a high back vowel as in *food* フード [ɸu:do]. A letter ㇿ [ɸu] with a diacritic is used when /h/ is followed by a high back vowel as

in *hook* フック [ɸukku].

The last case is the use of a diacritic  $\hat{\hspace{0.5em}}$  for voiceless and voiced dental fricatives: /θ/ and /ð/. *JECJ* uses a diacritic over  $\hat{\hspace{0.5em}}$  [tsu] for /θ/ and over  $\hat{\text{z}}$  [dzu] for /ð/. For all three cases, *JECJ* does not give any articulatory explanation of the sounds. It is doubtful whether users can pronounce them correctly. Lastly, as for suprasegmental features, a primary stress is indicated by making *katakana* letters of the stressed syllable boldface as in *closure* クロウジャ〜 [kuro:u(d)ʒa:]. Syllable boundaries are not shown.

### 6.3. Development of *katakana* transcription system

*JECJ* is not the first English-Japanese dictionary that uses *katakana* transcription system. Several other English-Japanese wordbooks such as *Angeria-Kogaku-Shosen (AKS)* (1811), *Angeria-Gorin-Taiei* (1814), and *Eigo-Sen* (1861) (Kojima 1999: 248, 252, 277) used the *katakana* transcription system. Table 6.4 compares the *katakana* transcription of two words in *AKS*, *Eigo-Sen*, and *JECJ* (Kojima 1999: 249, 278). In these examples, the development of *katakana* transcription can be observed.

Table 6.4: Comparison of *katakana* transcription

Dictionary	Words			
	<i>heaven</i>	/hevən/	<i>sun</i>	/sʌn/
<i>AKS</i>	ヘーヘン	[he:hen]	シュン	[ʃUN]
<i>Eigo-Sen</i>	ヒーヴン	[hi:vUN]	ソン	[sON]
<i>JECJ</i>	ヘヴン	[hevUN]	サン	[sAN]

Kojima (1999: 250) explains that *katakana* transcriptions of early English-Japanese wordbooks are strongly influenced by Dutch pronunciation because people who worked on them were under a great influence of the Dutch. As a result, there is a large gap between the *katakana* transcription and the English pronunciation. In comparison to *AKS* and *Eigo-Sen*, the *katakana* transcription of *JECJ* is much closer to the English pronunciation.

According to Kojima (1999: 267), the new edition of *Wayaku-Ei-Jirin* (the fourth edition of so-called *Satsuma-Jisho*), published in 1871, started

to use the Websterian diacritical system. After that, the Websterian diacritical system became the fashionable style of phonetic transcription in English-Japanese dictionaries.

### 6.4. The problems of the *katakana* transcription system in *JECJ*

The biggest advantage of *katakana* transcription is probably its familiarity to Japanese users. Japanese learners may not have studied the diacritical symbols before, but every Japanese user knows *katakana* letters. On the other hand, there are several problems and disadvantages in *katakana* transcription.

(i) *The problem of vowel epenthesis*: One *katakana* letter always represents a vowel or a sequence of a consonant and vowel. Because of this, when English pronunciation is rewritten in *katakana* letters, vowels will be inserted after word-final consonants and between consonants. For example, *cloud* is rewritten as クラウド [kuraudō]. (Epenthetic vowels are underlined.)

(ii) *The phonetic gap between the English pronunciation and the *katakana* transcription*: Since Japanese and English have different sound systems, a large gap between the English pronunciation and the *katakana* transcription is observed in a number of cases. The examples are voiceless labiodental fricatives replaced by voiceless bilabial fricatives and dental fricatives rewritten with alveolar affricates. The word *fish* becomes フィッシュ [ɸiʃʃu] and *think* becomes ツインク [tsink]. The phonetic gap between the English pronunciation and the *katakana* transcription is most evident in vowels. In comparison to Japanese, which uses only five vowels in contrast, English uses a larger number of vowels in contrast. For instance, vowels /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɑ:/, and /ə:/ are all transcribed by using ア [a]. The lack of articulatory explanation on English pronunciation is a problem in *JECJ*.

(iii) *The loss of contrast*: The most severe problem of the *katakana* transcription system in *JECJ* is the loss of contrast in some pairs of words. The example is the loss of contrast between /æ/ and /ʌ/ as in *cat* and *cut*, or *fan* and *fun*. The loss of contrast in such frequently used words is a serious problem of *katakana* transcription in *JECJ*.

## 6.5. Summary

As far as phonetic transcription is concerned, the influence of *COD* cannot be observed. *JECJ* uses both the diacritical system and the *katakana* transcription system. The diacritical system in *JECJ* is a very simplified version in that it does not use diacritics for weak vowels and consonants. *JECJ* seems to have used *katakana* transcription to make the phonetic transcription easier for Japanese users. In order to use the *katakana* transcription system, the dictionary should give an articulatory explanation to fill in the phonetic gap between the sounds of the two languages and should explain the use of diacritics and extra *katakana* letters in detail. Unfortunately, however, *JECJ* does not give such explanation to the users. Because of the difference between the English and Japanese sound systems, there are limitations in transcribing the English pronunciation using the Japanese *katakana* letters. (Section 6 by Sugimoto)

## 7. Grammar and Usage

### 7.1. Saito's major works

Otsuka (1949: 279) says that Saito could be considered to have been one and the only great Japanese who studied English and produced numerous works in the Meiji era. In other words, his works could be regarded as epoch-making in that they held a monopoly of the market of English language teaching material in the era. The name of Saito is to 'grammar' what the name of Murray is to grammar (Otsuka 1949: 228), or what the name of Webster is to dictionary. Though it seems that he was not held in high esteem in the scholarly world probably because he was not a university teacher all his life and he taught in his own private school of English, he was surely a great teacher of English because he published a large number of books intended for his school that was so popular especially in the Meiji era. He left so many works in his lifetime, as Waseda says (1930: 2) "... during the 17 years from 1896 to 1912 [Saito] managed to produce as many as 200 volumes of works on various branches of English today." There are too many works of his to mention and to look into in detail. In what follows the main and important works of his will be chronologically given. The evaluation of *JECJ* cannot be properly made without the

knowledge of these major works by Saito. In other words, the fruits of Saito's works are incorporated into the dictionary as the most fundamental elements of its microstructure, as will be made clear later in the next section.

Saito's translation of Swinton's work excluded, the first work by Saito is *English Conversation-Grammar* (1893), which was to be authorized as a textbook six years later by the Ministry of Education. This is not discussed in detail, though his original idea is given and realized in it. Its preface says:

This book is . . . intended to serve as an introduction to Composition, while it aims, at the same time, to afford a general view of the structural principles of the English Language . . . to lay the foundation of Grammar. . . The present work is an attempt . . . to gain an insight into the genius of the language and to speak and write it with grammatical correctness and idiomatic propriety. (p. i)

The book also shows his method of teaching English, part of which was later to be realized in his lecture books *Seisoku Eigo Gakko Kogiroku (The S.E.G. Abroad)* (1912-13).<sup>1)</sup> It should be noted that Saito's books or works were published by the publisher, Kobunsha, between 1893 (the year of the above book) and 1912 (the sixth volume of the fourth major works mentioned below), when the good relationship with the owner of the company was broken, who was a substantial financier of Saito's school of English.

Far more important and monumental in the history of works of English grammar by a Japanese is Saito's four-volume work, *Practical English Grammar* (1898-99) (*PEG*), which was later claimed in a publisher's preface of one-volume edition of the work on prepositions as "an epoch-making work unparalleled in grandeur of scale and exactitude of aim." (Saito 1932) The contents of the grammar book are as follows: Vol. 1 contains Nouns, Articles, Adjectives, and Pronouns (233 pages), Vol. 2. contains Verbs (that include auxiliary verbs) (307 pages), Vol. 3 contains Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions (316 pages), Vol. 4 contains Uses of Prepositions (200 pages). Around the turn of the twentieth century, no other work on English grammar by a Japanese has so many

pages as Saito's. His works as well as Nesfield's grammar (and Kanda's grammar) are said to have had a great influence on teaching grammar at schools during the latter half of the Meiji era and the Taisho period (cf. Omura 1960: 213). *PEG* consisting of the total of over a thousand pages is regarded as being superior to and more instructive than other English grammarians' or teachers' works. Saito's works include far more detailed descriptions, examples and exercises than Kanda's works. His works are more suitable for Japanese students than Nesfield's. The preface in *PEG* says, "The main design of this book is to help clear away the difficulties which the Japanese student experiences in mastering the idiomatic usages of the English language." (Saito 1898: Preface in Volume I)

The grammar books give not only accidentence on English but also syntactic information, and explain rules of grammar with abundant examples attached.<sup>2)</sup> It is very interesting that the contents of *PEG* are somewhat similar to those by Dixon's works. In this respect *PEG* is, like Dixon's works, practical in that Saito must have been convinced that so much is devoted to the descriptions of 'special points that are apt to trouble the students,' such as the articles, auxiliary verbs and prepositions.

Also important is his second main work *Advanced English Lessons (AEL)* in seven volumes (1901-02), which give more detailed explanations and examples than *PEG*. The works contain the articles, uses of the verbs, classes of verbs (I) and (II), auxiliary verbs, mood and tense, and infinitives, participles, gerunds. It is noteworthy that they give detailed descriptions of verbs and verb-related categories like mood and tense, infinitives, participles and gerunds. As will be made clear later, part of the descriptions are incorporated into *JECJ*. The works are valuable not only in their detailed descriptions but also in that Saito's manner of thought in studying the English language is clearly expressed. Below is quoted his preface (cf. the preface in *JECJ*, part of which is quoted in Section 4).

The study of English is reducible to *system* . . . for the purpose of reading and construing *the knowledge of facts and principles is of far greater value* than a glib familiarity with baby English. The age of deciphering is past; the age of conviction is come. If English is to be studied at all, *it ought to be studied as a science*. And it is well worthy

*to be made a scientific study of*. I have always thought it strange that, while some men have devoted their lives to the collection and classification of plants and insects, and gained honours thereby, *no attempt should have been made at systematizing the study of a language which is pursued with such laudable zeal and enthusiasm*. If the study of flowers and butterflies is interesting, *the study of the efflorescence of human thought ought to be one of supreme interest*. If there is such a thing as a science of sound, *there surely ought to be a science of sense*.

It is true there is English Grammar; but, as it is generally taught and studied, it is nothing more than a set of rules dealing with mere form without matter, and is justly condemned as being rather a hindrance than a help to the acquirement of the living language. No grammar, rhetoric, or lexicon in existence treats of *the living physiology of the language, the multifarious functions of each individual word, the nice distinctions and delicate shades of meaning peculiar to each word and phrase, the spirit and genius of English idiom*. It is no sufficient explanation to say that an expression is idiomatic. Idiom is a growth, and all growth is subject to natural law. Some idioms have arisen from a tendency to brevity, others from considerations of emphasis, and still others from the necessity of distinctions. *The study of the formation of idiom reveals* that language, as it is, has not been formed at random, but *that the expression of human thought is governed by laws of economy* no less rigid than those which regulate the material world.

. . . *I consider a Scientific Study of the English Language not an impossibility*; . . . (Saito 1934: ii-iii) (The present writer's emphasis.)

The preface of *AEL* makes it clear that Saito purports to make a scientific study of English idiom in a wide sense of the word, including grammar, usage, collocation, set phrases, and complementation. He is interested in usage of individual words, and fine sense distinctions of words. By attempting to make a more scientific or contrastive study, he thought, he would clarify the nature or genius of the English language. His attitude toward the study of the language leads him to collect his own material or data of the language, make his own analysis and classification as systematic as he could. It could be safely said that his grammar books are widely accepted not only because no other grammar book by a Japanese is so exhaustive as Saito's but also because they are written or aimed for Japanese from what he calls a scientific point of view.

His third monumental work is *Monographs on Prepositions (MOP)* in thirteen volumes (1904–06), in which full treatment is given to nine common prepositions (*at, by, for, from, in, of, on, to, and with*), and some other secondary prepositions (*about, above, between*, for instance) and related prepositions (such as *against, into, without*). It should not be forgotten that the third and fourth volumes of *PEG* deal with the function words of prepositions. These facts confirm that Saito is acutely aware that Japanese have a difficulty in their common uses. The publisher's note in one-volume edition (1934) says, "... everybody in his daily course of its practice encountering the difficulties arising from the infinite variations of their usages, so that no dictionary or book on English grammar can be called safely relied on. Suffice it to say that Prof. Saito's *Monographs on Prepositions* cut this Gordian knot once and for all and established permanent rules on points where doctors disagree." The works are considered to have been of vital importance for students who are not accustomed to their usage. It is said that even an American scholar ever praised the work (Omura 1960: 251–52).

His fourth major work is *Studies in Radical English Verbs (SREV)* in eight volumes (1909–11), in which each verb is classified into several categories according to its usage. (Note that the word *radical* is used here in the sense of 'basic' or 'fundamental.')

This work together with the third work "is at once the culmination and ground work of the whole linguistic work of our Professor [Saito]. . . He takes up each word, and shows it in every possible combination and construction, illustrating each nuance and shade of meaning in its transition with appropriate examples culled together from the flowers of English literature old and new." (Saito 1933: Publisher's note in one-volume edition)

The works contain 112 verbs (excluding auxiliary verbs), beginning with *answer* ending in *pay*.<sup>3)</sup> Another supplementary or preceding works, *Studies in English Verbs* in three volumes (1909), gives the similar presentations of several other verbs that are not found in the eight-volume work: *put, run, send, set, sit, stand, take, and wear*, for example. They were issued as a series of books titled *Class-Books of English Idiomology* (1905–09).<sup>4)</sup> The eight-volume work on English verbs is considered to be the continuation of the three-volume work.

The works make it clear that Saito is also very interested in the uses of English verbs that are often found or frequently used in the literature. It should be mentioned that the fruits of the works are also given in *JECJ*.

Other works by Saito may be connected to the descriptions in *JECJ*, but Saito left a large number of works and textbooks, and it is next to impossible to examine all of the works to make a comparison with *JECJ*. It will be made clear that *JECJ* includes or is largely based on the works mentioned above. In this respect, *JECJ* is the first and only dictionary in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries that is compiled based on the author's own framework of his works of English and English grammar. It is quite natural that most of the grammar terms are principally based on Saito's works though most are originally written in English with Japanese explanations occasionally added. Around the turn of the twentieth century, no other scholar, teacher or grammarian in Japan thought of compiling a dictionary based on his own framework. Seen from the perspective of dictionary compilation, Saito is highly valued and respected because he contributed to teaching English not only in his private school but also by providing Japanese students with bilingual dictionaries including *KEJ* in which lexical information is combined with grammatical explanation. It is worth mentioning that all the major works given above were issued before *COD* was published and imported here, although this fact does not deny that *JECJ* owes part of its description to the concise dictionary.<sup>5)</sup>

## 7.2. Descriptions in *JECJ*

Before going into details of the dictionary, part of the preface is also worth quoting here because the basic principles are mentioned. It is interesting to note that the preface below is quite similar to the one quoted in the second major work *AEL*. Having majored in naval engineering at the university, his manner of thought tends to be more scientific, so that his idea of structures, combinations, elements and so forth in the analysis of the English language seems to have been put into good practice not only in his major grammar works but also in *JECJ*.

*The comparative study of English and Japanese* can not but be interest-

ing. Each is a composite language . . . it always remains a difficult task to give exact renderings that are brief and to the point. . . Chemistry is an interesting study . . . it has to deal with the properties and combinations of some thirty elements. These thirty odd elements . . . can engross the lifelong attention of intellectuals of the first order . . . must I tell you that *the study of English is just such a chemistry — a mighty chemistry which has to deal with thousands of elements*, whose combinations know no limits or bounds? . . . Our chemistry . . . deals with living mind, with the action of the human soul, which now shows itself as intellect, now assumes the form of emotion, and now assumes itself as volition. . . I mean the fact that *language is made up of words, which words are to the structure of the language what the material elements are chemistry*. These word-elements of ours — their name is legion; and *each of them has its special meanings and functions, each its own combinations and constructions and associations*. And we have got to learn the value of each in itself and its value in its manifold combinations. . . It is a science well worth making a speciality of. . . (Saito 1915: Preface 1–3) (This writer's emphasis partly added.)

In this subsection mention will be made of the dictionary descriptions in some parts of speech including the articles: nouns, verbs, prepositions and adjectives. Adverbs are also concisely referred to because Saito says, according to Uyei (1915b: 32), adjectives, nouns, verbs, adverbs and prepositions are the most important parts of speech. With the exception of adverbs that are not given a good treatment in *PEG*, Saito's monumental and major works referred to in the above section make it clear that verbs and prepositions are given top priority, and nouns that are closely related to the use of the articles come second. The articles are dealt with here with reference to nouns, since they are considered to be important but so difficult for Japanese learners. Adjectives are referred to as they are considered to be important in collocation and complementation.

It should be remembered that plenty of grammatical words are used in *JECJ*. It is likely that the author takes it for granted that users of his dictionary have studied basic or fundamental English grammar, especially one of Saito's works such as *PEG* or *AEL*. In order to prove that Saito introduces into the dictionary many grammatical terms in his works, let the present writer take an example of pronouns. Several terms are used in

the related entries; 【人称代名詞】 (a personal pronoun) *me*, 【指摘代名詞】 (a demonstrative pronoun) *this*, 【反照代名詞】 (a reflexive pronoun) *herself*, 【不定代名詞】 (an indefinite pronoun) *one*, 【複合代名詞】 (an indefinite relative pronoun) *whoever*, 【疑問代名詞】 (an interrogative pronoun) *who*, 【關係代名詞】 (a relative pronoun) *who*, 【對等接統代名詞】 (a coordinate relative pronoun) *who*, 【讓步接統代名詞】 (a conjunctive pronoun) *whichever*, 【強勢代名詞】 (an emphatic pronoun) *myself*, and 【反復代名詞】 (a repetitive pronoun) *one*. Compared with not only present-day learners' dictionaries but also those published around that time, *JECJ* is full of such grammatical terms, which shows that Saito endeavors to incorporate grammar into the dictionary. The terms are quite specific in that several explanatory or modifying words are used before the part of speech 【代名詞】 (pronoun). The same phenomenon is also found in the other parts of speech, like adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions (cf. Hayakawa 2001b: 234–35). This demonstrates that grammar is highly valued in Saito's dictionary, that users of Saito's dictionary ought to be conversant with such terms, and that nearly 90 years have passed since English-Japanese dictionaries began to include lexicon and grammar in the text.

Saito often gives grammatical explanation in the text of the dictionary. Take an example of the entry *which*. The entry gives an explanation that the relative pronoun *which* has two different uses: restrictive and coordinate uses (e.g. I want a book *which* treats of prepositions, *vs.* I want to buy this book, *which* treats of prepositions) which is based on the descriptions in *PEG* Vol. II (pp. 210–11). Saito endeavors to incorporate grammatical explanation into *JECJ*. It may not be the first dictionary that contains both lexicon and grammar (cf. *SEJ*), but such a practice is usually found in most of the present-day learners' dictionaries in Japan, and Saito's dictionary is one of the forerunners in this area.

### 7.2.1. The articles

The definite and indefinite articles as well as the usage without articles are dealt with before Saito's works or his dictionary appeared. Dixon, who seems to have been most influential in Saito's works, explains the uses of the articles in his books. Japanese students who have no idea of the articles

had, have and will have much difficulty in their correct use even after studying the English language for several years. It seems quite natural to English teachers that Japanese should become familiar with their uses. Saito, just like Dixon, may also have thought that Japanese are poor at them. *PEG* gives part of the description, but the second work *AEL* take up more space for explanation. No other work by a Japanese gave more detailed description of the articles (including their omissions) than *AEL* at that time.

Saito's *JECJ* is not the first dictionary that shows detailed description of the articles (cf. the entry of the definite article in *SEJ* in Kokawa *et al.* 2000). The entry of the definite article *the* rather than that of the indefinite article *a* or *an* in *JECJ* makes us realize that its descriptions follow or are based on one of his major works, *AEL*. The comparison between *JECJ* and *AEL* also makes it clear that Saito naturally does not give *JECJ* all the descriptions in *AEL* because a dictionary is not considered as the same as a grammar book. In the first chapter of *AEL*, Saito gives introduction, the definite article, the indefinite articles, and omission of the articles. The present writer chose the chapter 1 in *AEL* (pp. 14–83) on the definite article, and looked into whether or to what extent the contents are incorporated into the dictionary. The astonishing result is that there are exact correspondences between the two. For ease of reference, a few examples except the last group in *JECJ* are shown below. It is interesting to find that *COD* shows the four uses given except the second and the last. For reference, the explanations in *AEL* (pp. 15–17) are quoted in parentheses.

*JECJ*                      *AEL*

① 【一物確定】      particularizing

(*The*, in its original demonstrative sense, particularizes the objects named. This may be called the proper or *particularizing* use of the definite article.)

I want a boy and a maid. **The** boy must be able to speak English.

He is **the** best scholar in the whole school.

**The** cabinet has resigned.

② 【集合複数】      collective

(*The*, when used with a plural noun, has a *collective*, as well as a

*particularizing*, force. . . In [the first] example we are speaking of all the cherry-trees in the neighbourhood or of some particular locality.)

**The** cherry-trees are in full bloom.

**The** rich are not always happy.

③ 【代表単数】      representative

(*The* has another use quite distinct from its particularizing use. A singular common noun with *the* is frequently used to denote the class, and not the individual. The singular thus comes to denote the *type* or *representative* of the whole class.)

**The** whale is not a fish but a mammal.

**The** child is father of (to) **the** man.

④ 【抽象名詞代用】      abstractive

(A singular common noun with *the* is sometimes used to denote, not an individual or a class, but some predominant *quality* which is characteristic of the class. This use is allied to, or rather derived from, the representative use of *the*. Here a common noun is used in an abstract sense (*Concrete for Abstract*.)

**The** pen is mightier than **the** sword.

**The** beautiful is higher than **the** good.

⑤ 【“Such”代用】      qualitative

(*The*, when used with a noun qualified by a relative clause or an infinitive, sometimes acquires a qualitative meaning. This use is also allied to the representative singular.)

He is not **the** boy to tell a lie.

He had **the** misfortune to be born rich.

⑥ 【熟語の“the”】      ‘the’ in phrases

The last group includes a number of uses with the definite article, and the comparison between *JECJ* and *AEL* shows that 14 out of 34 uses in *AEL* are arbitrarily selected in *JECJ*. Similarly, the first group in *JECJ* includes 9 out of 14 uses (in the second case out of the three cases mentioned) in *AEL*, the selection of which are not absolutely clear either. It is not clear why Saito does not give all the uses, but it seems that he may have regarded a dictionary as being different from a grammar book. It should be noted that the usage notes in the dictionary are the literal translations of those in *AEL*.

These facts taken into consideration, the descriptions in the definite article are heavily dependent on, or are directly taken from, *AEL*. *JECJ* is

clearly considered to be largely based on Saito's work of English, *AEL*. This leads us to say that users of the dictionary should be accustomed to the author's grammatical terms as well as his explanation in order to be better users, because Saito incorporates the fruits of his study of English into the dictionary.

It should be added that Saito's dictionary does not include the same contents as *IEDJ*. Their comparison confirms that six uses in *JECJ* correspond to those out of ten distinctions in *IEDJ* that literally follows *COD*, but *JECJ* additionally shows the use that is found in neither *COD* nor *IEDJ*.

It is also worth mentioning the fact that Saito often mentions the use of the definite article. Some entries give the grammatical information concerning the use of the article: **country** ③ [定冠詞付き] (used with the definite article), **law** ② ③ (**The** 1—), **school** ② [The —s], **man** [無冠詞名詞] (a noun with no article used) and **all** ② [The —] (cf. *SEJ*). Information on the use of definite article is given because Saito is fully aware that it is important to show in an explicit way the article usage in the dictionary, and these example entries remind us of the practice of present-day learners' dictionaries, either at home or abroad. In this respect, Saito's dictionary is regarded as one of the forerunners in the area.

### 7.2.2. Nouns

Nouns are divided into five classes both in *PEG* and *JECJ*: proper, common, collective, material, and abstract nouns. Let the present writer give Saito's explanation concerning proper and common nouns. *PEG* gives the following descriptions regarding nouns used in plural.

*A Proper Noun*, being the name of one particular individual, *has no plural* . . . *Proper Nouns are used without any Articles*. (p. 3.)

*The Plural and the Articles properly belong to the Common Noun* . . . *Every Singular Common Noun must have an Article*. (pp. 3–4.)

(Bold, capitalized and italic letters are originally given.)

Explanations for collective, material, and abstract nouns in *PEG* show that

the latter two nouns have in principle no plural forms. *PEG* makes it clear that Saito is conscious of the distinction of the kinds of nouns, whether or not they are used with the articles, and their possibility of being used in plural forms.

*JECJ* often shows in noun entries which class they belong to. The presentation is not consistent, though, because nouns are not necessarily given minute distinctions to which noun they belong: **information** [名] (noun) v.s. **furniture** [単集名] (singular collective noun), for example. *JECJ* is the first dictionary that clearly distinguishes the classes of nouns, though it does not always show whether or not the entry nouns have plural forms. If Saito presupposes that users of his dictionary have read his grammar works such as *PEG*, he may have thought that the five-class distinction would enable advanced students to make a distinction whether such and such nouns have only singular forms or both singular and plural forms. It is not clear whether or not the author may have put an emphasis on the plurality of nouns. It should be noted that Saito very occasionally gives the following information on being plural: **ground** ③ [複] (used in plural), **difference** ② [概して複数] (usually used in plural), and **trouble** ④ ⑤ [往々複数] (often used in plural), for instance. Remember that this type of information is occasionally given in *COD* in the form of (pl.) (*mean*) or (usu. pl.) (*arm*), but no exact correspondence is not found between the two dictionaries. The information reminds us of the practice in present-day learners' dictionaries, and in this respect Saito's *JECJ* is one of the trailblazing dictionaries.

The reason Saito mentions the five-class distinction of nouns is not clear, but if he does not take seriously the notion of plurality, he need not have shown such a detailed distinction or presentation of nouns. The present writer supposes that Saito inconsistently intended to show users of the dictionary information on noun inflexion. But he does not succeed in mentioning that the distinction of nouns shows that they have no plural forms, or used in plural forms. If users are well acquainted with his grammar books, they may have understood these distinctions well. For reference let some examples of collective nouns in *PEG* (pp. 5–9) taken: *army, assembly, cattle, clan, committee, crew, family, infantry, mob, nation,*

*parliament*, and *people*. Only five nouns (*cattle*, *committee*, *crew*, *infantry*, and *people*) are shown as collective nouns, but they do not explicitly show that as a sentence subject, they can take either singular or plural verb forms (cf. *COD*). The treatment in *JECJ* is in stark contrast to the description in learners' dictionaries today. The front matter says that the distinctions are given only when collective, material, and abstract nouns are used as common nouns with different shades of meanings. The explanation seems to be clearly beyond the understanding of general learners.

### 7.2.3. Verbs

Verbs are given some distinctions: for example, 【他動詞】 (a transitive verb), 【自動詞】 (an intransitive verb), 【自他動詞】 (an intransitive and transitive verb), 【不完動詞】 (an incomplete verb), 【無人称動詞】 (an impersonal verb), and 【授与動詞】 (a dative verb). It is particularly noticeable that Saito's works focus on uses of verbs and on what would be later called sentence patterns or complementation. Volume II (p. 11) of *PEG* shows the five patterns of verbs excluding passives (the numbers ① to ⑤ are given by the present writer):

#### Summary: — Verbs Classified

I	Intransitive	① Complete	[The sun shines.]
		② Incomplete (+ <i>Nominative Complement</i> )	[He is a student.]
II	Transitive	③ Complete (+ <i>Object</i> )	[I know him.]
		④ Dative Verbs (+ <i>Indirect Object</i> + <i>Direct Object</i> )	[I gave him some money.]
		⑤ Incomplete Transitive (or Factitive) Verbs (+ <i>Object</i> + <i>Objective Complement</i> )	[He made her happy.]
Passive	Complete	[The "Hakkenden" was written by Bakin.]	
	Incomplete (or Passive of Factitive) (+ <i>Nominative Complement</i> )	[He was shot dead.]	

[Note] For reference, the examples in the square brackets are taken from *PEG*.

The classification shows that Saito has in mind at least five verb

patterns, with the exception of the structure like there [*here*] is [*are*] constructions. He does not mention the obligatory adverbials in the structure, such as *I live in Tokyo* or *He put the book on the table*. The five patterns are not explicitly shown in the front matter or text of the dictionary, unlike those found in learners' dictionaries today. Part of the structure elements are given in detail in related entries, such as 【過去分詞附】 (used with a past participle). *JECJ* could be said to be the first English-Japanese dictionary that introduced descriptions of verb complementation (see Section 7.3.1 below).

Verbs are given detailed treatment in several works by Saito. In addition to *AEL*, there are *Class-Book of English Idiomology* Nos. 4–6 *Verbs* (1907) and No.14. *Studies in English Verbs* in three volumes (1909). Later were issued the 13 volume works *Studies in Radical English Verbs (SREV)* (1909–11). English verbs are one of the areas Saito energetically studied around the turn of the twentieth century.

Let the present writer mention *SREV*. It is organized as follows: first a number of examples or quotations are shown, sometimes with their citation sources given. The number of examples differs from verb to verb: 94 examples in the verb *leave*, for instance. 45 examples are found in *drive*. Second comes the section with typical expressions of the verbs. In the verb *drive*, 64 typical expressions are given, 52 of which are used as a transitive verb, and 12 of which are an intransitive verb. The 52 verbs are divided into some types: 19 examples are unmarked, 4 are classified into the pattern of 'He **drives** a good **business**,' 4 are given in the pattern of 'Smoke **drove** the fireman **from** the house,' 3 as a factitive verb used in the pattern of 'Vexation nearly **drove** him **mad**,' 16 are given as a verb with prepositions, like 'My father **drove** me **to** extremity,' and '**To drive** . . . **into** . . .,' and 6 examples used with adverbs. The classification is not always convincing because similar examples are classified into different types or the same examples are occasionally given in more than one type.

This fact leads us to say that Saito's classification cannot be regarded as satisfactory or complete, but he is said to be the first to endeavor to gather or collect English data by reading English literature and magazines (at the time when there was no computer, he is said to have read *The Encyclopaedia*

*Britannica* through twice (Matsuda 1930: 20)) to make analysis and description or classification, and made use of his survey of data in compiling his books or textbooks. His major in engineering at the university may have been related to his more or less scientific method of investigation or study of English. Saito is worth remembering in that his books are based on or abundant in more objective observation, but includes very occasionally dogmatic classification, of the English language.

In comparison with the descriptions between *SREV* and *JECJ*, it is clear that most of the sense distinctions in the latter are based on the former, because a number of same or similar examples are found. In the verb **drive**, nine sense distinctions are given in *JECJ*. There are found the following correspondences between the nine senses with their examples and the number of typical examples in *SREV*. The correspondences of senses in a transitive verb in *JECJ* with those in *SEJ* and *IEDJ* are also given for reference. (The sign # shows no correspondence.) *JECJ* often gives objects in parentheses before senses, and they are given when clearly illustrated.

	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>SREV</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>IEDJ</i>
	(cattle)(a ship)(clouds)(a bullet)(a pen)	3,9,19,45		
①	<b>Drive away</b> the foreigners from the land.	48,50,51,52	① ②	①
②	(a pair of horses or a carriage) (a friend <b>to</b> the station — <b>through</b> the park) <b>To drive a coach-and-six through</b> a new act of parliament.	1,12	② ③	④ ⑥ ⑦
③	(an engine) (a mill) [No example]	?	#	#
④	( <b>in</b> a nail — a spade <b>into</b> the soil) He is <b>driving a nail in his coffin</b> .	14, 15	#	#
⑤	(a tunnel <b>through</b> a mountain) [No example]	?	⑦	⑭
⑥	(a trade, a bargain) <b>To drive a hard bargain</b> .	20,21,22	⑤	#
⑦	(a person <b>from</b> a place) The heat <b>drove</b> me <b>out of</b> the house.	24	⑥	②

⑧ (a person <b>to extremity</b> ) My failure <b>drove</b> me <b>to despair</b> .	29,33,35,36	④	⑧
⑨ (a person <b>to extremes</b> ) Poverty <b>drove</b> many <b>to crimes</b> .	25,26,27,34 40	④	#

The above correspondence clearly shows that the sense distinctions including their respective examples are in principle based on the descriptions in *SREV*.

Another example of the verb **fix** is given below. For saving space, the correspondence between them is only given below.

<i>JECJ</i>	<i>SREV</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>IEDJ</i>
①	5	①	①
②	10,15	#	① ② ③
③	11,22,25	#	⑤
④	26,27,28,30	#	⑥
⑤	31,32,33,34,35,36,37,38	⑩	④
⑥	40	⑪	#
⑦	?	⑫	#
⑧	44	⑬	⑥

The comparison also makes us realize that *JECJ* makes use of the descriptions in *SREV* (see also Section 7.3.1). It is quite natural that Saito sometimes makes use of other sources, such as *COD* (cf. Kojima 1999: 386–89). But more descriptions are usually found in *JECJ* than in *COD*: **mind** and **tell**, for example. His keen sense of English and his efforts in detailed elucidation of verbs urged him to pay more attention to nice distinctions: in this respect, Saito's dictionary is rather descriptive.

#### 7.2.4. Prepositions

Prepositions are one of the most important parts of speech for Saito. *MOP* is the most comprehensive study by Saito, but there are other works that mainly deal with prepositions. It is clear in the volumes three and four of *PEG* that more than half of the works *PEG* are devoted to prepositions. Saito is interested from the viewpoint of his own idea of idiomology. Before *MOP* was issued, there appeared the five-volume works *New Higher English Lessons* (1908–09) which similarly focus on the meanings

and uses of prepositions and follow the works that were to develop into *MOP: Class-Book of English Idiomatics* No. 12. 'In,' 'On,' 'At.' (1905), No. 9a *Prepositions: Part I* (1906), No. 9b. *Prepositions: Part II* (1906), No. 9c. *Prepositions: Part III* (1906). This is because Saito recognized that prepositions are one of the most complicated areas for Japanese. (In connection with the uses of prepositions, *SEJ* includes in part of its appendices around forty page list of entries with their preposition uses illustrated: abstain *from* wine, for example.)

Below is given as an example the comparison of the preposition **by** between *JECJ* and *MOP*. Saito's dictionary does not include all the explanations in *COD*. *MOP* classifies *by* into five groups: local *by* (1)–(3), temporal *by* (4)–(5), instrumental *by* (6)–(10), *by* of standard or criterion (11)–(13), and *by* of measure (14)–(16). For ease of reference and saving space, an example is quoted in each distinction. A literal translation of Japanese explanation is added, which is quite similar to 'guide words' or 'signposts' in present-day monolingual (and bilingual) learners' dictionaries (cf. Section 8.6).

<i>JECJ</i>	<i>MOP</i>
Sit <b>by</b> me.	(1) 'BY' OF PROXIMITY
To pass <b>by</b> a man.	(2) BY = PAST
② To do one's duty <b>by</b> a friend.	(3) BY = TOWARDS
③ 【時】 (Time) <b>By the appointed time.</b>	(4) 'BY' OF COMPLETION
④ 【對照】 (Contrast) To sleep <b>by day</b> and work <b>by night.</b>	(5) 'BY DAY,' 'BY NIGHT'
⑤ 【受身動詞の次に在れば作因】 (Agency when used after passive forms.) [No example]	(6) 'BY' OF AGENCY
⑥ 【手段, 方法】 (Ways, Means) What does he <b>live by</b> ?	(7-a) 'BY' OF INSTRUMENTALITY
To learn <b>by the ear.</b>	(7-b) INSTRUMENTAL 'BY' WITH REPRESENTATIVE SINGULAR
<b>By way of</b> Siberia.	(7-c) INSTRUMENTAL 'BY' IN PREPOSITIONAL

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- He succeeded **by working** hard. (7-d) INSTRUMENTAL 'BY' AND GERUND
- ⑦ 【偶然, 僥倖, 過失, 間違】 (Accidence, Luck, Error, Mistake)  
**By good luck — by good fortune.** (8) 'BY' OF MANNER
- ⑧ To **swear by** God. (10) 'BY' OF OATH
- ⑨ 【標準】 (Standard) Time is **measured by** the hour. (15) BY = IN QUANTITIES OR NUMBERS RECKONED BY
- ⑩ **By rule. By right (s).** (11) RULE OR STANDARD OF ACTION
- By reason of** one's birth. (13) 'BY' OF REASON
- ⑪ To judge **by** appearance. (12) CRITERION OF JUDGMENT
- ⑫ An Englishman **by birth.** (12) CRITERION OF JUDGMENT
- ⑬ 【売買等の方法】 (Ways of Buying and Selling) Eggs are sold **by the dozen.** (14) BY = AT SO MUCH PER
- ⑭ 【差】 (Difference) He is my senior **by** three years. (16) MEASURE OF DIFFERENCE
- ⑮ **Little by little.** (9) 'BY' OF DISTRIBUTION

The surprisingly exact correspondences between the two works persuade us to conclude that Saito places special emphasis on the uses of prepositions in the dictionary. This is a convincing proof that he regards the uses of prepositions as complicated and they ought to be dealt with not only in books of prepositions but also in a dictionary meant for (advanced) Japanese students.

