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English and Māori Lexicon in Contact in New Zealand

ISAMU ABE

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-

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: *waiū* (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 wāhi waiū* (= 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 /ā, ē, ī, ō, 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, ʃ, ʒ] 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 Mātāwai 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 *pīriti* (= 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: *wīru*. 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: *wakarererangii* (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. (RDMM2) lists ME: *aropereina*.

E: *June* — ME: *Iune* — 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(ə)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'ō-rē, mou'rē, also māōrē, and LPD2 has [mauri] as well as the original [maori]. 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 Tangarewa were shown to the public at the Tokyo National Museum at Ueno, Tokyo. The title of this exhibition in Japanese was 「マーオリ——楽園の神々——」。 This 「マーオリ」 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: *poutapeta* (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 Poutapeta* 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 hāngi 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 ⇒ *rorohiko* (brain + electricity)

cancel ⇒ *whakakore* (*whaka-* = cause ~ to vb. + *kore* = zero/nothing)
ROM ⇒ *mahara pīwai* (remember + continuously/permanently)
cursor ⇒ *kaitiri* (*kai-* {agent noun} + *tiri* = place one by one). Also *pehu* (spear/dart)

It may be noticed that contrary to our expectations, Māori coin words where we expect transliterations from English.²⁾

EDITOR'S NOTES

This is the late Professor Abe's posthumous paper. Grateful thanks are due to Hiroko Saito and Naoko Hamakura who read through the paper, corrected typographical errors, and supplemented left-out reference information.

NOTES

- 1) Tūrei's account appears in *Ngā Kōrero a Reweti Kohere Mā* (= *The Writings of Reweti Kohere* and others) as *He waka Pakepakeha* (= White people's ships). This book, including Tūrei's account, is written in Māori throughout.
- 2) In this miscellany, grammatical aspects of English and Māori in contact have not been described, our primary concern being restricted to the lexicon.

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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*¹⁾ (*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).¹⁾ 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

ignorance		
GP2	VDE	COB
none	P1	none
✓	P2 + about N/ about wh-CL/ wh to-INF	✓
✓	P3 + as to N/as to wh-CL	none
✓	P4 + of N/of wh-CL/ wh to-INF (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
none	P5 + on N	none
<i>in N</i> <i>out of N</i>		

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, "indicate[s] 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

illusion		
GP2	VDE	COB
none	P1	✓
✓	P2 [it] + to-INF	none
✓	P3 + that-CL	✓
✓	P4 + about N/V-ing/ about wh-CL	✓
✓	P5 + of N/V-ing (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
<i>of wh</i> <i>under N</i>		

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

image		
GP2	VDE	COB
none	P1	✓
none	P2 + that-CL	none
✓	P3 + as N/V-ing	✓
✓	P4 + of N/V-ing/ of N V-ing (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
poss N		usu with supp oft with poss

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

risk		
GP2	VDE	COB
none	P1	✓
✓	P2 + that-CL	✓
none	P3 + for N/ [at] + for N/V-ing	none
✓	P4 + from N/V-ing	none
none	P5 + in N/V-ing	none
✓	P6 + of N/V-ing/ of N V-ing (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
✓	P7 + to N	none
✓	P8 + for N + to-INF	none
adj N n N <i>the N be that</i> <i>it v-link det N-ing</i> <i>without N</i>		

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*.²⁾ 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."³⁾ 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**.⁴⁾ 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 5

ignorant		
<i>GP2</i>	<i>VDE</i>	<i>COB</i>
none	P1 attr	none
none	P2 pred	✓
✓	P3 + that-CL	none
✓	P4 + about N/V-ing/ about wh-CL	✓
✓	P5 + of N/V-ing/ of wh-CL/wh to-INF (frequent)	✓
none	P6 + on N	none
ADJ as to wh		

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 6

ill-advised		
<i>GP2</i>	<i>VDE</i>	<i>COB</i>
none	P1 attr	none
none	P2 pred	none
✓	P3 + to-INF	✓
none	P4 [it] + to-INF	none
none	P5 + in V-ing (rare)	none
none	P6 [it] + for N to-INF (rare)	none
none	P7 [it] + of N + to-INF	none

Table 7

illegal		
GP2	VDE	COB
✓	P1 attr	✓
none	P2 pred	✓
✓	P3 [it] + to-INF (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
✓	P4 [it] + for N to-INF	none
v it ADJ that v it ADJ to-inf v it ADJ for n to-inf there v-link something/nothing/anything in n/-ing there v-link something/nothing/anything about n/-ing		

Table 8

illogical		
GP2	VDE	COB
none	P1 attr	none
none	P2 pred	none
✓	P3 [it] + to-INF (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
✓	P4 [it] + that-CL	none
✓	P5 [it] + for N to-INF	none
v it ADJ to-inf there v-link something/nothing/anything in n/-ing		

Table 9

ripe		
GP2	VDE	COB
none	P1 attr	✓
none	P2 pred	✓
none	P3 + to-INF	none
✓	P4 + for N/V-ing/ for N to-INF (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
✓	P5 + with N	none

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:

Table 10

burn		
GP1	VDE	COB
✓	M	✓
✓	D1 + N _P	✓
✓	D2 + to-INF	✓
none	D3 + for N	none
none	D4 + into N	none
✓	D5 + with N	✓
✓	T1 + N _P + ADJ	none
none	T2 + N _P + as N	✓
none	T3 + N _P + for N	none
none	T4 + N _P + into N	none
none	T5 + N _P + with N	none
none	+ away ↔ N _P	none
✓	+ down	✓
✓	+ down ↔ N _P	✓
✓	+ off ↔ N _P	✓

none	+ out	none
✓	+ out + REFL PRON	✓
none	+ out ↔ N _P	none
✓	+ up	✓
✓	+ up ↔ N _P	✓
V adj get V-ed V pron-refl V adv V way prep/adv		be V-ed to n

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		
GPI	VDE	COB
✓	M	✓
✓	D1 + N _P	✓
✓	D2 + ADJ	✓
none	D3 + to-INF	none
✓	D4 + into N (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
✓	D5 + with N	none
✓	D6 + ADV (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
none	+ in (+ on N) _P	none
✓	+ out	✓
✓	+ out QUOTE/SENTENCE	none
✓	+ out + V-ing	✓
V way prep/adv V into n		V P into n

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

Table 12

ignore		
GPI	VDE	COB
✓	D1 + N _P	✓
none	D2 + that-CL _{P(it)}	none
none	D3 + wh-CL _{P(it)}	none
get V-ed		

Table 13

rise		
GPI	VDE	COB
✓	M	✓
✓	D1 + N: QUANT	✓
none	D2 + to-INF	none
✓	D3 + above N	✓
✓	D4 + against N	✓
✓	D5 + by N: QUANT'	✓
✓	D6 + from N	✓
✓	D7 + in N	none
✓	D8 + out of N	✓
✓	D9 + through N	✓
✓	D10 + to N (<i>frequent</i>)	✓
none	D11 + with N	none
none	T1 + N: QUANT + against N	none
✓	T2 + from N + to N	✓
none	T3 + in N + against N	none
✓	+ up	✓
✓	+ up + against N	✓
none	+ up + to N (<i>rare</i>)	none
none	+ up + to-INF	none

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."⁵⁾

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*.⁶⁾ 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. (= re-

spond).

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 these, 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:

+ **for N + to-INF** But the Gleasons 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 ↔ N_P 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-refl 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**: 15 If you **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

COB: *Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*, 5th ed. Glasgow: HarperCollins, 2006.

COB1: *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary*. London and Glasgow: Collins, 1987.

COB2: *Collins COBUILD English Dictionary*, New ed. London: HarperCollins, 1995.

GP1: *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 1: Verbs*. London: HarperCollins, 1996.

GP2: *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 2: Nouns and Adjectives*. London: HarperCollins, 1998.

VDE: *A Valency Dictionary of English: A Corpus-Based Analysis of the Complementation Patterns of English Verbs, Nouns and Adjectives*. Berlin and New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 2004.

REFERENCE

- Nesselhauf, Nadja. 2005. "Review of *A Valency Dictionary of English: A Corpus-Based Analysis of the Complementation Patterns of English Verbs, Nouns and Adjectives*." *English Language and Linguistics* 9.2: 391–399.

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 *ps-*, 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 1 Entry items

	noun	c.n.	v.	adj.	adv.	abbr.	others	idiom	phr.v.	deriv.	total
<i>LBED</i>	415	276	51	37	7	39	2	0	40	25	566
<i>OBED</i>	411	244	64	82	20	44	4	67	98	55	748
<i>OALD7</i>	1,451	411	267	453	132	50	80	533	270	241	3,022
<i>OBED</i> only	173	154	4	29	8	19	1	16	4	21	253
<i>ODAc3</i>	170	149	1	6	3	25	1	0	1	0	205
<i>ODBM4</i>	303	236	1	6	1	42	1	0	1	0	354
<i>ODEcon2</i>	128	97	0	1	0	9	0	0	1	0	139

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,¹⁾ — 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**² *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

Svensén (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 2 Subject labels in the BEDs¹⁾

subject labels in <i>LBED</i>	headwords	senses	subject labels in <i>OBED</i>	headwords	senses
ACCOUNTING	29	31	(<i>Accounting</i>)	51	56
BANKING	20	21	(<i>Commerce</i>)	16	16
COMPUTING	5	5	(<i>E-commerce</i>)	0	0
ECONOMICS	10	11	(<i>Economics</i>)	17	17
FINANCE	32	33	(<i>Finance</i>)	28	31
HUMAN RESOURCES	6	6	(<i>HR</i>)	31	31
INSURANCE	8	8	(<i>Insurance</i>)	9	9
LAW	15	15	(<i>IT</i>)	23	24
MANUFACTURING	4	5	(<i>Law</i>)	19	20
MARKETING	6	6	(<i>Manufacturing</i>)	6	6
PROPERTY	1	1	(<i>Marketing</i>)	19	19
TAX	1	1	(<i>Production</i>)	10	10
STATISTICS	3	3	(<i>Property</i>)	0	0
			(<i>Stock Exchange</i>)	5	5
total	140	146	(<i>Technical</i>)	2	2
			(<i>Trade</i>)	2	2
			(<i>Transport</i>)	1	1
			total	239	249

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 *OBED* but not in *LBED*:

agricultural bank *n.* (*Finance*)

waiver *n.* (*Law*)

On the other hand, the following headwords have a label only in *LBED*:

acquire *v.* 'to buy a company' FINANCE

weight *v.* 'to allow for differences' STATISTICS

The lack of the subject label (*Technical*) under **weight** *v.* reveals an inconsistency not only between the dictionaries, but also within *OBED*, because its Sense 1 corresponds to Sense 2 of **weighting** *n.* that does have the label (*Technical*), which in *OBED* is attached to 'scientific, mathematical and statistical terms' (inside back cover).²⁾ 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 **wage scale** to be labelled as (*HR*) but not for any of the senses of **scale** *n.* Another case in point is that the word **escape** *n.*, whose only sense given in *OBED* is 'escape key', is labelled as (*IT*), but Sense 2 of **key** is not labelled.³⁾

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

4. The definition, examples, and collocations

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:

fence *v.* to buy and sell stolen goods [*LBED*]

lean *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; . . . 3 (about organizations etc.) strong and efficient, especially because the number of employees has been reduced 4 used to describe a difficult period of time that does not produce much money [*OBED*]

park *n.* an area of land used for a particular purpose, especially for small businesses, office buildings, small factories, etc. [*OBED*]

shut *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 2 when a business **shuts** or when sb **shuts** it, it stops operating as a business

adj. not open for business [*OBED*]

LBED does not mention nominal senses of *fence*, and the above-mentioned are the only definitions provided for **lean**, **park** *n.*, and **shut** in *OBED*.

