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# An Analysis of *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, Eighth Edition<sup>1)</sup>

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## 1. Introduction

The genre of EFL dictionaries, the most thriving of all dictionary types, has a 70-year tradition. The beginning was marked by the *ISED*<sup>2)</sup>, the first fully-fledged EFL dictionary, published by Kaitakusha in Tokyo in 1942. The editors were the British scholars: A. S. Hornby, E. V. Gatenby, and A. H. Wakefield. The dictionary was inspired by and built on the pioneering *NMED* (1935) and the productive *GEW* (1938)<sup>3)</sup>, drawing on the native speaker's *COD*. *ISED* was initially intended to solve problems arising from Japan's English language education with which the editors were involved. However, as history shows, the dictionary's impact has been tremendous and far-reaching. It has determined the fundamental shape of the EFL dictionary and has also influenced the world's bilingual English dictionaries<sup>4)</sup>.

*ISED* was renamed as *Advanced Learner's Dictionary (ALD)* and then *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD)*. It is only this series that has survived the entire history of EFL dictionaries. *ISED* and *ALD* dominated the EFL dictionary market until 1978 when *LDOCE1* was launched. The *OALD* series was challenged by and has challenged *LDOCE* and other rivals through the developmental stages. It is as a result of this keen competition that EFL dictionaries have evolved and developed to this date. This paper examines the latest edition *OALD8* (2010) in the following aspects: headwords, pronunciation,

definitions, examples, notes on usage, pictorial illustrations, CD-ROM (*OALD8-CD*)<sup>5</sup> with special reference to the *Oxford iWriter* and the *Oxford Writing Tutor*.

## 2. Headwords

This section focuses on the headwords in *OALD8* in comparison with those of *OALD7* from quantitative and qualitative viewpoints. First, we look at the quantitative aspect of the new edition. Then, we go on to the qualitative analysis of newly incorporated entries and those deleted from the previous edition, followed by a comparison of headwords with three competing EFL dictionaries: *LDOCE5*, *CALD3*, and *MED2*. We also take a brief look at the manner of presenting headwords in *OALD8* and differences, if any, from the previous edition. Lastly, we will consider the treatment of items with Arabic numerals.

### 2.1. Sampling

For the comparison between two editions, all the entries (headwords, run-on derivatives, idioms and phrasal verbs) on 34 pages of *OALD8* are drawn as samples together with the corresponding ranges of entries in *OALD7*. Table 2.1 shows the range of our sampling.

### 2.2. Coverage of entries

As shown in Table 2.2 below, we found 756 headwords in our sample pages of *OALD8*, which means that there are five more words than in the previous edition. To be precise, 14 headwords have been added to the new edition whereas nine entries in *OALD7* have been deleted. Only three run-on derivatives and two idioms have been added to the new edition. As to phrasal verbs, only one item is new to the latest edition. It can be said that *OALD8* is a minor upgrade of the previous edition as far as the number of entries is concerned.

#### 2.2.1. The number of headwords

Table 2.3 shows the number of headwords found in each pair of facing pages in our sample. The columns [+8th] and [-8th] show the num-

Table 2.1 Sample pages for comparison of *OALD8* with *OALD7*

Pages	From	To
100–101	bait-and-switch	ball-breaker
200–201	business administration	butchery
300–301	common	commutable
400–401	degeneration	deliver
500–501	encore	endogenous
600–601	foist	fond
700–701	hammer and sickle	hand
800–801	ingrowing	injury
900–901	liquidation	litter bin
1000–1001	mountain ash	move
1100–1101	pants	paradox
1200–1201	pressure suit	prey
1300–1301	reset	resounding
1400–1401	settled	sextuplet
1500–1501	staffer	stake
1600–1601	testing	that
1700–1701	upheaval	upstanding

Table 2.2 The number of entries in the sample

	<i>OALD7</i>	<i>OALD8</i>	Plus/Minus
Headwords	751	756	+5 (+0.7%)
Run-on derivatives	103	106	+3 (+2.9%)
Idioms	156	158	+2 (+1.3%)
Phrasal verbs	49	50	+1 (+2.0%)
Total	1,059	1,070	+11 (+1.0%)

ber of newly added headwords and that of deleted ones, respectively.

The results lead us to the estimation that the increase in the number of headwords is 264, on the basis of this calculation: the total number of pages of *OALD8* (1,796) divided by the number of pages of our sampling (34) multiplied by the number of additional headwords found in our sampling (5). Although the blurb on the back cover of *OALD8* claims that it has introduced 1,000 new words and meanings, the number of newly included headwords in our sampling comes short of that

Table 2.3 Comparison of the numbers of headwords between *OALD7* and *OALD8*

Pages	<i>OALD7</i>	<i>OALD8</i>	+8th	-8th
100–101	59	56	0	3
200–201	41	43	2	0
300–301	45	45	0	0
400–401	51	53	2	0
500–501	31	31	0	0
600–601	34	35	1	0
700–701	13	12	1	2
800–801	48	48	0	0
900–901	54	54	1	1
1000–1001	46	46	0	0
1100–1101	54	54	0	0
1200–1201	41	43	2	0
1300–1301	42	42	0	0
1400–1401	52	52	0	0
1500–1501	43	43	0	0
1600–1601	46	47	3	2
1700–1701	51	52	2	1
Total	751	756	14	9
Average @page		22.2		

number. Even though a larger increase could result if different parts of the dictionary were sampled, much of the remaining increase is assumed to be from the introductions of new run-ons, idioms and phrasal verbs, or the additions of new senses to the existing headwords.

### 2.2.2. Newly added entries

As mentioned above, there are only 14 headwords newly adopted in *OALD8*, but two of them, **dekaliter** and **dekameter**, are already in the previous edition under the headwords **decalitre** and **decameter**, respectively<sup>1)</sup>, as spelling variants used in the US. Consequently, the number of genuinely new items is down to 12. The new headwords found in our sampling are: **business person**, **busway**, **folk rock**,

**hammer price, litchi, pressure washer, preterm, tetralogy, text-to-speech, TFT, upsell, and upskill.**

Although with this limited number of new entries all we can do is infer the *OALD8*'s policy of adopting entries, there are several points worth mentioning. The first thing to be noted is that the dictionary tries to offer a balanced treatment of regional varieties of English. For example, **busway** is labeled as "*BrE*" whereas **litchi**, a spelling variant of **lychee**, is labeled as "*especially US*" as well as the above-mentioned words in US spelling: **dekaliter** and **dekameter**. This tendency was already pointed out in the analysis of the preceding editions (Akasu, *et al.* 2001: 3; Komuro, *et al.* 2006: 64) and the new edition also seems to maintain the policy of paying a balanced attention to both varieties of English across the Atlantic.

Another noticeable tendency is that *OALD8* adopts gender-neutral expressions. One of the new headwords, **business person**, is a typical example. When comparing *OALD8* with other EFL dictionaries in terms of gender-neutral items, it turns out that *OALD8* is quite sensitive to gender neutrality. For example, gender-neutral words such as **chairperson**, **craftsperson**, **sportsperson**, and **statesperson** are all included in *OALD8* whereas *LDOCE5* lacks **craftsperson** and **statesperson** and *CALD3* **business person**, **craftsperson**, and **statesperson**. In addition, *MED2* has **business person** and **chairperson** but not **sportsperson** and **statesperson**. Furthermore, as a gender-neutral alternative expression to **cameraman**, *OALD8* offers **camera operator** as well as **camera person**, although neither of the gender-neutral items is found in any other EFL dictionaries used for our comparison.

It should also be pointed out that *OALD8* tries to keep up with ever-developing information and communication technologies (ICT). Our list of new headwords contains **text-to-speech**, which is labeled as "*computing*." In addition, **TFT** is also an ICT-related abbreviation. Moreover, searching for new entries outside the sample pages yields many headwords related to ICT (e.g., **blogosphere**, **blogroll**, **Mb** etc.). As to **blogosphere**, *LDOCE5*, *CALD3*, and *MED2* had already given it headword status. However, *OALD8* is the first among these

dictionaries to give **blogroll** and **Mb** independent headword status.

