LEXICON
No. 35　　　　　　　2005

LEXICON No. 35   2005

An Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Fourth Edition

YASUO ICHIKAWA　　ATSUKO SHIMIZU
RUMI TAKAHASHI　　TAKASHI KANAZASHI
YASUTAKE ISHII

1.　Introduction

"The new *LDOCE* is a magnificent culmination of innovative energetic research along with computational techniques that are married to well-honed educational and lexicographical skills." (Foreword by Randolph Quirk, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,* New Edition)

The indispensability of computer-based works in the compilation of the

dictionary and the importance of the accompanying CD-ROM of the New Edition can be easily seen in the names given to the jobs allocated in the compilation, such as *Corpus and CD-ROM Development, Computational Linguist and CD-ROM Project Management, Project and Databases Administrator*, and *CD-ROM Development* cited in the Acknowledgements of the new edition of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* [LDOCE4]. They are all new works required to the compilation of this dictionary.

The catchwords — THE LIVING DICTIONARY, FULL COLOUR THROUGHOUT, INNOVATIVE CD-ROM — on the back cover of the new edition of LDOCE truly catch the reader's eye. Coordinated with the foreword partly cited above, they give us a glimpse of the significant features of the new LDOCE4. Full-colour printing has undoubtedly increased the ease of using the dictionary; the word to be looked up immediately leaps out. The 3,000 most common English words are printed in red; related words are printed in black against a purple background in a WORD FOCUS BOX, which is a completely new feature, and in a WORD CHOICE BOX. Collocations are in a light blue box. Graphs which show the frequency of given words have a pink background. The CD-ROM provides dictionary users with a tremendous amount of information about living English, and the very use of the CD-ROM makes us feel that this really is a living dictionary. This new dictionary with a CD-ROM seems to set a course that EFL dictionaries in the present and future Information Age should take.

It is pointed out in the Introduction that LDOCE4 has been compiled to achieve the consistent aim of making the dictionary more helpful for advanced level students of English, and for that purpose examples and collocations receive a greater focus and the inclusion of the CD-ROM assists this.

Only by comparing "How to use the dictionary" in the new edition with "Guide to the Dictionary" in the previous edition, can we probably say that this aim has been mostly achieved: the structure and main features of the new edition are very clearly presented. New numerical values such as S2 and W2 behind the entry word indicate how important the word is. Warning notes, which must be based on error analysis, are very helpful to

understand the proper usage of certain words. Marks such as =, ≠, → are also very useful and effective to show synonyms, antonyms, related words, and so on. Needless to say, a close examination of the main aspects of the dictionary is essential for a fair assessment of the dictionary.

We will compare nine aspects of the dictionary — entries, pronunciation, definition, examples, language notes, grammatical information, collocations, word focus/word choice, and illustrations — mainly with those of the previous edition and partly with those of other competing dictionaries. We will examine the CD-ROM itself and if necessary each aspect mentioned above will be checked on the basis of the information given by the CD-ROM. We will also include in this analysis the results of user-research to check the user-friendliness of this dictionary. We hope that this analysis will give a fair appreciation of LDOCE4 and can contribute to the further improvement of it and the making of the ideal EFL dictionary.

2. Entries

In this chapter, we will examine the following topics: (1) a comparison of the number of entries based on a limited sampling from LDOCE3 and LDOCE4, (2) differences in the treatment of entry words in both editions, (3) a brief comparison of the way in which entry words are treated in LDOCE4 and other competing EFL dictionaries, and (4) a comparison of the treatment of the graphs in both editions.

2.1. Comparison of the number of antries

LDOCE4 claims to contain "106,000 words and phrases", which is a 32.5% increase over the LDOCE3 listing of "over 80,000 words and phrases". Considering the 19.4% increase of pages allocated for entries in the fourth edition (i.e. LDOCE3 has 1,668 pages while LDOCE4 has 1,992 pages), LDOCE4 must have either contrived to use the limited space economically or used the CD-ROM edition effectively to contain many more entries. We have counted the entries in the following four parts of each dictionary, i.e. **A**[1] — **account**[2], **edgy** — **embroider, manic depression** — **Mason jar**, and **set**[2] — **shave**[1], which both editions con-

Table 1   Number of entry words

	LDOCE3	LDOCE4	Plus/Minus
Headwords	1029	1114	+85 (+8.3%)
Idioms & Phrases	224	218	−6 (−2.7%)
Phrasal verbs	32	35	+3 (+9.4%)
Derived words	180	173	−7 (−3.4%)
Total	1465	1540	+75 (+5.1%)

tain. Each part occupies almost 10 pages in every 500 pages, totaling nearly 40 pages in all, roughly 2% of 1,992 pages of LDOCE4. Table 1 above is the result.

According to this table, LDOCE4 has increased its words and phrases only 5.1%, which shows a significant gap between the acclaimed number and what we have counted. One of the conceivable causes of this discrepancy may be the inclusion of the number of entry words on the CD-ROM, which contains additional 182 headwords in the above-cited parts of the dictionary. The inclusion increases the percentage of entry words and phrases to 17.5% (i.e. LDOCE3: 1,465; LDOCE4: 1,722). There is still, however, a considerable gap. If we limit the number to that of headwords and derived words, the inclusion increases the percentage to 21.5% (i.e. LDOCE3: 1,209; LDOCE4: 1,469). If we further limit the number to only that of headwords, the inclusion increases the percentage to 25.9% (i.e. LDOCE3: 1,029; LDOCE4: 1,296). Judging from this data, LDOCE4's assertion as to the number of entries must be based on the number of words and phrases contained on the CD-ROM edition.

2.2. Differences in the treatment of entry words

2.2.1. According to an analysis of the previous edition (Urata *et al.* 1999: 69), the addition of many "headwords" and "phrases and idioms" contributed to the increase of the number of entries in LDOCE3. However, as we have seen above, the number of idioms and phrases has not increased much in LDOCE4. So we will next focus on the increase of the number of headwords and derived words and the treatment of them in both editions.

In our sampling there are 39 headwords which were contained in

LDOCE3 but have been omitted in LDOCE4, out of which 25 headwords (acc., according as, accordion[2] (*adj*), effectuate, efflux, Electra complex, electric eel, electric eye, embrocation, mantilla, mapping, anti-Marketeer/pro-Marketeer, marmoreal, maroon[3] (*n*), settle[2] (*n*), sex-linked, sexology, sexploitation, sexpot, shad, shadow puppet, shallow[2] (*v*), sharper) have been omitted in LDOCE4. Five of them (abnormally, accidentally, electrification, embitter, emboss) have been demoted and treated as derived words and another five (electric blanket, manual labor, manual worker, mashed potato, shaped) have been included as examples in LDOCE4. Two of them (ABC[2], manor house) have been included as part of the significance of the headword, and another two (elbow-room, severance pay) have been treated as phrases and included as a part of the meaning.

The integration of headwords (A, above, either) has partly contributed to only a slight increase in the number of headwords in LDOCE4. For example, there are three headwords for *above* (i.e. above[1] (*prep*); above[2] (*adv*); above[3] (*adj*)) in LDOCE3 while only two of them (above[1] (*adv, prep*) and above[2] (*adj*)) appear as headwords in LDOCE4. Though three headwords (about-turn, mantel, mantelshelf) were separate headwords in LDOCE3, they are included with other headwords (about-face and mantelpiece) in LDOCE4. Two headwords (Maoism, Marshal of the Royal Air Force) are only included in the CD-ROM edition.

In our samples there are 89 headwords which have been newly added to LDOCE4. Four of them (A3, A4, Mason, seventh[2]) have been separated from the word meaning of other headwords, one of them (marital status) has been separated from the example, and another ten of them (abolition, editorial[1] (*adj*), egotist, elasticity, email[2] (*v*), embittered, emblazoned, manicurist, Marxist[2] (*n*), severance) have been raised to headwords from derived words. All the other headwords, which follow, have been newly added as headwords in LDOCE4: A&E, A5, AAA, aargh, abaya, abs, absolute[2] (*n*), absolute majority, academe, accepted, access course, accessorize, access provider, access road, accident and emergency, EDI, editorialize, -edu, educable, educative, e-fatigue, e-fit, eggnog, ego trip, Eid, 8, elasticated, electric blue, electronica, electronic banking, electronic

cash, electronic data interchange, electronic funds transfer, electronic money, electronic organizer, electronic publishing, electronic signature, electronic tagging, electronic ticketing, electron microscope, eleventh[1] (adj), elete[2] (adj), embossed, manifest[3] (n), mano a mano, manorial, Manx cat, man-year, maraschino cherry, marathoner, marcher, market share, markka, marl, marmot, Marxist[1] (adj), mashed, set-aside, sett, set-top box, sewage works, sewn, sex discrimination, sex industry, sex tourism, sexual orientation, sexual politics, sex worker, SGML, shadow economy, shareholding, share-out, sharp shooter, sharp-tongued. It is worth mentioning here that the percentage of the compounds accounts for nearly 45%, which is a considerable increase, though less than that shown in the analysis of the previous edition (cf. Urata *et al.* 1999: 68).

In our sampling there are 180 derived words in LDOCE3: abandonment, abasement, abatement, abbreviated, abdication, abdominal, abductor, abduction, abjectly, abjection, abjuration, -ably [-*ibly*], **abolition**, abominably, abrasively, abridge (v), abridgement, abrogation, abruptly, abruptness, absent-mindedly, absent-mindedness, abstainer, abstemiously, abstemiousness, abstinent, abstractedly, abstrusely, abstruseness, absurdity, abusively, abusiveness, abysmally, academically, accentuation, acceptably, acceptability, accessibly, accessibility, acclimatization, edification, edit (n), **editorial** (adj), effectiveness, effectually, effeminacy, effeminately, effervescence, effetely, efficaciously, efficiently, effing (adv), effortlessly, **effulgent**, effusively, effusiveness, egalitarianism, egocentrically, egocentricity, egoist, egoistic, egomania, egotistically, **egotist**, egregiously, eighth, ejaculation, ejection, elaborately, elaborateness, elaboration, **elasticity**, electrically, electrifying, electrified, electrocution, electromagnetic, electronically, elegantly, elegance, elicitation, elision, eligibility, elitism, elitist, Elizabethan, elocutionary, elocutionist, elongation, elopement, eloquently, eloquence, elucidation, elucidatory, elusively, elusiveness, emaciation, **e-mail** (v), emanation, emancipation, emasculation, embalmer, embarkation, embarrassingly, embellishment, embezzlement, embezzler, **embittered**, emblematically, **embossed** (adj), embroidered, manic-depressive, manicure, **manicurist**, manifestly, manipulation, manliness, mannishly, manoeuvrability, **manorial**, man-to-man, manually,

manual work, manure (v), Maoist, Maori, map-reader, marauder, markedly, marketability, market gardener, maroon[1], marriageability, marshy, Martian, marvellously, **Marxist** (n), masher, masochist, masochistic, seventh (*number*), seventieth, **severance**, severally, severity, sexagenarian, sexist, sexologist, sexually, sexily, sexiness, shabbily, shabbiness, shagginess, shakily, shakiness, shallowly, shallowness, shamanism, shamefacedly, shamefully, shamefulness, shamelessly, shamelessness, shapelessly, shapelessness, shapeliness, sharing, sharpness. 12 of them (i.e. the words in bold face) have been raised to headwords in LDOCE4, and 27 (i.e. the underlined words) have been omitted in LDOCE4. The rest of them are also contained as derived words in LDOCE4.

The following 32 words have been newly added as derived words in LDOCE4: abductee, abnormally, abridgment, accidentally, accordionist, editorially, educationally, eerily, effulgence, egotistic, eighteenth, eighth (*pron*), eightieth, electorally, electric blue (adj), electrification, eleventh, embitter, emblazon, emboss, marginalized, marginalization, marketeering, marsupial, mashed, masochistically, seventeenth, seventh, severity, sex offence [sex offense], sex tourist. And seven of them (i.e. the underlined words) have been demoted from headwords. Here the treatment of *embitter* and *emboss* as run-on sub-headwords, with *embittered* and *embossed* being given as headwords in LDOCE4 may deserve special mention here because it shows one clear example of the improvement over LDOCE3, where the two verbs were given as headwords and the adjectives were treated as run-on derivatives. We can see from the Examples bank on the CD-ROM that their adjectival uses are more common, and that must be one reason for the reversed treatment.

2.2.2.   LDOCE4 states in its user's guide, entitled "How to use the dictionary," (pp. xii-xvii) that "If a word is used in a large number of phrases in spoken English, these phrases are shown together in a box . . . ," which has been made possible by "our extensive corpora of British and American spontaneous speech." (Introduction, p. xi) Here we will assess the treatment of spoken phrases in both editions. LDOCE4 has spoken phrase boxes under the following 40 headwords: **all**[2] (adv), **ask**, **beat**[1] (v),

believe, come, day, fair, forget, **get**, good[1] (*adj*), **have**[2] (*v*), **hear**, **heaven**, here, how, just, keep[1] (*v*), know[1] (*v*), let[1] (*v*), like[2] (*v*), look[1] (*v*), **mean**[1] (*v*), mind[2] (*v*), minute[1] (*n*), **nice**, **no**[1] (*adv*), now[1] (*adv*), **real**[1] (*adj*), really, say[1] (*v*), **story**, suppose, tell, **that**[1] (*determiner pron*), **there**[2] (*adv*), think[1] (*v*), **this**[1] (*determiner pron*), way[1] (*n*), **what**, **why**[1] (*adv, conjunction*). Spoken phrase boxes under the 18 headwords in bold face are newly added in LDOCE4, and those under the other 22 headwords are contained in both editions. Of these boxes appearing in both editions, the total number of spoken phrases in LDOCE3 is 266, while in LDOCE4 it is 259. The slight decrease in number may depend partly on the subtle difference in the selection of spoken phrases in both editions and partly on the fact that we have counted spoken uses as well as spoken phrases which are both contained in the boxes for **just**[1] and **look**[1] only in LDOCE3. In LDOCE4, phrases in the spoken phrase boxes of the 27 underlined words are printed in blue, but the others are printed in black apparently for no particular reason, which should be corrected.

In the box under **all**[2] in LDOCE4, for example, five phrases (*that's sb all over, be all in, sb was all . . . , not all that, sb/sth is not all that*) and their meanings are shown in addition to the headword on its own meaning *very*. Furthermore, several other spoken phrases labeled as *spoken* are presented in the sections dealing with phrasal verbs (e.g. *come on!* and *come on in/over/up etc* s.v. *come on*) and other places (e.g. *I hope so, I hope not, I'm hoping, I hope (that), I should hope so (too)/I should hope not* s.v. **hope**[1] (*v*), and *not a hope!, not a hope in hell (of doing sth), some hope/what a hope!* s.v. **hope**[2] (*n*)). But *come in!* and *look out!*, both in a spoken phrase box, are also phrasal verbs, in which case users might be confused as regards the section they should refer to.

The following are headwords under which there are boxes for spoken phrases or/and spoken uses in LDOCE3 but not in LDOCE4: bet[1] (*v*), better[1], bit[1] (*n*), certainly, close[2] (*adj*), dead[1] (*adj*), else, exactly, eye[1] (*n*), hope[1] (*v*), pardon[2] (*v*), point[1] (*n*), quite, right[1] (*adj*), so[1] (*adv*), something, sorry, sort[1] (*n*), take[1] (*v*), talk[1] (*v*), thing, want[1] (*v*), watch[1] (*v*), wrong[1] (*adj*). Judging from the fact that phrases in headwords such as **story**, **that**[1], and **there**[2] are newly treated in the spoken phrase boxes in LDOCE4

probably because they had many phrases labeled 'spoken' in LDOCE3, it seems better to group together phrases under headwords such as **hope**[1] and **pardon**[2] in spoken phrase boxes as well in LDOCE4. Under **this**[1] in LDOCE4, there is a box specified only as 'spoken phrases', but it may be better to be specified as "spoken uses and phrases" as in LDOCE3, though it may spoil the desired unification of the description.

2.3. Comparison of the treatment of entry words

2.3.1. We have also counted the headwords and the derived words in two parts (i.e **A**[1] — **account**[2], and **manic depression — Mason jar**) in LDOCE4 and other competing EFL dictionaries (i.e. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the 6th edition, Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the New edition,* and *COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary, the 4th edition*). There are 81 words[1] which are contained in LDOCE4 but not in OALD6, while there are 19 words[2] which are contained in OALD6 but not in LDOCE4. There are 91 words[3] which are contained in LDOCE4 but not in CALD, while there are 46 words[4] which are contained in CALD but not in LDOCE4. There are 117 words[5] which are contained in LDOCE4 but not in COBUILD4, while there are 19 words[6] which are contained in COBUILD4 but not in LDOCE4.

The following 41 entry words are all contained in LDOCE4, but not in any of the other three dictionaries: a-, A-1, A3, A5, abaya, abbr., abductee, abed, abnegation, abode (the past tense of ABIDE), abstemiousness, abusiveness, academic year*, accelerando, accessibly, accordionist, mannishly, mano a mano, -manship, (also man-size), man-year, map-reading, map-reader, marabou (marabout), marathoner (also marathon runner), marginalized, mariachi, market day*, market-driven*, market economy, market-led*, marketmaker, marriage lines, marriage vow, Marseillaise, marsh gas, maser, masochistically, Mason jar. The nine underlined words are contained as derived words in LDOCE4 and the four asterisked words are not headwords but examples in OALD6.

The following 50 entry words are all contained in LDOCE4 but not in two of the three dictionaries: aargh, abalone, abo, able seaman, A-bomb, above board, abs, absinth, abstinent, abusively, a/c, accented, accepted,

access provider, accidental death, acclaimed, (also piano accordion), manifest (*n*), man-of-war, mansard (also mansard roof), (also mantelshelf), mantle (*v*), man-to-man (*adv*), manure (*v*), many-sided, Mar (also Mar.), maracas, maraschino, maraschino cherry, margarita, marimba, Marine Corps, market value, markka (*plural* markkaa), marl, marlin, marmot, marriage licence (marriage license), marriage of convenience, marshalling yard, marsh gas, marsupial (*adj*), marten, Mason-Dixon line. The five underlined words are derived words in LDOCE4.

There is only one entry word that is contained in all the other three dictionaries but not in LDOCE4, and that is **abatement**.[7] Eight entry words — abdominals, absorbed, abuzz, Academy Award (also Oscar), margin of error, (also marihuana), market gardening — are contained in two of the three dictionaries but not in LDOCE4, in which *absorbed* and *margin of error* are examples or a part of the definition, and **Academy Award** (also **Oscar**) is on the CD-ROM. Some other words (e.g. **Maoism, Maoist, Marshal of the Royal Air Force, absurdist**) which are contained in at least one of other dictionaries cited above but not in LDOCE4 can be found on the CD-ROM edition.

From this brief comparison it can be said that LDOCE4 has the greatest number of entry words compared with the three competing dictionaries.

2.3.2.   Let us now look briefly at the way in which headwords, the conjugation of verbs, the plural form of nouns and so on are presented in each dictionary. Concerning the headwords, the main difference is the numbering of identical headwords, which only LDOCE4 employs. For example, in LDOCE4, **market**[1] is used for the noun and **market**[2] is used for the verb. In OALD6, the parts of speech (e.g. noun, verb, and so on) are put together after phonetic symbols, and the definitions of *market* come after the small square box in that order. In CALD, the headwords are placed repeatedly according to their meanings without being given different numbers, and in COBUILD4 the headword is shown only once and its different parts of speech are shown on the right margin in small letters. As to an alternative spelling of a headword, LDOCE4, OALD6,

and CALD use almost the same style in which British spelling comes before American spelling, but slightly different terms are used for each of them. For example, the headword **marvellous** is presented as [marvellous *BrE*; marvelous *AmE*], [marvellous (*BrE*) (*AmE* marvelous)], and [marvellous *UK, US* marvelous] in LDOCE4, OALD6, and CALD respectively. In COBUILD4, there are notes following *marvellous* on alternative forms like "in AM, use marvelous" in a box. In LDOCE4 and COBUILD4, a different color is used for each spelling, but in OALD6 and CALD they are printed in the same color. Let us look at another similar example, **marginalize**. It is put in the following different ways [marginalize also -ise *BrE*], [marginalize (*BrE* also -ise)], and [marginalize, *UK USUALLY* -ise], and [marginalize (marginalizes, marginalizing, marginalized) "in BRIT, also use marginalise"] in the four dictionaries respectively. As to the derived word **marginalization**, LDOCE4 does not give the British spelling, but OALD6 and CALD give [marginalization, -isation] and [marginalization, *UK USUALLY* -isation] respectively. COBUILD4 does not contain this sub-headword. As to the conjugation, as is shown above, COBUILD4 gives the third person singular present form, the present participle form, and the past participle form for every verb, while the other three dictionaries adopt a much simpler style. For example, LDOCE4 gives [mapped, mapping], [marred, marring], OALD6 and CALD give [map *verb* -pp-] [mar *verb* -rr-], and COBUILD4 gives [(maps, mapping, mapped)] [(mars, marring, marred)] for the headword **map** and **mar**. For the irregular verb **arise** OALD6 and CALD give only [arose, arisen] and LDOCE4 gives [*past tense* arose *past participle* arisen], while COBUILD4 gives [arises, arising, arose, arisen]. With regard to verbs ending with consonant +y such as **cry** and **study**, LDOCE4 adopts two different ways, i.e. [*past tense and past participle* cried, *present participle* crying, *third person singular* cries] and [studied, studying, studies], while OALD6 gives [cries, crying, cried, cried] and [studies, studying, studied, studied]. COBUILD4 gives [cries, crying, cried] and [studies, studying, studied], but CALD does not show any conjugations. As to the plural forms of nouns, COBUILD4 cites plural forms for every noun, while the other three dictionaries only cite plural forms for nouns that

have altered spelling in plural forms. However, among the three dictionaries, the method of giving plural forms for nouns ending in a consonant followed by -y is different. For example LDOCE4 cites '*plural* academies' for **academy**, OALD6 gives only (*pl.* -ies), but CALD gives no information about the plural form of it. As to comparative forms, all the four dictionaries cite comparative and superlative forms for adjectives which have irregular comparison, but for adjectives ending with consonant +y, CALD gives no information. The presentation is different between LDOCE4 and two of the other dictionaries. For example, LDOCE4 cites '*comparative* prettier, *superlative* prettiest' while OALD6 and COBUILD4 cite only (prettier, prettiest). CALD does not show any comparison.

Assuming that advanced learners of English know the basic rules for conjugation or comparison and therefore do not need such information, CALD can be seen to be most suited and COBUILD4 least suited for advanced learners of English. In this regard, LDOCE4 and OALD6 fall in the middle of the other two dictionaries. If LDOCE4 is really intended for advanced learners of English, it can be said that the way in which conjugations and comparisons are shown has some room for further improvement.

2.4. Comparison of graphs

According to "How to use the dictionary", there are three types of graphs in LDOCE4. They are graphs that show (I) the frequency of a word or words, (II) information about "which are the most common words to use in a particular context", and (III) information about "which structures are most commonly used with a word". Type (I) has three subtypes concerning spoken English and written English, or British and American English. They all include further explanations and information under the graphs. Type (II) also has explanations. Type (III) has one variant subtype that shows how common particular words are in British and American English. Of these two, only the subtype has explanations about the charts. LDOCE3 had all three types of graphs as well, and the headwords treated there are as follows:

(I) (A)   "Frequencies of the adverb **absolutely** in spoken and written

English": **absolutely**, **actually**, anything, anyway, bad, **bet**[1], better, **bit**[1], can[1], **certainly**, come[1], dear[2], do[1], else, exactly, fair, forget, **funny**, good[1], happen, here, hope[1], how[1], **let**[1], like[2], look[1], matter[2], **mean**[1], mind (*v*), minute[1], now[1], okay, **pardon**[2], **point**[1], quite, **really**, right[1], say[1], see[1], so[1], something, **sorry**, **sort**[1], suppose[1], sure[1], tell, that[2], thing, think, trouble[1], want[1], watch[1], well, what[1], whatever[1], why, wrong[1].

(B)   "Frequency of **alone**, **on your/her own** and **by yourself** in spoken and written English": **alone**, approximately, attend, **bear**, buy[1], **commence**, enter, error, **examine**, forbid, **indicate**, **just**[1], keep[1], know[1], **little**[1], **location**, **oblige**, **opposed**, **permit**[1], **prepare**, **present**[1], **receive**, **remain**, **require**, return[1], search[2], take[1], talk[1], telephone[2].

(C)   "Frequency of the nouns **rubbish**, **garbage** and **trash** in British and American English": **rubbish**[1], **shop**[1].

(II)   "This graph shows some of the words most commonly used with the noun **advice**": advice, cost[1], crime, damage, decision, description, disease, drug[1], example, guilty, idea, **information**, interest[1], job, memory, money, news, order[1], pain[1], price[1], remember, risk[1], standard[1], temperature, test[1], war.

(III) (A)   "This graph shows how common different grammar patterns of the adjective **afraid** are": afraid, agree, **angry**, begin, **careful**, certain, **choose**, continue, decide, disagree, **expect**, finish[1], **glad**, **happy**, **hate**, **imagine**, **learn**, **need**[1], **notice**[1], pay[1], **pretend**[1], start[1], **stop**[1], try[1], **understand**, **wait**[1].

(B)   "This graph shows how common the nouns **flat** and **apartment** are in British and American English": flat[2], holiday[1], ill[1], pavement, sweet[1], trousers.

As is shown in the above-cited captions, several related words are compared in (I) (B), (I) (C), and (III) (B). Out of 146 headwords treated in the graphs in LDOCE3, the headwords treated in LDOCE4 amount to only 50 (i.e. the bold-faced words), and they are treated in the same or almost the same way as in LDOCE3. One noticeable difference and innovation in the treatment of graphs can be seen in (II), where all headwords except **information** have not been treated in graphs but in collocation boxes in LDOCE4. Further differences in the treatment of the

words in bold face are as follows: Explanations given under the chart concerning **commence**, **just**[1], **location**, and **prepare** have been simplified somewhat and those of **little**[1], **present**[1], **receive**, **remain**, and **require** have been reduced to a sentence-long explanation. Explanations about **let**[1], **mean**[1], **pardon**[2], **point**[1], **really**, **sorry**, **sort**[1] in LDOCE3 have been deleted in LDOCE4. The written explanation "Based on the British National Corpus and the Longman Lancaster Corpus" under the graph has been omitted in LDOCE4. As a whole, it seems that graphs which did not provide enough useful information for the space required have been omitted, which can be regarded as an improvement. (Y. Ichikawa)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. Pronunciation in the printed edition

3.1.1. As shown in Table 2, the scheme for transcribing pronunciation in LDOCE4 is almost the same as in the previous edition, and therefore we do not need to make further reference to it here. However, it should be noted that the shortcomings of the scheme we pointed out before remain unchanged in this edition. The reader is referred to our reviews of the previous editions (Shimizu *et al.* 1990: 42, Urata *et al.* 1999: 73) for the introduction of either /ɚː/ or /ɝː/ for the vowel of *nurse* and /ɚ/ for the second vowel of *teacher* in American pronunciation, as well as assignment of stress marks to idioms and phrasal verbs.

3.1.2. A dollar sign, $, instead of the two vertical parallel lines | | used in the previous editions, is placed between British and American pronunciations when they are different. We welcome this change because the dollar sign, strongly associated with the United States, will make it easier for the user to expect American pronunciation after the sign.

3.1.3. Stress patterns of compounds, which used to be indicated on the dots representing syllables (e.g. **case study** /ˈ. ˌ../), are indicated in this edition by placing stress marks directly on the entry items (e.g. **ˈcase ˌstudy**). In this way, stress patterns are more clearly shown than in the previous editions, and what is more, much space has been saved. With

Table 2　British and American Vowels in LDOCE4

branch	/brɑːntʃ $ bræntʃ/
palm	/pɑːm/
lot	/lɒt $ lɑːt/
soft	/sɒft $ sɒːft/
thought	/θɔːt $ θɒːt/
home	/həʊm $ houm/
fur	/fɜː $ fɜːr/
nurse	/nɜːs $ nɜːrs/
hurry	/ˈhʌri $ ˈhɜːri/
here	/hɪə $ hɪr/
pierce	/pɪəs $ pɪrs/
pair	/peə $ per/
scarce	/skeəs $ skers/
star	/stɑː $ stɑr/
start	/stɑːt $ stɑrt/
war	/wɔː $ wɔːr/
horse	/hɔːs $ hɔːrs/
assure	/əˈʃʊə $ əˈʃʊr/
assured	/əˈʃʊəd $ əˈʃʊrd/
tire	/taɪə $ taɪr/
power	/paʊə $ paʊr/
powerful	/ˈpaʊəfəl $ ˈpaʊr-/
father	/ˈfɑːðə $ ˈfɑːðər/
Saturday	/ˈsætədi $ -tər-/
serious	/ˈsɪəriəs $ ˈsɪriəs/
about	/əˈbaʊt/
habit	/ˈhæbɪ̥t/
document	/ˈdɒkjʊ̥mənt $ ˈdɑː-/

some of the compounds containing elements whose typical British and American stress patterns are different, such as **cigarette holder** (/.ˈ. ˌ.., ˈ... ˌ../ in LDOCE3)[8] and **ballet dancer** (/ˈ.. ˌ.. || .ˈ. ˌ../ in LDOCE3), the

pattern typical of British English is shown directly on the entry words and the other pattern, typical of American English, is shown between the slant lines with a dollar sign in front of it (**ciga'rette ,holder** /$ '... ,../ and **'ballet ,dancer** /$.'. ,../) in LDOCE4. However, only one stress pattern is usually shown with each compound, even if two patterns used to be assigned to it in LDOCE3, as in the case of **di,rect 'speech** (/.,. '., ,.. './ in LDOCE3).

3.1.4. Treatment of stress shift in ordinary (or one-word) entries in LDOCE4 is the same as in the previous editions. However, stress shift in compounds, which used to be marked in the previous editions, is no longer marked because of the change in the method for showing stress patterns cited above: **,tongue-in- 'cheek** and **,chrome 'yellow** in this edition used to be transcribed as /,. .'. ◄ / and /,. '. . ◄ / respectively, with a mark to indicate stress shift.

3.1.5. There seems to be little revision concerning pronunciations given to individual entry items. The treatment of 'words with uncertain pronunciation' (LPD 2: xii) remains much the same as before, though there have been some changes with a few of them, such as **garage** (/'gærɑːʒ, -rɪdʒ ‖ gəˈrɑːʒ/ → /'gærɪdʒ, -rɑːʒ $ gəˈrɑːʒ/), and **cigarette** (/,sɪgəˈret ‖ ,sɪgəˈret, 'sɪgə,ret/ → /,sɪgəˈret $ 'sɪgə,ret, ,sɪgəˈret/), reflecting the current tendencies.[9]

3.2. Pronunciation in the CD-ROM edition

3.2.1. The CD-ROM has pronunciations in British and American English for every entry that has phonetic transcriptions accompanying it. It will be a great help to learners of English, especially to those who do not have much chance to listen to the pronunciation of native speakers of English. They can listen to the actual English sounds, and by associating the sounds with the phonetic symbols they will also learn the values of the symbols.

3.2.2. The transcriptions are exactly the same as those given in the

printed edition. The recorded pronunciations for the most part correspond to the transcriptions, but regrettably, we have found cases of discrepancy between transcriptions and recorded sounds through a brief survey of words with uncertain pronunciation. The most outstanding cases have been those of **poor** and **sure**: instead of pronouncing /pɔː/ and /ʃɔː/ as indicated in the transcriptions, the British reader clearly pronounces them as /pʊə/ and /ʃʊə/.[10] Even though /pʊə/ and /ʃʊə/ are still quite acceptable in British English, such recordings can be very misleading, since the average user, hearing /pʊə/ and /ʃʊə/ for the words transcribed as /pɔː/ and /ʃɔː/, may misinterpret the value of /ɔː/ as [ʊə].

A few more cases of discrepancy are shown below:
garage
    transcription: /'gærɪdʒ, -rɑːʒ $ gəˈrɑːʒ/[11]
    recorded pronunciation: /'gærɑːʒ $ gəˈrɑːʒ/
premature
    transcription: /'premətʃə, -tʃʊə, ,preməˈtʃʊə $,priːməˈtʃʊr/
    recorded pronunciation: /,preməˈtʃʊə $,priːməˈtʃʊr/
cigarette
    transcription: /,sɪgəˈret $ 'sɪgə,ret, ,sɪgəˈret/
    recorded pronunciation: /,sɪgəˈret $,sɪgəˈret/
abdomen
    transcription: /'æbdəmən, æbˈdəʊ- $ -ˈdoʊ-/
    recorded pronunciation: /'æbdəmən $ 'æbdəmən/
finance
    transcription: /'faɪnæns, fɔ̯ˈnæns $ fɔ̯ˈnæns, 'faɪnæns/[12]
    recorded pronunciation: /'faɪnæns $ 'faɪnæns/
sonorous
    transcription: /'sɒnərəs, səˈnɔːrəs $ səˈnɔːrəs, 'sɒːnərəs/
    recorded pronunciation: /'sɒnərəs, $ 'sɒːnərəs/
illustrative
    transcription: /'ɪləstreɪtɪv, -strət- $ ɪˈlʌstrəstɪv/
    recorded pronunciation: /'ɪləstreɪtɪv $ 'ɪləstreɪtɪv/

In the cases just shown above, the recorded variants are not given the first place in the transcription. Though no reference is made in the front matter of the printed edition to the choice of variants in the recording, it seems quite natural that the user should expect to hear the first variants in

the transcriptions when he/she listens to the pronunciations on the CD-ROM. Therefore, the user will be confused if the recorded pronunciations do not correspond to the first variants in the transcriptions.

3.2.3. With compounds, discrepancies seem to occur more frequently than with ordinary (one-word) entry items: **'Advent ˌcalendar**, for example, is pronounced as **ˌAdvent 'calendar** by both British and American readers.

A few more cases of discrepancy are shown below:
'acid jazz → **ˌacid 'jazz** (Brit. & Am.)
ad'vanced ˌlevel → **adˌvanced 'level** (Brit.), **ad'vanced ˌlevel** (Am.)
ˌadult edu'cation → **aˌdult edu'cation** (Brit. & Am.)

Correspondence between transcription and pronunciation is indispensable with this kind of entry because it is very difficult for the average user to interpret the stress patterns merely from the stress marks assigned to the entry words. Considering that suprasegmentals are more difficult to control than segmentals, well-trained readers are desirable for the recording.

3.2.4. Such discrepancies seem to be caused by one of the following factors:

(a) The variant recommended by the lexicographer is not typical of the accent in question.
(b) The variant pronounced by the reader is not typical of the accent in question.
(c) The pronunciation fluctuates between the two variants without much difference in preferences.
(d) The recommended variant is transcribed incorrectly.

Whatever the reason, discrepancies in a learner's dictionary of this type should be avoided by all means.

3.2.5. The user can record his/her own pronunciation on the CD-ROM and compare it to the model pronunciations. This function will at least

make studying English more lively, and perhaps it will be of some help for improving the user's pronunciation.

3.2.6. The CD-ROM edition offers a function for finding words by pronunciation. This function will be treated in details in 11.2.5., but we would like to make some points clear from a phonological point of view.

First, the symbols representing vowels are phonologically inconsistent: under the category of 'DIPHTHONGS'[13] there are 11 keys, laballed (eɪ), (aɪ), (ɔɪ), (əʊ), (oʊ), (aʊ), (ɪə), (eə), (ʊ)*, (ʊə), and (ɪə) (parentheses and asterisks by the writer). In the group named 'Short vowels' there are 9 keys, labelled (ɪ), (e), (æ), (ɒ), (ʌ), (ʊ)**, (ə), (i), and (u). We should note that there are two (ʊ)'s, one as a short vowel and the other as a diphthong, and that the diphthong group lacks (ʊə). Strangely enough, the pop-up explanation for this (ʊ)* as a diphthong says "as in *sure*",[14] while the pop-up for the other (ʊ)** as a short vowel says "as in *put*". What should be done is to replace (ʊ)* with (ʊə), set the pop-up explanation for (ʊə) so that it says "as in *cure*" or something, and go through the necessary procedure to fix the program to make (ʊə) represent the right sound.

Secondly, this system requires too much phonetic knowledge of the user: if he/she wants to find **hear**, for example, it is necessary to press either (h) (ɪə) or (h) (ɪ) (ə). By pressing (h) (iə) or (h) (i) (ə), the user cannot get any results. The same thing will occur with **tour**;[15] only by pressing (t) (ʊə) or (t) (ʊ) (ə) can the user get to **tour**. However, it is very unlikely that a learner who knows the distinctions between /i/ and /ɪ/ or /u/ and /ʊ/ well enough to choose the right keys would consult the CD-ROM to find words which he/she is not sure how to spell.

If this scheme is intended to let the user learn the correct symbols through trial and error, the keys ought to be in strict accordance with the phonology of English. If the purpose of this scheme is to help the user find words as easily as possible, it ought to be more flexible and allow more room for accessing with wrong but similar symbols.

3.2.7. It is regrettable that the 7,000 encyclopedic entries, which is one of the features of the CD-ROM edition, are not given pronunciations in any

form. Since this kind of entry often contains proper names, it is difficult to ascertain the pronunciations only from the spellings. We would hope that pronunciations of encyclopedic words, both transcribed and recorded, will be included in the CD-ROM of the next edition.   (A. Shimizu)

4. Definition
4.1. Overview

In this section, we will discuss the definitions in LDOCE4, comparing the entries in our sample with those in the corresponding sections of LDOCE3. Similar to Masuda *et al.* (1999: 27), we also believe that "definitions in learners' dictionaries should differ from those of the conventional monolingual dictionaries in several ways." As regards definitions, Hanks (1987: 116) warns against the pervasion of parentheses and other conventions followed in foreign learner's dictionaries, which is common in traditional dictionaries: "Modern dictionaries are full of such conventions, which make them particularly difficult reading for ordinary readers, especially foreign readers. The purpose, in general, of these conventions is to achieve precision. However, in practice their effect may be merely to create difficulties of interpretation with little or no compensatory gain in accuracy of explanation."

It was nearly two decades ago, in the same year as the publication of LDOCE2, that this warning was conveyed. One might naturally assume that the dictionary has extensively improved in this respect having undergone two revisions since then. The primary task that confronts us is to determine whether the definitions in LDOCE4 are genuinely user-friendly, and whether the changes made in the definition are favorable for the learners. Some of the arguments presented in this section will be supported by the results of our user research reported in Section 12.

4.2. Data analysis

A comparison of our samples from both editions reveals that definitions in LDOCE4 have been modified in a number of aspects and with varying degrees. 809 senses remain unchanged, and 709 senses in LDOCE3 have been reduced into 694 senses in LDOCE4 through modification, unifica-

tion or separation.[16)] However, the degree of change is not as substantial as one might expect from the figures, since they include definitions with a minute modification. 96 senses have been deleted, and 191 have been newly added.

4.2.1. Definitions of technical terms, regardless of whether they have been labeled as such, tend to be identical:

> **accelerando** *adj, adv*   getting gradually faster
> **accessory** *n*   **3** someone who helps a criminal, especially by helping them hide from the police
> **egress** *n*   *formal* or *law* the act of leaving a building or place, or the right to do this
> **share index** *n*   *technical* an official and public list of SHARE prices

Under the entry for **accelerando** and **accessory**, the subject labels (*music* and *law*, respectively) are present in LDOCE3 but absent in LDOCE4.

4.2.2. Modifications in definitions range from a close paraphrase to a complete rephrasing. The former is exemplified by the following entries:

> **abyss** *n*
> [LDOCE3] **3** a great difference which separates two people or groups
> [LDOCE4] **3** a very big difference that separates two people or groups
> **accommodate** *v*
> [LDOCE3] **2** to give someone a place to stay, live, or work
> [LDOCE4] **2** to provide someone with a place to stay, live, or work

However, in other cases, the same senses are explained in rather different words:

> **shadow**[1] *n*
> [LDOCE3] **4 without/beyond a shadow of a doubt** without any doubt at all **6 be a shadow of your former self** to be so unhappy that you seem like a different person
> [LDOCE4] **4 without/beyond a shadow of a doubt** used to say that something is definitely true **6 be a shadow of your former**

self to be weaker, less powerful, or worse than you were before
accede *v*
    [LDOCE3] **2** to achieve a position of power or authority
    [LDOCE4] **2** if someone accedes to the THRONE, they become king or queen

Welcome innovations are the addition of extra information typically in a phrase or clause introduced by *especially* or *used* (*to show*), and the substitution of redundant information by useful information (as in the case of **abuse¹**):

sever *v*
    [LDOCE3] **2** to end a relationship with someone, or a connection with something
    [LDOCE4] **2** to end a relationship with someone, or a connection with something, especially because of a disagreement
shackle¹ *n*
    [LDOCE3] **2** one of a pair of metal rings joined by a chain that are used for fastening together a prisoner's hands or feet
    [LDOCE4] **2** one of a pair of metal rings joined by a chain that are used for fastening together a prisoner's hands or feet, so that they cannot move easily or escape
shackle² *v*
    [LDOCE3] **1** to put many limits on what someone can do
    [LDOCE4] **1** to put many limits on what someone can do — used to show disapproval
abuse¹ *n*
    [LDOCE3] **2** rude or offensive things that someone says to someone else
    [LDOCE4] **3** rude or offensive things that someone says when they are angry

However, an addition of information does not always appear helpful or worthy of the space it utilizes:

shake² *n*
    [LDOCE3] **4 no great shakes** not very skilful
    [LDOCE4] **5 no great shakes** not very skilful, or not very good
shaken also **shaken up** *adj*
    [LDOCE3] upset, shocked, or frightened

    [LDOCE4] upset, shocked, or frightened by something that has happened to you

In some instances, examples, a label, or an illustration is provided in order to compensate for the lack of information in the definition:

abuse¹ *n*
    [LDOCE3] **3** cruel or violent treatment, often involving forced sexual activity, of someone that you are responsible for or should look after: *child abuse*|*sexual abuse*
    [LDOCE4] **1** cruel or violent treatment of someone: *several cases of child abuse*|**physical/sexual/racial abuse** *Many children suffer racial abuse at school.*|*An independent committee will look into alleged human rights abuses.*
elevating *adj*
    [LDOCE3] *formal or humorous* making you feel interested in intelligent or moral subjects
    [LDOCE4] *formal* making you feel interested in intelligent or moral subjects — sometimes used humorously
abreast *adv*
    [LDOCE3, with an illustration] **1 walk/ride etc abreast** to walk, ride etc next to each other
    [LDOCE4, without an illustration] **2 walk/ride etc abreast** to walk, ride etc next to each other, all facing the same way

4.2.3. Some definitions have been simplified for better understanding. Apart from avoiding difficult words (as in the case of **shamble**) and the use of the word being defined (**sever, shape¹**), the standard ways of achieving simplicity are to avoid complex grammatical structures (**shamble, abstruse**), to reword a phrase including a polysemous word in one of its subsidiary senses into a plain phrase (*right angle* into *angle of 90°* s.v. **setsquare**), and to make the definition compact (**share¹, shatterproof**).

shamble *v*
    [LDOCE3] to walk slowly and awkwardly, dragging your feet in a tired, weak, or lazy way
    [LDOCE4] to walk slowly and awkwardly, not lifting your feet much, for example because you are tired, weak, or lazy; = **shuffle**

sever *v*

[LDOCE3] **1** to cut through something, separating it into two parts, or to become severed in this way

[LDOCE4] **1** to cut through something completely, separating it into two parts, or to become cut in this way

shape¹ *n*

[LDOCE3] **1 a)** the outer form of something, that you see or feel **b)** a particular shape, or thing that is that shape

[LDOCE4] **1** the form that something has, for example round, square, TRIANGULAR etc

abstruse *adj*

[LDOCE3] difficult to understand in a way that seems unnecessarily complicated

[LDOCE4] unnecessarily complicated and difficult to understand

setsquare *n*

[LDOCE3] a flat piece of plastic or metal with three sides and one right angle, used for drawing or testing angles; TRIANGLE (4)

[LDOCE4] a flat piece of plastic or metal with three sides and one angle of 90°, used for drawing or testing angles; = **triangle** *AmE*

share¹ *v*

[LDOCE3] **1** to have or use something that other people also have or use at the same time

[LDOCE4] **1** to have or use something with other people

shatterproof *adj*

[LDOCE3] glass that is shatterproof is specially designed . . .

[LDOCE4] shatterproof glass is specially designed . . .

Some words have been made more accurate in LDOCE4 by including a distinctive feature in their definition that is missing in LDOCE3:

elf *n*

[LDOCE3] an imaginary creature like a small person with pointed ears

[LDOCE4] an imaginary creature like a small person with pointed ears and magical powers

Senses **1, 2 a)**, and **3 b)** of **a** are explained from a grammatical point of view in LDOCE3, whereas in senses **1, 2, 5** in LDOCE4 the user's attention is drawn to what they can express by the word rather than its function, although the use of grammatical terms is not avoidable in all

cases.

a

[LDOCE3] *strong indefinite article, determiner* **1** used before a noun that names something or someone that has not been mentioned before, or that the person you are talking to does not know about **2 a)** used before a noun that is one of a particular group or class of people or things **3 b) a lot/a few/a little/a great deal etc** used before certain words that express an amount of something **7 b)** used before the -ing form of verbs when they are used as nouns **c)** used before an UNCOUNTABLE noun when other information about the noun is added by an adjective or phrase **8** used before an uncountable noun to mean a type of it **9** used before the name of a painter or artist etc meaning a particular painting, sculpture etc by that person

[LDOCE4] *indefinite article, determiner* **1** used to show that you are talking about someone or something that has not been mentioned before, or that your listener does not know about **2** used to show that you are referring to a general type of person or thing and not a specific person or thing **5** used in some phrases that say how much of something there is **7** used before singular nouns to mean all things of a particular type **9** used before the -ing forms of verbs when they are used as nouns referring to an action, event, or sound **10** used before nouns that are usually UNCOUNTABLE when other information about the quality, feeing etc is added by an adjective, phrase, or CLAUSE **13** used before the name of a famous artist to refer to a painting by that artist

There are some instances in which the pronoun *you* has been replaced by *someone* or by a concrete word so as not to offend or perplex the users:

set-up *n*

[LDOCE3] **3** a dishonest plan that tricks you

[LDOCE4] **2** a dishonest plan that is intended to trick someone

masochism *n*

[LDOCE3] **2** sexual behaviour in which you gain pleasure from being hurt

[LDOCE4] **1** sexual behaviour in which someone gains pleasure from being hurt or punished

elective² n
[LDOCE3] a course that you can choose to study because you are
interested in it, while you are studying for a degree in a different
subject
[LDOCE4] a course that students can choose to take, but they do not
have to take it in order to GRADUATAE

In yet other instances, a passive verb phrase has been modified into an
active one:

seventy-eight n
[LDOCE3] an old-fashioned record that is played by being turned 78
times a minute
[LDOCE4] an old-fashioned record that plays while turning around
78 times a minute

However, in the following example, users of either of these editions are
unable to avoid both of these complexities:

sex object n
[LDOCE3] someone you consider only as a means of satisfying your
sexual desire rather than as a whole person
[LDOCE4] someone who is thought about only as a way of satisfying
another person's sexual desire, rather than as a whole person

Modifications from *connected with* to *relating to* (*e.g.* **aboriginal¹** *adj*,
electoral, marital, maritime), those from *kind* to *type* (*e.g.* **market** *n* **5**,
market leader), and those from the relative pronoun *which* to *that* (*e.g.*
abyss above, **account¹** *n*, **marketplace**) are found frequently, but they
are not consistent throughout. Nor is the deletion of "a relative pronoun
preceded by a preposition," a combination severely criticized by the
participants in our user research, as it constitutes a noticeable decrease in
the comprehensibility of the definition (see 12.9.).

4.2.4.   Deleted definitions are typically those labeled as *old-fashioned,
literary, informal,* or *slang,* and those that are senses of a headword in
LDOCE3 but the senses are treated as collocations without a definition in
LDOCE4, not to mention senses whose headwords have been eliminated
from the new edition.

American usages (*e.g.* "**Shaker** a member of a US religious group . . . "
s.v. **shaker** *n* 3) and computer-related definitions (*e.g.* "**the Web** the
system on the Internet that allows you to find and use information . . . "
s.v. **web** *n* 1) are new additions. Senses that are treated as collocations or
run-on derivatives without a definition in LDOCE3 and senses whose
headwords are new in LDOCE4 have also been added. Some senses in
American English have been repositioned higher in the order within an
entry that is arranged in the order of frequency. Several of these are not
labeled as *AmE* in LDOCE4, which suggests that the usage is not re-
stricted to American English any more.

shake² n
[LDOCE3] **5** *AmE* a cold drink made from milk that tastes of fruit,
chocolate etc; MILK SHAKE
[LDOCE4] **2** a cold drink made from milk, ICE CREAM, and fruit or
chocolate; ⊟ **milkshake**
sharp¹ adj
[LDOCE3] **22 sb looks sharp** *AmE* if someone looks sharp, they are
dressed well and attractively; SMART¹ (2) *especially BrE*
[LDOCE4] **12** CLOTHES attractive and fashionable; ⊟ **smart** *BrE*

The same trend is observed with regard to computer-related definitions:

net n
[LDOCE3] **6 the Net** *technical* the Internet; a system that allows
millions of computer users around the world to exchange informa-
tion
[LDOCE4] **1** INTERNET **the Net** also **the net** the system that
allows millions of computer users around the world to exchange
information

Synonyms are frequently provided as in other monolingual dictionaries,
but they are preceded by an equal sign in LDOCE4. In addition, ant-
onyms are occasionally provided following a "not equal" sign:

above adv, prep
[LDOCE4] **1** in a higher position than something else; ⊟ **over**; ≠
below

4.3. Definitions beginning with *when*

Although most changes in the new edition have occurred within the framework of traditional defining policies with the sole exception of the sentence definition, what appears to be a deviation from the norm has also set in: definitions beginning with the word *when*. Abstract nouns including compounds are typically defined in this manner:

conversion *n*
 [LDOCE3] **1** the act of process of changing something from one form, purpose, or system to a different one
 [LDOCE4] **1** when you change something from one form, purpose, or system to a different one

unity *n*
 [LDOCE3] **1** a situation in which a group of people or countries work together for a particular purpose
 [LDOCE4] **1** when a group of people or countries agree or are joined together

power politics *n*
 [LDOCE3] the use or threat of armed force in international politics
 [LDOCE4] when a country or person attempts to get power and influence by using or threatening to use force or other actions, especially against another country

Despite its recent appearance in learner's dictionaries, the "when" definition dates back to Cawdrey's *Table Alphabeticall* (1604), according to Higashi and Urata (2005: 8–9). They highlight issues such as the lack of consistency within a dictionary as regards whether or not to adopt this method of definition, its syntactic unstableness as a definition, and the scarcity of dictionaries that explains this usage of *when*, least of all as an introducer of a definition. Heuberger (2000: 17–18) also expresses an objection to this type of a definition, insisting on the importance of substitutable definitions. In practice, however, not many users appear to be concerned about these issues to the extent that lexicographers fear, as the results of our user research reveal (see 12.8. and 12.9.).

4.4. Signposts

The signpost enables the users to quickly locate a particular sense of

polysemous words. Since its introduction in the previous edition, the signpost has been extensively and eagerly welcomed by users. One of Bogaards' (1998: 560) findings in the course of his experimental study is that LDOCE3 and CIDE, "which both have access structures which are based on semantic principles, give the best results: students find the information they are looking for more often and they need less time to find it" as compared to COBUILD2 and OALD5, primarily due to their signposts. Urata *et al.* (1999: 78) criticizes its lack of conspicuity in LDOCE3, but it is highlighted in blue in LDOCE4. For classification and other details of the signpost (and the "menu," which has been deleted from LDOCE4), see Urata *et al.* (1999: 78–79).

Signposts in LDOCE4 have not only been modified along with the changes in the definitions, but have also been made more user-friendly in the following three aspects:

(1) Some use simpler words, just as in the case of definitions (*e.g.* USE TOGETHER in LDOCE4 rather than ▶ USE EQUALLY ◀ in LDOCE3 s.v. **share**[1] *v*), but occasionally at the cost of precision.
(2) Some provide concrete examples of the definiendum (*e.g.* ROUND/SQUARE ETC rather than ▶ OUTER FORM ◀ s.v. **shape**[1] *n*).
(3) Some include additional information (*e.g.* ABLE TO CUT EASILY rather than ▶ ABLE TO CUT ◀ s.v. **sharp**[1] *adj*).

4.5. Defining vocabulary

In LDOCE4, as in its preceding editions, approximately 2,000 words have been carefully chosen as its defining vocabulary. The publisher, in its introductory remarks to the Longman Defining Vocabulary (p. 1943), states that they are attempting to ensure that these words are both "frequent in the Longman Corpus Network" and "used correctly by learners in the Longman Learner's Corpus." To that end, part of the vocabulary has been altered. 24 words have been deleted, including ordinal numerals and words that can be disposed off if common synonyms or superordinates are provided. On the other hand, 39 words have been

newly added, including names of food and culinary terms (*sandwich n, sauce, spice n, spicy, tomato*), technological terms, particularly those related to computers (*email, software, spacecraft, technology, video n, website*), names of sports (*baseball, golf*), and other words fairly common in everyday conversation (*boyfriend, chew, girlfriend, jacket, salary, score v, n, teenage*). The addition of computer-related terms reminds us that the technological development is reflected in the two corpora. The words *a* and *etc* appear in the list in LDOCE4, which are not included in the list in LDOCE3 even though they are used in the definitions.

Unfortunately, however, the list in LDOCE4 has a few drawbacks, the most serious of which is the lack of the list of prefixes and suffixes. The publisher has stated that it will be placed at the end of the Defining Vocabulary list (p. 1943) but that is not the case. There are a few typological errors as regards parts of speech (*length adv, pron, determiner; probably adj*, and *wide adj, conj*), the first two of which also appear in LDOCE3 and remain uncorrected in the new edition. The introductory matter (p. 1943) explains that proper names are not included in the list. The absence of ordinal numerals (from *fourth* to *tenth*, if not *11th* and *12th*) from the list should also be mentioned, as they are used in the definitions of the months, some events in the calendar and in other instances. Improvement in these areas in the next revision is desirable, no matter how few users are reported to read the front and back matters.   (T. Kanazashi)

5. Examples

5.1. An extensive revision of the examples

Next we will examine the examples in LDOCE4. The "Introduction" to the dictionary states that the number of examples has increased by 40%, and that all the examples are from the Longman Corpus Network, usually with slight modifications (p. x).

Our sample contains 1,300 examples from LDOCE3 and 1,855 from LDOCE4, which indicates an increase of 43%. A closer inspection of the sample reveals the following: 504 examples are common to both editions; 24 have been deleted along with the headword, the definition, or the usage note; 35 have been newly added with newly included words; 63 with

newly added definitions; 5 in the "warning notes;" 21 in the "collocation boxes; " 11 in the "Word Choice boxes; " 7 in the grammar box (excluding the one in the warning note). This implies that approximately three-fifths of the examples in LDOCE3 have been revised or replaced to account for three quarters of the examples in LDOCE4, eclipsing the effects of the deletion or addition of notes or boxes. Masuda *et al.* (2003: 32) compare the examples in COBUILD2 and COBUILD3 and estimate the percentage of the total modifications to examples to be approximately 4%, in contrast to our calculation concerning LDOCE at 61%.

In our sample from LDOCE3, we find 344 phrase examples (26%), 914 one-sentence examples (70%), and 42 examples consisting of two or more sentences (3%), of which 8 are dialogues between two persons, whereas our sample from LDOCE4 consists of 459 phrase examples (25%), 1,360 one-sentence examples (73%), and 36 multi-sentence examples (2%), of which 16 are dialogues. This indicates a moderate increase of sentence examples and dialogue examples, which seems to make LDOCE4 a slightly more useful tool for improving the users' communicative skills.

5.2. Types of modifications

The examples have not only been modified in number, but in various ways. The writers' effort to cope with problems peculiar to the examples, such as the ones posed by Masuda *et al.* (1997: 48–53), can be found on nearly every page, although it is difficult to identify if the modifications have not been carried out merely on the basis of frequency.

Among several arguments that Masuda *et al.* (*ibid.*) state regarding the issues with the examples in COBUILD2, "difficult words" and "unclear contexts" seem to have been of particular concern to the Longman lexicographers, as the following examples indicate. First, there are some examples in which a difficult word has turned into a simpler one with a change in the meaning.

abscond *v*
   [LDOCE3] **1** *Several boys have absconded from the detention centre.*
   [LDOCE4] **1** *The boy absconded from a children's home.*

accessible *adj*

[LDOCE3] **1** *The cove is only accessible by boat.*

[LDOCE4] **1** *The island is only accessible by boat.*

settle *v*

[LDOCE3] **9** *A velvety silence settled over the room.*

[LDOCE4] **11** *An uneasy silence settled over the room.*

Apparently the dictionary aims at the elimination of long examples and complex grammatical structures so as not to distract the users' attention from the headword. Proper nouns utilized only in a specific field are also avoided in case a user is unfamiliar with the field.

elapse *v*

[LDOCE3] *Several months were to elapse before . . .*

[LDOCE4] *Several months elapsed before . . .*

accelerate *v*

[LDOCE3] **1** *The Ferrari Mondial can accelerate from 0 to 60 mph in 6.3 seconds.*

[LDOCE4] **2** *The car accelerated smoothly away.*

accompaniment *n*

[LDOCE3] **1** *She starts by singing 'Amazing Grace' with a simple guitar accompaniment.*

[LDOCE4] **1** *He plays folk music with guitar accompaniment.*

However, the shortening of the examples and elimination of difficult words have sometimes been achieved at the expense of other merits: more detailed information under **shadow²**, and informality under **shake¹**.

shadow² *v*

[LDOCE3] **1** *Detectives shadowed them for weeks, collecting evidence.*

[LDOCE4] **1** *Detectives shadowed him for weeks.*

shake¹ *v*

[LDOCE3] **12 shake in your shoes/boots** *informal . . . I was shaking in my shoes — I thought he'd give me the sack.*

[LDOCE4] **2** *. . .* **be shaking in your shoes/boots** *. . . I was shaking in my shoes — I thought he was going to fire me.*

Urata *et al.* (1999: 81–82) highly evaluate LDOCE3's "fuller treatment of the figurative use of some words" than LDOCE2, but LDOCE4 provides an even fuller treatment to it than LDOCE3.

set³ *adj*

[LDOCE3] **5** *The government's dead set against the plan.*

[LDOCE4] **5** *The government's* **dead set** (= completely determined) *against the plan.*

ego *n*

[LDOCE3] **1** *The promotion was a real boost for her ego.*

[LDOCE4] **1** *That promotion really* **boosted** *her* **ego** (= made her feel better about herself).

em- *prefix*

[LDOCE3] *an embittered man* (= made bitter)

[LDOCE4] *embittered* (= made to feel extremely disappointed)

corner¹ *n*

[LDOCE3] **5 force sb into a corner** *The president is likely to be forced into a corner over his latest plans for welfare spending.*

[LDOCE4] **5 back/box/force/push sb into a corner** (= put someone into a situation where they do not have any choices about what to do) *Don't let your enemies back you into a corner.*

Not only does LDOCE4 provide this type of information in parentheses in the examples, which is a feature already observed in LDOCE3, but it also explains in what context an example is likely to be conveyed.

about² *adv*

[LDOCE3] **7** *He quickly turned about.*

[LDOCE4] **7** *He quickly turned about and walked away.*

element *n*

[LDOCE3] **5** *battling against the elements*

[LDOCE4] **5** *sailors battling against the elements*

mark¹ *v*   [LDOCE3] **2** *He had marked the route in red.*

mark² *v*   [LDOCE4] **4** *He had marked the route on the map in red.*

settle in/into *phr v*   [LDOCE3] **1** *Are you settling in OK?*

settle in also **settle into sth** *phr v*   [LDOCE4] *How's your new home? Are you settling in OK?*

shade *n*

[LDOCE3] **8 shades of** *Huh. Shades of my poorer days.*

[LDOCE4] **8 shades of sb/sth** *The food was horrible,* (*shades of school dinners*).

Merely providing an appropriate collocate may render the entire example more concrete and realistic or clarify the context.

absent-minded *adj*

[LDOCE3] *She's getting very absent-minded.*

[LDOCE4] *Grandad's been getting rather absent-minded lately.*

absorbent *adj*

[LDOCE3] *absorbent material*

[LDOCE4] *absorbent kitchen paper*

As is observed from the entries for **set³** and **ego** above, important collocations are highlighted in bold, which is definitely a welcome change.

5.3. New examples and deleted examples

An academically oriented user might regret that the number of encyclopedic, academic, or literary examples has decreased in LDOCE4.[17)] The following are deleted examples, although the definition remains virtually the same.

Ants eject formic acid when another insect tries to attack them. (s.v. **eject** *v*)

Language usage is too elastic to be described using just a few simple rules. (s.v. **elastic²** *adj*)

Rhyme is just one of the elements of his poetry. (s.v. **element** *n*)

The new edition has a fair share of new examples relating to the current affairs. Finally, let us have a look at a few of them, even though the last three describe the darker side of modern life.

Users can access their voice mail remotely. (s.v. **access²** *v*)

You can elect to delete the message or save it. (s.v. **elect¹** *v*)

Most West European countries have embraced the concept of high-speed rail networks with enthusiasm. (s.v. **embrace¹** *v*)

Their purpose is to elevate AIDS to the top of government priorities. (s.v. **elevate** *v*)

The events of September 11th cast a shadow over the celebrations. (s.v. **shadow¹** *n*)

420 workers have been ejected from their jobs with no warning. (s.v. **eject** *v*)   (T. Kanazashi)

6. Language Notes

We will compare the Language Notes in LDOCE4 with those in

LDOCE2 in this section. A comparison between the Language Notes in LDOCE4 and those in LDOCE3 is not possible, since LDOCE3 does not have Language Notes. We made an inquiry to an editorial staff of LDOCE3 on the reason for the omission of Language Notes in LDOCE3. We were told that the reason why Language Notes were left out in LDOCE3 was to make more space for other newly introduced features such as frequency charts, signposts for long entries, full-page color illustrations, and so on. We were also told that the information in the Language Notes in LDOCE2 was not transferred to LDOCE3.[18)]

6.1. Structural features

There are 16 pages of Language Notes in LDOCE4. Each Language Note is about one or two pages long. Language Notes in LDOCE2 are arranged in alphabetical order throughout the dictionary, but those in LDOCE4 are not in alphabetical order and are all placed in the middle of the dictionary as a middle matter. The outer edge of the pages in the Language Note section is colored in blue so that the section stands out in the dictionary especially when the dictionary is closed. Owing to this device a user can find the section instantly.

The following eight topics are explained in the Language Notes of LDOCE4: *Articles, Modal verbs, Phrasal verbs, Idioms, Writing, Linking ideas, Pragmatics* and *Collocation*. In contrast, LDOCE2 has Language Notes for 20 topics. More than half of the topics that are explained in LDOCE2 are not taken up as topics in LDOCE4.

Each Language Note starts with a definition of the topic in question followed by some examples. The explanation and examples in LDOCE4 are all different from those in LDOCE2 even when the topics are the same in both LDOCE2 and LDOCE4.

It should be noted that the use of grammatical terms is avoided as much as possible in the Language Notes of LDOCE4. Recent EFL dictionaries tend not to use grammatical terms whenever possible for the benefit of users who are not familiar with technical terms in grammar. LDOCE4's avoidance of using grammatical terms could be considered as a principle adopted in accordance with this trend.

It is also noteworthy that the explanatory statements attached to example sentences are often written as if addressed to the users of the dictionary and start with the subject *You*. It can be considered as a device to make the explanatory sentences easier for the users to understand. This style became prevalent when COBUILD adopted it for the first time in the definition of its entry words.

Another apparent difference between Language Notes in LDOCE4 and those in LDOCE2 is that the Language Notes in LDOCE4 are printed in color. Topics to be explained are printed in black bold capital letters on a blue band placed at the top of each page. Signposts are printed in white lettering on a dark purple rectangular background in a margin on the left-hand side of each page. Examples are printed in black on a light purple background. Check marks and crosses that are used to mark correct and incorrect examples respectively are printed in dark pink. Points to be noted are shown with a white exclamation mark printed in a dark pink circle. Arrows are also printed in pink. As a result, Language Notes in LDOCE4 have more visual impact than those in LDOCE2 owing to its use of color and page layout.

6.2. Topics in LDOCE2 and LDOCE4

The following table 3 compares the topics of the Language Notes in LDOCE2 with those in LDOCE4.

The topics taken up in both the Language Notes of LDOCE2 and LDOCE4 are the following five topics: *Articles, Collocations (Collocation* in LDOCE4), *Idioms, Modals (Modal verbs* in LDOCE4) and *Phrasal verbs*.

The topics newly introduced in LDOCE4 are the following three: *Pragmatics, Writing* and *Linking ideas*. They are shown in bold face in the table. *Pragmatics* is a Language Note that treats pragmatic topics such as communicative skills in the English language. *Writing* and *Linking ideas* could be seen as new types of Language Notes that do not have counterparts in the Language Notes of LDOCE2. They deal with practical skills necessary for writing English effectively. The two Language Notes seem to have been written based on data collected from the Longman Learners'

Table 3   A Comparison of Language Note topics in LDOCE2 and LDOCE4

LDOCE2	LDOCE4
Addressing people	Φ
Apologies	*Apologizing*
Articles	Articles
Collocations	Collocation
Criticism and praise	Φ
Gradable and non-gradable adjectives	Φ
Idioms	Idioms
Intensifying adjectives	Φ
Invitations and offers	*Inviting someone*
—	**Linking Ideas**
Make and do	Φ
Modals	Modal verbs
Phrasal verbs	Phrasal verbs
Politeness	*Feelings and attitudes*
—	**Pragmatics**
Prepositions	Φ
Questions	Φ
Requests	*Asking someone to do something*
Synonyms	Φ
Tentativeness	Φ
Thanks	Φ
Words followed by prepositions	Φ
—	**Writing**

Corpus.

The mark Φ shows the topics in LDOCE2 that are omitted in LDOCE4. They are: *Addressing people, Criticism and praise, Gradable and non-gradable adjectives, Intensifying adjectives, Make and do, Prepositions, Questions, Synonyms, Tentativeness, Thanks,* and *Words followed by prepositions*. We can see from this list that grammatical Language Notes are omitted in LDOCE4: *Gradable and non-gradable adjectives, Intensifying adjectives,*

Prepositions, and *Synonyms.* Matters that are dealt with in the Language Notes titled *Make and do* and *Words followed by prepositions* are partly explained in the Language Note for *Collocation* in LDOCE4. The Language Notes that treat pragmatic topics are also omitted in LDOCE4: *Addressing people, Criticism and praise, Questions, Tentativeness,* and *Thanks.* Although they are done away with in LDOCE4, these pragmatic skills differ from culture to culture and information of this kind should be of use for learners of English from different cultural background.

The pragmatic Language Notes that were not omitted are briefly explained in the Language Note titled *Pragmatics* in LDOCE4. They are shown in italics in the table above: *Apologies* (*Apologizing* in LDOCE4), *Invitations and offers* (*Inviting someone* in LDOCE4), *Politeness* (*Feelings and attitudes* in LDOCE4) and *Requests*[19] (*Asking someone to do something* in LDOCE4). The reason why these topics are chosen to be treated and the other topics are omitted is not clear.

6.3.   The content of Language Notes in LDOCE2 and LDOCE4
6.3.1.   Articles

The Language Note for articles is a page long in LDOCE4, while it is three pages long in LDOCE2. The reason the Language Note in LDOCE2 takes up more space is that LDOCE2 shows the use of articles thoroughly and systematically using charts so that the users can learn how to match an appropriate article with a given noun in an organized way. Users can understand the basic rules governing the use of articles by looking at the charts and reading the explanations attached to them. LDOCE4 focuses on the points that learners often make mistakes and shows them by listing the incorrect examples adjacent to the correct ones. With the help of its colorful page layout, users can easily grasp the points that they should pay attention to. However, it must be difficult for users to induce the rules that are behind the basic use of articles by just reading the brief explanatory statements and looking at the list of individual examples.

There is a subsection in the Language Note in LDOCE2 which explains how to decipher certain grammatical codes that indicate the use of articles such as [*the* + S], [*the* + P] and [*the*]. This part is omitted in

LDOCE4, since LDOCE4 does not use these codes. It either writes out the use of articles explicitly or does not mention it at all. For example, in order to show that the word *private sector* is used with a definite article, LDOCE4 writes out the phrase *the private sector* in black bold face next to the entry word instead of using the grammar code [*the* + S].

6.3.2.   Modal verbs

Modal verbs are grouped into eleven concept groups. The groups are shown in white lettering on a dark purple background in the left-hand-side margin of each page. Two to four modal verbs are classified into each concept group. They are listed in a purple-lined square under each concept heading. The explanation for the use of modal verbs in each concept group is succinct; the explanation is usually one sentence or two sentences long.

The concepts that are used to classify the modal verbs are almost the same as the ones used in LDOCE2 although there are sometimes slight changes in naming and grouping. They are: *Ability, Certainty, Intention* (*personal intention* and *unreality, hypothesis* in LDOCE2), *Necessity/obligation* (*obligation, requirement* in LDOCE2), *Offers* (*willingness, wish* in LDOCE2), *Permission, Possibility, Prediction* (*prediction of future events* in LDOCE2), *Probability, Requests* (*willingness, wish* in LDOCE2), and *Suggestions/advice* (*desirability* in LDOCE2).

The Language Note in LDOCE2 provides its users with the information on the grammatical behavior of modal verbs. For example, it explains that modal verbs do not take an "-s" as a suffix in the third person singular. The Language Note in LDOCE4, on the other hand, does away with such grammatical explanations.

6.3.3.   Phrasal verbs

The Language Note of Phrasal verbs begins with its definition and a note that phrasal verbs are used quite often in both spoken and written English.

Phrasal verbs are divided into separable and non-separable phrasal verbs. An arrow (⇔) is used to show that a direct object can be inserted

between the verb and the particle in the case of separable phrasal verbs. The use of an arrow is taken from LDOCE2.

LDOCE4 does not use the symbols [T] and [I] to indicate the transitive and intransitive use of phrasal verbs. An expression such as "phrasal verbs which do not have an object" is used instead.

6.3.4.   Idioms

Both LDOCE2 and LDOCE4 explain that idioms have literal and idiomatic meanings in their Language Notes. Whereas LDOCE2 calls the idiomatic meaning as "a special meaning", LDOCE4 considers the idiomatic meaning as a metaphor:

> Idioms can be seen as metaphors that have become fixed phrases in the language, and are now a usual way of talking about a particular type of situation.   (p. 976)

It may be a recent trend to use the concept of metaphor to explain the fixed meaning of idioms. For example, MED is well-known for setting up Metaphor Boxes to explain the idiomatic meaning of idioms.[20]

There is also a mention on variable idioms in LDOCE4. They are idioms in which forms are slightly changed by speakers. An example given in LDOCE4 is: *drive me crazy/nuts/mad/up the wall/bananas*. The object of the verb *drive* can change depending on the speaker.

6.3.5.   Writing

This is one of the new types of Language Notes introduced in LDOCE4. It explains how to write formal and informal letters, emails and curricula vitae or resumes. It shows how to start and end writing them by giving examples in accordance with style. In the back matter of LDOCE4, there is a page which shows a sample of a curriculum vitae (British English version) and a sample of a resume (American English version). The samples must serve as a model when the users of this dictionary attempt to write a curriculum vitae or resume by themselves.

It also lists do's and don'ts of essay writing at the end of the Language Note. For instance, as the first item of the don'ts in essay writing,

LDOCE4 suggests: "don't mix different ideas together in the same paragraph or sentence." It seems that this section is written based on the material obtained from the Longman Learners' Corpus.

6.3.6.   Linking ideas

This is another new type of Language Notes introduced in LDOCE4. It is emphasized in this Language Note that coherence is important in writing essays. The use of adverbs, conjunctions and other sentence connectors are explained and shown with examples under the following seven headings: *Listing ideas in a logical order* (e.g., *firstly, secondly, thirdly*); *Summarizing your ideas* (e.g., *in conclusion, to conclude, to sum up*); *Adding another idea that supports the previous one* (e.g., *moreover, what is more, besides*); *Contrasting different ideas with each other* (e.g., *but, however, nevertheless*); *Saying what the result of something is* (e.g., *so, therefore, as a result*); *Saying what the reason for something is* (e.g., *because, as, due to*); and *Saying what the purpose of something is* (e.g., *to, in order to, so (that)*).

