

Historical Development of English-Japanese
Dictionaries in Japan (8): *Shin Eiwa Dai Jiten*
(*Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary*
on Bilingual Principles, 1927)

by Yoshisaburo Okakura, General Editor

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1. Introduction

The present installment deals with one of the mainstream dictionaries, *Shin Eiwa Dai Jiten* (*Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary on Bilingual Principles*) (1927) (hereafter abbreviated to *SEDJ*),¹⁾ which has been revised and enlarged several times (1936, 1953, 1960, 1980, 2002) with the exception of the editions with vocabulary addenda (see 3.2). It was issued as the first English-Japanese dictionary by Kenkyusha, one of the leading dictionary publishing companies in Japan (see 3.3).

Unlike *Jukugo Hon'i Eiwa Chu Jiten* (*Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1915) (*JECJ*) which was full of grammar terms and description and unnumbered examples and its revised and enlarged concise dictionary *Keitai Eiwa Jiten* (*Saito's Vade Mecum English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1922) (*KEJ*), and unlike *Inouye Eiwa Dai Jiten* (*Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1915) (*IEDJ*), forerunner or trailblazing dictionary of the English language and culture, *SEDJ* was the first dictionary compiled by a team of scholars or teachers of English with Yoshisaburo Okakura as general editor. It is also different from *Mohan Eiwa Jiten* (*Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1911) (*MoEJ*), in which a large

number of professionals worked on the translation of technical terms.²⁾ Since the beginning of the Showa era (1926–89), few dictionaries have been compiled by only one editor or scholar.

Professor Okakura is said to have been one of the three leading figures in English education, especially in the field of phonetics and methods of teaching, in the early days in the 20th century (Takanashi 1996: 149). He studied philology, Japanese and Korean languages, and literature as well. He was not only a scholar and teacher of English but also interested in classical languages such as Latin and Greek, publishing papers and books on Japanese language. He was the first teacher of English who took an active role in an English language program on the radio of NHK (Nippon Hoso Kyokai) in Japan. Publishing several books on English education and English phonetics, he edited English textbooks (see 3.1).

SEDJ is strongly influenced by its contemporary English dictionaries issued by Clarendon Press, Oxford: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (1911) (*COD*) and *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (1924) (*POD*). Dohi et al. (2001) made it clear that *IEDJ* is enormously influenced by *COD*. This makes us realize that *SEDJ* is not the first that is dependent on *COD*. It also owes to *COD*'s nominally abridged dictionary, *POD*, the selection of entries and examples, the description of senses with English synonyms shown in parentheses, the description of related words and cultural information. This means that *SEDJ* primarily aims to be lexical because of the considerable influence of the Oxford dictionaries. It is also encyclopedic in that it includes technical terms and so forth.

The phrase "on bilingual principles" is closely related to the description of subtle shades of meanings in English, because Okakura claims in the Editorial principle (pp. v–vi) that the presentation of meanings in translation equivalents in bilingual dictionaries makes it confusing and difficult for users to grasp words' senses and distinguish synonymous expressions. Over 40 years before, an attempt had been made to show translation equivalents along with definition in English in Ichiro Tanahashi's *Eiwa Sokai Jiten* (*An English and Japanese Dictionary of the English Language*) (1885) (*ESJ*). For Okakura, translation equivalents in a dictionary were

considered to be of vital importance for correct decoding, on which he writes that full attention is required to provide accurate and suitable translations and that synonyms make users aware of fine shades or differences of meanings. He recommends that, in a dictionary for middle school pupils, it is desirable to give not only translation equivalents but also plain English to show synonymous senses (1937: 156).

SEDJ should be dealt with here as the first mainstream dictionary that includes etymological information.³⁾ What is the reason for including etymological explanation in the dictionary because it is not necessarily directly related to decoding contemporary English? It could be that, for memorization of English words or for vocabulary building, etymology was considered to be practically useful for Japanese learners (see Section 10).

All the fascicles of the impressive *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* were still not available while *SEDJ* was being compiled. The compiling work began around 1924, and according to the publisher's preface (p. iv), it took them approximately three years to complete the work. It should come as no surprise to suppose that it was next to impossible to condense the *OED* into a compact one-volume dictionary. In this respect, it was quite reasonable and understandable to make good use of the concise and pocket dictionaries for description in a bilingual dictionary. It should also be remembered that no concise and lexically abundant and instructive dictionary, such as *COD* and *POD*, was issued across the Atlantic.

This is not the first article wherein *SEDJ* is surveyed, but it is the first one that includes a comprehensive analysis (and/or comparison with others) of the microstructure: entries, pronunciation, sense description, illustrated phrases and example sentences, grammar and usage, etymology description, and miscellany (cf. Nagashima 1970). No pictorial illustration is given, just like *COD* and *POD*.⁴⁾ Also briefly mentioned are the historical background of before and when *SEDJ* was issued, of the general editor himself, and of the publishing company Kenkyusha.

2. Background¹⁾

Japan: An Illustrated Encyclopedia writes:

"Stimulated by the Russo-Japanese War and World War I, capitalism developed rapidly in Japan. The Russian Revolution and worldwide demands for democracy exerted an influence on Japanese politics and education. In 1917 the government created the RINJI KYOIKU KAIGI [Extraordinary Council on Education]. Before it was abolished in 1919, the council issued several reports that formed the basis for the expansion of the education system over the next decade or so. The influence of the council was most important in the area of higher education. Until 1918 universities had been limited to the imperial universities, but the reforms contained in the University Order of 1918 extended recognition to colleges and private universities. In accordance with this order, many national, public, and private *semmon gakko* [professional schools] were raised to the status of university" (1993: 325).

"The committee recommended a seven-year higher education system and a government policy to approve establishment of . . . universities . . . It set up a system whereby the government would fund compulsory education and also called for a strong emphasis on 'moral education.' The council thus set the course for educational policy up to World War II" (1993: 1267).

Five-year old system middle schools, under the Education Order (1872), offered secondary education, mainly to males, who prepared for four-year old system high schools. Those who finished the fourth year in middle schools were qualified to apply for them under the 1918 Koto Gakko rei [High School Order] and had to pass an arduous examination because of the limited number of high schools. In middle and high schools, foreign languages (English, French and German) dominated the curricula. The fourth revised rules in 1919 of the Chu Gakko rei [Middle School Order] reduced language classes, but they approximated to the number of Japanese and classical Chinese classes, which was strikingly similar in high schools.

Three topics in terms of English education should be mentioned here: first, students' increasing orientation toward higher education for academic careers or social success brought fierce competition among them, for whom were published a host of reference books for entrance examinations; second, three English teachers' conferences for discussion because

of an increasing number of pupils and the resulting students' lower level of English as well as for improving teaching methods; and, third, heated controversies in the 1910s and 1920s over whether or not English language teaching should be eliminated from school curricula.

The educational background in the later years of the Meiji era, in which Japan's modernization made it possible to teach school subjects in Japanese, not necessarily in English, caused pupils to lose interest in studying the language, and to think of it as a means for passing exams because increasing numbers of pupils eager for higher education made it more difficult to pass them. Under these circumstances, at the beginning of the twentieth century, reference books began to be issued for English exams. The first is said to have been *Nammon Bunrui Eibun Shokai (A Choice Selection of Words, Phrases, and Constructions)* (1903) by Tsunetaro Nan'nichi, which was revised, reprinted, and issued even after the Second World War in the Showa era (Kawasumi 1978: 42). Its preface by Baron Kanda, editor in chief of *MoEJ*, says, "The book is a collection of idiomatic passages from standard authors, and contains quite a few extracts that might *serve as test sentences at examinations* . . . To students of English, for whom the book is compiled, it is a regular treasury of choice *selections for translation and grammar exercises* . . ." (the present writer's emphasis added). Consisting of way over a thousand short sentences and passages with idiomatic or special phrases used and maxim-like contents included or implied, the sources come from entrance exams, English readers, and works like Samuel Smile's *Self-Help* (1859) that were often used as textbooks at the beginning of the Meiji era. (Smile's work is said to have been regarded as the bible for the youth in those days.) There appeared in 1916 a magazine *Juken Eigo* [English for examinations], and a few similar titled ones around that time. Nan'nichi's and other references (mainly translation-oriented books of the English into Japanese, and the Japanese into English types) were favorably received in spite of harsh criticisms against them. It was urgently necessary to make clear what language teaching was for.

In the late Meiji era there took place several summer schools of the Educational Department to improve the middle school teachers' quality

and to introduce teaching methods. In the early days of the Taisho period (1912–26), three English teachers' conferences were held. The first was held in 1913 in Kyoto, the second in 1914 in Tokyo, and the third in 1916 in Osaka. 370 teachers attended the Kyoto conference, among whom 280 were from middle schools (Sakurai 1936: 224). The objectives were (1) to afford an opportunity for the teachers of English and those having supervision of the teaching of English to discuss freely among themselves certain topics closely related to the profession of language teaching; (2) to afford such men an opportunity of hearing eminent teachers of English expound their opinions on such topics; (3) to arouse a deeper interest in the profession through association for a few days with many teachers throughout the land; and (4) to develop friendships among men engaged in the same work. The main theme was "How can the cooperation of foreign and Japanese teachers be made most efficient for the teaching of English in middle school?" (Omura et al. Second volume 1980: 700). The Tokyo conference focused on "How to arouse a deeper interest in the study of English on the part of pupils," a question presented for discussion by the Department of Education (*English Teachers' Magazine* Vol. 7, No. 3: 5). The third's topic put forward by the Department was "How to make the study of English contribute more efficiently to the moral training of the pupils" (*English Teachers' Magazine* Vol. 9, No. 4: 35). English teachers became acutely aware that they should get united in solving a number of problems in language teaching.

It should be noted, in connection with Section 10 below, that, among the several suggestions as a reply in the second conference, particularly intriguing is the statement related with etymology: one of the suggestions regarding classroom work was "Etymological analysis of words should be taught" in middle schools (Sakurai 1936: 224–26). Among the suggestions made in the third conference were that English teachers should be well versed with English literature and promote ideal morals of the British, and that they should thoroughly teach pupils morals through selected materials (Sakurai 1936: 226–27). The U.K. was changing at that time, when the capitalist country faced a lot of social problems, but the ideal moral was sought in English literature in the Victorian age before the 1870s when the

U.K. was prosperous and flourishing. After the third conference, no same conference was held, and replaced by the Annual Conference of Members of the Institute for Research in English Teaching, first held in 1924.

SEDJ was issued exactly when there happened to be the second controversy in the Taisho period whether English education in Japan should remain as it was or be abandoned. It was not, however, the first time such a dispute broke out. The middle of the Meiji era saw an upwelling of nationalist movement against Westernization, on which Kanzo Uchimura is quoted as writing in 1927, "From about 1890 on, originating from an unknown source, the idea became current in our country that Japan should learn everything from Germany in preference to England and America, especially the latter. It was generally believed that Germany being an *empire* was a safe guide for Japan with a similar political organization, but that America having a *republican* form of government was a dangerous example to follow for *Imperial* Japan . . . If Japan had had at that time men of vision who could point out to people that Germany was not the only country from which we could learn, and that England and America also had much to teach us, . . . the Japanese would be better off today than they actually are" (Takanashi and Omura 1975: 185).

The first controversy started in 1916 when Japan became nationalistic after fighting against great powers such as China and Russia. Ikuzo Ohoka, former chairman of the House of Representatives and once minister of education, in the cause of education in an independent country of Japan, stated in that year in the magazine *Kyoiku Jiron* (*The Educational Review*) that compulsory foreign language teaching should be abandoned in middle school curricula. His statement was that there is no reason why a foreign language or English should be taught as a required subject in an independent nation, because it had caused pupils to highly praise the U.K. Abandoning foreign languages from curricula would bring more benefit than harm: one reason is that pupils would have less trouble studying the language than they do; another is that educational expenses could be greatly reduced; the other is that plenty of time for English would be more effectively replaced by other subjects. He even suggested the establishment of a national translation department or office to easily convey new

thought and ideas in Western countries. With opinions for and against his view expressed, the movement on "Abandon the English Language Teaching" faded away before long.

Several years later anti-American feelings ran high when in 1924 the U.S.A. denied admission as permanent immigrants to all people from abroad ineligible for citizenship, and deprived Japan of an immigration quota. It happened just after the devastating Kanto Earthquake (1923), which led to the destruction of order in the capital region. Along with the U.S.A. immigration policy, there were emotionally strong voices that English (language teaching) should be abandoned.

In 1927 a renewed overheated controversy started with the sensational article by Tsukuru Fujimura, professor and Doctor of Japanese literature at Tokyo Imperial University. In the magazine *Gendai* [Today] under the title "Eigo-ka Haishi no Kyumu [Urgent Necessity to Abandon English]" he stated that English should be eliminated from middle school curricula, and urged the establishment of a translation office. For half a year after his article was publicized, well over 1,600 people of all ranks sent letters for and against his view (Kawasumi 1978: 242). The main arguments against English education could be summarized as follows: in middle schools, too much time and effort is spent on English with little desired result achieved; pupils could now study subjects in Japanese; English cannot be regarded as absolutely essential because most of them work in the society without using the language; those against Fujimura's point of view require teachers to give moral ideals; pupils only study English so as not to fail the subject at school, or in order to pass the examination for higher schools; the English education as it is causes them serious trouble; they should not be required to study the language but opt for it (Kawasumi 1978: 243-46). The idea weakened that English is a must, or English has its practical value, as a means of familiarity with Western culture and thought. It should be made clear what is the educational value of English. The movement of abandonment of English from curricula certainly did not end up being completely successful, but it was a partial success because the number of English classes was reduced in a few years. (Section 2 by Dohi)

3. The Editor, the Dictionary and the Publisher

3.1. The editor, Yoshisaburo Okakura

Yoshisaburo Okakura is one of the most prominent figures in the history of English education in Japan. Okakura is well-known for his versatility as a language teacher, a linguist, a phonetician, an editor, an essayist, a translator, and as an interpreter of Japanese culture for the Western world. He wrote books and papers on a variety of topics, ranging from linguistics to literature. This section briefly overviews the life of Okakura, and introduces his major achievements (Muraoka 1937, Hirai et al. 1975, and Sasaki and Kihara 1995).

Okakura was born in 1868 as the third son of Kan'emon Okakura and his wife Kono. One of his elder brothers was Kakuzo, also known as Tenshin Okakura, the author of *The Book of Tea* (1906). Okakura's father was running a raw silk trading business in Yokohama at the time Okakura was born. Owing to his father's business, many foreigners visited the house, and Okakura had the chance to listen to authentic English from his early childhood.

In 1877, Okakura entered Gaikokugo Gakko [The School of Foreign Languages] and studied German. When he was fifteen years old, Okakura's father told him that he should make plans for the future and choose between academics and business. Okakura decided to make his living by academic research (Muraoka 1937: 486), and studied English at Kyoritsu Gakko (current The Kaisei Junior and Senior High Schools), and economics at Koto Shogyo Gakko (current Hitotsubashi University). Motivated by his interest in philology, he entered Tokyo Teikoku Daigaku Bunka Daigaku (current The University of Tokyo) in 1887 to major in philology and Japanese literature. At the university, he studied philology under B. H. Chamberlain, and English under J. M. Dixon, and graduated in 1890.

After working as a Japanese teacher and a translator for a while, Okakura left for Korea to teach in Nihongo Gakko [The Japanese Language School] in 1891. While teaching, he also conducted research on Korean. He came back to Japan after two years and took a position at Kagoshima Zoshikan [Zoshikan (High and Middle) School at Kagoshima]

as an English and Japanese teacher. This time he conducted research on the Ryukyu Language. It shows Okakura's considerable interest in languages, not only in English and Japanese, but also in other languages. In 1896, he moved to Tokyo and became a lecturer at Tokyo Koto Shihan Gakko (Tokyo Higher Normal School) and taught English and Japanese until he retired in 1925. From 1900, he started teaching English and Korean at Tokyo Gaikokugo Gakko (The Tokyo School of Foreign Studies). After studying in Europe for three years, he returned to Japan and taught at Tokyo Teikoku Daigaku (Tokyo Imperial University) and Rikkyo Daigaku (Rikkyo University).

Okakura is considered the leader of English education in Japan of the Taisho and early Showa eras. From the Meiji to early Taisho era, the style of English education in Japan was often referred to as Hensoku, which is "a method of learning a foreign language which consists in translating the meaning without regard to the correct pronunciation of the words, and without paying much attention to the rules of syntax" (Omura et al. Fifth volume 1980: 129). The grammar-translation method was the most widely used in classrooms. However, the style of English education in Japan started to shift after Hidesaburo Saito proposed Seisoku Eigo [Seisoku English] (Takebayashi 1968: 251-52). As opposed to Hensoku, Seisoku is "a method of learning a language by studying the correct pronunciation as well as the meaning" (Omura et al. Fifth volume 1980: 129).

Three years in succession from 1894, Okakura wrote "Gaikokugo Kyoiku Shinron [New Theory on Foreign Language Teaching]" for the magazine *Kyoiku Jiron* (*The Educational Review*) and introduced the Direct Method. The Direct Method was devised because of the criticism towards the grammar-translation method, and it proposed that the target language should be taught without using the learners' native language, assuming that the acquisition of the foreign language follows the same path of acquisition as the native language. It focused more on spoken language rather than on translation. In the articles, Okakura explained the characteristics of the Direct Method, such as the use of substitution in conversation practice, the importance of idioms, and the emphasis on listening. Okakura's objectives were to put an end to English education which only

focused on grammar and translation, and to improve English teaching methods in Japan. In 1906, he also produced *Gaikokugo Saishin Kyojuho* [The Latest Theory on Foreign Language Teaching], the abridged translation of Mary Brebner's *The Method of Teaching Modern Languages in Germany* (1898).

His ideas on English education are best summarized in his book titled *Eigo Kyoiku* [English Education] published in 1911. In the book, he explained that all subjects taught at school needed to possess two aspects: educational and practical value. English was not an exception. In short, the educational value is the cultivation of mind (also known as *Shuyo* in Japanese), while the practical value is the practical use. In the case of English, the educational value is to broaden one's horizons through learning English, and to acquire the tool to express one's ideas using a language other than one's native language. On the other hand, the practical value means to make an effort to actually use the knowledge acquired through studying, and to try to apply the knowledge to other fields. Of the two, Okakura especially stressed the importance of the practical value. The word "practical" reminds us of using English to communicate with native speakers: for example, writing letters and having a conversation. However, Okakura's idea of "practical value" expands beyond that. For Okakura, the practical value of studying English was to absorb knowledge through English (Okakura 1937: 36–42).

Thus, the main focus of Okakura's English education was to train the reading comprehension skill. He explained that students could not speak and write accurately without having enough ability to read. In other words, the reading skill provides the basis for the speaking and writing skills. Okakura also focused on the mastery of accurate pronunciation, which was neglected in the context of the grammar-translation method (Okakura 1937: 42–46).

Okakura's theory on English education was supported by his deep knowledge of linguistics and phonetics. Okakura particularly emphasized the importance of pronunciation when teaching English. Hirai et al. (1975) explain that Okakura's book *Hatsuongaku Kowa* [Lecture on Phonetics] (1901) marked the beginning of the scientific and systematic study of

English phonetics in Japan. In 1907, with the purpose of providing a helpful guidebook of phonetics, he published *Eigo Hatsuongaku Taiko* [An Outline of English Phonetics]. Okakura's other works on phonetics include *Eigo Hatsuon Renshu Kado* [Pronunciation Practice Cards] (1921) and *Eigo Sho Hatsuongaku* [English Phonetics] (1922). As for dictionaries, besides being an editor of *SEDJ* (1927), he also edited learners' dictionaries, such as *Shin Eiwa Chu Jiten (Kenkyusha's New School Dictionary English-Japanese)* (1929).

Although Okakura was most recognized for his educational and linguistic achievements, his works ranged far more widely. Okakura, who had a great deal of knowledge of literature and Japanese culture, also wrote many essays. From 1921, he supervised the series *Eibungaku Sosho (Kenkyusha English Classics)* with Sanki Ichikawa. Furthermore, the lectures he gave on Japanese culture during his visit to the U.S.A. were later published as *The Japanese Spirit* (1905). As to art and culture, his brother Tenshin influenced Okakura profoundly. Okakura had great respect and admiration towards his brother Tenshin throughout his life (Hirai et al. 1975: 148).

In his later years, Okakura started an English radio program targeting beginners at NHK radio. In his programs, he introduced the Oral Method proposed by Harold Palmer. However, because it was a radio program, it was impossible to have dialogues between a teacher and students, and he had to abandon the advantages of the Oral Method (Ishikawa 1937). Many people recall Okakura as a "great talker," and he came to be known as "Okakura of the Radio" (Saito 1937).

In 1923, he founded the private school called *Yoyo Juku* and provided the younger generation with opportunities to study under him. Among his students were Rintaro Fukuhara and Takeo Teranishi. Okakura supported the idea of Basic English and the use of Hepburn Romaji, and worked on spelling reform. Okakura passed away in 1936 at the age of 69 because of typhoid fever.

Rintaro Fukuhara, one of Okakura's students, recalls Okakura saying that understanding foreign culture leads to understanding the Japanese culture, and without grasping the essence of the Japanese culture, we

cannot comprehend the foreign culture (Fukuhara 1937). Okakura himself was the person who possessed both the profound knowledge of foreign culture and the deep understanding of Japanese culture.

(Section 3.1 by Sugimoto)

3.2. The dictionary

The first edition of *SEDJ* was published by the publisher Kenkyusha on March 5th, 1927. The General Editor was Yoshisaburo Okakura. The first idea of compiling the dictionary may have arisen in 1924, since it is said in the preface that it took three years for Okakura and his team to complete the compilation of the dictionary. It is noteworthy that each Japanese translation of a headword is often accompanied by an English equivalent or equivalents. This principle is stated in the phrase “on bilingual principles” in the title (see Section 8). This phrase remained in the title until the fourth edition. Pronunciation is transcribed using IPA based on Jones’ Broad notation (see Section 6). Etymological information is placed at the end of each entry. *COD* gives etymological information of a headword at the end of each entry, and *SEDJ* may have followed suit (see Section 10).

SEDJ has been revised seven times to date, including the enlarged editions. The first enlarged edition was published in 1933, followed by the second edition in 1936. The second enlarged edition was published in 1950, the third edition in 1953, the fourth edition in 1960, and the fifth edition in 1980. The sixth edition was published in 2002.

The first edition of the dictionary that I have on hand is the 38th impression which was published on April 25th, 1928. According to the record of the publication at the back of the dictionary, the fifth impression was published on March 10th, which is only five days after the publication of the first impression. As a matter of fact, the dictionary was reprinted at intervals of five to ten days in the first two months after the publication of the first impression, as shown in Table 3.1.

As shown in the table, *SEDJ* was reprinted at least 35 times in the first six months after the publication of the first impression. It was reprinted 38 times in about one year. The popularity of *SEDJ* is supported by this

Table 3.1 The year and the date of the impressions

Year	Date	Impression
1927	March 10th	5th
1927	March 15th	10th
1927	March 25th	15th
1927	April 5th	20th
1927	April 15th	25th
1927	May 25th	30th
1927	August 1st	35th
1928	April 25th	38th

record. Incidentally, the 65th impression was published on March 1st, 1929.

Okakura remained as the General Editor until the second enlarged edition, although he had passed away in October, 1936. The position of the General Editor was taken over by Tamihei Iwasaki and Jujiro Kawamura from the third edition, and they remained until the fourth edition. Sanki Ichikawa was the Editorial Advisor of the third and the fourth editions. The Editor in Chief of the fifth edition is Yoshio Koine, and that of the sixth edition is Shigeru Takebayashi.

The size of the dictionary remained almost the same until the second enlarged edition. From the third edition, its size was enlarged in length and width. The number of the pages of its body decreased in the third edition, but the size of the dictionary was enlarged so as to enable the compilers to put in more information in one page compared to the previous editions. Therefore, it can be presumed that the amount of the information included in *SEDJ* constantly increased each time it was revised. A comparison of the size and the number of pages of each edition is shown in Table 3.2.

The first increase of the number of the total pages was in the enlarged edition published in 1933, and it was partly owing to the addition of the New Words Section in the supplement. The body increased by 398 pages in the second edition, and the New Words Section, which was 118 pages long, was newly added in the second enlarged edition.

Table 3.2 A comparison of the size and the number of pages of each edition

Edition	Size (cm)	FM (pg.)	Body (pg.)	BM ¹⁾ (pg.)	NWS (pg.)	Total (pg.)
First	13 × 19 × 8	12	2,031	17	—	2,060
Enlarged 1	13 × 19 × 7	7	2,031	77	71	2,186
Second	13 × 20 × 7	10	2,429	85	—	2,524
Enlarged 2	13 × 19 × 6.5	10	2,429	85	118	2,642
Third	16 × 24 × 6	32	2,102	21	—	2,155
Fourth	18 × 26 × 7	46	2,132	72	—	2,250
Fifth	19 × 27 × 7.5	21	2,470	7	—	2,498
Sixth	19 × 27 × 8	21	2,878	8	—	2,907

Abbreviations: FM = front matter, BM = back matter, NWS = New Words Section

Note: The figures after the decimal fractions are omitted if smaller than 0.4 in the measurement of size.

World War II ended in 1945, and new English words flooded in Japan under the influences of the American occupation forces. Therefore, the second enlarged edition contained such new words as *atomic age*, *atomic bomb*, *GI* and *jeep* (Kojima 1999: 426).

The number of pages decreased in the third edition owing to the change in size of the dictionary, as mentioned above. Pictorial illustrations were introduced from this edition. There are articles on various topics in its front matter. The following are the topics: the History of English, Etymology, British and American Literature and Poetry, English Pronunciation, English Lexicon and their Meaning, and the List of Phonetic Symbols.

It is said in the preface of the fourth edition that its content was enlarged by 30% compared to the third edition. The number of the total pages increased by 95 pages even though the size of the dictionary was enlarged again. One of the features unique to this edition is the increase of compound entry words such as *atomic clock* and *international (auxiliary) language*.

The size of the dictionary was enlarged once more in the fifth edition. The number of the total pages increased by 248 pages. The new feature of this edition is the drastic increase in the number of headwords: 230,000 in

total. This increase may have been influenced by some large monolingual dictionaries published in the U.S.A. and the U.K., such as the *Webster's Third New International Dictionary* (1961).

The size of the sixth edition remained almost the same as that of the fifth edition, but the number of the total pages increased by 409 pages. There are 260,000 headwords which range from Middle English words to the present-day English words. It is now considered as one of the standard English-Japanese dictionaries for general users in Japan.

3.3. The publisher, Kenkyusha

The publisher Kenkyusha is one of the leading publishing companies in Japan. It is especially famous for its publication of English literature. As mentioned in the previous section, *SEDJ* was published by Kenkyusha in 1927.

Kenkyusha was founded in Tokyo in 1907 by Goichiro Kosakai (1881–1962). He was originally from Niigata Prefecture, and came to work in Tokyo at the age of twelve. He first worked in a publishing house called Uyedaya to train himself to be an editor. Then he founded Kenkyusha at the age of twenty-six.

Kenkyusha's original name was Eigo Kenkyu Sha. The Russo-Japanese War had ended in 1905 — two years before the foundation of Eigo Kenkyu Sha — with Japan's victory over Russia. In the atmosphere of the times, Kosakai thought that the importance of having a good command of a foreign language, especially English, would increase even more in Japan. He, therefore, made English books and magazines as the pillar of the publication of his publishing house. This publishing principle is reflected in the naming of his publishing company.²⁾

The first publication of Eigo Kenkyu Sha was that of a monthly magazine called *Shoto Eigo Kenkyu (The Study of English)*, which was published in 1908. It was a magazine for the learners of English who were in the second- or third-year of a secondary school. The magazine consisted of articles on such topics as the principles of English pronunciation, penmanship, English-Japanese translation, English conversation, writing letters in English, speeches in English, and journalism English. Ikujiro

Yoshida, editor of the magazine, said in the afterword of the first issue that the magazine needed varied and creative articles, since the magazine was to a textbook just as a side dish was to a bowl of rice. The magazine changed its name to *Eigo Kenkyu (The Study of English)* in 1912, and the magazine was aimed to more advanced learners of English.

In the same year, two books of outstanding quality were published by Eigo Kenkyu Sha. One was a book on English grammar titled *Eibumpo Kenkyu (A Study on English Grammar)* written by Sanki Ichikawa. The book became the foundation of the study on English grammar in Japan then. The other was titled *Koshiki Oyo Eibun Kaishaku Kenkyu (A Classified Collection of Idiomatic English Constructions and Phrases)*. It was a study aid used for the improvement of the reading comprehension skills in English. Both books became best-sellers of the times, and they continued to be revised and sold for more than half a century. In fact, it is said in the preface of the second edition of the latter (*Shin Koshiki Oyo Eibun Kaishaku Kenkyu*), which was published in 1916, that the first edition sold for more than 20,000 copies in three years. The two books represent the class of books which from then on became the pillar of the publication of Eigo Kenkyu Sha: treatises and study aids. Eigo Kenkyu Sha changed its name to Kenkyusha in April, 1916.

In 1918, a Japanese-English dictionary was published by Kenkyusha: *Takenobu Waei Dai Jiten [Takenobu's Japanese-English Dictionary] (TWED)* edited by Yoshitaro Takenobu. It is said to have been one of the two greatest Japanese-English dictionaries and earned a good reputation (Kojima 1999: 393). With the publication of *TWED*, Kenkyusha established itself as a leading publisher of English dictionaries in Japan. The dictionary continued to be revised and its latest edition is *Kenkyusha's New Japanese-English Dictionary*, Fifth edition (2003).

SEDJ was published in commemoration of the twentieth anniversary of the foundation of Kenkyusha and was admired as a masterpiece of English-Japanese dictionaries. The publication of *SEDJ* was praised as one of the greatest achievements accomplished by Kenkyusha as well as the publication of *TWED*.

Kenkyusha commemorated its one hundredth anniversary of its foun-

dation in November, 2007. (Sections 3.2 and 3.3 by Takahashi)

4. Entries

Entries in *SEDJ* are discussed. For the purposes of the analysis, a few bilingual dictionaries will be referred to, especially *IEDJ* (1915), which sold so well that as many as 147 reprints were made in 1927 (cf. Dohi et al. 2001: 65).

4.1. Entries in *SEDJ*

SEDJ mentions in its Editorial principle (p. v) that the selection of entries constitutes one of the vital elements in compiling and being a good dictionary, and gives its principle of entry selection: firstly, words and phrases in modern or present-day English, and as many neologisms and revived words as possible should be included; secondly, old or archaic and obsolete words should be excluded unless they are worthy of entry for some specific reasons, and thirdly in the selection of slang, dialect, words or phrases of foreign origin, academic terms, and technical terms, common sense or general knowledge of intended users of the dictionary should be taken into account and terms or entries too technical should be excluded. The first principle is discussed in this section, the second in the next, and the third in both.

The Editorial principle states (p. v) that the dictionary is mainly dependent on *COD* (1911) and *POD* (1924) for entries, with occasional reference to the incomplete *OED* (1884–1928), and a few large-sized dictionaries issued in the first quarter of the 20th century in the U.S.A. One is *Webster*, which may be either *Webster's New International Dictionary of the English Language (WNID)* (1909 or its latest impression), or the latest edition of another line of Webster's dictionaries, *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, Third edition (1916). Another is *Standard*, which may be *Funk & Wagnall's Standard Dictionary of the English Language* (1893–95) (*Standard*) or its revised edition, *Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language (Standard2)* (1913). Also is mentioned *Century*, which must be *The Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language Revised and Enlarged Edition* (1911) (*Century2*) or

its original edition (1889–91). No explicit reference is made to which ones are referred to by their abbreviated titles, and it is plausible to suppose that the latest editions or impressions were consulted for entries, when the fact is taken into account that two British dictionaries in the 1910s and 1920s were consulted for the primary sources. It is interesting that the British dictionaries by the same authors are given precedence over American sources, which seems to reflect that the concise or abridged dictionaries are much easier to make good use of for the dictionary compilation, and to partly show that British language and culture was still highly valued in academic circles or higher education.

It writes, however, that the Anglo-American dictionaries are not compiled for Japanese readers in mind but for native English users,¹⁾ and that this fact causes them to be imperfect or unsatisfactory for Japanese to consult or use properly. This seems to suggest that the selection of entries in *SEDJ* is not entirely based on the monolingual dictionaries but sometimes on the editorial team's own experience or judgment in the language teaching, even if it may not be considered to have been completely objective.