Another example is found in the preposition **of**, one of the most frequent prepositions. The exact correspondence between *MOP* and *JECJ* given below also leads us to insist that all the distinctive uses of his works are incorporated into the dictionary (the examples omitted) (cf. Section 8.6).

<i>JECJ</i>	<i>MOP</i>
① (a)	'OF' of SEPARATION
(b)	'OF' of EXEMPTION
	'OF' of DEPRIVATION
(c)	'OF' of EXEMPTION
(d)	'OF' of EXEMPTION
(e)	'OF' of DISTANCE
②	'OF' of ORIGIN OR SOURCE
	'OF' of CAUSE OR MOTIVE
	'OF' of COMPONENT OR MATERIAL
③	PARTITIVE 'OF'
④	ADJECTIVE 'OF'
④ (a)	POSSESSIVE 'OF'
④ (b)	APPOSITIVE 'OF'
⑤	VERBS GOVERNING 'OF'
	ADJECTIVES GOVERNING 'OF'
	'OF' in PHRASES

These two cases confirm that *JECJ* is the dictionary that focus on the preposition uses, though the kinds of explanations mentioned above are not always shown in the dictionary. Saito may have been well aware of the lexical-oriented dictionary *SEJ*. But it is clear that Saito's dictionary is the first that is compiled based on his original works.

### 7.2.5. Adjectives

Adjectives are explained in Volume I (pp. 44–180) of *PEG*. In adjectives of quality, two uses are mentioned (pp. 149–59): an attributive use and a predicative use. It is quite natural that Saito incorporates the distinction into the description. A brief survey makes it clear that *JECJ* does not show the former but gives the latter by means of the grammatical term 【叙述形容词】 (a predicative adjective). This is the first dictionary that explicitly refers to the predicative use of adjectives, though he was aware of the two uses. Let some entries be given for examples: **ablaze**, **afloat**, **alike**, **alive**, and **asleep**. (It should be noted that a predicative use is also given in *COD*.) Though our survey shows that the information is not consistently given, it is a clear sign that Saito tries to put into use the idea of indicating one of the two uses of adjectives. There still remains a

question: why does Saito not mention the attributive use? It may be because he regards the use as unmarked in contrast to the predicative use. Compared with the contemporary English-Japanese dictionaries issued by the time *JECJ* was published, none refers to the two uses by means of grammatical terms.

### 7.2.6. Adverbs

Adverbs are also said to one of the most important parts of speech in English. *JECJ* gives several distinctions, such as 【指摘副詞】 (a demonstrative adverb), 【疑問副詞】 (an interrogative adverb), 【不定副詞】 (an indefinite adverb), 【関係副詞】 (a relative adverb), and 【接続副詞】 (a conjunctive adverb). But it is important to remember that they are not given full treatment they deserve. The only explanation Saito gives on the part of speech is found in Volume three (pp. 1–96) in *PEG*. He gives detailed explanation or distinction of several adverbs, and the book also clearly makes us realize that he is fully aware of what is later to be called collocation between adverbs and adjectives or verbs, like the one *be seriously ill*. Regrettably, such illuminating idea of his is not put into practice in the dictionary. Adverbs are sometimes given as headwords, and sometimes as run-ons. *COD* may have been a useful source because there is sometimes a direct correspondence between *JECJ* and *COD*: for example, **certainly**, **highly**, **kindly**, **really**, and **surely**.

### 7.3. Complementation

It cannot be claimed that *JECJ* is the first dictionary that includes the information on complementation in a dictionary because *MoEJ* very occasionally includes such information in a very concise form, such as the one found in the entry of *objection*: **to a proposal**. It is quite doubtful whether this presentation of complementation information is clearly understood. The explanatory note in the front matter says that such complementation is restricted to prepositions.

#### 7.3.1. Verbs

With regard to verbal construction, Saito says in the second volume of

*Higher English Lessons* (1902) (cf. Chapter III. Verbs taking Verbal Complements (pp. 409–72) in *AEL*):

It is the construction of verbs that mainly characterizes the structures of sentences. It is also found that a great number of verbs of the commonest uses, when used in different constructions, have different meanings; and it is to these verbs that especial attention is called . . . (p. 258.)

This leads him to say in the preface of *JECJ*:

Words are nothing in themselves, and everything in combination. In the case of words, combination comprises construction and association. A verb without its constructions is no verb; and association is what makes the most significant words what they are. . . . (p. 1)

As is mentioned in 7.2.3, Saito has at least five verb patterns in mind and attempts to describe a number of common verbs in accordance with his grammar descriptions in *PEG*, for example. It is evident in the above quotation that he focuses on the structures of sentences in common verbs. It is quite surprising and worth mentioning that Saito places a special emphasis on the relation of forms or structures of common English verbs and their different meanings or senses. He could be regarded as the first grammarian of English in Japan to take notice of the importance. He refers to transitive and intransitive uses, and a reflexive verb use. He also mentions a compound transitive verb use which could be now called a phrasal verb use, and their possibility of transformation into passive forms. Saito's grammar books concisely refer to the impossibility of verbs changing into progressive forms: the second volume (pp. 76–77) in *PEG*, for example. These facts taken into account, Saito is acutely aware of several aspects of English verbs, though explicit mention is not necessarily made of the possibility or impossibility of transformation of passive or progressive forms, for instance, in *JECJ*.

Here a random sampling is made of several factitive verb descriptions for comparison, such as *drive* with objects and adjective complements (in the pattern *The accident drove her mad*) in *JECJ* and those in *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, and *IEDJ*. The result convinces us that *JECJ* is more verb construction-

oriented.

<i>MoEJ</i> (1909)	keep, render, send, turn
<i>SEJ</i> (1912)	get, leave, render, send, turn
<i>JECJ</i> (1915)	drive, get, hold, keep, leave, like, make, prove, render, send, turn, wish
<i>IEDJ</i> (1915)	drive, leave, render, send, turn

Another comparison is made: verbs with an infinitive and/or a gerund, such as *She likes playing/to play tennis*. Thirty verbs are randomly chosen, with the result that *JECJ* is explicit in their complementation: out of 35 constructions in 30 verbs.

<i>MoEJ</i> (1909)	2 patterns
<i>SEJ</i> (1912)	12 patterns
<i>JECJ</i> (1915)	30 patterns
<i>IEDJ</i> (1915)	10 patterns

*JECJ* excels in the explicit description of verb complementation. It makes us convinced that a verb complementation was recognized to be pedagogically indispensable nearly a century ago.

Concerning one of the most frequent or common verbs *make*, a comparison is made between *JECJ* and *SREV*. *SREV* shows a dozen of uses, with just one original numbered example taken here:

- ① idiomatic expressions (2. *God made man in his own image.*),
- ② uses in the sense of 'form' (33. *The citizens make the state.*),
- ③ specific uses (57. *Make your will before you come.*),
- ④ periphrastic uses (146. *He has made an important discovery.*),
- ⑤ verbal phrases (220. *I must make you amends for your loss.*),
- ⑥ factitive uses (271. *Wealth makes some men selfish.*),
- ⑦ causative uses (359. *The shower made the party take shelter in a cottage.*),
- ⑧ dative uses (440. *I will make you a new suit.*),
- ⑨ intransitive uses (443. *We must get there before the ice makes.*),
- ⑩ neuter uses (485. *I made bold to go in and inquire within.*),
- ⑪ uses with prepositions (500. *What am I made for?*),

- ⑫ uses with adverbs (592. *They are making up a tourists' party for a visit to Europe.*).

The ten divisions in its transitive use in *JECJ* shown below, with an example taken for each category, in comparison with the classifications in *SREV* given above, lead us to conclude that *JECJ* owes most of the descriptions to *SREV*. Here below are shown the descriptions in *JECJ*, with an example quoted, with the numbers placed after the examples in square brackets originally given in *SREV*:

- ① (no explanation given) *Who made the heaven and earth?* [1];
- ② (no explanation given) *Two and two make four* [34];
- ③ 【特別用法】 (special uses) *One more or less make a difference* [a shortened example of 51];
- ④ 【動名熟語】 (verb-noun idioms) *To make account of a man or his birth* [?];
- ⑤ 【迂曲語法】 (periphrastic uses) *To make a discovery* [180];
- ⑥ 【object from or out of or of material】 *He will make a good thing out of it* [512];
- ⑦ 【Dative Construction】 *I wish to make you a present* [442];
- ⑧ 【Factitive Construction — 補言附他動詞】 (a transitive verb with a complement) *You must make her your wife — make her happy* [a typical example (b) and a shortened example of 280 or 281];
- ⑨ 【使役助動詞】 (a causative verb [though the literal translation is a causative auxiliary verb]) *One man may lead the horse to the water, but can not make him drink* [a typical causative example (a)];
- ⑩ 【過去分詞附使役動詞】 (a causative verb with a past participle) *To make oneself understood* [a canonical example of 404 or 405].

In spite of the fact that Saito's division of uses in the verb **make**, for example, cannot be said to be quite satisfactory because similar examples are classified into different categories, his division makes it clear that the author is really aware of the complementation of verbs. It is also true that he is aware of the expressions in the form of a verb plus a noun (that is to be treated as collocation), and a verb plus a preposition.

Let the present writer give another verb cause that is not treated in *SREV*. (Translation equivalents of examples omitted.) (cf. *KEJ*) (On the underlined senses, see Section 8.3.1.3 below.)

**Cause** 【他動】 (a transitive verb) 起す, (何)の原因と成る. To be **caused** by (= owing to) . . .

② (something **to happen** — 何々)せしむ. The rain **caused** the river to overflow. / **What causes** an apple **to fall** to the ground? (= *Why* does an apple fall . . . ?)

③ (something **to be done** —) 命じて(何々)せしむ. He **caused** a new house **to be built** (= he *had* a new house *built*.). (cf. *ISED*)

④ (**one** pain, anxiety, trouble, etc. — 人に心配, 手数などを)掛ける. I am sorry to **cause you** anxiety.

This is a typical causative verb, and the second use is called 'idiomatic transitive.' The usage has an inanimate or impersonal subject, and is related to 'selection restriction.' Saito refers to this usage in *AEL*, where the following explanation is given:

In Japanese, transitive verbs are rarely, if ever, used with impersonal subjects. In English, on the contrary, transitive verbs are equally used with impersonal as well as personal subjects... In English, the transitive form is employed for the sake of brevity. Hence arises the following idiomatic differences between the English and Japanese language. (pp. 182–83)

The examples show the verbs of *bring*, *take*, *make*, *keep*, *remind*, *prevent*, and *enable*: The bad weather *prevented* us from starting. = We *could not* start on account of the bad weather. Saito realizes that some verbs take inanimate subjects, and in some verb entries (*manifest* and *move*, for example) he tries to make learners understand the difference between the two languages with the grammatical information in square brackets [無意志主格 . . .] (used with an inanimate subject) or in examples (cf. Section 4.2). When compared with *SEJ*, *JECJ* deals with the verb in detail, partly because the first three uses above follow those found in *COD*. *JECJ* and *COD* are both acutely aware of the entry's senses and constructions. In this respect, the descriptions in *COD* are considered to have been a good model for *JECJ*. It is also interesting that the fourth pattern of the causative verb is nowhere found in other dictionaries, such as bilingual *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, or monolingual *COD* or *Century*. This demonstrates the fact that Japanese scholars or teachers of English like Saito made a devoted

study from nonnative and pedagogical point of view, and that Saito is especially keen on the structure descriptions or forms of the usage of verbs, in connection with the distinction of senses or meanings. (cf. See Section 4.2 in the distinction of senses based on the objects of verbs.)

The fact that Saito is interested in collocation, sentence construction, and grammar leads us to say that he describes English verbs from the point of the view of English idiomology: what he thinks is necessary for Japanese to decode correctly. In other words, he tries to demonstrate that distinctive meanings are interrelated with forms or complementation. Though Saito does not offer explicit complementation or verb patterns in some way or other, such as those found in Hornby *et al.*'s *ISED* (1942) or *LDCE*<sup>1</sup> (1978), the above examples demonstrate that he endeavors to make reference to uses or complementation of verbs. It is quite surprising that describing sentence elements or structures for Japanese students was taken into account around the turn of the twentieth century. *JECJ* is the first dictionary that put into practice the idea of describing verb complementation for Japanese.

### 7.3.2. Adjectives

Saito introduces in *PEG* the two uses of adjectives: an attributive use and a predicative use. Section 7.2.5 says that *JECJ* mainly deals with descriptions of the latter use. Another area of the adjective description is related to complementation. Saito also pays attention to their descriptions in *JECJ*, endeavoring to make it clear which type of complementation entry adjectives take: *to*-infinitive, gerund, or clauses beginning with *that*, *if*, or *whether* or interrogatives like *what* or *where*, as well as what prepositions follow entry adjectives. Explicit information is not always offered as to whether entry adjectives can inflect in comparative and superlative forms, except irregular formation such as *good|better|best*. The concise dictionary *COD* is also the one that first made this lexical information clear. *JECJ* is said to be the first bilingual dictionary that includes the information on adjective complementation, because part of the descriptions are based on the author's grammar works. Here a brief survey is made whether *JECJ* gives the complementation of adjectives followed by

*to*-infinitives: *He is hard to please*, or *He is able to move the furniture*. More than 50 adjectives are randomly chosen, with the result that less than half the adjectives give examples to show the complementation. This makes it somewhat clear that *JECJ* attempts to show the adjective sentence pattern, though admitting that it is not given full treatment like present-day learners' dictionaries.

### 7.3.3. Nouns

Nouns seem to include less information on complementation than verbs and adjectives, because the author is more interested in lexical collocation (see Section 7.4 below). The entries surveyed show complementation of prepositions, such as **aptitude (for, to)**, **dependence (of, on)**, and **difference (of, from, between)**. He is also interested in the five distinctive classes of nouns. He deals with whether or not nouns can take plural forms.

## 7.4. Collocation

At the turn of the twentieth century, the term *collocation* is nowhere to be found. Saito does not use the term either, but his study of idiomology covers idiomatic English expressions including what is later to be called collocation. For example, the verb entry *make* in *SREV* referred to above includes 'specific uses' of the verb: *make* a noise, *make* a name, *make* a mistake, *make* a figure ('figure' in the sense of 'conspicuous appearance' in *COD*), *make* an impression, *make* faces, *make* a fortune, *make* a living, *make* a meal, *make* one's way, *make* friends, and *make* a match. What is included in this category is now usually regarded as collocation (or idiom). It is not always the case that only such specific uses of words are given in the dictionary. It is possible that Saito's contrastive study between English and Japanese must have contributed to collection of idiomatic expressions for his works.

In order to demonstrate that the author is well conscious of special combination of words, a brief survey is made of some nouns: randomly chosen are **attention**, **battle**, **chance**, **conclusion**, **confidence**, **court**, **curiosity**, **damage**, **deal**, **debate**, **decision**, **defeat**, **difference**, and

**difficulty.** They are surveyed whether the combination of specific verbs plus the entry noun is shown. The results of the first and second nouns are tabulated below because they most clearly show that *JECJ* tries to give collocation information for Japanese learners and because no other entry noun in *COD* gives so much information. The comparison includes the description in *SEJ* and *COD* as well as another work mentioned in Section 4.1, *A Grammatical Dictionary of the English Language (GDEL)* (1915) by the author of *SEJ*, since it focuses on the idiomatic or combination usage of selected entries with abundant illustrative examples shown.

## attention

	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>GDEL</i>
attract	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
call	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
devote	Yes	No	No	Yes
direct	Yes	No	No	Yes
draw	Yes	No	No	Yes
give	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
pay	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
turn	Yes	No	No	Yes

## battle

	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>GDEL</i>
accept	No	No	Yes	No
do	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
give	Yes	No	Yes	No
join	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
lose	Yes	No	No	Yes
offer	No	No	Yes	Yes
refuse	No	No	Yes	No
win	Yes	No	No	Yes

*COD* does not show the combinations *win a battle* and *lose a battle* in the entry of *battle* but in the entries of *win* and *lose*, while *JECJ* shows the two

in both a noun entry and verb entries. The collocation *join a battle* is also shown in both a noun entry and a verb entry in *JECJ*. These facts do not guarantee that Saito always succeeds in showing collocation information in both verb and noun entries, but the above survey makes us realize that he is well aware that such idiomatic phrases is absolutely essential for Japanese students and he endeavors to show them in a user-friendly way in each related entry. It could be safely said that *JECJ* is more collocation-oriented than *SEJ* and *COD* even if the information is not always found: *confidence*, *curiosity*, and *debate*, for example. (It is quite interesting that *GDEL*, sister work of *SEJ*, also includes plenty of collocation: the entry of *difficulty*, for example.)

Saito in his study of English idiomology classifies these kinds of specific combination of words (in not only verbs but also nouns, adjectives and adverbs) and tries to include the information for Japanese learners. With regard to collocation, *JECJ* could not be said to be the first dictionary that shows the information, but it is remarkable that *JECJ* is fairly abundant in collocation information.

## 7.5. Usage

Here concise reference is made to usage descriptions in *JECJ*. As is found in *SEJ*, *JECJ* includes a number of usage notes (cf. Hayakawa 2001b: 242–43). But they are not necessarily given in the form of usage notes. They are often given in examples, or translation equivalents (especially in showing the information on verbs taking inanimate subjects), or sense distinctions followed by collocation or grammatical information. Prescriptive examples are found: for instance, the translation equivalents in *one another* (s.v. **one** and **another**) and *each other* (s.v. **each**), *JECJ* says that the former is used for 'two' things or people while the latter is used for 'more than two' things or people. The verb entry **compare** contains the distinction between *compare A with B* and *compare A to B* in two different senses. Or the different uses of the article and the possessive form, such as *look one in the face* and *look one's face*, is not always consistently explained.

But the subtle difference between *I know him* and *I know of him* is

clearly illustrated in the intransitive use of the verb **know** (cf. *know* in *SEJ*), which is based on the description in his book such as *Higher English Lessons*, in which it is explained that ‘Of after Verbs of Knowledge refers to the mere existence of the person or thing mentioned, while *About* refers to some circumstance or particulars corrected [*sic.*] with the person or thing mentioned.’ (No. 2 Verbs: 273) The fine distinction between *throw stones at the dog* and *throw stones to the dog*, which poses no problem to native speakers, is explained in the different sense of the verb entry *throw*. Or the information on the usage of verbs like **matter** and **mind** shows that these verbs are usually used in negative or interrogative (i.e., nonassertive) contexts.

The last example is *yet*. *JECJ* gives the following usage note in the sense ② (here translated into English): There is a difference between the two sentences (a) and (b): (a) Has school begun **yet**? is a normal type of question, while (b) Has school begun **already**? is a question that shows the attitude of the surprised speaker. Compare this note with the one in one of the most recent EFL learners’ dictionaries *LDCE<sup>4</sup>* (2003) which says in the note of word choice in *yet*: **yet** is used . . . to ask if something has happened. **Already** . . . is also used in questions to show surprise that something has happened sooner than expected. This shows how intuitive or word-conscious Saito was in his study of English.

All we could say from descriptions in the dictionary is that the author sometimes gives prescriptive descriptions from his educational or pedagogical point of view, and sometimes gives descriptive explanations. On the whole, the dictionary is very instructive and useful for Japanese students to be practically good at the language.

## 7.6. Labels

It is not certain whether usage labels are instructive for Japanese students at the time *JECJ* was issued. *JECJ* gives a number of labels, though no mention is made of in the front matter. This leads us to doubt that Saito is really aware of their usefulness. Below are given some examples of labels in the dictionary, with their literal translation attached.

【理】 (physics), 【医】 (medicine), 【法】 (law), 【商】 (commerce), 【数】 (mathematics), 【電気】 (electrics), 【化】 (chemistry), 【天】 (astrology), 【文】 (grammar), 【軍】 (army), 【外科】 (surgery), 【神学】 (theology), 【機】 (machinery), 【歴史】 (historical), 【希臘神話】 (Greek mythology), 【反語】 (ironic), 【古体】 (old use), 【滑稽】 (humorous), 【俗】 (slang), 【詩】 (poetic), 【米国】 (American), 【英国】 (British)

Fifty labeled senses in 45 entries among the words with the letter C are surveyed. Some show other labels: **causality** 【骨相学】 (phrenology), **casement** 【築城】 (fortification), and **consumer** 【経済】 (economics), for example. In connection with the wide variety of labels, *MoEJ*, a dictionary with encyclopedic entries in, should not be forgotten. A comparison is made between *JECJ* and *MoEJ*, and the surprising result is that more than half of the labels in *JECJ* (29 out of 50) correspond with those in *MoEJ*. Another survey of *COD* and *Century* makes it likely that Saito partly refers to these British and American dictionaries for part of the labels given in *JECJ*. Yet there are some labels the sources of which have not been ascertained.

The brief surveys of labels show that there is a close relationship between *JECJ* and *MoEJ* rather than *COD*. In major or mainstream dictionaries issued around or before *JECJ* was published, a number of labels are often shown in the front matter, as is discussed in Dohi *et al.* (2001: 101–04). It is a common practice for bilingual dictionaries to give a number of labels, regardless whether or not they are instructive. These facts confirm that Saito is not strongly interested in usage labels, and the consequence is that he mentions them in related entries in the dictionary text (and does not show them consistently).

## 7.7. Summary

It is safely said that *JECJ* is the first English-Japanese dictionary that includes quite a number of grammatical terms based on the author’s works, and is regarded as a dictionary-cum-grammar, or a dictionary-cum-usage book. *JECJ* could be called Saito’s creative dictionary meant for Japanese learners, because his original works form the basis of the dictionary. This reminds dictionary researchers of the successful monolin-

gual EFL dictionary *LDCE*<sup>1</sup>, because the grammatical framework is influenced by the sister book, *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (1972). *JECJ* is a dictionary for advanced students who have studied English grammar. They should naturally be acquainted with the grammatical terms in Saito's works, such as *PEG* or *AEL*.

When there are no data to rely on for its description, the author made use of other dictionaries, such as *COD* or *Century*, because they are useful in including much lexical information of collocation and idioms. Remember that *COD* says in its preface:

The book is designed as a dictionary, and not as an encyclopaedia; that is, the uses of words and phrases as such are its subject matter, and it is concerned with giving information about the things for which those words and phrases stand only so far as correct use of the words depends upon knowledge of the things. . . One of these peculiarities is the large amount of space given to *common words that no one goes through the day without using scores or hundreds of times, often disposed in a line or two on the ground that they are plain and simple and that every one knows all about them by the light of nature, but in fact entangled with other words in so many alliances and antipathies during their perpetual knocking about the world that the idiomatic use of them is far from easy*; chief among such words are the prepositions, the conjunctions, the pronouns, and such 'simple' nouns and verbs as *hand* and *way*, *go* and *put*. . . (p. iii) (The present writer's emphasis except the last four example words.)

No other monolingual concise dictionaries issued in Britain around the turn of the twentieth century made such an explicit statement of the editors' policy as *COD*. This convincing preface seems to have persuaded Saito to regard the British dictionary as one of the ideal dictionaries for reference. It should also be remembered that *Century*<sup>3</sup> says in the preface, ". . . the individual words have been supplemented by the insertion of idiomatic phrases that are not fully explained by the definitions of their component parts alone, and have in use the force of single words; and of the numerous phrase-name used in the arts and sciences." (iv)

After he established a school for Japanese students of English, he began to edit and issue a large number of books on English that were used as

textbooks in his school. He also edited several textbooks for less advanced, or elementary and intermediate, students. All of this was meant for Japanese who he thinks should become a better speaker and writer of English. The dictionary is a product in the later stage in Saito's life. It is quite natural that he endeavors to incorporate plenty of the fruits of his works into the dictionary. The result is that the dictionary is a combinatory dictionary of lexicon and grammar for advanced students.

Surprisingly, Saito's dictionary is fully aware of grammatical patterns or complementation, especially of English verbs and adjectives. Some adjectives indicate the predicative use. A large number of common verbs show the kind(s) of complementation they take, though not in the explicit or mnemonic forms or patterns found in *ISED* or *LDCE*, as well as the distinctions of intransitive and transitive uses. Prepositions are also dealt with in detail like the example *by*. Including implicit and difficult-to-decode information on nouns concerning plurality, and collocation information, *JECJ* is considered to be the first dictionary that combines lexicon, grammar and usage. In this respect, *JECJ* is the prototype or forerunner of present-day learners' English-Japanese dictionary filled with grammatical and usage descriptions. Compared with *SEJ* full of grammatical information but not based on the author's own works on grammar, *JECJ* is rightly judged to be the first English-Japanese dictionary 'by a Japanese, for the Japanese' in the strict sense of the word.

(Section 7 by Dohi)

## 8. Translation Equivalents

Translation equivalents are of vital importance in Saito's *JECJ*. Here is quoted his preface of the dictionary:

The dictionary required is one that shall be the *ne plus ultra* of accurate translation, with the definitions in rational, systematic, genetic order — each word being presented in all its idiomatic, conventional, and proverbial associations. . . However, it always remains a difficult task to give exact renderings that are brief and to the point. (p. 1)

It should be kept in mind that the author seems to have been keen on

looking for or fixing not only exact or suitable equivalents but also those in relation to verb complementation and what is now called collocation of entries.

### 8.1. Microstructure

In the dictionaries such as *MoEJ*, *SEJ* and *IEDJ* as well as *JECJ* issued at the beginning of the twentieth century, the overall format came to be quite similar to that in present-day English-Japanese dictionaries (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000). *JECJ* was issued in the same year as *IEDJ* appeared, and uses *kanji* and *hiragana* for Japanese equivalents, unlike *MoEJ* and *SEJ* that are written in *kanji* and *katakana* (cf. Dohi *et al.* 2001: 85). The entry *tangible* taken as an example in the last installment on *IEDJ* is given here, and the four dictionaries are chronologically ordered in their published date. (The practice of showing the initial letter in a capital in those days is followed here.)

**Tangible** (Illustrative examples omitted and no added *furigana* given)

*MoEJ* ㊦ 觸レラルル, 觸知セラルル ㊧ 持タルル, 握ラルル ㊨ シツカリシタル, [1] 確實ナル, [2] 慥カナル, [3] 明白ナル

*SEJ* ㊩ [4] 觸知シ得可キ, (又) 觸レ得可キ ㊪ (比喩的ニ) 理解シ得可キ, 眞ノ, 虚妄ナラザル ㊫ (法) 有形ノ

*JECJ* 手にて觸はれる, [4] 觸知し得可き(物). (より) ㊬ [3] 明白ぶ(區別). [1] 確實ぶ(利益). 雲を掴む様でふい. [2] 確かな(計畫ふど).

*IEDJ* ㊭ 觸知せらるゝ ㊮ 明確なる, シツカリしたる, 實在的. ㊯ 【法】 感官にて認知し得べき, 實體の

The numbered senses in square brackets in the former three dictionaries are nearly or exactly equivalent. This comparison makes it somewhat clear that *JECJ* includes the same or quite similar translations as are found in *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, and that dictionaries like *JECJ* and *IEDJ* issued in and after the Taisho era bear a close resemblance to present-day dictionaries in that they basically use *kanji* and *hiragana* for translations.

Just like *IEDJ*, *JECJ* also occasionally uses *katakana* for translation equivalents to foreign loanwords, but the arrangement in *JECJ* is often different from *IEDJ* partly because the former often owes its translations

to *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language (DSL)*.

### Pudding

*MoEJ* ㊰ ふでん [饅餅(ムゲン)ノ類]

*SEJ* プデング [通例穀粉ノ土基ニ果實, 牛乳, 卵等ヲ混ジテ味ヲ附ケタルモノ] [Other meanings omitted]

*JECJ* 肉や果物に麩麵の皮を掛けて焼いた菓子. (所謂) プデン.

*IEDJ* ㊱ プデン, 布顛饅(蒸し團子の類) [Other meanings omitted]

cf. *DSL* \*; *kwashi* (菓子) (Note that an asterisk indicates the English word it follows is understood and used (often in a corrupted form) by Japanese.)

This is because for loanword translation *JECJ* often gives firstly Japanese equivalents or explanatory equivalents and secondly their *katakana* transliterations. It is said that *katakana* transliteration is more commonly used for translation equivalents in dictionaries in and after the Taisho era, such as *JECJ* and *IEDJ* (cf. *The Yomiuru Shimbun* September 29, 2003). In present-day bilingual dictionaries, for better or worse, loanwords from English and other foreign languages as well as technical terms are usually given their transliterations in *katakana* with their explanatory equivalents placed after them. The author of *JECJ* seems to have endeavored to put loanwords into Japanese in some way or other. *JECJ* seems to include less *katakana* description than *IEDJ*. Occasionally is given for translations [原名の儘] (as originally shown) with its explanatory definition, which means that the dictionary users are supposed to take or interpret such an entry as the one shown in pronunciation: **Jam**, **Jelly** and **Saccharin**, for example.

Saito goes a step further because he often describes or explains proper nouns of place names or personal names in *kanji* and *hiragana* or explanatory equivalents. Just a few examples will show this to be the case. (Literal translations in English are given in square brackets.)

**Jersey** 【固名】 英國海峡の一島. [an island in the English Channel]

**Odyssey** 【固名】 Homer 作の第二英雄詩. [Homer's second epic]

**Homer** 【固名】 希臘の盲目詩人. [a Greek blind poet]

**Santa Claus** 【固名】 Christmas の前夜煙突より入り來りて吊しある子供等の靴下に贈物を入れて行くと云ふ怪老人 [an old man who is said to come down through the chimney and put his present(s) into children's hanging socks or stockings on the eve of Christmas] cf. *MoEJ*, *SEJ*

## 8.2. Use of *furigana*

It is already pointed out that *IEDJ*, as well as *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, uses *furigana* to indicate how to read or pronounce translation equivalents. As in those dictionaries, *JECJ* also uses the method in some entries. The *furigana* are all written in *hiragana* and put in parentheses, like the ones below. (Field labels such as *animal* are omitted.)

**Thistle** 薊(あざみ). cf. *DSL*  
**Thrush** 鶇(ひよどり), 鶇(つぐみ). cf. *DSL*

*Furigana* sometimes represents loose translations of entries. Like *IEDJ*, *JECJ* also sometimes uses the method. The same examples in the last installment and a few more are shown here.

**Earlobe** 耳朶(みゝたぶ).  
**Tadpole** 蝌斗(おたまじゃくし). cf. *DSL*  
**Yawn** (人が)欠伸(あくび)する.  
**Yeast** (麴の)發酵したる)酵母(もと). パン種.

It is quite likely that the author purports to give *hiragana* after translations in the entries he judges to be difficult to read or understand, but not all difficult translations like the ones below are given *hiragana*, and no systematic consistency is found.

**Entrenchment** 堡壘, 塹壕. cf. *DSL*  
**Epilepsy** 癲癇. cf. *DSL*  
**Fag** 【自動】齷齪と働く, 働き疲れる. cf. *DSL*  
**Filings** 鏽屑, 鏽粉. cf. *DSL*

Compared with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, *JECJ* gives less *furigana*, and it is conceivable that the author may have taken it for granted that *JECJ* is meant for advanced learners who are conversant with translations in Chinese characters

## 8.3. Sense discrimination and arrangement of translation equivalents

### 8.3.1. Manner of presentation

#### 8.3.1.1. Discrimination and arrangement of translation equivalents

Just like *MoEJ*, *SEJ* and *IEDJ*, the entries with more than one differ-

ent meaning contain sense demarcations in *JECJ*, with the only exception that the first sense always has no sense number (see *Tangible* in Section 8.1) (For ease of comparison, ① is sometimes shown in this article).

A brief survey shows that the sense discrimination and arrangement of sense groups in *JECJ* is not always the same as in *MoEJ* or *SEJ*. For ease of comparison, the same entries in the previous installment are taken for examples here (cf. Kokawa *et al.* 2000: 24–25). The sharp sign (#) shows the absence of corresponding meanings.

<i>Cock</i> (noun)	<i>MoEJ</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>Spring</i> (noun)	<i>MoEJ</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>JECJ</i>
	1	1	1		1	5	6
	2	2	1		2	3	6
	8	#	#		8,9	7	#
	3	3	2		7	6	1
	#	4	2		5	8	2
	7	8	#		6	9	5
	4	5	3		4	1	4
	5	6	4		#	4	5
	6	7	#		3	2	3
	#	6	4		10	11	7
	#	9	#		#	10	7
	#	#	5 (cf. <i>COD</i> )				

This comparison shows that *JECJ* does not necessarily include the same meanings or translation equivalents, or the same sense demarcations as *MoEJ* and *SEJ* partly because the source of reference is thought to be different (see the fifth meaning of *cock* in *JECJ*). *JECJ* often includes fewer number of sense demarcations, and this means that the author seems to be less concerned with strict sense divisions, or the dictionary includes a wider or loose division of senses (cf. Section 8.7.2). An extreme case is found in the entry **Lay** (verb) for instance. See the sense demarcations in the three dictionaries. Users should keep in mind the big difference in the presentation and order of meanings between *MoEJ* and *SEJ* on one hand and *JECJ* on the other.

*Lay* (a transitive verb)

<i>MoEJ</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>JECJ</i>
①②③④⑧⑩	①②③⑦⑫⑬⑱	①

⑤ ⑨ ⑩ ⑪ ⑮ ⑰	④ ⑧ ⑨ ⑪ ⑬	②
#	⑮	③
#	#	④
#	#	⑤
⑫ ⑬	#	⑥
#	#	⑦
⑥	⑤	⑧
#	⑩	⑨
#	#	⑩
#	#	⑪
#	⑭	⑫
⑦	⑥	#
⑭	⑮	#
⑱	⑱	#
#	⑳	#
⑱	#	#

As the above examples demonstrate, it is quite likely that *JECJ* often differs from the other two in sense demarcation. It should also be noted that *JECJ* does not always include all the meanings that are found in *COD*: for example, **judge** (noun), **laudable**, and **office**.

Fewer number of sense divisions in *JECJ* comes from the fact that part of the translation equivalents are juxtaposed or put in one sense division, such as the first sense of **lay**. Or they are often given in the style [A (より) B], which means that the meaning A (shades into, is transferred or extended into) the meaning B. The translations A and B are usually put in more than one sense division in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. Compare the entry in the three dictionaries and *COD*. For ease of reference, the part (より) is shown in bold. (No *furigana* shown.)

#### Odds

*MoEJ* ● 優差[一方ノ地方ヨリ優ル差額], 剩數; 不等, 不釣合. ○ 利益, 卓越. ㊦ 勝目. ㊧ 賭越. ㊨ 【遊戯】 コミ. ㊩ 争. ㊪ スクアルベキ.

*SEJ* ① 優差, 利差[人又物ノ他ニ對シテ有セル], 利益, 卓越, 餘利[分配, 比較ニ於ケル]. ② 勝ち目, 賭戲等ニテ優者ノ弱者ニ譲リオク. ③ (廢) 喧嘩, 口論.

*JECJ* (力などの) 差, 不等, 優劣, 衆寡. (より) 優勢, 勝算. (又) 争

ひ, 不和. ② [賭] (= *chances of success*) 勝算, 成算, [1] 勝ち目, (即ち勝敗の) 割合(七分三分ふど). (より—優者の劣者に讓與する) 有利條件, [2] こみ, (何) 目(置かせるなど). (より = *chances of probability*—事の有りさうふ) 見込.

[Note that the numbered senses in *JECJ* and *DSL* correspond respectively.]

*DSL* (favorable chances) [1] *kachime*; (given to the less skilful in a game) [2] *komi*; *josu* (剩數)

*COD* Inequalities; difference; variance, strife; balance of advantage; equalizing allowance to weaker competitor; ratio between amounts staked by parties to bet; chances or balance of probability in favor of some result

*JECJ* apparently includes only two sense divisions, quite unlike *MoEJ*, but in fact includes five senses (except the second and last) in *MoEJ*. It seems that Saito is often more interested in transference or transition of meanings or sense relation than their exact demarcation. As will be mentioned later with reference to *KEJ*, it seems that the author does not consider it as vital how many meanings or translation equivalents main entries include, but what is crucial is what main idea(s) or core meaning(s) they have.

It is also interesting that *JECJ* very occasionally gives the note [原意] (original meaning) before translation equivalents: **nice** ② and **offence** ④, for instance. This note may be a little confusing because it is not given in all entries with underlined translations (see below about this) and not always shown in the first (or last) sense, but it is considered as another proof that he takes change of meaning or word origin somewhat seriously in spite of its inconsistent presentation.