This Language Note also seems to be composed based on material obtained from the Longman Learners' Corpus. Since the Longman Learners' Corpus consists of the English learners' essays, it may have been of use to identify the reason why essays written by non-native speakers of English are likely to lack coherence.

6.3.7.   Pragmatics

This Language Note explains the pragmatic topics in English communication. Expressions that are appropriate to particular situations are suggested under the following seven headings with notes on style: *Feelings and attitudes; Advising someone; Agreeing and disagreeing; Apologizing; Asking, giving and refusing permission; Asking someone to do something;* and *Inviting someone*. Some of the topics that are explicated in the independent Language Notes in LDOCE2 are explained briefly in small sections in this Language Note. They are: *Apologies* (*Apologizing* in LDOCE4), *Invitations and offers* (*Inviting someone* in LDOCE4), *Politeness* (*Feelings and attitudes* in LDOCE4), and *Requests* (*Asking someone to do something* in LDOCE4).

Sometimes the same situation may require different expressions in British English and American English. There are several expressions that are labeled as British usage in the Language Note in LDOCE4. The following is an example:

Do you fancy a pizza? (= used in informal British English)   (p. 985)

However, not much attention seems to be paid to expressions used in American English. In fact, there are not any expressions that are labeled as American usage in the Language Note in LDOCE4. The dialog below is given as an example in the subsection titled *Refusing permission*:

Do you mind if I smoke? — I'd rather you didn't. (British English)
(p.985)

What would Americans say to refuse the permission if they were in the same situation? It would be of more use if some consideration was given to the possible differences between the British and American usage.

LDOCE2 labels expressions typically or often used in American English as (*AmE*) and (esp. *AmE*) respectively. The following is an example from a small section titled *Quick thanks* in the Language Note for *Thanks* (p. 1097). There are five expressions shown as examples of responses to someone thanking. Two out of the five are labeled as used in American English: *You're welcome.* (*esp. AmE*); *No problem.* (*AmE infml*).

If there is a label that indicates that an expression is typically used in British English, then it would be fair to have a label that indicates that an expression is typically used in American English. The users would then be able to infer that the expressions that are not labeled are neutral and do not have distinct regional differences in their use.

A white exclamation mark in a dark pink circle is used as a mark to warn users that they should pay attention in using certain expressions. For example, the mark is used to introduce a warning against the use of expressions for disagreeing strongly with someone. The following are the suggested expressions and the warning:

I'm so fat. — Nonsense! You're not fat at all.
It's all your fault! — No way! It was nothing to do with me.

The journey shouldn't take more than an hour. — You can't be serious! It's at least two hours.

⚠ If you use these expressions with people you do not know well, you will often sound very aggressive and rude.   (p. 984)

The heading "Be careful!" is used instead of the mark to give warnings to the users in LDOCE2.

6.3.8.   Collocation

The Language Note for collocation starts with a definition of a collocation. Then some examples are given under the following three headings: *Verbs that collocate with nouns* (e.g., **take a bath, have a bath**), *Adverbs that collocate with adjectives* (e.g., **highly controversial, deeply offended, bitterly disappointed**) and *Adjectives that collocate with nouns* (e.g., a **strong/real/distinct possibility**).

Then the explanation of how collocations are presented in the entries follows. The users are also instructed to pay attention to the collocation boxes that list frequent and important collocations in approximately 300 entries. They are also advised to refer to the CD-ROM of the dictionary to get access to an additional 173,000 collocations that are not included in the book.

6.4.   In summary

What did the authors intend to convey to the users by the Language Notes in LDOCE4? There is not any explanation on the purpose of the Language Notes in the front matter of the dictionary.

The front matter of LDOCE2 explains that Language Notes are intended to deal with points of grammar, style and especially pragmatics (F49). There is also an article by Professor Geoffrey Leech and Dr. Jenny Thomas which explains how the dictionary treats pragmatic issues. They state in their article that Language Notes are one of the means with which they intend to present "guidelines" of pragmatic usage (F13). They continue that Language Notes cover topics that are more generally pragmatic than the topics covered by Usage Notes. That is, the Language

Notes treat pragmatic topics "which cannot be limited to the treatment of individual words, and which affect the meaning in context, of many different words or phrases (*ibid*)." We can infer from this article that LDOCE2 put great emphasis on the treatment of pragmatic topics, and this should have led to the installment of Language Notes for 20 topics.

However, we cannot but infer that not much emphasis is put on the treatment of pragmatic topics in LDOCE4. The number of topics covered in Language Notes is reduced to eight, and some of the pragmatic topics that were explicated in independent Language Notes in LDOCE2 are done away with in LDOCE4. The pragmatic topics that are still treated in LDOCE4 are treated only briefly in small sections in the Language Note titled *Pragmatics*. It is also regrettable that consistent attention is not paid to the regional differences in usage. Therefore, we should say that the pragmatic topics are not fully discussed in LDOCE4.

Detailed grammatical explanations seem to be avoided in LDOCE4. For example, the Language Note on modal verbs is reduced in amount compared to that in LDOCE2, since the section which explains the grammatical behavior of modal verbs is omitted in LDOCE4. The Language Note on articles gives us the impression that it is written based on the data obtained from the error analysis of the material collected for the Longman Learners' Corpus, and emphasis is placed mainly on the points that students tend to make mistakes. The explanation on grammatical topics seems to be limited to a minimum in LDOCE4, and the users who need further information is referred to other references such as phrasal verb dictionaries and idiom dictionaries.

As to the Language Notes titled *Writing* and *Linking Ideas*, they may serve as guidelines when the users are writing English on their own although the explanation is not extensive in either of the Language Notes. Especially the examples and the sample of a curriculum vitae and a resume in the back matter may serve as models that the users can refer to.

The Language Notes in LDOCE4 may be rather superficial to be taken as a guide to pragmatic topics in English. Nor is it sufficient as a guide to grammatical topics. It is not clear what kind of information the authors of the Language Notes intended to convey to the users of the dictionary. In

summary, the Language Notes in LDOCE4 do not seem to be written based on any clear principle, and it is difficult to identify the aim of including the Language Notes as one of its features in LDOCE4 after omitting them in the previous edition.   (R. Takahashi)

7. Grammatical Information
7.1. The types of information

There are three kinds of grammatical information in LDOCE4: Word class, inflections and syntax.

Word class is parts of speech and those that are shown in abbreviated forms are listed on page i of the dictionary. They are *adj, adv, n, phr v, prep, pron,* and *v.* The rest of the parts of speech are all spelled out in their full form. They are: *article, auxiliary verb, conjunction, determiner, interjection, modal verb, number, prefix, quantifier,* and *suffix.* The word class is exactly the same as that of LDOCE3. Those that are abbreviated are also the same as those in LDOCE3. It seems that the most frequently used ones are abbreviated.

Inflected forms of verbs, nouns and adjectives are shown immediately after the part-of-speech label. The past tense form and past participle forms of irregular verbs are fully spelled out in bold face after the labels *past tense* and *past participle* respectively. For example, in case of the verb *come,* the past tense form *came* and the past participle form *come* is spelled out after the labels *past tense* and *past participle* respectively. If the past tense form and the past participle form of a verb have the same form, the form is spelled out after the label *past tense and past participle.* Thus, in case of the verb *teach,* the past tense and past participle form *taught* is spelled out after the label *past tense and past participle.* The past tense and past participle forms of regular verbs are not shown in LDOCE4. However, if a verb has both regular and irregular inflected forms, the two forms are spelled out with the appropriate labels attached. For instance, in the case of the verb *dive,* the two past tense forms *dived* and *dove* are presented with the label *AmE* attached to the latter form. This system is the same as the one employed in LDOCE3.

As for nouns, the regular plural forms are usually not shown in LDOCE4.

However, the regular plural form of a noun is spelled out if there are changes in its spelling. For example, the plural form of the noun *baby* is spelled out as *babies*, while the plural form of the noun *adult* is omitted. Irregular plural forms are shown immediately after the part-of-speech label with the label *plural*. For example the plural form of the noun *tooth* is spelled out as *teeth* after the label *plural*. If the plural form changes according to meanings, the appropriate plural form is shown at the beginning of each demarcated sense. In the case of **mouse**, the plural form of mouse in a sense of an animal is shown as *mice* in the first demarcated sense, while the plural form of an object connected to a computer is shown as *mouses* in the second demarcated sense. In LDOCE3, the plural form of an animal is shown as *mice*, but that of the computer equipment is not shown.

As for adjectives, the comparative form and superlative forms are shown in bold face immediately after the part-of-speech label with the labels *comparative* and *superlative* respectively. It should be noted that even the regular comparative and superlative forms are fully spelled out in LDOCE4, while they are omitted in LDOCE3. For example, the comparative and superlative forms of the adjective *small* are fully spelled out in LDOCE4, while they are not shown in LDOCE3. If there are changes in spelling in comparative and superlative forms, then the regular comparative and superlative forms of an adjective are fully spelled out in both LDOCE3 and LDOCE4. Thus, in the case of **big**, the comparative and superlative forms are fully spelled out as *bigger* and *biggest* in both LDOCE3 and LDOCE4. The irregular comparative and superlative forms are fully spelled out in both LDOCE3 and LDOCE4. Therefore, the comparative and superlative forms of **good** are spelled out as *better* and *best* after the label *comparative* and *superlative* respectively in both editions.

As to syntax, syntactic patterns are spelled out using explicit grammar codes and patterns that show the grammatical features and syntactic behavior of the entry words. They will be examined in detail in the next subsection.

7.2.   Grammar codes and patterns

Grammar codes and patterns are listed up on page ii of LDOCE4. LDOCE3 does not distinguish *grammar codes* and *patterns*. They just group them together and call them *grammar codes*. LDOCE4 classifies the grammar codes into two groups. Those that denote grammatical features of a word are called *codes*, while those that denote syntactic behavior of a word are called *patterns*. Table 4 and 5 compare the codes and patterns used in LDOCE3 and LDOCE4.

As we can see from the tables, the codes and patterns used in the two editions are almost the same. The codes are exactly the same in both LDOCE3 and LDOCE4. However, there are minor changes in the patterns. The pattern *get lost/trapped/caught* in LDOCE3 is done away with in LDOCE4, while the new pattern *throw sth at sb/sth* is introduced in LDOCE4.

The codes are placed at the beginning of an entry either immediately after the word-class label or immediately after the inflected form(s) of an entry word. If the entry word is polysemous and have more than one demarcated senses, the codes are placed immediately after the demarcating number of each sense. The patterns are all printed in bold in the entries and are followed by corresponding examples (See section 5 for details about examples).

7.3.   Grammar notes
7.3.1.   Grammar notes for affixes

There are grammar notes in square brackets in the entries of affixes. Similar notes also appear in LDOCE3.

In the case of prefix *un-*, the first demarcated sense has the note [in adjectives, adverbs, and nouns] and the second sense has the note [in verbs]. This is because the meaning of the prefix changes depending on the part of speech of the word that a prefix forms with a stem. In this case if the prefix forms an adjective, an adverb or a noun, it would add a sense of negativeness, lack or opposite to the word, such as in the case of adjectives *unfair* and *unhappy*. However, if the prefix forms a verb, it would show an opposite of a certain action, such as in the case of the verbs

Table 4   A Comparison of Codes and Patterns in LDOCE3 and LDOCE4

	LDOCE3	LDOCE4
1	[C]	[C]
2	[U]	[U]
3	[I]	[I]
4	[T]	[T]
5	[singular]	[singular]
6	[plural]	[plural]
7	[linking verb]	[linking verb]
8	[always+adv/prep]	[always+adv/prep]
9	[not in progressive]	[not in progressive]
10	[no comparative]	[no comparative]
11	[only before noun]	[only before noun]
12	[not before noun]	[not before noun]
13	[only after noun]	[only after noun]
14	[sentence adverb]	[sentence adverb]
15	[+adj/adv]	[+adj/adv]
16	[also+plural verb BrE]	[also+plural verb BrE]

Table 5   A Comparison of Patterns in LDOCE3 and LDOCE4

	LDOCE3	LDOCE4
1	[+between] [+about]	[+between] [+about]
2	—	throw sth at sb/ sth
3	decide that	request that
4	sure (that)	surprised (that) or tell sb (that)
5	decide who/what/how etc	decide who/what/whether etc or ask (sb) who/what/where etc
6	resolve to do sth	try to do sth or order sb to do sth
7	see sb/ sth do sth	help do sth or see sb/sth do sth
8	see sb doing sth	enjoy doing sth or hear sb doing sth
9	bring sb sth	bring sb sth
10	get lost/ trapped/ caught	—

undress and *unpack*. If the meanings of affixes are not influenced by the stem, then *ad hoc* notes mentioned above are not used. Thus, there are no notes in the entries for the prefixes *anti-*, *de-*, *in-*, *sub-*, *under-*, and so forth.

The same thing can be said about suffixes. The note is usually placed immediately after the part-of-speech label. If a suffix is polysemous, the note is placed immediately after the number that demarcates each sense. Take the suffix *-ist* as an example. The meaning of the suffix is classified into five subsenses. The first demarcated sense has the note [in nouns] (e.g., *Buddhist, atheist*); the second [in adjectives] (e.g., *her socialist views, rightist parties*); the third [in nouns] (e.g., *a linguist, a novelist*); the fourth [in adjectives] (e.g., *a very sexist remark*); the fifth [in nouns] (e.g., *They are a bunch of racists*) (p. 863).

7.3.2.   An orphan note

In the entry of the pronoun *each other*, there is a note [not used as the subject of a sentence]. This is the only entry where this note is used. This note is also used in the corresponding entry in LDOCE3. We doubt the necessity that the information which this note conveys should be indicated in the form of a grammar note. We believe that this is a piece of information which should be presented in the form of a usage note.

7.4.   Signs

The use of signs is one of the new features in LDOCE4. There are four signs that are newly introduced in this edition: =, ≠, →, and △. The signs = and ≠ are white on a gray background. The arrow is short, thick and black. The sign ! is black and placed in a triangle.

The signs = and ≠ are used to introduce a synonym and an antonym of an entry word respectively. This is a new system introduced in this edition, and the synonyms and antonyms are presented in quite a large number in LDOCE4. It may be worth mentioning that COBUILD4 preceded LDOCE4 in the use of the similar symbols to refer to synonyms and antonyms for its entry words, but without the use of the gray background color. While COBUILD4 lists them in the extra column,

LDOCE4 shows the synonyms and antonyms after the definition of an entry word. For example, **notorious** indicates the word *infamous* as its synonym and the first demarcated sense of **generous** indicates the word *mean* as its antonym. When there is a difference between the British and American usage, the words used in the respective countries are mentioned using the sign =. For instance, in the entry for **apartment**, the noun *flat* is referred to as a synonym for the entry word with the label *BrE* attached, while *apartment* is shown as a synonym in the first demarcated sense of the entry for **flat**.

A thick short black arrow is used to refer to words that are related to the entry words. The related word led by an arrow is placed immediately after the definition of an entry word. For example, in the entry for **reverie**, the word *daydream* is presented after the arrow. Sometimes there are cases when the word referred to is not included as an entry word in LDOCE4. The word *auricle* was referred to as a related word in the entry for **ventricle**, but *auricle* is not included as an entry word in LDOCE4. Similar cases may happen when the referred words are highly technical. The referred related word is printed in bold small capitals when the entry word is contained as a part of the referred word. For instance, the related words referred to in the entry for **vein** is in bold small capitals since they contain the word *vein* as a part of them such as **DEEP VEIN THROMBO-SIS** and **VARICOSE VEINS**.

Lastly, there is a black exclamation mark placed inside a triangle. This sign is used to introduce warning signs addressed to the users of the dictionary. The warning note in an entry is placed after a definition. It often concerns grammar and usage. For instance, in the entry for the verb **effect**[2], there is a warning note "⚠ Do not confuse with the verb **affect** (= to have an effect on something)." These warning notes seem to derive from the analysis of the Longman Learners' Corpus. The warning notes also appear in large numbers in the column WORD CHOICE (See section 9 for further discussion on WORD CHOICE.).

(R. Takahashi)

8. Collocations

LDOCE4 puts an emphasis on the importance of showing its entry words in collocations, that is, in the phrasal form in which the words are actually spoken or written. The same thing can be said about the previous edition, but the principle is even more reinforced and supported by the data collected from the corpora in the Longman Corpus Network in LDOCE4 (p. x).

When the collocations are not large in number, they are shown in bold before the examples or highlighted in bold in the examples in the entry. However, if a sense of an entry word has more than three collocations, the collocational patterns are listed in a special box called a *collocation box* placed in the entry. This is an innovation introduced for the first time in this edition.

A collocation box is a rectangular box framed with blue lines. It consists of two parts. The upper blue part lists the collocational patterns of the entry word in bold. The meaning is sometimes shown in parentheses after the collocations. The examples in which the collocations are used are listed at the bottom part of the box in order of the collocational patterns listed in the upper part of the box. The collocations are highlighted in bold in the examples. Prepositions that are typically used with exemplified collocational patterns are shown in square brackets before the examples. According to the introduction of the dictionary, the examples are cited directly from or based on the corpora in the Longman Corpus Network (*ibid.*). However, the users should be careful, for not all collocational patterns are exemplified.

8.1. Collocation boxes[21]

There are 299 collocation boxes in LDOCE4. Each entry has only one collocation box. There is only one exception. The noun **record**[1] is exceptional in that it has two collocation boxes in its entry; one box for the first sense and another for the second sense.

The collocation boxes are mostly found in the entries of 3,000 most common words in English, which are printed in red in LDOCE4. Only 33 out of the 298 words are not among the 3,000 most common words. The

collocation boxes are located mostly in the entries for nouns. Out of 298 words that have a collocation box in its entry, 272 words are nouns. The rest contain 16 adjectives, 9 verbs and one pronoun.

A collocation box mostly appears in the first sense of an entry word. Among the 277 polysemous words that have collocation boxes in their entries, the words that do not have their collocation box for their first sense are only 26. This indicates that most collocation boxes are set up for the sense that is most frequently used, since the senses in an entry are listed in order of frequency in LDOCE4.

The minimum number of collocational patterns in a collocation box is four, while the maximum number is 21. The average number of patterns in a collocation box is approximately 10. The average number of examples listed in a collocation box is 9.

8.2.   The number of collocational patterns in LDOCE3 and LDOCE4

Fifty collocation boxes were taken as samples and the number of collocational patterns in a box was compared with that of the collocational patterns shown in the corresponding subentry in LDOCE3. The collocation boxes taken as samples were: answer[1], attention, battery, benefit[1], border[1], call[2], company, consent[1], court[1], dead[1], different, doubt[1], effect[1], fate, flame[1], fun[1], god, guilt[1], health, history, human[1], imagination, inspiration, jail[1], knot[1], learner, loan[1], marriage, member, mood, mystery[1], objection, odds, ordeal, pain[1], personal, possible[1], problem, racial, road, school[1], settlement, speed[1], talent, threat, truth, value[1], view[1], war, and world[1].

The average number of collocational patterns in each of the sample collocation boxes is about 10, while the average number of collocational patterns presented in each of the corresponding subentries in LDOCE3 is about 3. This indicates that the number of collocational patterns which LDOCE4 provides the users with is about three times as large as that of the collocational patterns which LDOCE3 provides the users with.

The number of collocational patterns found commonly in both LDOCE4 and LDOCE3 was 3 in average. The number of collocational patterns found only in LDOCE4 was 8 in average, while that of collocational

patterns found only in LDOCE3 was about 0.9 in average.

8.3.   Example sentences in collocation boxes

As stated in the introduction, the example sentences that illustrate the use of collocations in LDOCE4 are mainly "drawn directly from or based on the corpus (p. x)."

We compared the example sentences that are commonly used both in LDOCE3 and LDOCE4 to exemplify the same collocation. We found out that the illustrative sentences used in both editions are quite similar, although those in LDOCE4 are slightly changed to simplify the sentences. Take the entry for **answer**[1] as an example. The collocations found commonly in both LDOCE3 and LDOCE4 are the following: *give (sb) an answer*; *the answer is no!*; and *in answer to*. The illustrative sentences for the three collocations in LDOCE3 are: *You don't have to give them an answer straight away*; *If it's money you're after again, the answer is no!*; *In answer to your question, I think you can go*, respectively. The corresponding example sentences in LDOCE4 are: *You don't have to **give** them **an answer** now*; *If it's money you want, **the answer is no!**; **In answer to your question**, yes, you can go*. We can see from this case that LDOCE4 may have made an effort to provide the users with more simplified examples so as not to trouble the users with the use of difficult words in its example sentences. As to the reaction of the users towards the illustrative sentences in LDOCE4, refer to our user research in section 12.

(R. Takahashi)

9.   WORD FOCUS and WORD CHOICE

In the new edition there are boxes such as WORD FOCUS, WORD CHOICE, GRAMMAR, US/UK DIFFERENCE, SUGGESTIONS, and POLITENESS. According to the Introduction, word focus boxes are a completely new feature of the new edition. While that may well be true, much of the information contained in the word focus boxes was included in USAGE NOTE of the previous edition. Indeed, many words taken up in the WORD FOCUS and WORD CHOICE boxes in LDOCE4 were dealt with in the USAGE NOTE in LDOCE3. So before going on to an

examination of WORD FOCUS and WORD CHOICE in LDOCE4, we will look at the change in treatment of these features. USAGE NOTE, which was claimed to be newly introduced in LDOCE3, contains several different kinds of information about words and the usage of words. This information is concerned with WORD CHOICE, GRAMMAR, SPELLING, FORMALITY, POLITENESS, AmE-BrE DIFFERENCE, COLLOCATION, STYLE, SPOKEN-WRITTEN. These features are treated in two different ways: individually and in pairs or groups. In the following 9.1., listed words in bold letters are treated in boxes such as WORD CHOICE, GRAMMAR, and so on, and the asterisked words are treated in the WORD FOCUS boxes in LDOCE4. Other words are not treated in those boxes in LDOCE4.

9.1.   Entry words with a USAGE NOTE in LDOCE3
9.1.1.   Single treatment
9.1.1.1.   WORD CHOICE: actually, adequate, admission, affect, **after**[1], almost, alone[1], area, **beautiful**, between, **big**, body, borrow, **bring**, cheap[1]*, **clothes**, cold[1], **continual**, **control**[2], **damp**[1], **destroy**, disease, disinterested, economic, **excuse**[1], excuse[2], famous*, farther[2], **fat**[1], **few**, fire[1]*, **firstly** <first[2]>, fit[1], **front**[1], **gain**[1], gaze[1], **glance**[1], **habit**, high[1], **hire**[1] <rent[1]>, **ignore**, infer, insure, intelligent*, invent, **job**, join[1], **kill**[1], **know**[1], land[1], **lastly**, **lawyer**, little[1], **money**, **nervous**, noise[1], obtain, old*, open[2], **pay**[1], **position**[1], priest, **production** <produce[2]>, race[1], **rare** <rarely>, refuse[1], relationship, round[3], shame[1], shock[1], shore[2], **sit**, steal[1], **surely**, taste[2], **thin**[2], thus, **under**[1], **unless**, visit[1], **wide**[1], win[1].

Words within conjoined square brackets show that they are treated under different entry words in each edition. For example, **firstly** was treated in WORD CHOICE of LDCE3, but it is treated under the entry word **first**[2] in LDOCE4. In LDOCE4, the WORD CHOICE box for **front**[1] is subdivided into two sections on the basis of its meaning, which is one of the improvements in the treatment of the word group in the WORD CHOICE box in LDOCE4.

9.1.1.2.   GRAMMAR: agree, amount[1], **deal**[1], enjoy, **enough**[2], fed up, [**gotten**], **hardly**, hundred, (**lay**[2]), listen[1], more[1], **most**[1], **of**, own[1], per-

son, (**regret**[1]), **same**[1], **the**[1], wash[1], **much**[1]

The above words are all treated in the USAGE NOTE: GRAMMAR in LDOCE3. While the words in bold letters are explained again in a GRAMMAR box in LDOCE4, the others are not included in a GRAMMAR box. However, some grammatical information of the words **deal**[1], **enjoy**, **listen**[1], and **more**[1] is given after the warning mark △ in LDOCE4. **Lay**[2] and **regret**[1] are treated in WORD CHOICE boxes and **gotten** is treated in the US/UK DIFFERENCE box in LDOCE4. Though trivial, the expression "Grammar points" used in LDOCE3 is changed to a unified term "GRAMMAR" under the entry word **much**[2] in LDOCE4.
9.1.1.3.   FORMALITY: above[2], me, moreover, (**none**[1]), one[3], which, **yet**[1]

Part of the information given in **me** can be found in **I**, and information on **moreover, one**[3], and **which** is given after the mark △ in the explanation of the respective entry words in LDOCE4. **None**[1] is explained in WORD CHOICE in LDOCE4. Here it seems noteworthy that the explanation concerning Formality of **yet**[1] is given in the GRAMMAR box for **yet**[1], and in the same box there is a WORD CHOICE section dealing with the words *yet, still,* and *already* in LDOCE4, which may be a relic of the box-treatment in LDOCE3.

9.1.1.4.   Others
AmE-BrE DIFFERENCE (UK-US DIFFERENCE) (BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH):[22] inclusive, just[1], **o'clock**, presently, **professor** <teacher>

Information concerning AmE-BrE usage difference of *inclusive* is given after the mark △ in the final part of the definition of *inclusive* in LDOCE4, which contains WORD CHOICE under the entry word **include**. *O'clock* is explained in a box without a specific name in LDOCE4. *Professor* is treated in the WORD CHOICE box of **teacher** in LDOCE4.
POLITENESS: he, man[1], negro, welsh

Part of the information given about *he* is explained in the GRAMMAR box of **they** in LDOCE4. **Man, negro** and **welsh** do not have a politeness box in LDOCE4. However, part of the information in the politeness box of **man**[1] in LDOCE3 is given in a related entry word **chairman** in

LDOCE4.

SPELLING: burn[1]*, every

Burn[1] is treated in WORD FOCUS in LDOCE4, and the information about the spelling is deleted in LDOCE4. Part of the spelling information about **every** is given after the mark ▲ in the entry words **everyday** and **everyone** in LDOCE4.

9.1.2.   Conjoined treatment

9.1.2.1.   WORD CHOICE; GRAMMAR: also, answer[2], ask*, **become**, bored, but[1], **can[1]**, child, comprise, **cost[1]**, dress[2], **during, each[1], help[1]**, lead[1], life, **outside[2]** <out[1]>, **owing** <owing to>, pair[1], **raise[1], rather**, reason[1], request[2], **say[1], since[3], speak, still[1]**, teach, telephone[1], **travel[1]** <travel[2]>, **trouble[1]**, unique, **wait[1], wish[1], worth[1]**

Concerning these words, most of the grammatical information is given after ▲ or *NOT* in the respective entry words in LDOCE4. However, grammatical information in the GRAMMAR section of the USAGE NOTE for words such as **outside, owing, pair, request,** etc., is omitted in LDOCE4 as is fundamental grammatical information for words such as **ask, can, child, cost, lead, raise,** etc. Part of the grammatical information for words such as **answer** and **trouble** is given in COLLOCATION boxes in LDOCE4. Grammatical information of **become** is given in the explanation of WORD CHOICE. Grammatical information for **dress** and **telephone** is given by means of an example sentence for **dress** and after △ in the final part of the definition of **phone[2]** respectively in LDOCE4. **Ask** is treated in a WORD FOCUS box and **reason** is treated only in a GRAMMAR box in LDOCE4. **Wish** has a WORD CHOICE box and a GRAMMAR box separately in LDOCE4. Though WORD CHOICE and GRAMMAR are always explained in different boxes in LDOCE4, the treatment of **worth** is one of the two exceptions (cf. the treatment of **yet**). GRAMMAR and WORD CHOICE for **worth** are explained in a single box in LDOCE4 as in LDOCE3, but in reversed order (i.e. GRAMMAR with different descriptions coming before WORD CHOICE). USAGE NOTE for **telephone** in LDOCE3 is worthy of attention because of the way it is treated in regard to WORD CHOICE.

Normally under WORD CHOICE we find a list of related words, but in this case, there is the expression "words related to the telephone." It is quite likely that this treatment of the Word choice was a hint of what would become WORD FOCUS in LDOCE4.

9.1.2.2.   WORD CHOICE; SPELLING: bath, beginning, **chance[1], sick[1]**, technique

Concerning all these words, spelling information that is definitely too fundamental and elementary is deleted in LDOCE4. This change seems to reflect the editorial policy of the new edition that it has not tried to make the dictionary more helpful to teachers of English and students at intermediate to advanced levels (cf. Introduction to LDOCE3), but more to advanced level students of English (cf. Introduction to LDOCE4). *Beginning* is not treated in the WORD CHOICE box, but its content is explained by example sentences in the COLLOCATION box in LDOCE4.

9.1.2.3.   GRAMMAR; SPELLING: always, (**cause[2]**), no[2], **pay[1]**, whether, **worse[1]**

Of the above words, **pay[1]** and **worse** are treated in the GRAMMAR boxes but spelling information is deleted in LDOCE4. **Pay** is also explained in WORD CHOICE for **pay[2]** (*n*) in addition to the GRAMMAR box for **pay[1]** (*v*). **Cause[1]** is also treated in the WORD CHOICE box in LDOCE4. Spelling information of **no[2]** and **whether** is given after △ in the entry words **nobody[1]** and **whether** respectively.

9.1.2.4.   GRAMMAR; SPOKEN-WRITTEN: marry*, nice*

The entry words **married** and **marry** are treated in a separate WORD FOCUS box in LDOCE4. *Nice* is treated in WORD FOCUS, but its grammatical features in LDOCE3 are explained after △ in LDOCE4.

9.1.2.5.   Others

Concerning **day** and **especially** which were treated in [WORD CHOICE; GRAMMAR; SPELLING], spelling information of *day* is deleted and grammatical information of *especially* is given after △ in LDOCE4. Of **place[1], propose**, and **reach[1]** in [WORD CHOICE; In spoken English . . . ; GRAMMAR], grammatical notes of *place* are deleted in LDOCE4, and those of *propose* and *suggest* (one of the words in WORD CHOICE of *propose*) are given after the warning mark △ and in the

GRAMMAR box respectively in LDOCE4. Explanations concerning prepositions after *arrive* but not after *reach* are only shown in example sentences in LDOCE4. **Machine**[1], **street** and **occur** were treated respectively in [WORD CHOICE; SPOKEN-WRITTEN], [WORD CHOICE; BRE-AME DIFFERENCES], and [WORD CHOICE; SPELLING POINT] in LDOCE3, but information which is considered to be too elementary is deleted in LDOCE4. **Make**[1] [COLLOCATION; GRAMMAR] is treated in WORD CHOICE and **wrong**[2] [COLLOCATION/ GRAMMAR] is deleted in LDOCE4. COLLOCATION boxes are also claimed to be new in the new edition, but the idea may have been derived from the USAGE NOTE of **make**[1] and **wrong**[2] (and **Mr**) in LDOCE3. Usage notes for **that**[3] [SPOKEN-WRITTEN; GRAMMAR; PUNCTUATION], **really** [UK-US DIFFERENCE; GRAMMAR; SPELLING], **maybe** [FORMALITY; SPELLING], and **not** [FORMALITY; SPELLING] are deleted in LDOCE4. Part of the information in **Jesus** [FORMALITY AND POLITENESS] and **God** [FORMALITY AND POLITENESS; SPELLING; GRAMMAR] is explained after △ and *God* is treated in WORD FOCUS in LDOCE4. **Floor**[1] is treated in USAGE NOTE in LDOCE3, but the first part of the explanation is treated under the name of US/UK DIFFERENCE and grammatical points are explained after △ in LDOCE4. **Kind**[1] (*n*) [FORMALITY; GRAMMAR] is deleted, but information concerning Formality is given after △ and **kind**[2] (*adj*) is treated in WORD FOCUS in LDOCE4. **Who** [FORMALITY; GRAMMAR] is omitted but some information concerning Formality is given after △ in the explanation of **whom** in LDOCE4. **Kindly**[2] [FORMALITY; WORD CHOICE] is deleted in LDOCE4. **Mr** [COLLOCATION; POLITENESS] is deleted but politeness information is given after △ of **Mrs** in LDOCE4. **Of course** [POLITENESS; STYLE] is treated in POLITENESS in LDOCE4.

9.2.   WORD CHOICE in LDOCE4

In LDOCE3, the following words are entry words in which groups of words are treated in WORD CHOICE: actually, adequate, admission, affect, **after**[1], almost, alone[1], **also**, answer[2], area, ask*, bath[2], **beautiful**,

become, beginning, between[2], **big**, body, bored, borrow, **bring**, but[1], **can**[1], **chance**[1], cheap[1]*, child, **clothes**, cold[1], comprise, **continual**, **control**[2], **cost**[1], **damp**[1], day, **destroy**, disease, disinterested, dress[2], **during**, **each**[1], economic, **especially**, excuse[2] (*n*), **excuse**[1] (*v*), famous*, farther[2], **fat**[1], **few**, fire[1]*, **firstly** <first[2]>, fit[1], **front**[1], **gain**[1], gaze[1], **glance**[1], **habit**, **help**[1], high[1], **hire**[1] <rent[1]>, **ignore**, infer, insure, intelligent*, invent, **job**, join[1], **kill**[1], kindly[2], **know**[1], **land** <ground[1]>, **lastly**, **lawyer**, lead[1], life, **little**[1] <small[1]>, **machine**[1], **money**, **nervous**, noise[1], obtain, occur, old*, open[2], **outside**[2] <out[1]>, **owing** <owing to>, pair[1], **pay**[2], place[1], **position**[1], priest, production, propose, race[1], **raise**[1], rare, **rather**, reach[1], **reason**[1] <cause[1]>, refuse[1], relationship, request[2], round[3], **say**[1], shame[1], shock[1], shore[2], **sick**[1], **since**[3], **sit**, **speak**, steal[1], **still**[1], street, **surely**, taste[2], teach, technique, telephone[1], **thin**[1], thus, **travel**[1], **trouble**[1], **under**[1], unique, **unless**, visit[2], **wait**[1], **wide**[1], win[1], **wish**[1], **worth**[1].

Of these 131 words, 60 words in bold face (i.e. 45.8% of the total) are also treated in WORD CHOICE in LDOCE4 and the six asterisked words are treated in WORD FOCUS in LDOCE4. However, all the other 65 words (49.6%) are left out in WORD CHOICE in LDOCE4.

In LDOCE4, the following word groups are treated in WORD CHOICE: [**a, an**], [after, in, afterwards], [**ago, before, previously**], [also, too, as well, either], [**as, like, as if**], [**at, in, on**] (talking about time; talking about position and place), [beautiful, pretty, handsome, good looking, attractive, gorgeous, stunning], [become, get, go, turn, grow, come, become] [**been in, been to, went to**], [**believe, believe in**], [big, large, great], [**a bit, a bit of**] [bring, take, get, fetch], [**by, with, in**], [**call, phone, telephone, ring**], [can, could, be able to], [cause, reason], [chance, chances, luck], [**close, shut, turn/switch off**], [clothes, clothing, garment, cloth], [**come, go**], [continual, continuous], [control, manage, run, be in charge], [cost, costs, price, charge, fee, fare], [**critic, review, criticism, critique**], [**customer, client, patron, shopper, consumer**], [**damage, hurt, injure, wound**], [damp, moist, humid], [**destroy, ruin, spoil**], [**dinner, supper, tea, lunch**], [**direct, take, guide, lead**], [during, while], [each, every], [especially, specially], [**except, besides, apart from, unless**], [excuse me, pardon me, beg your pardon, sorry], [**in fact,

as a matter of fact, the fact is . . .], [fat, overweight, obese, chubby, plump, big, well-built], [**fault, blame, mistake**], [**fear, afraid, frightened**], [a few, few, a little, little, a bit, fewer, less], [first, first of all, firstly, at first], [in front, opposite, face; in front of, before], [gain, earn, get], [glance, glimpse], [**gleam, glint, glisten, glitter, glow**], [ground, land, earth, soil, floor], [habit, custom, tradition, practice], [help, assist, give sb a hand, lend a hand, help out], [**hold, take/get hold of, pick up**], [ignore, be ignorant of, not know], [illness, disease], [**include, consist of, comprise, be composed of, be made up of**] [job, work, post, position, occupation, profession, career], [kill, murder, execute, put to death, kill yourself, commit suicide, slaughter, massacre, assassinate], [know, find out, get to know], [lastly, finally, eventually, in the end, at last], [lawyer, attorney, solicitor, barrister, counsel], [**lay, lie**], [**luck, lucky**], [machine, device, gadget, appliance], [**made from, made of, made by**], [money, cash, change, currency], [nervous, anxious, annoyed, irritated], [**none, neither**], [out, outside, outdoors, out of doors], [owing to, due to, because of, thanks to], [**package, packet, packaging, packing, pack**], [**parking, parking space, car park, parking lot**], [pay, salary, wages, wage, income, fee], [**pharmacist, pharmacy, chemist, chemist's, drugstore**], [position, place, location, where, there], [**produce**(*v*)**, produce**(*n*)**, product**], [**proud, arrogant, conceited, big-headed, vain**], [raise, rise], [**rarely, seldom, hardly, scarcely**], [rather, fairly, quite, pretty], [**realize, recognize**], [**regret, be sorry**], [**remember, remind**], [rent, hire, lease], [**repair, fix, mend**], [**rich, well-off, wealthy, affluent, prosperous**], [say, tell, give, ask], [**see, watch, look at**], [**seem, appear, look, sound**], [**shadow, shade**], [**shake, wobble, rattle, vibrate, tremble, shiver**], [**shop, store**], [sick, throw up, vomit, ill, not well, unwell], [since, for, during, over], [sit, sit down, sit in/on, seat], [**sleep, asleep**], [**slide, slip, skid**], [small, little], [speak, talk], [still, always], [**storey, story, floor**], [**student, schoolchild, pupil**], [**suppose, guess**], [surely, definitely, certainly, naturally, be sure to], [**teacher, professor, lecturer, tutor, instructor, coach, trainer**], [thin, slim, skinny, slender, lean, slight], [travel, traveling, journey, trip, voyage, crossing, flight], [trouble, problems, troubles], [**type, kind, sort**], [under, underneath, below, be-

neath], [unless, if . . . not, in case, or (else)], [**unusual, strange, odd, bizarre, extraordinary, exceptional, remarkable**], [wait, expect, look forward to, await], [wide, thick, broad], [wish, hope, want, would like], [worth, value]

Of these groups of words, 60 of them have been carried over from the previous edition. 51 groups in bold face are newly introduced in LDOCE4 and four of them, i.e. word groups which are treated under the entry words **lay**[2], **make**[1], **none**[1], and **regret**[1] are partly based on the Usage Note (GRAMMAR), (COLLOCATION; GRAMMAR), (FORMALITY), (GRAMMAR) in LDOCE3.

Concerning the 60 word groups which are treated in both editions, some groups are treated under different entry words depending on the edition. For example, word groups under the entry words **reason**[1], **firstly**, **land**[1], **disease**, **outside**[2], **hire**[1], and **little**[1] in LDOCE3 are treated under **cause**[1], **first**[2], **ground**[1], **illness**, **out**[1], **rent**[1], and **small**[1] respectively in LDOCE4. A small improvement in the treatment of WORD CHOICE is that the first word of the group taken up in LDOCE4 is the same as the entry word, which is not always the case in LDOCE3. One of the main differences in WORD CHOICE dealt with in both editions is that different words are selected in all WORD CHOICE boxes except those under the entry words **damp**[1], **destroy**, **ignore**, **disease <illness>**, **kill**[1], **owing <owing to>**, **pay**[2], **little**[1] **<small**[1]**>**, **under**[1], and **worth**[1]. With respect to WORD CHOICE boxes dealing with identical words, their explanation is almost the same in both editions, but the explanation about the word groups of **ignore, illness,** and **small** is improved in LDOCE4 by the use of warning marks or the addition of new information about their usage. With respect to the number of words explained in WORD CHOICE, there is a small increase in the case of entry words such as **beautiful, become, few, travel**[2], and **unless**. However in most cases, the number has been decreased and the words have been partly substituted (cf. **cost**[1]**, fat**[1]**, money, nervous, since, thin**[1]**, wide**[1]). In the case of **bring, chance**[1]**, during, lastly,** and **position**[1], the number of words treated there is the same but word selection is partly different between LDOCE3 and LDOCE4. On the whole, the

selection of words is made on the basis of the common and central meaning of the words, and the explanations of the related words have become more concise and much better in LDOCE4. One clear indication of this can be seen in the treatment of WORD CHOICE for **at, big[1], control[2],** and **front[1],** where two different groups of words are explained on the basis of their meanings. Another defining characteristic of WORD CHOICE in LDOCE4 is the effective use of the warning mark, which has contributed to the improvement of WORD CHOICE.

Though there is no characterization of the WORD CHOICE section in USAGE NOTE in LDOCE3, there is a clear explanation about Word choice notes in "How to use the Dictionary" in LDOCE4, and it is explained that "word choice notes explain the differences between closely related words and gives examples that show how they are used differently." Comparing the Word choice in both editions, words taken up in Word choice in LDOCE4 are more carefully selected than those in LDOCE3.

9.3. WORD FOCUS in LDOCE4

In LDOCE4, there are 108 headwords which have WORD FOCUS boxes. As we have already touched upon, ten of them were provided with USAGE NOTE in LDOCE3, i.e. *cheap[1], famous, fire[1], intelligent,* and *old* are from WORD CHOICE, *burn[1]* is from SPELLING, *ask* is from WORD CHOICE; GRAMMAR, *marry* and *nice* are from GRAMMAR; SPOKEN-WRITTEN, and *God* is from FORMALITY AND POLITENESS; SPELLING; GRAMMAR.

As to the way in which WORD FOCUS is presented, there are two main types: one is WORD FOCUS: words meaning <entry word> and the other is WORD FOCUS: <entry word>. Entry words which are treated in the first type are: ask[1], break[1], cheap[1], clean[2], cook[1], cry[1], cut[1], expensive, happy, laugh[1], poor, sad, talk[1], taste[1], and walk[1]. In the second type, the main group begins with the expression "*similar words:*". The following are treated in this manner: accident*, army, boring, choose*, company, dangerous*, dirty[1]*, doctor[1], embarrassed, famous, friend, funny, important, intelligent, interested, interesting, kind[2]*, loud[1], phrase[1]*, plane[1],

praise[1], shocked*, shy[1]*, television, unkind*, and worried*. Other expressions are also used, such as "synonyms:" (argue), "*types of . . . :*" (advertisement, hospital, hotel, house[1]), "parts of . . . :" (garden[1], tree), "very . . . :" (bad, good, surprised, surprising, wet[1]) and "what you do at . . . :" (airport). Other entry words in WORD FOCUS are: army, book[1], breathe, burn[1], car, change[1], colour[1], computer, confident, court[1], crime, criticize, die[1], difficult, easy[1], environment, fast[1], film[1], fire[1], give[1], god, hard[1], hit[1], horrible, Internet, language, long[1], mail[1], married, marry, meal, name[1], newspaper, old, pain[1], police[1], quiet[1], read[1], religion, restaurant, road, run[1], ship[1], short[1], smell[1], soft, space[1], strong, tight[1], weak, weather[1], write, and young[1].

In "How to use the Dictionary," there are explanations such as "The Word Focus boxes show you groups of words that are related to the word you have looked up in the dictionary" and "This is a very useful tool for vocabulary-building, and it can also remind you of a word that you may have forgotten". Indeed, some Word Focus boxes are useful for increasing vocabulary because they show, as is claimed, many similar or related words and expressions, and explain the difference in meaning and usage among them. Especially, WORD FOCUS boxes beginning with "words meaning <entry word>" can be rated highly, because they explain the related words or expressions clearly and concisely in most cases. Other WORD FOCUS boxes containing rather detailed explanation of the difference in meaning and usage of related words and expressions should also be recognized. However, those that list only similar words (i.e. those of the asterisked words above) seem to need some improvement. Those similar words can indeed remind us of a word that we may have forgotten, but unless they have a similar treatment as other WORD FOCUS boxes, they cannot be regarded as being worthy of the name WORD FOCUS.

9.4. Other boxes in LDOCE4
9.4.1. GRAMMAR boxes

In the previous edition, the following words are explained in the Grammar section of Usage Note. GRAMMAR: agree, amount[1], deal[2], enjoy, enough[2], fed up, gotten, hardly, hundred, lay[2], listen[1], more[1], most[1],

much[1], of, own[1], pay[1], person, regret[1], same[1], the[1], wash[1], which. WORD CHOICE; GRAMMAR: also, answer[2], ask, become, bored, but[1], can[1], child, comprise, cost[1], dress[2], during, each[1], help[1], lead[1], life, outside[2], owing, pair[1], place[1], propose, raise[1], rather, reach[1], reason[1], request[2], say[1], since[3], speak, still[1], teach, telephone[1], travel[1], trouble[1], unique, wait[1], wish[1], worth[1]. GRAMMAR + other features: always, cause[2], especially, no[2], whether, worse[1], marry, nice, make[1], that[3], God.

However, only the following words are explained in the Grammar box in LDOCE4, in which the words in bold face are newly selected as words to be explained in the Grammar box: **case**[1] (**(just) in case**), enough[2], **even**[1], **half**[1], hardly, **holiday**[1], **if**[1], **intention**, **many**, most[1], much[2], **music, need**[1], of, pay[1], person, **problem, provide, qualification**, reason[1], **recommend, responsible**, same[2], **smell**[2], **staff**[1], **suggest, thank you**, the[1] (when to use 'the'), **there**[1], **they, used to, well**[1], wish[1], worse[1], worth[1], **yet**[1].

Concerning the entry words that are treated in GRAMMAR in both editions, their grammatical explanations are almost the same, and here as well the use of the warning mark ⚠ and *NOT* has made the explanation in LDOCE4 much more concise. Grammar in the Usage Note of LDOCE3 has been deleted when grammatical information given there is redundant — that is, when almost the same thing is shown in the grammatical notation in front of the example sentence (cf. *agree*).

9.4.2.   Other boxes

US/UK DIFFERENCE (floor[1], gotten), SUGGESTIONS (let's), POLITENESS (of course), Others (o'clock)

The grammatical notes of **floor**[1] in the previous edition are given after the warning mark in LDOCE4. *Gotten* was treated in Grammar section in LDOCE3, but the explanation is concerned with the usage difference in British and American English, so it should have been treated in the US/UK difference note. Therefore, the treatment within LDOCE4 is correct. Compared to the treatment in the previous edition where *let's* is briefly covered in the Usage Note of **propose**, LDOCE4 can be said to have enriched the explanation of the use of *let's*. In the previous edition, *of*

course was treated in both the Politeness and Style sections, but the information given in the Style section is missing in LDOCE4. Needless to say, the information regarding the usage for *of course* is enriched in LDOCE4. *O'clock* which was treated in UK-US Difference in LDOCE3 is now treated in a box without a specific name in LDOCE4.

(Y. Ichikawa)

10.   Illustrations
10.1.   Illustrations in the printed edition
10.1.1.   Unlike the previous edition, which boasted "over 2300 words illustrated" (LDOCE3, dust cover), LDOCE4 does not mention the number of illustrations anywhere in the front matter or on the dust cover. On a brief survey of the entire dictionary, we estimate the total number of the illustrated entry items in the new edition to be somewhere between 1,300 and 1,400, including those appearing merely as part of the illustrations for related entry items. From the fact that LDOCE4 does not mention the number itself, it would be safe to say there has not been a great increase in the number of illustrations, and actually we get the impression that the whole number has not changed much.

10.1.2.   As in the case of the previous edition (Urata *et al.* 1999: 89), there has been a drastic change once more in the choice of words to be illustrated. Out of the 28 entry items beginning with *b*, for example, which were accompanied by illustrations in LDOCE3, 14 (**back, balance, bar code, blinds, blow up, blurred, bolt, boring, bounce, bow, bud, bull's eye, bully,** and **burst**) are left without illustrations in LDOCE4. Five (**bagel, bandage, body, boots,** and **butterfly**) are still illustrated in this edition, but relocated to the illustrations for other entry words. Only nine (**bag, barbecue, basket, bed, bicycle, bite, board, bottle,** and **brush**) have retained their illustrations in this edition, though the pictures themselves are totally different from those in the previous edition. 17 (**backhand**[23], **baloon, barrier, bat, bedroom, big cat, bin, bird of prey, block, bonsai, bouquet, box, bread, break** (*v*), **bridge, broken,** and **bundle**) have been newly illustrated in this edition.

Some of the new illustrations seem to have been introduced in the new edition for convincing reasons: **bonsai**, for example, is now getting more and more popular in the English-speaking world and the lexicographers might have decided it was time to illustrate it, because it is one of the words to which "verbal explanations are unable to describe the meaning content with sufficient precision, concentration, completeness, and clarity" (Svensén 1993: 167). With most other cases, however, we cannot guess why the new illustrations had to be added, taking the place of those that appeared in the previous edition.

LDOCE3 had some excellent illustrations for entry words other than concrete nouns, such as the ones for **balance** (*n*), **boring** (*adj*), **bully** (*v*), and **bounce** (*v*), all of which have been purged.

What happened to the illustrations in the *B* section exemplifies the general pattern in the new edition; half of the illustrations in the previous edition, more or less, have been purged while almost the same number have been newly introduced, and the criteria for adding and purging illustrations are not clear.

10.1.3.   Most of the entry items illustrated in LDOCE4 are nouns with concrete meanings, but a certain amount of space is devoted to nouns with abstract meanings, verbs, and adjectives. More than 100 nouns with abstract meanings are illustrated, often in sets of related words, as in the successful case of **demonstration-procession-riot**, or using several pictures to show the processes as in the excellent illustrations for **food chain** and **metamorphosis**. Another strategy often employed to illustrate nouns with abstract meaning or adjectives is to show pictures of related items, as in the case of **make-up**, which is accompanied by photographs of a lipstick, a make-up brush, and an eye-shadow kit. Although we appreciate the efforts to use illustrations as part of definitions of nouns of this kind, we have to point out there are cases like **accident**, **arrest** (*n*), and **interview** where we cannot figure out what the photographs stand for.

10.1.4.   LDOCE3 ambitiously introduced illustrations for over 180 verbs, including the commendable ones explaining the differences between related verbs, such as **hear-listen**, **nod-shake one's head**, and **steal-rob**

(Urata *et al.* 1999: 89). Though all these illustrations have been deleted, about 100 verbs are appropriately illustrated in LDOCE4, mostly in pairs or in combination with related verbs, as in the cases of **offer-refuse**, **bite-chew-peck-nibble**, and **drink-sip-lap-suck**. Verbs illustrated with single photographs or drawings, such as **examine** and **share**, are now rare. The schemes for showing the differences between the related verbs are well exploited in the new edition, and one of the colour pages titled **'Cleaning'** successfully illustrates 12 verbs related to cleaning. Illustrations for verbs seem to have been enriched in quality, in spite of the fact that illustrated verbs have somewhat decreased in number.

10.1.5.   LDOCE4 illustrates over 60 adjectives. Some of the successful illustrations in the previous edition, such as the ones for **thick-thin** and **broken**, have been retained, and many more have been newly illustrated in the new edition. One of the colour pages titled **'Surface'** is successfully designed for illustrating 12 adjectives which describe surfaces. It is worth noting that a new strategy for illustrating adjectives has been introduced (see 4.1.3.): **multipurpose** is accompanied by a photograph of a multipurpose knife, and **acoustic** by photographs of two men, one playng an *accoustic guitar* and the other an *electric* one. Another example is **electric**, which is accompanied by four photographs — of a *bulb*, an *extention lead*, *fuses,* and *batteries*. This is an innnovation which would not have been introduced into a purely language-oriented dictionary, but it will come into wide use if learner's dictionaries are to offer more and more encyclopedic information.

10.1.6.   We appreciated the ambitious and successful illustrations for prepositions in the previous edition, but they have all been deleted. For adverbs and adverbial phrases, LDOCE3 had a few but very good illustrations, which have been entirely purged in the new edition. In these cases, the illustrations were elaborately designed to provide visual support for the description of the meanings. We miss them badly and hope that such illustrations offering linguistic, not encyclopedic, information, will not be forgotten in the trend towards dictionaries with encyclopedic information.

10.1.7.   As we have seen above, most of the illustrations are shown in pairs or groups, so that the differences between similar objects are understood and the range of shapes and forms covered by a particular word is shown. Illustrations presented in this way also serve as an important aid to vocabulary expansion (LDOCE2: F49). This was an innovation in the early editions of LDOCE, and now it seems to have taken a firm hold in learner's dictionaries. Not only verbs and adjectives, but also concrete nouns are illustrated in this way, and **egg**, for example, is accompanied by drawings of *boiled eggs, poached eggs, fried egg,* and *scrumbled eggs.* The user might at first be puzzled with such illustrations, but will find them useful in most of the cases. It should be noted that references are indispensable if illustrations are presented in groups. As compared with the previous edition, LDOCE4 gives references far more carefully, but if we take one of the colour pages titled **'Cleaning'**, on page 319 as an example, we find that of the 12 words illustrated there, one phrasal verb, **wash up**, is lacking a reference.

10.1.8.   Plenty of photographs have been introduced into the illustrations of LDOCE4. At first thought, we may expect they will offer visual information far more clearly and accurately than drawings. However, photographs themselves have their own limitations. It is no coincidence that most of the unsuccessful illustrations found in the new edition are photographs, such as those for **fierce, exhausted, arrest, wet,** and **accident**, just to mention a few. In the photograph for **fierce**, for example, we cannot tell which is fierce, the man or the dog. With drawings, on the other hand, the surroundings can be made anonymous by obscuring them. While we welcome the introduction of photographs, we hope they will be chosen more carefully for the next edition.

10.1.9.   As mentioned in the front matter, all the illustrations are in full colour in the new edition. We do not think full colour pages are indispensable for the study of English, but welcome it, since it might attract the users and make the dictionary look more accessible, though we are not sure if "[t]his makes the dictionary easier and more interesting to use, and

the colour photographs and drawings make studying English more lively" (LDOCE4: vii).

10.1.10.   Two Full-page illustrations, titled '**Environmental problems**' and '**Environmental solutions**', have appeared in the new edition. We appreciate the attitude of the editors towards environment which is expressed in these illustrations. We can also see their attitudes towards gender and race in the illustrations in which men do the housework and people of various races appear together.

10.1.11.   It is worth mentioning that three maps, of the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand, and North America, have been added to Full-page illustrations. These maps, together with 'Geographical names', also newly introduced in LDOCE4, reflect its orientation towards encyclopedic information.

10.2.   Illustrations in the CD-ROM edition

10.2.1.   The number of illustrated entry items in the CD-ROM edition is said to be 1,499.[24] After a careful check of the word list displayed in the pop-up window, we estimate the number of the illustrated nouns as around 1,400, verbs as around 60 and adjectives as around 40.

10.2.2.   If we take the *B* section of the CD-ROM edition as an example, as we have done with the printed edition (see 10.1.2.), the total number of illustrated nouns is 130, while only two are verbs (**bite** and **brush**) and another two are adjectives (**bent** and **broken**). As compared to the case of the printed edition, more than four times as many nouns are illustrated.

10.2.3.   With so many illustrations in the CD-ROM edition, one would expect that all the entry items illustrated in the printed edition must also be illustrated in the CD-ROM, but it is not the case. Five entry items (**bed, bedroom, big cats, birds of prey,** and **break**), illustrated in the printed edition, are not illustrated in the CD-ROM for reasons we cannot figure out. Even when the same entry items are illustrated in the printed

edition as well as in the CD-ROM edition, different illustrations can be assigned, as in the cases of **bouquet** and **accident**.[25]

10.2.4. It is regrettable that the schemes for showing the differences between related words are not exploited in the CD-ROM: in the printed edition, **bite** is accompanied by four drawings standing for *bite, chew, peck,* and *nibble,* while only one photograph for *bite* accompanies it in the CD-ROM. One would expect that such shortcomings will be well compensated by the search function, with which we can see photographs for related items one after another. However, as discussed in 11.7., this search function is not efficient enough to do such a job.[26] We hope all the illustrations in the printed edition will also be contained in the CD-ROM edition.

10.2.5. It is strange that none of the 7,000 encyclopedic entry items feartured in the CD-ROM are accompanied by illustrations. Since illustrations are extremely effective with items of this kind, we hope that illustrations will be assigned wherever they are necessary.

10.2.6. As pointed out in 10.1.8. with the printed edition, there are many cases including **wet, kneel,** and **giggle,** in which we cannot figure out what the photographs stand for. The merits and demerits of using photographs as illustrations need to be considered.   (A. Shimizu)

11. CD-ROM

This section points out the differences between the printed and the CD-ROM editions of LDOCE4. The advantages and disadvantages of the CD-ROM edition (henceforth "L4-CD") are compared to the printed one. Although L4-CD contains *Longman Language Activator* and offers "POP UP MODE", we are not concerned here with them but only with the dictionary itself.

11.1.   Front, middle, and back matters
11.1.1.   Front matter
11.1.1.1.   Pronunciation table

The pronunciation table appears in the on-line Help in L4-CD. Although its accessibility is decreased in comparison to the printed edition, this does not pose a great problem since recorded sounds accompany each word enabling association of the IPA transcriptions with the actual sounds. However, as pointed out in 3.2.2–3.2.4., the user should be cautious of the discrepancies between transcriptions and actual sounds found in some cases.

11.1.1.2.   Short forms and labels

Short forms used in the printed edition such as *sb* ('somebody') and *sth* ('something') are spelled out in definitions, boldface collocations, and phrasal verbs in L4-CD,[27] while they are not in the phrase bank.

As for the labels such as *formal* and *biblical*, L4-CD does not mention them at all.

The regional labels *BrE* ('British English') and *AmE* ('American English') are spelled out in L4-CD in principle as seen in the following example:

army
   1 the army [also + plural verb British English] the part of . . .

However, they are inconsistent in the usage notes:

'COLLOCATES for sense 1' in **bail**[1] (extraction)
   • **stand bail/put up bail** BrE (= pay someone's bail)
   • **jump bail** also **skip bail** British English (= not return to trial as you promised)
'HINT sense 2' in **bath**[2]
   It is more usual to say **have a bath** British English or **take a bath** AmE.

All of a small number of occurrences of *AusE* ('Australian English') are not spelled out but notated as *AusE* except in the definition of **dinkum** where its spelled-out form is used in the printed edition, too.

It is easy to find inconsistencies in the notational system in L4-CD.

11.1.1.3.   Grammar codes and patterns

Explanation for the grammar codes such as [C] ('countable') and the patterns such as [+about] (showing that the word can be followed immediately by *about*) are not included in L4-CD. Instead, the abbreviations [C], [U], [I], and [T] are spelled out as [countable], [uncountable], [intransitive], and [transitive] respectively. Collocational patterns of particles are spread out in the same way as other collocational patterns; for example, a part of the sense 1 of **battle²**:

the printed edition
  [+**for**] *a pressure group battling for better schools* | **battle to do sth** *Doctors battled to save his life.*
L4-CD
battle for
  • *a pressure group battling for better schools*
battle to do something
  • *Doctors battled to save his life.*

The abbreviated code "adv/prep" in [always + adv/prep] and [usually + adv/prep] are spelled out as "adverb/preposition" in general,[28] and the code [+adj/adv] is always spelled out as [+adjective/adverb].

11.1.1.4.   Others

L4-CD does not contain the foreword, which, however, does not seem to degrade its value since most of the users would not wish to read it on a computer screen.

Although L4-CD also lacks the introduction and the instruction "How to use the dictionary", it contains an on-line Help facility and "Guided tour", which can be seen as alternatives to the deleted information.

11.1.2.   Middle matter

The printed edition has "Language Notes" as the middle matter, which is not included in L4-CD. This cannot be regarded as a serious deficiency since the information therein would not be searched for in L4-CD where the users pursue easy accessibility of information. The middle matter could be seen as a sort of reading matter fit for being read on paper.

11.1.3.   Back matter

Maps and appendices are included as the back matter in the printed edition. Although L4-CD does not have these appendices as separate contents, most (but not all) of the geographical names are included as entries. The problem is, however, that the items available only in L4-CD are not accompanied by IPA transcriptions and recorded sounds. Also, there is an inconsistency in their treatment; for example, while **Alaska** and **Botswana** appear as entry items, the adjectival derivative of the former, **Alaskan**, appears as a run-on entry and the counterpart of the latter, **Tswana**, is not included in L4-CD. This can be seen as arbitrary and inconsistent. It should have included all the geographical words with IPA transcriptions and recorded sounds.

11.2.   Search
11.2.1.   Dictionary search

A search can be performed not only for entry items but also for words contained in the full entries including definitions and examples. This searchability in the CD-ROM edition is much higher than that in the printed one where only search by entry items is possible. The search result is shown as a list of entry items including the search key. The following are major characteristics of what can be called a "basic search" where a search is done just by typing a word or phrase in the box in the upper left part of the window:

• When two or more letters are typed in the search box, words beginning with the letters appear in the index list that will drop down (see Figure 1). (This function is called "automatic suggestion" henceforth.)
• When a search item is entered in the box and the "OK" button is clicked, all the entry items including the search key are listed in the main part of the window. If *tax* is searched for, for instance, the list contains not only **tax¹** (*noun*), **tax²** (*verb*), and **taxing** but also **capital gains tax**, **car tax**, etc. which are impossible to find in the printed edition where all the entry items are arranged alphabetically. This is one of the greatest advantages of the CD-ROM edition.
• When there are too many candidates such as when *a* or *the* were searched
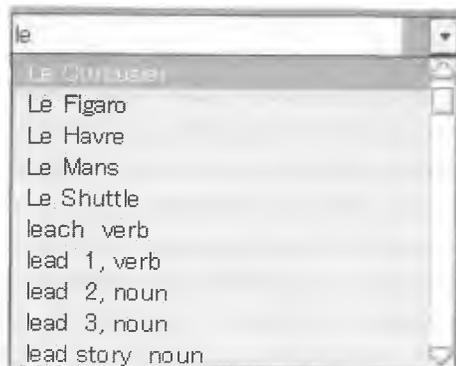
Figure 1　Basic search

for, a floating window pops up listing the candidates to choose from.

- When there are more than one candidate for the search, it is not possible to open more than one entry at one time; for instance, the entries **drive**[2] (*noun*) and **driving**[1] (*noun*) cannot be opened at the same time to compare their meanings. This was possible in the CD-ROM edition of LDOCE3 (henceforth "L3-CD") and is to be modified in the future versions.[29] The first entry in the list automatically opens in some cases, but the criterion by which this is the case is not explained, and could not be found.

- A phrase can also be entered into the search box. This is also a major benefit thanks to the electronic medium (Heuberger 2000: 129–131). The dictionary suggests phrases that match the request in a floating window (see Figure 2). By choosing a phrase from the list, the entry will open at the selected phrase highlighted in blue,[30] which is extremely useful. Collocations and boldface parts of examples seem to be the candidates for this search function. However, how this function works is not clear; for example, when *live the life* is the search key, the result contains not only *live the life of* but also *in the land of the living, the living,* and 61 others.

- When an item searched for is included as a run-on entry, the dictionary shows the same result as when the entry item which contains it is searched for. The automatic suggestion, however, does not work in this
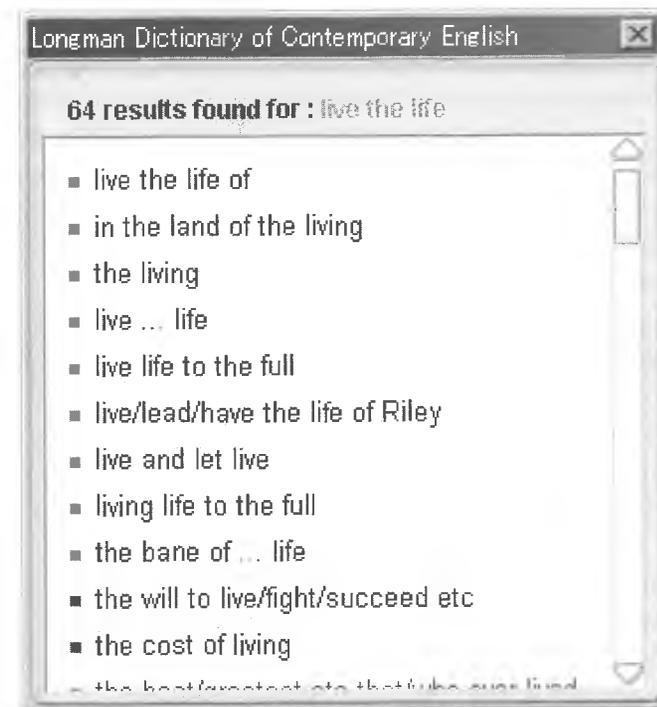
Figure 2　Phrases matching the request

case.

- Words whose spellings are varied between British English and American English can be searched with both types of spelling; when *theater* is searched, the entry of **theatre** is produced. The automatic suggestion does not work when t-h-e-a-t-e for *theater* is entered, which should be improved.[31] However, while the same thing happens with a word such as **organization** ("also -isation *BrE*" is noted in the printed edition) when *organisation* is searched, the alternative spelling of **aluminium** ("*BrE*; **aluminum** *AmE*" is noted in the printed edition) does not appear when *aluminum* is searched. This should be seen as another example of inconsistency.

The following are major characteristics of what can be called "advanced search" where an in-depth search can be carried out by clicking on the

"Search" button and selecting "Dictionary search":

- Wildcard (*) searches can be performed. It is disappointing, however, that a wildcard can be used only at the end position of a search item.
- Logical conditions (AND/OR/NOT) can be used to restrict the search result.
- The number of candidates is shown as soon as each letter is entered in the search box for the dictionary search, which enables the user to decide whether to use stricter conditions in order to narrow the search result.
- The frequency filter is available. This function makes it possible to extract only those entry words that are among the 1,000/2,000/3,000 most frequent words. The filter is available separately for spoken and written English.
- The results can be filtered by specifying the part of speech.
- The style filter is available for "biblical", "formal", "humorous", etc. When a style label is attached not to the whole entry but to a separate sense, the entry is ignored by the filter; for example, **trunk** which has the label *technical* for its sixth sense is not produced when the style filter is specified as "technical". This inflexibility and the inability to accept logical conditions in this function should be improved.
- The search key is highlighted in red in the entry. When the key is a phrase or words connected together with logical conditions, all the words in the search box are highlighted. The entry opens when a candidate is chosen from the floating window, but without jumping to the highlighted part as in the case of phrase searches.
- If the option "Always check spelling" is enabled, when the search key entered does not match anything, words which are close to the key are automatically listed.

11.2.2. Multimedia search

This function enables searching for illustrations and sound effects. The yielded result shows all the entry items which contain the search key and have an illustration or a sound effect in the entry. The illustration contained in the entry **harness**[1], for instance, has two labels "harness" and "rope", but this illustration is accessible by searching with *harness* but not

by *rope* which has another illustration (in **rope**[1]). This should be reformed.

11.2.3. Subject search

A database of words organized by categories can be searched by choosing theme/section/subject area (the subgroups do not necessarily have to be selected). Since the overall organization of the thesaurus is not made clear and a search with any key desired cannot be performed, it does not go so far as to systematically indicate the basic ideas and corresponding words that learners need and it is unfortunately not of much use.

11.2.4. Word origin search

Etymological information can be searched, but there are only certain choices for "Language of origin" and "Date" available. It would be more useful if logical conditions were allowed and the year period could be freely set.

11.2.5. Pronunciation search

Words with a particular pronunciation can be found with this function. IPA symbols can be put in through the on-screen key pad. The wildcard (*) can be used for any number of symbols, but only at either the beginning or the end of the search string. Stress is ignored and cannot be searched. Those cases where two vowels vary according to speakers (/ɪ̈/ and /ʊ̈/) can be searched with either of the two vowels. In the case of /ə/ which means that /ə/ may or may not be pronounced, the word can be searched whether or not the search key has /ə/ in the appropriate position. Those words whose pronunciation is varied between British English and American English need some care; only when the American pronunciation is spelled out without abbreviation with the "-" symbol, can the search program match the search request with the pronunciation. For example, **coordinate** (/kəʊˈɔːdɪ̯neɪt $ koʊˈɔːr-/) cannot be searched with its American pronunciation, while **coordinator** (/kəʊˈɔːdɪ̯neɪtə $ koʊˈɔːrdɪ̯neɪtər/) can because the American pronunciation is spelled out.

The words with a separate pronunciation for a separate sense cannot be

searched. To take an example, while **that**[1] has /ðæt/ for the whole entry and /ðət/ separately for its second sense, **that**[1] cannot be searched with /ðət/. Another example would be the entry **scorer** whose first sense includes "also **scorekeeper** /ˈskɔːkiːpə \$ ˈskɔːrkiːpər/". It would not be matched by means of searching with the pronunciation of **scorekeeper**. A search request will not match run-on entries, either.

The overall impression is that this function should be much more flexible and be capable of wildcards in the middle of the string and accepting logical conditions. For more discussion, see 3.2.6.

11.3. Entry items

Entry items are not colored in L4-CD. The color for the entry items are of importance in the printed edition for a quick search, but it is of little value in the CD-ROM edition since search is done by typing letters with a keyboard.

The blue toolbar below the entry item has the following buttons which are activated only when relevant information is available (see Figure 3).

Figure 3   Toolbar

- The speaker icon: A floating window appears where IPA transcriptions and recorded sounds[32] are available.
- Menu: The signposts, collocations, and phrasal verbs are listed in a floating window, in which an item can be clicked to jump to it. It is of great use for large entries.
- Usage note: GRAMMAR, WORD CHOICE, COLLOCATES, HINT, WORD FOCUS, and SUGGESTIONS are displayed in a floating window. Frequency charts are, however, not included in L4-CD, which may disappoint the users.
- Word origin: Etymological information appears in a floating window.
- Verb form: All the inflectional forms of a verb are listed in a floating window. When the British and American forms are different, they are

listed separately.

- Word set: The same database can be accessed as with the subject search function. The categories which contain the entry item are listed in a floating window, and by clicking on a category the same result as in the case of selecting the category with the subject search can be accessed. For the subject search function, see 11.2.3.

A separate syllabified notation with syllable dots can be displayed by enabling the option "Show syllable dots" in the "SETTING" menu.

11.4. Pronunciation

IPA transcriptions are the same as in the printed edition. One of the major advantages of L4-CD is that all the entry items that are also in the printed edition are accompanied by their recorded sounds both in American and British style. The user can also record his or her own pronunciation and compare it to the recorded sounds. See Section 3 for a more detailed discussion of pronunciation.

11.5. Definition

All the definitions in the printed edition are also included in L4-CD. What is characteristic of the CD-ROM edition and one of its greatest advantages at the same time, is that the users can instantly jump from any word in the entry to its full entry in the secondary definition window (see note 29 and Figure 6) for words the user is unfamiliar with. When a word is double-clicked in the secondary definition window, the window shows the new entry. A phrase can also be selected by highlighting it, and selecting "Look up expression" from the right-click menu returns the same result as one obtained by typing a phrase in the search box.

11.6. Examples
11.6.1. The same examples as in the printed edition

L4-CD contains all the examples included in the printed edition. The dictionary displays a sentence per line. In addition, collocations (which are in boldface black letters in the printed edition) are displayed in boldface blue. These characteristics render the dictionary much easier to read than

the printed edition.

11.6.2. Phrase bank

The phrase bank is a database of collocations containing not only those in the dictionary but also other information, and is available only in the CD-ROM edition. The inside back cover says that there are "over 150,000 collocations to show how words are used together", and the last note in the middle matter (p. 986) says, "The CD-ROM of the dictionary contains all the text of the printed book, but in addition contains a further 173,000 collocations with examples."

The phrase bank consists of three sets of information: "Dictionary phrases" (collocations in boldface blue and boldface part of examples in the same entry), "Phrases from other entries" (other entries *per se* and those phrases in other entries under the same criterion as the previous one), and "Words used with" (collocates categorized according to their parts of speech)[33] (see Figure 4).