How many main entries and variants are estimated to be included in *SEDJ* in comparison with *IEDJ* (1915) (cf. Landau 2001: 109–14)? Every first 20 pages in A, F, P and T, and the 16 pages in K in *SEDJ* are surveyed: 3,385 entries in all. The number, divided by 96 pages surveyed, and multiplied by 2,031 pages (excluding the 17 page appendix of abbreviations placed after Z) amounts to the estimated total entries of approximate 71,600, which is a little smaller than *IEDJ* estimated to contain approximately 75,000, and larger than *COD* estimated to include around 60,000 (Dohi et al. 2001: 65). It is likely that, when the estimated number of abbreviations (3,000) is added, the total number of *SEDJ* approximates to that of *IEDJ*. Nothing seems to have been mentioned of its entry number in advertisements for *SEDJ*, unlike *IEDJ* and *MoEJ*.²⁾

4.2. Manner of presentation

SEDJ gives several explanations of its manner of presentation. The entries are shown in bold (**abet**) and the words and phrases of foreign

origin are italicized (*abattoir*) like *COD* and *IEDJ*. The initial letter is capitalized in proper nouns (**Amazon**), and proper noun related entries (**Americanize**). *SEDJ* uses the same method of presentation as *IEDJ* where technical terms related to botany and zoology (**Accipitres**) begin with a capitalized initial letter, although this principle is often ignored. The entries are in principle spelt in British style (**gaol**) with an American spelling shown as a variant (**jail**) like *COD* and *IEDJ*. Variants are often placed after main entries to save space. Compound words are single hyphenated (**centre-field**). Syllabication is shown like *IEDJ* (**con-clu-sion**). *SEDJ* says that it is based on Webster (*WNID*), in which there is found no hyphenation right after the primary accented vowels (**con-clu'sion**). The compound words in *SEDJ* are hyphenated while those in *WNID* are also separated. A primary accent is shown, except one syllable entries and entries of foreign origin, by a stressed mark (ˈ) in superscript (**his-tor^ˈ-ic**). Inflections of entries are sometimes shown when users should be informed (oftener; -est) (see Section 6).

The entries are strictly arranged in an alphabetical order to make a look-up easier. The listing arrangement makes it easier to find in a user-friendly way all the entries in their right place. It may not, however, be a mnemonic device and presuppose users' lexical knowledge of related entries because the grouping or clustering arrangement is not adopted. All the entries are treated as the main ones, and no run-on is to be found, unlike *COD*, *POD* and *IEDJ*. The strictly alphabetical order is somewhat similar to *MoEJ* that includes occasional run-ons. Etymology or pronunciation is taken into account in the distinction of the same form entries (**bay¹**, **bay²**, **bay³**, **bay⁴**, **bay⁵**) although there are cases where the principle is not strictly applied. It is intriguing to find that except the run-on arrangement, single hyphenated compounds and one primary accent, the manner of presentation in *SEDJ* is quite similar to that in *IEDJ*.

4.3. Influence of *COD* and *POD* on *SEDJ*

The last installment mentioned why *COD* is used as a source of utmost importance in *IEDJ*: numerous common words with copious examples given (cf. Dohi et al. 2001: 65–66). What is the reason *SEDJ* depended on

COD and *POD*? Okakura once wrote that *COD* is the best of small-sized dictionaries available for advanced users in spite of its complex system of information retrieval, its insufficient information of pronunciation, and a total lack of pictorial illustrations (Nanino 1915a: 22). The preface of *POD* quoted below should be taken into consideration in connection with Okakura's statement.

... The one merit, however, that they feel entitled to claim for the *C.O.D.* has been preserved to the best of their power in the abridgement — that is, they have kept to the principle that a dictionary is a book of diction, concerned primarily with words or phrases as such, and not, except so far as is needed to ensure their right treatment in speech, with the things those words and phrases stand for. This principle, while it absolves the dictionary-maker from cumbering his pages with cyclopaedic information, demands . . . that he should devote much more space than that so saved to the task of making clear the idiomatic usage of words. The bad dictionary, on a word that has half a dozen distinct meanings, parades by way of definition half a dozen synonyms, each of them probably possessed of several senses besides the one desired, and fails to add the qualifications and illustrations that would show the presumably ignorant readers how far each synonym is coextensive with his word, and what is the context to which one or other is the more appropriate. To avoid this vice has been the chief aim of the *C.O.D.* and of this abridgement alike . . . (p. iii). (Emphasis added by the present writer.)

It may be that the compilers were persuaded to think that dependence on *POD* would give them more relevant information, which led to *SEDJ* basically being lexical-oriented. In other words, they thought that the dictionary includes what *SEDJ* hoped it to contain: usage of common words as well as illustrative phrases and examples, related words and cultural information as discussed below.

To verify what extent *SEDJ* follows *COD* and/or *POD*, a brief survey was made of the entries in every sixteen pages in *SEDJ*: **A** to **acrolith**, **F** to **faultfinding**, **K** to **kyrie(eleison)**, **P** to **parody**, and **T** to **tastefulness**. They are first compared with those in *COD* (1911, including an addenda in the 1914 impression), and then with *POD* (1924), because its Editorial principle writes that the compilers made reference to *COD* and

POD as the main sources of reference (p. v).

There is, however, a great deal of difficulty in the comparison and entry counting based on the exact correspondence, because of the different manner of presentation in the dictionaries surveyed. **Bay**, for example, is a case in point: *COD* shows 6 entries, while *POD* 5, and *SEDJ* 5. In **bully**, *COD* gives 5, *POD* 1, and *SEDJ* 1. This makes it next to impossible to count the number of entries based on a one-to-one correspondence between the entries in them. In order to count the entries in one way or another, it was decided that a comparison of entries should be based on *SEDJ*. As a result, **bay**, for instance, is regarded as having 5 entries, while **bully** as 1.

When the entries surveyed are found in neither *COD* nor *POD*, the others are surveyed in terms of their volume and the publication year: *Century2* (1911), *WNID* (1909), and *Standard2* (1913). Table 4.1 below shows the result.³⁾

Table 4.1 makes it clear that *SEDJ* undoubtedly owes a great deal to *COD*: 1,946 main entries and 266 compounds come from *COD*, totally accounting for 78.7 percent. When the entries in *POD* is added, the total amounts to 81.8 percent (see 4.4). It can be safely said that over 80 percent of the entries in *SEDJ* come from *COD* and/or *POD*. There are entries found in both *COD* and *POD*, which sometimes makes it difficult to decide exactly which entries come from which dictionaries, but the fact that the number of entries in *COD* is generally larger than that in *POD* obliges the present writer to claim that *COD* is considered to have been the primary source and *POD* the secondary one. This being the case, *POD* makes a modest contribution to *SEDJ* in the number of entries, as far as the survey is concerned (see 4.5 and 4.6).

The entries in *SEDJ* that are nowhere found in *COD* nor in *POD* are considered to be "new" here. Such entries are compared with the three American dictionaries. Table 4.1 also shows that approximately a fifth of them could be regarded as coming from the American sources with some from other unascertained ones. Approximately two-thirds (335 out of 510) can be found in all, a fifth (102) are in either two, and some (43) are in one of them. Provided that *SEDJ* follows more entries in *WNID* or *Standard*

Table 4.1 The number of entries in *SEDJ* and the counterparts in the monolingual dictionaries surveyed

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
<i>SEDJ</i>	599	427	577	674	532	2,809
<i>COD</i>	473	304	324	475	370	1,946
<i>COD</i> (compounds)	4	45	72	66	79	266
<i>POD</i>	11	14	30	20	12	87
<i>Century2</i> , <i>WNID</i> & <i>Standard2</i>	83	40	98	76	38	335
<i>Century2</i> & <i>WNID</i>	2	2	3	2	2	11
<i>Century2</i> & <i>Standard2</i>	2	1	8	10	8	29
<i>WNID</i> & <i>Standard2</i>	14	4	31	11	2	62
<i>Century2</i>	0	3	3	4	1	11
<i>WNID</i>	4	2	1	6	3	16
<i>Standard2</i>	4	2	4	2	4	16
Neither	2	10	3	2	13	30
<i>COD</i> and/or <i>POD</i> , no entry in <i>SEDJ</i>	22 (1)	15 (12)	21 (8)	11 (0)	6 (1)	75 (22)

2, it could be because they are considered to include up-to-date entries, and less voluminous or handier to consult than *Century2*.

Before dealing with new entries in *SEDJ*, a few words are in order about the entries found in *COD* and/or *POD* that are discarded in *SEDJ*. Table 4.1 shows that 75 entries in *COD* and/or *POD* are discarded in *SEDJ*, and the numbers in parentheses show that they are found as phrase examples: *about turn*, *family tree*, *king of kings*, and *tannic acid*, for example. Table 4.2 shows the result of the attempt to roughly classify approximately 50 entries excluded in *SEDJ*. The entries with a field label are put into the second category. This helps us to claim that derivatives are easier to discard, and variants and technical terms also tend to be discarded. An example in each category is shown: **accentually** as a derivative, **kowtow** as a variant, **parasyntetic** as a technical term, **acet-** as a prefix, **Abderite** as a proper noun related word, **kago** as a foreign expression, **K.G.C.B.** as abbreviation, and **kissing-gate** in the last category.

Table 4.2 The classification of entries in *COD* and/or *POD* that are nowhere found in *SEDJ*

Derivatives (including those ending with <i>-ical</i>) ^{a)}	15
Technical terms and related forms	8
Variants	7
Prefixes	4
Proper noun related words	4
Foreign expressions	3
Abbreviations	1
Others	11

Another survey is conducted: the new entries nowhere found in *COD* nor *POD* are checked in some preceding bilingual dictionaries before *SEDJ*. The procedure taken here is that *MoEJ* (1911) and its genealogical dictionaries *Dai Zoho Mohan Eiwa Jiten (Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary)* (*MoEJ2*) (1916) and *Mohan Shin Eiwa Jiten (The New Standard English-Japanese Dictionary)* (*MSEJ*) (1919) are first checked. Those found in none of them are checked in *IEDJ* (1915), and then in *KEJ* (1922). The result is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 makes it clear that *MoEJ* and its line of dictionaries include more than 60 percent of the entries. One out of four (135 out of 510) in *SEDJ* could be said to have been "new" entries in another sense. A crude attempt is made to classify them with an example in parentheses, on condition that the entries with a field label are put into the first category in Table 4.4 below. One of the features is that it endeavors to include

Table 4.3 The number of counterpart entries in the preceding bilingual dictionaries

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
<i>MoEJ</i>	65	35	68	56	21	245
<i>MoEJ2</i>	11	2	16	3	6	38
<i>MSEJ</i>	2	3	8	10	3	26
<i>IEDJ</i>	1	7	17	22	10	57
<i>KEJ</i>	1	1	4	0	3	9
None	31	16	38	22	28	135

technical terms (**achromatopsia**). Another is that it includes hyphenated compounds (**tail-fin**). The third is that more derivatives are found with suffixes (**acquisitor**), or in a participle form (**abridged**). Also included are variants (**padusoy**), suffixes (**-facient**), and foreign expressions (**Fata obstant**). There are also a variety types of entries included in the last category: neologisms (**Fascism**), dialects (**kazardly**), those labeled (U.S.) (**pan-handle**) or (slang) (**kiddy**), even an archaic word (**acold**), and other encyclopedic or cultural entries (**Abt system** and **tagday**).

Table 4.4 The types of new entries in *SEDJ* that are not found in the preceding bilingual dictionaries

Technical terms and related forms	36
Hyphenated compounds	20
Derivatives (including those ending with <i>-ical</i> , <i>-able</i>) ^{a)}	17
Derivatives (participle forms)	14
Variants	9
Prefixes & suffixes	5
Foreign expressions	3
Proper nouns and related words	2
Others	29

Table 4.4 makes us aware that *SEDJ* actually takes an interest in technical terms and hyphenated compounds on one hand, and derivatives on the other. The fact being taken into account that *MoEJ* is considered encyclopedic-oriented and *IEDJ* is both lexical- and encyclopedic-oriented, it was quite reasonable to compile a lexical-oriented dictionary with technical or encyclopedic entries added for general readers. *SEDJ* basically aims to be user-oriented because it places an emphasis on derivatives including participle forms: **acquired** and **acidly**, for example (see 4.4).

4.4. Comparison between *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*

Table 4.1 makes it clear that 2,299 out of 2,809 entries (81.8 percent) in *SEDJ* come from *COD* and/or *POD*, while 2,527 out of 3,103 entries (81.4 percent) in *IEDJ* from *COD* (Dohi et al. 2001: 65). Intriguingly and

surprisingly, both owe nearly the same ratio of entries to the Oxford dictionary or dictionaries.

In contrast, the 480 entries in *SEDJ* that are found in the American dictionaries account for nearly 17 percent, which is well over three times larger than *IEDJ*, where the ratio accounts for 4.9 percent (153 out of 2,103), because the latter depends more on the British or Scottish concise dictionaries for entries (Dohi et al. 2001: 69–70).

The new entries in *SEDJ* that are found in neither *COD* nor *POD* will make it clear in what way *SEDJ* is similar to or different from *IEDJ*. Here an attempt was made to break down the 510 entries in *SEDJ*, but note that it is a little different from the one in *IEDJ* in the 2001 installment. They are divided into several categories: simple, complex or compound words (cf. Hartmann and James 1998), hyphenated compounds, prefixes and suffixes, foreign words and phrases, derivatives consisting of a few subcategories, variants, and proper noun related entries. They are also classified whether they are given a label, and whether they are “empty” entries with only cross references shown without any description where users would have the trouble in referring to another entry or other entries again. The result of the survey is tabulated in Table 4.5.

A few words concerning Table 4.5 are in order. There are found a considerable number of entries in the first and the second categories in almost every section. Note that there exist some “empty” entries, especially in K, which may have been a space-saving device for listing more entries. Note also that there are found a significant number of entries with field labels attached, provided that labeled entries are usually found in the first and the second: nearly a third (115 out of 357) are labeled, which makes us recognize that *SEDJ* is also interested in technical terms. Derivatives come third, accounting for nearly 16 percent.

Table 4.5, based on a different categorization from *IEDJ*, would make it possible to draw a broad comparison between the two: the entries surveyed and the numbers are different, so that the results may not be entirely persuasive and a firm conclusion may not be arrived at. Out of 510 entries in neither *COD* nor *POD*, those in the first and the second compose 70 percent of new entries in *SEDJ* and the same could be true of

Table 4.5 The categorization of 510 entries, the number of labeled entries, and the number of entries with only cross-references given

	A	F	K	P	T	Total
Simple, complex, or compound words*	65	12	89	51	20	237
Hyphenated compounds*	4	27	28	37	24	120
Prefixes and suffixes*	0	1	2	0	1	4
Foreign expressions*	3	3	3	4	3	16
Derivatives*	27	17	17	8	15	84
(1) Past participle	9	4	7	3	6	29
(2) Present participle	1	4	1	0	2	8
(3) Those ending with <i>-ly</i> or <i>-ness</i>	10	4	1	1	4	20
(4) Those ending with <i>-er</i> , <i>-or</i> , or <i>-ist</i>	7	5	8	4	3	27
Variants*	5	4	10	10	6	35
Proper noun related entries*	7	0	2	3	2	14
Labeled entries	34	16	52	29	18	149
Field	31	10	33	27	14	115
Others	3	6	19	2	4	34
Empty entries with cross-references	1	2	22	7	1	33

Note: The addition of the numbers in the row with an asterisk will be the total number in *SEDJ*.

IEDJ (cf. Dohi et al. 2001: 67). Those with field labels (115 out of 510) account for approximately 22.5 percent, which ratio is less than *IEDJ* (147 out of 448). Provided that the labels are accurately and consistently attached, it could be claimed that, in accordance with the third principle in 4.1, less effort was made to include technical terms in *SEDJ* (see 5.2).

It is noticeable that the ratio of derivatives (84 out of 510) is much higher in *SEDJ* than *IEDJ* (20 out of 448). There are a number of entries found in A, a few of which would now be worth listing when a criterion of frequency is taken into consideration: **abbreviated**, **abridged**, and **accused**, for example. Reference to not only the British dictionaries but also the American ones led to the enlargement of entries with supposed usefulness taken into account.

Variants account for more in *SEDJ*: 35 out of 510 in *SEDJ* and 20 out

of 448 in *IEDJ*. This is another reason *SEDJ* makes itself lexical-oriented because of a device for listing more related entries.

SEDJ aims to include a substantial number of lexical entries by inclusion of derivatives (see 4.3). In contrast, the ratio of proper noun related entries in *SEDJ* (14 out of 510) is far lower than *IEDJ* (43 out of 448). *SEDJ* includes fewer words and phrases of foreign origin. *SEDJ* could be regarded as less encyclopedic-oriented than *IEDJ* (see 4.6).

4.5. COD and POD compared

To confirm that *COD* surpasses *POD* in the number of entries, a sample survey is made here: a comparison is made of every 300 entries (composed of headwords and run-ons) in A, F, and P in *COD* (A to **acardiac**, F to **fatal**, and P to **papalize**) with their counterparts in *POD*. A simple and exact comparison sometimes causes the present writer a lot of difficulty, because the entries surveyed in the two are not always shown in the same way. A one-to-one correspondence is not always maintained, as some headwords in *COD* are downgraded into run-ons or integrated into one in *POD*. The result of the survey could be tabulated in Table 4.6 below.

As far as the survey is concerned, Table 4.6 reveals that the smaller-sized *POD* includes fewer entries: approximately two-thirds of *COD* entries are regarded as being incorporated into *POD*: 595 out of 924 including variants. Note that most of the abbreviations in *COD* are separately placed in the Appendix I (pp. 981–93) in *POD*. The number of headwords and run-ons is considerably reduced to fewer than half and half of the “new” entries in *POD* are originally found in *COD*. This makes it possible to conclude that *POD* does not necessarily contain so many entries as the compilers thought it would do⁵⁾ (see 4.6).

4.6. New entries in SEDJ

The above survey does not entirely make it clear whether the first editorial principle in *SEDJ* is realized of inclusion of as many neologisms as possible. Among the entries in “others” in Table 4.4, there are found some: **Fascism**, **Fascist** and **Fascisti**. A brief survey with reference to

Table 4.6 The number of entries in *POD* in comparison with *COD*

	A	F	P
Headwords*	222 → 84	197 → 94	232 → 101
Downgraded into run-ons*	48	31	24
Plural entries into one*	8 → 4	26 → 13	30 → 13
Run-ons*	78 → 36	103 → 31	68 → 32
New headwords*	25	27	22
Those found in <i>COD</i>	4	23	10
Those nowhere in <i>COD</i>	21	4	12
Others including variants*	3	4	3
Number of entries in <i>POD</i>	200	200	195
Number of entries in <i>COD</i>	300 (3)	300 (7)	300 (14)

Notes: The left number before the arrow shows the number in *COD*, while the right number shows that in *POD*. Addition of the numbers in the row with an asterisk attached amounts to the total number in *POD*. The number in parentheses in *COD* shows the number of variants.

some articles such as the one by B.F. (1925) in *Eigo Seinen (The Rising Generation)* makes us aware that new entries in *POD* that are not found in *COD* are given as neologisms in *SEDJ*.

Bolshevik, bolshevist, contraceptive, dud, flammenwerfer, Fokker, hormone, intelligentsia, internationale, jamboree, jazz, listening-post, Madelon, Marxian, Menshevik, napoo, Pooh-Bah, psycho-analysis, pussyfoot, Rhodes scholar, 'shun², Soviet, Teddy bear, Tipperary, wash-out, zoom

Another survey is carried out whether neologisms in the 1910s through the middle 1920s are added in *SEDJ* by making reference to Ayto (1999). Entries in the first group below are found in *COD* and *POD*, those in the second in *POD*, and those in the third in neither. The entries with an asterisk are given in Funao (1927), with the italicized phrase examples included.

- (1) **typewriter**
- (2) **aerobatics, air-raid, anti-aircraft, Anzac, Aussie, aviette, fox-trot, Freudian, Fritz, kamerad, kinema, pogo, poison-**

- gas, profiteer, tango, trinitrotoluol, trunk call, trench mortar, trench-foot**
- (3) **aerial mail / post, air-bomb, airdrome, air-mail, air-post, allies, archibald, Armistice Day, Fascism, Fascist, Fascisti, film star, pelmanism, pelmanize, photostat, picturedrome; broadcasting*, bund*, cafeteria*, dadaism*, dadaist*, expressionism*, insulin***

The survey makes us aware that *POD* could be regarded as an invaluable source for entries, when the preface of *POD* is noted.

“A minor improvement is the inclusion of a large number of words and senses not in the original C.O.D.; some of these have been incorporated from the addenda list of 1914; and active service in France has brought the compliers acquainted with many war words deserving of record.” (p. v)

SEDJ made every effort to be comprehensive and to make itself up-to-date by inclusion of neologisms.

Another peculiar feature Ichikawa (1918b) mentions is also examined. He writes that the addenda in the 1914 impression of *COD* includes entries associated with the Bible, Shakespeare's works, and place names. A brief survey shows that *SEDJ* certainly makes an effort to include them. Below are shown 50 entries which are associated with London or the U.K. Moreover, 25 entries are also examined referring to a person, fictional or not, and derived forms of personal names, which are found in *COD* and/or *POD*. Some entries in Yamamoto et al. (1987: 100–01) are added for the survey. It is intriguing that only seven entries with an asterisk out of 50 in the first group below are given in *IEDJ*, but, in stark contrast with this, only 4 with an asterisk out of 25 in the second are not found in *IEDJ*.

- (4) **Albert Hall, Aldershot, Ascot, Bisley, Bond street [sic], Bow bells [sic], Buckingham Palace, Burlington House, Chelsea, Christie's, Colney Hatch, Covent Garden, Dartmouth, Epsom*, Fulham (palace) [sic], Goodwood, Greenwich*, Guildhall*, Guy's, Hampton, Harley, Hendon, Henley, Holloway, Hyde Park, John-o'-Groat's, Kew, Lambeth, Lord's, Mayfair, Mincing lane [sic], Pall Mall*,**

Parkhurst, Pentonville, Portland*, Rotten Row*, Sandhurst, Smithfield, Soho², Somerset House, Spring Garden, Tate Gallery, Tattersall's, Tokenhouse Yard, Toynbee Hall, Trafalgar Square, Tyburnia, Wardour street [*sic*], Westminster*, Woolwich

- (5) **Adam, Apollo*, Bacchus, Baconian, Boswell, Boswellian, Brobdingnag, Caliban, Cartesian, Ciceronian, Damon and Pythias, Daniel, Dulcinea, Eve, Freudian*, Homeric, Houyhnhnm, Johnsonian, Miltonian, Miltonic², Pecksniff, Rosinante, Shakespearian, Shavian*, Spenlow & Jorkins***

Allen says that it is the “editorial quirk . . . in the addenda of 1914” of inclusion of place names, and “. . . the lexical point resides in the allusive uses of the names, . . .” although “many of the names . . . are not adequately supported by the extension in sense that would justify their inclusion on normal Fowlerian principles” (1986: 2–3). The survey makes us aware that *SEDJ* faithfully follows *COD*, and makes an effort to make itself encyclopedia-oriented for general readers, such as *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture for Learners of English*, Second Edition (2005), while derived or adjective entries make us fully aware of the typical entries in the *OED*.

4.7. Summary

The number of entries in *SEDJ* is not so large as *IEDJ*, as far as the survey is concerned. The fact that the ratio of corresponding entries between *SEDJ* and *COD* and/or *POD* is over 80 percent makes it clear that *SEDJ* is, without a shadow of doubt, strongly influenced by *COD* and/or *POD*, which are considered to be basically lexical-oriented. *SEDJ* includes related derivatives and variants, complete with technical entries and encyclopedic ones associated with place or personal names. In accordance with the first principle of entry selection, *SEDJ* makes an attempt to include neologisms by making good use of *POD*. Dialect entries make us doubtful whether the compilers were fully conscious of the third principle of selection (see 5.3) that it is intended for general readers with common sense. The principle may be traditional, but rather abstract, which makes it difficult to value or judge *SEDJ* objectively or properly. It could be

safely said that *SEDJ* makes an attempt to satisfy the needs of a wide variety of users by inclusion of unnumbered lexical and technical entries as well as neologisms. (Section 4 by Dohi)

5. Labels

This section deals with labels and their inconsistent presentation in *SEDJ*, with occasional reference to other bilingual dictionaries made, especially *IEDJ*.

5.1. The number of labels

The kinds and number of labels in *SEDJ* are discussed, in comparison with *MoEJ* (1911), *IEDJ* (1915) and *Sanseido Eiwa Dai Jiten (Sanseido's Encyclopaedic English-Japanese Dictionary) (SEED)* (1928).¹⁾

Labels shown in List of abbreviations could be roughly divided into several categories, and shown here in parentheses without capitalizing initial letters, but no mention is made of the last two below: technical field labels such as (botany), regional labels such as (Scottish), style labels such as (facetious), currency labels such as (archaic), a restricted label (vulgar), the label (slang), combinatory labels such as (English slang), and others associated with origin of entries such as (Latin). Table 5.1 below shows the result of the survey of the dictionaries consulted as well as *COD* and *POD*. The division is based on Landau (2001: 217–18) (cf. Dohi et al. 2001: 102).

The number in *SEDJ* appears to be not so large as that of *SEED*,

Table 5.1 The number of labels in the dictionaries consulted

	<i>MoEJ</i> (1911)	<i>IEDJ</i> (1915)	<i>SEDJ</i> (1927)	<i>SEED</i> (1928)	<i>COD</i> (1911)	<i>POD</i> (1924)
Field labels	63	68	60	98	20	68
Regional labels	3	5	5	5	5	6
Style labels	1	5	3	3	4	9
Currency labels	1	3	1	4	2	2
Restricted label (vulgar)	0	0	0	0	0	1
Label (slang)	1	1	1	1	0	1

especially in field labels. A glance at some entries in *SEDJ*, however, makes us aware that, as is the case of *IEDJ* and *COD*, it does not wholly mention the labels in its list, and very often shows other labels in its text (cf. Dohi et al. 2001: 102–03): ((簿記)) (bookkeeping) in **daybook**, ((擊劍)) (fencing) in **foible**, ((發音)) (phonetics) in **fracture** and ((映畫)) (film) in **flash back**, for example. Therefore, it is reasonable to say that the number in *SEDJ* in Table 5.1 shows a broad picture, and not an exact one at all.

The reason for the apparent number is that *SEDJ* thoroughly examines not only labels but also definitions or notes in parentheses: **tertiate**, for example, with the label ((砲)) (gunnery) attached is defined as “Examine thickness of metal of (gun)” (*COD*). Other examples include **fig** ((學生)) (students), **figure** ((舞踏)) (dancing), **fixative** ((染色)) (dyeing), **object-ball** ((撞球)) (billiards) and **teem**² ((製鋼)) (steel). Some are not even based on *COD*: **flat**² ((財政)) (finance), and **operator** ((電話)) (telephone).

The number of labels in *SEDJ* approximates to *SEED* because random sampling makes it clear that over 30 field labels nowhere in the list can be found in *SEDJ*, like *IEDJ* (see 5.2). From dictionary users’ point of view, the list is not consistent and user-friendly. When the fact is taken into account that labels in *SEDJ* are not always based on labels in *COD*, where labels are not explicitly given in its front matter, it was next to impossible for the compilers to make a whole list of labels.

Table 5.1 makes clear the fact that *POD* totally includes nearly three times more labels than *COD*, and that *SEDJ* makes use of them in some entries and/or senses: for example, **fib**² ((拳闘)) (boxing), **grammatalogue** ((速記術)) (shorthand), **gambit** ((將棋)) (chess), **tack** (n.) ((議會)) (parliament), and **tackle** (n.) ((蹴球)) (football). (Compare the senses between *COD* and *POD*: **die-hard**, **dough-boy**, **dud**, **dug-out**, for example.) This makes it likely that the compilers were convinced that they should also make reference to *POD* for labels.

SEDJ is different from the others in that it includes notes or labels on pronunciation: three different ways of strong, weak, and normal ways of pronunciation: for example, such function words like **can** and **of**, and the entries like **be**, **have**, and **would**, show more than one pronunciation with

the abbreviated labels ((強)) (strong) and ((弱)) (weak) attached. In the entry of an indefinite article, the three ways are shown: **a** [ei (強), ə (弱・常音)], **an** [æn (強), ən (弱・常音)]. It is not clear, however, whether the third label ((常)) (normal or usual, when literally translated) showing the usual or natural way of pronunciation is given in a number of entries. Nothing related to the matter will be mentioned in this installment.

5.2. Field labels

SEDJ supplies far more than the apparent 60 labels. Below are given twenty entries with labels that cannot be found in the list in *SEDJ*. They reveal that the labels follow the description in *COD*, and all may not be used in dictionaries today.

facetiæ ((書籍目録)) (book catalogues), **falconet** ((史)) (historical), **fault** ((地質)) (geology), **feather** ((漕艇)) (rowing), **feeling** ((藝術)) (art), **field-day** ((軍)) (military), **fifteen** ((ラ式蹴球)) (rugby football), **figure** ((氷滑)) (skating), **fillet** ((製本)) (book-binding), **flag**⁴ ((海)) (nautical); **oak** ((大學)) (university), **obsolete** ((生物)) (biology), **officious** ((外交)) (diplomacy), **offset**¹ ((測量)) (surveying), **option** ((株式)) (stock exchange), **order**¹ ((銀行)) (banking); **taedium vitae** ((病理)) (pathology), **tap**¹ ((機)) (machinery), **tenail** ((築城)) (fortification), **transmutation** ((鍊金術)) (alchemy)

Some do not come from either *COD* or *POD*: **airshaft** ((鑛山)) (mining), **apport** ((降神術)) (spiritualism), **audion** ((無電)) (wireless), **gad**³ ((石工)) (quarrying) and **tangent** ((三角)) (trigonometry), for example. A few can only be found in *SEDJ*: ((占星)) (astrology) in **ascendant**, ((庭球)) (lawn tennis) in **fault**, ((野球)) (baseball) and ((クリケット)) (cricket) in **field**, ((ゴルフ)) (golf) in **fair-way**, ((乗馬)) (horse-riding), and ((国際)) (international), the last two of which can be nowhere found, as far as the survey is concerned (cf. ((競馬)) (horse racing) in **field**). Most of the others can be found in *MoEJ*, *IEDJ* and/or *SEED*. Therefore, it is rather doubtful whether the compilers take a keen interest in the classification of labels for users.

The 115 labeled entries in Table 4.5 in Section 4 will clarify to some extent which fields are covered in *SEDJ*: more than three-fourths are not

associated with social science or humanities: **acajou** (botany) 19 entries shown, **paraphasia** (medicine) 14, **pantopoda** (zoology) 13, **Accipitres** (ornithology) 10, **tail-spin** (aeronautics) 6, **karyolymph** (biology) 6, **tail-bone** (anatomy) 5, **kalium** (chemistry) 5, **factorize** (mathematics) 3, **kaleidophone** (physics) 3, **faradaic** (electrics) 2 and **kaolinite** (mineralogy) 2. Others are related to **abalienate** (law) 4 entries shown, **Acheron** (theology) 3, and **panpsychism** (philosophy) 2. This reveals that *SEDJ* compiled by the scholars in humanities endeavored to provide technical terms outside the scope of their majors.

Despite making good use of the main sources, *COD* and *POD*, and others in the description of labels, *SEDJ* was careless in not enumerating them in its list, which is also true of *COD*. Labels in *POD* are not taken into account in *SEDJ* list, although *POD* covers far more labels such as (dynamics), (geography), (magnetism), (mechanics), (surgery), (arithmetic), (archaeology), (meteorology), and (political economy). *SEDJ* may not always have given field labels serious consideration, especially when it follows label description in other dictionaries that is nowhere found in the British sources.

5.3. Regional labels

Our discussion is confined to the regional labels in *SEDJ* or those related to the U.K. and the U.S.A.: ((英国)) (English), ((米国)) (U.S.), ((スコットランド)) (Scottish), and ((アイルランド)) (Irish) in addition to ((方言)) (dialect). The labels (Welsh) and (Cornish) cannot be found in *SEDJ* in the survey. No other related label is taken into account, such as (North American) in *POD*. Interestingly, 22 out of 34 in the labeled entries in Table 4.5 in Section 4 belong to this category. The labels (English), (Irish), (Scottish) or (dialect), or their combination are often found in entries under the letter K surveyed: **kazardly**, **kebbie**, **keek**, **keeling**, **kelt**², **kelt**³, **kelter**, **kenning**, **ket** and **kink**, for example, all of which are found in neither *COD* nor *POD*. This leads the present writer to doubt the third principle in the selection of entries: is there a real necessity for *SEDJ* to include dialect or regional expressions nowhere found in the primary sources of *COD* nor *POD*? Explanation of specific reasons for

their inclusion may be very difficult to justify.

