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English and Māori Lexicon in Contact in New Zealand 　ISAMU ABE 1

An Analysis of *A Valency Dictionary of English: A Corpus-Based
Analysis of the Complementation Patterns of English Verbs,
Nouns and Adjectives* 　KAORU AKASU 12

An Analysis of Two Business English Dictionaries
for Learners 　TAKASHI KANAZASHI 29

An Analysis of Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of
*American English* 　HIDRO MASUDA 46
SATORU UCHIDA
MANAMI HIRAYAMA
AKIHKO KAWAMURA
RUMI TAKAHASHI
YASUTAKE ISHII

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 　KAZUO DOHI 156
JUNKO SUGIMOTO
RUMI TAKAHASHI
SATOKO ISOZAKI
TETSUO OSADA

遠い思い出 　小島義郎 300

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岩崎研究会
When different languages meet, that is, come in contact, and ‘live’ together for a considerable period of time, they willy-nilly begin to make their influences felt on each other in more than one way.

In this article, or rather a miscellany, a brief sketch will be made of some aspects of English as it found its way into Māori — how it fared in the language indigenous to Aotearoa (New Zealand) and vice versa.

English is an official language of New Zealand, and Māori is treated as a semi-official language. English is spoken by the majority of the population, whereas Māori is a minority language spoken by optimistically estimated tens of thousands of people who are most of them just semi-speakers of Māori.

Records of the Māori language written by white English-speaking people in their vernacular tongue, illustrating what they encountered in Aotearoa, were practically nil or very scarce and rather desultory in the earliest period of English-Māori contact. A systematic way to reduce the native language to writing was yet to be attempted. Later, unlike these ‘wayfarers’, there came people in a more or less banded group, specifically Captain Cook and his crew and companions who collected some of what drew their attention — Māori social life, native flora and fauna. They gave English names to some of the places they discovered or visited. In the 19th century, a useful system of spelling Māori, akin to the system currently in use, was devised mostly by missionaries and Māori specialists.

Interestingly enough, I have encountered two pieces of literature de-
scribed in English showing how Hawaiian and Māori people cemented in the oral tradition. One concerns Hawaiian. There is a story going about — a story which is considered apocryphal — that the native messengers reported when Captain Cook’s party approached the island of Oahu in 1778, that ‘their skin is loose and folding; their heads are angular; fire and smoke issue from their mouths; they have openings in the sides of their bodies into which they thrust their hands and draw out iron, beads, nails, and other treasures and their speech is unintelligible. This is the way they speak: *a hikapalale, hikapalale, hiotlai, oalaki, walawalaki waiki, poha*.

The interesting thing about this is that in describing English, Hawaiian people unwittingly gave away the vocal setup of their own language (Alexander 1899).

We have a story in the same vein in New Zealand. Curnow et al. (2002) relate this story:

In Aotearoa or New Zealand the adoption of words from English into Māori and vice versa has expanded the lexical bank of both languages. With Māori the process probably began from the earliest contact with non-Polynesian people. The detailed traditional account published in *Te Pipiwharaurangi* in 1911 by Mohi Tūrei of the visit of some Europeans to fish off the coast of Tolaga Bay on the East Coast suggests that borrowing of words began with the very first contact between Māori and Europeans. Tūrei, an acknowledged Ngati Porou authority on traditional lore in the latter part of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries wrote that this first encounter happened a long time before Captain Cook’s visit to the East Coast in 1769.

Tūrei’s account includes the words of two chants used by the foreigners to lift the anchor of their boat and to row away. These words had been remembered in the Māori phonological form by the Māori fishermen, who had observed at close quarters the foreigners fishing. The rowing chant included what Tūrei considered to be the origin of the word ‘Pakeha’:

*Pakepakeha pakepakeha*

*Hoihoihii hoihoihii*

*Hihihiihiihiihii*

The site of this encounter was named Tolaga Bay by Captain James Cook, a borrowing from *taraki* (a land breeze / northerly breeze). In some newspapers we see this re-borrowed back into Māori as *Toreka Pei, Toracape, Tarakipei* and *Tarak*. Here we see *Pakepakeha* (a partially reduplicated form of *pakeha*). Linguist Burchfield says that this word is pronounced [pakāhə; pakihə] by white New Zealanders, adding that this everyday NZ word is unknown in the UK. *The Reed Pocket Dictionary of New Zealand English* (RPDNZE) gives [pah-ke-hah or parkee-are]. The meaning of this word is variously given. *Hoihoihii* reminds us of English *Ahoy! Ship! Hihihii* is presumably *Shipship(?)*.

In contemporary English, borrowings from Māori are pronounced by native English-speaking people usually along English phonetic lines, although newly published English-Māori dictionaries encourage those people to pronounce Māori more or less as the natives do.

- *kiwi* [kiwiː] (a flightless native bird) = [kiwi]
- *waihine* [wahiːniː] (women) (plural) = [wa-hine] or more simply [wa:hine]
- *moko* [moukou] (facial or body tattoo) = [moko]

Henceforth, Māori of English stock or transliteration (whakawhitangakupu) of English to Māori, and English of Māori stock will be referred to as ME and EM respectively, if need be. Used singly, E is English, and M is Māori. With some lexicton, English is solely or predominantly employed, while with some, hybridized forms are employed, with people who want to stick to their guns inclined toward a Māori-only principle.

EM: *gooree* or *goori* [goo-ree] (*The New Zealand Pocket Oxford Dictionary*, 2nd ed. (NZPOD2)) also *goory*. — M: *kuri* (a native dog, mongrel, also an unpopular person).

EM: *tutu* also *toot* [tu-tu/toot]. A large shrub whose pulpy black berries contain poisonous seeds, and whose leaves can poison stock (RPDNZE). In this dictionary, the original Māori word *kuri* [ku-ree] is also entered.
Here are a couple of words that require cautious reading. The English word book is pukapuka in Māori. The form puka easily leads us to associate it with English book. However, M: pukapuka is a rangiora shrub. *Brachyglottis repanda*: this shrub has white undersides to its leaves, so the word is also used for book, letter, paper (the leaves of the rangiora were used for writing on in the early days of Pakeha settlement), lungs (Concise Māori Dictionary (CMD)).

Māori kete is a basket, kit, hand-bag usually made by New Zealand flax. The word may easily be taken as a borrowing from English kit or vice versa. English kit refers to articles, equipment, etc. for a specific purpose (first-aid-kit) or a set of parts needed to assemble furniture or model, etc. This word is also equalized as Māori kete (Anglicized form, perhaps influenced by kitbag). A kitbag is usually a large, cylindrical bag used for a soldier's or traveller's kit (NZPOD).

ME: *miraka* is from E: milk. Linguist Mary Boyce says that 'For some speakers there will always be a significant difference between miraka and M: wain (breast milk), with one okay for adding to a cup of tea, and the other not'. (Garlick 1998)

In this connection it will be noted that in Hawaiian, waiū is used for milk whether it concerns the breast or the cup. E.g. E'olu'olu'oe i wahi wain (= Please a little milk).

ME: *Kiritimiti* is from E: Christmas. English has 24 consonant phonemes and 11 vowel phonemes plus several diphthongs. Māori has fewer phonemes usually transcribed as /a, e, i, o, u/ and /p, t, k, m, n, ŋ, f, h, r, w/. The number of Māori vowel phonemes is rather disputable. Some claim the number is 10, transcribing them as /a, e, i, o, u/ (short) and /a, ē, ī, ŏ, ū/ (long). Short and long vowels are phonemically distinct. Other scholars, meanwhile, claim that the number is five/a, e, i, o, u/ (short), therefore /aa, ee, ii, oo, uu/ are, albeit they are long, are a sequence of two (near-)identical short vowels. In this miscellany, long vowels are transcribed with a macron placed on the vowel letters of the corresponding short vowels.

The phonemes showing consonants in E: Christmas are /k, r, s, t, m, s/. In Māori the corresponding letters are k, r, t, m, t. s is absent, because Māori has no /s/. Compared with English words, letters showing vowels and consonants are much fewer. There are no set rules to determine which English sound is changed to which Māori sound. One notable phenomenon is that English sibilants like [s, z, f, 3] are usually rendered as [h], as Moore (1890) writes: 'I've never heard a Māori pronounce our sibilants, and I was informed by Judge Maning that only one tribe could be taught to utter them. "You give me one herring," said a Māori to me at the Hot Lakes. For a time I was nonplussed but a colonial interpreted it to me "you give me one shilling".' (Smyth 1946)

English-speaking people are likely to apply [w] to the Māori *wh* sound which is currently pronounced more or less like English [f], though Māori /wh/ is varied. A boy brings a lunch for another boy named Te Wharewhiti to hand it to him. A school teacher says to this boy, 'That is not Worrie, that is Whare. Now give him his lunch and I don't want to hear him being called Worrie ever again'. (Te tina a Te Wharewhiti, Te Matawai Tuatoru.) [f] for *wh* is an impossible sound to the English ear: besides M: *whare* is popularly pronounced as [fari:] in New Zealand. Cf. M: *whare* [fare].

Māori words so far discussed show that the final syllable or mora end with a vowel — i.e., the syllable is open. A syllable or mora that ends with a consonant cluster is called a closed syllable. Māori words may end with a consonant only in very casual speech. For this reason, when English words are transliterated to Māori words, the latter are paragogic word-finally and epenthetic word-medially. Typical of these words are *miraka* and *piriti* (= bridge). Some words have forms that do not follow this rule. For example, *punu* (= spoon), *tiriti* (= street). English [s] which forms a consonant cluster — here [sp] and [st] — is either ignored or elided. Nor is it substituted with a different consonant (e.g. *hupunu*?).

E: wool — M: *waru*. It may sound strange that no word of Māori origin seems to exist in Māori to refer to 'wool', despite the fact that wool is a chief product of this country.

E: spoon is ME: *pune* or *punu* as already mentioned. We have M: *kono,*
which means bend, curve, loop, knot, etc.

E: aircraft — M: wakaharerangiri (vehicle + fly + sky) or manu rererangi (manu = bird). Apparently no ME: aircraft carrier in Māori is ‘kawe rererangi’ (kawe = carry). The Reed Dictionary of Modern Māori, 2nd ed. (RDM2) lists ME: aropereina.

E: June — ME: June — M: Pipiri. In Māori, the calendar month of June is to some tribes the first month of the year. In New Zealand, a ‘down under’ country from Britain, June is rather a cold season. Best (1922) writes:

"Kua piri nga mea katoa i te whenua, me te tangata. (All things on earth cohere owing to the cold; likewise man.)"

The name of the first month, Pipiri, is that of a star, or rather, two stars. Pipiri is one of the symbols of the New Year and of early winter.

E: Monday — ME: Mane — M: Rātahi or Rāhina. Rātahi means ‘day one’, i.e., the first day (of the week). In Hawaiian Monday is Pōakahī (night + first), showing that the lunar calendar comes first to ‘ancient’ Polynesian people. The word hina in M: Rāhina is, according to Best, ‘the name of the moon god of Babylonia…(and) the moon goddess of ancient Egypt occupied exactly the same position’. As noted earlier, Māori [h] is usually substituted for [s].

EM: Māori. This word is fully anglicized. It is usually pronounced [mauri] or [mau(a)ri]. Māori spell and pronounce this word Māori [ma:ori]. In this connection, Mr Hideo Okada supplied me with the following piece of information:

Webster’s New World Dictionary of American English, 3rd College Edition (WNWD) gives ma’ōrē, mou’rē, also māōrē, and LPD2 has [mauri] as well as the original [mao:ri]. The first pronunciation given in WNWD [ma-o-ri] is along the same lines as your argument, and essentially the same as LPD2’s English pronunciation. If we compare this with the original pronunciation mentioned in LPD2, it sounds very similar to the original pronunciation. Therefore, it can be as-

sumed that these were heard through an English speaker's ears and transcribed as such.

The other day, Māori treasures from the Museum of New Zealand Te Papa Tongarewa were shown to the public at the Tokyo National Museum at Ueno, Tokyo. The title of this exhibition in Japanese was 「マオリ—楽園の神々—」. This 「マオリ」 was more faithful to the original Māori pronunciation, though we are used to 「マオリ」 with a short [a].

There is a short word in Māori which is similar in spelling to Māori — mauri. This word has quite different meanings. Most symbolic of these is ‘life principle’.

The mauri symbolizes active sign of life and one can talk about mauri as something separate from the body. The mauri becomes an attribute of the self, something to nurture, to protect, to think about. The self and the mauri are one. If there is something wrong with the mauri, the person is not well. When the person is physically and socially well, the mauri is in a state of balance, described as mauri tau (the mauri is at peace). (Mead 2003)

This word is used in the exclamation to avert evil after a sneeze: Tihei mauri ora. It is also a term to draw attention to oneself when wishing to speak — a formulaic beginning of a speech. The idiom is variously translated as (1) ‘the breath or sneeze of life’, ‘behold I live’, ‘listen I speak’. (Tauroa 1994) (2) A variety of totara timber, dark in colour and light in weight, valued for making canoes. (3) The moon on the 27th day.

A couple of words given below are hybridized forms of ME: and M:

ME: pene + M: rākau (pencil) (pene = pen + rākau = tree)
ME: pepa + M: takai (pepa = paper + takai = wrap)
M: pouaka + ME: pouatapa (P. O. Box). Another kind of box is solely in Māori.
M: pouaka + M: motuhake (box + special). This is also termed Private Bag in New Zealand — a collection point for the mail intended for any large organization (RPDNZE). A post box or letter box we see on the streets is Pouaka Pouatapa in Māori.
A more or less similar universal line of thinking runs through the following English and Māori lexicon, no matter whether they are the products of 'calquing' or not:

E: **writing pad** — M: *tuataka tuhi* (heap up / hoard + write)
E: **song bird** — M: *manu waiata* (bird + song)
E: **sunbeam** — M: *hihi o te rā* (ray of the sun)

There are words in Māori — mostly things, animate or otherwise, in natural New Zealand, which have their counterparts in English:

M: *pounamu* — E: New Zealand green stone
M: *rimu* — E: red pine
M: *weka* — E: wood hen

Some Māori vocabulary have undergone a semantic shift — that is, their meanings have either narrowed or amplified or they are being used to adapt themselves to a new environment or living needs. Relating to the word *umu* or *imu*, Bawden (1987) is here quoted in part:

Māori food, according to Monneron, was on the whole very miserable. Their main diet was the fern root which grew in great quantity, and which was prepared by being warmed by fire, beaten, then used as bread. They also had quantities of fish. To cook this, a hole was dug in the ground, half-filled with stones, and a fire lit on top. When the stones were sufficiently heated, the fish well-enveloped in leaves, were laid on them. Soil was then used to cover the hangi until the food was cooked.

So *umu* or *imu* is an 'earth oven'. The word *hāngi* is also used, which may refer to the oven and to the meal cooked in a manner given. The word *umu* is the name for an electrically handled modern home appliance you can find in the kitchen used for cooking food.

Finally, Māori vocabulary that refers to products modern technology has developed will be surveyed. We have chosen computer language to see how Māori is coping with it.

computer ⇒ *rorokiko* (brain + electricity)
REFERENCES


An Analysis of *A Valency Dictionary of English: A Corpus-Based Analysis of the Complementation Patterns of English Verbs, Nouns and Adjectives*

**KAORU AKASU**

1. **Introduction**

A work of special interest came out in 2004 from a German publisher Mouton de Gruyter entitled *A Valency Dictionary of English: A Corpus-Based Analysis of the Complementation Patterns of English Verbs, Nouns and Adjectives* (*VDE*, hereafter) by Thomas Herbst, David Heath, Ian F. Roe, and Dieter Götz. This is a unique book in that it is specifically intended “to provide a scholarly, sound, and, as far as possible, comprehensive description of the valency properties of English verbs, adjectives and nouns” (p. vii). I hasten to add that this is a very heavy, voluminous book.

The aim of this paper is to compare and contrast this dictionary, in terms of valency description, that is, complementation patterns of verbs, nouns, and adjectives, with two other dictionaries, namely *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary*, Fifth Edition (*COB*, hereafter) and two-volumed *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns* (*GP*, hereafter) in order to bring into relief the advantages and disadvantages of the dictionary in question. This comparison is of immense interest for the simple reason that these three works were all compiled using data from the Bank of English, though, when each of the above-mentioned works was compiled, the number of words used from the Bank of English varied.

I must make it clear, before going into details, that I am not going to debate, in this paper, the theoretical aspects of valency, including the theoretical framework employed in *VDE*. Issues, such as the concept or definition of valency itself, or its validity or usefulness, deserve further discussion, inquiry and consideration in a separate paper.

2. **Comparison**

2.1. **Sampling**

I randomly selected the following pages of *VDE*: 101–103, 401–403, and 701–703, a total of nine pages equivalent to about one percent of the whole book. The main body of this valency dictionary consists of 962 pages. The headwords on these particular pages are thirteen in all, namely, *burn* verb, *burst* verb, *ignorance* noun, *ignorant* adjective, *ignore* verb, *ill-advised* adjective, *illegal* adjective, *illogical* adjective, *illusion* noun, *image* noun, *ripe* adjective, *rise* verb, *risk* noun. In terms of parts of speech, there are four nouns, five adjectives, and four verbs. Incidentally, *VDE* claims that it “contains 511 verbs, 274 nouns and 544 adjectives” (p. xl). These entries were compared with the corresponding entries of *GP* and *COB*.

The types of information contained and the framework for presentation are basically the same for the three categories of nouns, adjectives, and verbs, though the format for nouns and that for adjectives have much more in common. The entry for nouns and adjectives consists of two components: a pattern-and-examples section and a box called the “note block” containing semantic information. For verbs, on the other hand, a list of valency patterns called the “complement inventory” precedes the pattern-and-examples block and, in addition, there is an added section of “idiomatic phrasal verbs” at the end.

2.2. **Nouns**

I begin by looking at noun entries. The results of the comparison of the four noun entries are given in Tables 1 to 4 below:
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP2</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P2 + about N/ about wh-CL/ wh to-INF</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P3 + as to N/ as to wh-CL</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P4 + of N/ of wh-CL/ wh to-INF (frequent)</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P5 + on N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: (1) The check mark "✓" shows that the valency pattern in question is found in the relevant dictionary in some way, e.g. by way of explicit marking, illustrative examples, or sentential definition, whereas the word "none" indicates otherwise; (2) "P1" or "Pattern One" under VDE, with no pattern specified, "indicates a use of the noun without any further valency complementation" (p. xiv), and it corresponds, as it were, to "Z" for verbs, meaning "zerovalent"; (3) Structure patterns given in the bottom-left or bottom-right boxes are those found in the dictionary concerned which are not found in VDE, and they are given exactly as they are in the dictionary in question.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP2</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P2 [it] + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P3 + that-CL</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P4 + about N/V-ing/ about wh-CL</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P5 + of N/V-ing (frequent)</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The abbreviation "wh" under GP2 represents a finite wh-clause, but it should be noted that it is meant to include a non-finite wh-to-inf clause, as the case may be.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP2</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P2 + that-CL</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P3 + for N/ [at] + for N/V-ing</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P4 + from N/V-ing</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P5 + in N/V-ing</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P6 + of N/V-ing/ of N V-ing (frequent)</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P7 + to N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P8 + for N + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The abbreviations "poss," "usu with supp," and "oft with poss" mean "a possessive determiner," "usually with supplementary information accompanying a noun," and "often with possessive," respectively.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP2</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P1</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P2 + that-CL</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P3 + for N/ [at] + for N/V-ing</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P4 + from N/V-ing</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>P5 + in N/V-ing</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P6 + of N/V-ing/ of N V-ing (frequent)</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P7 + to N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>P8 + for N + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The abbreviation "wh" under GP2 represents a finite wh-clause, but it should be noted that it is meant to include a non-finite wh-to-inf clause, as the case may be.
Just a glance at the four tables above gives the impression that VDE covers the widest variety of valency patterns which, under closer scrutiny, proved to be the case. It seems fair to say, therefore, that the dictionary is true to its name. There are a small number of patterns only to be found either in GP or COB. However, most of them are not valency structures as defined by VDE. Put another way, VDE would not have included those patterns in the first place, which leads to the conclusion that the dictionary would not come under fire for lack of these patterns. Incidentally, each table contains at least one pattern with the label “frequent.” It is interesting to note that all these patterns are invariably covered by the other two dictionaries.

However, with regard to what is covered in these other dictionaries, there are some disclaimers to make in this connection. First, though I put a check mark for P2 and P4 under COB in Table 1, it does not mean that all specific structures included in the two patterns are covered by the dictionary. COB only gives about N for P2 and of N for P4. In other words, the rest of the valency structures in these particular patterns, i.e. about wh-CL/wh to-INF in P2 and of wh-CL/wh to-INF in P4 are missing in COB. The same goes for P4 under COB in Table 2, P3 under GP and P3 and P4 under COB in Table 3, and P6 under COB in Table 4. The patterns not given in each case are, in the sequence mentioned above, as follows: about N/wh-CL, as V-ing, as V-ing, of V-ing/of N V-ing, and of N V-ing. Thus, even though there is a check mark in a box under GP or COB, the information given there could be less than in VDE. Next, for P3 in Table 4, two examples are given for the + for N pattern, another two for the second pattern [at] + for N, and one for the last [at] + for V-ing. Given that this is the correct complementation description for P3, it is problematical that P4 is not treated in a similar manner. That is to say, the symbol [at] should appear in P4, as in P3. Consider the second example sentence given for this pattern in VDE:

The more of these points you can follow, the less you’ll be at risk from infection.

The same argument should go for P6. Examine one of the examples therein:

At the risk of appearing a philistine, many people suggest letting red wine breathe before drinking to improve the flavour.

2.3. Adjectives

Next, adjective entries are examined. The comparable results of the five adjective entries are provided in the following Tables 5 to 9:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ignorant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GP2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The labels “attr” and “pred” in P1 and P2 stand for “attributive” and “predicative” use of the adjective, respectively, with no further complementation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ill-advised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GP2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Several points that I made in the preceding subsection concerning noun entries also hold for the adjective entries here. Specifically, *VDE* covers more types of complementation structures than do *GP* and *COB*. Patterns labeled as *frequent* in *VDE* are all covered by the other two works. A check mark in the box is no guarantee that all structures in the *VDE* pattern are fully covered in the other dictionaries concerned. To be more specific on this last point, *COB* covers two structures for *N/V-ing*, but not the remaining for *N to-INF* in P4 in Table 9.

I have a disclaimer about the semantic aspect of the description of adjectives, but this will be taken up later in connection with the “note block” as the authors call it.

### 2.4. Verbs

Third, and lastly, let us look at verb entries. The comparable results of the four verb entries are shown in Tables 10 to 13 below.
An Analysis of A Valency Dictionary of English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP1</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D1 + Np</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D2 + ADJ</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>D3 + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D4 + into N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D5 + with N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D6 + ADV</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>+ in (+ on N)p</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ out</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ out QUOTE/SENTENCE</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ out + V-ing</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The symbols “M,” “D,” and “T” stand for “monovalent,” “divalent,” and “trivalent,” respectively. A more familiar term for monovalent would be “intransitive.”

Table 11

burst

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP1</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D1 + Np</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D2 + ADJ</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>D3 + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D4 + into N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D5 + with N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D6 + ADV</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>+ in (+ on N)p</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ out</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ out QUOTE/SENTENCE</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ out + V-ing</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The symbol “V” of “V into n” at the bottom under GP1 stands for the phrasal “burst out,” not for the simplex “burst” in this particular case.

Table 12

ignore

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP1</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D1 + Np</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>D2 + that-CL-p00</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>D3 + wh-CL-p00</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

get V-ed

Table 13

rise

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GP1</th>
<th>VDE</th>
<th>COB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D1 + N: QUANT</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>D2 + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D3 + above N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D4 + against N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D5 + by N: QUANT</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D6 + from N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D7 + in N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D8 + out of N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D9 + through N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>D10 + to N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>D11 + with N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>T1 + N: QUANT + against N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>T2 + from N to N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>T3 + in N + against N</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ up</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>✓</td>
<td>+ up + against N</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>+ up + to N (rare)</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none</td>
<td>+ up + to-INF</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are a number of items worth pointing out about the four tables here. In the box for the pattern + out + REFL PRON under COB in Table 10, there is a check mark because this particular pattern is covered by the dictionary. If one looks more closely, however, one will see that there is an interesting difference here. In VDE, a metaphorical use of burn oneself out is referred to, as demonstrated by the example “It was the time of The Sex Pistols burning themselves out on the rock’n’roll life-style. (= exhausting unrecoverably),” whereas, in COB, a literal sense of the phrase is attested to, as manifested by the example “Fire officials let the fire burn itself out.”

The phrase burst into is given in pattern D4 in Table 11. One finds another instance of this phrase among the six examples listed for D6 + ADV:

Two people have died after masked men burst into a pub in south-east[sic] London.

This leads me to suggest that VDE might have added a second sense D (A person, animal, or vehicle can burst into or through a place, i.e. rush in or through or appear unexpectedly.) to this pattern of D4, where B (A person or a group of people can burst into some kind of behaviour, i.e. start doing it suddenly and energetically.) is now the only sense identified therein and should instead include the above-mentioned example sentence in order to accommodate this wider use and meaning. Although it is a matter of judgment whether or not to add this meaning of burst into to D4, my belief is that the addition would render the phrase more easily accessible to the user if it did.

Rise to the occasion and rise to the challenge are fairly common idiomatic expressions, both of which are given in COB. That is not the case in VDE, which I would posit as quite undesirable. In D10 in Table 13, where these chunks should belong, there is no reference made to either of them, or even to this particular sense. One saving grace is that VDE lists a pattern + up + to N (rare) in the phrasal verb section, giving the following example:

Government and people together can rise up to the challenge. (= respond).

In view of the fact, however, that both VDE and COB are based on data from the Bank of English, one may well surmise that this is a most mysterious situation.7

Last but not least, it is remarkable again that the points made in subsection 2.2 may still be carried over to the verb entries.

3. Note blocks

The note block is basically a section dealing with semantics. It contains “information about (1) the meaning of the headword in a particular pattern, (2) the words that can occur with the headword in a pattern, i.e. its collocational range, (3) important differences in meaning between various patterns, (4) other information such as whether a use is considered formal or informal, British or American etc” (p. xxi) [numbers added by the author]. A note of caution seems to be in order here: “In particular, this dictionary does not aim to provide extensive definitions of the words covered. The main function of the meaning explanations provided is to enable the user to identify the sense in which a word is used and to offer extensive coverage of the meaning of the patterns rather than the words” (p. xxii). To put it plainly, not all senses of words as they are found in ordinary dictionaries are expected to be given in VDE.

The note block to the headword image goes as follows:

A The image of a person, etc. is ‘the picture that they seek to create and/or that other people have of them.’ → P1 P2 P3 P4

B If a person has an image of someone or something they have a picture of them in their mind. → P4

I wonder if this is a lucid enough explanation to tell the two uses apart. What confuses the explanation is that the following example is found in A of P4:

I couldn’t believe it ‘cos that person has an image of being rather a nice person [bold-faced by the author].
What makes the reference even more problematic is the fact that B of P4 carries two example sentences, neither of which embodies in it any such pattern of have an image of someone or something.

The note block to ignorant reads:

If a person is ignorant about or of a subject, a particular fact or a particular kind of knowledge, they do not know anything about it.

It seems good enough so far, but what about the last pattern, given in this entry, "P6 + on N We are not totally ignorant on the matter"? Is it different from the preceding two patterns of + about N and + of N? If so, how are they different from each other? These are legitimate questions for this entry.

4. Some residual problems

4.1. Microstructures

Nesselhauf (2005) observes that "[w]hat greatly contributes to the user-friendliness of the dictionary is the clear structure of the entries . . . . It is also helpful that the division into different blocks is supported by the layout" (p. 398). I understand her point. However, I ought to put in a word of caution here. For ordinary dictionaries, a user will most likely go directly to the main body without opening the front-matter pages and try to find, say, the word or meaning that one is looking for. Even though a user is supposed, or even advised, to read the front-matter of a dictionary before using it, one will very often skip it because one thinks s/he is already familiar with the dictionary's system or mechanics. On the other hand, this valency dictionary is very special in the sense that it does not allow the reader to do so: the user needs to read and understand the front-matter. In particular, the first, sixteen-page section "A brief guide to the Valency Dictionary of English" is a must-read which, with some time and effort, helps to accustom the user to how the dictionary works. It should prove to be worth the time and effort, and if the user is interested in the theoretical dimensions of valency, s/he might want to go on to read the second section "Valency theory and the Valency Dictionary of English."

4.2. Selection of headwords

VDE states clearly that its headwords "were chosen on the basis of the criteria of frequency, complexity of valency structures and potential difficulty for the foreign learner" (p. xl). With this in mind, let us take a look, for instance, at the following list of headwords beginning with the letter K: keen adjective, keep verb, key noun, kill verb, kind adjective, kiss verb, knock verb, know verb, knowledge noun.

Apparently, a reasonable choice of words has been made there. One strong candidate that should be considered for inclusion is the verb kick for the following reasons: (1) It is a high-frequency word; (2) It has quite a few constructions, including phrasal verbs, in which the verb is used; and (3) these constructions, especially phrasal verbs, would seem to present difficulties for learners. Other possibilities would be the verb knit, the noun kind, and the verb kid in descending order of candidacy or suitability.

4.3. Corrections to be made

I have already had occasion to suggest that there is room for improvement on some points. In addition to those, I have found at least two errors as far as the thirteen entries examined are concerned. First, in P2 + to-INF of the entry for honour noun, there is this example:

It was an honour to have taken part in such a sporting and dramatic occasion.

This particular illustrative example should take the entry of P7 [it] + for N + to-INF because it forms a subclass of the pattern. Second, P8 in the entry for risk noun goes as follows:

But the Gleesons have a fairly small garden, so it would have been quite a risk for Jim to bury Molly there. It was a risk for Piccolo to accept Alderson's proposal.

This, again, involves an analogous problem. The description should have [it] preceding the complementation pattern quoted above, resulting in [it] + for N + to-INF.
5. Conclusion
To the best of my knowledge, VDE is the first dictionary of its kind that has dealt with valency relations on such a large scale as this. Therefore, it should be safe to say that the dictionary is an invaluable tool for anyone interested in the complementation patterns of English, not just for those whom VDE claims that it is intended for, which are neatly summarized in Nesselhauf (2005): “four groups of users, namely linguists, advanced foreign learners (for the production of correct English), non-native teachers of English (for marking learner production), and developers of teaching materials such as applied linguists, grammarians, and lexicographers” (p. 391).

Admitting that VDE is a very welcome addition to the field, a more comprehensive version of the dictionary, an exhaustive one if possible, should be designed and prepared, in order to meet the expectations, as well as the needs, of earnest learners and users, for “the number of words contained in this dictionary is much smaller than in a conventional dictionary” (p. viii). VDE’s value and usefulness will definitely be maximized in electronic form. As it is, users will most likely be grievously disappointed to find that a rather surprisingly large number of words — that they might very well expect to be located in this valency dictionary — are not included.

NOTES
My thanks go to Mr. Joseph Justin Dilenschneider for reading an earlier version of this paper and for making constructive comments and helpful suggestions.

Section 1
1) Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns consists of two volumes, one of which is Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 1: Verbs (GP1) and the other Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 2: Nouns and Adjectives (GP2). As the names indicate, the former deals with structure of verbs, while the latter with that of nouns and adjectives. The two are identical in their orientation and purpose, however. I just use GP in referring to both volumes of the book.

Section 2
1) The Valency Dictionary of English states that “[t]he verbs, adjectives and nouns included in the dictionary were chosen on the basis of criteria of frequency and complexity of their valency structures. These are also the words which are likely to cause problems to foreign learners” (p. viii).
2) VDE notes, for example, that “of-constructions which can be replaced by an ‘s genitive are not considered part of the valency of a noun and not explicitly listed as an of-pattern” (p. xiv).
3) There are three different labels for frequency information employed in VDE: >30%, very frequent, and frequent.
4) The example sentences for the [at] + for N/V-ing pattern are cited here for reference, though in somewhat abridged form: “Margolus . . . says short-term attempts to find and vaccinate adults most at risk for the disease . . . have generally failed”; “The practical implication for therapists is that we may be most at risk for lapses in judgment when we have learned a sparkling new insight”; “What scientists really need . . . are clear genetic indicators of who is at risk for developing alcoholism.”
5) Alternatively, I could have put “none,” instead of a check mark, in the box of this particular pattern under COB and put the mark “✓,” in lieu of “none,” in the box next down for the + out ↔ Np pattern under COB, since VDE gives the following example in the latter pattern: “He relaxed back into his chair, letting his pipe burn itself out in his hand. (= burn to nothing).” I refrained from exercising this option because COB only gives V pron-rell P in the Extra Column for the entry burn out, with no V n P as its verb pattern.
6) The treatment of these two fixed phrases are exactly the same in the former editions of COB, except for COB1, where rise to the challenge is not given as an idiom, but rather it is listed as one of the many distinct uses in the entry for the headword (rise to a challenge or remark, you respond to it in some way, rather than ignoring it.
Incidentally, I received more than 300 hits for both expressions of rise to the occasion and rise to the challenge, while I obtained two hits for rise up to the challenge and just one for rise up to the occasion in the Bank of English (450 million words).
7) This particular point may coincide with the observation made by Nesselhauf (2005): [P]hraseological units figure more prominently in the CCED (= COB2) (for instance, the collocation the error of their ways is listed in the CCED but does not appear in the Valency Dictionary) (p. 397).

DICTIONARIES
An Analysis of Two Business English Dictionaries for Learners

Takashi Kanazashi

1. Introduction

This paper is a comparative critical review of two business English dictionaries (henceforth BEDs) for learners, namely, the Longman Business English Dictionary (2000, henceforth LBED), and the Oxford Business English Dictionary for Learners of English (2005, henceforth OBED). It is intended to be a comparative review wherein these dictionaries are compared not only with each other, but also with general-purpose EFL dictionaries such as LDOCE4 and OALD7, and competing specialized dictionaries for English speakers (ODAc3, ODBM4, and ODEcon2). In order to highlight and discuss the peculiarities of the dictionaries of this specific genre, I will mainly focus on the headwords (Section 2), the subject labels (Section 3), definitions, examples and collocations (Section 4), and special features such as notes and columns in relation to a user study (Section 5). Section 6 presents the overall conclusion. Pronunciation, illustration, and middle and back matters are not mainly dealt with here, as they are not central issues of the BEDs.

For a quick survey of headwords, subject labels, definitions, and examples, I have designated the following as samples: (1) pages from the beginning of the A section to the end of the words beginning with ac-, (2) pages in the F section up till the end of the words beginning with fe-, (3) pages in the P section after the words beginning with pe-, and (4) from the page having the words beginning with wi- to the end of the dictionary text are designated as the sample, although other pages are referred to where appropriate. These four parts comprise roughly 5% of each dictionary text.
Thus, in the tables below, by multiplying the number corresponding to the samples by 20, one can approximate the number in the entire dictionary. More accurately, one needs to multiply by 20.2, 20.7, 19.8, 16.4, 18.8, and 28.9 for *LBED*, *OBED*, *OALD7*, *ODAc3*, *ODBM4*, and *ODEcon2*, respectively, as the sample pages take up 4.94%, 4.83%, 5.09%, 6.09%, 5.31%, and 3.46%, respectively.¹

### 2. Headwords

#### 2.1. Headwords included in the BEDs

*LBED* claims, on the back cover, that it has ‘over 20,000 words and phrases’, and *OBED* says that ‘[i]t explains more than 30,000 words, phrases and meanings’. However, these figures were arrived at by using what Landau (1989: 84) refers to as ‘the American system of entry counting, which includes not just headwords but many other entries as well’. In what follows, main entry items, run-on idioms, phrasal verbs, derivatives, and compounds (including the compounds referred to as ‘different types of headwords’ in *LBED*) are all that are counted as entries.