The introductions of **upsell** and **upskill** are a clear indication of *OALD8*'s sensitivity to changes in the realm of business terminology. The headword list of *OALD8* reflects changes in the world other than in business. For example, **pressure washer** is now considered a usual piece of home equipment<sup>2)</sup>. Similarly, as the popularity of online auctions through the Internet has been rising, the compound **hammer price** seems to have become part of everyday vocabulary.

In addition to its sensitivity to changes in people's everyday life, *OALD8* also seems very responsive to events happening in the world. For example, the adoption of **tetralogy** may be related to the death of American novelist John Updike (died on January 27, 2009), who was famous for his "Rabbit" series composed of four novels. Another possible reason for the adoption of this headword is the releases of the fourth episode of world-popular movie series<sup>3)</sup>. In the same vein, it may be the case that the adoption of the headword **folk rock** is related to some change in people's interest in this genre of music originated in the 1960s.

Furthermore, the adoption of the headword **preterm** in the latest edition may be a reflection of the *OALD* lexicographers' willingness to include health- or medicine-related vocabulary. It is certain that only one newly adopted headword in our sampling result is related to medical science but the comparison with other EFL dictionaries in 2.2.4. reveals this dictionary's wide coverage of medical vocabulary.

To recapitulate, *OALD8*'s claim on the brochure that the new words "cover technology, lifestyle, slang, and the economy" is mostly substantial although no new slang is found in our sample pages. No doubt all these sensitivities to changes in the world are the results of increased accessibility of large electronic corpora.

### 2.2.3. Deleted entries

As shown in Table 2.3, our survey found nine words in *OALD7* were deleted from the printed version of *OALD8*, but all of them are retained in the CD-ROM version. The headwords deleted from the print edition

are as follows: **Bakewell tart**, **Bakke decision**, **ballad opera**, **hammer drill**, **hammerlock**, **list box**, **tetrathlon**, **thalassotherapy**, and **upper circle**.

It can be said that the decision of *OALD8* lexicographers to delete these nine words is basically consistent with their policy of adopting new headwords. As pointed out in the 2.2.2., *OALD8* tries to pay a balanced attention to both British and American varieties of English and is willing to adopt more American usage. The increase in the number of the entries of American English almost necessarily leads to a decrease in those of the British variety. In that sense, the deletions of headwords related to British culture such as **ballad opera**, **upper circle**, and **Bakewell tart** are certainly reasonable. Furthermore, the deletions of entries which are of limited use are understandable. For example, **hammerlock** is a word used only in wrestling and **tetrathlon** is a name of a sport whose participants are limited to the members of The Pony Club founded in England. Also deleted is **Bakke decision** whose use is rather limited even if it is related to the US history or politics. On the other hand, the meanings of **hammer drill** and **list box** can easily be inferred from the meanings of their components. *OALD8* also reflects the trend in the English-speaking world in that **thalassotherapy** is included among deleted entries because this kind of beauty or health treatment was probably so popular around the turn of the century that it was often mentioned in the mass media, but it may not be so any longer.

One interesting fact about these deleted items is that all of them were newly introduced headwords in *OALD7*. A plausible explanation for the deletions of these headwords is that they were barely above the frequency standard by which headword status was given in *OALD7* and during the five years between the publications of the two latest editions they have slipped below the standard.

#### 2.2.4. Comparison of headwords with other EFL dictionaries

Let us now go on to qualitatively compare headwords in *OALD8* with those in the other EFL dictionaries. It is naturally expected that

the latest publication of dictionaries covers the latest aspects of language use and, roughly speaking, *OALD8* does not fall short of these expectations. Table 2.4 lists some random samples of newly adopted headwords or headwords with an additional sense found in *OALD8* and shows whether the other EFL dictionaries include those new items or not. The check in the table means the headword in question is incorporated in each dictionary while the minus sign indicates that no entry is found. Of all the four dictionaries, only *OALD8* enters **cloud computing**, **dwarf planet**<sup>4)</sup>, **staycation**. Although **tweet** is not a new entry no other dictionary than *OALD8* provides a new sense of “(sending) a message using the Twitter.”

Table 2.4 New headwords in *OALD8* and their treatment in other EFL dictionaries

<i>OALD8</i> (2010)	<i>LDOCE5</i> (2009)	<i>CALD3</i> (2008)	<i>MED2</i> (2007)
cloud computing	—	—	—
Facebook™	✓	✓	—
podcast	✓	✓	✓
tweet	—	—	—
carbon trading	—	✓	✓
dwarf planet	—	—	—
citizen journalism	—	—	✓
staycation	—	—	—
x factor	—	✓	—
brainiac	✓	—	—

Table 2.5 also confirms that *OALD8* keeps up with the changing world as more than half of the new words listed in the back matter of *CALD3* (“New words and phrases,” Extra help pages, EH18–23) are included in *OALD8*. Because of a space constraint, we only list the entries that are included in *CALD3* and are new to *OALD8*: **carbon footprint**, **food miles**<sup>5)</sup>, **biofuel** (as a noun, not as an adjective), **carbon neutral**, **carbon offsetting**, **hybrid** (of a vehicle), **renewables** (as a noun), **the blogosphere**, **file sharing**, **Skype** (as a noun, but not

as a verb), **YouTube**, **future-proof**, **malware**, **VoIP**, **panini**, **quinoa**, **tajine**, **glycemic index**, **omega 3**, **probiotic**, **superfood**, **unsaturated**, **BOGOF**, **customer-facing**, **hottie**, **ka-ching**, **man breasts**, **malware**<sup>6)</sup>, and **SAT NAV**:

Table 2.5 *OALD8's treatments of the new words listed in CALD3*

Subjects	Number of new words in <i>CALD3</i>	Found in <i>OALD8</i>		Not in <i>OALD8</i>	
		Already in <i>OALD7</i>	New to <i>OALD8</i>	Found in <i>OALD7</i>	Not in <i>OALD7</i>
Environmental problems	6	1	2	0	3
Environmental solutions	12	2	5	0	5
The Internet	15	3	4	0	8
Technology	13	8	3	0	2
Food and drink	20	11	3	0	6
Diet and health	12	3	5	0	4
Business and marketing	10	1	2	1	6
Slang and informal words and expressions	13	4	3	0	6
Recent changes in the English language	13	3	2	0	8
Total	114	36	29	1	48

When we turn our attention back to the entries in our sample material, 85 headwords in *OALD8* are not found in any of the three other EFL dictionaries. Of these 85 headwords, 10 are the newly adopted items in the current edition and the remaining 75 words are listed below. Even if we exclude the newly adopted headwords from our analysis and focus on the entries included in *OALD7*, we notice the same characteristics as those pointed out in subsection 2.2.2. concerning new items. First, this dictionary tries to cover a wide range of regional varieties. Especially, there is a tendency to include words used in the US or in North America. Our comparison found a number of items used in the US or in Canada or those related to the life and culture of these countries:

- (1) Headwords used (especially) in the US or in North America:  
**US:     baking flour, Injun, sewer grate**

*NAmE*: **bakeshop, Mountain Daylight Time, mountain man, Mountain Standard Time, Mountain time, mouthguard, settlement house, the Seven Sisters [2]<sup>7</sup>, thang, upshift**

On the contrary, the number of items used mainly in the UK is quite limited:

- (2) Headwords used (especially) in the UK:  
**busway, commonhold** (law), **dekkho, texter**

*OALD8* also pays much attention to cultures in the areas apart from Britain and America:

- (3) Headwords related to cultures originally outside the UK or the US:  
**baklava** (*the Middle East*), **balafon** (*West Africa*), **bustard** (*Europe*), **communalism** [2] (*IndE*), **pantsula** (*South Africa*), **sevak** (*IndE*)

Another feature of entries in *OALD8* is its willingness to cover technical and scientific vocabulary:

- (4) Technical terms and headwords related to science:  
*technical*: **endogamy, foliar, inhumation, paraclinical, residuum, uplink**  
*biology*: **inheritable, inhibitor** [2],  
*chemistry*: **inhibitor** [1], **deliquesce** [2]  
*geology*: **lithosphere**  
*physics*: **resistive** [2]  
*medical*: **endocrinology, endogenous, papilloma**