#### 8.3.1.2. Sense relation

The meaning of words or sense relation had been the focus of attention before Saito's dictionary was issued. A number of works on synonymy explained in Japanese appeared in the middle of the Meiji era. Hayakawa (2001a: 262) says that they are basically based on the works of (revised editions of) G. Crabb's *English Synonymes [sic.] Explained* (1816) and G.



those indispensable in reading and writing. Saito's method of description makes us aware that he is conscious of sense relation, especially synonymy, whenever it is possible to show such information.

### 8.3.1.3. Underlined senses

What is more important from the point of view of present-day lexicography is that all the senses or translation equivalents (with a few exceptions such as **prefer** and **laugh** (*vi*) ③, ④, possibly through carelessness) in some entries are given underlines in *JECJ*. See the above mentioned noun *odds* in 8.3.1.1 for instance. The author's idea seems to be that the entries with underlined senses are considered to be basic and important in English. This is partly supported by a comparison of the underlined entries in J and O in *JECJ* and the counterpart entries that are included among the most frequent 3,000 entries in written corpus in one of the most up-to-date EFL dictionaries *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Fourth edition (2003) (*LDCE*<sup>4</sup>). A comparison of their entries is surprising in that Saito fairly correctly realizes and shows lexically basic and important entries by putting underlines in senses of related entries, even if it could be admitted that his selection is rather intuitively subjective or could not be wholly strictly statistically supported.<sup>2)</sup> Below is given the survey result with only one example shown for reference

	J	O
<i>LDCE</i> <sup>4</sup> only	3 ( <i>jacket</i> )	9 ( <i>often</i> )
<i>JECJ</i> only	8 ( <i>jealous</i> )	12 ( <i>offend</i> )
Both	13 ( <i>judgment</i> )	18 ( <i>obligation</i> )

This clarifies part of the assumption that users of Saito's dictionary may easily focus on, or be led to, the underlined entries. Regrettably, his unique method has its own fault, because not all the underlined meanings are regarded as being frequently used and essential. It was possibly because he judges the underlined senses to be of lexical importance and to be related one another. This method of presentation is nowhere to be found and should be positively evaluated in paying close attention to a clear-cut distinction between lexically important entries and secondary

ones.

### 8.3.1.4. Miscellaneous

*JECJ* sometimes gives no translation of main entries, and gives those of compounds: for example, **Lateen** 【形】(**sail**) (地中海の小帆船に用ひる) 三角形の帆, and **Objective** 【形】② [文法] (**case**) 目的格, 賓格, ③ [軍事] (**point**) (攻撃などの) 目的點, 着眼點. The translations correspond to *lateen sail*, *objective case*, and *objective point* but not to main entries *lateen* and *objective* themselves. There is a possibility that advanced users have less difficulty in guessing the meanings of main entries.

It is sometimes necessary for users to take a careful note of the difference between compounds and examples. See the following entry of **Oil** 【名】油. (—**cake**) 油糟. (= **colo(u)r**) 油繪具. (= **field**) 石油田. (—**man**) 油賣り, 油屋. (= **painting**) 油繪. (= **plant**) 胡麻. (= **press**) 油搾. (—**skin**) 油布. (—**stone**) 油砥石. (= **well**) 石油井 (cf. *COD*). The front matter says that compounds are shown with a double hyphen (=) such as the ones given in the entry of **Off-** 【複合詞】 (an element of compound words) with the examples of (= **chance**), (= **hand**), and (= **shore**).

It should not be forgotten that *JECJ* does not always give corresponding translations to examples. It seems that translation equivalents and illustrative examples are often complementary to each other, but examples do not necessarily explicitly clarify the given meaning(s) partly because the author is more interested in words' grammar and usage in phrases. It is also the case that *JECJ* often gives more translation equivalents than *MoEJ* or *SEJ*, because the author endeavors to give and fix translations in combination with other words. This is especially prominent in adjectives and verbs (see below), as the former often collocates with nouns, and the latter with noun objects and prepositional phrases.

### 8.3.2. Selection restriction

The last installment says that *IEDJ* does not show selection restriction systematically in spite of abundant information in *COD*. It should be noted that *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language (DSL)* often gives translations after selection restriction in parentheses, which is

placed after definitions in *COD*.

*Delicate* (Illustrative phrases omitted)

*DSL*

(of a person's appearance) [1] *kyasha na*; (of food) *assari shita*; (of workmanship) [2] *chimitu* (緻密) *na*; (physically) *tayowai*; [3] *kyojaku* (虚弱) *na*; *kiyowa na*

[The numbered translations in *DSL* correspond to those in *JECJ* given below.]

*COD*

Delightful (poet); palatable, dainty, (of food); sheltered, luxurious, effeminate; fine of texture, soft, slender, slight: of exquisite quality or workmanship; subdued (of colour); subtle, hard to appreciate; easily injured, liable to illness; requiring nice handling, critical, ticklish; subtly sensitive (of persons or instruments); deft; avoiding the offensive or immodest; considerate (esp. of actions)

*JECJ* also shows selection restriction in translation equivalents. Compare the entry *Delicate* in the four dictionaries chronologically ordered, which entry will be discussed in more detail later in Section 11. (Note that *furigana* added are omitted.) Selection restriction in *JECJ* in parentheses is put into English in square brackets.

*MoEJ* ● 佳快ナル, 快美ノ, 美妙ノ, 優美ノ. ● 歡バシキ, 樂シキ. ● 精緻ナル, コマカノ, キヤシヤノ. ● 柔軟ナル, 柔弱ナル, タヨワキ, ヒヨワキ. ● 雅致アル, 優雅ナル, シララシキ. ● 慎重ニモノスベキ. ● 至難ノ, 危険ノ. ● 微妙ノ.

*SEJ* ① 繊美ナル, キヤシヤノ. [例 *a* ~ *skin* or *fabric*] ② 快ナル, 美ナル. [重モノニ味感ニ 例 *a* ~ *dish*; ~ *music*; ~ *flattery*] ③ 精密ナル. [例 *a* ~ *thermometer* or *balance*] ④ 弱キ, 軟弱ナル. [例 ~ *china*; ~ *health*] ⑤ 注意ヲ要スル, 慎重ナル可キ. [例 *a* ~ *subject*] ⑥ 丁寧ナル, 慇懃ナル. [例 ~ *manners*] ⑦ 高雅ナル. [例 *a* ~ *mind*] ⑧ 雅致アル, 優美ナル. [例 *a* ~ *ar* for *music*] ⑨ 薄色ノ. [例 *a* ~ *blue*]

*JECJ* 優美ふ, 優しい, たをやかふ, しをらしい(姿ふど) [figure, etc.]. 上品で味の好い(肉ふど) [meat, etc.]. 品の好い(匂ふど) [scent or flavor, etc.]. 高尚ふ(趣味ふど) [hobby or taste, etc.]. ② 上品ふ(生い立ちふど) [upbringing, etc.]. 上びた(嗜好ふど) [taste, etc.]. 汚れを忌む(廉耻心) [sense of honor]. 人目を避

くる(淑徳) [virtue]. ● [2] 緻密ふ, 微細ふ, 微妙ふ, 細かふ, (細工ふど) [workmanship, etc.]. 巧みふ, 巧妙ふ, 絶妙ふ(言廻はしふど) [expression, etc.]. ● 過敏ふ(神経又は機械) [nerves, machines]. [1] きやしやふ(姿または細工) [figure, workmanship]. [3] 虚弱ふ, かよわき, 弱い(身体ふど) [constitution, etc.]. ● (きやしやふ壊れ物を扱うの意味より) 苦しい(立場ふど) [position or situation, etc.]. 遣りにくい(狂言ふど) [play, etc.]. ● (又神經過敏ふ人に物言ふ心持にて) 云にくい(事柄) [matter]. 尋ねにくい(質問ふど) [questions, etc.]. ● (又其困難に當る心持にて) 上手ふ(遣り方) [way of speaking]. 綺麗ふ(云い方) [way of expression]. 思い遣りある(仕打ち) [treatment].

*IEDJ* ● 【詩】 嬉しき, 歡ばしき, 樂しき. ● 味の, 美食の, 贅澤の. ● 優しき, 柔なる, 繊弱なる, 花車なる. ● 緻密なる, 精緻の, 柔軟なる, 細き, 僅かなる. ● 精巧なる, 優美なる, 精細なる, 手際よき, 器用なる. ● (色) 繊細なる, 鮮美の, いみじき. ● 微妙なる, 感知し易き. ● 害せられ易き, 病氣に罹り易き. ● 手際よく取り扱ふべき, 危険なる, 危機の, きはどき. ● 鋭感の, 感じよき, 感じ易き. ● 上手なる, 熟練なる. ● 熟慮せる, 慎重なる, 思遣りある, 有情なる.

All *MoEJ* and *IEDJ* do is enumerate translation equivalents. They tell users nothing about what context or collocation they could be used in, and users are supposed to find suitable translations in the context they read. In comparison with them, *SEJ* gives translations and, what is important and pedagogical-oriented, all the translations in this entry are accompanied by example phrases. It is quite possible that this method will enable users to understand more clearly in what collocation they could be used.

*JECJ* is also considered to be instructive in that, though it is not always the case, there is some selection restriction shown in parentheses after some translations. But there is some overlapping and confusing selection restriction such as is found in the third sense and the fourth sense. This method is used because the author may have thought that, in what is now called a decoding or passive dictionary, giving selection restriction (like *DSL* and *COD*) in parentheses would enable users to find appropriate or suitable translations easily and correctly in less space, which is different from more space-consuming illustrative phrases or sentences in *SEJ*. Just

like *COD* selection restriction in *JECJ* follows equivalents. Such a method of presentation may be more effective for users to grasp the meanings easily and correctly than *SEJ* because the equivalents of the adjective precede those of nouns, and it could be safely said that *JECJ* is a great step forward in the presentation of translations.

#### 8.4. Derivatives

Japanese equivalents is provided for derivatives of main entries in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*: especially in the former dictionary, all derivatives are given translations. *IEDJ* gives translations to derivatives or run-ons under main entries. In contrast to the user-friendly practice in *MoEJ* and *IEDJ*, *JECJ* that seemingly follows the practice of *COD* goes in the opposite direction in that, unless they are given main entry status, derivatives are in principle not given translation equivalents, or are often given the formulaic translation of 同上なる事 (the state of . . .) for nouns ending with *-ness* (or *-ment* and so forth) or 同上に (like . . ., as in . . .) for adverbs ending with *-ly*. (This traditional practice since the first English-Japanese dictionary is also found in *SEJ*.) See the following examples of **practicability**, **practicableness** and **practicably**.

**Practicable** 【形】 為し得可き(事ふど). 実行し得可き(計画ふど). ② 通行し得可き(道路ふど). ③ [芝居] 實用に成る(窓ふど). — **bility** 【名】 同上ふる事. — **ness** 【名】 同上ふる事. — **bly** 【副】 同上に.

The formulaic translation is given to **practicability**, **practicableness** and **practicably**. This is because Saito says in the front matter by quoting the examples of **kind**, **kindly** and **kindness** that, except when adverbs and nouns have special meanings, adjectives could be generally transformed into adverbs by adding *-ly* to their base forms, and that they could be in principle changed into nouns by the addition of *-ness* to their base. He also says that they have a fixed sense relation, so that *-ness* nouns and *-ly* adverbs are shown in abbreviated forms with their sense given in a formula *-ly* (同上に) and *-ness* (同上なる事).

The practice is further inconsistently carried out in other forms of derivatives: for example, the nouns treated as derived forms such as

**abduction**, **aberration** and **accuracy** are given no translation, while the nouns such as **abatement**, **abhorrence**, **absorbent**, **accountability** and **acidity** are. All of them are not always derivatives of entries with underlined senses. Strangely enough, it seems that Saito is careless in his statement in the front matter as it contradicts the fact that both **kindly** and **kindness** are given independent or main entry status with a few underlined senses shown. Saito takes it for granted that senses of nouns, adjectives and adverbs that are regularly formed could be easy to guess, or that advanced learners are able to understand how they are related and translated by inference. He might also have considered that derivatives like *-ly* adverbs are secondary vocabulary that is not worthy of good treatment. If so, it is compiled for advanced users and not at all considered user-friendly as *MoEJ* (and *SEJ*). As in the entries of **kindness** and **kindly**, the problem is that no systematic consistency is found in giving translations to derivations.

#### 8.5. Influential dictionaries on Saito's dictionary *JECJ*

##### 8.5.1. *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language*, Third edition on *JECJ*

The publication year of *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language*, Third edition (*DSL*) (1904) and the comparison of part of J, L and M sections between the dictionary and *JECJ* leads us to say that *DSL* gives an influence on *JECJ* (as well as *MoEJ* and *SEJ*). The few former studies of *DSL* by Ishii (1975) and Kan'no (1997) also show that *JECJ* owes its translation equivalents and illustrative sentences to *DSL*.

It should be discussed why Saito (as well as *MoEJ* and *SEJ*) regards *DSL* as an invaluable source of reference for his dictionary. There seem to be a few reasons. One is that *DSL* revised by two native speakers working in Japan gives formal and colloquial translation equivalents (some of which are accompanied with *kanji*) that are judged to have been exact and suitable. In some entries a number of translations are to be found, and this undoubtedly contributes to what Saito was looking for as suitable or exact translations in *JECJ*. Morioka also says that *DSL* includes a large number of sayings and idiomatic phrases in Japanese as well as colloquial Japanese

expressions and translations (1985: 1016). The second is that, as is mentioned in 8.3.2, they are sometimes accompanied by selection restriction or paraphrases in parentheses, the former of which reminds us of the definition style of *COD*. For example, **obligation** (noun) is explained as follows in *DSL*, with corresponding translations numbered.

### Obligation

#### DSL

n. (duty) [1] *gimu* (義務); (indebtedness for a favor) [2] *ongi* (恩義); (law) [3] *saimu* (債務); [4] *saiken* (債権); (responsibility) *futan* (負擔); [5] *sekinin* (責任)

#### JECJ

【obligate の名詞】 [1] 義務, [5] 責任 ② [3] 債務, [4] 債権, 債券 ③  
【oblige の名詞】 [概して複数] 義理, [2] 恩義.

The third is, as is pointed out by Ishii and Kan'no, that *DSL* often gives illustrative example phrases or sentences along with translations, and this seems to have made it possible for the author to grasp the exact meaning of the entries (and to imitate some of them).

It is true that some of the translation equivalents in *JECJ* can be regarded as those copied from *DSL*. A few more examples are shown below, with the corresponding translations given numbers.

### Obeisance

*DSL* *ojigi*; [1] *keirei* (敬禮); [2] *tonshu* (頓首)

*JECJ* [1] 敬禮, [2] 頓首 ② 敬意, 尊敬, 服従.

cf. *MoEJ* 拜, 揖禮, 會釋, ジギ.

*SEJ* 禮, 時儀, 會釋.

### Objectionable

*DSL* [1] *futsugo* (不都合) *na*; (of language) [2] *ki* (気) *ni sawaru*

*JECJ* 承知し難き, 異議を容る可き, 差支ある, 故障ある(縁談ふど).  
② 反対す可き, 言分ある, [1] 不都合か(論点ふど). ③ [2] 氣に障はる(言葉). 見苦しい(態度). 聞き苦しい(言葉使い). いやふ(人ふど).

cf. *MoEJ* 反対スベキ, 駁論スベキ, イヤナ, 異議アル, 申分アル.

*SEJ* 反対ス可キ, 非難ス可キ, 忌ハシイ, イヤナ.

The first entry above includes (very) formal translations, while the second includes colloquial, or neither formal nor informal, translations. *DSL* is

considered to have been useful for not only English speaking people in Japan but also dictionary compilers.

*DSL* is not thought of as the only source of reference. See the following example.

*Subject* (noun) (The translations equivalents in square brackets with numbers shown roughly correspond with one another.)

*DSL* (as, for conversation) [1] *tane*; (chief character) [2] *shujin* (主人); *odate-mono*; (logic or grammar) *shu* (主); *shugo* (主語); (of a government) [3] *shimmin* (臣民); (of a letter) *omomuki*; [4] *shu-i* (趣意); (of a speech) [5] *endai* (演題); (of an action at law, of a right, etc.) [6] *mokuteki-butsu*; (that which is brought under discussion) [7] *dai* (題); [8] *ken* (件); [9] *mondai* (問題); [10] *rondai* (論題)

*JECJ* 【名】(君主に対する)臣下. [3] (國に属する)臣民. ② [7] (詩文の)題. [9] (研究の)問題. [5] (演説の)演題. [10] (討論の)論題. (議事の)議題. (争論などの) [8] 件. (繪畫の)畫題, 主題, 主旨. ③ (癩の種ふどの) [1] 種. 主因. ④ [文法] (文又は動詞の)主格, 文主. ⑤ [論理]主辭. ⑥ [哲學]我, 心, 主觀. ⑦ (解剖用)死體. (手術などを受ける)受術者. (又實驗, 催眠術などを施す)被驗者. ⑧ (醫學)(何)質の人, (何)性の人.

*MoEJ* ① 配下, 部下. ② [3] 臣民. ③ 事柄, [4] 主意, 題目; [9] 問題, [1] 種, [8] 件. ④ 主眼, 主因, 眼目. ⑤ 題主, [2] 主人公, [6] 目的物. ⑥ 【論】主位. ⑦ 【文】主辭, 文主. ⑧ 心, 主觀. ⑨ 【音】樂趣, 樂旨, 主旋. ⑩ 【美】主題. ⑪ 解剖用死體.

*SEJ* ① 臣, [3] 臣民. ② [2] 主體タル人又物. ③ (特ニ)解剖用死體; 催眠受術者. ④ [7] 題, 題目. ⑤ 主意. ⑥ (美)主題. ⑦ (文, 論)主題, 主辭. ⑧ (音)樂旨. ⑨ (哲)主觀, 心; 本質, 本體. ⑩ 原因.

*JECJ* could not be said to be entirely dependent for translations on *DSL*, because most of the senses except the last are found in *MoEJ* or *SEJ*. It could be said that by making reference to *DSL* as well as other bilingual dictionaries, the author endeavors to give more suitable or appropriate translation equivalents.

### 8.5.2. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English on JECJ

As is sometimes mentioned in this article, *COD* is also considered to

have been one of the most influential dictionaries on Saito's dictionary. The first example is referred to above: synonyms or paraphrases located after translation equivalents. The second is presentation of meanings and showing selection restriction. The third is (grammatical and) collocation information. *COD* is also made use of for labels and for giving compounds and examples.

Here an aspect concerning meaning in *JECJ* with reference to *COD* is briefly mentioned. The archaic or rare meaning in *COD* is sometimes given (**largess**), while it is not always so (**lavatory** and **latitude**). The order of senses is not necessarily the same as *COD* (**observe**). Translation in precedent dictionaries is corrected by reference to *COD* (**octogenarian**). Some of the senses in *COD* are omitted (**judge** (*n.*)), though those that are nowhere found in *COD* are given in *JECJ* (**judge** (*v.i.*)). These facts demonstrate that *COD* could be generally regarded as being invaluable and indispensable for lexical information, but it does not offer everything *JECJ* contains. *COD* is considered to have been made use of as a reference when Saito has no lexical information at hand.

## 8.6. Description of function words of prepositions

It is no easy for dictionary compilers to show the meanings of prepositions because they are typically function words. The entry **of** in *JECJ* mentioned in 7.2.4 concerning grammatical description is taken again as an example in comparison with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. No illustrative example is quoted.

*Of*

*MoEJ*

① ノ ② ヨリ, カラ, ニテ, デ ③ 中ノ ④ ...ニツイテ, ...ノ事ヲ  
⑤ ニ

*SEJ*

① ノ ② タメニ, ニテ, ヨリテ ③ 有セル, アル ④ 成ル, 含メル ⑤ ...  
ノウチニ ⑥ ウチヨリ, 分ケ取りテ ⑦ ヨリ, カラ ⑧ ヲ ⑨ (古)依リテ,  
ニ ⑩ 就キテ, 關シテ ⑪ ...ナル, ...トイフ, ...テフ ⑫ ニ, 間, 中  
⑬ (古)通シテ ⑭ 以テ, ニテ ⑮ 中ニ含マレテ ⑯ 勝チテ, 優リテ

*JECJ*

【分離】(何)から, より(離れる) (a)【軽減, 治癒の動詞】(b)【奪却, 剝

奪の動詞】(c)【免除, 退治, 厄介拂ひの動詞】(d)【免除, 厄介拂ひの  
形容詞】(e)【距離の形容詞等】②【根源, 原因】③【部分關係】(幾つ  
の中(何れなど) ④【形容關係】(何)の(何) (a)【所有關係】(b)【同格關  
係】⑤【動作關係】(何に)就いて(何々するの意味なれども然か譯さず) ⑥  
【熟語】

The above description makes it quite clear that Saito is not at all satisfied with translation equivalents, and gives what could now be called 'signposts' or 'guide words' in square brackets placed before translation equivalents (cf. *CIDE*, *LDCE*<sup>3</sup>). The first signpost means 'separation' subdivided into five: (a) indicates uses with verbs of 'relief' (*To cure one of a disease or a habit.*), (b) with those of 'deprivation' (*I will ease you of your burden*), (c) and (d) with verbs and adjectives of 'exemption' respectively (*To rid a house of vermin* and *I am rid of the trouble*), and (e) with adjectives (and so on) of 'distance' (*The first shot fell wide of the mark*). The second means 'origin/source' and 'cause/motive' but gives no translation (*What has become of him?*). The third means 'partitive relation' (*Do you know any of the men?*). The fourth gives 'adjectives governing of,' further subdivided into 'possessive' and 'appositive' uses (*A man of courage*, and *The city of London*). The fifth gives 'verbs governing of' (*To hear of an event*), and the last includes 'of in phrases' (*of one's own accord*). It is noteworthy that his original works *MOP* published before *COD* already contain these explanations of prepositions. Saito endeavors to show the usage by means of not only what might be called 'guide words' or 'signposts' but also grammatical or semantic classification of verbs, adjectives and so forth. It is not certain to what extent his method is easier to grasp the meaning and usage of such puzzling prepositions, but one thing is clear: his analysis and classification are based on his former works, and it is quite natural that he introduces his fruits of English studies into the dictionary. It is also conceivable that, in the presentation of function words like prepositions, more emphasis is placed on giving examples (and usage notes) than translation equivalents.

## 8.7. Description of content words

### 8.7.1. Nouns

The presentation of translations of nouns is found in the examples above like **odds**, **obligation**, **obeisance** and **subject**. Nouns in a main entry are usually given translation equivalents with a few exceptional cases where the first translations are partially accompanied with related English words, such as **obliquity** translated into 'oblique なること' (the state of being oblique). Saito sometimes uses this translation method possibly under the supposition that, though they are given a main entry status, such derivational entries cannot be considered basic and important, and all he could instead is to give them original words or base forms and formulaic definitions. As long as the given entries are treated as derivational, their translations often show original English words. This is a unique feature found only in *JECJ*.

Compared with verbs and adjectives, Saito's presentation of translations of nouns is not considered unique or original. There is, however, sometimes found a method of showing subtle meaning differences in noun entries. This is closely related to the fine distinctions of nouns, such as 【抽名】 (abstract noun), 【質名】 (material noun) and 【集名】 (collective noun). Let the present writer show an example.

#### Joy

*MoEJ* ㊟ 喜, 歡喜, 喜悅. ㊟ 歡事, 喜事. ㊟ 歡樂, 興.

*SEJ* ① 喜ビ. ② 喜バスモノ. [例 *A thing of beauty is a thing of ~ forever*] ③ (廢)歡樂.

*JECJ* 【抽名】悦び, 喜悅, 歡喜. 【普名】喜びの種, 慶事.

Both senses are followed by a few examples in *JECJ*. The first abstract noun sense includes the uses of *joy* without the articles or in a singular form, while the second common noun sense includes the use of **joy** in a plural form. It is not definitely clear whether Saito is fully aware that the minute distinction between what is now called an uncountable noun in the sense of 'vivid emotion of pleasure, gladness' (*COD*) and a countable noun in the sense of 'thing that causes delight' (*COD*) should be shown in the dictionary, but it is thought that only advanced learners could grasp the distinction. A more complicated presentation is very occasionally found:

**Fruit** 【普集質名】 (common, collective, and material noun), for instance. It could be generally said that there is inconsistently found such information on the subtle distinction of nouns. The dictionary may have been a step forward from grammatical point of view, because *MoEJ* and *SEJ* only gives the fine differences in translation equivalents.

Compare the above and another example *Trouble*.

*MoEJ* ㊟ ゴチャゴチャ, [1] 混雜, [2] 騒, [3] 紛議, [4] 紛紜, [5] 悶著. ㊟ [6] 心配, [7] 苦勞, [8] 厄介, [9] 迷惑, [10] 面倒. ㊟ [11] 手數, [12] 難儀, 艱難.

*SEJ* ① 厄介, [10] 面倒, [12] 難儀, [6] 心配, [13] 骨折, 勞, [2] 騒ギ, [1] 混雜, [4] 紛擾 ② [14] 病

*JECJ* 困った事, 困却, [12] 難儀, 困苦, 苦境, [7] 苦勞, 心配(事), 迷惑(な事). ② 煩ひ, 煩勞, [10] 面倒, [11] 手數, [13] 骨折, [9] 迷惑, [8] 厄介, 困難(より)配慮, [6] 心配. ③ 【普名】厄介(者), 面倒(な事). ④ 【往々複數】面倒な事件, 揉め事, [5] 悶着, [3] 紛議, [4] 紛紜, 紛擾, 事變. ⑤ 【往々複數】 [14] 病氣, (何)病.

cf. *DSL* (uneasiness) [6] *shimpai* (心配); (affliction) [7] *kuro* (苦勞); *kushin* (苦心); *kokoro-dzukai*; (labour) [13] *honeori*; (inconvenience, to others) *tekadzu*; [11] *tesu*; (bother) [10] *mendo* (面倒); (distress) [12] *nangi* (難儀); (difficulty) *konnan* (困難); (dispute) *gota-gota*

This comparison makes it clear that *JECJ* often imitates, or is quite similar to, translation equivalents in the other precedent dictionaries. It is also true that a few confusing translations are given in different sense divisions: some translations in the first and the third meanings are hard to distinguish. It seems that the editor often endeavors to give what he regards as more suitable or exact translations than the others with the grammatical usage in mind, because it is shown that the third is used as a common noun, and the fourth sense is often grammatically used in a plural form, and he also tries to give more concrete translations such as (者) (a... person) or (事) (a... matter).

### 8.7.2. Verbs

As is mentioned in Section 7.2.3, the presentation of a number of verbs

is based on the author's work *SREV*. The front matter says that every verb is given the label 【自動】 (an intransitive verb) and/or 【他動】 (a transitive verb). Some entries have 【自他動】 (an intransitive and transitive verb). The two uses in *JECJ* are in most entries distinguished and given translations like *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. In the example *launch* below, some translations are given and users have to distinguish transitive and intransitive uses. (The descriptions in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* as well as *COD* are also given. No *furigana* and no phrasal verb in *MoEJ* is given.)

*MoEJ* vt. ① [1] 船卸シス, [2] 進水ス. ② 投グ, 放ツ. ③ 突ク[槍ナドニテ]. ④ 送ル. ⑤ [3] 起ス[事ヲ]. *To be launched into eternity*. 突然殺サル. — vi. ① 船ヲ進水ス, 進水式ヲ行フ. ② 身ヲ突込ム.

*SEJ* I vt. ① [1] 船卸シスル, [2] 進水スル. [例 *to ~ a ship*] ② 送ル [例 *to ~ a youth in his profession; to ~ a son in the world*] ③ [3] 起ス[事業ナド, 例 *to ~ a new enterprise*] ④ 投グル[槍ナド], [4] 放ツ[又比喩的ニ呪詛ニモ云フ]. ⑤ (廢)突ク[槍ニテ] II vi. ① 出ル[陸ヨリ水上ニ, 例 *to ~ upon the deep*] ② 入ル[新業ナドニ, 始メル[例 *to ~ into politics*] ③ (廢)跳フ.

*JECJ* 【他動】 (vt.) (a ship **on** the sea—船を) [1] 卸す, [2] 進水する, 浮べる. ② (a new enterprise—新事業を) [3] 起す. (a young man **in** his profession) (専門界に)出す, 乗出させる. (a man **into eternity**) 極樂往生せしむ(殺す). ③ (a missile, a satire, a censure, a threat — **against** a person) [4] 放つ, 發つ. 【自動】 (vi.) (**upon** the deep—大海に)乗り出す. ② (**into** politics—政界に)出る. (**out** or **forth on** an enterprise—事業に)身を投ずる. ③ (**out** or **forth**) 乗り出す, 遣り出す, 辨舌を振り始める, 喋り出す. (**out**—**into** extravagance—**into** expenses—**into** strong or violent language) 贅澤を始める, 金使ひを始める, 激語を吐き始める.

*COD* vt. & i. Hurl, discharge, send forth, (missile, blow, censure, threat, decree); burst (usu. *out*) *into* expense, strong language, & c. (also *l. out* abs., spend money freely, expatiate in words); set (vessel) afloat; send off, start, (person, enterprise) on a course; go *forth*, *out* an enterprise

There is, however, something peculiar in the last category 【自他動】 in *JECJ*, which seems to follow *MoEJ* where the description *vi.* & *vt.* is occasionally found. The verb **stare** given below for example shows both

uses and meanings together. (The numbers in square brackets are attached by the present writer.)

### Stare

【自他動】 ([1] **at** foreigners, shop-windows, etc.) (珍しさうに繪草紙屋ふど)きよろきよろ見る, 突立つて眺める. ([2] **upon** the people or scene around, etc.) (驚いて)きよろきよろする, 目を丸くして驚く. ([3] **in** people's **faces** — [4] people **in the face**) 人の顔をじろじろ見る, じっと見詰める(は失禮). ([5] one **in the face**) (死, 滅亡などが)眼前に迫る. ([6] one **out of countenance**) 人の顔をじろじろ見て極まり悪くさせる. ([7] one **into** silence — [8] one **dumb**) 人の顔をじろじろ見て黙らせる. ② (色などが)目立つ

The eight phrases with their translations are given as typical expressions, the first three of which show intransitive uses, while the rest are transitive uses. Without any fundamental knowledge of English grammar, users may have been at a loss to distinguish the two uses and to find the corresponding translations. This is the only exception where sense relation of verbs seems to be given precedence over their dichotomous syntactic classification. It is not clear how this method of presentation was appreciated (cf. *MoEJ*). In contrast to the monolingual dictionary *COD* that shows the two uses of verbs and their meanings together, traditional English-Japanese dictionaries show the two distinctions and *JECJ* is no exception except the mixed label 【自他動】. Saito often shows in parentheses objects of verbs or nouns in collocation and prepositions or prepositional phrases used with verbs, trying to give more translations. This demonstrates that the author endeavors to make the information as explicit or concrete as possible and show suitable translations. This may have been what Saito considers a practical or user-oriented presentation.

It is recognized that verbs play a crucial role in sentences. Their senses and patterns or complementation are both indispensable for description of verbs. As a result, it is conceivable that similar patterns are placed in different numbered senses. It is quite likely that this sometimes causes users to get puzzled as to the difference or similarity, or relation, of verb senses. For example, see the description of **grow**. (The translation equivalents for examples are omitted, and related part is quoted here.)

**Grow** (One illustrative example is shown.)

【自動】(an intransitive verb) ③ (in some quality—何に)長ずる。A child **grows in wisdom** (= *grows wiser*).

④ (Into = *become* — something) 成る。(together into one—二物が)接合して(一つに)成る。A boy **grows into** a man.

⑤ (on or upon one) 段々募る, 段々好くなる。A habit will **grow upon** one.

⑥ (out of some source—何)から生ずる。(out of some folly) (癖が)直ほる。Plants **grow out of** the earth.

⑦ (over = *overgrow* — a place—草ふどが)一杯に生える。Weeds **grow over** the garden.

⑧ (to = *attain* — a great size) 達する。(fast to something—何に)接合する。This carp **grows to** a great size.

Whether meanings should be inevitably distinguished in the above-mentioned way may pose a problem, because the basic meaning of the above six is almost the same while the only difference lies in what prepositions follow the verb. The demarcation of meanings is clearly based on the complementation or formal features the verb takes. At the expense of the core sense “increase in size, height, quantity, degree, power, & c.” (*COD*) being lost in some translation equivalents, a distinct classification based on form is given. While it may have been traditional and practical or instructive for users to grasp the meaning differentiated by form, this method also has a possible danger of the separately given meanings being naively regarded as distinct or unrelated even by advanced learners. As is often the case with English-Japanese dictionaries, placing much emphasis on the forms enables the author to distinguish more than one meaning in a straightforward way. He seems to have usually taken a position in the demarcation of meanings of verbs where formal distinctions take precedence over sense relation, in stark contrast to the classification of 【自他動】. It means that he does not necessarily take into consideration a systematic method of presentation of meanings in verbs as well as other parts of speech like nouns, when it is found that he sometimes gives broad sense demarcations (cf. Section 8.3.1 and below). Forms and corresponding translations seem of the utmost importance in the classification of verbs.

Another confusing example of the verb **Lay** is given below (cf. Section

8.3.1.1). The first sense includes a variety of senses that are divided into several senses in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, which makes us doubt whether the author really offers a user-friendly classification of meanings. It is also doubtful whether the distinction between the first and eleventh is clearly made from each other by dictionary users. (The object expressions in parentheses are put into English.)

**Lay** 【他動】(平たい物または長い物を) [something flat or long] 横たへる, 寝かす, (横に)置く。(畳や敷物を) [*tatami* mat or carpet] [1] 敷く。(鐵道を) [railroad] 敷設する。(土臺を) [foundation] 据ゑる。(卓子に卓掛を) [table cloth] [2] 掛ける。(bricks) (煉瓦を) 積む。(eggs) (鳥が卵を) 生む。

⑩ (the floor with carpet) (敷物を) [carpet] [1] 敷く。(the table with cloth) (卓子掛けを) [table cloth] [2] 掛ける。

The object of the latter sense must be something like ‘surface’ (*COD*). Only users with advanced knowledge of English grammar could get the gist of the fine differences between the two and will be likely to understand why the same translations are given in different senses.

Saito endeavors to distinguish the senses of verbs by direct objects, by prepositions or prepositional phrases, by adverbs, by complementation, and by idiomatic phrases. But users of the dictionary, who are supposed to be familiar with Saito’s grammar books or grammatical terms, should be warned that they should be careful of the distinguished senses because they are often given based on formal differences.

### 8.7.3. Adjectives

Translation equivalents of adjective are often given with their nouns or noun collocates, because Saito is acutely conscious of adjective phrases or what may be called collocation or phraseology of adjectives. Let the present writer give a few more examples of the colligation of adjectives with prepositions or *to*-infinitives: **Obedient** ② (to one’s superiors), **Oblivious** ② (of anything), and **Safe** ② (Be s\_\_ from harm or danger) as well as **Safe** ③ (Be s\_\_ = *sure, certain* — to do something). Not all related senses give this formulae, but examples are often given to illustrate the colligation.

This will lead us to suppose that the more collocation, the more translation equivalents. The example of the adjective *delicate* mentioned above is a case in point. Here is given another synonym *tender*, and its counterparts in *SEJ* and *COD* for comparison, with English translations in square brackets for the expressions in parentheses.

*Tender*

*SEJ* ① 柔カキ [例 ~ *flesh* or *fruit*] ② 弱キ, (又) 柔弱ナラシムル [例 ~ *children*; ~ *culture*] ③ 感ジ易キ, (特ニ) 痛ミヲ感ジ易キ [例 *a* ~ *place on one's foot*] ④ ヤサシキ, 思遣リアル [例 *a* ~ *heart*] ⑤ 深切ナル ⑥ オトナシキ, 落着ケル [例 ~ *color*] ⑦ 幼キ, 世慣レヌ [例 *the* ~ *period of youth*] ⑧ 慎重ニ扱フ可キ, 忽ガセニス可カラザル [例 *a* ~ *subject*] ⑨ ... セヌヤウニ氣ヲ附ケル, 心配スル, 用心スル [例 ~ *of giving offence*] ⑩ (古) タヨワキ ⑪ (廢) 貴キ ⑫ (航) 傾キ易キ

*JECJ* (Hard, tough に對し) 柔かふ(肉など) [meat, etc.] (loin) 牛豚の柔かな腰肉. ② 感じ易き(心又は良心) [heart, conscience, etc.] (place) (身體の) 痛い所. (-eyed) 目の弱い(人). ③ たよわき, かよわき, 脆き, 傷の付き易い(ものは名譽ふど) [reputation, etc.] ④ 優しい, 情け深い(心ふど) [heart, etc.] (-eyed) 眼の優しき(人) ... ⑤ (of one's honour or good name) (名譽ふどを) 酷く惜む(人) [person, etc.] ⑥ (of doing wrong) (曲った事を) 嫌う(心ふど) [heart, etc.] ⑦ (= delicate) 云い出しにくい(事) [matter, subject]. 扱ひにくい(問題) [problem]. 話しにくい, きはどい(質問など) [question, etc.]

