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## Profiling Metadiscourse Markers in Native and Non-Native English

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### 1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to profile the use of metadiscourse markers in native and non-native English essays. Granger and Rayson (1998) apply Crytal's (1991) notion of "profiling," i.e. the identification of the most salient features in a particular person or register, to the field of interlanguage studies. In this paper, I will refer to the term "profile" or "profiling" in the same meaning. Starting from the assumption that every interlanguage is characterized by a "unique matrix of frequencies of various linguistic forms" (Krzeszowski 1990: 212), this study will employ three kinds of electric corpora: the Japanese EFL Learner (JEFLL) Corpus, the Japanese component of the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE-JP), and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS).

Corpora can provide a wide variety of linguistic information which could be useful in many different fields of language studies. Learner corpus is "a corpus, or computer textual database, of the language produced by foreign language learners" (Leech 1998: xiv). Since the 1990s, when many learner corpora were constructed, a number of language researchers carried out learner corpus-based Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies, but most of their studies focused on learners' vocabulary and some grammatical features. Discourse analyses focus on language characteristics that extend across clause boundaries, and, as a result, discourse characteristics are more difficult to identify and analyze than lower-level lexical or grammatical features (e.g. Biber *et al.*

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1998; Conrad 2002). Therefore this study will employ Hyland list of metadiscourse markers (e.g. Hyland 2005), one of computable discoursal variables, and examine the frequency-patterns of them.

## 2. Purpose

As already mentioned above, the purpose of this paper is to profile the frequencies and distribution in native and non-native English essays. Research questions are:

- (1) How are metadiscourse markers distributed according to academic years?
- (2) What is the difference of metadiscourse between native and non-native speakers of English?

To borrow Granger's (1998) terms, the former is the comparison between different stages of interlanguage (IL-IL comparison), and the latter is the comparison between native language and interlanguage (NL-IL comparison).

## 3. Data and methodology

### 3.1. Data

Three kinds of corpus data are compared in this study; the Japanese EFL Learner (JEFLL) Corpus, the Japanese component of the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE-JP), and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS).

JEFLL is a collection of free compositions written by learners of six different academic years at several junior and senior high schools in Japan. The corpus size is approximately 600,000 words. Now, the corpus is freely available for research via the web query system developed by Shogakukan Corpus Network (SCN).

ICLE-JP is a corpus of argumentative essays on different topics written by Japanese university students of English mainly in their third or fourth year. The corpus size is nearly 170,000 words. Since the Japanese component is not included in the ICLE CD-ROM, I obtained academic license to use it from the ICLE-JP team at Showa Women's

University.

LOCNESS is a corpus of native English essays made up of British pupil's A level essays, British university students' essays, and American university students' essays. It can serve as a reference corpus for NL-IL comparison. The corpus size is about 320,000 words. We can purchase a copy of the corpus from Sylviane Granger or Sylvie De Cock.

Table 1 shows four sub-corpora analyzed in this study. JH, SH, UNI, and NS in the table stand for junior high school students, senior high school students, university students, and native speakers of English respectively.

Table 1: Corpora employed in this study

	JH	SH	UNI	NS
Corpus	JEFLL			ICLE-JP
Tokens	328665	310251	168800	323985

### 3.2. Methodology

The definition of metadiscourse is still controversial, and it is often characterized as "discourse about discourse" (Vande Kopple 1985: 83). However, according to Crismore *et al.*'s influential definition, metadiscourse is "[l]inguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content but this is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret and evaluate the information given" (1993: 40). Today, the most popular framework of metadiscourse may be Hyland list. While it has employed to analyze many kinds of texts, such as company annual reports (Hyland 1998), introductory academic coursebooks (Hyland 1999), undergraduate textbooks (Hyland 2000), or postgraduate dissertations (Hyland 2004), it is important in writing instruction and writing assessment (Ädel 2006; Hyland and Tse 2004; Kobayashi and Yamada 2008). Furthermore, it can be applied to corpus-based analysis of metadiscourse.

Hyland list consists of nearly 500 items, and they are categorized into ten types listed in Table 2.

Table 2: Metadiscourse categories

Category	Function
Transitions (TRA)	Express semantic relation between main clauses
Frame markers (FRM)	Refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages
Endophoric markers (END)	Refer to information in other parts of the text
Evidentials (EVI)	Refer to source of information from other texts
Code glosses (COD)	Help readers grasp functions of ideational material
Hedges (HED)	Without writer's full commitment to proposition
Boosters (BOO)	Emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition
Attitude markers (ATM)	Express writer's attitude to proposition
Engagement markers (ENG)	Explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader
Self-mentions (SEM)	Explicit reference to author(s)

(Hyland and Tse 2004: 169)

In this study, data processing includes the following five steps:

Firstly, the raw and normalized frequencies of ten metadiscourse categories in four sub-corpora will be extracted.

Secondly, using the Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient, the correlation matrix of the frequencies will be formed in order to establish the strength of relationships between sub-corpora.

Thirdly, correspondence analysis will be conducted in order to reduce the dimensionality of data matrix, and to visualize underlying complex relationships between categories, those between sub-corpora, and those between categories and sub-corpora.

Fourthly, statistical significance for each category will be tested with Pearson's chi-square test. *Post hoc* pairwise comparisons will be performed with Bonferroni's procedure when the calculated value of chi-square is significant.

Finally, each category will be qualitatively compared by means of careful examination of concordance lines.

## 4. Results and discussion

### 4.1. The distribution of metadiscourse categories

Table 3 lists the raw frequencies (RF) and normalized frequencies (NF) (per 100,000 words) of ten metadiscourse categories in four sub-

corpora. The column “*p*” indicates *p*-values calculated by chi-square test. The normalized frequencies are visualized in Figure 1.

Table 3: The raw and normalized frequencies of ten metadiscourse categories

	JH		SH		UNI		NS		<i>p</i>
	RF	NF	RF	NF	RF	NF	RF	NF	
TRA	21784	6628.03	19164	6176.93	8334	4937.20	15045	4643.73	***
FRM	5235	1592.81	4357	1404.35	2527	1497.04	2319	715.77	***
END	62	18.86	41	13.22	22	13.03	14	4.32	n.s.
EVI	2	0.61	11	3.55	44	26.07	386	119.14	***
COD	950	289.05	1640	528.60	1453	860.78	2219	684.91	***
HED	3056	929.82	4219	1359.87	2787	1651.07	6356	1961.82	***
BOO	3304	1005.28	4205	1355.35	3259	1930.69	3940	1216.11	***
ATM	1904	579.31	2116	682.03	898	531.99	1109	342.30	***
ENG	7598	2311.78	6334	2041.57	3129	1853.67	4165	1285.55	***
SEM	39996	12169.23	32622	10514.71	8677	5140.40	3103	957.76	***

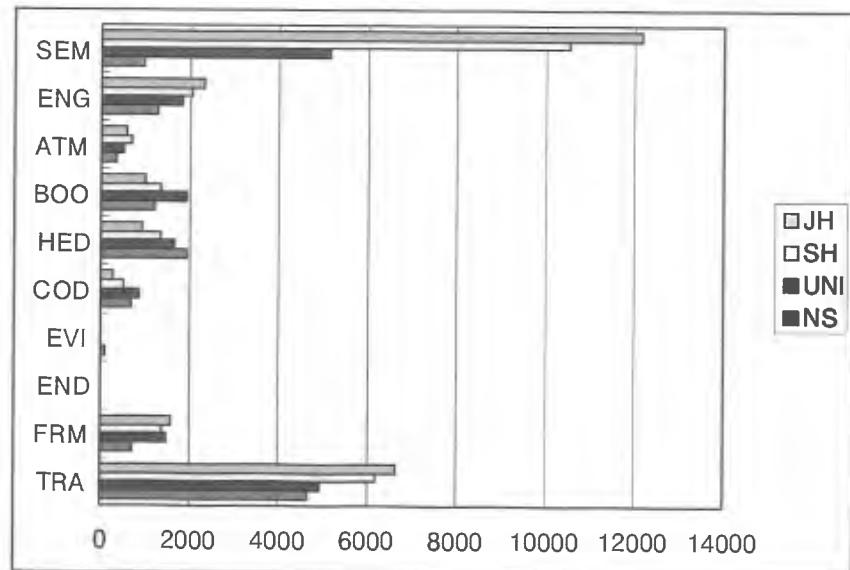
(\*\*\*) =  $p < .001$ , (\*\*) =  $p < .01$ , (\*) =  $p < .05$ , n.s. =  $p \geq .05$ 

Figure 1: The normalized frequencies of ten categories

As can be seen in Figure 1, SEM is the most frequent category, and TRA is the second frequent category. These two categories, as well as FRM and ENG, are more frequent in non-native essays than in native ones. On the other hand, EVI and HED are less frequent in non-native than in native. A glance at Figure 1 may show a correlation between the frequency-patterns and academic years in non-native speakers, and a discrepancy between native and non-native speakers in the frequency-patterns. When there is a correlation between four sub-corpora, using Pearson's product-moment formula, the result falls into a convincing pattern. Correlation-coefficients range in value from +1.000, a perfect positive correlation, to -1.000, a perfect negative correlation. As Table 4 shows, the correlation-coefficients between three non-native sub-corpora run very high, ranging from 0.916 to 0.998, and those between natives and non-natives run relatively low, ranging from 0.413 to 0.708. What is meant in the figure is that there is a consistently high discoursal similarity within non-native sub-corpora and that there is a difference between natives and non-natives.

Table 4: Intercorrelations among four sub-corpora

	JH	SH	UNI	NS
JH	1.000			
SH	0.998	1.000		
UNI	0.916	0.939	1.000	
NS	0.413	0.456	0.708	1.000

In order to explore more complex relationships between categories, those between sub-corpora, and those between categories and sub-corpora, which are difficult to do by observing the contingency table, this study employs a multivariate analysis called correspondence analysis. The analysis is a technique for data-reduction, which visualizes the complex interrelationships between row variables, those between column variables, and those between row and column variables graphically in a multi-dimensional space. It computes the row and column scores in a way that permutes the original data matrix so that the cor-

relation between the row and column variables can be maximized (e.g. Tabata 2002). Figure 2 shows the row and column scores of most powerful dimensions, which account for 99.41% of total variation in the data matrix, on a scatter diagram. The coordinates in the diagram reflect the relationships between variables, and similar variables are plotted close to each other.

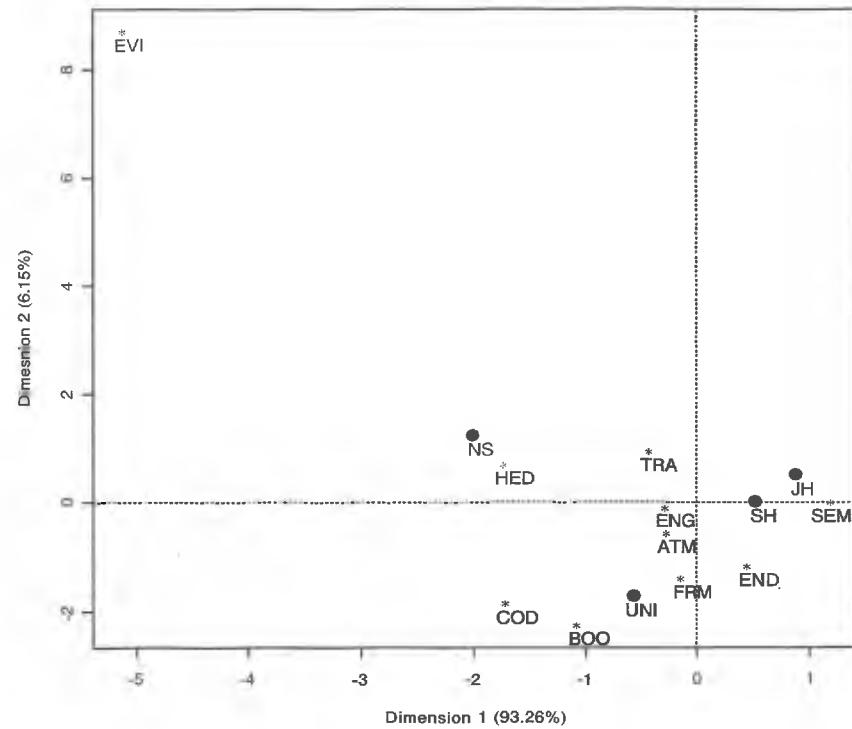


Figure 2: Correspondence analysis (Dimension 1 and 2)

The most prominent feature of this figure is that the proficiency level of English is reflected in Dimension 1. As far as the horizontal axis is concerned, NS is plotted apart from the other three sub-corpora, JH, SH, and UNI. While UNI, the most advanced group of non-natives, is plotted relatively close to NS, JH, the most novice group, is plotted

furthest from NS. In other words, the frequency-patterns of metadiscourse categories serve as a developmental index, a “developmental yardstick against which global (i.e. not skill or item specific) second language proficiency could be gauged” (Larsen-Freeman 1983: 287). Moreover, we see from Figure 2 that SEM and END are characteristics of JH and SH, that BOO and COD are those of UNI, and that EVI and HED are those of NS. Although the profiling using the technique for data-reduction can be understood intuitively, it often blurs some of subtle differences within the data matrix. To solve the problem, more detailed analysis will be the subject of the following section.

#### 4.2. Profiling metadiscourse categories

In order to discover significant overuse / underuse of metadiscourse categories, it is necessary to investigate the frequency-patterns not only quantitatively but also qualitatively. Furthermore, the frequencies of each item should be scrutinized if necessary. Although it is reasonable that all categories will be examined in detail, as space is limited, this paper will concentrate on TRA, FRM, and SEM in the following sections. This is also because novice non-natives prefer to use these three categories in the sentence-initial position in order to connect one sentence with another.

##### 4.2.1. Transitions

Transitions (TRA) are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases which help readers interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument (Hyland 2005: 50). As shows in Table 3, the frequency of TRA decreases significantly as the proficiency level of English raises ( $\chi^2 = 2673.50$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Subsequently, the results of *post hoc* pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni’s procedure show that statistical differences are found between JH and UNI ( $p < .05$ ), JH and NS ( $p < .001$ ), SH and UNI ( $p < .001$ ), SH and NS ( $p < .001$ ), and UNI and NS ( $p < .001$ ). In other words, non-natives overuse significantly TRA in comparison to natives.

Although TRA consists of 48 items, the sum total of frequencies of

the top three items (“and,” “but,” and “because”) makes up nearly 90% of word-tokens of all items in TRA. The distribution of the top three items appears in Figure 3.

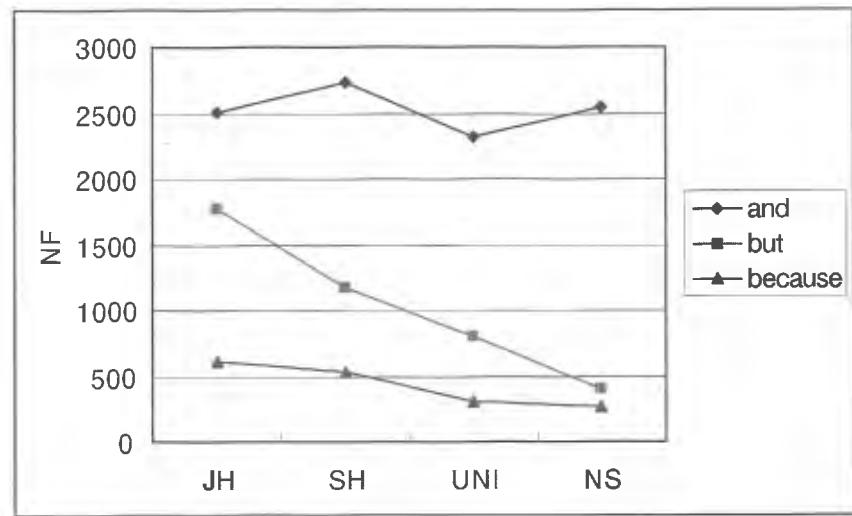


Figure 3: The distribution of top three TRA (“and,” “but,” and “because”)

This figure tells us that the NF of “but” is inversely proportional to the proficiency level of English. Take an essay written by a JH student for example. In JH and SH components of the JEFL Corpus, in order to ensure fluency, the subjects are allowed to use Japanese words whenever they cannot hit upon the right words in the writing task (Tono 2002: 160).

I usually have bread.

But I like rice.

I eat sometimes.

But it's [JP: metta ni nai].

And I don't like milk.

But I like [JP: misoshiru].

But milk and [JP: misoshiru] drink [JP: metta ni nai]. (JH)

This clearly shows that novice non-natives tend to overuse “but” in the sentence-initial position. Figure 4 summarizes the proportion of top three TRA (“and,” “but,” and “because”) in the sentence-initial position.

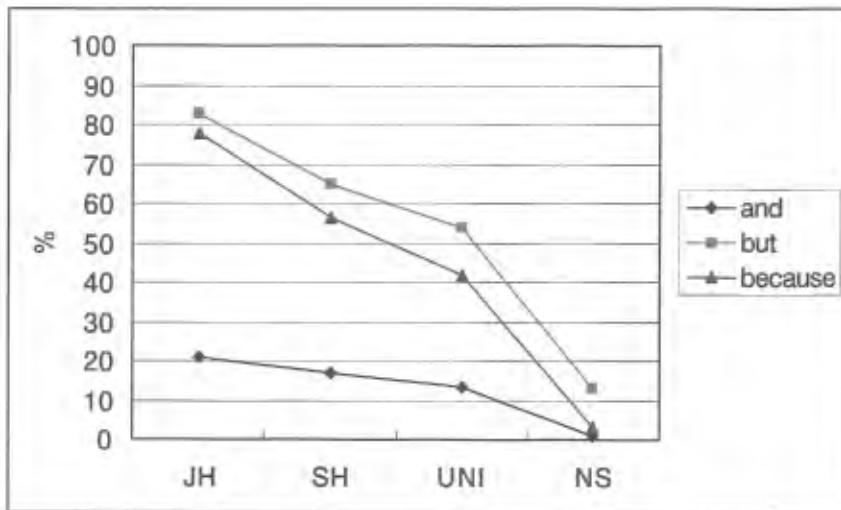


Figure 4: The distribution of top three TRA in the sentence-initial position

As this figure indicates, non-natives are apt to overuse conjunctions, especially “but” and “because,” in the sentence-initial position. Biber *et al.* demonstrate quantitatively that “but” in the beginning of sentences is characteristic of conversation (1999: 83–84). In addition, it seems that some occurrences of “but” don’t bear the meaning of contrast (e.g. “But I like rice.”). As Crewe (1990) and Altenberg and Tapper (1998) remark, relations that can be inferred from the text do not have to be marked explicitly, which means that a high frequency of connectors in a text does not necessarily improve its cohesive quality. Overuse and misuse of connectives are likely to reduce the comprehensibility of the text.

#### 4.2.2. Frame markers

Frame markers (FRM) signal text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure (Hyland 2005: 51). As shown in Table 3, significant differences are found among sub-corpora for the frequency of FRM ( $\chi^2 = 207.52$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The results of *post hoc* pairwise comparisons show that statistical differences are found between JH and SH ( $p < .01$ ), JH and UNI ( $p < .001$ ), SH and UNI ( $p < .001$ ), and UNI and NS ( $p < .001$ ). To put it briefly, non-natives use more FRM than natives.

All items in FRM are classified into four subcategories: sequencing, label stages, announce goals, and shift topic. The distribution of the subcategories appears in Figure 5.

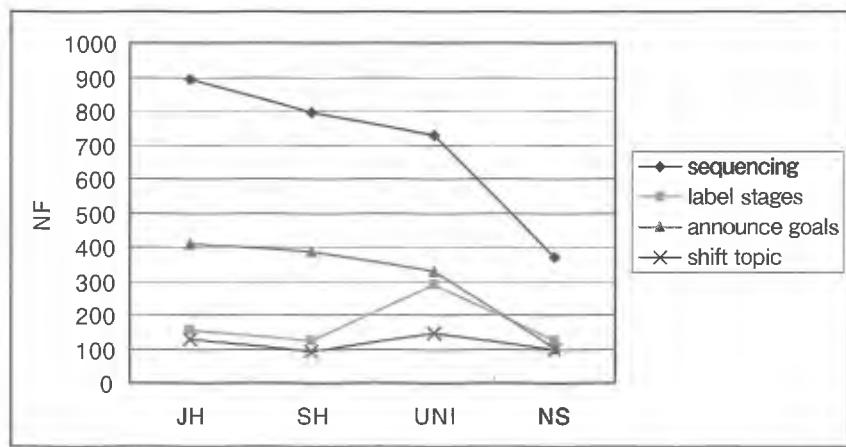


Figure 5: The distribution of four subcategories in FRM

As this figure indicates, sequencing is the most common subcategory, and its frequency accounts for approximately 50% of word-tokens of all items in FRM. Moreover, novice non-natives, especially JH students, tend to overuse sequencing markers, as can be seen in the following essay. In the JEFLL Corpus, misspellings produced by non-natives are left for error analysis.

I'll bring our [JP: yokin tuchō] **first**.  
 I'll bring our [JP: arubamu] **second**.  
 I'll bring our [JP: kane] **thrid**.  
 I'll bring our [JP: sohuto] **seventh**.  
 I'll bring our [JP: huku] a bittle **fourth**.  
 I'll bring our computer **fifth**.  
 I'll bring our [JP: tyotto no] food **sexth**.  
 These are in some of my fag. (JH)

In this essay, all of the sentences except for the final include sequencing markers although it is not clear why there is the “seventh” in the fourth sentence. Perhaps “thrid” and “sexth” are misspellings of “third” and “sixth” respectively. The writer of this essay may try to compose logically, but his or her attempt proves fruitless. Such an overuse is also reported by Tankó (2004) who investigates the use of adverbial connectors in Hungarian university students’ essays. It often results from superficial attention to logical forms (Intaraprawat and Steffensen 1995: 271), and results in “artificial, mechanical prose” (Zamel 1983: 27).