The numbers of words in the sample from each BED and those in the sample from *OALD7*, *ODAc3*, *ODBM4*, and *ODEcon2* for comparison are tabulated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>noun</th>
<th>c.n.</th>
<th>v.</th>
<th>adj.</th>
<th>adv.</th>
<th>abbr.</th>
<th>others</th>
<th>idiom</th>
<th>phr.v.</th>
<th>deriv.</th>
<th>total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LBED</strong></td>
<td>415</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OBED</strong></td>
<td>411</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OALD7</strong></td>
<td>1,451</td>
<td>411</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>OBED only</strong></td>
<td>173</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ODAc3</strong></td>
<td>170</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ODBM4</strong></td>
<td>303</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ODEcon2</strong></td>
<td>128</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 1, ‘c.n.’ refers to compound nouns (except solid compounds) and noun phrases including proper nouns, and the number in the ‘noun’ column includes the number of them. The proportion of such compounds and phrases are the highest in the specialized dictionaries for English speakers, and the lowest in a general-purpose EFL dictionary. ‘*OBED only*’ refers to the entries contained in *OBED* but not in *OALD7* even as an example or a collocation. They are typically compound nouns such as *purchase invoice*, *pure profit*, and *year to date*; compound adjectives such as *family-friendly*, *without-profit*, and *worst-performing*; abbreviations such as *WIP* and *wk*; and idioms such as *tighten/loosen the purse strings*.

Many of the items counted here are main entry items and others are run-on words and phrases. None of the run-on derivatives in the three dictionaries for learners is provided with any definition; however, all the derivatives in the BEDs have the indication of part of speech, and most of them include at least one example.

From this table, we can surmise that (1) the BEDs are abundant with nouns, (2) both BEDs contain hardly any function words, (3) *OBED* treats idioms and phrasal verbs more generously than *LBED*, and (4) the vast majority of entries in the three business-related dictionaries for English speakers are nouns and abbreviations.

In addition to the 406 nouns, *LBED* contains more noun entries, but they comprise 211 compounds without any information except the sign ‘see . . . ’ or ‘see under . . . ‘. For this emptiness, they are excluded from Table 1. A full description of such compounds in *LBED* appears under ‘different types of a particular entry’. If such entries are not counted, the total number of entry items in each dictionary can be obtained by adding the number of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, abbreviations, and other words — i.e. the words that do not belong to any of the parts of speech previously mentioned, — and subtracting the number of derivatives (since derivatives are already counted as one of the parts of speech), and taking into consideration the headwords that list more than one part of speech. From the total number of entries, we gather that both BEDs are much smaller in size than *OALD7*.

In *LBED*, entries for many adjective-noun compounds merely provide cross-references to the entry under which they are fully treated. Take the
entry for **seed money** for example:

**seed money** — see under **money** [LBED]

This compound is defined and exemplified as one of the 28 ‘different types of the entry’ for **money**. The ‘different types’ are classified depending on which of the seven senses of **money** they are used in, and under each sense the compounds are listed alphabetically. Thus, **conduct money**, **danger money**, **easy money**, **fall money**, **funny money**, **hush money**, **paper money**, **plastic money**, and **spending money** are all listed under Sense 1 of **money** ‘coins, banknotes and bank deposits . . . ’. Further, **fresh money**, **hot money**, **idle money**, and **seed money** are listed under Sense 3 ‘money used for investment; capital’. There are 190 such ‘different types’ in the sample, whose part of speech is a noun in all cases. These instances account for the larger number of the nouns in **LBED**. In **OBED**, the same compounds appear in an example (**idle money**), in the list of collocations (**seed money**), or as an entry item (**hush money**).

However, the total number of such business-specific nouns and compounds in either of the BEDs is not extensively larger than any other dictionaries listed above, and such words are not as fully or technically explained as in **ODAc3**, **ODBM4**, or **ODEcon2**. If there is anything that compensates for the smallness and makes the BEDs more useful for foreign learners, it is their easy-to-understand and learner-friendly EFL-style definitions. Abbreviations, proper nouns, and trademark nouns should be more rigorously contained in the BEDs for foreign learners than in the above-mentioned dictionaries for English speakers that explain smaller number of items more technically.

2.2. **Words not included in the BEDs**

The specialized character of the BEDs only allows business-related terms to be the headwords. Even content words with high frequency are not contained as headwords in the BEDs. Hardly any function words are included except words such as **worth** prep. (in **LBED**), and **yours** pronoun (in both BEDs), the latter being frequently used in the phrase ‘Yours sincerely’ etc. at the closing of business letters.

There are words and phrases that are part of the ‘Oxford 3000’ list of important words (cf. **OALD7** pages R99–R113; see also Komuro et al. 2006: 78–83) but not treated as entries or sub-entries in **OBED**. Such words include not only function words, but also the following content words in the first part of the sample: **abandoned adj., able adj., abroad adj., absolute adj., n., absolutely adv., abuse n., v., academic adj., n., accent n., v., acceptable adj., accident n., accidental adj., accompany v., accurate adj., acid n., adj., across adv., prep., actor n., actress n., and actually adv.** These are words of daily use, both spoken and written, but their non-inclusion in **OBED** suggests that they are not particularly frequent in the corpora that include business communication.

A comparison of **OBED** with the list entitled ‘Business and finance words’ in **OALD7** reveals some inconsistency within the publisher, Oxford University Press. The list is printed on pages R116–R117, where it is described as ‘the 250 most common words (apart from the Oxford 3000) in writing that deals with business and finance’. Thus, one might expect to find all of these words (276 items including abbreviations, derivatives, idioms, and a phrasal verb) in **OBED**. Of these, 185 items are star-rated (regarded as important) in **OBED** (e.g. **fiscal, stock exchange, and workforce**); 51 items are also treated as headwords in **OBED**; and 17 items appear either as derivatives, idioms, a phrasal verb, or under other entries. However, the other 23 items are not included in **OBED** as entry items: **accordance, in accordance with, announcement, assumption, consistent, consistently, constraint, cooperation, correspond, creation, dependent, differ, exclusively, framework, monthly, perceive, principally, probability, subsequent, subsequently, uncertainty, underlie, and voluntary**. **OALD7** acknowledges on its back cover what corpora it is based on, and **OBED** states on its back cover that it contains ‘[r]eal examples from a new corpus that includes newspapers, journals and textbooks’. This inconsistency might lead us to wonder if these two dictionaries are based on different corpora, or if they define ‘business English’ differently. It is indeed difficult to define ‘business English’, as Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 54) have put it. Whatever the reason for the above-mentioned inconsistency, the non-
inclusion of these 23 items and the selection of headwords in *OBED* seem to be more justifiable than the selection of words in the list in *OALD7*. Many of the words in the list, particularly *assumption*, *differ*, and *uncertainty*, do not appear to pertain mainly to business or finance.

3. Subject labels

3.1. Subject labels in the BEDs

Svensen (1993: 183) generalizes the function of subject labels as follows: 'they can relate to both the content aspect and the expressional aspect. They can specify the subject field to which the concept belongs; they can also indicate the register of the word in the technical language...'

As a starting point of his comparative research into the labelling systems of four monolingual learner’s dictionaries (MLDs), Kokawa (1989: 17) states that 'the essential function of labels is to designate various restrictions upon the usage of an item in a dictionary'. Particularly concerning the labels of technicality and subjects in comparison with the labels of formality, regionality, attitude, etc., he reports 'a considerable difference in the application of technicality and subject-field designation' (Kokawa 1989: 105) among the four dictionaries.

BEDs, as any other specialized dictionaries would be, are highly subject-oriented in many respects. Because of this characteristic, a more detailed classification on the business-related subject fields has been done in the BEDs than in the MLDs that are meant to be general-purpose dictionaries. There are 13 types in *LBED*, and 17 in *OBED*, in contrast to 2 (law and technical) in *LDOCE4* and 1 (technical) in *OALD7*. The number of the headwords and the senses of words with each label in the sample are presented in Table 2.

Some senses are provided with two subject labels:

- **act of God** *n.* [LAW; INSURANCE] [*LBED*]
- **without-profit** *adj.* [Finance; Insurance] [*OBED*]

In addition, there are some entries under which different subject labels are attached to different senses (see the entry for **principal** *n.*, reproduced in section 4.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject labels</th>
<th>headwords</th>
<th>senses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACCOUNTING</strong></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BANKING</strong></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMPUTING</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ECONOMICS</strong></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FINANCE</strong></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33</td>
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<td>6</td>
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<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LAW</strong></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MANUFACTURING</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MARKETING</strong></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROPERTY</strong></td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TAX</strong></td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STATISTICS</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>total</strong></td>
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<td>146</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject labels</th>
<th>headwords</th>
<th>senses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Accounting</strong></td>
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<td>56</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Commerce</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td>17</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Finance</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>HR</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Insurance</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IT</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Manufacturing</strong></td>
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<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Marketing</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Property</strong></td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td><strong>Transport</strong></td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>total</strong></td>
<td>239</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Problems concerning subject labels

Ideally, the subject label attached to a term should be the same even in different dictionaries. This is the case with many labelled headwords, where the labels seem to be rightly attached to the headwords/senses specifically used in the field. However, neither of the BEDs gives a clear explanation as to what policy has been adopted in attaching labels to particular headwords/senses. If they lack a prudent policy regarding the use of the subject labels, it will lead to inconsistencies. More problematic than this is the lack of a uniform system of labelling business terms. For example, **withdraw** *v.*., in the sense 'to stop giving or offering sth to sb' [*OBED*], is labelled as **marketing** in *LBED*, but as **Commerce** in *OBED*. 
The following items have a label in \textit{OBED} but not in \textit{LBED}:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{agricultural bank} \textit{n.} \textit{(Finance)}
  \item \textbf{waiver} \textit{n.} \textit{(Law)}
\end{itemize}

On the other hand, the following headwords have a label only in \textit{LBED}:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{acquire} \textit{v.} 'to buy a company' \textit{FINANCE}
  \item \textbf{weight} \textit{v.} 'to allow for differences' \textit{STATISTICS}
\end{itemize}

The lack of the subject label \textit{(Technical)} under \textbf{weight} \textit{v.} reveals an inconsistency not only between the dictionaries, but also within \textit{OBED}, because its Sense 1 corresponds to Sense 2 of \textbf{weighting} \textit{n.} that does have the label \textit{(Technical)}, which in \textit{OBED} is attached to 'scientific, mathematical and statistical terms' (inside back cover). This inconsistency should not be treated on the same plane as the cases where any sense of a polysemous headword is not labelled whereas a highly subject-specific (often compound) noun having the polysemous word as one of its components is labelled. There is a good reason for both of the two senses of \textbf{wage scale} \textit{n.} to be labelled as \textit{(HR)} but not for any of the senses of \textbf{scale} \textit{n.} Another case in point is that the word \textbf{escape} \textit{n.}, whose only sense given in \textit{OBED} is 'escape key', is labelled as \textit{(IT)}, but Sense 2 of \textbf{key} is not labelled.\textsuperscript{3}

The label \textit{(IT)} in \textit{OBED} often corresponds to \textbf{COMPUTING} in \textit{LBED}, as with \textbf{bookmark} \textit{n.}, \textbf{data warehouse} \textit{n.}, \textbf{WAN} \textit{n.}, and \textbf{WYSIWYG}; but to \textbf{web page} \textit{n.}, \textbf{website} \textit{n.}, and other web-words, the label is employed in \textit{OBED} only. Since \textit{OBED} was published some five years after \textit{LBED}, we would naturally estimate that the technicality of these computing terms to have decreased so that such words with the label \textbf{COMPUTING} in \textit{LBED} would have ceased to be labelled in \textit{OBED}, but the evidence seems to suggest otherwise.

All these complexities are due to the difference in the labelling practices between the dictionaries. Just as Kokawa (1989: 147–151) has proposed a practicable system of all types of usage labels in general MLDs, a uniform system of labelling subject-specific terms in ESP dictionaries is called for. This is especially so, as he has found, through his comparison of labels of different types across four dictionaries, that the labels of technicality, field and subject represent 'one of the areas where the dictionaries show the greatest divergence from each other: hardly more than two dictionaries agree on their designations of technicality, field and subject' (Kokawa 1989: 114).

\section*{4. The definition, examples, and collocations}
\subsection*{4.1. Senses and their arrangement}
We have seen in Section 2 that words that have little to do with business are not included in the BEDs, however frequent they may be in general spoken or written English. Likewise, the BEDs only include business-related senses as follows:

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{fence} \textit{v.} to buy and sell stolen goods \textit{[LBED]}
  \item \textbf{lean} \textit{adj.} 1 used to describe a method of production that aims to cut costs while keeping quality high . . . 2 (about costs, quantities, etc.) very low; . . .
  \item \textbf{park} \textit{n.} an area of land used for a particular purpose, especially for small businesses, office buildings, small factories, etc. \textit{[OBED]}
  \item \textbf{shut} \textit{v.} 1 when a shop/store, restaurant, etc. shuts or when sb shuts it, it stops being open for business and you cannot go into it
  \item \textbf{principal} \textit{n.} 1 \textit{(Finance)} an amount of money that is lent or invested to earn interest 2 \textit{(Law)} a person who is actually making a business deal or taking part in a legal case, . . . 3 an important manager or other person in an organization, . . . \textit{[OBED]}
\end{itemize}
subsidiary adj. 1 (about a company) owned or controlled by another company 2 connected with sth but less important than it [OBED]

year end n. 1 the end of the financial year 2 the end of December [OBED]

The defining vocabulary and the defining styles are essentially similar to those in LDOCE4 and OALD7 (see Ichikawa et al. 2005: 20-30 and Komuro et al. 2006: 78-83 for details). In addition to the traditional analytical definitions, some full-sentence definitions can be found in both BEDs. The single-clause when-definitions, many of which have been found in LDOCE4 and other EFL dictionaries, are also found in both BEDs, particularly in LBED. Some theoretical problems in this defining style are pointed out by Higashi and Urata (2005: 8-9) but in practice, hardly any Japanese participants in the user study concerning LDOCE4 (Ichikawa et al. 2005: 111) or English-speaking participants in the present user study concerning the BEDs (see Section 5) appear to have been concerned about the problems. LBED adopts a when-definition under fall n. (when a person or organization loses their position of power or becomes unsuccessful) but not under rise n. This fact indeed constitutes an inconsistency within a dictionary, but the chances will be very slim that an average user reads both definitions and compares their styles.

4.2. Examples

Similar to headwords and senses, each of the examples in the BEDs is related to one of the areas of business. They are so devised that users consider the examples in the context of business; and some of the examples help users learn more about the field, occasionally using more than one sentence:

market failure when a market does not work efficiently, . . . : Firms refuse to take on more labour because the effective demand for their goods is too low. The government can correct for this type of market failure by increasing demand. [LBED, a different type of entry under failure]

Fedex v. While Americans often speak of ‘Fedexing’ an important document, in London, Paris or Berlin people ‘DHL’ it, referring to the major competitor. [LBED, a run-on derivative, hence no definition]

put sth down 3 to write sth; . . . : The meeting’s on the 22nd. Put it down in your diary. [OBED]

There is one mysterious fact about the number of examples: the senses with a subject label are less likely to have an example. It is such senses specifically used in business that separates BEDs from general-purpose EFL dictionaries. It is difficult to imagine how the smaller percentage of having an example could be justified.

4.3. Collocations

Collocations are presented systematically in OBED, but rather sporadically in LBED. In OBED, collocations are provided after the mark ◆, following definitions and examples.

choice n. . . ◆ an extensive / a good/great/huge/large/wide choice • a limited/restricted choice [OBED]

A shortcoming of the lists of collocations seems to be that under some entries collocates are arranged alphabetically and not semantically. The list of collocations at the end of the entry for workmanship n. reads ◆ bad/faulty/good/poor/shoddy workmanship ◆, with the only collocate with a favourable sense ‘good’ placed among its antonyms.

5. Notes and columns in OBED

This section deals with five features of OBED that helps users learn more about business English, in addition to definitions, examples and collocations. For a comparison, see Komuro et al. (2006: 92–98) for details of such notes in OALD7.

5.1. NOTE

The list of symbols given on the inside front cover of OBED states that NOTE introduces ‘extra information about the word’, generally the information about the origin or formation of the headword:
kaizen n. . . . NOTE Kaizen comes from the Japanese words for ‘improvement’.
guesstimate v. . . . NOTE Guesstimate is formed from the words ‘guess’ and ‘estimate’.

Occasionally the same symbol is used for different purposes.

red ink n. . . . NOTE In the past, red ink was used to show losses in financial records.
keep v. . . . NOTE Idioms containing keep are at the entries for the nouns or adjectives in the idioms, for example keep your head above water is at head.
grey market n. . . . NOTE The grey market is legal but secret; the black market is illegal.

5.2. HELP and GRAMMAR POINT

‘Help’ and ‘Grammar Point’ both introduce information on the usage and grammar of headwords. The difference seems to be that ‘Help’ is a short note that comprises only a few lines, whereas the ‘Grammar Point’ is a column presented in a separate box that looks similar to LDOCE4’s ‘Word Choice’ box or OALD7’s ‘Synonyms’ box. Some notes in the ‘Grammar Point’ box provide information on ways of distinguishing between synonyms, and thus can be dealt with in the ‘Which Word’ note. Some of them are not easy to access. For example, ‘Uncountable nouns’ is provided at information, without an index or any cross-reference from another entry.

5.3. WHICH WORD?

The ‘Which Word’ note of OBED has the same function as LDOCE4’s ‘Word Choice’ note and OALD7’s ‘Synonyms’ note. They tell the users which of the synonyms to choose on a particular occasion. Such notes are provided, to name a few, between economic and economical to distinguish the two, at average to distinguish mean, median, and mode, and at price to distinguish price, charge, commission, cost, fee, and rate. As with the ‘Grammar Point’ notes, the problem is that there is no index to the notes or cross-reference from another entry except ‘See note at CORPORA-

5.4. MORE ABOUT

If a user wants to learn more about a headword, they are referred to the ‘More About’ note. Some are notes on usage, but the note at emission unit provides encyclopaedic information on what has been decided under the Kyoto Protocol. There are only seven such boxes in the entire volume of OBED, two of which are not easily accessible: FORMS OF BUSINESSES’ is placed under company, not business; ‘MORE ABOUT Referring to men and women in job titles’ under chairman, and ‘MORE ABOUT Company abbreviations’ near Ltd without any cross-reference from other entries. ‘MORE ABOUT Takeovers and mergers’ is provided near the entry for takeover, but the distinction of takeover and merger may well be dealt with in the ‘Which Word’ note.

5.5. Vocabulary Building

OBED adopts yet another type of box named ‘Vocabulary Building’ to list synonyms and related words. This is a topic-based column in which words are arranged and exemplified differently from those in other types of boxes. While the ‘Which Word’ notes provide genuinely linguistic information and the ‘More About’ notes provide practical or encyclopaedic information, the ‘Vocabulary Building’ notes list synonyms and related words in a way that it helps users use those words for encoding.

5.6. Summary of notes and columns and users’ opinions

The five features of OBED will no doubt help users with their learning of business English, particularly its vocabulary and grammar. Unfortunately, however, the boundaries between them are not necessarily clearly defined, and the ‘More About’ notes are too small in number. Moreover, some of the notes are of limited accessibility. The information could be
better presented if OBED stopped classifying different types of information into one category.

In order to support the previous arguments, a user study is being conducted as part of this review. Of the five parts of the user study, Parts 3–5 (evaluation tasks) are closely related to the discussion in this section. In Part 3, participants were asked to consider seven suggestions concerning what is missing from the BEDs. In Part 4, they evaluated ten features of OBED (the five features mentioned earlier in this section, the list of collocations, pictorial illustrations, and three types of labels, i.e. style, geographical, and subject field labels). They further answered in Part 5 five miscellaneous questions concerning the BEDs.

The main findings from the results of Parts 3–5 were:

(1) The participants wanted more entries for proper nouns, as many of them are used in the examples, particularly in LBED.
(2) Not only business-related senses, but also the basic sense of a headword should be provided to help users memorize business terms.
(3) Of the five features of OBED mentioned in this section, the ‘Which Word’ notes proved to be the most popular among the participants. The popularity of the ‘Which Word’ notes equals that of the list of collocations.
(4) Not many participants appreciated the labels vigourously, and some evaluated the subject labels the least highly of the ten features. The subject labels ranked sixth in popularity, not as highly as the style labels ranking fourth.
(5) Two least popular features were ‘Notes’ and ‘More About’ notes.
(6) The suggestion that even specialized dictionaries like BEDs provide phonetic symbols and stress marks for more entry items was not welcomed by as many participants as the suggestions that the BEDs be improved in terms of cross-references, difficult words in examples, and the definition of abbreviations.

6. Conclusion

Thus far, we have seen some interesting aspects and problems concerning the two business English dictionaries. As they are smaller in size than OALD7, and do not have a clear advantage over competing specialized dictionaries in terms of the coverage of technical terms, they have to carry out more improvements in the coverage, subject labels, definitions, and notes and columns. If these BEDs were provided on a CD-ROM, it would also enhance the usability of these dictionaries.

It seems that the BED is a hybrid between a general-purpose EFL dictionary and a specialized dictionary for English speakers, between a linguistic dictionary and an encyclopaedia, also between a dictionary and a glossary of technical terms. It is essential that the BEDs establish their identity by having unique features; otherwise users would turn to other types of dictionaries. One of Hartmann’s (2005: 204) questions ‘Is the multi-purpose dictionary an incomplete hybrid rather than a “general dictionary”?’ applies to this genre, and his open question remains open here.

Since business English, just as business itself, is a fast-growing area, new features will be found in large quantities. For example, Gimenez (2000: 249) has produced some evidence that ‘the spoken nature of e-mails has started to affect the discursive practices’ in business written communication. Such new findings should be reflected in the revised editions of the BEDs.

NOTES

Section 1
1) Roughly speaking, the four sample parts of a dictionary text are (1) one percent of the dictionary text at the beginning; (2) one percent of it at the end of the first one-third; (3) one percent of it at the beginning of the last one-third; and (4) two percent of it at the end. These percentages have been calculated in terms of the number of pages covered. This is not a random sampling in that words beginning with wiz- are deliberately excluded so as not to let the question words, not covered in the BEDs, affect the overall results too extensively.

Section 2
1) Such entry items include words and figures differ (phrase) and zero (number) in OBED, and yours (pronoun) in both BEDs.

Section 3
1) No word in the sample from OBED has the label (E-commerce) or (Property); however, the former is attached to affiliate marketing, and the latter to agency broker in addition to another label (Stock Exchange).
2) Sense 1 and its example of weight \textit{v.} in OBED read 'to give different values to things to show how important you think each of them is compared with the others: The results of the survey were weighted to allow for variations in the sample'. Sense 2 and its example of \textit{weighting n.} read (Technical) a value that you give to each of a number of things to show how important it is compared with the others: Each of the factors is given a weighting on a scale of 1 to 10.

3) The entry for \textit{escape} only has a noun sense: \textit{(IT)} a button on a computer keyboard that you press to stop a particular operation or leave a program: \textit{Press escape to get back to the menu}. Sense 2 and its example of \textit{key n.} read 'any of the buttons that you press to operate a computer: \textit{Press the escape key to quit the program}'.

Section 4

1) The theoretical problems of the single-clause when definition are summarized in Ichikawa et al. (2005: 28) as follows: 'Higashi and Urata (2005: 8–9) . . . highlight issues such as the lack of consistency within a dictionary as regards whether or not to adopt this method of definition, its syntactic [instability] as a definition, and the scarcity of dictionaries that explains this usage of when, least of all as an introducer of a definition. Heuberger (2000: 17–18) [insists] on the importance of substitutable definitions'.

Section 5

1) This is an interim report, as the user study is still an on-going project. What can be reported here are merely the results of the first stage of the study conducted in England among English speakers and international students living in England. A full account of the results will be presented elsewhere, together with the results of the next stage being conducted among Japanese students of English or commerce living in Japan.

**DICTIONARIES**


**REFERENCES**


An Analysis of Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of American English

HIDEO MASUDA SATORU UCHIDA
MANAMI HIRAYAMA AKIHiko KAWAMURA
RUMI TAKAHASHI YASUTAKE ISHII

1. Introduction

This paper is a critical review of Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of American English (abbreviated as COBAm). COBAm, in the front matter, says “Through a collaborative initiative, Collins COBUILD and Thomson ELT, is copublishing a dynamic new line of learner’s dictionaries offering unparalleled pedagogy and learner resources” (Guide to Key Features). This statement explains how and why the dictionary was produced. It also says that the book was “specifically designed for the American market” (Introduction). We can say from these statements that COBAm is intended to be a new type of pedagogical dictionary that targets advanced learners of American English.

The aim of this paper is to examine whether COBAm really offers “unparalleled pedagogy and learner resources” for learners of American English in a learner friendly way. We have mainly used the paper version of COBAm for our analysis. However, special attention is paid to the CD-ROM version in Section 7, where the usability of the CD-ROM is intensively examined.

COBAm inherits most of the features of the COBUILD dictionaries. It is based on the Bank of English, a corpus that contains over 650 million words (according to the Introduction). Its definitions are written in full sentences. They give information on usage, register, typical context, and syntax as well as the meaning of the word. As in other COBUILD dictionaries, all the examples are chosen from the corpus “to show the collocates of a word — other words that are frequently used with the word we are defining — and the patterns in which it is used” (Introduction).

Since COBAm is based on the tradition of Collins COBUILD dictionaries, we have made comparisons with the previous editions, specifically with COB5, the latest edition of the British version. We have focused on words and phrases, pronunciations, senses, examples, and the information in the various boxes.

The major features incorporated in the dictionary, according to the Introduction, are DefinitionsPLUS (Collocations, Grammar, and Natural English) and Vocabulary Builders including Picture Dictionary, Word Web, Word Partnership, Word Link, Thesaurus, and Usage. Picture Dictionary boxes and Word Web boxes are colorfully illustrated to make the dictionary more attractive to the learners. The “Activity Guide” given in the front matter will help the learners master these features.

The following two changes may be worth mentioning: (1) COBAm has listed “a natural defining vocabulary” of “the 2,500 most common words of English”. No such list was given in COB5 although it mentions a natural defining vocabulary of the 2,500 commonest words of English. (2) The traditional Extra Column has been abolished, and the information in the Column such as grammatical pattern of verbs, pragmatics, and frequency bands is incorporated into the entry.

We have also compared COBAm with its rival dictionaries, namely LDOCE4 and OALD7 in Section 5 and LAAD2 in Section 3. This comparison with other learners’ dictionaries will clarify the characteristics of COBAm’s microstructure.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, Uchida examines headwords, phrases and phrasal verbs to see how the dictionary has been Americanized from its source book, COB5. He also examines the superheadwords and Frequency Bands to see if there are any differences between these two books.

In Section 3, Hirayama discusses COBAm’s pronunciation, showing that the transcription is not always consistent and that this inconsistency can confuse learners. Pronunciation on the CD-ROM is also discussed.
In Section 4, Kawamura deals with COBAm's definitions, sense description, labels and pragmatics in comparison with those in COBS.

In Section 5, Masuda discusses the examples mainly focusing on the changes (deletions, additions, and alterations) from COBS, and the semantic contents of the examples. He examines what kinds of examples are appropriate for the learners.

In Section 6, Takahashi examines the nature and usefulness of Vocabulary Builders. She shows that the colorful Picture Dictionary boxes provide more of encyclopedic information rather than academic information. Word Webs, one of the properties of Vocabulary Builders, are innovative and provide useful encyclopedic information for the learners. In 6.6, Kawamura examines Usage notes and points out that some of the notes are too simple to be of much use to advanced learners.

In Section 7, Ishii deals with the CD-ROM versions of COBS and COBAm. He also compares them with the paper versions and discusses their respective advantages and disadvantages.

We have discussed some of the shortcomings as well as the valuable properties of COBAm. We hope our analysis will help improve the dictionary.

2. Headwords, phrases and phrasal verbs

This section discusses differences between COBAm and COBS, concerning headwords, phrases and phrasal verbs. The main purpose here is to examine how the dictionary is “Americanized” since COBAm is “specifically designed for the American market” (p. xii). After introducing the sampling methods in 2.1, the results are presented. Headwords and run-ons are discussed in 2.2, followed by discussion on phrases and phrasal verbs in 2.3. We will also see if there are any differences with regard to superheadwords in 2.4 and Frequency Bands in 2.5.

2.1. Sampling

In order to make a rough estimation of the newly added and deleted items between COBAm and COBS, two types of sampling methods are employed: (1) an examination of the two-page spread of every 100 pages of COBAm (bases to bass, ceasefire to centenary, credentials to crib death, duckling to dumpy, fixated to flapper, handwriting to harass, intrigued to inverted commas, manner to margin, obtain to octave, pneumonia to pointing, religion to reminiscent, share capital to sheen, student to style, trumped-up to tuck, and wishy-washy to wizard, a total of 30 pages) and the corresponding pages in COBS, and (2) the whole pages of A (a total of 82 pages in COBAm, 85 pages in COBS) and L (which contains the center page of COBAm, a total of 53 pages in COBAm, 63 pages in COBS) of each dictionary. Method (1) is for a preliminary survey. The results are given in Table 2.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preliminary survey</th>
<th>Total Changes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COBS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Headwords</td>
<td>606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Run-ons</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrases</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrasal verbs</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1 The results of the preliminary survey

As is clear from Table 2.1, there are considerable changes between the two editions. Particularly, there are many headwords that are unique to each edition, and the numbers of run-ons, phrases and phrasal verbs in COBAm are remarkably fewer than COBS.

Given these promising results, a survey was conducted using method (2). The results will be discussed in the following sections together with those from the preliminary survey. The number of pages examined is 165 in total, which amounts to approximately 10% of COBAm.

2.2. Headwords and run-ons

In this subsection, we will compare COBAm and COBS in terms of headwords and run-ons. The following tables show the results:
Table 2.2 Comparison of headwords between COBAm and COBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Headwords</th>
<th>Total Changes</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COBS</td>
<td>COBAm</td>
<td>Added</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary survey</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>+18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of A</td>
<td>1,828</td>
<td>1,807</td>
<td>+39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of L</td>
<td>1,089</td>
<td>1,059</td>
<td>+36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average per page</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>+0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated total number</td>
<td>33,561</td>
<td>31,962</td>
<td>+913.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3 Comparison of run-ons between COBAm and COBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Run-ons</th>
<th>Total Changes</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>COBS</td>
<td>COBAm</td>
<td>Added</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary survey</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of A</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>+2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of L</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average per page</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>+0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated total number</td>
<td>3,390</td>
<td>2,587.4</td>
<td>+15.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Tables 2.2 and 2.3, there are many items that are newly added as well as deleted items in COBAm. We will first examine the items newly adopted in COBAm, and then discuss the deleted items. We will also consider differences in the presentation of headwords between the two editions.

2.2.1. Newly added items

In regard to the sample pages examined, there are 93 items newly adopted in COBAm. The following are some random examples:

- aboveboard, acclimate, all-you-can-eat, altostratus, alum, ameba, APB, arbor, area rug, credit limit, credit line, credit union, cremains, duds, DUI, land office, Lasik, Latina, laudanum, laugh lines, lawn bowling, lawn chair, letter carrier, lickety-split, listserv, log-rolling, manufactured home, podcast, student council, student loan, study hall

It should be noted that many of the newly adopted items are assigned AM (American) label. For example, duds, DUI, laugh lines, lawn bowling, lawn chair, letter carrier, lickety-split, listserv, log-rolling, manufactured home and study hall are labeled as such. This is a natural consequence that follows from the fact that the current edition is modified for American English, and is surely one of the improvements made in COBAm in that it covers English vocabulary more extensively.

Other sources of new adoption are from sports, the Internet and computers. For example, one of the baseball terms line drive is added as well as some American football terms such as line man and line scrimmage. Concerning words related to the Internet and computers, there are netspeak terms such as lol (laughing out loud) and the names of the Internet services such as podcast. This change may be an attempt to reflect the cultural differences between the United States and Britain, and the expanding vocabularies in the domain of computers.

With regard to run-ons, there are few additions to the American edition including acclimation and airsickness. On the other hand, as will be discussed in the section to follow, there are many run-ons that only appear in COBS.

2.2.2. Deleted items

Let us now turn our attention to the deleted items in the American edition. Some random examples are given below:

- abstruse, access course, acid house, active service, actual bodily harm, adduce, air-con, air hostess, airing cupboard, air pistol, airport novel, airy-fairy, lace-ups, lateral thinking, lavatorial, lavatory paper, lean, learnt, lie-down, lino, lippy, listed, lock-keeper, locum, lollipop, lolly, long-hours culture, long-wearing, loo, manor, manor house, manservant, marge, obtrude, och, trunk road, TUC, with-profits, witness box, witter

There are 150 items that are deleted in the sample pages of COBAm. It should be noted that most of these items are assigned BRIT (British) label in COBS. The examples are lace-ups, lavatory paper, lean, learnt, lie-down, manor, manservant, trunk road, witness box and witter.
Headwords with other labels such as [irish] (e.g. och) and [mainly brit] (e.g. lateral thinking) are also excluded from the present edition in many cases. This may be reasonable given that the present edition is aimed to describe American English. However, if the user comes across text written in British English and finds items that s/he wants to look up in the dictionary, it is inconvenient that the user never has a chance to access these items in COBAm. One solution would be to retain these items in the CD-ROM edition where space is not an obstacle, but they do not appear in the present CD-ROM version either.

With regard to run-ons, there are also many items that are not included in COBAm but are included in COB5. In the sample pages examined, there are 77 such items. Some of them are listed below:

- abjectly, abominably, abstractly, abuser, acclimatization, acoustically, acrimoniously, activation, affirmatively, affordability, agonizingly, alphabetically, ambivalence, analytically, ancien
tly, astoundingly, attractively, dumbing, dumbly, flagrantly, hanging, laterally, legalization, leveraged, lightly, loading, lobbying, loudness, manoeuvring, obtuseness, occupationally

The number of deleted items in the American edition is much larger than those added; the estimated number of deletions is 761, which is more than 50 times that of the estimation of newly added run-ons. The reason for this drastic reduction is presumably the fact that more space is needed for the pictures and columns newly introduced in COBAm (see Section 6 for information on the new features of COBAm).

### 2.2.3 Presentation of headwords

As a result of the modification to the American English version, there are some changes regarding the presentation of headwords. Three points are to be noted here. First, COBAm employs American spelling. For example, labour is changed to labor in the American edition, which at the same time means that some compounds such as labour camp and labour force are modified to labor camp and labor force respectively. Some other examples are lacklustre to lackluster, left-of-centre to left-of-center, appall to appal, and leveller to leveler. This kind of change is also observed in the definitions of COBAm (see Section 4 for detail).

Second, some changes are made to the hyphenations in compounds. For example, hyphens are deleted in anti-hero, lamp-post, life-saving, line-up and link-up, and they appear in COBAm as antihero, lamp-post, lifesaving, lineup and linkup. The opposite change is also found, i.e. spaces are replaced with hyphens as in air conditioned to air-conditioned and air conditioning to air-conditioning.

Lastly, changes are also made concerning the use of period. For instance, aka, app and Lt in COB5 are changed to a.k.a., app and Lt respectively. These presentational changes may be the result of more extensive use of corpora, and this can be seen as an improvement to reflect the status quo of American English, although it is regrettable that alternative spellings are not provided in many cases.