The senses are arranged so that the more business-specific sense appears first, particularly in *OBED*, but not necessarily in *LBED*.

principal *n.* 1 (*Finance*) an amount of money that is lent or invested to earn interest 2 (*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, . . . [*OBED*]

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) and Heuberger (2000: 17–18),¹⁾ 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**² *n.* (*when a person or organization loses their position of power or becomes unsuccessful*) but not under **rise**² *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-

TION' at the end of the 'Company abbreviations' box near **Ltd**. This, in turn, might cause unnecessary confusion, since the word 'note' in this box refers to the 'Which Word' note rather than **NOTE**.

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: **MORE ABOUT 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.¹⁾ 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 vigorously, 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 *wh-* 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** *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 **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 **escape** only has a noun sense: '(*IT*) a button on a computer keyboard that you press to stop a particular operation or leave a program: *Press escape to get back to the menu*'. Sense 2 and its example of **key** *n.* read 'any of the buttons that you press to operate a computer: *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

- LBED:** *Longman Business English Dictionary*. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2000.
- LDOCE4:** *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 4th ed. Harlow: Pearson Education, 2003.
- OALD7:** *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 7th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
- OBED:** *Oxford Business English Dictionary for Learners of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
- ODAc3:** *Oxford Dictionary of Accounting*, 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
- ODBM4:** *Oxford Dictionary of Business and Management*, 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2006.
- ODEcon2:** *Oxford Dictionary of Economics*, 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2002.

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An Analysis of *Collins COBUILD Advanced Dictionary of American English*

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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 super-headwords 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 *COB5*.

In Section 5, Masuda discusses the examples mainly focusing on the changes (deletions, additions, and alterations) from *COB5*, 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 *COB5* 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 *COB5*, 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 *COB5*, 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 *COB5*, and (2) the whole pages of A (a total of 82 pages in *COBAm*, 85 pages in *COB5*) and L (which contains the center page of *COBAm*, a total of 53 pages in *COBAm*, 63 pages in *COB5*) of each dictionary. Method (1) is for a preliminary survey. The results are given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 The results of the preliminary survey

Preliminary survey	Total		Changes	
	<i>COB5</i>	<i>COBAm</i>	Added	Deleted
Headwords	606	600	+18	-24
Run-ons	66	56	0	-10
Phrases	60	33	+1	-28
Phrasal verbs	37	27	0	-10

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 *COB5*.

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 *COB5* in terms of headwords and run-ons. The following tables show the results¹⁾:

Table 2.2 Comparison of headwords between *COBAm* and *COB5*

Headwords	Total		Changes	
	<i>COB5</i>	<i>COBAm</i>	Added	Deleted
Preliminary survey	606	600	+18	-24
Pages of A	1,828	1,807	+39	-60
Pages of L	1,089	1,059	+36	-66
Average per page	19.8	21.0	+0.6	-0.9
Estimated total number	33,561	31,962	+913.2	-1,369.8

Table 2.3 Comparison of run-ons between *COBAm* and *COB5*

Run-ons	Total		Changes	
	<i>COB5</i>	<i>COBAm</i>	Added	Deleted
Preliminary survey	66	56	0	-10
Pages of A	172	125	+2	-49
Pages of L	110	92	0	-18
Average per page	2.0	1.7	+0.01	-0.5
Estimated total number	3,390	2,587.4	+15.2	-761

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, leastways, leg work, leprechaun, letter carrier, lickety-split, life support, life time member, line drive, line man, line of credit, line scrimmage, listeria, listserv, log-rolling, lol, 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 *COB5*.

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, leant, learnt, lie-down, lino, lippy, listed, lock-keeper, locum, lollop, 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 *COB5*. The examples are **lace-ups**, **lavatory paper**, **leant**, **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, anciently, 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**.²⁾ 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**.³⁾

Lastly, changes are also made concerning the use of period. For instance, **aka**, **appt** and **Lt** in *COB5* are changed to **a.k.a.**, **appt.** 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*⁴⁾

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

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

Phrasal verbs	Total		Changes	
	<i>COB5</i>	<i>COBAm</i>	Added	Deleted
Preliminary survey	37	27	0	-10
Pages of A	24	18	0	-6
Pages of L	133	104	+3	-32
Average per page	1.1	0.9	+0.02	-0.3
Estimated total number	1,864.5	1,369.8	+30.4	-456.6

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 PHRASAL VERB in *COB5* but the third definition is not found in *COBAm*, namely "If you **light up**, you make a cigarette, cigar, or pipe start burning and you start smoking it". Again, this deletion may be to save space for the pictures and new columns, but such deletions may have reduced the necessary information for a foreign learner.

It should not be overlooked that some of the deleted phrases and phrasal verbs still remain in the definitions and examples in *COBAm*, a fact which causes a serious problem. Consider the following examples:

survival 2 If you refer to the survival of a person or living thing, you mean that they live through a dangerous situation in which it was possible that they might die.

bloom 4 *Not many economies bloomed in 1990, least of all gold exporters like Australia.*

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, s/he 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*.

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 s/he 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

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:

long	
①	TIME
②	DISTANCE AND SIZE
③	PHRASES
④	VERB USES

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**.⁵⁾ 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*.⁶⁾ 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 bilocal 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/).¹⁾ 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 bilocal 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 *COB5*. *LAAD2*'s focus is on American pronunciations, as stated in the Guide: "This dictionary shows pronunciations used by most American speakers" (p. ii). *COB5* is billectal, but it is not confusing since the billectal 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).² 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/COB5* and *LAAD2* with respect to levels of transcription. *COBAm* and *COB5* 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 *COB5*, 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 "ɚ", tap for /t/ (shown as "t̬"), glottal stop replacing or accompanying /t/ ("t̚") 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 /nʃ/, are described in the Guide (pp. i–iii), among which tap, glottal stop, *t/d* deletion and epenthetic [t] in /nʃ/ 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. xvii).³ This is exactly the same as *COB5*, except *COB5* 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/ in IPA and *EPD14*) and the use of underline for marking stress (vertical stroke in both current IPA

and *EPD14*). These deviations are not explained in *COBAm*, nor in *COB5*. *LAAD2* also deviates from the IPA in some symbols, but these deviations are discussed in the Guide.

3.2. Diagnostics for American English

This section examines how *COBAm* 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 *COBAm*'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 bilocal transcription in rhoticity (3.2.1), *COBAm*'s transcription may be unexpected, based on the literature on American English pronunciation.⁴⁾

For the features of American English against which to examine the transcription in *COBAm*, we consulted Wells (1982, 2000), Labov et al. (2006) and Ladefoged (2001). Wells (1982) gives a detailed description of English dialects with respect to pronunciation. Labov et al. (2006) is a recent atlas "on the regional phonology of the English of the United States and Canada", which is "[b]ased on a telephone survey carried out in the years 1992–1999 [Telsur]" (Preface). Wells (2000) is a pronunciation dictionary in RP and GenAm. Ladefoged (2001) is a standard introductory phonetics textbook.

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 *COBAm*, the Guide

mentions this difference, and the coda /r/ is shown in the entries as expected for GenAm. However, *COBAm* is best interpreted as bilocal in showing r-full/-lessness. We discuss this below.

There is a schwa /ə/ 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 (ɑ, ɔ) or central (ɜ, ə), as shown in (1).

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

Symbols in the entries	Examples
ɪər	beard, near
ɛər	care, fair
uər	cure, poor, pure, tour
ɑuər	flour, flower, sour, tower
aɪər	fire, tire

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

- (2) No /ə/ before /r/ if the preceding vowel is low back (ɑ, ɔ) or central (ɜ, ə)

ɑr	car, cart, far, heart, tar	
ɔr	cord, more	
ɜr	third, turn	[stressed [ə]]
ər	forgive, forgotten, teacher	[unstressed [ə]]

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 /ə/ before /r/ (ɪər, ɛər, etc.) and the other group does not (ɑr, ɔr, etc.). There are two possibilities, but neither of them is likely. One is that /ə/ is syllabic on its own; thus, for example, *near* is disyllabic [nɪ.ər] (period indicates syllable boundary), not monosyllabic. However, this is clearly not the case judging from how the stress is marked: stress is marked in *COBAm* by "underlining the vowel in the stressed syllable" (p. xviii), and in **near**, both /ɪ/ and /ə/ are underlined, /nɪər/. 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 /ɪ/ should be underlined, /nɪər/, with an unstressed second

syllable. The other possible explanation for this transcription is to indicate an inglide character of [ə] before [ə̃] (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 /ɪr/, /ɛr/, etc. instead. Note that this notation is not employed in the entries.

Thus, the notation of /ə/ 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 *COB5*, a bilingual 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 /aɪə̃/. This represents the pronunciation /aɪə/ in RP, but in GenAm the pronunciation is not /aɪə̃r/, but /aɪr/. So 'fire', 'flour', . . . are pronounced /faɪə̃/, /flaʊə̃/, . . . in RP, but /faɪr/, /flaʊr/, . . . 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 [ɑ], against rounded (*caught*, *cloth*, *sauce*), transcribed broadly [ɔ] (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 /ɒ/ in *COBAm*, differentiated from PALM words, which are again invariably transcribed /ɑ/, further different from CLOTH and THOUGHT words, which are all /ɔ/, thus a three-way contrast /ɒ/ vs. /ɑ/ vs. /ɔ/, as summarized in Table 3.1.⁵⁾⁶⁾

Table 3.1 Low back vowels in *COBAm*, *COB5* and *LAAD2*

	CLOTH/THOUGHT	LOT	PALM
<i>COBAm</i>	ɔ	ɒ	ɑ
<i>COB5</i>	ɔ:	ɒ (= ɑ)	ɑ:
<i>LAAD2</i>	ɔ	ɑ	ɑ

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

COB5 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)). *COB5* uses three symbols: /ɒ/, /ɔ:/ and /ɑ:/. However, there is a note in the Guide (p. xxiii) that /ɒ/ is the same as /ɑ:/ in GenAm. *COB5* employs a two-way contrast in this way. In *LAAD2*, the two-way contrast is expressed explicitly by using two symbols, /ɑ/ for LOT and PALM words, distinguished from /ɔ/ 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 /ɑ(:)/ (LOT/PALM) and /ɔ(:)/ (CLOTH/THOUGHT). As a result, pairs such as *caller-collared*, *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 /ɑ/ in RP. The Guide of *COBAm* has a note on this dialectal difference, giving the phonological environments for the distribution of /ɑ/ 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 /ɑ/ only: **Slav**
 - b. Some show variation between /æ/ and /ɑ/:
 - i. /ɑ, æ/: **advantage, aghast, ask, bask, basket, glass, hasp, Iran, lather, pass, plant**
 - ii. /æ, ɑ/: **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 /ɑ/ 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 /ɑ/ (3a).⁷⁾

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 (/j/) dropping. Dropping yod “after palatals, /r/, 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, θ, 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 *dew*, *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. [ɲ] or [ʝ] and [ɲ] or [j], respectively (p. 248).