#### 4.2.3. Self-mentions

Self-mentions (SEM) refer to the degree of explicit author presence in the text measured by the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives (Hyland 2005: 53). As shows in Table 3, the frequency of SEM decreases significantly as the proficiency level of English raises ( $\chi^2 = 20569.21$ ,  $df = 3$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Subsequently, the results of *post hoc* pairwise comparisons show that statistical differences are found between JH and SH ( $p < .001$ ), JH and UNI ( $p < .001$ ), JH and NS ( $p < .001$ ), SH and UNI ( $p < .001$ ), SH and NS ( $p < .001$ ), and UNI and NS ( $p < .001$ ). That is to say, non-natives overuse significantly SEM in comparison to natives.

The corpora employed in this study include seven items in SEM: “I,” “my,” “me,” “mine,” “we,” “our,” and “us.” The distribution of seven items appears in Figure 6.

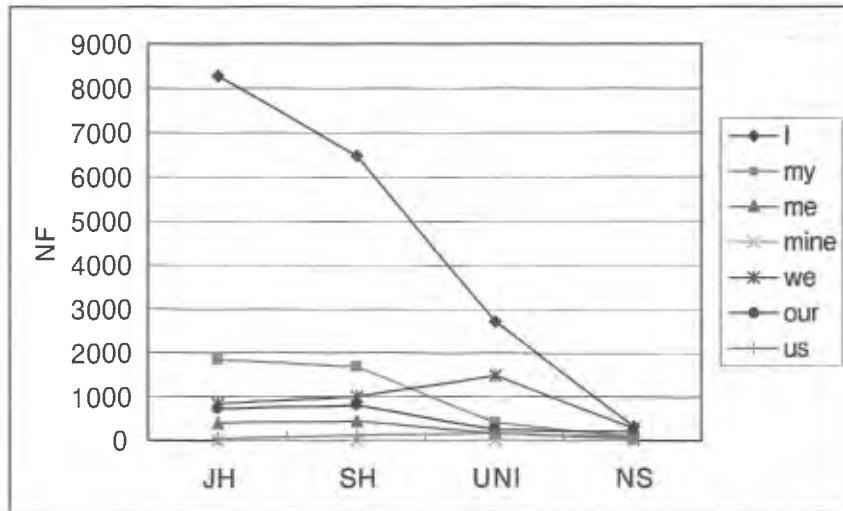


Figure 6: The distribution of seven items in SEM

This figure illustrates that the frequency of “I” decreases steeply as the proficiency level of English raises. Consider an essay written by a JH student for example.

I often eat rice in the morning.  
I drink milk everyday.  
I like milk very much.  
I sometimes eat bread.  
I like bread a little.  
I eat breakfast everyday. (JH)

What this example makes clear is that novice non-natives tend to overuse “I” in the sentence-initial position. Such an overuse is also reported by Kobayashi and Yamada (2008) who examine the use of metadiscourse markers in the spoken corpus of Japanese EFL learners. Furthermore, it is not particular to Japanese speakers of English, and it is fairly common among non-natives (Petch-Tyson 1998). As Biber *et al.* illustrate statistically that first person pronouns are very frequent in

spoken language, and less frequent in academic writings (1999: 333–334), non-natives write English as if they were speaking.

### 5. Final remarks

This study has shown that, as for the use of metadiscourse markers, there is a difference between natives and non-natives. Non-natives, especially novice ones, can use very few varieties of metadiscourse markers so that they overuse or underuse significantly the most of metadiscourse categories in comparison to natives. However, this study has been exploratory in character and its limitations are obvious. In this study, my approach has been mainly quantitative, and categories examined qualitatively are only three: TRA, FRM, and SEM. While automated quantitative analysis is “a very accurate quick ‘way in’ for any researchers confronted with large quantities of data with which they are unfamiliar” (Thomas and Wilson 1996: 106), it calls for qualitative analysis which can offer a rich and detailed perspective on the data.

Finally, to investigate the characteristics of non-native English is informative for compiling ELT (English Language Teaching) dictionaries. In 1987, Longman started collecting samples of learners’ writing to build a corpus of learners’ English. This corpus (the Longman Learners’ Corpus, LLC) was intended to help in compiling ELT dictionaries, such as the third edition of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* published in 1995 (e.g. Gillard and Gadsby 1998). Error information given in most ELT dictionaries is limited to word-level errors, such as collocational errors, spelling errors, or errors over countability. A further direction of ELT dictionaries will be to give some information on pragmatic / discursual errors shown partly in this study.

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# An Analysis of the *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*, New Edition: A Pedagogical Viewpoint

TAKASHI KANAZASHI  
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MIYAKO RYU

## 1. Introduction

This article presents a critical and comparative review of the *Longman Advanced American Dictionary*, New Edition (henceforth *LAAD2*), which was revised approximately 7 years after the first edition was published. This dictionary will be compared with *LAAD1*, *LDOCE4*, *MWALED*, and other EFL dictionaries in terms of entry items (Section 2), pronunciation (Section 3), definitions, examples and other related information (Section 4), register and subject labels (Section 5), grammatical labels and language notes (Section 6), four types of articles (Section 7), etymology (Section 8), and pictorial illustrations (Section 9). We focus primarily on the dictionary's usefulness as an educational tool in helping EFL learners in their English studies. Section 10 reports the results of a user study related to our review; the user study was conducted among English teachers and students at Japanese universities, where the teachers served as informants and the students acted as participants. This section forms the basis of the pedagogical viewpoint mentioned in the title of this article. Section 11 presents an overall conclusion.

Much has been said of pedagogical lexicography, and EFL dictionaries continue to be under constant review. Rundell (1998) overviews trends in English pedagogical lexicography since the publication of Hornby's dictionary (*ISED*), and describes some improvements and

developments in EFL dictionaries published up until the late 1990s. Van der Meer and Sansome (2001) divide their article on *OALD6* into two parts and devote the latter to a discussion of pedagogical issues; further, as Sansome concludes, "The future of pedagogic lexicography is full of possibilities" (p. 302).

The prefaces of EFL dictionaries tend to point out the usefulness of the product for EFL learners, the impact it might have on them, the possible linguistic/pedagogical implications, or the amount of effort that was spent on making it more user-friendly. In the preface to *OALD6*, Sally Wehmeier comments that "this edition, the sixth, breaks new ground, sharpening further the learner-centred focus of the original," referring to the centenary of the birth of A. S. Hornby that came shortly before the dictionary was published. In the Introduction to *CALD*, Patrick Gillard asks, "what kind of character would they [the readers] find in the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*?" He goes on to answer by describing the dictionary as being friendly, helpful, and well-informed. In the introduction to *COBUILD4*, John Sinclair, *COBUILD*'s founding editor-in-chief, regards it as "continu[ing] the distinctive *COBUILD* tradition established sixteen years ago. This new edition updates the 'snapshot' of current English, and adds some attractive features to make the book even easier to use." Randolph Quirk proudly states in the foreword to *LDOCE4* that "[t]he new *LDOCE* is a magnificent culmination of innovative energetic research along with computational techniques that are married to well-honed educational and lexicographical skills." Henry Widdowson observes in the foreword to *OALD7* that "it is the needs of the learner that are given priority, and this is what, from its early beginning, has always marked *OALD* as distinctive." In the preface, Stephen J. Perrault, editor of *MWALED*, regards the dictionary as "not only an entirely new dictionary created by the editorial staff of America's oldest dictionary publisher; it also marks the beginning of a new kind of publishing for this company," mentioning the dictionary's "unparalleled" coverage of American English.

Surprisingly, *LAAD2*, the American counterpart of *LDOCE*, does

not have a preface or introduction in which to display such messages to the user.<sup>1)</sup> The 10-page front matter that starts from the inside front cover includes (a) pronunciation keys; (b) contents; (c) acknowledgments; (d) “Reviews of the Dictionary,” which quotes 6 short passages by educators and authors; (e) “Key to the Dictionary,” which is a visual user’s guide where explanations are arranged rather sporadically without an alphabetical or thematic order; (f) “Longman Academic e-Tutor CD-ROM,” a brief guide to the CD-ROM edition of *LAAD2*, which we deal with only in Sections 3, 8, and 9; and (g) “Picture Credits.” Thus, (d) “Reviews of the Dictionary” seems to have substituted for the conventional preface by the editor. Does this suggest that there is no message on improvements or new features that the editors themselves can deliver with pride?

The front matter is followed by the 1841-page dictionary text, printed in black, red and blue. Between the “I” and “J” sections is the 60-page middle matter, consisting of “Language Notes,” “Full-page Illustrations,” and “Writing Guide.” The “Full-page Illustrations” section is printed in full color. The 22-page back matter consists of tables for (a) U.S. States, Capitals and Postal Abbreviations, (b) Numbers, (c) Weights and Measures, (d) Irregular Verbs, (e) Short forms, (f) Labels, (g) Grammar Codes, (h) [Verb] Patterns, (i) The Longman American Defining Vocabulary, and (j) Geographical Names. A CD-ROM edition is attached to the inside of the back cover.

For a quick survey of headwords, subject labels, definitions, examples, collocations, and “Origin” notes, we have designated the following as a sample: pages 50 and 51, and similar page sets for every subsequent 50 pages—pages 100 and 101, 150 and 151, . . . and pages 1800 and 1801—although for other categories, the entire dictionary will be surveyed. Thus, by multiplying the figures in the sample by 25, one can approximate the number in the entire dictionary.

## 2. Entry items

### 2.1. Number and types of entry items

Similar to *LAAD1*, items typically found in English in the U.S. are

entered unmarked in *LAAD2*. In the sample, we have counted 2,120 entry items, including run-on derivatives. Therefore, the total number of entries in *LAAD2* is estimated to be 53,000.<sup>1)</sup> Table 2.1 indicates the number of types of entry items in the sample.

Table 2.1 Number of entry items<sup>2)</sup>

noun	verb	adjective	adverb	affix	abbreviation	pronoun	others
1271	241	400	139	17	23	12	22

The entries for nouns, including compound and proper nouns, account for nearly 60% of the total. Verb entries include those in which not the definition of the verb itself but that of a phrasal verb is provided. Affixes include five prefixes and twelve suffixes. Not only the word **each** but also the phrase **each other**, quantifiers **lots** and **lotso**, and contracted forms such as **they’d**, **they’ll**, etc., are regarded as pronouns. Some derivatives, particularly nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, are run-on under a main entry. There are 319 such run-on derivatives (included in Table 2.1), typically without a definition but occasionally with an example.<sup>3)</sup> As there are a small number of multiple parts-of-speech entries, the total number in Table 2.1 does not add up to 2,120.

Compared to *MWALED*, academic, cultural, and encyclopedic entries abound in *LAAD2*. On the other hand, *LAAD2* tends to refrain from entering less frequent derivatives that are run-on under the main entries in *MWALED*.

### 2.2. Newly entered items

For a dictionary that was revised after a seven-year interval, the number of newly entered and deleted items is relatively small. There are 85 newly entered items in the sample, most of which are scientific terms with a descriptive subject label (see Section 4.3.). The following is a list of newly entered items:

- (1) historical terms (nine items, all labeled as HISTORY): **American Expeditionary Force**, **American Indian Movement**, Amer-

- ican System, Columbian Exchange, Muslim League, Paris peace talks, START, Triple Alliance, Triple Entrance
- (2) political terms (five items, all labeled as POLITICS): **Americans with Disabilities Act, blanket primary, parliamentary democracy, parliamentary government, Surface Transportation Board**
- (3) terms in economics (three items, all labeled as ECONOMICS): **graduated income tax, variable cost, variable expense**
- (4) terms labeled as ENG.LANG.ARTS (two items): **exclamatory, Lost Generation**
- (5) computer-related terms (four items, all labeled as COMPUTERS): **data capture, data mining, data retrieval, data transfer**
- (6) mathematical terms (seven items, all labeled as MATH): **if-then statement, irrational number, lateral area, lateral face, parent function, prime factorization, principal root**
- (7) terms in chemistry (five items, all labeled as CHEMISTRY): **amphoteric, disaccharide, ionic bond, ionic compound, saponification**
- (8) terms labeled as BIOLOGY (twelve items): **amniotic egg, blastula, ileum, lateral bud, lateral line, lateral line system, menstrual cycle, meninges, radula, saprobe, tricuspid valve, vascular tissue**
- (9) terms in earth science (two items, both labeled as EARTH SCIENCE) **graben, rain shadow**
- (10) terms labeled as TECHNICAL (three items): **Amerind, varietal<sup>1</sup> adj., varietal<sup>2</sup> n.**
- (11) terms used in informal contexts (two items, both labeled as INFORMAL): **bunker buster, froyo**
- (12) terms with other labels (three items): **exclusion laws LAW, iPod TRADEMARK, Planck's constant PHYSICS**
- (13) other proper nouns (five items): **Americanism, IED, Igbo, Ibo, San Martin**
- (14) other compound nouns (twelve items): **color analyst, color commentator, color wheel, exclusive powers, iris scan,**

**mental block, mutual aid society, mutually exclusive events, placer mining, printed matter, responsible development, triple play**

- (15) other words (eleven items): **amu, bunraku, convoy v. (run-on), exchequer, fingerprinting (run-on), -fronted, sati, sham<sup>2</sup> adj., thigmotropism, varna, varying**

In short, most of them are terms of some technicality, and 55 out of 85 are compound nouns. Thus, *LAAD2* apparently aims to be academically oriented on one hand, and on the other hand, seems to have recognized these compound nouns as idiomatically stable in their own right, not merely as a stopgap combination of words.

### 2.3. Deleted items

Only six items in the list of entries in *LAAD1* corresponding to the sample from *LAAD2* have been deleted: **bullshit<sup>1</sup> n., bullshit<sup>2</sup> v., bullshitter, darkie, Parcheesi, and parish church**. In addition to the first four words above, many offensive words or uses of words have been removed from *LAAD2* (see Section 7.1.). Based on the increase in entries by 79 items (85 new entries and six deleted ones) in the sample, we estimate the increase in entries in the entire dictionary at nearly 2,000, or an increase by 3.9% over *LAAD1*. This is somewhat smaller than the increase in headwords, including derived words, in *LDOCE4* over *LDOCE3*, which is estimated to be 6.5%, based on Ichikawa et al. (2005: 4).

### 2.4. Changes in status

There are some other words whose status has changed. For example, **snake oil salesman, also snake oil peddler** in *LAAD2* used to be treated as collocations in Sense 2 of **snake oil** in *LAAD1*. The word **sated adj.** in *LAAD2* used to be shown as “**be sated (with sth)**”—the only phrase under the entry for **sate v.** in *LAAD1*, in which the phrase and not the entry word is defined. On the other hand, **rains** (in the sense of “monsoon”) in *LAAD1* is now no longer treated as a head-

word, and has been moved to Sense 2 of *rain* in *LAAD2* using the same example: *The rains have started early this year.* There are thirteen such cases in the sample where the treatment has changed in status.

(Kanazashi)

### 3. Pronunciation

#### 3.1. Overview

The transcribing method and pronunciation guide in *LAAD2* does not differ much from that in *LAAD1*. Therefore, the merits and demerits of *LAAD1* have largely been retained in *LAAD2*. The new edition, however, includes a CD-ROM, whose sound files can help the user improve his or her pronunciation. In this section, the transcribing method of *LAAD2*, mainly the remaining problems, will be examined and compared with that of the previous edition, *LAAD1*, and then the CD-ROM will be analyzed.

#### 3.2. Transcriptions of vowels

##### 3.2.1. General view

The list of phonetic symbols for vowels is shown in Table 1. The list is given inside the front cover of the dictionary, whereas the previous edition has the list under its guide to pronunciation in the Appendix.

In *LAAD1*, the Guide shows that /e/ is used for the vowels of *bet* and *bed*. This was not true, however, as /ɛ/ was used in the dictionary. This mistake has been corrected in the new version, and the Guide says that /ɛ/ is used for the vowel of above-mentioned words. The use of /ɛ/ reflects the openness of GA /ɛ/ as opposed to RP /e/.

Table 3.1 The Vowel symbols in *LAAD2*

/i/	beat, feed
/ɪ/	bit, did
/eɪ/	date, paid
/ɛ/	bet, bed
/æ/	bat, bad
/ɑ/	box, odd, father
/ɔ/	bought, dog
/oʊ/	boat, road
/ʊ/	book, good
/u/	boot, food, student
/ʌ/	but, mud, mother
/ə/	banana, among
/əʊ/	shirt, murder
/aɪ/	bite, cry, buy, eye
/aʊ/	about, how
/ɔɪ/	voice, boy
/ɪr/	beer
/ər/	bare
/ɑr/	bar
/ɔr/	door
/ʊr/	tour

##### 3.2.2. Weak vowels

Higashi et al. (1986: 72) and Masuda et al. (1999: 22) point out that the use of length marks is desirable for such words as *beat*, *boot*, *bought*, and *shirt*. In their analysis of *LAAD1*, Dohi et al. (2002: 20) take up this fact, and point out that because of the lack of length marks in *LAAD1*, '/i/' and '/ə/' can represent both strong and weak vowels,' and that 'it is sometimes difficult to interpret the value of these symbols'. *LAAD2* neglects to use length marks as well, leading to the same difficulties.

##### 3.2.3. The use of /ɛ/

Neither *LAAD1* nor *LAAD2* indicate the widespread use of /ɛ/ in words like *marry* and *narrow* in the US. Since it is a common pronunciation in the US, it may be preferable to use the symbol.

### 3.3. Transcription of consonants

*LAAD2* uses almost the same method of transcription for consonants as *LAAD1*. For example, the initial consonant in words like *white* and *where* is transcribed as /w/ (without /h/), as in the previous edition.

Words like *news*, *tube* and *due*, where ‘yod’ has largely been dropped in American English, are transcribed as /nuz/, /tub/, and /du/, respectively, just as they were in the previous edition, which, according to Dohi et al. (2002: 23) ‘seems quite adequate’.

The use of the symbol representing a glottal stop, nasal plosion and lateral plosion in such words as *football*, *button*, and *atlas* is the same as in *LAAD1*. Since all three realizations are represented by the same symbol, the user may have problems distinguishing between them.

### 3.4. Transcription of stress and syllabication

One difference between *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* in the transcription of stress and syllabication is the way stress marks are put on compounds. In *LAAD1*, as is mentioned in the Guide, ‘a stress pattern of the compound word is shown, with a dot representing each syllable.’ For example, the stress of *aircraft carrier* is shown as /'.. . .../. This method does not seem user-friendly. In *LAAD2* the stress marks are put directly on the words. The same compound has its stress as **'aircraft carrier**, which is far more preferable as one can easily see which of the two (or more) words has a primary accent and which has a secondary one.

As Dohi et al. (2002: 25) point out referring to Higashi et al. (1986: 89–91), ‘the absence of stress marks on monosyllables sometimes makes the transcriptions of strong and weak forms of monosyllables ambiguous.’ *LAAD1* has this problem, and, unfortunately, *LAAD2* adopts the same policy.

As discussed in Urata et al. (1999: 74), and Dohi et al. (2002: 27), the Longman dictionaries do not put stress marks on idioms or phrases. ‘This is far from being satisfactory, and it seems vital that dictionaries targeting foreign learners should place stress marks on phrases and idioms.

*LAAD2*, as well as *LAAD1*, uses a hyphen to indicate a division be-

tween syllables. Thus, the word *laudanum* is transcribed as /'lədn-əm, -nəm/. However, this may be misleading. This word can be pronounced both as /lə:dn-əm/ and /lɔ:dənəm/. The transcription /-nəm/ seems to represent the latter, which is not easy for the user to infer.<sup>1)</sup>

### 3.5. CD-ROM

The CD-ROM accompanying *LAAD2* provides recorded sounds for its entries and some example sentences. To listen to the recorded sounds the user clicks on the entry word. The user can also listen to the recorded sounds by clicking on “Listen & Repeat” above, and then a window for the listening practice will open. Entry words and examples are read with a North American accent. The user can also record his or her own sounds for playback.

One of the problems with recorded sounds is the discrepancy between them and the transcription used in the dictionary. In *LAAD2*, this problem also occurs. As regards function words like *was*, *of*, etc., for example, both the paper version and CD-ROM give both their weak and strong forms, whereas the transcription in CD-ROM’s listening practice gives only weak forms. Moreover, the recorded sounds represent strong forms of the abovementioned words. This means that the transcription shown in the window and the sound differ, which may be misleading.

Another minor problem is the lack of transcription in some of the entries: some entries have a transcription in the practice window, while others do not. For the user’s benefit, it is desirable that all the entries have a transcription.

### 3.6. Summary

The phonetic symbols in *LAAD2* are almost the same as those in *LAAD1* regardless of the fact that Dohi et al. (2002: 27) noted problems and provide possible solutions. The CD-ROM is a useful tool, and it does help the user. However, as has been shown in 3.5, it may cause problems for the user. In adopting new technical tools (such as CD-ROMs), it is desirable that they help the user without confusing him or

her. More research must be done on CD-ROMs and a more useful tool needs to be introduced. In this section, as mentioned in Section 3.1., the advantages of *LAAD2* in terms of pronunciation have not been explored because Dohi et al. (2002) have discussed those of *LAAD1* and they do not seem to have changed extensively in *LAAD2*.

(Otani)

#### 4. Definitions, examples, and other related information

##### 4.1. Definitions, defining vocabulary, and signposts

The presentation of definitions has merely undergone slight revisions, except for some cases in which the article has been rewritten. Many participants in the user study on *LAAD1* (US-*LAAD1*, see Section 10.2.) in the reading context preferred the entries in *LDOCE2* to those in *LAAD1* with respect to all the five target words on the ground of definitions and examples (Dohi et al. 2002: 78–82), so there was definitely room for further improvement. Long definitions, presumably too long ones, are still present in *LAAD2*, like the sentence definitions of verbs and phrasal verbs beginning with *if*,<sup>1)</sup> which were criticized by the participants in US-*LAAD1* as being “too long.”