### 2.3 Phrases and phrasal verbs

Let us now move on to phrases and phrasal verbs. The following tables display results from the examinations of the sample pages:

#### Table 2.4 Comparison of phrases between COBAm and COB5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrases</th>
<th>Total Changes</th>
<th>COB5</th>
<th>COBAm</th>
<th>Added</th>
<th>Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary survey</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of A</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of L</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>-77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average per page</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>+0.01</td>
<td>-0.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated total number</td>
<td>4,407</td>
<td>2,891.8</td>
<td>+15.2</td>
<td>-1,369.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 2.5 Comparison of phrasal verbs between COBAm and COB5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrasal verbs</th>
<th>Total Changes</th>
<th>COB5</th>
<th>COBAm</th>
<th>Added</th>
<th>Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preliminary survey</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of A</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pages of L</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>-32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average per page</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>+0.02</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated total number</td>
<td>1,864.5</td>
<td>1,369.8</td>
<td>+30.4</td>
<td>-456.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What is newly adopted in COBAm are cross the line (step over the line) for phrases, and load down, look in and luck out for phrasal verbs. There are also many deleted items for both phrases and phrasal verbs. Some random examples are given below:

[Deleted phrases]
with one accord, as against, comes of age, under age, in aid of, up in the air, alive and kicking, fly the flag, by and large, late in the day, least of all, at length, to the letter, come to life, in someone else's pockets

[Deleted phrasal verbs]
ask around, creep up on, flag down, hang around, land up, lay in, let down, let on, lift off, listen out, live through, live together, look ahead, be lumbered with, lust after

One remarkable change is that the American edition seems to cut out the section of "PHRASES" columns, which list a number of phrases in the British edition. As a result, for example, the phrases such as least of all, not least and to say the least at the entry of least, and get a life, in all my life and larger than life at life are excluded from COBAm. There are also some cases where items remain but the number of definitions is decreased. To take light up, for example, there are three definitions with the label PREP-PHRASE in COB5 but the third definition is not found in COBAm. There are some cases where the distinction between PREP-PHRASE and PHRASE is not clear in COB5. For example, in aid of is treated as a phrase, while in the light of is as a prep-phrase in COB5, but both of them are treated as phrases in COBAm.

Last but not least, it should be pointed out that as a result of the deletion of the Extra Column, which is counted as one of the most remarkable changes between the two editions, it becomes very difficult to search phrases and phrasal verbs in COBAm. In COB5, the user can instantly locate the phrases and phrasal verbs of the target word by simply searching down the Extra Column. However, the American edition requires the user to read through the whole entry to find the phrases and phrasal verbs she wants to look up. Thus, the user may also find it difficult to search labels assigned to the definitions (see Section 4). Again, this may be closely related to the space issue, but one may wonder if such a change is worth the cost of abandoning one of its distinctive features.

2.4. Superheadwords

In this subsection, we focus on the changes concerning the superheadwords. Superheadwords are headwords where signposts are presented that

The former is taken from the definition of survival and the latter is from the examples of bloom. The definition and the example above contain phrases live through and least of all which are excluded from COBAm. This is a problematic situation since the definitions of these phrases are not available in COBAm in spite of the fact that they are employed in the definitions and examples. This means that if the user cannot figure out the sentences with such phrases, she has to consult other lexicographic resources. This should be seen as a serious defect of COBAm.

A word should be said that the label PREP-PHRASE seems to be excluded from the present edition. There are 29 items labeled as such in the sampling pages of COB5, but 26 of them are changed into PHRASE and one is deleted (in advance of). As for the other two, under the aegis of and à la, they are still labeled as PREP-PHRASE. This might be an editorial mistake since most of them seem to be automatically changed to PHRASE. This change in COBAm makes the descriptions simpler because there are some cases where the distinction between PREP-PHRASE and PHRASE is not clear in COB5. For example, in aid of is treated as a phrase, while in the light of is as a prep-phrase in COB5, but both of them are treated as phrases in COBAm.
are intended to help quickly find the definitions and capture the picture of the meanings of polysemous words. In the sample pages of COBAm, newly added items are found at all, leave and line and no deletion is made in the present edition.

There are two types of shortcuts listed at the superheadwords. For words such as lay, like, line and live, the shortcuts indicate the word classes (e.g. noun use, verb use, etc.). The other type is to present the synopses of the meanings, for instance, at the entries of lead and light (i.e. 1 being ahead or taking someone somewhere, 2 substances for lead, and 1 brightness or illumination, 2 not great in weight, amount, or intensity, 3 unimportant or not serious for light). However, there are cases where the shortcuts are somewhat confusing for the user in that both word class labels and meaning labels are listed at the same place. Consider the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>long</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 TIME</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 DISTANCE AND SIZE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 PHRASES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 VERB USES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is not a straightforward way of listing shortcuts, since the first two lines show the meaning of the headword, whereas the latter two indicate the usages (cf. Masuda et al. 2003: 10).

It should also be pointed out that the policy is inconsistent. For example, the superheadword at look only refers to the meanings (e.g. 1 using your eyes or your mind, 2 appearance), but not to the phrasal verbs regardless of the fact that there are nearly twenty of them. In contrast, the shortcuts for the phrases or phrasal verbs are listed at the superheadwords of leave, line, long, etc. Besides, as is pointed out in Masuda et al. (2003: 11), there are some cases where completely different words are listed at the same place such as Miss (1 used as a title or a form of address) and miss (2 verb and noun uses). Overall, the policy of the superheadwords leaves much to be improved.

### 2.5. Frequency Bands

Frequency Bands are one of the distinctive features of COBUILD dictionaries. They indicate how frequent the headwords are used based on the huge corpus called the Bank of English “which now contains over 650 million words of contemporary English” (p. xii). This information is useful not only for students but also for teachers in deciding whether to emphasize the words they teach. These bands had five grades in COB3, but they are reduced to three in COB4 and COB5, and COBAm also employs the three degrees of bands.

A question arises as to whether Frequency Bands reflect the differences of frequency between American and British English. In fact, some modifications are made as shown below. Numbers in parentheses indicate the grade:

- [The item whose Frequency Band is deleted]
  accommodation (1)

- [Items with Frequency Bands in COBAm but not in COB5]
  anymore (2), April (3), Asian (2), audio (2), August (3), Avenue (2), lawsuit (2)

As for the deleted item, accommodation, the deletion of Frequency Bands can be definitely justified because it is labeled as [BRIT]. Also, the addition of Frequency Bands at anymore (the corresponding form of British English is “any more”) and lawsuit can be defended for the opposite reason that these two items are more extensively used in the United States. As for the other newly added items, most of them are calendaric terms such as April and August, and geographical names such as Asian. This may be due to the change of the policy as to the use of Frequency Bands for these kinds of items. One thing to be noted here is that the policy for the adoption of Frequency Bands at calendaric and geographical names is unstable through the editions of COBUILD dictionaries: Frequency Bands for these items appear in COB3, but disappear in COB4 and COB5, and they are reintegrated in COBAm. As is pointed out in Masuda et al. (2003: 15), it is questionable that Frequency Bands at these words are of great help for the user especially when considering that
the dictionary is aimed at the advanced level: they are such basic words that the user of the dictionary is expected to already know them. Unfortunately, there is no explanatory section of Frequency Bands in COBAm, so the reason for the reintegration remains unclear. (Section 2 by Uchida)

3. Pronunciation*

In this section, COBAm’s pronunciation is discussed, specifically focusing on whether it reflects the actual situation of American English. COBAm states that its transcription is not based on American English alone; rather, American English is one of the (two) varieties on which their pronunciations are based. For example, a systematic bilectal notation is employed for rhoticity (3.1.1, 3.2.1), but American forms are often the only pronunciation given in the entries (3.2 (paper version), 3.3 (CD-ROM)). Furthermore, some features described in the literature as changes in progress that are not discussed in the paper version of COBAm are present on the CD-ROM (3.3). General discussion is given in 3.1. Minor typos are pointed out in 3.4.

Two notes are in order. First, following Masuda et al. (1997, 2003, 2005), we call the pronunciation section of the introductory part of the dictionary the Guide. Second, stress is omitted unless otherwise noted.

3.1. General characteristics of transcription

This section discusses general properties of COBAm transcription, focusing on dialectal variation (3.1.1, 3.1.2), levels of transcription (3.1.3) and transcription symbols (3.1.4).

3.1.1. Dialect(s)

The philosophy of COBAm transcription is given in the Guide as follows: “The basic principle underlying the suggested pronunciations is ‘If you pronounce it like this, most people will understand you’” (p. xvi). This same statement appears in COB5 (p. xxiii) and the two previous editions of COB, as reviewed in Lexicon (new edition in Masuda et al. (1997), COB3 in Masuda et al. (2003)). What follows this statement in the Guide is discussion on the dialect(s) in COBAm transcription. While one may expect it to be based on American variety(s), it is not fully so; the Guide mentions British English as well as American English as the basis for their pronunciations: “The pronunciations are therefore broadly based on the two most widely taught accents of English, GenAm or General American for American English, and RP or Received Pronunciation for British English” (p. xvi). It goes on to say how they treat the two dialects in the entries: “For the majority of words, a single pronunciation is given, as most differences between American and British pronunciation are systematic. Where more than one pronunciation is common and the difference is not accounted for in the notes below, alternative pronunciations are given” (p. xvi). This statement might be interpreted thusly: first, when GenAm and RP pronunciations differ systematically, it is not clear which dialect form is given in the entries, since it is not specified (though one may expect it to be a GenAm form since it is an American English dictionary). Second, there are four “notes”, three of which discuss differences between GenAm and RP (ask words, rhoticity and /ou/). These three features clarify which form, GenAm or RP, is given in a particular entry. Third, when the pronunciations differ between GenAm and RP but not systematically, both GenAm and RP forms would be given. The Guide does not discuss the subject any further.

On the first point, as discussed below in 3.2, as far as the selected GenAm diagnostic features are concerned, COBAm gives only the GenAm forms in most cases. On the second point, in the notes, the difference between GenAm and RP is explained for each feature, but except for ask words, it does not specify which dialect will be given in the entries; for ask words, it is specified that GenAm forms are given. Even so, the forms are not given consistently. For example, although ask words are in most cases assigned to the GenAm vowel, there are several words which are assigned to both GenAm and RP vowels (see 3.2.4 for the details). In another note, on rhoticity, COBAm appears to systematically show both GenAm and RP forms in the entries, even though the difference is already “accounted for” in the notes of the Guide. A bilectal transcription is furthermore confusing for the users, who would expect American English pronunciation as it is an American English dictionary. We will return to this point in
detail in 3.2.1. On the third point, as discussed in 3.2.8, for the great majority of lexical items whose pronunciations differ non-systematically between GenAm and RP, both forms are not always given.

To conclude, the statements in the Guide do not always make clear what dialect(s) are shown in the entries. Furthermore, dictionary users may be confused by the appearance of RP as well as GenAm in a dictionary whose title may lead them to expect only American pronunciations. Compare this with LAAD2 and COBS. LAAD2's focus is on American pronunciations, as stated in the Guide: "This dictionary shows pronunciations used by most American speakers" (p. ii). COBS is bilectal, but it is not confusing since the bilectal notations are explained in the Guide and the users are not likely to expect otherwise, unlike COBAm.

3.1.2. Variation

GenAm has variation, as the definition of the term in the literature indicates: "This [General American] is a convenient name for the range of United States accents that have neither an eastern nor a southern colouring" (Wells 1982: 10). Variation within American English is not discussed in COBAm; it is not entirely clear from the Guide whether the alternative pronunciations in the entries are meant to reflect variations within American English or differences between GenAm and RP. The Guide seems to suggest that it is the latter, i.e. the variants are to indicate the differences between GenAm and RP, not differences within GenAm; the Guide makes no explicit mention of variation within GenAm and clearly states that COBAm is based on both RP and GenAm, not GenAm only.

This can be compared with another American English dictionary, LAAD2; LAAD2 discusses variation in the Guide, and the variants in the entries are said to be “possible and... commonly used by educated speakers” (p. ii). Even when the alternative pronunciations are not given in the entries, it is recognized that variation exists; the Guide gives examples of variation, such as the cot—caught merger and Yod dropping (discussed below in 3.2.3 and 3.2.5, respectively), and acknowledges further variation that is not discussed: “We have not, however, shown all possible American pronunciations” (p. ii).

This difference between the two dictionaries probably stems from the philosophy on transcription. COBAm's aim is to provide variant(s) that “most people will understand” (p. xvi); thus, discussion of variation might not have been a high priority.

3.1.3. Levels of transcription

There is a difference between COBAm/COBS and LAAD2 with respect to levels of transcription. COBAm and COBS employ more underlying-oriented transcription, with very few allophonic features, while LAAD2 provides more surface-oriented transcription, with some allophonic features that are characteristic of American English.

In COBAm and COBS, there is virtually only one allophonic feature, namely, syllabic consonants ([l] and [n]). In LAAD2, other allophonic features are also shown in the entries, including r-colored “s”, tap for /t/ (shown as “ṭ”), glottal stop replacing or accompanying /t/ (“t’”) and optional deletion of /t/ and /d/ (shown in italic “t”, “d”), in addition to the syllabic consonants. These, and an additional feature, epenthetic [t] between a nasal and a fricative in the sequence of [n]/, are described in the Guide (pp. i—iii), among which tap, glottal stop, t/d deletion and epenthetic [t] in /n/t/ are moreover highlighted, under “American Pronunciation” (p. i).

3.1.4. Symbols

COBAm's transcription symbols are claimed to be basically IPA: “The symbols used in the dictionary are adapted from those of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), as standardized in the English Pronouncing Dictionary by Daniel Jones (14th Edition, revised by AC Gimson and SM Ramsaran 1988)” (p. xvi). This is exactly the same as COBS, except COBS has an additional phrase after this: “... , for representing RP” (p. xxiii). LAAD2 also basically follows IPA (p. ii).

There are, however, a couple of symbols in COBAm that are not from the IPA as described in the Phonetic Symbol Guide (Pullum and Ladusaw 1996) or found in EPD14. These are /y/ (j[j] in IPA and EPD14) and the use of underline for marking stress (vertical stroke in both current IPA
3.2. Diagnostics for American English

This section examines how COBAAm transcribes American pronunciation in the entries, focusing on several diagnostic characteristics. We focus on the paper version of the dictionary in this section, and discuss the sounds on the CD-ROM later (3.3). We will show that while COBAAm's transcription is by and large only General American (GenAm), in some cases, specifically the contrasts in the low-back vowels (3.2.2) and the bilectal transcription in rhoticity (3.2.1), COBAAm's transcription may be unexpected, based on the literature on American English pronunciation. 


In the following subsections, we discuss the selected features of GenAm which include rhoticity (3.2.1), vowel contrasts in the low back area (3.2.2, 3.2.3), ask words (3.2.4), Yod dropping (3.2.5), status of /h/ in /hw/ onset cluster (3.2.6), vowel merger as well as neutralization before /r/ (3.2.7) and lexical items (3.2.8).

3.2.1. Rhoticity

Rhoticity, or r-full/-lessness, is one feature that divides GenAm from RP (e.g. Ladefoged 2001: 28, Wells 1982: 75–76); GenAm is rhotic, with [r] occurring before consonants and word-finally as well as in other contexts (or, arguably, [r] being present in the coda), while RP is non-rhotic, with [r] occurring only before a vowel. In COBAAm, the Guide mentions this difference, and the coda /r/ is shown in the entries as expected for GenAm. However, COBAAm is best interpreted as bilectal in showing r-full/-lessness. We discuss this below.

There is a schwa /a/ before /r/ in the entries (at least at the end of a word, thus before a tautosyllabic /r/) unless the preceding vowel is low back (u, o) or central (u, o), as shown in (1).

(1) /a/ before /r/ after a vowel that is not low back or central (boxes are ours)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbols in the entries</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ə̃r]</td>
<td>beard, near</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ẽr]</td>
<td>care, fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ũr]</td>
<td>cure, poor, pure, tour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɔ̃r]</td>
<td>flour, flower, sour, tower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ər]</td>
<td>fire, tire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no /a/ when the vowel is low back or central, as shown in (2).

(2) No /a/ before /r/ if the preceding vowel is low back (u, o) or central (u, o)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbols in the entries</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ər]</td>
<td>car, cart, far, heart, tar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɔr]</td>
<td>cord, more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɔr]</td>
<td>third, turn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ə̃r]</td>
<td>forgive, forgotten, teacher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We are not certain whether there is any phonological or phonetic motivation to divide into these two groups, i.e. evidence for which one group of words has /a/ before /r/ (or, car, etc.) and the other group does not (ar, or, etc.). There are two possibilities, but neither of them is likely. One is that /a/ is syllabic on its own; thus, for example, near is disyllabic [niər] (period indicates syllable boundary), not monosyllabic. However, this is clearly not the case judging from how the stress is marked: stress is marked in COBAAm by “underlining the vowel in the stressed syllable” (p. xviii), and in near, both /i/ and /a/ are underlined, /niər/. If it is disyllabic, this indicates that both the first and second syllables are stressed. This would be odd, given its normal pronunciation; if this word is disyllabic, only /i/ should be underlined, /niər/, with an unstressed second
syllable. The other possible explanation for this transcription is to indicate an inglide character of [a] before [a] (Wells 1982: 153 for near and words with the same vowel). However, it is unlikely that this transcription is intended to represent such fine phonetic detail, given the level of phonetic detail that COBAm provides elsewhere (see 3.1.3 for the transcription level).

The pronunciation table is not revealing either: the table in the Guide does not include Vr sequences; the table on the inside of the back cover does not have schwa at all, and gives [r], [r], etc. instead. Note that this notation is not employed in the entries.

Thus, the notation of [a] before the coda /r/ is most likely to have been employed to incorporate GenAm and RP pronunciations into one transcription. However, this interpretation is not user-friendly for two reasons. First, one does not expect to see RP pronunciation systematically in an American English dictionary. Second, there is no explicit explanation of how to interpret this notation; thus, users of the dictionary need to learn it by themselves, presumably from the explanation of the distribution of coda /r/ between GenAm and RP given in the Guide (p. xviii). This can be compared with COBS5, a bilectal dictionary in its policy, which employs a similar notation to COBAm but explicitly states in the Guide that schwa is not present in GenAm: "Some of the complex vowel sounds shown in the table above are simplified in GenAm. The vowel sound in ‘fire’ is shown as /a/ in RP, but in GenAm the pronunciation is /air/, /air/, . . . in GenAm" (p. xxiii). In COBAm, all but the last sentence is omitted in the Guide; this omission makes the COBAm notation hard to interpret properly.

3.2.2. Contrast in the low back area

Some English dialects have three contrasting vowels in the low back area. For example, in RP, the (stressed) vowel in calm, father, palm contrasts with the vowel in hot, lot, odd, further contrasting with the vowel in caught, ought, sauce. In GenAm, due to a merger, the contrast is generally assumed to be a two-way one, with unrounded (calm, palm, lot, odd), transcribed broadly [a], against rounded (caught, cloth, sauce), transcribed broadly [e] (e.g. Labov et al. 2006: 13-14, Ladefoged 2001: 29, Wells 1982: 120-124).

In COBAm, somewhat unexpectedly, a three-way contrast is employed. This is indicated in the list of vowels in the Guide and also in the list given inside of the back cover. We checked at the entries the words listed in Wells (1982) under LOT words (p. 131), CLOTH words (pp. 136-137, only (a), since the rest is noted as varying considerably in the United States (p. 136)), THOUGHT words (pp. 145-146) and PALM words (p. 144, only (a), i.e. native words). LOT words are invariably assigned to /o/ in COBAm, differentiated from PALM words, which are again invariably transcribed /a/, further different from CLOTH and THOUGHT words, which are all /a/, thus a three-way contrast /o/ vs. /a/ vs. /a/, as summarized in Table 3.1.6)

| Table 3.1 Low back vowels in COBAm, COBS5 and LAAD2 |
|---------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| CLOTH/THOUGHT | LOT | PALM |
| COBAm | /a/ | /o/ | /a/ |
| COBS5 | x | /o/ (= a:) | /a/ |
| LAAD2 | /a/ | /a/ | /a/ |

Notes: (1) CLOTH/THOUGHT: In COBS, AM pronunciation is taken. In COB5, doss is assigned to /o/. In LAAD2, Australia, Austria, Austin and gone have /a/ as an alternative; (2) PALM: In LAAD2, water has /o/ as an alternative.

COBS5 and LAAD2, on the other hand, employ a two-way contrast, as expected from the literature, and as shown in Table 3.1. For these two dictionaries, among the words checked for COBAm, a subset was sampled (the words that define the categories (i.e. cloth, lot, palm, thought) and the first two words in each line in the above-mentioned list in Wells (1982)). COBS5 uses three symbols: /o/, /a/ and /a:/; however, there is a note in the Guide (p. xxiii) that /o/ is the same as /a:/ in GenAm. COBS5 uses a two-way contrast in this way. In LAAD2, the two-way contrast is expressed explicitly by using two symbols, /a/ for LOT and PALM words, distinguished from /a/ for CLOTH and THOUGHT words. In sum, the generally assumed GenAm two-way contrast is most explicitly shown in
LAAD2, less explicit but employed in COB5, and not employed in COBAm.

3.2.3. Further merger in the low back area — cot–caught merger

The literature reports an in-progress GenAm merger between the vowels discussed in the previous section, i.e. merger between /a(1)/ (LOT/PALM) and /o(2)/ (CLOTH/THOUGHT). As a result, pairs such as caller–collar, cot–caught, don–dawn, knotty–naughty, stock–stalk are all homophones. Wells (1982: 473-475) calls this the THOUGHT–LOT Merger. Ladefoged (2001: 28) notes this incomplete merger for “[m]any Midwestern speakers and most Far Western Speakers”. From Labov et al. (2006), the western half of the United States has the merger; the isogloss outlining the areas of merger (both in perception and production) includes Canada, the West, Eastern New England and western Pennsylvania (p. 59, referring to Map 9.1). Labov et al. also describe a real-time expansion of the merger by comparing their results with those in the past surveys (PEAS and Labov’s 1966 survey).

COBAm and COB5 do not describe the merger, as was discussed in 3.2.2. In LAAD2, the merger is not found in the sample words or in the list of vowels in the Guide, but it is discussed in the Guide (p. ii) as a feature of “many speakers”. We will return to this merger later (3.3) in the discussion of the CD-ROM.

3.2.4. ask words

Wells (1982: 133-135) indicates that a set of words, represented by bath (hereafter ask words), have stressed /æ/ in GenAm and /a/ in RP. The Guide of COBAm has a note on this dialectal difference, giving the phonological environments for the distribution of /a/ in RP. This environment is not given in COB5, which also has a note on ask words in the Guide.

The words listed in Wells as BATH words are all expected to have /æ/ in COBAm, since the note in the Guide states that it shows “only the GenAm version” for this (p. xviii). In order to see what vowel(s) are assigned to ask words at the entries, we checked the words listed in Wells (1982: 135). The distribution in COBAm is given in (3). As expected, the great majority of the words are transcribed only as /æ/, as shown in (3c).

(3) Transcription of BATH words in COBAm
   a. One has /a/ only: Slav
   b. Some show variation between /æ/ and /a/:
      i. /æ, a/: advantage, aghast, ask, bask, basket, glass, hasp, Iran, lather, pass, plant
      ii. /æ, a/: aunt, Iraq, Sudan
   c. The rest — the great majority — have only /æ/: bath, can't, class, command, example, graph, half, laugh, ranch, etc.

We checked a subset of the words in LAAD2, namely, the word bath and the first two words in each line in Wells’s list. In LAAD2 also, the great majority of words is assigned exclusively to /æ/.

There are several words that COBAm gives an alternative /a/ for in addition to the expected /æ/, as shown in (3b). Note that some are everyday words such as ask. As discussed in 3.1.2, this alternative is likely to introduce an RP form, not another variant within GenAm. LAAD2 has only one instance of this type of word, as far as the words sampled for LAAD2 are concerned, which is Iraq. In both COBAm and LAAD2, Slav is exclusively assigned to /a/ (3a).)

In sum, COBAm and LAAD2 both provide the American form, /æ/. COBAm moreover records more variation than LAAD2, although the additional forms may be meant to be RP rather than GenAm.

3.2.5. Yod dropping

The literature (e.g. Wells 1982: 247-248) describes elimination of /j/ from historical /ju/ (or from /ju/ when /r/ follows), called yod (yj) dropping. Dropping yod “after palatals, /z/, and clusters with /l/” (Wells 1982: 247) is common in both GenAm and RP, but generalizing the context to after all coronals including /t, d, n, ð, s, z, l/ is a tendency of GenAm, especially in stressed syllables. For example, Labov et al. (2006), investigating the minimal pair dew–do, shows that the contrast is predominantly not maintained, the distinction being “found today only in a minority of speakers in the South, concentrated in central North Carolina and the
lower Gulf States” (p. 55, in Map 8.3). In LPD2, in *deed*, *student*, and *Tuesday*, pronunciation without /j/ is provided as primary for GenAm, though forms with /j/ are also listed as less common variants. Moreover, in *student*, the result of an opinion poll carried out in 1993 by Shitara shows a large preference for the absence of /j/ (88%). In unstressed (or “weak” in Wells’s term) syllables, Wells indicates that the dropping is less widespread. Instead, he introduces the tendency toward another process, namely, coalescence of /j/ with the preceding consonant. He also observes a similar co-articulation in /nj/ and /lj/ sequences, i.e. [n] or [l] and [ŋ] or [ʎ], respectively (p. 248).

In COBAm, COBS and LAAD2, we checked all the words appearing in Wells (1982: 247–248) to see if yod is dropped. In primary stressed syllables (e.g. *duke*, *new*, *resume*, etc.) all three dictionaries show the tendency described in the literature, i.e. toward the absence of yod (e.g. *[duk]/, *[nu]/, *[re/zum]/, etc.). In unstressed syllables (annual, educate, failure, issue, situate), yod is present in all three dictionaries, which also agrees with the literature. With respect to the other process, i.e. yod coalescence, it occurs if the coalesced, or fused, consonant is included in the English phonemic inventory (e/dʒ/ucate, iʃ/ue, si/tʃ/uate), and does not when they are not contrastive (a/n/y/ual, fa/i/ly/re). This is probably expected, since dictionaries normally do not transcribe the allophonic details to this extent. In COBS, issue has an alternative form not undergoing the coalescence i/sʃ/ue, as well as the coalesced form; this is not expected from the literature.

Attitude, avenue and residue, which are described as having unstressed syllables without vowel reduction in COBAm and COB5 and having syllables with secondary stress in LAAD2, invariably lack yod in COB5 and LAAD2, which conforms to what Wells (1982: 247) describes. In COBAm, however, it depends on the word: for avenue and residue, both forms — with and without yod — are given, while for attitude, yod is invariably dropped.

To summarize, COBAm gives the American pronunciation in primary stressed syllables. In unstressed syllables without vowel reduction, two of the three items deviate from Wells’s description in that a form with yod is given (in addition to the form without yod). As has been discussed before, not all variants may represent GenAm in COBAm and these additional forms may show RP variants. In other unstressed syllables, yod coalescence is expected and found in COBAm.

3.2.6. /h/ before /w/ in the onset

Wells (1982) describes, as a change in progress, loss of /h/ in the onset /hw/ cluster in words such as whale, wheat, whine: “In North America, /hw/ is still a widespread usage,. . . . But Glide Cluster Reduction [= loss of /h/ in /hw/ cluster] is clearly on the increase, particularly in large cities” (pp. 229–230). Labov et al. (2006) finds this to have been widespread in the GenAm areas: “In the middle of the twentieth century, the distinction between /hw/ and /w/ in whale vs. wail, which vs. witch, etc. was maintained by most American speakers, with the exception of southern Maine; Boston; the Mid-Atlantic area, including Hudson Valley; and the Savannah–Charleston coastal region. In the ANAE data [= Labov et al.’s (2006) survey], the distinction is made only by a scattering of speakers, mainly concentrated in the Southern states” (p. 50, in Map 8.1).

In COBAm and LAAD2, this widespread change is fully taken into account. In COBAm, the pronunciation key inside the back cover particularly suggests that this set of words is all transcribed as /w/; there are two keys designated to the symbol /w/, one for *wheat* and *why* and the other for *win* and *wool*. If /h/ is retained, the two keys would be different, i.e. /hw/ (wheat, why) and /w/ (win, wool). In fact, the following words are all transcribed /w/, not /hw/, in the entries: whale, what, whatever, wheat, wheel, wheelbarrow, when, where, whether, which, while, whine, whip, whisper, whistle, white, why. In LAAD2 also, /h/ is absent in all of these items. In COB5, on the other hand, /h/ is particularly reserved for American pronunciation, with the notation /w/: “This shows that some people say /w/, and others, including many American speakers, say /hw/ . . . .” (the Guide, p. xxiv). Thus in COBAm (and LAAD2), the American pronunciation appears in the way it is expected from the literature.
3.2.7. Vowels before /r/

The vowel inventory before /r/ is worth investigating, since certain contrasts are lost. For example, tense vowels /i/ and /u/ are neutralized with lax vowels /i/ and /o/, respectively, at least in GenAm (Labov et al. 2006—p. 15 Table 2.6 before tautosyllabic /r/ and p. 14 before intervocalic /r/, Wells 1982: 481-485). The following subsections discuss four vowel oppositions before /r/ that are described in the literature as tending to disappear in GenAm.

3.2.7.1. /3/ vs. /A/ before intervocalic /r/

That /3/ and /A/ do not contrast before /r/ is a feature of GenAm (cf. the contrast is retained before intervocalic /r/ in RP): “In many other other [sic] accents, including most GenAm, the two possibilities [ar and ar] merged, yielding present-day [ar] in all the words mentioned and giving rise to new rhymes such as furry–hurry, stir it–turret” (Wells 1982: 201).

Our cursory survey of eight words in COBAm that could potentially have /A/ if the vowels did not merge (courage, current, curry, furrow, hurry, occurrence, turrey, worry) finds /ar/ in all words, except in one, hurry, for which both forms /ar/ and /ar/ are given. COB5 consistently gives /ar/ and /ar/ (= /ar/ in COBAm’s notation), the latter accompanied by a tag to indicate that it is the American pronunciation. LAAD2 provides both /ar/ and /ar/ in all of the above items except in current, which is assigned only to /ar/. This is somewhat surprising, given that it is a dictionary of American English.

3.2.7.2. /ei/ vs. /e/, /e/ vs. /ie/ before intervocalic /r/

Wells (1982: 480) describes frequent neutralization between /e/ and /ie/ before /r/ as being “... recorded by PEAS in western New England and upstate New York and obviously very frequent in the middle and far west”. This results in homophony in pairs of words such as marry–merry, Harold–herald. He further notes GenAm as “often characterized by three-way homophony in sets such as marry–merry–Mary, all /mer/ ...” (p. 482). Labov et al. (2006) confirms this three-way homophony by examining two minimal pairs, namely, /ei/ Mary vs. /e/ merry, and /ie/ merry vs. /ae/ marry. It is unfortunate that the query was not pursued in most areas of the West and Midwest (p. 54, f.n. 6), since these areas are normally included in the GenAm areas geographically. In the areas that the survey covers, they find neutralization (or merger in their term) for both pairs in the great majority of the speakers (p. 54), while “[a] contrast of all three is maintained in the Mid-Atlantic states. Merry and marry are kept apart by a fair number of speakers in New England and the South as well as in Montreal, Quebec” (p. 56, in Map 8.4).

Turning to COBAm, COBS and LAAD2, we discuss cases before intervocalic /r/. The contrast between /e/ (e.g. merry) and /ae/ (e.g. marry) is maintained in all three dictionaries; they do not show the neutralization observed in the literature. The words we checked are given in (4), showing also the vowels assigned to them.

(4) /e/ and *ae* are not neutralized before /r/ in COBAm, COBS and LAAD2

| /er | (COBAm, LAAD2), er (COB5): | berry, error, ferry, herald, herring, merit, merry, very |
| /i/: apples, carrel, carrot, carry, charity, harridan, narrow, marry, narrow, parity |

With respect to the opposition between /ei/ and /e/, we checked the words represented by square in Wells (1982: 157) under (c), where /e/ is followed by a vowel: aerial, aquarium, area, canary, caring, dairy, fairy, hairy, Mary, parent, Pharaoh, prairie, rarity, various, vary. LAAD2 and COBS show the neutralization, transcribed as /ar/ in LAAD2 and as /ar/ (=/er/ in GenAm) in COBAm. The one exceptional word is Pharaoh, which has two alternative pronunciations, /ar/ and /er/, in addition to /ar/; /ar/ indicates a potential occurrence of /ei/ before intervocalic /r/. However, this might not be a counterexample to neutralization between /ei/ and /e/: if the word is syllabified so that /ei/ and /e/ do not occur in the same domain, vowel neutralization would not apply, as in compounds such as day room /dei rum/. If this is the case, Pharaoh is not a counterexample to the
neutralization. Given the robust pattern found in other words, we conclude that /ei/ and /e/ are consistently neutralized before intervocalic /r/ in COBAm.

In sum, in all three dictionaries, the possible “three-way homophony” as discussed in the literature is not fully expressed, with merry and Mary being homophones /ˈmɛr.i/, opposing to marry /ˈmɑr.i/. (/er/ and /ɛr/ may not always sound distinguished in the audio data in COBAm, as discussed later in 3.3.)

3.2.7.3. Two os before tautosyllabic /r/

The literature (e.g. Wells 1982, Labov et al. 2006) describes a widespread merger of non-high back rounded vowels before tautosyllabic /r/ in GenAm, resulting in homophones in pairs such as hoarse—horse and mourning—morning. Specifically, Labov et al. (2006), investigating these two minimal pairs (hoarse—horse, mourning—morning), finds that the distinction has widely disappeared in a large area: “In the middle of the twentieth century, the distinction between /ohan/ and /ohan [sic] in four vs. for, hoarse vs. horse, etc. was maintained by most American speakers, with the exception of the Midland area, centered around Philadelphia, the Mid-Atlantic area, New York, and the Hudson Valley. In the ANAE data, this distinction is made only by a scattering of speakers in Eastern New England, southern Illinois and Indiana, and the Gulf States” (p. 52, in Map 8.2).

In COBAm, the pronunciation key inside the back cover suggests the merger, giving only /ɔr/. We further researched, in the entries, the two sets of words potentially distinguished, represented by force and north in Wells (1982). We considered words with word-final and preconsonantal /r/’s. We only took the strong form when there was a weak form as well (e.g. for, or). The merger was found; all words are shown as /ɔr/ except for two, for and force, which have /ər/, with the length mark. This length mark appears to be a typo, since there is no use of this diacritic in COBAm in other places. Therefore, we conclude that there is no distinction between hoarse and horse, mourning and morning, etc. in COBAm.

In COBS and LAAD2, a subset was sampled, i.e. words representing the lexical sets (i.e. force and north) and the first two words in each line as listed in Wells (1982: 160, 162). In both dictionaries, these two groups of words are assigned to the same vowel (/ɔr/ in COB5, /ɔ/ in LAAD2).

In sum, none of the three dictionaries express the distinction, which conforms to what the literature finds.

3.2.8. Lexical incidences

There may be differences of pronunciation which are lexical and not systemic. Wells (1982: 126–127) lists examples that differ between GenAm and RP, though he also notes that the “GenAm”/“RP” categorization is not cut and dry: GenAm forms may be heard in England and vice versa; he often qualifies the GenAm forms as “usually” and “often”. That said, we take the “GenAm” pronunciation as the reference point to examine whether it is found in COBAm, as compared with COBS and LAAD2.

The words are address, advertisement, anti-, ate, ballet, Bernard, beta, borough, clerk, cuckoo, depot, detail, docile, erase, figure, from (strong from), herb, inquiry, iodine, laboratory, leisure, lever, lieutenant, massage, neither, nonsense, of (strong form), omega, primarily, process (n.), progress, quinine, record (n.), schedule, shone, suggest, thorough, tomato, vase, vermilion, was (strong form), wrath, Z.