It is intriguing to find the label ((米)) (U.S.) because *COD* and *POD* rarely show it. There exist some entries in which the label follows *COD* or *POD*: **tarnal** and **territory** come from *COD*, while **trade**, **tenderloin** and **tough** from *POD*. A large number of entries labeled (U.S.) come from other sources that were issued in the U.S.: *Century2*, *WNID* and/or *Standard2*. Some entries are found in all: **table-board** and **town-ship**, for example. *WNID* and *Standard2* may be the sources of **opening**, **tickler**, and **ticket**. The label in **tenner** may be based on *WNID*, while the label in more entries such as **opener**, **opium-joint**, **tall** and **tight** may be based on *Standard2*. The brief survey reveals that *SEDJ* made an attempt to give the label by making reference to the American dictionaries. This makes us aware that American English came to be recognized around the 1910s.²⁾ If so, it was quite natural to make an effort to list entries of American English in a dictionary. It is not certain, however, to what extent things American were considered to be of extreme importance in comparison with things British.

5.4. Currency labels

The list in *SEDJ* includes a rather misleading label ((古代英語)) (old English, when literally translated), which means (old) in *COD*. The label (archaic) is found in the front matter in *POD*, and also in the text of *COD* where it is defined “. . . (of language) no longer in common use, though retained for special purposes” (*COD*). The label (obsolete) is listed in the front matter in *COD* and *POD* where it is defined “Disused, discarded, antiquated of the nature of a relic” (*POD*).

As far as the survey is concerned, no entries labeled (old) can be found in *COD* nor *POD*. There is usually found in *SEDJ* a correspondence in translation between ((古)) and (archaic), and between ((廢)) and (obsolete) (cf. **gusto**). The survey reveals that *SEDJ* often lists entries and/or senses labeled (archaic), some of which are found in neither *COD* nor *POD*: **fatherly** and **fault**, for example. The same holds true for entries labeled (obsolete) in *SEDJ*: **gull**, **guile**, **guilty** and **gross**, for example. There is also found the label ((稀)) (rare): **fabricate**, for example. There are found

entries labeled (rare) that are found in neither *COD* nor *POD*: **faulty**, **fearsome** and **featurely**, for example.

The details above lead us to doubt the second editorial principle that entries or senses regarded as (archaic) or (obsolete) should be discarded except for some specific reasons. The principle, however, may have been considered subjective or arbitrary. It is doubtful whether the compilers are really conscious of the possible deletion of the entries labeled ((古)) (archaic) or ((廢)) (obsolete) in *SEDJ* (cf. Introductory in *Standard2*). Or it may have been taken for granted that readers need or ask for the inclusion of such labeled terms for extensive reading. (cf. McMorris 2001: 97)

5.5. Style labels

COD shows (colloquial), (popular), and (jocose) or (facetious), while *POD* gives (poetical), (rhetoric), (contemptuous), (pedantic), and (jocular) as well in the front matter. *SEDJ* only shows the label ((詩[語])) (poetical) while the translation equivalents of the others are given in its text. ((雅[語])) meant to show not only (literary) but also (rhetoric[al]) is also provided in its text. (Rhetorical) is defined in *COD* as follows: "Expressed with a view to persuasive or impressive effect, artificial or extravagant in language, of the nature of rhetoric . . . ; of art of rhetoric; given to rhetoric, oratorical." (Literary)³ is defined in *POD* as follows: "of or in or constituting or concerned with literature, (of word, idiom) uncolloquial, affected by writers." No distinction is made between them in *SEDJ*: **ambit** (literary) and **admiralty** (Rhet[orical]), for example, in *POD* are labeled the same way ((雅)) in *SEDJ* (cf. usage note of ((文章語)) (literary) for **tarry**.³) The fact that (rhetorical) used as a field label is translated into ((修[辭])) makes things confusing.

Another label (colloquial) is worth mentioning, which is defined in *COD*: "In or talk, oral; belonging to familiar speech, not used in formal or elevated language." It is defined in *POD*: "(of word, phrase, style) proper or peculiar to every-day talk, not in literary." *SEDJ* usually translates the label (colloquial) into ((俗[語])), which translation seems to have been appropriate in dictionaries in those days which would generally mean the

exact opposite of ((雅)) (literary). *IEDJ* and *SEED* also use the same translation, while in dictionaries today the translation usually corresponds with (slang), but not (colloquial) (see 5.6).

There are very often found cases in which, faithfully following *COD* and/or *POD*, *SEDJ* gives translation equivalents of style labels nowhere in its list: (pedantic) ((術學的)) in **fuliginous**, (nursery) ((小兒)) in **ta**, (formal) ((形式)) in **thence**, and (ironic) ((反語的に)) in **nice**, for example. Others include ((猥)) (indecent) in *COD*, (not in polite use) in *POD* in **fart**, and ((輕蔑的に又は親しんで云ふ)) (familiar or contempt) [the reverse order of translation between *SEDJ* and *COD*] in **fiddle**, for example.

The same translation for the labels are not always consistently used: ((戲言)) (facetious) is a case in point. The translation is in principle used for (facetious), but others such as ((諧[諷])) or ((滑稽)) for (facetious), (jocular), (jocose), or (humorous) are also used, and they are sometimes interchangeably used. A few examples will suffice to prove it: **graceless** (facet[ious]) ((諧)), **glorious** (joc[ular]) ((滑稽)), **gent** (joc[ular]) ((戲言)), and **Ganymede** (joc[ular]) ((滑稽)).

5.6. The labels (slang) and (vulgar)

Dictionaries today include the label (slang), but not always (vulgar), which is usually replaced by (impolite) or (not polite), (rude), (offensive), (taboo), or their combination with (slang), especially in British advanced learners' dictionaries today. It is not in *COD* but in *POD* that the labels (slang) and (vulgar) are introduced in the front matter, although both are actually used in the text in *COD*. In *SEDJ* (vulgar) is translated into ((卑[語])), which could be applied to bilingual dictionaries today.

SEDJ does not always make a consistent distinction between the labels. Its few entries in comparison with *COD* and *POD* will suffice to show that it is the case. See Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2 makes us recognize that *SEDJ* usually makes an attempt to distinguish between (colloquial) and (slang) in translation equivalents, despite their inconsistency. Entries labeled (slang) are also in most cases translated into ((卑[語])). *IEDJ* and *SEED* use the same translation: (slang) and (vulgar) correspond with ((卑語)), while (colloquial) with ((俗

Table 5.2 The distinction of (colloquial), (slang), and (vulgar) in *SEDJ* with reference to *COD* and *POD*

	<i>SEDJ</i>	((単語))	((俗語))
<i>COD</i> & <i>POD</i>	slang	gag	
<i>COD</i>	slang	savvy	gaff ²
<i>POD</i>	slang	geezer	
<i>COD</i> & <i>POD</i>	colloquial	dickens	gee ¹
<i>COD</i>	colloquial		get
<i>POD</i>	colloquial		ghastly
<i>COD</i> & <i>POD</i>	vulgar	genteel	
<i>COD</i>	vulgar	gum ¹	scholar
<i>POD</i>	vulgar	scholar	
Neither			gamble

Notes: (Slang) is defined in *COD* "Words & phrases in common colloquial use, but generally considered in some or all of their senses to be outside of standard English; words or phrases either entirely peculiar to or used in special senses by some class or profession, cant." (Vulgar) is defined in *POD* "... offending against refinement or good taste, of coarse manners or sentiments." *POD* also gives the note of (vulgar): the qualification implies that the use of the word or sense (except on occasion justifying departures from custom) is due either to want of education or to want of manners.

語)). The distinction between the three, especially between (slang) and (vulgar), is not made clear in translation, and as a result, users fail to grasp the subtle difference. No explanation is given, and no special care is exercised in listing them.⁴⁾

5.7. Comparison between *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*

To ascertain that *SEDJ* endeavors to excel *IEDJ* in label descriptions, random sampling is made of entries in F (**F** to **fang**) and P (**P** to **panic**). For comparison, the same translation equivalents in the same entries are surveyed whether they show any labels. The result was that a host of entries show the same labels such as **façade** ((建)) (architecture) and **page** ((印)) (printing). It could be safely said that, as is shown in Table 5.3 below, *SEDJ* shows more labels than *IEDJ* partly because *POD* made it possible to do so. It should be noted that *SEDJ* even includes entries that

Table 5.3 The number of labeled entries and senses in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*

	<i>IEDJ</i>	<i>SEDJ</i>	Both	Total
F	3	22	32	57
P	13	23	48	84

are found in neither *COD* nor *IEDJ*: **faculty** ((心)) (psychology), for example.

Dohi et al. (2001) concludes on the labels in *IEDJ* that "the editor tries in every way to include more encyclopedic information with labels attached in the entries, which is in accordance with his [i.e. the editor's] principle of giving additional entries that are not given in *COD*. But the labels in the dictionary do not necessarily correspond with or include those in *COD* and it is not clear whether he really recognized the usefulness of labels to users" (p. 103). *SEDJ* could be said to include more detailed description than *IEDJ*, because they made good use of labels in *COD* and *POD* as well as definitions or notes in *COD*.

5.8. Summary

SEDJ owes a host of labels to *COD*, just like *IEDJ*, and to *POD* as well because of a good number of labels in the latter. The apparent kinds and number of labels do not help *SEDJ* users to make the most of them. It is doubtful whether the compilers realized that no complete list of labels is found in *COD* nor *POD*. *SEDJ* is not user-friendly because it depends on its users to peruse a wide variety of labels in its text. The compilers may have been unconscious of their usefulness, or thought that the front matter does not count for much.

Description of field labels makes us well aware that an attempt is made to include numbers of technical terms, and *SEDJ* was obliged to give details by making good use of the British dictionaries along with other references. The result is that in label description *SEDJ* is on the whole more detailed than *IEDJ*. Regional, currency and style labels in quite a few entries, however, lead us to doubt the principle of selecting entries.

In including more entries and/or senses from other sources, due consideration should have been given to labels, so that users would find the list of

labels worth it. No explanation is found of what labels clearly stand for, such as (slang) and (vulgar), which may have made it difficult for users to fully comprehend them. *SEDJ* should and could have paid more attention to label description when the fact is taken into consideration that labels had been used in bilingual dictionaries over half a century when *SEDJ* was issued. (Section 5 by Dohi)

6. Pronunciation

This section describes the phonetic transcription of *SEDJ*. To understand the historical background, the change in the style of phonetic transcription in English-Japanese dictionaries will be briefly reviewed, as well as the development of the study of phonetics in Japan. The influence of the International Phonetic Association/Alphabets and Daniel Jones' *An English Pronouncing Dictionary* will also be introduced.

6.1. Phonetic transcription in English-Japanese dictionaries

The first English-Japanese dictionary, *Eiwa Taiyaku Shuchin Jisho* (*A Pocket Dictionary of the English and Japanese Language*) (1862), did not provide the pronunciation of words (Hayakawa 2005: 6). However, English-Japanese dictionaries published thereafter started to give the pronunciation, employing one of the three methods: Websterian, IPA, and Kana transcription. Table 6.1 summarizes the types of phonetic transcription used in major English-Japanese dictionaries published in the Meiji and Taisho eras (Hayakawa 2005, Takebayashi 1968).

Apart from the few dictionaries which used Kana transcription, Table 6.1 shows that the Websterian transcription was the dominant style in the Meiji and early Taisho eras. The first English-Japanese dictionary that employed the Websterian transcription was *Taisei Zoho Wayaku Eijirin* (*An English-Japanese Pronouncing Dictionary, with an Appendix Containing a Table of Irregular Verbs*) published in 1871 (Hayakawa 2005: 6). The shift from the Websterian to IPA transcription seemed to have started in the late Taisho era as the disadvantages of Websterian transcription began to be recognized. In 1921, *Dai Eiwa Jiten* (*A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary*) (Volume 1) (*DEJ*), the first English-Japanese dictionary that

Table 6.1 The list of English-Japanese dictionaries and their phonetic transcription

Year of publication	English-Japanese dictionaries	Phonetic transcription
1869 (Meiji 2)	<i>Kaisei Zoho Wayaku Ei Jisho</i> (<i>An English-Japanese Dictionary, Together with a Table of Irregular Verbs, and a List of English Signs and Abbreviations</i>)	Kana
1871 (Meiji 4)	<i>Taisei Zoho Wayaku Eijirin</i> (<i>An English-Japanese Pronouncing Dictionary, with an Appendix Containing a Table of Irregular Verbs</i>)	Websterian
1887 (Meiji 20)	<i>Fuon Sozu Wayaku Ei Jii</i> (<i>An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix. New edition.</i>)	Websterian
1911 (Meiji 44)	<i>Mohan Eiwa Jiten</i> (<i>Sanseido's English-Japanese Dictionary</i>)	Websterian
1912 (Meiji 45)	<i>Shokai Eiwa Jiten</i> (<i>A New English-Japanese Dictionary</i>)	Websterian
1915 (Taisho 4)	<i>Inouye Eiwa Dai Jiten</i> (<i>Inouye's English-Japanese Dictionary</i>)	Websterian
1915 (Taisho 4)	<i>Jukugo Hon'i Eiwa Chu Jiten</i> (<i>Saito's Idiomatic English-Japanese Dictionary</i>)	Kana
1921 (Taisho 10)	<i>Dai Eiwa Jiten</i> (<i>A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary</i>) (Volume 1)	IPA
1922 (Taisho 11)	<i>Shuchin Konsaisu Eiwa Jiten</i> (<i>Sanseido's Concise English-Japanese Dictionary</i>) (<i>SKEJ</i>)	IPA
1927 (Showa 2)	<i>SEDJ</i>	IPA
1928 (Showa 3)	<i>Sanseido's Eiwa Dai Jiten</i> (<i>Sanseido's Encyclopaedic English-Japanese Dictionary</i>)	Websterian

used IPA transcription was published (Ida 1996). *SEDJ* appeared in the middle of the transition period from Websterian to IPA transcription in the history of English-Japanese dictionaries. What triggered the change in phonetic transcription in Japan was the foundation of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) in 1886, and the publication of *An English Pronouncing Dictionary* (*EPD*) in 1917.

6.2. The influence of IPA and EPD

In 1886, the International Phonetic Association was founded in France whose primary aim was to transcribe sounds of all languages using symbols other than Roman alphabets. Its essential principle is biuniqueness, which means the one-to-one correlation between a symbol and a sound (Hayakawa 2005).

In 1917, an English phonetician, Daniel Jones, published *EPD*, one of the most well-known pronunciation dictionaries in the world, whose latest seventeenth edition was published in 2006 as the *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary* (Eds. Peter Roach, James Hartman, and Jane Setter). In its Introduction, Jones writes that the main objective of the dictionary is “to record . . . pronunciation used by a considerable number of cultivated Southern English people in ordinary conversation” (p. vii). The pronunciation model of *EPD* is called “Public School Pronunciation” (p. viii) because this type of pronunciation was usually used by the families of Southern England, whose male members receive education in public schools. The phonetic symbols used in *EPD* are those of IPA because Jones considered they were “the best at present in existence” (p. xi). However, the usage of symbols in *EPD* is not exactly the same as IPA. Jones explains that he uses “the simplified (‘broad’) form of transcription” and “uses the minimum number of symbols consistent with avoiding ambiguity” (p. xi). In other words, the transcription system that Jones uses in *EPD* is the modified version of IPA transcription. Thus, the phonetic transcription in *EPD* is often known as “Jones’ broad transcription,” which shows the mixture of both phonemic (broad) and allophonic (narrow) transcription while keeping the allophonic transcription to a minimum (Collins and Mees 2003, Introduction).

Soon after its publication, *EPD* was introduced in Japan by Okakura in *Eigo Seinen (The Rising Generation)* (1917). In his article, Okakura heartily welcomes the publication of *EPD* which he has long waited for, and explains that *EPD* is the dictionary Japanese people can rely on to check the precise pronunciation of English words. It is no wonder that the phonetic transcription of *SEDJ* is greatly influenced by *EPD*.

6.3. Phonetics in Japan

Influenced by the works of phoneticians in Europe, the age of scientific and systematic study of phonetics in Japan arrived around the beginning of the Taisho era. A number of books on phonetics were published, including *Eigo Hatsuongaku* [English Phonetics] by Ronald B. McKerrow and Hiroshi Katayama (1902) and *Eigo no Hatsuon to Tsuzuriji* [English Pronunciation and Spelling] (1919) by Tamihei Iwasaki. As mentioned in 3.1, Okakura himself published a number of books on phonetics such as *Eigo Hatsuongaku Taiko* [An Outline of English Phonetics] (1906) and *Eigo Sho Hatsuongaku* [English Phonetics] (1922).

The development of phonetics in the early Taisho era encouraged the transition of the phonetic transcription in dictionaries from the Websterian to the IPA system. The Websterian transcription started to be criticized for its complexity, that is, the use of a large number of diacritical marks, and the absence of a one-to-one correlation between a symbol and a sound. Another dictionary which influenced the spread of IPA transcription was *Eigo Hatsuon Jiten (An English Pronouncing Dictionary: For Japanese Students)* (1923) (*EHJ*) edited by Sanki Ichikawa.

Prior to the compilation of *SEDJ*, Okakura proposed his own system of phonetic transcription in *Eigo Seinen (The Rising Generation)* (1920). In the article, Okakura states that the IPA system is superior to the Websterian system, and adds that the Websterian system is only useful for advanced learners who have already acquired the spelling rules of English. For the beginners, he mentions that it is difficult and time-consuming to learn all the diacritical marks. He proposes few modifications to IPA symbols in order to make them more suitable for Japanese learners. The following are his suggestions:

- (i) /ʌ/ → /A/: /ʌ/ should be changed to /A/ because it is difficult for Japanese learners to imagine an [a]-type vowel from the symbol /ʌ/.
- (ii) /ei, ou, ai, au, oi/ → /e_i, o_u, a_i, a_u, o_i/: The second element of the five diphthongs should be diminished in size and should be marked with the diacritic to clearly indicate that these are falling diphthongs.
- (iii) /ɹ/ → /r/: Phonetically, /ɹ/ represents an approximant, and /r/ represents a trill. However, when we are talking only of English, we

can replace /ɹ/ with /r/.

- (iv) /j/ → /y/: /j/ should be replaced by /y/ because English does not use /y/ to represent a front rounded vowel as in German.

Among his four modifications, he only chose to use /r/ in place of /ɹ/ in *SEDJ*.

6.4. Phonetic transcription of *SEDJ*

6.4.1. Principle

In *SEDJ*, the pronunciation is given immediately after each headword in square brackets. When more than one variant is given, they are separated by a comma (Guide to the dictionary p. vii). Okakura explains in Editorial principle that he has decided to employ IPA transcription and follow Jones' broad transcription system in *SEDJ*, which is the most scientific phonetic transcription based on the biuniqueness principle. He continues that the IPA system is without a doubt the most simple, reasonable and convenient way for Japanese people to learn English. Therefore, in principle, the phonetic transcription of *SEDJ* is the same as *EPD*. However, if we look into it in detail, we can find slight differences.

6.4.2. Consonants

The phonetic symbols in *SEDJ* are listed in List of phonetic symbols (p. xi). In the case of consonants, Okakura explains that the use of letters,

Table 6.2 Consonant symbols in *SEDJ* and *EPD*

keywords	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>EPD</i>
yet	j	j
bring, finger	ŋ	ŋ
shut, fish	f	f
cheese, ditch	tʃ	tʃ
thin, bath	θ	θ
this, bathe	ð	ð
vision, azure	ʒ	ʒ
judge	dʒ	dʒ
when	(h)w	—

b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, z, is the same as in the Websterian transcription. One minor change from *EPD* is the use of [g] instead of [g]. Other consonants which require special symbols are listed separately. Table 6.2 compares the consonant symbols used in *SEDJ* and *EPD*.

The only difference between *SEDJ* and *EPD* is the symbol [(h)w]. *SEDJ* represents the words which start with the spelling *wh* using [(h)w]. The parenthesized (h) indicates that [h] can be either pronounced or omitted in those words. In contrast, *EPD* gives the pronunciation without [h] first, and then the one with [h] as the second variant for those words.

6.4.3. Vowels

The symbols in *SEDJ* used for short and long vowels are exactly the same as those used in *EPD* as listed in Table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3 Symbols of monophthongs in *SEDJ* and *EPD*

Short vowels			Long vowels		
Keywords	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>EPD</i>	Keywords	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>EPD</i>
bit, finish	i	i	bee, machine	i:	i:
put, book	u	u	rude, too	u:	u:
men, get	e	e	shawl, tortoise	ɔ:	ɔ:
box, waddle	ɔ	ɔ	father, barn	ɑ:	ɑ:
cat, man	æ	æ	bird, search	ɜ:	ɜ:
but, somebody	ʌ	ʌ			
cathedral, never	ɔ	ɔ			
domain, o'clock	ɒ	ɒ			

Both *SEDJ* and *EPD* use the symbol [ɜ:] for long vowels to discriminate between long and short vowels. Thus, both dictionaries describe the quantitative difference between short and long vowels, but not the qualitative difference between the two groups. The symbol [o] is used for a weak syllable in words such as *domain* and *o'clock* in which a diphthong [ou] is reduced to [o].

As for CLOTH words in which RP uses a short vowel [ɔ], *SEDJ* mostly follows the transcription of *EPD*. For some words which retain a long

vowel [ɔ:], *EPD* and *SEDJ* provide both possibilities. Thus, in the word *soft*, for example, two dictionaries give a long vowel [ɔ:] first, and a short vowel [ɔ] second. However, inconsistency is observed in some words. One example is the word *cloth* for which *SEDJ* gives [ɔ] as its first variant, whereas *EPD* gives [ɔ:] as its first variant.

SEDJ and *EPD* basically use the same phonetic symbols for diphthongs as shown in Table 6.4 below. Diphthongs are subdivided into closing and centering diphthongs in the table.

Table 6.4 Symbols of diphthongs in *SEDJ* and *EPD*

Closing diphthongs			Centering diphthongs		
Keywords	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>EPD</i>	Keywords	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>EPD</i>
day, great	ei	ei	hair, there	eə	eə
show, boat	ou	ou	steer, here	iə	iə
fly, high	ai	ai	fore, door	ɔə	—
how, proud	au	au	poor, tour	uə	uə
oil, toy	ɔi	ɔi	wire, hire	aiə	—
			hour, flour	auə	—

One difference is the treatment of triphthongs. *SEDJ* lists two of them along with the diphthongs, while *EPD* does not. Another difference is the use of [ɔə]. *SEDJ* lists [ɔə] as one of the diphthong phonemes, whereas *EPD* only mentions it as a variant. Inconsistency can be observed in the transcription of NORTH and FORCE words which contain the vowel [ɔ:] or [ɔə] followed by *r* in orthography. Table 6.5 summarizes the transcription of two groups of words in *SEDJ* and *EPD*, along with another two English-Japanese dictionaries which were published in the same era, and which also used IPA transcription. Following Wells' classification (1982: 161), FORCE words are subdivided into four groups: word-final positions in (a), pre-consonantal positions in (bi) and (bii), and pre-vocalic positions in (c). Wells (1982: 161) explains that words in (bii) tend to retain [ɔə] in old-fashioned RP, whereas those in (bi) do not.

In Table 6.5, the above-mentioned *SKEJ* in Table 6.1 constantly uses the symbol [ɔ:] for all FORCE and NORTH words, and simplifies the tran-

Table 6.5 Phonetic transcription of NORTH and FORCE words

Word group	Keywords	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>EPD</i>	<i>DEJ</i>	<i>SKEJ</i>
NORTH	horse	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:
	morning	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:
	or	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:
	war	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:
FORCE (a)	before	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:ə	ɔ:
	door	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:
FORCE (bi)	pork	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:
	worn	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:
FORCE (bii)	board	ɔ:	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:	ɔ:
	fourth	ɔ:	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:
	hoarse	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:
	mourning	ɔ:, ɔə	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:, [ɔə]	ɔ:
FORCE (c)	choral	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:
	glory	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:	ɔ:

scription of these groups of words. Table 6.5 also shows that the transcription of NORTH and FORCE words in *SEDJ* and *DEJ* mostly follows that of *EPD*. However, the close observation reveals that there is a discrepancy. According to Takebayashi (1996: 260), NORTH words were pronounced [ɔə] in the eighteenth century but became a monophthong in the nineteenth century. Even in *EPD*, however, some NORTH words are provided with the second variant [ɔə], as in *war*, and that is also reflected in both *SEDJ* and *DEJ*. In the word *or*, however, only *SEDJ* gives the pronunciation [ɔə] as another variant. On the other hand, Takebayashi (1996: 260) explains that FORCE words were still pronounced as a diphthong [ɔə] in the nineteenth century. The diphthongal quality started to be lost in the pre-consonantal positions, but was retained in word-final positions. For example, Table 6.5 shows that *EPD*, *SEDJ* and *DEJ* give two variants for the word *door* in group (a), which proves the residual of [ɔə] version. The inconsistency is observed in the group (bii); *SEDJ* only gives the monophthong for both *board* and *fourth*, while *DEJ* provides the monophthong for *board* but not for *fourth*. In contrast, *EPD* retains two variants for both

words. The transcription of NORTH and FORCE words reveals that the pronunciation of these groups of words were undergoing the change, and shows that the editors of *SEDJ* and *DEJ* basically follow *EPD* but partly make their own decisions as to which pronunciation they provide.

6.4.4. Suprasegmental features

As for suprasegmental features, Okakura explains in Guide to the dictionary (p. vii) that an accent mark is given above the vowel which carries a primary accent. Sanki Ichikawa's *EHJ* (1923) was the first dictionary that put an accent mark above a vowel (Takebayashi 1968: 261). In Guide to the dictionary of *EHJ*, Ichikawa explains the reasons why he changed the accent notation. The first reason is to avoid the confusion between Websterian and IPA transcription. Because many English-Japanese dictionaries had been using the Websterian transcription which puts the primary accent mark after the stressed syllable, the IPA transcription which puts the primary accent mark before the stressed syllable may have been confusing for the users. The second reason is that the accent mark above the vowel can be used not only for phonetic symbols but also for spelling. The accent notation in *EHJ* is inherited in *SEDJ* by Okakura. *SEDJ*'s style is different from *EPD*, which puts the superscript primary accent mark in front of the syllable which carries a primary accent. Compare the styles of the two dictionaries.

SEDJ aspiration [æspəˈreɪfən]

EPD aspiration [ˌæspəˈreɪfən]

In the example, the subscript symbol [ˌ] in *EPD* indicates the secondary accent. On the other hand, *SEDJ* does not mark a secondary accent. In addition, *SEDJ* does not put accent marks on monosyllabic words. *SEDJ* started to employ secondary accent marks in its third edition published in 1953, and started to put accent marks on monosyllabic words in its fifth edition published in 1980.

To conclude, *SEDJ* uses Jones' broad transcription system, which was thought to be the most scientific at the time because of its biuniqueness principle. Although the phonetic transcription of *SEDJ* generally follows

that of *EPD*, some differences can be observed in the notation of accents, and also in the transcription of some groups of words such as NORTH and FORCE words. (Section 6 by Sugimoto)

7. Grammar and Usage

In this section, grammar and usage information is surveyed in terms of parts of speech, inflections of nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs, verb patterns, verbs with infinitive or gerund structures, and countability or uncountability of nouns.

7.1. Exhaustive grammatical information

7.1.1. Parts of speech

This survey is based on grammatical information of 42 pages in *SEDJ*¹⁾ in comparison with *COD* and *POD*. It can be said that parts of speech in this dictionary are basically the same as those in *COD*. And the description of parts of speech following the number 1 or 2 is in principle based on *POD*. See the example below.

abaft

SEDJ adv. & prep. 1. adv. (船の)後半部に... 2. prep. 《航》...の後ろに.

COD adv. & prep. (naut.) In stern half of ship; behind.

POD 1. adv. In stern half of ship. 2. prep. (naut.). Behind.

The descriptions of *v.t.* (transitive verb) and *v.i.* (intransitive verb) following the number in parentheses (1) or (2) are original in *SEDJ*.

prosper

SEDJ *v.i.* & *t.* (1) *v.i.* 繁榮する.... (2) *v.t.* 繁榮させる....

COD *v.i.* & *t.* Succeed, thrive, ...

POD *v.i.* & *t.* Get or go on well, thrive, be successful; ...

7.1.2. Inflection

7.1.2.1. Noun: plural forms

Regular plural forms are not given as entries just like *COD* and *POD*. For example, there are only a few descriptions of exceptional inflections in entries ending with a consonant letter with -o, -f, or -fe in these three dictionaries (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 Plural forms of exceptional inflections in entries

	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
photos	given	given	given
pianos	no info	no info	no info
beliefs	no info	no info	no info
roofs	no info	no info	no info
safes	given	no info	given

On the other hand, information about irregular inflections is sufficient. The plural forms such as **men**, **feet**, **teeth**, **data**, **media**, and **phenomena** are not only referred to in each base form entry but also found as entries on their own. The only difference between *COD* or *POD* and *SEDJ* is found in the plural form entries: *COD* or *POD* gives them as empty entries with cross reference while *SEDJ* refers to “the plural form of x.”

data, datum

SEDJ **data** *n.* *datum* の複数。 [“the plural form of datum”]²⁾

datum *n.* (pl. -*ta*)

COD **data.** See DATUM.

datum, *n.* (pl. -*ta*)

POD **data.** See DATUM.

datum *n.* (pl. -*ta*)

7.1.2.2. Adjective and adverb: comparative and superlative forms

Basically information about comparatives and superlatives is not given in adjective and adverb entries. However, the inflections of two-syllable adjectives ending in -y, -er, -ow, and -le are found in the base form entries (see Table 7.2).

Table 7.2 Comparatives and superlatives of two-syllable adjectives

	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
pretty–prettier–prettiest	given	no info	given
clever–cleverer–cleverest	given	no info	given
narrow–narrower–narrowest	given	given	given
noble–nobler–noblest	given	no info	given

Each irregular comparative and superlative form can be found as entries (see Table 7.3).

Table 7.3 Irregular comparative and superlative forms

	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
farther	entry	entry	entry
farthest	entry	entry	entry
further	entry	entry	entry
furthest	entry	entry	entry
later	entry	in “late”	in “late”
latest	entry	in “late”	in “late”
latter	entry	entry	entry
last	entry	entry	entry
older	in “old”	in “old”	in “old”
oldest	in “old”	in “old”	in “old”
elder	entry	entry	entry
eldest	entry	entry	entry

Although there are subtle differences between *SEDJ* and *COD* or *POD*, it is clear that the information about comparatives and superlatives in *SEDJ* is more user-friendly than *COD* and *POD*.

7.1.2.3. Verb: past tense and past participle forms

Basically no information is found about regular inflection on verbs with the exception of the following few cases. The past tense and the past participle forms of verb ending in a stressed short vowel plus a consonant

Table 7.4 Inflections of regular verbs

	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
beg	given	in example	given
stop	given	in example	given
offer	in example	in example	in example
visit	in example	in example	no info
picnic	given	given	given

are given in each base form entry: **beg** and **stop**. The inflection of verb ending in an unstressed syllable is found in the illustrated examples: **offer** and **visit**. The inflection of verb ending in -c is also described: **picnic** (see Table 7.4).

Irregular inflections are given not only in each base form entry but also as main entries. The difference can be found between *SEDJ* and *COD* or *POD*, that is, reference to “the past tense form and the past participle form of the verb X” in *SEDJ* against empty entries in *COD* and *POD*.

brought

SEDJ *v. bring* の過去及び過去分詞. [“the past tense form and the past participle form of *bring*”]

COD See BRING.

POD See BRING.

7.2. Other grammatical information

The information will be also surveyed on (i) verb patterns, (ii) infinitive or gerund structures following verbs, and (iii) countable or uncountable nouns. Although these are not exhaustive grammatical information like 7.1, the difference among dictionaries at that time are found clearly. In order to compare with *SEDJ*, not only *COD* and *POD* but also *JECJ* will be examined.