*COD* Soft, not tough or hard, as *t. steak*; easily touched or wounded, susceptible to pain or grief, as *a t. heart, conscience, place* (in body); delicate, fragile, (lit. & fig. of reputation & c.); loving, affectionate, fond, as *t. parents, wrote t. verses*; solicitous, considerate, (of one's honour, good name, & c.); afraid of (doing wrong thing); requiring careful handling, ticklish, as *t. subject*; ...

This entry is one of the typical examples in *JECJ* that follows the information in *COD* because some of the restrictive information in parentheses in *JECJ* is found in *COD*. *COD*, a dictionary for native speakers, is considered to have been useful and instructive in selection restriction information and illustrating abundant examples. In comparison with *SEJ* that generally focuses on both translations and illustrative examples, *JECJ*

devotes more space to giving translations that are closely related to collocation information, or idiomatic English. *JECJ* is considered to have been useful for users to understand the meanings of the entry word, because, in spite of the fact that the clear-cut differences of translations are not always found, it gives a practical idea of what nouns the entry adjectives collocate with. Monolingual dictionaries like *COD*, *Century*, *Standard* and *WNID* are not necessarily of great help, but Saito often makes use of them for lack of his data. This results in the strong possibility that *JECJ* is an invaluable source of reference for learners. Saito's own data based on extensive reading from a wide variety of English literature and other sources such as magazines and newspapers enable him to give his own examples of collocates or nouns used with adjectives, even if they cannot now be regarded as such in a strict sense of the word. It is a great step forward that Saito is aware of, and endeavors to enumerate, what he would call 'idiomological' adjective phrases.

It is not certain how Saito's user-oriented approach was appreciated. It naturally depends on users. *JECJ* is undoubtedly a dictionary for advanced learners, and in the presentation of a variety of meanings based on formal features, it may or may not have been instructive. But, on the whole, showing more translations is considered to have been crucial in the dictionary. He is eager to fix the translations for English words he judges to be important. This attitude leads him to compile a dictionary often filled with many translations. What is believed to be important and basic adjectives is often full of translations, though it is sometimes difficult for users to follow what is the core or central meaning or what sense relation there is between given meanings. His practical viewpoint leads him to compile a dictionary with translations that are applicable to as wide a variety as possible.

#### 8.7.4. Adverbs

Adverbs are also recognized to be a key factor. Here the entry *just* is taken as an example. In contrast to those run-on entries of *-ly* adverbs, adverbs as an independent entry are dealt with in more detail. The adverb *just* as such is given underlined meanings as a sign of lexical importance.

There are eight meanings and their usage, three of which is dealt with in neither *MoEJ* nor *SEJ*. The description of the entry with the corresponding entry in *DSL* is given below. (Note that the roughly corresponding translations are numbered.)

*JECJ*

④ (何々)したて: I met a gentleman **just** (returned) **from** abroad. [1] 洋行して歸りたての紳士。You will take cold if you go out **just after** taking a bath. 風呂に這入りたてに出掛けると風を引く。

⑤ 只, ほんの(少しふど): I came **just** (= *only*) because you asked me to come. 来いと云うからこそ来た。Just a little bit. [2] ほんの少し(ちよいと)。Just for greens. 何の譯も無く。

⑥ 少し, ちよいと: **Just below** the summit. 頂上のちよいと下。Just **this side** [*sic.*] the bridge. [4] 橋のちよいと手前。Just **by** (= *close by*) the school. [3] 直き近く。It is **just next-door to** the school. [5] つひ隣り。

*DSL*

adv. (exactly) *chodo*; (barely) *yatto*; *yatto no koto de*; *yoyo*; as, I **have . . . been able to arrange it**, *yatto kata ga tsuita*, (by a title) *chotto no koto de*; as, I . . . **missed the train**, *chotto no koto de kisha ni nori-okureta*; (with imperative) *chotto*; as, . . . **come here**, *chotto o ide*, (with past participle)-*tate no* suffixed to indef. form of vb.; as, . . . **made**, *deki-tate no*; **my hair has only . . . been dressed**, *kami wa mada yui-tate da*; (close) *jiki*; *sugu*; *tsui*; as, . . . **by**, [3] *no jiki soba ni*; . . . **this side of**, [4] *no jiki temae*; **it's . . . next door**, [5] *tsui tonari da*, (directly) *ma-*; . . . **behind**, *no ma-ushiro ni*; . . . **below**, *no ma-shita ni*, (only) *bakari*; *hon no*; . . . **a little**, *sukoshi bakari*; [2] *hon no wadzuka*; (a moment ago) *tatta ima*; as, **I've . . . returned**; *tatta ima kaetta*; or *kaetta tokoro da*, or [1] *kaetta bakari*.

The comparison of the two dictionaries makes it likely that *JECJ* owes translation equivalents and examples to *DSL*, partly because the latter shows colloquial Japanese translations that are easy to understand.

Let the present writer give another adverb *simply* and a comparison of the dictionaries.

*MoEJ* ㊶ 單純ニ。㊷ 簡單ニ, 平易ニ。㊸ 樸實ニ, アカラサマニ。㊹ アッサリト, 淡薄ニ。㊺ ギミニ, 飾ナク。㊻ 單ニ, タダ, マルア。[no example]

*SEJ* 簡明に [例 *told* ~]; 質素ニ [例 *dressed* ~]; 樸直ニ [例 ~ *modest*]; 單ニ [例 ~ *by learning*]; 愚ニ [例 *to behave* ~].

*JECJ* 單簡に(生活するふど) [live, etc.]. ㊶ 分かり易く(説明するふど) [explain, etc.]. ㊷ 質素に(支度するふど) [prepare, etc.]. 手輕に(食事するふど) [have a meal, etc.]. 飾り無く(物言ふふど) [say something, etc.]. ㊸ あどけふく, 正直に, 有りの儘に(話すふど) [talk, etc.]. ㊹ 愚にも(騙されるふど) [be deceived, etc.]. ㊺ (= *only*) 只(實地丈で學ぶふど) [study or learn, etc.]. ㊻ 全く(狂氣) [mad, crazy], 全然(不可能なる) [impossible]

*IEDJ* ㊶ 唯, 單に, 單純に, 純粹に, 簡單に, 簡易に。㊷ 質朴に, 飾らずに, 純粹に, 天真爛漫に, ありのまゝに, 氣取らずに, 偽りなく。㊸ 無邪氣に, 正直に。㊹ 無智に, 馬鹿にも, 經驗なく, 拙く。㊺ 容易に, 低く, 卑しく, 僅に。[no example]

cf. *DSL* *tan ni*; *hei-i ni*; *kantan ni*; *tayasuku*; (intelligibly) *wakari-yoku*; *akarasama ni*; *wakari-yasui yo ni*; (of living) *assari shite*; *tam-paku* (淡薄) *ni*; (solely) *tada*; *bakkari*; *tatta*: (without ornament) *jimi* (地味) *ni*; *kazari naku*; *soshoku naku*

From the point of view of present-day corpus-based description, they may not be satisfactory. *SEJ* juxtaposes translation equivalents and example phrases, and *JECJ* supplements translations with additional restrictive phrases, or what is regarded as typical verbs that collocate with the adverb, in parentheses (translated into English in square brackets). In comparison with *MoEJ* and *IEDJ*, *JECJ* usually endeavors to explain meanings with explanatory or restrictive phrases. It is likely that *JECJ* (as well as *SEJ*) is more user-friendly because the added information on verbs usually makes it easier for users to figure out in what collocation the entry can be used.

No consistency in the treatment of adverbs is found because **already** for example is given only one translation in contrast to **yet** that is given full treatment. Negative adverbs like **scarcely** and **hardly** are given good treatment. Or adverbs that are confusing for Japanese learners, like **apparently** and **else**, are dealt with in detail since not only meanings but also detailed usage are given in related senses. Saito is said to have been language-conscious enough to demonstrate the importance of adverbs for Japanese learners. It could be the first dictionary that pays more attention

to adverbs.

### 8.8. Saito's unique translation

Interesting enough, *JECJ* often includes unique translations, which is more noticeable in translations of examples, even if it could be said that precedent dictionaries also endeavor to give translations in a similar fashion. Let the present writer give just a few examples.

<b>Jack Sprat</b>	一寸法師
<b>Jester</b>	幫間, たいこもち
cf. <i>MoEJ</i>	ジョウダン言, シャレ言, オドケ者, 道化者; 弄臣, 幫間, 男藝者, マッシャ.

The two are uniquely Japanese translations or Japanized ones. The former is literally translated into "One-inch monk or boy" in a folktale where "A couple pray for a child and are finally granted an extraordinary small boy, whom they fondly call *Issumboshi*. The boy seeks his fortune in Kyoto and vanquishes demons on an island; thanks to a miraculous mallet that they have left behind, he becomes a tall man and makes a fortunate marriage ...." (*Japan: An Illustrated Encyclopedia* 1993: 635) The latter also found among the translations in *MoEJ* means "Jesterlike male *geisha* whose role is to entertain people at banquets by creating an atmosphere of merriment." (*Ibid.*: 551) They seem to be given partly because the author tries to make defined entries familiar to users. But there is a possible danger of a gap in denotation (and connotation) between English and Japanese. Compare *JECJ* with *IEDJ* that is closely related to *COD*.

<i>Jack Sprat</i>	● 小さな男. ● 英 子守歌中の主人公.
<i>Jester</i>	● 戯談を言ふ人, おどけもの ● (往時王侯の抱へし) 弄臣, 優倡

[*COD* definition of *jester* "one who jests, esp. professed maker of amusement maintained in court or noble household" may be applied to the second translation.]

The translations in Saito's are, as in many other cases, quite restricted or uniquely Japanese. It is conceivable that Saito's translations may have been easier to understand and popular among students in those days, but

the translations in *IEDJ*, which are not always easy for users to figure out exactly what the entries mean or are like, could be used in later dictionaries, since they are not culture-specific or restricted in denotation, or neutral or explanatory definitions. On translations in examples, see Section 9.

### 8.9. Translation equivalents of technical terms

No strikingly noticeable difference is to be found between translations of technical terms in *MoEJ*, *SEJ* and *JECJ*. This is because Saito is more interested in usage of commonly used words. That is why nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions are given more space and treated in more detail. Another reason comes from the fact that *JECJ* sometimes omits technical meanings or labels in *COD* (cf. Section 7.6), or the former is not consistent in inclusion of technical meanings in the latter. A few examples will be sufficient to make this fact clear: **joist**, **jointure**, and **lavement**. These entries or sub-entries includes no technical sense though *COD* includes the information. This is why *JECJ* is regarded as being more lexical-oriented than encyclopedic or technical term-oriented.

### 8.10. Summary

*JECJ* often gives more translation equivalents than *MoEJ* and *SEJ*. This is because the author draws a sharp distinction between lexically basic and common words of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs as well as prepositions, and secondary or minor entries of encyclopedic or technical nature. This is possible partly because he could make a reference to other sources as well as his own works; monolingual dictionaries such as *COD*, and bilingual dictionaries such as *DSL*. *COD* is invaluable since it also focuses on lexical aspect of common words, while *DSL* gives a number of colloquial and formal equivalents.

The demarcation and arrangement of meanings do not always follow those of earlier dictionaries like *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, even if admittedly *JECJ* often follows translations in the two dictionaries. The presentation of meanings in verbs and prepositions is in principle based on his works of English. The meanings of verbs are in principle based on formal distinc-

tions with the exception of 【自他動】, while the meanings of adjectives are basically given in terms of collocation with other nouns. A similar description is also found in adverbs, which shows the meanings in the collocation with verbs. Saito does not always succeed in consistent and systematic descriptions in translation equivalents. But on the whole, it could be safely said that the lexical-oriented *JECJ* is compiled for Japanese users in mind. The dictionary is considered a mixed blessing, since the compilation policy is not always consistent. But the success of the lexical *JECJ* seems to have exerted considerable influence on later dictionaries in that the dictionary makes advanced users fully aware that meanings of words are closely related to forms or formal features, and that 'idiomological' study of English should be taken into account in providing suitable translation equivalents for Japanese students. (Section 8 by Dohi)

## 9. Fixed Expressions and Verbal Illustrations

### 9.1. Fixed expressions in an entry of *JECJ* and its comparison with *COD*

In this section we shall deal with verbal illustrations and fixed expressions including collocations, idioms, aphorisms, proverbs and so on that are listed after the Japanese translations of the headword in the entries of *JECJ*. Here we shall refer to these trains of headword-related phrases of various sorts and their (sometimes very loose) Japanese equivalents that Saito mentioned in *JECJ* as "listed expressions" or "listed examples." They may be said to represent the most unique feature of Saito's work, materializing his original concept of "idiomology." To see how these items are presented and his ideas are practiced and elaborated in *JECJ*, let us first look at the following typical, medium-sized entries that we find in the dictionary.

**Question** (クエスチョン) 【名】 問, 疑問, 質問. (and answer) 問答. **Leading question.** 水を向ける問(誘導訊問). **Rhetorical question.** (裏面に断言を含む) 修辞的疑問(言を俟たんやの類). **To ask one a question — put a question to one.** 人に問を掛ける. ② 問題, 論題, (より) 争論. **A question arose.** 問題が持ち上がった. (又) 争論が始まった. **Beside (or aside from) the question.** 問題外. **Ques-**

**tion!** (議事中) 問題外(の声). **Resistance was out of the question.** (抵抗などは) 思ひも寄らぬ事, 以ての外(の事(論外)). **The Eastern question.** 東方問題. **A difficult (puzzling, perplexing) question.** 難問. It is only **a question of money.** 金次第. His ruin is merely **a question of time.** 彼の滅亡は単に時日問題(早晚免れぬ事). The person or thing **in question.** 例の(人又は事). 当人, 本件, 該(何々). **To come into question.** 問題に成る. (重要に成る). **The previous question** 先決問題. **An open question.** 未決問題. **A burning question.** 焦眉の問題. Yes, if he will consent — but **that's the question.** だが其処が(疑問だ). **That is not the question.** 話しが違ふ(問題外). **The question is,** if he will come at all. 第一(来るか来ないかも) 分からぬ. **To put the question.** (議長が) 決を採る. **Begging the question.** 未決の問題を論拠とする(乞食) 論法. ③ 疑義, 不審, 疑ひ. **To call anything in question.** 不審を打つ, 是非を論ずる, 彼是云ふ, 非難する, 弾劾する. **I make no question of the fact — allow it without question.** 事実を疑はぬ. **There is no question (but) that is so.** 疑無し. It is established **without question — beyond (all) question — past question.** 無論(勿論)の事. ④ [古] (= torture) 拷問. **To put a prisoner to the question.** 拷問に掛ける.

In the entry he refers to various collocational and idiomatic expressions involving the word 'question.' Let us compare the entry with the following entry of *COD* (1911) (underlined by the present author).

**question**<sup>1</sup> (-stshon), n. Sentence adapted by order of words, use of interrogative pronoun or stop, or other means, to elicit answer, interrogative sentence, (put a q. to one, ask him something; q. & answer, alternation of qq. & answers, catechetic procedure; LEADING<sup>2</sup>, RHETORICAL, q.; indirect, oblique, q., made into dependent clause; q. -mark or -stop, mark of interrogation); (raising of) doubt about or objection to thing's truth, credibility, advisability, &c. (allowed it without q.; beyond all or beyond, out of, past, without, q., certainly, undoubtedly; call in q., raise objections to; make no q. of fact &c., but that it is so &c., admit it; there is no q. but that . . .), whence **question-**LESS adv. & a.; problem requiring solution, matter or concern depending on conditions of, (EASTERN q.; a difficult q.; BEG the q.; success is merely a q. of time, will certainly come, but may come sooner or later; it is only a question of putting enough coffee in); subject being discussed or for discussion, thing to be voted on, (the person in q., that we are referring to; come into q. be discussed, become of practical impor-

tance; *that is not the q.*, is irrelevant; *the q. is*, introducing or recalling exact matter of debate; *Q!* in public assemblies, used to recall speaker from digression; *the PREVIOUS q.*; *out of the q.*, too impracticable to be worth discussing; *put the q.* require supporters & opponents of proposal to record their votes, divide meeting &c.; *OPEN q.* [*sic*]; (archaic) torture to elicit confession (*was put to the q.*) [OF, f. L *quaestionem* (*quaerere* seek, -TION)].

The underlined phrases appear in mostly the same order in *JECJ*, which was published in 1915. It is quite obvious that Saito made use of the resources in the compendious work by the Fowlers (first published in 1911).

## 9.2. Presentation of fixed expressions in *JECJ*

In the present-day English-Japanese learner's dictionaries (or similarly in monolingual EFL dictionaries), illustrative phrases and sentences as well as typical collocations are placed just after the sense descriptions (i.e. Japanese equivalents) of the headword, and below such descriptions usually comes so-called 'set phrases' and 'idioms,' separate from verbal illustrations and collocations, usually in a different format of presentation. In *JECJ*, we find in that location a mixture of mostly collocations and set phrases, without any distinction between them. In the example above, collocations may include such expressions as *ask one a question*, *a question arose*, and *a difficult (puzzling, perplexing) question*, and we find such items as *beside the question*, *out of the question*, *in question*, *(to) come into question*, *beg the question* (s.v. *beg*), *(to) call . . . in question*, *without question* and *beyond (all) question* in the section of set phrases in *Kenkyusha Luminous English-Japanese Dictionary (LEJD)*<sup>1)</sup>.

## 9.3. Fixed expressions involving *cat* and *dog* in *JECJ*, *MoEJ* and *SEJ*

In some entries of *JECJ*, we can see an abundance of proverbs and aphorisms. For instance, under 'dog' we find 25 fixed expressions including:

A live dog is better than a dead lion. 死虎生鼠に如かず。

Every dog has his day. 犬(馬鹿)にも豊年あり。  
 Let sleeping dogs lie. 藪蛇を出すな。  
 Barking dogs do not bite. 口先計りで實行せぬ。  
 Old dogs will not learn new tricks. 老人は新説と和し難し。  
 Love me, love my dog. 坊主が可愛ゆけれや袈裟までも。

Among these sayings, the first instance (both the sentence and its Japanese equivalent) can be found in Satow and Ishibashi's *DSL* (s.v. *dog*), the second, the third and the sixth in *COD*, the English phrases of the fourth and the fifth can be seen in Kanda and Nan-nichi's *ESJD*.

In the same way, in the entry of 'cat' we find 15 including:

A cat has nine lives. 叩いても死ふぬ。  
 Care killed the cat. 九生ある猫でさへ苦勞に勝てず(況して人は苦勞すると壽命を縮める, 呑氣に暮せ)。  
 A cat may look at a king. 猫能く王を見るを得(王侯何かあらん)。

along with a wide variety of set phrases involving a cat, such as *to let the cat out of the bag*, *to rain cats and dogs*, *Who will bell the cat?*, *to make a cat's paw of a man* and *there is not room enough to swing a cat*, to name a few. Most of the examples cited here are those referred to in the *COD* that was published before *JECJ*.

As we have seen so far, many of Saito's copious verbal illustrations come from his contemporary works. Also, some others can be seen in his own previous publications on the English usage and grammar and textbooks, such as *PEG*, *AEL*, *MOP* and *SREV*.

It is not very creditable that he is heavily indebted for the set phrases and collocations in *JECJ* to various books of earlier publication, but the practice was prevalent in his days, and we would like to regard *JECJ* not merely as a hodgepodge of English expressions collected from other works, but as an unprecedented and comprehensive compilation of English set expressions. Let us now see what sort of set items are listed in *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, major English-Japanese dictionaries published four and three years before *JECJ* respectively, leaving the argument whether the descriptions in the entries *cat* and *dog* are representative enough in terms of fixed expression listing.

	<i>MoEJ</i>	<i>SEJ</i>
cat	Enough to make a cat speak or laugh. To fight like Kilkenny cats. To grin like a Cheshire cat. To rain cats and dogs. To turn the cat in the pan.	a cat in the meal A cat may look at a king. cat-and-dog enough to make a cat speak or laugh to let the cat out of the bag to let the old cat die to rain cats and dogs to see which way the cat will jump to turn a cat-in-pan
dog	A dead dog. A dog in the manger. A dog's day. A dog's death. Sporting dog. To give or throw to the dogs. To go to the dogs. Wild dog.	a dead dog a dog's age a dog's death a dog in the manger to give to the dogs to go to the dogs

*MoEJ* is rather encyclopedic items-oriented while *SEJ* is more interested in linguistic matters (see Kokawa *et al.* 2000), but they are not so different as far as the entries are concerned.

*JECJ* treats even more fixed phrases than both of them, which reveals the compiler's strong interest or enthusiasm in fixed expressions that are peculiar to the English language. This characteristic of *JECJ* may no doubt have helped, been welcomed by, and aroused more linguistic interest in its contemporary users, whose main interest must have been the comprehension of literary and other reading materials.

#### 9.4. Omission of 'transparent' phrases and sentences as verbal illustrations

What draws our attention as one of the characteristics of the dictionary is that relatively few verbal illustrations with 'obvious' or essential collocations are cited in *JECJ*. Thus, we find combination of the noun 'question' and the verb 'to answer' neither under the entry of 'question' nor 'answer'

as a typical collocation. We only find the description 「(問に)答へる」 [(*toi-ni*) *kotaheru*, 'to answer (the question)'] as the Japanese equivalent for the verb 'answer.' Such an obvious but essential collocations are commonly found in today's English-Japanese learner's dictionaries (for instance, we find a sentence, '*Please answer my question*,' in the entry of 'question' (*ni*) in *LEJD*, and similar examples are found in comparable dictionaries. It looks as if Saito were little interested in such 'transparent' or basic collocations, however they may stand out in terms of pedagogical importance or frequency of use. Thus we may be able to surmise that the listed examples in *JECJ* extends only within the boundary of what Saito's idiomology made him think it relevant to present in his dictionary concerning the word in question (i.e. the headword of an entry), nothing more and nothing less. Still, when we think of the lexicographical standard of nearly a century ago, the extensiveness or scope of his idiom description was amazing and epoch-making.

#### 9.5. Illustrative sentences and phrases in a verb entry of *JECJ*

We shall now look at a verb entry in *JECJ*, which may bring to light some other characteristics of the dictionary.

**Wish** (ウイッシュ) 【他動】 (= *desire*) (何を)望む, 欲する, 願ふ, 希ふ. (**peace** or **war**) 平和(ふど)を望む. **What (which) do you wish?** 何を(どちらを)望むか. Neither the position nor the terms are **such as one could wish**. 何れも思はしくふい. ② (**to do something**) (何々し)度い. I **wish to** go abroad. 僕は洋行したい. ③ (**one to do something**) (人に何々して)貰い度い, (と)所望する [命令法相当]. (I **wish you to**) **come** to-morrow. 明日来い(来て貰ひ度い). **What do you wish me to do** (= *what shall I do?*) 何う致しませうか. I will do **as you wish** (me to do). お望み(御所望)通りに致しませう.

Thus far, listed expressions serve as the exemplification of the sentence structure in question and helps the users of the dictionary understand the syntactic use of the word. The description in the entry continues as follows:

④ (it **were** so — one **were** a bird — one **could** fly) (さうなら)宜いのだが. (何が出来れば)宜いが. (世に偽りがなければ)宜い[叶はぬ願望].

「Wish」の次に附屬法の過去(談話體にては只の過去)續けば「此雪が綿ふら宜い」(I wish this snow were wool)などと叶はぬ願ひを表はし、其裏面には遺憾の意味を含む。I wish I were (or was) a bird. わたしや鳥なら宜い (= I am sorry I am not a bird). I wish I had a pair of wings. (鳥の様に)翼が欲しい (= I am sorry I have none). I wish I could fly. 飛ぶことが出来たら宜い (= I am sorry I can not fly). I wish I had been there. 行けば宜かつた (= I am sorry I was not there). I wish I could have seen him. 會へば宜かつた、會ひたかつた (= I am sorry I could not see him — I should like to have seen him). I wish to heaven — to God — to goodness — it were so. さうなら實に宜い。⑤ (it would be so — one would succeed) (何うかさう成ると宜いと)希ふ(餘り見込無し)。 (one would try — one would work hard) (何卒さうして呉れと)願ふ[歎願に相當]。 I wish the weather would be fine. 何うか天氣にしたいものだ(が)。 It is to be wished (= desirable) that the war would soon be over. 何うか戦争が早く濟めば宜いが。 比較 (a) I hope you will succeed. 君は多分成功するだらう(見込有り)。 (b) I wish you would succeed. 何うか君に成功さし度いものだが(餘り見込無し)。 注意 此形を意志動詞に用ふれば輕き歎願と成る。 比較 (a) I wish you to try. 遣つて見て貰ひ度い[遣つて見ると云ふ命令に相當]。 (b) I wish you would try. (何卒)遣つて見て下さい。 [I beg you will — の輕い形]。 ⑥ (it may be so — one may succeed) (斯くあれかし、成れかしと)祈る、祈願する。 比較 (a) I wish you would succeed. (何うか)君は成功すれば宜いが。 (b) I wish you may succeed. 君の成功せん事を祈る。 I wish I may live to see it. 存命中之を見る由もがふ。 I wish it may not prove true (= I fear it will prove true). 事實と成らざる事を祈る(悪くすると事實に成る)。

Here the author of the dictionary provides a very detailed and astute explanation of the use of the word *wish* in combination with different moods and attempts to get the nuances that each English expression involves across to the dictionary user. His description is quite to the point, yet the use of illustrative sentences here is quite generous, citing four sentences for the explanation of subjunctive past. The style is more like that of a grammar book. These descriptions are unparalleled by his contemporary dictionaries. He had comprehensive works on grammar and verbs, and he must have realized the importance of verbs more than any other dictionary writers of his days. Here too, however, many examples come from *COD* and other works including the grammar book *AEL* of his

own authorship (under the term 'occasional dative'). The following is the rest of the entry of 'wish':

⑦【間接目的附他動詞】(one success — success to everybody) (人に成功を)祈る。(one well — well to all men — nobody ill) (人の不幸、成功を、不幸ふらざらん事を)祈る、祈願する、(より)好意あり。(one joy) (お目出度と)祝す、賀す。(one a safe journey — one a happy voyage) (さらば道中恙無くと)幸先を祝ふ。(one a happy New Year — one a merry Christmas) (新年お目出度などと)祝す。 I wish you may succeed — wish you success. 成功(せん事)を祈る。 I wish you joy of the occasion. 今日はお目出度う。 I wish you many happy returns of the season. 此目出度き日に幾度も再會せられん事を祈る(長壽を祈る)。 I wish you good luck. — Good luck to you! (遊獵家に向つて)澤山お撃ちふさい(ふど)。 I shall wish you a good morning. 左様なら。 He came to wish me a good night. お休みふさいと云ひに來た。 ⑧【補言附他動詞】(something to be done — something done) (何をどうして)欲しい。(何が何うなれば)宜い。(one happy) (人の幸福ふらん事を)望む。(one away — one further — one at the devil) (あの人が居ふけれや)宜い(と思ふ)。(oneself dead) (一層の事)死んで了ひ度い、死んだ方が宜い(と思ふ)。(oneself at home) (これなら來ふけれや)宜かつた)我家に居た方が宜かつた(と思ふ)。 I could not wish it better. 此上は望まれぬ(是なら結構です)。 It is a narrow selfishness in a father to wish his son an exact copy of himself. 親が我子を自分そつくり其儘にしようと思ふのは狭い了見だ。【自動】(for anything) (何を)望む。(何が)欲しい。(for peace or war) (平和などを)望む。(for a pair of wings) (翼が)欲しや(と歎息する)。 How I wish for (= O for) a pair of wings! 翼が欲しや。 He can wish for nothing more — has nothing left to wish for. 此上望む物は無い(何不自由の無い身)。 Nothing valuable may be had for the wishing. 無代價(ただ)で得られるものには碌なもの無い。

His manner of description is rather inconsistent and has some redundancy. Some expressions are shown only in framework (e.g. (oneself dead)) when a specific example (e.g. *I wish myself dead.*) would have given the user of the dictionary a better vision of the use of the word in question. On the other hand, basically the same expressions (e.g. *I shall wish you a good morning.* and *He came to wish me a good night.*) are presented in two separate full sentences. Some expressions are given the privilege of being shown both in framework and full sentence exemplification (e.g.

(*one joy*) and *I wish you joy of the occasion.*) However, it would be unfair to Saito for us to evaluate his dictionary by today's standards of consistency and economy of space. All we can say is that his approach seems to be inductive, that is, have the user of the dictionary read the whole entry of a certain word and get the whole picture of the word concerned, including idiomology.

### 9.6. Saito's manner of description and his entry design

As can be seen from the example of the verb *wish* above, essential verb entries are generally quite voluminous with extensive descriptions of grammatical constructions and idiomology. This may come from his strong interest in such elements and from the fact that he has his own grammar books and he intended to incorporate as many elements that he wrote in his own works as possible into *JECJ*. On the other hand, words that present little complexity in terms of usage are treated fairly in brief. Take the example of the noun entry *bath*:

**Bath** (バツ)【名】入浴, 浴所. **To take a bath.** (一回)入浴する.

By contrast, the entry of *make* take up nearly eight pages in *JECJ*. (cf. 7.3.1.) In the third division of the entry, following the number ③ and the header【特別用法】('special use') 53 'special uses' of *make* are listed. With just one exception (*A ship makes so many knots an hour.*), they are idiomatic expressions involving *make* and one or more nouns, such as *to make a difference*, *to make a wry face*, *to make a fortune*, *to make tea*, and *to make a scene*. Here again, there seems to be no systematic arrangement, except that semantically close items appear close to one other. Under the next division, headed by the number ④ and the header【動名熟語】(literally, 'verb-noun idioms,') 39 idioms are given. We don't see much difference, grammatical, semantic, or otherwise, in the items in the third and fourth categories. It has one more similar category, number ⑤, which is made up of verb-noun idioms that can be paraphrased with the same one-word verb as the noun used in the idiom: e.g. *to make progress* (= (to) *progress*).

He uses boldface quite systematically, giving prominence to the phrases

or expressions in point very effectively. The use of this highlighting device in listed expressions (in other dictionaries, in illustrative phrases and/or sentences) is in fact the first instance that we know of in English-Japanese lexicography in Japan. The way collocations and idioms are presented in boldface reminds us of the major present-day monolingual EFL dictionaries.

On the other hand, there seems to be no systematic rule in the order of presenting listed expressions. Thus the users of the dictionary may have found it difficult, sometimes almost impossible, to browse through an entry to reach an expression that they were looking for, especially in longer entries. Also, phrases and full sentences cannot be told apart by appearance, that is, the former, just as the latter, start with a capital letter and end with a period, which makes them indiscernible from each other. It seems that Saito never expected his dictionary to be an organized tool of reference.

He collapses similar or interchangeable expressions into one illustration (see the case of *A difficult (puzzling, perplexing) question* and *It is established without question — beyond (all) question — past question.* above) while he does not make a habit of citing parallel but different phrases together (see the examples of *a question of money* and *a question of time* above), which may sometimes look somewhat redundant. This may come from the fact that he turned to different dictionaries and materials for the expressions that he cited in his entries and brought in the styles into the original works as they were.

Entries of some function words such as prepositions are also quite extensively treated. For example, the description of the preposition *in* amounts to nearly 9.5 pages (cf. Section 11.5.4) The author divides the use of the word into 19 categories. Most of them are only headed by the category names, such as【包含, 包括】(inclusion, interiority) or【有様, 状態】(state, condition), followed by only one or two (or in many cases, no) Japanese equivalents and then dozens of listed expressions. Again they are made up of 'idioms' beginning with or including the word *in*: *in itself*, *in my opinion*, and *in the prime of life*, just to cite a few.

From the modern viewpoint of ease of reference, an entry structure of

this sort presents a serious problem, as the users who want to 'look up' an idiom may have a hard time achieving their goals, but Saito's goal seems to be somewhere else. He doesn't seem to have wanted the user to 'look up' an idiom in his dictionary. It seems that he just wanted to present a word with its whole idiomology, however extensive the entry may be, and have her/him read it all to get the entire picture of the world around the word concerned.

### 9.7. Verbal illustrations of his own creation

In *JECJ* we find illustrative sentence evidently of Saito's own creation:

They **call** him "Oyaji." 人彼を呼んで親爺と云ふ. (*s.v.* **Call** 【他動】 (= transitive verb))

In fact, this sentence is also found in his work, *SREV* (p. 139). It may be that for the purpose of fully communicating his world of idiomology to the user some of the verbal illustrations found in other reference materials were not relevant enough.

### 9.8. Japanese equivalents for verbal illustrations in *JECJ*—an outstanding appeal of Saito's dictionary

Japanese equivalents attached to the listed examples of *JECJ* are quite unique, and we may say that they are one of the features that have made the dictionary so popular and attractive. Let us now look at the characteristics of some of them.

Saito does not give word-for-word translations to all the elements in the cited examples, but only the equivalents for the idiomatic part is shown. For instance, we find:

The portrait is **drawn to the life**. 生き寫し. (*s.v.* **To** 【前置詞】 (= preposition))

without any translation of the subject, *the portrait*.

He uses parentheses for the presentation of the meaning of idioms very effectively. When a modern dictionary might present for example,

**at the last moment** いよいよという時に: He faltered *at the last moment*. 彼はいよいよという時にへこたれた.

*JECJ* offers the same information more concisely and effectively, putting the translation of the elements other than the idiom in brackets:

He faltered **at the last moment**. 愈々といふ時に(へこたれた). (*s.v.* **Last, Moment**)

On the other hand, when he sees it necessary he gives a very kind supplementary explanations with a gloss in parentheses to represent the slightest implications that a listed example may seem to offer:

He has **a hold upon** her. 急所を握つて居る(から何んふ無心でも出来る). (*s.v.* **Hold** 【名】 (= noun))

His glosses may also have a very specific visualizing effect of the context that the listed example may be uttered in:

**Hold on** for your lives! (波に攫はれぬ様に)一生懸命縋れ. (*s.v.* **Hold** 【他動】 [Hold on for your lives (so that you may not be washed away by the waves).<sup>2)</sup>]

although it may have a drawback of making the context too restricted. (The expression, *Hold on for your lives*, may not be only used at sea.) He also mentions the example of the situation in which the cited expression can be typically used, e.g.

**Between wind and water**. (艦の)水線に(弾を受けるふど). (*s.v.* **Between** 【前】 and **Water** 【名】 (in both entries)) [(e.g. Get shelled) Between wind and water (of a ship).]

The following is another instance in which the scope of explication is misleadingly too specific:

**I wish you good luck**. — Good luck **to** you! (遊獵家に向かつて)澤山お撃ちふさい(ふど). [(e.g. to a hunter) Get a full bag.] (*s.v.* the above-mentioned verb entry of **Wish**.)

His use of (より) [*yor*i; meaning 'hence'] to show the figurative or extended meaning is much more frequent and just as effective.

**To give one line** (enough). 糸を繰り出して(魚を)遊ばせる. (より—初め)寛大にして(餌を食はして)置く. [to extend the line and let the fish swim freely — (Hence, at first) to be generous and let the horse

have some carrot (instead of the stick) ] (*s.v.* **Line** 【名】)

The device is also used to link the listed expressions:

**To break the record.** 先例を破る。(より) **Record-breaker.** 新例となるもの(破例).

Probably the greatest charm of Saito's description lies in the brilliance of his Japanese translation for the listed examples. It may come from his particular concern with his own idea of idiomology that places importance on the contrast between English and Japanese phraseology. Kojima (1986: 51; 1999: 389-90) cites the following examples:

I wish I could **meet never to part.** 逢うて別れが無けりゃ好い. (*s.v.* **Meet** 【自動】 (= intransitive verb)) There is no human habitation **within five miles of** the place. 酒屋へ三里豆腐屋へ二里(に相当)) (*s.v.* **Within** 【前置詞】 (= preposition))

We can add one more exquisite example:

What is the cherry-blossom **without** wine? 酒無くて何のおのれが櫻かな. (*s.v.* **Without** 【前置詞】)

The vividness of his Japanese equivalents can especially be seen in colloquial expressions:

**I will not hear of** such a thing. 其んふ事は承知せぬ(厭ぢや厭ぢや). (*s.v.* **Hear** 【自動】) **What a man!** 何といふ人だらう(偉いねー, 又は困った奴だふー). (*s.v.* **What** 【感嘆疑問詞】 (= exclamatory interrogative))

It is hard work, **I can tell you.** 骨が折れるぜ. It is impossible, **I can tell you.** そんな事は出来ぬわい. (*s.v.* **Tell** 【他動】)

We can see his expressiveness everywhere in the dictionary. The outstanding appeal of the Japanese equivalents presented in *JECJ* may come from the fact he uses a wide variety of style and formality very adequately, according to the style and the situation that the original English expressions may be used in. It goes without saying that it is based on Saito's accurate interpretation of the English expressions concerned, both semantically and stylistically. Also, we may add that this expressiveness could

have been achieved only with the resource of the Japanese language in those days, which has the richness of expression that the stylistically neutralized post-war Japanese language may have regrettably lost.