About half of these words have only the GenAm form in all three dictionaries (in COBS, forms marked as AM are considered). For the rest, there are some notes to be made. First, in the two American English dictionaries, COBAm and LAAD2, as one may expect, the GenAm form appears for all items, while in COBS, there are three items (and possibly anti- as well; see Note 17) that are not given the GenAm form but instead have the RP form only. Overall, the two American English dictionaries indicate more American pronunciation compared to COB5.

Second, there are items for which both RP and GenAm forms are given. This is expected from Wells’s note on the non-categorical nature of the labels “GenAm” and “RP” as discussed above, though in COBAm, the variation may not be within GenAm but between GenAm and RP, as discussed before. COBAm has slightly fewer items of this kind than
LAAD2.

Third, if advertisement and anti- are excluded (see Note 17), COBAm only provides the forms as included in Wells (including cases also accompanied by an RP form), while LAAD2 has at least three instances that represent the third possibility, i.e. neither Wells’s GenAm nor RP: iodine has /aɪdə(n)/ along with GenAm /'aɪdə(n)/ (cf. RP /ˈaɪdə(n)/); **progress** has /'prəɡəs/ along with GenAm /'prəɡəs/ (cf. RP /'prəɡəs/); **vase** has /ˈvæs/ along with GenAm /ˈvæs/ and RP /ˈvæs/. In Merriam-Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (2003), another American English dictionary, iodine does not have this third form, while progress and vase do. /rəʊdəs/ is listed first in progress. /væs/ for vase is noted as a form found in “Canada usu[ally] & US also”. Thus, at least for **progress** and **vase**, LAAD2 describes lexical variation more accurately than COBAm.

### 3.3. Pronunciation on the COBAm CD-ROM

In this section, we examine whether the pronunciation on the CD-ROM of COBAm is consistent with the transcription given in the paper version of the dictionary and also in turn with the literature. (See discussion in Section 7 for functional aspects of the CD-ROM, whose facets include those related to pronunciation as well as others.) In order to do this, we select a subset of the diagnostic features discussed in 3.2, that is, merger of low back vowels, ask words, Yod dropping, reduction of the /hw/ onsets, and neutralization between /e/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/. We consider the same words as we did above in reviewing the paper version of the dictionary, except in merger of low back vowels and neutralization between /e/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/, where only certain (near) minimal pairs are taken into consideration. We will show that not all features are pronounced as described in the paper COBAm.

**No discrepancy** Regarding /hw/ onsets as reduced to /w/, the words on the CD-ROM are pronounced as transcribed in the paper version (also conforming to the literature). If /hw/ occurs in the onset in words in **whale**, **white**, etc., /a/ is used, whereas if /w/ occurs, /w/ is used. In fact, /w/ is heard on the CD-ROM.

**Discrepancy in one item** In Yod dropping, all words are pronounced as described in the paper version, including the variation in **avenue** and **residue**, except in one word. For **during**, [j] is heard after [d], whereas it is dropped in the transcription.

**A little more deviation** In ask words, the deviation from the paper version is slightly greater. It is still the case that all but one (Slav) have at least the GenAm form with /æ/. However, the CD-ROM records many more instances of the alternative /a/ in addition to /æ/ than the paper version does. Words added to the list in (3b) above are: cask, casket, cast, castle, castor, chaff, chance, chancel, chancellor, chant, clasp, class, command, commando, craft, fasten.

**Interesting deviations** Finally, there are two features that are not indicated in the paper version but are discussed in the literature and appear to be recorded on the CD-ROM. These are the loss of certain vowel contrasts, i.e. low back vowels /o/ (lot etc.) vs. /a/ (palm etc.) vs. /æ/ (cloth, thought, etc.), and /e/ (hairy, marry, etc.) vs. /æ/ (harry, marry, etc.) before intervocalic /r/. On the CD-ROM, the vowels in these sets of words do not always sound different. We discuss the possibility of the low back merger first, and the possible neutralization between /e/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/ next.

Regarding the contrast between /o/ and /a/, recall that these vowels are generally assumed to have merged to /a/ in GenAm in the literature. The vowels in a near minimal pair **pod—pa** both sound unrounded, though the vowel in **pa** sounds slightly lower than that in **pod**. Note that from the transcription allotted to **pod**, /o/, the unrounded quality is not expected.

With respect to the contrast between /o/ and /æ/, there are at least a couple of minimal pairs that are pronounced with very little difference on the CD-ROM, **knotty—naughty** and **don—dawn**. The vowel could be transcribed [g], that is, slightly higher than, and not as back as, cardinal [a]. The lips do not sound as if they are actively involved in the articulation, i.e. neither actively rounded as cardinal [a] nor actively unrounded as cardinal [o].

The closeness in the vowel quality in these (near) minimal pairs should be compared with the same words in COB5; COB5 seems to provide only RP pronunciation for these items, where the three vowels sound quite
distinct from each other. With respect to the rounding dimension only, /o/ (don, knotty, pod) is rounded, /a/ (dawn, naughty) is more rounded, and /a/ (pa) is unrounded. Compared to this, the vowels in a pair are fairly similar to each other in COBAm. If this little difference in the two pairs is not significant, it suggests that the three-way contrast employed in the paper COBAm might not be present in the production data on the CD-ROM, which is not surprising from what the literature describes for GenAm, i.e. loss of contrasts in these pairs.

An acoustic analysis was conducted for the pairs knotty /o/—naughty /a/ and don /o/—dawn /o/. Assuming these words are spoken by the same speaker, the formants are comparable without normalization. We used Adobe Audition 1.5 to transfer the MPEG files to WAV files so that they could be analyzed by Praat (version 4.6.01, Paul Boersma and David Weenink). The mean formant values were measured for a period of 100 ms in the vowel. In the knotty—naughty pair, the 100ms duration was taken as 50 ms forward and 50 ms backward from the approximate midpoint during which the formants appear steady. In the don—dawn pair, since F1 is not detected after a certain point in the vowel, 100ms was taken until the point at which F1 detection starts failing. The results are plotted in Figure 3.1.

In both pairs, F2 is almost the same, which suggests that the backness of the tongue is almost the same in a given pair. F1 differs slightly, with /o/ being slightly lower than /o/ (by 50 Hz in the knotty-naughty pair and by 37 Hz in the don-dawn pair). The direction is consistent: F1 of /o/ is always lower than F1 of /o/. This is expected from what the transcriptions suggest: /o/ is higher than /a/ in vowel height. Since F1 correlates inversely with vowel height (i.e. the higher the F1 the lower the tongue height), F1 in /o/ is expected to be lower than F1 in /o/. It would be interesting to test whether this difference is also consistent in other minimal pairs, and, if so, whether this small difference is statistically significant and perceptually significant, i.e. whether native speakers perceive the approximately 45 Hz of F1 difference in these pairs.

Regarding the opposition between /e/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/, while it is transcribed to be present in the paper COBAm, there are (near) minimal pairs on the CD-ROM in which impressionistic analysis again finds neutralization. These pairs include hairy /e/—harry /æ/ and caring /e/—carry /æ/. It is possible to compare /æ/ in this neutralization context, i.e. before /r/, with /æ/ in non-neutralizing context, since the contrast exists elsewhere. For example, /æ/ in hairy can be compared with /æ/ in had, likewise /æ/ in carry with /æ/ in cad. This comparison finds quite a difference, with the /æ/ in had and cad realized around /æ/ or lower, while /æ/ before /r/ sounds as high as /ær/ before /r/, hairy [æ]—harry [æ] and caring [æ]—carry [æ]. To these pairs, the pair merry /e/—marry /æ/ may be added: the vowel in marry is not as front as the vowel in merry, but it is as high, merry [ɛ]—marry [æ], which is to be compared to the much lower [æ] in mad.

Acoustic analysis of these sets of words found possible neutralization between /e/ and /æ/ before /r/. The same method as described above was used to convert the sound files on the CD-ROM to WAV files. For measuring F1 and F2, in the vowels in cad, had and mad, the mean values for 100ms were taken around the portion where F1 and F2 appear steady with a regular wave form. For the vowels before /r/, since F2 (and F3) decreases throughout toward /r/ (which is expected in a vowel surrounding /r/), the mean F1 and F2 were taken from the point of F2.
maximal to the point of F2 minimal.\textsuperscript{22} The results are shown in Figure 3.2, where F1 and F2 are plotted.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure3.2.png}
\caption{F1 and F2 in stressed vowels in \textit{hairy}, \textit{harry}, \textit{had}, \textit{caring}, \textit{carry}, \textit{cad}, \textit{merry}, \textit{marry}, \textit{mad}}
\end{figure}

There are two recognizable groups in Figure 3.2: one with /e/ and /æ/ before /r/ (\textit{hairy}, \textit{harry}, \textit{caring}, \textit{carry}, \textit{cad}, \textit{merry}, \textit{marry}, \textit{mad}) and the other with /æ/ before /d/ (\textit{had}, \textit{cad} and \textit{mad}). In terms of the height (acoustic correlates in F1), in each set (\textit{hairy–harry–had}, \textit{caring–carry–cad}, and \textit{merry–marry–mad}), /æ/ is raised as high as /e/ before /r/, since the F1 value of /æ/ before /r/ is as low as F1 of /e/ before /r/, compared to F1 of /æ/ before /d/, which is much higher. In terms of backness (acoustic correlate in F2), /æ/ is as back as /e/ before /r/, while /æ/ before /d/ is much more front. There is a larger difference between \textit{merry} and \textit{marry} in F2 (by 83 Hz) than the difference in the other pairs (38 Hz in \textit{hairy–harry}, 54 Hz in \textit{caring–carry}), which is also detected in the impressionistic analysis as discussed above. In order to see if this shows incomplete neutralization, more tokens must be examined. Nonetheless, it is observable that the F2 value of /æ/ in \textit{marry} is much closer to /e/ in \textit{merry} than to /æ/ in \textit{mad}.

Thus, as far as these three pairs are concerned, the production data on the CD-ROM suggest neutralization between /e/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/ both impressionistically and acoustically; /æ/ is as high as /e/ in this context. This is expected from the literature, but is not incorporated in the transcriptions in the paper version of \textit{COBAm}. This might be confusing to the user of the dictionary, since those words that are assigned to different vowel symbols in the paper version sound nearly the same on the CD-ROM.

3.4. Some notational discrepancies in \textit{COBAm}

There are several typos in the paper version of \textit{COBAm}. Most of them would not be confusing to many users of the dictionary, because the wrong symbol is not used in other places (e.g. tap “c” for /r/ in the Guide) or because the difference is of a kind which only linguists would be concerned about (e.g. script “a” in diphthongs /ai/ /au/ in the list of vowels inside of the back cover). We would like to draw attention to one of these, however, since it might be of greater importance than the others to dictionary users. In the note about the symbol /ou/ in the Guide, /u/ is incorrectly given as the RP counterpart of GenArn /ou/. It is generally thought to be /au/ (as in \textit{COB5}'s Guide), not /u/.

(Section 3 by Hirayama)

4. Definitions

In this section the treatment of meaning in \textit{COBAm}, semantic and pragmatic, will be discussed mainly through the comparison of definitions and labels in \textit{COBAm} with those in \textit{COB5}. This section is divided into the following subsections: defining vocabulary (4.1), sense description (4.2), and labels and pragmatics (4.3).

For the comparison between the two dictionaries, all the entries on the following thirty pages of \textit{COBAm} are compared with the corresponding entries from \textit{COB5}: pp. 100–1, 200–1, 300–1, 400–1, 500–1, 600–1, 700–1, 800–1, 900–1, 1,000–1, 1,100–1, 1,200–1, 1,300–1, 1,400–1, 1,500–1. When a headword is not included in either of the dictionaries, its definition does not count. Other entries are also examined whenever necessary.
The results of our examination show that there are no remarkable differences between COB5 and COBAm except several regular replacements of words used in definitions and the incorporations of labels. Details will be given in relevant subsections which follow.

4.1. Defining vocabulary

So far as definitions are concerned, the inclusion of the list of defining vocabulary (henceforth DV) in COBAm is among the most striking differences between COBAm and COB5. However, this does not really seem to reflect some change in their policies on the uses of DV, because the majority of definitions from COBAm are almost identical to the corresponding definitions from COB5. It is also to be mentioned that despite COBAm's claims to have used DVs, words outside of the DVs are used in definitions without being marked in any way. We will discuss problems with COBAm’s explanation of its policy on the use of DV in 4.1.1 and the results of our examination of its use of DV in 4.1.2.

4.1.1. COBAm’s policy on its use of DV

It is now customary that EFL dictionaries claim to achieve easier definitions written with DV. At the same time, it is often pointed out that lexicographers' ways of using DV are not always clear to the user (Fox 1989, Minamide 1995), and COBAm is no exception. The guide to definitions in COBAm runs as follows:

... the definitions are written in full sentences, using vocabulary and grammatical structures that occur naturally with the word being explained. This enables us to give a lot of information about the way a word or meaning is used by speakers of the language. Whenever possible, words are explained using simpler and more common words. This gives us a natural defining vocabulary with most words in our definitions being among the 2,500 most common words of English (p. xiii)

According to this explanation, definitions in COBAm are written with words which “occur naturally with” definienda, which may be why they call their DV “natural”. More importantly the lexicographers explicitly state that they tried to define headwords using “simpler and more common words” but only “whenever possible”. They also say that “most words” in their definitions are “among the 2,500 most common words of English”, which implies that the lexicographers are in principle allowed to use any word even beyond the scope of the DV. If COBAm uses any non-DV word in definitions without marking it, the dictionary cannot claim to use DV in its strict sense.

It has often been pointed out that the actual size of DV is usually larger than it looks because all the word forms and phrases which are used as part of DV are not necessarily listed (Herbst 1986, Kirkpatrick 1985). We may well associate this with commercialism; the smaller their DVs appear, the easier and better their products look, which will greatly affect the sales of their products. In fact, while the COBUILD lexicographers merely mention the fact that the majority of words used in their definitions belong to the 2,500 most frequent words in English, 3,221 words are given on the DV list (pp. 1575-84).1

Moreover, COBAm lists no phrasal verbs or idiomatic expressions on the DV list except a few compound nouns, but it is questionable whether it is possible not to use them when writing dictionary definitions. Some scholars are against the use of phrasal verbs and/or idioms consisting of DV items as part of DV because even though their components are included in DV, their total meanings as phrases are not transparent enough (Jansen et al. 1987).

Too strict an application of DV will bring about undesirable effects such as unnatural definitions, so there is nothing wrong with their use of non-DV items sometimes. However, other EFL dictionaries usually mark their exceptional uses in small capital letters when they use words from outside of their DVs (OALD7 (p. R99), LAAD2 (p. 1852)). As the above guide does not give us any more information on their policy toward the use of non-DV items, in the next subsection we will return to this point with the results of our examination of how the lexicographers use the DV in COBAm.

It is also problematic that COBAm does not sufficiently tell what their criteria are for selecting the DV items on the list. There is a possibility that
COBAm's DV is the same in nature as that of Collins COBUILD Essential English Dictionary (1988) whose DV is the collection of words actually used in its definitions more than ten times (Fox 1989). If this is the case, COBAm's DV does not affect the wording of its definitions because it was not selected prior to the lexicographers' writing definitions but collected after the definitions had been written.

DV has become an important selling point of EFL dictionaries today as it is believed to help foreign learners of English to understand definitions more easily and correctly. As long as they claim to achieve easier definitions at all with the use of DV, they should therefore let the user know how they use it in their definitions. In the next subsection we will investigate COBAm's use of DV.

4.1.2. The use of DV

As mentioned in the previous subsection, COBAm does not tell us how it actually uses the DV. Looking at definitions from COBAm, however, we find that the dictionary uses words not listed without marking them. Below are examples:

A **crescent** is a curved shape that is wider in the middle than at its ends, like the shape of the moon during its first and last quarters. It is the most important symbol of the Islamic faith. (crescent 1)

**Manure** is animal feces, sometimes mixed with chemicals, that is spread on the ground in order to make plants grow healthy and strong. (manure)

Two words not listed as part of the DV, "curved" for **crescent** and "feces" for **manure**, are used in the above definitions without being marked. Another example is the definition of **stye** where three unlisted words, "eyelid", "swollen" and "infected", are used.

So long as COBAm does not specify how it uses the DV, in principle, it may be allowed to use any item even from outside of the DV. Considering the fact that other EFL dictionaries such as LAAD2 and OALD7 make it a principle to mark their uses of non-DV items in small capital letters, COBAm's failure to mark them cannot be justified. It is simply misleading; more precisely, COBAm's claim to use DV, together with the inclusion of the DV list, will no doubt give the user the wrong impression that all the definitions in COBAm are written with the listed DV words alone. Of the two non-DV items in the above definitions, "curved" and "feces", the latter may be less familiar to ordinary EFL learners because of its infrequent and technical nature. Although COBAm states that the lexicographers tried to use the simplest words possible, their claim may not always be true. We are not saying that they should stick to the use of easier words than those being defined, which will be almost impossible. Especially when defining basic vocabulary items lexicographers cannot but use less frequent and therefore more difficult words. Again, we would argue that if they claim to achieve easier definitions with the DV, they must let the user know how and what DV items they use in their definitions.

The same criticism of COBAm's use of non-DV items also applies to its use of idiomatic expressions:

An **abbreviation** is a short form of a word or phrase, made by leaving out some of the letters or by using only the first letter of each word. (abbreviation)

If you **happen** to do something, you do it by chance. If it **happens** that something is the case, it occurs by chance. (happen 4)

Although COBAm does not list any phrasal verb in its DV list, in the definition of **abbreviation**, a phrasal verb, "leave out" is used. In that of **happen**, two idiomatic expressions are used, neither of which is listed: "be the case" and "by chance".

We can safely say that COBAm does not use DV in its strict sense. If they claim to adopt DV to help the user understand definitions more easily and correctly, what they need to do is simply give the user as true a picture as possible of their use of DV. If there are words which the lexicographers cannot avoid using in explaining headwords but which are not included in the DV, such words are naturally worth learning because items useful for defining other words are very likely to help foreign learners to express their ideas more effectively (*OALD7* (p. 99)).

Some scholars suggest that it is also necessary to restrict senses of words
included in DV (Béjoint 1994, Hanks 1987, Hartmann 1989, Neubauer 1984) because in any natural language basic words, which tend to be included in DV, are often polysemous, and rarer senses are naturally more difficult for EFL learners to comprehend. This remark is reasonable in the light of the original idea of DV: to write dictionary definitions with words and phrases which children or foreign learners must know and therefore can easily understand. Again, in this case, COBAm’s use of the DV can be problematic. Below is an example:

An **octave** is a series of eight notes in a musical scale. It is also used to talk about the difference in pitch between the first and last notes in a musical scale. (octave)

Although it is difficult to avoid rarer senses when explaining a technical term like **octave**, “notes” and “scale” as used above may be difficult for EFL learners to understand. Lastly, we should like to mention that there are a few examples in COBAm where definitions from COB5 appear to have been rewritten with the DV. Below is an example from COBAm:

You use **o’clock** after numbers from one to twelve to say what time it is. For example, if you say that it is 9 o’clock, you mean that it is nine hours after midnight or nine hours after **noon**. (o’clock; italics are ours.)

COB5 uses “midday” instead of “noon” in its corresponding definition. COBAm might have replaced “midday” with “noon” because the former is not included in its DV. However, we cannot really say that this change was made due to the application of the DV because as we have seen COBAm does not tell us how it uses the DV.

The results of our examination show that COBAm sometimes uses words and phrases not listed in the DV list as part of the DV. It seems fair to say that COBAm’s claim to use DV may be at least to some extent motivated by commercialism, for DV has become an important selling point in the highly competitive market. In the next subsection we will examine sense descriptions in COBAm through the comparisons of definitions from COBAm and COB5.

### 4.2. Sense description

There are no remarkable differences between sense descriptions, or definitions in COB5 and COBAm. However, as COBAm is designed for learners of American English, Briticisms used in definitions in COB5 are regularly replaced with the corresponding Americanisms in COBAm. We will report on these replacements in 4.2.1 and other changes made in 4.2.2. The arrangement of senses will be discussed in 4.2.3.

#### 4.2.1. Replacements of Briticisms with Americanisms

COBAm adopts the full sentence definition style as other COBUILD dictionaries do, and the vast majority of definitions in COB5 and COBAm are identical except that Briticisms used in definitions in COB5 are replaced with the corresponding Americanisms. On the sample pages there are 519 words with 1,053 senses and phrases common to COB5 and COBAm. 1,022 out of the 1,053 senses and phrases are defined in exactly the same way except for the replacements. As COBAm is designed for learners of American English, these changes are reasonable. The replacements are carried out on the levels of spelling and lexical items.

British spellings used in definitions of COB5 are systematically replaced by the corresponding American spellings in COBAm. An example is given below:

**COB5** If you use **bask in** someone’s approval, **favour**, or admiration, you greatly enjoy their positive reaction **towards** you. *(bask* [2]; italics are ours.)*

**COBAm** If you use **bask in** someone’s approval, **favor**, or admiration, you greatly enjoy their positive reaction **toward** you. *(bask* [2]; italics are ours.)*

In the above definitions British spelling, “favour”, and “towards” (which is not strictly British spelling but preferred in British English) are replaced with their American counterparts in COBAm, “favor” and “toward” respectively. These replacements of spelling are regularly made throughout definitions in the two dictionaries. Other examples include “programme” changed to “program” (e.g. introduce 4) and “behaviour” to “behavior” (e.g. bask).
Words which are typically used in British English are also systematically replaced with their American equivalents in COBAm. Below is an example:

**COB5** A **dumb waiter** is a **lift** used to carry food and dishes from one floor of a building to another. (*dumb waiter;* italics are ours.)

**COBAm** A **dumbwaiter** is an **elevator** used to carry food and dishes from one floor of a building to another. (*dumbwaiter* (*dumb waiter);* italics are ours.)

While COB5 uses "lift" for the definiendum, it is replaced with its American equivalent, "elevator" in COBAm. Similar examples are legion: "film" replaced by "movie" (*remaster*) and "flat" by "apartment" (*studio* 4). It is to be mentioned that the replacements are carried out according to a sense of a word used:

**COB5** You can use **celluloid** to refer to **films and the cinema.** (*celluloid;* italics are ours.)

**COBAm** You can use **celluloid** to refer to **movies.** **Celluloid** is a type of plastic formerly used for making photographic **film.** (*Italics are ours.)

In the above definitions, "films and the cinema" in COB5 is replaced with its American equivalent, "movies" in COBAm. Importantly, COBAm adds encyclopedic information on the headword in the second sentence in its definition, where "film" is used referring to a kind of plastic. This shows that "film" is only replaced with "movie" when it is used meaning movie.

Similar changes are made when a particular word is almost exclusively used in either of the varieties of English or when it is preferred. Below is an example:

**COBAm** A **mantelpiece** is a wood or stone shelf which is the top part of a border **around** a fireplace. (*mantelpiece;* italics are ours.)

While "around" is used in the above definition, "round", which may be preferred in British English, is used in COB5. However, these replacements are not consistently made. For instance, both COB5 and COBAm use "around" in their definitions of **marauder,** **marauding,** and **shawl.** Similarly, "autumn" is replaced with "fall" in the definition of **maple,** but not in **shed** (Sense 3).

Replacements of Briticisms are also carried out in a more subtle way. According to Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (1999: 616), relative clauses with "that" are preferred to those with "which" in American English. On the sample pages there are several definitions where the relative pronoun "which" used in COB5 is replaced by "that" in COBAm:

**COB5** You use **invasive** to describe something undesirable **which** spreads very quickly and **which** is very difficult to stop from spreading. (*invasive A;* italics are ours.)

**COBAm** You use **invasive** to describe something undesirable **that** spreads very quickly and **that** is very difficult to stop from spreading. (*invasive I;* italics are ours.)

Other examples include the definitions of **pocket** (Sense 1) and **pointer** (Sense 1). Although this replacement of "which" is not always made, we may safely say that in most cases there are systematic replacements of Briticisms by Americanisms throughout definitions in the two dictionaries.

### 4.2.2. Other changes

While the vast majority of definitions in COB5 and COBAm are exactly the same except for the replacements of Briticisms, there are several other changes made. These changes can be roughly classified into the following three types: attempts to achieve more concise and/or readable definitions, additions of more information, and reflections of political correctness.

Although our judgements on readability depends on various factors even including a personal preference, the following definition from COBAm can be slightly more readable, at least more concise, compared to the corresponding one from COB5:

**COB5** **Fixtures** are pieces of furniture or equipment, for example baths and sinks, which are fixed inside a house or other building and
which stay there if you move. (fixture 1)

**COBAm** Fixtures are fittings or furniture which belong to a building and are legally part of it, for example, a bathtub or a toilet. (fixture)

The second relative clause in **COBS**'s definition, "which stay there if you move", seems rather complicated to a foreign learner as it includes another clause where a concessive use of "if" is used. On the other hand, **COBAm** uses a simple phrase instead, "legally part of it", and inserts a comma between the phrase, "for example" and the following two examples, which may help the user parse the structure of the definition more easily. This insertion of a comma is also found in the definitions of such words as **pocket** (Sense 9 in **COBAm**), **sharp** (Sense 5) and **shed** (Sense 2). However small this insertion looks, this can be regarded as **COBAm**'s attempt at achieving more readable definitions.

There are also cases where **COBAm** provides more information than **COBS** does:

**COBS** If you **hang up** or you **hang up** the phone, you end a phone call. If you **hang up on** someone you are speaking to on the phone, you end the phone call suddenly and unexpectedly. (hang up ig)

**COBAm** If you **hang up** or you **hang up** the phone, you end a phone call. If you **hang up on** someone you are speaking to on the phone, you end the phone call suddenly and unexpectedly, usually because you are angry or upset with the person you are speaking to. (hang up a)

**COBAm** adds a clause explaining the typical reason for one’s hanging up the phone so that the user could grasp the meaning of the phrase more correctly. The definition of **celluloid** discussed in 4.2.1 is another example where **COBAm** gives more information on the headword, encyclopedic information in that case. We can find more examples in the definitions of **introspective** and **tsunami**.

Similarly, **COBAm** adds a piece of information by using a phrase, "In economics" to Sense 2 of **manufacture**: "In economics, manufactures are goods or products which have been made in a factory". As **COBS** does not specify the field where this particular sense is used, this addition may be a step forward. However, this could be dealt with as effectively or slightly better if a relevant label like [ECONOMICS] were used. **COBAm** does not use the label perhaps because it does not have the label. If more labels had been introduced and used properly to specify a field where a particular sense of a headword is used, it would help the user locate the sense they are looking for more easily with the labels as a signpost (see 4.3.2. for more discussions about **COBAm**'s use of labels).

The last point to be made concerning changes of wording of definitions is political correctness. For instance, while **COBS** defines **truncheon** as follows: "A truncheon is a short, thick stick that is carried as a weapon by a policeman”, “a policeman” is replaced with “a police officer” in **COBAm**. Below is another example where “man” is replaced by “person”:

**COBS** A **truss** is a special belt with a pad that a **man** wears when he has a hernia in order to prevent it from getting worse. (truss 2; italics are ours.)

**COBAm** A **truss** is a special belt with a pad that **person** wears when they have a hernia in order to prevent it from getting worse. (truss 2; italics are ours.)

Since the use of “man” is not preferred nowadays when referring to a person of unknown sex, “a man” in **COBS** is replaced by “a person” in **COBAm**. Moreover, “he” is also replaced with “they” even violating a rule of traditional grammar; i.e. the agreement of number. These replacements reflect the true picture of the English language as used today, and thus they may also be among welcome features of **COBAm**. Yet, since the above use of “they” does not agree with its antecedent in number, some foreign learners may find it difficult to understand the definition if they do not know this particular use of the pronoun.2)

In addition to the replacements of Briticisms in definitions, there are some changes made between definitions in **COBAm** and **COBS**. On the sample pages, there is also a case where a grammatical mistake or typo in a definition in **COBS** is corrected in **COBAm**, e.g. **sharp-tongued**. While the vast majority of definitions from **COBAm** and **COBS** are the same, **COBAm** seems to have attempted to achieve better sense descriptions.
4.2.3. Arrangement of senses

Neither COB5 nor COBAm states its policy on how different senses of a headword are arranged in an entry. As far as the sample pages are concerned, there are no fundamental differences between their sense arrangements. Although there are several promotions and demotions of senses in entries such as those for credit and shave, no notable regularity can be found. Thus we compared all the numbered senses of take: ① take and ② take from COB5 and COBAm, excluding those for phrasal verbs.

COB5 has 46 senses for the headword, and COBAm has 44; while one sense (Sense 43) has been added in COBAm, four senses (Senses 27, 32, 40 and 41) have been deleted from COB5. As a result, other senses in COB5 have been automatically promoted except that Senses 17 and 18 in COB5 have been respectively demoted to Senses 35 and 34 in COBAm.

With respect to the changes made in the sense arrangements in COB5 and COBAm, it would be reasonable to assume that those senses which are used in British English were deleted or demoted and that American senses were entered or promoted, because, as we saw in 4.2.1, COBAm has a strong inclination toward American English. However, among the four deleted senses, only one sense (Sense 32) is marked with a label, [mainly BRIT]. Concerning the two demoted senses, one (Sense 17 in COB5) is marked with [mainly BRIT], but the other with [mainly AM]. We cannot explain the promotions and the demotions from the fact that COBAm focuses on American English.

Another possibility is that the changes were made in the process of updating the descriptions of the headword by using the latest findings from large corpora such as frequency data. Yet, so long as we compared the treatments of the two demoted senses in COBAm, CALD2, LDOCE4 and OALD7, the two senses may not deserve the demotions. COBAm might have arranged senses according to different criteria from those that other dictionaries use. Or, this is simply because the dictionary is based on data from the Bank of English which other dictionaries do not use. We will return to this point in the next subsection.

4.2.4. Coverage of senses

There are several additions and deletions of senses of headwords common to COB5 and COBAm. On the sample pages, only ten senses have been added in COBAm, whereas 104 senses have been deleted from COB5. It will be clear that COB5 has a wider coverage as far as senses of headwords are concerned.

Concerning the promotions and demotions there is one tendency; senses arranged at or near the end of an entry in COB5 were deleted in COBAm. As we have seen in the previous subsection, these deletions may not be only due to the lexicographers’ attempts to Americanize COB5. Only eight out of 104 senses deleted from COB5 are marked as [BRIT] or [mainly BRIT]. There are also several senses which are marked as [AM] or [mainly AM] in COB5 but not contained in COBAm: Sense 2 of credit transfer and Sense 5 of stamp. Importantly, forty out of the above 104 deleted senses are listed at the end of the entries in COB5. Sometimes several senses arranged in succession have been deleted together when they are listed at the end of their entries. If we count them, 61 out of the 104 senses have been deleted from COB5 in this way.

For example, under the entry for remember in COB5, eight senses are listed and the last three Senses, 6, 7 and 8 have been deleted in COBAm. LAAD2 has nine senses for the verb, and Senses 6 and 9 in the dictionary correspond to Senses 6 and 7 in COB5 respectively. Sense 8 in COB5 is not contained in LAAD2, and this sense will not be discussed here. Because both dictionaries list the two senses near the end of the entry for remember, they must regard the senses less important in some way, say in terms of frequency. However, it is not to be overlooked that while COBAm does not have them, LAAD2, another EFL dictionary for advanced learners of American English published in the same year as COBAm, still has the two senses. Other EFL dictionaries, CALD2, LDOCE4 and OALD7, also have the two senses. As we mentioned in the previous subsection, COBAm’s criteria for selecting senses to include seems different from those of other EFL dictionaries. Moreover, COB5, which was published just one year prior to COBAm and also uses the Bank of English, has the senses. The deletions cannot be accounted for by
COBAm's use of the Bank of English.
As far as individual senses of headwords common to COB5 and COBAm are concerned, COBAm has a narrower coverage, and COBAm has sometimes automatically deleted those senses listed at or near the bottom of the entries without carefully considering its possible importance. COBAm's criteria for selecting which sense to include are not really clear.

4.3. Labels and pragmatics
In this subsection COBAm's use of labels, geographical, style and pragmatic, will be discussed. While there are no fundamental differences between the uses of the labels in COB5 and COBAm, COBAm's use of the pragmatic labels seems to have been degraded mostly due to the abolishment of the Extra Columns; embedded within each entry, the labels have become less conspicuous.

This subsection is divided into two: the use of the geographical and style labels (4.3.1), and the use of the pragmatic labels together with the treatment of pragmatic information (4.3.2). As the style labels and the pragmatic labels are sometimes closely connected, we will consider them together in 4.3.2.

4.3.1. Geographical and style labels
The lists of geographical labels in COB5 and COBAm are almost the same except that the former lists more labels like IRISH. As for the style labels, COBAm lists fewer labels by two; while RUDE, VERY OFFENSIVE and VERY RUDE have been omitted from the list in COB5, VULGAR was added in COBAm. Comparing the lists of the style labels in the two dictionaries more closely, we will note that VERY RUDE seems to have been replaced with VULGAR in COBAm as their explanations of the labels are identical.

In order to see how the labels are used in COBAm, we have examined all the entries in COB5 and COBAm. The results show that most of the words labeled RUDE in COB5 are regularly labeled VULGAR in COBAm: boob, fart and go to hell. At the same time VERY RUDE is also systematically incorporated into VULGAR (e.g. mother fucker, prick and son of a bitch). Interestingly, as for mother fucker and son of a bitch, OFFEN-

sive and a pragmatic label, DISAPPROVAL are added in COBAm. We will return to this point in the next subsection. Concerning VERY OFFENSIVE, wog, which COB5 gives as an example of headwords with the label, is not included in COBAm, but the label is still used in COBAm: coon and nigger. COBAm does not list the label perhaps because there are not many words labeled VERY OFFENSIVE.

Apart from the incorporation of RUDE and VERY RUDE, the uses of labels in COB5 and COBAm are basically the same, and the incorporation may reflect an attempt of COBAm to simplify its use of the labels.

4.3.2. The pragmatic labels
Pragmatics started attracting attention in EFL lexicography when LDOCE2 was published in 1987. However, COB2 is arguably the first EFL dictionary which incorporated pragmatics into EFL lexicography in a systematic way, introducing a label, PRAGMATICS throughout its entries. COB3 more elaborately classified the label into seven, approval, disapproval, emphasis, feelings, formulae, politeness and vagueness. Its successors, COB4, COB5 and COBAm, also employ these seven labels.

There are no fundamental differences between COB5 and COBAm with respect to their uses of the pragmatic labels. Nevertheless, it will be fair to say that COBAm's use of the pragmatic labels is greatly degraded due to the abolishment of the Extra Columns. The labels in COBAm are embedded within each entry without the square frame and thus far less conspicuous. Although the lexicographers put them in small capital letters, other labels are also presented in that way. Considering the fact that EFL dictionaries today contain a variety of information, lexicographers must employ a method to help the user recognize the kind of information they are looking for more easily.