When an item from "Dictionary phrases" is selected, the output jumps

Figure 4   Phrase bank

to the item and it is highlighted in blue. When the selected item is in "Phrases from other entries", the secondary definition window pops up at the position of the selected item without being highlighted. By selecting an item from "Words used with", the examples bank (see 11.6.3.) displays relevant examples (this function also works with the first two categories).

The phrase bank is indeed an advantage of L4-CD, but it has many unsatisfactory aspects, too. Four of them are described here. The first is that some items are inappropriate as a phrase; "take . . . the blame" in the phrase bank in **blame**[2] (corresponding to an example in the entry *You can't expect Terry to **take all the blame**.*) is an example. This misleadingly may give the user the impression that the blank part (. . .) can be substituted with any noun/pronoun or some other word. This is probably because data in the phrase bank is automatically generated from the body texts. The second problem is that part of speech is not considered; for instance, the phrase bank in **talk**[2] (*noun*) lists some items including **talk** as a verb such as "**aren't talking-** see **talk, v**" (Phrases from other entries). The third deficit is that although the printed edition successfully shows the close relationship between the collocating patterns (the upper part) and their examples (the lower part) in the collocation box, L4-CD shows the example part in the entry and the pattern part in the usage note which does not automatically appear, failing to show their connection. The last shortcoming is that it is not made clear which sense of the entry item corresponds to each item in the "Phrases from other entries" until the entry item where the relevant phrase is included is looked up; for example, in the phrase "**with/at the touch of a button/key-** see **touch, n**" (Phrases from other entries in **key**[2]), it is not entirely clear which sense of **key**[2] corresponds to this usage. These defects could have been avoided with adequate care.

11.6.3. Examples bank

The examples bank is a database of additional examples available only in the CD-ROM edition. Entry items and the items in the phrase bank have their own data for the examples bank, but there are cases where there is no corresponding data. This database consists of "Extra dictionary
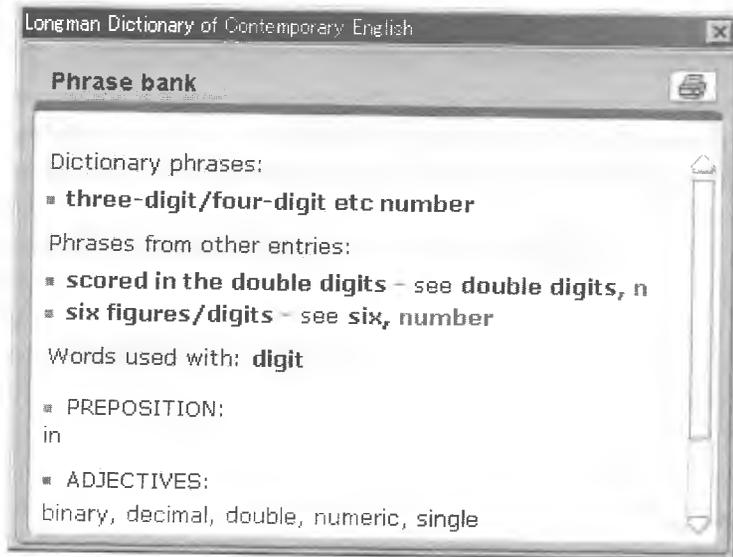
examples" and "Sentences from books, newspapers, etc.". The size of the former is claimed to be "nearly 80,000" (inside back cover), and the on-line Help says that there are "80,000 examples from other Longman dictionaries". As for the size of the examples from other sources, the inside back cover says that "over a million sentences from books, newspapers, and magazines to show how almost every word and phrase is used", and the guided tour says that there are "1 million additional sentences taken directly from the Longman Corpus Network".

When a new window is opened by clicking on the top right button in the section of the examples bank and the "corpus mode" is selected, the examples are displayed in KWIC format, which is a very helpful function when one wants to know the general collocational tendency of the key item.

One shortcoming of the examples bank is that the examples for an entry and those corresponding to each item in the phrase bank are independent from each other, which lowers its usability. For example, **tax**[1] has *I made over $600 a week, which was around $450 after **tax**.* for the examples bank (Extra dictionary examples) which is not accessible from a phrase item "before/after tax" in the phrase bank.

Another problematic feature is that the categories of the sources are too broad compared to those in ordinary corpora where very specific information on texts is available. This is a serious drawback and it would be desirable that more specific classification (such as "fiction" and "newspapers") should be made. As Jehle (1999: 358) writes, "we should be careful not to fall victim to the desire to have as many examples available as possible. The quantity criteria should never override the criteria of careful selection and of a sophisticated microstructure."

11.7. Illustrations

The number of illustrations is questionable. When the "pictures" option is selected while leaving the search box empty in the multimedia search function, the display shows that there are 1,499 candidates. This number seems to indicate the number of words with one or more illustrations. There are some cases where more than one illustration are used in

Figure 5   Illustration with labels
(available in **claw**[1], **fur**[1] and **paw**[1])

Figure 6   Secondary definition window

one entry as in **barrel**[1]. So actually there are 1,499 words that have one or more illustrations and about 200 of them are used more than once (the illustration used for **pastry** and **fi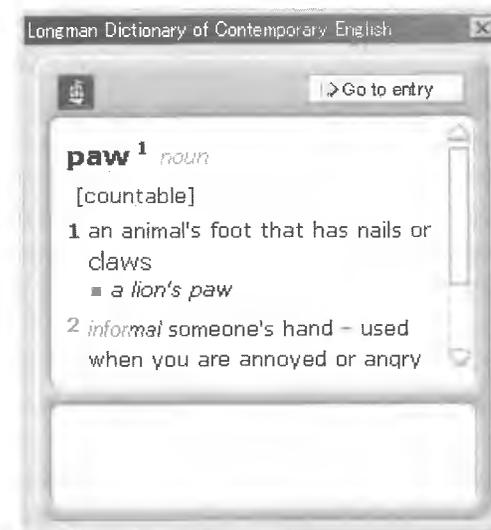lling**[1], for example), and it seems that the total number of *references* to illustrations is slightly more than 1,500. Therefore, the claim in the inside back cover that there are "over 1500 words illustrated in photographs" is questionable, and the statement in the guided tour that there are "over 1500 pictures" is not true.

Illustrations can be searched through the multimedia search function which brings up a list of entry items whose entry has an illustration and includes the search key in it. By selecting an item in the floating window, the entry opens with the search key highlighted in red. For example, when searching for *talking* with the multimedia search, the search result contains **hold**[1], which just has an illustration and *In April, the President held talks with Chinese leaders.* ("talks" is displayed in red letters) in its examples. This kind of searchability may be useful in some cases, but the search function should offer a filtering option in order to have only highly relevant candidates.

An advantage of L4-CD is that by clicking on any label in the illustrations, its definition is displayed in the secondary definition window (see Figures 5 and 6).

The illustrations included in L4-CD are different from those in the printed edition. Some are available only in L4-CD (such as two illustrations in **trunk**), others are included in both (such as the illustration in **trick**[1]), and still others are different in the printed and CD-ROM editions; for example, while **keyboard**[1] in the printed edition includes illustrations of a computer keyboard and an electronic keyboard with labels, L4-CD has only one of a computer keyboard and does not have labels. It is also questionable why all the illustrations in the printed edition are not included in L4-CD and many changes have been made. For a more detailed discussion of illustrations, see Section 10.

11.8. Other information available only in CD-ROM
11.8.1. Etymological information
Some words have brief etymological explanations. The number of

words with the etymological information is claimed to be 14,000 on the inside back cover.

11.8.2. Inflectional forms of verbs
All the inflectional forms of verbs can be seen in the dictionary. Run-on verbs do not have an inflectional table.

11.8.3. Thesaurus
The database is accessible through "Word set" and "Subject search", but explicit information on this thesaurus is not given.

11.8.4. Sound effects
Some onomatopoetic words have their actual sounds. For example, one can listen to the chirping sound of a bird by clicking on the sound icon in the entry **chirp**. The contents list on the inside back cover says the dictionary has "200 words illustrated with sound effects".

11.8.5. Additional entries
There are many proper names such as river names that are available only in the CD-ROM edition. They are based on LDELC (p. xi). As pointed out in 11.1.3., part of the additional entries are the same as those included in the "Geographical names" section in the back matter of the printed edition. These additional entries are not accompanied by IPA transcriptions and recorded sounds.

As for the number of these entries, the inside back cover says that there are "over 6500 encyclopedic entries for people, places, events, etc.", and the guided tour claims the number to be over 7,000.

11.9. Overall evaluation of L4-CD
11.9.1. Advantages of L4-CD
The following are some major advantages of L4-CD in comparison with the printed edition:
• Looking up items can be done much more quickly.
• Searching for phrases is much easier to carry out.

- A multitude of collocations and examples are provided.
- Sound effects are available for some onomatopoetic words.
- Hyperlinks are available for related entry items.
- When encountering an unknown word, it is possible to jump to it in the secondary definition window, which takes much less time compared to looking it up in the printed edition where one has to leaf through the dictionary until the entry in question is found.
- The texts for each entry (except for illustrations) can be printed and copied to the clipboard. The same goes for data in the phrase bank and the examples bank.

11.9.2. Disadvantages of L4-CD

The following are some major disadvantages of L4-CD in comparison with the printed edition:

- Availability of the usage notes is easy to miss because only the button indicates their availability. Furthermore, all types of usage information are categorized as "Usage note", which prevents one from knowing what kinds of information are available. These points decrease the readability of the texts. (The CD-ROM edition of MED (henceforth "MED-CD") always opens additional information when available.)
- While derivatives or related words are put close to each other in the printed edition where entry items are alphabetically arranged, the downward arrow icon beside the search box has to be clicked in order to see them in L4-CD (see Figure 7). Contrastingly, L3-CD (see Figure 8) and MED-CD always list consecutive entries as well as the search result. It would be desirable, at least optionally, to be able to see the items around the item in question.
- Although it is possible to go back to the previously seen entry using the search history, it is not possible to proceed again to the last entry once one has gone back. The MED-CD, in contrast, offers the "next" button, and L3-CD opens a separate window for each search, which enables opening several entries at the same time and jumping from one to another.
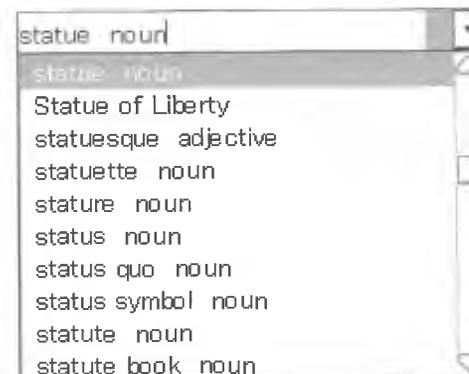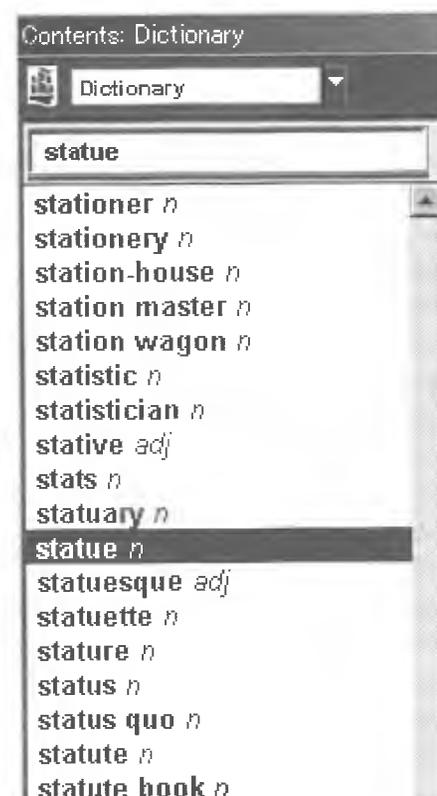

Figure 7   L4-CD

Figure 8   L3-CD

11.9.3. User-friendliness

In terms of user-friendliness, although the dictionary puts an emphasis on its linkage to *Longman Language Activator* or exercises, basic functions for searching and viewing the data leave much room for improvement. Also it would be desirable to be able to search for a word, phrase, or string with wildcards in an entry or data of the examples bank. This is especially the case when faced with a vast amount of texts. More flexible search functions such as full text search and freer availability of wildcards and logical conditions against the whole data in L4-CD would benefit the users. Some users may wish that each sense in an entry could be freely opened and closed when they want to look at and compare more than one sense that are not close enough to each other.

11.9.4. Educational effectiveness

Easy accessibility and reduced access time will lead to an increased chance of consulting the dictionary, which may have good effects for learners who use it for encoding purposes as well as for decoding purposes. Jehle (1999: 354–361) picks up three typical lookup situations where the CD-ROM edition of learners' dictionaries are used for encoding purposes; the user needs information on (1) more specific hyponyms of a superordinate which is already known, (2) valencies of a word, and (3) collocability of a word. The first situation among others often requires the user to look up related words, and easy accessibility from any word in an entry to its full entry in the CD-ROM edition will be highly beneficial for this situation. However, we should be careful not to conclude that CD-ROM dictionaries are unconditionally better for encoding purposes. As Heuberger (2000: 134–139) points out, users are required to have some knowledge and skills especially needed for looking up information in the CD-ROM dictionaries in order to make the best of them.

The phrase bank is of much potential use for learners. However, since frequent phrases and not so frequent ones are not differentiated, users may mistakenly assume that all the items in the phrase bank are equally frequent. It would be better if items with high frequency were marked in some way or given some kind of priority in terms of their treatment.

The examples bank is also potentially very useful, but users who can make the most of it will be fairly limited because the data are taken from "raw" data. A vocabulary filter would be desirable; a function with which only those examples that consist of a certain amount of vocabulary, such as 2,000 basic words, are displayed. Also, some information on the source of examples would be indispensable.   (Y. Ishii)

12. User Research

12.1. Background of the research

Our final task is to identify the facts that support our argument, particularly with regard to definitions and examples. In this section, we will report on the user research conducted by us and analyze the results. The research consists of four parts: a questionnaire regarding the participants' dictionary use in daily life, a task that compares the entries in three dictionaries (LDOCE4, LDOCE2, and COBUILD4), a task that compares the definitions in two dictionaries (LDOCE4 and LDOCE3), and a composition task using one of the three dictionaries (LDOCE4, LDOCE2, and COBUILD4). The first part is a replication of the bilingual and monolingual versions, Kanazashi (2001) and Dohi *et al.* (2002), respectively. The second part, where the participants were required to use the dictionaries while reading English, is largely based on Dohi *et al.* (2002), employing a similar question format. Whereas they compared complete entries in the second part, they only focused on definitions *per se* in the third part. A new aspect of this research is the last part, wherein the participants were required to write in English using a dictionary. Thus, this research is expected to investigate the users' reference skills not only in reception but also in production. For further information, particularly on the significance of conducting this type of user research in relation to an analysis of a dictionary, see Dohi *et al.* (2002: 61). The reasons for the replication are also stated in Dohi *et al.* (*ibid.*), referring to Hartmann (2001: 94, see also Hartmann (1998: 145)), who regrets that "[t]he various studies that have been carried out are difficult to evaluate and compare because the methods employed and the settings in which they take place are so diverse. Hardly any have been replicated by others, to verify

assumptions and findings . . . ."

12.2. Questionnaire

Similar to the two related studies (Kanazashi 2001 and Dohi *et al.* 2002), the present study begins with a questionnaire survey that includes similar set of questions on five main features of dictionary use. The questionnaire is prepared in Japanese, and its English translation is as follows:

(1) How long have you studied English?

(2) How often do you use an English-Japanese dictionary, a Japanese-English dictionary, and a monolingual English dictionary for your English studies? Please circle one of the following six choices that is the closest to the frequency of your dictionary use: 〈every day, twice or three times a week, once a week, twice or three times a month, once a month, less frequently than once a month, never〉.

(3) Please name the English dictionary and, if any, the monolingual English dictionary that you use most frequently. Are they printed or electronic?

(4) On what occasions do you use each type of English dictionary? Please number the following in order of frequency (from 4 for the most frequent item to 1 for the least frequent, and nil for the occasion that you do not use a dictionary).
— while reading English books, newspapers, magazines *etc.*
— while translating English into Japanese
— while writing English letters, essays *etc.*
— while translating Japanese into English

(5) For what purposes do you use an English-Japanese dictionary and a monolingual English dictionary? Please number the following in order of frequency (from 10 for the most frequent item to 1 for the least frequent, and nil for the purpose that you do not use a dictionary for).
— checking whether a word exists
— checking spelling
— checking pronunciation

— checking part of speech
— looking up meanings
— finding synonyms or antonyms
— finding collocations
— checking grammar (verb pattern, countability of a noun *etc.*)
— finding cultural information
— finding etymology

The results of this questionnaire survey are reported and discussed in 12.7.

12.3. Comparison tasks (Part 1): between LDOCE4, LDOCE2, and COBUILD4

In order to investigate the extent to which entries in LDOCE4 and other dictionaries meet the needs of the users and whether the changes found in LDOCE4 represent any improvements over LDOCE2 and LDOCE3, we have devised two sets of comparison tasks that would reveal the facts that a questionnaire alone would not.

In each of the six sets of questions, the participants were required to read a short English sentence including an underlined word (*leaf* (*v*), *absolution, baptize, circulation, headlong,* and *diatribe*), look up the word in LDOCE4, LDOCE2, and COBUILD4, compare the respective entries, judge the best and the worst entries, explain the reasons for the judgments, and translate the word or the entire sentence. Admitting the ability to translate does not necessarily imply the ability to understand, we are unable to employ a more convenient method of assessing their comprehension. They were required to check (select) the appropriate reasons for the judgments. They could select multiple responses from the following list.

(1) for the best entry:
— because the entry provides extensive information
— because the entry is concise
— because the definition is easy to understand
— because the example is informative or easy to understand or remember

(2) for the worst entry:
— because the entry does not provide relevant information
— because the entry is lengthy
— because the definition is difficult to understand
— because the example is not informative or difficult to understand or remember

The six sentences were presented to the participants and either the entry was presented in full color or part of the entry including all definitions and examples was reproduced in black and white, in the following order.

(1) As I was leafing through the catalogue, I came across a number of interesting CDs.
    leaf [LDOCE4] **leaf²** *v* **leaf through** sth *phr v* to turn the pages of a book quickly, without reading it properly; = **skim through**: *She picked up the magazine and leafed through it.*
    [LDOCE2] **leaf²** *v* **leaf through** sthg. *phr v* [T] to turn the pages of (a book, magazine, etc.) quickly without reading much: *I was leafing through an old school magazine when I came across your photo.*
    [COBUILD4] **leaf through** If you **leaf through** something such as a book or magazine, you turn the pages without reading or looking at them very carefully. □ *Most patients derive enjoyment from leafing through old picture albums.*

(2) They were glad to receive absolution from their sins.
    absolution [LDOCE2] *n* [U] (esp. in the Christian religion) forgiveness for a SIN: *to grant someone absolution*
    [COBUILD4] If someone is given **absolution**, they are forgiven for something wrong that they have done. [FORMAL] □ *She felt as if his words had granted her absolution.*
    [LDOCE4] *n* [U] when someone is formally forgiven by the Christian Church or a priest for the things they have done wrong: *Pope Leo gave him absolution.*

(3) Our English teacher was baptized as a Christian six years ago.
    baptize [COBUILD4] ✓ in BRIT, also use **baptise** When someone is **baptized**, water is put on their heads or they are covered with water as a sign that their sins have been forgiven and that they have become a member of the Christian Church. Compare **christen**. □ *At this time she decided to become a Christian and was baptised.*
    [LDOCE4] also **-ise** BrE *v* [T] **1** to perform the ceremony of baptism on someone; → **christen**   **2** to accept someone as a member of a particular Christian church by a ceremony of baptism: *He was baptized a Roman Catholic.*   **3** to give a child a name in a baptism ceremony: *She was baptized Jane.*
    [LDOCE2] also **-tise** *BrE v* [T] **1** to perform the ceremony of baptism on   **2** [+obj+n] to admit as a member of the stated church by baptism: *He was baptized a Roman Catholic.*   **3** [+obj+n] to give (someone) a name at baptism: *She was baptized Sheila Jane.*

(4) After she recovered from her illness, she was back in circulation again.
    circulation [LDOCE4] *n* **1** [singular, U] the movement of blood around your body: *Exercise improves the circulation.* | **good/bad circulation** *Doctors had to remove her leg because of bad circulation.*   **2** [U] the exchange of information, money etc from one person to another in a group or society: **in/out of circulation** *Police believe there are thousands of illegal guns in circulation.* | *The book was taken out of circulation.* | **remove/withdraw sth from circulation** *The Treasury Department plans to remove older coins from circulation and replace them with new ones.*   **3** [C, usually singular] the average number of copies of a newspaper or magazine that are usually sold each day, week, month etc: [+of] *The newspaper has a daily circulation of 55,000.*   **4** [C, U] the movement of liquid, air etc in a system: *Let's open the windows and get some circulation in here.*   **5 in circulation/out of circulation** *informal* when someone takes part or does not take part in social activities at a particular time: *Sandy's out of circulation until after her exams.*

[LDOCE2] *n* **1** [C; U] the flow of gas or liquid around a closed system, esp. the movement of blood through the body: *Bad circulation makes you feel cold.*   **2** [U] the movement of something, such as news or money, from place to place or from person to person: *the circulation of rumours* | *The government has reduced the number of £5 notes* **in circulation**. | *These ideas have been in circulation for some time.* | *She's* **out of circulation** (= not taking part in social life) *at the moment because she's working for her exams.*   **3** [S] the average number of copies of a newspaper, magazine, etc., that are regularly sold: *This magazine has a large circulation/a circulation of 400,000.* | *What will the effect on our circulation be if we increase the price to 25p?* | *a mass-circulation newspaper* (= read by a large number of people)

[COBUILD4] (omitted here since no helpful information was offered to the participants)

(5)   He drove headlong into the crowd and caused the traffic accident.

   headlong [LDOCE2] *adv, adj* **1** (done) with foolish or unthinking speed: *They rushed headlong into marriage.*   **2** (happening) quickly, suddenly, and without control: *a headlong descent into anarchy and disorder*   **3** HEADFIRST (1)

   [COBUILD4] **1** If you move **headlong** in a particular direction, you move there very quickly. □ *He ran headlong for the open door.* **2** If you fall or move **headlong**, you fall or move with your head furthest forward. □ *She missed her footing and fell headlong down the stairs.* **3** If you rush **headlong into** something, you do it quickly without thinking carefully about it. □ *Do not leap headlong into decisions.* ◆ **Headlong** is also an adjective. □ *. . . the headlong rush to independence.*

   [LDOCE4] *adv* **1 rush/plunge headlong into sth** if you rush headlong into something, you start doing it too quickly without thinking carefully **2** with your head first and the rest of your body following; = **headfirst**: *I fell headlong into a pool of icy water.* **3** very quickly, without looking where you are going: *Mortimer almost ran headlong into a patrol.* — **headlong** *adj*

(6)   You may be tired of reading diatribes in the daily newspapers.

   diatribe [COBUILD4] A **diatribe** is an angry speech or article which is extremely critical of someone's ideas or activities. □ *The book is a diatribe against the academic left.*

   [LDOCE4] *n* [C] *formal* a long speech or piece of writing that criticizes someone or something very severely: [+**against**] *a diatribe against contemporary American civilization*

   [LDOCE2] [(**against**)] *fml* a long violent attack in speech or writing

After the completion of the two sets of comparison, the participants were asked the following three oral questions related to each of the first three target words.

(1)   Were you bothered by the use of parentheses under the entry for **leaf**[2] *v* in LDOCE2, or did you find the information in the parentheses helpful?

(2)   Did you find it odd that the definition of **absolution** begins with *when* in LDOCE4, or did you manage to comfortably read through it?

(3)   Did you stop to consider why the word *baptized* in the target sentence is followed by *as* but such is not the case in any of the examples in the dictionaries?

The results of Part 1 of the comparison tasks are reported and discussed in 12.8.

12.4.   Comparison tasks (Part 2): between LDOCE4 and LDOCE3

The second part of the comparison tasks aims at revealing the difference in the definition between LDOCE4 and another dictionary (LDOCE3) in greater detail. For this purpose, only the definitions rather than the complete entries were presented to the participants. Four target words were chosen:

(1)   **abbreviate** (example: *'Information technology' is usually abbreviated to 'IT'.*)

   [LDOCE4] to make a word or expression shorter by not including letters or using only the first letter of each word

[LDOCE3] to make a word or expression shorter by missing out letters or using only the first letter of each word

(2) **knockout** (example: *The fight ended in a knockout.*)

[LDOCE4] when a BOXER hits his opponent so hard that he falls down and cannot get up again

[LDOCE3] an act of knocking your opponent down in BOXING so that he cannot get up again

(3) **access**

[LDOCE3] the way by which you can enter a building or reach a place

[LDOCE4] the way you use to enter a building or reach a place

(4) **settlement** (example: *the settlement of the American West*)

[LDOCE3] the movement of a new population into a place to live there

[LDOCE4] when a lot of people move to a place in order to live there, especially in a place where not many people have lived before

After evaluating, the participants were asked to judge which of the two definitions were easier to understand, to indicate what part of the definition appeared favorable or unfavorable, and to translate the example or the better definition into Japanese. The results of this part are reported and discussed in 12.9.

12.5.　Composition tasks

The last part of our user research is a set of five composition tasks, in which the participants used a specified dictionary to translate (parts of) Japanese text into English, or to compose English sentences describing given situations as follows:

(1) **look up**

Translate Japanese into English using *look up*: もし lexicography の意味を知らなければ、辞書で引きなさい。(For a non-Japanese, this is what the task involves: "If you do not know the meaning of 'lexicography' and your English teacher tells you to consult a dictionary, how would you describe the situation in English using *look up*?")

(2) **cut, cut down** etc.

Describe the following situation in English using *cut* or a phrasal verb with it: ある国では石炭の使用量を減らさなければならなかった。(Or for a non-Japanese, "Fill in the blank with an appropriate word or phrasal verb with *cut*: The country had to ＿＿＿＿ the use of coal.")

(3) **face** v

Describe the following situation in English using *face*: わが国は出生率の低下という問題に直面している。(Fill in the blank with an appropriate word or phrasal verb with *face*: Our country ＿＿＿＿ a decreasing birthrate.)

(4) **furniture**

Translate the following Japanese text into English: 新居にまだ家具を3点しか入れていない。(The translation would be "We brought only three pieces of furniture into our new house.")

(5) **allow, forgive, permit**

Which verb can you use in the translation of the following Japanese text into English? 先生はその学生が遅刻したのを許してやった。(Fill in the blank with an appropriate verb: The teacher ＿＿＿＿ the student for coming late for class.)

The participants were asked to answer five questions using three dictionaries — one or two questions per dictionary. The participants in Group N were provided with part of the translation in order to focus on the point of the research without digressing due to unrelated material. In order to make sure that neither dictionary is consulted by too many or too few participants within each group, the dictionary to be consulted had been specified. If a participant was able to answer a question without referring to a dictionary, he or she was required to intimate us. Following each task, they were asked to indicate the information category that helped them with the composition or translation. The results of these composition tasks are reported in 12.10.

12.6.　Participants in the research

A total of 118 people participated in the research, including 115 Japanese, 2 Chinese, and 1 Vietnamese; 107 undergraduate students, 7 post-

graduate students, and 4 others. Of these, 77 were male, while 41 were female.

They were classified into three groups on the basis of their exposure to English or to dictionaries. 12 participants, who (had) majored in English or who used English as frequently as English majors, were classified into Group M (majors). The rest (106) were in Group N (non-majors), of whom 10 were sub-classified into Group T (trained), as they had been trained to use the monolingual English dictionary for five months, with Komuro (2004) as a textbook. Most of the undergraduate students, irrespective of whether they belong to Group T, had occasionally used a monolingual dictionary in their weekly English lessons taught by the researcher.

12.7. Results of the questionnaire survey

All 118 participants answered the first question, "How long have you studied English?" The answers ranged from "6 and a half years" to "49 and a half years," where the mean and mode are 9.4 and 6.5 years, respectively. Most of those in Group N are first-year university students who had studied English for 6.5 or 7.5 years, where the mean value for this group is 8.2 years, whereas most participants in Group M are postgraduate students and adults, 2 of whom had studied English for 49.5 years, which raised their average to 20.5 years.

Question (3) revealed how drastically the three years since the research conducted in 2001 (reported in Dohi *et al.* 2002: 69) has changed the medium by which Japanese students, particularly young undergraduates, look up words in the dictionaries. Three years before, only 8 out of 109 participants named an electronic dictionary. In the current research, however, 81 out of 113 (including 7 out of 12 in Group M, 5 out of 10 in Group T, and 75 out of 101 undergraduates aged under 30), who mentioned any dictionary, named an electronic bilingual dictionary, and 46 out of 78 (6 out of 11 in Group M, 5 out of 10 in Group T, and 57 out of 91 undergraduates under 30) named an electronic monolingual dictionary.

The results for the other items of the questionnaire are reported in the tables below. Table 6 shows the number of participants who used English-

Table 6   Frequency of dictionary use

frequency	English-Japanese			Japanese-English		monolingual		
	Group M	Group N		G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	
		G. T	others				G. T	Others
every day	7	2	5	2	3	2	0	1
2/3 times a week	3	1	42	3	33	1	3	8
once a week	2	6	27	2	23	1	6	29
2/3 times a month	0	1	10	0	13	2	1	11
once a month	0	0	6	1	10	1	0	5
less than a month	0	0	6	4	17	4	0	17
never	0	0	0	0	6	1	0	24

Japanese, Japanese-English, and monolingual English dictionaries according to the frequency of use.

Tables 7, 8, and 9 list the answers to Question (4). 12 in Group M and 104 in Group N answered it; the results of the participants who did not give any answer concerning a Japanese-English or a monolingual dictionary are excluded from the tables.[34]

The following is a summary of the results, essentially similar to Dohi *et al.* (2002: 71) with the exception of (6), which is a newly-observed trend, and

Table 7   Occasions on which participants use an English-Japanese dictionary

frequency	reading English books etc.		translating English into Japanese		writing English letters etc.		translating Japanese into English	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
means	3.3	1.5	2.8	3.8	2.3	1.6	1.5	1.8

Table 8   Occasions on which participants use a Japanese-English dictionary

frequency	reading English books etc.		translating English into Japanese		writing English letters etc.		translating Japanese into English	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
means	0.7	0.9	0.3	1.3	3.4	2.1	3.2	3.6

Table 9   Occasions on which participants use a monolingual English dictionary

frequency	reading English books etc.		translating English into Japanese		writing English letters etc.		translating Japanese into English	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
4 (most frequently)	6	19	1	23	3	19	1	11
3	1	9	3	22	4	9	2	15
2	1	5	0	6	4	15	1	7
1 (least frequently)	1	10	2	3	0	1	3	6
0 (never)	2	29	5	18	0	28	4	33
means	2.7	1.7	1.4	2.4	2.9	1.9	1.4	1.5

(7), as the subdivision of Group N has been conducted only in the present study:

(1)   Bilingual dictionaries are used far more frequently than monolingual ones;

(2)   The dictionary is used for receptive purposes more frequently than in productive contexts;

(3)   Excluding 2, all the participants use a dictionary to translate English into Japanese;

(4)   Every Japanese participants in Group M uses an English-Japanese dictionary on every occasion listed;

(5)   More than half of the participants from Group M use an English-Japanese dictionary most frequently while reading English, whereas the vast majority of participants from Group N do so for translating English into Japanese;

(6)   For encoding, participants in both groups use a monolingual English dictionary to write spontaneously more frequently than to translate Japanese into English, but for decoding, there is a discrepancy between the two groups in the activities that they frequently perform;

(7)   Excluding 1 in Group M, all in Groups M and T use a monolingual English dictionary, whereas 24 in Group N who are not included in Group T do not use one.

Therefore, the hypotheses similar to those of Dohi *et al.* (2002: 72) may be

formulated:

(1)   English teaching in Japan is largely based on translation at beginner's level, but at higher levels the learners refrain from excessive dependency on translation, and learn to use dictionaries for other purposes;

(2)   Many Japanese who do not major in English keep a monolingual English dictionary at a respectful distance, regarding it as too difficult to comprehend.

Tables 10 and 11, each divided into three sections owing to their horizontal spread, indicate the numbers of participants who used dictionaries for the specified purposes, and the mean frequency of the use for

Table 10.1   Purposes for which participants used an English-Japanese dictionary

	whether a word exists		spelling		pronunciation	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
mean frequency (each group)	4.2	3.7	6.4	6.8	6.0	4.8
mean frequency (both groups)	3.7		6.7		4.94	

Table 10.2   Purposes (continued)

frequency	part of speech		meaning		synonym/ antonym		Collocation	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
means (each)	3.83	5.0	9.8	9.8	3.75	4.7	6.1	6.3
means (both)	4.90		9.8		4.6		6.26	

Table 10.3   Purposes (continued)

frequency	grammar		cultural information		Etymology	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
means (each)	7.3	6.2	2.1	0.8	3.0	0.9
means (both)	6.34		0.9		1.1	

Table 11.1   Purposes for which participants used a monolingual English dictionary

frequency	whether a word exists		spelling		pronunciation	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
10 (most frequent)	0	4	0	1	0	1
9	0	4	1	9	1	1
8	0	6	0	6	2	6
7	1	5	1	9	2	4
6	0	4	3	10	0	6
5	2	4	0	5	1	4
4	0	1	0	6	0	12
3	0	7	1	2	1	2
2	1	0	0	2	0	1
1 (least frequent)	0	3	0	0	0	0
0 (never)	7	45	5	33	4	46
means (each)	1.7	2.8	3.4	3.9	4.3	2.5
means (both)	2.66		3.8		2.70	

Table 11.2   Purposes (continued)

frequency	part of speech		meaning		synonym/antonym		Collocation	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
10	0	0	7	60	0	7	2	4
9	0	7	2	10	2	11	2	19
8	2	5	1	2	1	8	2	19
7	0	8	0	4	2	12	1	12
6	0	6	0	0	2	8	3	9
5	0	11	1	1	0	6	0	3
4	2	3	0	1	2	3	0	1
3	1	3	0	1	0	2	0	0
2	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	6	38	0	0	2	25	1	16
means (each)	2.5	3.3	9.2	9.0	5.5	5.0	7.2	6.3
means (both)	3.2		9.0		5.1		6.4	

Table 11.3   Purposes (continued)

frequency	grammar		cultural information		etymology	
	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N	G. M	G. N
10	1	6	1	0	0	0
9	3	17	0	1	0	0
8	2	18	0	2	1	0
7	2	5	1	2	0	0
6	0	5	0	0	1	1
5	0	4	2	4	0	1
4	2	1	0	3	0	2
3	0	1	0	2	1	3
2	0	1	1	6	0	2
1	0	1	0	0	1	5
0	1	24	6	63	7	69
means (each)	6.8	5.4	2.6	1.1	1.6	0.4
means (both)	5.6		1.3		0.6	

each purpose.[35] Some participants wrote "0" for all the purposes mainly because they had never used a monolingual dictionary, and their answers have not been taken into consideration here, unlike in Dohi *et al.* (2002: 72–73).

Among the participants in Dohi *et al.* (2002: 72–73), the most frequent use of a dictionary was to look up meanings. This was followed by spelling, grammar, and pronunciation in the case of an English-Japanese dictionary, and by collocations and grammar in the case of a monolingual English dictionary. A very small number referred to a dictionary for cultural information and etymology. In the present study, the results are virtually the same as above, with the sole exception of collocations instead of pronunciation being the fourth most frequent purpose for which the participants use an English-Japanese dictionary. In particular, collocations were frequently referred to by those in Group T, whose mean frequency was 10.0 for meaning, 7.2 for collocation, and 6.7 for spelling in the case of an Japanese-English dictionary; 9.4 for meaning, 7.6 for collocation, and 6.3 for grammar in the case of a monolingual English dictionary. We

surmise that Komuro's (2004: 28–34) emphasis on the significance of collocational information in a monolingual dictionary had encouraged those in Group T to refer to it in both types of dictionaries.[36] Even those who did not use the textbook showed an increasing interest in information categories other than meaning, partly because many participants in Group N attended the researcher's weekly lessons in which they used a monolingual dictionary.[37] It is anticipated that these factors have enhanced the reliability of the results of the present research, especially in the composition tasks.

12.8. Results of the comparison tasks (Part 1)

113 participants (all 12 in Group M and 101 in Group N including all 10 in Group T) performed the first part of the comparison tasks. The results are listed in Tables 12, 13, 14, and 15. The numbers of all participants who judged a dictionary as the best or the worst are given in Table 12. Apart from these overall results, the numbers of the participants who are considered to have understood the meaning of each word are given in Table 13, as the latter evaluation is more reliable in many cases.[38]

As might be expected from the data presented in Tables 10 and 11 the "definition" is the most frequently selected reasons for both the best and the worst entries. This is not surprising, as 57 out of the 79 participants who had used a monolingual dictionary did so to look up meanings the most frequently, while 10 rated looking up meanings as the second most

Table 12   Evaluation by the participants on the entries

word to look up (n=number of participants who looked up)	the best			the worst		
	LDOCE4	LDOCE2	COBUILD4	LDOCE4	LDOCE2	COBUILD4
leaf v (n=113)	37	50	26	30	21	61
absolution (n=112)	47	17	45	15	73	22
baptize (n=113)	48	17	45	19	43	47
circulation (n=106)	59	26	16	25	27	46
headlong (n=109)	25	56	28	25	33	48
diatribe (n=110)	29	28	51	33	58	15

Table 13   Evaluation by the participants who understood the meaning

word to look up (n=number of participants who understood)	the best			the worst		
	LDOCE4	LDOCE2	COBUILD4	LDOCE4	LDOCE2	COBUILD4
leaf v (n=104)	35	46	23	28	18	57
absolution (n=72)	28	12	31	11	46	14
baptize (n=96)	40	12	43	15	41	39
circulation (n=43)	28	11	4	9	10	23
headlong (n=82)	19	46	17	17	22	41
diatribe (n=83)	22	23	36	24	45	12

Table 14   Reasons for the judgment of the best entry by the participants who understood the meaning

reason	number and percentage of checks
extensive information	134 (20.7%)
conciseness of the entry	65 (10.0%)
the easy definition	287 (44.3%)
the easy example	162 (25.0%)
total	648 (100.0%)

Table 15   Reasons for the judgment of the worst entry by the participants who understood the meaning

reason	number and percentage of checks
insufficient information	149 (26.7%)
the lengthiness of the entry	79 (14.1%)
the difficult definition	199 (35.6%)
the difficult example	132 (23.6%)
total	559 (100.0%)

frequent use. However, the "example," which follows in the order of importance for the best entries, falls third among the worst entries. "The difficult example" is outnumbered by "insufficient information" in this study and not by "the lengthiness of the entry" as in Dohi *et al.* (2002: 79), which is the only difference between the two studies regarding the order of the reasons for a judgment. This difference can presumably attributed to the nature of the confirmation of a participant's understanding of the

meaning of a word: an oral and loose confirmation in the former as opposed to a written and concrete one in the present tasks, in which the participants must have felt the need for more information at the expense of the whole entry being lengthened. As regards the effects of the colors, few participants expressed their preference for the color version over the black and white one.

12.8.1.   We will now focus on each task in detail. Only the evaluation by those participants who understood the meaning of the target word is taken into account from this section up to 12.8.6. *Leaf* (*v*) is the only target word common to both studies, and as in Dohi *et al.* (2002: 79), LDOCE2 was the most popular and COBUILD4 (COBUILD3 in the previous study) was the least. As regards the reasons, 3 in Group M provided the "definition" and 1 provided the "example." 23 in Group N provided the "definition," and the "example" provided by as many. This disproportionately heavy dependence on examples (and even the popularity of LDOCE2) is simply attributed to the similarity between the example in LDOCE2 and the target sentence. These results reconfirm the significance of providing examples that occur with a high frequency, which reassured users, particularly those whose proficiency level is not very high. The dictionaries analyzed (LDOCE4 in the present analysis and LAAD in the previous one) did not receive an uncharacteristically high evaluation.

12.8.2.   Although an approximate or unidiomatic translation was considered to be a confirmation of the participants' understanding of the target words, one-third of the participants were regarded as unsuccessful in grasping the meaning of *absolution*, which is perhaps due to its specificity to the Christian religion. The simple definition in COBUILD4 was highly evaluated by 18 (including 4 in Group M), while its example (which does not appear to be easier than others) by 15 (all belonging to Group N). This was rivaled by LDOCE4 in popularity with an unusually large number (10) of participants appreciating the abundance of information, 18 for its definition, and 10 for its example. On the other hand, LDOCE2 was criticized by 31 for its insufficient information, by 16 (including 2 in

Group M) for its difficult definition that contains a word not listed in the defining vocabulary, and by 15 for its example, assumedly because it is abstract in nature.

12.8.3.   The word *baptize*, another Christian term, was understood by many more. The simplicity of the definition in LDOCE4 was supported by 23, as well as for its extensive information by 20, and its concise examples by 14. More participants favored COBUILD4 mainly because its definition is simple (expressed by 26 participants), and it is the only definition here that does not contain *baptism*. But at the same time, COBUILD4 was judged to be the worst by the largest number due to wordiness in its sentence definition (by 19), and the length of the entry (by 17). One in Group M, who judged it as the best for its definition, criticized the same definition on the ground that "the truly important part of the definition (*become a member of the Christian Church*) does not appear at the beginning," and another in Group M, who judged it as the worst for its lengthiness, argued that its entry is "too long for those who only need information on the word in a skeletal outline, and not very helpful for those who are unfamiliar with Christianity."

12.8.4.   Information required for solving the problems in Task (4) is not very accessible to participants: in LDOCE4, it is presented in the last section of the article (sense **5 in circulation/out of circulation**); in LDOCE2, it is provided indirectly in one of its examples as "*She's* **out of circulation** (= not taking part in social life) . . . " without mentioning its antonym that is relevant to the task; and no relevant information is available in COBUILD4. As a result, only 9 in Group M, 3 in Group T, and 31 others understood the target sentence, 3 of whom in Group M pointed out that COBUILD4 did not provide necessary information. Most others mistakenly related the target sentence to the woman's blood circulation, health, or club activity, or failed to translate the word. Their poor performance at this question strongly supports the arguments presented by Tono (2001: 161), who convincingly concludes that users "tend to choose the first definition."

12.8.5. With respect to *headlong*, LDOCE2 was highly praised by 46 participants, 26 of whom appreciated its definition, 20 the conciseness, 11 its examples, and 3 the abundance of information. The conciseness of the entry was the second priority only in this task. Presumably the comparison was attempted mainly on the basis of the length of the entries and the simplicity of the definitions, as none of the dictionaries provide the collocation *drive headlong* as in the target sentence. The word counts of both definitions applicable to the target sentence are as follows: 6 (sense **1**) and 6 (sense **2**) in LDOCE2, while they are 15 (senses **1**) and 8 (sense **3**) in LDOCE4, and 13 (sense **1**) and 15 (sense **3**) in COBUILD4. This illustrates the disadvantage of sentence definitions in COBUILD4 and (part of) LDOCE4. For the purpose of a mere translation, a one-word synonym will suffice, and the subdivision of the two senses may not be necessary. LAAD unifies them as "**1** to start doing something too quickly, without thinking carefully about it first." But a deeper understanding of the meaning involves immense issues.

12.8.6. The entry for *diatribe* in LDOCE2 was criticized by 45 participants, 40 of whom selected "insufficient information," 6 "the definition," 1 "example," and 3 stated that the lack of any example was problematic.

The entries in the other two dictionaries differ in that the distinctive features of a diatribe are expressed by *angry* and *critical* in COBUILD4, and *criticize* and *severely* in LDOCE4 (if *long* is negligible), with the former containing the most simple word of these, *angry*, which is considered to enhance the comprehensibility of COBUILD4's definition. A minor point to note is that 2 participants in Group N considered the register label *formal* as part of the definitions in LDOCE2. Although there were only 2 who explicitly translated it, we suspect that quite a few were bothered by this. It is not easy for people who use non-alphabetical languages such as the Japanese to distinguish between roman and italic text.[39] In this case, the use of parentheses would have been helpful.

12.8.7. Tasks (1), (2), and (3) in Part 1 have an additional question that the participants answered after the completion of Part 2. With regard to

the additional question in Task (1) (Question (1A) hereafter), 18 participants were bothered by the use of parentheses under **leaf²** *v* in LDOCE2, 45 found the information within the parentheses helpful, while 42 others disregarded it. Additional information in the definitions in LDOCE4 is anticipated to be preferred to a similar extent (see 4.2.2.). No peculiar difference was found in the answers provided to Question (1A) among the groups.

12.8.8. Answers to Question (2A) are shown in Table 16.

Table 16   Participants' evaluation of the "when" definition

	Group M (n=12)	Group N	
		Group T (n=10)	others (n=90)
those who were troubled	5 (42%)	3 (30%)	19 (21%)
those who welcomed it	2	0	7
neither	4	6	58
no answer	1	1	6

Of the 12 participants in Group M, 5 (42%) pointed out the lack of substitutability of the definition for the target word and other problems listed in 4.5. But the lower the participants' proficiency was and the less they had been exposed to English and dictionaries, the less they tend to be troubled by the grammatical problems and the low substitutability. This trend is observed from the percentages of those who were troubled — a downward curve from Group M through Group T to others in Group N.

12.8.9. The answers to Question (3A), listed in Table 17, bear a similarity to those to Question (2A) concerning the relations between the groups and the percentage of negative answers.

Apart from the downward curve, which is not as clearly indicated as in the previous table, Table 17 shows that no participants regarded it as favorable that all the three dictionaries provide examples in a sentence pattern (such as *was baptized Roman Catholic, was baptized Jane*) that differs from that of the target sentence (*was baptized as a Christian*), but

Table 17   Participants' evaluation of examples

| | Group M (n=12) | Group N | |
		Group T (n=10)	others (n=91)
those who were bothered	4 (33%)	3 (30%)	22 (24%)
those who favored it	0	0	0
neither	7	7	65
no answer	1	0	4

that only a few made an effort to stop and think about the difference. It may be safe to state that in L2/L1 translation users at a lower proficiency level and with less exposure to dictionaries do not normally pay much attention to grammatical details.

12.9.   Results of the comparison tasks (Part 2)

Part 2 of the comparison tasks focused the attention of 102 participants on definitions in LDOCE4 and LDOCE3, although a few of them did not express their preference in some of the tasks.

The below tables indicate that the definitions in LDOCE4 are preferred by more participants in all cases. However, this result should be analyzed with great care. In the case of *abbreviate*, those who preferred LDOCE4 slightly outnumber those who did not, and the percentage of correct translation (of either the definition or an example) was higher with LDOCE4. However, among the 39 who were required to translate the definition itself rather than an example that is common to both editions (*'Information technology' is often abbreviated to 'IT'.*), 5 out of 20 misinterpreted the definition in LDOCE4, while 3 out of 19 misinterpreted that in LDOCE3.

Table 18   Participants' preference for a definition in the two dictionaries

word to look up (n=number of participants stated their preference)	LDOCE4	LDOCE3
abbreviate (n=96)	51 (53%)	45 (47%)
knockout (n=100)	81 (81%)	19 (19%)
access (n=99)	76 (77%)	23 (23%)
settlement (n=92)	58 (63%)	34 (37%)

Table 19   Preference of those who understood the meaning

word to look up (n=number of participants who understood)	LDOCE4	LDOCE3
abbreviate (n=68)	38 (56%)	30 (44%)
knockout (n=80)	67 (84%)	13 (16%)
access (n=73)	58 (79%)	15 (21%)
settlement (n=67)	46 (69%)	21 (31%)

During the analysis of the results concerning other target words in 12.9., answers by those who misunderstood the target words were not taken into account. As in 12.8., even those who made a rough or unidiomatic translation were judged as successful in grasping the meaning. It might be surprising that the "when" definition under the entries for *knockout* and *settlement* was not disliked. As regards *knockout*, 67 preferred the definition in *LDOCE4*, 22 of whom criticized the use of "an act of" as difficult or incomprehensible. Those 67, who were regarded as successful in understanding the definition at least vaguely, include 24 who were of the opinion that *when* only introduced the clause "a boxer hits his opponent so hard," implying that the definition could be interpreted as "When a boxer hits his opponent so hard, he falls down and cannot get up again." They outnumbered 14 who are clearly regarded as having understood that the conjunction introduces the rest of the entire definition. Of these 11 concluded the translation with " . . . こと," " . . . 状態," " . . . さま," or " . . . 場合" (all roughly synonymous with "a state of . . . "), and the first two of these translations are what Higashi and Urata (2005: 9) recommend as the Japanese equivalents of this use of *when*, although none of the 102 who undertook this task concluded their translation with " . . . 行為," which can be directly translated as "the act of . . . ."

In the case of *settlement*, the "when" definition caused little problem either. But the popularity of the definition in LDOCE4 lies not so much in the use of *when* as in the additional information "especially in a place where not many people have lived before" with 22 pros and 3 cons. There was only 1 who expressed a preference for the definition in LDOCE3 since it is shorter.

A considerable amount of discrepancy was also found in the preference for the definitions of *access*. 28 favored the use of the word *use* in LDOCE4, 27 others criticized the use of *by which* in LDOCE3, 17 of whom did both. Even all the 3 participants in Group M, who are expected to have enough command of English to understand *by which*, criticized the phrase as being difficult, probably for pedagogical reasons rather than for themselves.

12.10. Results of the composition tasks

In order to determine the number of participants who referred to each dictionary and gave the right answer to the composition tasks, the answers that were regarded as correct have been defined. In Task (1), the answers that included "look it up in a/your dictionary," "look the meaning up in a dictionary," "look up the meaning (of the word) in a dictionary" are regarded as correct, while the answers that included "look up it in a dictionary" were regarded as wrong. In Task (2) "cut," "cut back," "cut down," and "cut down on" are all regarded as correct, regardless of the presence or absence of "the amount of." In Task (3), participants needed to fill in the blank (in "Our country _____ a decreasing birthrate.") with "face," "is facing," or "is faced with." In Task (4), the answer should include "three pieces of furniture" or "three articles of furniture." In Task (5), *forgive* (or *forgave* in the case of "The teacher _____ the student for coming late for class.") is the only right answer.

Table 20   Number and percentage of the right answers of the composition tasks

item to look up	LDOCE4	LDOCE2	COBUILD4
(1) *look up*	29/35 (83%)	28/36 (78%)	18/35 (51%)
(2) *cut v*	29/35 (83%)	31/37 (84%)	24/35 (69%)
(3) *face v*	27/35 (77%)	23/37 (62%)	21/36 (58%)
(4) *furniture*	8/34 (24%)	10/34 (29%)	10/33 (30%)
(5) *forgive* etc.	16/32 (50%)	16/32 (50%)	28/37 (76%)

12.10.1.   As regards *look up* in Task (1), all three dictionaries contain an example sentence that is similar to the translation of the target sentence in

Japanese. But there is a great discrepancy in the percentage of right answers between LDOCE4 and COBUILD4. In addition to the significance of providing examples occurring with high frequency reconfirmed by the result of the first of the comparison tasks (see 12.8.), lexicographers need to bear in mind that some users at an intermediate or a lower level of proficiency face difficulties transforming "Many people have to look up the meaning of this word in the dictionary." (an example in COBUILD4) into "Look it up in your dictionary." Excluding 1 (referring to COBUILD4), all the participants in Group M provided the right answer, whereas 3 in Group T and 27 others could not.

12.10.2.   In Task (2), all the 11 participants in Group M, and 73 out of 96 in Group N (including 7 out of 10 in Group T) provided the right answer. 62 out of 84 who provided the right answer among the 107 who undertook the task (62/107 being 58%) wrote "cut down" or "cut down on," whereas only 16 wrote "cut," and 6 wrote "cut back." The 62 participants who wrote "cut down (on)" include 21 out of the 29 who provided the right answer among the 35 who referred to LDOCE4 (60%). The signpost REDUCE at **cut 1** and **cut down** in LDOCE4, which was appreciated by 9, greatly eased the strain that they would have otherwise felt in scanning this long entry to locate the item that they were searching. This accounts for the high percentage of correct answers with those referring to LDOCE4 (29 out of 35, 83%) in comparison with those referring to COBUILD4 (24 out of 35, 69%). The fact that "to reduce" appears at a conspicuous and accessible place in LDOCE2 (at the beginning of **cut back 2** and at the beginning of **cut down 3**, in contrast to COBUILD4, where "reduce" is placed near the end of the definition of **cut back** and the verb is absent from the subentry for **cut down**) is assumed to be one of the reasons for the high percentage of right answers concerning those referring to LDOCE2 (31 out of 37, 84%).

For users confronted with the lengths of entries, we should not neglect the visual effects of conspicuous words, especially signposts and phrasal verbs in boldface, which were appreciated by many participants.

12.10.3. In Task (3), all the 10 participants in Group M, and 61 out of 98 in Group N (including 5 out of 10 in Group T) provided the right answer. The details of the right answers with respect to verbal voice are more interesting than simply the percentage of right answers. Table 21 shows the number and percentage of right answers in an active sentence ("faces" or "is facing"), right answers in a passive sentence ("is faced with"), wrong answers that include *with* in an active verb phrase, and other wrong answers out of all the answers provided by those consulting each dictionary.[40)]

Table 21   Details of the answers to Task (3) of the composition tasks

dictionary consulted	right answers in the active	right answers in the passive	wrong answers including *with* in the active	other wrong answers
LDOCE4 (n=35)	20 (57%)	7 (20%)	4 (11%)	4 (11%)
LDOCE2 (n=37)	23 (62%)	0 (0%)	3 (8%)	11 (30%)
COBUILD4 (n=36)	9 (25%)	12 (33%)	2 (6%)	13 (36%)

From this table, we gather that over 50% of the participants read the entry in each dictionary with sufficient care. Those who consulted LDOCE4 outperformed the rest, as the necessary information pertaining to the task is highlighted in boldfaces either as a part of the examples or as collocations. In COBUILD4, users' attention is drawn to both active and passive phrases by the use of boldfaces. But LDOCE2 neither highlights any necessary information in its definitions or examples nor provides any information on the passive nature of the phrase.

As LDOCE4 and COBUILD4 appear to possess similar microstructures (omitted due to a limitation in space), the difference in the participants' performance can be explained by one of Tono's (2001: 162) findings that users "did not read the whole entries but preferred to stop searching for the meaning as soon as possible," and the following conjectures by us:

(1)   It was easier to locate the necessary information in LDOCE4,

because it is in the first sense in LDOCE4 in contrast to the fourth sense in COBUILD4, which begins 14 lines away from the headword.

(2)   Many more participants consulting LDOCE4 chose the active verb phrase over the passive one, because most of the examples in the concerned sense are in the active, whereas in COBUILD4 one is in the active and the other is in the passive.

What happened to his subjects in using an English-Japanese dictionary in reception seems to have happened to our participants in production. However, a stricter empirical study is required for a strong validation of the above conjectures in order to provide indisputable confirmation of the significance of examples and their effects on writing in English.

12.10.4. Although all the 8 participants in Group M who used a dictionary provided the right answer, the least number and percentage of participants did so to Task (4). This is assumed to be due to the lack of information on how to achieve the plural form of the phrase *a piece of furniture*. Out of 101 participants 28 (28%) answered "three pieces of furniture" or "three articles of furniture," referring to one of the three dictionaries, 11 of whom expressed their appreciation for examples, 4 for the labels ([U] in LDOCE4 and LDOCE2, and "N-UNCOUNT" in COBUILD4), and 1 for both. On the other hand, 21 wrote "three piece of furniture," and the remaining 52 were unable to use *piece* and wrote a wrong answer such as "three furniture (s)." In addition to criticisms such as "the dictionary should emphasize that *furniture* cannot be pluralized" by a participant in Group M, and "the dictionary should carry more examples and information on how to count, instead of the information in LDOCE2 that seems irrelevant for an average learner" by another in Group M, there were numerous complaints by participants in Group N who required information on the plural form of *piece* and by those who were unable to make an effective use of the examples or the label to translate the target Japanese sentence into English. Under these circumstances, a usage note, or even a warning note is called for.

12.10.5. Task (5) is the only task in this composition part where the participants consulting COBUILD4 performed better than the others. This can be attributed to the fact that in COBUILD4, the subordinate clause containing *wrong* appears in the first half of the definition, and that there are two words (*bad* and *wrong*) in COBUILD4 that the participants at a low level of proficiency could establish some connection with the situation described, whereas there is only one (*wrong*) in LDOCE4 and none in LDOCE2.

> **forgive** *v* [LDOCE4] **1** to stop being angry with someone and stop blaming them, although they have done something wrong
>
> [LDOCE2] to say or feel that one is no longer angry with (someone) or about (something); to say or feel that one no longer blames (someone) for (something)
>
> [COBUILD4] ⊡ If you forgive someone who has done something bad or wrong, you stop being angry with them and no longer want to punish them.

In case our assumptions are accurate, it will be disappointing to see that the number of keywords and their position within a definition are given more importance than LDOCE's advantages of the traditional definition, in contrast to sentence definition, and of the number of examples that have the same sentence pattern as the English translation of the target sentence (two in LDOCE4, one in LDOCE2, but none in COBUILD4). A user's look-up skills do not always meet a lexicographer's expectations.

12.11. Concluding remarks for further improvements in the research design

Some of the improvements in the research design of the present study have been made in response to criticisms received by two former studies (Kanazashi 2001, and Dohi *et al.* 2002). The composition tasks have been newly added to assess the effectiveness of dictionary entries for productive purposes. The tasks have largely become more natural, eliminating artificial tasks that users would not face in their daily dictionary look-up, e.g. those requiring disproportionate attention to labels.

With all reservations, we believe that the present study has revealed

some important aspects of LDOCE4. LAAD was reported to be generally less user-friendly than LDOCE2 in Dohi *et al.* (2002), but as the results of this study indicate, some of the features of LDOCE4 were preferred by many users. The additional information and enriched examples were widely appreciated. The shortcomings of the "when" definition, criticized by some reviewers, do not seem to bother the users to the extent that they fear (12.8.8. and 12.9.). Another instance of their indifference to details is reported in 12.8.9.

Admittedly, however, there still appears to be ample room for further improvements in some aspects of this study and for better methods to analyze the user perspective.

One might wonder why "translating English into Japanese" was the second most frequent occasion for using a Japanese-English dictionary for 24 participants (omitted from Table 8), and why 4 judged the entry for *circulation* in COBUILD4 as the best even though no relevant information is provided in its definition (omitted from 12.8.4.). Cases such as these lead us to suspect that the participants were unable to always accurately describe their look-up. A more direct method would have reduced the possibility of such seemingly inaccurate descriptions.

We should bear in mind that the seemingly popular COBUILD4 is the only dictionary in our study that does not mention that *absolution* is used in the Christian religion (12.8.2.) but nevertheless its simple definition was widely supported. Including this, many of the tasks in this study are based on translations that do not require a deep understanding of the word. The participants therefore preferred dictionaries that provided instant solutions as suggested in 12.8.5. This study should be supplemented by another type of research design which will enable us to examine the long-term effects of dictionary use. In keeping with Tono (2001: 75), "[i]deally we should conduct a longitudinal study of dictionary users," although it will remain to be a mere ideal unless we are able to find participants who will cooperate with us over years of study.

Irrespective of the findings that indicate that crucial information should be placed near the beginning of the entry (12.8.4., 12.10.2., and 12.10.3.), we must admit the limitation of a printed dictionary, where providing

many examples and shortening the entry are fundamentally incompatible. For those who are not keen enough to read the examples under the first sense and are unable to reach the signpost of the second sense, there are two alternatives: the menu at the beginning of an entry as in LDOCE3, and an electronic dictionary in which users may scan the definitions beforehand and then click on an option to read the examples. The next task that encounters us is to compare the accessibility to information of these three ways.

The present user research has largely focused on nouns and verbs, as we would like to treat the sentence definitions of adjectives independently. On the basis of the results of his user research on definitions of adjectives, Kishi (2004: 87) concludes that it is not necessary to define the adjectives in the form of the sentence definition due to some problems from the user's point of view. A study that incorporates both his and our research designs is required in the future.

A more stringent comparison, as suggested in 12.10.3., will be enabled by comparing an entry in an existing dictionary with a fabricated entry whose definition or example differs from an existing one in only one respect, other conditions being equal. As argued by Tono (2001: 165) in the summary of his experimental test on L2/L1 translation, "a more rigorous experiment of this [artificial] kind should be conducted along with more ethnological, qualitative research in a naturalistic setting of dictionary use," which we also anticipate as a supplement or replication of this study, thus overcoming one of the limitations of user research that Hartmann (2001: 94) mentions: "Hardly any [studies] have been replicated by others, to verify assumptions and findings . . . ."

(T. Kanazashi)

13. Concluding Remarks

It is true that language is a living thing and evolves with time, with new words being created and old ones altered or discarded. So if dictionaries are to show the latest state of a language, they are fated to be revised in order to remain in use and LDOCE is no exception. It has been revised three times, with a new version being released every seven or eight years.

But revision must not be revision for its own sake. It must be a revision that meets the new needs of the users. Whether LDOCE4 has been improved to meet them or not may have become apparent in our analysis. Here we will give a summary of each chapter as our concluding remarks.

As we have seen in section 2, headwords and derived words have been increased considerably — we can probably say "substantially" if we take words contained on the CD-ROM into consideration — in LDOCE4, and in that regard LDOCE4 should meet the needs of most users including advanced learners of English. However, if LDOCE4 really strives to be the ideal EFL dictionary for advanced level users, it should seriously consider what advanced learners want to search for with the help of LDOCE4.

Concerning pronunciation, there has been little revision in the printed edition except for the introduction of a dollar sign to precede American pronunciations and the scheme for indicating stress on compounds. The CD-ROM offers recorded pronunciations in British and American English, which will be of great help to learners of English. It is regrettable, however, that there are cases of discrepancy between transcriptions and recorded pronunciations. We would hope that recordings will be done more carefully for the next edition.

Many revisions concerning definitions have been carried out, most of which are expected (and found by our user research) to enable the users to understand the headwords easily. Some headwords are plainly defined using the "when" definition, although this defining style is objectionable from a grammatical and lexicographic point of view. Signposts are generously treated in the new edition, but there is room for improvement as regards the list of defining vocabulary.

We have analyzed some of the features of examples in LDOCE4. The examples have not only increased by 40% but also undergone rather extensive modifications of several different types. Our general impression of the revised examples is that they satisfy the users' requirements to a greater extent than its predecessor, avoiding difficult words, clarifying the context, explaining the figurative use in lucid words and providing appropriate collocates.

Language notes are included as a middle matter in LDOCE4. Eight topics are explained in the Language Notes: *Articles, Modal verbs, Phrasal verbs, Idioms, Writing, Linking ideas, Pragmatics and Collocation.* More than half of the topics that are explained in LDOCE2 are not taken up as topics in LDOCE4. However, the reason why most of the topics in LDOCE2 are omitted in LDOCE4 has not become clear from our analysis.

There are two new types of language notes in LDOCE4. They are *Writing* and *Linking ideas.* The former explains how to write various documents such as letters, emails, curricula vitae or resumes. There are also samples of a CV and resume in the back matter of the dictionary. The latter explains the use of sentence connectors in order to maintain coherence when writing essays. These two Language Notes seem to be written based on the data from the Longman Learners' Corpus.

There is not any explanation on the purpose of including the Language-Note section in LDOCE4 after omitting it in LDOCE3. As shown in our analysis, the Language Notes in LDOCE4 are quite different in their quality compared to those in LDOCE2. We cannot help but have the impression that pragmatic matters, which should be the primarily focused item dealt with in the Language-Note section, are not fully discussed in the Language Notes in LDOCE4.

The presentation of grammatical information in LDOCE3 and LDOCE4 differ only slightly. The codes and patterns are almost the same in both editions. It is appropriate to say that explicitly spelled-out presentations of grammatical information seem to be on the right track from the view of user-friendliness. Visual impact of the dictionary pages is also reinforced with the use of new signs.

The effort to provide the users with as many collocations as possible is outstanding in LDOCE4. Especially the collocation boxes play an important part in giving a visual impact to the most frequently used collocations.

In contrast to the presentation form applied in OCDSE, the collocations are presented in the form that is closest to that used in actual speech or text. That is, the collocations are mostly presented in actual phrasal forms. Therefore, not only the number of but also the presentation form

of the collocations should be appreciated positively.

According to the introduction of the dictionary, the users have access to an even larger number of collocations in the Phrase Bank on the CD-ROM.

WORD FOCUS, as is claimed by the editors of LDOCE4, has incorporated a lot of useful information for learners of English. Therefore it has definitely contributed to the improvement of the latest edition, LDOCE4. WORD CHOICE has also been much improved in that the explanations there have become more concise and understandable. However, just listing the synonymous words cannot be deemed as useful as it is intended to be. Most users would certainly like to see the differences in nuance of words listed there.

As for illustrations, there has been a certain change in the choice of entry items to be illustrated. In the printed edition, most of the illustrations are shown in pairs or groups, so that the differences between similar objects are understood. We appreciate this scheme and hope that it will also be included in the CD-ROM, together with other elaborately designed illustrations included only in the printed edition. While plenty of photographs have been introduced into the illustrations in both editions, they are not always used effectively. Careful choice of illustrations is desirable for a dictionary which has come to attach much importance to encyclopedic information.

Additional information available only in the CD-ROM can be highly valued, and accessibility to information is easy in general. On the other hand, inconsistencies stand out in many respects, and a more flexible and usable search function should be offered. Usability of the program also has many points to be improved. Our conclusion is that this version has not yet used the electronic medium to its fullest benefit.

Our user research was rigorously enhanced and encouraged by criticisms of previous studies and by many participants who attended the researcher's weekly lessons in which they had been trained to use a monolingual English dictionary. The findings imply that the use of difficult words outside the range of the defining vocabulary should be avoided; vital information, not only distinctive features in definition but also collo-

cations and examples, should be placed near the beginning of an entry or at least be made conspicuous; and few users are concerned about minor details of definitions or examples. The visual effects of conspicuous words were also confirmed. Since the assumption that the users appreciate both concise entries and extensive information has been supported and since the entries with no examples and definitions involving lexical or grammatical complexities have been severely criticized, the lexicographers should take greater care in describing distinctive features in definitions and selecting appropriate examples.

NOTES

1) Out of 81 words 12 words are treated as derived words in LDOCE4, and 6 words are contained as examples or definitions in OALD6.

2) Out of 19words 6 words are treated as derived words in OALD6, and 2 words are contained as examples or definitions in LDOCE4.

3) Out of 91 words 18 words are treated as derived words in LDOCE5, and 2 words are contained in the examples in CALD.

4) Out of 46 words 8 words are treated as derived words in CALD, and 8 words are contained as examples or definitions in LDOCE4.

5) Out of 117 words 18 words are treated as derived words in LDOCE4, and 6 words are contained in the examples or definitions in COBUILD4.

6) Out of 19 words 2 words are derived words in COBUILD4, and 3 words are contained as examples or definitions in LDOCE4.

7) Abatement is contained as a headword in COBUILD4 and as a run-on derivative in OALD6 and CALD.

8) In most of the cases, the two patterns used to be given together without any indication as to British or American in the previous editions.

9) As pointed out in 3.2.2., the pronunciations given in the CD-ROM are different from the first variants in the transcription.

10) Strangely, they are pronounced as /pɔː/ and /ʃɔː/ in the CD-ROM of the previous edition. Considering the fact that the pronunciations /pɔː/ and /ʃɔː/ were newly adopted in the previous edition, the recording of these words must have been done more carefully.

11) The recorded British pronunciation corresponds to the preferences shown in LPD2.

12) The recorded American pronunciation corresponds to the preferences shown in LPD2.

13) The term 'diphthong' is not used here in a strictly phonetic sense. As defined in LDOCE4, it seems to mean 'a vowel sound made by pronouncing two vowels quickly one after another'.

14) It seems to be forgotten that the first variants for **sure** and **poor** given in LDOCE4 are /ʃɔː/ and /pɔː/, not /ʃuə/ and /puə/.

15) If the system has been repaired.

16) We have taken into account even minute modifications in the definitions, with the exceptions of the change in singular/plural form, and the presence/absence of *etc* or a comma.

17) A musically versed user might find it equally regrettable that the only example under **sextet** *n* (*Brahm's* [sic.] *sextet in B flat*) in LDOCE3 has been replaced by *Mozart's sextet in B flat*, It is true that Mozart composed sextets in B flat (K. 240, K. 270, K. 287), but they are generally known as divertimenti in B flat. His only piece that is known as a sextet (the famous "Dorfmusikanten-Sextett") is in F. The popularity of pieces should take priority over the popularity of proper nouns.

18) Through communication with Mr. Michael Rundell, who was the Managing Editor of LDOCE3, the information on the omission of Language Notes in LDOCE3 was obtained.

19) The matters that are related to the topic *Requests* is also mentioned in the Language Note titled *Modal Verbs*.

20) According to Dr. Rosamund Moon's paper in the *International Journal of Lexicography* Vol. 17 no. 2, the idea of explaining the use and meaning of idioms in terms of metaphor was suggested by Mr. Michael Rundell, Editor-in-Chief of *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, and was put into practice by Dr. Rosamund Moon who created the Metaphor Boxes. For more information on the process of analyzing idioms in terms of metaphor, readers are recommended to refer to the paper.

21) We have found two misprints in two collocation boxes in LDOCE4. The first one is in the collocation box in the entry for the noun **knot**[1]. The definition b) is accidentally printed at the bottom part of the collocation box where only example sentences are supposed to be listed.

The same kind of misprint is in the collocation box for the noun **organ**. The definition b) is accidentally included in the bottom part of the collocation box.

22) The use of different terms is one example which shows the lack of unity in descriptions in LDOCE3.

23) In the illustration accompanying **backhand**, a photograph of a man holding his racket forehand is titled *backhand*.

24) As discussed in 11.7., it is doubtful if the CD-ROM edition contains as many as 1,499 (or 1,500) illustrations because some are used for several entry items, as in the case of **ear, eye, face, grin, happy, nose,** and **tooth**.

25) In the case of **accident**, neither of the two photographs is self-explanatory.

26) If we try to see illustrations for words related to **bite**, we will end up with a flow of items related to **bit**, instead of **bite**.

27) There are a few cases where this rule is not observed as in **block**[2].

28) There are several unexplained occurrences of ">" as in [> intransitive always + adv/prep, transitive] found in **brush**[2], where "adv/prep" is not spelled out. This may be due to some error in the data.

29) It is possible to compare two entries using what can be called the "secondary definition window" (See Figure 6) which appears when a word is double-clicked or selected, right-clicked, and "Look up expression" is chosen from the right-click menu in the original entry. This secondary definition window consists of two sub-windows, the upper one displaying the entry, and the lower one listing the same candidates (if any) which appear when the word is searched for in the basic search. What is to be improved about this secondary

definition window is that the upper sub-window always displays the first entry of the candidates; the entry **dance**[1] (noun) appears even if when *danced* is selected in the original window.

30) There are some cases in which highlighting does not work such as when the target is "**psych somebody ↔ out**" in **psych**[1].

31) The automatic suggestion correctly works for words such as *color* whose American spelling is included as an entry item in the printed edition.

32) The IPA transcriptions can be automatically displayed by enabling the option "Show pronunciation" in the "SETTING" menu. The same goes for the pronunciation.

33) For the "Words used with" collocations, the criterion of their inclusion is not explicit, but it seems that many of the boldface phrases following the sense numbers, common collocating particles such as "[+on]", phrasal verbs, and boldface parts in examples constitute this category. This is why some words are also included in the above two categories.

34) For the sake of brevity, only the mean values regarding the bilingual dictionaries are listed in Tables 7 and 8.

35) For the sake of brevity, only the mean values regarding English-Japanese dictionaries are listed in Table 10.

36) Lea and Runcie (2002: 823) argue that "it is the acquisition of these medium-strength collocations [that fall into the "slightly less fixed/fairly open" categories] that is the real key to greater fluency for the intermediate learner."

37) It is difficult to compare the results of the two studies, since Table 6 in Dohi *et al.* (2002: 73) excludes the answers by those who had not used a monolingual dictionary. If they are included, the mean frequency is 9.1 with meaning, 5.1 with collocation, and 4.9 with grammar. This indicates that their participants did not refer to information categories other than meaning as frequently as those in the present study.