A quick survey of the first four pages of the sample reveals that only 25 definitions out of 193 have been revised. Most of them are slight modifications such as the mere deletion of ‘happening’ at the beginning of Sense 1 of **amid**: “happening while noisy, busy, or confused events are also happening;” but a more drastic change in wording can be seen, as in the change in the definition of **back-stabbing** from “the act of secretly doing bad things to someone else, especially saying bad things about them, in order to gain an advantage for yourself” to “the act of secretly saying or doing unpleasant things to harm someone else’s reputation, especially in order to gain an advantage.” Many of the revisions involve abridgement, as in the change in the definition of **backspin** from “a turning movement in a ball that has been hit so that the top of the ball turns backward as the ball travels forward” to “the turning movement of a ball that is spinning backward as it travels forward.” On the other hand, some definitions of scientific and technical terms are

revised so that they include encyclopedic information:

**amphibian** *n.* an animal, such as a FROG, that lives in water for the first part of its life and on land when it is an adult [*LAAD1*]

**amphibian** *n.* BIOLOGY an animal, such as a FROG, that lives in water for the first part of life, but can live on land and breathe using lungs when it is an adult. Amphibians have wet skin and are COLD-BLOODED. [*LAAD2*]

168 definitions out of the 193 mentioned above remain unchanged. However, the problem is that some definitions with insufficiency have not been improved.<sup>2)</sup> For example, in the definition of **back formation**, “a new word formed from an older word, for example ‘televise’ formed from ‘television’,” lacks the distinctive feature of the headword that the formation is done by removing a *supposed* affix.<sup>3)</sup> In addition to the 193 definitions, there are four new definitions (apart from those of newly entered words), but no definitions have been deleted.

The defining vocabulary has not been radically revised, either. *LAAD2* lists 2,000 items in the table entitled “Words Used in the Definitions in this Dictionary” (p. 1852–60). The list is not lacking in the problems pointed out by Dohi et al.<sup>4)</sup>

One of the noticeable changes concerns the signposts at the beginning of some senses. In *LAAD1*, they are printed in white against a black background. As *LAAD2* is printed in black, red, and blue, the signposts are printed in blue in an Arial-like font, clearly different from the definitions, grammar codes, and other labels. However, the results of Part 2 of our user study show that some participants found the signposts in *LAAD1* easier for locating information, whereas none expressed this appreciation for *LAAD2*. The use of colors alone does not necessarily facilitate easy access.

For other features of definitions common in both editions, readers are referred to Dohi et al. (2002: 33–37).

#### 4.2. Examples and collocations

The examples have undergone more extensive revisions than definitions. Seventy examples on the first four pages of the sample remain unchanged, 45 have been revised, and there are twelve new examples and one deleted example. Of the revised examples, many have been abridged. The problem is that some of them have become too short to suitably convey the nuance of the headword:

**back out** *phr v.* [I] to decide not to do something that you had promised to do: *One potential buyer backed out when she learned what the taxes would be.* | **+of** *The airline backed out of the deal.* [LAAD1]

**back out** *phr v.* [I] ...: *The potential buyer backed out.* | ... [LAAD2, the definition and the second example are identical with those in LAAD1]

**backdrop** ... *n.* [C] 1 LITERARY the SCENERY behind something that you are looking at: *The snow-covered Rocky Mountains made a wonderful backdrop for the concert.* [LAAD1]

**backdrop** ... *n.* [C] 1 ...: *The mountains made a wonderful backdrop for the concert.* [LAAD2, the style label and definition are identical with those in LAAD1]

A careful user of both editions might miss the colorful examples in LAAD1. Conversely, the fact that only a few participants in the user study concerning LAAD1 noticed or guessed the musical connotation of the place name, *Nashville*, in an example under **gravitate** poses the question of whether dictionaries should intend to provide cultural information in the example when cultural and encyclopedic information is not very frequently referred to (Dohi et al. 2002: 82).

The second example of **back out** *phr v.* in LAAD1 above is preceded by a note “**+of**” in bold, and this is also a common way of indicating important collocations in LAAD2. Collocations may be shown in bold before an example as above, or in the example as in:

*He's the kind of person who laughs at people behind their backs*

(= is unkind about someone when they are not there). [LAAD2, s.v. **laugh at**, Sense 1]

or, as the caption of a sense paragraph as follows:

**laugh at** *phr v.* 2 *laugh at sb/sth* to show that you think an idea or suggestion is very silly ... 3 *laugh at yourself* to not be too serious ...

There are 32 new and four deleted collocations in bold so that the total number of specifically indicated collocations has increased from 58 to 86. This seems to be a great improvement on the one hand, but at the same time, a user might feel that the extensive use of bold formatting for many words on a page is not easy on the eye.

#### 4.3. Spoken phrases

Spoken phrases are printed in boldface type against a gray background in LAAD1. The use of colors has allowed LAAD2 to print the definition in black, the signpost in blue, the caption “SPOKEN PHRASES” in white against a red background, and to enclose the section with red lines.

The entries in the sample from LAAD2 are **darn<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, **fine<sup>1</sup>** *adj.*, **heaven**, **love<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, **pardon<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, **sure<sup>2</sup>** *adv.*, and **thing**. Here, the number of senses treated as spoken phrases has decreased from 47 to 42. Some of the spoken phrases common in both editions have slightly changed. For example, under **pardon<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, Senses 3–8 are treated as spoken phrases in both editions, and only Sense 3 (*pardon me*) has changed in terms of subdivision of senses, definition, and examples, while the content of other paragraphs has stayed the same, except for the deletion of the example in Sense 5. At **love<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, Senses 5–8 are treated as spoken phrases in LAAD1 but not in LAAD2. Sense 5 (*I'd love to (do sth)*) is now headed by the signpost “WANT,” with the insertion of a short phrase and the revision of two examples. Also, a “Thesaurus” article is placed immediately after Sense 1.

In the part of LAAD1 corresponding to the sample from LAAD2,

**start<sup>1</sup>** ... *v.*

1 **begin doing sth** [I, T] to do something ...

2 **begin happening** [I, T] to begin happening ...

3 **a particular beginning** [I, T] also start off if you start an activity ...

4 **[redacted]** [I, T] to begin a new job ...

5 **car/engine etc.** also start up [I, T] if you start a car or engine or if it starts ...

6 **life/profession** [I always +adv./prep., T] also start out to begin your life or profession ...

7 **trip** [I] also start off/out to begin traveling or moving ...

8 **[redacted]** [T] also start up to make something begin to exist ...

9 **start from scratch/zero** to begin doing a job ...

10 **road/river** [I always +adv./prep.] if a river, road etc. starts somewhere ...

11 **prices** [I always +adv./prep.] if prices start at or from a particular figure ...

12 **sports** [I, T] if a player starts in a game ...

13 **move suddenly** [I] to move your body suddenly ...

14 **start afresh/anew** to stop do-

ing ...

15 **start a family** to have your first baby ...

16 **start a fight/argument etc.** to deliberately cause a fight ...

17 **start a rumor** to tell other people something ...

18 **start young** to begin doing something ...

#### SPOKEN PHRASES

19 **to start with** SPOKEN a) said to emphasize the first of a list of facts or opinions you are stating: *I'm not going to Vegas. To start with, I don't like gambling, and I also can't get time off work.* b) said when talking about the beginning of a situation, especially when it changes later: *I was nervous to start with, but after a while I was fine.*

20 **sb started it!** used to say that someone else has caused an argument or problem: *"Tim, stop fighting with your sister."* "She started it."

21 **start something/anything** to begin causing trouble: *If you start something in there, don't expect me to back you up.*

22 **Don't (you) start with me!** used to tell someone not to complain, argue, or annoy you

**start<sup>1</sup>** ... *v.*

1 **BEGIN DOING STH** [examples revised and reduced]

2 **BEGIN HAPPENING** [an example revised, with the definition and collocations remaining the same]

3 **A PARTICULAR BEGINNING** [change in everything except collocations]

4 **JOB/SCHOOL** [identical with Sense 4 in *LAAD1*]

5 **CAR/ENGINE ETC.** [identical with Sense 5 in *LAAD1*]

6 **LIFE/PROFESSION** [an example revised]

7 **TRIP** [identical with Sense 7 in *LAAD1*]

8 **BUSINESS/ORGANIZATION ETC.** [identical, except the addition of an indication of the synonym *establish*]

9 **start from scratch/zero** [identical]

10 **ROAD/RIVER** [the example revised]

11 **PRICES** [a change from *figure* to *number* in the definition]

12 **SPORTS** [identical]

Figure 4.2 Entry for **start<sup>1</sup> v.** in *LAAD2* [and the section for phrasal verbs, an "Origin" note, and a "Word Choice" article follow]

**start<sup>1</sup> v.** also has 4 spoken phrases. Let us take this entry as a good example of a "slight revision" that can be seen all over the volume. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 show a partial annotated entry for **start<sup>1</sup> v.** in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*, respectively.

Figure 4.1 Entry for **start<sup>1</sup> v.** in *LAAD1* [and the section for phrasal verbs and a "Word Choice" article follow]

#### 4.4. Pragmatic information at the discourse level

There is no doubt that pragmatic information is essential in learners' dictionaries, particularly because "not all learner errors are related to grammar. Rather, a considerable proportion of them are caused by the learner's lack of pragmatic knowledge" (Yang 2007: 147). Therefore, in order to avoid pragmatic failure, EFL dictionaries allot abundant space to the description of sentence adverbials, spoken phrases, and address forms. We aim to describe pragmatic information at the discourse level in *LAAD2* and compare it with that in *LAAD1*, *MWALED*, *COBUILD5*, *LDOCE4*, and *OALD7*. The description and the comparison are based on the frameworks proposed by Yang (2007), who focuses on pragmatic information in *LDOCE4*, and Uchida (2009), who analyzes the presentation of pragmatic information in *LDOCE4*, *OALD7*, *COBUILD5*, and some English-Japanese dictionaries. Yang (2007) distinguishes three levels of pragmatic information: lexical, sentence, and discourse. Uchida (2009) deals with linking adverbs, which fall under discourse. We will deal only with pragmatic information at the discourse level because this seems to be an area with ample room for improvement in *LAAD2*. Table 4.1 shows the treatment of linking adverbs, the treatment of which Uchida (2009) believes differs between dictionaries.<sup>5)</sup>

Table 4.1 The treatment of linking adverbs

	<i>LAAD1</i>	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>MWALED</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>OALD7</i>	<i>COBUILD5</i>
<i>particularly</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>specifically</i>	+	+	+	+	-	-

Notes: + indicates the presence of word usage as a linking adverb, whereas - indicates its absence.

Next, Table 4.2 is a modification of Uchida's (2009) and shows the number of sentences within the verbal illustration of the following items as linking adverbs: *moreover*, *furthermore*, *by comparison*, *by contrast*, *therefore*, *thus*, *to sum up*, *first*, and *firstly*. As he argues, two sentences (or a compound sentence) are necessary. This applies to two other words—*second* and *secondly*—to a greater extent than to *first* and

firstly, which is why we have added them to Uchida's list.

Table 4.2 The number of sentences in the verbal illustration

	<i>LAAD1</i>	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>MWALED</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>OALD7</i>	<i>COBUILD5</i>
<i>moreover</i>	2, 2	2, 2	2, 2	2, [2]	[2]	2
<i>furthermore</i>	2	2	2, 2	2	2	1
<i>by comparison</i>	2	-	2	-	1	-
<i>by contrast</i>	2	2	-	[2]	1	1
<i>therefore</i>	2	-	[2]	2	2	-
<i>thus</i>	2, 2	-	[2], 1	2	2	-
<i>to sum up</i>	1	1	1	1	1	-
<i>first</i>	[2]	1	3, 1	1	[3]	1
<i>firstly</i>	1	1	3, 1	1	[2]	-
<i>second</i>	[2]	[2]	[3]	*	[2]	-
<i>secondly</i>	2	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	-

Notes: The number in the brackets indicates the number of clauses in a compound sentence. \* indicates that the usage as a linking adverb is not verbally illustrated, and - indicates that the usage is not treated in the dictionary.

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 reveal that *COBUILD5* is unique and the poorest in terms of pragmatic information at the discourse level; moreover, we can see that *LAAD2* is rather weak and probably second to *COBUILD5* in terms of being the poorest of the six dictionaries. It might be unfair to judge by comparing them on the basis of merely thirteen items, or by superficially adding the number of sentences or clauses in their examples in question. However, it is clear that *LAAD* has abandoned two-sentence examples at *by comparison*, *therefore*, and *thus*, and a two-clause example at *first*. If the increase in entry items has been made possible at the expense of pragmatic information, users should be careful not to place too much confidence in the dictionary or the number of entries stated in the blurb on the back cover.

Nishikawa (2006) gives examples of the entries for adverbial discourse markers (henceforth ADMs) that "do not tell the users anything helpful related to communicative skills" (Nishikawa 2006: 190), and makes some proposals on the presentation of pragmatic information in the entries for ADMs in English-Japanese dictionaries. Some of her

proposals seem to apply to EFL dictionaries, in stating that (1) explicit mention should be made of the ADM usage in dictionaries by adopting the category label DM, (2) ADM meanings should be defined in function-oriented ways, and (3) mention should be made of possible difference in the usage and function of the ADMs by comparing them in use (Nishikawa 2006: 191). Unfortunately, however, most entries for ADMs in *LAAD2* do not seem to meet her expectations.

(Kanazashi)

## 5. Subject and register labels

### 5.1. Classification of labels

The labeling systems of *LAAD2* leave much to be desired.<sup>1)</sup> In our description we partly adopt Svensén's (1993: 181–188) classification of labels: labels before the definition (i.e. excluding grammar codes) are divided into two categories, subject field and register. The latter is subdivided into style level, time register, geographical register, metaphor, abstract and concrete, and speaker's attitude. Labels are subdivided into five categories in *LAAD2* (p. 1850):

- 1 Words which are used in a particular situation, or show a particular attitude
- 2 Words which are used in a particular context or type of language
- 3 Words which are used in particular subject area
- 4 Some words and spellings from other varieties of English have been included.
- 5 Words that should be used with caution, or should not be used at all

Each line above is followed by the register labels that fall into that category along with a detailed explanation of each label.

### 5.2. Subject labels

Svensén (1993: 183) remarks that dictionaries attach subject labels to some senses of headwords in order “to distinguish technical-language from general-language equivalent” (in the case of bilingual dictionaries)

and to indicate that (the sense of) the word “denotes a concept which occurs mainly in” a particular subject field. The kind of subject labels has increased from one in *LAAD1* (LAW) to thirteen in *LAAD2*: BIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY, COMPUTERS, EARTH SCIENCE, ECONOMICS, ENG.LANG.ARTS, HISTORY, LAW, MATH, MEDICINE, PHYSICS, POLITICS and SCIENCE.<sup>2)</sup>

The number of senses within the sample entries with each subject label is shown in Table 5.1. If a label is placed before Sense 1, we interpret that it applies to all the senses of the headword. There are 228 entry items in the sample with at least one subject label.

Table 5.1 Number of senses with each subject label

BIOLOGY	68
CHEMISTRY	17
COMPUTERS	12
EARTH SCIENCE	12
ECONOMICS	14
ENG.LANG.ARTS	49
HISTORY	17
LAW	14
MATH	13
MEDICINE	10
PHYSICS	7
POLITICS	16
SCIENCE	2

The entry items with a subject label have grown in number due to the increase in technical terms, particularly scientific ones, in *LAAD2* over *LAAD1* (see Section 2.1.). Unfortunately, two problematic labels appear frequently. The label BIOLOGY is attached to words that denote “living things; parts of the body; names of animals” (p. 1850). However, some (senses of) words that originally held such meaning but are not considered biological now retain the label. The word **white**<sup>2</sup> *n.* has two senses labeled as BIOLOGY:

**white**<sup>2</sup> *n.* 4 **EYE** [C] BIOLOGY the white part of your eye 5 **EGG** [C,U]  
BIOLOGY the part of an egg that surrounds the **YOLK** (= yellow part)  
and becomes white when cooked

However, **white**<sup>2</sup> *n.*, in its fifth sense, will be regarded by many as a culinary term rather than a biological term. The word **yolk** does not have the label BIOLOGY. Moreover, entries such as **blueberry**, **cranberry** and **pear**, more associated with the edible fruit than the tree or shrub that bears them, are all labeled as BIOLOGY, even though the only examples provided for **blueberry** and **cranberry** are *blueberry pie* and

*cranberry sauce*, respectively. Unfortunately, inconsistencies are not limited to BIOLOGY. The entry **eagle** has a BIOLOGY label, but **eaglet** does not. The entry **memory hog** has the label COMPUTERS, but **memory bank** does not. If the editorial policy does not allow labeling words on the basis of frequency or technicality, the dictionary should explain this to avoid confusion.

The label **ENG.LANG.ARTS** is even more mysterious. Unlike any other subject or register labels in *LAAD2*, this one is not transparent. That *eng* and *lang* could be associated with *English* and *language*, respectively, will not guarantee its transparency. The dictionary explains that it is attached to (the sense of) the word used in “the humanities in general, including languages, literature, art, sculpture, music, and the performing arts” (p. 1850). One will naturally wonder why more specific labels such as *language*, *art* and *music* are not used instead. Specific labels would enhance intelligibility and brevity.

### 5.3. Register labels

These are the labels in Categories 1, 2, 4 and 5 (see Section 5.1.). Table 5.2 shows the subdivision of each category and the number of senses within the sample entries with each register label.

Table 5.2 Number of senses with each register label<sup>3)</sup>

1 situation, attitude		2 context, style		4 geographical		5 with caution	
APPROVING	5	BIBLICAL	2	BRITISH	1	IMPOLITE	0
DISAPPROVING	12	LITERARY	42	CANADIAN	2	OFFENSIVE	1
FORMAL	102	NONSTANDARD	1				
HUMOROUS	12	NOT TECHNICAL	2				
INFORMAL	76	OLD-FASHIONED	38				
		OLD USE	6				
		POETIC	0				
		SLANG	3				
		SPOKEN	26				
		TECHNICAL	29				
		TRADEMARK	7				

From Table 5.2, we gather that *LAAD2* emphasizes the formal/informal distinction and the context in which the word is used. Geographical labels are rare, and Morse (2008: 18–19) fears that American English dictionaries (other than *MWALED*) tend not to label typically British words as such. Most “[w]ords that should be used with caution, or should not be used at all” in Category 5 have been deleted in *LAAD2* (see Sections 2.2. and 7.1.), which accounts for their extremely low number.

(Kanazashi)

## 6. Grammatical labels and Language Notes

### 6.1. Grammatical labels

Grammatical labels in *LAAD2* fall into three categories: parts of speech, inflections, and grammar codes and patterns.

#### 6.1.1. Parts of speech

*LAAD2* has nineteen parts of speech or “word class”: *adj.*, *adv.*, *auxiliary verb*, *conjunction*., *determiner*, *indefinite article*, *interjection*, *modal verb*, *n.*, *number*, *phr. v.*, *possessive pron.*, *possessive adj.*, *prefix*, *prep.*, *pron.*, *quantifier*, *suffix*, and *v.*<sup>1)</sup> These categories are exactly the same as those in *LAAD1* and *LDOCE4*. Those that are abbreviated are also the same as those in *LAAD1* and *LDOCE4*. The table of the parts of speech exists in *LAAD1* (p. xx), but it is missing in *LAAD2*. The table of “Short forms” (p. 1850) is not a complete list of parts of speech; it only displays abbreviated parts of speech, i. e. *adj.*, *adv.* *n.* *phr. v.*, *prep.*, *pron.*, and *v.*, and includes short forms of words that are not part of speech (E. (=east), sth (=something), etc.).<sup>2)</sup>

#### 6.1.2. Inflections

Dohi et al. (2002: 38) reveal that *LAAD1* shows the inflection of words of the types (1) vowel + *y* (*play-played* (*v*), *monkey-monkeys* (*n*)), (2) consonant + *y* (*try-tried* (*v*), *baby-babies* (*n*), *happy-happier-happiest* (*adj*))), (3) doubling (*stop-stopped* (*v*), *fat-fatter* (*adj*))), and (4) irregular inflections (*go-went-gone* (*v*), *child-children* (*n*), *good-better-*

best (*adj*)), which *LAAD2* copies. If a word has regular and irregular inflected forms, both are spelled out. For example, in the entry for **beseech** the inflection is shown as follows: *past tense and past participle besought or beseeched*. As in *LAAD1* and *LDOCE4*, inflected forms of verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs are shown immediately after the part-of-speech label. If a word has different inflections according to the meaning, the inflection is presented after the number of the meaning. Often these inflections are put after labels in italics which show what inflection they are, such as *plural*, *past tense*, and *comparative*, but in the case of irregular verbs these labels are applied inconsistently; to take examples from the abovementioned verbs, in the entry of **play<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, **monkey<sup>2</sup>** *v.*, **try<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, and **stop<sup>1</sup>** *v.*, the inflections appear without any labels, as “*v. tries, tried, trying*” while the entry of **baby<sup>2</sup>** *v.* and **go<sup>1</sup>** *v.* have labels, as “*v. babies, past tense and past participle babied, babying*” and “*v. goes, past tense went past participle gone*”.

*LAAD2* has a table for irregular verbs in “Tables” at the end of the volume (pp. 1845–49), which is also problematic; in the line of modal verbs the inflection is not written.<sup>3)</sup> *LAAD2* instructs the reader to “(see dictionary entry)”, but only the entry for **can<sup>1</sup>** *modal verb* shows the inflection of the past tense. In the entry for **could**, third person singular form *could* are shown, and in the entry for **may**, **might<sup>1</sup>** *modal verb*, **shall**, **should**, **will<sup>1</sup>** *modal verb*, and **would**, no inflection according to the tense is given.<sup>4)</sup> Often, these entries show the short form and the negative short form (e.g. *'d* and *wouldn't*), but the entry of **can<sup>1</sup>** does not. This lack of the information is also true of **be**; the inflection of **be** is not shown anywhere in *LAAD2*.<sup>5)</sup> Regrettably, *LAAD2* has deleted the table of the inflection of **be** which exists in *LAAD1*. To make matters worse, the entry for each inflection (**am**, **are**, etc.) does not show the short forms. Although *LAAD2* seems willing to show the forms of irregular inflections, it neglects modal verbs and **be**.