It is also to be mentioned that at every revision the COBUILD dictionaries have been reducing the explanation for pragmatics in the front matters. While COB2 spent four pages explaining what pragmatics is and how important it is in the EFL context, COB5 spent only one page; COBAm spends less than one, which even gives us the impression that the COBUILD lexicographers do not pay much attention to pragmatics any
As we saw in the previous subsection, there are several additions of pragmatic labels in COBAm. Below are examples:

If someone calls a person, usually a man, a *motherfucker*, they are insulting him in a very unpleasant way. [mainly AM, OFFENSIVE, VULGAR, DISAPPROVAL] (*motherfucker*)

If someone is very angry with another person, or if they want to insult them, they sometimes call them a *son of a bitch*. [INFORMAL, OFFENSIVE, VULGAR, DISAPPROVAL] (*son of a bitch*)

While COBAm adds DISAPPROVAL to the above definitions, there are no pragmatic labels in COBS's corresponding definitions. These additions may agree with COBAm's explanation of pragmatics: "People use words to do many things: give invitations, express their feelings, emphasize what they are saying, and so on. The study and description of the way in which people use language to do these things is called pragmatics" (p. xvi). Clearly, COBUILD lexicographers equate pragmatics with speech acts. Thus, it will be reasonable for them to regard the use *motherfucker* or *son of a bitch* as belonging to the domain of pragmatics because to use them can carry out a speech act; that is to say, to insult a person spoken or referred to in this case. Interestingly, there are two labels assigned to them which are similar to each other: OFFENSIVE and DISAPPROVAL. We may naturally wonder what their differences are. COBAm explains them as follows:

OFFENSIVE: likely to offend people, or to insult them; words labeled OFFENSIVE should therefore usually be avoided (p. xv)

[disapproval]: used to show that you disapprove of the person or thing you are talking about (p. xvi)

If pragmatics is solely concerned with how people use words to carry out an act as COBAm defines it, OFFENSIVE can also belong to pragmatics rather than to style because to use words or expressions whose use is "likely to offend people, or to insult them" can naturally offend and insult a person. More importantly, to use *motherfucker* and *son of a bitch* would arguably not merely show our disapproval of the person we are talking about.

Below are examples where pragmatic labels, FEELINGS and EMPHASIS are added in COBAm:

If you tell someone to go to hell, you are angrily telling them to go away and leave you alone. [INFORMAL, VULGAR, FEELINGS] (hell 4)

If you say that someone can go to hell, you are emphasizing angrily that you do not care them and that they will not stop you doing what you want. [INFORMAL, VULGAR, EMPHASIS] (hell 5)

If we use the former expression with someone, we can tell them to go away and leave us alone. We can also tell them that we are angry. The addition of FEELINGS thus agrees with COBAm's definition of pragmatics, but to use go to hell in this way can also offend the hearer. Similarly, while to use the latter can emphasize what we are saying, it is also more likely to offend the hearer. It seems that they also need OFFENSIVE. Again, it is not clear how the lexicographers use the labels. The same goes for Sense 2 of remind.

There are also many cases where a pragmatic label seems necessary but is not given: for example, COBAm defines Sense 5 of delicate as follows:

You use delicate to describe a situation, problem, matter, or discussion that needs to be dealt with carefully and sensitively in order to avoid upsetting things or offending people.

Although this definition is not assigned any label, such label as POLITENESS may be necessary, for to use a particular expression in order to avoid offending people may generally be considered polite. There appear to be confusions between the style and the pragmatic labels in COBAm. It seems fair to say that there is some room for improvement in COBAm's treatment of the style and pragmatic labels. (Section 4 by Kawamura)

5. Examples

The functions of examples in a dictionary are manifold. Landau (2001: 207–208) says, “Illustrative quotations can convey a great deal of information about collocation, variety of usage (degree of formality, humorous or
sedate context), connotation (affective implications), grammatical context (if a verb, does it take an indirect object?), and, of course, designative meaning”. Major functions of the examples in a learners’ dictionary will be as COB3 (pp. x–xi) describes: “to show the patterns that are frequently found alongside a word or phrase”, and “the typical structures in which the word or phrase is most often found”. The examples “can be used to show the characteristic phrasing round the word”, while they also “help to show the meaning of the word by showing it in use”.

In this section, we’ll compare the examples in COBAm and those in COB5. COBAm says it is “specifically designed for the American market” (Introduction: xii). Therefore, we’ll examine what changes have been made in the examples for the learners of American English. Our main focus of comparison is on the nature and the extent of new incorporations, deletions, and alterations of examples. We will examine the COBAm’s examples in comparison with those in LDOCE4 and OALD7 later in this section. The comparison will clarify the different policies of exemplifying senses among these dictionaries. It will also clarify whether COBAm’s examples show the typical patterns, grammatical constructions, and collocations of the word or phrase for the learners of American English.

5.1. Comparison between COBAm and COB5

In this subsection we will list numerical changes of the examples in COBAm as compared with those in COB5. The survey has been conducted on about 2% of all the examples included in COBAm and their equivalents in COB5. We will summarize the general trends with regard to deleted, altered, and newly incorporated examples in the following subsections. Table 5.1 shows how many examples have been given in COB5 and how many examples there are in COBAm, how many examples have been deleted from COB5 and how many examples have been added in COBAm, and how many examples have been changed (either partly altered or completely replaced).

Since the number of examples varies from page to page, the list gives only a sketchy representation of the changes. It is obvious, however, that COBAm shares the majority of examples with COB5 and that it has many fewer examples compared with COB5. Our sampling suggests about ten examples have been deleted per page. We suppose that the examples have been decreased to give more space for new features like Picture Dictionary, Word Webs, and Thesaurus in COBAm. The number of examples given in the front matter of the second and third editions is about 100,000 and 105,000 respectively. According to COB5, there are over 75,000 examples. COBAm does not specify the number of examples, but we estimate there are around 60,000. The number of examples has been in gradual decline since the third edition.

5.1.1. Deletion

5.1.1.1. The most obvious reason for the deletion of examples is due to the omission of the senses for which examples are given. A large number
of senses that are marked as [(mainly) BRIT] in COB5 have been dropped from COBAm together with the examples. Here are some dropped examples.

2 If someone or their bank account is in credit, their bank account has money in it. [(mainly BRIT)] The idea that I could be charged when I'm in credit makes me very angry... Interest is payable on credit balances.

2 A fixture is a sports event which takes place on a particular date. [BRIT] City won this fixture 3–0 last season.

Also, a fair number of idiomatic phrases listed either as run-ons or as one of the senses in COB5 have been dropped from COBAm.

3 If you describe someone or something as a fixture in a particular place or occasion, you mean that they always seem to be there. She was a fixture in New York's nightclubs... The cordless kettle may now be a fixture in most kitchens.

4 If you hang around, hang about, or hang round, you stay in the same place doing nothing, usually because you are waiting for something or someone. [INFORMAL] He got sick of hanging around waiting for me... On Saturdays we hang about in the park... those people hanging round the streets at 6 am with nowhere to go.

5.1.1.2. When COB5 has two or more examples, the second and/or the third and the following examples have often been dropped from COBAm as illustrated in the following examples. (The examples in the parentheses are dropped.)

1 To invade a country means to enter it by force with an army. In autumn 1944 the Allies invaded the Italian mainland at Anzio and Salerno... (The Romans and the Normans came to Britain as invading armies.)

1 You use many to indicate that you are talking about a large number of people or things. I don't think many people would argue with that... Not many films are made in Finland... (Many holidaymakers had avoided the worst of the delays by consulting tourist offices... Acting is definitely a young person's profession in many ways.)

The reason for the omission of the second/third/etc. sentences, we suppose, is that they are less central in terms of sentence structures and collocational patterns. In addition, some of these examples contain Britishism and/or British geographical names, and things British.

5.1.2. Changes

The extent of changes varies. Minor changes have been made in the spellings, words, punctuations, etc. from British to American. British geographical names and things British have been changed to American geographical names and things American. Some examples have been completely replaced with new ones. Many other changes come between them.

5.1.2.1. Here are some examples of the minor changes (The words in parentheses in COB5 have been replaced with the underlined words in COBAm or simply dropped. Words in boldface (our modification) show the headword):

The characters complain ceaselessly about food lines (queues), prices and corruption. The (Britain's) new ambassador to Lebanon has presented his credentials to the President. Mr. Carter is due in Washington (London) on Monday.

5.1.2.2. Replaced examples (the COB5's examples before the arrow have been replaced with the COBAm's example after the arrow):

Joanna has finally made it to the first rank of celebrity after 25 years as an actress. —> He achieved celebrity as a sports commentator.

Builders have trouble getting the right amount of cement into their concrete. Credit cards can be handy — they mean you do not have to carry large sums of cash. —> The book gives handy hints on looking after indoor plants.

5.1.2.3. Partly changed examples:

Now he needs only two credit hours to graduate. —> After all his hard work, he now needs only two credit hours to graduate. The duly elected president of the country. —> He
is a duly elected president of the country and we’re going to be giving him all the support we can. She called Amy to see if she had any idea of her son’s whereabouts. As it happened, Amy had. He called Amy to see if she knew where his son was. As it happened Amy did know. . . his great powers of invention. Perhaps, with such powers of invention and mathematical ability, he will be offered a job in computers.

We can see improvements in many of the partly changed examples in COBAm. Their semantic background is given more fully and they are therefore easier to understand. Still, there are some examples in which we see no improvements like: Tom celebrated his 24th birthday two days ago.

5.1.3. Addition

New examples have been given where new headwords have been incorporated. Likewise, new examples have been given where new senses have been incorporated. A small number of examples have been incorporated where there had been none.

5.1.3.1. New examples for new headwords: Eva specializes in one of the most difficult techniques of basketry. Today, the student body is roughly 60 percent Black and Hispanic, 25 percent Asian, and 15 percent white. City College of New York has one of the most diversified student bodies in the nation. Jim Blachek, student council president at Sandburg High School. The government’s $12 billion student loan program.

5.1.3.2. New examples for new senses: Sophie turned out to be such a flake. She said she’d meet me here and instead I’m just lying around this hotel room and I’m totally bored. The government has been offering tax credits, accelerated depreciation, and other economic hanky-panky.

5.1.3.3. New examples where there were none: The dollar climbed about 30 basis points during the morning session. It was a great night and I had a massive hangover.

Most prominent changes in examples, as the comparison of COBAm and COB5 has clarified, represent adaptations to Americanism, American place names, and contextualization. The omission of a large number of examples, however, has made the dictionary less informative. We think more examples are necessary to illustrate typical structures and collocations. We will discuss this problem in the next subsection.

5.2. Comparison of COBAm with LDOCE4 and OALD7

In this subsection, we’ll compare examples in three learners’ dictionaries; COBAm, LDOCE4, and OALD7. The aim is to examine whether COBAm gives informative examples that show the typical patterns and grammatical structures of the headword in a readable, learner-friendly way in comparison with the other two dictionaries.

We have compared examples from two nouns, two verbs, and one conjunction for this purpose. Space doesn’t allow us to deal with a larger number of examples.

5.2.1. Nouns compared

5.2.1.1. In COBAm, the first sense of door is defined as: “A door is a piece of wood, glass, or metal, which is moved to open and close the entrance to a building, room, cupboard, or vehicle.”

This canonical definition gives three pieces of information; the material (wood, glass, or metal), the function (open and close), and the location (building, room, cupboard, or vehicle) of the door. One example follows the definition. I was knocking at the front door, but there was no answer.

The example shows the combinations: “knock at the front door”, and covertly “answer (the door)”, but the most basic function of the door, namely “open the door and close the door” is not exemplified. The phrase answer the door is overtly expressed in the fifth sense: Did you say anything to him or just shut the door in his face? Did you say anything to him or just shut the door in his face?

5.2.1.2. LDOCE4 provides much more information. First, it gives [verb–door] collocations, then [door–verb] collocations, [adjective–door]
collocations, [noun—door] collocations, etc. each followed by the example(s). (Definitions other than COBAm's have been dropped to save space.)

**open/close/shut the door** Could you open the door for me? the door swung/flew/burst etc open The door flew open and Ruth stormed in.

slam the door (= shut it loudly, usually because you are angry)

front/back/side door (= at the front, back etc of a house) Is the back door shut? the main door (= at the front entrance) of the cathedral

kitchen/bathroom/bedroom etc door Don't forget to lock the garage door. Can you answer the door (= open it after someone has knocked or pressed the bell)?

get the door AmE (= open or close it for someone) Here, let me get the door for you.

knock on/at the door Knock on the door and see if they're home.

cupboard/fridge etc door Mary slid back the closet door.

As we can see, LDOCE4 exemplifies the most basic [verb—door] combinations in the first place, then the [door—verb] combinations that display the manner in which doors open, followed by the locational information.

**5.2.1.3.** OALD7's formatting is similar to that of LDOCE4's. It gives collocational examples in boldface, as well as phrasal examples, and the sentence examples. It gives more information than COBAm but less than LDOCE4: a knock on the door ◆ to open / shut / close / slam / lock / bolt the door ◆ to answer the door (= to go and open it because sb has knocked on it or rung the bell) ◆ the front / back door (= at the entrance at the front / back of a building) ◆ the bedroom door ◆ the door frame ◆ the four-door saloon car ◆ the fridge door ◆ Shut the door! ◆ Close the door behind you, please. ◆ The door closed behind him.

**5.2.1.4.** COBS's examples include the [open—door] combination, but it has been dropped in COBAm. We do not know the reason for the deletion. COBAm does not give any [door + verb] constructions. We believe more [verb—door] constructions, and the [door—verb] constructions should be included.

**5.2.1.5.** Our next comparison is money. COBAm's first sense is defined as: Money is the coins or bank notes that you use to buy things, or the sum that you have in a bank account.

Don't spend all your money on the first day of your holiday! She doesn't earn very much money. He's working for a finance company now, and making loads of money. At last the business is starting to make money. The company is losing money and may have to close down. The repairs will cost quite a lot of money. We're not going on holiday this year because we're trying to save money. Could you lend me some money? I don't want to borrow money from the bank unless I really have to. They charge huge amounts of money for their services. We're trying to raise money to help children with cancer. If you are not completely satisfied with our products, we will give you your money back. He was left a large sum of money. You can earn good money as a computer programmer.
We prefer LDOCE4's presentation of collocations and examples to COBAm's definition-and-the-examples format. It lists a wider range of [verb–money] combinations as collocations. It contains the most basic verbs related to "income" and "expenditure" such as "earn/make money", and "spend/cost money". Moreover, many more [verb–money] combinations are exemplified. Since money is one of the most frequent topics in the everyday situations and there are various money related expressions, learners will naturally expect to find a large number of money related expressions in the dictionary.

5.2.1.7. OALD7's presentation is less informative than LDOCE4's, but it gives more information as collocations and examples than does COBAm:

to borrow | save | spend | earn money ○ How much money is there in my account? ○ The money is much better in my new job. ○ If the item is not satisfactory, you will get your money back. ○ We'll need to raise more money (= collect or borrow it) next year. ○ Can you lend me some money until tomorrow? ○ Be careful with that — it cost a lot of money.

The expression "make money" is given as an idiom: The movie should make money. ○ There's money to be made from tourism.

5.2.1.8. Learners will not find it difficult to grasp the meanings of nouns like door and money. If they consult a dictionary for these nouns, they will be more likely to look for words that combine with them. COBAm might better provide learners with many more typical patterns in which these words are used.

5.2.2. Verbs compared

5.2.2.1. Our next comparison is the verb eat. The first sense of eat in COBAm is defined as: 1 V–I V–I When you eat something, you put it into your mouth, chew it, and swallow it. ○ She was eating a sandwich. ○ I ate slowly and without speaking.

The second sense is defined as: 2 V–I If you eat sensibly or healthily, you eat food that is good for you. ○ . . . a campaign to persuade people to eat more healthily.

In addition, the phrases "eat too much"; "eat properly", "eat well";

LDOCE4 gives many more collocations and examples that show the [verb–adverb] combinations including eat right AmE. This particular expression is absent in COBAm, the dictionary that targets the American market. Instead, it lists "eat properly" which is labeled as BrE in LDOCE4.

We believe the last two examples in LDOCE4 are worth inclusion in COBAm because they are used to express eating habits and are often heard in everyday situations.
5.2.2.3. *OALD7* gives fewer examples than *LDOCE4* but it gives more examples than *COBAm*. Here are *OALD7*’s examples: [V] *I was too nervous to eat.* ◇She doesn’t eat sensibly (= doesn’t eat food that is good for her). ◇[VN] *I don’t eat meat.* ◇*Would you like something to eat?* ◇*I couldn’t eat another thing (= I have had enough food).* *OALD7* gives the expression “eat like a horse” as an idiom with the example: *She may be thin, but she eats like a horse.*

5.2.2.4. As in the case of *door* and *money*, the examples for this verb in *COBAm* are too pared down. High frequency words should be provided with more examples.

5.2.2.5. We will now compare another verb *see*. Followings are the fifth definition and the examples for *see* in *COBAm*: [PHRASE] *V–T* If you *see* what someone means or *see* why something happened, you understand what they mean or understand why it happened. [no cont, no passive] Our last comparison is the conjunction *whether*. Unlike the content words like *door, money, eat*, and *see* whose meaning is fairly transparent, the function words like *whether* often depend greatly on the use of language to supplement their meaning.

5.2.2.6. *LDOCE4*’s examples: *see why/what/how etc* I can’t see why he’s so upset. | I *see what you mean* (= I understand what you are saying). | ‘He lives here but works in London during the week.’ *Oh, I see* (= I understand).’ | *You see*, the thing is, I’m really busy right now (= used when you are explaining something). | *You mix the flour and eggs like this, see* (= used to check that someone is listening and understands). | I can’t *see the point of* (= I do not understand the reason for) spending so much money on a car. | *Do you see the point* I’m making (= do you understand what I’m trying to say)? | *The other officers laughed but Nichols couldn’t see the joke.* | *see reason/sense* (= realize that you are wrong or doing something stupid) I just can’t get her to see reason!

5.2.2.7. *OALD7* also gives a variety of everyday expressions: [V] *It opens like this.* ‘Oh, I *see.*’ ◇[VN] He didn’t see the joke. ◇I don’t think she saw the point of the story. ◇I can see both sides of the argument. ◇Make Lydia *see reason* (= be sensible), will you? ◇[V (that)] *Can’t you see* (that) he’s taking advantage of you? ◇I don’t see that it matters what Josh thinks. ◇[V wh-] It’s broken. ‘Oh yes, I *see why*.*’ ◇ ‘Can we go swimming?’ *I don’t see why not* (= yes, you can).* ◇[VN to inf] The government not only has to do something, it must *be seen to be doing something* (= people must be aware that it is doing sth).

*OALD7*’s examples include not only [see–wh] constructions but also [see–(that)] constructions.

5.2.2.8. Here again, *COBAm* uses only a small number of examples to illustrate the definitions and does not illustrate a sufficient number of common structures and expressions. We feel many more examples should be added for the learners.

5.2.3. Conjunction compared

Our last comparison is the conjunction *whether*. Unlike the content words like *door, money, eat*, and *see* whose meaning is fairly transparent, the function words like *whether* often depend greatly on the use of language to supplement their meaning.

5.2.3.1. The definitions and the examples of *whether* in *COBAm* are: [1] You use *whether* when you are talking about a choice or doubt between two or more alternatives. ◇To this day, it’s unclear whether he shot himself or was murdered. ◇*Whether* it turns out to be a good idea or a bad idea, we’ll find out. [2] You use *whether* to say that something is true in any of the circumstances that you mention. ◇*This happens whether the children are in two-parent or one-parent families.* ◇*Whether they say it aloud or not, most men expect their wives to be faithful.*

The definitions and examples lack two important uses of this conjunction: Like if, *whether* is used as an interrogative subordinator, in addition, it takes the [whether + to–inf] construction. Both of these uses are exemplified in *LDOCE4* and *OALD7*. 

An analysis of Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of American English
5.2.3.2. **LDOCE4** divides the senses in two like **COBAm**, and it provides the examples for the [whether + to-inf] construction, as well: *Maurice asked me whether I needed any help. | There were times when I wondered whether or not we would get there. | whether to do sth. She was uncertain whether to stay or leave. | I didn’t know whether to believe him or not. | The question arose as to whether this behaviour was unfaithful.*

2 It seemed to me that she was in trouble whether Mahoney lived or died. | Look, Kate, I’m calling the doctor, whether you like it or not. | Poor farmers, whether owners or tenants, will be worst affected.

5.2.3.3. **OALD7** provides twice as many examples as **COBAm** for the two senses: 1 *He seemed undecided whether to go or stay. | It remains to be seen whether or not this idea can be put into practice. | I asked him whether he had done it all himself or whether someone had helped him. | I’ll see whether she’s at home (= or not at home). | It’s doubtful whether there’ll be any seats left. | You are entitled to a free gift whether you accept our offer of insurance or not. | I’m going whether you like it or not. | Whether or not we’re successful, we can be sure that we did our best.*

5.2.3.4. We don’t know why **COBAm** doesn’t give examples of these two important uses of *whether*. Are they less frequently found in the corpus? We believe these two uses should be incorporated in the dictionary whether or not they appear frequently in the corpus. We believe a pedagogical dictionary should not depend solely on the frequency to decide which constructions and examples to include.

We believe that the use of pronouns without clear contexts is undesirable. The use of personal pronouns like “he”, “she” and “they” may be inevitable to save space. Learners will take them as the conventions that stand for a male/female person or persons, whoever they may be. However, context dependent pronouns like “this” in **COBAm**: *“This happens whether the children are in two-parent or one-parent families”.* should be avoided. Although it is not the focus of the example, the meaning of the sentence is opaque without the context that specifies the pronoun “this”.

We have compared only two nouns, two verbs and one conjunction, so the comparison may not be sufficient to draw any conclusions. Even so, we think **COBAm**’s examples for core entries are insufficient compared with other learners’ dictionaries because we can offer a lot of evidence to prove this from other lexical categories. One reason for fewer examples may be that **COBAm** provides examples evenly for every sense that it believes deserves exemplification instead of giving more examples for core entries. For example, **COBAm** gives examples for **Dolby** [trademark], **hard cash**, **life history**, **moviegoer (cinemagoer)**, etc. | *... a cassette deck equipped with Dolby noise reduction. | There is no confusion about what the real dividend is since the payment comes in hard cash. | Some people give you their life history without much prompting. | What is it about Tom Hanks that moviegoers find as appealing?** **LDOCE4** and **OALD7** do not offer any examples for these entries. Some learners may find these examples very helpful, but most learners can surely dispense with them and want more examples for common, everyday words and phrases instead.

5.3. **Semantic contents**

Finally, we focus our attention on the issue of the quality of examples. We will discuss this issue in terms of the semantic content of examples. Béjoint (1994, 2000: 135) states that “The choice of the semantic content of examples is relatively free, since examples are mainly meant to illustrate syntactic behaviour or to provide additional semantic information”. This statement is meant for general purpose dictionaries and not for learners’ dictionaries. But it holds true for learners’ dictionaries as well.

There seem to be no generally accepted norms as to what kind of semantic information a learners’ dictionary should offer. So, we will examine what kind of semantic contents are given in **COBAm** and whether they are appropriate for learners.

5.3.1. **Semantic contents of COBAm, OALD7, and LDOCE4**

5.3.1.1. **COBAm**’s examples all seem fine in that they do not put forward any strange examples such as are described in Béjoint. Many examples depict familiar, everyday situations that are easy for learners to understand (Words in boldface (our modification) show the headword): *Their French has improved enormously. | Thousands have lost their jobs. | I must thank
you for being so kind to me. Is there life on Mars? He studied his map, trying to memorize the way to Rose's street. He was going to college at night, in order to become an accountant.

However, there are examples whose topics are related to political, diplomatic, economic, social, military, etc. issues which probably have been taken from newspaper articles. These topics tend to be specific to occasions in the past and therefore less familiar to learners. Here are some typical ones: He alleged that he was verbally abused by other soldiers. The Russian foreign minister yesterday canceled his visit to Washington. Two American soldiers were among the dead. The party fears the equation between higher spending and higher taxes. Consumers have a wide array of choices and price competition is fierce. . . . a global ban on nuclear testing. The general divided his time between his shabby offices and his home in Hampstead.

We think these examples are well construed to exemplify the definitions. But we feel there should be better examples with more learner-friendly semantic contents.

5.3.1.2. We'll compare the examples of the verb promise in the three dictionaries to see what kinds of topics are chosen. We can see that OALD7 and LDOCE4 cite more familiar examples that are easy for learners to understand. COBAm's examples, although they include easy ones, seem more appropriate for general readers rather than for learners.

COBAm's examples: The post office has promised to resume first class mail delivery to the area on Friday. He had promised that the rich and privileged would no longer get preferential treatment. Promise me you will not waste your time. I'll call you back, I promise. In 1920 the great powers promised them an independent state. While it will be fun, the seminar also promises to be most instructive.

We feel that some of these examples in COBAm are too crude for learners. They might have been chosen directly from newspaper articles or the like without modification. Their phraseology and the sentence structures are generally more difficult than those in OALD7 and LDOCE4. As mentioned above, topics related to politics, economics, social issues, etc. that were reported in the newspaper many years ago are unlikely to be interesting to the learners.

OALD7's examples: The college principal promised to look into the matter. 'Promise not to tell anyone!' 'I promise.' They arrived at 7.30 as they had promised. The government has promised a full investigation into the disaster. 'I'll see what I can do but I can't promise anything. The brochure promised (that) the local food would be superb. You promised me (that) you'd be home early tonight. He promised the money to his grandchildren. He promised his grandchildren the money. I've promised myself some fun when the exams are over. 'I'll be back soon,' she promised. It promises to be an exciting few days. There were dark clouds overhead promising rain. I can promise you, you'll have a wonderful time. If you don't take my advice, you'll regret it, I promise you.

These examples in OALD7 are likely to be much easier for the learners to read because the topics are more familiar to them: dialogues between friends and family, and topics relating to the everyday situations. Most words used in these examples are listed in The Oxford 3000. LDOCE4's examples: Last night the headmaster promised a full investigation. She's promised to do all she can to help. Hurry up — we promised we wouldn't be late. You promised me the car would be ready on Monday. 'Promise me you won't do anything stupid.' 'I promise.' I've promised that book to Ian, I'm afraid. The company promised us a bonus this year. 'I'll be back by 1.00.' 'Promise?' 'Yes! Don't worry.' He reappeared two hours later, as promised. Tonight's meeting promises to be a difficult one. Dark clouds promising showers later I'll try my best to get tickets, but I can't promise anything. I promise you, it does work!

LDOCE4's examples are similar to those of OALD7. They include dialogues and familiar everyday topics in easy phrasing.

5.3.2. Genuine vs. adapted examples

5.3.2.1. The comparison above and the comparisons in 5.2 seem to suggest that the semantic contents in the three dictionaries are deeply related to the sources of examples and how they are presented. Two different views seem to exist when dictionaries present examples chosen from the corpora.
Genuine examples chosen from the corpus (The Bank of English) have been one of the major features of the COBUILD dictionaries from the very beginning.

...the examples in this dictionary have a new status and do a different job from examples in the conventional tradition. These examples are taken from actual texts wherever possible. ...in recent years it has become a habit to make up examples to illustrate a particular usage. These examples have no authority ... (COB1: (p. xv))

Although examples in COBUILD dictionaries are not exact copies from the citation files, they seem to have been given in a form that is as close to the original text as possible with minimal changes. The source materials for many of the citations seem to include articles from newspapers and/or other journalistic texts. Since these source materials are deeply related to a knowledge of the real world, learners with limited knowledge and experiences will find the examples rather difficult to understand. As we have mentioned above, examples cited from past newspaper articles may not be very interesting for many learners.

5.3.2.2. OALD7 expresses quite a contrary view:

A corpus is an abundant source of samples of English usage. If they are to function as examples, however, then we need to ask just what it is they are intended to be examples of. ... Samples of the language, isolated from their natural context of use, will not normally exemplify word meanings, but will simply show one instance, among innumerable others, of the word’s actual occurrence, which, in itself, is of little if any help to the learner. ... In view of these obvious difficulties, rather than insist on the use of authentic samples, it would seem to make more sense for a learner’s dictionary to follow the quite different principle of pedagogic appropriateness and to provide, as OALD does, examples that are designed for the express purpose of exemplification. This does not mean that any less account is taken of the findings of corpus descriptions, but only that they are taken into account in ways which make them more accessible and relevant to learners. (OALD7 (p. viii))

The examples in a learners’ dictionary should not be unnatural English that will not be used outside the dictionary. At the same time, they should be simple, easy English that learners can understand within their scope of interest and knowledge. Examples in descriptive dictionaries that record the language facts and those in pedagogical dictionaries that help learners acquire the language should necessarily be different.

COBAm’s topics in its examples have been chosen from various aspects of our world. They include global and local politics, the international and domestic economy, social affairs, religion, accidents, conflicts, etc. It is true that these topics are reported on TV and in newspapers every day. Naturally, the corpus from which COBAm’s examples are chosen may have an extensive stock of data on these topics. However, examples chosen from the corpus according to frequency are unlikely to be very helpful for learners. They sometimes contain topics that are unfamiliar to them. The sentence structures in actual use can be very complicated and the words and phrases can be rather difficult. If good examples cannot be found in the citation files, lexicographers would do well to make more radical adaptations as LDOCE4 and OALD7 seem to have done.

(Section 5 by Masuda)

6. Vocabulary Builders

Vocabulary Builders consist of the following: Picture Dictionary boxes, Word Webs, Word Partnerships, Word Links, Thesaurus entries and Usage notes. They are innovation found only in COBAm. The features of Vocabulary Builders will be discussed in the subsections below.

6.1. Picture Dictionary boxes

Picture Dictionary boxes (PDs) are multi-colored illustrations intended to visually describe vocabulary or concepts in COBAm. According to the front matter, the words described in Picture Dictionary boxes are selected based on “their usefulness in an academic setting, frequently showing a concept or process that benefits from a visual presentation” (p. vii).

The number of PDs in the printed version of COBAm does not coincide with that of the PDs on the CD-ROM; there are fifty PDs in the
printed version, but two of them are missing from the CD-ROM. The PD for *house* is not found on the CD-ROM, while the PD for *farm* on the CD-ROM is identical with the Word Web (WW) for *barn* in the printed version.

Forty-eight out of the fifty PDs describe nouns. The remaining two are for the verbs *cook* and *cut*. The words described in PDs do not necessarily seem to be those which are useful in an academic setting as it was stated in the front matter but appear to be more general words which may also be of use in our daily life such as *bread*, *dessert* and *egg*. Thus it can be said that the PDs are not only intended to give academic information concerning the headwords; rather they are intended to give encyclopedic information on the selected headwords.

PDs are inserted in the body of the dictionary. This seems to be unusual since dictionaries are normally concerned about the space. The approach in COBAm gives easier access to PDs since they are provided near their headwords.

The PD data are combined with the WW data on the CD-ROM. A click on the “Word Web & Picture Dictionary” tab brings out a complete list of the PDs and WWs on the left-hand side of the screen. A PD is shown in full size by clicking on the word in the list.

6.1.1. Types of illustrations

Illustrations in PDs are similar to those in Duden picture dictionaries, consisting of “the grouping of drawings and the detailed labeling of the various parts in each illustration” (Landau 2001: 147). For example, for *bed*, the names of the various parts which compose a bed such as a *bedspread*, a *canopy*, a *pillow*, and so on are labeled in the illustration of a bed.

According to the classification of dictionary illustrations given in Svensén (1993: 172–176), the illustrations in PDs can be classified into the following three types:

1) Several objects of the same class e.g. *dish*
2) Environment with typical objects e.g. *golf*
3) Basic objects and concepts in a subject field e.g. *family*

For example, for the word *dish*, various kinds of dishes such as a *bowl*, *plates*, a *platter*, etc. are depicted to show the variation of the shapes and size of containers that are considered as dish as one group. The PD for *golf* shows a *golfer* and a *caddie* on a golf course. The golf gear used by the golfer and the items used on the golf course are labeled. The PD for *family* is a family tree with all the members in the tree labeled based on their relationship to one member in the family tree.

Photographs are not used in PDs, while they are used along with pictures in WWs. This has three advantages. First, it is easier to paint a picture which comprises a set of items associated to a headword than to take a photograph of it. For example, in the PD for *desert*, the picture depicts a *buzzard*, a *lizard*, a *scorpion* and a *snake* with some plants that are found in a desert situated in a typical desert-like landscape. It may not be easy to take a photograph of this scene; for different kinds of birds, animals and plants are not expected to appear in the same place at the same time.

Second, it is easy to deformér a part or parts of a picture for the users’
convenience. For example, the stationery goods on the desk are magnified in the PD for office so that the users can clearly see the small items such as a highlighter, paper clips and sticky notes on the desk.

Lastly, certain items are almost impossible to be photographed. An example is the PD for core, in which the inner part of the globe is shown in the picture.

6.1.2. Words chosen for Picture Dictionary boxes

As mentioned above, the words chosen for PDs are not always "chosen for their usefulness in an academic setting" (p. vii). What kinds of vocabulary merit visual presentation? This subsection focuses on this question and offers three reasons.

First, words and concepts that have culture-specific information are worth describing visually, because pictures can clearly show a typical example of a reference which a word denotes. For example, the PD for egg illustrates several different ways of cooking eggs along with the names for each dish. Cooking is closely tied with culture; a familiar dish for the Americans may be quite foreign to people who have different cultural backgrounds.
Second, pictures can help the typical users of COBAm, i.e. EFL learners. They often have similar names for concepts or objects in their native language. Thus a picture may help them associate the reference with its name in the target language. Even if they lack the reference in their native language, they would be able to identify one in the future (Landau 2001: 146, Svensén 1993: 168f).

Third, there are certain concepts and objects which can be grasped more easily by looking at pictures than by reading through complicated definitions. Typical examples are PDs for area, color, shape, and volume for concepts, and cloud, globe, landform, and river for objects.

6.1.3. Encyclopedic redundancy

There are a couple of PDs that, in a sense, seem to show encyclopedic redundancy. For example, COB5 gives only four examples of the numerals in the entry for Roman numerals. On the contrary, COBAm shows an extensive list of the representative Roman numerals in a table. If a user thinks it is enough to see several examples to get the idea of what the Roman numerals are, then the examples in COB5 are sufficient. If, however, the user wants to know the rule of how to write numbers in Roman numerals, then s/he benefits from the table in COBAm. The same can be said with the PD for sign language. Whether the information is redundant or not depends on the user’s needs.

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Figure 6.7 Tables in the PD for Roman numerals
6.2. Word Webs

A Word Web is a box which consists of one or more than one pictures or photographs which depict a typical feature of a headword and a passage which gives encyclopedic information on the headword. The passage contains several key words which are semantically related to the featured headword. They are printed in bold if they are available at the entries in COBAm. According to the explanation given in the front matter, the users of the dictionary are encouraged to read through the WWs to get "deeper understanding of the language and concepts" (p. viii).

The number of WWs in the printed version of COBAm (248) does not coincide with that of the WWs on the CD-ROM (224). To detail the discrepancy, the WWs which are in the printed version but are not included on the CD-ROM are for the following headwords: astronomer, bird, country, drum, echo, eclipse, English, history, meat, medicine, population, pottery, radio, refrigerator, science, solar system, sound, sun, tree, vote, wave and year. The WW for tobacco is not in the printed version but is on the CD-ROM, while the WW for crash in the printed version is included as the WW for break on the CD-ROM.

Besides the discrepancy in number, there are a couple of differences between the WWs in the printed version and those on the CD-ROM. There are five WWs whose pictures and photographs in the printed version are not the same as the ones used on the CD-ROM. They are the WWs for the following headwords: flag, meal, skin, sweat and writing. In addition to them, the PD for barn in the printed version is included as a PD for farm on the CD-ROM.

6.2.1. Key words

The words highlighted in bold in WW passages are the key words that are thematically related to the featured headwords. They help the users learn a headword by forming a lexical network in their minds with the featured headword in the center. The name Word Web may have originated from the image of the lexical network that would look like a spider's web.

The key words are usually available at the entries. An asterisk is attached if the definition is not available in COBAm. For example, the meaning of the word signature in the WW for book is not available in COBAm. In this case, signature denotes a group of pages. Therefore, an asterisk is attached to it and the definition is given at the end of the passage so that the user does not have to look it up in another dictionary.

The number of key words in a WW varies. There are 19 key words in 11 lines in the WW for bank, while there are only 3 key words in 5 lines in the WW for zero.