38) Note that the purpose of the comparison tasks is not to assess any dictionary as a whole but entries that differ from each other in some respects. Thus, it would not be advisable to calculate the total number of participants who judged a particular dictionary as the best. It should also be noted that some who looked up the words did not answer all the questions.

39) Hatakeyama (2001: 5–6) discusses this and related issues in a section entitled "Confusion between Letters Printed in Different Styles."

40) In accordance with our grading policy that is not too strict, those who answered "The country are facing/faced . . ." were judged as correct, and the presence or absence of "the problem of" did not matter, although a mistake in the choice of the preposition was out of our permissible range.

DICTIONARIES

CALD: *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.

CIDE: *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.

COBUILD: *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary,* First edition. London and Glasgow: Collins, 1987.

COBUILD2: *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*. London: HarperCollins, 1995.

COBUILD3: *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. Glasgow: HarperCollins, 2001.

COBUILD4: *Cobuild Advanced Learner's English Dictionary,* Fourth edition. Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers, 2003.

LAAD: *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2000.

LDELC: *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*. Harlow: Longman, 1992.

LDOCE2: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,* Second edition. Harlow: Longman, 1987.

LDOCE3: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Third edition. Harlow: Longman, 1995.

LDOCE4: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Fourth edition. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2003.

LPD2: *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary,* Second edition. Harlow: Pearson Education Linited, 2000

MED: *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. Oxford: Macmillan Education, 2002.

OCDSE: *Oxford Collocation Dictionary for Students of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002.

REFERENCES

Bogaards, P. 1998. "Scanning Long Entries in Learner's Dictionaries." In Fontenelle, T. *et al.* (eds.), *Actes EURALEX '98 Proceedings: Papers Submitted to the Eighth EURALEX International Congress on Lexicography in Liège, Belgium,* Vol. II, Liège: University of Liège, English and Dutch Department, 555–63.

Dohi, K. *et al.* 2002. "An Analysis of *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*." *Lexicon,* No. 32: 1–96.

Gimson, A.C. 1994. *Gimson's Pronunciation of English,* Fifth edition, rev. by Cruttenden, A London: Edward Arnold.

Hanks, P. 1987. "Definitions and Explanations." In Sinclair, J.M. (ed.), *Looking Up: An Account of the COBUILD Project in Lexical Computing,* London and Glasgow: Collins ELT, 116–36.

Hartmann, R.R.K. 1998. "Contemporary Lexicography, with Particular Attention to the User's Perspective." *Lexicon,* No. 28: 141–47.

Hartmann, R.R.K. 2001. *Teaching and Researching Lexicography*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Hatakeyama, T. 2001. "Reading Errors and Dictionaries for Learners of English." *OIU Journal of International Studies,* Vol. 15, No. 1, Osaka: Osaka International University, 1–7.

Heuberger, R. 2000. *Monolingual Dictionaries for Foreign Learners of English: A Constructive Evaluation of the State-of-the-art Reference Works in Book Form and on CD-ROM*. Wien: Braumüller.

Higashi, N. and K. Urata. 2005. "Jisho Henshu to Internet: 'When' Teigi no Koto Nado" [The Dictionary Editing and the Internet, with Particular Emphasis on the 'When' Definition]. *The Rising Generation,* Vol. CL, No. 10: 8–9.

Jehle, G. 1999. "Learner's Dictionaries on CD-ROM — Mere Gadgetry?" In Falkner, W. and H.-J. Schmid (eds.), *Word, Lexemes, Concepts — Approaches to the Lexicon*, Tübingen: Gunter Narr Verlag, 353–63.

Kanazashi, T. 2001. "User's Guides to English-Japanese Dictionaries for Learners, with Particular Reference to Grammatical Information." Exeter University unpublished PhD thesis.

Kishi, S. 2004. "Gakushu Ei Ei Jiten no Teigi: Keiyoushi no Dento teki Teigi wa Shiyousha ni Dou Uketorareru ka" [Definitions in Monolingual English Dictionaries for Learners, with Particular Reference to Traditional vs. Sentence Definitions of Adjectives from Users' Viewpoint]. In Sakuhin to shite no Jisho Kenkyukai [Workshop on Dictionaries as Works] (ed.), *Eigo Jisho no Sekai [World of English Dictionaries]*, Tokyo: Sakuhin to shite no Jisho Kenkyukai, 69–90.

Komuro, Y. 2004. *Macmillan Essential Dictionary Workbook for Learners of English*. Tokyo: Macmillan Languagehouse.

Masuda, H. *et al.* 1997. "An Analysis of the *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, New Edition." *Lexicon*, No. 27: 18–73.

Masuda, H. *et al.* 1999. "A Comparative Analysis of the Two American Learners' Dictionaries." *Lexicon*, No. 29: 1–65.

Masuda, H. *et al.* 2003. "An Analysis of *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, Third Edition." *Lexicon*, No. 33: 1–73.

Moon, R. 2004. "On Specifying Metaphor: An Idea and Its Implementation." *International Journal of Lexicography*, Vol. 17, No. 2: 195–222.

Shimizu, A. *et al.* 1989. "An Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, New Edition (Part 1)." *Lexicon* No. 18: 155–239.

Shimizu, A. *et al.* 1990. "An Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, New Edition (Part 2)." *Lexicon* No. 19: 30–171.

Svensén, B. 1993. *Practical Lexicography: Principles and Methods of Dictionary-Making*, trans. by Sykes, J and K. Schofield. Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.

Tono, Y. 2001. *Research on Dictionary Use in the Context of Foreign Language Learning: Focus on Reading Comprehension. Lexicographica Series Maior* 106. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer.

Urata, K. *et al.* 1999. "An Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, Third Edition." *Lexicon*, No. 29: 66–95.

Wells. J.C. 1982. *Accents of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

An Analysis of *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*

KAORU AKASU   TETSUYA KOSHIISHI

TAKEHIKO MAKINO   AKIHIKO KAWAMURA

YUKIYOSHI ASADA

1. Introduction

The Cambridge University Press has added to its inventory of EFL dictionaries yet another new title, *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (hereafter *CALD*). This dictionary, published in 2003, is virtually a revised edition of *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (hereafter *CIDE*) that came out in 1995.

One of the first things that attract our attention is that *CALD* has become much smaller in its volume. The number of pages of *CALD*'s main A to Z part is 1490, whereas *CIDE*'s main part had 1701 pages, a reduction of more than ten percent. Naturally, this leads one to wonder what kinds of changes have been made in this new dictionary. A first glance will show that such features as "Language Portraits" and "False Friends" have been done away with in this revision. This may account for

some portion of the reduction, but evidently not all of it. It will be of much interest to see what other aspect or aspects are relevant to this substantial reduction.

In what follows, we will examine and analyze *CALD*'s following dimensions: book structure, entries, and the Idiom Finder; pronunciation; definitions; grammatical information; and illustrative examples. In so doing, we will mainly refer to its predecessor, *CIDE*, for purposes of comparison, and other dictionaries such as *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary* (*CLD*) will be adduced where necessary and appropriate.

2. Book Structure, Entries, and the Idiom Finder

2.1. Introduction

This section deals with the whole book structure, main entries, subentries, run-ons, and the Idiom Finder. Before embarking on the analysis, a few words of caution are in order.

Firstly, just as with Akasu et al. (1996: §2), our main interest is in the "qualitative" aspects of the dictionary (i.e. the policy adopted), rather than in the "quantitative" aspects (i.e. the actual numbers of main entries, etc.).[1]

Secondly, most of the discussion in this section will be based on (1) the comparison of *CALD* with *OALD*[6], *LDOCE*[4], *COBUILD*[4], and *MED*, all of which are monolingual EFL dictionaries published in the present millennium; and (2) the comparison of *CALD* with *CIDE*, *CALD*'s predecessor.

Thirdly, we have to consolidate our terminology before we set to work. It has been pointed out by many lexicographers that the term "entry" is notoriously ambiguous.[2] To avoid unnecessary confusions, we would like to base our terminology mainly on Hausmann and Wiegand's (1989) terminology. However, since every dictionary has its own idiosyncratic aspects illustrated by, for example, adoption of color fonts, type settings, etc., a certain amount of "parochial" terms is unavoidable. In *CALD*'s case, we would like to adopt the following terminology:

- **Headwords,** belonging to the (initial-)alphabetical access structure

of the dictionary, are the items in turquoise boldface which protrude from the left margin by one en-letter length, sometimes accompanied by GUIDEWORDS;
- **Subheadwords** are the items in turquoise bold which start from the left margin;
- **Main entries** are the whole dictionary articles under single headwords;
- **Subentries** are the whole dictionary articles under single subheadwords; and
- **Run-ons** are the items appended to dictionary articles without any formal break.

2.2. *CALD*'s textual book structure

Full book text of *CALD* contains (1) the front matter (i.e. title, **Grammar codes and abbreviations**, **Introduction**, **How to use the dictionary**, and **Numbers that are used like words**); (2) the central word list (i.e. **The Dictionary**); (3) the middle matter (i.e. **Colour Pictures**, and **Study Sections**); and (4) the back matter (i.e. **Idiom Finder**, **Word Families**, **Geographical Names**, **Common First Names**, **Prefixes and Suffixes**, **Irregular verbs**, **Regular verb tenses**,[1] **Symbols**, **Units of measurement**, **Pronunciation**, and **Pronunciation symbols**).

Of the 6 dictionaries we have checked, 4 dictionaries adopt a middle matter of some sort, typically composed of study sections, color illustration pages, or maps (in the case of *OALD*[6]). *COBUILD*[4] and *CIDE* have no middle matter in their textual book structures.

When compared with the other dictionaries, *CALD* has two peculiarities. The first peculiarity is that it has the Idiom Finder, an additional access structure. This peculiarity is shared with *CIDE*, which has the Phrase Index. The second peculiarity of *CALD* is its Word Families, which is an extensive table showing cross-categorial (quasi-)derivational relations among words. Indeed, this table of words is significant for at least two reasons. Firstly, it contributes to the enhancement of the productive aspect of language learning in that users can familiarize themselves with the larger network of derivational lexical relations.[3] Secondly, it also

contributes greatly to the accessibility of the headwords and subheadwords because it helps users to reach the alleged derivatives easily. However, if we have a closer look at the words in the table, some of them are problematic because their lack of morphotactic transparency. For example, the table contains cases in which non-affixal relations are involved (e.g. *blood* (N) ∼ *bleed* (V)); cases where stem allomorphy is involved (e.g. *explain* (V) ∼ *inexplicably* (Adv), *number* (N) ∼ *numeral* (N) ∼ *numerical* (A));[4] and cases where semantic irregularities are observed (e.g. *knowledge* (N) ∼ *know* (V)); etc.[5]

2.3. Estimated size of *CALD* based on the sampling

Based on the sampling of 59 pages (9,044 lines) of the wordlist, *CALD* has approximately 35,900 headwords; 9,900 subheadwords; 6,800 run-ons; 6,000 idioms (headed by a bullet (●)); and 3,400 phrasal verbs (headed by a black triangle (▲)). The number of idioms in the Idiom Finder is 6,366. Considering that our estimated number of idioms is 6,000, the error span of the above-mentioned estimated figures is expected to be about 5 percent. Though a statement on *CALD*'s back cover reports that *CIDE* has 170,000 words, phrases and examples, there is no reference to the number of headwords. However, according to its website, *CALD* has "over 10,000 phrasal verbs and idioms specially highlighted,"[6] which is confirmed by the fact that the sum of idioms and phrasal verbs in the above estimation is about 10,000.

2.4. Headwords and main entries

The above discussion shows that the number of *CALD*'s headwords is larger than that of *CIDE*'s by 10,000 words. What are the reasons for this increase?

Firstly, part of the increase of the number of the headwords can be ascribed to the fact that *CALD* contains "over 1,000 new words" (back cover). A survey of the first 50 pages of *CALD* — i.e. from **A** [LETTER] to **appendix** [BODY PART] — reveals that *CALD* has the following 62 new words which *CIDE* does not have:

(1) **aah, aardvark, access provider, achoo, acid jazz, acidophilus, action** [DEAL WITH]**, .ac.uk, ADD, ADHD, ADSL, advisement, AFAIK, affinity card, AFK, afoul, A-frame, Africa, again** [ADDING]**, Aga saga, age** [LONG TIME]**, ages, agrochemical, ahold, aide-mémoire, air ambulance, Air Force One, air-kiss, air rage, alcopop, A-level, All-American** [WHOLE COUNTRY]**, All-American** [SPORT]**, allegro, all-nighter, all-out, alopecia, alpha male, AM** [POLITICIAN]**, ambient music, ambulatory, America, amoebic dysentery, amour propre, amyl nitrite, anal** [MENTAL STATE]**, anally retentive, anchor** [BROADCASTER]**, ancien régime, andante, anesthesiologist, animatronics, anomie, anorak** [PERSON]**, ante, antebellum, anti-life, anti-spam, anti-terrorist, anti-trust, anti-virus, antsy**

Continent names such as **Africa** and **America** are new in *CALD* because they are treated as subheadwords under adjective forms (i.e. **African** and **American**, respectively) in *CIDE*. However, apart from such minor exceptions, *CALD*'s new headwords are predominantly taken from such fields as computer science (especially, internet words), biochemistry, psychology, ecology, politics, and music.[7] Of all the above 62 words, 18 words (i.e. **acidophilus, .ac.uk, AFAIK, AFK, Africa, Aga saga, alopecia, ambulatory, America, amoebic dysentery, amour propre, amyl nitrite, ancien régime, anomie, antebellum, anti-life, anti-spam**, and **anti-terrorist**) do not appear in any other dictionaries. Therefore, we can conclude that having many new words is surely one of the strong points of *CALD*.[8]

Secondly, many items which used to be boldfaced examples in *CIDE* are now treated as full-fledged headwords in *CALD*. If we check the items from **A** [LETTER] to **appendix** [BODY PART] in both dictionaries, we find the following 110 promotion cases from what used to be boldfaced examples of headwords in *CIDE*:

(2) **able-bodied, abominable snowman, above-mentioned, absent-minded, absentee ballot, absentee landlord, absolute majority, absolute zero, absolute** [POWERFUL]**, abstract noun, Academy Award, access course, access road, access time, accident-prone, acid rain, the acid test, action** [EFFECT]**,**

action ACTIVITY , action WAR , action-packed, action replay, action stations, ad agency, Adam's apple, add-on, adult education, Advent calendar, adventure playground, affairs of state, African violet, after effects, age-old, age PROCESS , age group, age limit, aggravated assault, aggravated burglary, agony aunt, agony column, air AIRCRAFT , air force, air hostess, air power, air raid, air-sea rescue, air terminal, air-to-air, air-to-ground, air traffic control, air drop, air brake, air-conditioned, air-conditioner, air-conditioning, air-cooled, air freshener, air mattress, air pocket, air-rifle, aircraft carrier, airy-fairy, alarm call, alarm (clock), all-comers, almond paste, aloe vera, also-ran, alternative energy, alternative lifestyle, alternative medicine, amateur dramatics, ambulance chaser, the American Dream, American football, American Indian, American plan, Amnesty International, Anglo-American, Anglo-Catholic, Anglo-Indian, Anglo-Saxon, animal husbandry, the animal kingdom, ankle boots, ankle sock, annual general meeting, anti-abortion, anti-ageing, anti-aircraft, anti-choice, anti-clerical, anti-clockwise, anti-consumerist, anti-depressant, anti-federalist, anti-inflammatory, anti-lock, anti-noise, anti-nuclear, anti-oxidant, anti-personnel, antiperspirant, anti-racist, anti-Semitism, anti-social, anti-tank, anti-viral, apartment building/block, afternoon tea

Though fewer in number, the following 16 cases are examples of words that have been promoted from boldfaced subheadword examples to *CALD*'s headwords:

(3)   **accidental death, advance directive, affiliation order, affirmative action, airing cupboard, all-American** TYPICALLY AMERICAN **, the all-clear, all-important, all-round, all-rounder, all-star, all-in wrestling, all-time, amusement park, answering service, all-inclusive**

Also conspicuous are the following 40 examples of the subheadword-to-headword promotion:

(4)   **abiding, abrasion, absorbing, accompaniment, accountable, accountant, accumulator, achingly, acquaintance, activ-**

ism, additive, adhesive, admonition, Adventist, advisedly, affirmative, ageless, agonize, agreeable AGREEING , agreeably, aide-de-camp, ailment, alignment, all-, allegation, allotment, allusion, alluring, alpine (planet), analyst, analytical, angry, animated, annual BOOK , annual PLANT , answerable, apologetic, apparently, adulterer, adulteress

Remember that *CIDE*'s Phrase Index is composed of such miscellaneous multiword lexical units as idioms, phrasal verbs, compounds, and even collocations. As is pointed out in Akasu et al. (1996, §2.6), *CIDE*'s special "one word, one core meaning" policy makes it indispensable with its Phrase Index. However, what with the adoption of too small type setting and with the complicated line numbering, *CIDE*'s Phrase Index is far from user-friendly. Therefore, *CALD*'s strategy is to emphasize the importance of a main access structure (i.e. the alphabetical wordlist) in the treatment of multiword lexical units in return for the shrinkage of the Phrase Index, which leads to the increase of 10,000 headwords.

If we compare *CALD* with the other dictionaries, we can easily notice that *COBUILD*[+] and *CALD* are still two polar dictionaries in terms of their macrostructures. *COBUILD*[+]'s basic policy is to adopt polysemy, whereas *CALD* takes (quasi-)monosemy-based approach. Since lexicographers are usually "well advised to steer a reasonable middle course, accepting as homonyms only pairs with vastly different unconnected meanings" (Zgusta, 1971: 78), it is concluded that these two dictionaries display polar opposite policies.

However, compared with *CIDE*'s, *CALD*'s policy is much loosened, as is shown by the following explanatory remark: if a headword is followed by a GUIDEWORD , it means that "[. . .] the word has two or more *main* meanings and that there is at least one other entry for that word. [italics mine]" (viii) Indeed, in *CALD*'s first 50 pages, there are 133 headwords, 43 subheadwords, and 5 idioms that have more than one numbered definition. Remember that *CIDE* has no numbered definitions because it is allegedly based on complete monosemy.

The survey of the headwords in *CALD*'s first 50 pages also shows that there are only 2 examples of headword integration from *CIDE* to *CALD*

(i.e. **abide** (*CALD*) < **abide** (*obj*) BEAR and **abide** STAY (*CIDE*), and **accede** (*CALD*) < **accede** AGREE and **accede** BECOME (*CIDE*)); whereas there are 31 examples of headword splitting (e.g. **above** HIGHER POSITION , MORE , RANK , TOO IMPORTANT , and ON PAGE (*CALD*) < **above** (*CIDE*); **all right** SATISFACTORY , GOOD , GREETING , and APPROVAL (*CALD*) < **all right** SATISFACTORY (*CIDE*), etc.). Some of them are worth mentioning. For example, the splitting of *anxiety* into **anxiety** WORRY and EAGERNESS seems well motivated because of their meanings and their different prepositional selection. However, admitting that numbered definitions are a partial solution, it would be more beneficial to EFL learners if *CALD* had two headwords for *apparent* — say, **apparent** CLEAR and SEEMING .[9]

One major problem is how we decide whether a certain item is worth an independent headword status, or is just a numbered definition (or an idiom headed by a bullet) in *CALD*. For example, **action** SOMETHING DONE has "a physical movement . . . " as its definition **2**, but the semantic distinction between this and **action** MOVEMENT seems to me too subtle to be justified. The same thing can be said about the **abort** STOP vs. definition **1** of **abort** END PREGNANCY , definition **2** of **accept** TAKE vs. **accept** APPROVE , definition **1** of **again** ONE MORE TIME vs. **again** IN ADDITION , to mention a few. There must be some criteria, according to which such distinctions are made, but they are not expressed explicitly in the dictionary.

2.5. Subheadwords and run-ons—the treatment of "related" words

According to *CALD*, "words are sometimes grouped together as an entry when they are used as different parts of speech or because they are very closely related and similar in form and meaning." (viii) The most basic word of the group is treated as the headword and the other words (hereafter called "related" words) as either subheadwords or run-ons. As we have seen in 2.2, the estimated number of subheads and run-ons are about 6,800 and 6,000, respectively. Table 1 serves to illustrate the diversity of the policies adopted in the other dictionaries concerning the "related" words.

Table 1   Treatment of "Related" Words

	CALD	CIDE	OALD[6]	LDOCE[4]	COBUILD[4]	MED
deceit	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW in black boldface
deceitful	RUN of deceit	SUB of deceit	HW	HW	HW	HW in black boldface
deceitfulness	RUN of deceit	SUB of deceit	RUN of deceitful	RUN of deceitful	—	RUN of deceitful
deceive	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW in red boldface
deceiver	SUB of deceive	SUB of deceive	RUN of deceive	RUN of deceive	—	—
deception	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW in red boldface
deceptive	SUB of deception	SUB of deception	HW	HW	HW	HW in black boldface
deceptively	SUB of deception	SUB of deception	RUN of deceptive	RUN of deceptive	RUN of deceptive	HW in black boldface
deceptiveness	SUB of deception	SUB of deception	—	—	—	RUN of deceptive
hard-(boiled, etc.)	—	SUB of hard SEVERE	—	—	—	—
harden	SUBs of hard SOLID & SEVERE	SUBs of hard SOLID & SEVERE	HW	HW	HW	HW in red boldface
hardened	SUB of hard SEVERE	SUB of hard SEVERE	—	HW	HW	HW in black boldface
hardener	—	—	—	—	—	HW in black boldface
hardening	RUN of hardened, which is SUB of hard SEVERE	SUB of hard SEVERE	RUN of harden	—	RUN of meaning 2 of harden	RUN of DEF4 of harden
hardiness	EMP HW; RUN of hardy	SUB of hardy	RUN of hardy	RUN of hardy	RUNs of meanings 1 & 2 of hardy	EMP HW; RUN of hardy
hardy	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW	HW in black boldface
maintenance	RUN of maintain PRESERVE ; SUB of maintain EXPRESS	SUBS of maintain CONTINUE TO HAVE , PRESERVE , & PROVIDE	HW	HW	HW	HW in red boldface
piggy (adj)	SUB of pig ANIMAL	SUB of pig ANIMAL	DEF (*adj.*) of piggy	HW (as piggy[2])	Meaning 2 of piggy	HW (as piggy[2])
piggy (n)	SUB of pig ANIMAL	SUB of pig ANIMAL	DEF (*noun*) of piggy	MAIN (as piggy[1])	Meaning 1 of piggy	HW (as piggy[1])
piglet	SUB of pig ANIMAL	SUB of pig ANIMAL	HW	HW	HW	HW

Abbreviations: HW = headword, SUB = subheadword, DEF = definition, EMP HW = empty headword, RUN = run-on. The symbol (—) means that the item in question does not appear in the given dictionary.

Table 1 shows that *CALD* and *CIDE* treat "related" words mainly in the microstructure of the base words, while the other dictionaries tend to treat them as independent headwords. As we have seen in Akasu et al. (1996: §2.3), although the morphosemantic relations can be visibly shown in *CALD* and *CIDE*, they both cause word-finding problems on the part of users. Though *CALD* introduces run-ons to accommodate such quasi-productive formations as those ending in *-ness* and *-ly*, the distinction between the subheadword and the run-on is not always clear-cut as is shown by such examples as **Americanize** and **Americanization** (both run-ons of **America**). The basic rule seems to be that subheadwords are less transparent and need some additional definitions, whereas run-ons are semantically transparent and need no definitions. However, such examples as **appointment** (with a subheadword status),[10] **occidental** show that there are some subheadwords which are not accompanied by definitions.[11]

It should be noted that *CALD*'s subheadwords and run-ons sometimes accommodate items of wider ranges than what we call "derived" words. Firstly, they contain some words which displays a certain degree of allomorphy, as is witnessed by such examples as prove (headword: **proof**), **destruction** (headword: **destroy**), **managerial** (headword: **manage**), etc. Secondly, frequent compound elements such as **after-, all-, -man**, etc. are also treated as subheadwords.[12] Thirdly, some syntactic items are also found among subheadwords, as is shown by such examples as **the rich, the poor, the accused, the bereaved**, etc.[13] Finally, *CALD*'s notion of words "very closely related and similar in form and meaning" (viii) is so vague that it invites arbitrary interpretations. For example, **appendectomy** and **appendicitis** are both subheadwords under **appendix**, but I think that apart from mnemonic reasons, it is more natural to treat them as independent headwords.

2.6. Compounds and phrasal verbs — the treatment of multiword lexical units

EFL dictionaries differ as to their treatment of multiword lexical units. As is pointed out by Kojima (1999: 21), there are two opposite views: one is to regard them as independent lexical items and treat them as head-

words; the other is to regard them as subordinate to their heads (often referred to as "key words") and treat them in their microstructures. Tables 2 and 3 show the treatment of compounds and phrasal verbs in the 6 EFL dictionaries.

As to compounds, it is possible to generalize that except for *CIDE*, EFL dictionaries tend to treat them as independent headwords. Interestingly, there is a sharp contrast between the two Cantabrigian dictionaries

Table 2   Treatment of Compounds

	CALD	*CIDE*	*OALD*[6]	*LDOCE*[4]	*COBUILD*[+]	*MED*
big deal (n)	SUB of **big** IMPORTANT (**Big deal!**)	EX of **big** IMPORTANT, +PI	IDM of **big**	HW (+acc)	HW	IDM of **deal**[1]
big game (n)	HW (+acc)	EX of **big** LARGE, +PI	HW (+acc)	HW (+acc)	HW	HW (+acc), in black boldface
ice-cold (adj)	HW	EX of ice FROZEN WATER, +PI	HW (+acc)	HW (+acc)	HW	HW (+acc), in black boldface
ice cream (n)	HW (+acc)	EX of ice FROZEN WATER, +PI	HW (+acc)	HW (+acc)	HW	HW (+acc), in red boldface
make-believe (n)	HW	HW, +PI (listed as "make be█lieve")	HW (+acc)	HW (+acc)	HW	HW (+acc), in black boldface
soundproof (adj)	HW	HW	HW	HW	Meaning 1 of **soundproof**	HW as **soundproof**, in black boldface
soundproof (v)	RUN of **soundproof**	EX of **soundproof**	HW	HW	Meaning 2 of **soundproof**	HW as **soundproof**, in black boldface
spoonfeed (v)	2 HWs (**spoon-feed** FEED & PROVIDE INFORMATION)	EX of **spoon**, +PI	HW (+acc)	HW (+acc)	HW as **spoon-feed**	HW (+acc), in black boldface
water-repellent (adj)	HW	EX of **water** as **water-repellant**, +PI	HW (+acc)	HW (+acc)	—	—
water-resistant (adj)	—	—	HW (+acc)	HW as **water resistant** (+acc)	HW	HW (+acc), in black boldface

Abbreviations: IDM = idiom, +acc = the item has its phrasal accent marks shown, EX = example. For other abbreviations, see Table 1. "+PI" in *CIDE* means that the item is also appears in the Phrase Index.

Table 3   Treatment of Phrasal Verbs

	CALD	CIDE	OALD⁶	LDOCE⁴	COBUILD⁴	MED
chicken out	SUB after ▲ of **chicken**	SUB of **chicken** [COWARD], +PI	RUN under [PHR V] after ■ verb	SUB of **chicken²**	SUB of **chicken** after ◆	RUN of **chicken³** (+acc)
do without	SUB after ▲ in PHRASAL VERBS WITH **do** (as **do without (sth)**)	HW, +PI	RUN under [PHR V] (+acc); as **do without** | **do without sb/sth**	SUB of **do²**	SUB of ② **do** after ◆	SUB of **do¹** in red boldface (+acc)
invest in	SUB after ▲ in PHRASAL VERBS WITH **invest** (as **invest in sth**)	2 EXs of **invest**, +PI	DEFs1 & 2; RUN under [_] **invest in sth**	DEFs1, 2, & 3; SUB of **invest** as **invest (sth) in** sth	Meanings 1, 2, 3, & 4	DEF; SUB of **invest** in red boldface (+acc)
look after	SUB after ▲ in PHRASAL VERBS WITH **look** (as **look after sb/sth**)	HW, +PI	RUN under [PHR V] as **look after yourself/sb/sth**	SUB of **look¹** as **look after** sb/sth with 4 definitions	SUB of ① **look** after ◆	SUB of **look¹** in red boldface (+acc)
look at	4 SUBs after ▲ in PHRASAL VERBS WITH **look** (look at sth [THINK], [READ], [EXAMINE] & [OPINION]); 2 EXs of **look** [SEE]	2 EXs of **look** [SEE], +PI	DEFs1 & 3, as ~ (at sb/sth); RUN under [PHR V] as **look at sth**	DEF1 ([+at]); SUB of **look¹** as **look at sb/sth** with 7 definitions	Meanings 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, & 10	DEFs 1 & 3d; SUB of **look¹** in red boldface (+acc)
look for	EX of **look** [SEARCH]	4 EXs of **look** [SEARCH], +PI	DEF2 as ~ (for sb/sth); RUN under [PHR V] as **look for sth**	DEF1 ([+for]); SUB of **look¹** as **look for sb/sth** with 3 definitions	Meanings 5 & 6	DEF2; SUB of **look¹** in red boldface (+acc)
put up with	SUB after ▲ in PHRASAL VERBS WITH **put** (as **put up with sth/sb**)	HW, +PI	RUN under [PHR V]; as **put up with sb/sth**	SUB of put, as **put up with** sb/sth	SUB of **put** after ◆	SUB of **put** in red boldface (+acc)
watch out	SUB after ▲ in PHRASAL VERBS WITH **watch**	1 EX of **watch** [BE CAREFUL], +PI	RUN under [PHR V] (+acc)	SUB of **watch¹**	SUB of ① **watch** after ◆	SUB of **watch¹** in red boldface (+acc)

For abbreviations, see the other tables and relevant dictionaries.

because *CALD*'s treatment of compounds is almost identical to other non-Cantabrigian dictionaries. In Akasu et al. (1996: §2.5), we have pointed out that in *CIDE*, compounds are scattered in the examples, which sometimes result in accessibility problems on the part of users. The Phrase Index, *CIDE*'s solution to accessibility problems, is far from user-friendly; and it is highly probable that for this very reason, *CALD* treats compounds mainly as headwords to make its outer access structure simpler and far more user-friendly.

Almost the same thing can be said about *CALD*'s treatment of phrasal verbs; in *CALD*, they are not treated in its outer access structure. So far as phrasal verbs are concerned, the general trend is to treat them in the microstructure of their key words. Normally, they are treated as subheadwords or run-ons; or simply as boldfaced examples or as definitions. *CALD*'s strategy is to adopt the special nesting structure for phrasal verbs. In *CALD*, phrasal verbs are headed by the black triangle (▲) and when there are a handful of them they make up a column titled "PHRASAL VERBS WITH (X)". This treatment is similar to *OALD⁶*'s and *COBUILD⁴*'s because they also have some sort of nesting device for phrasal verbs. In *OALD*, phrasal verbs are mainly treated under the heading of [PHR V] and in *COBUILD⁴*, the diamond symbol (◆) heads phrasal verbs. Apart from the difficulties in deciding whether a unit is a phrasal verb or not on the one hand and a certain amount of concomitant redundancy on the other,[14] this is surely a great improvement in terms of easy accessibility.

2.7. Idiom Finder

The basic idea of the Idiom Finder is similar to *CIDE*'s Phrase Index, but just as we have seen before, the former is specialized for idioms to the exclusion of such multiword lexical units as phrasal verbs and compounds, and other collocations. *CALD* lists 6,366 idioms in the Idiom Finder.

Compared with *CIDE*'s Phrase Index, the Idiom Finder is obviously far more user-friendly. It now has larger type setting and turquoise boldface which makes it easier to locate the key words of idioms. Since

there is no line numbering, it only shows the page numbers on which idioms are treated. Just as phrasal verbs, idioms are headed by bullets (●), so it is not at all difficult for users to locate them in the wordlist.

2.8. Sublexical items

One aspect which should be noted is that *CALD* has the following three different levels of treatment concerning affixes and combining forms:[15]

(5)[16]   a.   Sublexical items treated as headwords:
      ante-(natal) BEFORE , **anti-**(nuclear), **con-**(spiracy) TOGETHER , **dis-**(agree), (Marx)-**ist**, (Thatcher)-**ite**, (brutal)-**ity**, **re-**(build), **para-**(normal) BEYOND , (guilt)-**ridden** FULL OF , **pro-**(American), **mono-**(lingual) SINGLE , (child)-**led** PLANNED , **in-**(complete) LACKING , **semi-**(skilled) HALF

     b.   Sublexical items treated as subheadwords:
      (double)-**breasted**, (police)-**man**, **custom-**(designed), (bullet)-**proof** PROTECTED , (machine)-**readable**, (egg) -**shaped**, (calcium)-**rich**, (animal)-**like**, -**rooted**, (light) -**hearted**, (two)-**wheeled**, (three)-**wheeler**, (market)-**driven**

     c.   Sublexical items treated as run-ons:
      (chauffeur)-**driven**, **fore-**, (light)-**heartedly**, (light) -**heartedness**

(5) shows that the basic distinction is drawn according to the existence of full forms. Note that those in (5b) and (5c) have full forms corresponding to them, whereas those in (5a) do not. Etymologically, those in (5a) are predominantly Latinate, whereas many of those in (5b) are Germanic. As is pointed out by Dressler (1985: 343), Koshiishi (1999: 19–22; 2002: §5.1), among others, this distinction is reminiscent of the layering of English morphology; however, it is doubtful that this tripartite treatment of *CALD*'s is beneficial to users of all levels.

Table 4 shows the treatment of sublexical items. The following are worth pointing out: Firstly, Cantabrigian dictionaries tend to treat compound elements as subheadwords, while other dictionaries tend to treat them in the definitions of their corresponding full forms. Secondly, due to "one word, one core meaning" principle, sublexical items of the same form can be split into several different subheadwords in Cantabrigian dictionar-

Table 4   Treatment of Sublexical Items

	CALD	*CIDE*	*OALD⁴*	*LDOCE⁴*	*COBUILD⁴*	*MED*
ante-(natal)	HW (pref; **ante-** BEFORE ; Xref to **pre-** and **post-**)	HW (CF; **ante-** BEFORE ; Xref to **pre-** and **post-**)	HW (pref; Xref to **post-** and **pre-**)	HW (pref; Xref to **anti-**, **post-**, and **pre-**)	—	HW (pref)
anti-(democratic)	HW (pref; Xref to **pro-**)	HW (CF; Xref to **pro-** SUPPORT)	HW (pref; Xref to **pro-**)	DEF1 of **anti-** (pref; opposite **pro**)	Meaning 1 of **anti-** (pref)	DEF1 of **anti-** (pref)
pro-(democracy)	HW (pref; Xref to **anti-**)	HW (CF; **pro-** SUPPORT ; Xref to **anti-**)	HW (pref; Xref to **anti-**)	DEF1 of **pro-** (pref; opposite **anti-**)	HW (pref)	HW (pref)
para-(psychology)	HW (pref; **para-** BEYOND)	HW (CF; **para-** BEYOND)	DEF1 of **para-** (pref)	DEF1 of HW **para-** (pref)	—	DEF1 of **para-** (pref)
mono-(chromatic)	HW (pref; **mono-** SINGLE)	HW (CF; **mono-** SINGLE)	HW (CF)	HW (pref)	HW (pref)	HW (pref)
in-(complete)	HW (pref; **in-** LACKING , **il-**, **im-**, and **ir-** are variants; Xref to **dis-**, **non-**, and **un-**)	HW (CF; **in-** LACKING , **il-**, **im-**, and **ir-** are variants)	DEF1 of **in-** (pref; **il-**, **im-**, and **ir-** are variants)	HW (Xref. to **un-**, **il-**, **im-**, and **ir-**)	HW (pref)	HW (pref)
(cool)-ant	HW (pref; **-ant** BEFORE ; **-ent** is a variant)	HW (CF; **-ant** BEFORE)	DEF2 of **-ant**, **-ent** (suf)	HW (suf; **-ent** is a variant)	—	—
(divin)-ity	HW (suf)	HW (CF)	HW (suf)	HW (suf; also **-ty**)	HW (suf)	—
(quick)-ly	HW (suf; **-ly** ADVERB)	HW (CF; **-ly** ADVERB)	HW (suf)	DEF1 of **-ly** (suf)	Meaning 1 of **-ly** (suf)	HW (suf)
(water)-proof	HW (suf; **-proof** PROTECTED)	HW (CF; **-proof** PROTECTED)	DEF4 of **proof** (adj); in compounds	DEFs1&2 of **-proof** (suf)	Meaning 1 of **-proof** (COMB in ADJ)	HW (suf)
(guilt)-ridden	HW (suf; **-ridden** FULL OF)	HW (suf; **-ridden** FULL OF)	HW (usually in compounds)	HW (suf)	HW (COMB in ADJ)	HW (suf)
(single)-breasted	SUB of **breast** CLOTHING (suf)	SUB of **breast** CLOTHING (CF)	DEF7 of **breast** (n); as — BREASTED	— (but DEF5 of **breast** (n) Xref to **double-breasted** & **single-breasted**)	Meaning 6 Xref to **double-breasted** & **single-breasted**	—
(police)-man	SUB of **-man** PERSON (suf)	SUB of **-man** PERSON (CF)	DEF4 of **man** (n); in compounds	DEF5 of **man**¹	Meanings 3 & 4 of **man**	DEF5 of **man**¹
(machine)-readable	SUB of **read** UNDERSTAND (suf)	SUB of **read** *(obj)* UNDERSTAND (CF)	— (but DEF2 of **readable** is Xref to **machine-readable**)	— (but Xref to **machine-readable**)	—	—
(market)-driven	SUB of **drive** PROVIDE POWER (suf)	SUB of **drive** *obj* PROVIDE POWER (CF)	DEF4 of **drive** (v)	Boldfaced examples of DEF8 of **drive**¹ (v)	—	HW (suf)
(light)-hearted	SUB of **heart** EMOTIONS (suf)	SUB of **heart** EMOTIONS (CF)	DEF4 of **heart** (n), as -HEARTED	Boldfaced examples of DEF2 of **heart** (n)	HW (COMB in ADJ-GRADED)	HW (suf)
(light)-heartedly	RUN of **-hearted**, a SUB of **heart** EMOTIONS (suf)	SUB of **heart** EMOTIONS (CF)	—	—	—	—
(chauffeur)-driven	RUN of **drive** (n), a SUB of **drive** USE VEHICLE (suf)	SUB of **drive** *(obj)* USE VEHICLE (CF)	—	—	—	—

Abbreviations: Xref = cross-referenced, pref = prefix, suf = suffix, CF = combining form. For other abbreviations, see the other tables and relevant dictionaries.

ies, which may cause accessibility problems. And finally, *CALD*'s treatment of sublexical items is basically the same as *CIDE*'s, except that *CALD* has run-ons and now uses the terms *prefix and suffix* in place of the term *combining form*.

2.9. Summary and conclusion

In this section, we have analyzed headwords, subheadwords, and the Idiom Finder of *CALD*. The discussion so far has revealed the following facts:

(1) In terms of its macrostructure, *CALD* inherits its basic policy — i.e. "one entry, one core meaning" policy — from *CIDE*. The main difference lies in the fact that *CALD* succeeds in splitting lengthy definitions into numbered independent definitions, which contributes greatly to the easier access to its microstructures.

(2) The increase of *CALD*'s headwords results mainly from the promotion of *CIDE*'s subheadwords and run-ons. This leads to easier accessibility to the macrostructures.

(3) *CALD* contains many new words from such fields as computer science, biochemistry, psychology, ecology, politics, and music. So far as the coverage of new words is concerned, *CALD* is one of the best EFL dictionaries.

(4) *CALD* introduces run-ons to distinguish productive word-formation from less productive ones. However, there are some cases where distinctions are arbitrarily drawn.

(5) Compounds are treated as headwords in *CALD*, which makes it more like non-Cantabrigian EFL dictionaries. On the other hand, phrasal verbs are treated in special columns in the main entry of the verbs.

(6) *CALD*'s Idiom Finder is an independent access structure; but unlike *CIDE*'s Phrase Index, it now does not list phrasal verbs, compounds, or collocations, which is a great improvement in terms of user-friendliness.

(7) As to sublexical items, *CALD* basically follows *CIDE*'s policy. However, *CALD* now has run-ons and uses the terms *prefix* and *suffix* in place of the term *combining form* adopted in *CIDE*.

On the basis of these facts, we can conclude that concerning the

treatment of entries in general *CALD* inherits *CIDE*'s "one word, one core meaning" policy. However, *CALD* has many improvements, most of which are related to the increase of users' accessibility to the items they want to know.

CIDE is a dictionary which arouses users' humanistic interests. Users are enticed to read a whole dictionary article and increase their knowledge. Thus, it is suitable for upper-level users who like to enjoy using it. However, for intermediate-level users or those who want to get instantaneous information, *CIDE* has proven itself to be not so successful mainly because of its peculiar access structures.

The main strategy taken by *CALD*, therefore, is to increase the number of users by improving *CIDE*'s access structures. Overall, this strategy seems successful and now 8 years after *CIDE*'s publication, Cambridge University Press has *CALD* which is truly accessible to "learners and users of English as a Foreign Language from intermediate level upwards."[17]   (T. Koshiishi)

3. Pronunciation

3.1. Introduction

In our analysis of *CIDE*, we assumed that its pronunciation was based on *EPD*[15], which was still in preparation when *CIDE* was published. That assumption proved to be true when *EPD* appeared in 1997, since the two dictionaries employed exactly the same transcription system.

The same can be said of *CALD* and *EPD*[16]. Although the two dictionaries now have different pronunciation editors, they again have the same transcription system. We infer that the changes were initiated by the three editors of *EPD*[16], and the principal task of the new pronunciation editor of *CALD* was to draw on them.

In the following discussion, we will only look at the changes made in *CALD*. The transcription system for British variants is the same as in *CIDE*; the system for American variants has been changed in one respect. The treatment of the weak forms has also been changed.

3.2. American r-colored vowels

We pointed out that *CIDE* had a serious defect in its transcription of r-colored vowels NURSE and lettER in American English. The latter was transcribed as /ɚ/, which was itself welcome, but the former was transcribed as /ɜːr/, which could lead one to wrongly assume that the vowel was a diphthong (Akasu et al. 1996: 23).

In *CALD*, this defect has been remedied by introducing a hooked reversed epsilon /ɝ/. Now the vowel in NURSE is transcribed as /ɝː/. Although we do not think it necessary to distinguish between /ɝ/ and /ɚ/, this clearly shows the users that both vowels are r-colored monophthongs.

Rival dictionaries which transcribe both British and American pronunciations use symbols such as /ɜːr/ and /ər/. The users have to convert them to monophthongs. In this respect, the transcription system of *CALD* has a clear advantage. In fact, this is the best of all the transcription systems among EFL/ESL dictionaries. However, the same complication that we pointed out regarding /ɚ/ in our analysis of *CIDE* applies here again. When /ɝː/ and /ɚ/ are followed by another vowel, an r-like off-glide occurs. If the users are not familiar with this rule, transcriptions such as *furry* /ˈfɝː.i/ and *misery* /ˈmɪz.ɚ.i/ might lead to mispronunciation. We recommend that /r/ be inserted after /ɝː/ and /ɚ/ in such cases.

3.3. Weak forms

The failure to record most weak forms in its pronunciation entries was a major defect of *CIDE*. Only 11 words (*a, me, Saint, the, us, was, we, were, would, you* and *your*) had their weak-form pronunciations listed, and no explanation was given as to how such pronunciations should be used. *CALD* has been improved in this respect, also.

In order to look into the improvement, we have compared the list of weak forms in Obendorfer (1998: 206–213) with *CIDE*, *CALD* and *LDOCE*[4]. Obendorfer's list classifies words according to their possibility to appear in their weak forms. If we disregard obsolete words, the list contains 5 "absolute weakeners" (*a, an, than, that, the*), 63 "normal weakeners," 23 "occasional weakeners" and 33 "marginal weakeners."

Among the "absolute" weakeners, *CIDE* listed only two (*a* and *the*).

Both *CALD* and *LDOCE*[4] list all of them.

Among the "normal" weakeners, *CIDE* listed only 8 items, whereas *CALD* lists 44 and *LDOCE*[4] 48.

"Occasional" and "marginal" weakeners are generally not listed in the dictionaries. *CIDE* listed only one item (*your*), *CALD* lists 4 (*because, or, per,* and *your*) and *LDOCE*[4] 11 (*because, been, or, per, sir, their, gonna, just, ma'am, till, your*).

It is interesting to note that while *LDOCE*[4] has a (practically) uniform style of presentation (unmarked weak forms first, and strong forms later with a note), the presentation of *CALD* is not uniform. In most cases, strong forms come before weak forms and both are labeled as such, but there are cases where the order is reversed. We are not sure whether this reflects the frequency of occurrence.

In sum, even though some individual differences exist, we can say that, in general, the treatment of weak forms in *CALD* is now about as good as rival dictionaries.

3.4. A point of retrogression

Regrettably, there is one way in which *CALD* is less satisfactory than *CIDE*. We commented that *CIDE* was superior to its rivals in that it indicated stress patterns of all the phrase-type entries, although they were only in the Phrase Index and were eyesores (Akasu et al. 1996: 29–30). Now, the stress patterns have all been removed from the Phrase Index and are nowhere to be seen.

We know that this will not be a serious disadvantage. In any case, other dictionaries do not indicate the stress of phrases, either. But we wonder how this decision to throw away one of the greatest merits of *CIDE* was made.

3.5. Minor changes

There are other changes which are rather superficial. *CIDE* indicated British and American variants with "£" and "$" respectively, but *CALD* now presents British variants unmarked and American variants preceded by US.

In addition, syllable divisions are now indicated by periods (.) rather than by raised dots (·). And the syllabicity of /l/ is indicated by a subscript vertical stroke so that *maple* is now transcribed as /ˈmeɪ.pl̩/. These latter changes bring *CALD* into accordance with IPA conventions.

(T. Makino)

4. Definitions
4.1. Sampling

For the comparison between definitions from *CALD* and *CIDE*, all the entries on the following twenty-eight pages of *CALD* are compared with the corresponding entries from *CIDE*: pp. 100–1, 200–1, 300–1, 400–1, 500–1, 600–1, 700–1, 800–1, 900–1, 1000–1, 1100–1, 1200–1, 1300–1, and 1400–1. When a headword is not included in either of the works, its definition does not count. Although the discussions which follow are based on this examination, other entries and those from other dictionaries are also examined whenever necessary.

4.2. Defining Vocabulary

4.2.1. It says in *CALD* that "[t]he definitions only use words from the Defining Vocabulary (a limited list of fairly common and basic words that students are very likely to understand)" (ix). However, it does not provide this list, while *CIDE* does provide one. For the use of small capitals, *CIDE* states that "[w]ords not in this lists are in SMALL CAPITALS" (p. x). *CALD* is not as clear: "Any word in the definition which is harder to understand is shown in SMALL CAPITALS" (ix). In view of the fact that a defining vocabulary (henceforth DV) is originally designed to help learners understand definitions more easily, we may well suppose that any word that is "harder to understand" should be, in principle, outside DV, so that comparing the words in small capitals in *CIDE* and *CALD* may give us some idea of *CALD*'s DV.

Both *CIDE* and *CALD* often use bracketed annotations after words used in small capitals: "PISTOL (= a small gun fired with one hand)" in *CIDE*'s definition of **holster** and "GLANDS (= small organs in the body)" in *CALD*'s definition of **parathyroid (gland)**. These annotations

will also be taken into account because they have a bearing on the DVs. *CALD* states its policy on the annotation as follows: "[W]e explain the meaning of an important related word that is not in the Defining Vocabulary, when you need it to understand the meaning" (xi).

Table 5 below lists the items in small capitals in the definitions on the following six pages of *CALD* and/or the corresponding definitions in *CIDE*, except the headwords cross-referred to: pp. 400–1, 800–1, and 1200–1. When a headword is not included in either of the dictionaries, it is not counted in. All items in the table are lemmatized for ease of comparison, and the parentheses indicate those annotated. The findings

Table 5

Items	Headwords	CIDE	CALD
alarm clock	snooze button	(B)	(SC)
angora (goat)	mohair	SC	(SC)
backbone	mollusc	SC	
barrel	snub (-nosed)	(SC)	NSC
cocaine	snow DRUG	(SC)	B
code	encrypt		(SC)
crystal	snowflake	SC	
cue	snooker	(SC)	(SC)
gangster	moll	SC	(SC)
glare	snow WEATHER	(SC)	
marsh	snipe BIRD	(SC)	(SC)
mole	molehill	(SC)	(SC)
mucus	snot	SC	NSC
pancake	enchilada	SC	NSC
pornographic (film)[1]	snuff (movie)	(SC)	(SC)
pub	snug	SC	NSC
punk	Mohican	SC	SC
ski	mogul SNOW	SC	NSC
	snowmobile	SC	
	snowplough SPORT	SC (excluding selectional restriction)	NSC
surf	moll	(SC)	SC
the middle ages	modern PRESENT	(B)	(SC)

Note: SC = used in SMALL CAPITALS / NSC = used in roman / B = used in bold type

from this table are discussed in 4.2.2, 4.2.3, 4.2.4, and 4.2.5.

4.2.2.   As many as nineteen items are listed on *CIDE*, whilst only eleven items are listed on *CALD*. It is interesting that *CALD* puts far fewer words in small capitals. Moreover, a closer examination of the use of the items in the definitions reveals that, while *CIDE* prints *barrel*, *mucus* and *pub* in small capitals in the definition of **snub-nosed**, **snot** and **snug** respectively, *CALD* does not. Apart from the items in Table 5, it should be noted that on the twenty-eight pages I examined a somewhat technical term *spine* is used in roman in *CALD*'s definition of **mollusc**. This fact, together with the finding from Table 5, might suggest that *CALD* has introduced a slightly larger DV if *CALD* also makes it a principle to put any word outside its DV in small capitals.

Although *CALD* does not specify how large its DV is or which items are included in it, from the user perspective, it will be far more important for an EFL dictionary to use DV in a way which does not confuse the user. Therefore, it should at least be explained how the DV is used in the dictionary. For instance, the following use of *parachute* in the two adjacent entries in *CALD* should be explained somewhere (cf. *LDOCE*[4]: 1943 for its account of "Words not in the Defining Vocabulary"):

> **parasailing**   a sport in which you wear a PARACHUTE and are pulled behind a motor boat in order to sail through the air
> **parascending**   a sport in which you wear a parachute and you are connected by a long rope to a car or boat which pulls you up into the air as it moves forward on the ground or on water

On the other hand, *mole* is used in small capitals in the definition of **molehill**, though it has its own entry on the same page a few entries above. There are inconsistencies in *CALD*'s use of the DV.

4.2.3.   Among the nineteen items on *CIDE*, eight words are annotated: *barrel*, *cocaine*, *cue*, *glare*, *marsh*, *mole*, *pornographic*, and *surf*, whilst as many as nine items are annotated among the eleven words on *CALD*: *alarm clock*, *angora*, *code*, *cue*, *gangster*, *marsh*, *mole*, *pornographic*, and *the middle ages*. While more than half of the items which *CIDE* puts in small

capitals are not provided with an annotation, *CALD* annotates the majority of the items in small capitals. In other words, most of the words which the *CALD* lexicographers find "harder to understand" (ix) are actually marked as outside its DV (see 4.2.1). Moreover, the items which *CIDE* marks as outside its DV are not necessarily those the *CALD* lexicographers find harder to understand. It seems fair to say that *CALD*'s selection of DV words is more strictly based on whether a particular item is likely to be understood by the user.

It is also to be noted here that *glare* on *CIDE*, which is used in the definition of **snow blindness** and is followed by an annotation "(= brightness)," is replaced by *brightness* in the corresponding definition in *CALD*. This shows another attempt by the *CALD* lexicographers to achieve a definition which is easier to understand.

4.2.4.   A glance at the items on the table will tell us that, among those appearing only on *CIDE*, there is a rather technical term used: *mucus*. At the same time, two other words seem very common to most learners: *pancake* and *ski*. As DV is usually comprised of words which are very common or useful for defining other words, it is not surprising that *CIDE* should mark these three words as outside the DV. On the other hand, it is interesting to note that *CALD* uses two compound words in small capitals: *alarm clock* and *the middle ages*. One of the most serious problems in DV is how lexicographers should treat fixed phrases consisting of DV words; even if a phrase is made up of words in DV only, the use of it as part of DV cannot be legitimate unless its meaning is transparent to the learner. Although words in small capitals used in definitions might not be outside the DV, *CALD*'s policy to mark them as such is a small step forward.

CIDE also annotates the two compounds, but it does not mark them in small capitals as outside the DV; instead, they are printed in bold. Even though the two compounds are visually distinguished from other items in the definitions, it is necessary for *CIDE* to at least mention its use of bold type.

4.2.5. CLD^2, another EFL dictionary from CUP designed for intermediate learners, does not state officially that it uses DV, but it says: "All our explanations use very simple words. Where we have had to use a more difficult word than usual, that word is explained in brackets" (7). It may be, therefore, worth comparing definitions from CLD^2 and $CALD$ to see if the lexicographers employ different criteria for which item to annotate for intermediate and advanced learners. As CLD^2 includes fewer headwords, all the entries on the following six pages of $CALD$ have been examined, and compared with the corresponding entries in CLD^2 in addition to the six pages for Table 5: pp. 200–1, 600–1, and 1000–1. When a headword is not included in either of the works, it is not counted in this examination.

While no item is found that is annotated only in $CALD$, there are a few which are annotated only in CLD^2: *empire* in the definition of **empress**, *chequebook* for **checkbook**,[2] *cook* for **chef**, and *plum* for **prune**. It is apparent that CLD^2 annotates more words used in the definitions.

Concerning the items listed on $CALD$ in Table 5, only two headwords, **modern** and **snooker**, are included in CLD^2. It is interesting to note that CLD^2 avoids using the two small capital items; below are the definitions of **snooker** GAME from $CALD$ and CLD^2:

> $CALD$ a game played by two people in which CUES (= long thin poles) are used to hit 15 red balls and 6 balls of different colours into six holes around a cloth-covered table in a fixed order
> CLD^2 a game in which two people use long sticks to hit coloured balls into holes at the edge of a table

It seems safe to say that the Cambridge lexicographers attempt at making definitions in CLD^2 easier for intermediate learners to understand at the cost of a less precise definition.

4.3. Sense Description

4.3.1. Although $CIDE$ and $CALD$ present headwords in the same manner, the two dictionaries employ quite different methods for defining different senses of a word. $CIDE$ uses a full sentence printed in ordinary type and/ or a bracketed explanation within an example sentence, whilst $CALD$

shows the differences in meaning by separate numbered definitions within one entry. For instance, in the entry for **safe** NOT IN DANGER in $CIDE$, there is an explanation, "Safe can also be applied to things which do not involve any risk," followed by several examples. Among them is "*He's never remembered my birthday in his life, so it's a safe* **bet** (= I am certain) *he'll forget it again this time!*" As $CIDE$ puts these explanations among illustrative examples without marking them off clearly, it is sometimes extremely difficult for the user to recognise the sense he or she is looking for. On the other hand, $CALD$ defines the same sense as "describes things which do not involve any risk" under sense 4 of **safe** WITHOUT DANGER , and adds almost the same example, "*He never usually remembers my birthday, so it's a* **bet** (= I am certain) *he'll forget again this time.*" Since $CALD$ visually distinguishes different senses by the sense number, it is apparent that $CALD$'s presentation of senses is more user-friendly in terms of users' accessibility to the information.

4.3.2. It is not to be overlooked that sometimes $CIDE$ puts more than one related sense in one definition, which also makes it hard for the user to locate the sense. For example, the following definition of **cheers** in $CIDE$ "Cheers is also used to mean thank you or goodbye" is divided into two in $CALD$:

> **2** used to mean 'thank you'   **3** used to mean 'goodbye'

Significantly, the longer a definition becomes, the more problematic it becomes. The definition of **provost** from $CIDE$ is a case in point:

> (*Br*) (in some universities) the person in charge of a particular college, or (*Am*) a person of high rank who helps to run a college

In contrast, $CALD$ splits the corresponding definition into two as follows:

> **1** *UK* (in some universities) the person in charge of a particular college   **2** *US* an important official who helps to run a college or university

Obviously, the introduction of the sub-division of the senses makes $CALD$'s definitions much easier to understand.

4.3.3. As we saw in Section 2, *CALD* makes it a principle to distinguish between idioms, phrasal verbs, and individual senses of a headword in an entry. Take **bed**, for example. *CALD* has three main entries with the following GUIDEWORDS: FURNITURE , BOTTOM , and AREA OF GROUND . In the FURNITURE entry are eight idioms brought together after the definition of the main sense and its examples, and three phrasal verbs are grouped together after the three main entries.

Two of the three phrasal verbs are exactly the same in form: **bed down**, and each of them is provided with GUIDEWORDS, SLEEP and WORK WELL . Although *CIDE* also includes the same idioms and the phrasal verbs under the same entry, it does not clearly classify or mark them. Nor does it provide the phrasal verbs with the GUIDEWORDS. These policies of *CALD* are no doubt among its advantages over *CIDE*.

Apart from phrasal verbs, *CALD* has come to have far more main entries, even splitting into two or more those which *CIDE* treats as one entry, and adds a GUIDEWORD to each of them (e.g. **safety net** and **safety valve**). This is another welcome innovation of *CALD* in terms of accessibility to its contents.

4.3.4. There are several minor changes between GUIDEWORDS in *CIDE* and *CALD*, and some of the changes actually succeed in making particular senses more conspicuous. For example, on the twenty-eight pages I have examined, there is an example under the entry for **molest**. *CIDE* uses a rather vague GUIDEWORD, TROUBLE for the following sense of that word: "to trouble or annoy (a person or an animal) sometimes by using violence, esp. to prevent them from doing something," but *CALD* replaces it with a more specific one ATTACK . We can safely say that *CALD* has become more user-friendly especially in terms of the accessibility to the information it contains.

4.3.5. A comparison was made between entries of **take** from *CIDE* and *CALD* to see if there is any change between their arrangements of senses. Figure 1 below shows correspondence relations between individual senses

of **take** in *CIDE* and *CALD*.

Figure 1
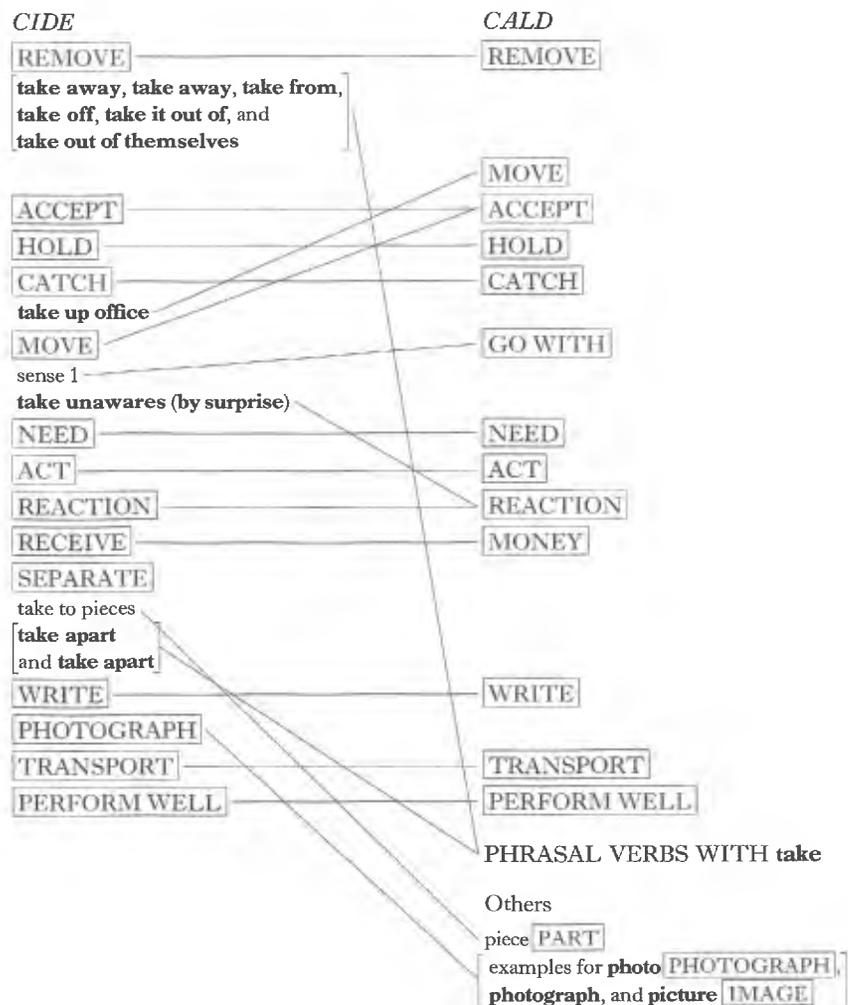
Note: Those phrasal verbs which had their own entries or which were included in the entries for another headword in CIDE are not dealt with in the figure.

While the majority of *CALD*'s entries remain the same as *CIDE*'s, major changes are made to MOVE, SEPARATE, and PHOTOGRAPH. Also, a new entry was introduced in *CALD*: GO WITH.

First, MOVE has been promoted from the fifth sense in *CIDE* to the second in *CALD*. Compared with other EFL dictionaries of a similar size, most dictionaries put it as either the first or second sense of the headword: *LDOCE*[4] puts it as the second sense of **take**, *MED* as the first, *OALD*[6] splits it into the first and the second sense, and *COBUILD*[4] splits it into the second and the third senses of ② **take**. In view of the fact that recent EFL dictionaries have come to use corpora more intensively than before, it is plausible that this promotion is affected by the latest findings that the *CALD* lexicographers got from their corpora.

Incidentally, there are three senses in GO WITH. However, this does not necessarily mean that none of them are covered in *CIDE*. One thing the senses have in common is that their basic meaning is "to go somewhere with someone"; this seems to derive from MOVE in *CIDE*: "to move (something or someone) from one place to another." In fact, at least sense 1 in GO WITH: "to go somewhere with someone, often paying for them or being responsible for them" is illustrated in the following example in *CIDE*'s MOVE: "John's taking me to a concert this evening." It would follow from this that *CALD* has come to include more information on subtler nuances of a headword, though not necessarily provide completely new senses. Apart from this example, *CALD* has more information on the specific nuance or connotation of a headword. The examples are legion, and will be discussed more thoroughly in 4.4.1.

Second, *CALD*'s principle to distinguish senses, idioms, and phrasal verbs in an entry affects the arrangements of phrasal verbs. *CIDE* contains in the entry of **take** SEPARATE two phrasal verbs identical in form, **take apart**, and *CALD* lists them at the end of all the entries of **take** with two different GUIDEWORDS, SEPARATE and DEFEAT. This entry also contains an idiom, **take to pieces**, but it is transferred to the entry of another headword, **piece** PART. Similar changes are found among the entries of **take**: **take up office** is transferred from CATCH to ACCEPT, and **take unawares/by surprise** from MOVE to REACTION.

Third, **take** PHOTOGRAPH in *CIDE* underwent the biggest change. *CALD* has deleted the definition, and all the examples which *CIDE* puts under this entry have been transferred to the entries of other headwords: **photo**, **photograph**, and sense 1 of **picture** IMAGE. A closer examination will reveal that the following collocations are all covered in *CALD* and are illustrated clearly: (1) "take a photo of something"; (2) "take a photograph of something"; (3) "take a picture of something," and (4) "have someone's picture taken." Significantly, as for (1) and (2), both *take* and *of* are printed in bold. While only *take* is in bold concerning (3), (3) and (4) are given bracketed annotations. Therefore, even if the entry is not included in *CALD*, the deletion will not affect its coverage of meaning as much as one would expect.

Lastly, as we have seen in 4.3.4, *CALD* replaces several GUIDEWORDS of *CIDE*. Here, too, **take** RECEIVE is replaced by MONEY. As the object of **take** in this sense is restricted to money, this change must make it easier for the user to recognize the sense among the fourteen entries of the verb. It seems fair to say that most of the changes *CALD* has made concerning its sense description reflect the lexicographers' attempt at a more user-friendly arrangement of senses.

4.3.6. Higashi (2003) points out that recent monolingual EFL dictionaries, especially *CALD* and *LDOCE*[4], have come to use far more often the following type of definition beginning with the word *when*: "when you analyse something" (s.v. **analysis** in *CALD*). On the twenty-eight pages I examined, the following nouns and noun phrases are defined in this way: **frizz**, **modesty** QUIETLY SUCCESSFUL, **paralysis**, **pardon**, sense 1 of **provision** SUPPLY, **tactical voting**, **tail wagging the dog** and sense 2 of **untruth**, whilst no such examples were found in *CIDE*.

In the definitions, clauses beginning with *when* are used not as adverbial clauses but as a substitute for the nouns being defined or as complements of verbs such as *be*. The point is that the *when*-clauses seemingly cover so wide a range of area that the lexicographers may be tempted to omit the hypernyms of headwords. As a result, this type of definition has become problematic in several respects (see Higashi 2003 for details). For instance,

it will be clear that such definitions as the following cannot sufficiently capture the senses or referents of the headwords:

> **attack 2**   when you say something to strongly criticize someone or something (*CALD*)
>
> **arithmetic**   when you calculate numbers, for example by multiplying or adding (*CLD*²)

Interestingly enough, this type of definition is also used in dictionaries for children (cf. Ilson 2002 and Higashi 2003), which may suggest that the style is a result of an attempt by lexicographers to make definitions easier to understand. In this connection, *CLD*² uses the style much more often than *CALD*; of all the noun headwords beginning with the letter A, *CALD* defines thirty-three senses or uses of them in this style, whilst *CLD*² applies the style to as many as sixty-seven senses or uses. In view of the fact that *CLD*² includes fewer headwords and senses, it seems safe to say that their primary motivation was to achieve easier definitions.

It might be also worth mentioning here that the adverbial clause in *CIDE*'s example in **tactical** is quite similar to *CALD*'s definition of **tactical voting**:

> *CIDE*   *There can be a lot of* **tactical** *voting in some elections, when people vote for a party they do not normally support to try to beat a third party.*
>
> *CALD*   when people vote for a political party that they do not usually support in order to prevent another party from winning

The same thing can be said of the *if*-clause in *CIDE*'s explanation of (**a case of**) **the tail wagging the dog** and *CALD*'s corresponding definition:

> *CIDE*   If a large group has to do something to satisfy a small group that can be (**a case of**) **the tail wagging the dog**
>
> *CALD*   when a large group has to do something to satisfy a small group

As *CALD*'s definitions of the two phrases are noticeably shorter than in *CIDE*, the *CALD* lexicographers might have used the style in question in order to save space.

Even if it is employed to make definitions easier for the user and/or to

save space, that particular use of *when* in the definition is usually not familiar to learners (cf. Higashi 2003). In fact, although the use seems to be gaining currency in current English, *CALD* itself does not explain it in the entry.[3] More importantly, as we have seen above, such definitions cannot properly explain the senses of headwords. This style of definition leaves much to be desired.[4]

4.4.   Coverage

4.4.1.   *CIDE* and *CALD* arrange senses of headwords in such different ways that it can be rather difficult to compare their coverage of meanings quantitatively. This is partly because, as we saw in 4.3.2, *CALD* often splits a sense in *CIDE* into two or more, providing each of them with a description of subtler nuances and/or more specific uses of that headword. Examine the following definitions of **custodian**:

> *CIDE*   a person with responsibility for the care, protection or maintenance of something
>
> *CALD*   **1** a person with responsibility for protecting or taking care of something or keeping something in good condition   **2** someone who tries to protect particular ideas or principles

Also, the two dictionaries seem to emphasize different aspects of their referents. The following definitions of **laser** from *CIDE* and *CALD* illustrate the point:

> *CIDE*   (a device which produces) a powerful beam of light that is a single pure colour and consists of light waves moving in exactly the same way as each other
>
> *CALD*   (a device which produces) a powerful narrow beam of light that can be used as a tool to cut metal, to perform medical operations, or to create patterns of light for entertainment

It seems that *CIDE*'s definition is unnecessarily scientific. Would we need to know that a laser is a beam of light with a pure colour, consisting of light waves? Most of us will associate it with its use in medicine or entertainment as defined by *CALD*. In short, to be scientifically correct is one thing and to be lexically correct is quite another (cf. Hanks 1979).

The following definitions of **cheesecake** and **the Holy Grail** also show clearly that *CIDE* is rather too precise in explaining their referents:

CIDE   photographs in newspapers and magazines of attractive women who are wearing very few clothes and who are photographed in a way that emphasizes the sexual attractiveness of their bodies, or the women who appear in such photographs

CALD   photographs of sexually attractive young women wearing very few clothes, or the women who appear in such photographs

CIDE   The Holy Grail (also the Grail) is a bowl believed to have been used by Jesus Christ at the meal before his death. Some of his blood is believed to have been collected in it and it therefore became a holy thing which many people looked for

CALD   a cup believed to have been used by Jesus Christ at the meal before his death (sense 1)

As Rundell (1998) points out, when presenting information, lexicographers should carefully select the kinds of information that are lexically relevant and necessary for users. In this sense, *CALD*'s approach to meaning must be more relevant for the learner; the examples are legion: **bee** INSECT , **chemist**, **laser printer**, to name but a few.

Apart from nouns, *CALD*'s policy towards specific and lexically relevant information will be clearly illustrated in its treatment of other parts of speech. For instance, *CALD* lists **home-grown** as a main entry and has two senses: **1** "from your own garden" and **2** "If someone or something is home-grown, they belong to or were developed in your own country." On the other hand, *CIDE* just gives the following explanation in the entry for **home** HOUSE/APARTMENT : "Home is used to mean done or made at home." It may be fair to say that *CALD* does not only cover a wider range of relevant information but presents it in a more accessible way (see also 4.3.2). Obviously, these are *CALD*'s merits concerning its coverage of meaning.

4.4.2. Figurative meanings or uses of words and phrases have begun to attract our attention with the development of cognitive semantics.[5] Although both *CIDE* and *CALD* have a lot of information on this kind of meaning, the former seems to have a wider coverage. For example, the following meanings are covered only in *CIDE*:

prowl   (*fig.*) *After two years of famine, death is* **on the** *prowl* (= many people are dying) *throughout the villages.*
tag SMALL PART   (*fig.*) *This house has a price tag of* (= costs) *half of a million pounds.*

It is to be noted here that while *CIDE* usually puts the *fig.* label to example sentences which illustrate figurative uses, *CALD* often does not. On the twenty-eight pages I examined, there are as many as twelve uses which both *CIDE* and *CALD* contain but which only *CIDE* adds the label to: **holy grail**, **parasite**, **pare** (v.), **sad** NOT HAPPY , **safety** (two), **snow** (v.) WEATHER , **table** FURNITURE , **tailor-made**, **untangle**, and **up** HIGHER and ALONG . Nevertheless, it may be too rash to conclude that *CALD*'s presentation of the meaning is less user-friendly, because the two dictionaries present the senses of a headword in quite a different manner (see 4.3.1 and 4.3.2). In fact, *CALD* lists the majority of the above figurative uses as numbered senses of the headwords and even treats one of them **safety net** as an independent entry.

It is not really clear why *CALD* has omitted the *fig.* label from the twelve uses. Considering the fact that metaphor is one of the most productive ways to create a new sense, it is not very difficult to imagine that such uses can go into circulation within a relatively short period of time. There is a possibility that, since CIDE was first published, at least some of them have actually become quite common to such an extent that it is no longer necessary to mark them with the label.

4.4.3. Even though a dictionary contains important information on the meaning of headwords, this will be of no use unless the meaning is clearly explained. Unlike *CIDE*, *CALD* provides quite a few sub-entries and run-ons with their own definitions. For example, **cut**, a subheadword of

the verb, **cut** USE KNIFE has four senses with their own definitions, but, in *CIDE*, they are explained only with example sentences and bracketed annotations. While these additions of definitions are one of the advantages of *CALD*, it is also true that *CALD*'s treatment of subheadwords and run-ons are sometimes rather inconsistent. Of thirty-three sub-entries and run-ons on pp. 1000–1 in *CALD*, only fifteen items have definitions. Even among the entries for the same word form, their treatment is quite different. Take **proudly**, for example. It has the following definition "in a proud way" under the entry for **proud** SATISFIED , but, under the entries for the same word form RESPECTING YOURSELF and FEELING IMPORTANT , no definitions are given. It will not follow from this, however, that *CALD* should provide each of these words with a definition, for the above definition of **proudly** seems to carry only a little information about the meaning. From the user perspective the most important thing is that the meaning of headwords are explained in as comprehensible way as possible. It can be concluded that there is room for improvement in *CALD*'s treatment of sub-headwords and run-ons.