Saito's unique way of presenting collocations and idioms and their Japanese equivalents has drawbacks, too. The greatest of all may be the lack of ease of reference, especially of idiomatic expressions, as we have already discussed above. Another problem may be that he seems to expect a certain level of linguistic skills, both English and Japanese, as well as the aptitude of logical reasoning, from the reader of *JECJ*, in order to make use of this great reservoir of information and expression effectively. And we deem the expectation is rather high. Who could instantly visualize the logical correspondence between the cited English expression and its Japanese counterpart of the following example found in *JECJ*?

**Near is my shirt, but nearer is my skin.** 人の事より我身の事(我身程可愛いものは無い). [lit., My business rather than other people's affairs (is important.)] (*s.v.* **Skin** 【名】)

Also, it may take some time and imagination to understand the situation in which the following expression is used:

**Come to the point!** 御用は(?). [*s.v.* **Point** 【名】]

There are hundreds of instances that need more clarification that may fill the gap between the Japanese and English ways of thinking or expressing specific notions, although there are hundreds of other listed expressions that is endowed with a very helpful gloss or paraphrase presented by Saito. Still, the user of Saito's dictionary at the time of publication can be imagined to have been much more educated than the average user of an English-Japanese dictionary of our time, and probably a much more willing and patient 'reader' of the dictionary. They must have been ready to read page after page of loquacious entries in *JECJ*, and once they had gone through that process they must have acquired the whole picture of each English word including dozens of related collocations and idioms. Ardent students and/or teachers of English must have found the volume an incomparable charm and a timeless masterpiece.

As a lexicographer too, we have much to learn from Saito's ingenuity of presentation. Present-day dictionaries have a certain common style. They make it a rule to present the subject in the translation of verbal illustrations, even if they are obvious pronouns that we use much less often in our daily conversation, such as 「彼 (*kare*)」 「彼女 (*kanojo*)」 「彼ら (*karera*)」, which correspond to English *he*, *she* and *they* respectively. Our study of *JECJ* told us that we can spare not only such pronouns, but if circumstances permits it we can do without other elements as well. Maybe there are many cases in which more laconic presentation of partial equivalents may suffice. Effective use of parentheses both for idiom presentation and for glossing or paraphrasing in the dictionary is also very inspiring for us contemporary dictionary compilers.

Just as his idea of 'idiomology,' he seems to have pursued 'system' or 'comprehensiveness' in terms of the description and understanding of each item of the English vocabulary, but the dictionary just seems to have fallen short of that ideal. However, his dictionary is a very unique and interesting piece of work probably from the standpoint of comparative study of expressions in the English and Japanese language. When it comes to 'ease of reference' especially of collocations or idiomatic expressions, *JECJ* is rather incomplete, but as a material to sit around and read to get the whole picture of each lexical item and its chemistry with other words one by one, the work may be regarded as one of the chef d'oeuvres of all time. We can fully understand that the dictionary continue to attract countless admirers even decades after the publication of its first edition in 1915. (Section 9 by Kokawa)

## 10. Influence on Palmer and Hornby

Through his lectures, textbooks, grammar books and/or dictionaries, innumerable students and teachers were influenced by Saito's philosophy of English or benefited from his works. It deserves special attention that Harold E. Palmer and Albert S. Hornby (or their research activity at the Institute for Research in English Teaching) (IRET) were no exception. We cannot exactly tell to what extent Saito's works influenced their linguistic and lexicographical approach to description of words, but Palmer

and Hornby themselves acknowledged their consistent reference to Saito's works for their data collection. This section will give an overview of Saito's influence over these two British scholars.

Saito's *JECJ* was used as source material for one of the greatest works of Palmer, the *Second Interim Report on English Collocations* (1933). Since the Annual Convention of the IRET in 1927, Palmer and his colleagues at the institute had been carrying out a research project of vocabulary selection for Japanese students of English. They first issued the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* (1930) containing 'principles governing the selection of words' and a tentative list of about 3,000 words and then the *Second Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* (1931), in which the word-list was thoroughly revised. Second, they published the *Second Interim Report on English Collocations* (1933), which contains 3,879 collocations. (A collocation here is used in a much wider sense and is defined on the title page of the Report as "a succession of two or more words that must be learnt as an integral whole and not pieced together from its component parts.") This *Second Interim Report* "was destined to have a profound and enduring influence on EFL dictionary-making" (Cowie 1999: 52), and Saito's *JECJ* was made great use of for its data collection. It is acknowledged in the introduction that they used Saito's *JECJ* as one of their main resources (1933: 4). They copied about 5,000 collocations from *JECJ* (Palmer 1931: 1), and issued the *First Interim Report* in mimeographed form in 1930. Then, they had Hornby join the project and worked on the initial collocation-list, which was published as the *Second Interim Report on English Collocations*.

Cowie (1999: 59-62) provides some proof that Hornby depended on Saito's work for the compilation of *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* (1942), too, by pointing out the existence of "Hornby's own marked-up copy" of Saito's *Monograph on Prepositions* (1932). His comparison between *Monograph on Prepositions* and *ISED* also suggests Hornby's consultation of *Monograph on Prepositions*.

It may be said that Palmer, Hornby, and Saito were in the same direction. On Saito's death, Palmer dedicated the editorial of the *Bulletin of the IRET* to the memory of Saito, and wrote in his "Saito the

Idiomologist" as follows Palmer (1930b: 1):

one of the multifarious lines of the activity of our Institute is, in a sense, a continuation of the work left by Professor Saito. In our lexicological research we have the advantage of possessing, for our constant reference, the dictionaries and the many monographs so painstakingly compiled by him.

They certainly had a similar idea of what was essential to comprehensive description of words. Palmer and Hornby laid particular emphasis upon sequences of words that are considered to make single semantic units and called them collocations. Saito tried to contain as many idiomatic English expressions as possible both at phrase and sentence level, which parallel Palmer's collocations, and match them with idiomatic Japanese expressions. The common goal was to provide users with detailed information about the lexical association between words in order to enable them to produce natural English. (Section 10 by Komuro)

## 11. *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten* (Saito's *Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary*)

### 11.1. The dictionary

*Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten* (*KEJ*) (the English title: *Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary*; henceforth *KEJ*) was published in 1922, seven years after the publication of *Saito's JECJ*. In this section we will compare the structure of *KEJ* with that of *JECJ*. For this analysis, we used a reprint of *KEJ* published in 1982 under the title *Saito Eiwa-Jiten* (literally, '*Saito's English-Japanese Dictionary*').

In his preface to *KEJ*, Saito explains that his main motive in compiling the new dictionary was to provide a "handy dictionary comprising all ordinary combinations." The compact size of the dictionary certainly fulfilled his intention to make the work "handy." According to Deki's introduction attached to the reprint, the twentieth edition of *KEJ* published in 1924, which consists of the 1,896-page text and the 35-page appendix including the back matter of the publication date, is bound in a volume measuring approximately 5.9 inches (15.0 cm) high and 3.5 inches (9.0 cm) wide (Deki 1982: 1) (cf. Section 3.2.2 and footnote 7).

In his preface, Saito emphasizes the importance of English collocation:

Words are nothing in themselves, everything in combination; and each new combination requires a translation of its own.

The first half of this sentence is the exact reproduction of the first sentence in the preface (p. 1) of *JECJ*. His dauntless effort to assign a precise and appropriate Japanese translation to each English collocation could be traced in various entries of *KEJ*. This will be discussed in detail later in the following subsections.

*KEJ* includes more entry words than *JECJ*, as Saito wanted to include a variety of new words into *KEJ*. According to the preface, the entry words newly added in *KEJ* can be roughly classified into three categories:

- 1) Neologisms coined under the influence of the European war (World War I)
- 2) Americanisms incorporated into Standard English
- 3) Neologisms representing new ideas of the twentieth century

The newly added words in *KEJ* will be discussed in detail in the next subsection.

When discussing the definitions of the headwords in *KEJ*, we cannot ignore the influence of Saito's "Word-Study." The "Word-Study" is a series of articles that appeared in *The Nippon*, a magazine published for Japanese students of English from 1908 to 1917. The articles were actually reproduced from a series of lectures on the English lexicon delivered by Saito. From 1916, soon after the publication of *JECJ*, Saito began teaching classes on the features of English vocabulary at Seisoku Eigo Gakko, an English school that he himself founded in Tokyo. Objecting to what he perceived as a confusing overabundance of translations for English words, he sought to formulate and unify Japanese translations of English words and thereby ease the task of learning the language. In doing so, he focused his attention on collocations that contained the target words and assigned a natural Japanese translation to each. This unique attempt can be traced back to the word entries in the "Word-Study." A few samples will be presented later in 11.5.

The typographical features of *KEJ* entries are noteworthy in several

respects. Firstly, unlike the entries in *JECJ*, they are printed in serif. We find it interesting that Saito chose to switch to another font in *KEJ*, though we have no explanation for his decision.

With the exception of proper nouns and adjectives derived from proper nouns, all entry words in *KEJ* start with a lower case letter. Section 5.1 points out that users find it difficult to distinguish between proper terms and common terms in *JECJ*, as all the entry words in the earlier dictionaries start with capital letters. This difficulty is resolved in *KEJ*.

*KEJ* italicizes entry words that are borrowed from foreign languages but not yet completely naturalized. A label indicating the origin of the entry word is usually attached in such cases: *padre* (pah'dray) [Portuguese Noun]

*KEJ* places derivatives at the end of each entry as a run-on entry. The preface explains that derivatives are presented as run-on entries of main entry words when they have no meanings distinct from the main entries. Thus, **brightly** and **brightness** are placed at the end of the entry for **bright**. Further, translation equivalents are not provided for these words. In contrast, the adjective **kindly** and the noun **kindness** are presented as main entry words with translation equivalents and usage explanations.

The orthographic conventions for the main entries vacillate in the same way in each dictionary. Lemmas ending in *-er* or *-re* are occasionally presented with the American spelling preceding the British one (e.g., **center, centre**), but more often with the British spelling preceding the American one (e.g., **sabre, saber**). In other cases, only the British spelling is included (e.g., **litre and lustre**). Overall, Saito seemed to take the British spelling as the norm, but to include the American spelling when he deemed it necessary. For words that end in *-our* in British spelling versus *-or* in American (e.g., **colour, favour, honour, rigour**), the two spellings are juxtaposed with the British spelling appearing first in most entries. *KEJ* abandons the practice of putting the letter *u* in parentheses, but it still uses parentheses when presenting the two spellings for derivatives (e.g., **colo(u)rless** and **hono(u)rable**).

In short, *KEJ* can be more aptly described as a *revision* of *JECJ* than as an abridged version. Saito may have found insufficiency with *JECJ* and

endeavored to compile a revised version by incorporating his new findings on the features of the English lexicon and new words adopted from larger English dictionaries published in the United States for native speakers of English. The features of *KEJ* will be discussed one by one in the following subsections.

## 11.2. New words in *KEJ*

### 11.2.1. The number of new words

*KEJ* contains more main entry words than *JECJ*. We verified this by taking sample pages from the two dictionaries (i.e., the first 15 pages from the letters A, F, K, P and T of *JECJ* and *KEJ*) and then counting the numbers of words that were newly entered and omitted in *KEJ*. The results are shown in Table 11.1.

Table 11.1. A comparison of the number of entry words in *JECJ* and *KEJ*<sup>1)</sup>

	Number of main entry words in <i>JECJ</i>	Number of main entry words in <i>KEJ</i>	Number of words added in <i>KEJ</i>	Number of words omitted in <i>KEJ</i>
A	259	395	147	0
F	181	214	47	6
K	133	231	93	4
P	284	359	82	2
T	126	167	42	0

As the table below shows, many new words were added to *KEJ* and very few words were omitted.

The newly added words in *KEJ* account for about 37% of the headwords in the A section, 22% in the F section, 40% in the K section, 23% in the P section, and 25% in the T section (average about 29%). According to this limited survey, the total number of headwords was increased by about 30% in *KEJ*.

### 11.2.2. The sources of the new entries

We investigated the sources from which the entry words newly included

in *KEJ* were taken. As *KEJ* was published in 1922, we examined three major English dictionaries compiled for native speakers and published in the United States in the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century to confirm whether Saito referred to them while compiling *KEJ*.

1. *The Century Dictionary*. (1889–91) (henceforth *Century*<sup>1</sup>)
2. *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*. (1909) (henceforth *WNID*)
3. *Funk and Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. (1913) (henceforth *N Standard*)

About 60% of the newly added entry words in *KEJ* was included in all three of the American dictionaries (99 out of 147 newly added words in the A section of *KEJ*, 28 out of 47 in the F section, 58 out of 93 in the K section, 55 out of 81 in the P section, and 23 out of 42 in the T section), and most of the remaining new words were included in two or at least one of the three dictionaries. This reinforces the possibility that Saito referred to the above dictionaries in selecting new words to incorporate in *KEJ*. Judging from remarkable increase in the number of entries in *KEJ*, Saito seemed eager to adopt as many new words as possible from the latest English dictionaries of that time.

*Century*<sup>1</sup> and *WNID* do not include some of the entry words listed as main entries in *KEJ* (for example, loan words such as *abbatoir* and *pari mutuel*, and abbreviations such as *alc* and *K.C.*). *N Standard* includes a good proportion of those entries as well as the list of abbreviations shown on pp. 4–7. Saito may have referred to this list when he selected the entries to be included in *KEJ*.

*KEJ* also lists past participle forms of verbs as entry words. This may have been done for the benefit of Japanese learners of English. Intermediate and less advanced learners sometimes find it difficult to infer the meanings of past participles used as adjectives in context based solely on the meanings of the verbs from which they derive. Past participles can develop distinct meanings when used as adjectives in phrases. Under the entries for *addicted* and *packed*, for example, Saito offers the example phrases 'addicted to some vice' and 'packed snow.'

### 11.2.3. The types of new words

A good many encyclopedic terms are also included among the new entries adopted in *KEJ*. If we assume that Saito referred to the American dictionaries while compiling *KEJ*, the encyclopedic features that the dictionary inherits are not surprising. *JECJ* also includes encyclopedic items among its entry words, but not as many as *KEJ*.

A closer look at the K and P sections in *KEJ* will give us a more detailed picture of the pattern of word selection. The following tables classify the types of new words included in the two sections.

We can see from Table 11.2. that words of foreign origin make up the single largest category of new entries in the K section, comprising about 30% of all words listed. The words are not italicized, but the languages of origin are indicated by either labels or explanations in the word definitions. The second, third, and fourth largest groups are common nouns, abbreviations, and proper nouns plus adjectives derived from proper nouns, respectively. The technical terms in this section are mostly navigational.

Table 11.3. shows the trend in the P section. Common nouns make up the largest group, followed by technical terms and then adjectives. Words of foreign origin do not seem to be among the most frequent in the P section, but when we look closely at the common nouns we notice that there are words of foreign origin that are neither labeled as such nor described as such in their definitions. If we regard these nouns as words of foreign origin, the P section and K section both include many words of foreign origin. The technical terms in this section are mostly used in scientific disciplines such as mathematics, medicine, geology, zoology, etc.

Judging from the new entries tabulated in the above survey, Saito seemed to adopt mostly nouns from the American dictionaries. The policy he applied in selecting the nouns for *KEJ* is difficult to infer. He probably chose those that he thought would be of most use for the Japanese learners. He also adopted technical terms in mainly scientific fields that might have been new in the early 1900s. His criterion for those words, again, might have been their usefulness to those studying science in Japan. Foreign words are also incorporated in large numbers. Their origins vary, but most are included in all of the three American dictionaries mentioned

above: *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *N Standard*, and *WNID*.

### 11.2. Types of new words in Section K of *KEJ*

Category	Entry words
Words of foreign origin (31)	<b>kalpa</b> (Sanskrit), <b>ka(r)roo</b> (South African), <b>kartel</b> (South African), <b>kayak</b> (Inuit), <b>kedgerree</b> (Indian), <b>keen</b> (Irish), <b>kef/keif/kief</b> (Indian), <b>kelpy/kelpie</b> (Scottish), <b>Kelt</b> (Latin), <b>kepi</b> (French), <b>ketchup</b> (Malayan), <b>khamzin</b> (Egyptian), <b>khidmutgar</b> (Indian), <b>kibitka</b> (Russian), <b>kiosk</b> (Turkish), <b>kirsch (wasser)</b> (German), <b>kloof</b> (South African), <b>kopje</b> (South African), <b>kosher</b> (Hebrew), <b>koumiss</b> (Central Asian), <b>kourbash/koorbash</b> (Turkish), <b>kran(t)z</b> (South African), <b>Kreutzer</b> (German), <b>Krishna</b> (Indian), <b>krone</b> (Scandinavian), <b>Kroo/Krou/Kru</b> (African), <b>kukri</b> (Indian), <b>kvass</b> (Russian), <b>kylin</b> (Japanese), <b>kylo</b> (Scottish), <b>Kyrie eleison</b> (Latin)
Nouns (23)	<b>kartell</b> , <b>keg</b> , <b>kemp</b> , <b>kersey</b> , <b>kerseymere</b> , <b>key</b> (small islands), <b>kiddle</b> , <b>kilderkin</b> , <b>kill</b> , <b>kinchin</b> , <b>kincob</b> , <b>kip</b> (animal skin), <b>kip</b> (inn), <b>kismet</b> , <b>kissing</b> , <b>kit-cat</b> , <b>knacker</b> , <b>knag</b> , <b>knapsack</b> , <b>knar</b> , <b>knickers</b> , <b>knightage</b> , <b>kudos</b>
Abbreviations (10)	<b>K. C.</b> , <b>K. C. B.</b> , <b>K. C. M. G.</b> , <b>K. C. S. I.</b> , <b>K. C. V. O.</b> , <b>kg.</b> , <b>K.G.</b> , <b>K. G. C. B.</b> , <b>km.</b> , <b>K. P.</b> , <b>K. T.</b>
Proper nouns; adjs. derived from proper nouns (8)	<b>Kantian</b> , <b>Kantism</b> , <b>Kate</b> , <b>Kentish</b> , <b>kiblah</b> , <b>Kitty</b> , <b>kremlin</b> [sic.], <b>Ku-klux(-klan)</b>
Verbs (5)	<b>key</b> , <b>kibble</b> , <b>kipper</b> , <b>knap</b> , <b>kyanize</b>
Technical terms (5)	<b>kelson</b> (navigational term), <b>kentledge</b> , <b>ketch</b> (navigational term), <b>kevel</b> (navigational term), <b>knittle</b> (navigational term)
Plants (4)	<b>kapok</b> , <b>kauri</b> , <b>kava</b> , <b>kohlrabi</b>
Adjectives (3)	<b>keramic</b> , <b>killing</b> , <b>kinematic</b>
Animals (2)	<b>kalong</b> , <b>kea</b>
Past participles (2)	<b>kept</b> , <b>knew</b>

### 11.3. Types of new words in Section P of *KEJ*

Category	New entry words
Nouns (34)	<b>pacifism</b> , <b>pacifist</b> , <b>pad</b> , <b>paederasty</b> , <b>paillasse</b> , <b>paillette</b> , <b>paletot</b> , <b>palinode</b> , <b>pallet</b> , <b>palliasse</b> , <b>palm-ist</b> , <b>panada</b> , <b>pancratium</b> , <b>pandora/pandore</b> (musical instrument), <b>panification</b> , <b>pannage</b> , <b>pannikin</b> , <b>pan-pipe</b> , <b>pantalets/pantalettes</b> , <b>pantehnicon</b> , <b>pantile</b> , <b>parachronism</b> , <b>parakite</b> , <b>parallelism</b> , <b>paraselene</b> , <b>parbuckle</b> , <b>parcener</b> , <b>parget</b> , <b>Parnellism</b> , <b>paronomasia</b> , <b>parpen</b> , <b>particular</b> , <b>particularism</b> , <b>parvis</b>
Technical terms (15)	<b>paediatrics</b> , <b>palaeography/paleography</b> , <b>palaeolithic/paleolithic</b> , <b>palaeozoic/paleozoic</b> , <b>palatine</b> , <b>palmiped/palmipede</b> , <b>panopticon</b> , <b>papula/papule</b> , <b>paraboloid</b> , <b>paraheliotropism</b> , <b>paralipsis</b> , <b>parallelepiped</b> , <b>parameter</b> , <b>pardoner</b> , <b>parthenogenesis</b>
Adjectives (10)	<b>paginal</b> , <b>paginary</b> , <b>painstaking</b> , <b>paludal</b> , <b>pancratic</b> , <b>pan-German</b> , <b>pan-Hellenic</b> , <b>pan-Slavic</b> , <b>papaverous</b> , <b>paschal</b>
Words of foreign origin (7)	<b>pacha</b> (Turkish), <b>pachisi</b> (Indian), <b>paliker</b> [sic.] (Greek) <sup>2</sup> , <b>papoosh/papouche</b> (Turkish), <b>paramo</b> (South American), <b>parang</b> (Malayan), <b>pari mutuel</b> (French)
Past participles (4)	<b>packed</b> , <b>padded</b> , <b>paid</b> , <b>painted</b>
Verbs (3)	<b>paddle</b> , <b>paralyse</b> , <b>parasitize</b>
Animals (3)	<b>painter</b> (puma), <b>pangolin</b> , <b>par/parr</b>
Plants (2)	<b>panicle</b> , <b>papaw</b>
Present participles (1)	<b>padding</b>
Adverbs (1)	<b>particularly</b>
Abbreviations (1)	<b>P. &amp; O</b>
Others (1)	<b>pan-</b> (affix)

#### 11.2.4. Words of the twentieth century and words related to WWI in *KEJ*

As Saito states in the preface, one of the salient features of *KEJ* is its inclusion of words that represent new ideas generated in the twentieth century, words coined under the influence of World War I, and Ameri-

canisms newly incorporated into Standard English. We took several samples to check whether such terms are actually incorporated among the entry words of *KEJ*.

John Ayto's *Twentieth Century Words — The story of the new words in English over the last hundred years* (1999) contains a rich body of new lexical items generated in the twentieth century or related to World War I. Using this work as a reference source, we listed words that first appeared between the year 1900 and 1921 (a year before the publication of *KEJ*) and checked whether they were also included among the entries in *KEJ*. By this method, we found that 33 words that appeared during this period were among the new entries of *KEJ*. This accounts for only about 3% of 1,114 neologisms listed in Ayto's dictionary.

Of the 33 words, the following seem to represent new ideas or inventions of the twentieth century (year of first occurrence in parentheses): **aerodrome** (1909), **Bolshevik** (1917), **Boy Scout** (1908), **cinema** (1909), **dialysis** (1914), **escalator** (1900), **hangar** (1902), **motor-bike** (1903), **movie** (1912), **neon** (1911), **Pianola** (1901), **picture theater** (1908), **premium bond** (1908), **radiator** (1900), **sabotage** (1910), and **Zeppelin** (1900).

The following are the words that are related to World War I or to society during the war (year of first occurrence in parentheses): **anti-aircraft** (1914), **battle cruiser** (1911), **Hun** (meaning "a German soldier") (1914), **hydroplane** (1911), **League of Nations** (1917) and **profiteer** (1912).

The following words cannot be categorized in either of the above categories (year of first occurrence in parentheses): **denationalize** (1921), **détente** (1908), **limit** (1906), **mixed bathing** (1901), **model** (1904), **pacifism** (1902), **pogrom** (1905), **propaganda** (1908), **spastic** (1903), **spoonerism** (1900) and **teddy bear** (1906). Some of them may actually fit into the first category, but we do not have solid evidence to confirm this.

According to this survey, most of the words included in *KEJ* were coined between the year 1900 and 1917. Saito may have made great efforts in incorporating words that represented new ideas of the early twentieth

century, although our survey did not fully reflect his efforts. This suggests that Saito was not a highbrow interested only in his academic research, but paid attention to what was happening in the society around him. He intended to incorporate a large number of words in *KEJ* as he planned the dictionary as a substantially revised version of *JECJ*.

### 11.2.5. Americanisms in *KEJ*

If the above-mentioned American dictionaries were in fact Saito's main reference sources during compilation of *KEJ*, *KEJ* is very likely to have incorporated quite a few Americanisms among its entry words.

*KEJ* shares *JECJ*'s convention of sometimes marking words of American origin with the label [米国] ("the United States"). Similarly, words typically used in British English are labeled [英国] ("Britain"). For example, the label [米国] is attached to the entry word **railroad**, while the label [英国] is attached to the entry word **railway**.

It should be noted, however, that the Americanisms in *KEJ* are not always marked with the label [米国]. Quite a few Americanisms are indicated as such not by this label, but by an indication of their American origin in their definitions. The words **ranch** and **sophomore** are examples of this case. There are even words marked with the [米国] label in *JECJ* that go unlabeled in *KEJ* (e.g., **everglade**).

Among the words newly added in *KEJ*, we found that the following four entry words had the [米国] label attached: **bummer**, **dump**, **keeping room** and **painter** (meaning "puma").

The words **faucet**, **nooning**, **populist** and **Pullman** are marked with the [米国] label in *KEJ* but not in *JECJ*.

The label [米国] has some varieties. One of them is [米俗], which literally means "American slang." *KEJ* inherits this label from *JECJ*. The words **cavort** and **mugwump** are examples of entries marked with this label. There are also words labeled with slight modifications of the [米国] label, such as **brainy** labeled with [概して米国] (literally, "mainly in the United States"), **calculate** (meaning "to think") labeled with [米国南方] (literally, "the Southern part of the United States"), and **Ku-Klux(-Klan)** labeled with [米国史] (literally, "American history"). Incidentally, the

words **whig** and **tory** are labeled [英国史] (literally, “British history”), while **write-up** is labeled [米國新聞俗語] (literally, “a slang term used in American newspapers”). The word *write-up* is the only entry in *KEJ* marked with such a label, and there seems to be little meaning in denoting the register in the form of the label (see 7.6 for further discussion on labels).

It remains unclear what compelled Saito to include Americanisms in *KEJ*. The attention of English teachers of the time was still directed mainly to Britain. Many looked to Britain as a model that Japan had to follow. In a speech given in the Second Conference of English Teachers held in Tokyo in April 1914, Jigoro Kano, one of the prominent educators of the time, even claimed that English teachers should teach their Japanese students not only the English language, but the spirit of the British people (Kawasumi 1978: 145). Despite this trend, Saito may have noticed that some of the Americanisms were beginning to find their way into Standard English, and he may have thought that including them in his dictionary would be of benefit for the Japanese users. This may be another reason why he referred to the American dictionaries while compiling *KEJ*.

(Sections 11.1–11.2 by Takahashi)

### 11.3. Pronunciation

This section describes the phonetic transcription of *KEJ*. In *KEJ*, Saito stops using the *katakana* transcription system. In addition to the diacritical system, *KEJ* starts employing a rewriting system, and gives pronunciation of a word in parentheses after a headword when pronunciation is difficult to infer from the spelling. All the phonetic symbols used in *KEJ* are listed in the “Phonetic Symbol List.” In the “Phonetic Symbol List,” Saito explains the value of each phonetic symbol by using the *katakana* letters which he used in *JECJ* as reference.

*KEJ* starts to use three diacritical symbols for weak vowels:  $\acute{a}$ , as in *prefáce*,  $\acute{e}$  as in *rěspect*, and  $\acute{u}$  as in *casuál*. Except for one minor difference, *KEJ* uses the same diacritical symbols for strong vowels as *JECJ*. The only change is the use of the symbol  $\tilde{u}r$  for / $\partial$ :/ instead of  $\acute{u}r$ . As for the vowels / $\partial\partial$ / and / $o\partial$ /, *KEJ* makes a correct and clear distinction between

the two. *KEJ* constantly uses the symbol  $\acute{o}r$  for words such as *horse* and *morning*, and  $\acute{o}r$  for words such as *hoarse* and *mourning*. Another change in *KEJ* can be observed in the transcription of a group of words named CLOTH words by Wells (1982: 136). The vowels of CLOTH words are currently pronounced the same as the vowel of *thought* in General American (GA) but the same as the vowel of *lot* in Received Pronunciation (RP). Table 11.4 compares the transcription of several CLOTH words in *JECJ*, *KEJ*, *SEJ*, *MEJ*, and *COD*. As can be seen from Table 11.4, *KEJ* starts transcribing some of the CLOTH words with two different vowel symbols.

Table 11.4: Comparison of CLOTH words transcription

keyword	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>KEJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>SEJ</i>	<i>MEJ</i>
<i>cloth</i>	o	ö, (or aw)	(aw, ö)	ö	ô
<i>often</i>	o	(ö or aw)	(aw, ö)	(ô or ö)	ô
<i>loss</i>	o	ö	(aw, ö)	ö	ô
<i>laurel</i>	ə	ə	(ö)	ə	ə

*KEJ* also starts to use a number of diacritical symbols for consonants. For example, *KEJ* distinguishes a so-called ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ pronunciation of *g* and *c* by using extra diacritical marks. It employs  $\acute{g}$  for ‘soft *g*’ as in *giant*, and  $\acute{c}$  for ‘soft *c*’ as in *cent*. It also uses the symbol  $\acute{e}h$  when it is pronounced /k/ as in *monareh*. In addition, *KEJ* uses a symbol  $\acute{t}h$  for a voiced dental fricative to make a distinction between voiceless and voiced dental fricatives. Another example is a symbol  $\acute{z}$  for a voiced alveolar fricative /z/. In *KEJ*, however, the same symbol is used for a voiced post-alveolar fricative / $\zeta$ / as in *cloşure*. *KEJ* uses two extra symbols which are not listed in the “Phonetic Symbol List” when it rewrites pronunciation in parentheses. One is the symbol (dh) for a voiced dental fricative, and the other is (zh) for a voiced post-alveolar fricative. The symbols for suprasegmental features in *KEJ* are the same as those of *JECJ*.

In *KEJ*, Saito stops using the *katakana* transcription system he used in *JECJ*. Saito himself may have realized the limitations of transcribing English using *katakana* letters. He develops his simplified diacritical system in *JECJ*, and starts using diacritical marks for weak vowels and consonants. Furthermore, he partly uses a rewriting system when pronun-

ciation of the words are irregular or difficult. (Section 11.3 by Sugimoto)

#### 11.4. Grammar

*KEJ* is the second (and last) English-Japanese dictionary for Saito, because his death prevented him from finishing another one. The fact that the second dictionary was issued means that he was not wholly satisfied with the monumental *JECJ*. It is conceivable that he endeavored to make *KEJ* easier to use for less advanced students. The guide concerning parts of speech in the front matter undergoes little change, and our survey shows that a little change is found in grammatical descriptions. A large number of grammatical terms are again used with some newly added and some deleted: for example, [補言附] (with a complement) is usually used for [Factitive construction], and [間接目的語] (an indirect object) for [Dative construction]. New terms are occasionally used, such as [a transitive verb with a *Cognate Object*] in the entry of **die**, or [Infinitive] for (something *to do*) in the entry of **do**. In spite of his great effort to revise and enlarge *JECJ*, the description in minute detail makes us doubt whether or not the author really considers the second dictionary abundant in technical terms to be instructive or suitable for less advanced students who may be less conversant with them.

In comparison with *JECJ*, modified descriptions are often found. As will be mentioned in 11.5, the description is enlarged on in a large number of entries. Some entries given in Section 7 are surveyed. The description of the indefinite article is little changed, whereas the description of the definite article is drastically reduced. The description of the verbs **make** and **fix** and of the prepositions **by** and **of** is little changed, with the proviso that the sense order is not always maintained.

A brief survey of the entries with the letters D and M in *KEJ* shows change of contents or description. The amount of descriptions in some entries that are believed to be of lexical importance are reduced: **many**, **much**, **me**, **most** and **more**, for instance. Information on passive forms is made more explicit: they are established as a sense division, such as **delight** and **depress**. This leads to the fact that some past participles (and present participles) are newly given as an entry (**destined** and **detached**)

(cf. 11.2.2) or now given a part of speech label adjective (**devoted** and **disengaged**) that are shown [past participle] in *JECJ*. More adjectives show their predicative use (**denotative** and **devoid**). Some verb senses show that they take [inanimate] or [impersonal] subjects (**deprive** and **mean**). More explicit complementation is given in some verbs (**design** and **determine**) or nouns (**determination**). Some sense show explicit information on the use of the (in) definite article (**disregard** and **dismiss**). Some entries have been divided based on parts of speech (**double**). More entries show more explicit information on the their use, article usage, or being used in plural forms (**moment**, **market** and **means**). It could be safely said that, on the whole, no strikingly marked difference is in principle nowhere found, as far as grammar information is concerned. This may be because the author is more interested in finer divisions of senses and uses, which are clearly demonstrated in some articles of 'S.E.G. Word-Study' in *Eigo no Nippon (The Nippon)* (cf. Section 11.5). The new dictionary could be regarded as a new supplement or complementary to *JECJ*, though it is quite doubtful whether less advanced students could get used to the dictionary where more detailed but condensed or abridged description as well as more grammatical terms is found.

(Section 11.4 by Dohi)

#### 11.5. Word senses in *KEJ*

The overall format of the word-sense descriptions in *KEJ* is similar to that in *JECJ*. Each sense of an entry word is assigned several Japanese translations, in most cases the same Japanese translations used in *JECJ*. The Japanese translations for entry words are often underlined, just as they are in *JECJ*. The most noteworthy feature of the definitions for the words and phrases in *KEJ* is the strong influence of the S.E.G. Word-Study on the sense descriptions. In this respect, the word-sense descriptions in *KEJ* are unique.

##### 11.5.1. S.E.G. Word-Study and *KEJ*

As mentioned in 11.1., the S.E.G. Word-Study was a series of lectures on the features of English words originally delivered by Saito in Seisoku

Eigo Gakko. The lectures began in 1916 and ended in or by 1921<sup>3)</sup>. One of Saito's students, Shun'sui Sagawa, recorded the lectures and reproduced 30 out of well over 100 lectures in the form of articles in *The Nippon*, a magazine for Japanese learners of English (Omura 1960: 452-3). The following thirty-seven words are discussed in the articles: *Cause* (n., v.t.), *Dash* (v.t., v.i.), *Deal* (v.t.), *Defy* (v.t.), *Defiance* (n.), *Defiant* (adj.), *Delicate* (adj.), *Due* (adj., adv.), *Duty* (n.), *Effect* (n.), *Consequence* (n.), *Result* (n.), *Enter* (v.t., v.i.), *Fail* (v.t., v.i.), *Fair* (adj.), *Foul* (adj.), *Fancy* (n., v.t., v.i., adj.), *Fatal* (adj.), *Fateful* (adj.), *Favo(u)r* (n.), *Fling* (v.t., v.i., n.), *Game* (n.), *Grace* (n.), *Ground* (n.), *Hit* (v.t., v.i.), *Hono(u)r* (n.), *Idea* (n.), *Impress* (v.t.), *Indeed* (adv.), *Indifferent* (n., adj.), *Indifference* (n.), *Interest* (n.), *Issue* (n., v.i.), *Judge* (n., v.t., v.i.), *Just* (adj., adv.), *Justice* (n.) and *Justify* (v.t.).

When we examined the entries for these thirty-seven words in *KEJ*, we found that most of the entry items were identical to those that appear in the word analyses of the S.E.G. Word-Study. More specifically, the word definitions, demarcations of senses, examples and collocations presented are the same in the S.E.G. Word-Study and *KEJ*.

Saito's purpose in performing his S.E.G. Word-Study was to *formulate* Japanese translations of English words and phrases. Saito complained that the conventional English-Japanese dictionaries of his time confused learners by providing overabundant and often highly variable Japanese translations for single English words and phrases. Had it not been for this flaw, he contended, Japanese learners of English would have been less hindered in their efforts to master the language.

Saito carved out a basic concept as a base definition for each word, and then provided colorful Japanese translations for each word in collocations. A few examples are shown in the following subsections.

### 11.5.2. Word senses of adjectives

Saito considered adjectives as a very important part of speech in mastering English. The following is a quote of one of Saito's comments during his lectures in Seisoku Eigo Gakko (recorded by Tamura and published in *The Nippon* Vol. 9 No. 17 (1916)):

○形容詞で人間の culture の程度が分かる。英語の研究も形容詞の上に出没する shades of meaning を考へる所まで進まないうちは本當の興味に達したとは言はれない。(p. 6)

(*English translation*: The adjectives that people use are a good indicator of whether or not they have culture. No one can be truly interested in the study of English without having an interest in the different shades of meanings of adjectives.)

A difference in the word senses described in *JECJ* and *KEJ* can be seen in the word-sense descriptions for the adjective *delicate* in the two dictionaries. Figs. 11.1. and 11.2. show the entries for *delicate* in *JECJ* and *KEJ*, respectively. Fig. 11.3. is an excerpt from the S.E.G. Word-Study covering the word.