6.2.2. Pictures and photographs

There are usually one or two pictures or photographs in a WW. There are as many as five pictures in the WW for amphibian but this is unusual. The picture or photograph often shows a typical example of the headword. However, it is sometimes difficult to describe arbitrary concepts in a picture or a photograph. The following is the illustration in the WW for genre.

![Figure 6.8 Illustration in the WW for genre](image)

Scientific terms are often provided with WW boxes with drawings in a Picture-Dictionary style. That is, the illustration is a drawing with detailed labeling of its parts. Some of the typical examples are the illustrations in the WWs for engine and respiratory system.

The pictures and photographs in the WWs not only function as eye-catchers, but they also show the items that are related to the headword.
For example, in the WW for **painting**, items used for oil painting such as a *canvas*, *paintbrushes*, and a *palette* are all shown in the photograph.

Pictures in WWs are not only drawings. Sometimes diagrams are used to convey the encyclopedic information more clearly to the users. For instance, graphs are used in the WWs for **interest rate** and **population**, while maps are used in the WWs for **country** and **empire**. There are also chronologies in the WWs for **history** and **medicine**. The content of the passage is sometimes illustrated in the picture as can be seen in the WWs for **eclipse** and **photosynthesis**.

Only pictures can be used to show typical examples of the words which denote objects or concepts that do not exist as entities in the real world.

The WWs for **fantasy** and **myth** are typical examples. Pictures are also convenient to show a range of items that are included in a headword. For example, the picture of **orchestra** includes various kinds of musical instruments that are usually played in an orchestra.

However, photographs are also used in abundance instead of pictures in WWs. For example, meteorological phenomena such as a **hurricane** and **lightning** are shown in photographs. Celestial bodies such as the **earth** and the **moon** are also shown using photographs. A portrait of an inventor named Thomas Midgley, Jr. in the WW for **inventor** is the only photograph which portrays a particular person in **COBAm**.

### 6.2.3. Cross-references to WWs

There are cross-references to WWs in **COBAm**. The cross-references to the WW boxes help the users get a deeper knowledge concerning the headwords. For example, there is a cross-reference to the WW at the end of the entry for the noun **can**. By reading through the passage in the WW, we can learn the history of how the technique for keeping food fresh in a can was developed in the course of time along with a range of key words related to the headword.
Another example is the cross reference for GPS. At the end of the entry for GPS, there is not only a cross-reference to the headword navigation but also to the WW for GPS. Therefore, by referring to the WW, the user can not only get an image of what a GPS looks like through a photograph but also can obtain information that is not given in the entry.

6.3. Word Partnerships

Word-Partnership (WP) boxes show frequent collocations of selected headwords. It is said in the front matter that the headwords with WP boxes are chosen based on frequency in the Bank of English (p. viii). There are 1,107 WP boxes in COBAm.

There is always a phrase “Use the X with:” on the first line in the box. Words that often collocate with the headword are listed in the box. They are classified according to their part of speech. There is a number in a blue square at the end of each list of collocations. It indicates the definition number of the headword. The collocations are listed according to the definition numbers in ascending order.

The convention of other COBUILD dictionaries was to show the collocations of a word in their definition sentences. However, only a small number of collocations — one or two collocations per definition — can be illustrated by this method. The introduction of WP boxes enabled COBAm to provide the users with a larger number of collocations per headword.

6.4. Word Links

Word-Link (WL) boxes explain the meaning of prefixes, suffixes and roots that are frequently used in English. There are 493 kinds of affixes and roots that are explained in WL boxes. Each box deals with one affix or root and gives it a simple definition and three example words. The affixes or roots in the example words are highlighted in blue. It is said in the front matter that the three examples are to encourage learners “to look up these words to further solidify understanding” (p. ix).

It is generally accepted that the knowledge of word formation helps learners to increase their vocabulary in their target language, as stated in Nation (2001):

An analysis of Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of American English

A knowledge of affixes and roots has two values for a learner of English: it can be used to help the learning of unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words or to known prefixes and suffixes, and it can be used as a way of checking whether an unfamiliar word has been successfully guessed from context.

(Nation 2001: 264)

The WL boxes may have been introduced in COBAm as an innovation to help learners increase their vocabulary. However, the WL box is not a new idea in learner's dictionaries. For example, in Kenkyusha's Lighthouse English-Japanese Dictionary (henceforth Lighthouse), which is one of the English-Japanese dictionaries whose target users are mainly high school students in Japan, a similar box has been used since its second edition in 1990. The box is called “Tango no Kioku”, or “memorization of words”, which gives the knowledge of word formation to the users by explaining the meaning of affixes and roots in Japanese.

The concept of the box resembles that of the WL box. However, the number of the example words given in a “Tango no Kioku” box exceeds that of the example words in a WL box. For example, the WL box for the root port in COBAm gives only the following three example words: export, import and portable. Whereas, the “Tango no Kioku” box gives the following eight example words with the original meaning and the present meaning of each word in Japanese: export, import, report, sport, support, transport, portable and porter. Therefore, it can be said that “Tango no Kioku” boxes in Lighthouse are richer in information than WL boxes in COBAm.

6.5. Thesaurus entries

Synonyms and antonyms of selected entry words are listed in Thesaurus entries. There is only one Thesaurus entry for one headword even though the headword has more than one part of speech. COBAm says in its front matter that Thesaurus entries are attached to high frequency headwords (p. ix). In fact, 202 out of the 715 Thesaurus entries are for the headwords that have more than three frequency diamonds.

A Thesaurus entry is usually placed at the end of an entry. The
headword is printed in blue on the first line in the box. The synonyms and antonyms are listed in alphabetical order after the message "Also look up: ." The list of synonyms always comes first, followed by the label (ant.), then the list of antonyms.

An entry in COBAm is not divided but unified even though a headword has more than one part of speech. This is because the dictionary is compiled based on the "One Word One Entry" system. If synonyms and/or antonyms are listed for more than one part of speech in a Thesaurus entry, the part of speech of the synonyms and/or antonyms in the list is indicated at the beginning of each list using abbreviations printed in blue. A number in a black circle indicates the part of speech of the headword. A number in a blue square indicates the definition number of the headword.

The number of the synonyms listed in a Thesaurus entry varies. It is said in the front matter that an effort is made in listing more synonyms than antonyms (p. ix). In fact, there are more synonyms than antonyms listed in all of the Thesaurus entries. Sometimes there are no antonyms listed in a Thesaurus entry, whereas there are at least two synonyms in each Thesaurus entry. The number of the synonyms and/or antonyms of a headword given in COBS is usually small — often one or two — compared to COBAm owing to the lack of space, since they are listed in the Extra Columns. The introduction of the Thesaurus entry enabled COBAm to list more synonyms and antonyms for a headword.

There are also Thesaurus Boxes in LAAD2. Whereas only synonyms and antonyms of a headword are listed in COBAm, synonyms and antonyms are provided with definition in LAAD2, enabling the users to see the subtle differences of meaning and uses of each synonym or antonym. For example, moral has a Thesaurus entry in both COBAm and LAAD2. The following four words are given as its synonyms in COBAm: ideology, philosophy, principle and standard. In LAAD2, the synonyms are: ethics, standards, values, principles, scruples and morality. They are not only defined but also their use is illustrated with example sentences in LAAD2.

If synonyms and antonyms are listed without definitions or example sentences in a Thesaurus entry as they are in COBAm, it is presumed that only a highly motivated learner may look up all the words listed in a Thesaurus entry to know their differences in meaning and use. If, however, the synonyms and antonyms are accompanied by definitions and example sentences as they are in LAAD2, then a user can further learn the differences in the meaning and use among the listed words without taking the trouble of looking them up. Thus, it may be fair to judge that Thesaurus Boxes in LAAD2 are more user-friendly than Thesaurus entries in COBAm.

6.6. Usage

According to COBAm, " 'Usage' notes explain shades of meaning, clarify cultural differences, and highlight important grammatical information" (p. ix). The total number of the notes is 96: 58 for meaning, 5 for cultural differences, and 33 for grammatical information. Each note basically consists of the heading, followed by brief explanation and examples.

Although COBAm's introduction of these notes will be welcome, those for grammar especially are sometimes too simple or too focused on a particular fact to capture the essential information on the word(s) or expression(s) explained. For example, the note on worst and worse runs as follows:

**Worst** and **worse** sound very similar. You should avoid substituting one for the other in various expressions.

The note directs users' attention to the fact that the pronunciations of the two words are similar, and advises users not to confuse them. The point the lexicographers make here is reasonable, but there are many words which can be pronounced exactly the same. If the two words are often confused only because of their similar pronunciations, there will be far better candidates. The note would not really make sense without mentioning that **worse** and **worst** are respectively comparative and superlative of **bad**.

It is also to be mentioned that some of the notes seem to be targeted at beginners or intermediate learners rather than advanced learners. For example, a note is given to **aunt** and **ant** which advises the user not to confuse them because their pronunciations are the same. There are also
notes which simply point out that particular words are often confused and show how to use them properly: **than** and **then**. As their examples of wrong usage often contain names foreign to English such as Xian-li (**imply** and **infer**) and Phailin (**tear** and **break**), they may have been taken from writings by foreign learners. There is a possibility that the notes were selected based on error analysis of learners' uses of particular words.

It is the COBUILD tradition to make the best of data from a large-scale corpus, which might affect their selection of words for these notes. However, their selection of items and ways of formatting explanations need to be reconsidered in terms of how useful their notes are to their target users.

(Section 6.6 by Kawamura)

7. Functions and searchability of the accompanying CD-ROMs

This section deals with the functions and searchability of the CD-ROM versions (**COB5-CD** and **COBAm-CD**) compared to the printed ones (**COB5** and **COBAm**). We will explain the differences between the printed and the CD-ROM versions, as well as between the two CDs. Our main concern is what advantages and disadvantages the CDs have. We will argue that **COB5-CD** is user-friendly in many respects while **COBAm-CD** has much to be done to be a good reference work.

7.1. Contents and interface

First of all, we will describe what contents and functions are available in the CD-ROM versions.

7.1.1. **COB5-CD**

The application window (see Figure 7.1) mainly consists of the menu bar at the top, the search area on the left, and the main section for displaying the entry for the selected headword. Below the search box in the left area is a list of all the headwords and phrasal verbs in the dictionary under the tab labeled “Index”. This section changes into the area labeled “Result” where the search results are displayed when a search key is entered into the search box and the “OK” button is clicked or the “Enter” key is pressed.

The two large buttons (Dictionary and WordBank) located in the menu bar at the top of the window allow us to choose between the following reference works:

- **Dictionary**: almost the same reference work as the printed version of **COB5**
- **WordBank**: a five-million-word sample of the texts from the Bank of English, a large corpus of English

**COB5-CD** also offers the pop-up version of **COB5** and “MyDictionary”, a user-defined dictionary, neither of which will be dealt with here.

The interface has the following useful features:

- The application window can be enlarged, and the main entry section can be narrowed or widened.
- The “Full/Comp” button at the top right-hand corner switches the screen between the full view of the entry and the compact view where...
IPA transcriptions, the speaker icons for playing back recorded pronunciations, and examples are not displayed.

- Any part of the text can be copied to the clipboard. (COB4-CD allows us to copy either a word in the text or the whole entry.)

7.1.2. COBAm-CD

The application window (see Figure 7.2) has six different modes indicated by the tabs at the top. When the "Dictionary" tab is selected, the search area is available on the left where a list of all the headwords beginning with the character(s) typed in is displayed, and the main section is on the right for displaying the entry for the selected headword.

![Figure 7.2 Initial screen of COBAm-CD](image)

The six tabs allow us to choose between the following reference modes:

- Dictionary: We can search through content that is almost the same as the printed version of COBAm.
- My Words: This is a user-defined dictionary where headwords, parts of speech, definitions, and examples can be registered.
- Word Web & Picture Dictionary: Encyclopedic notes (Word Webs) and pictorial illustrations (Picture Dictionaries), summing up to about 300 items, can be searched for.
- Bookmarks: This offers a bookmarking function by which users can bookmark entries.
- Activity Guide: Users can learn how to use the dictionary through looking-up activities. This portion is based on the same contents in the front matter in the printed version.
- Grammar: This is an explanation of grammar using pictorial illustrations and animations (the flow of the time and focused points therein are marked for the grammatical items concerning tense), based on the same contents in the back matter in the printed version.

Dictionary and Word Web & Picture Dictionary are dealt with in this section.

We find inconvenient the following characteristics in the interface of COBAm-CD:

- The application window cannot be enlarged, nor can the search and entry areas. The amount of information that can be displayed is very small.
- The Mini-View button available in the Dictionary mode just makes the window small; this is not a so-called pop-up dictionary. In this view, additional information such as inflections in the entry are omitted, and double-clicking on a word does not execute a new search.
- More than one line cannot be copied at one time.

7.2. Dictionary contents and layout

In addition to the differences in the interfaces of the reference works, the contents of the CD-ROM versions also differ from their printed counterparts. We will see which information is and is not available in the CD-ROM versions below.

7.2.1. COBS-CD

The dictionary contents are displayed mostly in the same way as the printed version, but with the following differences:

- IPA transcriptions can be shown or hidden in the settings menu.
- All the contents in the Extra Column in the printed version are incorpo-
rated into the entry.
• The definitions are displayed in blue, while every example is displayed per line in italicized black, which enables us to make a clear and quick distinction between them.
• The stress for compounds, which is shown as an underscore on the printed version, is omitted. This can be a serious shortcoming.
• Most of the front and back matters are included in the on-line help of the CD except for the pictorial illustrations and the supplement “Access to English” in the back matter. There are some materials available only in the CD, and some others are explained in more detail in the CD; the CD offers an article “Analyzing the Data” which gives an example of concordance lines and how the collocates can be obtained from the data. As for the lacking data, illustrations and “Access to English”, it may be true that their absence does not devalue the CD seriously, but their inclusion would be of use to some users, at least doing no harm.

7.2.2. COBAm-CD
The dictionary contents are displayed basically in the same manner as the printed version, but there are some differences:
• IPA transcriptions are not included.
• The examples are indented and displayed per line in italicized red, which enables us to make a clear and quick distinction between definitions and examples.
• While the boxes headed as Picture Dictionary, Thesaurus, Usage, Word Link, Word Partnership, and Word Web are incorporated into the body of entries in the printed version, the CD-ROM version just offers their corresponding buttons in the entries which display the boxes when clicked. This reduces the accessibility to the information provided in the boxes. It is, in contrast, useful that the Word Web & Picture Dictionary tab provides us the complete list of the photographs and drawings.
• The sense numbers in the Thesaurus and Word Partnership boxes are omitted in the CD-ROM version. Figure 7.3 is a Word Partnership box under condition, where the sense numbers available in the printed version are 1 and 5 for “critical condition”, and 2 and 3 for “weather conditions, working conditions”) are not displayed. They show which sense the base word (“condition” in this example) is used in. It is not clear why the sense numbers are not given.

Figure 7.3 Word Partnership box in COBAm-CD

• Verbal patterns and grammatical information such as “[no cont]” are omitted, which is a serious shortcoming in the CD.
• For the homographic words that have more than one entry, the collections of the summary of the entries, called menus, are treated as headwords in addition to the entries themselves. For example, there are three entries for “lead”; the second one corresponds to 1 lead, the third one is 2 lead, and the first one includes both as well as the summaries (see Figure 7.4). The biggest problem is that only the first
entry has the feature buttons such as Thesaurus. This is highly confusing to the users.

- The references to other entries, which are indicated as "— see . . . ", are omitted when they are placed after definitions. This is extremely undesirable. The references to other compound entries are not hyperlinked to the entries in question; examiner has "see also: medical examiner" and when we want to look it up we have to put the compound into the search box and press "Enter". This is very inconvenient.

- When we are using the Dictionary mode, Word Webs and Picture Dictionaries are accessible only from the headwords that offer the boxes in their entries. Although the boxes have many related words, their entries have no link to the boxes. This is very dissatisfying.

- The explanatory words in the drawings and photographs cannot be double-clicked for searching them.

- Frequency information available in the printed version, such as •oo, are omitted.

- None of the front and back matters in the printed version, except for Activity Guide and Brief Grammar Reference, are included in the CD. Some users would find it useful if the CD provided just the same information as in the printed version.

7.3. Search

The searchability in the CD-ROM versions is much higher than that in the printed one where only search by entry items is possible. Some major characteristics of the search functions available in COB5-CD and COBAmCD are described below.

7.3.1. COB5-CD

When one or more letters are typed in the search box, the nearest matching entry beginning with those letters is highlighted in the list of the headwords. By selecting an item from the headwords in the list, its definition is shown in the main entry section.

Typing a word or phrase in the search box and clicking the “OK” button or pressing the “Enter” key switches the left section to the Result tab where the following items are displayed:

- Compounds: All the compounds including the search key as a component word are listed under this heading. The morphologically related items with the key are also displayed under this heading; if "good" is searched for, the resulting list contains not only good day and good evening, but also brown goods, goodbye, and best-selling, some of which are impossible to find simultaneously in the printed version where all the entry items are alphabetically arranged.

- Phrasal Verbs: All the phrasal verbs (available in the headword list) including the search key as a component verb are listed under this heading. We cannot, however, search for the phrasal verbs with prepositions or adverbs.

- Full Text: This section displays the result of the search performed through the whole body of the dictionary, consisting of the following subsections:

1. Definitions: All the definitions including the search key are searched for.

2. Extras: Although the on-line help says this part “displays all usage notes and cross references which contain the word you have searched for”, it actually displays the notes on Americanisms and Briticisms, geographical labels such as BRIT and SCOTTISH, and style labels such as COMPUTING and HUMOROUS, but not other ordinary usage notes.

3. Examples: The search key is searched for from all the dictionary examples and WordBank examples. The search result from the dictionary examples displays the headword as well as the example (see Figure 7.5); jumping to the example in question in the entry would enable us to know in which sense of the headword the search key is used in the example.

4. Synonyms/Antonyms: The range of the search is all the words given as synonyms (given after = symbols in entries) and antonyms (given after ≠ symbols). For example, one of the synonym candidates of way is blaze, whose seventh definition “If someone blazes a trail, they discover or develop something
new.” has “= lead the way”. It is likely that users will misunderstand that they can search for the synonyms and antonyms of the search key.

Full-text searches can be performed quickly.

Headwords with accented characters, such as à, can be searched for by altering accented characters with simple alphabetic characters. Hyphenated headwords can be searched for either with the complete form, with compositional parts with hyphens altered by spaces, or without hyphens or spaces.

When the search key does not match any item, the nearest matching entry is highlighted in the headword list under the Index tab in the left section. Entering a spelling not included as a headword and clicking “OK” or pressing “Enter” displays the candidates under the Result tab.

If “Morphological search” option is ticked in the settings menu, searching with inflected forms yields the correct result for the lemma whose inflected forms are not included as a headword, although the headword is not highlighted in the list under the Index tab.

If “Phonetic search” option is ticked in the settings menu, clicking “OK” or pressing “Enter” searches for the homophones of the key and display them in the list under the Result tab, while the main entry section displays the entry for the search key. This function can be useful.

The search keys are highlighted in orange in the definitions, dictionary examples, WordBank examples, synonyms, and antonyms when one chooses an item under the Result tab. Inflected forms are also highlighted. It would be more effective if the window could jump to the (first) highlighted part in the entry.

Double-clicking on any word within the definitions, examples, and WordBank examples will execute a search in the small “Quick View” window (see Figure 7.6).

Inflected forms, speaker icons, and parts of speech are not displayed in the Quick View window. The information available in “menus”, where homographs or polysemous words are split into more than one entry and given brief explanations for each entry, is not displayed in the Quick View window, either; lead has a menu consisting of 1 BEING AHEAD OR TAKING SOMEONE SOMEWHERE and 2 SUBSTANCES in the printed version, but this information is omitted in the Quick View window while the usual Dictionary mode successfully shows it. Highlighting does not function, either.
When there are several headwords for the double-clicked word, the first candidate such as `in` and `lead` is displayed. The window cannot be resized, which lowers the usability. When a word is double-clicked within the Quick View window, the window shows the new entry. Double-clicking on an inflected form displays its lemma. Clicking the “Go to dictionary” button changes the application to the Dictionary mode where the entry is displayed in the main section. Although this Quick View function is essentially very useful, there are some minor problematic features. One example is that when one double-clicks on “means” used as a verb, the entry of `means` as a noun is searched for. Another example is that double-clicking on “case” in “= suit, case” seen in the third definition of `action` searches for the entry of `suit`.

Clicking on the v-shaped button next to the “OK” button displays the latest 32 items in the search history. The program also offers the two arrow buttons for going back and proceeding again, which is particularly useful when we want to look up an item that was searched for just a little time ago, for example. The history is shared between the dictionary and WordBank, which is also of use.

How the search works when the key is a phrase is not clear enough. It seems that the exact phrase or all its inflected versions with the component words in the same order are searched for through definitions, “Extras” (mostly notes on Americanisms and Briticisms), dictionary examples, WordBank examples, synonyms, and antonyms; each component word in the search key is searched for through compounds and phrasal verbs. Therefore, idiomatic phrases are difficult to search for; when one wants to know the meaning of the expression “wash one's hands of . . . ”, but does not know that this is a fixed expression, and tries to search with the key “wash hand(s)”, then the correct result cannot be obtained.

The following types of searches are not possible in COB5-CD, which is quite unsatisfactory:

- Wildcard (* and ?) searches cannot be performed; only prefix-match searches, such as “nation-”, are available. The CD-ROM versions of other major EFL dictionaries such as LDOCE4 and OALD7 allow wildcard searches. Substring matching, such as “-ize-”, is not possible, either. Boolean searches using AND/OR/NOT cannot be performed. These limitations lower the searchability.

- It is not possible to search for a word, phrase, or string with wildcards within an entry. This is a serious drawback when the entry is large and the amount of text is vast.

- Searching with pragmatic labels such as “approval” cannot be performed.

7.3.2. COBAm-CD
7.3.2.1. Basic search

When one or more letters are typed in the search box, the candidates beginning with the search key string are shown in the list below the search box. By clicking on an item from the headwords in the candidates, its definition is shown in the main entry section. This electronic version does not include a spell-check function; when the search key does not match any headword, no candidate is shown. Since it may be troublesome for some users to be required to click on an item with a mouse, pressing the “Enter” key for starting the search should be possible as well.

Headwords with accented characters cannot be searched for by altering accented characters with simple alphabetic ones; we have to put the beginning part before the accented characters into the search box and select the appropriate headword. It is highly problematic when the word we want to look up starts with an accented character as in the case of à la; we have to enter any one character, delete it, and look for the headword in question while scrolling up and down the headword list from A, a to zygote. This is far from user-friendly.

Double-clicking on any word within the definitions and examples will execute a search in a small window, which will be called a “small lookup window” henceforth (see Figure 7.7). Inflected forms, speaker icons, and feature buttons are not displayed in the small lookup window. When there are several headwords for the double-clicked word, the first candidate is displayed as in the case of COB5-CD; however, when there are several homographic headwords available, we do not have the problem which
happens in COB5-CD that the information we want to know is not shown since the first entry includes all the homographic entries. It is also unfortunate for the users that the small lookup window cannot be resized. When a word is double-clicked within the small lookup window, the window shows the new entry. Double-clicking on an inflected form displays its lemma.9) Clicking the “Show Definition” button changes the application to the Dictionary mode where the entry is displayed in the main section. Double-clicking on a hyphenated word searches for a clicked portion split by the hyphen(s), not the whole word.

Clicking “Show History” displays the latest 25 items in the search history. The program also offers the two arrow buttons for going back and proceeding again just as COBS-CD does, which is useful.

Highlighting the search key is not provided, nor is it possible to search for a word, phrase, or string with wildcards within an entry, which can be troublesome when we have to read through long entries.

7.3.2.2. Advanced search

In the advanced search mode, we can perform searches with more detailed options (see Figure 7.8).

For headwords, prefix-match, suffix-match, substring-match, and ex-

act-match searches are allowed. For definitions, only the substring-match searches for the words used in the definitions are possible. For example sentences, sentence-initial strings can be searched for by the “starts with” option, while searches for a string in other places can be carried out by the “contains” option.

The four types of string matches can be used for the headwords of the entries containing either of Word Link, Thesaurus, Usage, Word Partnership, Word Web, and Picture Dictionary boxes. However, it is not possible to search for a word or string in the boxes.

Although the options panel shown in Figure 7.8 groups together Word, Definition, Example, Word Links, Thesaurus, Usage, Word Partnerships, and Word Web and Picture Dictionary options, there are two different subgroups as described above. This is why this interface is misleading.

When the search key is a phrase, the software searches for the very string without searching for inflected versions, not doing an “AND search” or an “OR search”; in the Word search mode, black and white can only be searched for with “black and” with the “starts with” or “contains” option or with “and white” with the “contains” or “ends with” option.

Searching with labels cannot be performed. It would be of great use if regional variety labels such as “BRIT”, style labels such as “COMPUTING”, pragmatic labels such as “disapproval”, for example, were searchable.

The program does not jump to the part in question in the entry even when we perform a search for any item other than headwords. This is not
user-friendly when the entries are long since the program does not highlight the search key and does not provide a within-entry search function.

Although wildcard (*) and ?) searches cannot be performed, most searching needs will be satisfied through prefix-match, substring-match, and suffix-match searches. Boolean searches using AND/OR/NOT are not possible, and some idioms are difficult to find just as in the case of COB5-CD described above.

To sum up, the occasions where the above functions are utilized to the users' convenience are limited.

7.4. WordBank

This is one of the most attractive features of COB5-CD. It would be more useful if WordBank was available in COBAm-CD, too, since COBAm also uses the data from the Bank of English, on which WordBank is based.

Searching for a word or phrase displays the first 200 examples in the main entry section, while the left section displays the number of examples available divided into groups of 200, clicking on which makes the entry section show the corresponding examples (see Figure 7.9).

![Figure 7.9 WordBank in COB5-CD](image)

It is regrettable that only the simple word/phrase search cannot be performed, although the program automatically searches for all the inflected forms; availability of wildcards and AND/OR/NOT would enhance the searchability. Each example is labeled US/UK and written/spoken; the broadest differentiation, such as journalism or fiction, would be desirable so we could make more effective use of the data. The dictionary and WordBank are fairly well integrated with each other.

7.5. Recorded pronunciations

Both COB5-CD and COBAm-CD provide pronunciations for all headwords including compounds. Inflected forms are also recorded.

7.5.1. COB5-CD

Clicking on the speaker icon plays back the recorded pronunciation. If "Pronounce every entry" option is ticked in the settings menu, the first of the recorded sounds is automatically played as soon as the entry is displayed.

Both British and American pronunciations are available, with blue speaker icons for British pronunciations and red icons for American ones. For words that do not have variation between the two varieties, only the British pronunciation is provided. For example, only one recording for heart, and it is not rhotic (see 3.2.1 for rhoticity). COB5 can thus be said to favor the British variety. This could be misleading for users who are not familiar with English accents because they could misunderstand that both the American and the British pronounce the word in the same way as the recording.

When there is a note on pronunciation, the pronunciations within the note are supplied with recorded sounds, but not the headword itself. This causes incompleteness in some examples. For example, there is a note for **conduct**

![Figure 7.10 Pronunciation note for conduct in COB5-CD](image)
**7.5.2. COBAm-CD**

Clicking on a speaker icon or inflected form gives the recorded pronunciation. However, IPA transcriptions are not provided in the CD-ROM version. Thus, it may be difficult for users to know which syllable carries the stress. This is a serious problem because users have to listen to the recording in order to verify the pronunciation.

When there are more than one variant (e.g., two for *room* and three for *eczema*), these variants are all pronounced. However, it is not made apparent that there is more than one variant until we listen to it since there is no IPA transcription provided.

Pronunciation notes are omitted; although the printed version has the same pronunciation note for *conduct* as available in COB5-CD, it is not available in COBAm-CD. This deprives users of the opportunity to learn the different stress patterns depending on parts of speech.

**7.6. Overall evaluation of the CD-ROMs**

As for COBS-CD, the interface has been refined from the previous version, COB4-CD, in most aspects, and the overall impression is fairly good. In a practical aspect, it is convenient that search functions are available without installation, and the CD-ROM is not needed after we have installed it on a hard disk. One serious shortcoming is, however, that the search function is poor; unavailability of wildcards, poor searchability for phrases, inability to perform label searches, should, in particular, be improved.

COBAm-CD is, in contrast, just an electronic viewer of COBAm with some searchability normally associated with computers. Although installation on a hard disk is unnecessary just like COB5-CD, the CD-ROM is always needed to run the program, which is inconvenient. It is also disappointing that even basic functions are not offered; search keys are not highlighted in the entry, and we cannot copy nor print out a whole entry. Some users would hope to use WordBank in COBAm-CD as in COB5-CD. As for the interface, COBAm-CD needs much more innovation. It is desirable that the interface and search functions work just as the users expect them to work; the gap is large between what is available in the current software and our expectations. In sum, there is little to be praised in COBAm-CD compared with other CD-ROM dictionaries. We have to say that this CD-ROM version is far from satisfactory.

If we use the two CD-ROM dictionaries at the same time, we very soon find that their interfaces and functions greatly differ from each other, and there is no link between them, which is unfortunate for the users.

In general, even if the contents are the same in the printed and CD-ROM versions, there is yet a large quantity of information retrievable only in the electronic version; it is possible only in the CD-ROM versions to perform flexible searches through definitions and examples, and to search for all the headwords or definitions with certain labels. The greatest advantage of the CD-ROM version is to be able to provide such searchability; both COB5-CD and COBAm-CD have room for improvement to achieve this goal.

(Section 7 by Ishii)

**8. Conclusion**

Although COBAm has much in common with the Collins COBUILD dictionaries, the overall structure of the dictionary has slightly changed. The following are the result of our collaborative study of COBAm.

Section 2 discussed the differences between COBAm and COBS concerning headwords, run-ons, phrases and phrasal verbs, superheadwords and Frequency Bands. As for the headwords and run-ons, a sampling of about 10% of the dictionary body has revealed that a considerable number of American terms have been newly introduced in COBAm, whereas many British items have been deleted. Concerning the headwords, some have been changed to American spellings. For example *labour* in COBS appears as *labor* in COBAm. In addition, some changes have been
observed with respect to the use of hyphens and periods. Regarding the phrases and phrasal verbs, a noticeable number of items have been deleted in COBAm while few have been added. A problem that has been pointed out concerning this rather drastic deletion is that users may be unable to find explanations for the phrases or phrasal verbs used in the definitions and examples of COBAm. In addition, as a result of the deletion of the Extra Column, it is difficult to find phrases and phrasal verbs in COBAm. Superheadwords in COBAm are much the same as in COBS, but the shortcuts are sometimes user-unfriendly and the application of superheadwords is inconsistent. With regard to Frequency Bands, only minor changes have been made except that they have been assigned to calendrical and geographical terms in COBAm.

In Section 3, COBAm's pronunciation was reviewed, focusing on whether it accurately represents American English. It began with a general discussion (3.1), in which it was noted that the dialect(s) of description may not be straightforwardly understood, since it appears to incorporate RP. Variation within GenAm is not discussed in the Guide (unlike LAAD2); variation may be recorded in the entries, but these variations can be interpreted to be RP forms, rather than other variants in GenAm. Allophonic features were discussed (3.1.3); COBAm, like COBS, presents very few allophonic features, while LAAD2 gives more, especially when they are characteristics of American English (e.g. tap, t/d deletion).

COBAm's American-ness was then examined with respect to selected diagnostic features, first in the paper version (3.2). The features can be divided into three groups, varying in the degree to which they are in accordance with the literature. To start with the non-accordance end, the merger of /o/ and /a/ is generally assumed in the literature, while COBAm maintains the contrast. There are two features that are not expressed in COBAm but are described as change in progress in the literature: merger of /a, o/ and /ɪæ/ and neutralization between /e/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/. The remainder mostly appears as expected from the literature (e.g. rhoticity, loss of /h/ in the onset /hw/ cluster, non-contrast between two as before tautosyllabic /r/, neutralization between /et/ and /e/ before intervocalic /r/), though on rhoticity, the transcription is systematically bilectal, which was pointed out to be confusing to dictionary users, who expect American forms only. Some of these features (ask words, yod dropping, non-contrast between /ʌ/ and /æ/ before /r/), lexical incidences) further show variation in certain words, though the non-GenAm forms may not be intended to represent GenAm in COBAm, which, again, is confusing to the users.

On the CD-ROM (3.3), a subset of the features was diagnosed. The use of cluster reduction in /hw/ is fully consistent with the paper version of COBAm and also expected from the literature. Yod dropping is consistent with the paper version except in one word. Ask words show a larger discrepancy from the paper version, with more instances of alternative vowel /x/ (in addition to the expected /æ/) than in the paper version. Certain contrasts that are described in the literature as disappearing in GenAm but maintained in the paper version were then discussed (merger of low back vowels /ʊ, ɔ, ʌ/ and neutralization between /æ/ and /e/ before intervocalic /r/). Impressionistic analysis of certain (near) minimal pairs found possible absence of these contrasts. Acoustic analysis was conducted on /ɔ/ vs. /ɔ/, and /æ/ vs. /e/ before /r/. Between /ɔ/ and /ɔ/, a consistent but (very) small differences in F1 (height) were found. In /æ/ and /e/ before /r/, these two vowels were found to be fairly close to each other compared to /æ/ before /d/, especially in F1, suggesting acoustic neutralization of /æ/ and /e/ before /r/, especially in vowel height.

In Section 4, it was pointed out that COBAm does not explicitly state how it actually uses the DV, but that its explanation suggests that it uses words indiscriminately in its definitions, even those from outside of the DV list. In fact the dictionary uses words and phrases not listed as part of the DV. We can safely say that COBAm does not use a DV in its strict sense. COBAm's claim to use a DV may be at least to some extent motivated by commercialism because DV has become an important selling point in the highly competitive market.

Concerning sense descriptions, the vast majority of definitions in COBS and COBAm are almost the same except for the following changes: (1) systematic replacements of Briticism with the corresponding Americanisms; (2) attempts at more readable and/or more informative explanations;
systematic reflections of political correctness. Although these changes are welcome, it is regrettable that COBAm has a far narrower coverage of senses and that the dictionary’s policy on its selection and arrangement of senses sometimes seems arbitrary.

With respect to labels, again there are no fundamental differences between COB5 and COBAm. Although COBAm’s attempt to simplify the geographical labels may be a step forward, there seems to be some confusion between the style labels and the pragmatic labels. It should also be mentioned that the abolishment of the Extra Columns has made the pragmatic labels less conspicuous. There is some room for improvement in COBAm’s use of labels.

In Section 5, through the comparison between COBAm and COB5, we have found that a large number of examples have been deleted in COBAm while only a small number of examples have been added. Many examples have been changed simply from British place names to American place names, Briticism to Americanism, etc. There are some examples whose changes can be regarded as improvements when they are replaced by new examples. The majority of COB5’s examples, however, are used in COBAm without any change.

COBAm was also compared with LDOCE4 and OALD7. This comparison has clarified that COBAm offers far fewer examples than the other two dictionaries. Many more examples should be added to represent the wide range of expressions in actual use. COBAm’s examples tend to be more difficult to understand because they are written using complex syntactic structures and difficult phraseology. The topics of the examples are often unfamiliar to learners. They would be suitable for a general purpose dictionary, but in a pedagogical dictionary, they should be changed to more familiar ones in easy phrasing.

In Section 6, the features of Vocabulary Builders (VDs) were described. VDs consist of six boxes: Picture Dictionary boxes, Word Webs, Word Partnerships, Word Links, Thesauruses, and Usage.

Unlike the illustration pages that are usually bound together in the appendices or in a middle [back] matter in traditional learners’ dictionaries, Picture Dictionaries (PDs) are inserted in the body of the dictionary no matter how large and space-consuming they are, which makes them easy to access for dictionary users. The words described in PDs are mostly nouns. They are not necessarily the academic words that are emphasized in the front matter. Many of them are words that benefit from the provision of encyclopedic information.