*OALD8* is also willing to include headwords related to linguistics or language studies. This tendency is easily expected in that the print edition of this dictionary provides a list of “Language study terms” (under “The Oxford 3000<sup>TM</sup>,” R43–44). As Atkins and Rundell (2008: 190) point out, linguistic terms can be of much importance to teachers of English even if they do not meet the frequency standard:

- (5) Headwords related to language or language study:  
**community language learning, deictic, par., pre-teach**

The rest are trademarks, derivatives, abbreviations as well as words with some cultural or encyclopedic orientation. Particularly notable are words with their register specified (the label is provided in parentheses):

(6) Others:

**bait-and-switch**, **baked Alaska**, **bake house** (*old-fashioned*), **bakeware**, **baler**, **Balkanize**, **balladeer**, **ball-breaker** (*informal*), **Common Era**, **commonplace book**, **common rat**, **degrease**, **encounter group**, **fold-up**, **Hammond organ**<sup>TM</sup>, **inharmonious** (*formal*), **liquid paraffin**, **lisle**, **lithology**, **mousey**, **pressure suit**, **pre-wash**, **resister**, **resistible**, **the seven seas**, **Seville orange**, **stag beetle**, **stairlift**, **Tetra Pak**<sup>TM</sup>, **UPI**, **upper chamber**, **uprush** (*formal*), **upsilon**.

On the other hand, our survey found that 16 headwords are included in all the other three EFL dictionaries but are missing in *OALD8*: **business plan**, **communication cord**, **communications satellite**, **delaying tactic**, **inhabitable**, **pantyliner**, **pressurized**, **pretended**, **sex organ**, **sex shop**, **sex tourism**, **staging area**, **stag party**, **tetchiness**, **thankfulness**, **upholstered**.

Of these 16 headwords, all the one-word entries (**inhabitable**, **pressurized**, **pretended**, **tetchiness**, **thankfulness**, **upholstered**) except **pantyliner** are derivatives from the headwords included in *OALD8* although **inhabitable** is listed in the word family box at **inhabit** in the dictionary. In *LDOCE5*, **tetchiness** is shown under the headword **tetchy** labeled as "*British*" while *OALD8* does not provide any regional information to the headword **tetchy**. As to multiword entries, two headwords, **communication cord** and **sex shop**, are labeled as "*British*" in *LDOCE5*. The compound **sex shop** is actually included in *OALD8* as an example of the third sense of the headword **sex** although there is no information about regional varieties. It seems that *OALD8* is sexually conservative, or at least not overtly straightforward in that **sex tourism** as well as **sex shop** is not given the status of headword. This impression is enforced by the fact that this dictionary does not

refer to the compound **sex organ** even as an example of any sense of the headword **sex** although it shows the phrase *sexual organs* under the headwords **organ** as well as **sex**. Furthermore, in *OALD8* **stag party** is not given headword status but is put under the headword **bachelor party** as a variant together with **stag night**.

### 2.3. Run-on entries, idioms, and phrasal verbs

As to the number of run-on entries, only three new items were found in our sample pages, namely **preterm** (*adv.*), **upskilling** and **mouse over**. All these new items are run-ons to the newly introduced headwords or phrasal verb. We found no addition of run-on derivatives to the headwords included in *OALD7* as far as our sampling result is concerned.

No fundamental change was found between *OALD7* and *OALD8* in terms of idioms and phrasal verbs. There are only two newly entered idioms: **above/below the fold** and **hands down**. As to phrasal verbs, **mouse over** is the only new entry.

### 2.4. Manner of presenting headwords

*OALD8*'s way of presenting headwords is almost the same as that of the previous edition. No change was found in our sample pages concerning word-breaks and the treatment of compounds. We also examined how the current edition treated the 22 compounds which Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 62) listed as those whose presentation was changed from *OALD6* to *OALD7*. Of these compounds, only the presentation of **dateline** was changed to **Date Line** with a space between two component parts and the initial letters capitalized.

An improvement was found in terms of cross references in *OALD8*. For example, whereas **liquor store** in *OALD7* only supplies a cross reference to **off-license** except for the information on its regional variety, the same headword in the current edition is not provided with a cross reference but is given its definition as well as another US expression **package store** together with its British equivalent **off-license**. The same is the case with **mouthguard**, **paper towel**, and so on.

The most notable change in the manner of presentation is observable concerning idioms and phrasal verbs as is discussed in 4.6.

## 2.5. Numbers

*OALD6* was the first in the series to offer an independent page for entries containing Arabic numerals before the main A-Z part of the dictionary. Although only 16 entries were included in *OALD6*, *OALD8* has 24 entries, with the increase of six entries from *OALD7*.

The entries newly included on the Numbers page are **10000-foot view**, **3G**, **360-degree feedback** (also used as **360-degree appraisal**), **411**, **7/7** and **9/11**. Of these six entries, **10000-foot view** and **360-degree feedback** are words used mainly in the business context and **3G** is an ICT-related abbreviation. The telephone number **411** is the one used in the US. The abbreviations of dates **7/7** and **9/11** are the ones when terrible terrorist attacks were carried out. Considering the impact of these world-shaking acts of terrorism, it is noteworthy that *LDOCE5* is the only one that carries neither 7/7 nor 9/11 even in its main A-Z part although the dictionary was published the second latest among the four EFL dictionaries under comparison.

While *LDOCE5* is criticized for its fluctuating treatment of items with Arabic numerals (Dohi, *et al.* 2010: 87f.), *OALD8* is not exempt from similar criticism. For example, although **10000-foot view** and **1040 form** only appear in the Numbers page, **20/20 vision** and **3-D** are repeated in the alphabetical part of the dictionary in *OALD8*. Furthermore, **12**, **15** and **18** appear in the main part as independent headwords but no reference at all is offered to the Numbers page.

(Section 2 by Kozaki)

## 3. Pronunciation

### 3.1. Overview

In this section, we will discuss the changes and differences between *OALD7* and *OALD8* in terms of their transcription. The transcription system of *OALD8* is basically the same as that of *OALD7*. They both use the IPA and indicate the transcription between slashes following a

headword. In cases where the word has weak and strong forms, the transcription of the weak form is presented first and then that of the strong form, except for **because** in which the weak and strong forms are switched around.

When a phonemic or phonetic difference exists, the British pronunciation is given first, followed by the American one, regardless of whether it is predictable from the rules or not. The American pronunciation is indicated with the label “*NAmE*.” For example, the transcription for **blindfold** /blændfəʊld; *NAmE* -foʊld/. There are cases, however, where an American variant appears despite the fact that the British most prevalent pronunciation and American one are the same. An example is the transcription given for **salt** /sɔ:lt; *BrE* also sɒlt; *NAmE* sɔ:lt/. Here, the presentation of *NAmE* is redundant, for there is no difference between the most prevailing variant in British English and that in American English. In addition, **saltbox** is transcribed as /sɔ:ltbɒks; *NAmE* -bɒ:ks; *BrE* also 'sɒlt-, and here, we can see that the label “*BrE* also” appears in a different position from that in **salt**. Although this does not seem to be a major problem, it would be more straightforward if the position of the labels were consistent throughout the dictionary.

A section called “Pronunciation and phonetic symbols” in the Reference section at the end of the dictionary (R45–46) provides several pronunciation rules, such as for syllabic consonants, weak forms and strong forms, stress shift, tapping of /t/, and glottalization of syllable-final /t/. Furthermore, the list of the pronunciation key appears at the bottom of every page, which has been the practice since *OALD6* (Akasu, *et al.* 2001: 7). There is no list of pronunciation key, however, for *OALD8-CD* just like for *OALD7-CD*.

The model pronunciations of *OALD8* have not been changed from the previous edition. As mentioned in “Pronunciation and phonetic symbols” (R45), the model pronunciations for British English are “those of younger speakers of General British,” which includes “RP (Received Pronunciation) and a range of similar accents which are not strongly regional.” The American pronunciation model, on the other

hand, was chosen to be the most general pronunciation without any regional characteristics, in other words, General American (GenAm).