4.5. Labels

4.5.1. According to the lists of labels at the front of *CIDE* and *CALD*, each of them has twenty-eight and twenty-seven labels respectively except those for grammar. Table 6 below lists the twenty-three labels common to *CIDE* and *CALD*, and shows their correspondence relations:

Table 6

CIDE usage labels	CALD style and usage labels
Am	*US*
approving	*APPROVING*
Aus	*AUS*
Br	*UK*
dated	*DATED*
disapproving	*DISAPPROVING*
female	*FEMALE*
fig.	*FIGURATIVE*
fml	*FORMAL*
humorous	*HUMOROUS*
infml	*INFORMAL*
Irish Eng	*IRISH ENGLISH*
law	*LEGAL*
literary	*LITERARY*
male	*MALE*
not standard	*NOT STANDARD*
old use	*OLD USE*
saying	*SAYING*
Scot Eng	*SCOTTISH ENGLISH*
slang	*SLANG*
specialized	*SPECIALIZED*
taboo	*OFFENSIVE*
trademark	*TRADEMARK*

Significantly, all the labels in *CALD* are in upper case, which helps to clearly distinguish them from other contents in entries. Also, it is to be noted that the majority of the labels in *CALD* are spelled out in full (see 4.6.3). Considering the fact that many users are unlikely to take the trouble to read through the list for the keys to labels, these changes no doubt make the labels in *CALD* more comprehensible to the user. This will be also true of the replacements of *Am* and *Br* with *US* and *UK*. It seems safe to say that *CALD*'s use of these labels is as a whole more user-friendly in terms of accessibility.

Incidentally, it should be mentioned here that neither of the lists of labels in *CIDE* and *CALD* are exhaustive; there are labels which although not listed in either of the dictionaries are actually used. For *example*, *abbreviation*, not given in the list of *CIDE*, is used in the dictionary (e.g. **BEd** and **EMU**), and *WRITTEN*, not given in either list, does appear in such entries as **tablespoon** and **tablespoonful** in *CALD* as a qualifier of *ABBREVIATION*.

4.5.2. It may be worth pointing out that some kind of redundancy has been reduced in *CALD*; for example *medical* and *poetic* seem to have been respectively incorporated into *SPECIALIZED* and *LITERARY*. Although it is not completely certain if these reductions should be wel-

comed, it would be unnecessary for an EFL dictionary to classify too finely words and phrases often used in literary works according to the genres (see *CIDE*: 790). Thus, the decision to do away with *poetic* at least may be a right one.

4.5.3.　Concerning labels which only *CIDE* lists, *regional* seems to have been replaced partly by NOTHERN ENGLISH, a new regional label, though there are not too many examples of this (e.g. **agin**, **mam**, and **champion** GOOD). Considering the growing dominance of American English, the senses of a word or phrase which is mainly used in a particular area of the UK might need some label. If that is the case, however, the same may go for other varieties of English including Canadian and Australian English. Moreover, while *CALD* still lists *AUS*, it has removed the label from quite a few (sub) entries such as the adjective **cheesed off**, **cut loose**, **home away from home**, **lash out**.

As for the two major varieties of English, *CIDE* often includes unmarked British uses in contrast to *CALD* which appears to make it a principle to mark equally both American and British senses. On pages 300–1, 600–1, 900–1 and 1200–1 in *CALD*, for example, the following five senses are marked with *UK*: **custard pie**, **holiday camp**, sense 2 of **the holy of holies**, the adjective **paralytic**, and sense 1 of **parcel**, but they are not marked as such in *CIDE*. On the same pages there are also four headwords which only *CALD* marks as *mainly* American uses: **cuss** SWEAR , **holy** EMPHASIS , **homemaker** and **snow-job**. As long as EFL dictionaries are generally expected to help learners learn about the most common varieties of the English language, their emphases on the two varieties are not to be criticised.

In this connection, *CALD* puts the qualifier *MAINLY* before the two regional labels more often than *CIDE* does (e.g. **encamp**, **holler** and **homeliness**) perhaps because the work avoids distinctions between the two varieties that are too sharp. This tendency is more clearly seen in *CLD²*. It even lists, in the front matter, regional labels together with their modifiers, though again they are restricted to the two major varieties: *UK*, *US*, *mainly UK*, *mainly US*, *also UK*, and *also US*.

4.5.4.　In view of the fact that in the current language teaching there is a growing concern for the appropriate use of language, *CALD*'s introduction of *CHILD'S WORD* and *POLITE WORD/PHRASE* can be a positive step forward, though on the twenty-eight pages examined there are no such examples. I thus manually looked up several words which children are likely to prefer, such as **daddy**, **mummy** and **yummy**, and found an example under the entry for **mummy**. Yet, a closer examination reveals that *CALD* uses the label rather unsystematically. Although the dictionary claims to provide the label for such words or phrases as "used by children," it does not mark **daddy**, which is explained as "a word for 'father', used especially by children." The same goes for *POLITE WORD/PHRASE*. While **powder room** is not given the label, it is defined as "a polite word for a woman's toilet in a public building, such as a restaurant, hotel, theatre, etc." Even if the above definitions carry the kinds of information which the labels could provide, *CALD*'s inconsistency might reduce the value of the label.

4.5.5.　Given the difference in size between *CALD* and *CLD²*, it is not surprising that the latter has fewer headwords and labels. However, labels are expected to serve the purpose of marking the actual usage of particular expressions in a language community. Therefore, in principle, the use of labels common to *CALD* and *CLD²* will not be affected by their sizes; whether a dictionary is designed for advanced or intermediate learners, any use which is, say, considered dated should be marked as such. In actual fact, nevertheless, their use of labels is quite different, especially regarding *FORMAL*. For example, only *CALD* gives the label to the following: **encompass**, **moderation** in the entry of **moderate** REDUCE , and **modicum**. This is not simply due to *CLD²*'s space limitation, for the dictionary puts the label to several headwords which *CALD* does not give the label to (e.g. **proviso**, **untoward**, and **unwell**). The two dictionaries appear to employ different criteria for deciding the speech levels of a word, but it would not be a good editorial policy if *CALD* and *CLD²* were to decide which word to mark according to some educational consideration rather than actual usage (cf. Schmidt and McCreary, 1977 and

Thomas, 1983).

In this connection, *CLD²* lists in the front matter thirteen fewer labels than *CALD*. As *CLD²* is designed for intermediate learners of English, it may be legitimate for the work to use fewer labels. However, it is not to be overlooked that the dictionary does not have labels to mark either disapproving or offensive uses of words. Considering the fact that the majority of pragmatic failures stem from learners' misuse of disapproving and/or offensive senses of words, it is no doubt necessary for an EFL dictionary to mark such senses.

4.5.6. As far as labels given to subentries are concerned, *CIDE* was scrupulous in attaching them to each of the subentries where applicable. By contrast, *CALD* is not as explicit and may be called less user-friendly because it very often omits the use of labels either to run-ons or to subheadwords especially when they are not followed by their definitions (e.g. **parenthetically**, **providently**, **providentially**, **sagaciously**, and **sagacity**; see 4.6.3).

4.6.   Miscellanea

4.6.1.   Both *CIDE* and *CALD* contain a lot of pictorial illustrations, but, at this revision, *CALD* has come to print some of them in full color and group them together in the middle of the volume (centre 1–16). It may go without saying that actual colors play crucial roles in explaining the referents of some noun headwords. While both of the dictionaries seek to define **orange** FRUIT verbally referring to its color, *CALD* even cross-refers the definition to its picture on centre 1. Although printing them in full color can be more expensive, this no doubt helps the user's understanding of some headwords.

4.6.2.   Another new feature of *CALD* is "Study Sections" consisting of short essays on various aspects of English (centre 17–38). The topics range from "Vocabulary" to "Varieties of English," and some of them concern the meaning. Under the heading "Work and jobs," for instance, related words and phrases are arranged in such a way that the learner can easily

recognize their relationships and the differences between them (e.g. **employee**, **employer**, and **self-employed**). As the words are in bold and cross-referred to their own entries, the user can find out more information whenever necessary. Interestingly, several related expressions are shown in the order of their relative strength of meaning so that the learner can detect the subtler differences between them. Under "Sounds and smells", nine words are listed with examples in the following order: **defeating**, **loud**, **racket**, **noisy**, **noise**, **sound**, **quiet**, **faint**, and **silent**.

It is also to be mentioned that expressions often used in particular situations such as those for a telephone conversation or abbreviations for text messages and email are shown together. Even "smileys" are listed. Now that the pragmatic skills needed to choose the right expression in a particular context is attracting much attention in the EFL context, this kind of information should be very valuable (cf. *COBUILD⁴* for "Access to English" at the end of the volume).

4.6.3.   *CALD* comes in book form and on CD-ROM. The contents in the CD are basically the same as the paper version, but the CD-ROM version has several special features. As far as the meaning is concerned, three points are worth mentioning. First, as was seen in 4.5.1, all the labels except *AUS* are spelled out in full in *CALD*; in the CD-ROM, this label is also spelled out. However small these differences may be, from the user perspective, this will be welcomed.

Second, as was pointed out in 4.5.6, *CALD* has removed many labels from subentries. Interestingly enough, the omitted labels are often re-stored in the CD-ROM version. In fact, inconsistencies like this are spotted between the two versions of *CALD*. One such example of glaring inconsistency is found at the entry **functional food** where the user is cross-referred to **nutraceutical**, which is given in the CD-ROM properly, but not so in the paper version.

Third, the CD-ROM version has introduced a tool called "SMART thesaurus" to show synonymous expressions and their differences. The CD-ROM versions of *COBUILD⁴* and *LDOCE⁴* can also perform similar functions, but *COBUILD⁴* cannot specify a particular sense of a head-

word. Thus, even if the user tries to find a synonym of *get*, say, as used in "to get ill," the dictionary will give all the expressions which have similar meanings to the verb as a whole, irrespective of the sense in question. In the case of *LDOCE*[4], its CD-ROM version contains the *Longman Language Activator*, and can list synonyms according to the specified sense of an expression. Still, it seems that *CALD* can give the user far easier access to the information. In the CD, all (sub) headwords and senses are followed by a button of the thesaurus even when they do not have their definitions. The user only has to click on it to get the results. Clearly, the CD-ROM version of *CALD* can provide the user with more user-friendly access to its contents.   (A. Kawamura)

5. Grammatical Information

5.1. Introductory remarks

This section deals with grammatical information. First, in order to reveal changes made to the overall grammar-labeling framework of the two dictionaries, this section compares lists of the grammar labels in *CALD* and *CIDE*. Then, specific entries are taken up according to part of speech classes: nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs including phrasal verbs, and their actual labels will be examined.

5.2. Grammar labels

5.2.1. Grammar labels, listed under one single title of "Grammar labels in the dictionary" in *CIDE*, are grouped into two categories and given separate headings in *CALD*: "Parts of speech used in the dictionary" and "Common grammar labels used in the dictionary." As for the former category, a number of changes may be pointed out. The changes include the addition of the following labels: *comparative, group noun, modal verb, name, phrasal verb, prefix, suffix,* and *superlative*. The correspondence between the specific labels of the two dictionaries is diagramed below:
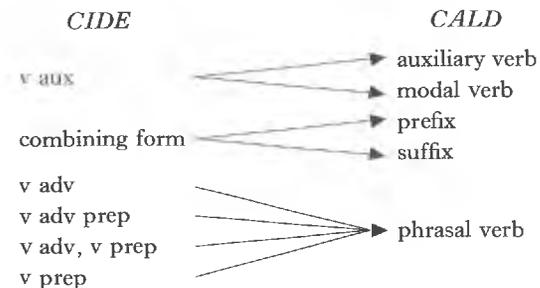
As for the rest of the labels added, *comparative* and *superlative* are few and far between, and I could not find any use in *CALD* of *name*.[1] The label *group noun* is assigned to such nouns as **audience**, **court of inquiry**, and **UNESCO**. Also, while *adj, adv,* and *prep* remain the same, abbreviated labels such as *n, pl n,* and *v aux* are spelled out as *noun, plural noun,* and *auxiliary verb,* respectively. Thus, *CALD* tends toward more transparency.

5.2.2. For the second category of grammar labels describing syntactic features, one has to be very careful in comparing the two lists in question because, as suggested by the title above "Common grammar labels used in the dictionary," *CALD*'s is not an exhaustive list. Such labels as [**T**], [+ **speech**], and [+ *to* **infinitive**], which are quite often used in *CALD*, are missing from the list. Is using [**T**] to indicate a "transitive verb" not "common" enough for inclusion into the list?

The comparison of the two lists reveals three groups of label changes in the two dictionaries: (1) those grammar labels that have been removed; (2) those that have been renamed; (3) those that have been added anew. Included in the first group are such labels as [no passive] and [not gradable].[2] As may be expected, the removal of these grammar labels translates into a loss of useful information. This is not a welcome change. In the second group are grammar labels like [**not continuous**] and [+ **question word**], of which the counterparts in *CIDE* were [not be *-ing*] and [+ *wh*-word], respectively. These are nominal changes and do not seem to have much effect on the user. Moreover, *CIDE*'s [+ *that* clause]

has become [+ *that*] in *CALD*, and it is annotated as "verb used with 'that'" on the inside front cover. This treatment has to be corrected because, as we will see later, the attachment of this grammar label is not restricted to verbs. The same problem arises with the [+ **question word**] label: "verb with a question word." The third group adds labels such as [**R**] and [**S**]. [**R**] stands for a reflexive verb and [**S**] for a singular noun. [**R**] is a welcome addition in *CALD* which makes it possible to distinguish reflexive verbs[3] from ordinary transitive verbs. The verb *perjure*, for example, was treated merely as a transitive verb in *CIDE*. Thus, no distinction existed between reflexive and ordinary transitive verbs, which treatment was less user-friendly. [**S**] is another welcome addition in *CALD* that makes it possible to distinguish between two types of nouns in *CIDE* with the label [U], "noun that does not have a plural form." Take **bind** UNPLEASANT SITUATION , for example. Although [U] was attached to this headword, the two examples given were "*Having to visit her every week is* **a** *terrible bind.*" and "*Borrowing money may* **put** *you in* **a** *real bind,*" unlike typical [U] words such as *anger* and *biology*.

Akasu et al.(1996: 43) pointed out that "[t]he grammar labels in *CIDE* per se are very clear and easy to understand." In general, this feature is carried over in *CALD*.

5.3.   Grammar labels in use

5.3.1.   First, nouns are discussed here. The majority of nouns have both [**C**] and [**U**] uses, and either label was assigned to each and every example sentence in *CIDE* where the relevant noun occurred. This treatment was praised in Akasu et al. (1996: 49), but *CALD* has abandoned using this system, probably for the purpose of saving space. The new way of labeling that *CALD* has adopted is to put the combined label [**C or U**] immediately before the definition, or to put [**C**] or [**U**], as the case may be, before each definition when the entry has more than one sense. Regrettably, countability or uncountability of nouns has been made much less explicit.

In connection with this [**C or U**] label, consider the following entries in *CALD* taken from **chicken** BIRD and **cedar**:

chicken   [**C or U**] a type of bird kept on a farm for its eggs or its meat, or the meat of this bird which is cooked and eaten

cedar   **1** [**C**] a tall wide evergreen tree   **2** [**U**] (. . .) the wood of this tree

The advantage of the *cedar*-style treatment is obvious. Such entries as *fish*, *lamb*, *oak*, *salmon*, and many others of this kind should be modified accordingly. It is interesting, incidentally, to note that the corresponding entry *chicken*[1] in *CLD*[2] is handled not in the *chicken-*, but in the *cedar-* fashion.

Another point that needs to be mentioned here is the inadequate or inaccurate representation of complementation patterns that still prevail in *CALD*. Review the following examples:

folly   [+ *to* **infinitive**] *It would be folly* **for** *the country* **to** *become involved in the war.*

privilege   **2** *It was a real privilege to meet her.*   cf. *It would be a privilege* **to** *be taught by such a famous violinist.* [**C** + *to* infinitive] (*CIDE*)

As for the latter example, the label [+ *to* infinitive] has been correctly removed in the revision, whereas that is not the case with the former example. There are many examples that still need correction in *CALD*.

5.3.2.   Adjectives are the subject of this subsection. As there are inadequacies found with the complementation of nouns, so are there with the complementation of adjectives in *CALD*. Here are some examples that illustrate the point:

possible ACHIEVABLE   *Is* **it** *possible* **to** *buy tickets in advance?*   cf. *Is* **it** *possible* **to** *book tickets in advance?* [+ *to* infinitive] (*CIDE*)

difficult   [+ *to* **infinitive**] *It will be very difficult* **to** *prove that they are guilty.*   cf. **It** *will be very difficult* **to** *prove that they are guilty.* [+ *to* infinitive] (*CIDE*)

impossible   *It seems impossible* **that** *I could have walked by without noticing her.*   cf. *It seems impossible* **that** *I could have walked by and not noticed her.* [+ *that* clause] (*CIDE*)

certain EXTREMELY LIKELY   [+ *(that)*] *It is virtually certain* **(that)**

she will win the gold medal. cf. **It** *is virtually certain* **(that)** *she will win the gold medal.* [+ *(that)* clause] (*CIDE*)

As is clear from the above examples, there is inconsistency in the correction of ill-attached grammar labels. The removal of [+ *to* infinitive] in the first example and of [+ *that* clause] in the third (example) represents a change in the right direction, whereas the second and fourth examples have yet to be corrected.

Also, it was pointed out in Akasu et al. (1996: 50) that "[t]o give an example of inadequate labeling, [before n], which should be given to *fond* FOOLISH , is mistakenly given to *fond* LIKING ." This remains uncorrected in the new dictionary's revision.

5.3.3. Adverbs are considered in this subsection. As a matter of fact, with the removal of such grammar labels as [before adv/prep], [not gradable], and [usually in negatives and questions],[4] there is not much to say about adverbs. For example, **ago** and **too** VERY had [after n or adv; not gradable] and [usually in negatives; not gradable] attached to them, respectively. Neither of these grammar labels are found in the corresponding entries of *CALD*. In view of the fact that this new dictionary claims to be aimed at advanced learners of English, should we say that information loss of this kind matters little?

The treatment of sentence-modifying adverbs, more correctly, the lack of due attention to adverb treatment, sets *CALD* apart from other dictionaries of comparable size. "For example, *CALD* is unique in that it has demoted **unfortunately**, one of the most typical sentence adverbs, to a run-on, while *LDOCE*[4], *OALD*[6], *COBUILD*[4], and *MED* all accord it headword status."[5] As might be expected, **regretfully** and **regrettably** are also given as run-ons, with no definition and no illustrative examples at all. It goes without saying that there is much room, indeed, for improvement.

5.3.4.1. Finally, in this subsection, verbs are examined. As was the case with [C] and [U] for nouns, [I] and [T] are combined in *CALD* as [I or T] to designate the verb that has both transitive and intransitive uses. Hence,

there is no need to attach either grammar label to each pertinent example, which was the former practice in *CIDE*. This is certainly a space-saving device, but, at the same time, it has taken away from *CIDE*'s remarkable explicitness. In fact, this system of not repeating the same grammar label is applied more extensively in *CALD* than in *CIDE*, and so it must have contributed a great deal to saving of space in *CALD*. The verb **stay** CONTINUE , for instance, had such a long label as [I always + adv/prep] repeated many times. By contrast, the corresponding entry in *CALD* places the label [**I usually + adv or prep; L**] before the definition and all the illustrative examples, which means "that grammar pattern is true for all uses of the word" (p. x).

On the other hand, *CIDE* had another way to indicate transitivity or intransitivity of verbs, which was to place or not place the label *obj* immediately after the verb headword. Verbs which may be used transitively and intransitively were represented as follows, using parentheses: e.g. **run** *(obj)* FLOW . Put another way, *CIDE* was redundant in showing transitivity of verbs. This dual way of indicating transitivity has been done away with in *CALD*. It might well be inferred that, for the editorial team of this new dictionary, the issue of space saving or redundancy reduction was high on their agenda.

Regrettably, it is not too difficult to find instances of incorrect or inadequate labeling as to the complementation patterns of verbs. Consider the following examples:

expect THINK [+ *to* **infinitive**] *We were* **half** *expecting you not* **to** *come back.* cf. *We were* **half** *expecting you* **to** *not come back . . . .* [+ obj + *to* infinitive] (*CIDE*)

want DESIRE [+ **obj** + *to* **infinitive**] *Do you want me* **to** *take you to the station?* cf. *Do you want me* **to** *take you to the station?*.[sic] [T + obj + *to* infinitive] (*CIDE*)

convince [+ *(that)*] *It's useless trying to convince her* **(that)** *she doesn't need to lose any weight.* cf. *It's useless trying to convince her* **(that)** *she doesn't need to lose any weight.* [+ obj + *(that)* clause] (*CIDE*)

warn [+ **obj** + *(that)*] *Have you warned them* **(that)** *there will be an extra person for dinner?* cf. *Have you warned them* **(that)** *there will*

be an extra person for dinner? [T + obj + (*that*) clause] (*CIDE*)

It is difficult to see why [+ obj] has been struck out in **expect** and why it has been otherwise retained in **want** above. Other verbs treated in the same way as **expect** include **advise, ask, force, lead, order, persuade, teach, urge**, and other verbs. The grammar label [+ **obj**] is retained in the following entries: **beg, cause, help, permit**, and other verbs as well. On the other hand, this treatment makes it impossible to set this particular pattern apart from the following construction: *He didn't expect to see me*, which represents genuine [+ *to* **infinitive**]. The same goes for the verb pair of **convince** and **warn** above that can take a *that*-clause as an object, irrespective of the omissibility of the conjunction. It is strange that the two verbs should be labeled differently, and this inconsistency would indicate an incorrect treatment of verb labeling in *CALD*.

A related treatment of *CALD*'s, mentioned previously in the above paragraph, or *obj* omission if you will, is the grammar label [+ **v-ing**] given to such verbs as **hate** and **stop**:

[+ **v-ing**]   *I have always hated speaking in public.   I hate him telling me what to do all the time.*

Although both are now included under one and the same grammar label, these two examples represent two distinct patterns that should be distinguished from each other. Thus, the latter example should be consistent according to the *CALD* framework[6] and be headed by [+ **obj** + **v-ing**].

As was the case in *CIDE*, construction patterns and collocations are usually indicated by way of examples in *CALD*, putting relevant items in bold type. However, an improvement can be found in *CALD*, for example, in the entry for **derive**.[7] The grammatical collocation of **derive sth from sth** is given before the definition, making its construction pattern explicit. This is a new, welcome addition, not found in the corresponding entry in *CIDE*. And yet, on the opposite page is an entry of the verb **deprive** where, as in the case of **derive** above, two examples are given, representing the supposed pattern **deprive sb of sth**. Unfortunately, no such explicit pattern as we have just seen is provided there. *CALD* could, and should, make more extensive use of this approach above

which is more user-friendly.

In passing, the grammar label [+ **two objects**] indicating a ditransitive verb, which is among those not given in the list at the front of *CALD*, is attached to the illustrative example given in the entry for **name** *verb*: *We named our dogs 'Shandy' and 'Belle'.* It appears that this particular occurrence is an isolated case, but, obviously, it is wrongly labeled.[8]

5.3.4.2.   Phrasal verbs are dealt with here.[9] As Akasu et al.(1996: 58–59) pointed out, *CIDE*'s presentation of phrasal verbs was quite complicated, making it difficult for the user to locate the particular phrasal verb that he or she was looking for. In fact, there were three different ways in which phrasal verbs, identical in form but distinct in meaning, were entered. In *CALD*, however, this complication has been dramatically reduced by putting them together at the end of the main entry.

Not for the first time, this revision reduces redundancy. On one hand, transitivity or intransitivity was shown by the presence of absence of *obj* in the headword, and [T] and [I] were concurrently assigned to the examples. On the other hand, particle movement was indicated by the label [M], while, at the same time, it was explicitly presented as follows, in *CIDE*:

get in *obj* SAY , **get** *obj* **in** *v adv* [M]

In a phrase, *CIDE* was doubly redundant as indicated in the above phrasal verb usage aspect. *CALD* simplifies this redundancy:

get *sth* **in** SAY *phrasal verb* [M]

Since *CIDE* included a large number of phrasal verbs of this kind, the amount of space saved for each entry was enormous.

5.4.   Notes

CALD introduces three kinds of note headings: **COMMON LEARNER ERROR, USAGE**, and just **NOTE**. Common learner error notes (hereafter CLEs) are found in such entries as **alone** WITHOUT PEOPLE , **avoid, clothes, day, disappoint, fault** MISTAKE , **information, lend, never, recommend**, and **society** ORGANIZATION . CLE headings for **avoid**,

clothes, information, etc. deal with grammar and usage; those for **alone** WITHOUT PEOPLE, **possibility**, and **strange** UNUSUAL with synonyms, and those for **disappoint**, **profession**, and **recommend** with spelling. The errors made by foreign learners of English vary greatly, and it is natural that these CLEs deal with a wide variety of topics. Usage notes (hereafter UNs) are located in such entries for **country** POLITICAL UNIT, **metro** RAILWAY, **more**, **that** SOMETHING NOT HERE, **toilet** CONTAINER, and **whom**.[10] However, the distinction between the two types of notes above is not clear enough as some UNs in such entries as **country** POLITICAL UNIT, **metro** RAILWAY, and **right** CORRECT are actually synonym discussions, not usage concerns. Simple "notes" also vary in content. For example, the note at **get** LOOK AT gives "This is usually used in the imperative form,";[11] at **discreet** "Do not confuse with **discrete**," and at **likely** "The opposite is **unlikely**." Notes of this type are brief and one sentence in length.   (K. Akasu)

6. Examples
6.1. Introductory remarks
   In this section we will examine illustrative examples, mainly comparing *CALD* and its predecessor *CIDE*, and see what happened to the examples in the process of dictionary revision.

6.2. Space-saving efforts
6.2.1.   When we compare examples in the two editions, we are acutely aware how the *CALD* lexicographers tried to save space or reduce examples in the revision process. In the attempt to save space, the most (or worst) affected area seems to be illustrative examples. Examples were deleted or shortened to save space. One of the most obvious changes is in the omission of 'well-known phrases' sometimes included at the end of the entry, inclusion of which constituted a unique feature of *CIDE*. These are "phrases from popular songs, television, films, books, plays, and sayings by famous people." (E.g. "*Educating Rita*" (title of a play by Willy Russel; "*Is that a gun in your pocket, or are you just pleased to see me?*" (Mae West in the film *My Little Chickadee*)) These may not be of much practical

relevance for the learner.. Still, some should miss the disappearance of this "fun part" of the dictionary.[1] This omission seems to be part of the space-saving efforts on the part of the *CALD* lexicographers.[2]

6.2.2.   The purpose of reducing dictionary space substantially seems to have been achieved by omissions of examples as seen in the following change in the entry for **sensual**.

   CIDE   *For many people, eating chocolate is a very sensual **experience**.* ● *A woman with a sensual voice answered the phone.* ● *He is elegant, sensual, conscious of his body.* ● *He noticed her high cheekbones, the sensual mouth and the way her brown eyes fixed on him directly as he talked.* ● *He was looking at her with an odd, flickering smile, faintly sensual and appreciative.*
   CALD   *sensual pleasure* ○ *a sensual mouth/voice* ○ *He is elegant, sensual, conscious of his body.*

   This reduction from five full sentences to one short sentence and two phrases might be called dramatic or drastic.[3] Words like **absent-minded** and **mumps** and many others lost all the examples found in *CIDE*.

6.2.3.   Deletion is not the only way of reducing dictionary space. Sentences can be replaced by phrases.

D MUSIC   *CIDE*   *CALD*
              At this point the music is in (the key of) D. ⇒ *in (the key of) D*

   In some cases one sentence becomes two phrases. (*Criticisms from these political pygmies doesn't worry me at all.* ⇒ *a political pygmy* ○ *an intellectual pygmy* (**pygmy**)

6.3. Other changes
   Changes are not restricted to deletions. There are a large number of partly modified examples. Here are some types of such modification to examples. (The underlines are supplied by the reviewer.)

   CIDE   *She absent-mindedly left her <u>shopping</u> on the bus.* (**absent-**

mindedly)

CALD	*She absent-mindedly left her umbrella on the bus.*
CIDE	*John Wayne stars as a grief-stricken avenger on the trail of his brother's killer.* (**avenger**)
CALD	*Russel Crowe stars as a grief-stricken avenger on the trail of his family's killer.*
CIDE	As she cradled her daughter's lifeless body in her arms, she swore that vengeance would be hers. (**vengeance**)
CALD	As he cradled his daughter's lifeless body in his arms, he **swore** (**to take**) *vengeance on her killers.*

Naturally, the addition of a new word or new sense can involve the addition of one or more illustrative examples.

6.4.   Definitions and examples

Some deletions are not without a good reason, other than for saving space. One of the major functions of dictionary examples is to make a sense of the word clearer by providing a concrete context in which the word is used. Closely related to the definition, examples are subject to change when the definition is modified. **Pyramidal**, for example, lost its only example when the word was given an independent definition in *CALD*. (In *CIDE*, the bracketed explanations or glosses serve as definitions.)

CIDE	**pyramidal** . . . *specialized* ● *It is claimed that pyramidal containers* (= in the shape of a pyramid) *keep razor blades sharp and prolong the life of fruit and vegetables.*
CALD	**pyramidal** . . . *SPECIALIZED* having a pyramid shape [no example]

In the case of **puzzler**, a modification to its definition caused one example to disappear.

CIDE	**puzzler** . . . A puzzler is something or someone that is difficult to explain or understand: *What happened to the missing money is quite a puzzler.* ● *You can be a real puzzler sometimes, Emily.*
CALD	**puzzler** . . . something that is difficult to explain or understand: *I don't know what happened to the money — it's a real*

puzzler.

6.5.   Collocational information

6.5.1.   It is standard practice for ELT dictionaries to give collocational information in examples, often by highlighting such common word combinations in bold type. *CALD* is no exception.[4] These dictionaries sometimes provide similar examples. The treatment of collocation, however, often differs from dictionary to dictionary. Some word combinations are treated as collocations in one dictionary and not in others and the "span" of a collocation sometimes varies between dictionaries. Take **punishable** and **endurance** for example:

CALD	*Drug dealing is punishable **by death** in some countries.*
MED	+ **by** *a crime punishable by 20 years in prison*
LDOCE[4]	[+ **by/with**] a crime punishable by death

In the entry for endurance **beyond endurance** is treated as a collocational combination or fixed phrase, printed in bold type, in *MED*. The expression is contained in the example sentence in *CALD*, but not in bold type (*The pain was bad beyond endurance.*) *LDOCE*[4] include "**beyond** her **powers of endurance**" in its examples.

6.5.2.   More extensive examinations will be necessary before we can say which dictionary provides more collocational information than others, but the overall impression is that *CALD* is a bit weaker than *LDOCE*[4] and *MED* in terms of giving collocational information in the form of illustrative examples.

6.5.3.   We can see the lexicographer's efforts to save space by reducing the number of examples and, at the same time, to retain relevant information. In the following cases, two sentences are combined into one new sentence, still retaining collocational information. This no doubt reflects the awareness of the importance of giving collocational information in ELT dictionaries.

CIDE	*We're still puzzling **about** how the accident could have hap-*

pened. ● *Scientists are puzzling **over** (= thinking hard about) the results of the research on the drug.* (**puzzling**)

CALD   *Management are still puzzling **about/over** how the accident could have happened.*[5]

CIDE   *If you have any queries about this document, please let me know.* ● *I'll hand you **over** to Peter Jackson who should be able to **answer** your queries.* (**query**)

CALD   *If you have any queries **about** your treatment, the doctor will **answer** them.*

6.6. Miscellanea

6.6.1.   For *CJD* (Creutzfeldt-Jakob Disease), *CALD* gives one example sentence, which conveys collocational information: *When it was first realised that BSE could lead to **new variant** CJD, the European Commission banned the sale of all British beef.* It is always not a bad idea to include an illustrative example to give some information about the meaning and/or collocation. But it is arguable that this is a good case in point for an ELT dictionary. This particular example should find more proper place in, say, *Oxford Dictionary of English* than in a learner's dictionary.

6.6.2.   There remain some editorial errors. For example, in *CALD*, **quartet** (*group noun* "a group of four people who play musical instruments or sing as a group") has two examples: *A string quartet was playing Mozart.* ○ *He has composed 14 quartets and 11 symphonies.* The latter example should belong to another **quartet** (*noun* "a piece of music written for four people"). In *CIDE*, a single headword **quartet** covers both "people" and "music" senses in its definition, providing the same two example sentences as found in *CALD*, which, on the other hand, divides **quartet** into two separate entry. In the process of differentiation, they failed to move the example to its proper position.   (Y. Asada)

7.   Conclusion

CIDE was a most interesting EFL dictionary in at least two ways. One is that it implemented the peculiar policy of assigning one entry to one main meaning. In addition, related senses and phrases were packed in the entry, which, in combination with the "one entry for one main meaning"

policy mentioned above, made it a formidable task for ordinary users to search for and locate the word or phrase in the dictionary. The other is that *CIDE* carried a considerable number of illustrative examples, some of which were quite unique quotations, ranging from "[w]ell-known phrases from popular songs, television, films, books, plays, and sayings by famous people" (p. x) to "titles of songs, films and books, lines from advertisements, speeches, and many others" (Akasu et al. (1996: 69)). Thus, there is a sense in which *CIDE* was indeed a "readable" dictionary.

As we have seen, *CALD* has devised a number of ways to render the revised edition more easily accessible to the user or, in a word, more user-friendly. Numbered definitions are one such device, and putting together of idioms and phrasal verbs is another user-friendly addition. The use of color in headwords including run-ons has also made a significant difference. Illustrative examples, however, have turned out to be much less readable, and thus less appealing. Put another way, they have become quite ordinary. It is regrettable that one of the major features of *CIDE*, attractive singularity and a fascinating variety of examples, has been sacrificed for user-friendliness. To sum up, we may conclude that *CALD* is a reasonable attempt to reduce or minimize the alleged inaccessibility of its predecessor while retaining its "*CIDE*-ishness."

NOTES

Section 2

1)   The former aspects roughly correspond to "perspective" and "presentation" aspects of the dictionary in Malkiel's (1967) terminology, whereas the latter aspects correspond to "range" aspects in his terminology.

2)   See McArthur (ed.) (1992: 375), for example.

3)   As to the importance of the productive aspect of language learning in EFL dictionaries, see Allen (1996), Bogaards (1996), etc.

4)   *Numerical* is a paradigm of what Pyles and Algeo (1970: 129) call "collateral adjectives." See Koshiishi (2002) for various problems concerning collateral adjectives.

5) See Prćić (1999) for the treatment of affixes in the EFL dictionaries published in the 1990's. As to the morphotactic transparency of derivatives, see Dressler (1985), Dalton-Puffer (1996), among others.

6) See http: //dictionary.cambridge.org/cald/book/caldbook2.htm.

7) Note that *CALD* has some emoticons as their headwords, as is witnessed by: **-o,**: **-O**, =: **-o**, etc.

8) The following 9 headwords are deleted from the first 50 pages of *CALD*: **abed,** **abnegate, agnosia, ahchoo, ahistorical, Alice band, amontillado, antepenultimate,** and **aphasia**. Note that most of them are more or less technical in nature.

9) It has been pointed out by many scholars that the adjective *apparent* is notoriously ambiguous and hence poses serious problems for EFL learners. See Evans and Evans (1957: 38), Hayakawa (1968: 446), Konishi (ed.) (1989: 177–85) among others.

10) Note that *CALD* has another **appointment** which is a headword, meaning "a formal arrangement to meet or visit someone at a particular time and place."

11) In some cases, subheadwords are used with examples with parenthesized explanations. See **reportedly**, for example.

12) *CALD* refers to the former two as prefixes and the last as a suffix. See **2.8** for *CALD*'s treatment of these sublexical items.

13) Note that the plurality of **the accused** in terms of grammatical concord is contextually determined. Interestingly, **the deceased** is treated as a boldfaced collocation under **deceased**.

14) Redundancy there surely is because a certain amount of information has to be repeated in definitions as well. See **look at** in *CALD*.

15) *CIDE*'s treatment of sublexical items is almost the same, but note that it does not make use of run-ons.

16) Parenthesized elements in the examples are put for clarification.

17) This is the user level stated on the back cover of *CIDE*.

Section 4

1) Both *CIDE* and *CALD* put a note "(= sex film)" to "a PORNOGRAPHIC film" in the definition of *snuff movie*. This does not explain *pornographic* alone but the phrase as a whole. Notes of this kind are counted, however, as long as they help the user to understand items in small capitals (cf. *CIDE*: x). This is also the case with *angora* in the definition of *mohair* in *CALD*.

2) The following explanation of **checkbook** in *CLD²*, which includes *chequebook*, may not be called a definition: "*US spelling of* chequebook (= a book of papers printed by a bank that you use to pay for things)." However, the work does not only list it as the British variant but annotates it. As explanations of this kind constitute definitions of headwords, they are treated as such in this analysis. Similar examples are found in *CALD*.

3) Among *CALD*'s contemporaries, *OALD⁶*, *MED*, *COBUILD⁴* and *LDOCE⁴*, only *MED* and *LDOCE⁴* explain this use of *when* and give the illustrative examples.

4) Fox (2003) commented on this way of definition that it actually worked well in classrooms, but went on to say that the Macmillan lexicographers stopped defining in that style as it did not really sound acceptable.

5) "Metaphor Boxes" have been introduced as a new feature in *MED*, which fact is a

good reflection of the growing interest in figurative meanings.

Section 5

1) *Comparative* and *superlative* are also used in GUIDEWORDS, as in **better** and **most**.

2) For users and learners, *CIDE*'s treatment of adjectival and adverbial comparative and superlative forms was explicit, succinct and exhaustive. That is, *CIDE*'s system of **-er** comparative and **-est** superlative post-headword marking, not indicating productive forms using **more** and **most**, and the provision of a [not gradable] label made it possible for *CIDE* users to easily learn and know all comparative and superlative forms. Conversely, *CALD* does not include such indicators, save for some special cases, and its removal of the [not gradable] label is more significant than it would appear. For encoding purposes, these omissions represent a serious loss of otherwise helpful information for users and learners.

3) Reflexive verbs in *CALD* have their headwords presented in a quite unique manner: e.g. **perjure** *yourself*.

4) Sometimes information of this kind is found elsewhere. For example, **either** ALSO has "used in negative sentences instead of 'also' or 'too'" in the position where a definition should have been provided.

5) Interestingly enough, both *CLD¹* and *CLD²* enter **unfortunately** as a headword.

6) Actually, the latter example: *I hate him telling me what to do all the time* had the label [+ obj + v-*ing*] in *CIDE*.

7) In this entry of **derive**, there is a phrasal verb given as a subentry: **derive from** *sth phrasal verb* [**often passive**]. Also given in this subentry is the following illustrative example: *The English word 'olive' is derived from the Latin word 'oliva'*. This example as well as the grammar label, [**often passive**], should belong in the main entry, not in this subentry. Note that the entry **derive from** *obj* in *CIDE* contained the following, very similar, example: *The English word 'olive' derives from the Latin word 'oliva'*. This is indeed the illustrative example that should belong in the subentry for **derive from** *sth* above.

8) *CLD²* quite often uses this grammar label [**+ two objects**], and wrongly at that: e.g. **call¹**, **make¹**, and **name²**.

9) "Compound verbs" was the name given for verbs of this particular type in *CIDE*.

10) In *CLD¹*, no distinction is made between CLEs and UNs, and all notes are given under the heading of **USAGE**. Some notes, which are given as CLEs in *CALD* in such entries as **day, disappoint**, and **society** ORGANIZATION, do not appear in *CLD¹*. By contrast, *CLD²* has replaced the heading of **USAGE** with that of **COMMON LEARNER ERROR** in a large majority of cases.

11) This particular information was given in *CIDE* by way of a grammar label [usually in commands].

Section 6

1) For detailed analysis of this unique feature of *CIDE*, see Akasu et al. (1996).

2) Those quotations have already been omitted from the CD-ROM version of *CIDE*. We are not certain why there were such omissions there, but one thing is clear: the limited space available was not the reason.

3) We may say that *CIDE* includes, in a sense, too many examples for *sensual* in comparison with other ELT dictionaries and that with just three examples the number of

examples for this entry has become "normal." (Other ELT dictionaries include from one to three examples for this particular word.)

4)   *COBUILD* is an exception among major ELT dictionaries, though it is now catching up with others.

5)   In the *CALD* entry for phrasal verb **puzzle over sth**, the *CIDE* example is retained: *Scientists are puzzling over the results of the research on the drug.*

DICTIONARIES

CALD: *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.

CIDE: *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.

CLD[1]:   *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary*, 1st ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001.

CLD[2]:   *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary*, 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004.

COBUILD[4]:   *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*, 4th ed. Glasgow: HarperCollins, 2003.

EPD[15]:   *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, 15th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997.

EPD[16]:   *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, 16th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.

LDOCE[4]:   *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 4th ed. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2003.

MED: *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners of American English*. Oxford: Macmillan Education, 2002.

OALD[6]:   *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 6th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.

REFERENCES

Aarts, Flor. 1999. "Syntactic information in OALD5, LDOCE3, COBUILD2, and CIDE." In *The Perfect Learners' Dictionary (?)*, eds. by Herbst, Thomas and Kerstin Popp. Tubingen: Niemeyer, 15–32.

Akasu, Kaoru, Tetsuya Koshiishi, Riichiro Matsumoto, Takehiko Makino, Yukiyoshi Asada, and Keisuke Nakao. 1996. "An analysis of *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*." Lexicon 26: 3–76.

Allen, Robert. 1996. "The Big Four." *English Today* 46: 41–51.

Bogaards, Paul. 1996. "Dictionaries for learners of English." *International Journal of Lexicography* 9.4: 277–320.

Dressler, Wolfgang U. 1985. *Morphonology: The Dynamics of Derivation*. Ann Arbor: Karoma Publishers.

Dalton-Puffer, Christiane. 1996. *The French Influence on Middle English Morphology: A Corpus-Based Study of Derivation*. Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Evans, Bergen and Cornelia Evans. 1957. *A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage*. New York: Random House.

Fox, Gwyneth. 2003. On the Features of the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. Iwasaki Linguistic Circle. Tokyo, October 12.

Hanks, Patrick W. 1979. "To what extent does a dictionary definition define?" In *Dictionaries and Their Users*, ed by Hartmann, Reinhard R. K. Exeter: University of Exeter, 32–38.

Hausmann, Franz Josef and Herbert Ernst Wiegand. 1989. "Component parts and structures of general monolingual dictionaries: a survey." In *Wörterbücher/Dictionaries/Dictionnaires: An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography*, 3 vols, ed. by Franz J. Hausmann, et al. Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter, 328–60.

Hayakawa, Samuel I. 1968. *Modern Guide to Synonyms and Related Words*. New York: Funk and Wagnalls.

Herbst, Thomas. 1996. "On the way to the perfect learners' dictionary: A first comparison of OALD5, LDOCE3, COBUILD2 and CIDE." *International Journal of Lexicography*. 9.4: 321–357.

Heuberger, Reinhard. 2000. *Monolingual Dictionaries for Foreign Learners of English: A Constructive Evaluation of the State-of-the-Art Reference Works in Book Form and on CD-ROM*. Vienna: Wilhelm Braumüller.

Higashi, Nobuyuki. 2002. "Gakushu-eieijiten no genzai" [The status quo of English learners' dictionaries]. *The Rising Generation* 148.4: 215–219.

——. 2003. "Eieijiten no gogi no setsumei no shikata ni tsuite — toku ni *when* o mochiiru baai" [On how the meaning of words is explained in English dictionaries — with special reference to the use of *when*]. Paper read at a meeting of the English Language and Literature Society of Soka University. Tokyo, June 18.

Klotz, Michael. 1999. "Word complementation in English learner' dictionaries — a quantitative study of CIDE, COBUILD2, LDOCE3 and OALD5." In *The Perfect Learners' Dictionary (?)*, eds. by Herbst, Thomas and Kerstin Popp. Tübingen: Niemeyer, 33–43.

Konishi, Tomoshichi, ed. 1989. *A Dictionary of English Word Grammar on Adjectives and Adverbs*. Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Koshiishi, Tetsuya. 1999. "Eigo ni okeru han-kochakuteki na tsuji-gensho ni tsuite" [On anti-agglutinative phenomena in the diachrony of English]. *Jissen Eibungaku* 51: 1–25.

——. 2002. "Collateral adjectives, Latinate vocabulary and English morphology." *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia* 37: 49–88.

Landau, Sidney I. 2001. *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography*, 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Malkiel, Yakov. 1967. "A typological classification of dictionaries on the basis of distinctive features." In *Problems in Lexicography*, ed. by Fred W. Householder et al. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 3–24.

McArthur, Tom, ed. 1992. *The Oxford Companion to the English Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mittmann, Brigitta. 1999. "The treatment of collocations in OALD5, LDOCE3, COBUILD2 and CIDE." In *The Perfect Learners' Dictionary (?)*, ed. by Herbst, Thomas and Kerstin Popp. Tübingen: Niemeyer, 101–111.

Obendorfer, Rudolf. 1998. *Weak Forms in Present-Day English*. Oslo: Novus Press.

Piotrowski, Tadeusz. 1997. "Review: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 5th ed. *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 3rd ed. *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, 2nd ed. *Cambridge International Dictionary of English.*" *Lexicographica* 13: 289–294.

Pyles, Thomas and John Algeo. 1970. *English: An Introduction to Language.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Prćić, Tvrtko. 1999. "The treatment of affixes in the 'Big Four' EFL dictionaries." *International Journal of Lexicography* 12: 263–79.

Rundell, Michael. 1998. "Recent trends in English pedagogical lexicography." *International Journal of Lexicography* 11.4: 315–42

Schmidt, Richard W. and Carol F. McCreary. 1977. "Standard and superstandard English: recognition and use of prescriptive rules by native and non-native speakers." *TESOL Quarterly* 11.4: 415–29.

Thomas, Jenny. 1983. "Cross-cultural pragmatic failure." *Applied Linguistics* 4.2: 91–112.

Zgusta, Ladislav. 1971. *Manual of Lexicography.* Hague: Mouton.

An Analysis of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary,* Eleventh Edition

HIDEO MASUDA   YOKO UCHIDA
TAKAHIRO KOKAWA   MIYAKO RYU

1.   Introduction

This is a critical analysis of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, Eleventh Edition (abbreviated to *MWCD*11). Four people have contributed to this study of entries, pronunciations, definitions and verbal illustrations, usages, and synonyms.

The first *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* was published in 1898 "based on the 1890 edition of the Merriam-Webster Unabridged and it aimed to present the most essential parts of Webster's International Dictionary, in a compact and convenient form, suited to the general reader and especially to the college student." (Preface to the Tenth Edition: 6a)

The title of the dictionary was altered from *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* to *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* in the tenth edition (*MWCD*10).[1] Collegiate dictionaries have been regularly published at ten-year intervals. The seventh edition was published in 1963, the eighth

edition (1973), the ninth edition (1983), the tenth edition (1993), and the eleventh edition (2003).

Frederick C, Mish, Editor in Chief explains the aim of the latest revision as follows (Preface: 6a):

> Over the time between these editions, the world has made its way through two global wars and many others of a more limited kind; wide-ranging social, political, and economic changes (not to say, revolution); and successive waves of technological changes that have transformed communication, transportation, information storage and retrieval, and great numbers of other human activities
>
> . . . it has been the job of a good general dictionary to record these changes. The present book is the latest effort by the editorial team of Merriam-Webster to meet that responsibility.

The direct parent dictionary of the present dictionary is *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (*WNID3*) published in 1961. *MWCD*11 has inherited many features from *WNID3*. One of the traditions is that editors and lexicographers take a descriptive attitude when they present pronunciations, definitions, etc. using a large collection of citations. According to Kojima (1999: 517–518), about 4,500,000 citations had been collected for *WNID3* in addition to 1,650,000 million citations used for *WNID2* and other citations from various sources. Therefore, the editors of *WNID3* were able to use about 10,000,000 citations. Today, the company maintains 15,700,000 citations in its offices, plus "a machine-readable corpus of over 76,000,000 words of text drawn from the wide and constantly changing range of publications that supply the paper slips in the citation files." (Preface: 6a) Another feature that *MWCD*11 has inherited from *WNID3* is its precise and sharp defining as cited in Jackson (2002: 65). Still another feature lies in the treatment of entries. Kojima (1999: 519) says phrasal verbs are listed as main entries in *WNID3* for the first time in a dictionary of this type. *MWCD*11 has retained that feature, in marked contrast to other American college dictionaries. The macrostructure of the collegiate dictionary, however, is slightly different from that of *WNID3*. While the collegiate dictionary lists encyclopedic information such as biographical and geographical names in the back matter, "*W*3 has no appendices, all

entries are contained within the main alphabetical sequence." (Jackson: 65)

Our study is based on Nakao et al. (1985: 52–166) who analyzed *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary* (*WNCD*9) from five different perspectives: entries, pronunciations, etymologies, definitions, and usages. It also gives an overall explanation of the history of Merriam-Webster's dictionaries and their long tradition, the tradition inherited from N. Webster's *A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language* in 1806 and *An American Dictionary of the English Dictionary* in 1828.

We know that a well-established dictionary with a long tradition does not, and should not change its dictionary structures without good reasons. It is continued efforts to revise and improve that are more important for dictionaries, the same efforts that brought victory over Worcester's dictionary in the dictionary war. Although there may be no drastic changes in *MWCD*11, we have identified steady improvements and innovations to update the dictionary.

The number of book pages has increased from 1559 in the tenth edition to 1623 in the eleventh. According to the dust jacket, there are ten thousand new words and senses.

One of the major changes in this edition is the renewal of pictorial illustrations and the incorporation of abbreviations and symbols into the main part of the dictionary. Curtailing of the pronunciation variants peculiar to the dialects on the East Coast is another major change.

Minor but steady improvements and changes have been made to facilitate and clarify the definitions. There seems to be little change in usages. The changes also seem small in synonym paragraphs.

To avoid duplications, we have focused our attention mainly on the changes and new additions by comparing *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11. We have also compared *MWCD*11 with other major American college dictionaries and studied areas which Nakao et al. has not dealt with in detail.

2. Entries
2.1. Overview

In this chapter, we will compare entries in *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11 to

examine the major changes in the new edition. The dust jacket of the 11th edition says the dictionary has 165,000 entries and 225,000 definitions with 10,000 new words and senses. According to Nakao et al. (1984: 54), the total number of entries has been steadily growing, from 97,000 in the third edition to 160,000 in the ninth edition. We don't know how many entries have been incorporated in *MWCD*10 because it makes no reference to the entry size. We estimate that there are about 161,000 in the tenth edition.

Our primary focus, therefore, is on the new entries in this edition. We have conducted a survey to examine how the citation-collecting effort has impacted on the new edition. For this purpose, we compared all the main entries, defined run-ons, and undefined run-ons in the L sections of the 11th and the 10th editions.

We have also compared *MWCD*11 with two other American college dictionaries: *Webster's New World College Dictionary,* Fourth Edition (abbreviated to *WNWD*4), and *The American Heritage College Dictionary,* Fourth Edition (*AHCD*4).

Nakao et al. made an overall analysis of *WNCD*9 and compared headwords in the dictionary and foreign words and phrases, biographical and geographical names, abbreviations, and symbols in the back matter. Since the general macrostructure of the dictionary is unchanged except that abbreviations and symbols have been transferred to the main dictionary body, we have concentrated our comparison on the entry structures: what kind of lexical items are listed as main entries and run-on entries, and how homographs are treated. Our attention is focused mainly on the treatment of phrasal verbs.

2.2.   Entries in *MWCD*11 and *MWCD*10

In the L section of *MWCD*11, there are 3,066 main entries (variants and inflections are not counted) compared with 2,852 main entries in the *MWCD*10. A dozen main entries in the 10th edition have been deleted in the new edition.[1] Simple subtraction gives about 200 new main entries, but in fact, the actual number of additions is much smaller than this figure because abbreviations and symbols that were previously listed in the back

matter have been shifted to the main dictionary body. A few abbreviations and symbols are added, and several old ones are deleted. The increase, leaving abbreviations and symbols aside, is about 95 main entries. Since there are 50 pages in the L section, every page has an average of about two new main entries. The estimated number of new main entries in A-Z sections is, therefore, 2772.

Other entries (defined run-ons and undefined run-ons) in the L section have increased in a small way. Undefined run-on entries number 694 in the 11th edition, an increase of 31 entries. Defined run-ons have increased by 5.

Of 10,000 new words and senses, estimated 3,820 entries are new words and phrases in the 11th edition.

2.2.1.   New main entries

Main entries that have been added in this edition come from various fields of science as well as other social sectors. Inclusion of "extensive scientific and technological information" has been a salient feature of American college dictionaries (Jackson 2002: 67). A great number of new words have indeed been created in the new frontier of science and technology. Also, there are many words that have been used for centuries but had not been listed in the previous editions. They may have come to be used more frequently these days than in the past, or the updated computer corpus may have proved that they deserve dictionary entries.

Terms from animals/plants: **lady apple** (1850), **lady's mantle** (1548), **langostino** (1915), **leaf-cutter** (1870), **least tern** (1860), **leopard cat** (1866), **lesser panda** (1943), **limber pine** (1897), **liriope** (1946), **log-gerhead shrike** (1811), **London plane** (1897), **lone star tick** (1896), **long-tailed duck** (1766), **lowland gorilla** (1942)

Terms from anatomy, (bio)chemistry, medicine: **lactate dehydroge-nase** (1966), **laminin** (1979), **Langerhans cell** (1890), **latissimus dorsi** (1684), **lectin** (1954), **left brain** (1976), **leptin** (1955), **levamisole** (1969), **levonorgestrel** (1977), **light therapy** (1936), **lignan** (1944), **long-term potentiate** (1984), **lorazepam** (1969), **L-type-tophan** (1949), **lude** (1973),

lumbar puncture (1895), lymphatic system (1839), lymphedema (1889), lymphocytic leukemia (1959)

Terms from other science fields: lake effect (1951), linear interpolation (1965), linear regression (1958), logocentrism (1968)

Terms from technology: laptop (n 1984), LASIK (laser-assisted in situ keratomilensis) (1994), legacy (adj 1990), Listserv (trademark), logic bomb (1978)

Words from commerce, economics, etc: limited liability partnership (1980), limited partnership, living trust (1873)

Miscellany: lacto-ovo vegetarian (1952), lacto-vegetarian (1971), lap dancing, latte (1991), law-and-order (1844), layin (1951), leaderboard (1963), leading light (1655), leatherwork (1855), lemon curd (1895), lemon thyme (1629), lifestyle (adj 1976), lifeworld (1940), line dance (1948), line-item veto (1979), linguica (1953), linksland (1926), linzer torte (1906), lion's den (1680), live-action (1945), long ball (1938), longneck (1978), longship (1568), losing (adj 1519), lovefest (1972), love nest (1919), lowrider (1972), etc.

2.2.2.   New abbreviations and symbols

As we have mentioned above, abbreviations and chemical symbols that were previously listed as an appendix have come back as headwords in the main body of the dictionary.

In the previous editions, one abbreviation often stands for many entries. When it stands for two or more entries in this edition, they are numerically discriminated. Also, one abbreviation stands both for a chemical symbol and a lexical entry in the 10th edition. In the 11th edition, they have independent status: **1La** *abbr* Louisiana, **2La** *symbol* lanthanum.

There are some new additional abbreviations and many more deleted ones.[2] There are also new entries that have been incorporated into the existing ones.

Additions: **LAT, ld, lic, LLC, LLD, loq, LSO, LTP**
Incorporations: **LD** (laser disc), **LDC** (least developed country)

2.2.3.   New defined and undefined run-ons

New run-on entries have increased slightly. Some main entries in the 10th edition have lost their status and are listed as run-on entries.[3] Some run-ons in the tenth edition have been listed as main entries,[4] and some are included because their headwords are new entries.[5]

Defined run-ons: **lay an egg, lay eyes on, lay into; lick one's chops; lose it; all over the lot; lower the boom**
Undefined run-ons: **lap dance, lap dancer; leading-edge** (adj); **left-brained; letterboxing; line dancer, line dancing; lip-syncher or lip-syncer; lone-wolf; lovemaker;**

As we have seen, the new entries have come from a wide range of fields. It's an interesting fact that new entries related to computer technologies are not as numerous as one might have thought. This may reflect the fact that the rapid pace of innovations in this field has slowed. Instead, there are numerous new entries from the flora and fauna. New entries are also noticeable in the field of medicine and (bio)chemistry. We know people have grown more concerned about the global warming and the environmental problems as they have grown more conscious of their health and what they eat.

2.3.   Comparisons of entries in *MWCD*11, *AHCD*4 and *WNWD*4

Dictionaries often compete with each other as to the richness of their entries. "The term entry" as *MWCD*11 says "includes all vocabulary entries as well as all boldface entries in the separate sections of the back matter headed" Foreign Words, and Phrases, "Biographical Names," and "Geographical Names."

Main entries include abbreviations and symbols, as well as spelling variants that are ordered according to their frequency, defined run-ons (phrasal verbs and idioms), undefined run-ons, etc.

*MWCD*11, *AHCD*4, and *WNWD*4 are comparable in terms of dictionary size and their macrostructures. As we have already mentioned above *MWCD*11 has 165,000 entries. *WNWD*4 says it has 163,000 entries, with

7,500 new entries. Like *MWCD*11, main entries include spelling variants, abbreviations and symbols, but unlike *MWCD*11, they also include biographical names and geographical names often with photographs. *AHDC*4 is similar in this respect. In fact, biographical and geographical names come with more detailed information and many more photos and pictures. They are one of the main features of *AHCD*. It doesn't specify the number of the entries, but we suppose it has a similar vocabulary size.[6]

Dictionary houses utilize computers for collecting language data and for compiling dictionaries. We have already mentioned that Merriam uses machine-readable corpora. *AHCD*4 says "We use computers to search and analyze large files of data, looking for evidence of new words and new uses of existing words. We use the Internet to gather additional information about words and to check their usage." (Preface: iv) *WNWD*4 says that "Linguistic evidence is collected on a daily basis in the form of citations of words and expressions used in print and speech; the program collects several thousand new citations every month . . . As are all Webster's New World dictionaries, the College Dictionary is stored in a relational database operated on a mainframe computer." (Foreword: ix-x)

Since editors and lexicographers have powerful tools to collect language data, they can decide at least partly which new words should be added to the dictionary statistically and there can be no accidental omission of new entries. The remaining differences with respect to entries, therefore, stem mainly from their policy of dictionary making and how to present information, i.e. whether etymologically related homographs with different grammatical functions are nested in the same main entries, or are listed independently; whether phrasal verbs are explained within the main entry verbs, or they are separately listed on their own, etc. We will examine these differences shortly.

2.3.1. Treatment of Biographical and Geographical entries

We don't know the exact reason, but as we have mentioned in 2.1, abbreviations and symbols have been revived in *MWCD*11 as main entries in the A to Z section of the dictionary. Biographical and geographical names remain in the appendix. They could have all been incorporated in

the main dictionary body as has been done in *AHCD* and *NWCD*. As Jackson (2002: 67) says, "American dictionaries have tended to be more 'encyclopedic' in their scope" compared with their British counterparts. Among three American college dictionaries, *MWCD*11 is rather reserved in this respect. Landau (1984: 167-169) has argued for the inclusion of biographical and geographical names especially when they can serve as the etymology of the lexicalized entries, on which readers would like to be better informed. In his argument he takes up biographical names like Kafka.

In *MWCD*11, Kafkaesque is listed as a headword and is defined as "of, relating to, or suggestive of Franz Kafka or his writings; especially: having a nightmarishly complex, bizarre, or illogical quality ⟨Kafkaesque bureaucratic delays⟩". But since Kafka itself is not a headword, interested readers must refer to the appendix for more information. Likewise, mocha is defined as "1 a (1): a superior Arabian coffee consisting of small green or yellowish beans (2): a coffee of superior quality b: a flavoring made of a strong coffee infusion or of a mixture of cocoa or chocolate with coffee." To know why the Arabian coffee is called mocha, readers must look for the entry in the appendix.

We believe all entries, whether they are lexical or encyclopedic, should be listed in the main dictionary body if they deserve an entry in the back matter. That is what has been done in the CD-ROM version of *MWCD*11.

2.3.2. Treatment of homographs

More important differences between dictionaries lie in the treatment of the etymologically related homographs.

While *MWCD*11 lists words like **labor** in three main entries, *AHCD*4 and *WNWD*4 give one main entry. Instead, they nest all the grammatical functions within a single headword. We are not sure which method of representation is preferred by readers.

There have been two contrastive entry formats for this matter in British learners' dictionaries. *LDCE* has adopted a small entry format. It used to list phrasal verbs as well as homographs as independent entries. It retains the system of the small entry format, but abandoned the phrasal-verb

headwords in later editions. *COBUILD* has tried to give a single head-word and explained all its grammatical functions, and even etymologically unrelated homographs such as **seal** (closing, and animal) under the same headword. It retains the system of the large entry format, but homographs with unrelated etymologies are listed as separated headwords in the later editions.

2.3.3. Treatment of phrasal verbs

*MWCD*11 incorporates idioms and some phrasal verbs within the main entries as defined run-ons. On the other hand, many other phrasal verbs are listed as independent main entries. *AHCD*4 and *WNWD*4 nest both of them in the main entry verbs, but treat them differently. *AHCD*4 explains phrasal verbs in one group and the idioms in another. *WNWD*4 does this indiscriminately. The following shows how they are presented in three dictionaries (their compound nouns are also listed).

*MWCD*11

(main entries)	(nested run-on entries)

¹**lay** vt (bef. 12c) . . . — **lay an egg:** — **lay eyes on:** — **lay into:** — **lay on the table**

layaway n (1944)
lay away vt (ca.1928)
lay-by n (1919)
lay by vt (15c)
lay down vt (13c)
layin n (1951)
lay in vt (1579)
layoff n (1889)
lay off vt (1748)
lay on vt (1600)
layout n (1852)
lay out vt (15c)
layover n (1873)
lay over vt (1838)

lay to vt (1796)
layup (1925)
lay up (14c)

*AHCD*4

lay¹ v. tr. — *phrasal verbs*: **lay about; lay aside; lay away; lay by; lay down; lay for; lay in; lay into; lay off; lay on; lay out; lay over; lay up.**
   — *idioms*: **lay it on thick; lay of the land; lay waste**
layabout n.
layaway n.
layoff n.
layout n.
layover n.
layup n.

*WNWD*4

lay¹ vt. — **lay about one;** — **lay a course;** — **lay aside;** — **lay away;** — **lay by;** — **lay down; lay for;** — **lay in;** — **lay into;** — **lay it on (thick);** — **lay off;** — **lay on;** — **lay oneself open;** — **lay open; lay out;** — **lay over;** — **lay something on someone;** — **lay to;** — **lay to rest;** — **lay up**
layabout n.
layaway n.
layby n.
layoff n.
layout n.
layover n.
layup n.

Similarly, *MWCD*11 lists **live in** as an independent headword, and (**live it up**), **live up to** and **live with** as defined run-ons of **1live**. In *AHCD*4, **live down, live in, live out, live with** are grouped as phrasal verbs and **live it up, live up to** are given as idioms of the headword **live**¹.

*WNWD*4 enters (**live and let live**), **live down**, (**live high**), **live in**, (**live it up**), **live out**, live up to, (**live well**), **live with**, and (**where one lives**) as run-ons (parentheses are added to show they are idioms).

Compared with British learners' dictionaries, entries of phrasal verbs in American college dictionaries are considerably fewer as the table shows.[7] Of course, EFL dictionaries need to incorporate a wider range of phrasal verbs than college dictionaries. It seems that phrasal verbs whose meaning can be easily guessed are not entered in American college dictionaries. However, they could list more of them for native learners as well as for foreign learners in the United States and abroad.

	MWCD11	AHCD4	WNWD4	OALD7	LDCE4
live down	◎	○	○	○	○
live for				○	○
live in	◎	○	○	○	○
live off				○	○
live on				○	○
live out		○	○	○	○
live through				○	○
live together				○	○
live up to	○	○	○	○	○
live with	○	○	○	○	○

*MWCD*11's treatment of phrasal verbs appears to be lexicographically inconsistent. We believe *MWCD*11 should list all of them as independent entries for the sake of consistency. Although it's hard to say which formats are preferred by dictionary readers, we believe independent phrasal-verb entries are friendlier to users than nested entries.

There are two reasons for this. For one thing, many phrasal verbs are converted into compound nouns. As illustrated above, *MWCD*11, *AHCD*4, *WNWD*4, and other dictionaries list those converted compound nouns as independent headwords because they are lexical units. Phrasal verbs should also be so listed and they deserve main entry status. Phrasal verbs

also serve as the background of converted compounds.

Another reason has to do with practical considerations. Words that produce a great number of phrasal verbs also have many senses and subsenses. Sometimes finding the wanted phrasal verbs among them can be a far from easy task especially for readers searching them on the CD-ROM, and for readers who use electronic dictionaries.   (Masuda)

3. Pronunciation
3.1. Overview

In the "Guide to Pronunciation" (henceforth referred to as "the Guide"), it is stated that the pronunciations in this dictionary "can be documented as falling within the range of generally acceptable variation, unless they are accompanied by a restricting usage note or symbol or a regional label" (33a). The description is chiefly based on the Merriam-Webster pronunciation file taken "from live speech and from radio, television, and short-wave broadcasts since the 1930s" (33a). Readers who need detailed information are advised to refer to its unabridged edition, *WNID*3.

Basically the same statements can be found in the Guide in the 9th and the 10th editions, and at first sight, the current edition seems to have just followed the tradition of the predecessors without any major changes.

A close investigation of the current edition, however, reveals a number of modifications, some quite drastic, compared to the two previous editions. The most noticeable of which is curtailing the pronunciation variants peculiar to the dialects on the East Coast. Simplification in the current edition's notations is mainly systematic, such as the disuse of \ä\ and transcribing **hoarse** and **horse** identically. Not only systematic changes but some update of individual entries and usage notes has taken place in the 11th edition.

These changes may be due to the policies of the newly recruited associate editor for the present edition, Joshua S. Guenter.

3.2. Vowel and Consonant Symbols

Table 3.1 shows the list of pronunciation symbols used in the three editions, along with key words.[1]

Table 3.1   Vowels and consonants in *MWCD*9–11.

VOWELS	9,10	11	CONSONANTS	9–11
mat	\a\	\a\	baby	\b\
date	\ā\	\ā\	chin	\ch\
cot, father	\ä\	\ä\	did	\d\
father	\à\	—	fifty	\f\
car	—	\är\	go	\g\
now	\aù\	\aù\	hat	\h\
bed	\e\	\e\	whale	\hw\
beat	\ē\	\ē\	job	\j\
bare	—	\er\	kin	\k\
tip	\i\	\i\	lily	\l\
site	\ī\	\ī\	murmur	\m\
near	—	\ir\	no	\n\
bone	\ō\	\ō\	sing	\ŋ\
saw	\ò\	\ò\	pepper	\p\
coin	\òi\	\òi\	red	\r\
port	—	\òr\	source	\s\
rule	\ü\	\ü\	shy	\sh\
pull	\ù\	\ù\	tie	\t\
tour	—	\ùr\	thin	\th\
abut	\ə\	\ə\	then	\th\
bird	\ər\	\ər\	vivid	\v\
hurry	\ər-, ə-r\	\ər-, ə-r\	we	\w\
easy	\ē\	\ē\	yard	\y\
collide	\ə\	\ə\	zone	\z\
			vision	\zh\

The inventory of the consonants has remained the same since the 9th edition. As for the vowels, *r*-colored diphthongs, i.e., \är\, \er\, \ir\, \òr\, \ùr\, have been introduced in the 11th edition as sound units. On the other hand, \à\, which was a symbol to transcribe New England dialects, has been deleted, which will be discussed in the next subsection (**3.3**).

3.2.1.   *r*-colored Diphthongs as Sound Units

Up to the 10th edition, an *r*-sound followed by a vowel was treated as an allophone of \r\, and just a few lines were spared in the explanation of \r\

in the Guide: "After a vowel in the same syllable \r\ is most often a semivowel characterized by retroflexion of the tongue tip. The sequences \ar\, \är\, \er\, \ir\, \òr\, \ùr\, and \ər\ may then be considered diphthongs" (10th: 34a). This is then followed by how the "*r*" is realized phonetically in various dialects, and the "*r*-dropping" phenomenon is only succinctly mentioned.

In contrast, treating the *r*-colored diphthongs as new sound units in the latest edition is highly evaluated for being user-friendly, since the difference between postvocalic and prevocalic "*r*" is clear by putting each of them in two distinct categories, vowel and consonant. This will possibly make it easier for the users to understand the possible *r*-dropping in the former position, but not in the latter. Additionally, the understanding will be further supplemented by the Guide, which mentions the dropping of "*r*" before a consonant or a pause, and the insertion of "*r*" when followed by a vowel for each of \är\, \er\, \ir\, \òr\, \ùr\, as well as the *r*-colored long vowel \ər\.[2]

*AHCD*4 also includes some diphthongs as vowel sound units, but they are limited to \âr\ as in **care** and \îr\ as in **pier**, which may be considered a systematic drawback.

3.3.   Diminishing influence of the dialects on the East Coast

Merriam-Webster's dictionaries have traditionally included the varieties on the East Coast in its scope of description, and this has been no exception with *MWCD*. In this respect, simplification of transcription made by *MWCD*11 is quite noteworthy.

3.3.1.   hoarse = horse

Because "the number of speakers that make such a distinction is currently very small" (the Guide: 36a), *MWCD*11 has abolished the **hoarse-horse** distinction. The two vowels have undergone a merger in most parts of the United States.

In contrast, *AHCD*4 has maintained the transcription of the words in question in the traditional way.

	WNID3, WNCD9	*MWCD10*	*MWCD11*	*AHCD4*
hoarse, mourning	o(ə)r, ȯ(ə)r	ōr, ȯr	ȯr	ȯr, ōr
horse, morning	o(ə)r		ȯr	ȯr	ôr

3.3.2. marry *vs.* merry

Another well-known trend, the widespread use of the identical vowel in **marry** and **merry**, as well as **Mary** (Wells 1982: 479–485), is also taken into account in the current edition. Although the pattern and extent of merger vary from word to word, from region to region, and this seems to be reflected in the description as such, overall, this contrast is moving in the direction of being lost.[3]

Here again, the obsolescent three-way opposition is maintained in *AHCD*4. It uniformly assigns (ă) to **ma̱rry**, **na̱rrow**, and so forth; (ĕ) to **me̱rry**, **ve̱ry**; and (â) to **Ma̱ry**.

	WNCD9	*MWCD10*	*MWCD11*	*AHCD4*
marry	ar *also* er	ar *also* er	er, a-r	ăr
merry	er	er	er, e-r	ĕr
Mary	e(ə)r, a(ə)r, ā-r	er, ar, ā-r	er, a-r, ā-r	âr
vary	e(ə)r, a(ə)r	er, ar	er	âr, ăr
fairy	e(ə)r, a(ə)r	er, ar	er	âr
barrel, narrow	ar	ar	er, a-r	ăr
carry	ar	ar, er	a-r, er	ăr

3.3.3. Abolition of \ȧ\

The distribution of low vowels is complicated and often raises questions on dialectal variations. In this subsection and **3.4** below, Table 3.2, which roughly shows symbols and notational distribution of some low vowels, will be made use of for the sake of convenience in discussion.

The vowels for (E) **cot** and (D) **father**, which belong to two separate units in British English, are often considered identical by the majority of Americans, and are pronounced long with little lip-rounding. The systematic presentation of the American English vowels is often an area of discrepancy among dictionaries and *AHCD*4 assigns two separate symbols (ä) and (ŏ) respectively based on different principles from those in *MWCD*9–

Table 3.2   Distribution and symbols of low vowels: Comparison of five dictionaries.