According to the front matter of *SEDJ* (p. viii), usage information on prepositions, conjunctions, infinitive, gerund and so forth is shown in italics in square brackets. For example, “**accountable** [*for things, to persons*]” means “*accountable for things*,” and “*accountable to persons*.” Similarly “*誘ふ [from, into]*”, “*報ずる (= inform) [that, how]*”, and “(*…せんとする*) *試み (= attempt) [to do, at doing]*” mean that each italicized word in brackets will follow each entry word.

Grammatical abbreviations are also listed in p. xii. At a first glance, minor abbreviations are found which are unusual in present English-Japanese dictionaries: dim. (diminutive), fem. (feminine), impers. (impersonal), mas. (masculine), neg. (negative), pers. (personal), refl. (reflexive), rel. (relative), and subj. (subjunctive). It is, however, difficult to find them in this dictionary.³⁾

7.2.1. Verb patterns

The information on the verb patterns is examined: (i) verbs followed by two objects [SVOO], and (ii) verbs followed by an object and an objective complement [SVOC], because they have more elements than the other patterns. The description of the verb patterns has become more popular and common since *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (ISED)* (1942), and the two patterns correspond to the verb patterns 5, 7, 8, and 19 in *ISED*. The research shows that four types of description are found in *SEDJ*.

(1) Using verb patterns

make

III. Factitive [make + 目的語 + 補語] ...を...とす (= cause to be).

例— The people *made* him King. — He *made* her happy.

IV. Causative [make + 目的 + root infinitive] ...をして...せしむ (= cause, induce, constrain, compel to do). 例— They *made* me drink. — The rain *made* the river overflow. ((注意)) Passive の場合には infinitive の印 “to” が復活する。例— I was *made to* drink.

[Usage] In passive structures, an infinitive marker “to” is needed.]

V. Dative [make + 間接目的 + 直接目的] ...に...を作ってやる。

例— *I will make him a new suit.*

Although the number of examples in the entry **make** in *SEDJ* is much smaller than that in *JECJ*, and the same examples in *JECJ* are found in *SEDJ*, the original descriptions for the verb patterns [make + 目的語 + 補語] (make + object + compliment), [make + 目的 + root infinitive] (make + object + root infinitive), and [make + 間接目的 + 直接目的] (make + indirect object + direct object) in *SEDJ* are worthy of attention because these are early signs which became more popular and common in EFL dictionaries, especially those issued after *ISED*.

(2) Explanatory usage notes

give

((注意)) 一般的には或人又は物に或物を與へる意味で、前者を間接目的 (Indirect Object) 後者を直接目的 (Direct Object) と稱し、共に目的格として間接・直接の順序で動詞に附随せしめる。但し時には間接目的に前置詞 *to* を添へて直接目的の後に置くこともある。次に二種の目的を有する種々な構文の形を示さう。 — *I give him a book; I gave a book to the*

boy; I gave it (to) him; I gave him it; he was given a book; a book was given him; the boy was given a book, a book was given (to) the boy.

[[('Usage note)] 'Give' in the sense of 'make another recipient of something in subject's possession or at subject's disposal' is usually used with two objects in the dative construction. The former object is called an Indirect Object and the latter a Direct Object when they are placed in this order. A direct object is sometimes followed by an indirect object with 'to' preceding the latter. There are various constructions found as follows:]

A comparison of the descriptions in *SEDJ* with those in *COD* and *POD* makes us recognize that the explanation in *SEDJ* is based on *COD* or *POD*.

give

COD ... (with obj. of thing given, & ind. obj. usu. preceding obj. if without *to* & following it if with *to*; in pass. either obj. may become subj., the other being retained without *to* if direct, with or without *to* if indirect. Thus: *I gave him a book; I gave £50 to the S.P.C.A., I gave it him; he was given a book; a book was given him; the S.P.C.A. was given £50; £50 was given to, or given, the S.P.C.A.* Corresponding constructions are to be assumed with the various senses unless they are in applicable or exceptions are mentioned).

POD ... (Full normal constr.; thing &c. given as dir. obj., prec. or foll. by recipient &c. as ind. obj. without or with *to*)... (g. *him sixpence; g. every applicant a copy, g. a copy to every applicant; g. it me or to me, g. me it*), ...

(3) Illustrated examples

call ☞ *call a spade a spade* 鋤を鋤といふ、(婉曲でなく)率直に云ふ。

elect ☞ *elect him (to be) chairman (or to the chair)* 彼を議長に選ぶ。

name ☞ *He was named Taro after his uncle.* 彼は伯父の名を取って太郎と命名された。

Similar examples are also found in *COD*, *POD*, and *JECJ* so that it could be said that the examples in *SEDJ* are based on either of them.

call

COD 3. (with n. or adj. as compl.) name, describe as, (c. *a SPADE a spade; c. him John, ...*)

POD 1. (c. *him John; ...*) [Not the same example as in *JECJ*]

JECJ ⑥ 【補言附他動詞】(人を偉いふどと)稱する、評する。He **called**

me a liar (= he said that I was a liar). 僕の事を嘘吐きだと云った。Everybody **call** [*sic*] honey sweet (= every-body [*sic*] says that honey is sweet). 誰でも蜜は甘いと云ふ。You may **call** him a great man (= you may say that he is a great man). 彼を豪傑とは云ふを得可し。Call no man **happy** before he is dead. 棺を蔽て定まる。People **call** him **proud**. 世人彼を評して傲慢かりと云ふ。The army was **called** a million. 百萬と號す。I **call** his conduct **impertinent** (= I say it is impertinent). 彼の行爲は生意氣だ。An Englishman **calls himself** young at fifty. 英國人は五十に成つても若い積り。

elect

COD ... e. a magistrate, e. him to the magistracy, e. him (to be) magistrate,

POD (e. a chairman, e. him chairman or to the chair)

JECJ [No information]

name

COD [No information]

POD [No information]

JECJ 【他動】(誰を何と)名づける、命名する。

... We **named** him **Taro** — he was **named** Taro. 太郎といふ名を附けた。

(4) No information

In **buy** and **pay**, for example, no information is included in *SEDJ* as well as *COD* and *POD*. In contrast, the explanation of the dative construction of **pay** is found in *JECJ* given below.

pay

JECJ ② 【Dative Construction】(one so much — 人に幾ら)拂ふ。(one a debt) 人に借金を返す。(one a visit) 訪問する。(one a compliment) 人にお世辭を云ふ、賞める。What will you **pay** me? 給金は幾ら下さるか。I'll **pay** you 50 yen a month. 五十圓遣らう。

7.2.2. Verbs followed by infinitive or gerund

A brief survey is carried out on descriptions of verbs followed by infinitive or gerund structures.

(5) [verb + infinitive] structures

manage ☞ *manage to be in time* どうかかうか間に合ふ。☞ *manage to get what one wants* 欲しいものを旨く手に入れる。☞ *manage to make two*

ends meet どうかかうか遣り繰り算段する。

decide ...; 取り極める, 決定する (= bring or come to a resolution) [*to do; on, for, against doing* or an action]; ...

The information of this structure is found with rich explanatory examples in **manage**, in which *COD* and *POD* have no examples but *JECJ* shows rich but different examples. It should be noted that the information about [verb + infinitive] structures in **decide**, **pretend**, **want**, **wish**, and **promise** is also found in each dictionary.

(6) [verb + gerund] structures

avoid ¶ *avoid making any promise* 何とも約束をしないでおく。

mind ¶ *Should you mind my telling to him?* あの人に話して差支えありませんでせうか。

finish ¶ ..., 終へる ((*finish one's work, tea; finish doing*))

enjoy ¶ ..., 享樂する, 楽しむ (= take delight in) [a thing, *doing*]

consider [No information]

There are found three types of description: (i) explanatory examples as in **avoid** and **mind** (the same examples in *POD*), (ii) usage explanations as in **finish** and **enjoy**, and (iii) no information in **consider**, **admit** and **imagine**. In the case of (iii), there is no information in *COD* and *POD*. In comparison with the [verb + infinitive] structures, the information about [verb + gerund] structures in *SEDJ* has a lack of consistency (see Table 7.5).

Therefore, it seems to be reasonable to conclude that *SEDJ* gives less

Table 7.5 Information on gerund structures

	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>	<i>JECJ</i>
avoid	example	usage note	example	example
mind	example	example	example	example
finish	usage note	usage note	usage note	example
enjoy	usage note	no info	usage note	example
consider	no info	no info	no info	no info
admit	no info	no info	no info	no info
imagine	no info	no info	no info	no info

Table 7.6 Information on both infinitive and gerund structures

	usage	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>	<i>JECJ</i>
stop	infinitive	example	no info	example	usage note
	gerund	usage note	no info	usage note	example
	differential point	no info	no info	no info	no info
remember	infinitive	example	usage note	usage note	no info
	gerund	example	no info	no info	no info
	differential point	no info	no info	no info	no info
forget	infinitive	example	usage note	example	example
	gerund	no info	no info	no info	no info
	differential point	no info	no info	no info	no info

information on the [verb + gerund] structures in comparison with the [verb + infinitive] structures.

(7) [verbs with both structures]

stop 1. *v.* (1) *v.t.* ..., 罷める (= cease) [*doing, a person from doing, person's doing*]; ... (2) *v.i.* ... ¶ *He never stops to think.* 彼は決してゆっくり考へたりしない。

remember ¶ *I do not remember having (or to have) said anything of the sort.* そのやうなことを言った覚えはない。

forget ¶ *You have forgotten to take off your hat.* 君, 帽子を脱ぐのを忘れてゐるよ。

SEDJ does not give satisfactory usage information of verbs which have both infinitive and gerund structures such as **stop**, **remember**, and **forget**. Moreover, in **stop**, usage note is not found and it is difficult to understand the difference between these two structures. In **remember**, there is no usage note either, and the verb with perfect infinitive (remember to have done) and the verb with perfect gerund (remember having done) seems to have been interchangeable in those days. In **forget**, there are no information on the [verb + gerund] structure as well as the difference between the gerund and infinitive structures.

7.2.3. Nouns: countable or uncountable

There are no labels for countable or uncountable nouns. Nouns in

SEDJ are not classified, in contrast with the detailed classification of common nouns, proper nouns, collective nouns, material nouns, and abstract nouns in *JEDJ*.

For example, no explanation is given in others such as **class**, **family**, and **team**. On the other hand, both usage notes and explanatory examples are found in the entry of the collective noun **police**, which are also found in *COD* and *POD*.

SEDJ **police** ¶ the police 警官 (= policemen). ((注意)) 此語は複数動詞を伴ふ—例 *The police are on his track.* 警察隊が彼を追跡して居る。—*The police have a clue.* 警察が手懸りを握って居る。 [((Usage note)) “Police” is used with a plural verb.]

And in material nouns such as **furniture**, **coffee**, and **sugar**, there are no descriptions and no examples of *a piece of furniture*, *a cup of coffee*, and *a spoonful of sugar*. Therefore it could be summarized that this dictionary does not pay much attention to the fine distinctions of nouns.

7.3. Summary

In spite of a few exceptions, parts of speech and irregular inflections are exhaustively included in *SEDJ*. On the other hand, there is not sufficient information on the verb patterns, gerund structures, and (un)countability of nouns. It should be noted that there are also found usage notes in the form of ((注意)) in entries, which are in most cases based on *COD* or *POD* (cf. Kojima 1999: 424).

This brief survey confirms the fact that *SEDJ* depends heavily on *COD* and *POD* for grammatical information and it can be said that *SEDJ* is for general users who are supposed to possess the basic knowledge of English grammar and usage, and it includes far less grammatical information than grammar-oriented *JECJ*. (Section 7 by Isozaki)

8. Definition

In this section we examine the definition part of the entries in *SEDJ*. In 8.1 we look at the partitioning and the ordering of definitions or translation equivalents in *SEDJ* and see how *COD* and *POD* play their roles. In

8.2 we pick up translation equivalents adopted in *SEDJ*. We discuss some cases, where *SEDJ* modifies what has been considered standard and tries to produce new items to their own taste. 8.3 covers one of the distinctive features of *SEDJ*, the “bilingual principle.” We look at the characteristics of the “bilingual principle” in *SEDJ* and see how the dictionary deals with this innovative device of tagging synonymous English words and phrases onto translation equivalents.

8.1. Order of definitions

As is explained in the Guide to the dictionary, major definitions in an entry are not numbered, but simply separated by semicolons (;).

各譯語間のコンマ(,)は其前後の意味の同一又は近いことを示し、セミコロ(;)は其差違が著しい場合に用ひた。[...]尙、前置詞・接續詞其他精細な分類を要するものは、(1)(2)(3)...又は(a)(b)(c)...若しくはI., II., III...等、場合に應じて適當の方法を講じた。

[Commas (,) are used to indicate that the translation equivalents on side are of the same sense, or very close to each other, and semi-colons (;) are used when the senses of the two adjacent translation equivalents are rather different. (...) in the case of prepositions, conjunctions, or any other headword which requires detailed categorization, we use other partitioning marks, such as (1), (2), (3), or (a), (b), (c), or I., II., III., and so on.] (pp. vii–viii)

Let us take a look at an example from the adjective section of the entry headed by **capital**.

capital *a. & n.* 1. *adj.* 首位の (= chief, principal); 元の (= original); 主要の (= leading, important); 第一等の (= first-class), 素敵な, 見事な, 頗るつきの, 結構な (= excellent); 死を以て罰すべき, 首にかかるとの ([...]); (誤などの)大變な, どえらい (= fatal).

SEDJ gives six major definitions for the adjective **capital**, but its partitioning places are not clearly visible so that users are required to read through the whole section in order to understand the semantic outline of the headword. Let us take a look at the entry of the same headword from *IEDJ* for a rough comparison of the visibility of the sense structure.

capital¹ *a.* ①命に關[か]る, 死刑に處すべき。●大變な, 甚[は]い。●首位にある, 第一等の, 極上の, 飛切[と]の。●主なる, 主要なる, 至

重なる。④卓越せる(屢賞讃の感歎詞に用ふ)。⑥元の。

It is generally admitted that *IEDJ* is heavily dependent on *COD* for its description of the entries,²⁾ but, nevertheless, it does not adopt the use of semicolons as partitioning markers, at the cost of losing clarity, and follows the convention of numbered definitions. The use of semicolons in *SEDJ* for the separation of major definitions may well be inspired by *COD* or *POD*, but this is obviously a “retrogression” (Nagashima 1970: 228) in the tradition of English-Japanese dictionaries in Japan.

As for the order of major definitions, *SEDJ* claims in its Guide to the dictionary that it places at the beginning those which are more likely to cover all the senses of the headwords, and that their related translation equivalents follow them for the better understanding of the semantic property of the headwords.

排列。一語にして能く全的意義を包含する如き一元的譯語があれば之を先にし、それに近い譯語・解釋を順次排列して、轉義を容易に解し得るやう意を用ひた。

[The order of translation equivalents. An expression which covers all the senses of the headword is given at the beginning. Related expressions follow in a way which minimizes their sense differences, so that the history of transferred meaning is easily understood.] (p. vii)

In that sense, the order of translation equivalents in *SEDJ* is not based on historical principle, but it more or less follows that of *COD*, which claims that “the order adopted has been that of logical connexion or of comparative familiarity or importance” (p. vii). Thus, the order of major definitions in the entry headed by **habit** in *SEDJ*, for example, closely follows the one given to the headword **habit** in *COD* as well as the major partition of these senses indicated with semicolons.

SEDJ

habit *n. & v.* 1. *n.* 習慣, 癖 (= settled tendency or practice) [of doing]; 性質 (= mental constitution); 體格, 體質 (= bodily constitution); ((動・植))習性, 癖[...]; ((古))衣服, 服裝 (= dress) (特に宗教的位階の); 婦人の乗馬服 (*riding-habit* とも云ふ).

2. *v.t.* 装ふ, 着せる (= clothe); ((古))住まはす, 居住させる (= inhabit).

COD

habit¹, *n.* Settled tendency or practice, as [...]; mental constitution, esp. [...]; bodily constitution, as [...]; (Bot., Zool.) mode of growth; (archaic) dress, exp. of religious order; (also *riding-h.*) lady's riding-dress.

habit², *v.t.* Clothe; (archaic) inhabit.

Table 8.1 shows the pattern of sense correspondence between *SEDJ* and *COD*. Translation equivalents in *SEDJ* are listed on the left side of the table, and corresponding definitions in *COD* are listed on the right side. Each number in parentheses indicates the order within each entry. Although *SEDJ* covers the nominal and the verbal entries together under the same headword **habit**, while *COD* deals them separately with the help of superscripts as in **habit**¹ and **habit**², it is clear that *SEDJ* thoroughly refers to *COD* in terms of the order of major definitions.³⁾

Table 8.1 The order of definitions in **habit** in *SEDJ* and *COD*

<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>
noun	
(1) 習慣, 癖 (= settled tendency or practice)	(1) settled tendency or practice
(2) 性質 (= mental constitution)	(2) mental constitution
(3) 體格, 體質 (= bodily constitution)	(3) bodily constitution
(4) ((動・植))習性, 癖	(4) (Bot., Zool.) mode of growth
(5) ((古))衣服, 服裝 (= dress) (特に宗教的位階の)	(5) (archaic) dress, exp. of religious order
(6) 婦人の乗馬服 (<i>riding-habit</i> とも云ふ)	(6) (also <i>riding-h.</i>) lady's riding-dress
verb	
(1) 装ふ, 着せる (= clothe)	(1) clothe
(2) ((古))住まはす, 居住させる (= inhabit)	(2) (archaic) inhabit

The order of translation equivalents in the verb **construe** shows a different pattern of arrangement.

construe

SEDJ *v. & n.* 1. *v.* (1) *v.t.* 解釋を下す, (言行を)解釋する, ... の意に取る (= interpret); (逐語的に)翻譯する (= translate); (文法的に)解剖する (= analyse); (文法上)結合する (= combine) [...]
(2) *v.i.* (文法上)解剖出来る; 推定する (= infer).

COD v.t. & i. Combine (words *with* others) grammatically, as [...]; analyse (sentence), translate word for word; admit of grammatical analysis, as [...]; expound, interpret, (words, actions).

Two points should be noted here. First, the partitioning of major definitions in *COD* is not strictly followed in *SEDJ*, in that original *COD*'s second major definition "analyse (sentence), translate word for word" is divided and listed as two different major definitions, namely, "(文法的に)解剖する (= analyse)" and "(逐語的に)翻譯する (= translate)," in *SEDJ*. Second, unlike the case of *habit* above, the order of major definitions in *SEDJ* here is different from that in *COD*. For example, *COD*'s last major definition "expound, interpret, (words, actions)" is listed at the beginning in *SEDJ* in the form of the translation equivalents, "解釋を下す, (言行を)解釋する, ... の意に取る (= interpret)." ⁴⁾ Actually, it is *POD* that plays a key role in the ordering of translation equivalents in *SEDJ*. Let us quote the entry headed by **construe** in *POD*.

POD v.t., put interpretation upon (words, action), take in particular sense, translate or paraphrase so as to make the grammatical construction clear.

Table 8.2 shows the pattern of sense correspondence among *SEDJ*, *COD*, and *POD*. Arabic numerals in parentheses indicate the order of major definitions separated by semicolons in each dictionary. Alphabets are added to these numerals if it is necessary to clarify the order of senses within the same major definition. As is clear from Table 8.2, although *SEDJ* refers to *COD* for the basic semantic classification of the verb **construe**, it arranges the first three definitions in accordance with the order of definitions in *POD*. A similar arrangement can also be observed in the entry headed by **capital**, which we quoted at the beginning of this section. Compare the order of translation equivalents in *SEDJ* with definitions in *COD* and *POD* in Table 8.3.

Here, although the method of partitioning definitions is partly shared by *SEDJ* and *COD*, the order of definitions in *COD* somehow collapses in *SEDJ*, where the order is almost the same as that in *POD*. The only

Table 8.2 The order of definitions in **construe** in *SEDJ*, *COD*, and *POD*

<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
(1) 解釋を下す, (言行を) 解釋する, ... の意に取る (= interpret)	(4) expound, interpret, (words, actions)	(1a) put interpretation upon (words, action), take in particular sense
(2) (逐語的に)翻譯する (= translate)	(2b) translate word for word	(1b) translate or paraphrase so as to make the grammatical construction clear
(3) (文法的に)解剖する (= analyse)	(2a) analyse (sentence)	
(4) (文法上)結合する (= combine)	(1) combine (words <i>with</i> others) grammatically	N/A
(5) (文法上)解剖出来る	(3) admit of grammatical analysis	N/A
(6) 推定する (= infer)	N/A	N/A

Table 8.3 The order of definitions in **capital** in *SEDJ*, *COD*, and *POD*

<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
(1) 首位の (= chief, principal)	(4) chief (7b) principal (3) standing at the head	(1b) principal
(2) 元の (= original)	(7a) original	(1c) primary or original
(3) 主要の (= leading, important)	(5b) leading (5a) important	(1d) leading (1a) of chief importance
(4) 第一等の (= first-class), 素敵な, 見事な, 頗るつきの, 結構な (= excellent)	(5c) first-class (6b) fist-rate (6a) excellent	(1e) first-class (1f) excellent (often as excl. of approval)
(5) 死を以て罰すべき, 首にかかる	(1b) punishable by death (1a) involving loss of life	(2a) (of offence, punishment, sentence) involving death-penalty
(6) (誤などの)大變な, どえらい (= fatal)	(2b) fatal (2a) vitally injurious	(2b) (of error &c.) fatal (2c) vital

difference lies in the placement of the sense "important," realized as either "important" (*SEDJ*) or "of chief importance" (*POD*). *POD* puts it at the beginning of its array of definitions, but *SEDJ* uses the word in its third major definition. The fact that *SEDJ* is very much conscious of *POD*, or

Table 8.4 The order of definitions in **capital** in *IEDJ* and *COD*

<i>IEDJ</i>	<i>COD</i>
(1) ●命に關(か)る, 死刑に處すべき.	(1a) involving loss of life (1b) punishable by death
(2) ●大變な, 甚(こ)い.	(2a) vitally injurious (2b) fatal
(3) ●首位にある, 第一等の, 極上の, 飛切(と)の.	(3) standing at the head
(4) ●主なる, 主要なる, 至重なる.	(4) chief (5b) leading (5a) important (5c) first-class
(5) ●卓越せる(慶賞讃の感歎詞に用ふ).	(6a) excellent (6b) fist-rate
(6) ●元の.	(7a) original (7b) principal

to put it in another way, *POD*-flavored, in the case of **capital** above is obvious when we look at the order of definitions in the same entry from *IEDJ*.

Table 8.4 lists the translation equivalents in *IEDJ* together with their corresponding definitions in *COD*. Although the fourth and the fifth major definitions in *COD* are put into one major definition in *IEDJ*, and some senses such as “first-class,” “first-rate,” and “principal” in *COD* may not exactly relate to translation equivalents in the corresponding category of the left column, as the figures in parentheses in the both column indicate, it is clear that *IEDJ* closely follows *COD* in terms of the order of major definitions. As a result, *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* end up with different outputs.

Needless to say, the re-arrangement of the order of major definitions in *SEDJ* is not always strongly influenced by *POD*. See the correspondence pattern among senses in **wither** shown in Table 8.5.

Here, *SEDJ* splits *COD*'s first major definition into three parts.

(1a) make or become dry & shrivelled (often *up*)

Table 8.5 The order of definitions in **wither** in *SEDJ*, *COD*, and *POD*

<i>SEDJ</i> ⁵⁾	<i>COD</i>	<i>POD</i>
(1) 凋ませる, 萎れさす(= make dry and shrivelled)	(1a) make or become dry & shrivelled (often <i>up</i>)	(1a) make or become dry & shrivelled (often <i>up</i>)
(2) 枯らす(= decay)	(1c) decay	N/A
(3) 衰弱さす, 衰へさす(= languish, decline)	(1b) deprive of or lose vigour or vitality or freshness or importance (often <i>away</i>), decline, languish	(1b) deprive of or lose vigour or freshness (often <i>away</i>)
(4) ((戲言的))萎縮させる(= blight)	(2) blight with scorn &c.	(1c) blast or blight

- (1b) deprive of or lose vigour or vitality or freshness or importance (often *away*), decline, languish
(1c) decay

Then, it reverses the order of the second and third definitions so that “decay” is in the second place. Unlike the case of **construe**, *POD*'s influence is not clear here, in that, first, *POD* does not give any major partition to this entry, and, second, *SEDJ*'s second major definition, “decay,” is not listed in *POD* at all. The considerable overlap between English phrases accompanying the translation equivalents in *SEDJ* and defining phrases in *COD* here indicates *SEDJ*'s constant reference to *COD*, but it may be also plausible to claim that the re-arrangement applied to the partitioning or the ordering of definitions in *SEDJ* is not solely under the influence of *COD* or *POD*.

8.2. Translation equivalents

In 8.1, we have seen a case of noun **habit**, in which *SEDJ* closely follows *COD* in terms of the way of listing semantic properties of the headword. It is worth comparing here the translation equivalents between *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* to see what kind of Japanese phrases are allocated to each major definition of **habit** in *COD*. Table 8.6 is the list of translation equivalents in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*.

Table 8.6 Translation equivalents of **habit** in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*

<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>IEDJ</i>
noun	
(1) 習慣, 癖	(1) 習慣, 癖
(2) 性質	(2) 性癖*, 性質
(3) 體格, 體質*	(3) 體格
(4) ((動・植))習性, 癖*	(4) 【植・動】質(質)*, 習性
(5) ((古))衣服, 服装*(=dress)(特に宗教的位階の)	(5) [(古)]衣服(特に僧團の服)
(6) 婦人の乗馬服*	(6) 婦人乗馬服*
verb (v.t.)	
(1) 装ふ, 着せる*	(1) 装ふ, 著る*, ...に衣服を著けさす*
(2) ((古))住まはす*, 居住させる*	(2) [(古)]住ふ*

Translation equivalents followed by an asterisk are those which are not adopted in the other dictionary,⁶⁾ thus, “性癖” and “性質,” for example, are used in *IEDJ* as the translation equivalents for *COD*’s second major definition “mental constitution,” but *SEDJ* only uses “性質,” and does not adopt “性癖.” On the other hand, *SEDJ* introduces a translation equivalent “體質,” which is absent in *IEDJ*, for *COD*’s third major definition of “bodily constitution” together with “體格,” which is present in *IEDJ*. It should be noted here that both *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* closely follow the description of semantic properties of **habit** in *COD*; to put it in another way, they transcribe the same entry in *COD* almost word for word. Nevertheless, their results in Japanese are not the same. As *SEDJ* was published 12 years after *IEDJ*, it is quite reasonable to think that translation equivalents in *SEDJ* are more or less under some influence of those in *IEDJ*. However, as is shown in Table 8.6, *SEDJ* is not content just to imitate translation equivalents in *IEDJ* even in the cases where the two dictionaries refer to exactly the same dictionary as their source. The same is true of headwords such as **bale**¹ or **constrict**, where both *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* very closely follow *COD*, but translation equivalents adopted in *SEDJ* are not just copied from *IEDJ*.

constrict

SEDJ v.t. 緊縮する(=contract), 壓縮する(=compress); 收斂せしめ

る(=cause to contract).

IEDJ vt. 縮める, 緊(緊)める, 壓縮する, 收斂(收斂)する.

COD v.t. Contract, compress; cause (organic tissue) to contract.

Here, *IEDJ*’s translation equivalents for *COD*’s first sense “contract,” namely, “縮める” and “緊める,” are replaced with a new expression “緊縮する” in *SEDJ*.

bale¹

SEDJ n. ((古・詩))害悪, 殃(=evil), 破滅(=destruction); 苦痛(=pain), 悲み, 不幸, 禍(=woe), 悲慘(=misery).

IEDJ n. [(詩・古)]害悪, 破壊, 危難, 悲愁(悲愁).

COD n. Evil, destruction, woe, pain, misery, (poet. & archaic).

In the case of **bale**¹ shown here, except for the fact that *IEDJ* does not give any translation equivalent for *COD*’s fourth sense “pain,” it is obvious that *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* follow the sense description in *COD*. However, only “害悪” is shared by the both dictionaries, and *SEDJ* gives twice as many translation equivalents as *IEDJ*.

SEDJ claims in its Guide to the dictionary that it for the most part uses contemporary colloquial expressions for its translation equivalents.

譯語は主として現代的口語に據る。

[Translation equivalents, for the most part, are in contemporary colloquial expressions.] (p. vii)

It is not easy for us to judge here whether or not translation equivalents in *SEDJ* are actually the colloquial expressions used at the time. However, when we compare translation equivalents in *SEDJ* with *IEDJ*, it may be plausible to claim that Japanese expressions in *SEDJ* are more likely to be familiar to people today than those in *IEDJ*. Let us take a look at translation equivalents from the adjective **absent**¹ in both dictionaries.

absent¹

IEDJ a. ㊦不在の, 居合(居合)せざる. ㊧缺乏せる, 存在せざる. ㊨放心(放心)せる, 虚心の.

SEDJ adj. 不在の, 留守の([...]); 不參の, 缺席の, 缺勤の([...]); 缺亡せる, 缺けて(=lacking); ぼんやりした, 茫然たる([...]).

Although “缺亡せる” and “茫然たる” in *SEDJ* somehow carry a bit of literary, if not archaic, flavor, other expressions are fully applicable as

translation equivalents of today's English-Japanese dictionaries. Let us compare translation equivalents in the adjective **absent** in the 6th edition of *SEDJ* published in 2002.

absent *adj.* 1 不在の, 留守の, いない; 不参[欠席]の, 欠勤の. 2 欠けて. 3 ぼんやりした, 茫然とした.

As you can see, besides the modification of “茫然たる” into the more colloquial “茫然とした,” only one expression, “いない,” is added, and one expression, “欠亡せる,” is deleted in the new edition. At the same time, however, it must be noted here that not all entries in *SEDJ* are similar to **absent** in terms of the familiarity of translation equivalents, as is apparent from the use of the literary expression “収斂せしめる” instead of “収斂させる” for **constrict** above, for example. In that respect, *SEDJ*'s principle or attempt to incorporate colloquial expressions is not fully reflected in all the translation equivalents it uses. Some may claim that the differences of familiarities between Japanese expressions in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* may well be attributed to the fact that *SEDJ* was published 12 years after *IEDJ*. Nevertheless, when we consider the fact that *SEDJ* came out 80 years ago, the colloquiality of expression, in the sense that expressions are familiar to the people of today, could be pointed out as one of the characteristics of the translation equivalents in *SEDJ*.

It is also worth pointing out here that *SEDJ* not only borrows translation equivalents from the preceding English-Japanese dictionaries, but also introduces translation equivalents which cannot be traced back to any of the English-Japanese dictionaries we have covered in our recent three installments, namely, *MoEJ* (1911), *SEJ* (1912), *IEDJ* (1915), and *JECJ* (1915). Let us compare translation equivalents for **abash** in *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *IEDJ*, *JECJ*, and *SEDJ* below.

abash

MoEJ *vt.* 羞(ハ)ヂサス, 困(マ)ラス, 赤面セシム.

SEJ *vt.* 赤面サセル, 羞(ハ)ヂシメル

IEDJ *vt.* 羞(ハ)ぢさす, 困らす.

JECJ 【他動】度を失はしむ, 耻らはしむ。To be abashed. きまりが悪い(間が悪い)。

SEDJ *v.t.* 羞ぢしめる, 赤面させる(= put to shame); (恥かshめて)困

らす, どぎまぎさせる(= confound). ((注意)) 通例 Passive の形を用ふ。

SEDJ gives four translation equivalents for **abash**, namely, “羞ぢしめる,” “赤面させる,” “困らす,” and “どぎまぎさせる.” The first three have already been used in the dictionaries before *SEDJ*, and it is more likely the case that *SEDJ* borrows these expressions; thus, “羞ぢしめる” and “赤面させる” from *SEJ*, “困らす” from *MoEJ* or *IEDJ*. However, as you can see, “どぎまぎさせる” has never been used as the translation equivalent for **abash** in any of the dictionaries before *SEDJ*, and it is highly probable that *SEDJ* first introduces the expression into the entry, making it original to *SEDJ*. For further confirmation, let us look at the description of the entry from two other large dictionaries published before *SEDJ*, namely, *Mohan Shin Eirwa Dai Jiten (The New Standard English-Japanese Dictionary)* (1919) (*MSEJ*) and *Dai Eirwa Jiten (A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary)* (1921)⁷⁾ (*DEJ*).