By comparing Figs. 11.1. and 11.2., we see that *KEJ* has a more elaborate word-sense description for *delicate*. This most certainly stems from the influence of the S.E.G. Word-Study; as the entry for *delicate* in *KEJ* is almost an exact copy of the description in the Word-Study. Thus, *KEJ* provides more Japanese translations in each demarcated sense than *JECJ*, and it lists a large number of words that collocate with the adjective (in bold type and parentheses).

While *KEJ* adopts most of the Japanese translations originally published in *JECJ*, the two dictionaries group the translations differently. That is, each group of Japanese translations in *KEJ* is preceded by a Chinese character that represents a concept underlying all of the Japanese translations in a demarcated sense group. For example, the first Chinese character that represents the concept underlying the first group of Japanese translations is [優]. This character has the meanings "grace(ful)," "gentle," "good," and "superior" in Japanese. Thus, all the Japanese translations that have this concept in common are grouped in the first group. The Japanese translations in this group are as follows (English translations are provided in square brackets after each translation.): 優美な(色合, 組織など) [graceful (colors, combination)]. 優しい, しをらしい, たをやかな(姿) [gentle, obedient, graceful (figure)]. 美味な, 上等の(肉) [delicious, of good quality (meat)]. 品の好い, 温雅な(匂) [refined, elegant (scent)]. 上品な(生ひ立ち) [of upper-class (background)]. 高尚な(嗜好)

**Del'i-cate** (デラケート) 【Delicious と同語源の形容詞】優美な、優しい、たをやかな、しをらしい(姿など)。美味を極むる(肉など)。品の好い(匂など)。高尚な(趣味など)。  
 ② 上品な(生ひ立ちなど)。上びた(嗜好など)。潔癖ある(廉耻心)。人目を避くる(淑徳)。  
 ③ 緻密な、微細な、微妙な、細かな(細工など)。巧みな、巧妙な、絶妙な(言廻しなど)。  
 ④ 過敏な(神経又は機械)。きやしやな(姿又は細工)。虚弱な、かよわき、弱い(身体など)。  
 ⑤ (きやしやな、壊れ物を扱ふの意味より)苦しい(立場など)。遣りにくい(狂言など)。  
 ⑥ (又神経過敏な人に物言ふ心持にて)云ひにくい(事柄)。尋ねにくい(質問など)。  
 ⑦ (又其困難に當る心持にて)上手な(遣り方)。奇麗な(云ひ方)。思ひ遣りある(仕打ち)。  
 Giving money under cover is a delicate way peculiar to the Japanese. 金を包んで出すのは日本人獨特の思ひ遣り。 —ly 【副】同上に。 —ness 【名】同上ある事。

Figure 11.1.

**dél'i-cate** 【形】<sup>223</sup> 主なる意味は優、細、弱、敏、難、巧。 ① [優] 優美な(色合、組織など)。優しい、しをらしい、たをやかな(姿)。美味な、上等の(肉)。品の好い、温雅な(匂)。上品な(生ひ立ち)。高尚な(嗜好)。綺麗な(言葉遣)の精良な(質)。優美な色合。(expression) 綺麗な言葉。(figure) 優姿。 ② [細] 細い、細かな、微細な、緻密な。(mouth) 小さい口。(living) 上品な、上びた生活。(meat) 美味な肉、上等の肉。(nurture or upbringing) 上品な生ひ立ち。(odour or flavour) 品の好いかをり。(taste) 高尚な、(又)上びた嗜好。(texture) 細かいきめ(美人の肌)。(workmanship) 緻密な細工。(shades of meaning) 意味の微細な差違。 ③ [弱] きやしやな、かよわき、たよわき(美人)。虚弱な(身体)。(constitution) 虚弱な體質(蒲柳)。(health) 虚弱、病身(往々妊娠の意味)。 ④ [敏] 感じ易き、過敏な(神経)。鋭感性の、敏感性の(測度器)。恥を恐るる、汚れを忌む、潔癖の(貴婦人など)。(sensitivity) 過敏性。 ⑤ [難] (きやしやな物を扱ふ心持にて)手加減の要る、むづかしい(業)。遣りにくい(狂言)。苦しい(立場)。掴まへにくい、靈妙な(論點)。(神経過敏な人に物を云ふ心持にて)云ひにくい、聞きにくい、きほどい(質問)。手腕を要する、腕前の要る(使命など)。(question) 尋ねにくい事。(mission) 手腕を要する使命。(position or situation) 苦しい立場。(operation) 手際の要る、むづかしい手術。(point in argument) 掴まへにくい論點。 ⑥ [巧] (難局に當る心持にて)上手な(遣り方)、巧みな(言ひ廻し)。巧妙な、微妙な(細工)。人に赤面(など)させぬ、思ひ遣りある(仕打など)。(handling) 巧妙な扱ひ方。(touch) (書法、玉突などの) 妙技。(workmanship) 微妙な細工。 ⑦ [詩歌] (=delicious, delightful) 愉快極まる(思ひなど)。 —ly 【副】同上に。

Figure 11.2.

No. 27

5/7/31

**Dél'i-cate** 【形】〔注意〕主なる意味は「優」、「弱」、「敏」、「難」、「巧」。

1. 「優」優美な(色合、組織など)。細かい(きめ)。優しい、しをらしい、たをやかな(姿)。細かな、緻密な(細工)。美味な、上等の(肉)。品の好い(匂)。上品な(生ひ立ち)。高尚な(嗜好)。綺麗な(言葉遣など)。(colour) 優美な色合。(expression) 綺麗な言葉。(figure) 優姿。(living) 上品な、上びた生活。(meat) 美味な肉、上等の肉。(nurture or upbringing) 上品な生ひ立ち。(odour or flavour) 品の好いかをり。(taste) 高尚な、(又)上びた嗜好。(texture) 優美な組織、きめの細かい事。(workmanship) 細かな細工。

2. 「弱」きやしやな、かよわき、たよわき(美人)。虚弱な(身体)。(constitution) 虚弱な體質(蒲柳)。(health) 虚弱、病身。

3. 「敏」感じ易き、<sup>223</sup>敏な(神経)。敏感性の(測度器)。恥を恐るる、汚れを忌む、潔癖の(貴婦人など)。(sensitivity) 過敏性。

4. 「難」(きやしやな物を扱ふ心持にて)手加減の要る、むづかしい(業)。遣りにくい(狂言)。苦しい(立場)。掴まへにくい、靈妙な(論點)。(神経過敏な人に物を云ふ心持にて)云ひにくい、聞きにくい、きほどい(質問)。手腕を要する、腕前の要る(使命など)。(question) 尋ねにくい事。(mission) 手腕を要する使命。(position or situation) 苦しい立場。(hand) 手際の要る、むづかしい手術。(point in argument) 掴まへにくい論點。

5. 「巧」(難局に當る心持にて)上手な(遣り方)。巧みな(言ひ廻し)。巧妙な、微妙な(細工)。人に赤面(など)させぬ、思ひ遣りある(仕打など)。(handling) 巧妙な扱ひ方。(touch) (書法、玉突などの) 妙技。(workmanship) 微妙な細工。

6. 「詩歌」(=delicious, delightful) 愉快極まる(思ひなど)。 —ly 【副】同上に。

Figure 11.3.

[refined (taste)]. 綺麗な(言葉遣) [good (language)]. 精良な(質) [fine (quality)].

In this way, the subsequent five sense groups are preceded by a Chinese character that represents the concept covering all the Japanese translations in each sense group. The characters are 細 [small, minute], 弱 [weak, meek], 敏 [sensitive], 難 [difficult, cautious], and 巧 [clever, dexterous], respectively.

In Saito's treatment of the adjective *delicate* in his S.E.G. Word-Study, he criticizes other conventional English-Japanese dictionaries of the time for giving more than ten definitions of the word collectively without being able to offer a basic concept linking all of them together. With some pride, he himself classifies the definitions of the adjective into the above five sense groups and explains how the five sense groups derive from the basic concept of the adjective *delicate*. See the following excerpt (S.E.G. Word-Study No. 27) (1916):

蓋し「優しい」ものは「弱い」。優しくて弱ければ自然「敏感」である。弱くて敏感なものを取り扱ふのは「困難」である。その困難なものを使ひこなすのには少なからぬ「巧み」を要するわけではないか。かう云ふ言葉で、意味の轉移の妙を悟ってほしいものである。

(English translation: When someone or something is "gentle," then we can infer that he, she, or it is "weak." When someone or something is gentle and weak, then we can take for granted that he, she, or it is "sensitive." As weak and sensitive people or things are "difficult," those who handle them need to be "clever." This example should illustrate the manner in which the meanings are transferred.)

This is an outstanding example of a *KEJ* entry reflecting the influence of the S.E.G. Word-Study. Entries of other parts of speech will be discussed in the following subsections.

### 11.5.3. Word senses of radical verbs

Saito focused his attention on what he called "radical verbs" when he studied English. In 1909 he published the first of an eight-volume series entitled *Studies in Radical English Verbs*. Radical verbs are mainly short, polysemous verbs such as *put*, *pull*, *set*, and *take*; words that A. S. Hornby

refers to as "heavy" words in his foreword to the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* (cf. Omura 1960: 378). Learners of English often have difficulty in mastering the use of radical verbs due to their many changing meanings in different contexts.

In compiling *JECJ*, Saito wrote lengthy, painstakingly detailed entries for radical verbs. In fact, the explanations in these entries are so detailed that *JECJ* can be considered more of a grammar book than a dictionary.

The following survey compares the radical verb entries in *JECJ* with those in *KEJ*. The following six radical verbs were taken as samples: *get* (v.t.), *give* (v.t.), *have* (v.t.), *leave* (v.t.), *make* (v.t.) and *take* (v.t.). The numbers of demarcated senses in the entries for the six radical verbs were compared between *JECJ* and *KEJ*. The results are shown in Table 11.5.

Table 11.5. A comparison of the number of demarcated senses in the entries for the six radical verbs

Verbs	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>KEJ</i>
Get (v.t.)	11	20
Give (v.t.)	10	16
Have (v.t.)	28	38
Leave (v.t.)	13	18
Make (v.t.)	10	14
Take (v.t.)	29	33

We can see that all six radical verbs have more demarcated senses in *KEJ* than in *JECJ*. This suggests that Saito extensively reconsidered and reorganized the verb senses originally given in the entries of *JECJ*.

Take the verb *get* as an example. It has the largest increase in the number of demarcated senses among the six radical verbs. If we look closely, however, we find that the entries for *get* in the two dictionaries do not largely differ. The increased number of demarcated senses in *KEJ* is merely the result of the more intricate classifications applied in *KEJ*.

Table 11.6. shows how the sentences and phrases presented as examples of the first demarcated sense of the verb *get* (得(獲)る, 取る, 持って来る [obtain, acquire, bring]) in *JECJ* are remodeled and relocated in different

parts of the entry. This suggests that the first sense group in *JECJ* was broken down and remodeled in *KEJ*. The Japanese translation equivalents given for the group, however, do not differ much between the two dictionaries.

Table 11.6. Example phrases and sentences in the first sense of the verb *get* in *JECJ* and *KEJ*

	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>KEJ</i>
1	<b>I got nothing</b> (little) <b>by</b> the transaction.	NA
2	<b>I got nothing for my pains.</b>	The 11 <sup>th</sup> sense
3	I will <b>get</b> my hat.	NA
4	If you have not the book, <b>get</b> a copy.	Incorporated in the definition.
5	He <b>gets</b> good wages.	Incorporated in the definition.
6	What does he <b>get</b> ?	Incorporated in the definition.
7	<b>Get a good name and go to sleep.</b>	NA
8	<b>To get a</b> (one's, one's own) <b>living.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
9	<b>To get a lesson.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
10	<b>To get one's dinner.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
11	<b>To get a child.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
12	I'll <b>get ten</b> (ready).	Incorporated in the definition.
13	<b>To get</b> (catch) <b>a glimpse of</b> a hero.	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> sense
14	<b>To get a</b> (good) <b>view of</b> the stage.	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> sense
15	<b>To get a peep at</b> a man.	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> sense
16	<b>To get a good</b> (better) <b>look at</b> a man.	The 3 <sup>rd</sup> sense
17	<b>To get a footing</b> (in society).	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
18	<b>To get the floor.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
19	<b>To get sea-legs.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
20	<b>To get a good offing.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
21	<b>To get a bite.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
22	<b>To get a shot</b> (at a stag).	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
23	<b>To get measles.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
24	<b>To get the bag</b> (the sack, the canvas.)	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
25	<b>To get the mittens.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense

26	<b>To get a fall.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
27	<b>To get a blow.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
28	<b>To get a ducking.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
29	<b>To get a scare.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
30	<b>To get a scolding.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense
31	He <b>got six months for</b> it.	NA
32	You will <b>get it.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense (phrase column)
33	I've <b>got it.</b>	The 1 <sup>st</sup> sense (phrase column)
34	I <b>got him there.</b>	NA
35	<b>What has got</b> (= <i>become of</i> ) him?	NA
36	Nothing is <b>to be got</b> (= <i>to be had</i> ) without trouble.	NA
37	<b>Ill got, Ill spent.</b>	NA

"NA" (not available): No corresponding example or Japanese translation appears in *KEJ*.

"Incorporated in the definition": *KEJ* gives no corresponding example, but it provides a Japanese translation that explains the meaning of *get* in the same context.

"The Xth sense": The sense in which the phrase or sentence example from *JECJ* appears in *KEJ*.

"Phrase column": Column containing all phrases and collocations that Saito regards as set phrases or fixed expressions.

As the table shows, *KEJ* does not reproduce *JECJ* entry for *get*. Instead, it reorganizes the entry and reclassifies the word senses. For example, *JECJ* places example phrases 13–16 in the first demarcated sense group, while *KEJ* groups them together and separates them from the first sense group. Further, *KEJ* adds a third sense group that does not appear in *JECJ*, namely, phrases that act as verbs. For example, the phrase *to get a glimpse* has the same meaning as the verb *to glimpse*.

In order to save space in *KEJ*, they reproduce the phrase and sentence examples in *JECJ* as direct objects printed in bold and placed in parentheses. For instance, *KEJ* shortens the original phrase example 21 from *JECJ* to "(a bite) (釣をして居て)魚がかかる. [(while fishing) a fish takes bait]." This might have been a way of reducing the number of examples given in

*KEJ*.

Another noteworthy feature of *KEJ* is its listing of direct objects in alphabetical order. This is much more user-friendly than the random ordering of examples in *JECJ*. *KEJ* lists direct objects with indefinite articles first, followed by objects with a zero article, followed by objects that take a possessive pronoun (*one's*).

While *KEJ* seems to present somewhat less information on radical verbs, Saito actually managed to pack in the same amount or even a larger amount of information that he originally published in *JECJ*. He was able to do so by applying an innovative method for presenting collocational information.

**11.5.4. Word senses of function words**

Saito also took a great interest in prepositions. From 1904 to 1906, he published a series of 13 volumes on the many features of prepositions in his *Monographs on Prepositions*.

This *Monographs* series naturally forms the background for the detailed explanations of prepositions given in *JECJ*. With its extensive explanations on the usage of prepositions, *JECJ* seems less of a dictionary than a grammar in some respects.

Saito's belief is first manifested in a speech directed to English teachers and later reproduced in the preface to *JECJ* (quoted earlier in section 11.1): "Words are nothing in themselves, and everything in combination." Perhaps it was this belief that compelled Saito to study the features of prepositions so extensively. Prepositions are used only in combination with other words.

The number of pages devoted to the explanation of preposition usages in *JECJ* attests to the great detail of Saito's coverage. To cite a few examples, the usages of the prepositions *for*, *in*, and *with* take up 7.5 pages, 9 pages, and 11.5 pages, respectively. Taking this as a background, we will investigate how prepositions are explained in *KEJ*.

The entries on the word *in* in *KEJ* and *JECJ* exemplify the differences between the two dictionaries in their treatment of prepositions overall. First, we notice that the basic construction of the entries is the same. The

Japanese translations in each demarcated sense are preceded by Japanese "signposts" in thick square brackets. These signposts denote the basic idea of the nouns that follow the prepositions in each demarcated sense group.

*JECJ* includes 18 sense groups in the entry for *in*, while *KEJ* includes 16. The following table lists the signposts in the entries in the two dictionaries. The signposts, incidentally, are the same as the ones used in Saito's explanation of the preposition in his *Monographs on Prepositions*:

Table 11.7. Signposts for the preposition *in* in *JECJ* and *KEJ*

Sense group no.	<i>JECJ</i>	<i>KEJ</i>
	Signpost	Signpost
1	【包含, 包括】 [interiority, inclusion]	【包含, 包括】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 1)
2	【場所. (より)範囲】 [place; range]	【範囲】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 2)
3	【方向, 方面】 [direction]	【場所】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 2)
4	【時】 [time]	【方面】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 3)
5	【時の経過】 [course or limit of time]	【方向】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 3)
6	【有様, 状態】 [state, conditions]	【時】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 4)
7	【天候, 陽気】 [weather, climate]	【時の経過】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 5)
8	【仕方, 方法】 [manner]	【有様・状態】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 6)
9	【形状, 形体】 [shape]	【天気, 天候】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 7)
10	【形状より材料】 [material]	【仕方, 方法】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 8)
11	【形状より数量】 [quantity]	【形状, 形体】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 9)
12	(形状より)即ち, といふ [identity]	【材料】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 10)
13	【動詞に続く "In"] ["In" after a verb]	【数量】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 11)
14	【過去分詞に続く "In"] ["In" after p.p.]	(形状より)即ち, といふ (= the <i>JECJ</i> 12)
15	【扮装, 被服】 [covering, dress]	【服装】 (= the <i>JECJ</i> 15)
16	【前置詞代用句を作る "In"] ["In" in a prepositional phrase]	【比較の点】 [comparison] (= the <i>JECJ</i> 17 and 18)
17	【動詞に続く着眼点の "In"] ["In" follows a verb and denotes a respect or point in which things are said to agree or differ]	
18	【形容詞に続く "In"] ["In" after an adj.]	

The above table shows that the signposts used in the two dictionaries are similar, although subtly changed in *KEJ*. The sense groups 2 and 3 are each split into two sense groups in *KEJ*. The sense groups 13, 14 and 16 do not have counterparts in *KEJ*. Nos. 13 and 14 are instead placed in the entries for the verbs and past participles that collocate with *in* and form phrases. This rearrangement can be considered an improvement. Users are more likely to find phrases containing the word *in* by looking up what they consider to be the main words in the phrases, which are in most cases a verb or a past participle rather than a preposition.

As *in* is a preposition, Japanese translations are not found in all of the demarcated sense groups. *JECJ* provides translations in the sense groups 1, 2, 4, 5, 12 and 18, and *KEJ* provides translations in the sense groups 2, 3, 6, 7, 14, 15 and 16. We can see here that the senses explained using only examples in *JECJ* are provided with appropriate Japanese translations in *KEJ*. The Japanese translations may have been added in *KEJ* in order to compensate for the decrease in the number of examples provided in each sense group. *KEJ* also innovates somewhat by providing two Japanese translations, “(何の)中に, 内に [in *sth*, inside *sth*],” before listing the sense groups. These two translations seem to have been provided as the basic concept denoted by the preposition *in*, for they are presented right after the entry word, preceding the first sense group.

The last sense group in *KEJ* is actually more of a large collection of phrases (a phrase column) than a sense group per se. This is why sense group 17 (phrase column 17) is not included in Table 11.7. While *KEJ* provides fewer examples in each demarcated sense group, it provides as many as 365 phrasal examples in this column. The phrases are ordered by alphabetizing the words immediately following the preposition *in*, which makes it easier for a user to find a phrase out of the many listed. *JECJ* also provides a phrase column at the end of all sense groups. This column is also omitted from Table 11.7, as it cannot be considered a sense group per se. The phrase column in *JECJ* lists 46 phrasal examples, but some are infinitive phrases (e.g., “To call in question”), whereas all in *KEJ* start with the preposition *in*. The examples in *JECJ* are not alphabetized, thus the users have to read through all the examples to find the ones they are

seeking.

The examples in *KEJ* will be discussed further in the next subsection.

### 11.6. Examples in *KEJ*

*JECJ* is abundant in both sentence and phrasal examples, especially in the entries with underlined senses. The smaller size of *KEJ* forces it to cut back somewhat on the number of examples provided, and the innovative method it employs to present phrasal examples allows it to pack in relatively many in proportion to its size.

Take the verb *begin* as an example. The first demarcated sense in *JECJ* gives the sentence example “When did you **begin learning** English?” and a Japanese translation. In *KEJ*, the corresponding example is abridged to “(English — **learning** English).” By presenting the example as a phrase in parentheses, *KEJ* succeeds in providing two examples for the verb instead of one. That is, the verb can take either the noun “English” or the phrase “learning English” as the direct object. Here we should note that intermediate and advanced learners usually benefit more from phrasal examples, while sentence examples are friendlier for beginners. If *KEJ* was compiled with beginners in mind, then the application of phrasal examples instead of sentence examples may have been a disadvantage for its users.

As we look at the entries for the noun *rain* in the two dictionaries, we notice that the examples are almost the same but show subtle formal differences. For example, *JECJ* uses *to*-infinitive phrases, while *KEJ* usually omits “to” and uses bare infinitives to start an example phrase. Where *JECJ* provides the example “To walk (out) **in the rain**,” *KEJ* presents the corresponding example as “walk out *in the rain*,” with the verb conjugated as a bare infinitive and the first letter in lower case. As this shows, the examples in *KEJ* are often abridged versions of those provided in *JECJ*.

However, a different tendency can be seen in the entries for the adverb *fairly*. Specifically, we find that the examples for this word in *KEJ* are not abridged, but almost the same as those in *JECJ*. The examples in *JECJ* are as follows (with Japanese translations shown in parentheses to the right):

- (1) The photograph is **fairly** taken. (相應に撮れた.)
- (2) I am **fairly** beaten. (尋常に参った.)
- (3) I was **fairly** caught. (尋常に見付かった.)
- (4) The battle had **fairly** begun. (愈々始まった.)
- (5) Things are **fairly** under way. (萬事愈々緒に就く.)
- (6) They **fairly** screamed with delight. (面白がつて全く絶叫した.)

The examples (1), (2), (3) and (5) are exactly the same in *KEJ*. The verb in example (4) in *KEJ* is conjugated in the present perfect tense instead of the past perfect tense. *KEJ* replaces the sixth example with (7) below and adds a final example (8):

- (7) He **fairly** cried for joy. (嬉し泣きに全く泣いた.)
- (8) He is **fairly** beside himself with joy. (嬉しがつて全く夢中だ.)

There are four sense groups in the entry for *fairly* in *JECJ*, while there are six in *KEJ*. The translation equivalents in the two dictionaries are almost the same, but they are grouped differently. The first and second senses of *fairly* in *JECJ* are “beautifully” and “in a fair and reasonable way,” and no example sentences are provided for either. The third sense is “tolerably, passably,” and sentence (1) above is provided as the example. The example sentences (2)–(6) are all provided for *fairly* when used to emphasize a statement, i.e., the fourth sense in *JECJ*.

The first three senses given in *KEJ* are identical to those in *JECJ*, and example (1) in *KEJ* is provided for the third sense. *KEJ* also provides a new sense for *fairly*, i.e., the fourth sense meaning “favorably.” As no example sentences are given for this sense, the exact usage of the adverb to convey the meaning of “favorably” is difficult to infer. The Japanese equivalents grouped in the fourth sense in *JECJ* are split into the fifth and the sixth sense groups in *KEJ*. The Japanese equivalent 尋常に(参ったなど) belongs to the fifth sense. This adverb is used as an emphasis just as the ones grouped in the sixth sense: 正直に [honestly], 本當に [really], まったく [completely] and 愈々 [at last]. Therefore, it is difficult to infer the reason why the fourth sense in *JECJ* was split into two senses in *KEJ*. Since the example sentence (2), in which *fairly* in the fifth sense is used, is presented after the sixth sense in *KEJ*, there may not have been any

important meaning in splitting the fourth sense in *JECJ* into fifth and sixth meaning in *KEJ*. The example sentences (2)–(5), (7) and (8) are provided for the sixth sense in *KEJ*. As stated before, the example (6) is deleted and replaced by (7) in *KEJ*.

Present-day lexicographers tend to view the omission of example sentences for the senses as user-unfriendly. However, we can also presume that the use of *fairly* as an emphasizing adverb was the most commonly cited usage that Saito could collect in his search for actual examples to use in *KEJ*. Sentence (8) is similar to the example found in the entry for *fairly* in *COD*. This suggests that Saito may have referred to *COD* as well as the American dictionaries while compiling *KEJ*.

Saito may have chosen not to abridge the examples for the adverb *fairly* in *KEJ* because he doubted the examples would make sense in abridged form. As a rule, *KEJ* only abridges the examples if they still make sense as standalone examples in abridged form. The presentation of abridged examples in *KEJ* works quite efficiently in packing in as much information as possible within a limited space. In fact, the examples in *KEJ* are mostly phrase examples. The examples in the entries for nouns, verbs, and adjectives are mostly abridged in *KEJ*.

Even when the examples are in the form of phrases in *JECJ*, the corresponding examples in *KEJ* are often shortened even further. For example, the phrase examples in the entry for the preposition *in* in *KEJ* are mostly abridged versions of the phrasal examples in *JECJ*. *KEJ* provides the following examples for the third sense group: —live **in Tokyo — in Japan — in the world — in the air — in the water**. 東京に, 日本に, 世界に, 空に, 水中に, 住むなど. — **in the sun — in the shade — in the rain — in the wet — in the cold — in the dark**. 日向に, 日陰に, 雨の降る処に, 寒い処に, 暗闇に. The second sense group in *JECJ* corresponds to the third sense group in *KEJ*. *JECJ* gives the following examples as counterparts to the above phrasal examples in *KEJ*: To live **in the world — in Japan — in Tokyo**. 世界に, 日本に, 東京に(住むなど). To live **in the air — in the water**. 空に, 水中に(棲息する). To dry **in the sun**. 日向に干す. 90°C **in the shade**. 日陰で九十度. To walk **in the rain — in the wet**. 雨降りに散歩. To wait **in the cold**. 火の

気の無い処に待つ。To grope one's way **in the dark**. 暗がりを手探り。We can see from these excerpts that the examples in the two dictionaries are almost the same, although the examples in *KEJ* are in even a further abridged form.

A dictionary serves an important function by providing abundant examples, as users depend on examples to infer the usages of entry words. As *KEJ* included more entries than its predecessor, space had to be saved by abridging sentence examples into phrasal examples and shortening phrasal examples into even shorter versions.

Saito may have been less than completely satisfied with the sense descriptions in *JECJ*, particularly those for the adjectives and adverbs. If this was the case, it would have provided his motivation for increasing the amount of information presented in *KEJ* in spite of its compact size.

### 11.7. Summary

*KEJ* has long been neglected in the shade of *JECJ*, and little has been mentioned of its existence, much less its features.

Many have considered *KEJ* a mere abridged version of *JECJ*, but the former omits far less information than its reduced size would suggest. The great efficiency in the presentation of information in *KEJ* is achieved by the method used to present the examples. By abridging the sentence examples into phrases and putting words in parentheses, *KEJ* provides a great many examples within limited space.

Saito was an idealist who set a high standard for an English-Japanese dictionary for learners. He was not satisfied with *JECJ*, and it probably was the frustration that compelled him to compile *KEJ*. Thus, *KEJ* can be considered an improvement of *JECJ* rather than an abridgment.

The main purpose of compiling a new dictionary may have been to incorporate the fruits of his S.E.G. Word-Study into *KEJ*. He hoped that the results of his study would not only clarify the basic concept embodied in each English word, but also aid him in "formulating" (Saito's own word) Japanese translations for English words. Ultimately he hoped that his work would help Japanese learners of English firmly grasp the basic idea of each English word and acquire a good command of the language

through their understanding of the real meanings of the English vocabulary.

A further purpose of compiling the new dictionary was to add abundant new entry words, revisions, and enlargements, as well to correct the earlier descriptions in *JECJ*. Saito was aware of the numerous neologisms that had been incorporated into the English vocabulary since his publication of *JECJ*. By adding new words in *KEJ* he reflected the changes that had occurred in the English language. Thus, we can presume that the three American dictionaries — *Century*<sup>1</sup>, *N Standard*, and *WNID* — were his main references for identifying and selecting the new words to incorporate into the *KEJ*. In addition to the new encyclopedic terms that the American dictionaries listed, *KEJ* also incorporated new Americanisms, words that represented new ideas of the twentieth century, and words coined under the influence of World War I.

As *KEJ* has a number of innovations that are not found in *JECJ*, it can be considered a *revised* version of *JECJ*. (Sections 11.5–11.7 by Takahashi)

### 12. Conclusion

Some of the main points in this study are given below:

The estimated number of entries included in *JECJ* is approximately 25,000, which is definitely low compared with the two precedent major English-Japanese dictionaries, *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, in which the estimated total number of entries are 57,000 and 36,000 respectively. In terms of the types of entries in *JECJ*, our comparative survey among *JECJ*, *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *WIDEL*, *Century* and *Standard* has revealed that the domain of vocabulary which *JECJ* is targeting is far closer to that of *COD* than any other dictionary. Thus, for example, in comparison with *MoEJ* and *SEJ*, *JECJ* is rich in information on derivatives of main entries, while compound words are quite rare in *JECJ* vocabulary: a tendency also confirmed in *COD*.

*JECJ* transcribes the pronunciation in two ways: the *katakana* transcription system and the diacritical system. The latter only uses diacritics for strong vowels, whereas the former uses diacritics with *katakana* letters to transcribe English vowels and consonants which do not exist in Japa-

nese. Because of the difference between the sound system of the two languages, a number of limitations of *katakana* transcription can be observed. The influence of *COD* cannot be found as far as phonetic transcription is concerned.

With regard to information on grammar, *JECJ* is original and creative in that it is basically based on the author's works, particularly in the description of verbs and prepositions. It is compiled within the framework of his works of grammar. A large number of grammatical terms may have made it difficult for (even advanced) students to become accustomed to the dictionary, but it is produced as the result of Saito's great effort to incorporate lexicon and grammar in a dictionary form: the first dictionary that is fully grammar-oriented.

Concerning translation equivalents, *JECJ* endeavors to give exact or suitable translations including formal and colloquial ones that are easier for learners to grasp. The author devotes himself to the contrastive and exhaustive study between English and Japanese. The idea of being *practical* to Japanese students from the viewpoint of a teacher of English may have been of vital importance in offering equivalents. The ideas of selection restriction, collocation, and pattern or complementation are all related to giving translations.

A small number of so-called illustrative phrases and sentences are presented after the Japanese equivalents of the headword, while an abundant mixture of rather fixed expressions such as collocations, idioms and sayings are listed with their equivalents. The dictionary, however, so often fails to mention the most typical collocations. Various expressions are listed without any systematic order or any difference of style. It is also hard to tell under which headword of its components an idiomatic expression is listed. These peculiarities make the dictionary difficult to use in terms of ease of reference. But detailed grammar and usage notes incorporate abundant and effective verbal illustrations. Saito's use of gloss in parentheses helps the users visualize the context in which the expression in question is used. His expression of Japanese equivalents for the listed examples is very expressive and stylistically appropriate. It may come from his interest in the correspondence between Japanese and English

through his concern with 'idiomology.' It makes the dictionary an intriguing reading material, and encourages the users to grasp the whole picture of the word concerned by reading copious examples throughout the dictionary.

*JECJ* was issued at the time when the following statement was made:

The publishing of dictionaries has now become quite a fashion. Especially is this true of English-Japanese dictionaries, which, being compiled mostly by those famed for their profound knowledge of the English language, have been and are now being published by many large book-stores. . . But the question is — Are most students sufficiently equal to making the best use of such good dictionaries? In other words, do most of them understand how to use these dictionaries and how to derive out of them the greatest possible benefit? It is a matter for regret that we have to answer this question in the negative. (Uyei 1915a: 30)

It is not certain whether Saito was acutely aware how learners use his dictionary to make the most of its content<sup>1)</sup>. It was issued at the time when a large number of Japanese were eager to study English, and sold well.

Like *COD* among monolingual dictionaries and *SEJ* among bilingual dictionaries, Saito's original and creative dictionary *JECJ* is in principle lexicon-oriented. Quite unlike its contemporary dictionary *IEDJ* that is largely based on *COD*, *JECJ* is compiled mainly based on the author's own works. The dictionary focuses on what the author considers to be of primary importance: articles, verbs as well as auxiliary verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions. He is also interested in (lexical) collocation from the viewpoint of an English teacher and translation equivalents. In compiling the dictionary, some of the contents are taken from other dictionaries, such as *COD*. *JECJ* should be worth special mention not only in its lexicon-oriented contents but also in being the first dictionary full of grammatical terms in the author's framework. The origin of English-Japanese dictionaries combining grammar with lexicon could be traced back to Saito's dictionary *JECJ*.

*KEJ* issued in 1922 is widely considered as an abridged version of *JECJ*, with little attention paid to its features. The number of entry words

in the sections surveyed increases by about 30 percent. As is stated in its preface, by incorporating words representing new ideas of the twentieth century, neologisms coined under the influence of WWI, and Americanisms, *KEJ* gives a large number of new words that reflect the changes of the society after the publication of *JECJ*, and encyclopedic words (especially words of foreign origin) from the American dictionaries which may have been available for Saito to refer to.

Some definitions or translation equivalents reflect the fruits of Saito's "S.E.G. Word-Study": they are quite similar to the explanation given in the Word-Study. Saito consider adjectives as one of the most important parts of speech, since he believes that a good command of English partly depends on the understanding of the meanings and uses of adjectives. Definitions for a number of adjectives are written in more detail. Definitions for function words are also described in greater detail due to the reflection of Saito's minute description in *Monographs of Prepositions*.

*KEJ* is compact in size, but the amount of information it contains is even larger than that in *JECJ*. Therefore, *KEJ* is not an abridged but a revised and enlarged version of *JECJ*.

Let the present writer quote a passage from one of H. Palmer's works (1938: iv-v): The dictionary treats in a more or less summary manner a vocabulary of from 25,000 to 100,000 words, generally giving examples only of abnormal, quaint or rare expressions, and leaving problems of sentence-building to the grammarians. . . the ordinary grammar book treats (often with a wealth of technical terms) only those aspects of vocabulary that are of interest to the grammarian; they are elaborate in details of theory, but give few practical "directions for use" and neglect precisely those points that puzzle the foreign student of elementary present-day English. . . grammar books are generally written for the benefit of those who already know the language. . . there is "a vast uncharted territory lying between the respective domains of the dictionary-maker and the grammarian," a sort of no-man's land in which reside the great majority of those points that perplex those to whom English is a foreign language (This writer's emphasis). The last part of the passage is considered to have been exactly what Saito strove to make clear and solve. Like H. Palmer, Saito, who was well aware

of a significant number of puzzling points for Japanese, such as prepositions and verbs, endeavoring to give useful and practical advice in the usage of English, produced his original dictionary in the form of combination of his fruits of his studies of English grammar and lexicon. Saito's epoch-making *JECJ* followed by its revised and new version *KEJ* is said to be the first, though far advanced, dictionary by a Japanese for the Japanese that made an attempt to introduce combinatory information of lexicon and grammar.

## NOTES

### Section 1

1) Saito gives at least in two places the same quotation by Professor John S. Blackie: Study the theory of language, the organism of speech, and what is called comparative philology or Glossology. The principles therein revealed will enable you to prosecute with a reasoning intelligence a study which would otherwise be in a great measure a laborious exercise of arbitrary memory. The term 'idiomology' may have been coined by analogy of 'glossology.' This is found in the inside cover of the book *Class-Book of English Idiomology* No. 9c Prepositions: Part III (1906) and *Studies in English Idiom* No. 4a Verbs: Part First (1907), as far as the present writer knows.

2) Omura (1980: 206) says that Saito made a reference to the 32nd edition issued in 1974 of *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*. But 『斎藤文庫目録』(斎藤秀三郎先生旧蔵英語学関係資料目録) [The Catalogue of the Saito Library of Books] (1982) does not include the edition in the 1870s but includes the one in the 1880s.

### Section 2

1) This section largely owes much to Sakurai (1970).

### Section 3

1) This section is mainly based on Omura (1960)

2) The title of the video tape on the life of Saito by Kinokuniya Shoten also uses 'lion' as a nickname for him.

3) *Juku* in former days means tutoring private establishments, often specializing in a particular subject.

4) Now Iwanami Shoten, Tokyo, holds the copyright.