Like *LAAD1*, *LAAD2* pays no attention to the different inflections in AmE and BrE. For example, in the entry for **get** and the usage note for **got**, *LAAD2* says that *got* is the past tense and *gotten* is the past participle. To the contrary, *LDOCE4*, a British equivalent of *LAAD2*,

shows the inflections of American English as well as those of British English, e.g. “**get** *v past tense got, past participle got BrE, gotten AmE present participle getting*.” It also explains the difference in the “US/UK Difference” box of **gotten**.

### 6.1.3. Grammar codes and patterns

Grammar codes and patterns are listed on page 1851 of *LAAD2*, whereas in *LAAD1* they are grouped together as grammar codes. This categorization was introduced first in *LDOCE4*. Ichikawa et al. describe the categorization; “[t]hose that denote grammatical features of a word are called *codes*, while those that denote syntactic behavior of a word are called *patterns*” (2005: 47). *LAAD1* explains what is included in the grammar codes in the Syntax section in the *Guide to the Dictionary* (pp. xx–xxii): “[b]asic information about the way a verb behaves,” “[a] typical construction” (verb); “whether a noun, or a particular sense of a noun, is countable (a pen, three pens), or uncountable (honor, daylight),” “[a] construction that typically follows a noun” (noun); “how an adjective or adverb behaves,” and “[t]he prepositions or constructions that follow an adjective” (adjectives and adverbs). Regrettably, the *Guide to the Dictionary* has been deleted in *LAAD2*, and we cannot see what kind of information is included in grammar codes and patterns. Both grammar codes and patterns tend to avoid abbreviations (for example, relatives that start with *wh* are often symbolized as *wh-* while in *LAAD2* they are spelled out as “who/what/how etc.”), which meets three of Lemmens and Wekker’s assumptions of successful grammar information in a dictionary: “a) The grammatical codes should be unambiguous and easy to use,” “c) A full inventory of grammatical codes should be given at the entries or subentries themselves,” and “f) the coded grammatical information should be as explicit and complete as possible” (1986: 99–100).

Compared with *LAAD1*, the number of grammar codes displayed in the table has declined from 25 to 16. This is because in *LAAD1* the combination of a word and prepositions, participles, infinitives and so on were shown as grammar codes (in square brackets) while in *LAAD2*

such information is presented without brackets as patterns; i.e. ten grammar codes listed in the table in *LAAD1* became patterns.

Another difference between *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* is that grammar codes [I], [T], and [I, T] in phrasal verbs have been omitted in *LAAD2*. Contrary to this change, phrasal verbs such as *ran out* and *found out* remain as part of the examples of [I] and [T], respectively, in the table for “Grammar Codes” on p. 1851.

Dohi et al. (2002) point out that some grammar codes used in *LAAD1* are not found in the table of grammar codes or are only explained in *the Guide to the Dictionary*, which also happens in *LAAD2*. Here is a list of grammar codes missing in the tables of *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* (an asterisk indicates that the grammar code is not in *LAAD1*):

- [at the end of a sentence or clause, or after the subject of a sentence] (**too** 2)<sup>6</sup>
- [comparative of “badly”] (**worse**<sup>3</sup> *adv.*)
- [in adjectives] (-iform)
- [in adverbs] (-ly 1)
- [in negatives] (**resist** 1)
- [in nouns] (-er 2)
- [in questions] (**yet**<sup>1</sup> *adv.* 1)
- [in statements expressing possibility] (**anyone**, **anything**)
- [in verbs] (-ify)
- [not usually in passive] (**have**<sup>2</sup> *v.*)
- [not usually in questions or negatives] (**something**<sup>1</sup> *pron.*)
- [not with the] (**god** 1)
- [objective form of “she”] (**her**<sup>2</sup> *pron.*)
- [only after verb] (**out**<sup>1</sup> *adv.*)
- [possessive form of “he”] (**his**)
- [possessive form of “I”] (**my**<sup>1</sup> *possessive adj.*)
- [possessive form of “it”] (**its**)
- [possessive form of “she”] (**her**<sup>1</sup> *possessive adj.*)
- [possessive form of “they”] (**their**, **theirs**)
- [possessive form of “we”] (**our**, **ours**)

- [possessive form of “you”] (**your**)
- \*[reflexive form of “I”] (**myself**)
- \*[reflexive form of “they”] (**themselves**)
- \*[reflexive form of “you”] (**yourself**)
- [the comparative of “bad”] (**worse**<sup>1</sup> *adj.*)
- [the comparative of “good”] (**better**<sup>1</sup> *adj.*)
- [the comparative of “little”] (**less**<sup>1</sup> *quantifier*, *pron.*, **less**<sup>2</sup> *adv.*)
- [the comparative of “many” and “much”] (**more**<sup>2</sup> *quantifier*)
- [the comparative of “well”] (**better**<sup>2</sup> *adv.*)
- [the superlative of “bad”] (**worst**<sup>1</sup> *adj.*)
- [the superlative of “badly”] (**worst**<sup>3</sup> *adv.*)
- [the superlative of “good”] (**best**<sup>1</sup> *adj.*)
- [the superlative of “many” and “much”] (**most**<sup>2</sup> *quantifier*)
- [the superlative of “well”] (**best**<sup>2</sup> *adv.*)
- [used as a subject or an object] (**you**)
- [used as subject or object] (**it**)
- [used as the subject of a verb] (**they**)
- [used before the basic form of a verb, or in place of this verb when it is repeated, to show that it is in the infinitive form] (**to**<sup>1</sup> the part of speech is not displayed)<sup>7</sup>
- [with negatives] (**any**<sup>1</sup> *quantifier*, *pron.* 1, **any**<sup>2</sup> *adv.*)
- [with uncountable nouns] (**less**<sup>1</sup> *quantifier*, *pron.*)

This shows that grammar codes are used and multiplied without specific limitations.

The phrase “reflexive form of X” seems to be used unsystematically; **myself**, **yourself**, and **themselves** have this phrase as a grammar code, while under the entries for **himself**, **herself**, **itself**, and **ourselves**, the phrase appears as part of the definition, for example: 1 the REFLEXIVE form of “we” (**ourselves**). *LAAD2* presents this explanation rather inconsistently, and both *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* use “objective form of X” under the entries for some pronouns in its objective case, while the explanation “possessive form of X” is used systematically in both editions. Ichikawa et al. (2005: 49) suggest that a piece of informa-

tion indicated by “orphan notes” (notes used for only one word) “should be presented in the form of a usage note”. Since the codes [reflexive form of X] and [possessive form of X] are doubtlessly orphan notes, the information should be displayed as that in **ourselves**, not as a grammar code.

## 6.2. Language Notes

### 6.2.1. Topics in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*

Between the “I” and “J” sections of *LAAD2* lays the article named “Language Notes.” The middle matter is more conveniently located than in *LAAD1*, where the middle matter appears between entries, i.e. **marmalade** and **marmoreal**. The table of contents was included in the contents of the dictionary in *LAAD1* while it has been moved at the beginning of the middle matter in *LAAD2*. Pages of the Notes are numbered as A1, A2, and so on and trimmed with pink, which clearly differentiates them make users clearly see that these pages are different from the main body of the dictionary in *LAAD2*. Most of the Language Notes are about two pages in length. There are two changes that may simplify access to the desired information. Firstly, in *LAAD1* when a Language Note ends in the middle of a page, the next one begins below the former Note; however in *LAAD2* every Note starts at the top of the page. Secondly, the body of the Language Notes is in color: the title of language notes are printed in bold, pink gothic letters on a green rectangular background placed at the top of the first page of the notes, and signposts are printed in bold blue letters; Examples are printed in black on a yellow background, and if a signpost has sub-signposts, they are printed in pink.

Compared with *LAAD1*, the contents of the language notes have increased, which facilitates access to the information that users need. In both editions, the following articles are provided:

“Prepositions,” “Words followed by prepositions,” “Intensifying adjectives,” “Idioms,” “Modal verbs,” “Make and Do,” “Articles,” “Collocations,” and “Synonyms” [*LAAD1*]  
“Synonyms,” “Collocations,” “*Make and Do*,” “Intensifying Ad-

jjectives,” “Idioms,” “Prepositions,” “Words Followed by Prepositions,” “Phrasal Verbs,” “Modal Verbs,” “Word Formation,” and “Article” [*LAAD2*]

All of the articles in *LAAD1* also appear in *LAAD2* and one new article, “Word Formation”, has been added. Considering that *LAAD2* gives importance to thesauri (see Sections 7.1. and 7.5.), it was to be expected that “synonyms” and other notes that may broaden users’ vocabulary appear in the first part of the language notes.

Some of the descriptions have been rewritten and some explanations added to make the notes more understandable. For example, in the note “Words Followed by Prepositions,” blanket explanations such as “[s]ome words are followed by different prepositions that have the same meaning” and “[s]ome words can be used with prepositions in one meaning and without them in another meaning,” have been added at the beginning of each item. Many examples have also changed; some words have been replaced by easier words (from **balk** to **slip**<sup>1</sup> *v.* in “Words Followed by Prepositions”), and potentially offensive terms have been deleted: “(as) blind as a bat” and “(as) mad as a hatter” have been replaced with “sleep like a baby” in “Idioms,” and “if they are too thin in a way that looks ugly, **scrawny**” has been changed to “if they are thin in a healthy-looking way, **lean**” in “Synonyms.”

### 6.2.2. The content of Language Notes in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*

#### 6.2.2.1. Synonyms

The language note for synonyms is a page long in *LAAD2*, half a page shorter than in *LAAD1*, because in almost every section one or two examples have been deleted. This deletion, however, becomes problematic in the heading “Sometimes the words have a different register.”<sup>8)</sup> The following situation may mislead students into thinking that the “register” covers only one group of labels if they are not familiar with the concept, particularly because “register” is not included in “Words Used in the Definitions in this Dictionary” (pp. 1852–60).<sup>9)</sup> *LAAD1* presents five types of register labels (*formal*, *humorous*, *impolite*, *informal*, and *literary*) while *LAAD2* shows only two types (*formal* and

*informal*); and the tables of labels divide labels into five groups (attitude, type of language, subject areas, varieties of English, and offensive; see section 5.3) while *formal* and *informal* are in the same group (attitude).

### 6.2.2.2. Collocations

This section offers a definition of “collocation” at the beginning in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*. It has two subsections, *common set collocations* and *collocating prepositions*, both of which provide examples with a part of entries and explanations. The summary has been moved from the second example to the first and as in “Synonyms,” one example “admiration (for)” is omitted so that the language note fits into one page. On the whole few changes have been made.

### 6.2.2.3. Make and Do

This two-page long section shows which nouns can be used with *make*, *do*, *give*, etc. In *LAAD2* this section has boxes with a yellow background in which nouns appear in blue under the heading of *make*, *do*, *give*, etc. The heading *Using Different Collocating Verbs for the Same Noun* is newly added, but this information does not seem necessary for two reasons: collocation is explained in the previous section (see 6.2.2.2.); the word *collocation* is not in The Longman American Defining Vocabulary (pp. 1852–1860) and using it without explanation may perplex users.

Regrettably, not all of the collocations are shown under the noun entries. The nouns that do not show the collocation either in the entry or in examples are: *make an estimate*, *make a meal*, *prepare a meal*, *make a movement*, *do the housework*, *give information*, *perform a piece of music*, *play a CD*, *play a cassette*, *play a tape*, and *play a tune*.

### 6.2.2.4. Intensifying Adjectives

This section is two pages long and shows which adjectives can be used with intensifying adjectives. The same adjectives are treated in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*: *great*, *total*, *big*, *large*, *deep*, *heavy*, *high*, and *strong*. A few examples have been omitted.

### 6.2.2.5. Idioms

This section gives a definition and characteristics of idioms. In *LAAD2* the following have been removed so that the section fits into two pages: the explanation that idioms can have a literal meaning in which a case the words in the phrase can be changed, while if the idiom is figurative they cannot, as well as the description that “[s]omeone can usually be replaced by other nouns or pronouns” and the corresponding examples.

*LDOCE4* introduces the concept of a metaphor under “Idioms” in the Language Notes (p. 976), unlike *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*; the explanations are almost the same in both editions. On the other hand, many of the examples have been changed. As we mentioned in Section 6.2.1., *(as) blind as a bat* and *(as) mad as a hatter* may have been replaced due to their potential interpretation as discriminatory.

To find idioms, the reader is advised to “[l]ook them up at the entry for the first main word in the idiom,” but this does not apply to all of the entries. For example, the idiom “turn your back (on sb)” is found under the entry of **back**<sup>2</sup> *n.*, not at **turn**<sup>1</sup> *v.*, and “raise eyebrows” is under **eyebrow**, not **raise**<sup>1</sup> *v.* Moreover, the entries of the first word (**turn**<sup>1</sup> *v.* and **raise**<sup>1</sup> *v.*) make no reference to the idioms, which may lead users mistakenly think their phrase is not an idiom.

### 6.2.2.6. Prepositions

This section is two pages long and begins with a definition in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*. Prepositions are explained under four settings: “Where are Prepositions Used?”, “What Do Prepositions Mean?”, “Prepositions in Set Phrases,” and “Word Order.” “Word Order” refers to preposition stranding and both *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* accept it, especially in spoken English. In *LAAD1* the subsection “Idioms and typical collocations” lacks an explanation of idioms, but in *LAAD2* it has been added.

### 6.2.2.7. Words Followed by Prepositions

Here, *LAAD1* gives a summary of all subsections (“Prepositions with

Nouns," "Prepositions with Verbs," and "Prepositions with Adjectives"), while in *LAAD2* the summaries are found at the beginning of each separate subsection.

The choice of preposition with **bias<sup>1</sup>** *n.* explained in the subsection "Preposition with Nouns" has been changed; *LAAD1* groups together *against*, *toward*, and *in favor of* together while *LAAD2* separates *against* from the other two.

**bias<sup>1</sup>** . . . [+ against/toward/in favor of] *Investigators found a pattern of bias against women and minorities among police officers.* This entry shows you that in its first meaning, **bias** can be used with either **against**, **toward**, or **in favor of**. The choice of preposition will depend on the meaning of the sentence in which the word is used. [LAAD1]

**bias<sup>1</sup>** . . . +against *the newspaper's bias against women | +toward/in favor of* *The management has shown a bias in favor of younger employees.*

The entry shows you that **toward** and **in favor of** are similar in meaning, while **against** has a separate example because it has a different meaning. The choice of preposition will thus depend on the meaning of the sentence in which the word is used. [LAAD2]

#### 6.2.2.8. Phrasal Verbs

As we mentioned in Section 6.1.3, *LAAD1* uses the grammar codes [I] and [T] for phrasal verbs while *LAAD2* does not. Accordingly, the description of transitive and intransitive verbs (subsection "With or Without an Object?") has also been changed; *LAAD2* indicates that a phrasal verb can be followed by an object by including objects within the phrasal verb structure, e.g. "grow out of sth."

In *LAAD2* the subsection "Position of the Object" explains how to decipher grammatical information about phrasal verbs in their entries. An arrow (↔) is used to show that a direct object can be inserted between the verb and the particle in the case of separable phrasal verbs.

The use of an arrow is taken from *LAAD1*. Unlike in *LDOCE4*, phrasal verbs that require an object between the verb and the particle are not signaled explicitly in *LAAD2*, e.g. the language note on phrasal verbs in *LDOCE4* shows that *get down* must have an object between the verb and the participle by placing *sb* in between as the object. In *LAAD2* a similar system is used, but without explanation.

#### 6.2.2.9. Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are grouped into ten categories by meaning: "prediction of future events" (**will<sup>1</sup>**), "personal intention, willingness, wish" (**will<sup>1</sup>**, **would**, and **shall**), "ability" (**can<sup>1</sup>** and **could**), "permission" (**can<sup>1</sup>**, **could**, **may**, and **might<sup>1</sup>**), "unreality, hypothesis" (**would**), "possibility" (**can<sup>1</sup>**, **could**, **may**, and **might<sup>1</sup>**), "probability" (**ought to** and **should**), "certainty" (**can't**, **couldn't**, **must<sup>1</sup>**, and **would**), "obligation, requirement" (**have to** and **must<sup>1</sup>**), and "desirability" (**ought to** and **should**). Each group is placed in square box with a yellow background in *LAAD2*. This grouping is exactly the same as that in *LAAD1*. The signpost is on in the upper left side, examples are under the signpost, and explanations are on the right side of the box. These boxes are followed by information on the grammatical behavior of modal verbs such as inflection. The table of irregular verbs (pp. 1845–1849) tells users that the inflection of modal verbs appear under each dictionary entry, but considering that the dictionary entries of modal verbs rarely display their inflections, the table had better warn users to read the language note on "Modal Verbs" (see also Section 6.1.2.).

#### 6.2.2.10. Word Formation

The note "Word Formation" is a new feature that teaches users the meaning of several suffixes and prefixes and the parts of speech to which they can be added. This section has five subsections: *Verb Formation* (-ify and -ize), *Adverb Formation* (-ly), *Noun Formation* (-ation, -er, -ity, -ment, -ness, and -ty), *Adjective Formation* (-able, -ful<sup>1</sup>, -ic, -ical, -less, and -y<sup>2</sup>), and *Opposites* (de-, dis-, in-/im-/il-/ir-, non-, and un-). This kind of information is shown at the tables in the end of

*LAAD1* (pp. 1685–86) and in the “Word Formation” note of **un-**, but moving such information to the middle matter would make this useful information easier to find.

#### 6.2.2.11. Article

This section is three pages long in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*, the longest in the Language Notes. It covers two topics: countable and uncountable (use of *a/an*) and definite and indefinite (use of *the* and *a/an*). A noun which is always preceded by *the* is shown by (1) an entry followed by *the*, as in “**Andes, the,**” (2) a noun with *the* in bold next to the entry, as in “**Big Apple n. INFORMAL the Big Apple** a name for New York City.” If *the* is used to a particular sense, the noun preceded by *the* appears in bold next to the number of the sense, such as “**sun<sup>1</sup> n. 1 the sun** the large bright yellow circular object . . . .” If a noun is never preceded by *the*, it is shown in the grammar code, as “**god 1 God [singular, not with the]**”. The note refers to the latter two cases but does not mention the differences between nouns that have *the* in the entry and those whose entry is followed by “*the + noun.*”

#### 6.3. Summary

The principles of displaying inflections have not changed from *LAAD1*; the inflections of irregular verbs are shown while those of modal verbs, *be*, and items used in British English are neglected. The coding systems have undergone some changes, but two problems remain: not all grammar codes are listed in the table and that the number of codes have been increased randomly. The language notes are now of higher quality, but some explanations under “Synonyms” and “Idioms” could be improved further. In “Synonyms,” an unfamiliar word, *register*, is used twice to explain an important concept, while in “Idioms,” the descriptions and their display are inconsistent. These issues may detract from the usefulness of the notes.

(Nonomiya)

## 7. Four types of notes

### 7.1. Overview

There are four types of usage notes in *LAAD2*: “Grammar,” “Thesaurus,” “Usage,” and “Word Choice.” The types of notes have much decreased compared with *LAAD1*, which has eleven types. This is mainly because “usage” covers a broad range of categories, from spelling to politeness. Fewer kinds of notes help users understand the differences more easily while including varied topics may obscure the nature of the notes.

Table 1 Category and number of usage notes

	LAAD1	LAAD2
Word Choice	190	88
Thesaurus	0	535
Grammar	83	65
Usage <sup>1)</sup>	33	27
<b>the number of boxed panels</b>	<b>306</b>	<b>715</b>

Table 1 shows that the proportion of each type in *LAAD2* has changed from that in *LAAD1*. Most salient is the appearance of the “Thesaurus” note. Of the “Word Choice” notes in *LAAD1*, 72 notes (38%) have turned into the “Thesaurus” notes in *LAAD2*.<sup>2)</sup> Since only one “Usage” note, **toilet**, has been moved to the “Thesaurus,” the decline in the number of the notes under “Grammar” and “Usage” is due to deletion.

One of the most noticeable changes in *LAAD2* is the design of the usage notes. In *LAAD1*, all usage notes under an entry are put in one box under the heading “**USAGE NOTE: (word)**” on a gray background, and each note is separated by the name of the usage notes in gothic capital letters. In *LAAD2*, each usage note has its own box, while usage notes of the same category are placed together. There is only one exception: **do<sup>2</sup> v.**, which has two “Usage” boxes. The “Thesaurus” box appears below the related sense while the other notes appear at the end (see Section 7.5.). Thanks to the full-color printing, the usage notes are more conspicuous; the “Grammar” boxes are rectangular and pink

while those of other categories are rectangular and blue. This treatment probably draws users' attention and makes them read such boxes.

The explanations in these boxes have undergone various changes. First of all, the explanations are more refined and excessive presentations of mistakes (NOT ...) have been deleted. For example, in the section "Formality" in the "Usage Note" box under **kindly<sup>1</sup> adv.**: "so could you please ...? is better to use since it is more commonly used" is rewritten as "it is more common to say could you please ...?". Moreover, itemization of each compared word improves readability. Second of all, the abusive words in the boxes, if not their entire entries, have mostly been deleted. To draw a few examples, *LAAD1* has a "Word Choice" box for the euphemisms of **damn<sup>1</sup> interjection** while in *LAAD2* the entry itself is gone.<sup>3)</sup> In the case of **god**, *LAAD1* has some explanations on exclamatory phrases such as "Oh (my) God!" and "Good God!", which *LAAD2* does not. Last of all, sensory descriptions have been deleted or modified. The deleted sentences are, for example, "you may have to think whether they are the words you really need to express your meaning" (the "Word Choice" box at **shock<sup>1</sup> n.**) and "When you compare **yet** with **already** in a question, *Have you eaten lunch yet?* asks for information, while *Have you eaten lunch already?* may express surprise that lunch has already been eaten" (the "Word Choice" box at **still<sup>1</sup> adv.**). This attitude seems to clash with the notion that pragmatic information in EFL dictionaries has become more important than ever; as Ichikawa et al. (2005: 38) suggest, "... these pragmatic skills differ from culture to culture and information of this kind should be of use for learners of English from different cultural background" (see also Section 4.5.).