	MWCD[9,10]	*MWCD*[11]	*AHCD*[4]	*EPD*[16] (*Am*)	*EPD*[16] (*Br*)
(A) m*a*ss, s*a*nd	a		ă	æ	æ
(B) *a*fter, cr*a*ft					ɑː
(C)[t)] b*a*th, c*a*lf	a, ȧ	a, ä	ă, ä		(*ask*-words)
(D) f*a*ther, b*a*lm	ä, ȧ	ä	ä	ɑː	ɑː
(E) c*o*t, b*o*ther	ä		ŏ		ɒ
(F) c*o*ffee, *o*ffer	(*cloth*-words)		ô; ŏ, ŏ;	ɑː; ɑː, ɔː;	
(G) l*aw*n, w*a*ter	ȯ; ȯ, ä; ä, ȯ		ŏ, ô; ŏ	ɔː, ɑː; ɔː	ɔː

11, which in contrast assign an identical symbol \ä\. This is reasonable and acceptable in terms of phonetic quality of the sound.

What was peculiar to *MWCD*9, 10, however, was setting a category \ȧ\ for (D) **father** words (other examples include **balm**, **becalm**, **calm**, **palm**, **psalm**, **garage**) in Eastern New England variety for its different phonetic quality and New York City dialect for its length difference from \ä\.

Employment of this symbol even extended to (C) **bath** words, the Eastern New England version of "*ask*-words" (Kenyon 1951: 179–184), which resulted in a complicatedly scattered distribution of an unfamiliar \ȧ\ for average users. The latest edition has abolished the use of \ȧ\, and as is clear in the table above ((C)–(E)), the current system has just two symbols with the notation of either \a, ä\ or \ä\. It is simpler and more accessible than the triad distribution \a, ȧ\, \ä, ȧ\ and \ä\ as in the older editions, and is a great improvement beneficial to the general users.

3.4. Distribution of \ȯ\ and \ä\

Another issue that surrounds the low vowels in American English is the treatment of the vowel in a set of words labeled "*cloth*-words" (Wells 1982: 136–137), and vowels that are in the process of "THOUGHT-LOT merger" (Wells 1982: 473–475). They are grouped into (F) and (G) respectively in the table above, and the former is realized as a short rounded vowel \ɒ\ and the latter a long rounded vowel \ɔː\ in British English.

3.4.1. cloth-words

A sample of 62 words (see Table 3.3) in the three editions of *MWCD* whose notations were compared, revealed no change but one: **dog**, to which \ȯ\ was assigned in the 9th edition, is assigned \ȯ, ä\ in the 10th and 11th editions.

It is observed that the choice of the four labels, \ȯ\, \ȯ, ä\, \ä, ȯ\, \ä\ is influenced by the phonological environment, and in the environment where the vowel in question is followed by \g\ (as in **log**, **jog**) or \r\ + a syllable with weak stress (as in **foreign**, **tomorrow**), \ȯ, ä\ or \ä, ȯ\ are more likely to be chosen, whereas where either \s\ or \th\ follows the vowel in question (as in **cost**, **loss**; **broth**, **froth**), the label \ȯ\ predominates (also see Kenyon 1951: 186–187).

Table 3.3   How the "cloth-words" are transcribed in *MWCD*9, 10, 11, *AHCD*4, *LPD*2, and *EPD*16.

Data based on a sample of 62 words: **because**; **coffin, cough, loft, off, often, soft**; **strong, long, song, thong, throng, wrong**; **cost, Boston, cross, frost, loss, lost, moss, Ross**; **broth, cloth, froth,** and **moth**, transcribed as \ȯ\ in all three editions of *MWCD*; **dog**, transcribed as \ȯ\ in *WNCD*9, but \ȯ, ä\ in *MWCD*10, 11; **cauliflower, gone, coffee, offer, log, fog, frog, hog, prong, foreign, horrid, laurel, origin, warrant, warrior, warren, quarrel, quarry,** and **quarantine**, transcribed as \ȯ, ä\ in all three editions; and **doff, office, scoff, bog, clog, smog, tog, jog, wog, gong, tongs, tomorrow, orange, sorrow, sorry, boss,** and **gloss**, transcribed as \ä, ȯ\ in all three editions.

	WNCD⁹	MWCD¹⁰	MWCD¹¹		AHCD⁴		LPD²	EPD¹⁶
\ȯ\	26	25	25	(ô)	3	/ɔː/	0	4
\ȯ, ä\	19	20	20	(ô, ŏ)	52	/ɔː, ɑː/	45	8
\ä, ȯ\	17	17	17	(ŏ, ô)	5	/ɑː, ɔː/	16	24
\ä\	0	0	0	(ŏ)	2	/ɑː/	1	26

3.4.2. THOUGHT-LOT merger

MWCD does not appear to be interested in incorporating the ongoing merger in the notation. It is not that the phenomenon is totally ignored. It has been acknowledged in the Guide throughout the three editions:

Some U.S. speakers (a perhaps growing minority) do not distinguish

between *cot-caught*, *cod-cawed*, and *collar-caller*, usually because they lack or have less lip rounding in the words transcribed with \ȯ\. Though the symbols \ä\ and \ȯ\ are used throughout this book to distinguish the members of the above pairs and similar words, the speakers who rhyme these pairs will automatically reproduce a sound that is consistent with their own speech. (*MWCD*11: 35a)

Table 3.4 shows how 48 words that contain the vowel as in **caught** are transcribed in *MWCD*9–11, *AHCD*4, *LPD*2, and *EPD*16, and we can see that *MWCD* is less reluctant to describe the trend compared to *AHCD*4, but not as much when compared to *LPD*2 and *EPD*16. The map in Hartman (1985: lxi) suggests a wide prevalence of the trend, and there is at least one dictionary, *CIDE*, which radically responded by even employing an identical symbol for **thought** and **cot** (Akasu et al. 1996: 24–25). Although the solution by *CIDE* may be rather extreme, it might suggest that *MWCD*11's description, not to mention that of *AHCD*4, does not rightly reflect the trend.

Takahashi (2003), in his comparison of the two pronouncing dictionaries *EPD*15 (not the 16th edition) and *LPD*2 to *MWCD*10, attributes the difference in the description of THOUGHT-LOT words to how the dictionary

Table 3.4   How the words with the vowel in **caught** are transcribed in *MWCD*9, 10, 11, *AHCD*4, *LPD*2, and *EPD*16.

Data based on a sample of 48 words: **abroad, all, almost, always, autumn, awe, bought, broad, brought, cause, chalk, exhaust, law, ought, pause, raw, sauce, saw, talk, taught, thaw, thought, walk,** transcribed as \ȯ\ in all three editions of *MWCD*; **aught, daunt, dawn, fawn, gaudy, gauntlet, haughty, haunt, jaundice, jaunty, launder, laundry, lawn, naught, naughty, nautical, nautilus, pawn, prawn, saunter, staunch, vaunt, water,** transcribed as \ȯ, ä\ in all three editions of *MWCD*; and **caught, drawn,** transcribed as \ȯ\ in *WNCD*9 but \ȯ, ä\ in *MWCD*10,11.

	WNCD⁹	MWCD¹⁰	MWCD¹¹		AHCD⁴		LPD²	EPD¹⁶
\ȯ\	25	23	23	(ô)	38	/ɔː/	0	0
\ȯ, ä\	23	25	25	(ô, ä)/(ô, ŏ)	10	/ɔː, ɑː/	9	6
\ä, ȯ\	0	0	0	(ä, ô)/(ŏ, ô)	0	/ɑː, ɔː/	0	42
\ä\	0	0	0	(ŏ)	0	/ɑː/	39	0

makers view the merger. He claims that *EPD*15 and *LPD*2 consider the merger to have been more or less completed and to be prevalent in the whole system, while *MWCD*10 regards the process as a still on-going one, and that, for this reason, has limited the description to a certain lexical set. Takahashi highly appreciates the descriptive attitude taken by *MWCD*10.

If this is indeed the case, it is speculated that for the dictionary makers of *MWCD*11, the merger is not predominant enough in their collection of Merriam-Webster pronunciation file to fall "within the range of generally acceptable variation" (see **3.1.** above), and a brief note in the Guide (as the one above) suffices.

On the other hand, it is rather odd that almost no addition has been made since the 9th edition, supposing it is an on-going process that is spreading over more lexical items. Further survey on this phenomenon is expected in preparing the next edition.

3.5. Syllabication

In the 9th edition, a checked vowel always constituted a closed syllable with a consonant finishing the syllable. The rules of syllable division, however, have been simplified since the 10th edition: Regardless of the vowel type, the syllabication is made in such a way that an open syllable is constituted whenever possible. Thus, **batter**, which used to be syllabified as 'bat-ər in the 9th edition, is divided as 'ba-tər in the 10th and 11th editions. Likewise **medal** 'med-ᵊl → 'me-dᵊl; **media** 'mēd-ē-ə → 'mē-dē-ə; and **supper** 'səp-ər → 'sə-pər.

Policies on syllabication can vary from dictionary to dictionary, even among specialized pronouncing dictionaries such as *LPD*2 and *EPD*15 (Takebayashi 1998: 132). In *LPD*2, "consonants are syllabified with whichever of the two adjacent vowels is more strongly stressed" (xx), while *EPD*15 puts its basis of syllabication on "Maximal Onsets Principle," on which as many consonants as possible are assigned to the beginning of the syllable. The principles taken by *MWCD*10, 11 are closer to the latter, and this leads to discrepancy between orthographic syllabication used for dividing the entry words, and phonetic syllabication for describing the pronunciations (Takebayashi 2003): e.g. **med·al** \'me-dᵊl\. Syllabication

is a controversial topic that leaves much room for improvement, an area to be pursued further by phoneticians.

3.6. Variants and Labels

3.6.1. Much space is spared in *MWCD* to show variant pronunciations for its size, and a variety of labels are adopted in order to efficiently provide as much information as possible in limited space. It is explained that when more than one pronunciation is listed, the order has nothing to do with the frequency heard, but that when frequency matters, labels such as *also* and *sometimes* are used. Regional labels, such as *Southern also*, *chiefly Midland*, are used, and a new label *dial*, has been introduced in the 10th edition. The symbol ÷ is used with "a pronunciation variant that occurs in educated speech but that is considered by some to be questionable or unacceptable" (the Guide: 34a).

3.6.2. In general, *MWCD*11 gives more detailed information of each entry compared with *AHCD*4, with a combination of labels that address frequency and regional variations as well as acceptability, as is shown in the following examples:

garage:	*MWCD*11	gə-'räzh, -'räj; *Canad also* -'razh, -'raj; *Britain usually* 'ga-(ˌ)räzh, -(ˌ)räj, -rij
	*AHCD*4	(gə-räzh', -räj')
idea:	*MWCD*11	ī-'dē-ə, -'dēə *also* 'ī-(ˌ)dē-ə *or* 'ī-dē
	*AHCD*4	(ī-dē'ə)
ask:	*MWCD*11	'ask, 'äsk; *dialect* 'aks
	*AHCD*4	(ăsk)

3.6.3. Exhaustive description by *MWCD*11 stands out. Take 84 words, for example, on which opinion polls were conducted by Shitara (1993) for having "uncertain pronunciation" in American English (cf. *LPD*2: xii), and **justifiable** was the only word for which only one of the several possible pronunciations was provided; whereas as many as 12 words, i.e., **citizen**, **create**, **deprivation**, **hero**, **idea**, **incomparable**, **insurance**, **marry**, **measure**, **mischievous**, **palm**, and **umbrella**, have only one of

the variants recorded in *AHCD*4.

3.6.4.   Careful consideration seems to be made for variants with ÷ every time the dictionary is revised. The following is the list of words that had the symbol with them:

*WNCD*9:   **February, incomparable, kilometer, genuine, get, library, nuclear**

*MWCD*10:   **February, incomparable, kilometer, mischievous, often, foliage, genuine, get, library, nuclear, height**

*MWCD*11:   **mischievous, often, foliage, genuine, get, library, nuclear, barbiturate, height**

The effort to update the sound change and its acceptability is appreciable. An example is **mischievous** which, up to the 9th edition, had only the traditional variant with the first syllable strongly accented. However, the other variant that was reported in Shitara's survey to be prevalent among younger speakers, has been adopted with a ÷ in the 10th edition.

In general, the latest edition seems to be more tolerant with some words that were judged unacceptable by the previous edition. For example, **incomparable**, which had ÷ in its second variant \(ˌ)in-kəm-ˈpar-ə-bəl\ in the 10th edition, is shown without ÷ in the 11th edition. This corresponds to the data of Shitara's survey, in which the second variant was found to be the predominant pronunciation among the younger generation.

3.7. Usage notes

3.7.1.   For a number of controversial pronunciations, usage notes are provided, giving the historical background of the sound along with its acceptability. In the 9th edition, **February, genuine, get, -ing, kilometer, library,** and **nuclear**, were the only entries; in the 10th edition, notes on **envelope, foliage, forte, mischievous,** and **hone in**, were added; and **effect** was the only entry with a note on pronunciation added in the 11th edition. Discussion on each entry tends to center on whether a specific pronunciation is considered standard or not and the history that resulted in obtaining this specific nonstandard pronunciation, as is shown for the entry **nuclear**:

usage   Though disapproved of by many, pronunciations ending in \-kyə-lər\ have been found in widespread use among educated speakers including scientists, lawyers, professors, congressmen, United States cabinet members, and at least two United States presidents and one vice president. While most common in the U.S., these pronunciations have also been heard from British and Canadian speakers.

3.7.2.   *AHCD*4 also has Notes that are equivalent to the ones in *MWCD*11, and when the two dictionaries are compared, although this may sound somewhat subjective, those in *AHCD*4 tend to be more enlightening.

The "Notes" in *AHCD*4 consist of four subsections, "Usage Notes," "Word Histories," "Our Living Language," and "Regional Notes." More entries are accompanied by one of these Notes. Moreover, for a number of entries, acceptability judgment made by a usage panel is included. The following is the list of words that has Usage Notes. Those with an * indicate words that have information on preference by the panelists:[5]

> **!Kung, a** <indefinite article>, aberrant*, accessory*, acumen*, archetype*, banal*, barbiturate*, controller*, dour*, envelope*, err*, **February**, formidable*, forte*, harass*, hegemony*, height*, **herb**, kilometer*, **kudos, nuclear, often**, process*, schism*, short-lived*, sonorous*, status*, **strength, victual, Xmas, ye**, zoology*

Compared to *MWCD*11 with prescriptive orientation, *AHCD*4's explanation appears to be more descriptive and informative to the users; quantitative data collected also add to the understanding of the word's acceptability, as the following two citations from *AHCD*4's Usage Notes suggest:

> **nuclear**
> Usage Note: The pronunciation (noo′kyə-lər), which is generally considered incorrect, is an example of how a familiar phonological pattern can influence an unfamiliar one. The usual pronunciation of the final two syllables of this word is (-klē-ər), but this sequence of sounds is rare in English. Much more common is the similar sequence (-kyə-lər), which occurs in words like particular, circular, spectacular, and in many scientific words like molecular, ocular, and vascular.

kilometer

Usage Note: Although the pronunciation of kilometer with stress on the second syllable, (kĭ-lŏm′ĭ-tər), is often censured because it does not conform to the stress pattern in millimeter and centimeter (it originally came about by false analogy with barometer and thermometer), it continues to thrive in American English. In a recent survey, 69 percent of the Usage Panel preferred this pronunciation, while 29 percent preferred the pronunciation (kĭl′ə-mē′tər).

3.8. CD-ROM

Any major dictionaries that come with a CD-ROM these days have a function to demonstrate the sounds of the entries (e.g. *AHCD*4, *MED*), and it is regrettable that this is not the case with *MWCD*11. However, it may be worth pointing out that *MWCD*11 enables the users to search homophones and rhymes, a function not available in *AHCD*4. (Uchida)

4. Definitions and Verbal Illustrations

In this chapter we shall look at the definitions and verbal illustrations (i.e. illustrative phrases and/or sentences) in the 9th, the 10th and the 11th editions of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, and see what changes and additions are made through the revisions over the two decades on the description and presentation in these information categories. In 4.3, we shall focus especially on the treatment of computer- and web-related terms in the latest edition of *MWCD*, and briefly review how the dictionary keeps up with the recent changes in the digital world.

In order to study the descriptions in the three editions of *MWCD*, we chose three sample pages in the 11th edition, i.e. pages 51 (*anodize — antagonize*), 751 (*make-believe — Malayalam*) and 1451 (*yard sale — ²yell*), and compared all the definitions and verbal illustrations in the three pages with the corresponding entries in the previous two editions. The sample portion represents approximately 0.21 percent of the A-Z section of the latest edition of *MWCD*, including abbreviations, which had been presented separately in the 9th and 10th editions. Only the relevant information in the entries (e.g. sense numbers, definitions and verbal illustrations) is shown in this paper to highlight the points of discussion.

4.1. Definitions

There is no major change in the style and format of presentation of definitions in the three editions of *MWCD*. Looking into the details of descriptions in the sample pages, we found 32 changes altogether (including 22 alterations, 6 additions and 4 deletions) in the definitions owing to the revision from *MWCD*10 to *MWCD*11, as opposed to 46 changes (20 alterations, 18 additions and 8 deletions) made in the revision from the 9th to the 10th. The following examples are notable modifications through the two revisions found in our sample survey. ('9e', '10e' and '11e' designate the 9th, 10th and 11th editions of *MWCD* respectively. 9 → 10(1), 10 → 11(3), for instance, indicates that one instance was identified in the revision from the 9th to the 10th, while 3 instances were found in the 10th to the 11th revision in the sample portion.) Sometimes one definition undergoes changes that may be classified in more than one category, and such changes are counted separately. The categorization is not exhaustive.

(1)   Somewhat plainer or more common words and/or expressions come to be used in the definition. This type of modifications are especially noticeable in the revision from 10e to 11e. (9 → 10(1), 10 → 11(8))

(10e) serving to assuage pain → (11e) serving to alleviate pain (¹**anodyne** *adj* 1)
(10e) an insecticide . . . with a lower mammalian toxicity than parathion
→ (11e) an . . . insecticide . . . that is considerably less toxic to mammals than parathion (**malathion**)

The definitions including the pronoun 'one', which denotes a person or a thing, are rephrased into more 'everyday' expressions:

(10e) one who is anonymous → (11e) an anonymous person (**anonym**)
(10e) one that causes boredom → (11e) something that causes boredom (**yawner**)

Latin names for forms of life were secularized in most cases:

(10e) . . . of the family *Iguanidae* . . . → (11e) . . . of the iguana fam-

ily . . . (**anole**)

Chemical formulae are omitted in many instances in 10e $(9 \rightarrow 10(2))$

> (9e) a mineral $Cu_2CO_3(OH)_2$ that is a green basic carbonate of copper . . .
> $\rightarrow$ (10e) a mineral that is a green basic carbonate of copper . . . (**malachite**)

(2)   Some definitions are made more technically precise, more relevant or less ambiguous. $(9 \rightarrow 10(8), 10 \rightarrow 11(2))$

> (9e) a native or inhabitant of Madagascar or of the Malagasy Republic $\rightarrow$ (10e) a member of a people of Indonesian and African origin who inhabit Madagascar (**Malagasy** *n* **1**)
> (10e) a pretending to believe $\rightarrow$ (11e) a pretending that what is not real is real (¹**make-believe** *also* **make-belief**)

(3)   Grammatically more adequate definition is given $(10 \rightarrow 11(1))$

> (10e) to reply in rebuttal, justification, or explanation $\rightarrow$
> (11e) to reply to in rebuttal, justification, or explanation (**answer** *vt* 2)

(4)   Additional or further information is presented $(9 \rightarrow 10(6), 10 \rightarrow 11(6))$

> (10e) either of two mackerel sharks . . . that are notable sport fish . . .
> (11e) either of two relatively slender mackerel sharks . . . that are dark blue above and white below with long pointed snouts and that are notable sport fish . . . (**mako shark**)

(5)   The scope of the matters denoted by the definition is made more comprehensive or less categorical by the use of 'as . . . ,' 'esp(ecially),' 'usu (ally)' etc. $((9 \rightarrow 10(4), 10 \rightarrow 11(1))$

> (9e) a similar strand of metal, glass, asbestos, paper or plastic $\rightarrow$
> (10e) a similar strand of another material (as metal, glass, or plastic) (¹**yarn**)

(6)   Senses are subdivided to provide more adequate or specific definitions (in such cases, verbal illustrations to support clarification of differ-

ences of meaning are often added (see 4.2)). $(9 \rightarrow 10(2), 10 \rightarrow 11(3))$

> (10e) **3**: to make good (a deficiency) $\rightarrow$
> (11e) **3a**: to compensate for (as a deficiency or omission) ⟨make up the difference in lost pay⟩ **b**: to do or take in order to correct an omission ⟨make up a history exam⟩ (**make up** *vt*)

(7)   Run-on entries are promoted to independent entries and definitions are provided for them (especially in the revision from the 9th to the 10th: $9 \rightarrow 10(2))$

> (9e) **make over 1**: to transfer the title of (property) **2**: REMAKE, REMODEL (*made* the whole house *over*) — **makeover** *n*
> $\rightarrow$ (10e) **makeover**: an act or instance of making over; *esp*: a changing of a person's appearance (as by the use of cosmetics or a different hairdo)

Such promotion is especially effective when the specific use or meaning is clarified by the newly-added definition as in the case of the example above.

(8)   As words come to be used in a new sense and if a dictionary such as *MWCD* decides that that sense has already established itself in the English language well enough to deserve description in the dictionary, it adds a new definition for that sense to the existing entry. We found three instances $(9 \rightarrow 10(3))$ of that kind in the sample pages.

> (10e) **4**: REPLACEMENT; specifically: material added (as in a manufacturing process) to replace material that has been used up ⟨∼ water⟩ (**makeup**: sense 4 is not given in 9e)

See also the example of *firewall* cited in 4.3 (216). Additions of new senses are especially numerous regarding the field of computer and communication technology.

(9)   Several changes are made to systematize or streamline the format of presentation, probably with a view to saving space to make room for new information or entries. Such consideration include spelled-out numerals that have come to be presented in figures:

(10e) **6**: a period of time (as the usu. nine-month period in which a school is in session) other than a calendar year
→ (11e) **6**: a period of time (as the usu. 9-month period in which a school is in session) other than a calendar year (**year**)

However, this alteration does not reduce the number of lines in the 11th edition.
Also, cross-references are more systematically applied:

(9e)   **2b**: *of a ship*: easily handled, MANEUVERABLE (**yare**)
         1c: *of a ship*: easily handled (**handy**)
→ (10e) **2b**: HANDY 1c, MANEUVERABLE (**yare**)
         1c: *of a ship*: easily handled (**handy**)

Streamlining as in this case may certainly reduce the redundancy when viewed throughout the whole volume of the dictionary, but it may also reduce the facility or user-friendliness for those who look for information in the entry of *yare* and eventually are obliged to refer to the entry of *handy*, which may make the dictionary less 'handy' or 'maneuverable'. In this case too, no lines are gained in the entry of *yare*. It may not always be preferable for a dictionary to be too systematic in its presentation of information. Sometimes a repetition or redundancy is beneficial to the user.

(10)   The order of sense presentation within an entry in *MWCD* is strictly historical, as expounded in the front matter (20a) of *MWCD*11. Changes in the order of presentation of senses are made when the evidence of recorded date of one or more of the senses presented after the first sense is antedated back beyond the first sense. We found three instances (9 → 10(1, **answerable**), 10 → 11(2, **Antaean** and **Malachi**)) in our study of the sample three pages. The dictionary constantly reflects the new (in this case, etymological) discoveries, which makes the dictionary even more reliable and therefore is very welcome.

We found eight deletions in our sample portion through the revision from the 9th to the 10th and four omissions through the 10th to the 11th. They include quite technical information such as chemical formulae and Latin nomenclature, as well as one of the synonyms among those pre-

sented and one of the senses that is used exclusively in a very limited field. (We found the case of a meaning used in a card game of bridge (sense **d**, s.v. **maker**), which was omitted in 9 → 10 revision.) Also, description using a grammatical term, which many average users may not be familiar with ('(used) as a function word' (s.v. **yea**)) was omitted in 10 → 11 revision.

Two interesting deletions are a description in the definition of **mako shark**, ('. . . and are considered dangerous to humans') which may involve negative value judgement, and one in the definition of **yataghan**, ((a long knife or short saber) 'common among Muslims', (crossed out in 9 → 10 revision) which may refer to too specific a group of people. Overall, the number of deletions are very small compared to the modified or augmented information through the two revisions.

4.2.   Verbal illustrations in *MWCD*

MWCD gives verbal illustrations basically in the form of short phrases between angle brackets. *MWCD* being a monolingual dictionary whose main target is a native speaker of English, they are presumed to serve primarily to help the user of the dictionary grasp and identify the meaning of different senses presented. The following is the definitions and verbal illustrations given in the entry **answer** *v* of *MWCD*10.

(10e) *vi* **1**: to speak or write in reply   **2a**: to be or make oneself responsible or accountable   **2b**: to make amends: ATONE   **3**: to be in conformity or correspondence <~*ed* to the description>   **4**: to act in response to an action performed elsewhere or by another   **5**: to be adequate: SERVE   *vt* **1a**: to speak or write in response to   **1b**: to say or write by way of reply   **2**: to reply in rebuttal, justification, or explanation   **3**: to correspond to <~*s* the description>   **4**: to be adequate or usable for: FULFILL   **5**: to act in response to <~*ed* the call to arms>   **6**: to offer a solution for; *esp*: SOLVE

Exemplary phrases are given to the third sense of the intransitive use of the verb, as well as the third and the fifth sense of the transitive uses of the word. Now, to our surprise, in the latest edition *MWCD*11, no less than eight verbal illustrations are added to make the description in the corre-

sponding entry as follows:

> (11e) *vi* **1**: to speak or write in reply **2a**: to be or make oneself responsible or accountable ⟨~ for a debt⟩ **2b**: to make amends: ATONE **3**: to be in conformity or correspondence ⟨~*ed* to the description⟩ **4**: to act in response to an action performed elsewhere or by another ⟨the home team scored first but the visitors ~*ed* quickly⟩ **5**: to be adequate: SERVE ⟨an old bucket ~*ed* for a sink⟩ *vt* **1a**: to speak or write in response to ⟨~ a question⟩ **1b**. to say or write *by* way of reply ⟨~ yes or no⟩ **2**: to reply to in rebuttal, justification, or explanation ⟨~ an accusation⟩ **3**: to correspond to ⟨~*s* the description⟩ **4**: to be adequate or usable for: FULFILL ⟨~ a need⟩ **5**: to act in response to ⟨~*ed* the call to arms⟩ **6**: to offer a solution for; *esp*: SOLVE ⟨~ a riddle⟩

Additions of verbal illustrations can be seen in the revision from the 9th to the 10th editions of *MWCD*, but the increase is much more extensive in the following revision into the 11th. In the sample pages, we found only three additions of example phrases in the 9th-to-10th revision, while 28 additions were identified in the 10th-to-11th updating. The 9th and the 10th editions respectively have 1384 and 1389 pages of A to Z dictionary text plus the section of 'Abbreviations,' which was incorporated into the A-Z text in the 11th. So the numbers of pages are nearly the same in the last two editions, while the latest edition, the 11th, is comprised of 1459 pages of A-Z text including abbreviations, which amounts to about 70 pages or a five percent increase from the preceding version of the dictionary. We can see from our survey of fairly limited scope that much of the expansion is devoted to the addition of helpful illustrative phrases.

It may be for such basic lexical items with multiple senses as the verb *answer* that verbal illustrations for distinction and identification of different meanings are helpful, as they support the understanding of definitions and help clarify the meaning and use of the word in question in each sense. In this sense, the apparent increase of verbal illustrations in the *MWCD*11, especially those applied to such words of everyday use, is quite welcome.

In some cases verbal illustrations are modified or revised in the course of dictionary updating. We identified three changes in our sample pages.

> (10e) **1c**: the time in which a planet completes a revolution about the sun ⟨a year of Jupiter⟩
> (11e) **1c**: the time in which a planet completes a revolution about the sun ⟨two Mercury years⟩ (**year**)

In this case, an example phrase, which was ambiguous and may well have been the one for other senses was rewritten to become more specific and relevant.

> (10e) **5b** *pl*: AGE ⟨a man in ~s but a child in understanding⟩
> (11e) **5b** *pl*: AGE ⟨wise beyond her ~s⟩ (**year**)

The illustrative phrase presented in the 10th had somewhat negative connotation. The renewed example in the 11th is a positive one, which has been changed presumably in consideration of political correctness.

The other modification of illustrative phrase is merely an updating of the year presented, from ⟨the year of grace 1962⟩ in the 9th to ⟨the year of grace 1993⟩ (**year of grace**), the latter date being the publication of the 10th edition of *MWCD*.

4.3. Treatment of computer- and web-related terms

Over the last decade, quite a few lexical items associated with the computer and the Internet made their way into our daily lives. Also, some existing words have come to be used in new senses in the digital context. They reflect a very rapid change and advancement in those fields, as well as people's familiarity with personal computers and network communication as everyday tools. Let us now see briefly how *MWCD*11 incorporated these new senses and expressions in the dictionary.

Nowadays many of us cannot pass a day without clicking on the icon of an e-mail software, the use of which may have been limited to a relatively few people in the early 90s and earlier. *WNCD*9, which was published in 1983, does not enter *e-mail* or *E-mail*. It only has an entry **electronic mail** and defines it as 'messages sent and received electronically (as between terminals linked by telephone lines or microwave relays)'. *MWCD*10 has the same entry and the same definition, but its date of the earliest recorded use in English is antedated from 1979 to 1977. The 10th

edition enters **E-mail** (not *e-mail* with *e* in the lower case), with the earliest witnessed date of 1982, but it is not defined but only provided with a cross-reference to ELECTRONIC MAIL.

The current edition, *MWCD*11, treats *e-mail* (not *E-mail*) and *electronic mail* as *follows*,

> **e-mail** *n* **1**: a means or system for transmitting messages electronically (as between computers on a network) ⟨communication by ∼⟩ **2a**: messages sent and received electronically through an e-mail system ⟨receives a lot of ∼⟩   **2b**: an e-mail message ⟨sent him an ∼⟩ — **e-mail** *vb* — **e-mailer** *n*
>
> **electronic mail** *n*: E-MAIL

The term is now defined under the headword *e-mail*, and the *electronic mail* is demoted to an empty headword with a cross-reference to *e-mail*. Also, the latest version suggests that the word can be used as a verb, as is now done on a daily basis probably by millions of people around the world who would say, write or type into the keyboard, 'e-mail me'.

Incidentally, the entries of *e-mail* and *electronic mail* in the *Microsoft Encarta College Dictionary* (*MECD*, 2001), which features comprehensive coverage of web- and PC-related items, are presented as follows.

> **e-mail 1** COMPUTER-TO-COMPUTER COMMUNICATION SYSTEM a system for transmitting messages and data from one computer to another, using a telephone connection and modems. Full form **electronic mail   2** E-MAIL MESSAGE a communication sent by e-mail ■ *vt* COMMUNICATE SOMETHING BY E-MAIL to send a message to somebody by e-mail.
>
> **electronic mail** *n* full form of **e-mail**

Even compared with the definition in the dictionary produced in collaboration with the IT giant, *Microsoft Corporation*, the definition in *MWCD*11 is in a sense more relevant. E-mails are not exchanged only between commonly recognized 'computers'. They may also be sent from and received with a variety of other electronic devices, including mobile phones, handheld digital equipment called PDAs and even video game machines. Also, the use of telephone connection and modems is now not

very popular in many countries due to the communication speed, thus making the definition in *MECD* a little outmoded in only a few years. *MWCD*11, however, should also have mentioned data transmission (e.g. sending an attachment to an e-mail) in addition to sending messages (i.e. plain texts) as *MECD* did so pertinently.

> The entry of *fire wall* (not *firewall*) in *WNCD*9 and *MWCD*10 is given as follows:
>
> **fire wall** *n* (1759): a wall constructed to prevent the spread of fire

In the 11th edition, the entry was presented with an additional meaning of firewall as a network security term, as follows:

> **fire wall** *n* (1759) **1**: a wall constructed to prevent the spread of fire **2** *usu* **firewall**: computer hardware or software that prevents unauthorized access to private data (as on a company's local area network or intranet) by outside computer users (as of the Internet)

Other items that had only traditional sense(s) in *WNCD*9 and *MWCD*10 but are presented in *MWCD*11 with new contemporary meanings associated with PC- or web-related context include: *clipboard, link, page* and the word *web* itself.

Also, the following lemmata are not found in the previous editions of *MWCD* but newly entered with adequate definitions in the 11th: *browser, emoticon, hyperlink, MP3, snail mail, World Wide Web, www*, and of course, the *Internet*. Considering the fact that the digital audio format MP3 became so popular fairly recently, *MWCD*'s approach is very prompt and well-timed.

However, the dictionary is not always open-handed in the decision to include new terms from the cyberworld but sometimes shows a very conservative attitude. *Web log* and its informal contraction *blog* denote a certain type of a diary-based homepage format, usually with automated linking system called trackback. The format now is enjoyed by millions of users in the U.S., and has become widespread in Japan as well, especially since 2004. The items are defined already in 2001 in *MECD* as follows:

blog *n* a Web log (*slang*) ■   *vi* to create or run a Web log (*slang*)

Web log *n* a frequently updated personal journal chronicling links to a Web site, intended for public viewing

However, they have not made their way into the *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate*. Apparently the dictionary is waiting for such lexical items to establish themselves in the vocabulary of the English language, which seems to be the dictionary's basic attitude towards new items generally. In other words, the dictionary may have judged such items as *MP3* have enough reasons to persist in the language for the life of the present edition. Words related to computer and information technology may come and go very quickly, and they may call for the lexicographer's delicate decision as to whether s/he should include them in the dictionary and how to describe them if they are entered at all. But in the days when the use of computers, e-mail and the Internet are the order of the day, it is the meaning of items related to those areas that people may want to know most keenly. In that sense, lexicographers may need to be daring and positive rather than careful and deliberate in presenting such items. They may preferably start choosing and describing them as late as possible in the process of compiling or revising a dictionary, so that they may be still reasonably up-to-date and helpful to the users when the dictionary goes on the market.

(Kokawa)

5. Usages

There appears to be little change in *MWCD*11 with regard to Usages and Synonyms. Therefore, the aim of the following two sections is to discern the trend of the editorial policy by comparing *MWCD*11 with *WNCD*9 and *MWCD*10.

5.1. Usage labels

According to the explanatory notes of *MWCD*11, four types of status labels are used: temporal, regional, stylistic, and subject. The temporal type consists of *obs* and *archaic*. The former indicates that "there is no evidence of use since 1755," and the latter implies that "a word or sense

once in common use is found today only sporadically or in special contexts."

The regional status label includes seven labels that indicate specific regions in the U.S. and several labels that indicate specific countries of the English-speaking world. In addition to these labels, *chiefly* and *dial* are used in order to provide more detailed information. As compared with *AHCD*4, which uses more specific dialect labels (for example, *New Orleans*), the labels used in *MWCD*11 are rather small in number.

The stylistic type includes six labels. *Slang* is used with words or senses "that are especially appropriate in contexts of extreme informality." *Nonstand* is used "for a few words or senses that are disapproved by many but that have some currency in reputable contexts." The stylistic labels *disparaging, offensive, obscene,* and *vulgar* are used for those words or senses "that in common use are intended to hurt or shock or that are likely to give offense even when they are used without such an intent."

Although subject orientation is usually included in the definition, subject labels such as *mining, physiology,* etc., are used occasionally.

No change was made with regard to these labels in *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11, with the exception of one of the stylistic labels, *substand*, that came into disuse in *MWCD*10. This can be regarded as another example of the avoidance of classism or a normative attitude, which has been one of the main editorial policies. The explanatory notes of *WNCD*9 define the label *substand* as follows:

> The stylistic label *substand* for "substandard" is used for those words or senses that conform to a widespread pattern of usage that differs in choice of word or form from that of the prestige group of the community.

The word "prestige" is certainly a problematic expression for such a policy. *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11 appear to refrain from using the words "prestige" and "educated" or other words that are related to classism or a normative attitude in the definition of the stylistic labels. The definition of the label *nonstand*, which has not been changed since *WNCD*9, is shown below:

The stylistic label *nonstand* for "nonstandard" is used for a few words or senses that are disapproved by many but that have some currency in reputable contexts.[1]

On the other hand, although most of the stylistic labels used in *AHCD*4 are the same as those in *MWCD*10(11), *AHCD*4 defines the label *nonstandard* in the Guide to the Dictionary using the word "educated":

> This, the most restrictive label in the Dictionary, is applied to forms and usages that educated speakers and writers consider unacceptable.

With regard to the editorial policy followed by *AHCD*4 for the description of the usage, refer to Geoffrey Nunberg's article on pages xi-xiii. The article shows that *AHCD*4 adopts expressions like "educated speakers" with due consideration to the controversy between the "prescriptivists" and the "descriptivists." Since this aspect is relevant to the descriptions of the usage paragraphs, it will be fully discussed in 5.3.2.

5.2. Illustrations of usage and usage notes

Verbal illustrations of headwords are provided within angle brackets. This has not been altered since the publication of *WNCD*9. Abundance of verbal illustrations and the use of angle brackets make *MWCD*11 more useful for nonnative learners of English. This is evident when we compare *MWCD*11 with *AHCD*4, which contains far fewer verbal illustrations and presents them in italics.

Supplementary information regarding idiom, syntax, semantic relationship, status, etc. is provided in usage notes that are introduced by a lightface dash. Since usage notes can contain various kinds of information, it appears to be difficult for the editors to decide where certain information should be placed — some should be placed in the definition, and others should be placed in the usage note. The explanatory notes admit that "sometimes a usage note is used in place of a definition," particularly in the definitions of function words, interjections, oaths, honorific titles, etc., which "have little or no semantic content" and "are more amenable to comment than to definition." For example:

and . . . *conj* . . . **1** — used as a function word to indicate connection or addition esp. of items within the same class or type; used to join sentence elements of the same grammatical rank or function

[1]of . . . *prep* . . . **1** — used as a function word to indicate a point of reckoning ⟨north ∼ of the lake⟩

[1]oyez . . . *vb imper* . . . — used by a court or public crier to gain attention before a proclamation

This is another aspect in which *AHCD*4 strikingly differs from *MWCD*11. *AHCD*4 provides analytic or substitute definitions for function words, and occasionally, they are followed by usage notes without special marks. Although interjections are provided with functional definitions, they are not differentiated from the definitions of the "normal" type. A comparison of the abovementioned examples with those of *AHCD*4 reveals the following:

> **and** . . . *conj*. **1** Together with; in addition to; as well as. Used to connect words, phrases, or clauses with the same grammatical function.
>
> **of** . . . *prep*. . . . **3** Away from; at a distance from: a mile east of here.
>
> **oyez** . . . *interj*. Used three times in succession to introduce the opening of a court of law.

*MWCD*11 is more consistent in its manner of defining a word than *AHCD*4. However, there might be considerable disagreement regarding which type of definition will be more useful to the user.

5.3. Usage paragraphs

As mentioned below, *MWCD*11 contains 129 usage paragraphs. The explanatory notes state that the aims of these paragraphs are: (1) to summarize the historical background of the headword and the authoritative opinions about it; (2) to compare these opinions with the evidence of current usage; and (3) to offer appropriate suggestions to the dictionary user. The following two sections will survey the descriptions of the usage

paragraphs along with their history and compare them with those of *AHCD4*.

5.3.1.   The history of the usage paragraphs

According to Nakao et al. (1985), the usage paragraph is one of the novel features of *WNCD9*. Its first eight editions contain usage notes or usage labels, and these are continued in the 9th edition as usage paragraphs. However, half of the usage paragraphs in *WNCD9* have been newly introduced. Some of the contents, though, have already been treated in the 2nd or 3rd editions of Webster or other college dictionaries such as *AHCD*, *CED*, and *RHCD*. Therefore, Nakao et al. conclude that they cannot be regarded as completely original.

With regard to the content of the usage paragraphs, Nakao et al. argue that most of the usage paragraphs pertain to nonstandard expressions in terms of morphology, phonetics, and semantics. The actual number of these paragraphs, however, has not been provided in their analysis. Hence, a recount of the number of the usage paragraphs in *WNCD9*, *MWCD10*, and *MWCD11* was undertaken, and these usage paragraphs were categorized into seven classes. Refer to the table below:[2]

The class "morphological" contains paragraphs such as "miniscule," "run," and "phenomena." Consider the paragraph "phenomena" as one example:[3]

Table 1   Number of usage paragraphs

	9th	10th	11th
Morphological	22	24	27
Syntactic	19	20	22
Semantic	23	28	28
Pragmatic	2	3	4
Phraseological	10	10	10
Choice of words	23	27	27
Phonetic	7	11	11
Total	106	123	129

phenomena
usage   *Phenomena* has been in occasional use as a singular for more than 400 years and its plural *phenomenas* for more than 350. Our evidence shows that it is primarily a speech form used by poets, critics, and professors, among others, but one that sometimes turns up in edited prose ⟨the Borgia were, in modern terms, a media *phenomena* — *Economist*⟩. It is etymologically no more irregular than *stamina, agenda,* and *candelabra,* but it has nowhere near the frequency of use that they have, and while they are standard, *phenomena* is still rather borderline.

The "syntactic" class concerns syntactical problems such as number, constructions, and parts of speech. The paragraph "neither" can be cited as a typical example of this class.

neither
usage   Some commentators insist that *neither* must be used with a singular verb. It generally is, but especially when a prepositional phrase intervenes between it and the verb, a plural verb is quite common ⟨*neither* of those ideal solutions are in sight — C. P. Snow⟩.

In this case, the word "semantic" means that the relevant paragraphs deal with problems of whether a meaning of the headword is appropriate. Consider the example below:

literally
usage   Since some people take sense 2 ["in effect"] to be the opposite of sense 1 ["in a literal sense or manner"], it has been frequently criticized as a misuse. Instead, the use is pure hyperbole intended to gain emphasis, but it often appears in contexts where no additional emphasis is necessary.

"Pragmatic" paragraphs explain the connotations or the implications, rather than the meanings, of the headwords or the contexts in which the headwords occur. The paragraph "mighty" is a typical example.

mighty
usage   *Mighty* used as an intensive usually conveys a folksy downhome feeling ⟨plain and simple fare . . . but *mighty* filling and *mighty* satisfying — *Asheville* (*N.C.*) *Citizen-Times*⟩. It is used especially to

create a chatty style ⟨turnip greens, corn bread and biscuits. That sounds *mighty* good to me — Julia Child⟩ or to stress a rural atmosphere ⟨a man must be *mighty* serious about his squirrel hunting — Stuart Williams, *Field & Stream*⟩. In a more formal context, *mighty* is used to create emphasis by drawing attention to itself ⟨the chairman made sure that there were *mighty* few of them — Mollie Panter-Downes⟩.

The paragraphs pertaining to "phraseological" issues are those that deal with the usage of a word in the strict sense, such as the choice of a preposition after a certain verb, adjective, or noun. Consider the example below:

different

usage   Numerous commentators have condemned *different than* in spite of its use since the 17th century by many of the best-known names in English literature. It is nevertheless standard and is even recommended in many handbooks when followed by a clause, because insisting on *from* in such instances often produces clumsy or wordy formulations. *Different from*, the generally safe choice, is more common especially when it is followed by a noun or pronoun.

The category "choice of words" includes those paragraphs that suggest which word should be used in a certain context.[4] The paragraph at *each other* is a typical example.

each other

usage   Some handbooks and textbooks recommend that *each other* be restricted to reference to two and *one another* to reference to three or more. The distinction, while neat, is not observed in actual language. *Each other* and *one another* are used interchangeably by good writers and have been since at least 16th century.

The category "phonetic" is self-explanatory. Further, the "phonetic" paragraphs have been explained in detail in section 3.7, and hence, they have not been discussed here.

The number of usage paragraphs has increased by 13% in the 10th edition and by 5% in the 11th edition. The rate of increase differs in each category. The number of "phraseological" paragraphs has remained con-

stant. The paragraphs of the "morphological," "syntactic," and "pragmatic" categories have gradually increased in number. Furthermore, the number of paragraphs of the "semantic," "choice of words," and "phonetic" categories has increased in the 10th, but not in the 11th edition.

It can be said that (for the purpose of convenience, the modifications made to most of the paragraphs have been temporarily ignored) each rate of increase shows: (1) the category in which the language has changed most and (2) the category in which lexicographers are most interested. Hence, we can say that "morphological," "syntactic," and "pragmatic" issues have always been important in the last two decades, and "semantic" issues, problems pertaining to the "choice of words," and "phonetic" issues attracted the interests of the lexicographers (and the speakers of the language) in the 1990s.

An observation of the modifications made to the usage paragraphs reveals that *MWCD*11 has made far less modifications than *MWCD*10. In the 10th edition, 66 out of a total of 123 paragraphs are modified. In the 11th edition, however, the number goes down to 19 paragraphs out of 129. This fact, as well as the change in the number of the paragraphs, indicates that *MWCD*11 made only minor revisions as compared with *MWCD*10. The number of modifications made in each category is shown in Table 2.

In both *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11, most of the modifications are made in order to increase the clarity and conciseness of the descriptions. Occa-

Table 2   Number of modifications

	9 > 10	9 > 10 > 11	10 > 11
Morphological	9	6	2
Syntactic	13	1	0
Semantic	12	2	0
Pragmatic	1	0	1
Phraseological	6	0	1
Choice of words	10	2	3
Phonetic	4	0	1
Total	55	11	8

sionally, highly detailed descriptions are shortened. A typical example is shown below:

alright
9th edition
usage   In now obsolete senses *all right* or *alright* was formed in Old English as *ealriht*. Variation in early scribal and printing practices and in spoken stress patterns has given us this and similar pairs in *all ready, already* and *all together, altogether*. Since the 19th century some have insisted that *alright* is wrong, but, though it is less frequent than *all right*, it remains in common use and appears in the work of reputable writers 〈 the first two years of medical school were *alright* — Gertrude Stein〉 〈it is doing a bit of *alright* — P. H. Dougherty (*N.Y. Times*) 〉.

10th and 11th edition
usage   The one-word spelling *alright* appeared some 75 years after *all right* itself had reappeared from a 400-year-long absence. Since the early 20th century, some critics have insisted *alright* is wrong, but it has its defenders and its users. It is less frequent than *all right* but remains in common use, especially in journalistic and business publications. It is quite common in fictional dialogue, and is used occas. in other writing 〈 the first two years of medical school were *alright* — Gertrude Stein〉.

Frequent modifications are made in order to cope with the changes in the language and the lapse in time. Consider the following example:

criterion
9th edition
usage   The plural *criteria* has often been mistaken for a singular 〈 let me now return to the third *criteria* — R. M. Nixon〉〈that really is the *criteria* — Burt Lance〉 Many of our examples, like the two foregoing, are taken from speech. We note, however, that use as a singular appears to be increasing in edited prose, and it may be that in time *criteria* will establish itself as a singular as *agenda* and *candelabra* have.

10th edition
usage   The plural *criteria* has been used as a singular for nearly half

a century 〈 let me now return to the third *criteria* — R. M. Nixon〉 〈 that really is the *criteria* — Burt Lance〉. Many of our examples, like the two foregoing, are taken from speech. But singular *criteria* is not uncommon in edited prose, and its use both in speech and writing seems to be increasing. Only time will tell whether it will reach the unquestioned acceptability of *agenda*.

11th edition
usage   The plural *criteria* has been used as a singular for over half a century 〈 let me now return to the third *criteria* — R. M. Nixon〉〈that really is the *criteria* — Burt Lance〉. Many of our examples, like the two foregoing, are taken from speech. But singular *criteria* is not uncommon in edited prose, and its use both in speech and writing seems to be increasing. Only time will tell whether it will reach the unquestioned acceptability of *agenda*.

Let us now focus on the issues pertaining to the style of the explanation. According to Nakao et al., more than half of the usage paragraphs contain historical explanations of the words or idioms. In addition, there are frequent references to the usage by authoritative writers. This reliance on the history or the authoritative personalities is a distinctive feature of the 9th edition. This policy appears to be still followed in most of the paragraphs in *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11. Some paragraphs, however, include judgments based on the frequency of relevant usage, rather than the judgments of the authorities.

According to Nakao et al., another conspicuous feature of the 9th edition is that it avoids expressions such as "informal" or "colloquial," and uses expressions such as "not used in more formal writing" or "not used in formal prose." They conclude that this may be due to the consideration for the social class that uses "informal" expressions (cf. Landau (1984)). This remains unchanged in the later editions.

Nakao et al. also observe that the 9th edition adopts the descriptive statements of the former editions and changes the normative statements to the descriptive ones, or at least, modifies the statements to make them sound less normative. Therefore, they argue that the nonstandard expressions that are not accepted in the former editions are accepted in the 9th edition. They also state that the fact that the 9th edition avoids adopting a

normative attitude is evident from the choice of roundabout expressions such as "you will still run the risk of giving offense if you use it" or "will still incur the wrath of some." According to Nakao et al., this tendency is interesting within itself because, occasionally, these expressions are used humorously or sarcastically. However, whether these comments are useful for the learners of English is questionable.

*MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11 appear to have a similar tendency towards descriptive statements. However, another aspect should be noticed in this case. In order to avoid normative expressions, judgment on the usage is occasionally left to the users. Consider the following examples:

than

9th edition

. . . *than me* is more common than *than* with a third-person objective pronoun, and that both of these last are more common in speech than in edited prose. Some handbooks go into considerable detail discussing more complicated constructions and their possible ambiguities; our evidence indicates that these are relatively uncommon in edited prose.

10th and 11th edition

. . . *than* followed by a third-person objective pronoun (*her, him, them*) is usually frowned upon . . . . You have the same choice Shakespeare had: you can use *than* either as a conjunction or as a preposition.

split infinitive

9th edition

. . . Modern commentators do not consider the split infinitive a vice, merely advising writers to avoid trying to crowd too long an adverbial phrase between *to* and the infinitive.

10th and 11th edition

. . . Modern commentators know the split infinitive is not a vice, but they are loath to drop such a popular subject. They usually say it's all right to split an infinitive in the interest of clarity. Since clarity is the usual reason for splitting, this advice means merely that you can split them whenever you need to.

wait on

10th and 11th edition

. . . *Wait on* is less common than *wait for*, but if it seems natural, there is no reason to avoid it.

Although *MWCD* is a dictionary for the native speakers and its responsibility for the explanations is fairly lesser than that of the EFL dictionaries, the utility of such an explanation for the users is questionable. At this point, a comparison between *MWCD*11 and *AHCD*4 should be undertaken.

5.3.2.   The comparison between *MWCD*11 and *AHCD*4

The usage paragraphs in *AHCD*4, which are referred to as usage notes, are supposed to "present important information and guidance on matters of grammar, diction, pronunciation, and registers and nuances of usage" (xix). In contrast to *MWCD*11, which clearly acknowledges the importance of the historical information, *AHCD*4 does not consider it as indispensable to the explanation. *AHCD*4 attempts to obtain objectivity in the explanation not on the basis of historical evidence, but on the basis of the statistics collected from the opinions of the "Usage Panel." For example, see the following explanation provided at *prioritize*:

> It can be argued that *prioritize* serves a useful function in providing a single word to mean "arrange according to priority," but it is often regarded as corporate or bureaucratic jargon. Resistance to *prioritize*, however, has fallen dramatically in recent decades. In 1976, 97 percent of the Usage Panel rejected its use in the phrase *a first attempt to prioritize the tasks facing the new administration.* By 1997, however, 53 percent of the Panel approved the use of *prioritize* in the sentence *Overwhelmed with work, the lawyer was forced to prioritize his caseload.* This suggests that, like *finalize, prioritize* is rapidly securing a place in our everyday vocabulary.

The Usage Panel consists of "some 200 well-known writers, critics, and scholars (a list of Panel members can be found on pages viii-x)" (xii). This appears to be a near equivalent of the "authoritative opinions" in *MWCD*11; however, the attempt to show what kind of people constitute the "author-

ity" can be appreciated.

The application of the Usage Panel is concerned with another issue, that is, the advantages and disadvantages of the prescriptive attitude. Merriam-Webster's descriptions are based on "Merriam-Webster files," which contain 15,700,000 citations; thus, they are thoroughly objective from the beginning. Moreover, as is evident from the above discussions, after every revision, Merriam-Webster's dictionary tends to become increasingly descriptive and less assertive. *AHCD*4, on the other hand, appears to skillfully avoid the prescriptivism by presenting only the statistics taken from the Usage Panel and by implicitly allowing the users to make the decision (this policy is briefly referred to in the front matter, see xii). However, the opinions of the Usage Panel themselves are inherently subjective. Compare the paragraph at prioritize (shown above) with some paragraphs of *MWCD*11. Some paragraphs of *MWCD*11 explicitly leave the judgments to the users. However, this is done without any statistics or other information, and hence, they may be considered less objective.

Another difference between *MWCD*11 and *AHCD*4 lies in the consistency in their styles of explanations. (The same issue appears in the discussion of the synonym paragraphs. See 6.2 below.) *MWCD*11 adopts the same style (a usage paragraph consists of historical explanation, verbal illustrations, evidence of the current usage, and some comments) in all the usage paragraphs. On the other hand, *AHCD*4 adopts two styles: some paragraphs "contain opinions of the Usage Panel," while others "are more explanatory in nature and do not refer to Panel opinions" (xix). An example of the latter type is given below:

> **criterion**
> **USAGE NOTE** Like the analogous etymological plurals *agenda* and *data, criteria* is widely used as a singular form. Unlike them, however, it is not yet acceptable in that use.

Compare this with the paragraph on the same word in *MWCD*11:

> **criterion**
> **usage** The plural *criteria* has been used as a singular for over half a century ⟨— let me now return to the third *criteria* . . . R. M. Nixon⟩

⟨— that really is the *criteria* . . . Bert Lance⟩. Many of our examples, like the two foregoing, are taken from speech. But singular *criteria* is not uncommon in edited prose, and its use both in speech and writing seems to be increasing. Only time will tell whether it will reach the unquestioned acceptability of *agenda*.

Although the explanation of *MWCD*11 may occasionally appear to be lengthy, the consistency in the style may be evaluated by some critics.

(Ryu)

6. Synonym paragraphs

The synonym paragraph is another marked feature of dictionaries that are published in the U.S.[1] In the following sections, we will first survey the synonym paragraphs in the previous editions and in *MWCD*11. Following this, we will attempt a comparison between *MWCD*11 and *AHCD*4.

6.1. The comparison between the previous editions and *MWCD*11
6.1.1. Number of synonym paragraphs

Nakao et al. (1985) counted the number of synonym paragraphs that occur in the 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th editions under the entries B, G, N, and U. They concluded that the number of synonym paragraphs remained unchanged between the 6th and the 7th editions; however, it slightly increased in the 8th edition, and then suddenly decreased in the 9th edition. In *WNCD*9, the number decreased to 50 as against 75 in the 8th edition. According to them, such a marked decrease cannot be caused without clear editorial intention. According to Nakao et al. (1985), even the synonym paragraphs of the words with high importance were deleted.

However, the tendency to decrease the number of the synonym paragraphs is not quite noticeable in *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11. Refer to the table below:

Table 1   Number of synonym paragraphs under the entries B, G, N, and U

Edition	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th
B	35	32	32	23	24	23
G	16	16	17	12	10	10
N	10	10	12	7	7	7
U	11	12	14	8	7	7
Total	72	70	75	50	48	47

The following are the synonym paragraphs that have been deleted in *MWCD*10:

> *bad, evil, ill, wicked, naughty*
> *blemish, defect, flaw*
> *brief, short*
> *gaze, gape, stare, glare, peer*
> *govern, rule*
> *universal, general, generic*

On the other hand, the following are the synonym paragraphs that have been added in *MWCD*10:

> *background, setting, environment, milieu, mise-en-scène*
> *bait, badger, heckle, hector, chivy, hound*
> *bloody, sanguinary, gory*
> *brutal, brutish, bestial, feral*

After examining the list of deleted and added paragraphs, we may conclude that some relation exists between the deletion and the addition of the synonym paragraphs and the frequency (rather than the importance) of the synonyms. Particularly, synonym paragraphs that discriminate the meanings of words of high frequency tend to be deleted.

The only synonym paragraph that is deleted in *MWCD*11 explicates the difference between *bearing, deportment, demeanor, mien, manner,* and *carriage*. Since it is the only example found in this investigation, we cannot be certain of the factor for the selection.

6.1.2.   The style of the descriptions

Nakao et al. (1985: 165) observed that "the synonym paragraphs for the 8th edition were the worst of the series in that they were no synonym paragraphs in any sense but just short word finding lists except for some lengthy columns." They concluded that this was partly because a full-scale synonym dictionary was published by Merriam-Webster,[2] and the users were expected to consult it. In *WNCD*9, however, "Most of the synonym paragraphs are completely revised and the resulting paragraphs are successful in rearran[g]ing and combining the relevant synonym articles of the former editions (ibid.)." This was, according to Nakao et al., a sincere response to the demands of the users. In addition, the antonym paragraphs that existed up to the 8[th] edition are deleted in *WNCD*9. Although antonym paragraphs are useful for building the vocabulary of the nonnative users, they do not necessarily contain meaningful information for the native speakers. Thus, the deletion of antonym paragraphs may be another sincere response to the demands of the users (or, it might be due to the space constraints).

The most noticeable change in *MWCD*10 was with regard to the verbal illustrations. According to the explanatory notes in *WNCD*9, "The discriminations themselves are frequently amplified with verbal illustrations and illustrative quotations." *MWCD*10, on the other hand, provides verbal illustrations for all the synonymous words in the synonym paragraphs. Therefore, the number of lines has doubled in most paragraphs.

Another noticeable change was made similar to the one mentioned above: the verbal illustrations are occasionally shortened or modified for the shorter ones. Compare the synonym paragraphs of *WNCD*9 and *MWCD*10, which are attached to *grant*:

> 9th edition
> **syn.** GRANT, CONCEDE, VOUCHSAFE, ACCORD, AWARD mean to give as a favor or a right. GRANT implies giving to a claimant or petitioner something that could be withheld ⟨acceding to her pleas, he *granted* her another period of six months in which to make good — *Current Biog.*⟩ CONCEDE implies yielding something reluctantly in response to a rightful or compelling claim ⟨even his

harshest critics *concede* him a rocklike integrity — *Time*⟩ VOUCH-SAFE implies granting something as a courtesy or an act of gracious condescension ⟨occasionally a true poet is *vouchsafed* to the world — Rumer Godden⟩ ACCORD implies giving to another what is due or proper ⟨children easily appreciate justice, and will readily *accord* to others what others *accord* to them — Bertrand Russell⟩ AWARD implies giving what is deserved or merited usu. after a careful weighing of pertinent factors ⟨he was practising law, having been *awarded* his LLB degree with distinction — *Current Biog.*⟩

10th edition
syn.   GRANT, CONCEDE, VOUCHSAFE, ACCORD, AWARD mean to give as a favor or a right. GRANT implies giving to a claimant or petitioner something that could be withheld ⟨*granted* them a new hearing⟩. CONCEDE implies yielding something reluctantly in response to a rightful or compelling claim ⟨even her critics *concede* she can be charming⟩. VOUCHSAFE implies granting something as a courtesy or an act of gracious condescension ⟨*vouchsafed* the secret to only a few chosen disciples⟩. ACCORD implies giving to another what is due or proper ⟨*accorded* all the honors befitting a head of state⟩. AWARD implies giving what is deserved or merited usu. after a careful weighing of pertinent factors ⟨*awarded* the company a huge defense contract⟩.

Although they are fairly lengthy, it is evident that the verbal illustrations in *WNCD*9 are far more useful for understanding the differences in meaning. We believe that a verbal illustration of a word should at least include the essential component of the sentence in which the relevant word appears, as the information regarding what type of thing can be the subject, object, or modifier is indispensable to the illustration of the word.

On the other hand, some paragraphs were entirely rewritten, thus conveying the meaning successfully. Compare the paragraphs below:

9th edition
syn.   UNDERSTAND, COMPREHEND, APPRECIATE mean to have a clear or complete idea of. UNDERSTAND may differ from COMPREHEND in implying a result whereas COMPREHEND stresses the mental process of arriving at a result ⟨*understood* the instructions without *comprehending* their purpose⟩ APPRECI-

ATE implies a just estimation of a thing's value ⟨failed to *appreciate* the risks involved⟩

10th edition
syn.   UNDERSTAND, COMPREHEND, APPRECIATE mean to have a clear or complete idea of. UNDERSTAND and COMPREHEND are very often interchangeable. UNDERSTAND may, however, stress the fact of having attained a firm mental grasp of something ⟨orders that were fully understood and promptly obeyed⟩. COMPREHEND may stress the process of coming to grips with something intellectually ⟨I have trouble *comprehending* your reasons for doing this⟩. APPRECIATE implies a just evaluation or judgment of a thing's value or nature ⟨failed to *appreciate* the risks involved⟩.

A fairly abstract term "result" is changed to a metaphorical expression in the explanation of the words "understand" and "comprehend." Although it results in an increase in the number of lines, this kind of expression is highly desirable for the users.

Whether the information should be conveyed by the explanation or the verbal illustration is a major problem. Probably, the editors will continue to adjust the balance between them.

In *MWCD*11, only 6 of the 47 paragraphs surveyed are modified, and the modifications are rather minor. However, at this point, it should be noted that some modifications are deliberately made in order to eliminate gender discrimination. This is done in both the explanation and the verbal illustration. Consider the following examples:

10th edition
syn.   BRUTAL, BRUTISH, BESTIAL, FERAL mean characteristic of an animal in nature, action, or instinct . . . . BESTIAL suggests a sate of degradation unworthy of man and . . .

11th edition
syn.   BRUTAL, BRUTISH, BESTIAL, FERAL . . . BESTIAL suggests a state of degradation unworthy of humans and . . .

10th edition
syn.   NEGLIGENT, NEGLECTFUL, LAX, SLACK, REMISS mean culpably careless or indicative of such carelessness . . . . REMISS implies blamable carelessness shown in slackness, forgetful-

ness, or neglect ⟨had been *remiss* in her duties⟩.

11ᵗʰ edition
syn.   NEGLIGENT, NEGLECTFUL, LAX, SLACK, REMISS
. . . REMISS implies blameworthy carelessness shown in slackness, forgetfulness, or neglect <had been *remiss* in their familial duties>.

6.2.   Comparison between *MWCD*11 and *AHCD*4

The most obvious difference between the synonym paragraphs in *MWCD*11 and *AHCD*4 is with regard to style. According to the front matter of *AHCD*4, it has two kinds of synonym paragraphs.

> The first consists of a group of undiscriminated, alphabetically ordered words sharing a single, irreducible meaning. These synonyms are presented in illustrative examples following a core definition . . . . Antonyms, if applicable, appear at the end of the paragraph.
> The second kind of paragraph consists of fully discriminated synonyms ordered in a way that reflects their interrelationships. A brief sentence explaining the initial point of comparison of the words is given, followed by explanations of their connotations and varying shades of meaning, along with illustrative examples (xix).

*MWCD*11, on the other hand, contains only one type of synonym paragraph, as is the case with the usage paragraphs (cf. 5.3.2). Every synonym paragraph consists of a list of synonymous words, core meanings of the synonyms, explanation for each word, and verbal illustrations. In this case again, the editors appear to achieve consistency in style at the cost of space.

Determining which style is better is difficult. The effort to show every difference between the synonymous words is indeed praiseworthy and certainly useful for the users. However, a considerable number of cases exist where the difference between the synonyms is minute to an extent that a sufficient explanation cannot be provided. It may be more beneficial to eliminate explanations and use verbal illustrations (leaving the discrimination to the users) than to explain in an uncertain manner.

This problem becomes more complicated when we consider which sets

of synonyms should be explained in synonym paragraphs. As we have seen in 6.1.1, *MWCD*10 tends to delete the synonym paragraphs that discriminate the meanings of words of high frequency. *AHCD*4, on the other hand, contains synonym paragraphs that explain the meanings of words of high frequency. Synonyms of high frequency tend to be treated with brief explanations and synonyms of low frequency tend to be provided with detailed explanations in *AHCD*4. Some of the well-known synonyms, however, are treated elaborately, probably due to their importance and the difficulty in discrimination. Hence, most of the synonym paragraphs with brief explanations are the word lists of basic and simple synonyms. They might not be extremely useful for the native users. Consider an example from *AHCD*4:

> **SYNONYM** *pull, drag, draw, haul, tow, tug* These verbs mean to cause something to move toward the source of an applied force: *pull a sled*; *drag furniture*; *draw up a chair*; *hauls wood*; *a car that tows a trailer*; *tugged at the oars*. **ANTONYM** *push*

We may conclude, from what we have seen above, that *MWCD*11 will benefit from the brief style of *AHCD*4 in some paragraphs if *MWCD*11 carefully selects sets of synonyms that need to be presented together, but cannot be discriminated satisfactorily.   (Ryu)

7.   Concluding Remarks
Chapter 1

MWCD 10 has been appraised as one of the most reliable American college dictionaries in our country. It has been especially appreciated for the descriptive, sharp, and brief but exact definitions that have been the hallmark of the Merriam-Webster's dictionaries. This good tradition has been inherited not only in the definitions but also in other dictionary components. The changes and improvements made in *MWCD*11 are not salient but steady ones. The following is the result of our studies.

Chapter 2

The Preface to the *MWCD*11 states that "Words and senses are born at

a far greater rate than that at which they die out." Hence if editors tried to record as many as they could while retaining obsolescent words and senses, the dictionary would grow to an unmanageable size. Editors have to delete less frequently used words from the dictionary. This kind of work does not attract people's attention. New additions of words and senses attract most people. We know it's more difficult to delete entries than to add. We appreciate *MWCD*11 for its continued efforts to check the word list and delete fair numbers of entries as well as add new ones.

New words come from various fields of science and other human activities. There seems no special source of areas from which new words are added in great numbers.

Since a conspicuous number of abbreviations and symbols are in daily use especially in newspapers, magazines, etc. their revival in the main part of the dictionary is welcome. By the same token, we believe that biographical and geographical names should be incorporated in the A to Z section rather than listing them as appendices in the back matter. We hear and read a great number of unfamiliar names of people and places as we live in a global village.

There should be no inconsistency in the treatment of entries. We believe phrasal verbs are lexical units that deserve listing as main entries. It's lexicographically inconsistent to list many of them as main entries while leaving the rest as run-ons.

Chapter 3

The most notable feature of the pronunciation in *MWCD*11 is the deletion of several phonological contrasts characteristic to the dialects on the East Coast. The new simplified sound system offered by the latest edition is most likely to make the pronunciations more accessible to the general users. Setting the new sound units of *r*-colored diphthongs contributes to clearly distinguishing the prevocalic "*r*" and postvocalic "*r*," making it easier for the users to understand the possible "*r*-dropping" that can take place only for the latter.

Compared to other dictionaries of the similar size, detailed description of variants stands out, and it is noticeable that much effort has been made

to update the description of words that contain controversial pronunciations. On the other hand, not enough attention seems to have been paid to the on-going sound change (THOUGHT-LOT merger), and an extensive survey is expected in the next edition.

Chapter 4

We can see from our limited survey that *MWCD* has seen very constant and substantial changes (we may say most of them are improvements) through each of the two recent revisions (*WNCD*9 to *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*10 to *MWCD*11). Even the very basic entry of the verb *be* has undergone one addition of usage description (sense **1e**: to come or go ⟨has already *been* and gone⟩ ⟨has never *been* to the circus⟩) and one modification of an illustrative sentence (from ⟨he was to become famous⟩ to ⟨she was to become famous⟩ to make a positive and ambitious statement with a female subject, again presumably for the sake of political correctness). The changes are not radical ones overall but an accumulation of small but careful modifications of thousands of specific descriptions. That, however, is exactly what is most needed from the revision of an acknowledged lexicographical work such as Merriam-Webster's Collegiate. We expect reasonably up-to-date information presented in an established form, which gives us the feeling that it is still "good old reliable (Merriam-)Webster but incorporating knowledge of state-of-the-art technology," which is exactly what *MWCD*11 may be able to offer when we look it up.

The dictionary deals with computer- or web-related items sometimes very carefully, but overall very reasonably. It keeps up with developments in the IT world fairly well and incorporates essential everyday digital terms and senses in a quite sensible way.

The addition of a large number of verbal illustrations especially in the revision from the 10th to the 11th is really welcome. *MWCD*'s illustrative phrases and sentences are concise but quite to the point and helpful especially in grasping and identifying the senses of polysemous entries.

The latest edition is accompanied by a CD-ROM with its whole printed content including pictures. Making the most of its electronic format, it provides the user with a variety of searching facilities, including entry

search, 'key word in the defining text' search, finding the words that rhyme with a certain keyword, combined search using and/or operators etc. It can be run on PCs, which allow the user to utilize the dictionary content by copying text from an entry they look up into various materials that they are working on (e.g. a word processor document).

Now the dictionary is accessible both in the traditional and electronic formats. But the CD-ROM content itself is based on the format of the book-form dictionary, which we are not specifically unhappy about at the moment. Will the next edition come equipped with a CD-ROM (or a content on any other electronic format) developed specifically with electronic advantages (such as concept searching) in mind, or will it just remain an alternative to the book version of the dictionary with only smart searching functions added? We will wait for a decade with high expectations, making the most of the latest version of this reliable updated dictionary.

Chapter 5

Based on the comparison between the latest three editions of *MWCD* and that between *MWCD* and *AHCD*, the following three conclusions may be arrived at. First, the usage paragraphs as against the 10th edition in which they are considerably revised, are fairly unchanged in the 11th edition. Second, the attempts to avoid discrimination are evident from the usage labels (the disuse of the label "substand" in the 10th edition) and the usage paragraphs (the avoidance of expressions such as "informal" and "colloquial" in all three editions). Third, the tendency towards more descriptive statements has had a significant influence on the conciseness of the usage paragraphs of the 10th and the 11th editions.

Chapter 6

The marked decrease in synonym paragraphs in the 9th edition is not observed in the 10th and the 11th editions. However, the 10th edition tends to delete the synonym paragraphs that discriminate the meanings of words of high frequency. From the 10th edition onwards, every synonym must always be followed by a verbal illustration, so that all the synonym

paragraphs consist of a list of synonymous words, core meanings of the synonyms, explanations for each word, and verbal illustrations. Although the 11th edition is a minor revision, some attempts to eliminate gender discrimination can be observed. As compared with *AHCD*4, *MWCD*11 uses a consistent style (as is the case with the usage paragraphs). However, *MWCD*11 would benefit from the short style of *AHCD*4 in some synonym paragraphs.