5) The size of the one-volume edition mentioned here is that of the 30th impression (1916) owned by the present writer. The survey of the original two-part or two-volume edition (1915) shows the only difference in thickness: approximately 1.2 inches (3.0 cm) thick each. The so-called revised edition (1917) is a little smaller: approximately 7.4 inches (18.9 cm) high, 5.0 inches (12.7 cm) wide, and 3.4 inches (6.0 cm) thick. For comparison, the size of *COD* (the 1921 impression) is also given here: approximately 7.5 inches (19.0 cm) high, 5.1 inches (13.0 cm) wide, and 2.2 inches (5.5 cm) thick.

The preface of the one-volume edition is the same as that of the second half of the original edition, while the last paragraph in the preface of the first half is a little shorter, which was written five months earlier (see the photos in the appendix). The second part of

the original seems to have included a sheet of paper with some errata listed. This is confirmed by the second volume of the original found in Komazawa University Library in Tokyo, though the first part is not found there.

6) The figure is based on the letter dated March 3rd, 2004, from the publisher.

7) The appendix in the first impression differs partially from that in later impressions although it has not been made clear when the replacement was made. The later impressions, for example the 20th impression issued 1924, includes the 29-page appendix, with the only difference being that the 12-page list of difficult personal names is replaced by, or reduced to, the 8-page list of difficult proper nouns. (cf. Deki 1982: 1)

#### Section 5

1) We have no idea at the moment whether the use of sans serifs originates in *JECJ* or borrowed from other dictionaries. An interesting point to be noted here is that Saito uses serifs in *KEJ*, and that the latest edition of *JECJ* edited by Minoru Toyoda also employs serifs rather than sans serifs.

2) *COD* gives notes on foreign words in its front matter:

Words usually or often printed in italics as either incompletely naturalized or completely foreign are in sloping type.

And note also that *COD* presents its entries in serif letters unless headwords are foreign.

3) See Section 5.2.1.

4) See Kokawa *et al.* (2000).

5) *Century*<sup>1</sup> does not introduce the system of run-on derivatives. Except for compounds such as **parcel post**, all entries are basically given main entry status.

6) See Section 8.4 for the detailed discussion.

7) It must be noted here that the number of entries in *JECJ* is almost one third of the one in *IEDJ*. For the detailed discussion on *IEDJ*, see Dohi *et al.* (2001).

8) The number of main entries beginning with the letter K in *JECJ* is 141. Consequently, we are to deal with all entries in the letter K in *JECJ*.

9) Note that these entries are not prefixes, which is accompanied by an ordinary single hyphen (-) in *JECJ*. In fact, however, in our sample material, all the prefixes we confirm in *MoEJ* and *SEJ* are missing in *JECJ* except for **A-**, which is labeled [接頭前置詞] (prefix).

10) In the front matter of *JECJ*, Saito gives rather misleading English translation "Compound Word" for [複合詞].

11) It must be noted here, however, that, except for **Know=** and **Pack=**, which remain as main entries in *KEJ*, entries with a German double hyphen are incorporated into paragraphs headed by corresponding hyphenless entries, and lose the status of entries in *KEJ*. Thus, in *KEJ*, **face** has an item labeled [複合詞] in which *JECJ* examples **=card** and **=value** are presented. For **Fancy=**, **Farm=**, and **Father=**, the label is deleted in their corresponding items in *KEJ*.

12) *JECJ* gives **able=bodied seaman** as an example of the compound **able=bodied**, which is only found in *COD* among the dictionaries we study in our research.

13) We do not count entries labeled [複合詞] in this table on the grounds that they are too characteristic of *JECJ* and that it is obvious no other dictionaries include them as entries.

14) For the detailed discussion of *SEJ* in terms of the nature of modern learners' dictionary, see Kokawa *et al.* (2000).

15) It is interesting to note that Omura (1960: 427–430) points out that not a few notes by Saito are found on pages of *COD* he owned at the time, and that these notes are followed by dates from the letters **M** to **Z**, which correspond to the second half of the first edition.

16) Henceforth, entries labeled [複合詞] are not taken into consideration in the tables for the reason mentioned in note (13) above.

17) Dohi *et al.* (2001: 65) estimates the total number of headwords in *COD* to be approximately 50,000: 10,000 more than that of Kojima (1999), but the number is still low compared with three other dictionaries published in the United States.

#### Section 6

1) In the "Phonetic Symbol List," the spelling *ore* is written with a diacritic *ôre* as if it is pronounced the same as *ôr* /ɔ̃/. This is a misprint, and it should be written with a diacritic *ô* because it is pronounced the same as *ôr* /ɔ̃/.

2) The other possibility is the prenasalization of /g/: [ŋg]. For instance, the word *sing* which is transcribed スイング [singu] will be pronounced [siŋgu].

3) To transcribe them precisely, an alveolar consonant becomes a palato-alveolar consonant when followed by a high front vowel. Therefore, /t/ becomes [tʃ] and /s/ becomes [ç] when followed by /i/.

#### Section 7

1) It is noted that his lecture book for elementary level students includes the following example conversation (italics below added by the present writer):

What makes English so difficult to us?

It is the wide difference in idioms that makes it difficult.

What is an idiom?

*An idiom is the usage of words and phrases peculiar to a language.*

Are there idioms in Japanese?

As each country has its own customs and manners, so each language has its own idioms.

Then there is no language which has no idioms.

No; every language has its own idioms — and in fact, to learn a language is to learn its idioms. (Saito 1912–13: The orthodox English lessons No. 3 in Volume 3: 356–57)

The above imaginary conversation leads learners to what Saito calls 'idiom.' His original idea of 'idiomology' is the study of the usage of words and phrases peculiar to the English language. This naturally leads him to study English in a wider perspective. Not only English grammar but also collocation as well as set or fixed phrases or idioms are practically indispensable for his comprehensive description of the language.

2) In the controversy between *The Nippon* and *Chugwai Eiji Shimibun* briefly referred to in section 2, there was a discussion as to whether or not citation sources are shown. Saito rarely makes reference to citation sources in *PEG*. Concerning this, Nobata in *The Nippon* Vol. 11, No. 1 (1916: 7) quotes Saito as saying: Once someone says or writes something, whether Shakespeare or whatever, the phrases or expressions belong to the society where he/she belongs. The sense or meaning of the expression is doomed to be determined by convention in the society. It is occasionally important to make an explicit reference to the citation source(s), but not always useful. . . It is necessary to give credit to the exact examples given in someone else's grammar book, but the examples for illustration of usage are invaluable when they are universally or widely known and it does not matter what the citation sources are.

3) A brief survey was made whether or not the verbs in *SREV* are of high frequency. 112 verbs excluding six auxiliary verbs are surveyed whether they are among the most frequent verbs with the signs W1, W2 or W3 in *LDCE*<sup>4</sup>. The result is as follows: 53 are included among W1 words, 12 among W2, and 29 among W3 (74 percent in total). This partially proves that a large number of verbs in *SREV* are common or frequent ones.

4) Omura says (1960: 375) that *Class-Books of English Idiomology: A Complete Course in the Study of English Idiom* were originally meant to include the following contents: (1) The articles, (2) Nouns, (3) Pronominal Elements, (4) Finite Verbs, (5) Infinite Verbs, (6) Verbal Constructions, (7) Elementary Verbs, (8) Adjectives and Adverbs, (9) Prepositions, (10) Conjunctions, (11) Uses of Prepositions and Conjunctions, (12) 'In,' 'On,' and 'At', (13) Nouns: Synonym Study, (14) Studies in English Verbs, and (15) Adjectives: Synonym Study. But (4), (5), (6), (9), (11), and (14) appeared.

5) Omura says that in Saito's library of books he found a copy of *COD* where notes are written in red ink (1960: 428), though it is not found there now. He also says that there are found dates (but not year) in the entries between M and Z of the *COD*, supposing that they were written between 1912 and 1914 (*Ibid.*: 429). The facts demonstrate that Saito read the dictionary and made use of the material.

#### Section 8

1) *MoEJ* seems to be the first bilingual dictionary printed in two colors of black and red, but, strange enough, they are not used in its text but in its appendix of synonyms and antonyms and also in the guide to pronunciation in the front matter.

2) It is not certain whether Saito takes statistic analysis into account. Interesting enough, though, Saito is quoted as saying in his lecture with regard to the sentence "(How does he take his failure?) He *takes* it quite *easy*" that before issuing the work on radical English verbs (1909) that includes *take*, he thought that the sentence form "He *takes* it *easily*" is quite natural, but found that the form *easy* rather than *easily* is more often found or natural after he made a statistical examination or comparison of the two forms (Uyei 1915b: 34). This leads us to say that Saito may have sometimes been interested in statistical analysis of some usage.

#### Section 9

1) We examined *LEJD* just as an example of present-day English-Japanese learner's dictionaries. We can see a similar description in other English-Japanese learner's dictionaries of recent publication. Incidentally, *rhetorical question* and *open question* are given a separate entry in *LEJD*. *Eastern question* may be in the same category, but may require some encyclopedic explanation in *JECJ*.

2) The translation in square brackets in this section show the literal translation by the present author of the Japanese equivalents presented by Saito.

#### Section 11

1) The number of entry words added in *KEJ* cannot be simply calculated by subtracting the number of entry words in *JECJ* from the number of entry words in *KEJ*. This is because the main entry words in *JECJ* are not always presented as main entry words in *KEJ*. In some cases, for example, headwords in *JECJ* are presented as run-on entries in *KEJ*. In our tabulation of words newly added in *KEJ*, we included only those that appeared neither as headwords nor as run-on entries in *JECJ*.

2) This was probably a misprint. The correct spelling is *palikar*.

3) The preface of *KEJ* is dated 'January, 1922,' which suggests that the lectures had ended by or in 1921.

#### Section 12

1) With regard to users' practice in dictionary consultation, it is interesting to note that Uyei made the following comment in promoting the use of dictionaries: "... are students capable of making a correct choice in the meaning of the word they are looking up in their dictionary? Certainly not. They are satisfied with the first Japanese equivalent they find in

the dictionary, and without paying the least attention to the suitability of this equivalent, they rack their brains to strain a meaning out of the sentence they want to understand, not infrequently committing such serious blunders... This is, again, due to their not understanding how to make a proper use of their dictionaries. (Uyei 1915a: 31).

## DICTIONARIES

(The number or information in the parentheses at the end show the year the work consulted was issued. The original titles are given in parentheses, while the translated titles are in square brackets.)

- AKS*: *Angeria-Kogaku-Shosen* [A Small English Vocabulary] (『語厄利亜興学小笈』). Eds. by S. Motoki *et al.* Handwritten copy. 10 vols. in 3 parts. Nagasaki: 1811. (Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Taishukan Shoten, 1982.)
- Angeria-Gorin-Taisei*: *Angeria-Gorin-Taisei* [A Large English Vocabulary] (『語厄利亜語林大成』). Eds. by S. Motoki *et al.* Handwritten copy. 15 vols. in 4 parts. Nagasaki: 1814. (Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Taishukan Shoten, 1982.)
- Century*<sup>1</sup>: *The Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*. 10 vols. Ed. by W. D. Whitney. New York: The Century Co., 1889-91.
- Century*<sup>2</sup>: *The Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*. Revised and enlarged edition. 6 vols. Ed. by B. Smith. The Century Co., 1904.
- Century*<sup>3</sup>: *The Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*. Reprinted edition of the 1914 impression of 1911 edition. 7 vols. Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1980.
- CIDE*: *Cambridge International Dictionary of the English Language*. Ed. by P. Procter. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.
- COD*: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. Eds. by H.W. Fowler and F.G. Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1911. (1916; 1919)
- DSL*: *An English-Japanese Dictionary of the Spoken Language*. 3rd edition. Compiled originally by E. M. Satow and M. Ishibashi. Revised and enlarged by E. M. Hobart-Hampden and H. G. Parlett. Yokohama, Shanghai, Hong Kong & Singapore: Kelly & Walsh Ltd, 1904. (Reprinted edition. Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1985.)
- Eigo-Sen*: *Eigo-Sen* [English and Japanese Vocabulary] (『英語箋』). Ed. by M. Ishibashi. 2 vols. Saizo Jitaku edition. Edo: 1861. (Revised edition. Tokyo: Mankyukaku, 1872.)
- ESJD*: *Eiwa-Sokai-Jukugo-Dai-Jiten (A Dictionary of English Phrases with English and Japanese Explanation)*. Eds. by N. Kanda and K. Nan'nichi. Tokyo: Yuhodo, 1909.
- GDEL*: *Eibumpo Jiten (A Grammatical Dictionary of the English Language)* (『英文法辞典』). Ed. by I. Irie. Tokyo: Hakuikudo, 1915.
- IEDJ*: *Inouye-Eiwa-Dai-Jiten (Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『井上英和大辞典』). Ed. by J. Inouye. Tokyo: Shiseido, 1915. (1919)
- ISED*: *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary*. Eds. by A.S. Hornby *et al.* Tokyo: Kaitakusha, 1942.
- JECJ*: *Jukugo-Hon'i-Eiwa-Chu-Jiten (Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dic-*

- tionary) (『熟語本位英和中辞典』). Ed. by H. Saito. Tokyo: Nichieisha, 1915. (30th impression. 1916; 211th impression. 1929.)
- KEJ: *Keitai-Eiwa-Jiten (Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『携帯英和辞典』). Ed. by H. Saito. Tokyo: Nichieisha, 1922. (Reprinted edition, including part of the appendix of the 20th impression in 1924, titled *Saito-Eiwa-Jiten (Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『斎藤英和辞典』). Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1982.)
- LDCE<sup>1</sup>: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. Ed. by P. Procter. Harlow: Longman, 1978.
- LDCE<sup>3</sup>: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. 3rd edition, Ed. by D. Summers. Harlow: Longman, 1995.
- LDCE<sup>4</sup>: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*. 4th edition. Ed. by D. Summers. Harlow: Pearson education, 2003.
- MoEJ: *Mohan-Eiwa-Jiten (Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『模範英和辞典』). Eds. by N. Kanda et al. Tokyo: Sanseido, 1911. (1915)
- N Standard: *Funk and Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. Eds. by I. K. Funk et al. New York & London: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1913. (Reprinted edition. 3 vols. Tokyo: Hon-No-Tomosha, 1995.)
- OED: *The Oxford English Dictionary*. Eds. by J. A. H. Murray et al. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1933.
- SEJ: *Shokai-Eiwa-Jiten (A New English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『詳解英和辞典』). Ed. by Iwae Irie. Tokyo: Shobunkan, 1912. 2nd Edition. 1913. (Reprinted edition of the 2nd edition. Tokyo: Meicho-Fukyukai, 1985.)
- Standard: *A Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. Ed. by I. Funk. New York: Funk & Wagnalls, 1893-95. (1901)
- SWDJ: *Saito-Waei-Dai-Jiten (Saito's Japanese-English Dictionary)* (『斎藤和英大辞典』). Ed. by H. Saito. Tokyo: Nichieisha, 1928.
- Wayaku-Ei-Jirin: *Wayaku-Ei-Jirin (An English-Japanese Pronouncing Dictionary)* (『大正増補和訳英辞林』). 4th edition. Revised by S. Maeda and Y. Takahashi. Shanghai: American Presbyterian Mission Press, 1871.
- WIDEL: *Webster's International Dictionary of the English Language*. Ed. by N. Porter. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1890. (1909; 1921)
- WNID: *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language*. Ed. by W. T. Harris. Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1909.

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## APPENDIX

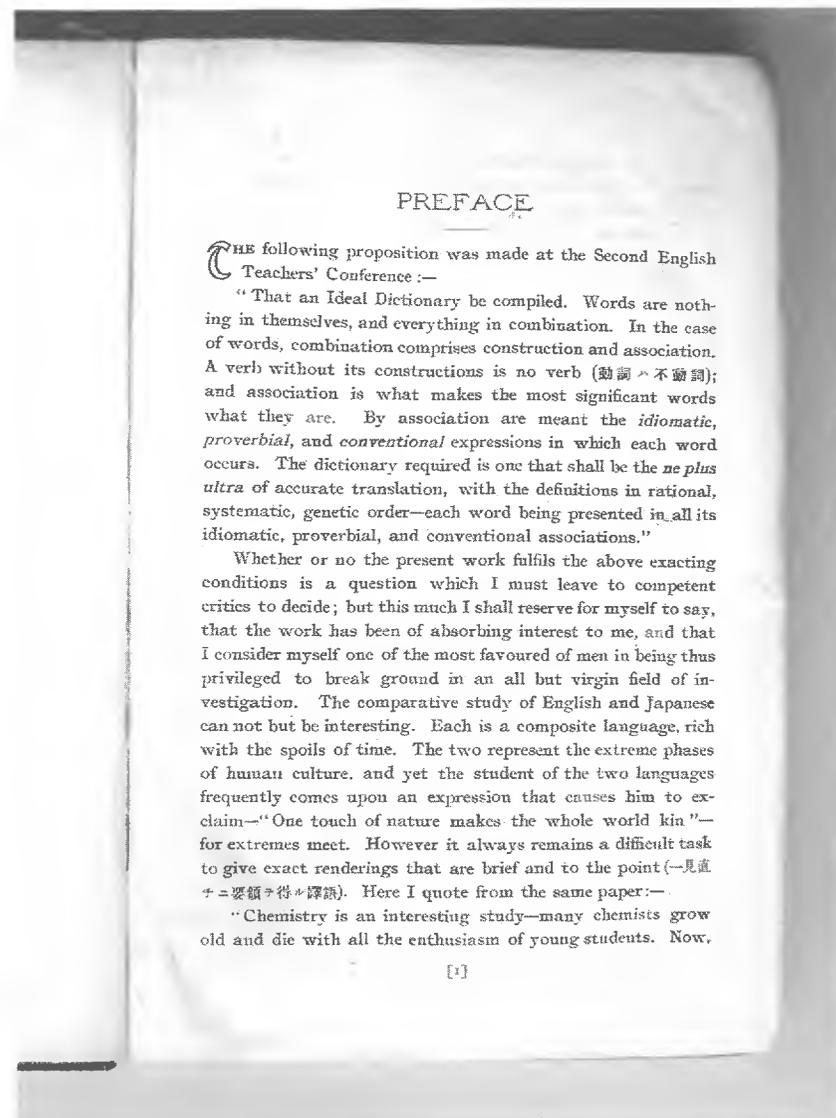
Reproduced here are several pages from the original two-volume edition of *Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary* (1915), from the so-called revised edition (1917) of the above dictionary, and from the later impression of *Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary* (1922), by courtesy of Miyagi Prefectural Library (宮城県図書館) in Sendai, the dictionary author's birthplace. The Idiomatic dictionaries are found in the Deki Library of Books (出来文庫) there.

Photographs 1 to 19 are from *Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary*, while Photographs 20 to 27 are from *Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary*. The latter includes no date of publication, and the appendix makes it clear that it is not the first but the later impression.

Appendix A: Photographs of *Saito's Idiomatical English-Japanese Dictionary* (1915): the two-volume edition



Photograph 1. Title page of the first half of the dictionary



Photograph 2. Preface (1/5) of the first half of the dictionary

what is chemistry? I will not insult your scholarship by telling you that the science professes to concern itself with the properties of some seventy or eighty or ninety elements—I can not, for the life of me, be sure of their number, they increase so fast. But, in point of fact, it has to deal with the properties and combinations of some thirty elements. These thirty odd elements, with their affinities and antipathies, can engross the lifelong attention of intellects of the first order. Now, suppose these thirty odd elements were to multiply by one hundred, what sort of a chemistry should we have? Dr. Divers, late professor of chemistry at the Imperial University, was one of the busiest men I ever knew, and yet he had only thirty odd elements to deal with. We—at least some of us—have hours to spare every day over the *goban* with our colleagues after our duties at the school are done, and yet we have thousands of elements to deal with. What wonderful men we must be! For, must I tell you that the study of English is just such a chemistry—a mighty chemistry which has to deal with thousands of elements, whose combinations know no limits or bounds? Ordinary chemistry has to do with dead matter, and yet their subtlety frequently defies analysis. Our chemistry, on the other hand, deals with living mind, with the action of the human soul, which now shows itself as intellect, now assumes the form of emotion, and now asserts itself as volition. The Proteus soul often visits you in the shape of the intellectual man, the man of thought, the philosopher, and challenges you to understand him. You grapple with him, and, after mighty efforts, succeed in grasping his sense. You now feel ready to face the whole world of English literature. Not so fast! Proteus next confronts you in the form of the man of emotion and sensibility, the poet. Here you have a hard tussle, and generally get the worst of it. But even if you conquer here, you are not yet done with all of your possible antagonists. For you have not long been trium-

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Photograph 3. Preface (2/5) of the first half of the dictionary

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phant and exultant and jubilant over your conquest of English poetry, before you come into the region of will, of morality, of religion. Here you encounter many abstruse questions, which you must get all cleared up and decided before you can face your tormenting devils, the students, with whom nothing will go down but the word of conviction. What Shakespeare has imagined, you must be able to imagine—what Plato has thought, you must be able to think—what Christ has felt, you must be able to feel—before you can with confidence call yourselves adequate teachers of English, in whose teaching the students are to repose implicit confidence. For us Japanese, the study of English covers all these regions of Western thought, for English is to us the representative language of the West, and comprehends all Western culture. A Japanese teacher of English must be at once a philosopher, a poet, and a sage—and sometimes a business man, too, for it not unfrequently happens that he is requested to translate a business letter or make up a newspaper advertisement, and—Woe to the teacher who fails to do it! And with all these tasks on his hands, he must not lose sight of another fact—a wonderful fact with which I ought to have commenced—a fact which is indeed startling in its simplicity, and becomes still more startling when we come to think how some of us seem to ignore it entirely—I mean the fact that *language is made up of words*, which words are to the structure of the language what the material *elements* are to *chemistry*. These word-elements of ours—their name is legion; and each of them has its special meanings and functions, each its own combinations and constructions and associations. And we have got to learn the value of each in itself and its value in its manifold combinations. Just think of it! Thousands of elements, and no limit to the combinations of each! What a chemistry! It is a science well worth making a speciality of; for, what is the most divine poetry or the grandest prose but a skilful

[3]

Photograph 4. Preface (3/5) of the first half of the dictionary

combination of these word-elements?—what but a product of our magic chemistry?

"The story of Benkei and the temple-acolyte is a case in point. They held a wager as to which of them should be the first to knead an *ohachi*-ful of rice into rice-paste. You must all know that rice-paste is made by crushing the grains of boiled rice with a sort of bamboo ferule on a piece of board. The story runs how the redoubtable hero went about his task truly Benkei-fashion, and emptied all his *ohachi*-ful upon his *nor*i-board, and how in his eager hurry he tried to knead all the rice at once. On the other hand, our incipient bonze, who, like the proverbial acolyte, seems to have been a cute chap, proceeded business-like to knead the grains one by one. One grain at a time looks like slow work, but that is the best and surest way to do it. By the time the sun went down, his *ohachi*-ful of rice was a beautiful mass of paste. The boy then looked to see how his heroic competitor was getting along, and there knelt Benkei kneading with might and main—panting and puffing and wheezing—all in a glow and perspiration—Benkei in a glow, just mark that!—with great beads rolling down his fiery face. His task was not half done—he had made a glorious mess of it. He was striving with his *ohachi*-ful, as if each grain of the rice were a Heike warrior. In a word, Benkei was out-Benkeiing Benkei in his struggle to effect the impossible.

"Let us turn from the old-time hero to one of the Meiji heroes, of whom Japan boasts many, and pay our homage to the memory of the late Gen. Nogi. The hardest nut to crack in the Russian War fell to his share in the shape of Port Arthur. The general was charged with the task of reducing the "impregnable" fortress. It was a point of honour with Japan to take Port Arthur, and Japan's honour was given into the safe-keeping of the great strategist. That he was a consummate master of modern strategy goes without saying.

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but yet he could not rid himself entirely of the old samurai-notions in him; and so he must go and set about it after the fashion of the gallant old cavalier. He attempted to carry the Russian Port Arthur at one assault—thereby sacrificing Heaven knows how many lives—which unfortunate circumstance, by the way, perhaps constituted one of the motives that actuated him in resolving to attend on his Imperial Master beyond the grave. The general, however, at once rectified his error, if error it were, and now proceeded on the regular scientific method—he cut his way, inch by inch, into the rock-bound fortress, and achieved a feat which will be remembered as long as the world shall endure.

"Not everybody can be a Nogi, but everybody may rectify his error. If Gen. Nogi sacrificed his thousands, we have sacrificed our hundreds. For my part, I have murdered His British Majesty's English all my life—murdered hundreds of candidates in the examination-hall—murdered thousands of students in the class-room. If the gallows had its due, perhaps none of us would be here to celebrate our own inefficiency!

"But, gentlemen, it is never too late to mend. Let us cry 'peccavi' and begin anew in the right way. The 'impregnable' fortress fell to science and method; neither can the English tongue be impregnable to a scientific method and a resolute will. Let us have the fact impressed on our minds, that the English language is made up of English words, and that they have got to be kneaded each in its turn."

Yes, all English words must be kneaded each in its turn, or else one's English will remain a lifelong imperfection. For the rest, I shall let the book speak for itself.

In conclusion, I have the pleasant duty of thanking Mr. Sagawa for the thoroughness with which he has been good enough to read the final proofs.

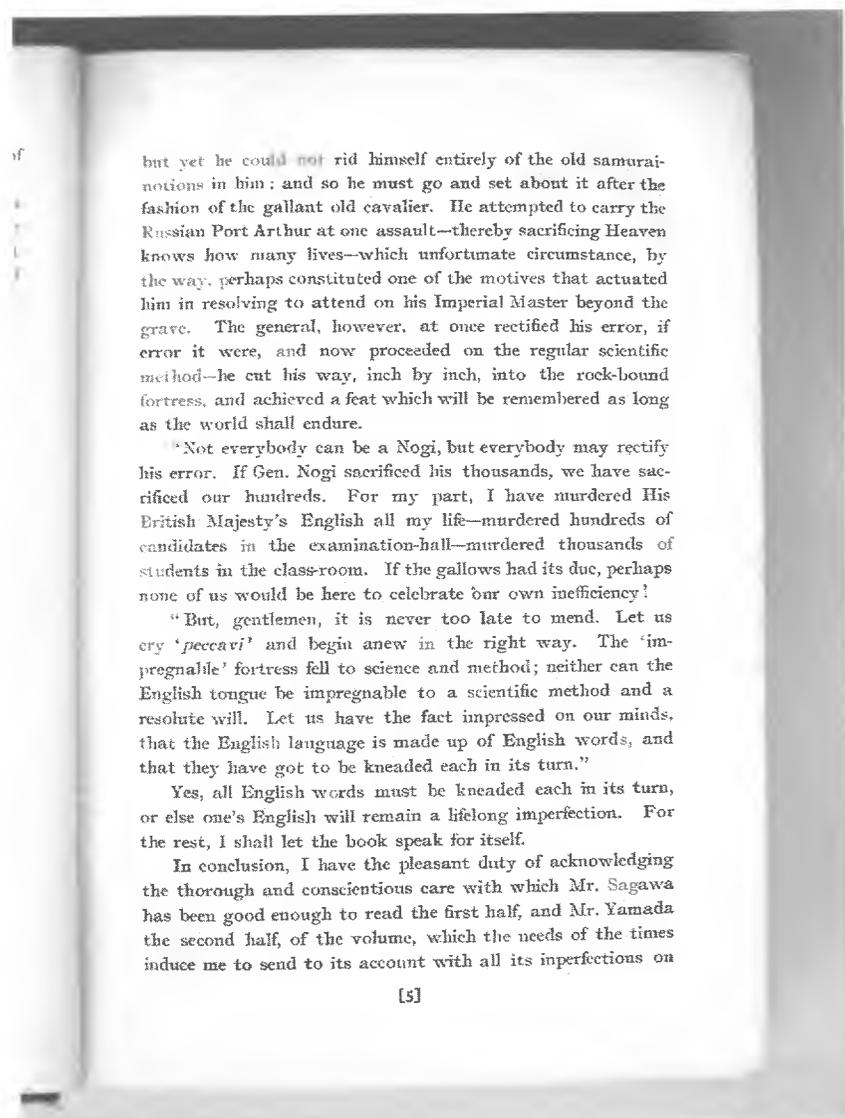
H. SAITO.

January, the 4th Year of Taisho.

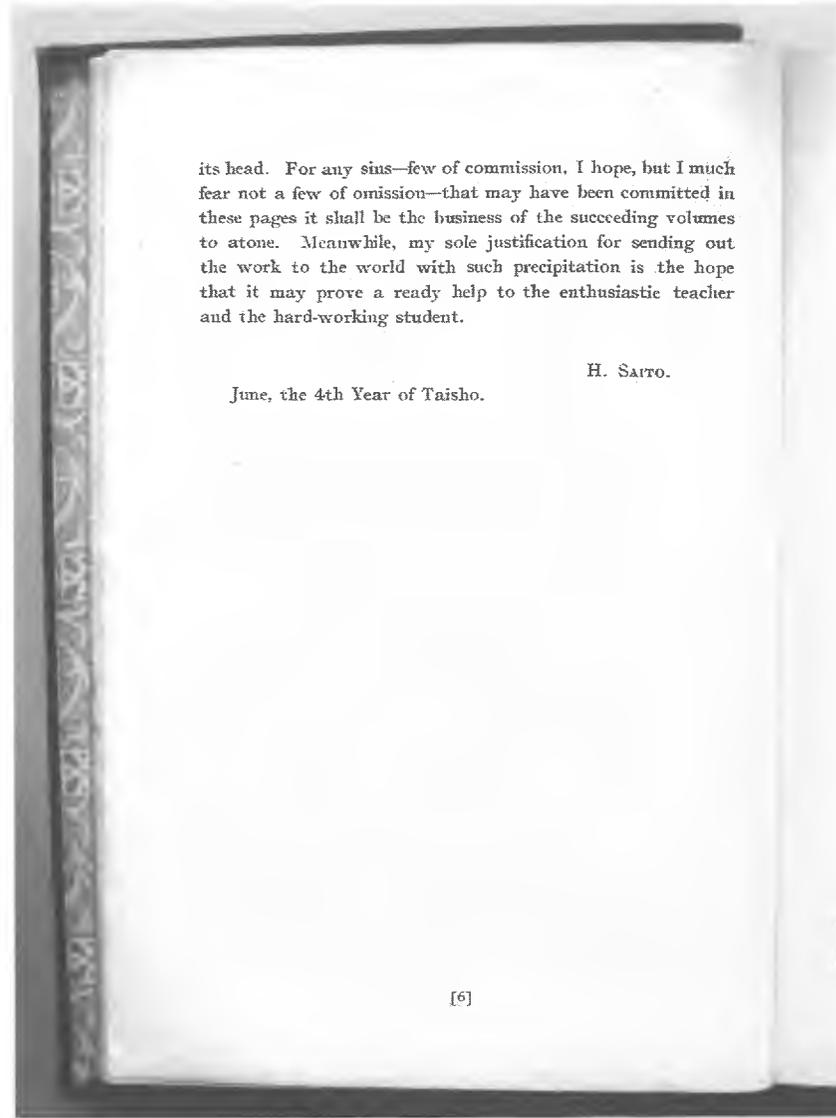
[5]

Photograph 5. Preface (4/5) of the first half of the dictionary

Photograph 6. Preface (5/5) of the first half of the dictionary



Photograph 7. Preface (5/6) of the second half of the dictionary:  
there is a passage added



Photograph 8. Preface (6/6) of the second half of the dictionary:  
there is a passage added and the date is different

凡 例

(1) 名詞は集合、物質、抽象の各種名詞を普通名詞(等)に用ひて其意味に変化を生ずる場合に限りて分類名稱を記す、其略語次の如し

- 【普通名】..... 普通名詞 (Common Noun)
- 【固有名】..... 固有名詞 (Proper Noun)
- 【集名】..... 集合名詞 (Collective Noun)
- 【質名】..... 物質名詞 (Material Noun)
- 【抽象名】..... 抽象名詞 (Abstract Noun)

(2) 動詞は必ず

- 【自動】..... 自動詞 (Intransitive Verb)
- 【他動】..... 他動詞 (Transitive Verb)

と區別し、又之に續く前置詞及び他の附屬構文は必ず括弧 ( ) 内に之を示す、而して動詞と副詞との結合は自動動詞を一括して其項の終りに之を掲ぐ。

(3) 形容詞は概して之に“-ly”を加ふれば副詞と成り、“-ness”を加ふれば名詞と成るものにて其意味の變化は

- Kind (カインド) 【形】..... 親切ナル
- Kindly (カインドサイ) 【副】..... 親切ニ
- Kindness (カインドネス) 【名】..... 親切(ナセキ)

殆ど一定したるものなれば一々項を設けずして形容詞の項の終りに略記して紙面を節約する事とせり。但し其副詞、名詞に特別の意味有る時は別項を設く。

(4) 前置詞の動詞、形容詞に續くものは其動詞、形容詞の項に概して abc 順の番號に之を求む可し、例へば

Look (ルック) 【自動詞】見ル。① (after a person or thing) 世話スル。② (at anything) 眺メル。③ (into anything) 覗ヘル。④ (on anything) (何) 視スル。⑤ (over anything) 段々見ル。⑥ (to anything) 注意スル。

(5) 見出し語中の單 ハイフン (-) は綴りの切れ目を示し、二重ハイフン (==) は複合詞たる事を示す。

(6) 複合詞 (Compound Word) は概して其始めの語の項か又は其別項に之を求む可し。

[6]

Photograph 9. Explanatory note

發音記號

母音の發音符號は特別又は不規則の場合の外は之を付せず。

( ) に用ひて  
語次の如し

( ) 内に  
て其項の

“-ness”

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hing) 世  
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發音符號	規約假名	例	注意
ā	エー	ape (エープ); break (ブレイク)	
a	ア	cat (カット); rat (ラット); bade (バッド)	(ア) の符號は本書之を略してアとす
ā	ア	father (ファザー)	
ār	アー	art (アート); far (ファー); are (アー)	
a	ア	ask (アスク); ask (カスク)	
ā	アー	all (オール); talk (トーク)	
aw, au	オー	awe (オー); saw (ソー)	
ough	オー	ought (オート); daughter (ドーター)	
a	ア	was (ワズ); want (ワント)	= 5
āre, āir	エー	air (エア); care (ケア)	= 8re
bū	ビュー	bugle (ビューグル)	
c	カイサ行	cat (カット); cent (セント)	カ ス イ タ セ
dū	デュ	duke (デューク)	ク デイ フォ テド
e	イー	he (ヒー); key (キー)	
ē	エ	end (エンド); lend (レンド)	
ēr	アー	her (ハー); fern (フェーン)	= r, ūr
ēre	イー	here (ヒー); mere (ミール)	
ēre	エー	there (テア); where (ウェア)	= āre, āir
ee	イー	eel (イール); meet (ミート)	
ēa	イー	meat (ミート); read (リード)	
ēa	エ	head (ヘッド); read (レッド)	
ēar	イー	ear (イール); tear (ティール)	= ēre
ēar	エー	bear (ベア); tear (テア)	= ēre
ēarn	アーン	learn (ラーン)	
ei, ey	エー	rein (ライン); they (テア)	= a
eigh	エー	eight (エイト); neigh (ネイ)	= a
f	フ行	fish (フィッシュ); fur (フォー)	フ フイ ッ フ フ
g	ガ、ヂ、ジ	get (ゲット); gin (ジン)	ガ(ボク)カ(ササエ)エ
h	ハ行	hook (フック); hoof (フーフ)	ハ ヒ フ ヘ
i	アイ	fine (ファイン); pile (パイ)	
i	イ	ink (インク); kiss (キス)	

[ 7 ]

Photograph 10. Phonetic symbol list (1/3)