Word Webs (WWs) probably are the most innovative aspect in the VDs. They are intended to give a deeper understanding of a word or a concept by providing related encyclopedic information along with the key words that are thematically related to the headword. There are cross-references to WWs, which also help the users to better understand the meaning and usage of the headwords.

There are boxes that are similar to the Word Partnership boxes, Word Link boxes, Thesaurus boxes, and Usage boxes in other learners’ dictionaries. Therefore, they are not original innovations in COBAm. However, they may look more eye-catching in COBAm than in other learner’s dictionaries, since they are colorful and stand out on pages that are basically black and white.

Our comparison and analysis of the differences between the printed and the CD-ROM versions of COB5 and COBAm in Section 7 have revealed that COB5-CD is user-friendly enough in many respects while COBAm-CD leaves much room for improvement to be a good electronic dictionary for many users.

NOTES

Section 2
1) The estimated numbers are calculated based on the number of the pages in each edition. The total number of pages in the sampling in COBAm is 165 (30 + 82(A) + 53(L)), whereas in COB5 it is 178 (30 + 85(A) + 63(L)). As for the preliminary survey, the number of corresponding pages in COB5 is not exactly 30 pages, but no adjustment was made because the number of pages is roughly the same amount. The average per page is then multiplied by the total number of pages in the dictionaries, 1,522 and 1,695 for COBAm and COB5 respectively.

2) Some of the headwords such as labour, labour camp and labour force become empty entries while others are simply replaced by the American spellings (e.g. lackluster and left-of-center).

3) These types of changes are also observed in OALD7. See Komuro et al. (2006: 62–64) for detail.
4) There are some items labeled as preP-PHRASE in COB5. This is included in the numbers in Table 2.4 because virtually all of them are changed to phrase. See discussion below for details.

5) The same kind of change is observed at entries for March (3), June (3), July (3), European (2) and so on. One thing to be added here is that the list of geographical names is newly adopted in the appendix of COBAm. This is one of the improvements however small.

6) The difference between COB3 and COBAm is, however, that the former gives Frequency Bands to the adjectival forms of country names such as American and Japanese while the latter does not.

Section 3

* We would like to thank Rebecca Roeder for advice regarding methodology for acoustic analysis, and Professor Hiroko Saito for valuable comments. Our thank-you also goes to the editors of the volume.

1) The fourth note is on syllabic /l/ and /n/.

2) The definition of GenAm is not available in COBAm.

3) Another sentence precedes the quote: "The transcription system has developed from original work by Dr David Brazil for the Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary".

4) COBAm does not give references to the source of transcription: "The pronunciations are the result of a program of monitoring spoken English and consulting leading reference works." (p. xvii).

5) There is one word, hurrah, which is assigned to /æ/. We treat this item as an outlier and do not include in the analysis, since it is not assigned to any of the three vowels /a/, /e/ or /æ/.

6) Some words are unavailable in one or more of the three dictionaries (COBAm, COB5, LAAD2). This is the case in other diagnostic features discussed in Section 3 also. In what follows, these items are not included in the analysis for the particular dictionary(s) that do not record them.

7) By default, Slav is not sampled for LAAD2 in the sampling method we employ, but we checked this word since it is the only word in COBAm that is not assigned to /æ/.

8) In COB5, when there is a tag for American pronunciation, AM, we considered these American forms only.

9) carrel is not available in COB5.

10) Mary is available only in LAAD2, under the Virgin Mary.

11) In LAAD2 and COBAm, some items are accompanied by another possibility /ær/.

12) Bernard is available only in LAAD2, under Bernard Baruch.

13) omega is available only in LAAD2.

14) Wells's transcription does not include the secondary stress. We concentrate on the segmental variation here, ignoring the stress.

15) We replaced Wells's /ɪt/ with /ɪ/ to make it comparable to LAAD2.

16) We replaced Wells's /æs/ and /æs/ with /æs/ and /æ/ respectively to make them comparable to LAAD2.

17) There are certain items that require a note. Advertisement is given (only) GenAm form in all three dictionaries segmentally, but the primary stress falls on the penultimate syllable, as opposed to what Wells gives (first syllable).

LAAD2 gives two forms in borough and thorough—/bər/, /θɜːr/ in the first vowel, still different from Wells's RP form in the last vowels. This variation in the first vowel seems to be the same kind as discussed in 3.2.1.1, i.e. /bər/ and /θɜːr/ before /ɪ/.

anti- has a form with /ɪ/ at the end in all three dictionaries (along with GenAm form in COBAm, as the only form in COB5, and along with GenAm form and RP form in LAAD2). In COBAm and COB5, this might be interpreted as corresponding to Wells's RP form /-ti/ (as opposed to the GenAm form /-tail/) since in Wells the unstressed vowel at the end of a word such as happy is assigned to /ɪ/ in RP, which can be translated to /ɪ/ in these dictionaries since the last vowel in happy is /ɪ/, not /i/. However, in LAAD2, this interpretation does not hold since all three possibilities are shown, i.e. /enti/, /entɪt/, /entɪj/.

18) DARE includes /-,dɪn/ with the tag "also" (cf. /-,dæn/ with "usually"). However, it is not known from DARE whether this form is used in current GenAm. It is reported to be heard in New England, especially in Rhode Island, with the source being Linguistic Atlas of New England (1943) and Kurath and McDavid (1961), but it is not listed in other sources, including the recordings that DARE made in 1965–70, which covered a large area in the States. (It is also not known if the form was still used in Rhode Island at the time of DARE interviews, since RI is not listed for any variant from the DARE data.)

19) See Kondo et al. (2006: 72–73) for possible merger in the recording of OALD.

20) The spectrograms show some periods where information is missing from certain frequency ranges. However, the frequency range for the first two formants is not affected in this way, so we proceeded in the acoustic analysis.

21) Hairy and caring are transcribed as /ɛər/. We assume this to mean /ɛə/ in GenAm as discussed in 2.2.1.

22) This happens to give comparable duration also. Approximately 106 ms was taken in hairy, harry and merry, approx. 137 ms in marry, approx. 81 ms in caring, and approx. 87 ms in marry. Cf. The duration for the other vowels is 100 ms.

Section 4

1) As long as OALD, another EFL dictionary of almost the same size, claims to use 3,083 items as part of its DV (The Oxford 3000 and Language study terms (p. R99 and p. R113)), COBAm's DV cannot be too large. COBAm therefore should have provided the user with sufficient information so that the user may judge the dictionary.

2) Both COB5 and COBAm put a note to the use of "they" under the entry for the pronoun: "Some people think this use is incorrect", which may show how difficult it is to keep a balance between descriptiveness and prescriptiveness in the EFL context.

3) Although in the front matter COBAm lists the seven pragmatic labels in lower case with the square frame following its predecessors like [approval], within entries it uses small capital letters for the labels with brackets like [approval]. The list of the labels in COBAm might have simply been taken from its predecessors'.
capitilized. Similarly, "railway" in The railway strike fizzled out on its second day as drivers returned to work, and "film" in: Not many films are made in Finland, have not been replaced with "railroad" and "movie" respectively.

2) There are some mistakes. The example of the phrase "as many as" in COB5 is As many as four and a half million people watched today's parade. This example has been changed to "4 million people watched today's parade" in COBAm dropping the very phrase the example is meant to illustrate. In the CD version, it has been corrected to New York City police say that as many as 4 million people watched today's parade.

3) LDOCE4 says it "include 40 per cent more examples in this new edition of the book" (p. x).

4) This example does not belong here. It may have been misplaced.

5) Similarly, "it" in It could be a bit problematic, legally speaking.

6) The total number of examples in each of these entries is as follows. (Collocational examples in OALD7 are included.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>COBAm</th>
<th>LDOCE4</th>
<th>OALD7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>door</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eat</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whether</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7) It gives examples such as 'The Indians are our subjects' from the 1911 edition of COD, 'Give her a good beating', and 'A drunken woman is a deplorable spectacle' cited from Allen (1986: 2).

8) LDOCE4 says: Our editors and lexicographers edit them (= examples) to remove difficult words and to ensure they are comprehensible examples of that meaning of the word within a single sentence or phrase (p. x).

9) Four words: "principal", "brochure", "superb", and "overhead" are not on the list.

10) They have been adapted to fit in the dictionary: "The majority of the examples in the dictionary are taken word for word from one of the texts in The Bank of English. Occasionally, we have made very minor changes to them, so that they are more successful as dictionary examples" (COB3: xv).

Section 7
1) The entries registered by a user can be searched for only through headwords; the searches for definitions and examples available in the advanced search do not work for the user-added entries.

2) There are some cases where the entries including the notes or illustrations are different between the printed and electronic versions, and some pieces of information are available only in the CD-ROM version (see 6.1 and 6.2).

3) This function has not worked properly in the present writers' environment.

4) Double-clicking on the compound can jump to either medical or examiner.

5) This highlighting function does not work correctly for compounds with spaces between the component words.

6) Searching for compounds with apostrophes by typing in the component words including apostrophes does not yield the correct results, nor can the words in question without apostrophes. For instance, Adam's apple is not given under the Compounds section when the search key is "Adam(s)".

7) The label TRADEMARK is an exception; when it is searched for, the entries including the label are shown under the subsection of Definitions, the reason of which is not known.

8) The is not highlighted in the entry of the, perhaps because there are too many candidates.

9) Clicking on "means" used as a verb searches for means as a noun in the same way as COBS-CD.

10) Those compounds that are without IPA transcriptions but underscored for stress markings in the printed version are shown in the same manner in the CD-ROM version.

**DICTIONARIES**


REFERENCES


ANAE = Labov et al. 2006.


An analysis of *Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of American English*.
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*), 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 Idiomological 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.

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. 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**. 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. **Background**

*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 *senmon 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 *Hatsuon 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 Hatsuon Taiso* [An Outline of English Phonetics]. Okakura’s other works on phonetics include *Eigo Hatsuon Renshu Kado* [Pronunciation Practice Cards] (1921) and *Eigo Sho Hatsuonkaku* [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 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edition</th>
<th>Size (cm)</th>
<th>FM (pg.)</th>
<th>Body (pg.)</th>
<th>BM(^0) (pg.)</th>
<th>NWS (pg.)</th>
<th>Total (pg.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>13 x 19 x 8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2,031</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlarged 1</td>
<td>13 x 19 x 7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2,031</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>2,186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>13 x 20 x 7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,429</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enlarged 2</td>
<td>13 x 19 x 6.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2,429</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2,642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>16 x 24 x 6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2,102</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>18 x 26 x 7</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2,132</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>19 x 27 x 7.5</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2,470</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>19 x 27 x 8</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2,878</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>2,907</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.\

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. Ikuiro
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 foundation 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, 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 approximately 75,000, and larger than COD, MoEJ. However, the exact number of entries in IEDJ is not entirely based on the monolingual dictionaries but some-thing 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.

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 (goal) 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 (conclusion). SEDJ says that it is based on Webster (WNID), in which there is found no hyphenation right after the primary accented vowels (conclusion). 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 (') in superscript (his-tor'-ic). Inflections of entries are sometimes shown when users should be informed (often'; -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 arrange-ment, 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 dictio, 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 acroolith, 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>A</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>K</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>SEDJ</em></td>
<td>599</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>2,809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>COD</em></td>
<td>473</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>475</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>1,946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>COD</em> (compounds)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>POD</em></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Century2, WNID &amp; Standard2</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Century2 &amp; WNID</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Century2 &amp; Standard2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNID &amp; Standard2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Century2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNID</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>COD</em> and/or <em>POD</em>, no entry in <em>SEDJ</em></td>
<td>22 (1)</td>
<td>15 (12)</td>
<td>21 (8)</td>
<td>11 (0)</td>
<td>6 (1)</td>
<td>75 (22)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

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
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Entry</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical terms and related forms</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyphenated compounds</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derivatives (including those ending with -ical, -able)</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derivatives (participle forms)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variants</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefixes &amp; suffixes</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign expressions</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper nouns and related words</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>K</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple, complex, or compound words*</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyphenated compounds*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefixes and suffixes*</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign expressions*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Derivatives*</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Past participle</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Present participle</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Those ending with -ly or -ness</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Those ending with -er, -or, or -1st</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variants*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper noun related entries*</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labeled entries</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty entries with cross-references</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 do (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

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

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.
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 Encyclopedic English-Japanese Dictionary) (SEED) (1928).

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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.1 The number of labels in the dictionaries consulted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Field labels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional labels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Style labels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currency labels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restricted label (vulgar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Label (slang)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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): \{\footnote{速記術\} (bookkeeping) in \textit{daybook}, \{\footnote{擊劍\} (fencing) in \textit{foil}, \{\footnote{發音\} (phonetics) in \textit{fracture} and \{\footnote{映畫\} (film) in \textit{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: \textit{tartarite}, for example, with the label \{\footnote{學生\} (students), \textit{figure} \{\footnote{舞踏\} (dancing), \textit{fixative} \{\footnote{染色\} (dyeing), \textit{object-ball} \{\footnote{製鋼\} (steel). Some are not even based on COD: \textit{flat} \{\footnote{財政\} (finance), and \textit{operator} \{\footnote{電話\} (telephone).

The number of labels in SEDJ approximates to \textit{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 does not use as much of them in some entries and/or senses: for example, \textit{fib}\footnote{\{\footnote{拳闘\} (boxing), \textit{grammalogue}\footnote{\{\footnote{速記術\} (shorthand), \textit{gambit}\footnote{\{\footnote{將棋\} (chess), \textit{tack}\footnote{\{\footnote{議會\} (parliament), and \textit{tackle}\footnote{\{\footnote{蹴球\} (football). (Compare the senses between \textit{COD} and \textit{POD}: \textit{die-hard}, \textit{dough-boy}, \textit{dud}, \textit{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 \textit{strong}, \textit{weak}, and \textit{normal} ways of pronunciation: for example, such function words like \textit{can} and \textit{of}, and the entries like \textit{be}, \textit{have}, \textit{and would}, show more than one pronunciation with the abbreviated labels \{\footnote{強\} (strong) and \{\footnote{弱\} (weak) attached. In the entry of an indefinite article, the three ways are shown: \textit{a} \{\footnote{強・常音\} (strong), \textit{an} \{\footnote{弱・常音\} (weak). It is not clear, however, whether the third label \{\footnote{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.

\textbf{facetia} \{\footnote{書籍目録\} (book catalogues), \textit{falconet} \{\footnote{史\} (historical), \textit{fault} \{\footnote{地質\} (geology), \textit{feather} \{\footnote{滑艇\} (rowing), \textit{feeling} \{\footnote{藝術\} (art), \textit{field-day} \{\footnote{軍\} (military), \textit{fifteen} \{\footnote{ラ式蹴球\} (rugby football), \textit{figure} \{\footnote{氷堀\} (skating), \textit{fillet} \{\footnote{製本\} (book-binding), \textit{flag} \{\footnote{海\} (nautical); \textit{oak} \{\footnote{大學\} (university), \textit{obsoleto} \{\footnote{生産\} (biology), \textit{officious} \{\footnote{外務\} (diplomacy), \textit{offset} \{\footnote{測量\} (surveying), \textit{option} \{\footnote{株式\} (stock exchange), \textit{order} \{\footnote{銀行\} (banking); \textit{taedium vitae} \{\footnote{病理\} (pathology), \textit{tap} \{\footnote{機械\} (machinery), \textit{tenail} \{\footnote{鍛造\} (fortification), \textit{transmutation} \{\footnote{鍛金術\} (alchemy)

Some do not come from either COD or POD: \textit{airshaft} \{\footnote{山城\} (mining), \textit{apport} \{\footnote{降神術\} (spiritualism), \textit{audion} \{\footnote{無電\} (wireless), \textit{gad} \{\footnote{工事\} (quarrying) and \textit{tangent} \{\footnote{三角\} (trigonometry), for example. A few can only be found in SEDJ: \{\footnote{占星\} (astrology) in \textit{ascending}, \{\footnote{庭球\} (lawn tennis) in \textit{fault}, \{\footnote{野球\} (baseball) and \{\footnote{クリケット\} (cricket) in \textit{field}, \{\footnote{ゴルフ\} (golf) in \textit{fair-way}, \{\footnote{乗馬\} (horse-racing), and \{\footnote{国際\} (international), the last two of which can be nowhere found, as far as the survey is concerned (cf. \{\footnote{競馬\} (horse racing) in \textit{field}). Most of the others can be found in \textit{MoEJ}, IEDJ and/or \textit{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 which entries are used 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 (electronics) 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), ((美國)) (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, kelt1, kelt2, 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 ((来)) (U.S.) because COD and POD rarely show it. There exist some entries in which the label follows COD or POD: ternal 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, tail 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.3 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 ((新)) 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 compliers are really conscious of the possible deletion of the entries labeled ((a)) (archaic) or ((A)) (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) 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 (Rhetorical), for example, in POD are labeled the same way (『雅』) in SEDJ (cf. usage note of (『文章語』) (literary) for tarry. The fact that (rhetorical) used as a field label is translated into (『修辞』) 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) (『學術的』) 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 (『軽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: (『戯言』) (facetious) is a case in point. The translation is in principle used for (factious), but others such as (『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 (facetious) (()}}, glorious (jocular) (『滑稽』), gent (jocular) (『戯言』), and Ganymede (jocular) (『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 (『方言』), 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 (『方言』). IEDJ and SEED use the same translation: (slang) and (vulgar) correspond with (『方言』), while (colloquial) with (『俗語』).
Table 5.2 The distinction of (colloquial), (slang), and (vulgar) in SEDJ with reference to COD and POD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COD &amp; POD</th>
<th>slang</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>slang</th>
<th>POD</th>
<th>slang</th>
<th>COD &amp; POD</th>
<th>colloquial</th>
<th>POD</th>
<th>colloquial</th>
<th>COD &amp; POD</th>
<th>vulgar</th>
<th>POD</th>
<th>vulgar</th>
<th>Neither</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>gag</td>
<td>COD</td>
<td>savvy</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>geezet</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>dickens</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>ghastly</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>geun'</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>scholar</td>
<td>gambler</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COD</td>
<td>slangy</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>slangy</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>COD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>scholar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COD</td>
<td>slangy</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>slangy</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>scholar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>slangy</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>slangy</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>colloquial</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>COD &amp; POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>POD</td>
<td>vulgar</td>
<td>scholar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

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. 56

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 ( entra) (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 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 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of publication</th>
<th>English-Japanese dictionaries</th>
<th>Phonetic transcription</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1869 (Meiji 2)</td>
<td><em>Kaisei Zoho Wayaku Ri Jisho</em> (<em>An English-Japanese Dictionary, Together with a Table of Irregular Verbs, and a List of English Signs and Abbreviations</em>)</td>
<td>Kana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1871 (Meiji 4)</td>
<td><em>Taisei Zoho Wayaku Eijirin</em> (<em>An English-Japanese Pronouncing Dictionary, with an Appendix Containing a Table of Irregular Verbs</em>)</td>
<td>Websterian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1887 (Meiji 20)</td>
<td><em>Fuuon Sozu Wayaku Ri Ji</em> (<em>An English and Japanese Lexicon, Explanatory, Pronouncing, and Etymological, Containing All English Words in Present Use, with an Appendix. New edition.</em>)</td>
<td>Websterian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911 (Meiji 44)</td>
<td><em>Mohan Eiwa Jiten</em> (<em>Sansuido’s English-Japanese Dictionary</em>)</td>
<td>Websterian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1912 (Meiji 45)</td>
<td><em>Shokai Eiwa Jiten</em> (<em>A New English-Japanese Dictionary</em>)</td>
<td>Websterian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915 (Taisho 4)</td>
<td><em>Inouye Eiwa Dai Jiten</em> (<em>Inouye’s English-Japanese Dictionary</em>)</td>
<td>Websterian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1915 (Taisho 4)</td>
<td><em>Jubago Hon’i Eiwa Chu Jiten</em> (<em>Saito’s Idiomological English-Japanese Dictionary</em>)</td>
<td>Kana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921 (Taisho 10)</td>
<td><em>Dai Eiwa Jiten</em> (<em>A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary</em>) (Volume 1)</td>
<td>IPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922 (Taisho 11)</td>
<td><em>Shuchin Konsaiu Eiwa Jiten</em> (<em>Sansuido’s Concise English-Japanese Dictionary</em>) (<em>SKEJ</em>)</td>
<td>IPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927 (Showa 2)</td>
<td><em>SEDJ</em></td>
<td>IPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928 (Showa 3)</td>
<td><em>Sansuido’s Eiwa Dai Jiten</em> (<em>Sansuido’s Encyclopaedic English-Japanese Dictionary</em>)</td>
<td>Websterian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 SeMen (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 Hatsunogaku (English Phonetics) by Ronald B. McKeerow and Hiroshi Katayama (1902) and Eigo no Hatsunom to Tsusuzuri (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 Hatsunogaku Taiko (An Outline of English Phonetics) (1906) and Eigo Sho Hatsunogaku (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 Hatsunom 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, əi → /ei, ou, ai, au, əi/: 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) /ʌ/ → /r/: Phonetically, /ʌ/ represents an approximant, and /r/ represents a trill. However, when we are talking only of English, we
can replace /æ/ with /ɛ/.
(iv) /ɛ]/ → /y/: /ɛ]/ 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 /ɛ]/ in place of /æ/ 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>EPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yet</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring, finger</td>
<td>η</td>
<td>η</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shut, fish</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheese, ditch</td>
<td>η</td>
<td>η</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thin, bath</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>θ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this, bathe</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>θ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vision, azure</td>
<td>ʒ</td>
<td>ʒ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>judge</td>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td>dʒ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when</td>
<td>(h)w</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both SEDJ and EPD use the symbol [i] 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 [æ], EPD and SEDJ provide both possibilities. Thus, in the word soft, for example, two dictionaries give a long vowel [aː] first, and a short vowel [ə] second. However, inconsistency is observed in some words. One example is the word cloth for which SEDJ gives [ə] as its first variant, whereas EPD gives [æ] 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>EPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>day, great</td>
<td>ei</td>
<td>ei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>show, boat</td>
<td>ou</td>
<td>ou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fly, high</td>
<td>ai</td>
<td>ai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hon, proud</td>
<td>ai</td>
<td>ai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oil, toy</td>
<td>əi</td>
<td>əi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.5 Phonetic transcription of NORTH and FORCE words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word group</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>EPD</th>
<th>DEJ</th>
<th>SKEJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NORTH</td>
<td>horse</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>morning</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>war</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORCE (a)</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>door</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORCE (b)</td>
<td>pork</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>word</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORCE (bii)</td>
<td>board</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fourth</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>house</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mourning</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
<td>ʌ [ɑ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FORCE (c)</td>
<td>choral</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>glory</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
<td>ʌ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 [ə]. SEDJ lists [ə] 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 [ə] or [æ] 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 [ə] 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 [ə] for all FORCE and NORTH words, and simplifies the transcription 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 [ə] 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 [ə], as in war, and that is also reflected in both SEDJ and DEJ. In the word or, however, only SEDJ gives the pronunciation [ə] as another variant. On the other hand, Takebayashi (1996: 260) explains that FORCE words were still pronounced as a diphthong [ə] 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 [ə] 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 [əspərəˈʃən]

**EPD** aspiration [əspəˈreɪʃən]

In the example, the subscript symbol [ɔ] 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 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abait</td>
<td>adv. &amp; prep. In stern half of ship; behind.</td>
<td>1. adv. In stern half of ship. 2. prep. (naut.). Behind.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v.i. &amp; t. Succeed, thrive, ...</td>
<td>v.i. &amp; t. Succeed, thrive, ...</td>
<td>v.i. &amp; t. Get or go on well, thrive, be successful; ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 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).
207

Table 7.1 Plural forms of exceptional inflections in entries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>photos</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pianos</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>no info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beliefs</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>no info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>roofs</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>no info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>safes</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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"]

COD data. See DATUM.

POD 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pretty</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prettier</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prettiest</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clever</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cleverer</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cleverest</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>narrow</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>narrower</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>narrowest</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noble</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nobler</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noblest</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>no info</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 7.3 Irregular comparative and superlative forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>farther</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>farthest</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>further</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>furthest</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>later</td>
<td>entry in &quot;late&quot;</td>
<td>entry in &quot;late&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>latest</td>
<td>entry in &quot;late&quot;</td>
<td>entry in &quot;late&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>later</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>last</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>older</td>
<td>in &quot;old&quot;</td>
<td>in &quot;old&quot;</td>
<td>in &quot;old&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oldest</td>
<td>in &quot;old&quot;</td>
<td>in &quot;old&quot;</td>
<td>in &quot;old&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elder</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eldest</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
<td>entry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

Table 7.4 Inflections of regular verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>beg</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>in example</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stop</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>in example</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offer</td>
<td>in example</td>
<td>in example</td>
<td>in example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visit</td>
<td>in example</td>
<td>in example</td>
<td>no info</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>picnic</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
<td>given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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...せしむ (= cause, induce, constrain, compel to do). 例— They made me drink. — The rain made the river overflow. (【注意】 Passive の場合には不定形の印 "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...をやってる.
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 + complement), [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）と呼し，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種な構文の形を示さう. — I give him a book; I gave a book to the
2.2.2. Verbs followed by infinitive or gerund structures

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

(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

No information

COD

Pay (v.) (one so much) gives a debt to a person.

POD

Pay (v.) (one so much) gives a debt to a person.

JECJ

No information

JECJ requires further investigation.

(5) [verb+infinitive] structures

Get what I want.

get

COD

Get (v.) (one so much) to get what one wants.

POD

Get (v.) (one so much) to get what one wants.

JECJ

No information

JECJ requires further investigation.
ends meet どうかうか徳引繋り答段する。

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 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か。
finish ... 终える ((finish one's work, tea; finish doing))
enjoy ... 享楽する, 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 consider, admit and imagine. In the case of (iii), there is no information in consider, admit and imagine. 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.5 Information on gerund structures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SEDJ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enjoy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consider</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>admit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imagine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

(7) [verbs with both structures]

stop 1. v. (1) v.t. ... 停める (= 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えたりしない。
remember I do not remember having (or to have) said anything of the sort. そのよ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いるよ。

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 1 the police 警官 (= policemen). (注意) 此語は複数動詞を伴ふ一例 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 (;). 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.

...
It is generally admitted that *SEDJ* is heavily dependent on *COD* for its description of the entries, 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.

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)住ます, 居住させる (=inhabit).

*COD*

*habit*, 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.

*habit*, 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' and *habit", it is clear that *SEDJ* thoroughly refers to *COD* in terms of the order of major definitions.

| Table 8.1 The order of definitions in *habit* in *SEDJ* and *COD* |
|---|---|
| **SEDJ** | **COD** |
| (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 (riding-habit とも云ふ) | (6) (also riding-h.) lady’s riding-dress |
| **verb** |  |
| (1) 装ふ，着せる (=clothe) | (1) clothe |
| (2) (古)住ます，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)解释する，...の意に取る (=interpret); (逐語的に)翻訳する (=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).
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)解釈する (= analyse)” and “(言語的に)翻訳する (= 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, “解釈を下す, (言語を)解釈する, ...の意に取る (= interpret).” 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.

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.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 解釈を下す (行言を)解釈する, ...の意に取る (= interpret)</td>
<td>(4) expound, interpret, (words, actions)</td>
<td>(1a) put interpretation upon (words, actions), take in particular sense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) (言語的に)翻訳する (= translate)</td>
<td>(2b) translate word for word (translate)</td>
<td>(1b) translate or paraphrase so as to make the grammatical construction clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) (文法的に)解釈する (= analyse)</td>
<td>(2a) analyse (sentence)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) (言語的に)翻訳する (= combine)</td>
<td>(1) combine words with others grammatically</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) (言語的に)翻訳する (= infer)</td>
<td>(3) admit of grammatical analysis</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 一の (= chief, principal)</td>
<td>(4) chief</td>
<td>(1b) principal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 元の (= original)</td>
<td>(7a) original</td>
<td>(1c) primary or original</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 主要の (= leading, important)</td>
<td>(5b) leading</td>
<td>(1d) leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5a) important</td>
<td>(1a) of chief importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) 第一等の (= first-class), 不敵な, 見事な, 見通しの, 優格な (= excellent)</td>
<td>(5c) first-class</td>
<td>(1e) first-class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6b) first-rate</td>
<td>(1f) excellent (often as excl. of approval)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6a) excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) 死を以て罰すべき, 責にかける</td>
<td>(1b) punishable by death</td>
<td>(2a) (of offence, punishment, sentence) involving death-penalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1a) involving loss of life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) (美など)大変な, とえらい (= fatal)</td>
<td>(2b) fatal</td>
<td>(2b) (of error &amp;c.) fatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2a) vitaly injurious</td>
<td>(2c) vital</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) ●命に縛る(?)る, 死刑に縛すべき.</td>
<td>(1a) involving loss of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1b) punishable by death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) ●大変な, 苦(?)い.</td>
<td>(2a) vitally injurious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2b) fatal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) ●首位にある, 第一等の, 極上の, 飛切り(?)の.</td>
<td>(3) standing at the head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) ●主なる, 主なる, 至重なる.</td>
<td>(4) chief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5a) leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5b) leading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5c) first-class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) ●差継させる(差差)差継の差差継の差差.</td>
<td>(6a) excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6b) chief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) ●元の.</td>
<td>(7a) original</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(7b) principal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>COD</th>
<th>POD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 湧ませる, 満れす(= make dry and shrivelled)</td>
<td>(1a) make or become dry &amp; shrivelled (often up)</td>
<td>(1a) make or become dry &amp; shrivelled (often up)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 恥らず(= decay)</td>
<td>(1c) decay</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 腐やす, 腐へす (= languish, decline)</td>
<td>(1b) deprive of or lose vigour or vitality or freshness or importance (often away), decline, languish</td>
<td>(1b) deprive of or lose vigour or freshness (often away)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) (既に死的)萎縮させる (= blight)</td>
<td>(2) blight with scorn &amp;c.</td>
<td>(1c) blast or blight</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(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.

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)
Translation equivalents followed by an asterisk are those which are not adopted in the other dictionary; 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 bale1 or constrict, where both SEDJ and IEDJ very closely follow COD, but translation equivalents adopted in SEDJ are not just copied from IEDJ.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>IEDJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Habit</strong></td>
<td><strong>Habit</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) 常態，癖</td>
<td>(1) 常態，癖</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 性質</td>
<td>(2) 性質，性質</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 體格，體質*</td>
<td>(3) 體格</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) (動・筋)^性質，癖*</td>
<td>(4) (動・筋) 體質)%* 性質</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) (古)衣服，服装(=dress)(特に宗教的仮畳の)</td>
<td>(5) (古)衣服(特に僧侶の服)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) 師人の乗馬服*</td>
<td>(6) 師人の乗馬服*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Example Translation

**Table 8.6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ</th>
<th>IEDJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) 常態，癖</td>
<td>(1) 常態，癖</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) 性質</td>
<td>(2) 性質，性質</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) 體格，體質*</td>
<td>(3) 體格</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) (動・筋)^性質，癖*</td>
<td>(4) (動・筋) 體質)%* 性質</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) (古)衣服，服装(=dress)(特に宗教的仮畳の)</td>
<td>(5) (古)衣服(特に僧侶の服)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) 師人の乗馬服*</td>
<td>(6) 師人の乗馬服*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1. **bale**

- **SEDJ** *n.* 被害，破壊，危難，悲愁（= destruction；苦痛（= pain），悲み，不幸，苦（= woe），悲憐（= misery）
- **COD** *n.* 悪悪，破壊，危難，悲愁

In the case of bale 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 "苦悪" 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.

**[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 absent1 in both dictionaries.

**absent**

- **IEDJ** *a.* **不在の** (absent); **缺乏せざる** (lacking); **虚心の** (arid)
- **SEDJ** *adj.* **不在の** (absent); **留守の** (vacant); **不摂の** (scarcely); **缺乏せざる** (lacking); ほんやりした, さらかなりる

Although "不在せる" and "茫々たる" in SEDJ somehow carry a bit of literary, if not archaic, flavor, other expressions are fully applicable as

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

As you can see, besides the modification of "悲然たる" into the more colloquial "悲然とした," only one expression, "いない," is added, and one expression, "狭亡せる," 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 "敗戦じしめる" instead of "敗戦させる" 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 expressions, 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.* 羞恥ラス, 赤面セス, 負けタス, 負けタス, 侮しフス; [...].

**SEJ** *vt.* 赤面セス, 羞恥ラス, 負けタス, 負けタス, 侮しフス, 侮しフス, 侮しフス.

**IEDJ** *vt.* 羞恥ラス, 赞美セス, 困ラス, 侮しフス, 侮しフス, 侮しフス.

**JECJ** 【動】度を失はむ, 負けをむむ. To be abashed. きまりが悪い（間が悪い）。

**SEDJ** *vt.* 賢しめる, 赤面させる (= put to shame); (恥かして)困

**SEDJ** gives four translation equivalents for **abash**, namely, "恥ちしめる," "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, "恥ちしめる" 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 Eiwa Dai Jiten (The New Standard English-Japanese Dictionary)** (1919) (**MSEJ**) and **Dai Eiwa Jiten (A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary)** (1921)**(**DEJ**).

**MSEJ** *vt.* 賢しめる, 赤面させる, 困らす, 度ヲ失フ, 赤面サセル, キマリノワル.【本冊多く


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 Eiwa Dai Jiten (Sanseido’s Encyclopedic 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** "どぎまぎさせる" 赤面サセル, 赤面セス, 度ヲ失フ, キマリノワル【to feel ~ed = 賢しめる, 侮しフス, キマリノワルイ思ヲスル; [...]].

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
However, since SEED also has ‘すねもの、’, ‘すねものの、’ are new to the entry headed by cantankerous.

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

cantankerous

SEDJ adj. 口の悪い(=quarrelsome), 旋毛（ぐるり）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（ぐるり）曲りの,” and “すねものの” are new to the entry headed by cantankerous.

cantankerous

MoEJ a. 恵（し）メ立テスル, 喧嘩（くらべ）ズキノ, 意地悪（がく）キ, 邪僻ノ, 毒心ノ.
SEJ a. (俗)争論好キノ, 歪角アル, 悪性ノ.
IEDJ a. 気むづかしき, 喧嘩好きの, 毒舌の, 意地悪き.
JECJ [形] 口やかましき, 意地悪さ(入).
MSEJ a. 恵（し）メ立テスル, 喧嘩（くらべ）ズキノ, 意地悪（がく）キ, 邪僻ノ, 毒心ノ.
DEJ [形] [俗] 性悪（がく）ノ, イデワルノ, カタクリナ, 片意地ナ.

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 ㍉（し）メ立テスル, 喧嘩（くらべ）ズキノ, 意地ノワルイ, ツムジマガリノ, 揚性（がく）ノ, 偏昭ナ.

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

The introduction of new translation equivalents like “どざまざさせる,” “口の悪い,” or “すねもののは” 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 Wayakoku 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 Lobbscheid, 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 Fuu 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. 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.

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 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.

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, 習(=settled tendency or practice) [of doing]. 性質(=mental constitution); 體格, 體質(=bodily constitution); (動・植物)習性, 習性(=settled tendency or practice) (特に宗教的); 妻人乗馬服 (riding-habit とも云ふ).
2. v.t. 装ふ, 着せる(=clothe); (染)住まはす, 住むさせる(=inhabit).

**IEDJ**

habit n. ●習慣, 習, 性癖, 性質, 體質, (植物・動物)習性, (衣服)衣服 (特に僧侶の服), 妻人乗馬服.
habit v.t. ●装ふ, 着る, ......衣服を著けさせる, ......住むさせる.