## 7.2. Usage

The category "Usage" in *LAAD2* tends to cover a much wider range of topics than in *LAAD1*: collocation, formal/informal, formality, plural forms, politeness, spelling, spoken-written, usage, and word formation.<sup>4)</sup> Also, four "Word Choice" notes, **do<sup>2</sup> v.**, **his<sup>1</sup> possessive adj.**, **kind<sup>1</sup> n.**, and **yes<sup>1</sup> adv.**, and two "Grammar" boxes, **do<sup>2</sup> v.** and **down<sup>1</sup> adv.**,

have turned to this category. On the one hand, the integration of similar categories such as "formal/informal" and "formality" and the deletion of types which have only one box make the dictionaries more lucid. On the other hand, putting too many topics under one category can make the nature of the category opaque; users may wonder what common feature the relationship between the spelling of *really* and the avoidance of *ones* in formal or written English is, both of which are explained in a "Usage" box. The dictionary might as well preserve some categories with comparatively high frequency such as "spelling" (7 times) and clarify what kind of topics the boxes deal with.

## 7.3. Grammar

There are no new "Grammar" notes.<sup>5)</sup> However, three notes have been deleted from *LAAD1* (**especially**, **marry**, and **number<sup>1</sup> n.**): the box of **especially** refers to its position; the box under **marry** mentions use of prepositions; and the box under **number<sup>1</sup> n.** presents a few set phrases and their proper use. Because *LAAD2* tends to avoid surplus information, as mentioned at the beginning of section 7, the reason for the deletion of these boxes may be that they are too specific or trivial and will confuse users.

Two articles in the "Grammar" box in *LAAD1* (**do<sup>2</sup> v.** and **down<sup>1</sup> adv.**) are now in the "Usage" note, and another (**than<sup>1</sup> conjunction**) in the "Word Choice" note. The difference between the "Word Choice" and "Grammar" notes can be seen in the boxes under **also** in *LAAD2*:

### WORD CHOICE **also, too, as well, either, neither**

- When you want to say that something exists or happens in addition to something else, **too** and **also** are more common than **as well** in informal and spoken English. In a formal article you might see: *The company manufactures beauty products and markets pharmaceuticals as well. . .*

**also, too, as well**

- **Also** usually comes before the main verb: *The college also has a new swimming pool* (NOT *The college has also a new swimming pool*). I *Brad can also play the guitar* (NOT usually *Brad also can play the guitar*). I *Many people were working full-time and also going to night school*. **Also** usually follows the verb be where it is used alone as a main verb: *Seattle is also a very nice city*.
- **Too** and **as well** are not used at the beginning of a sentence, but **also** may be used at the beginning of a sentence, especially in speech and informal writing.

The “Word Choice” note distinguishes synonyms by meaning, while the “Grammar” note explains how to use each word correctly. As for the note under **than<sup>1</sup> conjunction**, which is “Grammar” in *LAAD1* but “Word Choice” in *LAAD2*, it explains which case should be used after *as* and *than*:

**as, than**

In spoken and informal English, many people use object pronouns such as “me,” “him” etc. after **than**: *Doris is older than me*. Many teachers think this is incorrect. They say that the form of the pronoun that follows **than** should depend on whether it is the subject or object of a verb (even when the verb is not there): *Doris is older than I (=than I am)*. I *The news upset my wife more than me (=than it upset me)*. In informal speech, we often use object pronouns such as “me,” “her,” “him” etc. before<sup>6)</sup> words like **as, than, and be** when making comparisons: *He's a lot older than her...*

This is essentially a grammatical note in nature, and should remain under a “Grammar” note rather than in a “Word Choice” note.

**7.4. Word Choice**

A “Word Choice” note has been added under **man<sup>1</sup> n.**, which pro-

vides information on political correctness. However, eight boxes were deleted (**damn<sup>1</sup> interjection**, **fit<sup>1</sup> v.**, **gift<sup>1</sup> n.**, **know<sup>1</sup> v.**, **life<sup>1</sup> n.**, **propose**, **raise<sup>1</sup> v.**, and **thief**). The entry for **damn<sup>1</sup>** has been deleted along with its word choice notes. As for the other notes, they may have been deleted because their contents were judged too trivial to mention. To take one example, the grammar note of **life<sup>1</sup> n.** presents several collocations, such as “living conditions” and “quality of life.” Although this kind of information is useful, these explanations take up too much space and contain confusing descriptions “NOT . . .”. It makes sense that in *LAAD2* these explanations have been removed.

If a word is explained under a “Word Choice” note, a reference “→ see Word Choice box at (word)” is put at the end of the entry. If the note is related to only one sense of the word, it appears at the end of the sense.<sup>7)</sup> But sometimes this reference is missing. For example, the “Word Choice” box under **common<sup>2</sup> n.** compares **common<sup>2</sup>** to **general<sup>2</sup> n.**, but in the entry for **general<sup>2</sup>** no reference is made to this box. Such inconsistency in cross-referencing is also seen in other features such as illustrations (see Section 9).<sup>8)</sup>

(Sections 7.1–7.4. Nonomiya)

**7.5. Thesaurus**

The “Thesaurus” is one of the new articles in *LAAD2*. The articles which deal with synonyms were arranged (with other kinds of usage notes) under the “Word Choice” heading in *LAAD1*. *LAAD2* divides this category into “Word Choice” and “Thesaurus.” The distinction between these categories in *LAAD2* can be well understood when we look at those articles under **act** and **action**:

**act and action**

Act is always countable, but **action** can be uncountable: *a thoughtful act* | *a series of quick actions* | *What we need now is quick action*. Use **act** in some set phrases when it means a particular type of action: *an act of kindness* | *She was caught in the act of (NOT in the action of) stealing the money*.

**action**

2 SOMETHING DONE [C] something that someone does: . . .

**act** a particular type of action: people who commit acts of violence  
**activities** things that people do, especially for enjoyment or to achieve an aim: *The activities of volunteers keep many of these organizations going*.

**behavior** the things that a person or animal does: *Consistent reward and punishments can help improve a child's behavior* . . .

While "Word Choice" mainly explains syntactic or pragmatic problems that users often encounter with words/phrases with similar forms or meanings, the "Thesaurus" deals with meanings of a set of synonyms or near-synonyms, and sometimes introduces to users a set of words "that belong to a particular topic" (page x). As for the latter, readers are referred to the article under **airport**.<sup>9</sup>

This categorization was introduced first in *LDOCE4*, which has "Word Choice" and "Word Focus." "Word Choice" articles in *LDOCE4* are largely equivalent to those in *LAAD2*, and "Word Focus" articles in *LDOCE4* often include the same content as the "Thesaurus" articles in *LAAD2*, though in *LDOCE4*, the priority seems to lie in presenting sets of related words rather than explaining the meaning of synonyms or near-synonyms.

The number of "Thesaurus" articles in *LAAD2* amounts to 535, which is almost thrice the number of "Word Choice" articles (190) in

*LAAD1*. Considering that the "Word Choice" articles in *LAAD1* are equivalent to the "Word Choice" and "Thesaurus" articles in *LAAD2*, and the number of the entries in *LAAD2* is nearly twice as much as that in *LAAD1*, it can be concluded that the importance of this kind of article in EFL dictionaries has been increasingly acknowledged among the editors.

Thus, this kind of article has been adopted in some EFL and collegiate dictionaries, but the manners of description vary from dictionary to dictionary.

Firstly, there is a problem of where those articles should be placed. Some American collegiate dictionaries, for example *MWCD11* and *AHCD4*, place them at the end of the entry. *OALD7* seems to place them at random outside of the entry (probably because space takes top priority). *LAAD1* and *LDOCE4* seem to follow the policy of American collegiate dictionaries, but *LAAD2* has changed this policy.

The placement of "synonym" articles partly depends on the manners of description. The "synonym" articles in these American collegiate dictionaries compare a set of synonyms, near-synonyms, or related words contingent on their general meanings, looking at the entire definitions. Consider the following example from *MWCD11* under the entry for **beautiful**:

**syn** BEAUTIFUL, LOVELY, HANDSOME, PRETTY, COMELY, FAIR mean exciting, sensuous or aesthetic pleasure. BEAUTIFUL applies to whatever excites the keenest of pleasure to the senses and stirs emotion through the senses . . . LOVELY is close to BEAUTIFUL but applies to a narrower range of emotional excitation in suggesting the graceful, delicate, or exquisite. . . .

*LAAD1* takes a slightly different way of description from *MWCD11*, but the general nuance of the commonest words or phrases is also given at the beginning:

**WORD CHOICE: beautiful, pretty, handsome, good-looking, attractive, sexy**

**Beautiful** and **pretty** can be used about women, children, and things, but not usually about men, unless you want to suggest that they have female features: . . . **Beautiful** is the strongest word to describe a very attractive appearance. It suggests that someone has almost perfect good looks. **Pretty** means good-looking in a more ordinary way, but not really beautiful. **Handsome** is not common in spoken English. It is usually used to describe men, especially if they have the strong features that men in romantic stories are supposed to have. . . .

On the other hand, *LAAD2* almost always places them at the end of each definition which explains the meaning common to the set of synonyms.<sup>10)</sup> Consider the example below:

**hit**

1 **STRIKE** [I, T] to touch someone or something hard and quickly with your hand, a stick etc.: . . .

[REDACTED]  
**strike** FORMAL to hit someone or something very hard: . . .

**punch** to hit someone hard with your closed hand, especially in a fight: . . .

**slap** to hit someone with the flat part of your hand, especially because you are angry with them: . . .

2 **CRASH** into SB/STH [T] to fall or crash into someone or something quickly and hard: . . .

[REDACTED]  
**bump** to hit or knock against something, especially by accident: . . .  
**collide** to crash violently into something or someone: . . .  
**bang** to hit a part of your body against something by accident: . . .

While it is unpleasant to the eyes of users scanning the entry, *LAAD2*'s strategy has its own merit: editors can easily describe the differences between the meanings of a set of synonyms, especially when synonyms are polysemous.

Another characteristic of the "Thesaurus" article is that those articles often do not contain the description of the headwords under which they are placed. For instance, compare the article placed under **choose** in *OALD7* and *LAAD2*:

**SYNONYMS**

**choose**

**select** · **pick** · **opt** · **go for** · **single out**

These words all mean to decide which thing or person you want out of the ones that are available.

**choose** to decide which thing or person you want out of the ones that are available: . . .

**select** [often passive] to choose sb/sth, usually carefully, from a group of people or things: . . .

[*OALD7*]

**choose**

1 to decide which one of a number of things, possibilities, people etc. that you want, because it is the best or most appropriate: . . .

[REDACTED]  
**pick** to choose something or someone from a group of people or things: . . .

**select** FORMAL to choose something or someone by thinking carefully about which is the best, most appropriate etc.: . . .

[*LAAD2*]

It saves considerable space, but some users may fail to understand the differences between the meanings of the headwords and the other words described in the articles. Users need to have the knowledge about

hyponyms and superordinate words, or “the basic level categorization” (Taylor 1995),<sup>11)</sup> and moreover they need to know which word is the superordinate word in the relevant set of synonyms beforehand, because when the headword of an entry is superordinate to the rest of synonyms, the description of the headword is almost always omitted without any notations. This is a serious disadvantage for learners, and the editors should at least explain it, and give some space to the basic knowledge of lexicology somewhere in the dictionary.

A third point concerns the style of description. “Word Choice” articles in *LAAD1* describe differences in meanings in several sentences. In many “Thesaurus” articles in *LAAD2*, however, this kind of description is absent and the meanings of the synonymous words are simply listed in those articles. Compare the articles at **happen** in *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*:

#### **WORD CHOICE: happen, occur, take place, happen to**

Use **happen** especially to talk about past or future events that are accidents or that cannot be planned: . . . **Occur** is more formal, and is used to talk about a specific event that has already happened: . . . Use **take place** to talk about a planned event: . . .

[*LAAD1*]

**happen** mainly used to talk about things that have not been planned: . . .

**take place** mainly used to talk about events that have been planned or that have already happened: . . .

**occur** FORMAL used especially to say that something happens in a particular place or situation: . . .

[*LAAD2*]<sup>12)</sup>

*LAAD2* apparently aims at clarity of description, and it may also contribute to space-saving. The editors, however, should consider which

the more user-friendly manner is by conducting user studies.

As shown in Section 10, our user study clearly indicates that, with respect to the articles under **choose** and **poor** in *LAAD2* and *OALD7*, the majority of participants prefer the style of *OALD7*. On the other hand, the participants prefer the style of *LAAD2* when more than one article is placed at an entry of a polysemous word. It may be because the users tend to read each definition carefully when they find several “Thesaurus” articles under one entry. Therefore, the description of the headwords, especially those with general meanings, should be placed at the beginning of each article at the cost of redundancy.

“Thesaurus” articles in *LAAD2* have increased in number and achieved additional clearness. Sometimes, however, it is at the cost of user-friendliness.

(Section 7.5. Ryu)

#### **8. Etymology**

As stated in Komuro et al. (2006), articles dealing with etymologies had not been popular in EFL dictionaries. In the last decade, however, *OALD6* introduced the “Word Origin” articles, and the CD-ROM edition of *OALD7* (henceforth *OALD7-CD*) extensively describes the etymologies of many lexical items. On the other hand, *LAAD* introduced this kind of article for the first time in its second edition.

The aim of introducing this kind of article into EFL dictionaries has not been clearly explained by the publishers, but it is arguably a trend among publishers of both monolingual and bilingual EFL dictionaries. Nevertheless, Komuro et al. (2006) indicate, based on their user study, that most university students are not particularly interested in etymology. Our user study supports this observation (see Section 10). Thus, if etymology is to be treated in EFL dictionaries, articles should have pedagogical or other kind of advantage, a point we will consider in this section.

Before discussing the main point, we will survey the characteristics of the relevant articles in *LAAD2*. We have counted 171 etymology articles in the sample pages (eight percent). These articles can be categorized into

eight types according to origin and date of the lexical items discussed:

- (1) The lexical items of native origin
- (2) The lexical items of Old Norse origin
- (3) The lexical items of French origin
  - (a) which were introduced into English before 1300
  - (b) which were introduced into English from 1300 to 1500
  - (c) which were introduced into English after 1500
- (4) The lexical items of Latin origin
  - (a) which were introduced directly into English before 1100
  - (b) which were introduced into English through (Old) French from 1100
  - (c) which were introduced directly into English after 1100
- (5) The lexical items of Greek origin
- (6) The lexical items of other origins
- (7) The lexical items created with existing morphemes, derived from existing words, or transferred from proper nouns
- (8) the lexical items of onomatopoeic origins

These categories have meanings in the history of the English language. Category (1) and (2) do not require explanation. Category (3) includes those items borrowed from French, which are further classified by the period during which they were borrowed; the lexical items of (3a) type were borrowed when the influence of Anglo-Norman was strong in the English language; the items of (3b) type were introduced when the influence of Central French was strong; and those of (3c) type were introduced after the Renaissance. Category (4) consists of items borrowed from Latin: the lexical items of (4a) type were borrowed during the Roman Britain era; the items of (4b) type do not need further explanation; the items of (4c) type were introduced mainly during the Renaissance. Category (5), (6), and (8) do not need any explanation. Category (7) includes those created by connecting existing morphemes, those derived from other lexical items, or those transferred from proper nouns. Many of the lexical items in category (7) were created during

and after the period of Modern English.

The analysis is shown in Table 8.1. With respect to the printed edition, the majority of the items are of French and Latin origin. Especially abundant are the items of type (3b) and (4b), namely, those lexical items which are of Latin origin and introduced into English through (Old) French.

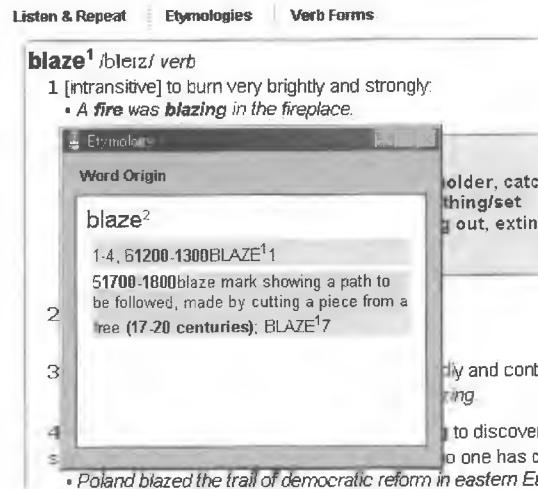
Table 8.1 Classification of the etymology articles in *LAAD2* and *LAAD2-CD*<sup>1)</sup>

Category	Printed edition											
	1	2	3a	3b	3c	4a	4b	4c	5	6	7	8
Total	33	4	19	35	18	1	52	25	14	25	9	2
	(19.3%)	(2.3%)	(11.1%)	(20.5%)	(10.5%)	(0.6%)	(30.4%)	(14.6%)	(8.2%)	(14.6%)	(5.3%)	(1.2%)
CD-ROM edition												
Total	72	12	34	72	60	6	102	103	40	75	93	9
	(13.7%)	(2.3%)	(6.5%)	(13.7%)	(11.4%)	(1.1%)	(19.4%)	(19.6%)	(7.6%)	(14.3%)	(17.7%)	(1.7%)
CD/Printed	2.18	3.00	1.79	2.06	3.33	6.00	1.96	4.12	2.86	3.00	10.33	4.50

On the other hand, the CD-ROM edition contains three times as many "Origin" articles as the printed edition (526 articles); no articles are included only in the printed edition. When we focus on the articles that appear only in the CD-ROM edition, the aim of the editors becomes clear: they mainly add the entries of type (4a), (4c) and (7). They seem to have prioritized type (3b) and (4b) in the printed edition, which led them to supplement the rest in the CD-ROM.

The main defect of these "Origin" articles consists in the macro structure of *LAAD2*. *LAAD2* treats cognates of the same form as homonyms: for example, **love** (noun) and **love** (verb) are given separate entries. Therefore there is the problem of where the "Origin" articles should be placed. Technically, they should be placed at the entry of the "older" lexical items. The editors, however, often seem to have neglected this point, as placement is haphazard. Furthermore, this causes a serious problem in the CD-ROM edition: the *LAAD2* CD-ROM (referred to as "Longman Academic e-Tutor," henceforth *LAAD2-CD*) shows the "Origin" articles with a click of "etymology" icon, so users end their consultation without noticing the etymological information if they fail to click on the icons.

To make matters worse, the authors of these “Origin” articles do not seem to have communicated well with the other authors. Often, cross-references in the “Origin” articles are imperfect. Look at the image below.



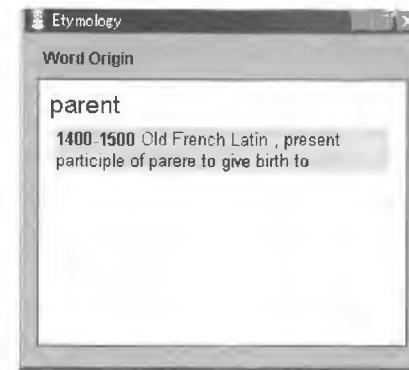
When users click the “etymology” icon at **blaze<sup>1</sup>**, the “Origin” article of **blaze<sup>2</sup>** appears. In this article, a reference is made to the seventh definition of **blaze<sup>1</sup>**, but there is no such definition either in *LAAD2* or *LAAD2-CD*. In addition, the description of this article in *LAAD2-CD* differs from that in *LAAD2*:

**blaze<sup>2</sup>**  
[Origin: (1–5) Old English *blaese* torch]

Another defect is rather minor but it can cause trouble for users: the abbreviation of the description. The printed edition sometimes abbreviates “from” before the names of the languages from which the entry words are borrowed, and uses commas to mark them off. Furthermore, *LAAD2-CD* almost always omits these commas. For example, compare the descriptions of **parent** between *LAAD2* and *LAAD2-CD*:

**parent**

[Origin: 1400–1500 Old French, Latin, present participle of *parere* to give birth to]

**parent**

Those users with insufficient knowledge of etymology might wonder whether “Old French Latin” is one language or two, especially if they happen to know that “American Spanish” is a language that appears under the entry for **Latino**, “Scottish Gaelic” under **plaid**, and “Canadian French” under **shanty**. Besides, the articles that appear only in *LAAD2-CD* often omit the date and the detailed explication of the origin. It might be because the authors followed the descriptions of the *Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology*, one of the most reliable. Compare the descriptions of **-ion** and **parlous**:

**-ion**

Old French Latin -io [*LAAD2-CD*]

suffix repr. (O)F. -ion -L. -io(n-), . . . [*Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology*]

**parlous**

1300–1400 perilous [*LAAD2-CD*]

exposed to danger XIV; dangerously cunning XV. ME. perlous, parlous, syncopated form of perelous, parelous PERILOUS. [Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology]

From a pedagogical point of view, *LAAD2*'s policy raises some points of argument about the editing of "etymology" articles. *LAAD2* is different from *OALD7-CD* in several points:

- (1) *OALD7-CD* indicates the date of the lexical items by century or technical terms such as "Old English," "Middle English," and "Modern English," while *LAAD2* gives date by centurial year (for example 1200–1300), though *LAAD2* uses the term "Old English" to refer to the lexical items of native origin.
- (2) *OALD7-CD* describes the history of the relevant lexical item in a narrative style, while *LAAD2* adopts a simpler style, using the formulaic phrase "from . . ." and changing the fonts to differentiate forms, meanings, and names of languages. Nevertheless, *LAAD2* never uses the symbol <, —, or ←, which are familiar to etymologists.

It is difficult to decide which policy is better. Our user study shows that *LAAD2*'s style is preferred to that of *OALD7*. However, it may depend on participants' knowledge.

We may conclude that the "Origin" articles of *LAAD2* have a brief style and are easy to understand for experts in etymology, and the editors' efforts to include as many articles as possible in the printed edition should be appreciated. However, some articles are confusing due to their brevity, so if this style is adopted, learners should be provided with a basic knowledge of etymology and English history.

(Ryu)

## 9. Pictorial illustrations

The pictorial illustrations in *LAAD2* proved to be unpopular among

the participants in our user study. This indicates that there is much room for improvement in them (see also Section 10.).