The headwords which are new in *OALD8* are transcribed on the same principle of *OALD7* as mentioned above. For example, the transcription of the word **malware** is /mælweə(r); *NAmE* -wer/. *OALD8-CD* also adopts the same set of principles. Besides, 25 headwords in *OALD7* which Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 70) indicated that their first-choice variants were not the same as the pronunciation survey of British English conducted in 1998 (Wells 1999) are transcribed in the same way as *OALD8*. This means that the current trends in British English have not been fully reflected.

### 3.2. Vowels

As is the case with the previous edition, vowels are transcribed both qualitatively and quantitatively. For example, the vowel for FLEECE words (e.g., **sheep**) is transcribed as /i:/, indicating the length as well as the vowel quality [i], while the vowel for KIT words (**ship**, for example) is /ɪ/, without the length mark but including the quality difference from the other high front unrounded vowel.

#### 3.2.1. Low back vowels

The merger of /ɑ:/ and /ɔ:/, the so called LOT-THOUGHT merger, which has recently been observed in GenAm, is not reflected in *OALD8* aside from an exception **water** /'wɔ:tə(r); *NAmE* also 'wɑ:t-/ , although this tendency is said to be “clearly very much more widespread” (Wells 1982: 473). For example, in *OALD8*, an American variant of **lot** is transcribed as /lɑ:t/ and **thought** as /θɔ:t/. Compare this with pronunciation dictionaries. For example, in *LPD3* **lot** and **thought** are transcribed as /lɑ:t/ and /θɔ:t, θɑ:t/, and in *EPD17* they are /lɑ:t/ and /θɑ:t/. Therefore, as Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 66) suggested for *OALD7*, *OALD8* can be said to be more conservative than these pronunciation dictionaries.

Among the lexical sets introduced in Wells (1982), CLOTH words refer to the words whose vowels before voiceless fricatives are pro-

nounced as /ɒ/ by British (RP) speakers and as /ɔ/ by American speakers. An investigation of CLOTH words appearing in *OALD8* finds that the transcription of CLOTH words can be categorized into four groups, following the categorization in Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 71–72): (a) words transcribed as /ɒ; *NAmE* ɔ:/ (e.g., **cough** /kɒf; *NAmE* kɔ:f/), (b) /ɒ; *NAmE* ɔ; ɑ:/ (e.g., **offer** /'ɒfə(r); *NAmE* 'ɔ:fər; 'ɑ:fər/), (c) /ɒ; *NAmE* ɑ; ɔ:/ (e.g., **sorry** /'sɒri; *NAmE* 'sɑ:ri; 'sɔ:ri/), (d) /ɒ; *NAmE* ɑ:/ (e.g., **jog** /dʒɒg; *NAmE* dʒɑ:g/). Compared with *OALD7*, the following four changes should be noted. First, seven words which had been previously categorized as (a) (**coffin, loft, loss, lost, boss, long, thong**), and two words that were previously in (c) (**tong, tomorrow**) have been moved to category (b). Second, two words that were formerly in (a) (**broth, bog**), two words (**gloss, gong**) that were in (b), and one word that were in (d) (**clog**) have been relocated to (c). Third, three words that were in (c) (**smog, tog, sorrow**) have been replaced with (d). Finally, four words that were previously in (b) (**origin, warrior, quarantine, prong**) have been moved to (a).

If we look at the description in the pronunciation dictionaries *LPD3* and *EPD17*, however, these relocations do not always reflect the actual language use. For example, *LPD3* shows that **tomorrow**, which has been moved from (c) in *OALD7* to (b) in *OALD8*, is pronounced /ɑ:/ (the first American variant of category (c)) by 65% of Americans, while it is pronounced /ɔ:/ by 35% of Americans. Moreover, only the variant /ɑ:/ is given in *EPD17*. These suggest that **tomorrow** should have been remained unchanged in *OALD8*. Similarly, **quarantine**, for which both *LPD3* and *EPD17* give two variants, /ɑ:/ and /ɔ:/, has been transferred from (b) to (a), although it is not obvious which transcription system is closer to the actual usage.

### 3.2.2. Vowels before /r/

As is the case with the previous edition, *OALD8* transcribes rhotic vowels by putting /r/ after the vowel symbols. One of the best-known phonological changes related to postvocalic /r/ is Mary-marry-merry merger, which is the merger of mid and low front vowels before /r/ and

is widespread in North America. Although Mary-merry merger is reflected, marry-merry merger is not recognized in *OALD8*, as in *OALD7*.

### 3.3. British and American variants

In "British and American English" in the Reference section (R42), four pronunciation differences between these two variants are discussed. In addition to the tapping of /t/, which is also mentioned in the "Pronunciation and phonetic symbols" section, length of stressed vowels in American English and rhoticity are explained.

Akasu, *et al.* (2001: 9) discusses five headwords which were given only the British variant in *OALD7* in spite of the existence of the different American variants: **anti-**, **Asian**, **ballet**, **marry**, and **semi-**. In *OALD8* this has not been changed despite the fact that it states that both British and American variants are given when there exists a difference. There is an exception, however: the word **Asian** is given both /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ (although the preference order is opposite to *LPD3*).

Apart from these headwords, we examined 260 words whose pronunciation preference is shown in *LPD3* in order to consider whether its first-choice variant reflects the actual language use. The *OALD8*'s first-choice variant is not the same as the most preferred pronunciation for the following headwords: **absorb** (/s/ as the first variant in *OALD8*, compared to /x/ in *LPD3*), **adult** (in *OALD8* there was no distinction in stress position between British pronunciation and American pronunciations), **ally** (no reference to /ə'laɪ/), **almond** (no variant with /l/), **applicable** (the same stress pattern for British variants and American variants), **associate**, **association** (/ʃ/ as the first variant), **baptize** (no stress distinction), **baths** (no /'bæθs/), **caramel** (no /'kærmel/ for American variant), **chromosome** (no /'krouməzoum/ for American pronunciation), **circumstance** (/ə/ in the third syllable as the first variant), **communal** (no stress distinction), **congratulate** (no /dʒ/ for American pronunciation), **controversy** (/ˈkɒn-/ as the first variant of British pronunciation), **covert** (no /-ˈvɜːrt/ for American pronunciation), **cream cheese** (stress on the second syllable for American pronuncia-

tion), **crescent** (/s/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **cyclical** (/ˈsaɪ-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **debut** (no /ˈdeɪbjʊ:/ for American pronunciation), **deity** (/ˈdeɪ-/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **delirious** (/ˈlɪ-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **diphthong** (/f/ as the first variant), **direct** (/də-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **direction** (/də-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **dissect** (/dɪ-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **distribute** (no /bjət/ for American pronunciation), **during** (no /ˈdʒʊ-/ for British variant and no /ˈdɜr-/ for American variant), **electronic** (no /e-/ for British pronunciation), **equinox** (/i:/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **evolution** (/i:/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **February** (no /-ju-/ for American pronunciation), **Glasgow** (no /s/ for American pronunciation), **graph** (/æ/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **harass** (no stress distinction), **hero** (/ɪ/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **hurricane** (/ˌkən/ as the first variant), **inherent** (/ˈhɪə-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **justifiable** (/ˈdʒʌs-/ as the first variant), **juvenile** (no /-nail/ for American pronunciation), **kilometre** (/ˈki-/ as the first variant), **lawyer** (no /ˈlɔɪ-/ for American), **lure** (/lʊə(r)/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **luxurious** (no /lʌk-/ for British pronunciation), **luxury** (no /ˈlʌg-/ for American pronunciation), **necessary** (no /-seri/), **niche** (additional variant /ni:f/ for American pronunciation), **omega** (no /-ˈmeɪ-/ for American pronunciation), **pajama** (no /-ˈdʒɑ:/ for American pronunciation), **palm** (no /l/ for American pronunciation), **patriotic** (/ˌpeɪ-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **perpetual** (no /-tju-/ for British pronunciation), **poor** (/pɔ:r/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **prestigious** (no /i:/ for American pronunciation), **princess** (no stress distinction), **protester** (no /ˈprou-/ for American pronunciation), **quagmire** (/ˈkwæg-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **really** (/ˈri:ə-/ as the first variant for British pronunciation), **regulatory** (no /-ˈleɪt-/ for British pronunciation), **resource** (/s/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **restaurant** (no /-rɒnt/ for American pronunciation), **sandwich** (/tʃ/ as the first variant), **scallop** (no /ˈskæl-/ for

British pronunciation), **score** (/ɑ:/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **short cut** (stress on second syllable for the first variant), **suggest** (/sə-/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **syrup** (no /'sɜr-/ for American pronunciation), **tomorrow** (/-'mɔ:/ as the first variant), **translate** (no initial stressed variable for American pronunciation), **vacation** (/və-/ as the first variant), **voluntarily** (no /-'ter-/ for British pronunciation), **with** (/ð/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **yours** (/ɔ:/ as the first variant for American pronunciation), **youths** (no /θs/ for American pronunciation), **zebra** (/ze-/ as the first variant for American pronunciation).