MSEJ *vt.* 羞(シ)カシガラス, 赤面サセス, 困ラス, 度ヲ失ハス, 間ヲワルガラセル, キマリワルガラセル, マゴツカセル. [[本詞ハ多ク be ashamed ノ如ク受動的ニ用ヒラル]]

DEJ 〔動〕I. [他] 赤面サセル, 耻ヅカシガラセル. 度ヲ失ハセル. II. [自] 赤面スル, 度ヲ失フ, 恥ヂ入ル, 恥ヅカシガル.

As you can see, neither *MSEJ* nor *DEJ* lists “どぎまぎさせる” in their array of translation equivalents. Another large English-Japanese dictionary, *Sanseido Eirwa Dai Jiten (Sanseido's Encyclopaedic English-Japanese Dictionary)* (*SEED*), which came out one year after *SEDJ*, does not give “どぎまぎさせる” in **abash**, either.

SEED ⑧ 羞(ハ)ヂラハス, 困ラス, 赤面サセル, 度ヲ失ハス, キマリワルガラス[to feel ~ed = 羞ヂラフ, キマリノワルイ思ラスル; [...]].

Since the time-gap between *SEDJ* and *SEED* is only one year, it is unlikely that the editors of *SEED* have checked entries in *SEDJ* in detail. This means that if a certain expression is present in *SEED*, but not in *SEDJ*, it is either original to *SEED* or borrowed from preceding dictionaries other than *SEDJ*. Likewise, if a certain expression is present in

SEDJ, but absent in *SEED* and other preceding dictionaries, that expression could be one which is newly added, and therefore is original to *SEDJ*. In light of this, it is probably the case that “どぎまぎさせる” is one of those translation equivalents first introduced into the entry by *SEDJ*.⁸⁾ The expression, by the way, is still used in the latest edition of *SEDJ*.

abash *vt.* 赤面させる; きまり悪がらせる, どぎまぎさせる.

Let us look at another example from the *SEDJ* entry headed by **cantankerous**.

cantankerous

SEDJ *adj.* 口の悪い (= quarrelsome), 旋毛(せう)曲りの, すねものの, 意地悪の (= cross-grained, ill-natured).

The list of translation equivalents from *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *IEDJ*, *JECJ*, *MSEJ*, and *DEJ* below indicates that, as far as these dictionaries are concerned, except for “意地悪の,” which is present in *DEJ*, the first three translation equivalents in *SEDJ*, “口の悪い,” “旋毛(せう)曲りの,” and “すねものの” are new to the entry headed by **cantankerous**.

cantankerous

MoEJ *a.* 咎(とが)メ立テスル, 喧嘩(けんか)ズキノ, 意地悪(いぢあく)キ, 邪僻(じやく)ノ, 毒心(どくしん)ノ.

SEJ *a.* (俗) 争論(じょうろん)好キノ, 歪角(びやうかく)アル, 悪性(あくせい)ノ.

IEDJ *a.* 氣むづかしき, 喧嘩(けんか)好き(すき)ノ, 毒舌(どくぜつ)ノ, 意地悪(いぢあく)キ.

JECJ 【形】 口やかましき, 意地悪(いぢあく)キ(人).

MSEJ *a.* 咎(とが)メ立テスル, 喧嘩(けんか)ズキノ, 意地悪(いぢあく)キ, 邪僻(じやく)ノ, 毒心(どくしん)ノ.

DEJ 【形】 [(俗)] 性悪(じやくあく)ノ, イヂワルノ, カタクナナ, 片意(へんい)地(ぢ)ナ.

However, since *SEED* also has “ツムジマガリノ,” we cannot deny the possibility that some other dictionary before *SEDJ* has already used this expression as a translation equivalent of **cantankerous**.⁹⁾

SEED ㊦ [(俗)] 咎(とが)メ立テスル, 喧嘩(けんか)ズキノ, 意地(いぢ)ノワルイ, ツムジマガリノ, 拗性(びやうせい)ノ, 偏屈(へんくつ)ナ.

As a result, two translation equivalents, namely, “口の悪い” and “すねものの,” could be regarded as genuinely new to the entry, of which the former still remains in the latest edition of *SEDJ*.

cantankerous *adj.* 1 〈人が〉 つむじ曲がりの, 意地悪(いぢあく)な; 口の悪い; けんか腰(こし)の. 2 〈動物・物が〉 扱いにくい, 御(ご)しにくい.

The introduction of new translation equivalents like “どぎまぎさせる,” “口の悪い,” or “すねものの” indicates that a group of translation equivalents given to a headword in *SEDJ* is not just an assortment of those of the same headword already used in the preceding English-Japanese dictionaries.

8.3. Bilingual principle

The “bilingual principle” is definitely one of the distinctive features of *SEDJ*, in which English synonyms or sometimes paraphrases for headwords are tagged onto corresponding Japanese equivalents. According to Machida (1971: 12), the coexistence or the mixture of the target language (Japanese) and the source language (English) within an entry, thus bilingual principle, is first observed in *Eika Wayaku Jiten (A Dictionary of the English, Chinese and Japanese Languages)* (1879). However, Machida (1971: 12) claims that the bilingual principle is adopted in the dictionary simply because its source dictionary, *English and Chinese Dictionary, with the Punti and Mandarin Pronunciation* (1866–69) by William Lobscheid, is compiled under the bilingual principle, and no other special intention is involved in the introduction of this framework. The first dictionary in Japan which overtly claims the use of bilingual principle, according to Hayakawa (2001: 146), is *Eiwa Sokai Jiten (An English and Japanese Dictionary of the English Language)* (1885) (*ESJ*) by Ichiro Tanahashi. The expression “Sokai” in its title literally means “bilingual principle.” This dictionary transcribes the text from *Routledge’s Desk Dictionary of the English Language* (1882) by Peter Austin Nuttall on its left column and gives corresponding Japanese translation in its right column. While Machida (1971: 13) puts emphasis on the fact that most of the translation equivalents are simply borrowed from *Zoho Teisei Eiwa Jii (An English and Japanese Dictionary)* (1882), which is the enlarged and revised edition of *Fuon Sozu Eiwa Jii (An English-Japanese Dictionary)* (1873), and concludes that the dictionary is of little value in terms of the history of English dictionaries in Japan, Hayakawa (2001: 147) questions that claim, pointing

out that it is this dictionary that first shows the awareness of the issue of whether translation equivalents alone can convey the true and accurate senses of the headword. Hayakawa (2001: 147) argues that this awareness is nothing more than the motive for the conscious introduction of the bilingual principle into the dictionary, and that it is to be considered an event of great importance in the history of English-Japanese dictionary production in Japan.

The Editorial principle in *SEDJ* indicates that the editors of the dictionary have also developed the awareness that, for the accurate understanding of headwords, it is not enough just to array a list of translation equivalents in the entry.

邦語と其發達の經路を全く異にしてゐる英語の意義用法を傳へんとするに、邦語の譯語と説明とだけを以てする事は、種々の方面から考察して、不徹底の憾みがある。従來の英和辭典が、それぞれ多大の努力の所産であるにも拘はらず、多くは單に譯語を拾ふ參考書たるに止まり、語義の解釋説明などに至つては原書でなくては信憑を置かれぬ傾きのある所以は、蓋し、如上の遺憾の點が其有力な一因であらう。

[It is very difficult and not satisfactory, from various points of view, to convey the meaning of English words and phrases only with the Japanese translation equivalents and explanations, for Japanese and English have quite different historical backgrounds. This is probably the main reason why English-Japanese dictionaries published so far have been used only for the purpose of looking up corresponding Japanese equivalents, and that despite the assiduous and ceaseless efforts of editors and compilers, people are more likely to consult English-English dictionaries for the authoritative senses of the headwords.] (p. v)

They claim that, despite the prodigious efforts of editors and compilers, English-Japanese dictionaries hitherto published are most likely to be used only for the reference of translation equivalents, and that for the purpose of understanding the meaning of the headword, people are advised to consult English-English dictionaries. The *SEDJ*'s version of the bilingual principle then is devised in order to provide the users with adequate information from both languages, Japanese and English, for the best understanding of the headwords. It should be noted here that the bilingual principle before *SEDJ* and the bilingual principle adopted in

SEDJ are quite different. English-Japanese dictionaries compiled under the bilingual principle before *SEDJ*, more or less, inherit the manner of presentation of definition part from *ESJ*, in that they give both the English explanations and the corresponding Japanese translations or translation equivalents at the same time. On the other hand, *SEDJ* tags English synonyms onto corresponding Japanese translation equivalents.¹⁰ Let us quote entries of **habit** from *IEDJ* and *SEDJ* again.

SEDJ

habit *n.* & *v.* 1. *n.* 習慣, 癖 (= settled tendency or practice) [of doing]; 性質 (= mental constitution); 體格, 體質 (= bodily constitution); ((動・植))習性, 癖 ([...]); ((古))衣服, 服裝 (= dress) (特に宗教的位階の); 婦人の乗馬服 (*riding-habit* とも云ふ).
2. *v.t.* 裝ふ, 着せる (= clothe); ((古))住まはす, 居住させる (= inhabit).

IEDJ

habit¹ *n.* ①習慣, 癖. ②性癖, 性質. ③體格. ④【植・動】質〔?〕, 習性. ⑤【古】衣服(特に僧團の服). ⑥婦人乗馬服.
habit² *vt.* ①裝ふ, 著る,に衣服を著けさす. ②【古】住ふ.

As you can see, while *IEDJ* simply provides a list of translation equivalents for the headword, some of the translation equivalents in *SEDJ* are accompanied by corresponding synonymous English expressions. At first sight, the “bilingual”-based *SEDJ* looks more informative and more friendly to users than “non-bilingual” *IEDJ*. However, the English expressions tagged onto corresponding translation equivalents are not definitions, but only synonyms or paraphrases for the headwords, as is pointed out in Hayakawa (2001: 148), thus it is rather doubtful whether or not *SEDJ*'s primary aim of providing adequate quantity and quality of information for the accurate understanding of the headwords is actually attained. Not surprisingly, the editors of *SEDJ* are also aware of the limitation of their bilingual principle, claiming that the use of “synonyms” turned out not to be such an easy task since every single synonym has its own “fine shade of meaning.”

併しながら本書が此立場から最も多く利用した英語の同意語 (synonyms) は、各語何れも微妙な意味の文(♫) (fine shade of meaning) を有する爲

に、其取り扱ひには豫想外の困難が伴つて來た事は勿論である。

[The “synonyms” we have introduced into our dictionary, however, have their own “fine shade of meaning,” and the use of these synonyms has turned out not to be as easy a task as we expected.] (p. v)

Now let us discuss some of the problems we see in the *SEDJ*'s version of the bilingual principle. One of the important points to be taken into consideration in incorporating synonymous expressions into a list of translation equivalents as is done in *SEDJ* is that it must be clearly indicated as to which translation equivalents are related to the synonymous expression in question. In *SEDJ*, no special explanation is given concerning the range or the coverage of the synonyms, but the most common understanding may be that it is the one placed just before the synonym that is to be related to that synonym. Thus, let us take a look at an example from **indissolubility**.

indissolubility *n.* 不溶解性, 溶解せぬこと; 離れぬこと, 分離し難いこと; 破られぬこと, 背くことの出来ぬこと, 永續すること(= lasting), 確乎たること.

Here, we understand that the editors of *SEDJ* are expecting the users to read that the synonym “lasting” is applied to “永續すること,” but not farther to “背くことの出来ぬこと” or “破られぬこと,” for example. Then, let us take a look at another example from **conspicuous**.

conspicuous *adj.* 目立った, 際立った, はっきり人目につく(= striking to the eye), 著しい, 顯著な, 著名の(= eminent).

In this case, however, it is not clear as to whether “striking to the eye” covers only “はっきり人目につく” or whether it also covers “際立った” and “目立った,” in that these three Japanese expressions themselves are in synonymous relation and are in most cases interchangeable. Moreover, when we consider the fact that *SEDJ* gives “顯著な” and “著名な” (basically identical with “著名の”) as the translation equivalents for **eminent**, there rises another argument concerning the range of the synonym “eminent” above. Now, let us take a look at the entry headed by **dignified**.

dignified *adj.* 品位ある, 氣品ある, 威嚴ある(= stately); 高貴の(= noble), 貴顯の.

Similar to the case of “eminent” in **conspicuous**, in the entry headed by **stately** *SEDJ* gives “威嚴ある(= dignified)” together with “品のある(= refined),” which leads to confusion about whether the synonym “stately” in **dignified** covers all three translation equivalents, namely, “品位ある,” “氣品ある,” and “威嚴ある,” or whether it is only concerned with its immediate neighbor “威嚴ある.” In a way, this kind of problem is inevitable for the *SEDJ*'s bilingual principle as long as synonymous expressions are simply tagged onto translation equivalents, and some descriptive device should have been introduced to clarify the coverage of synonymous expressions.

In addition to the inherent nature of the bilingual principle in *SEDJ* discussed so far, there lies another type of problem in the way *SEDJ* provides synonymous expressions for the translation equivalents. Let us take a look at the entry headed by **subtle**.

subtle *adj.* ((古)) 薄い(= tenuous), 稀薄になった(= rarefied), 薄く擴がる(= pervasive by tenuity); 微妙な(= insidious), 捕捉し難い(= hard to grasp), 名狀し難い(= hard to define), 神祕な(= mysterious); 敏感な(= finely sensitive), 鋭敏な(acute), 微に入り細を穿つ(= skilled in niceties), 精妙な, 巧妙な(= ingenious), 巧緻な(= ingeniously minute or elaborate), 巧に工夫した(= skillfully devised), 狡猾な(= cunning).

Here, out of 15 translation equivalents in the entry, as many as 14 are accompanied by synonyms. Six synonyms are from *COD*, and six from *POD*. One synonym is found in both dictionaries, and one synonym cannot be traced back to either of the two dictionaries.

COD: 薄い(= tenuous) / 捕捉し難い(= hard to grasp) / 神祕な(= mysterious) / 鋭敏な(acute) / 巧妙な(= ingenious) / 狡猾な(= cunning)

POD: 名狀し難い(= hard to define) / 微妙な(= insidious) / 敏感な(= finely sensitive) / 微に入り細を穿つ(= skilled in niceties) / 巧緻な(= ingeniously minute or elaborate) / 薄く擴がる(= pervasive by tenuity)

COD and *POD*: 稀薄になった (= rarefied)

N/A: 巧に工夫した (= skillfully devised)

The case of **subtle** here is clearly strong evidence that *SEDJ* thoroughly examined *COD* and *POD*, and that *SEDJ* is trying to incorporate as much useful information as possible. However, it raises the question of whether or not all these synonyms are actually necessary or helpful for the accurate understanding of the headword **subtle**, especially when different synonyms are tagged onto more or less interchangeable translation equivalents like “巧妙な,” “巧緻な,” and “巧に工夫した” listed above. The users may wonder semantically how far it is between “ingeniously minute or elaborate” and “skillfully devised,” or “ingenious” and “ingeniously minute or elaborate,” and so on. Excessive tagging of this type is more likely to cause confusion than to help users grasp the accurate sense of the headword.

On the contrary, there are cases in *SEDJ* where no synonyms are provided, while *COD* or *POD* has suitable candidates in the corresponding entries. For example, none of the translation equivalents in **mention** are given any synonyms in *SEDJ*, but *COD* lists “refer to” and “remark upon,” and *POD* lists “speak of” among the senses of the headword. The more fatal problem, however, lies in the fact that synonyms are missing in some major definitions of headwords where *SEDJ* applies the idea of “GENERAL SENSES” in *POD*. As is already pointed out in the earlier literature, *POD* introduces the notion of “GENERAL SENSES” into the description of definitions, and the entries of the following eleven verbs in *POD* are systematically structured under categories like “GENERAL SENSES,” “OF CERTAIN SUBJECTS,” and “WITH CERTAIN OBJECTS.”

break / carry / cast / draw / lay / make / run / set / strike / take / turn

SEDJ adopts *POD*'s experimental categorization for four headwords, namely, **break**, **carry**, **cast**, and **turn**.¹¹⁾ Compare the descriptions of **cast** from the “GENERAL SENSES” part in *POD* and its counterpart in *SEDJ*, “一般の意味” part below.

POD Throw, fling, drop, (arch, exc. as below; [...]).

SEDJ 投げる, 投ずる (= throw, fling); 落す (= drop, 但し此意味は今では特殊の場合).

Here, *SEDJ* closely follows the description in *POD*, and sense words in *POD* are tagged as synonyms onto the translation equivalents in *SEDJ*. Then, let us take a look at the case of **break**.

SEDJ (1) *v.i.* 毀(こ)れる, 砕ける, 割れる ([...]); 破れる, ちぎれる, (ぶつりと)切れる, (ほきっと)折れる.

(2) *v.i.* 毀す, 割る, 砕く; 破る, ちぎる; 折る, 挫く.

POD Go into two or more pieces under blow or strain, cause to b., deprive of or lose continuity or cohesion, shatter, burst, suffer breakage of (a part), bring (part) or come off or away or out by breakage, [...]

As you can see, no synonyms are given to the translation equivalents in **break**. If the introduction of the bilingual principle in *SEDJ* is primarily for the purpose of helping the users understand the accurate meaning of the headword, the “一般の意味” part is the very place where the principle has a chance to demonstrate its best effectiveness, for “一般の意味” is nothing more than a place where the general senses of the headword is to be described. However, note that the bilingual principle does not fulfill its function in the other two headwords, either. Let us look at the case of **turn**. Table 8.7 shows the description of the “一般的意義”¹²⁾ part in *SEDJ* and the “GENERAL SENSES” part in *POD*, together with definitions in *COD*.

As you can see, synonyms are missing in the third and fourth major definitions in *SEDJ*, but their suitable candidates are provided either in *POD* or in *COD*. For example, “take new direction” in *COD* can be a good synonym to be tagged onto the Japanese equivalent “向き變はる” in the fourth major definition, and *POD*'s “place with the opposite or another side up,” although a little bit long, can serve as useful information for understanding one of the meanings of the headword **turn**. Although we do not illustrate it here, it should be noted that the same problem is also found in **carry**.

The systematic categorization of senses represented by the notion of “GENERAL SENSES” is not yet overtly present in *COD*, but we can see the sign of this in its entry of the noun **order**, where three major definitions of

Table 8.7 Senses of **turn** in *SEDJ*, *POD*, and *COD*

<i>SEDJ</i> *	<i>POD</i> **	<i>COD</i> ***
(1) [回轉・旋轉]まはる, 回轉する (= rotate), 旋轉する (= revolute).	(1) move partly or completely or several times round	(1) move (t. & i.) on or as on axis, give rotary motion to, receive such motion
(2) [轉輾反側]轉(ころ)がる (= roll), のたうち廻る (= wriggle).	(2) roll or wriggle	(2) execute (somersault &c.) with rotary motion
(3) [轉倒する・裏返す・まくれる]	(4) place with the opposite or another side up	(3) change from one side to another, invert, reverse, (fig.) revolve mentally
(4) [方向轉換]向を變へる, 向き變はる, (...の方へ)向ける, 向く.	(3) face or make face in another or a specified direction	(4) give new direction to, take new direction, adapt, be adapted
(5) [分岐・偏倚]外(へ)らす (= deflect), 分岐する, 正路を離れる (= diverge).	(5) diverge	(5) move to other side of, go round, flank
(6) [依・懇願]頼りとする (= have recourse) [to].	(6) have recourse to	N/A
(7) [變化・翻譯]變へる (= change), 翻譯する (= translate) [from, to, into].	(7) subject to or undergo a change of substance or form or quality (from, to, into)	(7) change (t. & i.) in nature, form, condition, &c., change for the worse, (cause to) become
(8) [...にする (= make), ...に爲る (= become)]	(8) (with adj. or n. as compl.) make or become so-&-so	
(9) [輾轉で挽く (= shape in lathe), 恰好よく作る].	(9) shape in lathe	(8) shape (object) in lathe, (of material) lend itself (...) to treatment in lathe (9) give (esp. elegant) form to
N/A	N/A	(6) cause to go, send, put

Notes: * Arabic numerals in parentheses indicate the order of major definitions.

** Arabic numerals in parentheses indicate the order of major definitions separated by commas.

*** Arabic numerals in parentheses indicate the order of major definitions separated by semicolons.

the headword are listed under the notation of "Main senses."¹³ *SEDJ* does not give any notation indicating "Main senses," but it separates the definitions of **order** just as *COD* does. Let us compare the description in each dictionary.

order

- SEDJ* (1) [階級・列・種類]
(2) [順序・連続]
(3) [命令・指圖]

- COD* (Main senses) 1. Rank, row, class. 2. Sequence, arrangement. 3. Mandate.

As you can see, *SEDJ* give three major definitions to the headword in accordance with the three main senses in *COD*, putting corresponding translation equivalents as a kind of signposts¹⁴ at the beginning of each definition. However, again, synonyms are not tagged onto any of these translation equivalents.

Now let us move onto the discussion of the sources of these synonyms. Since the Editorial principle in *SEDJ* says that *COD* and *POD* are the major information sources, we have conducted a survey to examine how much *SEDJ* is dependent on these two Oxford dictionaries in terms of the quotation of synonyms. In order to have a sample material, we have chosen two pages in every 100 from *SEDJ*. As a result, the sample material covers 22 pages with 1,599 headwords and 1,422 synonyms. The details of the contents of the sample material are shown in Table 8.8.

Then, for each synonym in the sample material, we verify whether it is listed in the corresponding entry in *COD* or *POD*. The result of the survey is shown in Table 8.9.

Although some random variation among sampled pages is observed, on average about half of the synonyms (49%) in the sample material can be traced back to *COD*. Of those 690 synonyms found in *COD*, 333 synonyms, that is 23% of the total number of synonyms in the sample material, are not listed in *POD*. On the other hand, *POD* covers 475 synonyms (33%) of the sample material, and 118 of them, that is 8% of the total number of synonyms in the sample material, are not found in *COD*. Overall, 57% of the synonyms in the sample material can be traced back

Table 8.8 Contents of the sample material

Pages	Coverage	Headwords	Synonyms
1-2	A, a¹ — abbey	44	50
101-102	bailiff — balloovine	87	57
201-202	cant² — capitolian	72	58
301-302	consolidatory — construe	67	103
401-402	differential — dilemma	81	76
501-502	erudite — -esque	75	76
601-602	fordo — forestall	85	102
701-702	gymkhana — hack¹	82	61
801-802	indisposition — inductive	73	93
901-902	lavish — lay¹	50	44
1001-1002	memento — mercenary	93	36
1101-1102	occasional — Octoberist, Octobrist	79	72
1201-1202	phase — phlebotolic, phlebotithic	84	38
1301-1302	puerile — pulpit	70	101
1401-1402	Rhætian — rhumb	93	35
1501-1502	sea-dragon — sea-monster	95	66
1601-1602	sodden — soldie	60	121
1701-1702	substance — subversive	84	71
1801-1802	toddy — tomfool	94	61
1901-1902	untilled — unwarrantable	107	31
2001-2002	withal — wittily	24	70
Total		1,599	1,422

either to *COD* or to *POD*, which reveals that in terms of the quotation of synonyms the influence of *COD* and *POD* is indisputably great. It should be noted here, however, that as many as 614 synonyms (43%)¹⁵⁾ are taken from other sources, and that *SEDJ* is not dependent solely on these two dictionaries.

The policy of the quotation of synonyms is not overtly announced in the Editorial principle, and it is not clear as to in what cases *SEDJ* imports synonyms from sources other than *COD* or *POD*. Sometimes defining expressions in *COD* or *POD* are ignored even though corresponding

Table 8.9 Sources of synonyms

Pages	Synonyms	<i>COD</i> *	<i>POD</i> **	<i>COD</i> or <i>POD</i>	N/A***
1-2	50	20 [8] (40%)	19 [7] (38%)	54%	23 [9] (46%)
101-102	57	35 [6] (61%)	32 [3] (56%)	67%	19 [0] (33%)
201-202	58	30 [5] (52%)	37 [12] (64%)	72%	16 [0] (28%)
301-302	103	54 [36] (52%)	36 [18] (35%)	70%	31 [0] (30%)
401-402	76	38 [24] (50%)	24 [10] (32%)	63%	28 [2] (37%)
501-502	76	41 [12] (54%)	36 [7] (47%)	63%	28 [6] (37%)
601-602	102	59 [27] (58%)	38 [6] (37%)	64%	37 [8] (36%)
701-702	61	40 [22] (66%)	19 [1] (31%)	67%	20 [3] (33%)
801-802	93	26 [9] (28%)	19 [2] (20%)	30%	65 [4] (70%)
901-902	44	29 [20] (66%)	9 [0] (20%)	66%	15 [1] (34%)
1001-1002	36	12 [5] (33%)	12 [5] (33%)	47%	19 [0] (53%)
1101-1102	72	27 [5] (38%)	27 [5] (38%)	44%	40 [0] (56%)
1201-1202	38	16 [11] (42%)	8 [3] (21%)	50%	19 [1] (50%)
1301-1302	101	35 [21] (35%)	21 [7] (21%)	42%	59 [4] (58%)
1401-1402	35	19 [14] (54%)	5 [0] (14%)	54%	16 [2] (46%)
1501-1502	66	21 [14] (32%)	10 [3] (15%)	36%	42 [10] (64%)
1601-1602	121	49 [19] (40%)	35 [5] (29%)	45%	67 [0] (55%)
1701-1702	71	39 [21] (55%)	26 [8] (37%)	66%	24 [5] (34%)
1801-1802	61	35 [21] (57%)	18 [4] (30%)	64%	22 [0] (36%)
1901-1902	31	7 [3] (23%)	10 [6] (32%)	42%	18 [2] (58%)
2001-2002	70	58 [30] (83%)	34 [6] (49%)	91%	6 [0] (9%)
Total	1,422	690 [333] (49%)	475 [118] (33%)	57%	614 [57] (43%)

Notes: * The figures in square brackets ([]) indicate the number of synonyms found in *COD* but not in *POD*.

** The figures in square brackets ([]) indicate the number of synonyms found in *POD* but not in *COD*.

*** The figures in square brackets ([]) indicate the number of synonyms in the entries headed by the headwords not found in *COD* nor *POD*.

translation equivalents are given in *SEDJ*; instead, different English expressions are borrowed from other sources. For example, as one of the defining expressions of the headword *indispose*, *COD* uses "Render unfit

or unable," and *POD* uses "make unfit or unable," but, for some reason, *SEDJ* does not pick up these easy expressions, but tags "disqualify" onto its translation equivalents "不適當にする, 不向(むか)きにする." On the other hand, *SEDJ* uses the phrase "make unfit," not "indispose," as one of the synonyms for **disqualify**, as in "無資格にする, 無能力にする, 不合格にする (= make unfit)." The synonym in this case is probably picked up from the *POD*'s defining expression "Make or pronounce unfit or ineligible" in **disqualify**.

The Editorial principle in *SEDJ* announces that, other than *COD* and *POD*, the editors of the dictionary also refer to American large dictionaries, such as *Webster*, *Standard*, and *Century*, together with the British large dictionary *NED*,¹⁶ thus, "disqualify" in **indispose** above, which is absent both in *COD* and *POD*, can be located in all of these large dictionaries, for example. The synonymous expression in **subtle**, which, as we have discussed above, we cannot locate either in *COD* or *POD*, namely, "skillfully devised," can also be traced back to one of these large dictionaries; thus *Webster* (*WNID*) lists "Skillfully or cunningly made, formed, or devised," in its entry headed by **subtle**. When we consider the size and the number of headwords of *Webster*, *Standard*, *Century*, or *NED*, it is highly probable that most of those synonyms in the column "N/A" above can be traced back to these large dictionaries.

8.4. Summary

In this section, we have examined the definition part of the entries in *SEDJ*. As is announced in the Editorial principle, the influence from *COD* and *POD*, on the whole, is obvious, and this can be observed in the way the order of definitions are arranged or in the number of synonyms imported from *COD* or *POD*. However, the editors of *SEDJ* were not satisfied just to follow the descriptions used in these two dictionaries, and they positively modify or add information if necessary to compile the dictionary to their own taste. This is made quite obvious by the fact that more than 40% of the synonyms in our sample material are borrowed from sources other than *COD* or *POD*.

The innovative spirit found in *SEDJ* is also reflected in its translation

equivalents. Although it is not applied to all the translation equivalents in *SEDJ*, compared with the translation equivalents in *IEDJ*, those in *SEDJ* are more familiar to the people of today. We have also seen that *SEDJ* introduces new translation equivalents which cannot be traced back to earlier English-Japanese dictionaries we have examined so far.

The most significant innovation of all, however, is the introduction of the "bilingual principle." *SEDJ* tags synonymous English expressions onto the translation equivalents in order to help the users understand the accurate meaning of the headword. The system is still employed in contemporary English-Japanese dictionaries, and in that sense it deserves to be highly appraised as a pioneer. Concerning the effectiveness of the bilingual principle of *SEDJ*, Umegaki (1973) claims that it is highly doubtful whether users actually refer to these synonyms since they are not familiar. His comment holds true, in that *SEDJ* gives "unremittent"¹⁷ as one of the synonyms for **constant** and "sepulchral monument" for **tomb**, for example. However, the problem of the *SEDJ*'s bilingual principle may lie in the fact that it provides synonyms in a way which disturbs or confuses users' better understanding of the headword. Sometimes *SEDJ* gives too many synonyms within an entry, ending up with different synonyms tagged onto translation equivalents virtually of the same meaning. At other times *SEDJ* gives no synonyms even in places where users could take full advantage of the bilingual principle. Although the editors of *SEDJ* note the difficulties of incorporating English synonyms into entries, which we readily understand, this kind of unsystematic tagging gives the impression that *SEDJ* is not yet able to fully handle the bilingual principle it has ventured to introduce. (Section 8 by Osada)

9. Illustrated Examples

9.1. Explanation in the Guide to the dictionary

There is a brief explanation on idioms, set phrases, and example sentences in the Guide to the dictionary (pp. viii-ix). In summary, it can be translated as follows:

Idioms, set phrases, and example sentences are printed in italics. They are listed within the entry of a headword. There is the sign "㊦" before the

first example and the sign “¶” is before all the rest of the examples. They are listed in alphabetical order to facilitate retrieval. However, their order may be changed in entries for prepositions and polysemous words in order to show their usage more clearly. Parentheses are sometimes used:

- (1) to join two phrases e.g. *art (dramatic) critic*
- (2) to show a word that can be omitted e.g. *a pair of (wooden) clogs*
- (3) to show an interchangeable word or phrase
e.g. *gates (or jaws) of death*
be amused at (or by, with) the idea

9.2. Presentation

Idioms, set phrases, and example sentences are listed all together after the Japanese translation at the end of an entry. If a headword has more than one part of speech, the examples are listed separately. They are usually listed in alphabetical order. Idioms and set phrases are listed first followed by example sentences. Phrasal verbs are also listed along with idioms and set phrases in alphabetical order. Examples are listed one after another in the entries. Therefore, the signs ¶ and ¶ are useful to separate example phrases or sentences from one another. The headwords in examples are not highlighted as they are in *IEDJ* and *JECJ*.¹⁾

It is noteworthy that there are other examples besides the ones listed at the end of the entries. They are put in double parentheses and placed right after the Japanese translation equivalents. They will be described in the next subsection.

9.3. Examples in double parentheses

The examples in double parentheses are placed right after the Japanese translation equivalents. They supplement the equivalents by showing typical grammar patterns or collocations of headwords. There are a host of grammatical notes along with them. Most of them are quoted from *COD* and *POD*, but some are quoted from other dictionaries such as *JECJ*.