發音記號

發音符號	規約假名	例	注意
ir	ア <sup>~</sup>	fir (フイア); bird (バ <sup>~</sup> ド)	= ēr, ūr
i	イ	ma-chine (マシ <sup>~</sup> ン)	= e
igh	アイ	high (ハイ); right (ライ)	= i
ign	アイン	sign (サイン)	= ine
ie	アイ	die (ダイ); lie (ライ)	= i
iē	イ	field (フィールド)	= ē
ion	ヨン	na'tion (ネイション) 國 H'on (オン)	ion 單綴の場合。
j	ヂ <sup>~</sup> 行	Ja-pan' (ジャパン)	ヂ <sup>~</sup> ザ <sup>~</sup> ヲ <sup>~</sup> ヱ <sup>~</sup> ゴ <sup>~</sup>
k	カ <sup>~</sup> 行	kick (キック)	カ <sup>~</sup> キ <sup>~</sup> タ <sup>~</sup> ケ <sup>~</sup> コ
l	ラ <sup>~</sup> 行	lake (レイク); will (ウィル)	ラ <sup>~</sup> リ <sup>~</sup> ラ <sup>~</sup> ロ <sup>~</sup> リ <sup>~</sup>
m	マ <sup>~</sup> 行	man (マン)	マ <sup>~</sup> ミ <sup>~</sup> ム <sup>~</sup> メ <sup>~</sup> モ
n	ナ <sup>~</sup> 行	no (ノー)	ナ <sup>~</sup> ニ <sup>~</sup> ネ <sup>~</sup> ノ
ng		sn (スイン[ス]) sing (シンク)	(ス)は發聲せず。 長崎のガ。
ō	オ <sup>~</sup> 行	no (ノー); old (オールド)	
ö	ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	on (オン); hot (ホット)	
öü	オ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	för (フォー); bürn (バーン)	= awr
öe	オ <sup>~</sup> エ <sup>~</sup> 行	pört (ポート); förcē (フォーシス)	
öre	オ <sup>~</sup> ア <sup>~</sup> 行	före (フォー); möre (モア)	= ü (テの符號は本書之 = öö [略してアとす])
ö	ア <sup>~</sup> 行	cöme (カム); sön (ソン)	= öö, u
ö	ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	dö (ド); möve (ムー)	= ö
ö	ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	wölf (ウルフ); wem'an (ウマン)	
oa, oe	オ <sup>~</sup> ア <sup>~</sup> 行	toe (ト); boat (ボート)	
oi, oy	オ <sup>~</sup> イ <sup>~</sup> 行	boy (ボー); boil (ブイ)	
oo	ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	soon (スーン); noon (ヌーン)	= u, ö
öü	ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	böök (ブーク); fööt (フット)	
ou	ア <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	out (アウト); loud (ラウド)	
ough	ア <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	bough (バウ)	
ought	オ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	nought (ナウト); bought (ボウト)	= aught
ow	ア <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	bow (ボウ); now (ノウ)	= ou
ow	オ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	böw (ブー); löw (ルー)	= ö
p	ピ <sup>~</sup> 行	pen (ペン)	ピ <sup>~</sup> ヒ <sup>~</sup> フ <sup>~</sup> ベ <sup>~</sup> プ
qu	ク <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	quite (クワイ); quail (クワイ)	ク <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup>
r	ラ <sup>~</sup> 行	rule (ルール); rüde (ルー)	ラ <sup>~</sup> と成らず。
s	サ <sup>~</sup> 行	sü (スイ)	サ <sup>~</sup> シ <sup>~</sup> ス <sup>~</sup> セ <sup>~</sup> ソ
t	タ <sup>~</sup> 行	tin (ティン); till (ティル)	タ <sup>~</sup> テ <sup>~</sup> ト <sup>~</sup> テ <sup>~</sup> ト <sup>~</sup>
th (清音)	チ <sup>~</sup> 行	think (シンク)	チ <sup>~</sup> テ <sup>~</sup> ト <sup>~</sup> テ <sup>~</sup> ト <sup>~</sup>
th (濁音)	ヂ <sup>~</sup> 行	this (ディス); that (ダット)	ヂ <sup>~</sup> テ <sup>~</sup> ト <sup>~</sup> テ <sup>~</sup> ト <sup>~</sup>

[ 8 ]

Photograph 11. Phonetic symbol list (2/3)

發音記號

發音符號	規約假名	例	注意
u	ウ	use (ユース); dü'ty (デュティ)	
ü	テ	us (アス); bug (ブグ)	(テの符號は本書之を = öö [略してアとす])
ru	ルー	rüde (ルー)	= öö, ö
u	ウ	put (プット); pull (プル); full (フル)	= öö, ir
ür	ア <sup>~</sup>	für (フール); türn (ターン)	
v	ヴ <sup>~</sup> 行	vör'y (ヴュー); vis'it (ヴィジット)	ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup>
w	ワ <sup>~</sup> 行	wait (ウェイト); will (ウィル)	ワ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup> ヴ <sup>~</sup>
wär	ウ <sup>~</sup> ア <sup>~</sup> 行	wärm (ウアム)	
wör	ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	work (ワーク); word (ワード)	= wüf
wön	ウ <sup>~</sup> ン	wön'der (ウンダー)	= wün
wh	ホ <sup>~</sup> リ <sup>~</sup> 行	what (ホウアット); why (ホワイ); who (フー)	ホ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> ホ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> フ <sup>~</sup> ホ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> ホ <sup>~</sup>
gw	エ <sup>~</sup> 行	gaw (ガウ)	= g
ew	ユ <sup>~</sup> 行	mew (ミュー)	= u
ew	ア <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	bow (ボウ)	= ou
öw	オ <sup>~</sup> ウ <sup>~</sup> 行	böw (ブー)	= o
x	ク <sup>~</sup> サ <sup>~</sup> 行	ox (オックス)	ク <sup>~</sup> サ <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> ス <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> ス <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> セ <sup>~</sup> ク <sup>~</sup> ソ
y	イ <sup>~</sup> 行	yéar (ユイア); yes (イエス)	ヤ <sup>~</sup> ユ <sup>~</sup> ユ <sup>~</sup> ユ <sup>~</sup> ユ <sup>~</sup>
ÿ	アイ	fly (フライ); try (トライ)	= i
ÿ	イ	dü'ty (デュティ); kind'ly (カインドリ)	= i
ay	エイ	say (セイ)	= ä
ey	エイ	they (テイ)	= ä
oy	オイ	boy (ボー)	
uy	ウイ	buy (バイ)	= i, y
z	ヅ <sup>~</sup> 行	zink (ズィンク)	ヅ <sup>~</sup> ズ <sup>~</sup> ズ <sup>~</sup> ズ <sup>~</sup> ズ <sup>~</sup>

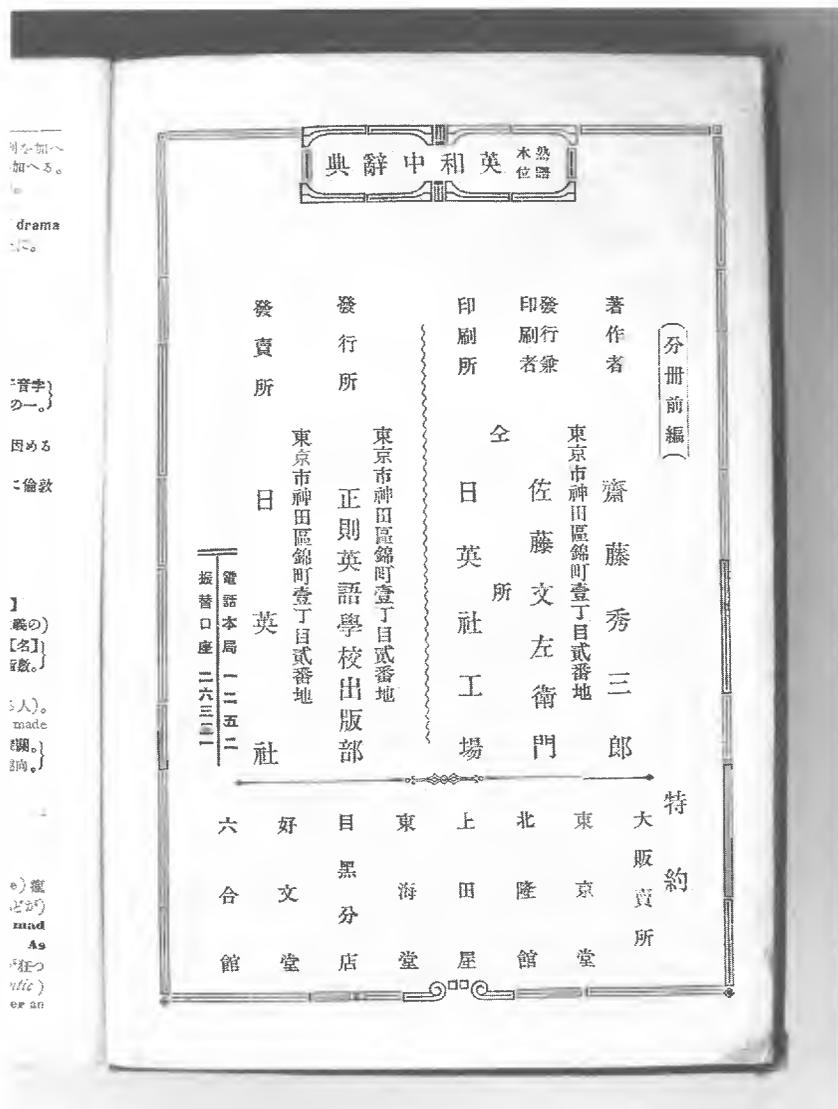
二綴以上の英語には必ず強音 (Accent) あり、之を示すには  
音節の始めの字音假名を黒文字とす。

dic'tion-a-ry    ディクシナリ    Ju-ly'    ジュライ  
gram'mar    グラムマ    en'ter    エンター  
con-ver-sa'tion    コンヴァーセイション    in-ter'    インター

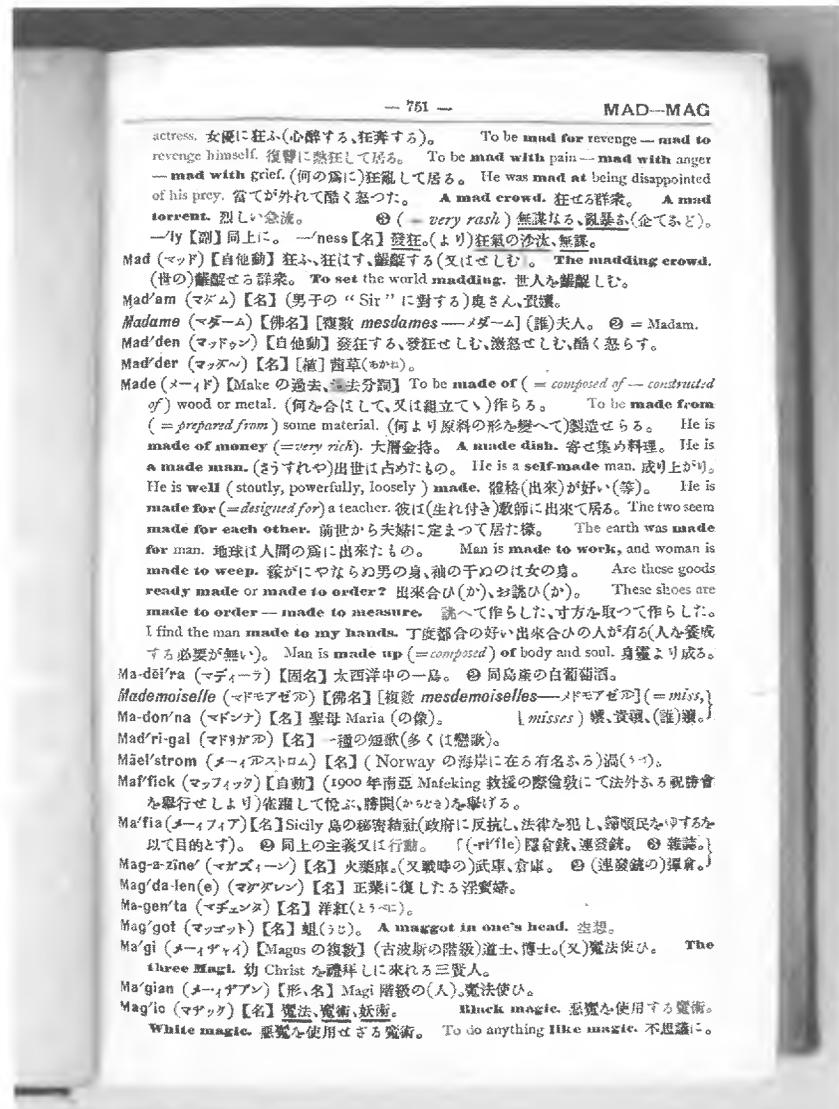
[ 9 ]

Photograph 12. Phonetic symbol list (3/3)

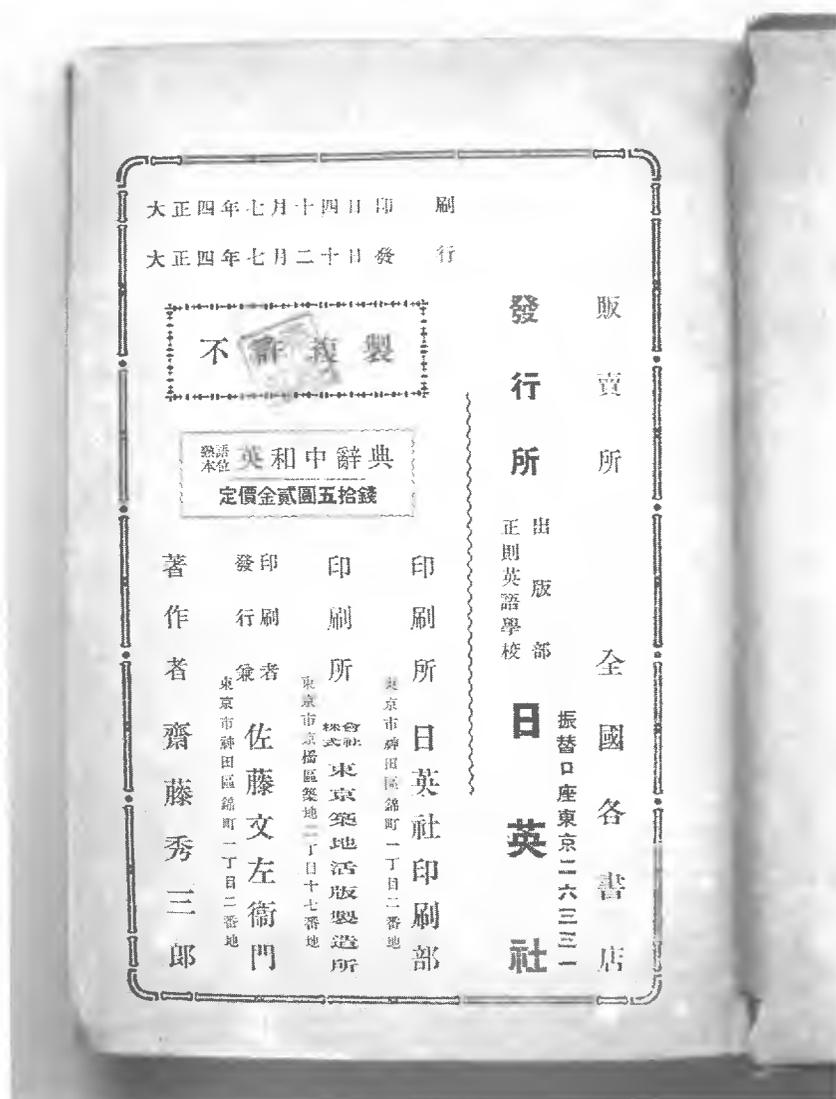




Photograph 15. The back matter (without any date of publication) of the first half of the dictionary

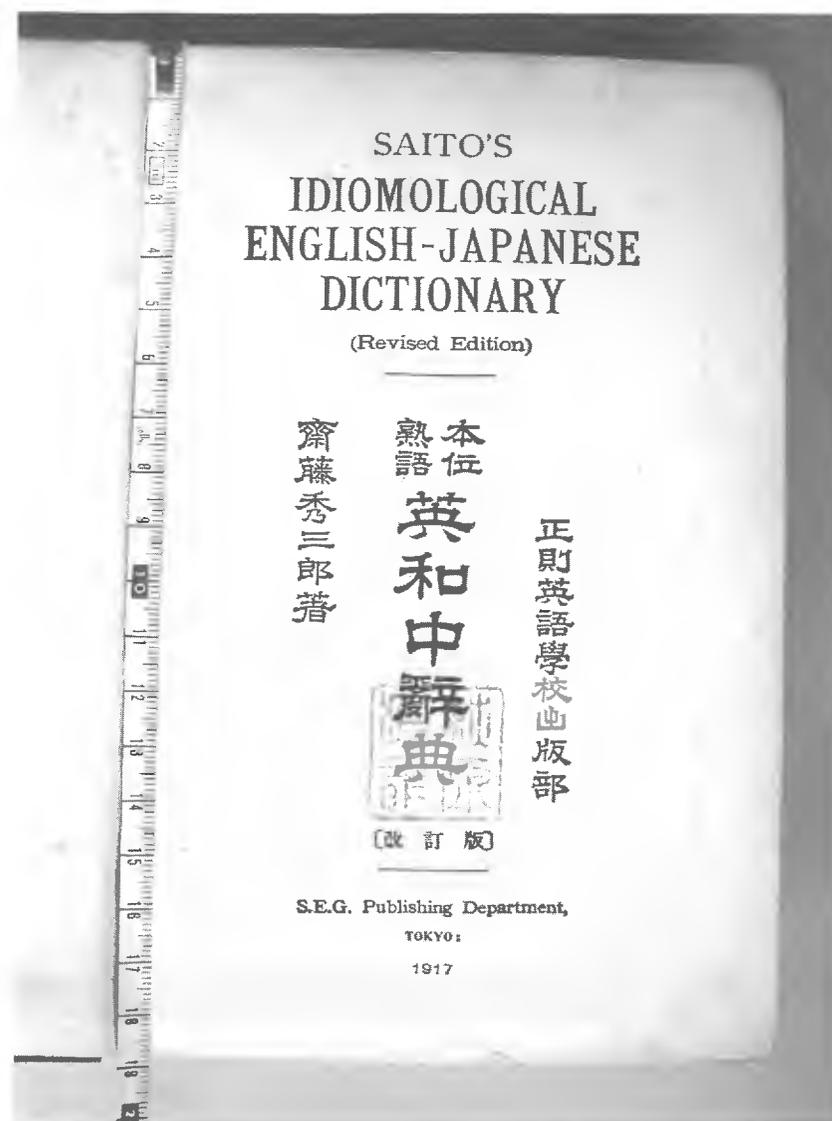


Photograph 16. The first page of the second half of the dictionary

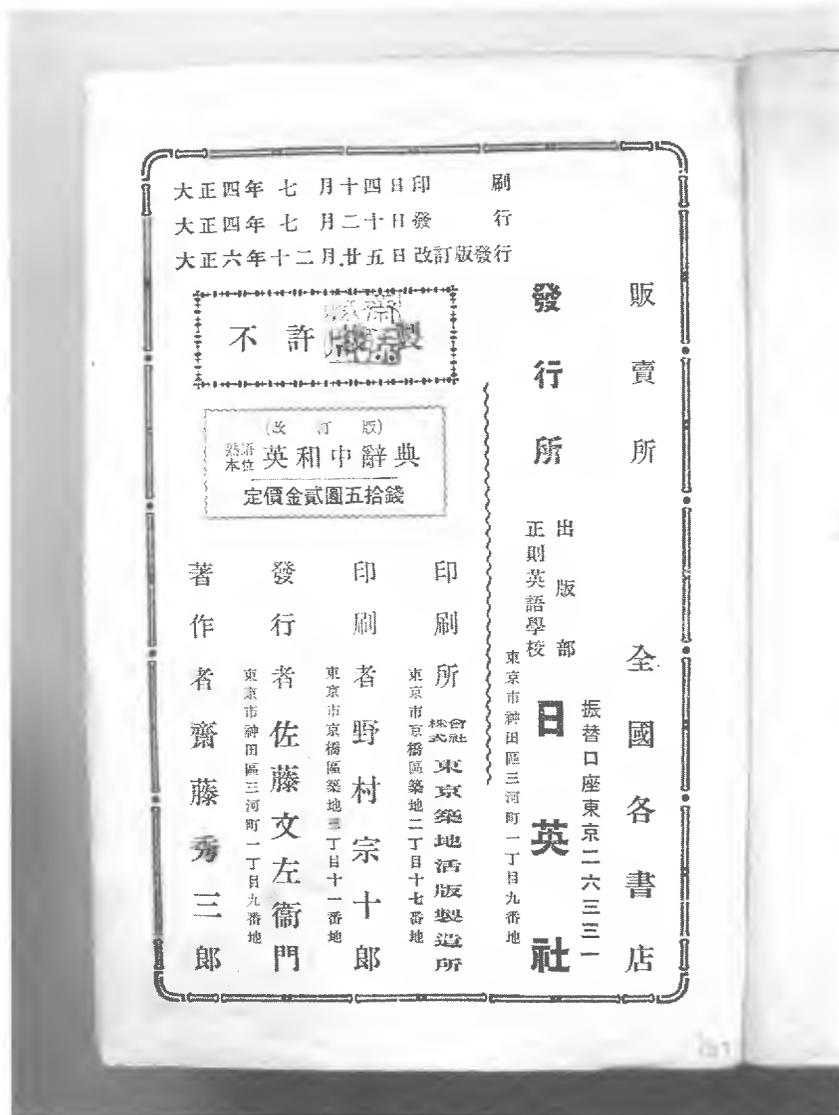


Photograph 17. The back matter (with the date of publication) of the second half of the dictionary

Appendix B: Photographs of Saito's *Idiomological English-Japanese Dictionary* (1917): the so-called revised edition

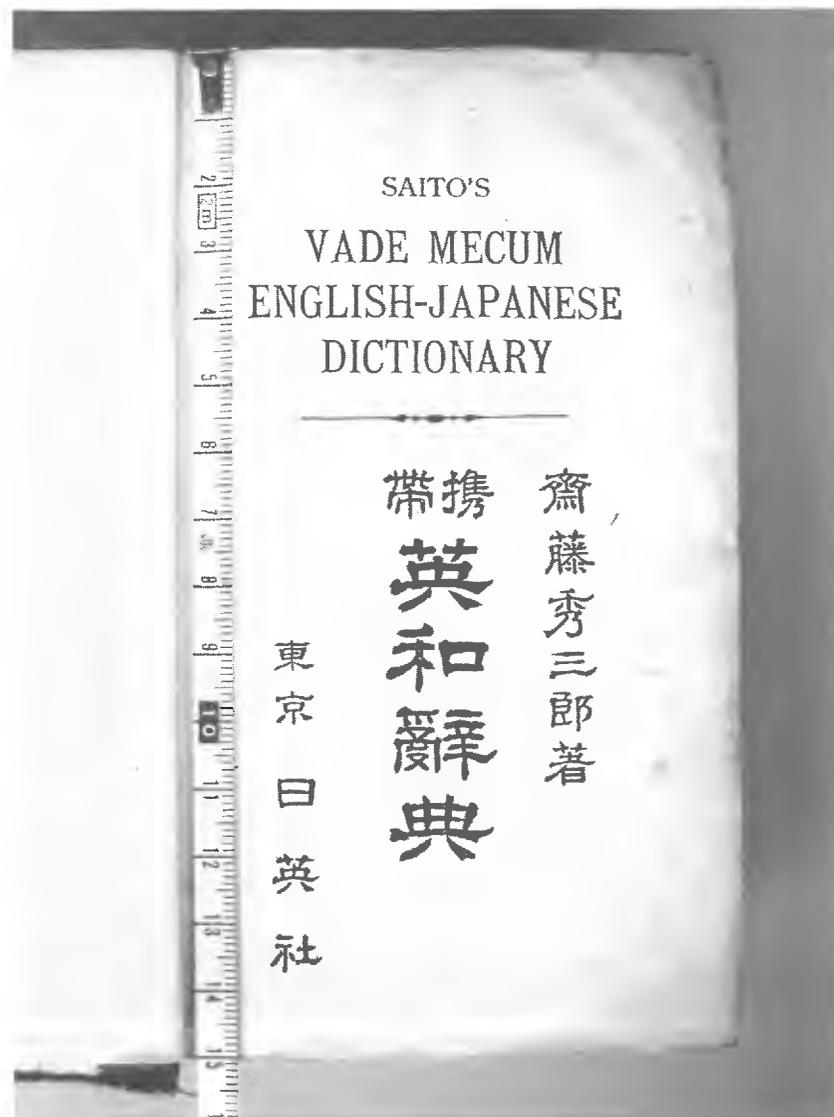


Photograph 18. Title page

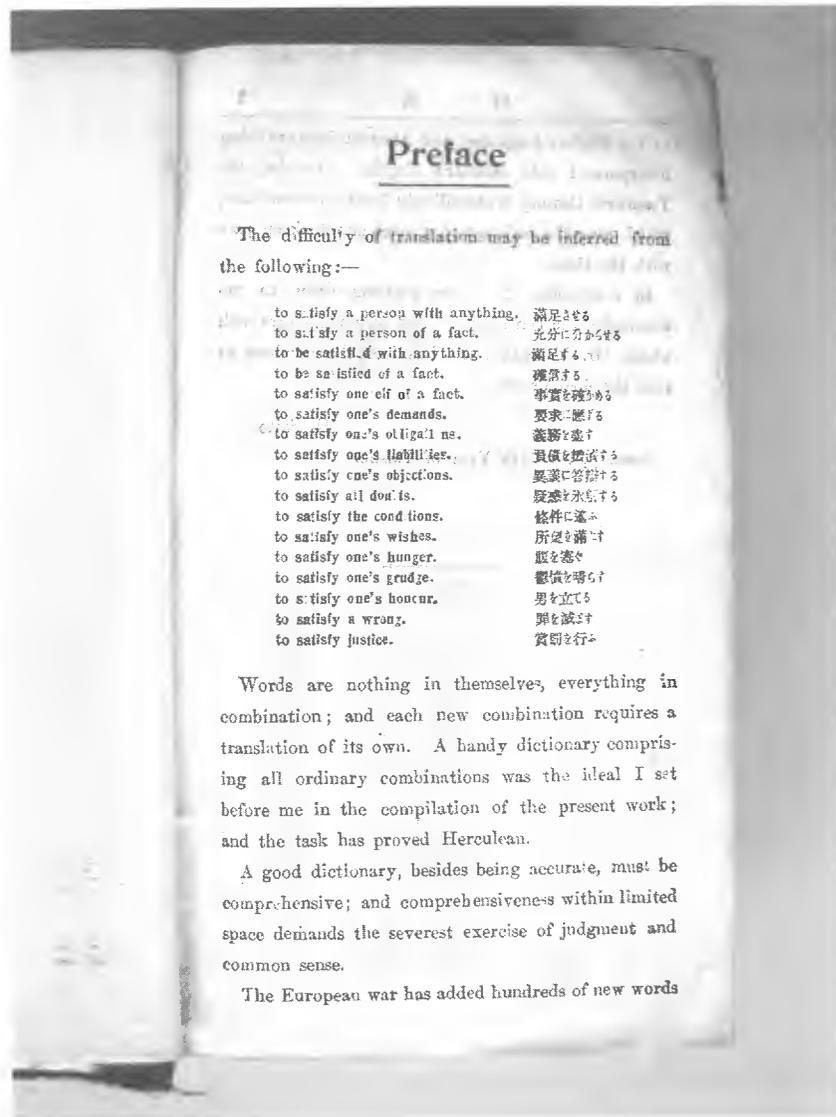


Photograph 19. Back matter (with the date of publication)

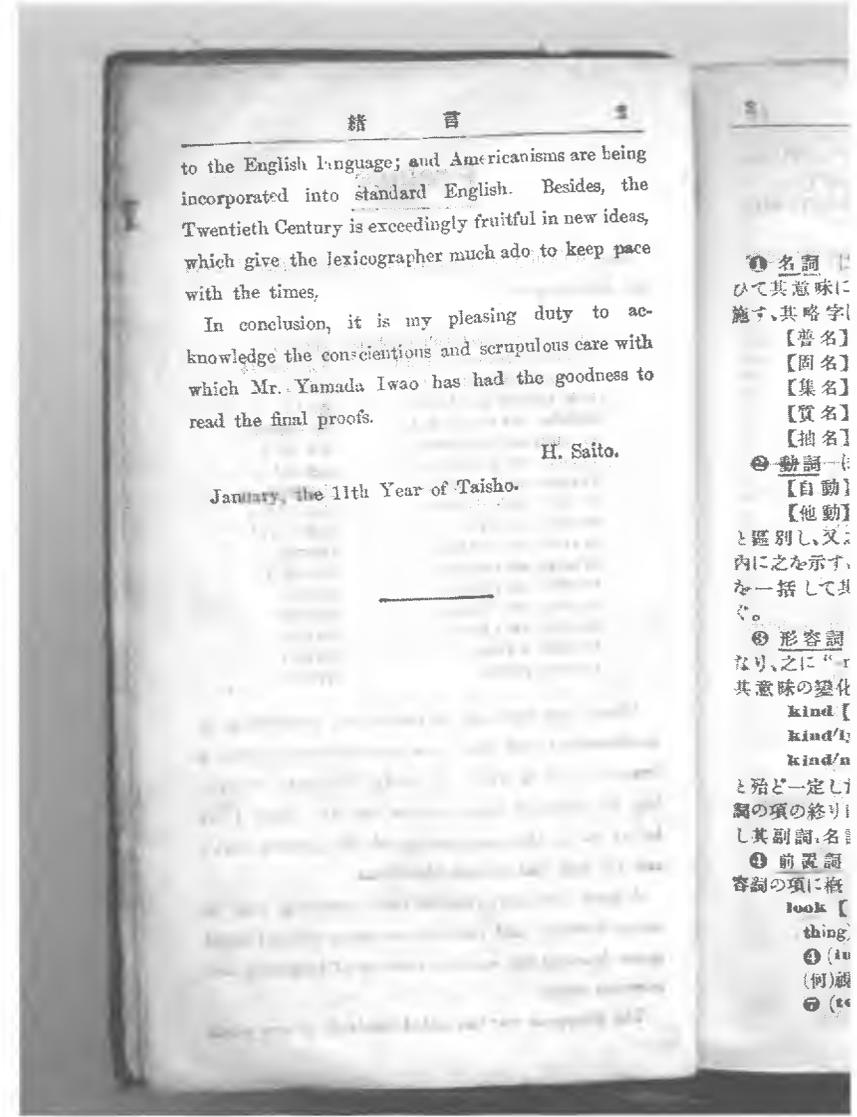
Appendix C: Photographs of Saito's *Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary* (1922)



Photograph 20. Title page of the dictionary



Photograph 21. Preface (1/2)



Photograph 22. Preface (2/2)



5 發音符號

存案	相當音	假名に表す	例
ei, ey	-i	エーイ	rein, they.
eight	-i	エーイ	eight, neigh.
ect	-i	イ	re-spect, de-scribe.
et	-i	イ	get, give, zo.
et	-i	チャ行	giant, page, village.
i	-i	アイ	fine, mile, like.
i	-i	イ	luk, kiss, will.
i	-i	イー	ma-chine.
igh	-i	アイ	high, right, sight.
ign	-ine	アイン	sign.
ie	-i	アイ	die, lie, tie.
ie	-e, ee	イー	field, stage.
ion	-ion, un	ヨン、エン	na-tion, oc-ca'sion.
ir	-er, ur	アヘ	fir, firm.
o	-o	オーウ	oo, old, own.
o	-o	オ	on, not, odd.
o	-h	ウア	o-ne, dove, son.
o	-oo	ウー	do, to, more.
o	-oo	ウ	wall, woman.
oa, oe	-o	オーウ	ho, to, boat.
oi, oy	-o	オイ	buy, toy, boil.
oo	-o	ウー	soo, soon, poor.
oo	-o	ウ	book, lock, good.
ou	-ou	アウ	out, loud.
ough	-ou	アウ	bough.
ought	-awt	オート	nought, bought.
ow	-ou	アウ	bow, now.
ow	-o	オーウ	bow, low.
or	-awr	オー(ア)	lor, lor, born.
or	-ore	オー(ア)	port, force.
ore	-o	オーア	move, fore.
ph	-f	フア行	telegraph, telephone.
qu	-kw	クワ行	quite, quill.
sh	-sh	シャ行	show, shine, wish.
th	-th	ツア行	think, thick, thank.
th	-th	ツア行	this, that, they.
u	-yoo	ユー	use, duty.
u	-oo	ウア	us, bus, but.
u	-oo	ウ	put, pull, full.
ru	-roo	ルー	rule, rude.
ur	-er, ir	アヘ	fur, burn, turn.
war	-wawr	ウア(ア)	wag, warm.
wor	-wur	ウアヘ	work, word, worm.

Photograph 25. Phonetic symbol list (2/3)

6 發音符號

存案	相當音	假名に表す	例
wou	-wüa	ウウン	wout, wou'der.
wh	-hw	ホウ行	what, white, when.
aw	-a, au	オー	saw, raw.
ew	-ü	ユー	few, new.
ow	-ou	アウ	bow, how, now.
ow	-o	オーウ	bow, low.
y	-i	アイ	sky, try, fly.
y	-i	イ	la'dy, du'ty, kind'ly.
ay	-ä	エーイ	säy, däy, mäy.
ey	-ä	エーイ	they.
ey	-e	イー	key.
oy	-o	オイ	boy, toy.
uy	-o	アイ	buy.

二投以上の英語には必ず重音 (Accent) あり、之を示すには重音符の終りに重音符 (') を附す、例へば

**gram'mar dic'tion-ary con-fer-sa'tion**

Photograph 26. Phonetic symbol list (3/3)

V.  
ENGLIS  
携

A, a (5y) 五  
a (單據に發音し  
たとき讀むるは) I  
a (-one)  
a day or two  
a (-the sa  
a (-a cert  
ming of part  
a (名も無き  
て云ふ人(例へば  
知つて居るか)  
(誰かの) 知人  
ある)。 a  
少数の。一  
a (例へば a  
— I passed  
面白く二時  
a (A) 【前置  
口三度。一  
a (a) 【接頭  
加ふ。例へば  
— on board.  
A (a wän)  
(何の) 第一  
nard-värk



Photograph 27. Dictionary text, page 1

## Book Review

G. Stein: *Better Words: Evaluating EFL Dictionaries*  
(University of Exeter Press, 2002)

KAZUO DOHI

Professor Stein is one of the most energetic and active scholars in the field of lexicography. The book that includes her articles and papers for the last twenty years or so is regrettably “the last volume in the Exeter Language and Lexicography series” (Foreword, vii), following McArthur’s *Living Words* (1998) and Osselton’s *Chosen Words* (1995). It is recommended for those students who are fascinated in EFL dictionaries during the latter half of the twentieth century. The genre of EFL dictionaries is one of the most rapidly growing and changing fields in lexicography.

The book consists of some articles originally printed in a journal of lexicography, such as *Dictionaries: Journal of The Dictionary Society of North America* or *International Journal of Lexicography*. It also includes the lecture originally given on the occasion of the inauguration of the Dictionary Research Centre at Exeter. There are also included some slightly revised versions of the original articles in journals or international conferences. They are not necessarily given in chronological order, but shown from the general to more specific ones. Most of the papers give footnotes at the end so that readers are referred to other new books or recent articles on the subjects for later development in the last quarter twentieth century.

The book would be recommended for lexicography class students but require them to catch up with the later development, without which they could not grasp the progressive development of EFL dictionaries in the latter half of the century, especially since the 1970s to the present day. Not

only careful reading of the articles but also examination or follow-up study of the later transition would enable them to be fully aware that dictionaries may have solved some problems or endeavored to deal with needs of foreign learners, but that there still remains much to be improved or discussed for dictionary users to be familiar with them.

For example, Professor Stein discusses the topic of coded grammatical information in the first edition of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1978), which in its revised editions has undergone radical or gradual changes of presentation. This change is largely due to dictionary criticism or heated discussion and careful examination of users' reference skills and needs. Most of the EFL dictionaries, consequently, have come to be more conscious of, and cope with, user-friendliness. Another aspect she discusses is word formation and their treatment in some dictionaries. How EFL dictionaries tackle the problem has been discussed in journals, articles or conferences, but it is still doubtful whether the topic has been seriously taken into account or the discussions have attracted much attention from lexicographers or publishers. Readers or students interested in dictionaries, especially the remarkable genre of EFL dictionaries, are reminded that they carefully read Professor Stein's articles and examine critically how the problems discussed are later to be dealt with, or remain unchanged.

A number of lexicographical studies in the last twenty years or so have made a great contribution to lexicography in theory and practice. But it does not mean that all the problems in lexicography or dictionary making are resolved and there is nothing to be desired. Rather, it seems that we still have a long way to go. The twenty-first century may see more change in dictionary format and dictionary content itself. All readers of the book are encouraged to focus on and tackle the lexicographical problems in theory and practice.

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### 編集後記

*Lexicon* も創刊 32 年を迎え学会に完全に認められるようになったが、最近少々気になる傾向が見られるようになった。それは本誌の特色である辞書の 'team review' の執筆者のメンバーのなかに原稿の締切に間に合わない人がしばしば現れるようになったことである。当然のことながら teamwork は担当する部門の原稿が全部出揃わなければ掲載できない。従って正直に執筆期限を守った執筆者は大変な迷惑を蒙ることになる(理科系の場合は致命的なことさえあると聞く)。teamwork のリーダー格となった方は部門別の執筆者の人選に十分気を配っていただきたい。大学の変革によって雑務が非常に増えたことはやむをえないが、忙しくても頑張っている人は結構いるのである。ぜひ信頼できる研究者を確保するよう平生から努めてもらいたい。

それと、これは昨年号の編集後記にも書いたことであるが、単著の論文が少ない。非常勤の人で研究の成果を発表する場を持たない人はぜひ *Lexicon* に投稿していただきたい。本誌は当初からそういう研究者の卵を育てることも目的としていたのである。

(S. T.)