The transcription for words discussed in the previous paragraph has not been changed from *OALD7* as discussed in Komuro, *et al.* (2006) in their review of *OALD7*. Thus, as suggested in section 3.2. the transcription in *OALD8* can be said to be conservative.

### 3.4. CD-ROM

As is the case in *OALD7-CD*, *OALD8-CD* also contains at least one British and one American pronunciations for every headword. The sounds provided in CD are the same as those in the online version.

Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 68) pointed out two main problems about pronunciation in the *OALD7-CD*: the discrepancies between the written transcriptions and the recorded sounds, and the position of the sound icon. As for the latter problem, it has been improved in *OALD8-CD* because each sound icon and its corresponding sound are arranged in separate lines, which would enable users to associate a sound icon with a corresponding sound without difficulty. For the transcription of **to**, however, the American variant is given first followed by the British one, which is inconsistent with the principle.

The discrepancy problem often occurs in CD-ROM dictionaries; for instance, in *LAAD2* (Kanazashi, *et al.* 2009: 27) and *LDOCE5* (Yamada 2011: 567). In *OALD8-CD*, too, there still is a number of headwords whose sounds are not the same with the transcription. For example, although the second American variant of **adult** is transcribed with its stress on the second syllable as /ə'dʌlt/, the corresponding sound has the

accent on the first syllable, /'ʌdɒlt/. Similarly, the American variant of **baptize** is transcribed as /bæp'taɪz/, whereas the recording sounds like /'bæptaɪz/. These discrepancies, however, can be considered as the recording agreeing with the results of the pronunciation preference poll survey in *LPD3* as discussed in 3.3. (i.e. according to *LPD3*, 92% of Americans pronounce **baptize** as /'bæptaɪz/).

The recordings which were pointed out to be different from the transcription by Komuro, *et al.* (2006) have been revised. For example, the American recordings of the headwords such as **docile**, **route**, **vase**, **ballet**, **weekend**, **contribute**, **fascia**, **WAP**, and the words starting with **anti-** are the same as the transcriptions in *OALD8-CD*. There still remain the discrepancies between the transcriptions and the recordings, however, in headwords, such as **magazine** (displaying a stress on the third syllable for American English) and **antioxidant** (the primary stress on the first syllable).

Moreover, the recorded sounds for compound nouns with a space/hyphen, such as **ice cream** and **drag-and-drop**, are now available, which would be greatly helpful for users. The new headwords in *OALD7* that did not have recording, such as **offshoring**, have the sounds in *OALD8*.

*OALD8-CD* has a new feature, which is an icon for “Practice your pronunciation” on the right-hand side of the toolbar of *Dictionary & Culture*. With this, users can record and listen to their own pronunciation. This function would be quite useful for users who are eager to improve their pronunciation, because they can practice their pronunciation against the model pronunciation.

(Section 3 by Aoki)

#### 4. Definition

There are three kinds of defining vocabulary (DV) in the definitions in *OALD8*: **The Oxford 3000**, **Language study terms**, and the vocabulary in the **Academic Word List (AWL)**. The Oxford 3000 has been introduced since *OALD7*. Language study terms are those concerned with grammar, pronunciation, and punctuation. The innovation in

*OALD8* is the introduction of the AWL. The list consists of the words that are frequently used in academic contexts.

We will first discuss The Oxford 3000 and the AWL and then the sense description, short cuts, idioms and phrasal verbs, verb codes/frames, and labels. We will not deal with the language study terms, which are exactly the same as those in *OALD7*.

#### 4.1. The Oxford 3000

The Oxford 3000 functions both as defining vocabulary and keywords “which should receive priority in vocabulary study because of their importance and usefulness” (*OALD8*: R43). The three criteria for selecting the keywords are the same as those used in *OALD7*. First, they are frequent in use. The frequency is checked in the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Oxford Corpus Collection. Second, the words should be used in a variety of contexts. Third, they are terms that are familiar to most users of English, albeit not frequent in use (*ibid.*). Frequent words tend to be polysemous. Therefore, the words in the Oxford 3000 are controlled in terms of their senses. When a word in the Oxford 3000 is used in a less common sense, the word is capitalized and the sense is identified in *OALD7* (Komuro, *et al.* 2006: 82–83). The same principle is used in *OALD8*.

There is a list of the Oxford 3000 in the back matter of *OALD7* (R99-113). However, the list is not included in the print version of *OALD8* but in *OALD8-OL* (online) and *OALD8-CD*. It should be noted that there is a difference between the list in the *OALD8-OL* and that in the *OALD8-CD*. The list in *OALD8-OL* is a revised version of the list of the Oxford 3000 in *OALD7*, whereas that in the *OALD8-CD* is a PDF file of the list in *OALD7*.

The description of the Oxford 3000 in *OALD7* is as follows:

The list covers British and American English. It is arranged to emphasize the connections between words, so that words which are very closely related (including adverbs ending in *-ly* and opposites starting with *un-*) are grouped together. Some basic phrases are also included. Proper names (names of people, places, etc. begin-

ning with a capital letter) and numbers are not included in the main list. (R99)

The description is simplified in *OALD8*:

The list covers British and American English. Some basic phrases are also included. Proper names (names of people, places, etc. beginning with a capital letter) are not included in the list. (R43)

A close comparison of the last sentence of each version reveals that the word “numbers” is deleted from *OALD8*. In fact, numbers compose part of the Oxford 3000 in *OALD8*, including the following: 31 cardinal numbers (*one-twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, sixty, seventy, eighty, ninety, hundred, thousand, billion, and trillion*) and 12 ordinal numbers (*first-tenth, hundredth, and thousandth*). Besides the numbers, there are only two words that are newly added to the Oxford 3000 of *OALD8*: *challenging* and *connected*. It follows that the biggest difference between the Oxford 3000 of *OALD7* and that of *OALD8* is the inclusion of numbers in the Oxford 3000 of *OALD8*.

It is stated in *OALD7* that the words which are very closely related to each other are grouped together in the list (R99). In fact, the adverbs ending in *-ly* and the adjectives beginning with *un-* are included with the words from which they derived. For example, *accurately* is listed with **accurate**, and *unconscious* with **conscious**. The list in *OALD8-OL*, however, does not arrange the derivatives this way. For example, the adverb *accurately* is not listed in the list but in the entry for **accurate** as a derivative. As for the adjective *unconscious*, it is listed in a different sublist of words beginning with the letter *u*. Its connection to the adjective *conscious* is not recognized until the entry for **unconscious** is looked up, which lists the derivative as the opposite of *unconscious*. Sometimes, the adverb ending in *-ly* is listed as a main entry word in the list of the Oxford 3000 in *OALD8* (e.g., *considerably*). However, the adverb is attached to *considerable* in *OALD7*. These examples illustrate the inconsistent way of listing the items in the Oxford 3000 in *OALD8*.

While phrases were included with the main words in *OALD7*, the

phrases are no longer included in the list of the Oxford 3000 in *OALD8-OL*. Instead, they are only referred to in the entries for the words that are central to the meaning of each phrase. However, the phrases are still used in definitions. Judging from the fact that they are not in capitals, it seems that they are still considered as part of the defining vocabulary in *OALD8*.