The following are the entries for the adjective **glad** in *SEDJ*, *COD* and *POD*:

glad¹ [glæ:d, glæd] *adj.* (gladder, -ddest) うれしい, 喜んで(述語用法

にのみ用ひらる) ((I am *glad*; *glad* of it; *glad* to hear it; *glad* that ...)); (顔附・感情など)喜びの表れた, 喜びに満ちた, 嬉しさうな, 欣然たる ((*glad* looks)); (消息・事件など)喜びを與へる, 喜ばす, 喜ばしい ((*glad* tidings; *glad* events)); (自然などの)輝いてゐる (= bright), 美しい (= beautiful) ((*glad* season of spring; *glad* morning and evening)). ¶ *glad of heart* いそいそとして, 喜んで. ¶ *glad rags* ((米・車) 晴衣(日替)) (= Sunday clothes). ¶ *I am glad to see you.* お目にかかつて嬉しい. ¶ *I should be glad to hear (or know)...* 聞きたいもんだ(皮肉に). ¶ *What makes you so glad?* 何がそんなに嬉しいのか. (*SEDJ*)

glad, a., & v.t. Pleased (pred. only; *I am g., g. of it, g. to hear it, g. that it is so, g. it is so, shall be g. to come &c.*; iron., *should be g. to know*); (of looks, feelings, &c.) marked by, filled with, expressing, joy; (of news or events) giving joy; (of nature &c.) bright, beautiful; hence **glad**·**dden**⁶ v.t., **glad**·**dly**₂ adv., **glad**·**ness** n., (poet.) **glad**·**dsome**, a., **glad**·**dsomely**₂ adv., **glad**·**dsomeness** n. (Vb; archaic) make g. [OE *glad* cf. Da. & Sw. *glad*, & G *glatt* smooth (the orig. sense cf. L *glaber*)] (*COD*)

glād. 1. *adj.* (-*dder*, -*ddest*), Pleased (pred. only: *am g. of it, to hear it, that it is so*); expressing or giving joy, joyful, (*g. cry, news; the g. eye, sl., amorous or festive look; g. rags, sl., best clothes*); (of nature &c.) bright. 2. v.t. (arch.). Make g. **glād**·**den** v.t. [E] (*POD*)

The phrase (述語用法にのみ用ひらる) in the excerpt from *SEDJ* is the Japanese translation of the grammatical note “pred. only” in *COD* and *POD*. The four phrases in the first double parentheses all show the typical sentence patterns of **glad**. They may have been quoted from *COD*. The word **glad** in the examples are abbreviated in *COD* and *POD*, but they are spelled out in *SEDJ*. It is also noteworthy that headwords are in italics in the examples in double parentheses, although they are not highlighted in the examples listed at the end of the entries. The examples in the second, third, and fourth double parentheses all show typical nouns that collocate with **glad** in each sense. The examples “*glad* looks” and “*glad* events” may have been invented based on the definitions in *COD*. The words “looks” and “events” are indicated as the nouns that are likely to collocate with **glad** in *COD*. There may also be a possibility that these examples are partly quoted from *JECJ*. In the entry for **glad** in *JECJ*,

there are examples such as “a glad air (or look),” “glad news (or tidings),” and “a glad event.” The example “glad rags” is both in *POD* and *JECJ*. It may have been quoted from either of the dictionaries. The example sentences “I am glad to see you.” and “I should be glad to hear (or know) ...” may both have been quoted from *JECJ*, although their Japanese translations are different in *SEDJ*. The sources of the rest of the examples are unknown. There is a possibility that they had been originally invented by the compilers of *SEDJ*.

Thus, it can be said that not all examples in *SEDJ* are quotations from *COD* and *POD*. Examples are selected based on the compilers' judgment, although the criteria for this selection are not clear. Sometimes they are quoted from other dictionaries, or may have been originally invented by the compilers.

To sum up, *SEDJ* shows typical sentence patterns and collocations through selected examples in double parentheses, while it lists additional examples with Japanese translations at the end of entries.

9.4. Dictionaries suggested as references

It is said in the front matter that Okakura and his compilation team relied on *COD* and *POD* while compiling *SEDJ* (p. v). Therefore, it can be presumed that there are examples commonly found in *COD*, *POD*, and *SEDJ*. In fact, some of the examples in the entry for **glad**¹ quoted in the previous subsection show that they are actually identical or almost the same with those in *COD* and *POD*. Machida (1981: 55–56) and Nagashima (1996: 227–28) point out the examples in *SEDJ* which suggest the possibility of its quoting the examples from *COD*.

IEDJ, which was published in 1915, is also known as a dictionary whose compiler relied on *COD*. Thus, it can be assumed that there are examples commonly found in both *IEDJ* and *SEDJ*. In addition, since *IEDJ* was a dictionary that had a good reputation and was widely used then, *SEDJ* may have quoted some examples directly from *IEDJ*. For example, “spectacled cobra” seems to have been quoted directly from the entry for **spectacled** in *IEDJ*, since this example is not found in *COD*, as suggested in Machida (*ibid.*). Incidentally, this compound is not found in

POD either. However, it is found in *Standard2* and *WNID*. Therefore, there is a possibility that the compilers of *SEDJ* quoted this compound from either of the two American dictionaries.

JECJ was published in the same year *IEDJ* was published, and became quite popular. Therefore, there is also a possibility that Okakura referred to *JECJ* during the compilation of *SEDJ*. In fact, the examples in the entry for **glad**¹ quoted above suggest this possibility (see 9.3).

It is also said in the front matter that Okakura and his team referred to several large dictionaries that had been published in the U.K. and the U.S.A. such as “Oxford, Webster, Standard and Century” during the compilation of *SEDJ* (p. v).

In the following subsections, the examples in *SEDJ* will be compared with those in the other English-Japanese and monolingual dictionaries mentioned above.

9.4.1. Quotations from *POD*

It is said in the front matter that Okakura and his team referred not only to *COD* but also to *POD* while compiling *SEDJ* (p. v). In fact, there are examples which suggest that the compilers of *SEDJ* referred to *POD* when there were no examples or no appropriate examples given in *COD*. For example, there are no examples in the entry for **ability** in *COD*. However, there are four examples (excluding the one in double parentheses) in the entry in *SEDJ*. Compare:

a-bil'i-ty [əbiliti] *n.* 出来ること (= being able); 能力 (= competency); (屢 *pl.*) 才能 ((natural abilities)), 手腕, 技量. ◀ *his manifold abilities* 彼の多方面の才. ¶ *man of ability* 手腕家. ¶ *to the best of one's ability* 出来得る限り. ◀ *You doubt my ability to do it?* 僕にそれが出来るかと君は疑ふんだね. [OF *ableté* < L *habilis* deft, cf. *able*]
(*SEDJ*)

abil'itý, *n.* Sufficient power, being able, (*you doubt my a. to do it?*); cleverness, mental faculty, (*his great a., manifold aa.*). [ABLE]
(*POD*)

The first and the fourth examples in *SEDJ* may have been quoted from *POD*. The third example is in the entry for **best** in *POD*. It is impossible

Table 9.1 A comparison of examples that are not in *COD* but are in both *SEDJ* and *POD*

Headword	<i>SEDJ</i>	<i>POD</i>
about (adv.)	<i>look about</i>	<i>look a.</i>
	<i>order a person about</i>	<i>orders me a.</i>
	<i>Rumours are about.</i>	<i>Rumours are a.</i>
	<i>He is (of) about my size.</i>	<i>is a. or of a. my size</i>
	<i>That's about right.</i>	<i>a. right</i>
	<i>It takes about a week to change her shoes.</i>	<i>takes a. a week to change her shoes</i>
	<i>I am about sick of it.</i>	<i>am a. sick of it</i>
about (prep.)	<i>somewhere about here</i>	<i>somewhere a. the place</i>
	<i>He is busy about his packing.</i>	<i>busy a. his packing</i>
fail (v.)	<i>I failed in persuading him.</i>	<i>f. in persuading or to persuade</i>
	<i>I failed to persuade him.</i>	
	<i>It fails in impressiveness.</i>	<i>fails in impressiveness</i>
	<i>Do not fail me in need.</i>	<i>do not f. me in my need</i>
	<i>Words fail me to tell</i>	<i>words f. me to tell</i>
fail (n.)	<i>without fail</i>	<i>Without f.</i>

to trace the source of the second example.

The examples in other entries also suggest that *SEDJ* quoted some examples from *POD*. Table 9.1 shows examples in the entries for **about** (adv., prep.) and **fail** (v., n.), which are not found in *COD* but are found in *SEDJ* and *POD*.

The compilers of *SEDJ* seem to have made an effort to modify the examples that are quoted from *POD* for the Japanese users. The presentation of the examples is changed from *POD* style into *SEDJ* style. *SEDJ* always supplies a subject (and a verb if necessary) to change the example phrases in *POD* into sentences. In the entry for **about**, the phrase “*takes about a week to change her shoes*” is supplied with a subject and rewritten as “*It takes about a week to change her shoes.*” In the entry for **fail**, the phrase “*fail in persuading or to persuade*” is separated into two sentences to make it easier for the users to understand that the verb can be used in two different sentence structures.

9.4.2. Quotations from *IEDJ*

It is very likely that Okakura and his team used *IEDJ* as a reference while compiling *SEDJ*. Since both *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* are dependent on *COD*, it is natural that many of the examples in *SEDJ* are also found in *IEDJ*. The wordings of the Japanese translations for the examples commonly found in both dictionaries are often very close or exactly the same in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*, which suggests that the compilers of *SEDJ* actually referred to *IEDJ*. For example, in the entry for **facial**, there is a compound *facial angle* as an example in both *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*:

☞ *Facial angle* ((解) 顔面角(鼻腔より耳に至る線と鼻腔より額に至る線とが成す角度). (*SEDJ*)

— *facial angle*, 面角(鼻腔より耳に至る線と鼻腔より額に至る線とによりて成す角). (*IEDJ*)

The Japanese translation equivalent for the compound is only slightly different in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*: 顔面角 and 面角 respectively. However, the Japanese explanations in the parentheses are almost the same in the two dictionaries. This suggests that the compilers of *SEDJ* actually referred to *IEDJ*.

Yet the compilers of *SEDJ* did not blindly quote examples from *IEDJ*. For instance, the examples in the entry for **abash** in *SEDJ* and *IEDJ* are different:

☞ *be abashed in the presence of* (偉い人など)の前できまり悪がる. (*SEDJ*)

The presence of these men *abashed* the poor child. 此等の人が居たので可憐な子供は羞澁[ハジ]んだ. (*IEDJ*)

While the example in *IEDJ* is in the active voice, the example in *SEDJ* is in the passive. Since there is a grammatical note (chiefly in pass.) in the entry for **abash** in *COD*, the compilers of *SEDJ* may have considered the example in *IEDJ* as inappropriate and did not quote it in this case. It seems that the compiler of *IEDJ* did not pay much attention to the grammatical note in *COD*. In fact, this grammatical note is translated into Japanese in the entry for **abash** in *SEDJ*, but is not in *IEDJ*.

9.4.3. Quotations from *JECJ*

A close look at the entries in *SEDJ* and *JECJ* suggests that the compilers of *SEDJ* referred not only to *IEDJ*, but also to *JECJ* while compiling *SEDJ*. As mentioned in the previous subsection, *IEDJ* does not seem to have paid much attention to usage. On the other hand, the compiler of *JECJ* was a famous grammarian of that time, and the compilers of *SEDJ* may have thought the information on usage and grammar in *JECJ* was reliable and worthy of quoting.

Compare the example sentences in the entry for **convince** in *SEDJ* and *JECJ*:

¶ *I am convinced (or sure) of the fact. = I am convinced that it is so.* 事實さうだと確信してゐる。 (*SEDJ*)

I am convinced of (= *am assured of — am sure of*) the fact — **I am convinced that** it is so. 事実を(さうだと)確信する。 (*JECJ*)

The presentation of the sentence patterns in *SEDJ* is similar to those in *JECJ*. The Japanese translation of the example sentences in *SEDJ* is also almost identical with that in *JECJ*. This suggests that the compilers of *SEDJ* may have referred to the entry for **convince** in *JECJ*.

Another example is in the entry for **abide**. The following example sentence is the English translation of a Japanese proverb: “*Do your best and abide by the event.*” The following Japanese translation is given to the sentence: “人事を尽くしてことの成行きを待て。” The same sentence is found as an example in the entry for **abide** in *JECJ*. There is only a slight difference in its Japanese translation although the overall meaning of the proverb does not change: 人事を尽くして天命を待つ。

There are other example sentences in *SEDJ* which seem to have been quoted from *JECJ*. The following are examples in the entry for **fail**:

Perseverance never fails of its reward. 辛抱強くすれば吃度その酬がある。

My tongue failed me. (その時どうしても)口が利けなかった。 (*SEDJ*)

Perseverance **never fails of** its reward. 忍耐には必ず其の賞あり。

My tongue **failed** me. (怖けて)物が云へなかつた(など)。 (*JECJ*)

The two examples are identical, although the Japanese translations in *SEDJ* are rather colloquial compared to those in *JECJ* (see Section 8).

9.4.4. Quotations from American dictionaries

Some examples may have been quoted from American dictionaries such as *Standard2*, *Century1* and *WNID*. For example, in the entry for **Pan-American**, there is a phrase *Pan-American Congress* in *SEDJ*. This example may have been quoted from the entry for **Pan-American** in the three American dictionaries mentioned above. The adjective **Pan-American** is neither in the entry for **pan-** in *COD* nor in *POD*. Incidentally, **Pan-American** is included as a headword in *IEDJ* and *JECJ*, but there are no examples for this headword in either of the dictionaries. Therefore, this compound cannot have been quoted from *IEDJ* or *JECJ*.

Another example is in the entry for **go**¹. The set phrase “*from the word go*” may have been quoted from *Standard2*. In *SEDJ*, the label ((米俗)) (which means “American colloquial”) is attached to this phrase. This set phrase is also given as an example in the entry for **go** in *Standard2* and the label [Colloq. U.S.] is attached to it. The label ((米俗)) may be the Japanese translation of the label [Colloq. U.S.] in *Standard2* (see Section 5).

The example phrase under the first sense of **abide** is quite similar to the example sentence under the third sense of **Abide** in *WNID*:

¶ *abide in the same calling* (*SEDJ*)

Let every man *abide* in the same calling. 1 Cor. vii. 20. (*WNID*)

Some more examples suggest that *WNID* may have been referred to:

(1) **absorb**

¶ *be absorbed in study* (*SEDJ*)

¶ *be absorbed in the pursuit of wealth* (*SEDJ*)

absorbed in study or in the pursuit of wealth (*WNID*)

(2) **accrue**

¶ advantages *accruing* to society from the freedom of the press (*SEDJ*)

The great and essential advantages of *accruing* to society from the freedom of the press. *Junius* (*WNID*)

9.5. Examples in the entries for function words

9.5.1. Examples in the entries for prepositions

It is said in the Guide to the dictionary that the examples for prepositions are not in alphabetical order but are rearranged in a way that would facilitate the users' understanding of their meaning (p. viii).

Let us take the entry for the preposition **to** as an example. Its entry is first divided into two parts. Part A describes the usage of **to** that comes before a noun or noun phrase, while part B describes the use of to-infinitival clauses. In each part, there are signposts at the beginning of each sense. This approach is also taken in *JECJ*, and *SEDJ* may have followed suit although the signposts and the way of classifying the senses are different between the two (see 8.3).

The signposts in part A are as follows: (1) [方向 (Direction)], (2) [到達点 (Destination)], (3) [目的 (Purpose)], (4) [結果・効果 (Results/Effects)], (5) [対向・対立 (Opposition)], (6) [調和・一致 (Harmony/Agreement)], (7) [比較・対比 (Comparison/Contrast)], (8) [付加・結合 (Addition/Combination)], (9) [附属 (Attribute)], (10) [随伴 (Accompaniment)]. In part B, to-infinitives are divided into the following three categories: (1) [名詞的に (used as nouns)], (2) [形容詞的に (used as adjectives)], (3) [副詞的に (used as adverbs)]. After the two parts comes the list of idioms. Lastly, three sentences are added as examples.

The examples are mostly quoted from *COD*, and they are classified into the above categories with their Japanese translations. They are listed in alphabetical order in each category. However, there are some examples that are not quoted in *SEDJ*. Table 9.2 shows how the examples in *COD* which were grouped under the sense "In the direction of (place, person, thing, condition, quality, &c.; with or without the implication of intention or of arrival)" were classified into different categories in *SEDJ*.

Interestingly, although both *COD* and *SEDJ* consider *direction* as the core sense, only one example is quoted and included in the [Direction] category in *SEDJ*: *on his way to the station*. Since it is in double parentheses, it is considered as an example that shows a typical use of **to** in this sense.

Five examples are classified as idioms in *SEDJ*. The phrase "*letter has*

Table 9.2 Reclassification of the examples in the first sense of the entry for **to** in *COD*

Examples in <i>COD</i>	Part and Category in <i>SEDJ</i>
<i>was walking over to Bath</i>	Not quoted
<i>on his way to the station</i>	A. (1) [Direction]; in double parentheses
<i>fled to Rome</i>	Not quoted
<i>throw it to me</i>	Not quoted
<i>got to the house by four</i>	Not quoted
<i>to bed with you!</i>	Not quoted
<i>fluttered to the pavement</i>	Not quoted
<i>was committed to the flames</i>	Not quoted
<i>house looks to the south</i>	Not quoted
<i>held it to the light</i>	Not quoted
<i>to arms!</i>	Idiom
<i>hand to hand</i>	A. (5) [Opposition] (in the form of "fight hand to hand")
<i>told him to his face</i>	Idiom (in the form of "to one's face")
<i>was carried to destruction</i>	Not quoted
<i>letter has come to hand</i>	Idiom (in the form of "to hand") cf. Japanese translation: (手紙等)落手
<i>fell to work</i>	Not quoted
<i>fell to musing</i>	Not quoted
<i>tends or has a tendency to indolence</i>	Not quoted
<i>slow to anger</i>	Not quoted
<i>appointed to a post</i>	Not quoted
<i>born to a great fortune</i>	Not quoted
<i>all to no purpose</i>	Idiom (in the form of "to no purpose")
<i>to his name be it said</i>	Idiom

come to hand" is one of them. The Japanese translation for the idiom "*to hand*" suggests that the compilers of *SEDJ* referred to *COD*. "(手紙等)落手" translates as "a letter has been received."

There are only four examples in the [Direction] category in *SEDJ*. They are all in double parentheses: from east *to* west, fall *to* the ground, on his way *to* the station, go *to* bed. As this case shows, the number of the example sentences or phrases in each category or sense is two to four in

SEDJ. Most of them are phrases written in simple basic vocabulary. Not all examples are quoted from *COD*, but may have been either invented by the compilers of *SEDJ* or quoted from other dictionaries. For example, the examples in the following entries may have been quoted from *JECJ*:

(1) **about** (adv.)

¶ *That's about right.* (*SEDJ*)

¶ *while you are about it* (*SEDJ*)

That's about right. (*JECJ*)

While you are about it, ... (*JECJ*)

(2) **above**

¶ *above the horizon* (*SEDJ*)

¶ *above the sea level* (*SEDJ*)

The sun rises (or is) **above the horizon.** (*JECJ*)

203 metres **above the sea-level.** (*JECJ*)

The structure of the entries and the way of classifying the examples are the same in the entries for other prepositions such as **at**, **for**, **in**, **on**, **towards**, **with**, and so on. In their entries, the signposts are placed at the beginning of each sense. Then the examples are classified into each sense according to the senses of the prepositions.

However, this signpost system is not applied in the entries for all the prepositions. For example, there are no signposts in the entries for **about**, **above**, **by**, and **under**.

9.5.2. Examples in the entries for articles

The structure of the entry for articles **a** and **an** also show the typical structure of the entry for function words in *SEDJ*. The usage of the articles is explained in detail as in a grammar and the examples are arranged in a way that illustrate each explanation.

The entry is divided into two parts. The first part has the label [一般用法] (general usage), and the second part has the label [注意すべき用法] (cautionary usage). The examples in the first part are: *a dog*, *an army*, *a colour*, *an elegance*. They are not in alphabetical order.

Table 9.3 shows the examples in the second part of the entry which may

Table 9.3 The examples in the second part of the entry for the article **a**, **an** which may have been quoted from *POD*

Examples in <i>SEDJ</i>	Original examples in <i>POD</i>
<i>a fine day</i>	<i>a fine, a gloriously fine, day</i>
<i>a gloriously fine day</i>	
<i>How different a fate!</i>	<i>how different a fate!</i>
<i>quite a good hat</i>	<i>quite a good hat</i>
<i>rather a queer fellow</i>	<i>rather a queer fellow</i>
<i>I said a hat and an umbrella.</i>	<i>I said ā hat, ān egg,</i>
<i>Yes, I had a reply.</i>	<i>Yes, I had ā reply</i>
<i>There was a Jones at Oriel.</i>	<i>there was a Jones at Oriel;</i>
<i>He is a lion when roused.</i>	<i>a tiger when roused</i>
<i>I love a good liar.</i>	<i>I love a good liar</i>

have been quoted from *POD*:

The sources of the other examples may be either *COD*, *Standard2*, *IEDJ*, or *JECJ*.

9.6. Examples in the entries for polysemous content words

The structure of the entries for polysemous content words is the same as that of the entries for polysemous function words. Signposts are at the beginning of each sense description. The examples are not listed in alphabetical order but are rearranged in a way that illustrate each sense group.

Let us take the entry for the verb **go**¹ as an example. Its meanings are classified minutely in *COD* but they are grouped together and classified into four large sense groups in *SEDJ*: (1) [移動を主要概念とした場合 (focus on motion)], (2) [出発点を主要概念とした場合 (focus on the starting point)], (3) [到達点を主要概念とした場合 (focus on the destination)], (4) [慣用例 (idioms)]. In addition, there are two idiom groups: (5) [前置詞を伴ふ成句] (idioms that include prepositions) and (6) [副詞を伴ふ成句] (idioms that include adverbs).

Table 9.4 shows the comparison of the examples in the sense group (1) in *SEDJ* and those in *COD*.

Table 9.4 A comparison of the examples in the sense group (1) of *go*¹ in *SEDJ* and *COD*

Examples in <i>SEDJ</i>	Original examples in <i>COD</i>
<i>go</i> slowly	N/A
<i>go</i> on horseback	N/A
have far to <i>go</i>	N/A
the boundary <i>goes</i> parallel with the river	N/A
a good rule to <i>go by</i>	<i>a good rule to go by</i>
<i>go with</i> one's party	<i>always goes with his party</i>
have little information to <i>go upon</i>	<i>have nothing to go upon</i>
<i>go</i> hungry, armed, in rags	<i>go hungry, armed, in rags</i>
The elephant <i>goes</i> with young nearly two years	<i>six months &c. gone with child</i>
The car <i>goes</i> by electricity;	N/A
The pulse <i>goes</i> rapidly	N/A
The watch does not <i>go</i> well	<i>clock does not go, goes well</i>
The sovereign <i>goes</i> everywhere	<i>the sovereign goes anywhere</i>
the report <i>goes</i> that...	be known <i>by, or under, the name of,</i>
as the world <i>goes</i>	N/A
as the saying <i>goes</i>	N/A
Things <i>went ill with</i> him	(of events) turn out <i>well, ill, HARD, &c.,</i>
All <i>goes well with</i> me	(of events) turn out <i>well, ill, HARD, &c.,</i>
How does the world <i>go with</i> you?	N/A
The election has <i>gone</i> decidedly <i>against</i> him	(of election &c.) issue <i>for or against</i>
<i>go</i> Tory	<i>Liverpool went Tory</i>

There are 21 examples in *SEDJ*. They are either quoted from *COD* or invented based on the examples in *COD*. It is impossible to trace the sources of the examples that are not quoted from *COD*. They are not quoted from *POD* or other dictionaries suggested as references in the preface.

This entry structure is not applied in other polysemous content words such as **come**, **do** (v.), **have** (v.) and **run**, where the senses are listed without signposts followed by example phrases and sentences in alpha-

betical order. Therefore, the signpost system does not seem to be consistently applied in all the entries for polysemous content words (see 8.3).

9.7. Summary

There are two kinds of illustrated examples in *SEDJ*. First, there are examples in double parentheses placed right after Japanese translations or English synonyms of headwords. They show typical sentence patterns or collocations of headwords without Japanese translations. Second, there are examples that are listed usually in alphabetical order at the end of entries. They are mainly set phrases and idioms with Japanese translations. Example phrases are listed first followed by example sentences. Phrasal verbs are also listed at the end of the entries along with set phrases and idioms in alphabetical order of their particles.

The articles published so far suggest that many of the examples in *SEDJ* are quoted from *COD*. However, it seems that the compilers of *SEDJ* quoted examples not only from *COD*, but also referred to other monolingual dictionaries such as *POD* and a few American dictionaries such as *Standard2*, *Century1* and *WNID*. Some examples suggest that they may have referred to other English-Japanese dictionaries such as *IEDJ* and *JECJ*.

The compiler of *IEDJ* quoted almost every example in *COD*, while the compilers of *SEDJ* selected the examples based on their judgment. Since *SEDJ* was designed to target intellectual general readers and advanced learners of English, the compilers may have included the examples which they thought would suit the level of the dictionary users. Thus, the number of examples in each entry is not large compared to that in *IEDJ*. Many examples in *SEDJ* are in the form of phrases, while most examples are sentences in *IEDJ*.

The senses of function words and polysemous content words are often organized using signposts which represent the core senses or subsenses. The examples are not listed in strict alphabetical order but are arranged in a way that best illustrate each sense or usage of the headwords in such entries. This signpost system, however, is not applied consistently throughout *SEDJ*.

As mentioned above, the number of the examples in *SEDJ* is not large compared to that in *IEDJ*. This may be because *SEDJ* put an emphasis on the accuracy of the description of word senses and did not attach much importance on the presentation of examples compared to *IEDJ*. Since *SEDJ* was designed for the intellectual users and advanced users of English, the compilers may not have quoted the explanations that they thought were too much in detail for their users or the examples that they thought were too simple for their users. (Section 9 by Takahashi)

10. Etymology

This section deals with why an emphasis was placed on etymology in references in the early days of the 20th century in Japan, and discusses etymology description in *SEDJ*.

10.1. Etymology for memorization and word expansion

It should be mentioned why a special emphasis was put on etymology at the beginning of the 20th century. Etymology was considered to be useful and essential for memorization and expansion of vocabulary.

1901 saw the booklet *Eigo Gogen Taiyo* [An Outline of English Etymology] by Iwamatsu Horikoshi, which places a particular emphasis on prefixes and suffixes. In 1909 and 1910 etymological explanation of several words, such as *photograph* and *telephone*, appeared in two short successive articles "Gogenkai [Explanation of Word Origin]" by Hyosaku Utaka in the magazine for students and teachers of English *Eigo no Nippon* (*The Nippon*). Below is shown an example. Utaka says some are explained based on *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable* by C. Brewer (1894).

- (1) *phonograph* = 蓄音機—[希臘語 (Greek) *phone* = sound = 音 + *grapho* = to write = 書] = [音書(器)]

Note: *Phonograph* is the word explained, and a translation equivalent is placed after the equal sign. The origin of the word is shown in square brackets with each component (Greek words in this example) explained in English and Japanese.

Suzuki's three successive articles in 1915 in the same magazine made reference to Latin, Greek and Teutonic prefixes and suffixes. Seiichi Sugai writes an article in 1915 for *The Nippon* titled "Gogengaku yori

mitaru Eigo Tango" [English Words Explained Etymologically], advising students that mechanical memorization of words does not bear fruit, and that analysis of words by their roots and synthesis of their components is crucial in systematic understanding and vocabulary expansion. He claimed that association or grouping of words, such as *contain*, *pertain*, *appertain*, *detain*, *maintain*, *obtain*, *retain*, *entertain*, *abstain* and so forth, needs less effort for memorization and it is more effective for vocabulary expansion.

Similarly, in the circles of English teachers, 1909 saw an article "Remarks on the Methods of English Teaching" by Iwashiro Hishiki in *Eigo Kyoju* (*The English Teachers' Magazine* Vol. 3 No. 1). A few suggestions were put forward, one of which is "The explanation of words by means of etymology may profitably find a place in the fourth and fifth year schemes of work" in middle schools for facilitating memorization of words (p. 27). Mentioned above in Section 2 is the fact that a suggestion was made in the Second English Teachers' Conference (1914) that etymological analysis of words should be taught, which was in line with an idea in language teaching in those days. To the magazine for teachers and scholars of English literature and philology *Eigo Seinen* (*The Rising Generation*) Sugai contributes notes "Kyoinsitsu yori Kyositsu made [From Teachers' Room to Classroom]," writing that etymological explanation of words is useful in studying English. Shohei Tsurumi also contributed a few articles to the same magazine titled "Gogen Oyo Tango Kiokuho [How to Memorize English Words by Etymology]" in 1915, claiming memorization of words by etymology as the best method.

Under these circumstances, over a decade ago before *SEDJ* came out, 1915 saw a reference book for middle school students *Eigo no Kiso* (*The Corner-Stone of English Study*) along with its explanatory guidebook. There was no other book available in which is given for learners a systematic explanation or classification of vocabulary. Students' considerable difficulty with vocabulary urged the authors to compile it. Over 9,800 words are classified after the selection of approximately 7,900 from 22 readers and textbooks chiefly for middle school students with approximately 1,900 newly added. Okakura, then professor at Tokyo Higher Normal School, praises the impressive and laborious work in its foreword.

It was touted as an English-Japanese dictionary, etymology dictionary, dictionary for entrance examinations, reference book for memorization of words, and dictionary of systematically classified English words all in one (*The Rising Generation* Vol. 32 No. 12: the last unnumbered page). Its contents include Independent Words, Dependent Words, Roots of English Words, Prefixes, Suffixes, and Miscellaneous, with an appendix of The Explanation of the Etymological Meanings.

Just a year later there issued its supplementary dictionary titled *Gogen Hon'i Eiwa Jiten: Tango Kioku no Kagi* (*Key to English Vocabulary*), which could be literally translated into "Etymology English-Japanese Dictionary: Key to Memorization of English Vocabulary." Both were compiled by the English teachers at Hiroshima Middle School, among whom were Sugai and Tsurumi, referred to above. The work has in its title *Eiwa Jiten* (i.e. English-Japanese dictionary or wordbook, when literally translated), although its microstructure is not what dictionaries today would be in that it only gives headwords and their translation equivalents with their etymology explained when possible or necessary. Below is given an example, with *COD* and *SEDJ* also shown for comparison:

- (2) parenthesis [*par-* = *para-* (between) + *en-* (in) + *-thesis* (placing);
或ル定マリタル場所ノ範囲内ニトリノケテオク意]

Note: [... meaning "to put something within range of a definite place"]

COD [med. L, f. Gk *parenthesis* f. *parentithemi* put in beside
(*PARA*⁻¹ + *EN-* (2) + *-tithemi* place)

SEDJ [*para*⁻¹ + *-en* in + *tithemi* put]

As far as dictionaries are concerned, it was not until in the 1910s that more attention was paid to etymology, especially for pupils' vocabulary expansion or for systematic understanding and memorizing a large number of words, which seems to have been closely connected to entrance examinations.

The presentation style is followed by reference books or dictionaries in the 1910s and 1920s. An example is *Eiwa Kioku Jiten* (*Sakuma's English-Japanese Dictionary on Mnemonic System*) (1919) by Nobuyasu Sakuma. The prefatory [*sic*] note in Sakuma's small dictionary proudly maintains,

"... so far as the editor is aware, no dictionary has ever been issued in our country on the etymological lines so as to assist the memory of the student in mastering words which are of everyday occurrence" (p. 1). The author mentions three points of crucial importance in acquiring English vocabulary: association, understanding, and interest.

In those days, there seem to have been developed a few methods for memorizing vocabulary, one of which is the one through, or with reference to, etymology. Especially in the 1920s, a number of reference books seem to have been issued for enriching vocabulary as the road to mastering English. *Gogen to Renso Sinri Oyo Eigo Tango Hayawakari* (*How to Master English Vocabulary*) (1925) by Simpei Shibuya, for example, claims in the preface that acquiring a large vocabulary will lead to a good command of English as well as passing an entrance exam (p. 1). *Eigo Mohan Kioku Jiten* (*The English Vocabulary for Memory*) (1925) by Masataka Sawa also mentions five effective ways of memorization, one of which is called the "etymology method," writing that vocabulary could be more easily memorized when students of English make reference to etymology.

The ten years, 1921 through 1930, saw a number of dictionaries or reference books on, or related to, etymology: Iwamatsu Toriumi's *Eigo Gogen no Kenkyu* (*Study in English Etymology*) (1921), Kanzaburo Kubo's *Gogen Hon'i Tango Anki Jiten* (1923) [A Dictionary for Memorizing English Vocabulary based on Etymology], Mamoru Sakurai's *Eigo Tango no Kiso* (*How to Enrich your Vocabulary*) (1924) that recommends the etymology-based method, Sawa's book (1925) above, Rohei Ishiguro's *Eigo Hattatsushi niyoru Tango no Oboekata* (*A Philological Study of the English Vocabulary*) (1927), and Minekazu Miyata and Shojiro Sano's *Etymology niyoru Eigo no Juyo Tango Bunsetsuho* (*An Etymological System for Memorizing English Words*) (1930), to name but a few.