Appendix 1   Usage paragraphs in *WNCD*9, *MWCD*10, and *MWCD*11

	9th	10th	11th	Type
a indefinite article		Unchanged	Part of the description is deleted.	Morphological
above		Unchanged	Unchanged	Syntactic
aggravate		Examples are changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
ain't		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological
alright		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological
amount		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
anymore		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological
as far as		Totally deleted	•••	Syntactic
assimilate	•••		Unchanged	Phraseological
awful		The description of the source of an example is changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
awhile		Some description is added.	Unchanged	Syntactic
bacteria	•••		Part of the description is changed.	Morphological
behalf	•••		Unchanged	Phraseological
between		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
bi- prefix	•••		Unchanged	Semantic
blame		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
can		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
candelabra		Totally deleted	•••	Morphological

center vt.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phraseological
complected adj.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
comprise		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
consensus		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phraseological
contact		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
couple adj.		The description becomes more detailed.	Unchanged	Phraseological
couple n.		Totally deleted	* * *	Phraseological
criterion		Part of the description is changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Morphological
data		The description becomes more detailed.	Unchanged	Morphological
different		Unchanged	Part of the description is changed.	Phraseological
dilemma	***		Unchanged	Semantic
disinterested		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
dive		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological
don't		The description becomes more detailed.	Unchanged	Morphological
due to		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
dumb		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Pragmatic
each other		Unchanged	Part of the description is changed.	Selection of a word
early on adv.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
effect		Unchanged	Part of the description is changed. (Historical evidence is deleted.)	Selection of a word
enormity		The description is totally changed. (Historical evidence is deleted.)	Unchanged	Semantic
enthuse		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological

envelope	***		Unchanged	Phonetic
farther		Unchanged	Unchanged	Morphological
February		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phonetic
finalize		Part of the description is changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Morphological
flaunt		Part of the description is changed	Unchanged	Semantic
foliage	***		Unchanged	Phonetic
forte	***		Unchanged	Phonetic
fortuitous	***		Unchanged	Semantic
fulsome		The description is totally changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
genuine		Unchanged	Unchanged	Phonetic
get		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phonetic
good adj.	***		Part of the description is changed.	Selection of a word
good adv.		The description is totally changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
graduate		Part of the description is changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Syntactic
graffiti		Part of the description is changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Morphological
hang		Unchanged	Unchanged	Morphological
hardly		The description is totally changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
hone	***		Unchanged	Selection of a word
hoof		Totally deleted	* * *	Morphological
hopefully		The description is totally changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Semantic
importantly	***		Unchanged	Semantic
incredulous	***		Unchanged	Semantic
infer		The description becomes more detailed.	Unchanged	Semantic
-ing		Part of the description is deleted.	Unchanged	Phonetic

irregardless	***		Unchanged	Selection of a word
-ize		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological
kilometer		Unchanged	Unchanged	Phonetic
kudo		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Morphological
lay	***		Unchanged	Syntactic
learn	***		Unchanged	Semantic
leave		The description is totally changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
less		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
liable		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
library		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phonetic
like conj.		The description is totally changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
literally		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
loan		The description becomes more detailed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
masterful		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
me		Unchanged	Unchanged	Syntactic
media		The description of the date is changed. One example is added.	The description of the date is changed.	Morphological
memorandum		Unchanged	Unchanged	Morphological
mighty		Unchanged	Part of the description is changed. (Redundant statements are deleted.)	Pragmatic
miniscule	***	* * *		Morphological
mischievous	***		Unchanged	Phonetic
mitigate		The description becomes more detailed. An example is added.	Unchanged	Syntactic

most		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
myriad	***	* * *		Syntactic
myself		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
nauseous		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
neither conj.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phraseological
neither pron.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
nigger	***		Unchanged	Pragmatic
nuclear		Unchanged	Part of the description is changed.	Phonetic
off of prep.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Phraseological
one pron.		Part of the description is changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Selection of a word
only		Some description is added.	Unchanged	Syntactic
people		Totally deleted	* * *	Selection of word
per prep.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of word
phenomena	***		Unchanged	Morphological
phenomenon		Totally deleted	* * *	Morphological
plenty adj.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
plenty adv.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
plus conj.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
presently		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
pretty		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of word
principle		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
prior to prep.		Some description is added.	The part of the description that is added in the 10th edition is deleted.	Selection of a word

prove		The description of the date is changed.	The description of the date is changed.	Morphological
providing conj.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of word
queer	***	* * *		Pragmatic
real		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
right		Totally deleted	* * *	Semantic
rob		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
run	***		Unchanged	Morphological
shall		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
slow		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word
sneak	***		Unchanged	Morphological
so adv.		Part of the description is changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Semantic
so conj.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Syntactic
some		Unchanged	Unchanged	Phraseological
split infinitive		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
stratum		The description is totally changed.	Part of the description is changed.	Morphological
such pron.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Syntactic
sulfur	***		Unchanged	Morphological
supercede	***	* * *		Morphological
sure adv.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Selection of a word
than prep.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Syntactic
that pron.	***		Unchanged	Selection of word
that pron.	***		Unchanged	Selection of a word
they pron.		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic
they pron.	***		Unchanged	Syntactic
tho	***	* * *		Morphological
transpire		Unchanged	Unchanged	Semantic

type		Totally deleted	* * *	Phraseological
unique		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Semantic
unlike conj.	***	* * *		Syntactic
wait on		The description is totally changed.	Unchanged	Phraseological
whom pron.		Part of the description is changed.	Unchanged	Selection of a word

Appendix 2 Synonym paragraphs in *WNCD*9, *MWCD*10 and *MWCD*11

9th	9th > 10th	10th > 11th
* * *	background, setting, environment, milieu mise-en-scène <Newly introduced>	Unchanged
bad, evil, ill, wicked, naughty	<Entirely deleted>	Unchanged
* * *	bait, badger, heckle, hector, chivy, hound <Newly introduced>	Unchanged
banish, exile, deport, transport	Examples are added.	Unchanged
bare, naked, nude, bald, barren	Examples are added, and part of the explanation is changed.	Unchanged
base, low, wile	One example is changed for a shorter one. Another example is deleted.	Unchanged
bear, suffer, endure, abide, tolerate, stand	Examples are added.	Unchanged
bearing, deportment, demeanor, mien, manner, carriage	Examples are added.	‹ Entirely deleted ›
beautiful, lovely, handsome, comely, fair	Examples are added. The headword "pretty" is added (correction). There is some minor change in the explanation of "pretty".	Unchanged
beg, entreat, beseech, implore, supplicate, adjure, importune	Examples are added.	Unchanged
begin, commence, start, initiate, inaugurate	The headword "usher in" is added, and the entire description is changed.	Unchanged
behave, conduct, deport comport, acquit	Examples are added.	Unchanged
belief, faith, credence, credit	Examples are added, and the structure of the description is changed.	Unchanged

belligerent, bellicose, pugnacious, quarrelsome, contentious	Examples are added.	One example is changed.
blameworthy, blamable, guilty, culpable	Examples are added.	Unchanged
blemish, defect, flaw	<Entirely deleted>	<Entirely deleted>
* * *	bloody, sanguinary, gory <Newly introduced>	Unchanged
bluff, blunt, brusque, curt, crusty, gruff	Examples are added.	Unchanged
boast, brag, vaunt, crow	All of the examples are changed.	Unchanged
boorish, churlish, loutish, clownish	Examples are added.	Unchanged
brief, short	<Entirely deleted>	<Entirely deleted>
bright, brilliant, radiant, luminous, lustrous	Unchanged	Unchanged
broad, wide, deep	Unchanged	Unchanged
* * *	brutal, brutish, bestial, feral <Newly introduced>	The generic word "man" is changed to "humans".
bulk, mass, volume	Examples are added.	Unchanged
business, commerce, trade, industry, traffic	Unchanged	Unchanged
busy, industrious, diligent, assiduous, sedulous	Examples are added.	Unchanged
gather, collect, assemble, congregate	Examples are added.	Unchanged
gaudy, tawdry, garish, flashy, meretricious	All of the examples are changed for shorter ones.	Unchanged
gaze, gape, stare, glare, peer	<Entirely deleted>	<Entirely deleted>
ghastly, grisly, gruesome, macabre, lurid	Examples are added.	Unchanged
gift, faculty, aptitude, bent, talent, genius, knack	Examples are added.	Unchanged
give, present, donate, bestow, confer, afford	Some examples are deleted or changed for shorter ones.	Unchanged

govern, rule	<Entirely deleted>	<Entirely deleted>
gracious, cordial, affable, genial, sociable	Examples are added.	Unchanged
grand, magnificent, imposing, stately, majestic, grandiose	Examples are added.	Unchanged
grant, concede, vouchsafe, accord, award	All the examples are changed for shorter ones.	Unchanged
graphic, vivid, picturesque, pictorial	The headword "pictorial" is deleted, and examples are added.	Unchanged
guide, lead, steer, pilot, engineer	Examples are added, and part of the explanation is changed.	Part of the explanation is changed.
native, indigenous, endemic, aboriginal	Unchanged	Unchanged
natural, ingenuous, naive, unsophisticated, artless	Examples are added.	Unchanged
neglect, omit, disregard, ignore, overlook, slight, forget	Examples are added.	Part of the explanation is changed.
negligent, neglectful, lax, slack, remiss	Examples are added, and part of the explanation is changed.	Part of the explanation is changed, and a phrase of the examples is changed.
new, novel, modern, original, fresh	The headword "modern" is deleted. One example is deleted and another example is changed.	Unchanged
noticeable, remarkable, prominent, outstanding, conspicuous, salient, striking	Examples are added.	Unchanged
nullify, negate, annul, abrogate, invalidate	Examples are added.	Part of the explanation is changed.
uncertainty, doubt, dubiety, skepticism, suspicion, mistrust	Examples are added, and part of the explanation is changed.	Unchanged
understand, comprehend, appreciate	Some of the examples are changed, and the structure of the description is changed.	Unchanged

universal, general, generic	<Entirely deleted>	<Entirely deleted>
unnerve, enervate, unman, emasculate	Examples are added.	Unchanged
unruly, ungovernable, intractable, refractory, recalcitrant, willful, headstrong	One example is changed for a shorter one.	Unchanged
upright, honest, just, conscientious, scrupulous, honorable	Examples are added.	Unchanged
use, employ, utilize	Examples are added.	Unchanged
usual, customary, habitual, wonted, accustomed	Examples are added.	Unchanged

NOTES

Chapter 1

1) For convenience's sake, we will use *MWCD* as the abbreviation for the 9th edition when we refer to the three latest editions of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* collectively.

Chapter 2

1) Deleted entries are: **lamellicorn, lamelliform, Last Things, lathyritic, leptosome, letter missive, levier, Libera, Liederkranz, longhead, long play, and lyphobic**. Loafer (*trademark*) is deleted as a main entry with a capital letter, but the sense is incorporated in loafer.

2) Deleted abbreviations are: **lam** (laminated), **Lat** (Latin, Latvia), **LCT** (local civil time), **lect** (lecture, lecturer), **Leit** (Leitrim), **li** (link), **Lim** (Limerick), **long** (Longford), **Loth** (Lothian), **Lou** (Louth), **LSAT** (Law School Admission Test), **Lub** (lubricant, lubricating), and **Luth** (Lutheran). Partly deleted abbreviations are **LF** (ledger folio), **LH** (lower half), **lib** (librarian, library), **lit** (literary, literature), **LM** (long meter), and **LR** (log run)

3) Run-on entries that have been degraded from main entries in the tenth edition are: **learning disabled** (in **learning disability**), **light-adapted** (in **light adaptation**), and **loneliness** (in **lonely**).

4) Main entries that have been upgraded from run-on entries in the tenth edition are: **²laptop, learning disability, and limited partnership.**

5) New run-on entries in new main entries are: **lap dance, lap dancer, left-brained, /letterboxing, line dancer, and line dancing.**

6) We estimate there are about 164,000 entries, but the entry count is difficult because of differences in microstructure among dictionaries.

7) The double circle indicates the headword, and the blank stands for no entry.

Chapter 3

1) General information such as pronunciation keys, syllabication, recording of variants, along with *MWCD*11's attitudes and policies is available in the "pronunciation" section of the Explanatory Notes and the Guide. From the 10th edition an IPA equivalent is available in the Guide, where the characters used in the dictionary are explained one by one. The section titled "English Spelling and Sound Correspondences" in the 9th edition, has been deleted since the 10th edition.

2) A short line regarding \'ər\ in the Guide is also worth commenting: "Actually, this is usually a single sound, not a sequence of \ə\ followed by \r\" (34a). This is especially beneficial to nonnative users, since it will prevent them from mistakenly producing the sound as a diphthong (Takebayashi 1998: 127).

3) The latest edition supports this change in policy by reasoning that the sequence \ar\ is not allowed, and is replaced by \er\ in many varieties of English (the Guide: 34a).

4) Words grouped into (C) in *MWCD*11 do not always correspond to those in *AHCD*4: **behalf, calf, bath, path,** and **aunt**, had the two variants \a, ä\ ((ã, ä) in *AHCD*4) in both dictionaries, but this is only so in *MWCD*11 for words such as **ask, draft, basket, caste, flask, glass,** and **can't**.

5) Regrettably, information on preference for some of the words in the list is available only in the CD-ROM version.

Chapter 5

1) The definition of *nonstand* in *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language* clearly states the difference between *substand* and *nonstand*: "The stylistic label *nonstand* for "non-standard" is used for a very small number of words that can hardly stand without some status label but are too widely current in reputable context to be labeled *substand*."

2) Appendix 1 shows all the entries in the 9th, 10th, and 11th editions.

3) Examples are cited from the 11th edition.

4) The paragraph "hone in" is classified into the "phonetic" paragraph in section 3.7. However, it can also be considered to deal with the choice of words; it is a matter of classification. In this case, it is counted among the "choice of words" paragraphs.

Chapter 6

1) See the Introductory Matter in *Webster's Dictionary of English Synonyms* for the history of synonym paragraphs and synonym dictionaries.

2) *Webster's Dictionary of English Synonyms.*

DICTIONARIES

*AHCD*4: *The American Heritage College Dictionary*, Fourth Edition. Boston; New York: Houghton Mifflin, 2004.

CIDE: *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995.

*EPD*15: *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, Fifteenth Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997.

*EPD*16: *English Pronouncing Dictionary,* Sixteenth Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.

*LDCE*4: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,* New Edition. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2003.

*LPD*2: *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary,* New Edition. Harlow: Longman, 2000.

MECD: *Microsoft Encarta College Dictionary.* New York: St Martin's Press, 2001.

MED: *Macmillan English Dictionary.* Oxford: Macmillan Publishers, 2002.

*MWCD*10: *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary,* Tenth Edition. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 1993.

*MWCD*11: *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary,* Eleventh Edition. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 2003.

*OALD*7: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English,* Seventh Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.

WDES: *Webster's Dictionary of English Synonyms.* Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 1973.

WDEU: *Webster's Dictionary of English Usage.* Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 1989.

*WNCD*9: *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary.* Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 1983.

*WNID*3: *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language.* Springfield, Mass.: Merriam-Webster, 1961.

*WNWD*4: *Webster's New World College Dictionary,* Fourth Edition. Cleveland, Ohio: Wiley Publishing, 2002.

REFERENCES

Akasu, K., Koshiishi, T., Matsumoto, R., Makino, T., Asada, Y., and Nakao, K. 1996. 'An Analysis of *Cambridge International Dictionary of English.*' *Lexicon* 26: (3–76).

Hartman, James W. 1985. 'Guide to Pronunciation.' In *Dictionary of American Regional English,* vol. 1, ed. by F. G. Cassidy: (xli-lxi). Cambridge, Mass.: Belknap Press.

Iwasaki Linguistic Circle, ed. 1981. *Eigo Jisho-no Hikaku-to Bunseki* (*A Comparison and Analysis of English Dictionaries*), vol. 1. Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Jackson, Howard. 2002. *Lexicography: An Introduction.* London and New York: Routledge.

Kenyon, J.S. 1951. *American Pronunciation,* 10th ed. Ann Arbor: George Wahr.

Kojima, Yoshiro. 1999. *Eigo Jisho-no Hensen* (*A Historical Development of English Dictionaries*). Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Landau, Sidney I., 1984. *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Nakao, Keisuke, Mayako Watanabe, Yusuke Okamura, and Fumiaki Yamamoto, 1985. "An Analysis of *Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary.*" *Lexicon* 14: (52–166).

Shitara, Yuko. 1993. 'Survey of American pronunciation preferences — a preliminary report.' *Speech, Hearing and Language.* Vol. 7: (201–232). Dept. of Phonetics and Linguistics, University College London.

Takahashi, Sakutaro. 2003. 'Eigo-Hatsuon-Jiten ni okeru beion hyoki no mondaiten' (Problems on notations of American English in English pronouncing dictionaries) *Papers*

in Memory of Professor Tokuichiro Matsuda. (404–419). Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Takebayashi, Shigeru. 1998. '*LPD* and *EPD*15: A Comparative Review.' *International Journal of Lexicography.* Vol. 11, No. 2: (125–136).

Takebayashi, Shigeru. 2003. 'Eiwa-Jiten ni okeru bunsetsu' (Syllabication in English-Japanese Dictionaries) *Papers in Memory of Professor Tokuichiro Matsuda.* (420–429). Tokyo: Kenkyusha.

Wells, J.C. 1982. *Accents of English.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

How a Compromise Can Be Reached between Theoretical Pragmatics and Practical Lexicography, a Definition of Pragmatic Information

Akihiko Kawamura

1. Introduction

In spite of the importance of pragmatic information for EFL lexicography there has been scarcely any discussion about what it actually is. Strangely, it has become an important part of EFL lexicography without an agreed definition, which has resulted in confusion with related fields such as sociolinguistics. Considering its importance for foreign learners of English it will be necessary to have a common basis on which the dictionaries' treatment of this information can be judged objectively. Without such a basis it could not be hoped to improve the way that dictionaries treat this information. In this essay, I will therefore try to define the pragmatic information with all the important and relevant issues in mind. As pragmatics and lexicography are distinct both in nature and scope, I will define the pragmatic information, trying to reach a compromise between the two disciplines.

2. Existing definition of pragmatic information for EFL dictionaries

While the majority of dictionaries or glossaries of linguistics or applied linguistics do not list pragmatic information as a headword, the *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998) and the *Oyo Gengogaku Jiten* [Kenkyusha Dictionary of Applied Linguistics] (2003) do have it as an entry. However, the latter just discusses it without explaining what it is. Despite the importance of pragmatic information in EFL lexicography, there is surprisingly,

as far as I know, only one attempt at defining this information. This might also show how ambiguously pragmatics has been treated in the EFL context.

The *Dictionary of Lexicography* defines pragmatic information as follows:

> Information on the sociocultural rules of speaking. Exponents include paralinguistic features such as tone and intonation, gesture, pitch etc., as well as choice of vocabulary in terms of politeness and formality conventions, which can reinforce or contradict the speaker's intended meaning. In the past, dictionary compilers have paid little attention to this aspect of communication, merely giving unsystematic indication via USAGE LABELS such as 'informal', 'derogatory', 'sarcastic'.

This definition is perfectly satisfactory as a starting point, but I would like to examine this definition critically in order to identify problems when considering pragmatic information. The definition is arguably incorrect or too sketchy in three respects.

First, even allowing for the fact that EFL dictionaries today have come to pay more attention to spoken English, this definition should be amended concerning its exclusive reference to 'rules of speaking'. Although Moon points out that in conversation there is 'an enhanced range of pragmatic devices' (1998: 352), she also states that conversation 'can be compared to other genres such as technical writing or literary writing' (1998: 352). Pragmatic phenomena are observable in written English as well.

Second, it is very important to note here that, according to this definition, pragmatic information can range from vocabulary to paralanguage. Paralanguage is no doubt closely related to pragmatics, and it must play a crucial role in the EFL context (see for example Hurley, 1992). Accordingly, as defined by the dictionary, there may be nothing wrong in the inclusion of paralanguage in EFL lexicography, or rather it should be ideally incorporated into the dictionaries. Nevertheless, since dictionaries have traditionally dealt with meaning in the form of lexical items, or alphabetical strings, it will be almost impossible for any dictionary to treat paralanguage properly without using many complements, including com-

plicated codes and illustrations, which is obviously against the recent trend towards user-friendliness. More precisely, the use of codes and illustrations will become rather undesirable, especially for the following three reasons:

(1) The codes will make entries and texts too complicated and easily discourage foreign learners from consulting their dictionaries, especially monolingual ones.

(2) The explanations of each code in the front matter will necessarily become longer and more thorough, but few users may tackle them (see for example Béjoint, 1981: 216; 219), which suggests that the majority of important pragmatic information will remain incomprehensible to the users.

(3) The illustrations will take up a lot of space and make it difficult for lexicographers to include the kind of information which, like that on pragmatics, is important for EFL learners but is not appreciated fully among teachers and students (Kawamura, 2002b: 89f).

It is also questionable how lexicographers can gain reliable data on such phonological features as intonation because even the latest spoken corpora are basically no more than a collection of a transcription of spoken English (Moon, 1998: 348f).

Third, the above definition should also be amended concerning its confusion of pragmatics with sociolinguistics. It confines the information to 'the sociocultural rules of speaking', and it will be worth considering whether 'formality convention' should be part of pragmatics. If the use of a particular expression is normally required or expected in a particular social situation, it is generally considered to belong to sociolinguistics rather than pragmatics.

This confusion is also seen in the way that pragmatic information is treated in EFL dictionaries. In the next section, I will consider how the information is actually treated in the dictionaries.

3. Confusion over pragmatic information in the way it is treated in EFL dictionaries

Many EFL dictionaries today, either monolingual or bilingual, such as the

Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary (2003: COBUILD4), the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 4th ed. (2003), the *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2002) and *Taishukan's Genius English-Japanese Dictionary* (2001), mention pragmatic information as one of their merits, but what they regard as information on pragmatics appears rather inconsistent. COBUILD4 is among a few dictionaries which mark pragmatic information in some way, e.g. with labels, and states that when 'some words or meanings are used mainly by particular groups of people, or in particular social contexts' they mark the words and the meanings with 'style and usage' labels rather than with pragmatic ones. In this respect COBUILD4 seems to distinguish pragmatics from its related disciplines such as sociolinguistics, though style and usage may not always be part of sociolinguistics.

However, the entry for *majesty* in COBUILD4 apparently confuses the pragmatic information with that on sociolinguistics:

You use majesty in expressions such as **Your Majesty** or **Her Majesty** when you are addressing or referring to a King or Queen.

Although this definition is accompanied with the pragmatic label, politeness , it should have a style and usage label if the guidelines for the labels are to be followed. Unfortunately, this criticism also applies to its predecessor, the *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2001: COBUILD3), which might suggest that the COBUILD policy on pragmatic information was not sufficiently understood among lexicographers (see also Kawamura, 2002a: 5). Unless lexicographers have a deeper understanding of pragmatic information it will be difficult to eliminate this kind of confusion.

I must also point out that the explanation of a pragmatic label, formulae in COBUILD4 is quite misleading:

There are many words and expressions in English which are fairly set, and are used in particular situations such as greeting and thanking people, or acknowledging something (COBUILD4: xiii).

At first sight, formulae would seem to cover too wide a range of expressions, if these guidelines for the label were followed. More importantly,

the use of the phrase 'in particular situations' blurs the difference between the pragmatic label, and the style and usage labels. In the explanation of the style and usage labels cited above the lexicographers use the phrase 'in particular social contexts'. Foreign users will naturally wonder what the difference is between 'in particular situations' and 'in particular social contexts'. Since the lexicographers put the examples of formulae in the form of the gerund, 'greeting and thanking people, or acknowledging something', they should use another phrase, such as 'in performing a certain action', though pragmatics is not only concerned with speech acts. Importantly, this criticism also applies to COBUILD3 (see also Kawamura, 2002a: 5f). Again, it appears to me, though without complete conviction, that the difference between pragmatics and sociolinguistics is not clear enough even to the lexicographers.

The point is that pragmatics is concerned with almost every aspect of language and sometimes, on the surface, completely overlaps with other levels of language (Kawamura, 2003: 31). The confusion about pragmatic information in lexicography seems to have been directly transferred from that between theoretical pragmatics and its related fields, particularly sociolinguistics. This may be at least partly because pragmatics itself lacks a satisfactory definition.

In this paper I will use my definition of pragmatics as: being concerned with the speaker's command of linguistic resources to realise or make recognisable his/her intent (Kawamura, 2003: 23). In this definition, speaker (hereafter S) refers to a producer of an utterance, including a writer, as distinguished from a person who talks or writes to himself/herself, and linguistic resources refers to every constituent of language ranging from abstract meaning to sociolinguistic knowledge. What I should like to emphasise here is that pragmatics is in fact prior to any other level of language, and that one's intent has complete control over every constituent of language, and makes use of it to realise, or make recognisable his/her intent. As pragmatics can include a very wide range of topics under its heading, I will also restrict the scope of the subject to those cases where S's intent is pragmatically marked, that is, where it goes beyond other levels of linguistics such as irony. Especially in the context of

lexicography, this concept of being pragmatically marked is very important because dictionaries usually have severe space limitation and have to select carefully what information to include. Although I cannot go into details of this definition any further, this is compatible with a general understanding of pragmatics, and the discussions which follow are based on this definition.

4. Pragmatic meaning and dictionary meaning

Before moving on to my discussion about what pragmatic information is, I should like to define my use of two more terms: pragmatic meaning and dictionary meaning. In this study pragmatic meaning refers to all the phenomena which are studied under the heading of pragmatics, and dictionary meaning refers to the kinds of meaning that dictionaries have traditionally dealt with.

One of the most striking differences between pragmatic meaning and dictionary meaning consists in the fact that while the former is almost infinite in scope, the latter is very limited. This may be at least partly because any dictionary is influenced by its physical constraints. The dictionary should normally be a manageable size, and, at least in countries like Japan, easy for students to carry to school, so this imposes a limitation on its size and space, especially in the case of a paper dictionary. The space restriction will also be affected by how the information is laid out, including the size of font. The compilers must carefully select what information to present in a limited space. Dictionary meaning is thus continually monitored and controlled in scope, whilst there is basically no such restriction on pragmatic meaning.

The above disparity in scope leads to another level of difference between pragmatic meaning and dictionary meaning. Dictionaries must employ an economical method of presenting as much information as possible in a limited space. Dictionary meaning therefore gets condensed, purified and abstracted with its peripheral parts left out (see also Ikegami, 1996: 38). In contrast, pragmatic meaning is basically the description of those phenomena within its purview, and it sometimes even focuses on the peripheral parts of meaning that have traditionally been excluded in

dictionaries. While pragmatic meaning is concrete in nature based on actual usages, dictionary meaning can be considered as a potentiality or as typicality abstracted from the actual uses (see also Higashi, 1980: 52). It might therefore be possible to compare the difference to that between token and type.

Pragmatic meaning and dictionary meaning are distinct both in scope and nature, and so in order for EFL dictionaries to include pragmatic information it will be necessary to reach some compromise between them.

5.   Discourse and pragmatic functions

It might be possible to define pragmatic information for EFL dictionaries as the part of pragmatic meaning that is accommodated in those dictionaries, but it will soon turn out that this definition does not provide any criterion for determining what the information is, or what portion of pragmatic meaning should be included in the dictionaries. So long as pragmatic meaning and dictionary meaning are distinct both in scope and nature, it is at least necessary to specify what portion of pragmatic meaning can and should be included in the dictionaries. While pragmatic meaning is diverse, the easiest part to capture in dictionaries may be the pragmatic uses of words.

Importantly, some words, mostly function words, do not have meaning in its proper sense. They have uses instead, which fulfil various discourse functions such as emphasisers, or pragmatic functions such as thanking (Moon, 1987: 100). The uses duly reflect S's intent, and they are, inherently, pragmatically marked, in that, as long as they do not have semantic meaning, they usually do not overlap with other levels of linguistic resources such as abstract meaning. In fact, what dictionaries have traditionally done concerning these words is nothing apart from explaining their pragmatic meaning (see also Moon, 1987: 99f).

The point is that there are also many words which have both a pragmatic function and semantic meaning (Moon, 1987: 99f), and their semantic meanings can sometimes blur their counterpart pragmatic functions. It is thus more difficult for learners to recognise their functions and, importantly, learners' failure to recognise that function is likely to cause a

misunderstanding. As Moon proposes (1987: 100), when a word has both semantic meaning and a function, the function needs to be explained clearly as part of its entry in EFL dictionaries.

6.   Pragmatic biases

Although it is crucial for EFL dictionaries to provide their users with clues to the discourse or pragmatic functions of a word, a word can have more than one such function. Moreover, its functions may vary considerably according to the context. It is thus inevitable that lexicographers should restrict their coverage of the functions. It is worth noting here that many words and/or expressions have a tendency to be interpreted in a particular manner, and that it can result in a pragmatic failure if S and/or hearer do not recognise the tendency. Here, a hearer (hereafter H) refers to a receiver of an utterance, including a reader, as distinguished from a person who overhears an utterance or oversees a piece of writing.

Leech and Thomas (1987: F12) give the following example of a pragmatic failure:

> Teacher: James, would you like to read this passage?
> James: No, thank you.

In this example, the British teacher of English requested James, one of his/her foreign students, to read a passage, and the request was seemingly rejected quite rudely. Leech and Thomas observe that the teacher may take James' reply 'as being very rude, or as a bad joke' (1987: F12), but James apparently did not mean to be taken as such. He failed to capture the teacher's intent because the teacher's request was in the interrogative rather than the imperative; he probably did not know that the sentence pattern, *would you like to do something?* was typically interpreted as a request.

In this respect Thomas (1983: 101) points out that there is bias which lets H see one meaning first when interpreting pragmatic ambiguity, just as there is almost always such bias in other linguistic ambiguities such as grammatical ones (Kess and Hoppe, 1981: 95–100), and she attributes the above misunderstanding to James' failure to recognise the bias. In fact,

this kind of conventionalised interpretation, or bias, often realises or makes recognisable S's intent beyond its surface structure, that is, in a way that is pragmatically marked. If the above exchange had taken place between native speakers of English, the teacher's intent would have been realised through the bias in spite of the interrogative construction on the surface. Since these biases are basically finite, more fixed and therefore far easier to capture in dictionaries, it will be effective for EFL dictionaries to focus on this kind of bias typically assigned to certain expressions.

Considering the character of dictionary meaning, dictionaries can and should only deal with most fixed parts of pragmatic meaning. I thus determine the scope of pragmatic information as the part of pragmatic meaning which can be captured through the discourse or pragmatic functions and the pragmatic biases. Any kind of pragmatic meaning which cannot be gained in this way is basically outside the scope of lexicography.

7. Criteria for deciding what pragmatic information to include

Facing the fact that any dictionary has a severe limitation of space, the discourse or pragmatic functions and the pragmatic biases may need further restriction. As EFL dictionaries are designed for foreign learners of English, it will be worth considering if it is possible to limit further their coverage from an educational viewpoint.

There is a considerable difference in the degree to which a learner's pragmatic failure could place that learner in difficult situations. While minor failures can only make S and H feel awkward, in the worst case, S and H will not only misunderstand each other's intent but their personality (see also Thomas, 1983: 96f and 110). In James' case in the last section, he was taken as being a rude student without his being aware of it. Thomas suggests that pragmatic failures could be potentially a cause for every instance of what we call national or ethnic stereotypes (1983: 107). Azuma even suggests that they are one of the causes for Japan Bashing (1994: 116). Pragmatic information in EFL dictionaries should ideally be confined to those discourse or pragmatic functions and pragmatic biases, a learner's ignorance of which could cause a serious problem, especially in those cases where S's utterances might sound rude or offensive.

Significantly, it is not always predictable which pragmatic failure could cause serious problems. The teacher misunderstood James due to his failure to recognise the teacher's intent to request, but H's failure to recognise S's intent to request will not necessarily result in a serious pragmatic failure. At the same time, any pragmatic failure can cause a serious problem.

In order to detect potential causes for a pragmatic failure, it is necessary to investigate the socio-cultural difference between English and other languages. For example, while Moon points out that in English 'to borrow a sheet of paper' is slightly different from 'to borrow a book' in that the former does not necessitate the borrower returning the sheet (1987: 101), things to return after borrowing may vary from culture to culture (see for example Thomas, 1995: 130). This kind of difference is basically sociocultural, but it can cause a pragmatic failure. Also, linguistic difference between English and a learner's native language can be a potential cause for the failure.

In the Japanese language, for instance, the translation equivalents of *borrow* and that of *hire* are usually not distinguished. A Japanese speaker uses the same word, *kariru*, which covers both of the English verbs. Accordingly, a Japanese learner of English will often confuse the two English verbs. Although this difference is basically semantic, it might cause a pragmatic failure if a Japanese learner confuses the verbs and utters, 'I'd like to borrow a car' at an office of a car hire company, while in fact meaning that he wants to hire a car.

Unfortunately, relatively little reliable research has been carried out into these differences between English and Japanese. Thus, as far as Japanese learners of English are concerned, lexicographers' intuition will be the only major criterion for deciding which pragmatic uses and biases to include in their works. Far more attention must be paid to this area of study.

8. Descriptive versus prescriptive

When considering the treatment of the pragmatic information in EFL dictionaries it will be also important to take into account several issues for

pragmatics in the EFL context (cf. Kawamura, 2002b: 87f). Although they are basically outside the scope of this study, there are at least two important factors which should be kept in mind:

(1)   While pragmatics is closely connected with S's intent, S's intent is not something teachers can prescriptively correct or impose their opinions on (Thomas, 1983: 96).

(2)   Unlike grammar or pronunciation, pragmatics often reflects one's values and/or outlook on the world (Thomas, 1983: 99).

These would suggest that EFL dictionaries should present information on pragmatics in a descriptive manner rather than in a prescriptive way. However, while the description of languages is one of the basic aims of linguistics, the mere description of pragmatic phenomena will not be sufficient for teachers. Teachers should to a certain extent correct their students' mistakes and give them some guidance; they are basically expected to be prescriptive rather than descriptive (Thomas, 1983: 99).

Significantly, it is pointed out that foreign learners sometimes feel pressed to speak a 'superstandard English' (Thomas, 1983: 96; also Schmidt and McCreary, 1977: 429). Kawamura also points out that native speakers occasionally seem too hypercritical about foreign learners' use of English such as *they* referring to single antecedents, while the native speakers themselves often do use the word in that way (Kawamura, 2001: 64–5). It appears that, apart from pragmatics, foreign learners are often expected to speak and behave in the way that native speakers find most preferable. Tsuruta et al. (1988: 11) advise Japanese learners of English to let native speakers take the initiative when speaking in English, perhaps because they believe that by so doing the learners can avoid the native speakers' misunderstanding of them. To follow this advice, however, will discourage the learners from expressing themselves in the way that they want to. Such a dilemma may derive from the fact that even ordinary native speakers have strong authority over foreign learners. This will be truer of teachers and even truer of dictionaries.

Even if the lexicographers claim to be descriptive, most users will not regard their dictionary as simply presenting a description of language,

because the dictionary has very strong authority (Carter, 1989: 150f; Hanks, 1979: 38; Jackson, 1988: 42; Landau, 2001: 6; Moon, 1998: 352). It is also the fact that what ordinary users might want in their dictionary is prescription rather than the accurate description of language (Jackson, 1988: 42; Landau, 2001: 254–61; Moon, 1998: 353), whilst the trend is in fact towards descriptiveness (see also Ikegami, 1996: 280f).

It appears that the real problem lies in the fact that whether dictionaries present the information descriptively or not, ordinary users will not believe that dictionary explanation is just a description of language, or rather they may to a certain extent prefer their dictionaries to be prescriptive. Thus this predicament cannot be resolved until the views of the dictionaries change, which may suggest that some instruction in dictionary use will become necessary in a classroom. Although this may be among the real problems that need to be addressed, this is apparently outside the parameter of this current study.

9.   Closing remarks

While both pragmatics and dictionaries are concerned with meaning, the kinds of meaning that each of them treats and their coverage are different. Also, pragmatics is concerned with almost every aspect of language. I have accordingly tried to reach some compromise between them, and have determined the scope of pragmatic information as the discourse or pragmatic functions of a lexical item and pragmatic biases assigned to a certain expression.

As EFL dictionaries are designed for foreign learners, the dictionaries should only focus on those functions and biases learners' ignorance of which is more likely to cause serious pragmatic failures, though it may not always be so easy to find out which functions and biases could cause these failures.

I have also recommended that EFL dictionaries should present information on pragmatics in a descriptive manner.

Taking into account the above discussions, I define pragmatic information for EFL dictionaries as the description of discourse or pragmatic functions and pragmatic biases that is presented in an EFL dictionary in

order to help a user avoid a serious pragmatic failure that could potentially be caused by his/her ignorance of them. As this definition clearly shows the scope of the pragmatic information, I believe that this provides a basis on which dictionaries' treatment of the information can be judged with sufficient objectivity.

NOTE

This is a slightly revised and shortened version of a paper read at the Macmillan Colloquium on Learners' Dictionaries Today (Tokyo, 11 September 2004): 'How a compromise can be reached between theoretical pragmatics and practical lexicography, a definition of pragmatic information for EFL dictionaries.' This paper is based on Chapter III of an essay entitled: 'How a compromise can be reached between theoretical pragmatics and practical lexicography' submitted to University of Birmingham (November 2003) as part of my coursework. I should like to express my gratitude to my supervisors at University of Birmingham: Dr. Rosamund Moon and Dr. Judith Lamie for their thorough and patient supervision throughout my writing of the original essay. Thanks are also due to my former supervisor at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies: Professor Keizo Nomura who gave me invaluable comments on the earlier version of this paper.

REFERENCES

(a) Dictionaries and glossaries

Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary (2003), Glasgow: HarperCollins.
Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (2001), Glasgow: HarperCollins.
Dictionary of Lexicography (1998), R.R.K. Hartmann and G. James eds., London & New York: Routledge.
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 4th ed. (2003), Harlow: Pearson Education.
Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, New Edition (1987), Harlow: Longman.
Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (2002), Oxford: Macmillan.
Oyo Gengogaku Jiten [Kenkyusha Dictionary of Applied Linguistics] (2003), I. Koike ed., Tokyo: Kenkyusha.
Taishukan's Genius English-Japanese Dictionary, 3rd ed. (2001), Tokyo: Taishukan.

(b) Other references

Azuma, S. (1994) *Teineina Eigo · Shitureina Eigo* [Rude Expressions in English · Polite Expressions in English], Tokyo: Kenkyusha.
Bejoint, H. (1981) 'The foreign student's use of monolingual English dictionaries: a study of language needs and reference skills' in: *Applied Linguistics* 2/3, 207–22.
Carter, R. (1988) *Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives*, 2nd ed., London: Routledge.
Hanks, P. (1979) 'To what extent does a dictionary definition define' in: R.R.K. Hartmann ed. *Dictionaries and their Users*, Exeter: University of Exeter.
Hurley, D.S. (1992) 'Issues in teaching pragmatics, prosody, and non-verbal communication' in: *Applied Linguistics* 13/3, 259–81.

Higashi, N. (1980) 'Jisho to Goyoron' [Dictionaries and Pragmatics] in: *Gengo* [Language] 9/12, 50–60.
Ikegami, Y. (1996) 'Kotoba no Imi to Jisho' [The meanings of words and the dictionary] in Y. Ikegami ed. *Eigo no Imi* [The meanings of English], Tokyo: Taishukan.
Jackson, H. (1988) *Words and their Meaning,* Harlow: Longman.
Kawamura (2001) 'A Critical Study of *Defining Vocabulary*: Hard Words for Japanese Users' in: *Random* 26, 49–69.
—— (2002a) 'A Report on How Pragmatic Information is Presented in EFL Dictionaries Today' in: *Random* 27, 1–15.
—— (2002b) 'A Plea for a Pragmatic Viewpoint in the EFL Context with Particular Reference to Lexicography' in: *Report* 22 (Foreign Language Center of Tokai University), 85–92.
—— (2003) 'How a compromise can be reached between theoretical pragmatics and practical lexicography' Unpublished paper: University of Birmingham (November 2003).
Kess, J.F., and R.A. Hoppe (1981) *Ambiguity in Psycholinguistics,* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
Landau (2001) *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography,* 2nd ed., Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Leech, G.N, and J. Thomas (1987) 'Pragmatics and Dictionary' in: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,* 2nd ed. (1987), Harlow: Longman, F12–3.
Moon, R. (1987) 'The analysis of meaning' in: J.M. Sinclair ed. *Looking Up: An Account of the COBUILD Project in Lexical Computing,* London: HarperCollins, 86–103.
—— (1998) 'On using spoken data in corpus lexicography' in: T. Fontenelle et al. eds. *Actes EURALEX '98 Proceedings* vol. II, Liège: University of Liège, 347–55.
Schmidt, R. and C. McCreary (1977) 'Standard and superstandard English: recognition and use of prescriptive rules by native and non-native speakers' in: *TESOL Quarterly* 11/4, 415–29.
Thomas, J. (1983) 'Cross-cultural pragmatic failure' in: *Applied Linguistics* 4/2, 91–112.
—— (1995) *Meaning in Interaction: An Introduction to Pragmatics,* Harlow: Pearson Education.
Tsuruta, Y., P. Rossiter, and T. Coulton (1988) *Eigo no Soosharusukiru* [Social Skills in English], Tokyo: Taishukan.

Headwords in *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* and *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners of American English*

Takahiro Kokawa

In this paper headwords or entered lemmata and their presentation in *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (henceforth to be abbreviated as *MED-B*) and *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners of American English* (henceforce *MED-A*), both published in 2002, are discussed. *MED-A* and *MED-B* are what may be called 'twin dictionaries,' that is, the two different versions of an EFL dictionary (which is to be referred to as *MED* henceforth) from Macmillan, that features American and British varieties of the language respectively. Thus a user of *MED-A* will find *bobble hat* and *knickerbocker glory* (both found in a novel *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone*) unlisted as headwords in the dictionary that s/he consults. The difference of coverage and treatment of lemmata as headwords between the two dictionaries as well as between *MED* and some other acknowledged EFL dictionaries are reviewed here.

1. Total number of headwords and 'references'

MED boasts in its cover blurb of 'over 100,000 references with 30,000 idioms and phrases.' However, we are always puzzled by the word 'reference' used in this way, wondering to exactly what extent it refers to. In Dohi *et al.* (2002, p. 7) a similar question was raised, and they estimated that the total number of main entry of *LAAD* to be around 43,000, about half the claimed number of 'words and phrases' supposed to be included in the dictionary. The present author made a research in the same vein in five EFL dictionaries, although of a little more limited scale (i.e. in smaller

number of sample pages surveyed) in each dictionary. The result is shown in Table 1. The items counted are basically those presented in boldface in the sample pages of every 100 page (page 1, 101, 201, . . .) in each dictionary. Then the number of items presented in each dictionary is estimated by multiplying the collected item count by the number of A-Z pages in the dictionary and then dividing the result by the number of sample pages surveyed (in the case of *MED-A* main headwords, 478 × 2110 ÷ 21), which may give us some rough idea of the entry count in each dictionary. Here we should bear in mind that it is not always arguable that the more items a dictionary presents, the better, since as the number of items treated increases, the information per item typically decreases, if they are to be presented in the same limited space available in the printed dictionary.

What this count may tell us is that its claim of being 'the new learners' dictionary with more entries than any other,' (blurb on the back cover of *MED*) may be true. *MED-B* has more number of main headwords (i.e. more number of entries) than its Oxford and Longman counterparts. *MED-A* may have less entries than *MED-B*, but it is still comparable in its count to Longman dictionaries. (In this count, *LDOCE3* entry count may have been underestimated, as among our 16 sample pages very large entries (*far*, *serve*, *service*, *stand* and *thing*) happened to fall on four of them, which led to the number of main headwords in these four pages being only 2, 4, 0 and 2 respectively.) Comparing the five dictionaries, *OALD6* seems to have smaller number of larger entries than Macmillan and Longman dictionaries, with phrasal verbs incorporated in main entries as run-ons and perhaps more alternative expressions explicitly shown in the entries. The total number of 'references' shown may be the largest in Longman dictionaries, especially in *LDOCE3*, with apparently more idiomatic expressions and collocations presented in boldface among definitions and verbal illustrations. In terms of the number of 'references,' our calculation still stays some distance below the number (100,000) claimed by *MED*, even if all those items in boldface, counted and estimated in the Table 1, are to be included. *MED*'s tally may also include items given in usage notes and something else.

Table 1   Estimated number of 'references' in the five dictionaries

Dictionary		headwords	phrasal verbs	alternative expressions	inflections	derivatives	idioms	others	TOTAL
MED-A	item count	478	7	8	7	48	47	145	740
	estimated no.	48,028	703	804	703	4,823	4,722	14,569	74,352
MED-B	item count	507	8	12	9	46	80	146	808
	estimated no.	53,077	838	1,256	942	4,816	8,375	15,284	84,588
OALD6	item count	326	35	53	40	46	103	149	752
	estimated no.	32,774	3,519	5,328	4,021	4,625	10,355	14,979	75,601
LAAD	item count	468	22	17	32	83	77	150	849
	estimated no.	49,199	2,313	1,787	3,364	8,725	8,095	15,769	89,251
LDOCE3	item count	423	16	26	37	60	174	183	919
	estimated no.	44,098	1,668	2,711	3,857	6,255	18,140	19,078	95,806

Notes: item count = the number of items found in the sample pages

estimated no. = estimated total number of items given in the specified dictionary

alternative expressions = variants shown as the second headword(s) and items given after 'also . . . '

inflections = plural forms of nouns, comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and verb declensions

derivatives = nominal, adverbial and other lexical items related to the headwords, listed at the end of each entry, normally without definitions but sometimes with an illustrative phrase or sentence

others = other items presented in boldface, such as collocations.

2.   'Numbers that are entries'

MED presents 'numbers that are entries' immediately before the A-Z text of the dictionary, a practice also found in its predecessor, *OALD6*, which lists 16 items. *MED-A* and *MED-B* both records 37 items. All but one each are common to both versions. Unique to *MED-A* is *1040 form*, a US tax calculation form, while the lexical item *the 1922 Committee*, which denotes a certain group of people in the British parliament, can be found only in *MED-B*. Other items are rather international, denoting items on both sides of the Atlantic as well as those used in Australia. Interestingly, these lists include a number of new phonetic representations used in e-mails and text messages such as 1, 2, 4 and 8 (as in *NE1* (*anyone*), *B4* (*before*) and *GR8* (*great*)). We can find more in A-Z text as well (R for *are*

and U for *you*). They may well all be listed and explained at one place. (Incidentally, even some specialized dictionaries for these text message languages are published!) Listing numeric items at one and the same place is surmised to be very helpful to the user, as it may not only eliminate the user's uncertainty as to where to find them, but allow them to compare related items such as text message expressions, culture-specific emergency phone numbers, and grading numbers. (2.1 and 2.2 are listed in *MED* by the way, but why are 1 and 3 on the same grading scale not explained?)

3.   Frequency rating

Headwords in *MED* are listed in two colors, red and black. The dictionary classifies the headwords into four levels, according to their frequency. We find the following explanation in 'Using your dictionary in *MED* (p. xii in *MED-B* and p. xiii in *MED-A*).

> Some words are printed in red with a star rating to show their frequency. For example, a word with one star is fairly common and a word with three stars is one of the most basic words in English. This helps you to identify the words that you are most likely to need.

The dictionaries (*MED-A* and *MED-B*) themselves do not give any information on what frequency levels of headwords these stars stand for, but the Japanese user's guide in the form of a booklet attached to *MED-A* describes it as follows (translated from the original Japanese by the present author):

> ●The most basic 2000 words (★★★) — words that are universally used in every type of spoken and written English
> ●Basic 3000 words (★★) — words that are of somewhat lower frequency, used commonly in a little more specialized fields.
> ●Quasi-basic 2500 words (★) — words that are often used in specialized fields such as economics and politics.

The adequacy of explanations here (especially the arguments about 'specializedness') aside, the guidebook tells us that headwords that have a star or stars are among the 7500 basic words in English and the thresholds are 2000, 5000 and 7500 respectively.

What attracted the present author's interest was the difference of numbers of stars (i.e. frequency rating) in the two editions of *MED*. The entries *cellphone* and *subway* have two stars in *MED-A*, but no stars in *MED*. On the other hand, *lift* (n.) and *mobile phone* have two marks in *MED-B*, but only one in its American counterpart. In the case of *flat* (n.), the British version is awarded with three, while its American peer has none. All the starred entries from A through to D are surveyed, and the differences of star rating are picked up. There were 745 entries that have any (i.e. one to three) stars in the sections A-D. Among them, 53 items (7.1%) have different numbers of stars between *MED-A* and *MED-B*. The following is the details:

Table 2   Difference of frequency rating by stars between *MED-A* and *MED-B*

Diff. (B–A)	Stars in *MED-B*	Stars in *MED-A*	Headwords
2	2	0	caravan, cottage, cricket, cupboard, disc
	3	1	countryside
1	1	0	accelerator, accordingly, cooker, cookery, coroner, correlation, crisp 3 (n.), crown 2 (v.), CV, cyclist, daft, day care, district attorney, dole, downwards
	2	1	abolish, absent, carve, castle, corridor, councilor, deed, directive
	3	2	absence, crown 1 (n.)
–1	0	1	accountable, caretaker, courtroom, cowboy, cute, the death penalty, den, dime, downgrade, downtown 1 (adj., adv.), downward 2 (adv.)
	1	2	abuse 2 (v.), accomplish, cart 1 (n.), counsel(l)or, dessert
	2	3	abuse 1 (n.), accurate, corn, dollar
–2	0	2	accommodations, cookie

Diff. (B–A) = difference of number(s) of stars in *MED-B* and *MED-A* (star(s) in the former minus star(s) in the latter)

Here positive difference figures (2 and 1) denote that the British version of the dictionary regards the given word more frequently used or more important, and negative difference figures (–1 and –2) imply the other way round. Some of the differences are self-explanatory and may be called cultural or institutional: *cricket*, *crown*, *castle*, *cowboy*, *dime* and *dollar*. Some others stem from the linguistic differences between the two varieties, in terms of spelling or expression itself: *disc* (as in *computer discs* and as opposed to *disk*), *downwards* vs. *downward*, *accommodations* (vs. *accommo-*

dation), *CV* (vs. *résumé*) and *cookie* (vs. *biscuit*). Still others are quite interesting: we are reminded of the slight dissimilarities of British and American lifestyles (or what each nation may be more interested in, discuss more or attach greater importance to): *cottage* (+2), *countryside* (+1), *courtroom* (–1), *death penalty* (–1) and *dessert* (–1). (We know that Americans cannot live without the last item!) This cultural-linguistic difference probably brought to light by fairly proportionate sets of corpora count intrigues us when we find another convincing instance: the entry *tea* has two stars in *MED-A* but three in *MED-B*.

We must note that these facts can at present only be noticed in the dictionary by comparing the number of British and American frequency stars in the two volumes. Producing twin dictionaries featuring the two major varieties of English has a good didactic rationale. Thus a student can focus on either of them and eventually acquire a fairly coherent language. However, it may be a good idea to present American and British ratings (in different order, perhaps, in the two dictionaries) at once when the judgment on both sides of the Atlantic differs, as *LDOCE3* does about spoken and written language frequency markings. If it is achieved, the users, students and teachers alike, will get very inspiring information as to linguistic and cultural inclination of American and British varieties and undoubtedly get a better understanding of the language.

4.   International regionalisms

MED, as other EFL dictionaries do, includes a number of lexical items whose use is somewhat limited to a specific English-speaking country or region, which are marked with regionality labels. Thanks to the electronic (CD-ROM) versions of the dictionary, using so-called 'SmartSearch,' it was quite easy to know which and how many items are identified by *MED* as expressions related to a certain geographical area. The following is all the regionality labels and their (representative or complete) instances.

Table 3 Items with regionalism labels in *MED*

Labels	Count in MED-A	Count in MED-B	Instances (C: items common in *MED-A* and *MED-B*, A: items only found in *MED-A*, B: items only found in *MED-B*) Four dots after the last instance denote the category being still open. Figures in brackets are the numbers of instances.
AmE (American English)	1491	814	C: accommodations, advisory 2 (n.), airplane, alternate 3 (n.), anchorman, anchorwoman, anesthesiologist, antitrust, anyplace, anyways, APB, artsy, arugula, asshole, auto 2 (n.), automaker, aw, ... A: absent 3 (prep.), acclimate, ace 2 (v.), adjunct 2 (adj.), alkaloid 2 (adj.), alum, antsy, Arabian horse, ashcan, aught 1 (n.), ... B: afterward, alimony, ...
mainly AmE	—	376	B: advisor, alumna, alumnus, amigo, Anglo 2 (adj.), apeshit, archeological, archeologist, archeology, attorney, auto1 (adj.), automobile 1 (adj.), ...
BrE (British English)	977	2148	C: A&E, abattoir, abseil, advert, aerial 2 (n.), aerodrome, aeroplane, AGM, anorak, antenatal, AOB, arse, arsehole, articled, articulated, assistant 1 (n.), aubergine, Autocue, aye 2 (int.), ... A: Alsatian, arty, ... B: abseiling, accumulator, afters, agro, agriculturalist, airer, Akela, alcopop, almoner, Anglepoise, answerphone, anti 2 (n.), anticlockwise, antirrhinum, Apex, ArmaLite, aspirational, atishoo, audiotypist, ...
Mainly BrE	242	—	admin 1 (n.), afterwards, autumn, backcomb, backstreet 2 (adj.), batten 2 (n.), bicarb, bitter 2 (n.), blarney, boarding, bookshop, bother 2 (n.), branded, ...
Australian	74	85	C (72): Abo, bunyip, bushwalker, g'day, ... A (2): walkabout, wowser B (13): broadacre, Bullamakanka, cobber, doona, ocker, pommy, the Alice, Buckley's chance, the First Fleet, Hills Hoist, penalty rates, Rafferty's rules, Woop Woop.
Canadian	7	4	C (3): chequing account, joe job, treaty Indian, water-bomber A (4): cabbagetown, First Nation, Hudson's Bay blanket, joe job
Indian English	43	70	C (43): achacha, crore, Dalit, devi, dhobi, dupatta, ghat, goonda, gur, Harijan, howdah, jungli, kameez, khichri, lassi, lathi, lungi, maidan, mali, landir, memsahib, namaste, nawab, nullah, paan, pandit, roti, sahib, salwar, Sardar, shalwar, shikar, shikara, shikari, Shri, Sri, tiffin, ustad, wah, wallah, cycle rickshaw, scheduled castes, tiffin carrier. B (27): baba, Baba, babu, badmash, bania, begum, Bhagwan, bhai, brinjal, burra, chota, chowkidar, chunni, chup, dewan, dhobi, feringhee, godown, izzat, jangli, Jawan, punkah, seth, shabash.
Irish	1	4	C (1): colleen; B (3): craic, lough, shebeen
New Zealand	3	3	C (3): pakeha, scroggin, wahine
Scottish	17	23	C (17): bairn, bannock, bonny, brae, dram, ken 2 (v.), kirk, laddie, laird, lass, lassie, loch, och, skirl, wean 2 (n.), wee 1 (a.), first footing B (6): ben, bothy, braw, burgh, pawky, Sassenach
South African	31	39	C (29): dorp, eina, howzit, jol 2 (v.), kaffir, kaross, knobkierie, kop, kraal, lekker, ouma, oupa, platteland, sangoma, spaza, stoep, stompie, stopstreet, tackie, technikon, tsamma, tsotsi, ubuntu, veldt, verkrampte, verligte, vlei, volk, voorkamer

			A (2): Coloured 1 (adj.), Coloured 2 (n.) B (10): Baas, bakkie, biltong, bioscope, dagga, fundi, gogga, lobola, mealie, bitter-ender.
West African	5	6	C (5): griot, mallam, pickin, old talk, storey house B (1): been-to

MED-A contains about 25% (1.25 times) more items labeled 'American' than *MED-B* (*'AmE'* and *'mainly AmE'* combined), while Briticisms in *MED-B* are approximately 76% (1.76 times) more copious than those in its American counterpart (*'BrE'* and *'mainly BrE'* combined). Many Americanisms treated in *MED-A* are not listed in the British version of the dictionary in the first place, while most of the 'mainly American' items in *MED-A* are also found in *MED-B*. The same is true about Briticisms in *MED-A*. This means that, although there may be the fact that expressions originated in the United States are now more commonly used in Britain than Briticisms are used in America, information given on British expressions in *MED-B* (or in *MED*, for that matter) excels in amount than that on Americanisms in *MED-A* (i.e. in *MED*). Whether the result may partly due to the fact that *MED* (*MED-A* as well as *MED-B*) is basically a British product (the British publisher, British leading editors, etc.) is uncertain. Thus it is arguable (considering other facts claimed below as well) whether *MED-A* and *MED-B* are totally parallel twin dictionaries.

MED-A has more Canadian English items than *MED-B*, and an equal number of New Zealand English expressions, but when it comes to items peculiar to other varieties of English, *MED-B* has more to say than *MED-A*, though in a few cases only *MED-A* mentions the region-specific items (*walkabout* and *wowser* in Australian English and *Coloured* (adjective and noun) in South African English). Among the international varieties of English other than the major two, Australian and Indian entries are notably large in number both in *MED-A* and *MED-B*, followed by the South African ones. The number of Indian variety cited is especially conspicuous. In fact it is questionable if EFL learners around the world immediately need all of this Indian word stock, except people in and from the Indian subcontinent. If such components should be included, expres-

sions from other English-speaking countries such as Singapore and West Indies should also be referred to in the dictionary, as well as more items spoken within the British Isles (Irish, Scottish, Welsh and other varieties of 'British' English). *MED*'s approach is rather unique and appears quite international, but treatment of varieties other than British and American may need a little more balance or may need some discussion on the criteria as to how far and from what varieties they should select items to include, if they are treated in the dictionary at all.

5.　Items related to specific countries

English is a very international tool of communication and it incorporates in itself many expressions of foreign origin. Thanks again to the SmartSearch, it was possible to obtain following figures concerning the items related to some extent to a specific country or region. What was done is search for headwords whose definitions contain either the name of the country or its adjectival form (in the case of Japan, *Japan* and *Japanese*) and have the SmartSearch look through the definitions in the whole A-Z (plus numbers at the beginning) text of the dictionary. The result obtained is the items that have in some way to do with the specific nation or culture.

Table 4　　Items related to specific countries

Countries concerned	Count in MED-A	Count in MED-B	Instances (C: items common in *MED-A* and *MED-B*, A: items only found in *MED-A*, B: items only found in *MED-B*) Four dots after the last instance denote the category being still open. Figures in brackets are the numbers of instances.
Japan/Japanese	52	52	(C only) anime, the Axis, bullet train, capsule hotel, diet 1 (n.), the East, the Far East, the G8, gaijin, geisha, go 2 (n.), green tea, haiku, harakiri, ideogram, Japanese 1 (n.), Japanese 2 (adj.), Japlish, Kanji, karate, katakana, kimono, manga, meishi, the Nikkei index, ninja, the Orient, oriental 1 (adj.), oriental 2 (n.), origami, pachinko, Pearl Harbor, reserve currency, sake 2 (n.), salaryman, samurai, sashimi, sayonara, shiatsu, Shinto, shogun, on British/US/Japanese etc soil, sumo, sushi, tempura, V-J Day, wasabi, yen, Zen
China/Chinese	53	53	C: acupressure, acupuncture, alligator, bamboo shoots, Cantonese, china, Chinatown, Chinese 1 (n.), Chinese 2 (adj.), Chink, chow, chow mein, coolie, the East, be of Chinese/German etc. extraction, the Far East, feng shui, fortune cookie, green tea, gweilo, the I Ching, ideogram, junk 1 (n.), kung fu, lychee, mandarin, Mandarin, Maoism, the Orient, oriental 1 (adj.), oriental 2 (n.), panda, red packet, Sino-, spring roll, t'ai chi, taipan, Taoism, tone language, triad, wok, yang, yin, yin and yang, yuan A: bok choy, egg roll, mah-jong (g) B: chop suey, mahjong, pak choi
Korea/Korean	2	2	(C only:) tiger economy, the Unification Church
Thailand/Thai	2	2	(C only:) Thai 1 (n.), Thai 2 (adj.)
India/Indian	69	78	C: Anglo-Indian, Ayurvedic medicine, bhangra, Bollywood, chief minister, coolie, culpable homicide, curry 1 (n.), dhal, dharma, ghat, ghee, gibbon, Hindi, ... B: bhaji, biriani, Bombay mix, chapati, dewan, dhurrie, foreign-returned, garam masala, Jawan
France/French	83	83	C: Armagnac, the Axis, baccalaureate, baguette, Beaujolais, Bordeaux, brasserie, brioche, burgundy 1 (n.), Cajun 1 (n.), Camembert, Canuck, cedilla, Chablis, champagne, the Channel, the Channel Tunnel, chateau, the Chunnel, circumflex, claret 1 (n.), cognac, commune 1 (n.), coq au vin, Creole 1 (n.), D-Day, ... A: concierge, French fries, the Louisiana Purchase, St. Tropez B: au revoir, chip 1 (n.), French stick, gite, le Shuttle
Germany/German	38	41	C: allied, ally 1 (n.), the Axis, the Battle of Britain, the Berlin Wall, chancellor, Deutschmark, the Eastern bloc, be of Chinese/German etc. extraction, fascism, fatherland, the G8, German 1 (n.), German 2 (adj.), Germanic, German measles, hock, the Holocaust, Jerry, Kraut, Lutheran, mark 1 (n.), Mata Hari, Nazi 1 (n.), Normandy Landings, sauerkraut, Saxon, schnapps, the SS, Teutonic, Treaty of Versailles, U-Boat, umlaut A: G.D.R., German shepherd B: the Boche, false friend, GDR, Pils, swastika
Italy/Italian	31	32	C: antipasto, Asti, the Axis, bruschetta, Chianti, dago, fascism, the G8, Gorgonzola, Indo-European, Italianate, Latin 1 (n.), lira, Mafia, mniestrone, mozzarella, Parmesan, pasta, pepperoni, piazza, polenta, prosciutto, Romance language, spaghetti western, tarantella, trattoria, troubadour, wop A: lasagna, Stradivarius B: Blackshirt, ciabatta, lasagne
Russia/Russian	23	23	C: balalaika, blini, cosmonaut, Cyrillic, dacha, the Eastern bloc, the G7, the G8, icon, Indo-European, the Kremlin, pogrom, the Sami, samovar, Slavic, the steppes, troika, the USSR, vodka, War and Peace A: czar, czarina, ruble B: rouble, tsar, tsarina
Mexico/Mexican	42	35	C: bullfight, burrito, Chicana, Chicano, chilli, enchilada, fajita, guacamole, the Gulf, the Gulf Stream, jalapeno, Latina, Latin American 1 (adj.), Latin American (n.), Latino, mariachi, Mexican 1 (n.), Mexican 2 (adj.), nachos, peyote, pueblo, refried beans, salsa, sidewinder, sisal, sombrero, taco, tamale,

			tequila, Tex-Mex, tortilla, wetback A: cilantro, colonia, hacienda, maquiladora, NM, N.Mex., Tejano
Brazil/Brazilian	4	4	(C only:) bossa nova, lambada, Portuguese 1 (n.), samba
Cuba/Cuban	3	3	(C only:) Havana, mambo, rumba

Regrettably, items that are supposedly related to Britain, the United States, Australia and other English-speaking countries could not be extracted, because the SmartSearch cannot distinguish words used in labels and those used in definitions. 52 Japan-related items were found, which are about the same number as those related to China. It happens that in the case of Japanese items, there is no difference between those cited in *MED-A* and *MED-B*. They refer to world-famous or curious aspects of Japanese culture, customs and technology (*anime, bullet train, capsule hotel, go², haiku, karate, kimono, manga, meishi, origami, pachinko, shiatsu, Shinto, sumo* and *Zen*), history and tradition (*geisha, harakiri, kimono, ninja, samurai* and *shogun*), food and drink (*green tea, sake², sashimi, sushi, tempura* and *wasabi*), geography and history (*the Axis, the East, the Far East, the Orient, oriental, Pearl Harbor, V-J Day*), economy (*the G8, the Nikkei Index, reserve currency, yen*) and language (*ideogram, Japlish, Kanji, katakana*). An instance of '*Japlish*' is also cited: *salaryman*, but now that it is included in an EFL dictionary, it may not be 'Japlish' any more. A term denoting a foreigner in Japan, '*gaijin*,' is also cited, but its definition does not refer to the derogatory or alienating connotation that is attached to the use of the word in Japan.

In the case of China-related words, somehow *chop suey* is found only in *MED-B* and *egg roll* exclusively in *MED-A* (difference of food preference on both sides of the Atlantic?), and expression or spelling variety between British and American English (*pak choi* and *mahjong* in *MED-B* as opposed to *bok choy* and *mah-jong*(*g*) in *MED-A*) are noticed. Among Asian countries, India seems to have the most influence upon the English language, and understandably the British version has more Indian items than its American counterpart. Lexical items related to other Asian nations in the dictionary appear rather fairly small in number.

Among European countries, France seems to have exported the largest number of terms that made their way into the English language.[1] Smart-Search for items related to several other European countries produced the following result (numbers are items in *MED-A* and *MED-B* respectively): Britain[2] (29/33), England (73/121), Scotland (33/50), Wales/Welsh (20/40), Ireland (31/47), Spain/Spanish (48/49), Portugal/Portuguese (13/13), Netherlands/Holland/Dutch (17/17), Switzerland/Swiss (9/8), Poland/Polish (10/9). The entry counts of Ireland, Britain and its component 'countries' are definitely larger in *MED-B* than in *MED-A*, but for other European countries, the numbers are often nearly the same in *MED-A* and *MED-B*. However, in each case a number of items are only found in either version, presumably reflecting the difference of interest or language use on both sides of the Atlantic.

As for countries in the 'New World,' the figures besides the one listed above are as follows: the United States (634/513), Canada (40/34), Australia (75/87) and New Zealand (17/17) (For Mexican, Cuban and Brazilian entries, instances are cited to provide the idea as to what items are actually entered). Naturally in the case of American neighbors, Canada and Mexico, *MED-A* has more items than *MED-B*.

MED's entries thus appear very international, reflecting the increasing globalization of the world community and the increasing number of foreign words and things expressed in the English language accordingly.

6. Treatment of other lexical and encyclopedic items

To get an overall vision of *MED*'s entry selection, a selective comparison in the selected common sample parts (see p. 258) is made between the two versions of *MED*, *LDOCE3* and *OALD6*. The following is some of the results obtained:

Table 5   Comparison of 5 editions: items not common in all the five dictionaries (out of 390 headwords in total)

Items found (only) in	Count	Instances found
MED-A (MA)	3	the Boston Pops, conversion kick, go-carting

MED-B (MB)	8	botch-up*[1], endeavor*[1], godown, the God slot, gogga, ISA, mobilise, modeled, specialised
MA + MB	20	the Boston Tea Party, bot, botched, botox, endscopy, God Save the Queen, God's gift, ISO 1, ISO 2, pilau rice, pillow slip, -rich, ridden 1 (v.), ridden 2 (adj.), spec 2 (adj.), the Special Olympics, specialise, species barrier, speciesism, tracker fund
LAAD (LA)	35	borscht, borscht belt, Hieronymus Bosch, Bosnia, Bosporus, Boston, James Boswell, bothered, Botswana, Sandro Botticelli, end table, endangered, endocrine, endpoint, Jean-Luc Godard, godhood, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, John Irving, Washington Irving, Isaiah, Isis, mock turtle, Pilgrim Fathers, King Richard I, King Richard III, Cardinal Richelieu, Richmond, Baron von Richthofen, Hyman Rickover, rick-rack, ricotta, Special Olympics International, track lighting
LDOCE3 (LB)	3	botheration (interjection), mock turtleneck, track layer
LA + LB	2	bosh, endue, special forces
OALD6 (Ox)	10	Boston baked beans, bothy, conversion van, irritable bowel syndrome, Is., model home, modeler, trackless trolley, trad, tradable
MA + LA*[2]	0	—
MB + LB + Ox*[3]	12	borstal, bother 3 (interjection), endowment policy, mock 3 (n.), mod cons, the MOD, pillar box, pillock, rick 1 (v.), Special Branch, special constable, special license
LB + Ox	3	-isation, irruption, tracker dog
MB + LB	4	boss-eyed, bossy-boots, the God slot, mockers
MB + Ox	3	convenor, energise, endowment mortgage
All but Ox	17	borrowing power(s), bosomy, bosun, convent school, conversation piece, end game, endocrine grand, endwise/endways, the God squad, goddammit, Godspeed, mock-, riboflavin, rice paper, special interest group, track meet, trackball
All but LA	5	gobsmacked, -ise, mod, modeling, pilchard, specialism, speciality, tracksuit
All but LB	3	the Richter Scale, tracker, tractor-trailer
All but MA	0	—
All but MB	0	—

*1   Empty headword referring to some other entries.
*2   Dictionaries featuring American English
*3   Dictionaries presumed to be based on British English

Table 6   Comparison of two versions of *MED*: Items found only in either *MED-A* or *MED-B*

	Category (or the label(s) attached to the item)	Count	Instances
MED-A only (4)	US Orchestra	1	the Boston Pops
	American football term	1	conversion kick
	AmE (American English)	1	tract house
	other	1	go-carting
MED-B only (28)	BrE (British English)*	2	bother 3 (interjection), rick 1 (v.)
	old British term	1	borstal
	BrE old-fashioned*	1	pillar box
	BrE informal*	6	boss-eyed, bossy-boots, the God slot, the goggle box, mockers
	informal	2	botch-up (hyphenated), mock 3 (n.)
	British spelling	4	convenor, energise, mobilise, specialised
	American spelling	2	endeavor, modeled
	UK system or institution	7	endowment mortgage, endowment policy, ISA, the MOD, Special Branch, special license, special institution
	Indian English	1	godown
	South African English	1	gogga

* Includes items that are marked as BrE not in *MED* but in one or more of *OALD6*, *LDOCE3* or *LAAD*

There are three items in the sample pages that are only found in *MED-A*. One is a name of an American orchestra (*the Boston Pops*), and another is a term used in American football (*conversion kick*). *MED-B* has eight unique terms. Among them were one British spelling (*specialised*), two American spellings (*endeavor and modeled*), an Indian and a South African term (*godown* and *gogga*), British informal expression (*the God slot*) and the abbreviation of a British tax-free account (*ISA*). Table 6 reveals further characteristics of the two versions of *MED*. *MED-A* lacks certain British lexical items, especially those which are limited in terms of register (old-fashioned, informal, etc.), British terms of social systems and names of institution, and English words used exclusively in former British colonies in the Old World. There are definitely more items unique to *MED-B* as opposed to *MED-A*. It seems that *MED-A* was produced by omitting

items less relevant to a life in the United States from *MED-B* and adding some essentially American terms to it, but the added American elements were not as much and the resultant dictionary apparently does not abound in stylistically limited information such as informalities used especially in the United States. Presupposing that the present author's estimation made in 3.1. is not far off the mark, this may have lead to the difference of headword count in *MED-A* and *MED-B*.

The items exclusively found in *MED* (both in *MED-A* and *MED-B*) and not in other three dictionaries mainly consist of some encyclopedic items (*the Boston Tea Party, God Save the Queen, ISO*[2], *the Special Olympics*, etc), and terms used in rather limited subject or specialist field (*botox, endoscopy, species barrier* and *tracker fund*).

Out of the 35 expressions uniquely entered in *LAAD*, more than half are proper nouns, including 12 personal names (*Isis* and *Pilgrim Fathers* excluded) and 6 placenames. *LAAD* is one of the most helpful dictionaries not only with its American English, but with these outstanding numbers of encyclopedic information including proper nouns. *MED* is another dictionary with encyclopedic nature, both in its American and British editions, but it does not include any proper nouns (personal or geographical names). What it deals with is the names of institutions, the titles of books, songs, etc (e.g. *War and Peace, the New Testament, Auld Lang Syne* and *God Save the Queen*) and a great number of items of foreign origin including foods, customs, and so on (which we have seen in Section 4), many of which, including the titles, are not found in *LAAD*. Incidentally, we have more 'encyclopedic' dictionary than *LAAD* on the market (such as *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*, 2nd edition, *LDELC2*) and if an EFL dictionary should include a 'practical' or 'satisfactory' number of encyclopedic items on top of so-called lexical items, the volume would exceed bounds if it were published in book form, so how far should an EFL dictionary be 'encyclopedic' is a topic that must await further discussion. But it may have to be concluded that neither *LAAD* nor *LDELC2* is as sufficiently or 'comprehensively' encyclopedic as it may appear, enough to meet the ever-changing reference needs of the user. A small additional survey, whose result is shown in Table 7 below may support the argument.

Items that are unique to *OALD* include a number of American terms (*Boston baked beans, conversion ban, model home* and *trackless trolley*), which is rather unexpected and welcome, and some other expressions of limited register or field (*bothy, irritable bowel syndrome, trad* and *tradable*).

7. Twin dictionaries and vocabulary in an EFL dictionary

Presumably thanks to the use of large-scale corpora of both British and American English, the lexical items entered in recent EFL dictionaries seem to have become more and more balanced and look quite 'objective'. The more things become objective, however, the more they look like each other. But all the four or five EFL dictionaries surveyed in this section have a very good balance of 'objectiveness' in the majority of the lemmata entered as well as 'uniqueness' of including a smaller numbers of items that their rivals do not have. In the case of *MED*, they are encyclopedic items of popular or well-known book and song titles, and some names of

Table 7   Whether some place names, personal names and titles can be found as headwords

	LDELC2	*LAAD*	*MED-A/B*
Tokyo	+	+	−
Osaka	+	−	−
Hiroshima	+	−	−
Nagasaki	+	−	−
Kyushu	+	−	−
Honshu	+	−	−
Shikoku	+	−	−
Okinawa	+	−	−
Hirohito	+	+	−
the Beatles	+	+	−
Elton John	+	−	−
Steven Spielberg	+	+	−

+ = entered, − = not entered; *LDOCE3* and *OALD6*, too, were negative in all these items.