In *COBAm*, *COB5* and *LAAD2*, we checked all the words appearing in Wells (1982: 247–248) to see if yod is dropped.⁸⁾ 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**, **i/s/ue**, **si/tʃ/uate**), and does not when they are not contrastive (**a/ny/ual**, **fai/ly/re**). This is probably expected, since dictionaries normally do not transcribe the allophonic details to this extent. In *COB5*, **issue** has an alternative form not undergoing the coalescence **i/sj/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 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 ^hw/: "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 /ɪ/ and /ʊ/, 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. /ɜ/ vs. /ʌ/ before intervocalic /r/

That /ɜ/ and /ʌ/ 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 [ɜr and ʌr] merged, yielding present-day /ɜr/ 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 /ʌ/ if the vowels did not merge (**courage**, **current**, **curry**, **furrow**, **hurry**, **occurrence**, **turret**, **worry**) finds /ɜr/ in all words, except in one, **hurry**, for which both forms /ɜr/ and /ʌr/ are given. *COB5* consistently gives /ʌr/ and /ɜ:r/ (= /ɜr/ in *COBAm*'s notation), the latter accompanied by a tag to indicate that it is the American pronunciation. *LAAD2* provides both /ɜ/ and /ʌr/ in all of the above items except in **current**, which is assigned only to /ɜ/. This is somewhat surprising, given that it is a dictionary of American English.

3.2.7.2. /eɪ/ vs. /e/, /ɛ/ vs. /æ/ before intervocalic /r/

Wells (1982: 480) describes frequent neutralization between /æ/ and /e/ 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 *merry–marry–Mary*, all /'meri/ . . .” (p. 482). Labov et al. (2006) confirms this three-way homophony by examining two minimal pairs, namely, /eɪ/ *Mary* vs. /e/ *merry*, and /e/

merry vs. /æ/ *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*, *COB5* and *LAAD2*, we discuss cases before intervocalic /r/. The contrast between /e/ (e.g. *merry*) and /æ/ (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 /æ/ are not neutralized before /r/ in *COBAm*, *COB5* and *LAAD2*
 /eɪr/ (*COBAm*, *LAAD2*), er (*COB5*): **berry**, **error**, **ferry**, **herald**, **herring**, **merit**, **merry**, **very**
 /æ:r/: **apparent**, **carrel**,⁹⁾ **carrot**, **carry**, **charity**, **harridan**, **harrow**, **harry**, **marry**, **narrow**, **parity**

With respect to the opposition between /eɪ/ and /e/, we checked the words represented by *square* in Wells (1982: 157) under (c), where /r/ is followed by a vowel: **aerial**, **aquarium**, **area**, **canary**, **caring**, **dairy**, **fairy**, **hairy**, **Mary**, **parent**, **Pharaoh**, **prairie**, **rarity**, **various**, **vary**.¹⁰⁾ *LAAD2* and *COB5* show the neutralization, transcribed as /eɪr/ in *LAAD2* and as /eær/ (= /eɪr/ in GenAm) in *COB5*.¹¹⁾ In *COBAm*, all the above words except one show neutralization, transcribed as /eær/, assumed to be interpreted as /eɪr/ in GenAm (see 3.2.1 for interpretation of /ə/ before /r/ in *COBAm*). The one exceptional word is **Pharaoh**, which has two alternative pronunciations, /æ:r/ and /eɪr/, in addition to /eær/; /eɪr/ indicates a potential occurrence of /eɪ/ before intervocalic /r/. However, this might not be a counterexample to neutralization between /eɪ/ and /e/: if the word is syllabified so that /eɪ/ and /r/ do not occur in the same domain, vowel neutralization would not apply, as in compounds such as *day room* /deɪ 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 /eɪ/ and /ɛ/ 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 /'mɛri/, opposing to **marry** /'mæri/. (/ɛr/ and /æɪr/ 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 /ohr/ and /ɔhr [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 /ɔɪr/, 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 *COB5* 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 (/ɔɪ/ 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 *COB5* and *LAAD2*. The words are **address**, **advertisement**, **anti-**, **ate**, **ballet**, **Bernard**,¹² **beta**, **borough**, **clerk**, **cuckoo**, **depot**, **detail**, **docile**, **erase**, **figure**, **from** (strong form), **herb**, **inquiry**, **iodine**, **laboratory**, **leisure**, **lever**, **lieutenant**, **massage**, **neither**, **nonsense**, **of** (strong form), **omega**,¹³ **primarily**, **process** (n.), **progress**, **quinine**, **record** (n.), **schedule**, **shone**, **suggest**, **thorough**, **tomato**, **vase**, **vermouth**, **was** (strong form), **wrath**, **Z**.

About half of these words have only the GenAm form in all three dictionaries (in *COB5*, 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 *COB5*, 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 /'aɪə,dɪn/ along with GenAm /'aɪə,dɑɪn/¹⁴) (cf. RP /'aɪədɪn/¹⁵); **progress** has /'prɒgrəs/ along with GenAm /'prɒgrəs/ (cf. RP /'prɒgrəs/¹⁶); **vase** has /veɪz/ along with GenAm /veɪs/ and RP /vəz/.¹⁷) In *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* (2003), another American English dictionary, **iodine** does not have this third form, while **progress** and **vase** do. /-rəs/ is listed first in **progress**. /veɪz/ for **vase** is noted as a form found in "Canada usu[ally] & US also".¹⁸) 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 /ɛ/ 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 /ɛ/ 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., [ʍ] 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 /ɑ/ 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 /ɒ/ (**lot** etc.) vs. /ɑ/ (**palm** etc.) vs. /ɔ/ (**cloth**, **thought**, etc.), and /ɛ/ (**hairy**, **merry**, 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 /ɛ/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/ next.

Regarding the contrast between /ɒ/ and /ɑ/, recall that these vowels are generally assumed to have merged to /ɑ/ 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**, /ɒ/, the unrounded quality is not expected.

With respect to the contrast between /ɒ/ and /ɔ/, 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 [ɔ̟], that is, slightly higher than, and not as back as, cardinal [ɑ/ɒ]. The lips do not sound as if they are actively involved in the articulation, i.e. neither actively rounded as cardinal [ɒ] nor actively unrounded as cardinal [ɑ].¹⁹

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, /ɒ/ (**don**, **knotty**, **pod**) is rounded, /ɔ/ (**dawn**, **naughty**) is more rounded, and /ɑ/ (**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** /ɒ/–**naughty** /ɔ/ and **don** /ɒ/–**dawn** /ɔ/. 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).²⁰ 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 50ms backward from the approximate mid-point 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.

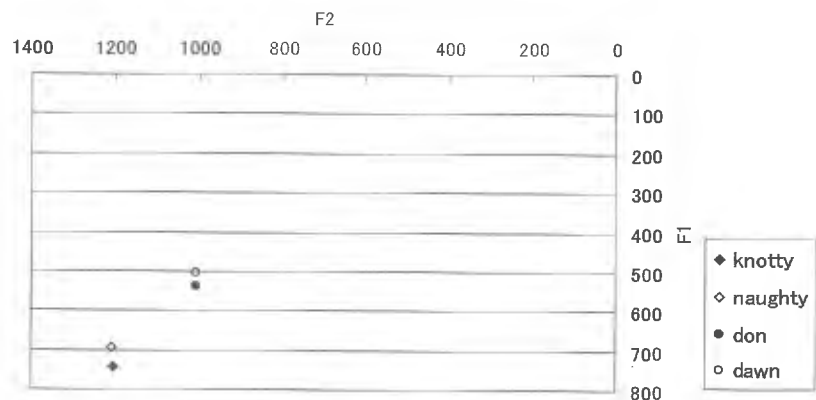


Figure 3.1 F1 and F2 in the stressed vowels in **knotty**–**naughty** and **don**–**dawn**
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In both pairs, F2 is almost the same, which suggests that the backness of the tongue is almost the same in a given pair. F1 differs slightly, with /ɔ/ being slightly lower than /ɒ/ (by 50 Hz in the **knotty**–**naughty** pair and by 37 Hz in the **don**–**dawn** pair). The direction is consistent: F1 of /ɔ/ is always lower than F1 of /ɒ/. This is expected from what the transcriptions suggest: /ɔ/ is higher than /ɒ/ in vowel height. Since F1 correlates inversely with vowel height (i.e. the higher the F1 the lower the tongue height), F1 in /ɔ/ is expected to be lower than F1 in /ɒ/. 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 /ɛ/ 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** /ɛ/–**harry** /æ/ and **caring** /ɛ/–**carry** /æ/.²¹ 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 **harry** 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 /ɛ/ before /r/, **hairy** [ɛ]–**harry** [ɛ] and **caring** [ɛ]–**carry** [ɛ]. To these pairs, the pair **merry** /ɛ/–**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** [ɛ], which is to be compared to the much lower [æ] in **mad**.

Acoustic analysis of these sets of words found possible neutralization between /ɛ/ 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.²² The results are shown in Figure 3.2, where F1 and F2 are plotted.