These publications make us recognize that around the first quarter of the 20th century a special emphasis began to be placed on etymological explanation for memorization or expansion of vocabulary, which is closely associated with English examinations for higher education. It is not certain to what extent the description was made good use of and how it was appreciated. It seems to have been quite natural for a dictionary aimed

for general readers to give etymological information in one way or another. If *SEDJ* was compiled for advanced users, or teachers and scholars, it is rather doubtful whether ample etymological explanation is given in the text, because the shortened description in *SEDJ* often comes from, or is often based on, *COD*, as is mentioned in 10.3.

10.2. The principle in *SEDJ*

SEDJ is said to have been the first mainstream dictionary with etymology shown as one of the properties in the microstructure.

Okakura writes about English-Japanese dictionaries in his 1911 book on English education that, as far as bilingual dictionaries are concerned, no mention was made of etymology, and that it is instructive (though not always necessary for middle school students) to be informed of etymology in sense-related entries such as *recover*, *discover*, *telegraph*, *photograph*, *propose*, *compose*, *repose*, and *suppose*, just as brief etymology explanation is often attached to borrowed words or phrases from Greek or Latin for ease of study and memorization (1937: 156–57). This idea, originally based on his lectures or talks, reminds us of Sugai's or Tsurumi's similar idea later in the middle 1910s. Later he wrote in his review of the three dictionaries, *JECJ*, *IEDJ*, and *SEJ*, that he hoped to have available for less advanced or middle school users a type of dictionary in which more emphasis is placed on etymology and pronunciation (Nanino 1915b: 38).

He writes that one way of vocabulary acquisition is to possess knowledge of words' derivation: addition of prefixes and suffixes to roots provides new words and/or meanings. Another equally good way is to provide etymology explanation of words. These ways facilitate memorization of words because quite possibly both make sure what the words learners study mean, and because learners could infer more easily meanings of encountered words by analogy of the meanings of the components (1937: 141).

He says in the Editorial principle (p. vi) again that English-Japanese dictionaries before *SEDJ* did not at all deal with etymology, that his dictionary attempts to make clear etymology because it helps to clarify the original sense of entries, and that it attracts readers' interest in the English

language and gives them great benefit. He also notes that *SEDJ* does not give detailed or scholarly descriptions for teachers or scholars but brief ones for readers in general. The preface insists that, for the purposes, *NED* (or *OED*) and *COD* are mainly consulted,¹⁾ with only occasional reference to *An Etymological Dictionary of the English Language*, Fourth edition (1910) (*Skeat*) by Walter Skeat, or to *An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English* (1921) (*Weekly*) by Ernest Weekly as well as *WNID* and *Standard2*. Nothing is mentioned of the concise editions by Skeat (1911) and by Weekly (1924). It will be made clear, however, that the editorial team first and foremost depended on *COD* for the description, because the supposedly abridged dictionary of the *OED* is regarded as giving the description ample enough for general readers.

The preface (p. ii) says that two scholars worked on etymology description: one is Professor Tomokazu Hiraoka who taught French at the time (and later German linguistics), and the other is Professor Satoru Bando, a young scholar in English and Hebrew who passed away in his mid-30s. Bando was keenly interested in *NED*, often contributing articles on the impressive dictionary to *Eigo Seinen (The Rising Generation)*, and, consequently, it was understandable that they decided to depend on *COD* for the brief etymology description in *SEDJ*.

10.3. *COD* and *SEDJ*

Etymology in *COD* is defined: "Account of, facts relating to, formation & meaning of word; branch of linguistic science concerned with this; part of grammar treating of individual words & their formation & inflexions." Etymology in *SEDJ* means the first part of the definition.

SEDJ follows *COD* in the description of etymology in square brackets at the end of entries. To closely examine to what extent *SEDJ* follows *COD*, random sampling was made of every 50 entries in A, F and T, where etymology is shown in both. It is often no easy task to clearly distinguish whether or not *SEDJ* follows *COD* (s.v. *tabular*). There are a number of types of descriptions found in the dictionary. A good number of entries could be put into what Ilson (1983: 77) mentions:

When etymology is discussed in relation to learner's dictionaries, it is generally assumed to mean the search for etyma and cognates: for the sources of words in earlier stages of the same language (Middle and Old English, say) and in other languages (e.g. Latin and Greek), and for words in other languages related in form to the word being defined (e.g. German *selig* . . .).

SEDJ shows what is categorized into his four types of descriptions in a broad sense (with Ilson's examples in parentheses): etyma and cognates, including borrowing and loan translations (calque) (*silly* from Middle English *sely* or *silly* "happy," cognate with German *selig* "blessed"), morphological analyses of lexical units in terms of their constituent structure (*inflammable* as *inflamm* + *-able*), morphological analyses of lexical units in terms of processes of word formation (blending like *brunch* and shortening like *flu* and *porter*), and analyses of lexical units in terms of the cognitive procedures (e.g. metaphor, historical allusion) of their formation and development (*aboveboard*).

Various descriptions in *SEDJ* are broadly divided into three types for numerical counting. One is the type of entries equivalent to those in *COD* (Type 1 below). Another type partially follows or deletes *COD* description (Type 2 below). The description in the latest edition (*SEDJ6*) is shown for reference. The other belongs to neither. Table 10.1 below shows the result of the brief survey in which are mainly examined Ilson's first type and a combinatory type of his first and second.

Type 1 **pain**

COD [f. OF *peine* f. L *poena* penalty]

SEDJ [OF *peine* < L *poena* penalty]

SEDJ6 [((c1280)) *paine*, *peine* □(O)F *peine* < L *poenam* penalty, pain □Gk (Dorian) *poindā*, (Attic) *poimē* expiation, penalty ← IE **kwei-* to pay, atone: ⇨ pine²]

Type 2 **table**

COD [(vb partly.f. OF *tabler*) OF, f. L *tabula* board, tablet, & c.]

SEDJ [OF < L *tabula* board, tablet]

SEDJ6 [ME □(O)F ~ < L *tabula* board, tablet ∞ OE *tablu*, *tabule* □L]

Table 10.1 The number of entries where etymology description is considered to be (partially) based on *COD* and others

	A	F	T	Total
<i>COD</i>	42	46	40	128
Others	8	4	10	22

It is unquestionably clear that *SEDJ* owes much of its etymology description to *COD*. It may have been lexicographically space-saving to shorten the description in *COD* for general users, who do not always take a keen interest in complicated explanations.

There exist cases in which etymology description in *SEDJ* does not correspond with the counterpart in *COD*. Some entries like *pageant* in *SEDJ* ignore the fact that *COD* shows its etymology to be dubious. There are a number of entries the accurate source(s) of which is somewhat more difficult to ascertain. Compare the following two examples: the second is taken from Ishiguro's article²⁾ mentioning "as to some words, . . . theories are separated among the etymologists" (1932: 191). The first could be regarded as following *WNID*, while the second could be a combination of *COD* (or *WNID*) and *Weekly* (or *OED*), provided that the first half explanation in *SEDJ* corresponds broadly with *Weekly* (or *OED*) and the second roughly with *COD* (or *WNID*). For reference, the description in the latest edition is added.

(3) **factotum**

SEDJ [L, = do everything (*fac* imperative of *facere* do + *totus* all), cf. *fact*, *total*]

SEDJ6 [((1566)) □ML *factōtum* ← L *fac* ((imper.) ← *facere* 'to DO² + *totum* (neut.) ← *totus* all)]

COD [med. L. as FACSIMILE + neut. of L *totus* whole]

Weekly MedL. *fac* (imper.) *totum*, do everything.

WNID [L. do everything; *fac*, imperative of *facere* to do + *totus* all: cf. F. *factotum*. See FACT; TOTAL]

Century2 [*<* L. *facere* (*fac*, impv.) *totum*, do all: *facere*, do; *totum*, neut. of *totus*, all, the whole.]

(4) **Yankee**

SEDJ [Du. *Junke* dim. of *Jan* John; cf. *Jenkin* (人名). 一説に

English 又は *Anglais* (= Englishman) の土人訛り *Yengees* からとも云ふ]

SEDJ6 [(1758) □? Du. *Janke* (New York のオランダ移民が Connecticut の英国移民を呼んだあだ名) (dim.) ← *Jan* 'JOHN'¹ または Du. *Jan Kees* John Cheese (もとはオランダ人に対するあだ名) あるいは *Jengees* (*English* のアメリカインディアンの発音を表したものを) pl. とみた逆成とするなど諸説がある]

Note: [. . . there are several explanations of its origin, such as *Janke* a nickname for British immigrants in Connecticut by Dutch ones in New York, or *Jan Kees* a nickname for Dutch people, or *Jengees* regarded as a back formation of a plural form of *Jengee*, a transcription of pronunciation of *English* by American Indians]

COD [perh. orig. pl. f. *Yengees* Indian corrupt. of *English* or of F *Anglais* Englishman]

Weekly . . . Prob. a dim. of Du. *Jan*, John (cf. *Jenkin*) . . .

OED [Source unascertained . . . the most plausible conjecture is that it comes from Du. *Janke*, dim. of *Jan* John, . . .]

WNID [Commonly considered to be a corrupt pronunciation of the word *English*, or of the French word *Anglais*, by the native Indians of America . . . a corruption of *Jankin*, a diminutive of *John*, . . .]

It is often the case that *SEDJ* shortens descriptions in the original dictionaries for users, which shows that etymology may not have been regarded as being of utmost importance. It is not certain either whether (accuracy of) etymological description in *SEDJ* is discussed in detail when few articles or notes on its description have been found.

10.4. Summary

“Etymologies are not included in ESL dictionaries or in bilingual dictionaries. To use space on this subject for a foreign learner, given the many other more profitable uses to which the space could be put, would be foolish, especially when dictionaries for native speakers cover the ground so much better than any ESL or ‘translation’ dictionary could” (Landau 2001: 131). “It could be argued that etymology has no place in a general-purpose dictionaries, and it should be left to historical or special dictionaries. Learners’ dictionaries . . . do not contain etymological infor-

mation, though its exclusion from these dictionaries has been challenged” (Jackson 2002: 126). These comments are often made in the works of lexicography. The compilers of *SEDJ* seem to have been hopeful that “Etymologies may enable the learner to *understand* and *remember* the structure of words better, and this sort of knowledge is also likely to be helpful when encountering unfamiliar lexemes” (Heuberger 2000: 177). It can be safely said that etymology has become one of the features in *SEDJ* as well as others issued later.

As far as the description of etymology in *SEDJ* is concerned, *SEDJ* mainly follows *COD*, because the latter supplies concise etymology description in a host of entries. Etymology is considered to have been of benefit but of secondary importance, because it “does not make a contribution to the description of contemporary meaning and usage of word; it may help to illuminate how things have got to where they are now . . .” (Jackson 2002: 126). Large-sized or voluminous dictionaries such as the *OED* or *Century2* provide etymology in far more detail, and dictionaries like *WNID* or *Standard2*, or etymology dictionaries like *Weekly* may have been easier to consult and useful because they concisely show etymology. Etymology in *SEDJ* could be said to be neither scholarly nor sufficiently educational, because the description in *COD* is often shown in a modified or shortened form.

It is not clear how *SEDJ* etymology description is valued or whether it is properly appreciated, because little seems to have been discussed after it was issued including a note of minor misprints mentioned. It seems to be true that later bilingual dictionaries may have taken it for granted that etymology is useful and essential. *SEDJ* could be considered the forerunner in description of etymology in bilingual dictionaries in Japan.

(Section 10 by Dohi)

11. Miscellany

Okakura writes in the 1911 book that vocabulary is crucial in studying English (1937: 133–34). He comments that alphabetical order listing causes users to be vague about word relation to one another. Mechanical memorization of words requires sustained effort without the desired effect

always produced. He proposed what he called a few "rational" methods for acquiring vocabulary. One of them is association or grouping of words. For example, when the word *cat* comes on the scene, there should be taught or given some related words in an expression such as "*Cats catch mice.*" In other words, learners should get acquainted with semantic relationship among words or vocabulary network. The compilers of *SEDJ* came to know that *POD* occasionally gives readers useful description, which was very occasionally or rarely found in *COD*.

11.1. Vocabulary network

"One important innovation in the new pocket-sized dictionary" (Burchfield 1989: 137) was that related words are juxtaposed in some entries, on which the Fowlers say in the preface of *POD*:

"Another minor point is an experiment in collecting words that form a series and letting the reader know where to find them; he may fairly expect to be told not only the meaning of an ox, an icosahedron, a quintet, a tercentenary, a genus, a major-general, demy paper, an obelus, or ruby type, but also what are the words for the ox of various ages and sexes, or for the other regular solids, army officers, marks of reference, and so forth, besides the one before him; an effort has been made to provide for this want by giving lists to which each word of such series contains a reference" (p. v).

Compare the definition or description of **dog** and **horse**, for example, between *COD* and *POD*. The description after the parenthesis in both entries in *POD* illustrates a group of connected words, not only nouns but also verbs and adjectives. Compare the extraordinarily detailed list in *POD* for native speakers with the simple one for foreign learners in *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English* (1981). The "experiment" must have been considered to serve an excellent model for what Okakura regarded as being instructive and useful for expanding learners' vocabulary from association or grouping of words.

(1) **dog** *COD*

n. Quadrupled of many breeds wild & domesticated; hunting-

dog. . . .

POD

n. Quadrupled of various breeds allied to wolf & fox, noted for serviceableness to man in hunting, shepherding, guarding, & companionship, & for antipathy to cats (female, *bitch*; young, *puppy*, *whelp*; set of puppies, *litter*; sounds, *bay*, *bark*, *howl*, *whine*, *yelp*, *yap*, *snarl*, *growl*; bear young, *whelp*, *pup*, *litter*; cf. *kennel*, *bow-wow*; adj. *canine*. . . .

(2) **horse**

COD

Solid-hoofed quadruped with flowing mane & tail, used as beast of burden & draught, & for riding on; (esp.) adult male h., stallion or gelding, (cf. *MARE*, *COLT*); . . .

POD

Solid-hoofed quadruped with long mane & tail, ridden & used as beast of burden & draught (sex & c.: *stallion*, *mare*, *gelding*, *foal* n. & v., *colt*, *filly*, *cob*, *pony*, *steed*, *hack*, *hunter*, *charger*, *palfrey*, *yearling*, *two* & c.- *year-old*, *stable*, *stud*, *stall*, *loose box*, *paddock*, *neigh*, *snicker*, *whinny*, *snort*, *squeal*, *scream*, *gallop*, *canter*, *trot*, *amble*, *pace*, *kick*, *buck*, *rear*, *savage*, *jib*, *Dobbin*, *gee-gee*, *gee*, *Rozinante*, *equine*;...

Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English

A51 nouns: the horse and similar animals

Names for the horse according to age and sex			
age \ sex	male	female	
full-grown	stallion	mare	
young	colt	filthy	
very young newborn	foal		

Watanabe (1928: 372-73), who mentioned the supplementary relations in description between *OED*, *COD* and *POD*, took notice of the above fact. Fukuhara (1967: 23-24) writes that this kind of description is found in some entries below in *POD*, to some of which an asterisk is added for the entries without any description of the type in *SEDJ*.

(3) **ace**, **age**, **alpha***, **assai***, **centenary**, **course***, **cross**, **dynasty***,

folio, humour, John Bull*, metric, numeral*, officer*, ox, paper*, per., St., Sunday*, tetragon*, type, ultimo

For comparison of description, *IEDJ* is surveyed. It could be argued that a few entries in *COD* include the type of description, with the result that *IEDJ* very occasionally shows a similar description in some entries such as **cross** and **type**. Conversely, exceptionally remarkable is the description of **metric** in *IEDJ*, which detailed description seems to have been followed by *SEDJ*.

To make sure that *SEDJ* faithfully follows the description in *POD*, 20 more entries of animals, mammals, birds and reptiles are surveyed with reference to Yamamoto et al. (1987: 95). *SEDJ* gives the description of related words in the entries without an asterisk, while nothing is mentioned in those with an asterisk.

- (4) **ass***, **bear**, **cat**, **deer**, **duck**, **elephant**, **fowl**, **fox**, **goat**, **goose**, **hare***, **lion**, **owl**, **rabbit**, **sheep**, **swan***, **swine***, **tiger**, **whale**, **wolf**

The description in *POD*, however randomly or subjectively selected the entries may have been, was considered to be instructive for Japanese learners, and the brief survey shows that *SEDJ* makes use of this type of description to help users to acquire a wide range of vocabulary. It should be added that little description can be found in *COD*, and consequently *IEDJ* includes little description or gives few related words (cf. **sheep**).

11.2. Word connotation

Another feature typical of the pocket dictionary should be mentioned. The definition of **dog** in *POD* above reads how the animal is associated or considered in the English speaking society or U.K., which could be regarded as part of cultural information: "... noted for serviceableness to man in hunting, shepherding, guarding, & companionship, & for antipathy to cats." *POD* as well as *COD* provides associative or connotative information in some entries. Examine the definition of the entries **ant**, and **jackal** in *COD* and *POD* below, partly italicized by the present writer.

- (5) **ant**
COD A small social hymenopterous insect, *celebrated for industry* . . .
POD Kinds of social hymenopterous insect, (*often as type of industry*).
- (6) **jackal**
COD Animal of dog kind, of size of fox, *formerly supposed to hunt up lion's prey for him*. . . .
POD Animal of dog kind *formerly believed to find prey for lion*; . . .

This kind of description could also be criticized for being fairly subjectively chosen and considered unnecessary for native speakers, but it could be highly valued for being informative for foreign learners. This seems to be the reason *SEDJ* follows *COD* and/or *POD* in the description of **jackal**, although no mention is made of in **ant**. A brief survey makes it feasible to claim that scrupulous attention is not always paid to this type of description in *SEDJ*. The translated explanation in the entries without an asterisk blindly follows *POD*, while nothing is mentioned in those with an asterisk.

- (7) **bull***, **bulldog***, **cat***, **crab***, **crocodile**, **cuckoo***, **cypress***, **dog***, **dove**, **halcyon**, **mongoose**, **Newfoundland**, **ostrich**, **pelican**, **Phoenix**, **scorpion**, **swan**, **tiger***, **tortoise***, **turkey-cock***, **turtle***, **upas**

It could be safely said that the informative quality for foreign learners seems to have been positively but not consistently valued in *SEDJ*.

11.3. Summary

Okakura thought highly of the *POD* experiment in terms of related words and association of words, which partially started in *COD* and was considerably enlarged in *POD*, for accurate understanding of the English language and culture. Concerning cultural description, *IEDJ* could be regarded as a predecessor, which is considered to have given an influence on *SEDJ*.

POD as well as *COD* includes what Okakura thought what students of

English should be familiar with. Therefore, the British dictionaries, especially *POD*, were regarded as not only useful in the selection of entries (see Section 4) but also indispensable for vocabulary expansion and connotation of words. *SEDJ* is not exhaustive, but the idea behind the Editorial principle prompted the compilers to illustrate related words for vocabulary expansion or to literally translate words' connotation.

(Section 11 by Dohi)

12. Conclusion

Okakura once wrote that pupils' level of proficiency in English turned lower, and one reason is that they have a fairly poor vocabulary (1937: 35). Without sufficient English vocabulary, they would not have a good command of the language.

He writes on dictionaries, "Dictionaries for general readers tend to include unnumbered entries, and distinguish words' senses quite in detail, although large numbers of mistakes and misleading descriptions are easily to be found. The number of entries depends upon users of dictionaries. It is not entirely sensible for pupils or elementary level students to choose a dictionary including a vast number of entries with fine distinction of meanings. Dictionary compilers and users often have not paid and do not pay a careful attention to description of accurate translation equivalents. The distinction between synonyms, such as *regret*, *repentance*, and *remorse* is very hard to make. Dictionaries should be explicit and user-friendly so that users could be conversant with the difference. For the purposes, translation equivalents with English synonyms mentioned as well as etymology is relevant to pupils' improvement of understanding and acquiring a large vocabulary" (1937: 152-57).

SEDJ is discussed in this installment. The conclusion in our survey is roughly summarized as follows. The presupposition here is that *SEDJ* is a dictionary for decoding, not for encoding, compiled for intellectual general readers who are fairly conversant with fundamental knowledge of English.

SEDJ gives a host of entries that are found in *COD* and/or *POD*, adding more entries that are found in the American sources as well as

others. The dictionary, therefore, is regarded as being basically lexical-oriented and user-oriented, including technical, encyclopedic and up-to-date entries or neologisms for general readers.

Labels are not consistently attached and some of the confusable ones like slang and vulgar are not at all explained in the Guide to the dictionary, because entries and their meanings are considered of the utmost importance and given a fair treatment, and, consequently, labels are of secondary value and not given careful treatment, especially when they are not based on the British dictionaries.

Regarding pronunciation, *SEDJ* was published when the method of phonetic transcription of bilingual dictionaries was shifting from Websterian to IPA transcription. The foundation of IPA and the publication of *EPD* by Daniel Jones exerted enormous influence on the phonetic transcription of *SEDJ*. Following the biuniqueness principle, *SEDJ* employs Jones's transcription and basically uses the same set of symbols that *EPD* uses for both vowels and consonants. On the contrary, the differences are mostly observed in suprasegmental features. As opposed to *EPD* which transcribes both primary and secondary accents in front of the accented syllables, *SEDJ* transcribes only primary accents by putting a symbol above vowels.

For grammar description *SEDJ* depends heavily on *COD* and *POD*. Parts of speech and irregular inflections are exhaustively included, while there can be found insufficient information on the verb patterns including gerund structures and on noun countability or uncountability. There are also found usage notes in the form of ((注意)) in a host of entries, which are in most cases based on *COD* and/or *POD*. *SEDJ* is far less grammar-oriented than *JECJ*.

As to the order of definitions, *SEDJ* basically but not always adopts the same arrangement as *COD*, where the general sense comes first followed by related senses. It is sometimes influenced by *POD*.

The peculiarity of translation equivalents in *SEDJ* as a whole lies in the fact that they are not just copied from the corresponding entries in the preceding bilingual dictionaries. For example, *SEDJ* uses different translation equivalents from *IEDJ* even in cases where the two dictionaries

closely follow *COD*. The introduction of new translation equivalents nowhere found in the preceding dictionaries, together with their familiarity to people today, indicates that *SEDJ* was not content with what had been hitherto considered standard and tried to produce new ones of its own.

The bilingual principle, another distinctive feature of *SEDJ*, is introduced to provide the users with not only an array of translation equivalents but also authoritative senses of headwords with English synonyms tagged onto related translation equivalents. The influence of *COD* and *POD* is obvious in that 57% of synonyms in the sample material are found in either of them, while as many as 43% are taken from other sources. It could be said from the viewpoint of its effectiveness that the system does not fulfill its potential chiefly because of the inconsistent tagging of synonyms.

Two types of examples are to be found: those placed after translation equivalents that are designed to make the translations more precise and those that show grammar patterns or collocation, and those at the end of entries that are mainly concerned with set phrases and idioms. A large number of examples are based on the examples in *COD* and *POD*. There are also examples based on the American dictionaries such as *WNID* and *Standard2*. It seems that the compilers of *SEDJ* also referred to a few preceding bilingual dictionaries such as *IEDJ* and *JECJ*. Compared to *IEDJ* which provided the users with a large number of examples, *SEDJ* limits the number of examples. This may be because the compilers of *SEDJ* selected the examples to be included based on their own judgment. They also seem to have attached more importance on the accuracy of the description of the headwords' senses than on the provision of examples.

In connection with the contemporary trend in the early days of the 20th century, etymology is thought to have been strongly related to users' better understanding of the original meaning of entries. It is not always directly associated with decoding English words they encounter, but those interested in etymology would find the information on etymology intriguing to peruse. *SEDJ* is the forerunner of the dictionaries in this field.

SEDJ sometimes shows cultural and encyclopedic information because

of blindly following part of the description in *POD*, the description of which was considered a fascinating feature in the dictionary for foreign users who were not supposed to grasp words' connotation or association, or how entries are considered in the English speaking world.

SEDJ as well as *SECJ* could be regarded as a dictionary in which Okakura made an attempt to partially realize or put into practice what he writes in his book on English education. *A Hundred Year History of Kenkyusha* says that *SEDJ* was a commercial success (2007: 78), which is true when the fact is taken into account that the 100th impression was issued before the first enlarged edition in 1933 (Hayakawa 2006: 80). It was partly because the dictionary met the needs of dictionary users at the time, and partly because Okakura was influential, especially in the circles of English education. *SEDJ* was held up as a model for others including the compilation by the team of scholars and/or teachers. The descendants of *SEDJ* in the 20th century followed or follows the tradition of incorporating as many neologisms as they could every time they were enlarged and revised (see 3.2).

Last but not least, it should not be forgotten that the British dictionaries, *COD* and *POD*, issued in the first quarter of the 20th century had an enormous influence on scholars and teachers in Japan, who considered the references essential and a must for studying English at an advanced level. It is also noteworthy that the fact that *SEDJ* discussed in this installment as well as *IEDJ* and *JECJ* both dealt with in the previous installments made reference to one or both of the Oxford dictionaries makes it quite possible to suppose that the Fowlers' lexicographical seminal works and their revised and enlarged editions came to be regarded as being invaluable for later bilingual dictionaries.

NOTES

Section 1

1) The original titles are given in parentheses, while the translated ones are in square brackets. For abbreviations of the dictionaries referred to in this installment, see the Dictionaries at the end of the article.

2) The third edition (1953) was the first one of *SEDJ* where 75 scholars were engaged in supervising translations of technical terms.

3) The previous 1996 installment dealt with *Fuon Sozu Eiwa Jūi* (*An English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1873). The full English title is *An English-Japanese Dictionary, Explanatory, Pronouncing, Etymological, Containing all English Words in Present Use, with An Appendix, . . . New Edition*. Following the title in *The Comprehensive English Dictionary* (1863) by J. Ogilvie, it includes "etymological" without any information whatever. Ida (1980: 37) writes that the noun "etymology" related to the adjective is used in the sense of "Gram. That part of grammar which treats of individual words, the parts of speech separately, their formation and inflexions" (*OED*).

4) Okakura's second dictionary *Shin Eiwa Chu Jiten* (*Kenkyusha's New School Dictionary English-Japanese*) (1929) for intermediate level learners includes pictorial illustrations. It was also a best-selling dictionary, when the fact is taken into account that it was reprinted 240 times in ten years after its publication.

Section 2

1) The present writer owes much to the works by Sakurai (1937), Kawasumi (1978), and Takanashi and Omura (1975) as well as *Nihon no Eigaku Hyakunen: Taisho Hen* [A Hundred Year English Studies in Japan: The Taisho Era] (1968).

Section 3

1) The following table shows the content and the total number of the pages in the back matter (BM) in each edition. The number of pages in BM is largest in the second edition and the second enlarged edition, but it decreases in the third edition. The articles in the BM is most varied in the fourth edition, but all the articles except the one that deals with foreign phrases and quotations are omitted in the fifth and sixth editions.

Edition	Content (pg.)	Total number of pages (pg.)
First	A list of abbreviations (17)	17
Enlarged 1	A list of abbreviations (17) A list of proper nouns (60)	77
Second	A list of proper nouns (60) A list of abbreviations (25)	85
Enlarged 2	A list of proper nouns (60) A list of abbreviations (25)	85
Third	Foreign words and phrases in English literary and legal use (19) Weights and measures (1) A conversion table for weights and measures (1)	21
Fourth	Synonyms discriminated (52) Foreign words and phrases in English literary and legal use (18)	72

	Weights and measures (1) A conversion table for weights and measures (1)	
Fifth	Foreign phrases and quotations	7
Sixth	Foreign phrases and quotations	8

2) "Eigo Kenkyu Sha" translates as "a company for English studies."

Section 4

1) H. W. Fowler writes back in a letter dated on December 4th, 1929, to a Japanese teacher of English who pointed out two misprints in Fowler's dictionary, ". . . It must be remembered that, . . . our dictionaries are written primarily for, & chiefly used by, English-speakers, who do not require that information, & that all possible means have to be taken of saving space & reducing the size of our books . . ." although it is not exactly clear which dictionary was meant because the new edition of *COD* issued in April, 1929, may have been available. (*The Rising Generation* Vol. 62 No. 12: 24) (The present writer's italics.)

2) The number of entries is first mentioned in the third edition (1953: xxx) by one of the compilers, Jujiro Kawamura, who writes that it includes 105,000 and is intended for educated general readers.

3) Counting is based on the following method: compounds (in abbreviations placed after the example phrases) and run-ons in *COD* are counted when they correspond with those in *SEDJ*. The large letter *K* and the small letter *k* are counted not as two but as one. Variants are counted as one except in the cases where the parentheses are inserted in the middle of the entry such as *abbat(t)* is. The forms in parentheses such as (-*lery*) under the entry *facile* in *POD* are also counted. In *WNID* those in "an upper section (containing words of the language,) and a lower section (. . . containing various minor words, foreign words and phrases, abbreviations, etc)" (p. vi) are compared and counted.

4) See Table 4.5 below on the subcategories of derivatives.

5) Concerning the number of entries, Jones (1935: 3) says, ". . . In some of these dictionaries we are told the number of entries, and in that case we have taken the number given by the publisher. When that has not been given, we have estimated the number of entries by counting the number of entries on ten pages chosen at random from the middle of the book. Since the publisher's estimate may be possibly a more liberal estimate than one made on this basis, it is marked . . . by adding (Pub)." The number of entries in the second edition (1929) of *COD* is mentioned as the *COD* he consulted was issued in 1931: *COD* includes 75,000 (Pub.) and *POD* 32,144. This being the case, *POD* includes fewer than half of *COD*. The previous installment of ours writes about the number of entries in the first edition of *COD*, ". . . approximately 50,000 bold entries (and 10,000 hyphenated words) are estimated to be included. . . ." (Dohi et al. 2001: 65). On the basis of the survey in this installment, the total number of entries in *POD* approximates to two-thirds of *COD*, with the result that around 40,000 are estimated to be included in *POD*, which is even larger than Jones' estimation.

Section 5

1) *SEED* (1928) is considered to have been a completely revised and enlarged edition of Sanseido's dictionaries, which originate in *MoEJ* (1911), enlarged in *MoEJ2* (1916) and revised in *MSEJ* (1919).

2) 42 articles in 1911 through 1914 in *Eigo Seinen (The Rising Generation)* titled "Eigo to Beigo" [British English and American English] by Kan'ichi Ando make us recognize that the two varieties of English came to be recognized at the turn of the 20th century. It may have been possible to make reference to dictionaries of Americanism issued in the early days of the century.

3) McMorris writes on the label (literary), "The introduction of 'literary', to be inserted in brackets after certain words, . . . ; Henry had introduced it rather late in the work but felt it to be important. He defined a literary word as 'one that cannot be called archaic, inasmuch as it is perfectly comprehensible, . . . but that has dropped out of use . . . except in writing of a poetical or definitely literary cast'; as examples he gave 'chill for chilly, eve for evening'. Adding this 'literary' label to words was intended by Henry to 'warn writers with a tendency to verbiage that they would do well . . . to consider whether something more familiar would not serve their purpose as well or better.'" (2001: 152) **Chill** is labeled (literary) in *POD*, while **eve** is (archaic) in *COD* and *POD*. The fact that ((雅)) corresponds with (literary) is shown in the third edition (1953) of *SEDJ*.

4) It was not until in the third edition (1953) of *SEDJ* that the distinction between (colloquial), (slang) and (vulgar) is translated into what they are today: ((口語)), ((俗語)) and ((卑語)), respectively. It seems that the compilers of the original edition gave no explanation of labels because they took it for granted that intended users, or highly educated readers, of the dictionary are able to understand what the labels in the front matter mean. The latest edition gives no explanation of the labels either.

Section 7

1) The pages surveyed are 1-2, 100-01, 200-01, 300-01, 400-01, 500-01, 600-01, 700-01, 800-01, 900-01, 1000-01, 1100-01, 1200-01, 1300-01, 1400-01, 1500-01, 1600-01, 1700-01, 1800-01, 1900-01, and 2000-01.

2) It should be remembered that explanations or usage notes in Japanese are accompanied by a translation in English in square brackets when necessary.

3) The same minor abbreviations are also found in *COD*: dim. (diminutive), neg. (negative), refl. (reflexive), rel. (relative), subj. (subject, subjunctive).

Section 8

1) Although *SEDJ* uses Roman numerals (I, II, III, . . .) or alphabets (a, b, c, . . .) in addition to Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, . . .) in entries as **make**, **set**, and **turn**, it must be pointed out that the use of Roman numerals or alphabets is very exceptional.

2) See Dohi et al. (2001) for more detailed discussion on *IEDJ*.