American and British groups, institutions and systems.

However, granted that *MED*'s most outstanding feature is being a twin dictionary, with a majority of 'commonness' and a little bit of 'uniqueness' in its two versions representing the two major varieties of the English language, we now get back to the basic question of whether we really need two separate versions of the dictionary in terms of words to be listed (i.e. headwords) in the dictionary.

Maybe for active or productive use, it would be better to have a definite model conforming to either of the major varieties of the English language. In this sense, existence of two versions of *MED* is quite relevant, as the user will be able to acquire one consistent standard of the English language by owning and using one of them. As for the interpretive use of an EFL dictionary, however, the user cannot tell whether the language they may encounter and need to interpret is American, British, or in fact any other variety of English. Each version of *MED* features either American or British English, and lacks some lexical items as headwords which are present in the other version of the dictionary. For instance, *MED-A* not only lacks some British lexical items, but also many other words used in other English-speaking countries, and *MED-B* misses a great number of American terms that Japanese users may encounter in their day-to-day study of English.

Even for productive use, it might be a good idea (maybe in addition to putting two separate versions on the market) to produce one comprehensive 'international' edition of the dictionary, making the difference of British and American 'Englishes' totally clear in the dictionary. (Also, the frequency comparison as was suggested at the end of Section 3. above, if realized in the integrated 'international' version, will be of great help and interest to the more 'advanced' learners of English as well as teachers of English who professionally should and would like to know the features of the two major varieties of the language. Perhaps it would be easier to produce an international version on CD-ROM than on the book-form paper dictionary, as the space available is not so limited on the former.

It is quite regrettable that in Japan, one of the largest EFL markets in the world, only the American version, which, as was found in this survey,

does not really have the same or comparable amount of information as its British counterpart, is on the Japanese market. (Normally we have to order the British version from an overseas bookstore.) It is true that in Japan, which has by far the closer relationship with the United States than with the United Kingdom, the pedagogical scenes are predominated by American English, but there are a smaller but substantial number of Japanese learners who are eager to acquire the time-'honoured' British English for various reasons. After all, Japanese ardent admirers of David Beckham (who is very popular in the country) will be disappointed if they know they cannot write their fan mail in the language that their superhero speaks only by using the available version of this quite appealing dictionary.

NOTES

1) Incidentally, most of the Italian entries in *MED* can be served onto a dining table.
2) English-speaking countries cannot be searched with its adjectival form, as SmartSearch cannot distinguish the linguistic regionality label (e.g. 'Scottish' (English)) and the same word in the definition.

DICTIONARIES

LAAD: *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2000.
LDELC2:   *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*, 2nd ed. Harlow: Pearson Education, 1998.
LDOCE3:   *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 3rd ed. Harlow: Longman, 1995.
MED-A: *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners of American English*. Oxford: Macmillan Education, 2002.
MED-B: *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. Oxford: Macmillan Education, 2002.
OALD6:   *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, 6th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.

REFERENCES

Akasu, Kaoru, Hiroko Saito, Akihiko Kawamura, Takahiro Kokawa and Ryuichi Hotta. 2001. "An Analysis of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, Sixth Edition." *Lexicon* 31, pp. 1–51.
Dohi, Kazuo, Atsuko Shimizu, Tetsuo Osada, Yuri Komuro, Takashi Kanazashi, Satoko

Isozaki and Kazuyuki Urata. 2002. "An Analysis of *Longman Advanced American Dictionary.*" *Lexicon* 32, pp. 1–96.

Masuda, Hideo, Makoto Kozaki, Naoyuki Takagi, Yoshiaki Takano and Rumi Takahashi. 2003. "An Analysis of *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary for Advanced Learners,* Third Edition." *Lexicon* 33, pp. 1–73.

Urata, Kazuyuki, Atsuko Shimizu, Mikihide Matsuyama and Keisuke Nakao. 1999. "An Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,* Third Edition." *Lexicon* 29, pp. 66–95.

Heuberger, Reinhard. 2000. *Monolingual Dictionaries for Foreign Learners of English.* Wien: Braumüller.

Phonetic Notation Systems in *Macmillan English Dictionary*

YOKO UCHIDA

1. Introduction

One of the major innovations by *Macmillan English Dictionary* is the creation of two editions targeting two separate audiences: learners of British English and those of American English. (The British and American editions are hereafter referred to as *MED-B* and *MED-A* respectively.) Based on the same database, the content in each edition has been tailored in such a way as to best meet the needs of the learners of respective varieties, so that "a user of either edition will know that the dictionary was specially written for her or him" (p. x). Accordingly, each edition follows the convention of the variety, such as in the styles of spelling and punctuation. Also, example sentences for an identical entry word may may differ between the two when the editors find it necessary. This attitude is basically no different in the treatment of pronunciation.

A two-page pronunciation guide at the end of the volume has a list of vowel and consonant symbols "based on the International Phonetic Alphabet" (*MED-B*: p. 1692; *MED-A*: p. 1658). This is followed by succinct explanations on stress, alternative pronunciations, weak forms and strong forms, syllabic consonants, the symbol /ə/, and nasalized vowels.

Comparison of the vowel symbols listed in the two editions reveals a regrettable shortcoming, its unique enterprise notwithstanding. Great care is necessary in selecting vowel symbols for an English bilectal dictionary, or rather, "twin dictionaries" in this case, since the number of vowels in English is quite large even within one variety and can be difficult for the users to fully comprehend, and moreover, dialectal variations notable in

vowels manifest complicated phonemic distribution as well as various phonetic realizations (Weinreich 1954; Wells 1982). Unfortunately, the problem in the current two editions of *MED* extends to both phases, namely:

(1) vowel phoneme symbols in *MED-A* that are not user-friendly
(2) possible confusion to the learners who refer to both *MED-B* and *MED-A* for comparison of British and American English vowels

This twofold problem appears to have been caused by different editing policies of the two editions.

2. Vowel Symbols in *MED-A*

The Table below shows the keywords used in *MED* in the leftmost column, followed by the vowel phonemic symbols in *MED-B* and *MED-A* respectively, then those used in *EPD*[16] and *LPD*[2], two of the most accepted pronunciation dictionaries, and lastly *ODP*, whose vowel sets are referred to in the discussion in Section 3.

A conspicuous difference between the vowel set of *MED-A* and all the others in *MED-B*, *EPD*[16], and *LPD*[2], is the lack or use of length mark for the "long vowels": *MED-A* have symbols without length mark, thus **fit** and **feet** are /fɪt/, /fit/ respectively, whereas the same words are represented as /fɪt/ and /fiːt/ in the other notation systems. This lack of length mark in the former system is less favorable than the others, for the following reasons.

It is true that the former use of /ɪ/ and /i/ without a length mark may be sufficient in terms of phonological analysis, and is quite common in the United States since *PDAE*. Symbols *with* length marks are more user-friendly, however. Redundant as it may be, the use of length marks greatly helps nonnative learners distinguish the two sounds in question, especially when the relative length plays an important role in their mother tongue as in Japanese (Takebayashi 1978; Takahashi et al. 1992; Ichikawa et al. 1996).

It must be also noted that the use of length mark, along with different symbols to represent qualitative difference, was first found in Gimson's

Table   The vowel symbols in *MED*, *EPD*[16], *LPD*[2], and *ODP*.

keywords in *MED*	*MED*		*EPD*[16]		*LPD*[2]		*ODP*	
	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A
bit	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ	ɪ
bed	e	e	e	e	e	e	e	e
bad	æ	æ	æ	æ	æ	æ	a	æ
hot	ɒ	ɑ	ɒ	ɑː	ɒ	ɑː	ɒ	ɑ
cut	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ	ʌ	ə
book	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ	ʊ
about	ə	ə	ə	ɔ	ə	ɐ	ə	ə
pretty	i	i	i	i	i	i	i	i
annual	u	u	u	u	ʉ	ʉ	ʊ	ə(w)
bee	iː	i	iː	iː	iː	iː	iː	i
father	ɑː	ɑ	ɑː	ɑː	ɑː	ɑː	ɑː	ɑ
caught	ɔː	ɔ	ɔː	ɔː	ɔː	ɔː	ɔː	ɔ
boot	uː	u	uː	uː	uː	uː	uː	u
bird	ɜː	ɜr	ɜː	ɝː	ɜː	ɝː	əː	ər
bay	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ	eɪ
buy	aɪ	aɪ	aɪ	aɪ	aɪ	aɪ	ʌɪ	aɪ
boy	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ	ɔɪ
go	əʊ	oʊ	əʊ	oʊ	əʊ	oʊ	əʊ	oʊ
now	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ	aʊ
poor[i)]	ʊə	ʊr	ʊə	ʊr	ʊə	ʊᵊr	ʊə	ʊ(ə)r
hair	eə	er	eə	er	eə	eᵊr	ɛː	ɛ(ə)r
hear	ɪə	ɪr	ɪə	ɪr	ɪə	ɪᵊr	ɪə	ɪ(ə)r

EPD[14] (1977), and is quite common in English-Japanese dictionaries that junior/senior high school students in Japan purchase. It is very unlikely that the advanced users, who look for an English-English dictionary for better understanding the language, will pick up one without length marks.

Adopting symbols without length mark as in *MED-A* may yet cause another problem to some naïve learners: clear distinction cannot be made between /i u/ with strong stress and those represented by the same symbols but carry weak stress, unless the users refer to the existence of

stress mark. It is too much of a requirement for users to understand and pronounce appropriately the two types of /i/ as in **cheesy** /'tʃizi/ and **treaty** /'triti/, or /u/ as in **usual** /'juʒuəl/, when many of them are overwhelmed even by the number of vowels.

A quick and easy solution is to adopt the system used in *MED-B* (and the other two dictionaries), that is, to use /iː/ and /uː/ for strong vowels. *MED-B*'s **cheesy** /'tʃiːzi/, **treaty** /'triːti/, and **usual** /'juːʒuəl/ are much easier to follow, and the description is in accordance with the phonetic fact that vowels with strong stress are longer than those with weak stress.

In fact, the symbols in *MED-B* are more feasible in showing the status of the two types of vowels: the existence/absence of length mark corresponds to the existence/absence of strong stress (Takebayashi 1998):

	MED-B	*MED-A*
strong vowels:	/iː/, /uː/, /ɜː/	/i/, /u/, /ɜr/
weak vowels:	/i/, /u/, /ə/	/i/, /u/, /ər/

3. Symbols for *MED-A* and *MED-B* as twin dictionaries

The lack of length mark on the part of *MED-A* can lead to a misunderstanding that is even more serious. Ambitious learners, who wish to search for similarities and differences of the two varieties of English, may refer to both editions and compare the description. Finding /buːt/ for **boot** in *MED-B* and /but/ in *MED-A*, or /lɔː/ for **law** in the former and /lɔ/ in the latter, the nonnative learners may take this for a significant length difference in the two varieties.

Phonetic transcription of a "diasystem" (Weinreich 1954) is not easy, since the two varieties must be recorded in such a way that the phonetic facts are respected and yet a clear phonemic distribution in the two varieties is maintained as much as possible. Use of different symbols /əʊ | oʊ/ (hereafter, in the order of British | American pronunciation) for **go** to indicate noticeable vowel quality difference, a convention in many bilectal dictionaries, would not hurt the understanding of the users. However, employing /iː | i/ for **feet**, /a | æ/ for **bad**, /ʌ | ə/ for **cut**, and /ʌɪ | aɪ/ for **buy**, as in *ODP* (see the list in Table above), only leaves the

nonnative users with question marks, no matter how systematic the symbols may be within one variety and how accurate they may be phonetically. By the same line of argument, *MED*'s use of /uː | u/ and /ɔː | ɔ/ is quite misleading. The editors of *MED* may as well keep this possibility in mind, and it is strongly expected that the future edition extends its scope to those who refer to both American and British editions.

For better understanding of the complicated vowel distribution in the two varieties, especially for readers without intuition native speakers possess, the pronunciation guide could be improved even more by adding a few keywords in the list.

MED-B:	ɒ hot	*MED-A*:	æ bad, ask
	æ bad		ɑ father, hot
	ɑː father, ask		

An addition of *hot* as a keyword would help learners understand that what are considered distinctive vowels as /ɑː/ and /ɒ/ in British English have been merged to be considered identical as /ɑ/ (better yet, /ɑː/) in American English. In British English, the so-called "*ask*-words" (Kenyon 1951: 179–184) whose distribution is complicated yet important for advanced learners would be suggested by adding *ask* in the list.

4. Pronunciation of abbreviated forms

One merit of *MED* is its detailed description on how abbreviated forms and acronyms should be pronounced. **ACT** /ˌeɪ siː 'tiː | ˌeɪ si 'ti/ and **ADD** /ˌeɪ diː 'diː | ˌeɪ di 'di/, for example, might be erroneously pronounced /ækt/ and /æd/ by nonnative learners without the pronunciation. Readers will find MED quite useful to see a number of unfamiliar acronyms with the information on how they should be pronounced, e.g. **ASIO** /'eɪziˌəʊ | 'eɪziˌoʊ/, **ASIS** /'eɪsɪs/, that are not shown even in *EPD*[16] and *LPD*[2].

5. Stress

Stress marks (primary stress (') and secondary stress (ˌ)) are used to show the stress patterns of the compound entries, as well as phrasal verbs. Secondary stress is usually applied in both cases when it precedes and

follows a primary stress. Some difference is observed in the two editions when the secondary stress follows right after the primary stress:

MED-B: ' ___ , MED-A: ' _ ,_   **ally, context, program, comment, female**

MED-B: ' ___ , MED-A: ' ___   **pillow, veto, follow, window** (when the second syllable contains a vowel /əʊ |oʊ/)

This rightly reflects the difference in stress pattern between British and American English.[ii]

When it comes to the notation of the second stress immediately before the primary stress, however, there is some inconsistency in description both within and between the varieties:

MED-B: ,_ ' , MED-A: _ '   **bamboo, champagne**
MED-B: _ ' , MED-A: ,_ '   **unpaid, fourteen, fifteen**
MED-B: _ ' , MED-A: _ '   **unsure, unlit**
MED-B: ,_ ' , MED-A: ,_ '   **Chinese, thirteen, sixteen**

Marking the second stress before the primary stress provides the learners with important information of possible stress shift, and consistent description is asked for. No information on the phenomenon is available in the current edition.

Likewise, without any account of stress shift, the already shifted forms are recorded for phrase entries: **Chinese** /ˌtʃaɪˈniːz/, ˌ**Chinese ˈcabbage,** ˌ**Chinese ˈcheckers,** ˌ**Chinese ˈlantern; elementary** /ˌeləˈment(ə)ri/, ˌ**elementary ˈparticle**. For pedagogical purposes, several lines could be spared in the pronunciation guide.

6. British and American Pronunciations

"Language Awareness" pages inserted in the middle of the body has a section titled "British and American English," in which the differences of the two varieties are reviewed in terms of pronunciation as well.

In the main body both pronunciations are given only when the pronunciation of one variety is "so different" from that of the other variety "that

they might not be understood correctly" (pronunciation guide). Yet it is not clear what is meant by "so different." Moreover, the description is not consistent in the two editions. Both *MED-B* and *MED-A* contain British and American pronunciations for **laboratory** (*MED-B*: /ləˈbɒrət(ə)ri; *AmE* ˈlæbrəˌtɔːri/; *MED-A*: /ˈlæbrəˌtɔːri; *BrE* ləˈbɒrət(ə)ri/), but it is not so for **lieutenant** (*MED-B*: /lefˈtenənt; *AmE* luːˈtenənt/; *MED-A*: /luˈtenənt/) and **vase** (*MED-B*: /ˈvɑːz; *AmE* ˈveɪz/; *MED-A*: /veɪs; veɪz/[iii]). **Hostile** has either British or American pronunciation (*MED-B*: /ˈhɒstaɪl/; *MED-A*: /ˈhɒstl/), while **missile** has both pronunciations, divided by a semicolon (*MED-B*: /ˈmɪsaɪl; ˈmɪsl/; *MED-A*: /ˈmɪsl; ˈmɪsaɪl/). It is not clear what the role of a semicolon is here when /ˈmɪsaɪl/ and /ˈmɪsl/ are given as an example of noticeable dialectal differences between British and American English in the "Language Awareness" (*MED-B*: LA18, *MED-A*: LA20). Furthermore, **garage** (*MED-B*: /ˈgærɑːʒ; ˈgærɪdʒ/; *MED-A*: /gəˈrɑːʒ; gəˈrɑdʒ/), **debris** (*MED-B*: /ˈdebriː; ˈdeɪbriː/; *MED-A*: /deˈbriː/), and **schedule** (*MED-B*: /ˈʃedjuːl/; *MED-A*: /ˈskeˌdʒul; ˈskedʒəl/), whose British and American pronunciations are likely to sound "very different" to the ear of nonnative listeners, do not have their counterparts recorded.

7. CD-ROM

By clicking a loudspeaker icon, every headword is pronounced both in British and American English. This is surely helpful to the learners for letting them have easy access to actual sounds. The speakers consist of both males and females. Pronunciation practice is available, too, with which users are able to record their own pronunciation and compare it with the model.

Some discrepancy is found in the stress pattern and the recorded pronunciation. *MED-B*: ˌ**lemonˈade** and *MED-A*: ˈ**lemonˌade**, for instance, are pronounced with primary stress on the first syllable by both British and American speakers. The same kind of discrepancy is also found in **labo(u)r mobility** and **loudspeaker**. In the case of **ice cream**, which is recorded in the book as *MED-B*: ˌ**iceˈcream** and *MED-A*: ˈ**iceˌcream**, the phrase is shown as ˌ**iceˈcream** in the CD-ROM version for both varieties, and is pronounced as such both by British and Ameri-

can speakers.

8.   Conclusion

MED-B and *MED-A*, based on the same database, but published in separate volumes to represent two distinct varieties of English, leave much room for improvement in their adoption of vowel symbols. The attitude that the two varieties stem from one system appears to be more or less desirable for this type of dictionaries, and for this reason bilectal transcriptions are expected.

To this end, employment of length marks for *MED-A* would not only make the transcriptions more accessible to the Japanese learners who are used to such notations, but promote users' comprehension of the phonetic and phonemic distributions of the sounds in the two varieties.

Assignment of stress is overall adequate, although some discrepancy is found when *MED-B* and *MED-A* are compared. A few lines that explain "stress shift" in the future edition will highly benefit English learners.

As for the recording of pronunciation variants in the counterpart variety that are "so different," inconsistency is found when the two editions are compared. This may be due to the policy differences of the editors in the two editions.

Inconsistency is also observed between the transcriptions in the book and the actual sounds in the CD-ROM. Some revisions will be necessary for the future edition.

NOTES

i) A more appropriate keyword should take the place of **poor** /ʊə/ in *MED-B*: The current edition's **poor** is recorded as /pɔː/ in the main body. Words like **tour** would be better.

ii) It must be added, however, that the status of the secondary stress is different depending on the position it appears: the syllable that carries secondary stress *before* the primary stress has a possibility of becoming a tonic, while *after* the primary stress it does not. The current notation system does not allow users to distinguish these two. One solution to this problem may be to adopt a different notation symbol for the "tertiary" stress, as was done in *LPD*[1].

iii) This must be a typo for either /veɪz; veɪs/ or /veɪs; veɪz/.

DICTIONARIES

EPD[14]: *Everyman's English Pronouncing Dictionary,* Fourteenth Edition. London: Dent and Sons Ltd, 1977.

EPD[16]: *English Pronouncing Dictionary,* Sixteenth Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.

LPD[1]: *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary.* Harlow: Longman, 1990.

LPD[2]: *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary,* New Edition. Harlow: Longman, 2000.

MED-A: *Macmillan English Dictionary.* Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Ltd., 2002.

MED-B: *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners.* Oxford: Macmillan Publishers Ltd., 2002.

ODP: *Oxford Dictionary of Pronunciation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2001.

PDAE: *A Pronouncing Dictionary of American English.* Springfield, Mass.: Merriam, 1944.

REFERENCES

Ichikawa, Yasuo, Takashi Kanazashi, Hiroko Saito, Takahiro Kokawa, and Kazuo Dohi. 1996. "An Analysis of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English,* Fifth Edition." *Lexicon* 26: 142–177.

Kenyon, J.S. 1951. *American Pronunciation,* 10th ed. Ann Arbor: George Wahr.

Takahashi, Kiyoshi, Keisuke Nakao, Nobuyuki Higashi, Takahiro Kokawa, Takehiko Makino, Hiroshi Shoji and Kyohei Nakamoto. 1992. "*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English,* Fourth Edition no bunseki." [An Analysis of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English,* Fourth Edition.] *Lexicon* 22: 59–200.

Takebayashi, Shigeru. 1978. Problems in Editing a Learner's English-Japanese Dictionary. In *The Teaching of English in Japan.* Tokyo: Eichosha Publishing Co.

Takebayashi, Shigeru. 1998. *LPD* and *EPD*15: A Comparative Review. *International Journal of Lexicography* 11: 125–136.

Weinreich, U. 1954. Is a structural dialectology possible? *Word,* 10, 388–400.

Wells, John C. 1982. *Accents of English.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Examples in *Macmillan English Dictionary*

Yukiko Ehara

This paper compares illustrative examples between *MED(US)* and *MED(UK)* and also between *MED* and three other English learners' dictionaries (*LDOCE*[3], *OALD*[6], and *CIDE*). Ten parts[1] are selected from every 150 pages of *MED(US)*, and the examples are compared in number, content, sexism, and collocation.

1.1. Comparison between *MED(US)* and *MED(UK)*

The examples in the 10 parts are classified into sentence examples and phrase examples,[2] and the numbers of the examples are counted in total, by type, and in terms of which occur in only one of the two editions. In this section, we determine if there is any difference in number and content between the two editions.

1.1.1. Number

The total number of examples in the 10 parts is 405 in *MED(US)* and 424 in *MED(UK)*. *MED(US)* has a higher percentage of sentence examples (US: UK = 70.9%: 68.6%), while more phrase examples appear in *MED(UK)* (US: UK = 29.1%: 31.4%). Thus the difference in number between the two editions is not significant in the 10 parts. Fifteen examples (sentence: 10, phrase: 5) are found only in *MED(US)* and seventeen (sentence: 12, phrase: 5) only in *MED(UK)*, suggesting that *MED(UK)* has slightly more unique examples than *MED(US)*.

1.1.2. Content

In *MED*, linguistic and cultural differences between the UK and US seem to be shown in two ways: by modifying some of the words or expressions in the examples and by adding new examples. Here, *MED(UK)* is examined as a standard for comparison.[3]

1.1.2.1. Partly modified examples

Two ways of modifying words or expressions can be seen in the examples: one is the addition or deletion of words or phrases, and the other is the replacement of words or phrases. The American and British editions also use different spellings.

Most of the replaced words are typical ones that indicate cultural differences between the UK and US. One such typical word pair is 'underground/subway' in the entry travel, and they are given the labels *BrE* and *AmE*, respectively.

> *MED(UK)*: *Travelling by underground is fast.*
> *MED(US)*: *Traveling by subway is fast.*

Other examples include 'football/soccer', 'holiday/vacation', 'tidy/neat', and so on.

We then examined whether such typical word pairs are exchanged systematically in other entries. For example, 'lift/elevator' were switched systematically in 10 out of 13 entries, while 'underground/subway' were changed in only 2 out of 12 entries. For instance, in the entries **convenient** and **dodger**, the word 'subway' is replaced with 'underground', while 'metro', 'train', 'rail', and 'railways' are substituted in the entries **size, rush (n.)** and **stand, access to, corresponding,** respectively (Table 1). This shows some typical word pairs are not necessarily applied to this systematic exchange and have other corresponding words.

Table 1   Correspondence of 'subway' in *MED(US)* to other words in *MED(UK)*

MED(US)	*MED(UK)*	Entry words
subway	underground	travel
	metro	size
	train	rush (n), stand
	rail	access to
	railways	corresponding

Other examples show cultural differences by changing or adding place names and content:

MED(UK):   *The menu changes daily, though the specialty is seafood.*
MED(US):   *Seafood gumbo soup is one of the specialties in New Orleans.*

MED(UK):   *a pilgrimage to the war cemeteries of northern France*
MED(US):   *a family pilgrimage from Washington to my father's hometown of West Chester*
MED(UK):   *The independent candidates are making waves in the election campaign.*
MED(US):   *The independent candidates are making waves in the presidential debate.*

Overall, the examples shown in this section suggest that the compilers chose culturally typical words and expressions for the examples. Both devices help the user understand cultural differences in the two countries. However, as mentioned above, the word 'subway', which is mainly used in the US, is changed to several corresponding words including 'underground', which is mainly used in the UK (Table 1). This shows, if examples are natural, systematic exchanges are not necessarily applied to these types of words in *MED*.

1.1.2.2.   Examples given in one edition

As mentioned in 6.1.1, 15 examples appear only in *MED(US)* and 17 only in *MED(UK)*. Among them, three examples in *MED(UK)* (*Europe(an)*, *Oxford, the West*)[4] and one example in *MED(US)* (an *NFL* trade) show the regional and cultural characteristics of the respective countries. 'Oxford', for instance, is used in 29 examples in *MED(UK)* but only 4 examples in *MED(US)*, indicating the regional and cultural preferences of the examples in each edition. In *MED(UK)*, the other four examples included *BrE* phrases such as 'no bother'[5], while most of the other examples in *MED(US)* (*a bear* **track**, *I bought this spaghetti sauce on* **special.**, etc.) convey little regional or cultural information.

In some entries, such as 'pack up', examples are given for each of the four definitions in *MED(UK)* compared with only one example (*) in the first definition in *MED(US)*. The reason is presumably that this expres-

sion is specifically used in the UK and examples are given to explain the usage more completely.

> **pack up:**
> **He simply packed up his belongings and moved out on Tuesday.* [UK][US]
> *The camera had packed up.* ⟨BrE informal⟩ [UK]
> *The workmen have already packed up and left.* ⟨informal⟩ [UK]
> *Do you think he's going to pack up this job, too?* ⟨BrE informal⟩ [UK]

In the entry 'wave', however, one example is given only in *MED(UK)* even though it is also an American expression.

> **wave:**
> *Officials have called the new plane the wave of the future.* ⟨AmE⟩ [UK]

1.2.   Comparison of *OALD*[6], *LDOCE*[3], and *CIDE* with *MED*
1.2.1.   Number

The total number of examples in the 10 parts was counted for five dictionaries: *MED(US)*, *MED(UK)*, *OALD*[6], *CIDE*, and *LDOCE*[3]. Cowie (1995) counted the number of phrase and sentence examples, suggesting that "sentence examples can come close to simulating active speech and writing, and can convey information more fully and explicitly" (p. 286) compared with phrase examples. He also suggested that the more sentence examples there are in learners' dictionaries, the more user-friendly the dictionaries will be. As shown in Fig. 1, sentences account for the majority

Figure 1   Sentence-phrase ratio in dictionary examples
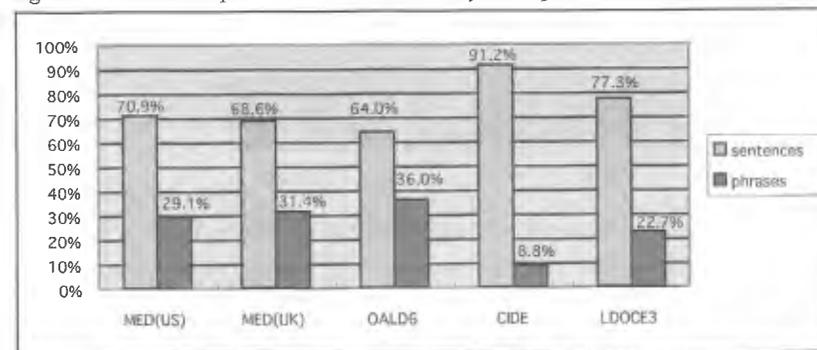
of the examples, suggesting that all of the dictionaries consciously have tried to be learner-friendly.

CIDE has the highest percentage of sentence examples (91.2%) among the five dictionaries, i.e., approximately 1.3 times as high as the other dictionaries, and *CIDE*'s ratio of sentence to phrase examples (91.2% vs. 8.8%) is strikingly high as well. Meanwhile, the percentage of phrase examples (36.0%) is highest in *OALD*[6]. Fig. 1 shows that the ratio between sentence and phrase examples in *MED* is on a par with the other dictionaries, excluding *CIDE*.

1.2.2. Sexism

We examined if there is any difference in the consciousness of sexism between *MED(US)* and *MED(UK)* and between the other three dictionaries and *MED*. Along the lines of Cowie (1995, p. 287), we counted the numbers of masculine and feminine subjects in the sentence examples from the selected 10 parts[1]. We were careful not to include nouns or pronouns that are coreferential with an earlier noun or pronoun in the same example. In the example "*He's so boring — his only topic of* **conversation** *is football.*", for instance, *his* is predictable from the subject *He*, so *his* is ignored.

Figure 2   Female-male ratio in dictionary examples
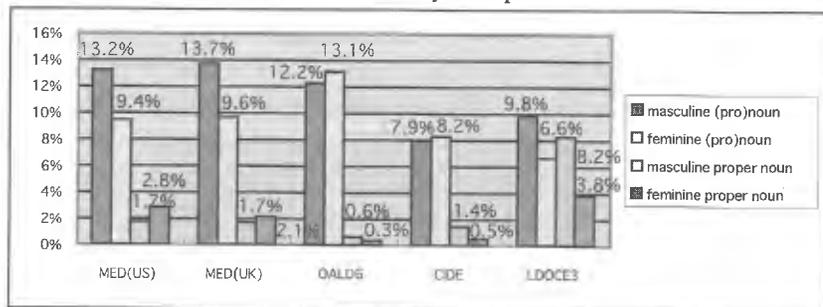
As shown in Fig. 2, the frequency of masculine (pro) nouns is higher than that of feminine (pro) nouns in both editions of *MED*, while femi-

nine proper nouns outnumber masculine ones. The difference is small between the two editions of *MED*, but *MED(UK)* tends to use more specifically masculine or feminine subjects in sentence examples. For instance, in an example for the entry **pilgrimage**, *MED(UK)* uses 'he' as the subject while *MED(US)* uses 'they'. This suggests that *MED(US)* has slightly more consciousness of sexism, at least in the 10 parts that we examined.

> *MED(UK)*: <u>He</u> *was on a pilgrimage to Tirupathi temple in south India.*
> *MED(US)*: <u>They</u> *wereon a pilgrimage to Tirupathi temple in south India.*

Compared with the other three dictionaries, *LDOCE*[3] has a higher frequency of masculine pronouns and proper nouns, while *OALD*[6] and *CIDE* have a higher frequency of feminine pronouns. As for the content of the examples, take '**make** coffee' as an example. The subjects of the examples are feminine in *MED* and *OALD*[6] and masculine in *CIDE*. *LDOCE*[3] uses 'I', seemingly to avoid using 'he' or 'she'. In this one example, at least, *CIDE* and *LDOCE*[3] show more consciousness of sexism than *MED* and *OALD*[6].

> *MED*: <u>Jane</u> *made coffee while the guests were finishing their dessert.*
> *CIDE*: <u>He</u> *made us some coffee.*/<u>He</u> *made some coffee for us.*
> *OALD*[6]: <u>She</u> *made coffee for us all.* <u>She</u> *made us all coffee.*
> *LDOCE*[3]: *Shall* <u>I</u> *make* <u>you</u> *a cup of coffee?*

This survey suggests that the frequency of masculine or feminine nouns does not always correlate with the consciousness of sexism in the examples of the five dictionaries. *CIDE* seems to be relatively more conscious of sexism both in number and content, and *MED* not so strongly conscious of sexism either in number or content, compared with *OALD*[6] and *CIDE*.

1.3. Collocations

As Hoey, chief editor of *MED*, wrote, "collocations and idioms are of the greatest importance to the language learner; one of the things that distinguishes an advanced learner's language from that of a native speaker is that advanced learners often manifest grammatical correctness but

collocational inappropriateness" (Hoey 2003). This suggests that collocation should be fully described in pedagogical dictionaries, including *MED*. This section compares the differences in expressing collocational information between *MED* and the other three dictionaries.

1.3.1. Presentation of collocation

In *MED*, collocations are shown in bold (**serious/disastrous/dire consequence** in Fig. 3) and followed by example sentences in italic (*Climate change could have disastrous consequences for farmers.*) Sometimes, in addition to the examples, there is a separate collocation box listing words which collocate frequently with the entry. The large amount of information about collocation in entries like this suggests that *MED* pays significant attention to collocation.

There are some examples that have strong collocation properties but are not shown in bold. In the entries for **checkered** in other dictionaries such as *LDOCE³* and *OALD⁶*, for instance, the phrase '**checkered** past' is treated as a collocation:

> [*MED(US)*] *He remains a popular figure despite his checkered past.*
> [*MED(UK)*] *Her chequered musical career is indeed the stuff of storybooks.*
> [*LDOCE³*] **have a checkered history/past/career etc**. *The company has had a pretty checkered history. I'd think carefully before investing.*
> [*OALD⁶*] **chequered 1** ~ **past/history/career** a person's past, etc. that contains both successful and not successful periods (definition + no example)

Other combinations of words which should have been given collocation status include *advertisement* **for**, *convenient* **for**, and **best** *endeavours*.

1.3.2. Presentation of colligation

In the entry **specify**, colligation information ([V + wh-words], [V + that]) is given less precisely in *MED* than in the other three dictionaries. One example is given (*To make a claim, you must specify the date when the article was lost.*), but there is no colligation information even though **specify** is treated as a core vocabulary item (☆☆). Such information is

treated as important in the other three dictionaries, and more in-depth information is needed in *MED*.

specify wh-
[*OALD⁶*] [V wh-] *The contract clearly specifies who can operate the machinery.*
[*CIDE*] *He would not specify which new evidence the police would be examining.* [+ **wh-word**]
[*LDOCE³*] **specify who/what/how etc** *Did you specify where the new work station has to go?*

specify that
[*OALD⁶*] [**V that**] *The regulations specify that calculators may not be used in the examination.*
[*CIDE*] *My contract specifies that I must give a month's notice if I leave my job.* [+ **that clause**]
[*LDOCE³*] **specify that** *The rules clearly specify that competitors must not accept payment.*

Overall, the collocational information given in *MED* is more similar to that in *OALD⁶* than to that in the other two dictionaries. More collocations as well as idioms are given in bold in *LDOCE³* than in *OALD⁶* and *MED*. *CIDE* gives more unique examples and fewer expressions that are similar to those in the other dictionaries.

1.4. Summary

We conclude that the compilers of *MED* tried to take into account regional and cultural differences between the UK and the US in the two regional editions. There is no significant difference in the number of examples between the two editions. *MED(US)* shows slightly more awareness of sexism, but sexism seems a less important issue for *MED* than for the other three dictionaries. No less attention is paid to giving collocational information in *MED* than in the other dictionaries.

NOTES

1) The following 10 parts (sequences of entries) in *MED(US)* were selected: (1) borrowing power — botox; (2) convenient — convert; (3) endanger — energy; (4) goblin — goggles; (5) irrelevance — ISO; (6) mobile-home — model²; (7) pilaf — pilot¹; (8) rib cage — rid-

den; (9) spearhead — specification; (10) tracing — trade[1]. Some examples introduced in this section are quoted from the other parts in the *MED*.

2) Cowie (1995) divided examples into four types — words, phrases, clauses, and sentences — and compared the examples between *ALD*[1] (1948) and *OALD*[4] (1989). Here the first three types are included in the 'phrase' type.

3) In her lecture given in Tokyo on 13 December 2002, G. Fox, *MED*'s Associate Editor, said that the two editions were edited at the same time and that the two teams of lexicographers divided up the dictionary-making and modified the examples for each dictionary.

4) The three examples given only in *MED*(*UK*) are the following: *Most European countries have signed up to the Geneva Convention.; a policy favouring the convergence of tax rates within Europe; the endowment of a Professorship at Oxford; the attitude of the West towards Islam.*

5) In the entry 'bother[2]', 5 examples are given only in *MED*(*UK*): *I didn't want the bother of carrying a camera around.; I'll get a taxi and save you the bother of taking me.; I hope George wasn't too much of a bother.; She'll get another job, no bother.; He's in a spot of bother with the police.*

REFERENCES

Akasu, K., et al. 1993. "The analysis of *Penguin English Student's Dictionary.*" *Lexicon.* No. 23, pp. 61–103.

Cowie, A.P. 1989. "The language of examples in English learners' dictionaries." In: James, Gregory, ed. *Lexicographers and Their Works.* Exeter Linguistic Studies. Vol. 14.

—— 1995. "The learner's dictionary in a changing cultural perspective." *Lexicographica,* Series maior 64, pp. 285–295.

Hoey M. 2003, "What's in a word?," in *MED Magazine* (webzine of the Macmillan English Dictionaries), August 2003 issue.

Lewis, M. 2000. "Teaching collocation: Further developments in the lexical approach." Language Teaching Publications, Hove, England.

Usage Notes of *Macmillan English Dictionary*

MIWA TOYOSHIMA

1. Introduction

The *Macmillan English Dictionary* (hereafter abbreviated as *MED*), which was published in 2002, shows originality in its intensive use of usage notes. This paper defines all the columns in red boxes as usage notes, and discusses how these usage notes are organized in this dictionary.

In *MED*, there are thirteen kinds of usage notes, according to the titles used in the CD-ROM (presented here in alphabetical order):

academic writing: given to the words concerning academic writing, such as *topic, example,* or *summary,* and shows some typical expressions.

avoiding offense: comments on politeness in order to avoid the problems of race, gender, age, and so on.

better words: advising on use of more minor words instead of common words like *bad* or *nice,* according to the situation.

collocation: the words which are often used with common words are given; the connection here is looser than in idioms.

cultural note: comments on cultures in America and Britain.

etymology: the origin and derivations of words are explained.

false friends Am/Br: the difference between AmE and BrE is shown.

functional note: given to the words relating to attitudes such as *agree* or *suggest,* and listing some expressions used to show those attitudes.

learner errors: comments on the points that learners have to keep in mind such as the subtle difference between synonyms.

metaphors: indicating the metaphors behind common words to help learners grasp the concepts of those words; example sentences

are also given.

semantic set: given to the words concerning daily life, such as *newspaper*, and listing the words related to them.

synonyms: nearly interchangeable words are shown with their nuances and example expressions.

usage note: mainly given to functional words and explaining how to use them.

The titles used in the CD-ROM are adopted in this analysis, as mentioned above, because of two reasons: some columns have no titles in the paper dictionary, and the titles in the CD-ROM are more compact. The corresponding titles in the CD-ROM and paper version are as follows:

academic writing: academic writing
avoiding offense: words that avoid giving offense
better words: words you can use instead of . . .
collocation: words often used with . . .
cultural note: (no title)
etymology: (no title)
false friends Am/Br: differences between American and British English
functional note: ways of . . .
learner errors: (no title)
metaphors: metaphors
semantic set: talking or writing about . . .
synonyms: other ways of saying . . .
usage note: (no title)

The boxes without titles seem to contain basic information about words, and they may be expected to be read as part of definitions; in fact, they are very short. In comparison, the boxes which have titles seem to give additional information to readers; these titles allow them to decide whether or not to read the contents of the box. Thus, it seems that the system of titles in the paper version has its own order.

However, it should be pointed out that there is an inconsistency here: the distinction between "semantic set" and "synonyms" is unclear. For example, while *advertising* has the column titled "synonyms" in the

CD-ROM, the same column is given the title "talking or writing about advertising" in the paper version, which usually corresponds to "semantic set" in the CD-ROM.[1]

2. Comparison between *MED-A* and *MED-B*

Attention was attracted when the American version of *MED* (*Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners of American English*, hereafter *MED-A*) and the British version of *MED* (*Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, hereafter *MED-B*) were published at the same time. It is, thus, worthy to compare the two versions here, though there seems to be no great difference between them concerning usage notes, setting aside a few conventional differences.[2] In both dictionaries, the number of columns is almost equal, as table 1 shows:

Table 1

	A	B
academic writing	15	15
avoiding offense	14	14
better words	8	8
collocation	447	449
cultural note	35	28
etymology	166	175
false friends Am/Br	28	28
functional note	12	12
learner errors	40	40
metaphors	40	40
semantic set	7	7
synonyms	41	41
usage note	38	42
total	891	899

Two differences are noted, though they are linguistically not so significant. First, while most columns are common to both dictionaries, some col-

umns are given only to one dictionary as in the next table[3]:

Table 2

	A&B	only A	only B
collocation	451	2	4
cultural note	41	13	6
etymology	151	15	24
usage note	38	0	4

Quite naturally, there is a tendency for the *MED-A* to contain more information about American culture and typical American usage of words, and vice versa for the *MED-B* to contain British ones.

Second, different content is found in some of the columns which are common to both dictionaries. In the column "collocation" of *accident*, for example, while the *MED-A* contains five adjectives ("bad, fatal, minor, serious, tragic"), the *MED-B* has seven ("bad, fatal, horrific, minor, nasty, serious, tragic"). This kind of distinction may be based on corpus research, and a survey of this topic can be developed into another study.

3. Comparison with Other Dictionaries

Most dictionaries contain boxes of their own design. In Dohi et al. (p. 41), Isozaki provides a table concerning the columns in four dictionaries as follows:

Table 3

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

Since *MED* has nearly nine hundred columns, it is obvious that *MED* consciously uses many boxes, compared with other dictionaries. Following the division in the table above, most of the *MED* columns are classified as "others": "academic writing", "better words", "collocation", "cultural note", "etymology", "functional note", "metaphors", and "semantic set". Although some of them can be included in the definitions of words, as pointed out above, for example, "cultural note" and "etymology", which are given no titles in the paper version, others are quite unique to *MED*. These unique columns are discussed individually in the next section.

4. Unique Usage Notes

The columns "academic writing", "better words", "collocation", "functional note", "metaphors", and "semantic set" can be divided into two groups for the analysis here. The first group contains "academic writing", "better words", "collocation", and "functional note", which show how to express concepts. "Functional note" is a general category, and gives a list of expressions for some universal concepts. "Better words" and "academic writing" similarly show the way to express some concepts, but they are limited to certain circumstances: the former gives a series of interchangeable words containing almost the same concepts, with situations for which each word will fit, and the latter shows how to express some concepts under specific circumstances of academic writing. "Collocation" shows the way to modify some concepts, listing the words which often occur with some common words. Although this kind of information could be given by example sentences, the way of word-listing is economical: it can save space and give the information in a comprehensive way. The notion "collocation" used here does not mean idioms or set phrases, and so advanced learners can easily understand the usage even without example sentences.

The second group contains "metaphors" and "semantic set", which are more culture-specific. "Semantic set" gives the information that is essential to everyday life, using some common words, such as *newspaper*, as a core word. It will be useful for learners to have such information. "Meta-

phors", which is one of the most unique columns in this dictionary, also aims to make learners familiar with the culture of English-speaking society. It is explained that the inspiration for this column was born from the book *Metaphors We Live By*; in it, Lakoff and Johnson emphasize that every culture has its own system of comprehending the world and that metaphor plays the central role in this system. Metaphor to them is "a means of structuring our conceptual system and the kinds of everyday activities we perform" (p. 145). Lakoff and Johnson also observe that "students of meaning and dictionary makers have not found it important to try to give a general account of how people understand normal concepts in terms of systematic metaphors" (p. 115). It is *MED* that has adopted this suggestion for the first time. The columns of "metaphors" display the culture of English language by showing how English-speaking people grasp the world through the use of metaphors. The "metaphors" column is expected to be effective in helping learners' usage of creative expressions.

It is stated at the beginning of the dictionary that *MED* has made an effort to help advanced learners develop a "productive vocabulary". The columns discussed here reflect their invention, one which is held in high regard.

5. CD-ROM

Lastly, the features of the CD-ROM concerning usage notes are briefly described here. In the CD-ROM, usage notes are displayed separately in a samll space at the right side of the window with compact titles. In comparison with the paper dictionary, usage notes are given a more independent position. Thus, although there is a risk that the basic information such as "cultural note" or "etymology" could be overlooked, a neater system is accomplished independently in the CD-ROM format.

6. Summary

In *MED*, usage notes are given important roles, since more information is distributed to columns than in other dictionaries, and new kinds of columns are invented such as "metaphors". It is a promising challenge to

include more of the cultural information behind languages in order to promote learners' productive and creative expressions. *MED* shows the possibility that each dictionary can exhibit great originality in some field.

NOTES

1)　The content of the column does not relate well to the title. In fact, some columns of "synonyms" do not seem to contain pure synonyms, which causes problems. For example, *book* has the column "synonyms", which contains "novel, textbook, manual, cookbook, guidebook, biography, etc.", and is given the title "talking or writing about book" in the paper version, which is usually given to "semantic set".

2)　A few rules are observed throughout the dictionary: to use their own nation's spelling (e.g. -er (AmE) vs. -re (BrE)), and to write about their own nation's convention first (e.g. in "false friends Am/Br").

3)　In some cases, the entries of words themselves appear only in one dictionary, and in other cases, the columns are added only in one dictionary even though both dictionaries have the entries.

REFERENCES

Lakoff, George, and Mark Johnson. 1980. *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago and London: Chicago UP.

Dohi, Kazuo, et al. 2002. "An Analysis of *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*." *Lexicon* No. 32: 1–96.

Illustrations in *Macmillan English Dictionary*

Yumi Shimizu

1. Introduction

Pictorial illustrations of lexical items in a dictionary can be a highly effective means of conveying the meanings of words to language learners, yet their use in the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (hereafter, *MED*), regrettably, does not live up to their potential.[1] It has been a prevailing tendency for learners' dictionaries to provide illustrations for their basic words, and this is true as well of *MED*, which gives its basic vocabulary attractive illustrations. A close examination of these, however, reveals many shortcomings.

This analysis will deal especially with problems that concern illustrations for the non-encyclopaedic entries. Before going into the subject, we shall examine what kind of illustration is found in this dictionary from the following points of view: 1. the UK and American editions compared; 2. the type of lexical entries with illustrations; 3. the printed and CD-ROM editions compared.

2. Illustrations in *MED* summarised
2.1. The UK and American editions compared.[2]

MED has its illustrations in the A-Z text and on the Colour Illustrations pages inserted in two places between the pages of the text. Counting the number of entries which have illustrations, no significant difference is found in the number of illustrations in the text between the two editions: 196 entries in the UK edition and 195 in the American edition. This slight difference in number results from the fact that the UK edition has an illustration for **peg**, while the American edition does not. Some change is found in the members in the composite illustrations: e.g., **bowl, bread, glass** and **scale**, and also in the pictorial designs: e.g., **bed, bowl, column, crack, knot, quarter** and **tunnel**. These changes, however, do not seem to reflect the difference between Britain and America or between British and American vocabulary, but are apparently due to editorial decisions.[3]

Illustrations in the Colour Illustrations in both editions deal with 14 themes in all: artificial objects and things involved in human activities such as **HOUSE, OFFICE** and **GAMES**, or natural objects like **TREES, VEGETABLES** and **ANIMALS**. They are mostly encyclopaedic in character.

Illustrations in the Colour Illustrations are much the same in both editions, but the linguistic information attached to them shows some careful differentiation between UK and American vocabulary. For example, the theme **MOTORWAY** in the UK edition is changed to **HIGHWAY** in the American edition. A fine distinction between UK and American vocabulary is also reflected in 'labels'[4] attached to the objects in the illustrations: e.g. **stove/cooker, waste bin/trash can** and **tea towel/dishtowel** at **KITCHEN**; **trousers/pants, waistcoat/vest** and **tights/pantyhose** at **CLOTHES**; **rubber/eraser, in tray/in box, mobile phone/cellphone** at **OFFICE**; and **windscreen/windshield, wing/fender, boot/trunk** and **handbrake/emergency brake** at **CAR**. There are also cases where the illustrations in one edition are quite different in the other. See, for instance, those at **CAR** and **MOTORWAY/HIGHWAY**, which reflect the road systems of both countries. At **HOUSE** a big house typical of the country is illustrated along with some other types of house, but the illustrations differ in kind and number in both editions.

The difference of usage in encyclopaedic vocabulary is presented not only in the Colour Illustrations but in those in the body of the text: e.g. **football/soccer ball** and **rugby ball/football** at **ball**; **chopping board/cutting board** at **board**; and **polo neck/turtleneck** at **neck**.

Apart from encyclopaedic entries, only one illustration in the text is shown at different words in the two editions. The same picture, in which a needle is bursting a balloon, is placed at **burst** in the UK edition but at

pop in the American edition.

2.2. The type of lexical entries with illustrations

MED prints frequently-used lexical entries in red, further dividing them into three frequency groups by adding one or more stars.[5] With this system as our guide, let us see what kind of lexical entries have an illustration in the text of the American edition.[6]

none	49
★	32
★★	43
★★★	71
total	195

Out of the 195 illustrated lexical entries, the number of those with one or more stars (★), i.e. the red entries, is 146, accounting for nearly 75 percent of the total. Out of these 146 entries, 96 words are included in the defining vocabulary. This fact shows that *MED* gives illustrations mostly to basic words.

Further, the 195 illustrated entries are classified according to their parts of speech as follows:

nouns	126
verbs	63
adjectives	6
total	195

Of the 6 adjectives, only **dizzy** and **symmetrical** have no star, and of the 63 verbs, only **dodge, drip, eavesdrop, juggle, prop, prune, scoop** and **wink** have none.[7] This means that the entries without any star are mostly nouns: cultural items like **bonsai, boomerang** and **gargoyle**, or such superordinate words as **fastener** and **stringed instrument,** which do not constitute a large group that requires treatment in the Colour Illustrations. In short, regardless of part of speech, illustrations in the text are mostly given to basic words, and the Colour Illustrations deal with encyclopaedic entries which constitute large groups.

Judging from what we have seen in this subsection, *MED* seems to

follow the recent trend of EFL dictionaries and use illustrations as part of the definition, not as mere appendages. But *MED*'s use of illustrations is limited to the three major parts of speech, and to content words only. On the other hand, illustrations in *LDOCE*, for example, cover adverbs and prepositions. *LDOCE* makes an ambitious attempt to visualise the meanings of words like **ago, above** and **enough**. Even for nouns, verbs and adjectives, *LDOCE* gives illustrations to highly abstract words such as **facet, absorb, hear,** and **back**, while *MED* does not. *LDOCE* also illustrates phrasal verbs far more often than *MED* does.[8] Compared to *LDOCE*, it is regrettable to say, *MED* does not make full use of illustrations.

2.3. The printed and CD-ROM editions compared

There are two major ways to refer to the illustrations in the CD-ROM edition. Let us quote from the Online Guide: 1. 'In the A to Z text view, if a dictionary entry has an illustration attached to it, the illustration is displayed in the right-hand panel of the window. Clicking expands the illustration and the object links become active.' 2. 'In the Illustrations view, *MED* displays the illustration in the main panel of the window. In the left panel, a list of Illustrations and their Objects is displayed.'

Either way, the user will be cross-referred from a lexical entry to its illustration, or from an illustration to its entry and the relevant description. While an illustration of a single object refers only to the definition of the corresponding word in the printed edition, in the CD-ROM edition it may be linked as well to other lexical entries that refer to one of the object's constituent parts. In other words, an illustration with an apparent single object will be able to function as a composite illustration.

One of the advantages of the CD-ROM edition is that not all identifying labels need be on the same plane, which helps to keep illustrations from getting complicated. If the user chooses a word that he or she wants to know about from among the list of Objects, the relevant part of the illustration on display is highlighted. This is something we could hardly wish for in the printed edition. Thus the usefulness of these illustrations could be greatly enhanced by expanding this list. The user may want to

know the name of a tool with 'a needle fitted to a plastic tube' when he or she sees the illustration at **inject**. Many users may want to know what 'an **elephant**'s long nose' is called and what its 'very long pointed [tooth]' is called, or more may wonder what a 'pocket on the front of [a **kangaroo**'s] body' is called. Also the colour of highlighting needs to be reconsidered. If colouring is expected to be an efficient identifying label, it should stand out more clearly against the background.

Still more unfortunate is the fact that many editorial mistakes are found in the CD-ROM edition. If you believe the illustration at **horn**, a **bull** is the head of 'an adult male of the cattle family' without its **horns**. Likewise, the illustration at **cup** will tell you that a **mug** has no handle. A 'small round flat dish' is called a **saucer** when it is under a **teacup**, but not when under a **coffee cup**. In the printed editions **wink**, **frown** and **blink** are grouped in the same illustration, helping to distinguish between the words, whereas in the CD-ROM edition the picture illustrating **frown** is left out of the illustration for no obvious reason, with no links being made among the three. In the American CD-ROM edition, placing the cursor at **mask** to activate the object misses its target. In the UK edition, the illustration for **egg** cannot be reached from the entry in the text.

3.   Illustrations and verbal support[9]
3.1.   Legends, identifying labels, and differentiating labels

OALD places each illustration right above the relevant entry across the full width of a column, which, even without any legend added to it, would enable the user to identify the entry for an illustration. *LDOCE*, which tends to place illustrations in a less systematic way, adds a legend to each illustration for easy reference.

MED, on the other hand, seems to have no systematic method of placing illustrations in the text. Some illustrations are found far away from the relevant definitions. Even when an illustration is placed just above or below the definition in question, it can sometimes happen that the illustration ends up on a different page from the headword. The problem is that in a case like this verbal support is not always provided in the illustration to show the user the lexical entry for which it is intended. See a few

examples from the American edition: **glass, hat** and **shape**. Legends, therefore, are indispensable to illustrations. There are some ambiguous illustrations for which it is difficult to find their corresponding entries. For example, at **rescue**, **sieve** and **spin**, which have the same form both for the noun and verb, the user may be at a loss about the part of speech the illustrations are intended for. Illustrations like these can be used for both parts of speech at the same time, and I think they should. When they are used to serve such a dual purpose, the intention must be expressly shown. On the other hand, the CD-ROM edition is so organized that these dual purpose illustrations are reached from one part of speech but not from the other. It is a pity that *MED* does not take full advantage of the CD-ROM format.[10]

As regards polysemous words, it is helpful when the illustration has some kind of indication as to which meaning of the entry it is intended for. This is true of all three dictionaries discussed here. Since several meanings have evolved from the original meaning of a word, the meanings of a word do not exist alone but in a continuum. A single illustration can be used to show the evolution, covering the original and derived meanings of a word. An illustration has the power to visualise a notion. For example, at words like **line** and **fork**, pictures showing several senses of the entry are successfully grouped in a single illustration. But words like **horn**, **crane** and **reach** ought to be accompanied by the sense number in question.

Presence or absence of a legend not only decides the ease of reference, but also causes a problem concerning definition. Especially in the case of the nouns which represent concrete objects, sporadic use of legends obscures the denotation of the lexical entry in question. By way of example, let us look at **hat** in *LDOCE*, which Stein mentions in her article. An object lacking a differentiating label will be readily recognized as a type of **hat** thanks to the legend **hats**, and at the same time all kinds of headgear exhibited here will be understood to be called hats as a whole. It means that this shows that a superordinate word can also be used as a prototype for its co-hyponyms. Moreover, in this case, the legend has a plural form, 'hats', which shows the word **hat** is a countable noun. So much information can be incorporated into a small element of a legend.

Unfortunately, however, *MED* does not show a coherent use of legends, as will be seen from the illustrations for the following words other than **hat: bag, bed, bell, board, bowl, bread, cake, chair, container, corner, cup, fastener, fire, game, glass, hairstyle, jewelry, knife, mask, nail, needle, pen, pin, pot, puppet, scale, shape, shell, shoe, spoon, stick** and **tool.**

Lines and red colour are also utilised to serve part of the functions of identifying labels, but in some illustrations in *MED* these are not fully utilised. *MED* appears to regard red colour merely as a useful means to make illustrations stand out. For example **angel** is a case in which red colour does nothing but contribute to the complication of the illustration. Red colour should be more fully used as a means to identify the highlighted part. To give an example, in the illustration at **dodge**, one of the two participants, the agent, needs to be highlighted by using the colour.[11]

3.2. Captions

As mentioned above, *LDOCE* makes a positive use of illustrations for function words and highly abstract words, and it is the caption that makes it possible. In *MED* out of the 195 illustrations, only one caption is used, i.e. at **fit**. A caption combines a notion and a lexical entry; in other words, it not only serves as part of the definition but also gives information about *how* the lexical entry is used.[12] Illustrations have a far stronger power than letters in attracting the attention of the user instantaneously. If an illustration has an illustrative sentence in it to tell the user how to use the word, the sentence, the caption, will exert a powerful effect. Even if the text has a sentence synonymous with the illustrative one in the illustration, the sentence will be the most effectively placed in the position where the user easily recognises it as the description of the illustration. The following is a list of the entries with those illustrations which would be twice as effective with added captions as they are now: **bite, dent, dizzy, dodge, duck, eavesdrop, fire, insert, knot, needle, open, patch, peak, pour, press, reach, rescue, scoop, scratch, shake, sharp, shell, shiver, shrug, sit, slip, spill, spin, stick, symmetrical, wink, wrap,** and **yawn.**

Although the process of dictionary-making has been said to be an

eternal struggle for space, adding captions to illustrations would be very effective. If the illustrations as at **prop** and **bounce** in the American edition and at **cake** in the UK edition, which occupy far too much space, are to be reduced to a more reasonable size, enough space for captions will be easily secured.

4.   Conclusion

Illustrations, which directly appeal to the learner's perception or experiences, are an ideal tool for vocabulary building for the learner. It is written in p. iv that in editing the dictionary they have consulted 'a corpus of common errors made by learners of English', and the results are reflected in the illustrations. Contrastive illustrations which intend to show the proper use of synonyms and synonymous expressions may be devised based on EFL corpora; see, for example, **close/fasten/lock, bend/bow/ bend down/hunch, carry/lift/pick up, draw/sketch/trace/copy, be dressed in/be wearing/get dressed/put on,** and **spiky/jagged/pointed/ sharp/serrated/blunt/prickly.**

As has been mentioned in 2.2., since *MED* gives most of its illustrations to basic words and provides illustrations concerning the senses and usage of basic words, *MED* does not seem to regard them as a mere appendage. So to make illustrations more effective and well interlinked with the text, we would suggest that *MED* should enrich legends, identifying/differentiating labels and captions, reconsider the effective use of red colour, and make a coherent use of these throughout the illustrations.

Lastly we would like to make two more requests as regards the Colour Illustrations. At **VEGETABLES**, **FRUIT** and **ANIMALS**, instead of listing items at random, *MED* should consider adopting the subdivision system as *OALD* and *LDOCE* do. What kind of entries constitute a group is itself a useful piece of linguistic information. Secondly, at **ANIMALS** each member should be drawn to scale. We would not want to live in a world where we would have a **wasp** larger than a **squirrel**.

NOTES

1) By illustrations are meant pictorial ones only. *MED* does not use tables or diagrams

such as those analysed in Ilson (1985). Incidentally, G. Fox, Associate Editor, visited Japan and gave a lecure on 13 December, 2002. She said in this lecture something to the effect that she was not the least interested in illustrations.

2) In this analysis, when examples are shown on either side of a slash, an example from the UK edition is placed on the left and its American counterpart on the right.

3) On closer examination the UK edition shows some refinement in the illustrations. On the whole the UK edition is superior in the following points: the use of red tint at **knot** and **column**, the subtle difference of arrangement of the quarters of an apple at **quarter**, an addition of a line at **tunnel**.

4) In this article 'verbal support' added to illustrations is divided into four categories according to Stein (1991): (1) 'legends': verbal elements which assign the illustration its place within the (alphabetical) macrostructure of the dictionary and which single out that part in the illustration which it is supposed to represent (p. 107); (2) 'identifying labels': inserted words with lines drawn to help dictionary users to identify what the pictures are meant to illustrate (p. 113); (3) 'differentiating labels': words which differentiate the different objects and actions illustrated to delimit their respective meanings (pp. 116–7); (4) 'captions': (very often) full sentences which actualise the lexical item in question and guide the interpretation of pictorial illustrations (pp. 123–4).

5) *MED* has no red entries without any stars added.

6) Like those at **rescue** and **glass (ware)**, which will be discussed below, there are some illustrations which, in the absence of appropriate legends, may seem to be stranded. In this case the CD-ROM edition is used for identification, where each illustration is linked to its entry. Composite illustrations, i.e. illustrations which are made up of a group of pictures, are counted, not by counting all members of each group, but by counting entries to which the composite illustrations belong in the printed edition. For phrasal verbs, the number of verbs is counted.

7) As for **wink**, in the same illustration there are pictures for **frown** and **blink**, which are words with ★★ and with ★, respectively.

8) Since there is a large difference in the total number of illustrations between these two dictionaries, no comparison will be attempted here by giving the exact numbers. According to the counting made the same way as in note 6, *LDOCE* has 335 illustrations. For further detail see Shimizu, A. *et al.* (1989), p. 230.

9) Cf. note 4.

10) Incidentally, when the illustration is used for a homographic entry, not only the intended entry word should be given in the legend, but also its small number.

11) Furthermore, this illustration needlessly occupies too much space. And there is another problem: from the way the participants are drawn in the illustration, it is not quite certain whether they are two or four.

12) In this respect the caption in *MED* 'Bob's clothes don't fit.' is far from what it should be. There is some ambiguity in the illustration: the user is not sure whether the boy is Bob or somebody else.

REFERENCES

Ilson, Robert, 1985, 'Illustrations in Dictionaries', A. Cowie, *The Dictionary and the Language Learner.*

Nakao, Keisuke, 1985, 'Illustrations in English-Japanese Dictionaries', Kurosawa Mitsuo *Illustrations in English-Japanese Dictionaries.*

Nakao, Keisuke, 1986, 'VIII Illustrations' in Nobuyuki Higashi *et al.*, 'A Comparative Analysis of the Two Dictionaries of American English — *LDAE* and *OSDAE*', *Lexicon*, No. 15.

Asao, Kojiro, 1989, 'V Illustrations' in Atsuko Shimizu *et al.*, 'Analysis of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, New Edition, 1', *Lexicon*, No. 18.

Stein, Gabriele, 1991, 'Illustrations in Dictionaries', *International Journal of Lexicography*, Vol. 4, No. 2, OUP.

Nakamoto, Kyohei, 1991, 'IX Illustrations, Appendix' in Kazuo Dohi *et al.*, 'Analysis of *The Random House Dictionary*, Second Edition', *Lexicon*, No. 21.

Svensen, Bo, 1993, *Practical Lexicography*, OUP.

会 員 研 究 業 績

（2004 年 1 月～12 月，アイウエオ順）

石井康毅．「不変化詞(前置詞・副詞)によるメタファー表現の考察―――子供のコーパスに基づく認知言語学的視点からの考察―――」『言語情報学研究報告』3．東京外国語大学大学院地域文化研究科 21 世紀 COE プログラム「言語運用を基盤とする言語情報学拠点」．

Inoue, Nagayuki（井上永幸）．"English Corpora under Japanese Eyes." *Series: Language and Computers ― Studies in Practical Linguistics* 51．（編集委員）Amsterdam/New York: Rodopi.

―――．「〈特集: コーパス言語学の現在〉辞書とコーパス」『英語青年』第 149 巻　第 11 号．研究社．

Ueda, Hiroto（上田博人）．"Methods of 'hand-made' corpus linguistics: A bilingual database and the programming of analyzers." *Linsguistic Informatics* III. The First International Conference on Linguistic Informatics. ― State of the Art and the Future, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies.

―――．『クラウン和西辞典』（共編）三省堂．

―――．「研究ノート: 第二外国語としてのスペイン語教育における小テストと課題」『スペイン語学研究』．

―――．「日本語とスペイン語の使役構文における格形式」『スペイン語学論集―――寺崎英樹教授退官記念』くろしお出版．

Ushie, Yukiko（牛江ゆき子）．"Impersonal *You* and the Construction and Organization of Mental Spaces in Discourse." *Linguistic Research*, No. 20.　東京大学英語学研究会．

―――．「*The Catcher in the Rye* における代名詞 you の用法について」『お茶の水女子大学人文科学紀要』第 57 巻．

―――．「定冠詞と不定冠詞の表出的機能について」『英語青年』第 150 巻　第 3 号．研究社．

馬本　勉．『英語教科書の歴史的研究』（小篠敏明・江利川春雄編著．第 4 章 英語教科書の量的分析(1. 英語教科書の量的分析; 3. Barnes, A.S., Barnes' *New National Readers*; 8. 竹原常太, *The Standard English Readers*)，第 5 章 英語教科書の量的比較(1. 語彙の比較)を担当）．辞游社．

浦田和幸．「ファウラーの伝統―――*Modern English Usage* をめぐって」『語学研究所論集』第 9 号．　東京外国語大学語学研究所．

―――．「最初の英英辞書: Robert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabeticall*（1604）―――400 年記念に寄せて」『東京外国語大学論集』第 69 号．

―――．「英語観の変遷」『英語青年』第 149 巻　第 11 号．研究社．

―――．「辞書編集とインターネット―――「when 定義」のことなど」（東信行氏と共同執筆）『英語青年』第 150 巻　第 10 号．

Ogura, Mieko（小倉美恵子）．"Dynamic Dialectology and Complex Adaptive System." *Methods and Data in English Historical Dialectology* ed. by Marina Dossena & Roger Lass. Bern: Peter Lang.

落合陽子．「翻訳の役割―――幕末期における軍事技術の受容・伝播と村田蔵六―――」『言語文化研究』第 3 号．聖徳大学大学院言語文化学会．

岸　　曉．『英語語義語源辞典』（小島義郎氏らと共編）三省堂．

―――．「学習英英辞典の定義―――形容詞の伝統的定義と文定義は使用者にどう受け取られるか―――」『英語辞書の世界』作品としての辞書研究会．

Kozawa, Etsuo（小沢 悦夫）．"Deleted Truth: An exercise in a Linguistic Analysis of Political Discourse."『文化論集』第 25 号．

小島義郎．『英語語義語源辞典』（編者）三省堂．

小室夕里．「マクミラン英英辞典 CD-ROM 版の活用法―――場面別に会話表現を検索する―――」『英語辞書の世界』作品としての辞書研究会．

高野嘉明．『英語語義語源辞典』（小島義郎氏らと共編）三省堂．

―――．『英語辞書の世界』（増田秀夫氏らと共編）作品としての辞書研究会．

―――．「ESL 辞書の語法レーベルの種類と問題点」『英語辞書の世界』作品としての辞書研究会．

高橋留美．『世界のことば・出会いの表現辞典』（石井米雄・千野栄一編．項目執筆）三省堂．

早川　勇．『ウェブスター辞書の系譜』辞游社．

―――．「日本語と英語の接触点―――翻訳借用語を中心に―――」『文学論叢』第 130 号．愛知大学文学会．

―――．「ウェブスター辞書の収録語彙数」『言語と文化』第 10 号．愛知大学語学教育研究室．

―――．「海を越えた日本語の履歴(1)」『言語と文化』第 11 号．

永井一彦.『日本語から引く「食」ことば英語辞典』(共著) 小学館.

中本恭平.「和英辞典と『日本化された英語』」『英語辞書の世界』作品としての
　辞書研究会編.

Nasu, Norio (那須紀夫). "Defending A-Movement."『神戸外大論叢』第 54 巻
　第 4 号.

―――. "Complement Movement and Reconstruction." *Proceedings of the Western
　Conference on Linguistics* 15.

南條健助.『英語音声学活用辞典』(項目執筆) 日本英語音声学会.

西原哲雄.「最近の学習英和辞典における発音記号について」『東北英語教育学
　会研究紀要』第 24 号.

Hashimoto, Kunihiko (橋本邦彦). "Metarepresentational Motivation: The Gram-
　maticalization of the Verb of Saying 'ge-' in Mongolian." *Tsukuba English
　Studies,* Vol. 22.

―――.「モンゴル語のコピュラ構文の意味の類型」『室蘭工業大学紀要』第 54
　号.

人見憲司.『英語語義語源辞典』(編集委員) 三省堂.

―――.「コンピューター・ベースの英和・和英辞典の開発」『英語辞書の世界』
　作品としての辞書研究会.

―――.「自然言語処理と英語教育の接点」東洋大学紀要『言語と文化』第 4 号.

福島　治.『ダンテ神曲原典読解語源辞典』(*An Etymological Dictionary for Read-
　ing Dante's Divine Comedy*) 第 2 巻 煉獄.　春風社.

牧　晋也.「センター試験対策問題集にみる文強勢問題の問題点」*ELTAT* (東
　京都高等学校英語教育研究会) 第 49 号.

増田秀夫.『英語語義語源辞典』(小島義郎氏らと共編) 三省堂.

―――.『英語辞書の世界』(高野嘉明氏らと共編) 作品としての辞書研究会.

―――.「学習辞書の用例について」『英語辞書の世界』作品としての辞書研究会.

Murakami, Madoka (村上まどか). "The Importance of Extra Elements in Old
　English." *English Linguistics* Vol. 21, No. 1.

村田　年.書評:『英語語彙の指導マニュアル』(望月正道・相澤一美・投野由
　紀夫著)『英語教育』第 52 巻　第 11 号.　大修館書店.

―――.『JACET8000 活用事例集』(編集委員) 大学英語教育学会.

―――.「語彙指導の必要性と指導例」『JACET8000 活用事例集』大学英語教育
　学会.

―――.『電子辞書活用ハンドブック』(監修) カシオ計算機株式会社.

Ryu, Miyako (龍美也子). "The Word Order of 'Genitive Noun Phrase + Verb +
　(Indefinite) Numeral' in the Old English Orosius."『言語情報科学』第 2 号.

―――.「数量詞連結(遊離)構文の日英比較――英語史研究がもたらす視点」日本
　認知言語学会論文集　第 4 巻.

Watanabe, Tsutomu (渡辺勉).「翻訳指導への言語理論の応用――依存文法か
　らの提案」『日本語・日本文化を核とした異文化接触ならびに交流に関する対
　照研究』.　拓殖大学言語文化研究所.

―――. "On Teaching Levels of Stress or Accent in English"『拓殖大学　語学研
　究』No. 107.　拓殖大学言語文化研究所.

投　稿　規　定

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

論文審査委員

編集後記

　今年は例年になく若い人たちの大学の専任教師の就職が「好況」であった．大学教師の就職が冬の時代と言われるときに大変喜ばしいことである．いずれも日ごろからよく勉強して業績を挙げている人たちであるが，特に研究会の Newsletter の編集やいろいろな行事の裏方を勤めるなど，会のために貢献している会員が目立つ．いつの間にか研究会の中で名前(あるいは顔)が売れたのであろう．岩崎研究会は創立以来次第に会員間のネットワークが発達し，これを通じて就職に漕ぎつけたケースがかなりある．

　反面悲しいこともあった．『ライトハウス英和』や『ルミナス英和』で非常にいい仕事をされてきた島津千恵子君が 33 歳の若さで亡くなった．痛恨の極みである．島津君は教師よりも辞書の仕事が好きだったようで，我々も彼女に期待するところが大で辞書作成上の大きな痛手となった．

　また新年早々研究社の前々社長の長井四郎氏の急逝も悲しいことであった．若い会員(というより数人の老年の会員以外)は長井さんを知るまい．もう 40 年以上も前の話である．岩崎先生の喜寿をお祝いして門下生たちが初級辞典を献上しようということになった．中学生向けの 1 万語くらいの辞書ということで研究社も承知したのであるが，執筆者が熱心のあまり 3 万語程度に膨れ上りそうになった．しかし辞書部長の植田虎雄さんはうんと言わない．当時ベストセラーであった『英和中辞典』がある上に 30 代の若造たちが作る高校生向けの英和辞典が売れるはずがないと考えるのは至極当然であろう．そこを長井さんは部長を熱心に説得してとうとう実現させたのが『ライトハウス英和』の前身の『ユニオン英和』である．いっぽう我々はこの辞書の印税の一部を岩崎研究会に回して機関誌を刊行することを計画していた．それがこの *Lexicon* である．つまり長井さんは *Lexicon* の産みの親でもあり恩人でもある．

　心からおふたりのご冥福を祈りたい．
<div align="right">（S. T.）</div>