*LAAD2* has 48 fewer illustrations than *LAAD1*. This gives the impression that rather large illustrations with concise explanations (e.g. **digestive system**) have increased, so there is not enough room for more illustrations. The number of illustrations for nouns has increased by 13, but the number for adjectives and verbs has decreased by 8 and 51 items respectively. The illustrations for prepositions remain unchanged. The 3 illustrations for adverbs in *LAAD1* have all been removed.

It is unclear what standard has been used in deciding which entries need illustrations. There are more photographs in *LAAD2*, and 43 items that had drawings in *LAAD1* now have photographs. However, the photographs are not always helpful. Ichikawa et al. (2005: 68) point out the problem of photographs: users may not be able to see clearly which object in the photograph is in the focus while "with drawings . . . the surrounding can be made anonymous by obscuring them". This problem is true of several photographs in *LAAD2*. For example, in the photograph of **Ali** there are two boxers and uninformed users cannot see which one is Ali.

*LAAD2* has a cross-reference system for synonyms and antonyms, e.g. dull "→ see picture at SHARP<sup>1</sup>", clog, slipper, thong "→ see picture at SHOE<sup>1</sup>", which is helpful, but cross-references are not given consistently, which reduces the usefulness of the illustrations. To take one example, although the fourth sense of **fork**<sup>1</sup> n. clearly states that it is a part of a bicycle and there is a fork in the corresponding illustration, the entry has no reference to the illustration.

There are many illustrations which take a great deal of space but do not seem to be helpful. One reason is that there is too much information in the illustration, and it is too specific and too difficult to understand. In the illustration of the **Digestive system** on page 444, for example, which takes up about half a page, one can see 26 words which are not listed in the defining vocabulary, (i.e. *absorb*, *acidic*, *alkaline*, *amylase*, *bacteria*, *breakdown*, *content*, *droplet*, *duct*, *enzyme*, *expel*, *gut*, *hydrochloric*, *initial*, *lipid*, *lump*, *moisten*, *neutralize*,<sup>1</sup> *protein*, *release*, *saliva*, se-

*crete, soluble, sphincter, starch, and tiny*). It is doubtful that a general user, or even an advanced learner, would know these words, and it is inconvenient to look them up while reading the explanation. To make matters worse, in the CD-ROM the size of the illustrations has become more or less the same; the illustrations with long explanations have been shrunken and the words have become too small to read.

Such pictures usually occupy too much space, up to 1/3 or 1/4 of a page; consequently, they are moved to the subsequent page. In all such cases, a note saying that the illustration is on the next page is needed, and there are entries which do have such notes. For example, **food web**, **photosynthesis**, **purification**, and **volcano** have the note “→ see picture on p. X”. However, **digestive system**, **ecosystem**, and **erosion** do not, and the user may not find the illustrations. **Purification** is on the left page, while the illustration is on the right page. Here, there is a note saying that the illustration is on the next page, although this is obvious. On the other hand, **baseball**, **laboratory**, **skeleton<sup>1</sup>** n., and **skin<sup>1</sup>** n., which also have illustrations on the facing pages, do not have notes. There is also an inconsistency in the format of the page references: “→ see picture on page 626” (**food web**); “→ see picture on p 1186” (**photosynthesis**, **volcano**); and “→ see picture on p. 1281” (**purification**).

The dictionary uses a great deal of space to explain the process of volcano generating, or to show the names of the inner structures of the human lung. It is doubtful that the general reader would need such detailed information. The least successful illustration is that of **rock<sup>1</sup>** n.; it has the caption “rock cycle” and shows how a rock is formed and how it turns into particles, which seems unnecessary. As the total number of illustrations has been reduced, it would be more reasonable to increase the amount of simple pictures rather than of detailed illustrations likely to be overlooked due to incomplete cross-referencing.

The dictionary also has a section of full-page illustrations printed in full color. In *LAAD1* these illustrations appear between **down<sup>4</sup>** v. and **down<sup>5</sup>** n. and between **shiver<sup>1</sup>** v. and **shiver<sup>2</sup>** n. while in *LAAD2* they appear between “I” and “J” sections, after “Language Notes” (for Lan-

guage Notes see Section 6.2.). *LAAD2* has fourteen topics with full-page illustrations while *LAAD1* has sixteen. The topics common to *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* are *American Business and Industry*, *American Landscapes*, *American Pioneers*, *Did you Know?*, *Extreme Sports*, *Map of the U.S.A.*, *Native Animals and Birds of America*, *Severe Weather*, *Verbs in the Kitchen*. Newly added topics are *American Artists*, *Fruits and Vegetables*, and *Verbs of Movement*. Topics that have been dropped are *American Homes*, *Changing Shape*, *Dream Bedroom*, *Map of the World*, and *Youth and Recreation*. *The Automobile* has turned to *The Car*; *Important American Events in the Twentieth Century* to *Important Events in the Twentieth and Twenty-first Centuries*. *American Events* has been changed to *Events*, though it deals only with American events.

In the full-page illustration section, again cross-referencing is unsatisfactory. There are references (from the entries) to items which are dealt with in full-page illustrations, but not for all entries. For example, *windshield* and *steering wheel*, shown in *The Car*, are referred to in the entries, but there is no reference in the entry for *car*. The same is true for *Fruits and Vegetables*, to which there is no reference in the entry for *vegetable*. Also there is no reference to the page of *Extreme Sports* (A29) in either the entry for *extreme sports* or each sport that appears on the “Extreme Sports” page. As for *snowboarding*, similar photographs appear in both the entry and the “Extreme Sports” page.

(Otani and Nonomiya)

## 10. User study

### 10.1. Background

We have designed a user study in order to understand users' attitudes toward the features of *LAAD2* and other dictionaries. The results will be compared to those of the preceding studies: the user study concerning *LAAD1* (henceforth *US-LAAD1*, conducted in 2001 and reported in Dohi et al. (2002: 61–84)), the one concerning *LDOCE4* (*US-LDOCE4*, conducted in 2004 and reported in Ichikawa et al. (2005: 89–118)), the one concerning *OALD7* and *OALD7-CD* (*US-OALD7*, conducted in 2005 and reported in Komuro et al. (2006:

110–139), and the one concerning two business English dictionaries, namely, *LBED* and *OBED* (US-BEDs, conducted in 2006–07 and reported in Kanazashi (2008)).

As the headwords, definitions, and examples in *LAAD2* are not substantially different from those in *LAAD1*, we have decided that it would not be worthwhile to conduct a study similar to US-*LAAD1*. By focusing on the entries for adjectives, the written test in US-*LAAD1* was intended to judge the usefulness of grammar codes and labels in the entries in *LAAD1*, *LDELC2*, *OALD5*, and *OALD6*. The results suggest, among other things, that important information preferably be placed near the beginning of an entry and conveyed by a fully spelled word, and that a grammar label is more transparent when it is explained in simple words than when it is shown as an abbreviated grammatical term (Dohi et al. 2002: 74). By presenting to the participants the entries for an adjective, verbs and a phrasal verb in *LAAD1*, *LDOCE2*, and *COBUILD3*, the comparison task in US-*LAAD1* provides strong empirical evidence to the widely known claim that users will only refer to the beginning of a long entry, which Tono (1984) conclusively proves in his user study concerning English-Japanese dictionaries. The principal purpose of the present study is not to replicate what US-*LAAD1* found about users' receptive skills but rather to uncover some more facts about their productive skills. Thus, we have devised a task wherein the participants have to write English sentences with the help of *LAAD2* and other dictionaries.

## 10.2. Four parts of the user study

The present study comprises four parts. Part 1 is a questionnaire survey, which is a useful way of taking a quick sample of users' opinions. We used the same questionnaire format as those used in US-*LDOCE4* and US-*OALD7*.

The participants faced a composition task in Part 2, where they were presented with nine Japanese sentences, each with a target word, and asked to translate part of the sentences into English using that target word. In doing so, they were only permitted to refer to a dictionary that

we had previously specified. The target words were all verbs, and the participants had to decide whether a particular verb should be used in the active or passive tense, and what complement should follow the verb, in the context provided in Japanese.

This composition task was designed to complement the task in US-*LAAD1*, which aimed to investigate facts about users' receptive needs and skills. The participants in the present study, which aims to test their productive skills, had to read the definitions and examples under the entry for verbs and fill in the blanks with the specified verbs and appropriate complements.

This task also aims to be an improved version of US-*LAAD1*'s small-scale task that tested users' productive skills, because the latter was rather artificial because it presented the participants with many adjectives in a row, and its results were not very reliable since it is difficult to ascertain whether the participants gave a correct answer because they successfully looked something up or because of previous knowledge.

Part of this composition task is based on Bogaards and van der Kloot (2001).<sup>10</sup> The reasons for the partial reproduction are (1) that we aim to obtain more accurate data by measuring the time spent by the researcher, rather than the participants themselves, as do Bogaards and van der Kloot (2001), and (2) that it may be of some interest to compare the results provided by their Dutch and our Japanese participants. The questions in Parts 1 and 2 were prepared in Japanese, and the English versions are reproduced in Appendices 1 and 2, respectively.

As Part 3 of the study, the participants were asked to evaluate the usefulness of the following 11 features by ranking them in order of importance:

- (1) the geographical label, (2) the style label, (3) the subject label,
- (4) the "Origin" note, (5) the "Grammar" article, (6) the "Thesaurus" article, (7) the "Word Choice" article, (8) the colored pictorial illustration and black-and-white picture attached to some entries,
- (9) the full-page illustrations section, (10) the "Writing Guide" sec-

tion, and (11) the “Language Notes” section.

Features (9) to (11) are the middle matter. The participants were also asked which of the 11 features they would like to see in a new EFL dictionary if they were to compile one.

Part 4 is a comparison task in which the participants were presented with the entry for the same word in two or three dictionaries, and were asked to judge which among these they found more useful. The entries for comparison in Part 4 are reproduced in Appendix 3, but these reproductions are not what the participants saw in the study. They were presented with the items in the actual dictionaries, except for Items (1), (4), and (7), in which the relevant information in *OALD7-CD* was reproduced on paper and presented to the participants.

### 10.3. Participants in the study

A total of 116 people participated in the user study at universities in Japan, of whom 29 were interviewed (thus referred to as Group Intv), either one-on-one or in a small group, and the other 87 students simply faced Parts 1 and 2 as part of an in-class activity (referred to as Group Cl). They have been divided based on their proficiency in English. Of the 29 we interviewed, 7 were English teachers, of whom 2 were Americans whose first language is English (whom we have designated as Group E) and 5 were Japanese (Group T); 13 were Japanese students majoring in English (Group M) and 9 were non-English majors, including 4 Japanese and 2 Chinese people, 2 Koreans, and 1 Ukrainian. Among the 9 non-English majors, international students turned out to be more advanced in using monolingual English dictionaries than the 4 Japanese. Thus, the former are designated as Group A, and the latter 4 Japanese as Group N. This is a snowball sampling.

### 10.4. Results of Part 1: Questionnaire survey

The results of the questionnaire survey can be summarized as follows. All 116 participants filled out the questionnaire. The answers to the first question ranged from “6 and a half years” to “53 years,” and

the mean value for Group Intv (excluding 2 English speakers) and that for Group Cl are 17.8 and 8.7, respectively.

Questions (2) and (3) reveal the increased popularity of electronic dictionaries in Japan. Of the 26 in Group Intv (excluding English speakers) who answered Question (2), 25 answered that the dictionary they use most often is electronic, and of the 86 in Group Cl who answered, 81 answered affirmatively. Overall, 106 out of 112 (94.6%) used an electronic dictionary most often. The ratio was 9 out of 107 (8.4%) in US-LAAD1 (2001), 81 out of 113 (71.7%) in US-LDOCE4 (2004), 271 out of 333 (81.4%) in US-OALD7 (2005), and 25 out of 57 (43.9%) in US-BEDs (half of the study was conducted in England, 2006–07). In response to Question (3), 17 in Group Intv said they use an electronic monolingual English dictionary, 4 said they use a printed one, and 6 said they did not use one; the corresponding figures for Group Cl are 54, 2, and 31, respectively.

The results for other items in the questionnaire are reported in tabular form. In each case, the participants chose their answers from the options of <very often, often, sometimes, not usually, and never>, which were replaced by the graded frequencies 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0, respectively, to calculate the means of the frequency of use.

Tables 10.1 and 10.2 tabulate the participants’ answers to Questions (4) and (5) of the questionnaire, respectively. From these tables, we can draw similar conclusions as previous user studies: that Japanese learners of English use a dictionary for translating English into Japanese the most frequently; that the two major purposes of consulting a dictionary are to check the meaning and spelling; and that etymological and cultural information is referred to the least frequently (Kanazashi 2008: 45). These facts have not changed since US-LAAD1 as far as the Japanese participants are concerned. However, the purpose that was ranked third has changed; it was *grammar* in US-LAAD1, US-LDOCE4, and US-OALD7, but *collocations* in US-BEDs, and *synonyms and antonyms* in the present study. Collocations are referred to the third most frequently by Group Intv, and the fifth most frequently by Group Cl. *Synonyms and antonyms* are ranked sixth by Group Intv, third by

Group C1, and third by all. It is these four popular information categories apart from spelling and two unpopular ones that participants paid particular attention to in the rest of the study.

Table 10.1 Occasions on which participants in Groups Int and C1 used a dictionary

Frequency	reading English		translating E into L1		
	Group Intv	Group C1	Group Intv	Group C1	
4 (very often)	6	23	8	48	
3 (often)	11	31	10	24	
2 (sometimes)	7	21	10	11	
1 (not usually)	5	12	1	4	
0 (never)	0	0	0	0	
Means (each)	2.62	2.75	2.86	3.33	
Means (both)	2.72		3.22		

Table 10.1 Occasions (continued)

Frequency	writing English		translating L1 into E		broadening vocabulary		
	Group Intv	Group C1	Group Intv	Group C1	Group Intv	Group C1	
4	13	31	9	34	5	15	
3	8	40	9	32	5	22	
2	6	12	10	17	11	22	
1	2	4	1	4	8	20	
0	0	0	0	0	0	8	
Each	3.10	3.24	2.90	3.10	2.24	2.18	
Both	3.21		3.05		2.20		

Table 10.2 Purposes for which participants in Groups Int and C1 used a dictionary

frequency	pronunciation		collocations		synonyms/antonyms		
	G Intv	G C1	G Intv	G C1	G Intv	G C1	
4	6	8	6	12	1	13	
3	14	18	10	13	6	26	
2	6	23	8	34	15	26	
1	3	27	5	21	6	20	
0	0	11	0	7	1	2	
Each	2.79	1.83	2.59	2.02	2.00	2.32	
Both	2.07		2.16		2.24		

Table 10.2 Purposes (continued)

Frequency	etymology		spelling		whether a word exists	
	G Intv	G C1	G Intv	G C1	G Intv	G C1
4	3	4	3	24	1	13
3	2	4	12	40	1	22
2	9	12	10	18	12	18
1	8	31	4	4	11	26
0	7	36	0	1	4	8
Each	1.52	0.95	2.48	2.94	1.45	2.09
Both	1.09		2.83		1.93	

Table 10.2 Purposes (continued)

Frequency	meaning		cultural information		grammar		part of speech	
	Intv	C1	Intv	C1	Intv	C1	Intv	C1
4	15	55	0	8	6	9	1	7
3	10	27	4	6	8	17	3	17
2	4	5	12	18	9	31	12	32
1	0	0	13	33	5	24	10	24
0	0	0	0	22	1	6	3	7
Each	3.38	3.57	1.69	1.37	2.45	1.99	1.62	1.92
Both	3.53		1.45		2.10		1.84	

## 10.5. Results of Part 2: Composition task

### 10.5.1. Results of Part 2 provided by the participants in Group Intv

Tables 10.3.1–10.3.9 show the results of Part 2, with one table allotted for the tabulation of the results of one question. Each table is first divided into rows according to the groups; it is further divided into three rows to show the number of participants who gave the correct answer before referring to the dictionary, the number of those who gave the correct answer thanks to a successful look-up, and the total number of those who were asked to use the dictionary (in this order, in the first row); together with the average time spent finding the correct answer by those who benefited from their look-ups (in the second row); and the number of unsuccessful look-ups (in the third row). The participants

Table 10.3.1 Question (1) He was rewarded with a bottle of champagne.

	LAAD2	LDOCE4	COBUILD4	MWALED
Group T (n=5)	0, 2 / 2	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 1
	12 sec.	54 sec.	24 sec.	12 sec.
	0	0	0	0
Group M (n=13)	0, 2 / 2	0, 4 / 4	0, 3 / 3	1, 3 / 4
	39 sec.	38 sec.	34 sec.	44 sec.
	0	0	0	0
Group A (n=5)	1, 1 / 2	-	1, 1 / 2	0, 1 / 1
	84 sec.	-	60 sec.	228 sec.
	0	-	0	0
Group N (n=3)	0, 1 / 1	0, 0 / 1	0, 1 / 1	-
	54 sec.	-	162 sec.	-
	0	1	0	-
Total (n=26)	1, 6 / 7	0, 5 / 6	1, 6 / 7	1, 5 / 6
	40 sec.	41 sec.	58 sec.	74 sec.
	0	1	0	0

Table 10.3.2 (2) He brushed past by me, but he did not seem to recognize me.

	LAAD2	LDOCE4	COBUILD4	MWALED
Group T	0, 2 / 2	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 1
	18 sec.	30 sec.	36 sec.	18 sec.
	0	0	0	0
Group M	1, 0 / 2	0, 4 / 4	0, 2 / 3	2, 1 / 4
	-	36 sec.	27 sec.	90 sec.
	1	0	1	1
Group A	0, 1 / 2	-	0, 2 / 2	0, 0 / 1
	36 sec.	-	66 sec.	-
	1	-	0	1
Group N	0, 1 / 1	0, 0 / 1	0, 0 / 1	-
	78 sec.	-	-	-
	0	1	1	-
Total	1, 4 / 7	0, 5 / 6	0, 5 / 7	2, 2 / 6
	38 sec.	35 sec.	44 sec.	54 sec.
	2	1	2	2

Table 10.3.3 (3) He is charged with theft at present.

	LAAD2	LDOCE4	COBUILD4	MWALED
Total	1, 5 / 7	1, 5 / 6	1, 6 / 7	2, 4 / 6
	66 sec.	34 sec.	41 sec.	39 sec.
	1	0	0	0

Table 10.3.4 (4) This project is aimed at unemployed youth.

	LAAD2	LAAD1	COBUILD4
Total	1, 3 / 7	1, 3 / 7	3, 6 / 12
	28 sec.	34 sec.	48 sec.
	3	3	3

Table 10.3.5 (5) The employees rushed to make a decision.

	LAAD2	LAAD1	COBUILD4
Total	5, 2 / 7	5, 2 / 7	4, 6 / 12
	36 sec.	24 sec.	31 sec.
	0	0	2

Table 10.3.6 (6) The student forgot to change into his school uniform.

	LAAD2	LAAD1	COBUILD4
Total	2, 3 / 7	1, 6 / 7	5, 5 / 12
	50 sec.	26 sec.	79 sec.
	2	0	5

Table 10.3.7 (7) He tried to cover up the murder by burning the body.

	LAAD2	MWALED	OALD7
Total	1, 6 / 12	2, 4 / 7	1, 2 / 7
	68 sec.	66 sec.	195 sec.
	5	1	4

Table 10.3.8 (8) We are aware that many problems lie ahead.

	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>OALD7</i>
Group T	2, 0 / 2	1, 0 / 1	1, 1 / 2
	-	-	42 sec.
	0	0	0
Group M	2, 4 / 8	1, 1 / 3	0, 2 / 2
	114 sec.	24 sec.	81 sec.
	3	1	0
Group A	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 2	0, 2 / 2
	174 sec.	36 sec.	141 sec.
	0	0	0
Group N	0, 1 / 1	0, 0 / 1	0, 1 / 1
	192 sec.	-	66 sec.
	0	1	0
Total	4, 6 / 12	2, 2 / 7	1, 6 / 7
	137 sec.	30 sec.	92 sec.
	3	3	0

Table 10.3.9 (9) One of his friends stuck by him when he was accused of lying.<sup>2)</sup>

	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>MWALED</i>
Group T	0, 2 / 2	0, 1 / 1	0, 2 / 2
	129 sec.	36 sec.	156 sec.
	0	0	0
Group M	0, 7 / 8	0, 3 / 3	0, 1 / 2
	70 sec.	60 sec.	114 sec.
	1	0	1
Group A	0, 1 / 1	0, 2 / 2	0, 1 / 2
	60 sec.	105 sec.	90 sec.
	0	0	1
Group N	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 1	0, 1 / 1
	60 sec.	48 sec.	192 sec.
	0	0	0
Total	0, 11 / 12	0, 7 / 7	0, 5 / 7
	79 sec.	68 sec.	142 sec.
	1	0	2

who gave the correct answer before referring to the dictionary are excluded from the second row, and only those who benefited from their look-ups, indicated by the figure in the middle of the first row, are counted. However, those who gave the correct answer before the look-up but gave the wrong answer afterward are included in the third row. For Questions (3)–(7), only the total number and time taken are shown for the sake of brevity.

In addition to the familiar fact that the more advanced the participants are, the more likely they are to give the right answer, some discrepancies between the dictionaries that the participants referred to can be gathered from the tables above. For example, the participants, even those in Group T, seem to have spent more time consulting *MWALED*, and less time with *LDOCE4*. Aware of the unfairness of comparing the five dictionaries based on the results of different questions answered by different numbers of participants, we would like to summarize these results in Table 4.