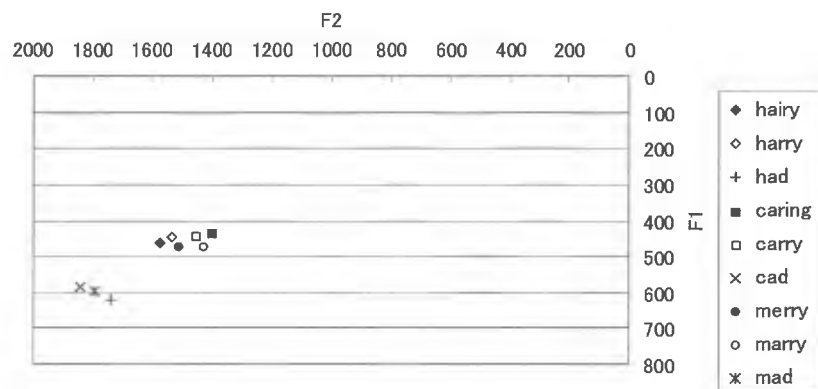


Figure 3.2 F1 and F2 in stressed vowels in **hairy**, **harry**, **had**, **caring**, **carry**, **cad**, **merry**, **marry**, **mad**

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There are two recognizable groups in Figure 3.2: one with /ɛ/ and /æ/ before /r/ (**hairy**, **harry**, **caring**, **carry**, **merry** and **marry**) and the other with /æ/ before /d/ (**had**, **cad** and **mad**). In terms of the height (acoustic correlates in F1), in each set (**hairy–harry–had**, **caring–carry–cad**, and **merry–marry–mad**), /æ/ is raised as high as /ɛ/ before /r/, since the F1 value of /æ/ before /r/ is as low as F1 of /ɛ/ 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 /ɛ/ before /r/, while /æ/ before /d/ is much more front. There is a larger difference between **merry** and **marry** in F2 (by 83 Hz) than the difference in the other pairs (38 Hz in **hairy–harry**, 54 Hz in **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 **marry** is much closer to /ɛ/ in **merry** than to /æ/ in **mad**.

Thus, as far as these three pairs are concerned, the production data on the CD-ROM suggest neutralization between /ɛ/ and /æ/ before intervocalic /r/ both impressionistically and acoustically; /æ/ is as high as /ɛ/ in this context. This is expected from the literature, but is not incorporated in the transcriptions in the paper version of *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 *COBAm*

There are several typos in the paper version of *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 “r” 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 /aɪ/ /aʊ/ 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 GenAm /ou/. It is generally thought to be /əʊ/ (as in *COB5*’s Guide), not /u/.

(Section 3 by Hirayama)

4. Definitions

In this section the treatment of meaning in *COBAm*, semantic and pragmatic, will be discussed mainly through the comparison of definitions and labels in *COBAm* with those in *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 *COBAm* are compared with the corresponding entries from *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 **cre**scent 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. (**cre**scent 1)

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

Two words not listed as part of the DV, "curved" for **cre**scent and "feces" for **ma**nure, are used in the above definitions without being marked. Another example is the definition of **st**ye 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 mislead-

ing; 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 **ab**breviation 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. (**ab**breviation)

If you **happ**en to do something, you do it by chance. If **it** **happ**ens **th**at something is the case, it occurs by chance. (**happ**en 4)

Although *COBAm* does not list any phrasal verb in its DV list, in the definition of **ab**breviation, a phrasal verb, "leave out" is used. In that of **happ**en, 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. R99)).

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, Britishisms 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 Britishisms 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 Britishisms 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 Britishisms 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** 1; 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** 1; 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 Britishisms 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 Britishisms, 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 *COB5*'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 *COB5* does:

COB5 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** 2)

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** 2)

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 *COB5* 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 *COB5* 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":

COB5 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 *COB5* 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 *COB5*. On the sample pages, there is also a case where a grammatical mistake or typo in a definition in *COB5* is corrected in *COBAm*, e.g. **sharp-tongued**. While the vast majority of definitions from *COBAm* and *COB5* 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 **stump**. 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.³⁾

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

longer.

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 *COB5*'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

Table 5.1

	<i>COB5</i>	<i>COBAm</i>			
	examples	examples	deleted	added	changed
100–101	70	52	–21	+3	4
200–201	56	52	–9	+5	8
300–301	84	71	–20	+7	15
400–401	68	59	–16	+7	15
500–501	83	63	–24	+4	8
600–601	84	63	–24	+3	12
700–701	84	73	–14	+3	15
800–801	107	82	–27	+2	11
900–901	90	57	–33	0	18
1,000–1,001	100	87	–23	+10	25
1,100–1,101	95	70	–26	+1	19
1,200–1,201	90	71	–21	+2	17
1,300–1,301	97	78	–29	+10	18
1,400–1,401	104	73	–38	+7	16
1,500–1,501	116	76	–44	+4	8
total	1,328	1,027	–369	+68	209
average/p	44.2	34.2	–12.3	+2.3	7.0

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.*

1 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 Britishness 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.¹⁾ 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.²⁾

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.* □ *He is one of the greatest (British) players of recent times and is a **credit** to his profession.* □ *Mr. (Mr) Carter is **due** in Washington (London) on Monday.* □ *Gray (Grey) sheets **flapped** on the clothes line . . .* □ *an eighteenth century **mansion** in New Hampshire (Hampshire)* □ *A US infantry (Scottish) battalion was **marching** down the street.*

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.* □ *. . . a mixture of wet sand and **cement**.* → □ *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. → □Dick celebrated his 60th birthday Monday. The reason for the replaced examples in *COBAm* is less obvious. We see no improvements in them, either.

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: □Carol answered the door as soon as I knocked. And the non-canonical phrases **shuts the door in your face** and **slams the door in your face**, defined as "refuse to talk or give you any information", are given in the eleventh sense: □Did you say anything to him or just shut the door in his face?

5.2.1.2. *LDOCE4* provides much more information.³⁾ 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)?⁴⁾ | **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.* | **door handle/knob brass door handles**

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* ◇ *a 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. *COB5*'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.

The definition gives the information on the forms (coins and notes) and the function (use (money)) of money. The examples, □ *A lot of the money that you pay at the movies goes back to the film distributors*, and □ *Players should be allowed to earn money from advertising*, include the combinations “a lot of money”, “pay (money)”, and “earn money”, but more common expressions like “spend money” are not included. “Make money” is given as a phrase in the sixth sense: □ . . . *the only part of the firm that consistently made money.*

5.2.1.6. *LDOCE4* offers a large number of collocations and the examples in the boxes:

Table 5.2

spend money
make/earn money
make money (= make a profit)
lose money (= not make a profit, so that a business owes more than it earns)
cost money / cost a lot of money
save money
lend/borrow/owe money
waste money (on sth)
be a waste of money
charge (sb) money
raise money
pay money (for sth)
give sb their money back / refund sb's money
a sum / an amount of money
get/earn good money (= be paid good wages)

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–T/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**”;

“eat **alone**”, “eat **together**”; “**want something to eat**”; “eat **and drink**”, “eat **and sleep**” are given as Word Partnership in the box.

The examples are easy to understand and show the grammatical structures of the verb, but only three examples are too few for the first and second senses. Aren't there any more expressions that should be included in the dictionary?

5.2.2.2. *LDOCE4* lists the collocations, phrases, and idioms in the box below. The paraphrases in the parentheses will help learners. Thirteen examples are given in the following box.

Table 5.3

eat well/healthily/sensibly (= eat food that will keep you healthy)
eat right *AmE* (= eat food that will keep you healthy)
eat properly *BrE* (= eat food that will keep you healthy)
eat hungrily
something to eat (= some food)
eat like a horse *informal* (= eat a very large amount)
eat like a bird *informal* (= eat very little)
a bite to eat *informal* (= some food)
eating habits
eating disorder (= a medical condition in which you do not eat normally)
ready-to-eat (= used to describe foods that you do not have to prepare)
I couldn't eat another thing/bite *spoken* (= used to say that you are full)

Felix chatted cheerfully as he ate. | A small girl was eating an ice cream. | We had plenty to eat and drink. | It's important to eat healthily when you are pregnant. | I exercise and eat right and get plenty of sleep. | Would you like something to eat? | She can eat like a horse and never put on weight. | We stopped at McDonalds to get a bite to eat. | Good eating habits are the best way of preventing infection. | ready-to-eat foods such as deli meats and cheeses | 'More cake?' 'No thanks, I couldn't eat another thing.' | No chicken for me. I don't eat meat (= I never eat meat). | Does Rob eat fish?

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*: **5** 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] □*Oh, I see what you're saying.* □*I really don't see any reason for changing it.*

COBAm gives three other use of **see** in the sense "to understand" as PHRASE and CONVENTION: **5** CONVENTION □*"He came home in my car."* — *"I see."* **8** PHRASE □*He was hopeful that by sitting together they could both see sense and live as good neighbors.* **9** CONVENTION □*Well, you see, you shouldn't really feel that way about it.*

We can see from the definition 5 that **see** in this sense typically takes [see-what] and [see-why] constructions. The first example illustrates this construction. But we know **see** in this sense has many more everyday expressions such as those given in *LDOCE4*.

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 what you mean.'* ◇*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*.

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 unlawful.*

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.* 2 *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".⁵⁾

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 insufficient⁶⁾ 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.⁷⁾ 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*.⁸⁾ 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*.⁹⁾

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,¹⁰ 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**

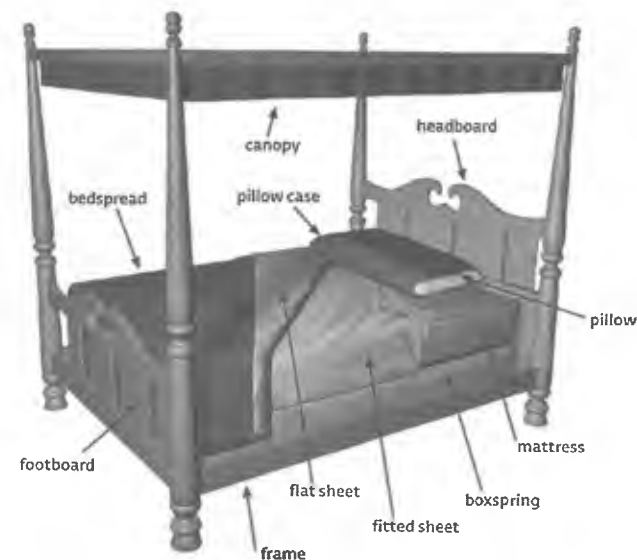
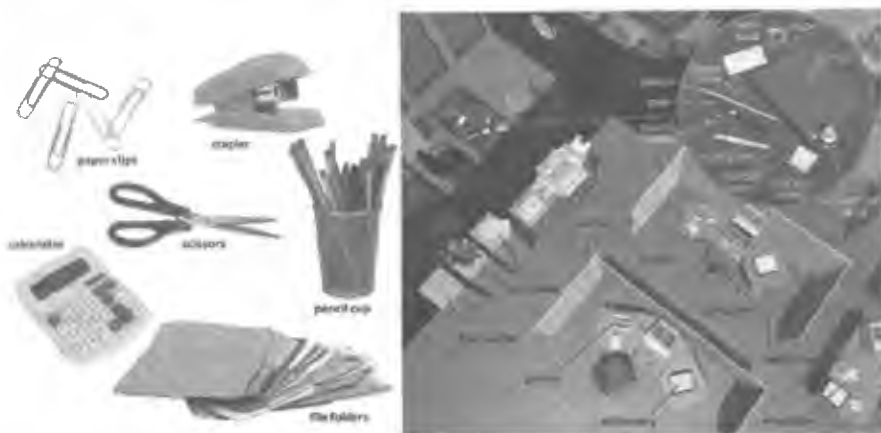


Figure 6.1 Illustration in the PD for **bed**

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 deform a part or parts of a picture for the users'

Figure 6.2 Illustration in the PD for **desert**Figure 6.3 Illustration in the PD for **office**

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.