The entry words which are part of the Oxford 3000 are marked with a key symbol in both *OALD7* and *OALD8* to indicate that they are keywords. It is noteworthy that not only words but also senses are given a smaller key symbol in *OALD8* (e.g., the first three senses of **severe**). It is regrettable that the criteria for selecting key senses are not stated in *OALD8*.

#### 4.2. The Academic Word List

There are three lists of vocabulary called Specialist lists besides the list of the Oxford 3000 in *OALD7*. They are the lists of Arts words, Science words, and Business and Finance words. Each list is composed of 250 most common words (apart from the Oxford 3000) in writing on arts subjects (literature, painting, music, etc.), science subjects (physics, chemistry, biology, etc.), and business and finance, respectively. Learners are encouraged to learn the words in the lists so that they will be able to understand texts about the respective subjects more easily (R114–117).

The Specialist lists are replaced by the Academic Word List in *OALD8*. The list was derived from the Academic Corpus, which is a written corpus of approximately 3.5 million words of academic English. The AWL was developed by analyzing the corpus to find out which words occurred across a range of 28 subject areas (such as biology, history, marketing, and international law) in four academic disciplines (the Arts, Commerce, Law, and Science). The words in the list are selected on the basis of their range and frequency of occurrence. They are outside the most frequent 2000 words of English. The AWL and Oxford 3000 lists have some words in common because the Oxford 3000 includes 1000 more words in addition to the most frequent 2000 words

of English (R44).

The words in the AWL are marked with a black rectangular mark in which the abbreviation “AW” is printed in white in *OALD8* and *OALD8-CD*, while they are marked with a symbol of a mortarboard in *OALD8-OL*. If a word is both a keyword and an academic word, an AW mark or a mortarboard symbol follows a key symbol.

### 4.3. Sense description

The definitions in *OALD8* are mostly the same as those in *OALD7*. However, some efforts are made to rewrite them using the words within the Oxford 3000. Compare the definitions of the fifth sense of **resistance**:

- |   |                  |
|---|------------------|
| the opposition of a piece of electrical equipment, etc. to the flow of a DIRECT CURRENT | ( <i>OALD7</i> ) |
| the opposition of a substance or device to the flow of an electrical current            | ( <i>OALD8</i> ) |

The technical term “DIRECT CURRENT” in the definition of *OALD7* is shown in capitals because it is outside the Oxford 3000. The definition became easier to understand with the term replaced by “electrical current” in *OALD8*; both *electrical* and *current* are inside the Oxford 3000. However, this replacement may not have been beneficial for advanced learners of English, who are the targeted users of this dictionary. The users may have been deprived of an opportunity to learn the technical term by this change.

There are some cases in which cross-references are abolished and the information goes into the definitions in *OALD8*. Compare the second sense of **endive**:

- |   |                  |
|---|------------------|
| 2 (NAmE) = CHICORY (1)  | ( <i>OALD7</i> ) |
| 2 (NAmE) (BrE <b>chicory</b> ) a small pale green plant with bitter leaves that are eaten raw or cooked as a vegetable. The root can be dried and used with or instead of coffee. | ( <i>OALD8</i> ) |

If a dictionary user looks up **endive** in *OALD7*, one has to look up **chicory** and read the definition of its first sense in order to find out the

meaning of the second sense of **endive**. In this case, the user will not find out the meaning of the second sense of **endive** without looking up the entry for **chicory**. In contrast, the user of *OALD8* is provided with the definition in the entry for **endive**. It is true that spelling out the information given as a cross-reference and incorporating it in the definition is space-consuming but it is more user-friendly. This saves the dictionary users an extra look-up.

There are other similar examples in the entries for **liquidation**, **mouthguard**, **pantsuit**, and **upscale** to name but a few. However, if a referred entry is placed near the original entry, the cross-reference is kept (e.g., **sewage farm/sewage plant** and **sewage works**).

Kawamura (2009: 87–89) points out that writing definitions using a DV may sometimes produce unnatural or lengthy definitions. Let us take the fourth sense of the noun **ball** in *OALD7* and *OALD8*, for example:

- 4 (in BASEBALL) a throw by the PITCHER that the BATTER does not have to hit because it is not accurate. (*OALD7*)
- 4 (in BASEBALL) a throw by the PITCHER that is outside the STRIKE ZONE (= the area between the BATTER'S upper arms and knees) (*OALD8*)

The definition of *OALD7* is awkward and unhelpful in that it does not make clear the meaning of “not accurate.” On the other hand, that of *OALD8* is not only easier to understand but also helps users to understand this sense of **ball**. This is largely due to the incorporation of the technical term “strike zone.” Although the term is outside the DV, it does not pose a comprehension problem because the term is provided with a gloss.

The words outside the Oxford 3000 in definitions are not always glossed as *pitcher* and *batter* in the definition above. However, this does not cause any serious problems on *OALD8-CD* and *OALD8-OL* because the definition is accessed instantly when the word is double-clicked.

#### 4.4. The words outside the DV

It is not clear how many words outside the DV are used in definitions

in *OALD8*. Ishii (2011: 182), who counted up all the items and variation forms in *OALD8*, estimates the actual number of the DV to be about 3,700. This data shows that the actual number of the DV in definitions is larger than the officially announced number. The coverage of the definitions by the official DV is also estimated to be 93.40% in *OALD8* (*ibid.*: 184).

Ishii also analyzed the levels of words in the definitions using Ant-WordProfiler and the word-family lists based on the BNC. The coverage of the definition texts by each word family (WF) level in cumulative percentage of *OALD8* in comparison with *LDOCE5* is tabulated below<sup>1)</sup>:

Table 4.1 Coverage of the definitions by DVs

	WF level 1	2	3	5	10
<i>OALD8</i>	84.46%	93.56%	96.04%	97.71%	98.43%
<i>LDOCE5</i>	87.21%	95.73%	97.91%	98.99%	99.57%

The figures for *OALD8* are slightly lower than those for *LDOCE5*. While more than 95% of the definition texts in *LDOCE5* is covered by 2000 word families, it is 3000 word families that cover more than 95% of the definition texts in *OALD8*. It may safely be said that the DV in *OALD8* is rather difficult, compared to that in *LDOCE5*.

#### 4.5. Short cuts

There is no difference in the sense arrangements and short cuts between *OALD7* and *OALD8* at least on the sample pages<sup>2)</sup>. This means that sense arrangements and short cuts have not been changed since *OALD6* (see Komuro, *et al.* 2006: 83).

Short cuts were first taken up by *OALD6* (2000) after Guidewords in *CIDE* and signposts in *LDOCE3* (both 1995). They are supposed to help the dictionary users to find the definitions they need at a glance. Therefore, the signposts in *LDOCE5*, for example, are eye-catching since they are printed in white capitals against a blue rectangle. They are placed at the start of each sense.

Short cuts resemble the signposts in *LDOCE*. They are in blue capi-

tal letters in the print version of *OALD8* and *OALD8-CD*, while they are in red capital letters in *OALD8-OL*. The difference is that a signpost is placed at the beginning of every sense of a polysemous word in *LDOCE5*, whereas the short cuts are more sparsely distributed in *OALD8*. That is, not every sense of a polysemous word is provided with a short cut in *OALD8*. For example, if two senses listed next to each other have almost the same meaning, then they are grouped together and given one short cut. Compare the entry for **communicate** in *LDOCE5* and *OALD8*:

1 **EXCHANGE INFORMATION** [I, T] to exchange information or conversation with other people, using words, signs, writing etc: . . .

2 **TELL PEOPLE STH** [I, T] to express your thoughts and feelings clearly, so that other people understand them → **convey**: . . .

3 **UNDERSTAND** [I] If two people communicate, they are able to talk about and understand each other's feelings or desires: . . .

(*LDOCE5*)

▶ **EXCHANGE INFORMATION 1** [I, T] to exchange information, news, ideas, etc. with sb: . . .