Table 10.4 Summary of the results of Part 2

	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>LAAD1</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>COBUILD4</i>	<i>OALD7</i>	<i>MWALED</i>
Group T (n=5)	6, 8 / 15	3, 2 / 6	1, 4 / 5	4, 4 / 9	2, 2 / 4	1, 5 / 6
	43 sec.	21 sec.	33 sec.	26 sec.	81 sec.	71 sec.
	1 (7%)	1 (17%)	0	2 (22%)	1 (25%)	0
Group M (n=13)	7, 22 / 39	2, 4 / 6	2, 15 / 18	8, 19 / 33	0, 2 / 4	6, 9 / 17
	67 sec.	30 sec.	40 sec.	47 sec.	81 sec.	56 sec.
	11 (28%)	0	1 (6%)	8 (24%)	2 (50%)	2 (12%)
Group A (n=5)	2, 9 / 15	1, 4 / 6	0, 3 / 4	1, 7 / 9	0, 2 / 4	0, 5 / 7
	91 sec.	25 sec.	82 sec.	60 sec.	141 sec.	112 sec.
	4 (27%)	1 (17%)	1 (25%)	1 (11%)	2 (50%)	2 (29%)
Group N (n=3)	1, 7 / 9	1, 1 / 3	0, 2 / 5	1, 4 / 6	0, 2 / 2	0, 1 / 2
	70 sec.	42 sec.	51 sec.	68 sec.	168 sec.	192 sec.
	1 (11%)	1 (33%)	3 (60%)	1 (17%)	0	1 (50%)
Total (n=26)	16, 46 / 78	7, 11 / 21	3, 24 / 32	14, 34 / 57	2, 8 / 14	7, 20 / 32
	68 sec.	28 sec.	45 sec.	50 sec.	118 sec.	80 sec.
	17 (22%)	3 (14%)	5 (16%)	12 (21%)	5 (36%)	5 (16%)

On looking at Table 10.4, we should not jump to the conclusion that ease of access is achieved in *LAAD1* but not in *OALD7*. The discrepancies between these two dictionaries are largely because in answering two already difficult questions, namely, (7) and (8) that require the skill of scanning a long entry, the participants used *OALD7* but not *LAAD1*. Thus, Tables 10.5 and 10.6 enable us to make a comparison of the results of Questions (4)–(6) between *LAAD1*, *LAAD2*, and *COBUILD4*, and that of Questions (7) and (8) between *OALD7* and *LAAD2*, respectively, which will lead us to a fairer conclusion.

Table 10.5 Questions (4)–(6)

	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>LAAD1</i>	<i>COBUILD4</i>
Total	8, 8 / 21	7, 11 / 21	12, 17 / 36
	38 sec.	28 sec.	51 sec.
	5 (24%)	3 (14%)	10 (28%)

Table 10.6 Questions (7) and (8)

	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>OALD7</i>
Total	5, 12 / 24	2, 8 / 14
	70 sec.	118 sec.
	8 (33%)	4 (29%)

Table 10.5 again shows that *LAAD1* has the easiest access structure regarding the entries for **aim**, **rush**, and **change**. More specifically, it successfully provided the participants with the information on the passivization of the sentence containing the verb *aim*, the use of the verb *rush* followed by an infinite clause, and the distinctions between phrasal verbs headed by *change*. Two participants reported that it was the easy-to-find signpost written in white against a large black background that helped them to quickly locate the necessary information under the entry for **change<sup>1</sup>** in *LAAD1*:

**change<sup>1</sup>** v. 5 **clothes** a) [I, T] to take off your clothes and put on different ones: *I'm just going upstairs to change.* | [**change into sth/ change out of sth**] *We changed into our swimsuits and ran for the pool. . .* [LAAD1]

*LAAD2* has roughly the same entry except that the signpost is printed in blue, a feature that was criticized by the same 2 participants as somewhat lacking prominence in appearance, and another example sentence is inserted between the first and the second in *LAAD1*. Presumably, both of these changes have made it more difficult to find the grammar note “change into sth” or the example containing it in *LAAD2*. This sentence pattern is even more difficult to locate in *COBUILD4*, as it lists both the noun and verb senses of words in the same entry. If, by some fortune, a user reaches Sense 6, the example sentence should be accessed by the grammar code “V into/out of” in the extra column, or after reading a rather long sentence definition and two example sentences. All these facts account for the poor performance of the participants with *COBUILD4* in Question (6) (See Table 10.3.6).

### 10.5.2. Results of Part 2 provided by the participants in Group C1

To obtain more data and compensate for the modest amount presented in Section 10.5.1., we devised an in-class written test using the same sentences. A time limit of 45 minutes was allotted for the test, in which all the 87 participants in Group C1 had to answer the questions. They were further divided into three groups, each consisting of 29 participants, so that the participants in each group would use *LAAD2* in

Table 10.7 Correct answers by the participants in Group C1<sup>3)</sup>

question	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>LAAD1</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>COBUILD4</i>	<i>OALD7</i>	<i>MWALED</i>
(1)	15	—	9	10	—	—
(2)	18	—	11	18	—	—
(3)	18	—	9	8	—	—
(4)	10	9	—	15	—	—
(5)	18	17	—	15	—	—
(6)	18	20	—	9	—	—
(7)	9	—	—	—	7	16
(8)	11	—	13	—	12	—
(9)	10	—	9	—	—	9
Total (success rate)	127 / 261 (48.7%)	46 / 87 (52.9%)	51 / 145 (35.2%)	75 / 174 (43.1%)	19 / 58 (32.8%)	25 / 58 (43.1%)

different sets of three questions. Table 10.7 indicates the number and percentage of correct answers with each dictionary.

Here again, it turned out to be difficult to draw necessary information from the phrasal verb section near the end of a long entry, as in (7) and (9). This fact highlights the relatively high findability and intelligibility of the phrasal verbs *cover up* and *stick by/up for* in *MWALED*, as it has achieved the same success rate with difficult questions as *COBUILD4* has with easy ones. *MWALED*'s entries tend to be shorter, primarily because it employs no sentence definition. Just as 4 participants in *US-LAAD1* "explicitly expressed their unfamiliarity with or even hatred of the full sentence definition beginning with 'If you . . .' " in the reading contexts (Dohi et al. 2002: 80–81), those in Group C1 in the present study seem to implicitly express that an entry lengthened by the use of a sentence definition makes it less user-friendly even for productive purposes.

*LAAD2* provided the participants with tremendous help in answering Questions (1) and (3).<sup>4</sup> It would be easy to predict this result. In both cases, the sense in question is placed closest to the beginning of an entry in *LAAD2* among the three; further, it highlights the collocations **reward sb with sth** and **be charged with sth** in bold, and provides an example sentence in the passive, similar to the answers to Questions (1) and (3). However, with regard to other questions, *LAAD2* did not turn out to be either particularly good or bad, as the results provided by Group Intv also suggest.

A noticeable difference between Bogaards and van der Kloot's (2001) study and ours is that the mean look-up time for (1) *He was rewarded with . . .* is shorter than that for (3) *He is charged with . . .* in theirs but longer in ours; in addition, (4) *This project is aimed at . . .* and (5) *The employees rushed to make . . .* turned out to be considerably more difficult than (our) Questions (1), (2), and (3) in theirs, but only (4) was found to be more difficult in ours. Otherwise the results were broadly similar. Further research is necessary to verify the assumption that the difference in the source language of translation or the dictionaries used in the studies account for the difference in the results.

## 10.6. Results of Part 3: Evaluation task

The results of the evaluation task can be shown in a relatively simple way. All the 29 participants in Group Intv (2 in Group E, 5 in Group T, 13 in Group M, 5 in Group A, and 4 in Group N) evaluated the usefulness of the 11 features and ranked them in order of importance. If a participant ranked a particular feature most highly, we replaced the evaluation with 11 points. Likewise, the second highest evaluation has been replaced with 10 points, and the lowest evaluation with 1. Table 10.8 shows the total points assigned to each feature, its rank among the 11, the number of participants who regarded the feature as necessary in their own dictionary, and its rank. In Parts 3 and 4, the two English speakers were asked to evaluate them from their students' viewpoint (i.e., what features they would like their students to refer to).

Table 10.8 Evaluation of the usefulness of 11 features

	points	rank	no. of those who regard the feature as necessary	rank
(1) geographical label	164	5	24	5
(2) style label	228	4	28	2
(3) subject label	149	6	19	8
(4) "Origin" note	136	8	20	6
(5) "Grammar" article	287	1	29	1
(6) "Thesaurus" article	243	3	27	3
(7) "Word Choice" article	273	2	27	3
(8) pictorial illustration	123	9	20	6
(9) illustrations section	64	11	10	11
(10) "Writing Guide" section	107	10	12	10
(11) "Language Note" section	140	7	14	9

We have not found any striking difference in the results between groups. Whether judging from the total points or from the number of participants who regarded the feature as necessary, four popular features were (5) "Grammar" article, (7) "Word Choice" article, (6) "Thesaurus" article, and (2) style label. Just as Kanazashi (2008: 49) observes based on the results of one of the evaluation tasks in US-BEDs that

"the note 'Which Word?', the list of collocations, the notes 'Help' and 'Grammar Point', and the register label were four popular features [of *OBED*], which suggests that the participants intended to use a BED [business English dictionary] not only for decoding but for encoding as well," we would conclude that the results of this present task reconfirms that users need information useful for encoding. Part 3 has also served our purpose of bridging the gap between Groups E, R, and J,<sup>5)</sup> thanks to the participation by Japanese teachers of English (Group T).<sup>6)</sup>

#### 10.7. Results of Part 4: Comparison task

Twenty-eight participants in Group Intv (2 in Group E, 4 in Group T, 13 in Group M, 5 in Group A, and 4 in Group N) performed this last task. The results are shown in Table 10.9, which notes the features compared and the number of participants who judged each dictionary entry as favorable.

Table 10.9 Features compared and the number of affirmative votes

items compared	<i>LAAD2</i>	<i>LAAD1</i>	<i>LDOCE4</i>	<i>OALD7(-CD)</i>	<i>MWALED</i>
(1) <i>après-ski</i>	adj. 18	—	—	Word Origin box 10	—
(2) etymological information	Origin note 22	—	—	—	end of vol. 6
(3) distinguishing similar words	Thesaurus 7	—	—	Synonyms 21	end of vol. 0
(4) <i>ski</i>	Origin note 17	—	—	Word Origin box 11	—
(5) <i>happen</i>	Thesaurus 21	Word Choice 7	—	—	—
(6) <i>cost</i>	Thesaurus 19	—	Word Choice 9	—	—
(7) <i>urban</i>	Origin note 20	—	—	Word Origin box 8	—
(8) <i>poor</i>	Thesaurus 8	—	—	Synonyms 20	—
(9a) <i>hit in LAAD2, beautiful in LAAD1</i>	Thesaurus 12	Word Choice 3	—	—	—
(9b) <i>bad</i>	Thesaurus 12	—	Word Focus 3	Vocabulary Building 1	—

Here at last, we can safely say that *LAAD2*'s features are generally superior to those in *LAAD1* and other dictionaries, with the "Thesaurus" article second only to *OALD7*'s "Synonyms" article regarding two items.

A closer examination of the participants' opinions reveals that they were satisfied (even impressed) mainly with the neat-and-tidy layout and the target synonyms arranged at the beginning of each line in the "Thesaurus" box, whereas those who preferred the definition style of the "Thesaurus" article to the explanatory style of the "Synonyms" article in *OALD7*, the "Word Choice" article in *LAAD1*, and the "Word Choice" or "Word Focus" article in *LDOCE4* were relatively small in number. It requires another study to find out whether it is easy to access the target synonym in *LAAD2*'s "Thesaurus" box.

In Item (1), *LAAD2*'s inclusion of the adjectival use in its entry at the cost of etymological information was favored by 18 participants, while *OALD7-CD*'s inclusion of etymological information at the cost of the adjectival use was favored by 10. However, all 4 in Group N favored the former, while 4 out of 6 in Groups E and T favored the latter—the most advanced groups who bore in mind their educational settings while answering the questions. This is understandable, as the results of the questionnaire indicate that the participants in Groups E and T are more interested in etymology than those in Group N (see Section 8. for a discussion of etymology from a pedagogical point of view). A similar tendency is observed with Item (5), where among the 7 who favored the "Word Choice" box, 4 were in Group T, consisting only of 6 members. Such cases suggest that we should not take the results of Part 4 as being indicative of *LAAD2*'s all-round success.

The unpopularity of *MWALED* is largely due to the location of the articles both placed at the end of the volume. Many participants, particularly those in Groups M, A, and N, expressed their reluctance to turn to other pages while reading the main dictionary text. The number of participants who criticized the *location* of the information was 11 and 4, regarding Items (2) and (3), respectively, as opposed to the number of participants who criticized its *content* being 3 and 1. It is of course unfair to

judge *MWALED* as being poor on the basis of merely these two features.

Since 12 participants said in relation to Items (3) and/or (8) that they favored *OALD7*'s "Synonyms" box because of the "patterns and collocations" article at the end, we have compared the average score of the participants' interest in collocations, which requires a subdivision of Table 10.2. The average for all the 29 in Group Intv is 2.59, while the average for the 12 who expressed their appreciation of the "patterns and collocations" is 2.17, a figure lower than the overall average. This suggests that the list of collocations at the end of the "Synonyms" box attracted even those who had not shown a particular interest in collocations when filling out the questionnaire. *LAAD2* could have included this kind of information for pedagogical purposes.

#### **10.8. Ways of improving the research design, with pedagogical implications of the results in view**

The discrepancies in the results between Groups E and T, consisting of the most advanced speakers of English, and Group N, whose members are the lowest in proficiency in English, will be a bother to dictionary publishers. In other words, even if English teachers suggest ways of improving the dictionaries, learners might not appreciate the improvement. Here again, the present study seems to have brought us to the same point as previous user studies. US-*OALD7* reports two cases in which a dictionary entry was almost exclusively welcomed by a particular group of participants, and suggests that dictionaries be edited and revised bearing target users in mind (Komuro et al. 2006: 138). Likewise, a point made as part of the concluding remarks of US-BEDs is as follows: "[f]rom the fact that some types of definitions are welcomed by particular groups, we can draw the same conclusion as the previous user studies such as Komuro et al. (2006: 138): .... Concerning this point, the present study has provided the strongest ground for arguing so, as this is the first of the series in which opinions by three different groups including Group E can be compared" (Kanazashi 2008: 49).

To cope with this complexity, we might as well turn to the difference in reliability between Task 2 and Task 4. As Hartmann (2001: 116) puts

it, "[s]ome researchers have expressed grave doubts about the use of questionnaires for the purpose of eliciting empirical data on behavioural acts." Task 4 is similar to a questionnaire in nature, in that it asks users their opinions as rather an indirect method, without making them use the dictionary, while in Task 2 a direct method is applied, and therefore the above-mentioned doubts about the use of indirect methods do not apply. If the primary reason for the popularity of *LAAD2*'s "Thesaurus" box is that the participants in Groups M, A, and N merely *thought* it would be easy to access the synonyms and understand them thanks to the layout, one should devise another study, similar to Task 2, which measures the time spent finding the target synonyms as well as the success rate distinguishing the synonyms in the context of production.<sup>7)</sup>

One might even go so far as to say that a user study, particularly in relation to a dictionary review from a pedagogical perspective, should have twofold functions: it should ask teachers' opinions through an indirect method and test learners' skills through a direct method. If this is the case, we should focus on the results of Part 2 yielded by Groups M, A, and N, and the results of Part 4 by Groups E and T, and enrich these parts both qualitatively and quantitatively for future studies.

Nevertheless, other results of the study should not be neglected as being useless. As our initial aim was to explore the usability and accessibility of information from various aspects, we believe that our four-part user study was fairly successful, particularly in supplementing the findings from US-*LAAD1* and US-BEDs and in consolidating their validity (see Sections 10.5.2. and 10.6.).

#### **11. Conclusion**

Regrettably, our overall evaluation of *LAAD2* as not only a revised edition of *LAAD1* but also as a pedagogical tool is rather low. *LAAD* has greatly changed only in aspects such as subject labels, grammar codes, four types of articles, and pictorial illustrations. Its coverage has not changed much, except that the new edition includes some technical terms and compound nouns. The system of presenting phonetic information has not radically improved, and the problems pointed out still

remain. The definitions remain roughly the same under many entries, and they were not as highly evaluated as in competing EFL dictionaries by our informants or the participants in the user study. Examples and collocations have grown in number, and new features such as etymological information and the CD-Rom are welcomed, but again there are problems. Even worse, the changes in the presentation of pragmatic information, subject labels and grammar codes seem to constitute user antagonism. Errors and inconsistencies have also been found, if sporadically.

As it already met its challenge with the publication of *MWALED* in 2008, which claims to be “[t]he first advanced learner’s dictionary [of American English] from an American publisher” (Merriam-Webster Catalog 2008–2009, p. 3),<sup>1)</sup> *LAAD* too should have some new distinctive features that make it so unique and prominent that the editor cannot help but describe them in the preface. Otherwise, the dictionary would not be successful commercially or pedagogically and risk being removed from the market and educational settings.

## NOTES

### Section 1

- 1) Neither does *LAAD1* have the editor’s preface.

### Section 2

1) This figure (53,000 entries in *LAAD2*) is much smaller than the number of entries in *LDOCE4* that is judged to be 77,000 from what Ichikawa et al. (2005: 4) say. However, one should not compare these figures with 43,000 that Dohi et al. (2002: 7) estimates the *main* entries in *LAAD1* to be, as it does not include run-on entries, or with 40,990 that Masuda et al. (1997: 21) estimates the entries in *COBUILD3*, as the *COBUILD* dictionaries treat different parts-of-speech in the same entry unlike *LAAD1*, *LAAD2*, or *LDOCE4*.

2) As there are some multiple parts-of-speech entries, the figures in Table 2.1 do not exactly add up to 2,120. Run-on entries for 65 phrasal verbs are not included in the table.

3) Run-on entries with no definition or example sometimes cause confusion particularly when two derivatives of the same part-of-speech are run on under the same entry, as in **vapidness** *n.* and **vapidity** *n.* under **vapid** *adj.*

### Section 3

- 1) The problems with using a hyphen in *LAAD1* are discussed in Dohi et al. (2002:

24–25). *LAAD2* has similar problems.

### Section 4

- 1) It is in *COBUILD3*, rather than *LAAD1*, that the sentence definition beginning with *if* was criticized by the participants in *US-LAAD1* as being “too long.” However, this does not indicate that the long definitions in *LAAD2* are free from the same criticism, partly because more participants gave “difficult definition” (68 participants with regard to all the target words) and “the lengthiness of the entry” (34) as the reasons for bad entries than “the scarcity of information” (26) in *US-LAAD2*.
- 2) The unchanged definitions with insufficiencies include that with a simple typographic error like the definition of **back office**, in which we should read “managed” as “manages.”
- 3) The same insufficiency is found in *LDOCE4*, where the definition of **back formation** is identical with that in *LAAD2*. *OALD7* does a better, if not perfect, job here, defining and illustrating it as “a word formed by removing or changing the beginning or end of a word that already exists. For example, *cheeseburger* is a back-formation from *hamburger*.” In such a case, we have to rely on dictionaries for English speakers; *MWCD11*: “a word formed by subtraction of a real or supposed affix from an already existing longer word (as *burglary* from *burglar*).”
- 4) The problem pointed out in Dohi et al. (2002: 39) is that unlimited application of affixes to the original defining vocabulary turns the once-controlled glossary so productive, that the potential number of words available in definitions ends up far beyond the officially claimed 2,000.
- 5) In Tables 4.1 and 4.2, we have added the columns for *LAAD1*, *LAAD2*, and *MWALED* to what Uchida (2009) has already surveyed on *OALD7*, *COBUILD5*, and *LDOCE4*.

### Section 5

- 1) For a general discussion on problems with labeling systems inherent in EFL dictionaries, see Kokawa (1989). For a specific discussion on subject labels in business English dictionaries, see Kanazashi (2009).
- 2) In the list of labels in *LAAD1* (inside front cover), **law** is classified into Category 2 in *LAAD2*’s classification. Category 3 is absent from the list in *LAAD1*. Therefore, one could also say that **law** is a register label in *LAAD1*, or even that there is no subject label in *LAAD1*.
- 3) The label **poetic** exists under the entry for **brand<sup>1</sup>** *n.*, but we have not found any word with the label **impolite** in *LAAD2*.

### Section 6

- 1) The entry for **to<sup>1</sup>** does not display its part of speech in *LAAD1*, *LAAD2*, and *LDOCE4*.
- 2) In the table of “Short Forms” (p. 1850) there is a typo; “sb someone” should be “sb somebody.”
- 3) **must<sup>1</sup>** *modal verb* is not included in the table.
- 4) Somehow under the entries for modal verbs, inconsistencies as to the italics are often

found.

5) Cf. *LDOCE4* displays all of the inflection of **be** in the entry, as: **be<sup>1</sup>** *past tense was, were, past participle been, present participle being* first person singular **am** second person singular and plural **are** third person singular **is**. However, *LDOCE4* somehow does not include **be** in the table of irregular verbs.

6) In *LAAD1* [at the end of a sentence or a clause].

7) In *LAAD1* [used before a verb to show that it is the infinitive, but not before "can," "could," "may," "might," "will," "would," "shall," "should," "must," or "ought." The following senses show the patterns in which "to" is used.], and in *LDOCE4* [used before the basic form of a verb to show that it is in the infinitive].

8) In *LAAD1* the heading was "Sometimes the words have a different style" (emphasis ours).

9) In this section **cardiac arrest** is labeled as MEDICINE while in the entry it is labeled as TECHNICAL.

10) The list of *great* is not in alphabetical order; "great strength" in the second column seems to be a mistake for "great length", which has been deleted in *LAAD2*. It seems that "at great length," "great strength," and "(a) great disappointment" were transposed.

#### Section 7

1) "Usage" includes 12 types of boxes in *LAAD1*: *collocation, collocation and grammar, formal/informal, formality, formality and politeness, plural forms, politeness, spelling, spoken-written, usage, word formation*, and a box without a title.