Figure 6.4 Illustration in the PD for **core**

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.

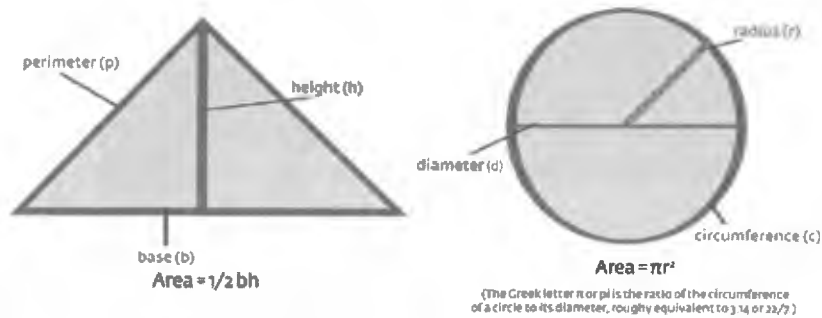


Figure 6.5 Diagram in the PD for area

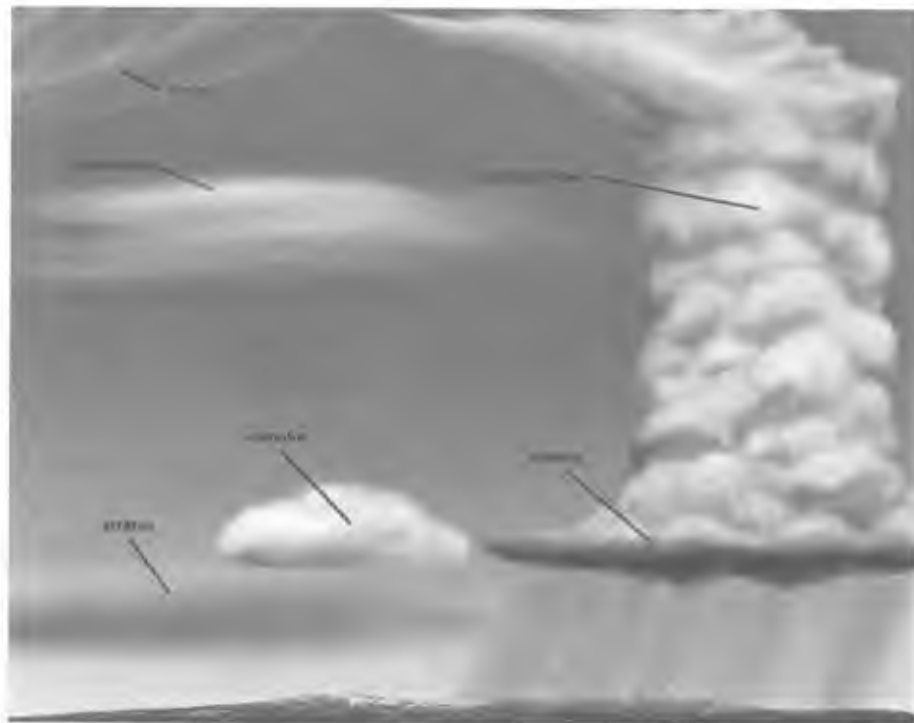


Figure 6.6 Illustration in the PD for clouds

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.

I	1	XI	11	XXI	21	XL	40
II	2	XII	12	XXII	22	L	50
III	3	XIII	13	XXIII	23	LX	60
IV	4	XIV	14	XXIV	24	LXX	70
V	5	XV	15	XXV	25	LXXX	80
VI	6	XVI	16	XXVI	26	XC	90
VII	7	XVII	17	XXVII	27	C	100
VIII	8	XVIII	18	XXVIII	28	D	500
IX	9	XIX	19	XXIX	29	M	1000
X	10	XX	20	XXX	30	MMVI	2006

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**

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.

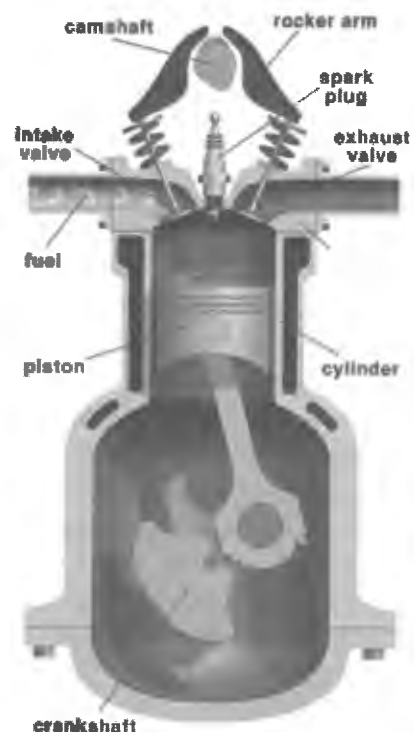


Figure 6.9 Illustration in the WW for **engine**

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.

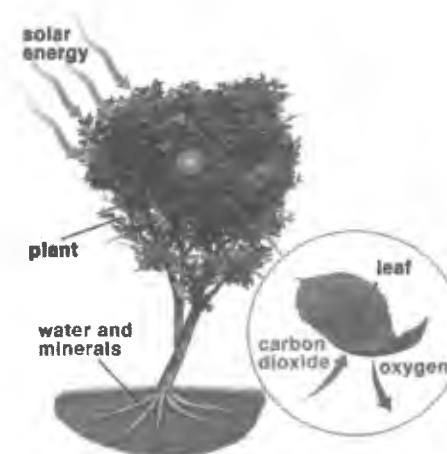


Figure 6.10 Illustration in the WW for **photosynthesis**

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):

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 *COB5* 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*.
(Section 6.1–6.5 by Takahashi)

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.

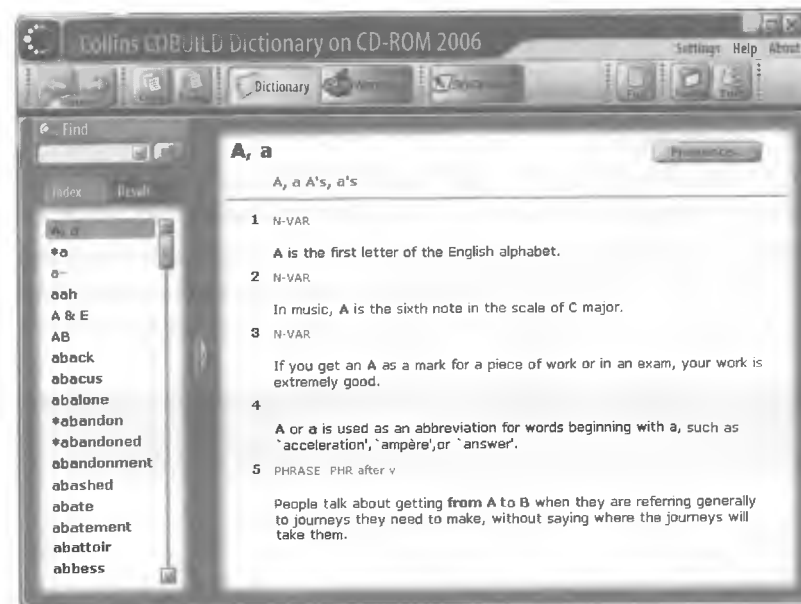


Figure 7.1 Initial screen of COB5-CD

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.

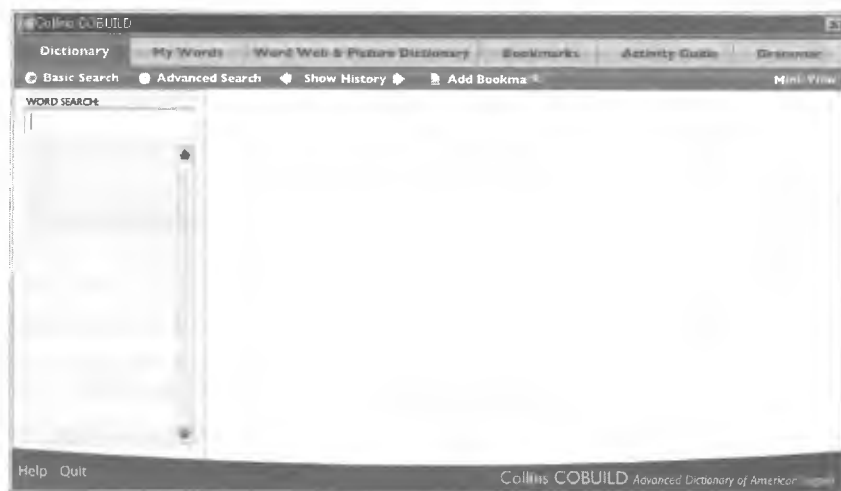


Figure 7.2 Initial screen of *COBAm-CD*

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.¹⁾
- **Word Web & Picture Dictionary:** Encyclopedic notes (Word Webs) and pictorial illustrations (Picture Dictionaries), summing up to about 300

items,²⁾ can be searched for.

- **Bookmarks:** This offers a bookmarking function by which users can bookmark entries.³⁾
- **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. *COB5-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 (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.