▶ **SHARE IDEAS / FEELINGS 2** [I, T] to make your ideas, feelings, thoughts, etc. known to other people so that they understand them: . . . **3** [I] ~ (**with sb**) to have a good relationship because you are able to understand and talk about your own and other people's thoughts, feelings, etc: . . .

(*OALD8*)

The second and the third senses are grouped together under one short cut in *OALD8*.

#### 4.6. Idioms and phrasal verbs

Idioms and phrasal verbs are placed as run-ons after definitions and examples in an entry in the print version of *OALD7*. In contrast, they form independent paragraphs in an entry in the print version of *OALD8*. Idioms are listed in a paragraph following a blue arrow-shaped mark in which the abbreviation "IDM" is written in white capital letters, while phrasal verbs are listed following a similar mark in which the abbrevia-

tion “PHR V” is written in white capital letters. Each mark projects out at the head of a paragraph so that the paragraphs stand out in an entry. This is an improved interface and good for users. The same marks and layout are used in *OALD8-CD*.

Idioms and phrasal verbs are listed in the same way in *OALD8-OL*. However, the abbreviations are spelled out in capitals as “IDIOMS” and “PHRASAL VERBS,” respectively. It can be said that spelled-out words are more user-friendly than abbreviations. Spelled-out words should be used instead of abbreviations where space is not a problem.

Idioms and phrasal verbs are also revised in *OALD8*. For example, a new idiom **hands down** is added to the entry for **hand** (*n.*):

**hands down** (*informal*) easily and without any doubt: *They won hands down.* ◇ *It is hands down the best movie this year.*

It is notable that the idioms and phrasal verbs which are considered important are marked with a smaller key symbol in *OALD8*: both senses of **by hand** (idiom) and the first sense of **hand down** (phrasal verb), for example.

#### 4.7. Verb codes and frames

Verb codes and patterns used in *OALD8* are different from those in *OALD7*, but codes and patterns used for other parts of speech in *OALD8* are the same as those in *OALD7*. Therefore, we will focus only on the codes and patterns used for verbs in this subsection.

In the print version of *OALD8*, the transitive and intransitive uses of verbs are shown using the codes [T] and [I] respectively. They are placed at the start of a meaning. Either the code [T, I] or [I, T] is used when the verb is used both transitively and intransitively. In *OALD8-CD* and *OALD8-OL*, the codes are not abbreviated but are spelled out as [TRANSITIVE] and [INTRANSITIVE]. If a verb is always transitive in all its senses, it is marked *verb* and no other verb code is given in the print version and *OALD8-CD*. The code in *OALD8-OL* is the same except that it is written in capitals as VERB. Linking verbs are marked *linking verb* in the print version and *OALD8-CD*, and in capi-

tals as LINKING VERB in *OALD8-OL*.

Verb **patterns** are renamed as verb **frames** in *OALD8*. Some grammatical terms are used in the verb patterns in *OALD7*, but they are replaced by more explicit notations in the verb frames in *OALD8*. See Table 4.2:

Table 4.2 Comparison of verb patterns and verb frames

Verb patterns in <i>OALD7</i>	Verb frames in <i>OALD8</i>
[V <b>wh</b> -] [VN <b>wh</b> -]	~ <b>how, what, etc.</b> , ~ <b>why, where, etc.</b> , ~ <b>sb where, when, etc.</b>
[V <b>to inf</b> ] [VN <b>to inf</b> ] [VN <b>inf</b> ]	~ <b>to do sth</b> ; ~ <b>sb to do sth</b> , ~ <b>sth to do sth</b> , ~ <b>sb/sth to do sth</b> ; ~ <b>sb do sth</b> , ~ <b>sth do sth</b> , ~ <b>sb/sth do sth</b>
[V <b>-ing</b> ] [VN <b>-ing</b> ]	~ <b>doing sth</b> ; ~ <b>sb doing sth</b> , ~ <b>sth doing sth</b> , ~ <b>sb/sth doing sth</b>
[V <b>speech</b> ] [VN <b>speech</b> ]	+ <b>speech</b> ; ~ <b>sb + speech</b>

The code V is replaced by a swung dash in *OALD8*. In addition to it, objects are indicated specifically as either **sb** and/or **sth** in the verb frames.

The frames in the table above are basic patterns, and they can be combined with each other to form a more complex pattern. An optional constituent is put in brackets in a frame. For example, when a verb can be used intransitively although transitive use is more common, an object is put in round brackets to show that it is optional. The following frames are used in such a case: ~ (**sb**), (**sth**), (**sb/sth**). In these cases, the examples whose verbs are in transitive use are given first for they are more common, and any intransitive examples are placed after that. Compare the entry for the first sense of **bake**:

- 1 ~ **sth (for sb)** | ~ (**sb**) **sth** to cook food in an oven without extra fat or liquid; to be cooked in this way: [VN] *baked apples* ◇[VN, VNN] *I'm baking a birthday cake for Alex.* ◇*I'm baking Alex a cake.* ◇[V] *the delicious smell of baking bread* (*OALD7*)
- 1 [T, I] to cook food in an oven without extra fat or liquid; to be cooked this way: ~ (**sth**) *baked apples* ◇*the delicious smell of baking bread* ◇~ **sth for sb** *I'm baking a birthday cake for Alex.* ◇

~ **sb sth** *I'm baking Alex a cake.* (OALD8)

In this case, the frame “~ (**sth**)” shows that **bake** is commonly used transitively but it can also be used intransitively. The first example—*baked apples*—shows the transitive use of **bake**. The order of the examples changes from the second example. The transitive use is illustrated with the second and the third example in *OALD7*, whereas the intransitive use is exemplified in the second example in *OALD8*. The third and the fourth examples illustrate its transitive use.

The verb frames in *OALD8* are more informative than the verb patterns used in *OALD7* in that the former identifies each item instead of denoting them by grammatical codes. Compare the entries for the first sense of **presume**:

1 to suppose that sth is true, although you do not have actual proof  
 [SYN] ASSUME: [V] *They are very expensive, I presume?* ◇ *'Is he still abroad?' 'I presume so.'* ◇ [V (**that**)] *I presumed (that) he understood the rules.* ◇ [VN **that**] *Little is known of the youngest son; it is presumed that he died young.* ◇ [VN **to** inf] *I presumed him to be her husband.* (OALD7)

1 [I, T] to suppose that sth is true, although you do not have actual proof  
 [SYN] **assume**: *They are very expensive, I presume?* ◇ *'Is he still abroad?' 'I presume so.'* ◇ ~ (**that**) *I presumed (that) he understood the rules.* ◇ **it is presumed that . . .** *Little is known of the youngest son; it is presumed that he died young.* ◇ ~ **sb/sth to be/have sth** *I presumed him to be her husband.* (OALD8)

The verb pattern for the last example in *OALD7* is [VN **to** inf]. This pattern does not explicitly denote what kind of object can follow the verb. In addition to it, the grammatical code “**to** inf” does not reveal what kind of verb typically takes the *to*-infinitive form and takes this position. The verb frame “~ **sb/sth to be/have sth**” in *OALD8* shows that either a person or a thing can be the object while the verb *be* or *have* typically takes the *to*-infinitive form and follows the object in this use. Thus, it can be said that the verb frame in *OALD8* is more informative and useful for dictionary users.

As many abbreviated grammatical codes as possible are abolished in

*OALD8*. For instance, *pt* and *pp* in *OALD7* are replaced by *past tense* and *past part.*, respectively in *OALD8*. Compare:

**lit** *pt, pp* of LIGHT (OALD7)

**lit** *past tense, past part.* of LIGHT (OALD8)

Generally speaking, the reference sections that explain the meaning of codes and abbreviations used in a dictionary are least read parts in a dictionary. Therefore, unless they are either done away with or replaced by spelled-out notations, the codes and abbreviations may remain incomprehensible to users. Although it may be space-consuming, it is better if the codes and abbreviations are spelled out wherever possible.