2) The following words are entry words whose "Word Choice" note in *LAAD1* has turned into "Thesaurus" notes in *LAAD2*: **ability, adequate, area, ask, beautiful, become, big, body, borrow, bring, child, clothing, comprise, continual, control<sup>1</sup> n., cook<sup>1</sup> v., cry<sup>1</sup> v., damp<sup>1</sup> adj., definitely, destroy, doctor<sup>1</sup> n., dress<sup>1</sup> v., fat<sup>1</sup> adj., fire<sup>1</sup> n., forbid, force<sup>1</sup> n., guilty, habit, happen, happy, have to, help<sup>2</sup> n., intelligent, invent, job, kill<sup>1</sup> v., lead<sup>1</sup> v., learn, machine, money, new, open<sup>2</sup> v., outside<sup>2</sup> adv., pay<sup>2</sup> n., place<sup>1</sup> n., position, priest, race<sup>1</sup> n., reach<sup>1</sup> v., reason<sup>1</sup> n., referee n., request<sup>2</sup> v., say<sup>1</sup> v., see<sup>1</sup> v., shore<sup>1</sup> n., smell<sup>1</sup> n., steal<sup>1</sup> v., taste<sup>2</sup> v., teach, telephone<sup>1</sup> n., thin<sup>1</sup> adj., thus, travel<sup>1</sup> v., under<sup>1</sup> prep., vacation<sup>1</sup> n., visit<sup>1</sup> v., win<sup>1</sup> v.**

"Word Choice" in both *LAAD1* and *LAAD2* are: **act, actually, adjective, admission, affect, after<sup>1</sup> prep., almost, alone, beginning, between<sup>1</sup> prep., but<sup>1</sup> conjunction, civilization, claim<sup>1</sup> v., cloth, commerce, commercial<sup>2</sup> n., common<sup>2</sup> n., comprehension, couple<sup>1</sup> n., cure<sup>1</sup> v., damage<sup>1</sup> n., day, dead<sup>1</sup> adj., despite, die<sup>1</sup> v., difference, different, during, each<sup>1</sup> quantifier, pron., economic, economics, electric, error, excuse<sup>1</sup> v., few, first<sup>2</sup> adv., flammable, from, front<sup>1</sup> n., good<sup>1</sup> adj., got, hard<sup>2</sup> adv., ignore, infer, insure, jealous, kindly, lay<sup>1</sup> v., little<sup>1</sup> adj., lose, luck<sup>1</sup> n., make<sup>1</sup> v., masculine, middle<sup>1</sup> n., moment, narrow<sup>1</sup> adj., nation, noise, north<sup>1</sup> n., officer, old, order<sup>2</sup> v., pass<sup>1</sup> v., product, professor, rare, relationship, remember, shock<sup>1</sup> n., since<sup>2</sup> prep., sit, start<sup>1</sup> v., still<sup>1</sup> adv., street, technique, unless, used to, will<sup>1</sup> modal verb, wish<sup>1</sup> v., worth<sup>1</sup> prep.**

3) The entries for **damn<sup>2</sup> adj., damn<sup>3</sup> adv., and damn<sup>5</sup> n.** have also been purged from *LAAD2*.

4) Here is the list of usage notes that becomes "Usage" in *LAAD2*:

**Formality: kindly<sup>1</sup> adv., maybe, moreover, not, one<sup>2</sup> pron., which**

**Plural Forms: dozen**

**Politeness: foreigner, handicapped, Mr.**

**Spelling: beginning, cord, different, everyday, everyone, really**

**Spoken-Written: dollar, marry, nice**

**Usage: elder<sup>2</sup> n., for<sup>1</sup> prep.**

**Word Formation: un-**

5) The following words are entry words which has a "Grammar" note in both *LAAD1* and *LAAD2*: **agree, all<sup>1</sup> quantifier, pron., also, always, amount<sup>1</sup> n., ask, become, but<sup>1</sup> conjunction, child, couple<sup>1</sup> n., criterion, day, deal<sup>1</sup> n., dice<sup>1</sup> n., doubt<sup>1</sup> n., during, each<sup>1</sup> quantifier, pron., either<sup>1</sup> conjunction, either<sup>2</sup> determiner, enjoy, enough<sup>1</sup> adv., especially, everyone, fit<sup>1</sup> v., friendly, god, hardly, hundred<sup>1</sup> number, January, just<sup>1</sup> adv., kind<sup>1</sup> n., lately, less<sup>1</sup> quantifier, pron., life, matter<sup>1</sup> n., more<sup>1</sup> adv., most<sup>1</sup> adv., mostly, much<sup>1</sup> adv., never, nice, no<sup>1</sup> adv., none<sup>1</sup> pron., quantifier, of, one<sup>2</sup> pron., only<sup>1</sup> adv., percentage, phenomenon, reach<sup>1</sup> v., really, reason<sup>1</sup> n., recommend, regret<sup>1</sup> v., request<sup>2</sup> v., same<sup>1</sup> adj., some<sup>1</sup> quantifier, such<sup>1</sup> determiner, Sunday, that<sup>1</sup> pron., the<sup>1</sup> determiner, their, there<sup>1</sup> pron., to<sup>1</sup> (the part of speech is not displayed), unique, very<sup>1</sup> adv., wash<sup>1</sup> v., worse<sup>1</sup> adj.**

6) The word *before* seems to be a mistake; object pronouns are used after *as* and *than*, rather than before them. Moreover, the explanation that "object pronouns are used after *be*" is not sufficient.

7) In the entry for **producer** "→ see Word Choice box at **PRODUCT**" is placed at the end of sense 2, but the word choice box refer to the sense 1.

8) There are typos in this kind of references: **already** "see Word Choice box at **JUST<sup>2</sup>**" → "see Grammar box at **JUST<sup>2</sup>**", "see Grammar box at **STILL<sup>1</sup>**." → "see Word Choice box at **STILL<sup>1</sup>**." (although **still<sup>1</sup> adv.** has both Grammar box and Word Choice box, only the "Word Choice" box mentions **already**.); **high<sup>1</sup> adj.** "see THESAURUS box at **tall**" → "see Word Choice box at **tall**"; **that<sup>1</sup> pron.** "see Word Choice box at **WHICH, WHO**" → "see Usage box at **WHICH**, Word Choice box at **WHO**".

9) This kind of information is shown in the "Vocabulary Building" article in *OALD7*.

10) Actually, *LAAD2* puts a "Thesaurus" article at the end of the entry for **beautiful**. The reason seems to be the entry's layout.

11) Taylor (1995: 48) argues that, "There is, namely, a level of categorization which is cognitively and linguistically more salient than the others. This is the 'basic level' of categorization." For example, of the words *furniture, chair, armchair, chair* is the word of the basic level categorization.

12) In this set of synonyms, **happen** is not a superordinate word, so the description of **happen** is given in the article.

#### Section 8

1) The figures in brackets compare the percentage of articles in each category to the number of all articles surveyed in the printed or the CD-ROM edition.

#### Section 9

1) This word is unreadable in the dictionary both in the printed dictionary and the

CD-ROM; illustrations in the CD-ROM seem to be scanned from the printed dictionary.

### Section 10

- 1) Bogaards and van del Kloot's (2001: 120) Sentences 1, 3, 4, 11, and 12 are translated into Japanese and used as our Sentences (1), (2), (3), (4), and (5).
- 2) The answer "stuck up for him" was also regarded as correct, as the phrasal verb is entered in all the three dictionaries.
- 3) If any figure is provided in a cell, the total number of participants is always 29.
- 4) Note that these results are similar to what is indicated in Table 10.3.1 concerning Question (1), but contrary to that in Table 10.3.3 concerning Question (3).
- 5) Groups R and J in US-BEDs are defined as the group of participants consisting of "foreign residents of England" and those who "majored in a business-related subject such as commerce, accounting, and business administration at a university in Japan," highlighting their (supposed) familiarity with business English.
- 6) Kanazashi (2008: 49) concludes: "Now that the present study [US-BEDs] has been conducted among Groups E, R and J, it will be useful to interview the group absent from it. The 'missing link' that is expected to bridge the gap between those groups is Group T, namely, a group consisting of English teachers in Japan. . . . This is still an ongoing project until the results obtained so far are supplemented by Group T."
- 7) One may well fear that the division of the list of synonyms into two "Thesaurus" boxes might cause trouble in searching for a specific sense or phrasal verb as in Part 2, although no participants mentioned this point regarding Items (9a) or (9b) in Part 4.

### Section 11

- 1) Some members of the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle have pointed out that *NHD* or *RHWD* has a claim to be considered the first of its kind (see Masuda et al. (1999)).

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1

#### Part 1: Questionnaire

- (1) How many years have you studied English?
- (2) Please name English dictionaries that you use most often. Are they printed or electronic dictionaries?
- (3) If you use a monolingual English dictionary, please name it. Is it a printed or electronic dictionary?
- (4) How often do you use an English dictionary on the following occasions? Please circle one of the following choices that are the closest to the frequency of your dictionary use: <very often, often, sometimes, not usually, never>
  - 1 while reading English
  - 2 while translating English into your first language
  - 3 while writing English
  - 4 while translating your first language into English
  - 5 while trying to broaden your vocabulary
- (5) How often do you use an English dictionary for the following purposes? Please circle

one of the frequencies from <very often, often, sometimes, not usually, never>.

- 1 finding cultural information
  - 2 finding collocations
  - 3 checking spelling
  - 4 checking whether a word exists
  - 5 checking part-of-speech
  - 6 looking up meaning
  - 7 finding synonyms and antonyms
  - 8 finding etymology
  - 9 finding cultural information
  - 10 checking pronunciation
- (6) If you check pronunciation, which do you often consult, a printed or electronic dictionary containing phonetic symbols or an electronic dictionary with recorded sounds?

### Appendix 2

#### Part 2: Composition Task

Suppose you are to explain situations (1)–(9), using the verb in parentheses. First, fill in the blanks without referring to the dictionary. Then, look up the verb in the dictionary specified, and answer again.

- (1) ある男性がボトル入りシャンパンを賞品としてもらった。 (reward)  
He \_\_\_\_\_ a bottle of champagne.
- (2) ある男性が自分に軽く触れて目の前を通り過ぎていったが、その人は自分に気づかなかったようだ。 (brush)  
He \_\_\_\_\_ me, but he did not seem to recognize me.
- (3) ある男性が現在、窃盗罪に問われている。 (charge)  
He \_\_\_\_\_ theft at present.
- (4) あるプロジェクトが、失業中の若者を対象としている。 (aim)  
This project \_\_\_\_\_ unemployed youth.
- (5) ある会社の社員たちが早く結論を出そうとした。 (rush, make a decision)  
The employees \_\_\_\_\_ a decision.
- (6) ある男子学生が学生服に着替えるのを忘れた。 (change)  
The student forgot to \_\_\_\_\_ his school uniform.
- (7) 殺人をした男性が、死体を焼いて事実を隠蔽しようとした。 (cover)  
He tried to \_\_\_\_\_ the murder by burning the body.
- (8) 前途にあまりにも多くの困難があることに、われわれは気づいている。 (lie)  
We are aware that many problems \_\_\_\_\_.
- (9) ある男性がうそをついていると非難された時、友人が弁護してやった。 (stick)  
One of his friends \_\_\_\_\_ when he was accused of lying.

### Appendix 3

#### Part 4: Comparison Task

- (1) Under the entry for *après-ski*, [OALD7-CD] shows etymology in the form of a note and a box, but it does not show the adjectival use, whereas [LAAD2] explains the adjectival use, but it does not give etymological information.

- (2) To show etymological information,  
 [LAAD2] provides an "Origin" note at the end of some entries, and  
 [MWALD] provides a two-page article called "English Word Roots" at the end of the volume.
- (3) To give information on similar words,  
 [LAAD2] provides a "Thesaurus" box after Sense 1 of **choose**<sup>1</sup> explaining synonyms in definition style,  
 [OALD7] provides a "Synonyms" box near the entry for **choose**, explaining synonyms in an explanatory style, and  
 [MWALD] provides at the end of the volume a two-page article called "Words That Are Often Confused" explaining words with similar spellings.
- (4) To show the etymology of **ski**,  
 [OALD7-CD] provides the following "Word Origin" article:

Word origin  
**ski**  
 mid 18th cent.: from Norwegian, from Old Norse skith billet, snowshoe.

and [LAAD2] provides the following "Origin" note at the end of the entry:

[Origin: 1700–1800 Norwegian, Old Norse **skith** stick of wood, **ski**]

- (5) To explain the synonyms of happen,  
 [LAAD1] lists *happen*, *occur*, *take place*, and *happen to* with their meaning in a "Word Choice" box, and  
 [LAAD2] lists *happen*, *take place*, and *occur* with their meaning in a "Thesaurus" box.
- (6) To explain the synonyms of **cost** *n.*,  
 [LAAD2] provides the following "Thesaurus" box after Sense 1:

[REDACTED]  
**expense** a very large amount of money that you spend on something: ...  
**price** the amount of money you must pay for something: ...  
**charge** the amount that you have to pay for a particular service or to use something: ...  
**fee** ...  
**fare** ...  
**rent** ...  
**rate** ...

and [LDOCE4] provides the following "Word Choice" box at the end of the entry:

#### WORD CHOICE: **cost**, **costs**, **price**, **charge**, **fee**, **fare**

Use **cost** to talk about paying for services and activities, rather than objects: ...  
 Your **costs** are the amount of money you have to spend in order to run a business or to do a particular activity: ...  
 Use **price** to mean the amount of money that you must pay for something in a

place such as a shop or restaurant: ...  
**A charge** is ...  
**A fee** is ...  
**A fare** is ...

- (7) To show the etymology of **urban**,  
 [LAAD2] provides an "Origin" note at the end of the entry, and  
 [OALD7-CD] provides a "Word Origin" box.
- (8) To explain the synonyms of **poor**,  
 [LAAD2] provides the following "Thesaurus" box after Sense 1:

[REDACTED]  
**Sneedy** having very little food or money: ...  
**destitute** FORMAL having no money, no place to live, no food etc.: ...  
**impoverished** FORMAL very poor: ...  
**broke** not having any money for a period of time: ...  
**disadvantaged** ... **underprivileged** ... **deprived** ...  
**penniless** WRITTEN ... **poverty-stricken** ...

and [OALD7] provides the following "Synonyms" box near the entry:

**SYNONYMS**  
**poor**  
**disadvantaged** • **needy** • **impoverished** • **deprived** • **penniless** • **poverty-stricken** **hard up**  
 These words all describe sb who has very little or no money and therefore cannot satisfy their basic needs.  
**poor** having little money; not having enough money for basic needs: ...  
**disadvantaged** having less money and fewer opportunities than most people in society: ...  
**needy** poor: ...  
**impoverished** (*journalism*) poor: ...  
**deprived** [usually before noun] without enough food, education, and all the things that are necessary for people to live a happy and comfortable life

#### POOR, NEEDY, IMPOVERISHED OR DEPRIVED?

poor is the most general of these words ...

**penniless** (*literary*) having no money; very poor: ...

**poverty-stricken** (*journalism*) extremely poor: ...

**hard up** (*informal*) having very little money, especially for a short period of time:

3 3 3

#### PATTERNS AND COLLOCATIONS

■ poor ... people/families	■ poor ... countries/regions/areas
■ a poor ... childhood/background	■ extremely/very poor ...

(9a) To provide information on synonyms,

[LAAD1] lists *beautiful*, *pretty*, *handsome*, *good-looking*, *attractive*, and *sexy* in an explanatory style in a “Word Choice” article at the end of the entry for **beautiful** (See Section 7.5.), and

[LAAD2] lists *strike*, *punch*, *slap*, *beat*, *beat sb up*, *spank*, *smack*, *whack*, *thump*, *knock*, *bang*, *bash*, *tap*, *pound*/*hammer*, and *rap* in a “Thesaurus” box after Sense 1 of **hit**<sup>1</sup> “to touch someone or something hard and quickly . . .,” and lists *bump*, *collide*, *bang*, *bash*, and *stub* in another “Thesaurus” box after Sense 2 “to fall or crash into someone or something quickly and hard,” both in definition style (See Section 7.5.).

(9b) To explain the synonyms of **bad**,

[LDOCE4] provides the following “Word Focus” box at the end of the entry:

#### WORD FOCUS: BAD

*very bad: awful, terrible, horrible, lousy . . .*

*bad, but not very bad: not very good, mediocre, second-rate, so-so, lackluster . . .*

*of bad quality: . . .*

[OALD7] provides the following “Vocabulary Building” box at the end of the entry:

#### VOCABULARY BUILDING

##### bad and very bad

Instead of saying that something is bad or very bad, try to use more precise and interesting adjectives to describe things:

- an unpleasant/a foul/a disgusting smell

and [LAAD2] provides the following “Thesaurus” box after Sense 1 (not good or not nice):

**poor** not as good as it could be or should be: *poor performance in school*

**disappointing . . .**

**awful . . .**

**terrible . . . horrible . . . lousy . . . appalling/horrific . . . horrendous . . . atrocious . . . abysmal . . .**

and the following box after Sense 8 (morally wrong or evil):

**evil/wicked** used to describe a very bad person or his or her actions: *a fairy tale about a wicked witch | Were his intentions evil?*

**immoral/wrong . . .**

**reprehensible . . .**

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## Book Review

B.T. Sue Atkins and Michael Rundell  
*The Oxford Guide to Practical Lexicography*  
(Oxford University Press, 2008)

KAZUO DOHI

The second half of the 20th century saw a large number of publications on lexicography: Zgusta's *Manual of Lexicography* (1971), Landau's *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography* (1984), and the impressive *Dictionaries: An International Encyclopedia of Lexicography* (1989–91), to name only a few. The beginning few years in the present century saw Landau's revision (2001)<sup>1</sup>, Hartmann's *Teaching and Researching Lexicography* (2001) and so forth.

Note that the last three decades saw a number of monolingual British dictionaries for foreign learners, followed by their family dictionaries including those of collocations, idioms or phrasal verbs. Most issued since the late 1980s are compiled based on corpora, whether they are the British National Corpus, the Bank of English<sup>2</sup>, the Oxford English Corpus or the like, which is in stark contrast with dictionaries issued in the U.S.A.

2008 saw *The Oxford Guide to Practical Lexicography* (*OGPL*). The authors are experienced and active lexicographers: Ms. Atkins, who reminds the present writer of *Dictionary of English Phrasal Verbs and their Idioms* (1974), has been working on bilingual dictionaries, such as *Collins-Robert French-English, English-French Dictionary* (1978<sup>1</sup>, 1995<sup>4</sup>)<sup>3</sup>. She has been fascinated in 'theoretical lexicography' or 'an enormous body of linguistic theory which has the potential to help lexicographers

to do their jobs more effectively and with greater confidence' (p. 4). Mr. Rundell, author of *The Dictionary of Cricket* (1985<sup>1</sup>, 1995<sup>2</sup>), Managing Editor for *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1987<sup>2</sup>, 1995<sup>3</sup>) and *Longman Language Activator* (1993<sup>1</sup>), has been Editor-in-Chief of *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2002<sup>1</sup>, 2007<sup>2</sup>) and one of the leading figures in corpus-based lexicography.

*OGPL* by the well qualified authors is to be recommended for those interested in state-of-the-art corpus-based lexicography, particularly dictionaries for foreign learners rather than those for native speakers, because of the writers' involvement with the former type dictionaries. In *OGPL* it looks as if lectures or talks were given in their Lexicom workshops in a fairly informal style: most of the contents seem to be based on, or derived from, the Lexicom classes for the past several years. *OGPL* is, therefore, not meant for beginners in lexicography, as readers are expected to possess basic knowledge of lexicography including some noted dictionary compilers and their works.

*OGPL* gives readers a fairly comprehensive account of how dictionaries are planned and created. Part I, Pre-lexicography, contains dictionary types and dictionary user; lexicographic evidence; methods and resources; linguistic theory meets lexicography; planning the dictionary; and planning the entry. Part II, Analysing the data, deals with building the database (1) word senses and (2) the lexical unit. Part III, Compiling the entry, is concerned with building the monolingual entry; the translation stage; and building the bilingual entry.

*OGPL* mainly deals with learners' dictionaries and general dictionaries. It is concerned with what is called microstructure that constitutes the core in (learners') dictionaries: headwords and senses as well as examples with syntactic or other information shown, to which the book persuasively shows lexicographic corpora, if not perfect, have provided and will provide plenty of new insights for improved description. The procedure for explanation with abundant authentic examples from corpora (though not all the sources are made explicit) makes it rather easy to follow the text. To comprehend gradual stages of development in lexicographic description offered by cutting-edge technology, it would

be more instructive to compare a few previous editions or other dictionaries of the same type.

Some topics, however, may not be quite familiar: frame semantics and Apresjan's or Mel'čuk's studies, for example. In Chapters 5 and 9 is provided an explanation of frame semantics and its application to language description to show how a dictionary taking account of the theory is likely to be improved. It remains to be seen whether or how the theory, however promising it may be, will contribute to dictionary description.

Others are fascinating: not only corpus query system and dictionary writing system, but also sense relationships and definition, for instance. Given prototype definition, full sentence definition, when-clause definition, and defining vocabulary, in addition to conventional types of definition, it is made clear that defining is one of the areas where lexicographers have struggled by a process of trial and error, especially in learners' dictionaries, because what users look up most frequently is word senses. They are expected to be always seeking a new lexicographic paradigm of definition for users.

What underlies this work is the authors' consistent and right statement that dictionaries should be compiled aimed at typical (or potential) users, which reflects that users' reference needs and skills have been gradually clarified as a result of user research including market research.

*OGPL* is a practical guide, and not a monograph on lexicography which deals with a specific theme in great detail, listing for further research at the end of each chapter Recommended readings, Further readings and related Websites as well as Bibliography at the end. Some papers in the bibliography are found in Fontenelle's companion *Practical Lexicography: A Reader*. Carefully read with additional reference to other studies, *OGPL* will help readers to develop a clearer understanding of what has been and still remains to be done in lexicography.

*OGPL* does not list explicitly all the dictionaries and the editions surveyed or referred to in the text, including all their publication years. It would be useful to enumerate them because they tend to change the

titles in the new editions. Despite a number of wrong or misleading descriptions (see de Schryver's review), particularly for those taking a keen interest in state-of-art lexicography for monolingual (learners') dictionaries, *OGPL* will no doubt make one of the standard reference books on corpus-based lexicography in the years ahead.

## NOTES

- 1) A comparison of Landau's two editions makes it clear that since the late 1980s corpora have changed the compilation method and description in dictionaries.
- 2) Remember that *Looking Up: An account of the COBUILD Project in lexical computing* (1987) was published, which led to the publication of *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary* (1987). It is regarded as the first account in which the method of dictionary compilation by making good use of corpora was mentioned.
- 3) The superscripts show the edition numbers.

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