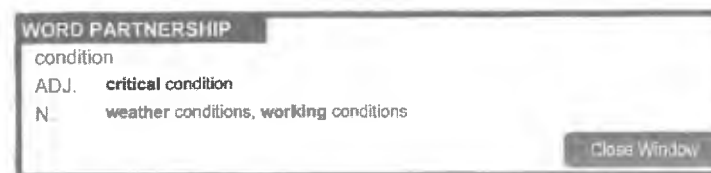


Figure 7.3 Word Partnership box in COBAm-CD

- 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

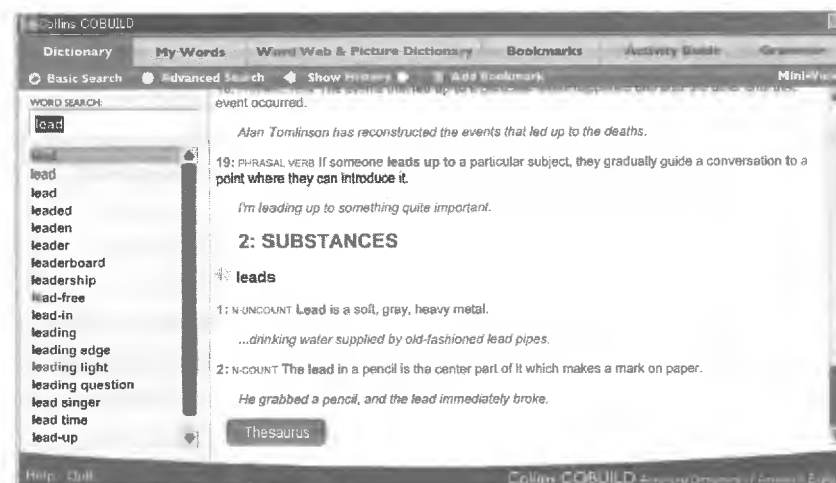


Figure 7.4 Homographs in COBAm-CD

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”.⁴⁾ 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 ◆◆◆, 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 *COBAm-CD* 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.⁵⁾ 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**,⁶⁾ 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 Britishisms, geographical labels such as **BRIT** and **SCOTTISH**, and style labels such as **COMPUTING** and **HUMOROUS**,⁷⁾ 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.

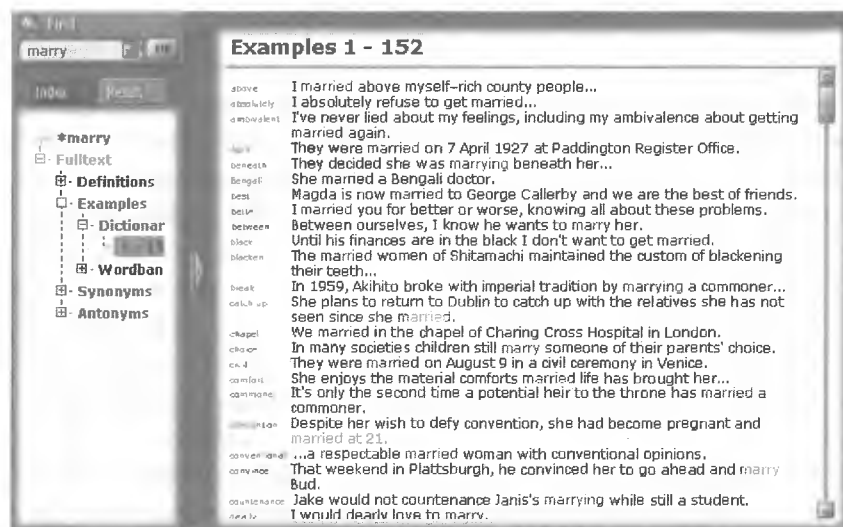


Figure 7.5 Examples in COB5-CD

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 nor 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.⁸⁾ 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).

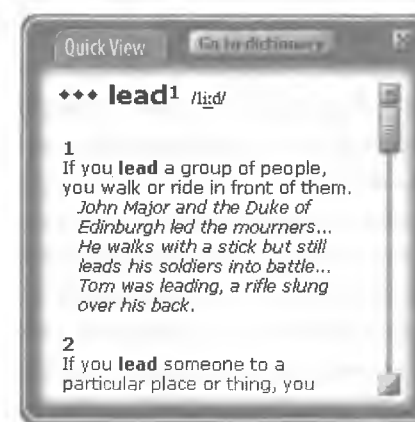


Figure 7.6 Quick View window

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**¹ and **lead**¹ 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 headwords; the initial component word 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

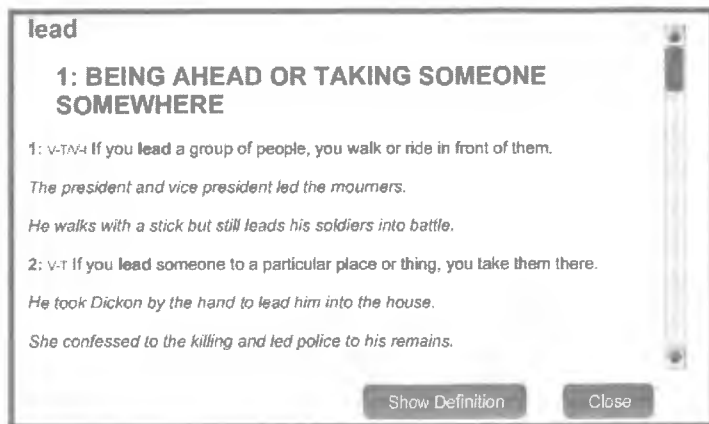


Figure 7.7 Small lookup window

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.

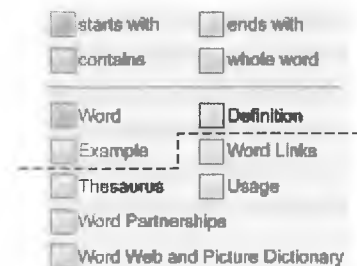
Clicking “Show History” displays the latest 25 items in the search history. The program also offers the two arrow buttons for going back and proceeding again just as *COB5-CD* does, which is useful.

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-

Figure 7.8 Options for advanced search.
(The broken line is ours.)

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).

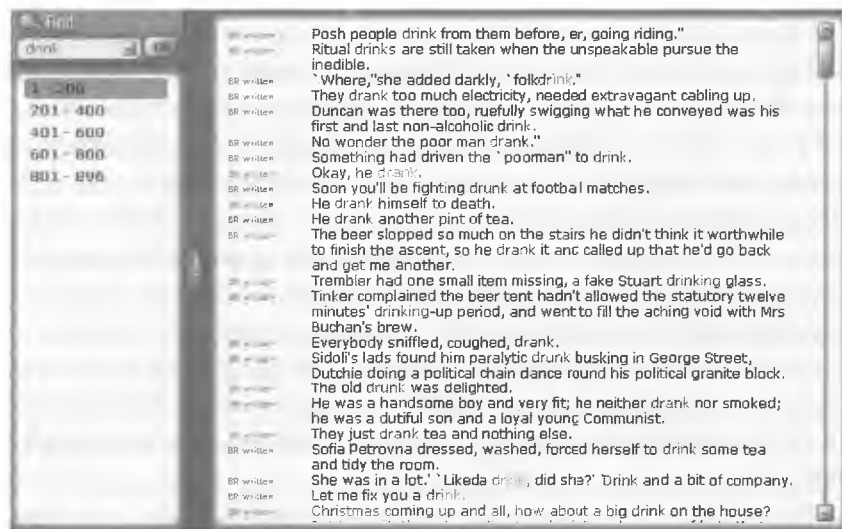


Figure 7.9 WordBank in *COB5-CD*

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, there is 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



Figure 7.10 Pronunciation note for **conduct** in *COB5-CD*

conduct indicating different pronunciations depending on whether it is used as a verb or noun, but no recording is available for the inflected form "conducts" (see Figure 7.10).

COB5-CD also offers a function where the user can record his or her own pronunciation and compare it to the recorded pronunciation that was most recently played back.

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.¹⁰⁾

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 *COB5-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 *COB5* 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 *COB5* 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 *COB5*, 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 calendarical 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 *COB5*, 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 /v/ 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, v/ and /ɔ/ and neutralization between /ɛ/ 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 *os* before tautosyllabic /r/, neutralization between /eɪ/ and /ɛ/ before intervocalic /r/), though on rhoticity, the transcription is systematically bilocal, 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 /ɜ/ 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 /a/ (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 /ɒ, ɑ, ɔ/ and neutralization between /æ/ and /ɛ/ before intervocalic /r/). Impressionistic analysis of certain (near) minimal pairs found possible absence of these contrasts. Acoustic analysis was conducted on /v/ vs. /ɔ/, and /æ/ vs. /ɛ/ before /r/. Between /v/ and /ɔ/, a consistent but (very) small differences in F1 (height) were found. In /æ/ and /ɛ/ 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 /ɛ/ 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 *COB5* and *COBAm* are almost the same except for the following changes: (1) systematic replacements of Briticisms with the corresponding Americanisms; (2) attempts at more readable and/or more informative explanations;

(3) 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 ranges 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 of 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 /ɛr/. 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/, /ɒ/ or /ɔ/.
- 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 /æɪ/.
- 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 /i:z/ with /i:/ to make it comparable to *LAAD2*.
- 16) We replaced Wells's /əʊ/ and /e/ with /ou/ and /e/ 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** — /ɜ/ and /ʌ/ 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 3.2.7.1, i.e. /ɜ/ and /ʌ/ before /r/.

anti- has a form with /i/ 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 /-tɪ/ (as opposed to the GenAm form /-taɪ/) 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 /i/ in these dictionaries since the last vowel in **happy** is /i/, not /ɪ/. However, in *LAAD2*, this interpretation does not hold since all three possibilities are shown, i.e. /æntɪ, æntaɪ, æntɪ/.

18) *DARE* includes /-,dɪn/ with the tag "also" (cf. /-,daɪn/ 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 Komuro et al. (2006: 72–73) for possible merger in the recording of *OALD7*.

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 /er/ in GenAm as discussed in 3.2.1.

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 **carry**. Cf. The duration for the other vowels is 100 ms.

Section 4

1) As long as *OALD7*, 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'.

Section 5

1) The changes have by no means been complete. In the example above, "autumn" in: *In autumn 1944 the Allies invaded the Italian . . .*, remains unchanged while "allies" has been

capitalized. 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.)

	COBAm	LDOCE4	OALD7
door	14	19	30
money	11	30	35
eat	10	33	22
see	40	144	81
whether	4	8	8

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 COB5-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.

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

by Yoshisaburo Okakura, General Editor

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1. Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

2. Background¹⁾

Japan: An Illustrated Encyclopedia writes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. The Editor, the Dictionary and the Publisher

3.1. The editor, Yoshisaburo Okakura

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(Section 3.1 by Sugimoto)

3.2. The dictionary

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

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

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

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

Table 3.1 The year and the date of the impressions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.3. The publisher, Kenkyusha

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Kenkyusha commemorated its one hundredth anniversary of its foun-

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

4. Entries

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

4.1. Entries in *SEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

4.2. Manner of presentation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4.4. Comparison between *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4.5. *COD* and *POD* compared

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

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

4.6. New entries in *SEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4.7. Summary

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

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

5. Labels

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

5.1. The number of labels

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

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

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

Table 5.1 The number of labels in the dictionaries consulted

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.2. Field labels

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.3. Regional labels

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

their inclusion may be very difficult to justify.

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

5.4. Currency labels

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

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

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

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

5.5. Style labels

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

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

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

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

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

5.6. The labels (slang) and (vulgar)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5.7. Comparison between *SEDJ* and *IEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

5.8. Summary

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

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

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

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

6. Pronunciation

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

6.1. Phonetic transcription in English-Japanese dictionaries

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

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

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

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

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

6.2. The influence of IPA and EPD

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

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

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

6.3. Phonetics in Japan

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

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

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

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

can replace /ɹ/ with /r/.