3) Umegaki (1973) compares the order of definitions in the entry **habit** from seven English-Japanese dictionaries varying from *DEJ* (1921) to *Iwanami Eiwa Dai Jiten (Iwanami's Comprehensive English-Japanese Dictionary)* (1970) together with the second edition of *COD*. In the discussion on the policy of ordering of definitions in each dictionary, he also points out that *SEDJ* closely follows the description of *COD* in terms of the order of

definitions under the assumption that the order of definitions in the first edition of *COD* does not change in its second edition.

4) The fact that *SEDJ*'s translation equivalent "(文法上)解剖出来る" for *COD*'s third definition "admit of grammatical analysis" comes in the fifth place may well be attributed to the structural difference between entries in *SEDJ* and those in *COD*; *SEDJ* lists translation equivalents of transitive senses and those of intransitive senses in two different categories, namely, "v.t." and "v.i.," while *COD* lists them altogether within a category under "v.t. & i."

5) Note that the translation equivalents and accompanying synonyms in parentheses shown in Table 8.5 are from the "v.t." section of the entry. For the "v.i." section, *SEDJ* gives "凋む, 萎(し)れる, 枯れる, 弱る, 衰へる (= lose vigour or freshness, decay)."

6) Although we mark "婦人の乗馬服" in *SEDJ* and "婦人乗馬服" in *IEDJ* as two different Japanese expressions here, we must admit that it is also plausible to claim that these expressions are virtually the same. However, note that our claim that *SEDJ* actively modifies what has been considered standard and tries to produce a new item still holds true.

7) Note that *DEJ* is in two volumes, and that only the first half (A-L) was published in 1921. As long as eleven years passed before the second half (M-Z) came out together with the revised version of the first half in 1932.

8) We must admit, however, that it is still a matter of speculation, in that we have not checked all the English-Japanese dictionaries published before *SEDJ*.

9) It is worth pointing out here that although *DEJ* does not give "旋毛(せび)曲りの" to **cantankerous**, it lists "ツムジマガリノ" as one of its translation equivalents for the headword **cross-grained**, the synonym tagged onto the array of "旋毛(せび)曲りの, すねものの, 意地悪の" together with "ill-natured" in *SEDJ*. *SEDJ* also gives "つむじ曲りの" to the entry headed by **cross-grained**, so that it is probably the case that *SEDJ* borrows the expression from *DEJ* in the course of tagging "cross-grained" as a synonym to the headword **cantankerous**. As for other expressions, namely, "どぎまぎさせる," "すねものの," and "口の悪い," *SEDJ* gives "どぎまぎさせる" to **profound**, and "拗(ず)ね者の" to **cross-grained**, but it does not list "すねものの" in **ill-natured** nor "口の悪い" in **quarrelsome**. Unlike the case of "旋毛(せび)曲りの" in **cantankerous**, we cannot locate these translation equivalents in the entries headed by corresponding synonyms in *MoEJ*, *SEJ*, *IEDJ*, *JECJ*, *MSEJ*, *DEJ*, nor *SEED*, which further supports the idea that these expressions may be original to *SEDJ*.

10) Although Umegaki (1973) claims that the bilingual principle of this type is first adopted in *Eiwa Sokai Jukugo Dai Jiten (A Dictionary of English Phrases with English and Japanese Explanations)* (1909), if we focus on the manner of presenting English definitions, the bilingual principle in this dictionary is more similar to those before *SEDJ*.

11) *SEDJ* does not introduce the notion of "GENERAL SENSES" into **draw**, **lay**, **run**, **strike**, and **take**, so that, in terms of the structure of the entry, there are no essential differences to be noted from other verbs which are not on the list. The entry of **make** has a very unique structure. The entry is divided into two parts, "主なる意義用法" (literally translated into "general senses") and "特殊の結合," but the internal structure and content in the former part is rather different from the description in "GENERAL SENSES" of **make** in *POD*. The structure of the entry of **set** resembles that of **make**, but it does not have any part corresponding to the "GENERAL SENSES" in *POD*.

12) *SEDJ* uses "一般の意味" for **break**, **carry**, and **cast**, but it uses "一般的意義" for **turn**.

13) Interestingly enough, *POD* just follows this description in *COD* rather than employing its experimental device of "GENERAL SENSES." Note that **give** in *COD* has another notation marker "General sense," the content of which *SEDJ* introduces as a kind of usage note instead of the "general sense" of the verb.

14) A signpost is a word that represents the core senses or subsenses of a word. It is placed at the beginning of each sense and facilitates the retrieval of senses in the entries for polysemous words. This term is used in the learner's monolingual dictionaries, such as *LDOCE3*, published by Longman (Pearson Education).

15) Note that 57 synonyms are given in the entries, headwords of which are not included either in *COD* or in *POD*. If we do not count these synonyms, that is, if we take into consideration only those synonyms whose headwords are found either in *COD* or in *POD*, the total number of synonyms which cannot be traced back either to *COD* or to *POD* is 557, which equals 39% of the synonyms in the sample material.

16) The Editorial principle in *SEDJ* uses the term "Oxford" instead of *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles*.

17) Although it may be a rare case, this synonym, probably imported from *COD*, is not listed as a headword in *SEDJ*.

Section 9

1) Headwords and collocations are highlighted in *IEDJ* and *JECJ*. They are printed in italics in *IEDJ*, while they are printed in bold in *JECJ*.

Section 10

1) The preface in *COD* reads, "The etymology of all words from A to R was drawn in the first instance from the O.E.D., but was occasionally modified after reference to Prof. Skeat's *Etymological Dictionary* (Clarendon Press, 4th edition, 1910). From S to Z Prof. Skeat's work has been our main authority, the *Century* and other dictionaries being consulted for the words that he omits" (p. ix). Skeat's dictionary is said to have been issued in 1910, but the one this writer consulted shows no year of publication in its title page, only with its preface dated in 1909.

2) Ishiguro makes a comparison of description between *COD*, *Skeat* and *Weekly*, the latter two of which are the concise editions issued in 1911 and 1924 respectively. He says that the description of **Yankee** is given in *Weekly*:

Prob. Dut *Janke* dimin. of *Jan* John. (cf. *Jenkin*) . . .

He writes as a conclusion, "The Fowlers are so prudent that they seem rather hasty in deciding many words to be of 'etymology dubitable.' Though they now and then are quite bold (cf. *gooseberry*, *saunter*), yet they are a little timid as a whole, which may be justified considering they are conscientious [*sic.*] lexicographers and no etymologists" (1932: 199).

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- Century2*: *The Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*. Revised and Enlarged edition. Ed. by Benjamin Eli Smith. New York: The Century Co., 1911. (1st edition, 1914; Reprinted edition of 1st edition, 7 vols., 1914, 1980, Meicho Fukyukai.)
- COD*: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. Eds. by Henry Watson Fowler, & Francis George Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1911. (1st edition, 5th impression, 1918; 1st edition, 7th impression, 1919; 1st edition, 1920; 1st edition, 1926.)
- DEJ*: *Dai Eiwa Jiten (A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『大英和辞典』) 2 vols. Ed. by Katsuji Fujioka. Tokyo: Okakura Shoten, 1921. (1st edition, 9th impression, Fascicle 1, 1921; 2nd edition, 1st impression, 2 vols., 1932.)
- EHJ*: *Eigo Hatsuo Jiten (An English Pronouncing Dictionary: For Japanese Students)* (『英語発音辞典』). Ed. by Sanki Ichikawa. Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1923. (15th edition, 1987.)
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- NED:** *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles*. 10 vols. Ed. by James Murray. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1884–1928. (1st edition, 1888–1933.)
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- POD:** *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. Eds. by Francis George Fowler, & Henry Watson Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1924. (1st edition, 1924; 1st edition, 1925.)
- SECJ:** *Kenkyusha Shin Eiwa Chu Jiten (Kenkyusha's New School Dictionary English-Japanese)* (『研究社新英和中辞典』). Ed. by Yoshisaburo Okakura. Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1929. (1st edition, 60th impression, 1933.)
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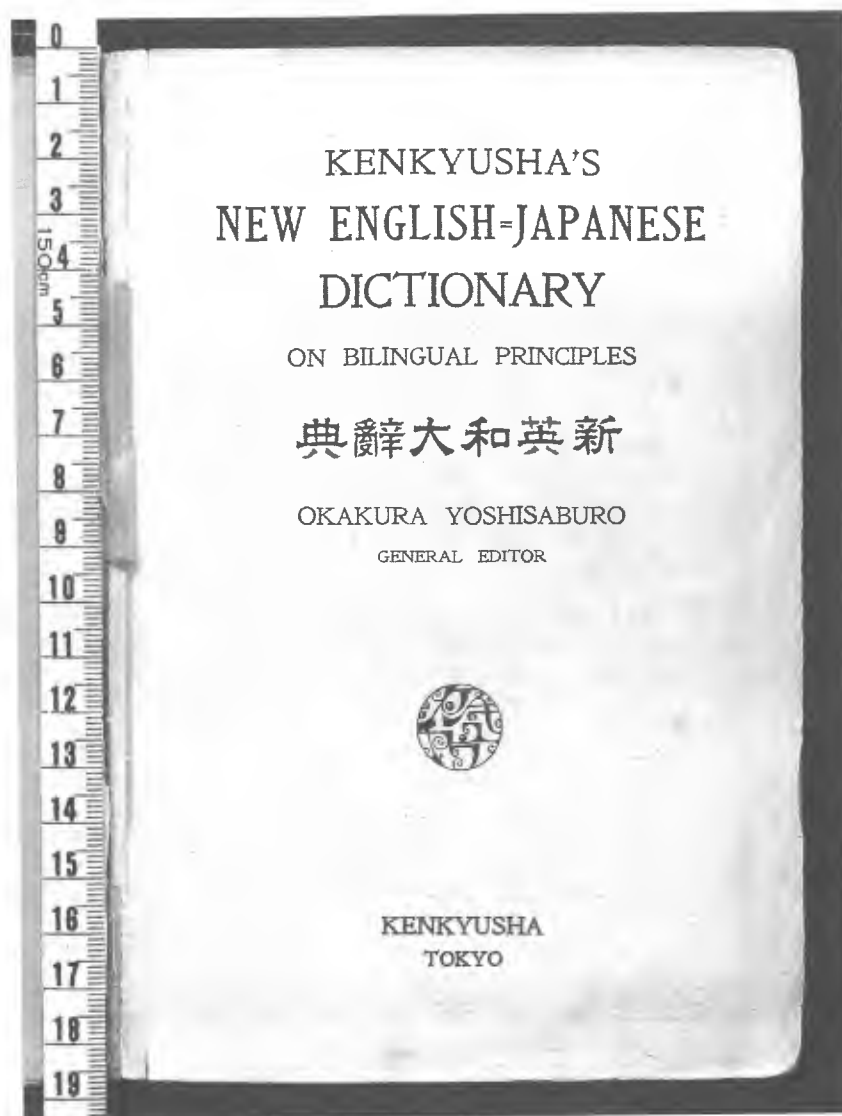
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APPENDIX

Reproduced here are several pages from *Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary on Bilingual Principles* (1927). Photographs 1 and 15 are from the first impression of the first edition published on March 5, 1927, while Photographs 2 to 14 are from the 38th impression of the first edition published on April 25, 1927.

Appendix: Photographs of *Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary on Bilingual Principles* (1927)



Photograph 1. Title page

序

およそ誰に限らず、外國語の教授者として永い歲月教壇の上の人となつたほごの者には、その教材の取扱に伴つて、何時もなく、自分の通譯を考へてやまぬ語句の用法を、彼等の國語の間に見出さずには居らぬもので、一度さうした語句に逢着するを、それを何さかして永遠に傳へ同じ學びの道を歩む人々の弊にしたい思ひが、心の一角に固く根ざすものである。併しこれは、或は自分一個の事かも知れぬ。さにかく自分の場合には、この感が深かつたのである。それで教壇生活の二十年を経た今から十數年前に於ても、自分の頭に他人に頼たすには置けぬ得意の英語邦譯の語句が、今から思へば大した量でないにしても、相應に集まつて來たやうな心地がし始めた。之に舊來の譯語の中から、最も適當と思ふものを擇り加へ、その全體の發音を、一音一字主義の文字で表示し、且つ邦文の間に原語をも適當に安排した上、各語の由來の概要を示し添へたなら、在來の辭典に優る良參考書が、本邦の文學界に生れること信じたのであつた。それで相良左氏の助力を得て、雙解本位で且つ發音と語源とを附記した、可なり大仕掛の英和辭典の起稿を思ひ立つた事も嘗てはあつたが、不幸にして種々の事情に妨げられ、志を遂げるには至らなかつた。

斯くて十餘年の後に至り、圖らずも、研究社から新規模の英和大辭典の出版計畫のあること、及びこれが編輯を主宰することの相談を受け、其方針が、全然自分の豫ての理想の一層充實した實現であることを知つた時、自分は無上の歡喜を味つた。茲に於て自分は、自ら擲らす身を本事業の中に投じ、社主その他と共に力のあらん限りを盡して、辭典編成に關する其後の一切の工夫を參案し、充分の考慮を積んで輯録校對の業を開始したのである。爾來、春風秋雨、滿三ヶ年に互つて、この事業に深甚なる興味と之が遂行に大切なる資格とを具備して居らるる十數氏が、各その蘊蓄を傾け心身の勞苦を厭はず盡瘁せられた結果、ここに本書は斯く完成の域に運ばれたのである。

而して本書を大成するに當り、非常の盡力を惠まれた方々には、

Photograph 2. Preface (1/2)

後藤一郎、萩原恭平、河村重治郎、木村幹、松田福松、松浦嘉一、長井氏豊、奈倉次郎、齋藤靜、澤村寅二郎、田中菊雄、山田巖、の十二氏がをられる。中にも澤村寅二郎氏は、吾々の乞を容れ特に中途からこの事業に参加せられ、多大の援助を添へられたのである。

その他、主として邦文語句統一の爲には野尻正英氏、また語原方面には坂東省、平岡伴一の二氏がそれぞれ盡力されたのであるが、かうした大規模の出版の遂行に當つては、編輯と相並んだ多大の苦心が、印刷部に於ても経験せられたことは言ふまでもない。

なほ本事業の完成に際して忘れる事の出來ないのは、これが大方針確立の際に當つて種々重要な助言を賜はつた長友市河三喜氏と、社主小酒井氏の相談役として陰に陽に本事業に盡力せられた喜安健太郎氏と、この二つの尊い御名である。

昭和二年二月二十二日

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Photograph 3. Preface (2/2)

働事業の、今茲に。素より、ひ得るも、改訂増補、もありま、のあらゆる、事實は、さる次第、に獻じ謹、所であり、

一 郎

編輯の方針

I. 語彙の選擇に就いて 限られたる紙面に、成るべく多數の語を収め、有用な事項を豊富に盛る事は、良辭書に必須の要件であり、随つて、語彙の選擇さいふ事が辭書編輯上一つの重要な役目を演ずることになる。此點に於いて本書の採つた方針は、大要次の如くである。

- (1) 近世語を主とし、新語・復活語等は成るべく遺漏なきを期すること。
- (2) 古語・廢語等は、特別の必要な限り、容赦なく捨てること。
- (3) 俗語・方言・外來語・學術語・専門語の類は、一般讀書人の常識を大體の標準として、餘りに専門に亙らないこと。

以上の見地から最も參考となつた辭書は、C. O. D. と P. O. D. である。此兩辭書は色色の方面から見て異色のあることは夙に定評のある所で、語彙の選擇に於いても多大の注意が拂はれてゐる。併しながら、それは英國人を目標としてのことであるから、日本人の立場から見ると相當遺憾の點がある事は已むを得ない。本書は其他に Oxford, Webster, Standard, Century 等の大辭書をはじめ英米發行の最新辭書類を參考として成つたものである。

II. 發音に就いて 發音を正確に表はす事に於て、一音一字主義に基く萬國音學學會協定の音標文字が最も科學的であり、邦人が外國語を學ぶ上から觀て簡潔で且つ合理的、又極めて便利である事は、最早や疑の餘地のない事である。本書は主として Jones 式の簡明表音法 (broad notation) に準據することとした。

III. 語彙の解釋に就いて 邦語と其發達の経路を全く異にしてゐる英語の意義用法を傳へんとするに、邦語の譯語と説明だけを以てする事は、種々の方面から考察して、不徹底の憾みがある。在來の英和辭典が、それぞれ多大の努力の所産であるにも拘はらず、多くは單に譯語を拾ふ參考書たるに止まり、語義の解釋説明等に至つては原書でなくては眞實を窺はれない傾きのある所以は、蓋し、如上の遺憾の點が其有力な一因であらう。

本書は、在來の辭書の多くが辿り來つた『原書の直譯的移植』の方法を捨て、邦語と英語の兩方面から觀察して語の眞義を確實に把握せしめ、以て、その應用を自在ならしめることを主眼とすると共に、一方、斯く利用した英語の異介と譯語の適當なる排列並に語法的關係の明示に依つて、様様の轉化を示す意義の徑路を解し易からしめんと努めた。併しながら本書が此立場から最も多く利用した英語の同意語 (synonyms) は、各語何れも微妙な意味の文 (fine shade of meaning) を有する爲に、其取扱ひには豫想外の困難が伴つて來た事は勿論で

Photograph 6. Editorial principle (1/2)

ある。本書の此新しい試みが、さの程度まで成功したかは、他の諸項と共に、一に大方讀者の批判に俟つ所である。

IV. 語原の採用に就いて 在來の英和辭典では語原は捨てて顧みられなかつたのであるが、本書ではその立脚せる立場から之を無視し得ないばかりでなく、語原を明かにすることは本書の主義を一層發揮するものであり、又、讀者に興味と實益を興へるといふ所得がある。但し、本書に示した語原は専門的の立場から語原學を教へんとするものではなく、上來説き來つた本書の目的を徹底せしむる一方便として採用したまでで、成るべく簡明を旨とした。參考書は N. E. D. 及び C. O. D. を主として、Skeat, Weekley の大著や Standard, Webster 等の大辭典は參考だけに止めた。

内容の解説

1. 見出し語に關するもの (1) 字體、一般の英語を立體のブラック活字 (例—a bet) とし、英語から見ての外國語 (佛・獨・伊・西・羅甸等) は斜體のブラック活字 (例—*abattoir*) とした。後者は實地に使用する時も、斜體 (*italic*) にするのが普通である。

(2) 各語の首字。固有名詞 (例—Amazon)・固有名詞から派生した語 (例—Amazonian, Bergsonism, Americanize) 及び動植物の學名 (例—Accipitres, Alkanna) など特別の語以外は、一般に小文字で始めてある。

(3) 綴字 (spelling) は英國式を標準とした、即ち、大體に於て C. O. D. 又は P. O. D. と同様である。

(4) 音節 (syllable) の區分。 (1) に示した外國語の外は、一般に最近のウェブスター (Webster) 式に據つて、細いハイフン (·) で區分した。

(5) 抑音符 (accent), 簡明を旨として主位強勢だけに止め、所謂 even accent のある場合だけ双方に之を附することとした。但し、アクセントの位置を明瞭にする爲め、其直後にも必ずハイフンを用ひてある。例—Aus-tro-Ger-man.

(6) 合成語 (compound words) のうち特に太いハイフン (—) を用ひた語は、常にハイフンを用ひて書く可きことを示す。

(注意) (—) eared の如く、見出し語の始めに括弧と共に附した太いハイフンは、其語が單獨にも、又合成語としても用ひられることを示す。

(7) 見出し語の排列。 検索の便を主として各語を別項に分ち、abc 順に排列した。隨つて合成語は勿論、-ly, -ness, -ment, -able などの接尾語で終る種々の變化語、複數名詞、動詞の過去分詞形及び現在分詞形で形容詞又は名詞とし

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Photograph 7. Editorial principle (2/2) and Guide to the dictionary (1/5)

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て用ひられるもの等も、總て項が分けてある。同形の語で語原又は發音の異なるものも亦別項とし、其順序に依つて各語の右側に 1, 2, 3... の數字が夫れぞれ附してある。但し、**dispepsia** と **dispepsy** の如く、綴りは異なつてゐても、全然同意義の數語を同一の項に收めたのは紙面の節約の爲であり、**enrol** と **enroll** を () を利用して合併し **enrol(I)** としたのも同じ趣旨に據る。

〔注意〕 略語は巻末に一括して掲げてある。

2. 發音 音標文字に據つて見出し語の直後に示し、必ず [] を附す。別項『音標文字略解』参照。次に本書で用ひた表音法で特に説明を要するものを例示する。

(1) アクセントは主位強勢の置かれる母音の上に附した。例— [æksidənt]

(2) 音標文字中 () 内に入れた部分は省略し得る。例— [d(a)ɪkɪt], [tʃɛ(t)naɪt], [ɛdju:(i)keɪt], [akʌ:fmɑ̃(b)]

(3) 同じ語に二つ以上の發音を示す場合はコンマ (,) で區切る。例— [kimifɔrə, kaimifɔrə] 而して、第二以下の發音の中最初の發音と共通の部分は屢省略して、單にハイフンを附す。例— [iksɛpt, eks-], [kɔnsɪs, kon-], [ɛnɟulciɪv, -lət-]

(4) 英語化した發音を示した後、外國の原音を示す場合には () 内に入れる。例— [sekʊ:ʃɪ: (akʊ:ʃɛr)] 〔注意〕 佛蘭西語のアクセントは一般に最後の音節にある故、本書では附けてない。例— **chanson** [ʃɑ̃sɔ̃]

3. 品詞の類別 同一の語で數種の品詞別ある場合には、次例の如く先づ其品詞名を略字を以て一括して示し、次に 1, 2, ... の順に従つて細別した。例— **chill** [ʃɪl] *n., o. & v.* 1. *n.* ... 2. *adj.* ... 3. *v.t. & i.* ...

〔注意〕 (n) 一般に 2. 以下は、品詞の變る毎に行を改めてあるけれど、紙面の節約のために、送り込みさせた場合も少くない。

(4) 同一の語でも品詞に依つて發音の異なる時、別項とする事は I. の (7) で説明した。其例— **ab'sent**¹ [æbsɛnt] *adj.* ...

ab'sent² [æbsɛnt] *v.t.* ...

4. 語形の變化 動詞・助動詞・形容詞・副詞及び名詞の變化で文法上特に注意すべきものは、夫れぞれ品詞名の次に () を附して之を示し、以て應用に便にした。但し此場合屢ハイフンを用ひて見出し語と共通の部分省略してある。

5. 語義の解釋・譯語の順序其他 (1) 譯語は主として現代的口語に據る。

(2) 排列。一語にして能く全的意義を包含する如き一元的譯語があれば之を先にし、それに近い譯語・解釋を順次排列して、轉義を容易に解し得るやう意を用ひた (**character** などの項参照)。各譯語間のコンマ (,) は其前後の意味の同一又は近いことを示し、セミコロン (;) は其差違が著しい場合に用ひた。但

Photograph 8. Guide to the dictionary (2/5)

し、例へば **anatomy** の項に於ける (俗) 骸骨 (=skeleton), 木乃伊 (=mummy) の如く「俗語では骸骨の意にも木乃伊の意にも用ふ」と云ふ様な場合は、矢張りコンマで區切る。尚、前置詞・接續詞其他精細な分類を要するものは、(1) (2) (3)... 又は (a) (b) (c) ... 若しくは I, II, III... 等、場合に應じて適當の方法を講じた。

(3) 同意語・反對語・説明・敷衍等。譯語の意義を徹底させるため機に應じて之を施した。それ等は何れも括弧 () 又は [] 内に入れて譯語の前又は後に附してある。そのうち注意すべきものを示せば、

(a) 譯語の前に (pl.) 又は (通例 pl.) があるのは、その場合の意味では、(通例) 複数の形を用ひる、の意。(通例 *pl.*) (Passive) などと同様に解す。

(b) 例へば **crab**¹ の項で「(C-) 天) 巨蟹宮 (Cancer) ...」とあるのは、天文學で巨蟹宮 (別の語で言へば Cancer) の意味に用ひる時は **Crab** と大文字で始める、の意である。其他 **crown** の項の「(the C-) 帝王, ...」, **Bacchanalia** の項の「(b) 騒々しい酒宴, ...」など皆同様の類推に依る。

(c) **behind** の項で「あさ (=in or to the rear): ...」とあるは、「あさ」の意を語を代へて云へば 'in the rear' 又は 'to the rear' とする、の意。

(d) **ask** の項で「尋ねる, 問ふ (ask him about the matter, ask who he is, ask him if he knows)」とあるのは、ask を其意味に用ひる種々の場合を同時に例示したもので、譯語の後の例句・例文は () 内に入れる。

(e) 比較・参照等を示す場合は、通例次の形式を用ふ。例— '北極の [cf. *ant-arctic*]', '猶 [cf. *tom-cat, she-cat, kitten*]' 等。

(4) 語法的説明。例へば **accountable** の項で「責任ある (=responsible) [for things, to persons] ...」とあるのは、此意味では通例 'accountable for things', 'accountable to persons' の如く用ひる、の意。〔注意〕 斯くの如く語法を示す語句 (前置詞・接續詞・不定法・動詞名詞等) は常に [] 内に入れ、且つ適當に斜字體を用ふ。例— '露ふ [from, into]', '報ずる (=inform) [that, how]', '(...せん) 試みる (=attempt) [to do, at doing]', 等。

6. 熟語・慣用語・例文 (1) 字體と排列。字體は總て斜體 (*italics*) を用ひ、夫れぞれ其屬する品詞の項に收めた。第一の句又は文の冒頭に記號 “ ” を置き、第二以下の始めには常に “ ” を附して、各の句又は文の區分を明瞭にした。熟語・慣用語の順序は、検索を容易ならしめる爲め a b c 順を通則とした。併し、前置詞其他意義の多様に互る語の項では、解釋・理解の便宜を主として、排列を自由にした場合もある。例文の順序も之に倣ふ。

(2) 括弧の用法。例へば 「『 *black as a raven* (黒さは) 烏の濡羽色(など) の

場合
では

Photograph 9. Guide to the dictionary (3/5)

本乃伊(イ)様な頁を要するも二例にて適當

り候に願じて譯語の前又は、(通例)

は、天文學で字で始める、ialia の項の

は、「あまに」の意、*de who he is,* 結合を同時に

極の [cf. *ant-*

=responsible)

de for things,

法を示す語句

適當に斜字體

「せんさす

lies) を用ひ、

號「を置き、

こした、熟語・

併し、前置、

排列を自由

色(など)の

場合の如く、() は一般的に譯語の説明・敷衍の語句に用ひただけでなく、本項では、特に次の如き場合にも之を利用した、

(a) 二句を一括する時。例一

¶ *art (dramatic) critic* 美術(劇)通。これは、「*art critic* 美術通」と「*dramatic critic* 劇通」の二句を同時に示す。

¶ *give credit to (a story)* (話を)信する。

¶ *be (much) to the credit of one* (大いに)某の名譽さなる。

以上の二例に於いて、英語句の中の () 内の部分はそれぞれ譯の中の () 内の部分に相當する。

(b) 省略出来る時。例一

¶ *a pair of (wooden) clogs* 下駄一足。

¶ *He can afford (to take) a motor-car.* 彼は自動車に乗れる身分だ。

第一例の 'wooden', 第二例文では 'to take' が略される。

(注意) *depend (upon)* の如き場合も () 内の部分は略し得る。

(c) 前の語句を言ひ換へる時。特に () 内の始めに 'or' を添へる。例一

¶ *gates (or jaws) of death* 死生の境。

'gates of death' でも 'jaws of death' でも同じ意に用ひられる。

¶ *on all accounts (or on every account)* ぜうあつても。

'on all accounts' を 'on every account' としても同じ意味。

(注意) 二つ以上の代用語句を示す場合は第二以下の 'or' は、コンマ(,) で間に合せる。例一 ¶ *be amused at (or by, with) the idea* 趣向を面白がる、此場合の 'at' は *by* でもよく又 *with* でも宜しい。

7. 語原の例解 ここには一般に代表的のものを示す一

linoleum [L. *linum* flax + *oleum* oil] (解) 'linoleum' (床敷の)油團(註) きよふ語は羅匈語(L)を略すの *linum* (=flax「亜麻」)の *lin-* と *oleum* (=oil「油」)とで出来たもの。

abet [OF *nieter* (à to + *beter* bait)] (解) 'abet' '煽動する' は古代フランス語(OF)の *abeter* に由來する、そして *abeter* は *beter* (英語の to) と *beter* (英語の bait 即ち「犬をけしかける」)とから出来た語。

chevalier [OF < L *caballus* horse, cf. *cavalier*] (解) 'chevalier' は羅匈語の *caballus* 即ち「馬」から古代フランス語となり後に英語になつたもの。尙類語の *cavalier* の語原参照。 [à=from, extra=outside.]

ab extra [L. =from outside] (解) 'ab extra' '外部から' は羅匈語で

aqueous [L. *agua* water + *-ous*] (解) 'aqueous' は羅匈語の *agua* 「水」

Photograph 10. Guide to the dictionary (4/5)

に接尾語の -ous を附したものである。

cephalopod [cephalo- + Gk *podos* foot] (解) 'cephalopod' '頭足動物' は接頭語の cephalo- と希臘語 *podos* 「足」とから成る。cephalo- の語原に [Gk *kephalē* head] とあるから「頭」の意が分る。(注意) 此例の cephalo- 及び直ぐ上の -ous, の如く、別項に説明してある語は單に斜字體にしただけで、其項を参照すべきことを意味する。接頭語 a-, ad-, bc-, di-, con-, con-, en-, ex-, pre- 等又は接尾語の -able, -ible, -ative, -atory, -ly 等に此例が多い。

Demosthenic [< *Demosthenes* (384-322 B.C.), 希臘の雄辯家] これは固有名詞(又は其派生語)の語原の一般形式。括弧内の数字は西曆紀元を示す(尙 B.C. は「紀元前」の略語, cf. A.D.).

語原に關する略語

AF = Anglo-French	L = Latin	Peruv. = Peruvian
Anglo-Ind. = Anglo-Indian	LG = low German	Pol. = Polish
Arab. = Arabic	LL = late Latin	Pr., Prov. = Provençal
Ass. = Assyrian	ME = middle English	R.-C. = Roman-Catholic
Boh. = Bohemian	Mex. = Mexican	Rom. = Roman, Romance languages
Bret. = Breton	MHG = middle high German	Russ. = Russian
Celt. = Celtic	N = Norse	S.-Afr. = South-African
Chin. = Chinese	N.-Amer. = North-American	S.-Amer. = South-American
Corn. = Cornish	N.-Amer. Ind. = North-American Indian	Sc. = Scotch
Dan., Dan. = Danish	Norw. = Norwegian	Scand. = Scandinavian
Du. = Dutch	N.T. = New Testament	Skr. = Sanskrit
E = English	OE = old English	Slav. = Slavonic
F = French	ON = old Norse	Sp. = Spanish
Fris. = Frisian	ONF = old northern French	Sw. = Swedish
G = German	O.T. = Old Testament	Teut. = Teutonic
Gk = Greek	O'Teut. = old Teutonic	Turk. = Turkish
Hind. = Hindi	Pers. = Persian	U.S. = United States
It. = Italian		W = Welsh
Jap. = Japanese		WG = West German
Jav. = Javanese		

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Photograph 11. Guide to the dictionary (5/5)

A NEW ENGLISH-JAPANESE DICTIONARY

et participial passive participle reposition ...

英語 名詞 ...

敬称 ...

A

A, a, al [ei] (M, As, A's, As [ciə]) 英字の第一字 ...

き始む (1) 母音字 a- [ju:] ...

W. R. West Riding. W. R. A. F. Women's Air Force (cf. WRAF) ...

X X-cp., x-cp. ex coupe X-d., x-d., xd., x-div Xe xenon. [div] x-i. ex interest. Xmas, Christmas. X-n. ex new shares. Xnty. Christianity. Xper., Xr. Christopher. Xt. Christ. Xtian. Christian.

Y yttrium. y. yen. year; yard. d. yard. B. year-book. ytterbium. 1/2 yards. the. to. yeomanry. L. L. Yorkshire Light Infantry. M. C. A. Young Christian Association. M. Cath. A. Young Catholic Association. M. C. U. Young Christian Union. orks. Yorkshire. year: younger; your. that. W. C. A. Young Women's Christian Association.

Z zero. Zeehorsh. Zeehorsh. Zoological Garden. cine. I. zoological; zoology. irconium. Zoological Society.

有 所 權 版 ... 昭和二年三月五日印刷 ... 發行所 研究社 ...

Photograph 14. Dictionary text, page 1

Photograph 15. Back matter (The year and date of publication, the general editor, the publisher, and the price given.)