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."

併しながら本書が創立一帯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（ディ）（fine shade of meaning）を有する驚
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 is the range of synonymous translation equivalents as is done in SEDJ, in which it must be clearly indicated as to which translation equivalents are related to the synonymous expression in question. In SEDJ, if 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.** 不解構性，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，永続すること (= 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 “永続すること,” 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，顕著な，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 “顕著な” 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，気品ある，威厳ある (= stately)；高貴の (= noble)，貴覇の。

Similar to the case of “eminent” in *conspicuous*, in the entry headed by *stately* SEDJ gives “威厳ある (= 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, “品のある,” “気品ある,” and “威厳ある,” or whether it is only concerned with its immediate neighbor “威厳ある.” 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), 薄く撤がる (= pervasive by tenuity); 微妙な (= insidious), 捕捉し難い (= hard to grasp), 名状し難い (= hard to define), 神秘な (= mysterious); 敏感な (= finely sensitive), 鈍敏な (acute), 微に入り細を穿つ (= skilled in niceties), 精妙な (= ingenious), 巧緻な (= ingeniously minute or elaborate), 巧に工夫した (= skillfully devised), 狡智な (= 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) / 鍛錬し難い (= hard to grasp) / 神秘な (= mysterious) / 鈍敏な (acute) / 巧緻な (= ingenious) / 狡智な (= cunning)

**POD:** 名状し難い (= 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) / 薄く撤がる (= pervasive by tenuity)
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,” “巧敏な,” 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POD</th>
<th>Throw, fling, drop, (arch. exc. as below; [...])</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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. 破れる, 破る, 割れる ([...]): 破れる, もぎれる, (つぶりと)切れる, (はっきりと)折れる.
2. v.o. 割す, 割る, 割る, 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 “一般の意味” 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEDJ*</th>
<th>POD**</th>
<th>COD***</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) [回転・旋轉]まわる, 回転する (= rotate)</td>
<td>(1) move partly or completely or several times round</td>
<td>(1) move (t. &amp; i.) on or as on axis, give rotary motion to, receive such motion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) [転換反復]転もる (= roll), のうり返もる (= wriggle)</td>
<td>(2) roll or wriggle</td>
<td>(2) execute (somersault &amp;c.) with rotary motion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) [旋す・旋す・まくる]</td>
<td>(4) place with the opposite or another side up</td>
<td>(3) change from one side to another, invert, reverse, (fig.) revolve mentally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) [方向転換]向を変へる, 向き変へる, (...の方へ)向ける, 向く.</td>
<td>(3) face or make face in another or a specified direction</td>
<td>(4) give new direction to, take new direction, adapt, be adapted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) [分離・個解]外らす (= deflect), 分転する, 正面を覆える (= diverge).</td>
<td>(5) diverge</td>
<td>(5) move to other side of, go round, flank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) [仮・懸願]願うとする (= have recourse) = to.</td>
<td>(6) have recourse to</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) [変化・変換]へむる (= change), 翻譯する (= translate) [from, to, into].</td>
<td>(7) subject to or undergo a change of substance or form or quality [from, to, into]</td>
<td>(7) change (t. &amp; i.) in nature, form, condition, &amp;c., change for the worse, (cause to) become</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) [...にする (= make), ...に於る (= become)]</td>
<td>(8) (with adj. or n. as compl.) make or become so-&amp;-so</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(9) [船舶で扱う (= shape in lath), 恰好よく作る]</td>
<td>(9) shape in lath</td>
<td>(8) shape (object) in lathe, (of material) lend itself (... to) to treatment in lathe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(9) give (esp. elegant) form to</td>
<td>(9) give (esp. elegant) form to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>(6) cause to go, send, put</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

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 signposts to 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...
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%)\textsuperscript{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 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..."

### Table 8.8 Contents of the sample material

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pages</th>
<th>Coverage</th>
<th>Headwords</th>
<th>Synonyms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>A, a — abbey</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101-102</td>
<td>bailiff — balloonvine</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201-202</td>
<td>cant — capitolian</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301-302</td>
<td>consolidatory — construe</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401-402</td>
<td>differential — dilemma</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501-502</td>
<td>erudite — -esque</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>601-602</td>
<td>fordo — forestall</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>701-702</td>
<td>gymnkhana — hack</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>801-802</td>
<td>indisposition — inductile</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>901-902</td>
<td>lavish — lay</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1001-1002</td>
<td>memento — mercenary</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>1101-1102</td>
<td>occasional — Octoberist, Octobrist</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>72</td>
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<td>phase — phlebotic, phlebolithic</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>38</td>
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<td>1301-1302</td>
<td>puerile — pulpit</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>101</td>
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<td>1401-1402</td>
<td>Rheidian — rhumb</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>35</td>
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<tr>
<td>1501-1502</td>
<td>sea-dragon — sea-monster</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>66</td>
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<td>1601-1602</td>
<td>sodden — soldie</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>121</td>
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<tr>
<td>1701-1702</td>
<td>substance — subversive</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1801-1802</td>
<td>toddy — tommol</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901-1902</td>
<td>untitled — unwarrantable</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001-2002</td>
<td>withal — wittily</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,599</td>
<td>1,422</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 8.9 Sources of synonyms

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

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.
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(はう)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**; 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.

### 9. Illustrated Examples


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 "(i)", 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 町 and 1 are useful to separate
example phrases or sentences from one another. The headwords in ex-
amples are not highlighted as they are in 丑り and 田EC. 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:

| glad | [glæd, glæd] adj. (gladder, -dest) うれしい, 喜んで | Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (8) | 241 |

The phrase (述語用法にのみ用ひるら) ((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, 嫌らしきな, 欣然たる
( glad looks); (消息・事件など)喜びを興へ, 喜ばす, 喜ばしい (glad
tidings; glad events)); (自然などの)難いてゐる (= bright), 美しい
(= beautiful) (glad season of spring; glad morning and evening)).

The phrase (述語用法にのみ用ひるら) 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 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 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 [abiliti] n. 出来ること (= being able); 能力 (= competency); (履 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 ablest < L habilis deft, cf. able]

(SEDJ)

ability, n. Sufficient power, being able, (you doubt my a. to do it?); cleverness, mental faculty, (his great a., manifold a.). [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

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

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 (顔面角 (鼻腔より耳に至る線と鼻腔より顔に至る線とが成す角度)).

  (SEDJ)

  — facial angle, 頭角 (鼻腔より耳に至る線と鼻腔より顔に至る線とより成す角).

  (IEDJ)

The Japanese translation equivalent for the compound is only slightly different in SEDJ and IEDJ: 頭面角 and 頭角, 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)の前でしつらえがける。

  (SEDJ)

  The presence of these men abashed the poor child. 此等の人は居たところで可憐な子供は差支えなかった。

  (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*:

- (SEDJ) I am convinced (or sure) of the fact. = I am convinced that it is so. (SEDJ)
- (JECJ) I am convinced of (am assured of — am sure of) the fact — I am convinced that it is so. (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. (SEDJ)
- My tongue failed me. (SEDJ)

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*. The set phrase “from the word *go*” may have been quoted from *Standard2*. In *SEDJ*, the label (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 (American colloquial) 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. *accrued*  
   - 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) [Direction], (2) [Destination], (3) [Purpose], (4) [Results/Effects], (5) [Opposition], (6) [Harmony/Agreement], (7) [Comparison/Contrast], (8) [Addition/Combination], (9) [Attribute], (10) [Accompaniment]. In part B, to-infinitives are divided into the following three categories: (1) [used as nouns], (2) [used as adjectives], (3) [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 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 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 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) [前置詞を伴ふ形] (idioms that include prepositions) and (6) [副詞を伴ふ形] (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 in SEDJ and COD

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

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 alphabetical 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* = 帳音機 [希腊语 (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 SeMen* (The Rising Generation) Sugai contributes notes “Kyoinitsu 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 \( [\text{par-} = \text{para-} \text{ (between)} + \text{en-} \text{ (in)} + \text{-thesis} \text{ (placing);}} \]
\[ \text{Note: \{ \ldots \text{meaning "to put something within range of a definite place"} \} } \]
COD [med. L, f. Gk parenthesis f. parentithemi put in beside \( (\text{PARA}^{-1} + \text{EN}^{-2}) + \text{-tithemi place} \) ]
SEDJ [\text{para}^{-1} + \text{-en} \text{ in } + \text{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 prefactory [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 Simri 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 Etyymology) (1921), Kanzaburo Kubo’s Gogen Hon’i Tango Ankijiten (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 Hattatsu niyoru Tango no Oboekata (A Philological Study of the English Vocabulary) (1927), and Minekazu Miyata and Shojoiro Sano’s Etyymology 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, 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 inflame + -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 (*SEDJ*6) 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 combinatorial type of his first and second.

### Type 1: Pain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COD</th>
<th>[f. OF <em>peine</em> f. L <em>poena</em> penalty]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>SEDJ</em></td>
<td>[OF <em>peine</em> &lt; L <em>poena</em> penalty]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>SEDJ</em>6</td>
<td>[((1280)) <em>paine</em>, <em>peine</em> &lt;(OF)F <em>peine</em> &lt; L <em>poenam</em> penalty, pain □Gk (Dorian) <em>poind</em>, (Attic) <em>poind</em> expiation, penalty ← IE <em>kweie</em> - to pay, atone: ⇒ <em>pine]</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Type 2: Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COD</th>
<th>[vb partly.f. OF <em>tablær</em>] OF, f. L <em>tabula</em> board, tablet, &amp; c.]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>SEDJ</em></td>
<td>[OF &lt; L <em>tablæ</em> board, tablet]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>SEDJ</em>6</td>
<td>[ME □(O)F ~ &lt; L <em>tablæ</em> board, tablet ⇒ OE <em>tablæ, tabule</em> □L]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 article[5] 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]

*Sedj*6 [[[1566]] □ML *factotum ← L fac ((imper.) ← facere ‘to DO3 + totum (neut.) ← totus all]]

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


*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

English又はAnglais (=Englishman)の土人読ちYengeesからも云ふ

SEDJ6

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]


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 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" (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 Century 2 provide etymology in far more detail, and dictionaries like WNID or Standard 2, 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.

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-

(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*


*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 | filly |
| 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.


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 ((AI)) 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.

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


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.

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

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, Jūjirō 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 *abbai(t)*. The forms in parentheses such as (-lely) 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edition</th>
<th>Content (pg.)</th>
<th>Total number of pages (pg.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>A conversion table for weights and measures (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth</td>
<td>Foreign phrases and quotations</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 5

1) **SEED** (1928) is considered to have been a completely revised and enlarged edition of Sansuido'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*), edited by *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, ... that has dropped out of use ... except in writing of a poetical or definitely literary cast'; as examples he gave 'chilly 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)

Section 6

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, 1200–01, 1300–01, 1400–01, 1500–01, 1600–01, 1700–01, 1800–01, 1900–01, and 2000–01.

2) 6) Although we mark "SA0)4041111" in **SEJ**, **IEDJ** as "v.t.", **SEDJ** does not change in its second edition.

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

Section 7

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 **Ioamami Eito Dai Jiten** (Ioamami's *Comprehensive English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1970) together with the second edition of **COD**. In the discussion on the policy of ordering 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 "(文法上の解釈出来ます)" 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 "騙れる, 唆ける, 引く, 引ける, 引く, 引ける (=false vigour or freshness, decay)."

6) Although we mark "にくい乗り馬" in **SEDJ** and "にくい乗り馬" 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 **IJDE** 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**.

Section 8

1) Although **SEDJ** uses Roman numerals (I, II, III, ...) or a combination of Roman numerals and English alphabet letters (a, b, c, ...) to order 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 **Ioamami Eito Dai Jiten** (Ioamami's *Comprehensive English-Japanese Dictionary*) (1970) together with the second edition of **COD**. In the discussion on the policy of ordering 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.

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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 "にくい乗り馬" to **SEDJ**, **Eiwa Sokai Jukugo Dai Jiten** as one of its translation equivalents for the headword "cantankerous", the synonym tagged onto the array of "にくい乗り馬" of "にくい乗り馬", "にくい乗り馬", "にくい乗り馬", together with "ill-natured" in **SEDJ**, **SEDJ** also gives "にくい乗り馬" to the entry headed by "ill-natured", so that it is probably the case that **SEDJ** borrows the expression from **DEJ** in the course of tagging "ill-natured" as a synonym to the headword "cantankerous". As for other expressions, namely, "どきざさぎさせる", "すねものの", and "口の悪い", **SEDJ** gives "どきざさぎさせる" to **profound**, and "どきざさぎさせる" 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 "にくい乗り馬" in **cantankerous**, we cannot locate these translation equivalents in the entries headed by corresponding synonyms in **MoEJ**, **SeJ**, **IEDJ**, **IECJ**, **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" of *make* in **POD**.

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

Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (8)
13) Interestingly enough, COD 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.


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

Section 9

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 1990.

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:


He writes as a conclusion, “The Fowler’s are so prudent that they seem rather hasty in deciding many words to be of ‘etymology dubious.’ 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” (1952: 199).

DICTIONARIES

(The notes in the parentheses at the end of each reference show the publication information of the references the work actually consulted. The original English titles are given in parentheses, while the translated titles are in square brackets.)

Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (8)


REFERENCES

(The notes in the parentheses at the end of each reference show the publication information of the references the work actually consulted. The original English titles are given in parentheses, while the translated titles are in square brackets.)


Co., and Fukuin Printing Co. (Reprinted edition, 6 vols., 1985, Meicho Fukuukai.)


Fukahara, Rintaro. 1937. Kuregashi Sensei no Kyoshitsu [Classes of Yoshihisa Okamura].

*Eigo Seinen (The Rising Generation).* Vol. 76, No. 8: 266.


Tokyo: Kenkyusha.


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.

序

およそ誰に限らず、外語の教授者として長い歳月を度をの上人と
なった者に於いて、教授の技術に於いて、何となく、自分の
語学を基礎として取り扱うが、教授の語学の間に見出されずに居
るもので、一握りした語句を語学するとき、それを何とかして未熟
に近い文字に作り上げた若い人々の真に一番心がけ、心の内に固く
留めさるものです。故にこれは、慶は自分自身の事が我に付けぬ。何
かく自分の場合に、この事が頭かかったのです。それで教授生徒
の二十年を経て今年の初年を越えても、自分の前後に居た人々には
置かれ語句の英語を語ることを、今から明べば足を急したりにし
ても、相違に起って来るような心配が去る。之に著者の語句の
中から、最も語句を思ふものを揃え加へ、その全体の著者を、一音一
字主義の文字で表現し、且つ邦文の間に時をも観察しつつ改訂した上、
各品の品の本を示し談ていたなら、新設のそれを持る良倉考察が、
文句の英語に生するものに信じたためであった。それで相延夫氏の助
力を得て、藤原本をつつ改訂を終めた間、可なり大仕様の
英語の改訂の考察を揃えた事を承知はあったが、不幸にして種々の
事情に困り、法を懸けに至らぬ時には至らぬ事。

藤原数年後の国に足を踏み出し、研究から新規の英語を調べ
と共に出来ることの有ることに図る故、事実その事実の知識を密
に学びました。著者が語学を生する事の困難を受
き、東方史に於て自己の事実の知識の一部を試験した実現であるこ
の事実によって、自己の内に於いて、教授の他に共に力ある人々機を重し
て、新探考を潤する前に於ての一切の工夫を発表し、充分の考慮を顧ん
で教授生徒の事に着手したのです。 探考、語句改訂、築三年年に反
つて、この事実に深根なる興味を有するが故に大切なる興味を具足し
て居るる数氏が、各自の教授を始め自らを本末に於て出
した結果、ここに本書は既に完成の際を来されたのである。

著して本書を大成に支えられ、非常の努力を経られられた下には、
研究社が小大なる存在を我が出版界に現したのは、昭和二十年前でありました。栄栄常に自らを立つ出世論を巡って、年々江戸の同様を繰り、街角に喫茶を営むが故に、今やその主要事実なる英和英仏文の出版を訴えて、発行の一角に重要なる地歩を占めるに至りました。故に創立記念の年に到り、編集を更に新しい正長に立ち、日々多文の間に一念を奪って、先づこの辞典を刊行致します。言ふまでもなく、辞典は言語学の資産であって、英和乃至英仏辞典は東西文化の根子である。特に日本大辞典の文化は言語学において、海に関することの多いものがあり、読むその辞典は包容可能の複雑を問わず、編篡の面に於ても豁々巧明を示して言ふます。然に、我が国の辞典が十數年前の刊行にかかる時の『コンサイス・イクスアード辞典』に比しては、著しく劣るものを、且つ、日進月歩の英学界の進歩に一致して本を刊行して居る事は、日本社会を増幅し苦しもして居る昨今を顕著に示し、誠に感謝を示すを得ます。
Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (8)

Photograph 6. Editorial principle (1/2)

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

である。本書の出版が少し遅いもので、その程度まで成書したかは、他の項目までに、一
で大幅な改稿の作業に手が忙しいである。

IV. 翻訳の採用に続いて 本書の実用目的で翻訳の採用を検討し行われなかった
のであるが、本書ではその立場する立場から手を悩ませて得られなかった。

T. 前面の装飾などで改稿の必要を感じさせるものであり、文末に
頗る努力を払って改稿するものである。読者が本書を意義深いものと
する一方で改稿の必要を感じさせることを覚えている。本書を
N.E. D. 及び E.C.D. をはじめ、Skeat, Weakley の大辞典や Standard, Webster
等の英大辞典は参考にした所である。

内容の解説

1. 出所に最も適するもの 一字順。一般の英単語を立脚のアラベック語
列（alphabet）とし、英語の前に菲滴の日本語（英語のアラベック
列（alphabet）と同様）として、後者は英語に用いる時、後者（index）に
するが省略する。

2. 令名、著名、図名（如く）

3. 參考文献

引用文献

Photograph 6. Editorial principle (1/2)

Photograph 7. Editorial principle (2/2) and Guide to the dictionary (1/5)
Photograph 8. Guide to the dictionary (2/5)

Photograph 9. Guide to the dictionary (3/5)
Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (8)

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

Photograph 11. Guide to the dictionary (5/5)
Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (8)

Photograph 12. List of phonetic symbols

Photograph 13. List of abbreviations
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.)
遠い思い出

小島義郎

私の傘寿を記念して論文集を出して下さるということで、この上ない名誉なことと感激している。私としては少しでも長生きをして辞書のお役に立つよう努力をしなくてならない。

私の生まれたのは昭和3年でまだ「昭和の大正」と呼ばれていた頃のことである。ちょうどその年は昭和天皇の即位のご大典に当たっており、クラスメートにも「昭三」とか「大典」という名が多かった。

私は父の勤めの関係で長野県で生まれて間もなく九州の長崎に引っ越したので、長野県のことは全く記憶にない。私は長崎のはずれの浦上という所で育った。そこから市の中心の学校まで市電で通った。浦上にも学校はあったが、母のこだわりで師範学校の付属小学校まで通ったのである。

長崎は自然が美しく、人情も細やかで私にとってはなつかしい故郷という感じが強かった。私がいたのは浦上天主堂をすぐ斜め下に眺める小高い丘の上である。そのあたりは原爆記念像を中心にした平和公園となっている。付近は有名なクリスチャン村で、毎日早朝から下の通りをミサに通う下駄の音がカランコロンとひびくのを聞いて育った。

小学校に入学したのが昭和10年で、それから6年生の1学期までは平和で楽しい生活を送った。もちろん支那事変を境として軍部の勢いは強まっていったが、まあ何とか平和な生活と言えると思う。

そして混乱の中に中学校は4年で卒業ということになり、私は当時の東京外事専門学校（＝東京外国語学校）を受験した。戦争は末期であったがまだ続いていた。私は当時医者になるべく旧制高校の理化乙種を受験するように家族に言っていたが、私は「戦争」という雰囲気になじめず、とくに英米語の文学作品にあこがれていた。また同時に東京外語出身の担当教師山川喜久男先生、東京文理大出身の芹沢栄先生、同じく勝澤泰三先生の応援があったからである。

私が入学した当時はまだ戦争中であったが、やがて昭和20年の8月に終戦となり、やっとほっと一息ついたのであった。空襲も灯火管制もない世の中に戻った。しかし、それからは食糧不足に悩まされた。東京外語も食糧体験と称して長い休暇があった。また私たちの学力が大変落ちていたので、それを補うためにあえて Kings Crown Reader の5年生用のおさらいまでしなくてはならなかった。

私は昭和23年の卒業で、その年の担当の先生には岩崎民平先生、安藤一郎先生、小川芳男先生、大谷敏治先生がおられるが、皆亡くなられた。現在は桜木隆一先生のみが健在である。

私たちのクラスメートに竹林滋君という人がいた。彼は教練の授業を欠席して留年した人であるが、我々とは比較にならない秀才である。岩崎先生のもとで英音学を習いたいということであったが、岩崎先生に認められて辞書の手伝いをしていた。

やがて、3年間はまったく同じ生活に過ぎ去って、私は母校の教師になった。まだ連合軍による占領は続いていたが、世の中も少しは落ち着いてきた頃である。

なお私の姓について一言言っておかねばならない。私は母方の姓をついだので「小島」という名になっているが、東京外語以前は「西原」という姓だった。

昭和26年に占領軍の肝煎りでガリオア（GARIOA）という奨学金の募集があった。これは Government Aid and Relief in Occupied Areas の略で、日本は
しめ占領地の若者にアメリカを見てもらおうという試みの第3回目である。因みにこれは占領が終わると移行してフルブライト奨学金となった。これに私は大した自信もなく応募した。そして合格したのである。この合格が私の大きな転機となった。私の23歳の時である。

私は当時有名なミシガン大学を望んだが希望は入れられず、テキサス州のオースティン（Austin）の州立テキサス大学で学ぶことになった。私はヘイドン教授（Dr. Haden）の指導のもとにTrager & Smith: An Outline of English Structureを読みはじめた。はじめはなじめなかったが、やがてTrager & Bloch: Syllabic Phonemes of English、そしてLeonard Bloomfield: Languageと読み進むうちにすっかり構造主義言語学（Structural Linguistics）のとりこになってしまった。この10年間の言語学の進歩から我々はすでに取り残されてしまったことに気がついた。同時にC. C. Friesの教授法の本を読み、ますますその感を強く持った。私はこれからこれで新しい分野を開拓しようとという気になったのである。

帰国後は南山大学、日本大学、早稲田大学と職場は転々としたが、文学作品よりも語学的なものに興味をもった。やがて10年ほどしてから私のもとに岩崎先生から辞書の改訂の仕事がまい込んだ。私は辞書の勉強も外国語教育の一環であると考えてお引受けしたのである。爾来40年、私には辞書ではとくに和英辞典が魅力的だった。辞書に対する考え方もいろいろあるが、私が岩崎先生のおそばで勉強したものはまさに私の考えに沿うものであったと確信している。
「会員研究業績」

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小島義郎教授追悼

小島君の死を悼む

竹林滋

岩崎研究会の達の一員とも言うべき小島義郎君が3月2日に急逝された。私には落ち込んでしばらくは仕事ができなかった。彼と私とは旧制の東京外語の同級生であり、また岩崎研究会の設立・運営・研究会場の確保・機関誌の発行などで随分と苦労した仲である。特に思い出が深いのは1965年に恩師の岩崎民平先生の喜寿をお祝いするために同誌を誘って学習辞書を作って差し上げたということになる。小島君は本文の執筆のほかに文法解説を担当し、重要な解説にはいわゆる「5文型」による動詞型の表示を行なった。この辞書は『研究社ユニオン英和辞典』（1972）（後に『ライトハウス英和辞典』と改名）として世に出て高い評価を受けたが、それにはこの「5文型」の表示が大きく貢献している。しかし筆者すべき業績は彼のアイディアを基に作られた『ライトハウス和英辞典』（1984）で、この辞書は日本語と英語における発想の相違を示すなど、対照言語学的に見て従来の和英辞典とは比較にならないほど進歩したもので、私が刊行記念パーティーで述べたように「いわば爬虫類が哺乳類に進化したようなもの」である。この辞書は我が国の和英辞典の歴史において燦然と輝く存在となろう。

小島君は在学中からクラスのトップとして目立っていたが、若い人たちに見習ってもらいたいのはむしろ卒業後の彼の努力である。彼は卒業したあと米国へ留学し、当時流行していたアメリカ構造言語学などの新しい言語学や英語学を身に着けて帰国し、その後都立の高校で教えた。小島君が偉いのはその後も普通の高校教師より遠かにレベルの高い勉強を続けたことである。大学に移っても中身の深い授業をこなしながらも多数の著書を刊行し、年に何本もの論文を執筆した。ある時彼は私に「今年は流行作家並みに論文を書いた。」と冗談めかしに言ったことがある。彼は教授や助教授になるために論文を書いたのではない、その後大著『英語辞書の変遷——英・米・日本を併せ見て』も完成させ、もちろん蓄積がなければこんな離れ業ができるものではない。

ただ残念なことはこれが彼の体に相当の負担を強いたことである。彼自身が告白したように、毎晩のように煙草で集中力を高め、アルコールで馬力をつけ
て頑張ったという。それでもしばらくは元気であった。しかし特に奥さんが亡くくなってからはめっきり元気がなくなって、電話口で私に「喧嘩相手がいなくて寂しい」と漏らすようになった。昨年夏に彼から急に入院すると電話があった。あんなに嫌っていた病院に入ることは、と私は驚いて増田君と見舞いに行ったが、かなり弱っている様子ではあったがこんなに早く、とは思わなかった。
「小島君、もう少し待っていろよ。この次は私が行くからな。」

小島義郎先生を偲ぶ
増田秀夫

小島先生に初めてお会いしたのは英語学概論の授業の時で、かれこれ和年前のことになります。英語学概論の講義は先生が米国テキサス大学で学んだ構造言語学を骨格にしたもので、BloomfieldがLai智四げで示した言語観の説明やその後出現した変形生成文法の考え方を分かりやすく教えていただきましたが、Lewis CarrollのThrough the Looking-Glassに出てくるJabberwockyの一節を例に英語の統語構造や語葉構造を説明された授業は非常に新鮮で、それまで何となく英文学を専攻しようかと考えていた私が英語統語論に興味を向けたきっかけになったものでした。その後先生の辞書のお手伝いをさせていただき40年間もご指導を仰ぐことになりました。

先生から岩崎研究会を紹介され、連れて行ってもらったのもその頃です。当時の例会は岩崎民平先生の自宅でお開きして開かれていました。小島先生は岩崎研究会を創設したお一人で、副会長として竹林会長とともに会の発展に長い関与されてきたことは皆さまのご承知のとおりです。例会はその後勤労福祉会館、家学共進会館、立教教育会館など場所は変わりましたが、先生は竹林先生、松田先生、中尾先生などともに欠かさず出席され私たちの指導にあたってこられました。岩崎研究会夏の旅行の常連でもありました。先生は良師にウイスキーのボトルを持参され、夕食後皆さんがともに夜遅くまで学問的な話や先生の外語の学生時代のお話などさまざまな話をかつて楽しい時を過ごされていたものでした。

小島先生の業績は多岐にわたっていますが、敢えて分類すると辞書学に関するもの、意味論、英和辞典・和英辞典の編集になると思います。辞書学に関する著書の中でも『英語辞書の変遷－英・米・日本を併せて見ること』は英語辞書の誕生から現代にいたる主要な辞書を網羅的に考察した大著で、先生の辞書研究の集大成ともいうべき優れた英語辞書学です。『日本語の意味 英語の意味』は日英比較意味論の名著で、先生はこれによってJACET賞を受賞しました。またNHKのラジオ講座「基礎英語」の講師として活躍され、この放送で英語を学んだ人々に数え切れない程いると思われます。

しかし先生の何より大きな業績は英和辞典・和英辞典の編著として日本語の辞書の質を飛躍的に高めたことにあると思います。特に『研究社ユニオン和英辞典』は我が国の和英辞典に革命をもたらした辞書です。「英和辞典でひいた英語をもう一度英和辞典でひき直さなくてもよいような和英辞典を作ること」がユニオン和英辞典の目的であり、そのために『訳語の意味・用例・文法・語法・日英比較・背景等』の面において従来のものとはまったく次元のちがう編集をしなくてはならない」と先生は「まえがき」に書かれています。この方針は『ニュオン和英辞典』の後継となる最新版の『ライトハウス英和辞典』『ルミナス和英辞典』に引き継がれています。先生はこの他にも『研究社新英和大辞典』第6版の編者、『ライトハウス英和辞典』『ルミナス和英辞典』などの編著者をなされています。

先生が編者を務められたもう一冊の特筆すべき辞書は三省堂から出版された『英語語義語源辞典』です。この辞書は見出し語の意味を省略し、それぞれ展開するさまざまな語義をその型として派生的な意味の流れを説明する方式の英和辞典で制作に20年を費やした苦労の辞書です。先生の遺された辞書の精神を引き継ぎ、さらにより辞書に含まれることが私たちの使命であり、それによって先生の辞書と辞書にかけた熱意をいつまでも残したいと思います。いまはただ先生のご冥福をお祈りします。

小島義郎先生と『ライトハウス英和辞典』の思い出
高野嘉明

18歳で上京するまでに、2,3度しか外国人を実際に見たことがない状態で佐渡島に育った私は、1971年（昭和46年）の4月に、日本語と英語の発音体系が異るものの、意味論、英和辞典・和英辞典の編集になると思います。辞書学に関する著書の中でも『英語辞書の変遷－英・米・日本を併せて見ること』は英語辞書の誕生から現代にいたる主要な辞書を網羅的に考察した大著で、先生の辞書研究の集大成ともいうべき優れた英語辞書学です。『日本語の意味 英語の意味』は日英比較意味論の名著で、先生はこれによってJACET賞を受賞しました。またNHKのラジオ講座「基礎英語」の講師として活躍され、この放送で英語を学んだ人々に数え切れない程いると思われます。
なることも知らずに、小島義郎先生がいらっしゃった早稲田大学教育学部の英語英文学科に入学した。その時から40年近く経っているが、現在も小島先生のお陰で英語を教え、辞書のお手伝いをさせていただけるのも、ひとえに小島先生のお陰だと思っている。

本来ならば、私は小島先生との深い繋がりなしに、在学中に必修の英語学概論を習った先生という程度の認識で卒業するはずであった。しかし、人生には不思議な縁というものがあるものである、当時、語法に関心を持っていた私は、3、4年次のゼミは小島先生ではなく、卒論の提出も別の先生に決まった。ところが、その予定の先生がご病気で急逝され、急速に、卒論の先生を変更しなければならなくなった。その亡くなられた先生に提出を予定していた学生は、私を除いてみな当時の学科主任の先生に卒論をお願いしたのであるが、私だけで小島先生にお願いをした。その頃から、小島先生にいろいろな話をお聞きしたり、何かと相談にのっていただいていたりするようになった。

学部を卒業した後、すぐには大学院に進学しなかった私は、その時小島先生が教頭をなさっていた早稲田実業学校で非常勤講師をさせていただき、同時に、研究社でも、その頃に初版の作業が始まったばかりの『ライトハウス和英辞典』のお手伝いをアルバイトとしてさせていただいた。

この『ライトハウス和英辞典』のお手伝いは、私にとっては計り知れないほど大きな財産となった。初めは見出し語選定の作業のお手伝いであったが、これは短期間で、その後はまず校正の仕事であった。校正をしながら何か気付いたことがあったらゲラの余白に鉛筆で書いておくように、ということだったので、お言葉に甘えて、校正作業は遂ながりであったが、気が付いたことを速速なく書かせていただいた。個様なもの書き込みがほとんどだったと思うが、たまに私が指摘したものが採用された時には天に向かう心地であった。

この辞書が完成するまでには何年かかかり、何度までゲラが出たか、などは覚えていないが、中に私は「し」の項の一部を除き、すべてのゲラに目を通させていただいた。特にネイティブ・チェックを読んでいた、日本語と英語の相違について多くのことを学ばせてもらった。また、この和英辞典の作業が始まった頃にはまだ書名が決まってなくて、途中で書名の募集が研究社の社内で行われたと記憶している。その際に、辞書の書名には「ラ」行の文字が入っているものがよく売られる、と編集部の人から聞いた覚えがある。

『ライトハウス和英辞典』の第2版から私は執筆者として参加させていただいたのですのであるが、初版では編集サイドの作業の一端を経験させていただき、2版以降は執筆・校閲サイドの仕事に関わらせていただいている。『ライトハウス和
小島義郎教授略歴

1928年（昭和3年）長野市に生まれる。
1948年 東京外事専門学校（現東京外国語大学）英米科卒業
同年、都立文京新制高等学校に奉職
1951-52年 ガリオア奨学生として米テキサス州立大学大学院に留学
その後、都立竹早高等学校、都立文京高等学校教諭を経て
1960年 南山大学専任講師
1962年 日本大学理工学部専任講師
1965年 早稲田大学専任講師（教育学部本属）
1967年 同助教授（現准教授）
1972年 同教授
1994年 同退職・早稲田大学名誉教授
2009年3月2日 虚血性心不全のため逝去。80歳。

主な業績

辞書『研究社ユニオン英和辞典』初版・第2版、研究社、編者
『ライトハウス和英辞典』初版・第5版、研究社、編者
『カレッジライトハウス英和辞典』研究社、編者
『ルミナス和英辞典』初版・第2版、研究社、編者
『研究社新英和大辞典』第6版、研究社、編者
『英語語義語源辞典』三省堂、編者
著書『まちがえやすい英語』日本放送出版協会
『英語語義語源辞典』三省堂
『知らないと損をする英語辞書の使い方選び方』実業之日本社
『日本語の意味 英語の意味』講談社
『英語辞書物語』（上下2巻）ELEC
『コミュニケーション研究』岩波書店
『英語辞書の変遷——英・米・日本を併せて見て』研究社

編集後記 悲しみが重なるが、小島君の追悼号にももうひとつ悲報を加えなければならない。ハワイ語、ポリネシア語、マオリ語などの研究家として知られる音声学者の安倍勇さん（東京工業大学名誉教授）が亡くなられた。安倍さんは小島君や私の先輩で、東京外語を昭和16年に卒業されており、『ジーニアス英和辞典』の小西友七さんとは同級生である。安倍さんから昨年の初めごろ論文が私のところに郵送されてきた。添えられていたお便りによると、至急活字にして頂けないだろうかということだった。文面から察すると病状はかなり進行しているのではないかと推察された。幸い研究会や研究社の方の好意で至急論文の形に整えて20部ほどの抜刷をご本人にお送りしたところ、非常にお喜びのご様子であった。しかし残念なことにその後まもなく安倍さんはこの論文のLEXICONへの掲載を見ることなく他界された。

安倍さんと小島君とは戦後のGARIOA留学生当時からの友人である。安倍さんの遺稿が小島君の傘寿の追悼号の巻頭論文になるとは悲しい偶然である。それにしても最後まで論文に手を入れ、ついに力尽きた安倍さんの学者としての良さには頭が下がる。心からお二人のご冥福をお祈りしたい。

（2009年3月22日 S.T.）
は小島義郎教授の傘寿の記念号になるのでぜひ充実したものにしたい」とあった。今号No. 38は、充実した内容にはなったと思うが、諸種の事情が絡み、LEXICONの歴史には異例の刊行の遅れという事態を招来した。その結果、副会長小島先生のご生前に本号を捧げて傘寿をお祝いすることが叶わなくなった。かえずがえすも残念なことである。「小島先生、まことに申し訳ありません」と申し上げてご冥福をお祈りしたい。

先生のことでも、個人的によく思い浮かべるのは、岩崎研究会の夏の旅行の折のことである。夕食後、雑談の輪のなかでウイスキー壺を傍らに置き、腕まくりされた浴衣姿でいつまでもいつまでも快活に話をリードされていた。（2009年3月28日 N.H.）