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

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

6.4. Phonetic transcription of *SEDJ*

6.4.1. Principle

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

6.4.2. Consonants

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

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

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

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

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

6.4.3. Vowels

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 6.5 Phonetic transcription of NORTH and FORCE words

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

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

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

6.4.4. Suprasegmental features

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

SEDJ aspiration [æspəˈreɪfən]

EPD aspiration [ˌæspəˈreɪfən]

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

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

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

7. Grammar and Usage

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

7.1. Exhaustive grammatical information

7.1.1. Parts of speech

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

abaft

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

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

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

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

prosper

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

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

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

7.1.2. Inflection

7.1.2.1. Noun: plural forms

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

Table 7.1 Plural forms of exceptional inflections in entries

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

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

data, datum

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

datum *n. (pl. -ta)*

COD **data**. See DATUM.

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

POD **data**. See DATUM.

datum *n. (pl. -ta)*

7.1.2.2. Adjective and adverb: comparative and superlative forms

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

Table 7.2 Comparatives and superlatives of two-syllable adjectives

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

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

Table 7.3 Irregular comparative and superlative forms

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

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

7.1.2.3. Verb: past tense and past participle forms

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

Table 7.4 Inflections of regular verbs

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

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

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

brought

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

COD See BRING.

POD See BRING.

7.2. Other grammatical information

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

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

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

7.2.1. Verb patterns

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

(1) Using verb patterns

make

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

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

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

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

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

例— *I will make him a new suit.*

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

(2) Explanatory usage notes

give

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

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

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

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

give

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

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

(3) Illustrated examples

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

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

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

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

call

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

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

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

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

elect

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

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

JECJ [No information]

name

COD [No information]

POD [No information]

JECJ 【他動】(誰を何と)名づける、命名する。

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

(4) No information

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

pay

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

7.2.2. Verbs followed by infinitive or gerund

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

(5) [verb + infinitive] structures

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

ends meet どうかかうか遣り繰り算段する。

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

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

(6) [verb + gerund] structures

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

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

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

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

consider [No information]

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

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

Table 7.5 Information on gerund structures

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

Table 7.6 Information on both infinitive and gerund structures

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

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

(7) [verbs with both structures]

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

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

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

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

7.2.3. Nouns: countable or uncountable

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

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

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

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

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

7.3. Summary

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

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

8. Definition

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

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

8.1. Order of definitions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

重なる。④卓越せる(屢賞讃の感歎詞に用ふ)。⑥元の。

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

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

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

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

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

SEDJ

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

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

COD

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

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

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

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

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

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

construe

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

8.2. Translation equivalents

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

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

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

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

constrict

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

る(=cause to contract).

IEDJ vt. 縮める, 緊(緊)める, 壓縮する, 收斂(收斂)する.

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

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

bale¹

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

IEDJ n. [(詩・古)]害悪, 破壊, 危難, 悲愁(悲愁).

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

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

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

譯語は主として現代的口語に據る。

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

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

absent¹

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

abash

MoEJ *vt.* 羞(ハ)ヂサス, 困(マ)ラス, 赤面セシム.

SEJ *vt.* 赤面サセル, 羞(ハ)ヂシメル

IEDJ *vt.* 羞(ハ)ぢさす, 困らす.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

abash *vt.* 赤面させる; きまり悪がらせる, どぎまぎさせる.

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

cantankerous

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

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

cantankerous

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

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

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

JECJ 【形】 口やかましき, 意地悪(いぢあく)き(人).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

8.3. Bilingual principle

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SEDJ

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

IEDJ

habit¹ *n.* ①習慣, 癖. ②性癖, 性質. ③體格. ④【植・動】質〔?〕, 習性. ⑤【古】衣服 (特に僧團の服). ⑥婦人乗馬服.

habit² *vt.* ①裝ふ, 著る,に衣服を著けさす. ②【古】住ふ.

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

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

に、其取り扱ひには豫想外の困難が伴つて來た事は勿論である。

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

COD and *POD*: 稀薄になった (= rarefied)
 N/A: 巧に工夫した (= skillfully devised)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

order

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 8.8 Contents of the sample material

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

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

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

Table 8.9 Sources of synonyms

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

8.4. Summary

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

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

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

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

9. Illustrated Examples

9.1. Explanation in the Guide to the dictionary

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

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

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

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

9.2. Presentation

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

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

9.3. Examples in double parentheses

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

9.4. Dictionaries suggested as references

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

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

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

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

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

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

9.4.1. Quotations from *POD*

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

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

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

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

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

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

to trace the source of the second example.

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

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

9.4.2. Quotations from *IEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

9.4.3. Quotations from *JECJ*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

9.4.4. Quotations from American dictionaries

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

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

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

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

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

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

(1) **absorb**

¶ *be absorbed in study* (*SEDJ*)

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

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

(2) **accrue**

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

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

9.5. Examples in the entries for function words

9.5.1. Examples in the entries for prepositions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

¶ *That's about right.* (*SEDJ*)

☞ *while you are about it* (*SEDJ*)

That's about right. (*JECJ*)

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

(2) **above**

☞ *above the horizon* (*SEDJ*)

¶ *above the sea level* (*SEDJ*)

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

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

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

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

9.5.2. Examples in the entries for articles

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

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

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

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

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

have been quoted from *POD*:

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

9.6. Examples in the entries for polysemous content words

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

9.7. Summary

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

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

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

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

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

10. Etymology

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

10.1. Etymology for memorization and word expansion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

10.2. The principle in *SEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

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

10.3. *COD* and *SEDJ*

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

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

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

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

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

Type 1 **pain**

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

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

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

Type 2 **table**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(3) **factotum**

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

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

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

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

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

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

(4) **Yankee**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

10.4. Summary

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

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

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

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

(Section 10 by Dohi)

11. Miscellany

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

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

11.1. Vocabulary network

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

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

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

(1) **dog** *COD*

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

dog. . . .

POD

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

(2) **horse**

COD

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

POD

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

Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English

A51 nouns: the horse and similar animals

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

11.2. Word connotation

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

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

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

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

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

11.3. Summary

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

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

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

(Section 11 by Dohi)

12. Conclusion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SEDJ sometimes shows cultural and encyclopedic information because

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

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

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

NOTES

Section 1

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

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

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

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

Section 2

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

Section 3

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

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

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

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

Section 4

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

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

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

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

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

Section 5

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

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

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

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

Section 7

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

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

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

Section 8

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Section 9

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

Section 10

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

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

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

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

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- Century2*: *The Century Dictionary: An Encyclopedic Lexicon of the English Language*. Revised and Enlarged edition. Ed. by Benjamin Eli Smith. New York: The Century Co., 1911. (1st edition, 1914; Reprinted edition of 1st edition, 7 vols., 1914, 1980, Meicho Fukyukai.)
- COD*: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. Eds. by Henry Watson Fowler, & Francis George Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1911. (1st edition, 5th impression, 1918; 1st edition, 7th impression, 1919; 1st edition, 1920; 1st edition, 1926.)
- DEJ*: *Dai Eiwa Jiten (A Complete English-Japanese Dictionary)* (『大英和辞典』) 2 vols. Ed. by Katsuji Fujioka. Tokyo: Okakura Shoten, 1921. (1st edition, 9th impression, Fascicle 1, 1921; 2nd edition, 1st impression, 2 vols., 1932.)
- EHJ*: *Eigo Hatsuo Jiten (An English Pronouncing Dictionary: For Japanese Students)* (『英語発音辞典』). Ed. by Sanki Ichikawa. Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1923. (15th edition, 1987.)
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- NED:** *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles*. 10 vols. Ed. by James Murray. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1884–1928. (1st edition, 1888–1933.)
- OED:** *The Oxford English Dictionary*. Ed. by James Murray. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1933. (1st edition, 1978.)
- POD:** *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. Eds. by Francis George Fowler, & Henry Watson Fowler. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1924. (1st edition, 1924; 1st edition, 1925.)
- SECJ:** *Kenkyusha Shin Eiwa Chu Jiten (Kenkyusha's New School Dictionary English-Japanese)* (『研究社新英和中辞典』). Ed. by Yoshisaburo Okakura. Tokyo: Kenkyusha, 1929. (1st edition, 60th impression, 1933.)
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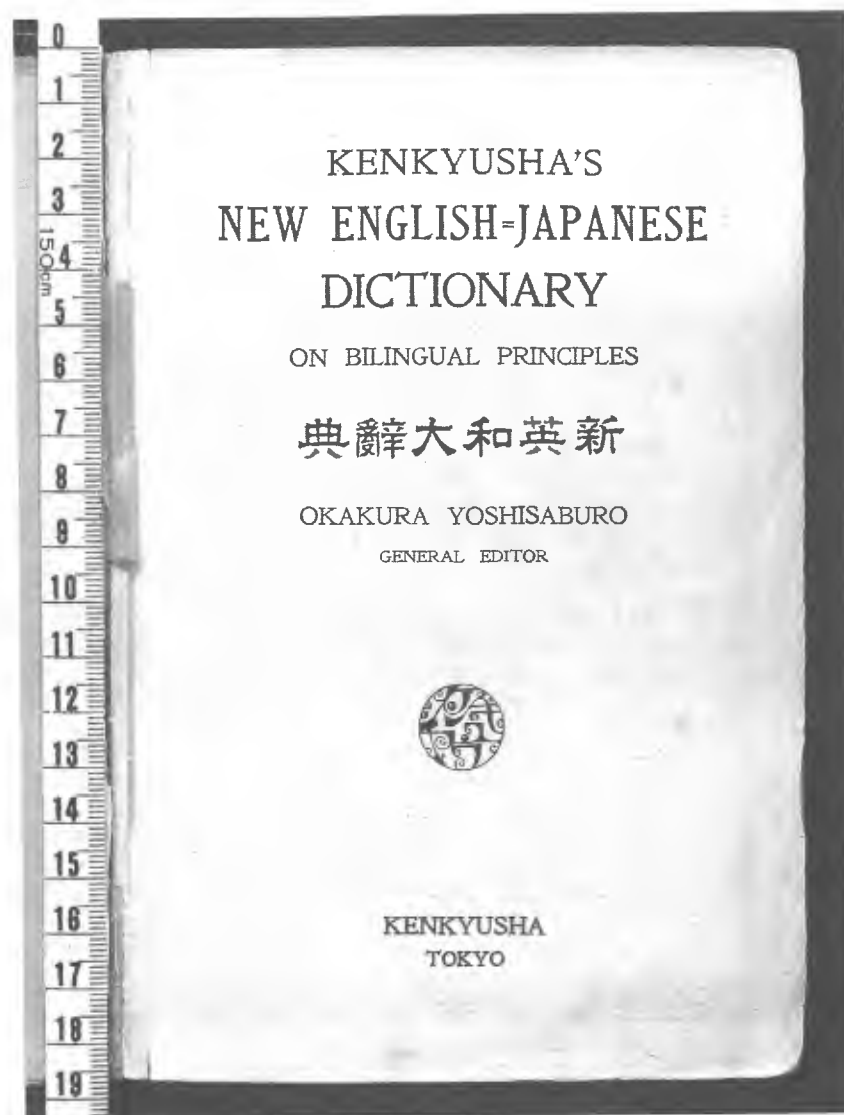
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APPENDIX

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

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



Photograph 1. Title page

序

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

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

而して本書を大成するに當り、非常の盡力を惠まれた方々には、

Photograph 2. Preface (1/2)

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

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

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

昭和二年二月二十二日

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Photograph 3. Preface (2/2)

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

一郎

編輯の方針

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

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

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

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

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

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

Photograph 6. Editorial principle (1/2)

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

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

内容の解説

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

て用ものして同意をく

2. 項目例示

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

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

〔注意〕 略語は巻末に一括して掲げてある。

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

ab'sent² [æbsɛnt] *v.t.* ...

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

5. 語義の解釋・譯語の順序其他 (1) 譯語は主として現代的口語に據る。

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

場合
では

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

本乃伊(イ)
ミ云ふ様な
頁を要するも
こ際にて適當

り際に願じて
て譯語の前又

では、(通例)

は、天文學で
字で始める、
ialia の項の

は、「あまに」
、の意、

is who he is,
結合を同時に

極の [cf. ant-

=responsible)

is for things',

法を示す語句

適當に斜字體

「(せん)さす

lies) を用ひ、

號 〽 を置き、

こした、熟語・

併し、前置

、排列を自由

、

、

色(など)の

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

(a) 二句を一括する時。例一

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

¶ give credit to (a story) (話を)信する。

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

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

(b) 省略出来る時。例一

¶ a pair of (wooden) clogs 下駄一足。

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

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

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

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

¶ gates (or jaws) of death 死生の境。

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

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

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

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

7. 語原の例解 ここには一般に代表的のものを示す一

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

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

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

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

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

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

に接尾語の -ous を附したもの。

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

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

語原に關する略語

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

I.
《注
音字
a:
æ
e
o
or
i
iz
o
o
u
u
ur
A
ci
ou
eo
ai
au
ia
oi
uo
ak
au
I
I
I
I

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

音標文字略解

I. 母音 (VOWELS)

(注意) 音字の次の: は其音の長音を示す。

Table of vowels with examples: a: father [fɑ:ðə], barn [bɑ:n]; e cat [kæt], man [mæn]; etc.

II. 父音 (CONSONANTS)

Table of consonants with examples: b, p, t, k, g, f, v, z, etc.

て用ひられることは Webster 式の如くである。本書では併此他に g を以て Jones 式のりに代用した。其他の注意すべき音字を次に例示する。

Table of consonants with examples: j yet [jet]; ɟ bring [brɪŋ], finger [fɪŋgə]; etc.

例一 far away [fɑ:roʊeɪ]

外閉音

- ɔ ドイツ語 'ich' の ch で「ヒ」の父音。
ɒ フランス語 'cognac' の gn で [ŋ] に

「頭足動物」 halo- の語意 此例の單に斜字體 a-, ad-, &-, -atory, -ly 家] これは西暦紀元を ruvian h Provençal nan-Catholic an, Romance sian uth-African South-Amer- andinavinn krait tonic kish ed States German

Photograph 12. List of phonetic symbols

略語表

(語原に關するものは其項に委む)

Table of abbreviations: a, adj. adjective; adv. adverb; aux. auxiliary; conj. conjunction; etc.

Table of abbreviations: (古) 古語英語; (俗) 俗語; (學) 學語; etc.

Table of abbreviations: (學) 醫學; (代) 代數; (算) 算術; etc.

A. n. i. (音聲) 音聲記号 (音聲) 音聲記号 (音聲) 音聲記号

Photograph 13. List of abbreviations

A NEW ENGLISH - JAPANESE DICTIONARY

et participial passive participle reposition ...

... 英語 ... 和語 ...

... 敬語 ... 俗語 ...

A

A, a, al [ei] (M. As, A's, As [ciə]) 英字の第一字. [初版として] (音) イ音, イ音(軟)第一の既知軟...

き始む (1) 母音字 a-[ju:], ev-[ju:], eo-[ju:] で始まる語及び one [wan] は親音が子音 [j] 又は [w] で始まる語 a を用ふ.

W. R. West Riding. W. R. A. F. Women's Air Force (cf. WRAF). W. R. N. S. Women's Naval Service (cf. Wrens) ...

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

Y yttrium. y. yen. year; yard. d. yard. B. year-book. ytterbium. 16. yards. the. 10. yeomanry. L. L. Yorkshire Light Infantry. M. C. A. Young Christian Association. M. Cath. A. Young Catholic Association. M. C. U. Young Christian Union. orks. Yorkshire. year: younger; your. that. W. C. A. Young Women's Christian Association.

Z zero. Z. Zaphonah. Z. Zoological Garden. Zine. I. zoological; zoology; zirconium. Zoological Society.

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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ふことで、この上ない名誉なものと感激している。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はならない。

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^{ショウゾウ}」とか「大典^{ダイスケ}」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まさに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とした平和公園となっている。付近は有名なキリシタン村で、毎日朝早くから下の通りをミサに通う下駄の音がカラ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。

もしこのまま生活を続けていれば、昭和20年の原爆の投下にまきこまれて、爆心地から200メートルの我が家では到底助かる見込みはなかったであろう。

*: この *Lexicon No. 38* は小島義郎先生の傘寿記念号として出版を予定していました。編集に手間取っている間に小島先生がご逝去されるという事態になり先生の追悼号となってしまう、返す返すも残念であり申し訳ない想いです。先生の「遠い思い出」は傘寿記念号に寄稿されたものですが、先生の生前の最後の手記としてここに掲載いたします。

我が家は私の転校を機に東京へ引っ越したので現実の被害はなかったが、私は何よりもなつかしい故郷が原爆の瓦礫の中に埋まってしまったこと、そしてなつかしい友人たちが大勢犠牲になったことが悲しかった。私の頭には天主堂のマリア像が無惨にもくずれ落ちている光景がいつまでも浮かんだ。

私は6年生の2学期から東京の小学校に転校した。昭和16年の12月、つまり私が旧制中学の1年の終わりに日米が開戦となった。間もなく戦況は悪化し、食糧不足、空襲、そして戦火の拡大となり、私たち中学生も工場動員に駆り出された。もう勉強どころではなくなった。

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われていたが、私にはどうしても東京外語を受けたい理由があった。私は「戦争」という雰囲気になじまず、とくに英米語の文学作品にあこがれていたこと、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、同じく廣瀬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が信じられなかった。しかし、それからは食糧不足に悩まされた。東京外語も食糧休暇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て、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。現在は梶木隆一先生のみがご健在である。

私たちのクラスメートに竹林滋君という人が居た。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。岩崎先生のもとで音声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年間はまたたく間に過ぎて、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

じ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。私は辞書の勉強も窮極的には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

(2007年1月～12月, アイウエオ順)

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小島義郎教授追悼

小島君の死を悼む

竹 林 滋

岩崎研究会の産みの親とも言うべき小島義郎君が3月2日に急逝された。私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勞した仲である。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志を誘って学習辞書を作って差し上げようということになったときのことで、小島君は本文の執筆のほかに文法解説を担当し、重要な動詞にはいわゆる「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。しかし特筆すべき業績は彼のアイデアを基に作られた『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つけて帰国し、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遥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濃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。あるとき彼は私に「今年は流行作家並みに論文を書いた。」と冗談めかしの言ったことがある。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・日本を併せて』も完成させた。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「喧嘩相手がいなくなって寂しい。」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、もう少し待っているよ。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に、かれこれ40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*Language*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。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彙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をお借り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間寄与されてきたことは皆さまもご存じのとおりです。例会はその後勤労福祉会館、家の光会館、私学会館、国立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、中尾先生などととも欠かさず出席され私たちの指導にあたってられました。岩崎研究会夏の旅行の常連でもありました。先生はよく鞆にウイスキーのボトルを持参され、夕食後皆さんとともに夜遅くまで学問的なお話や先生の外語の学生時代のお話などさまざまな話題を肴に楽しい時を過ごされたものでした。

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・日本を併せ見て』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えるべき優れた英語辞書学史です。『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も全国に数え切れない程いると思われま

しかし先生の何より大きな業績は英和辞典・和英辞典の編者として日本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。「和英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・背景等すべて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『ユニオン和英辞典』の後継となる最新版の『ライトハウス和英辞典』『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』『ルミナス英和辞典』などの編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中核になる意味を「一般義」として記述し、そこから展開するさまざまな語義を「その他」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年を費やした苦心の辞書です。

先生の遺された辞書の精神を引き継ぎ、さらによい辞書にしていく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情熱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『ライトハウス和英辞典』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

なることも知らずに、小島義郎先生がいらっしやった早稲田大学教育学部の英語英文学科に入学した。その時からかれこれ40年近く経っているが、現在、曲がりなりにも英語を教え、辞書のお手伝いをさせていただけているのも、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ていた。ところが、その予定の先生がご病気で急逝なさり、急遽、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、私だけは小島先生をお願いをした。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、その後はずっと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、校正作業は遅くなりがちであったが、気が付いたことを遠慮なく書かせていただいた。頓珍漢な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ことが採用された時には天にも昇る心地であった。

この辞書が完成するまでに何年かかり、何校までゲラが出たか、などは定かには覚えていないが、その間に私は「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て、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おらず、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

英辞典』は、英和辞典に比べて後れていた和英辞典のレベルを一挙に高めた記念碑的な作品であるが、そのような辞書に関わっていることができるのはひとえに小島先生のお陰である。

小島先生がお亡くなりになった無念さは筆舌に尽くしがたいものがありますが、どこかで先生が見守っていて下さると信じながら、先生から教えていただいた様々な事柄を大切にしつつ、これからも頑張っていきたいと思う。

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

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『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
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著書 『ましがえやすい英語』日本放送出版協会
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『日本語の意味 英語の意味』南雲堂
『英語辞書物語』(上下2巻) ELEC
『コミュニケーションの英語』岩波書店
『英語辞書の変遷——英・米・日本を併せ見て』研究社

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編集後記 悲しみが重なるが、小島君の追悼号にもうひとつ悲報を加えなければならぬ。ハワイ語、ポリネシア語、マオリ語などの研究者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数人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心には頭が下がる。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.)

前号 No. 37 は、平成19年8月7日に私は受け取っている。その編集後記には、「来年

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。かえす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。

先生のごことで、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ごことである。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.)