#### 4.8. Labels

The labels used in *OALD8* are the same as those in *OALD7*, but the way of labeling the entry words is revised in the new edition. For example, new regional and register labels are added to **liquidation** in *OALD8*. Compare:

the action of liquidating sb/sth: *The company has **gone into liquidation**.* (OALD7)

**1** (*BrE, AustralE, law*) the process of closing a company, selling what it owns and paying debts: *The company has **gone into liquidation**.* (OALD8)

Sometimes the order of labels is changed in *OALD8*. For instance, **mouse potato** is labeled as (*disapproving, informal*) in *OALD7* but (*informal, disapproving*) in *OALD8*. However, it is not clear why the two attitudinal labels are switched around.

(Section 4 by Takahashi)

#### 5. Examples

We discussed some changes in the examples in *OALD8* as we compared the verb patterns and frames in *OALD7* and *OALD8* in 4.7. We will look into the examples in *OALD8* in more detail in this section.

### 5.1. Examples in the print version and the online version

There are only some minor changes in the example sentences in *OALD8*, except for the ones in newly added entries. Compare the last example for the first sense of **communication** in *OALD7* and *OALD8*:

*We are in regular communication by letter.* (OALD7)

*We are in regular communication by email.* (OALD8)

The phrase “*by letter*” is replaced by “*by email*” in *OALD8*. The modification reflects the shift in the medium of communication in the recent years.

It is also notable that the order of the examples in each entry is rearranged in *OALD8*. Compare the examples for the second sense of **communicate** in *OALD7* and *OALD8*:

2 to make your ideas, feelings, thoughts, etc. known to other people so that they understand them: [VN] *He was eager to communicate his ideas to the group.* ◇*Her nervousness was communicating itself to the children.* ◇[V] *Candidates must be able to communicate effectively.* [also V **wh-**] (OALD7)

2 [I, T] to make your ideas, feelings, thoughts, etc. known to other people so that they understand them: *Candidates must be able to communicate effectively.* ◇~ **sth (to sb)** *He was eager to communicate his ideas to the group.* ◇*Her nervousness was communicating itself to the children.* ◇~ **how/what, etc . . . .** *They failed to communicate what was happening and why.* (OALD8)

Unlike the previous edition, *OALD8* considers the intransitive use as the primary use of the verb in this sense. Thus “I” precedes “T” in the grammar code and the first example shows the intransitive use. In addition, a new example is added in *OALD8*. The example illustrates the unillustrated verb pattern [V **wh-**] in *OALD7*. This constitutes an improvement.

The order of the examples is sometimes changed even when the primary use of a verb is not reconsidered in *OALD8*. Generally, examples with a simpler sentence structure are presented prior to those with a more complex structure (see the entries for **end** below).

There is a change in the indication of verb patterns in the last two

editions. In *OALD7*, several verb patterns are often integrated into a single pattern, whereas a single verb pattern is placed immediately before each corresponding example sentence in *OALD8*. Compare the entry for **end** in *OALD7* and *OALD8*:

■ **verb** ~ (**sth**) (**with sth**) to finish; to make sth finish: [V] *The road ends here.* ◇ *How does the story end?* ◇ *The speaker ended by suggesting some topics for discussion.* ◇ *Her note ended with the words: 'See you soon.'* ◇ [VN] *They decided to end their relationship.* ◇ *They ended the play with a song.* [also V + **speech**]  
(*OALD7*)

■ **verb** [I, T] to finish; to make sth finish: *The road ends here.* ◇ *How does the story end?* ◇ *The speaker ended by suggesting some topics for discussion.* ~ **with sth** *Her note ended with the words: 'See you soon.'* ◇ ~ **sth** *They decided to end their relationship.* ◇ ~ **sth with sth** *They ended the play with a song.* ◇ + **speech** *'And that was that,' she ended.*  
(*OALD8*)

The verb pattern is integrated as “~ (**sth**) (**with sth**)” and presented in the beginning of the entry in *OALD7*. On the other hand, the pattern is separated into three frames “~ **with sth**,” “~ **sth**,” and “~ **sth with sth**” and each is provided for the corresponding examples in *OALD8*. This presentation is space-consuming but more user-friendly because it will facilitate users' location of examples and also senses.

It seems that much effort has been made to illustrate all verb frames in *OALD8* (see **communicate** and **end** above). However, some verb frames are still without any examples probably because of space limitation. Yamada (2010: 158) claims that “[A]t least one example per use should be provided if the EFL dictionary is geared to satisfy the user's productive needs as well.” He cites the following example in *LDOCE3* and criticizes that the other prepositions than “about” are not illustrated:

**rapture** *n* 2 **go into raptures** . . . [+over/about/at] *She went into raptures about the climate, the food, the spring flowers.*

Let us look at the corresponding entry in *OALD8*:

**IDM** **be in, go into, etc. raptures** (**about/over sb/sth**) to feel

or express extreme pleasure or enthusiasm for sb/ sth: *The critics went into raptures about her performance.* ◇ *The last minute goal sent the fans into raptures.*

A similar criticism applies. One example illustrates one of the several possible patterns: **go into raptures about**; the other an unmentioned pattern: **send sb into raptures**. The indication of verb frames and their illustrations need to be reconsidered with users' needs in mind.

## 5.2. Additional examples in *OALD-CD*

Additional example sentences are available in EXAMPLE BANK in *OALD8-CD*, like the previous edition. A list of supplementary examples appears on the right-hand side of the screen when the EXAMPLE BANK is clicked.

Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 91–92) criticized *OALD7-CD* for not sorting the examples in the example bank according to the senses. This is not resolved in *OALD8-CD*. For example, if we click the EXAMPLE BANK for **bid**<sup>1</sup>, the first two examples illustrate the use of the first sense of **bid**<sup>2</sup>, which means 'to greet someone': *He bade farewell to the city where he had been so happy.* | *He bade her good day and left.* The EXAMPLE BANK for **bid**<sup>2</sup> exhibits only these two examples, and does not show any examples which illustrate the use of **bid**<sup>1</sup>. A slight improvement has been made, but revision should be made throughout the entries in *OALD8-CD*.

Another example can be found at **hard** (*adj.*). There are 23 example sentences in the EXAMPLE BANK, and they are listed in the following order:

- (1) I found the exam quite hard.
- (2) If you tell the children the answers, it only makes it harder for them to do the work on their own.
- (3) Life got very hard.
- (4) The chairs felt hard and uncomfortable.
- (5) The toffee was rock hard.
- (6) 'When will the job be finished?' 'It's hard to say.'
- (7) Conditions were extremely hard in the camps.

- ( 8 ) He's as hard and uncompromising as any professional sportsman.
- ( 9 ) I always found languages quite hard at school.
- (10) I find his attitude quite hard to take.
- (11) I've had a long hard day.
- (12) It can be very hard for people to accept change.
- (13) It was one of the hardest things I ever did.
- (14) It's hard to believe she is only nine years old.
- (15) It's hard work shovelling snow.
- (16) My grandmother had a hard life.
- (17) Some viruses can be harder to identify.
- (18) The ground is still rock-hard.
- (19) The newspaper story is based on hard facts.
- (20) The reason for their absence wasn't hard to find.
- (21) They were given a list of hard spellings to learn.
- (22) We're finding reliable workers hard to come by.
- (23) a hard bench/chair

This shows that the example sentences are not grouped on the basis of senses but are ordered randomly. The classification of the sentences according to the senses of "hard" will be this:

Table 5.1 Sense-based classification of the additional example sentences for **hard**

Sense number and short cuts	Example sentences
1. SOLID/ STIFF	(4), (5), (18), (23)
2. DIFFICULT	(1), (2), (6), (9), (10), (12), (13), (14), (17), (20), (21), (22)
3. DIFFICULT	(3), (7), (11), (16)
4. NEEDING/USING EFFORT	(15)
5. NEEDING/USING EFFORT	Φ
6. NEEDING/USING EFFORT	Φ
7. WITHOUT SYMPATHY	(8)
8. NOT AFRAID	Φ
9. FACTS/EVIDENCE	(19)
10. WEATHER	Φ
11. DRINK	Φ
12. WATER	Φ
13. CONSONANTS	Φ

The table shows that the example sentences are unevenly distributed. In addition, the following are the same as or only slightly different from the example sentences in the entry, and thus are considered as redundant: (6), (10), (11), (14), (15), (16), (19), and (22). This case also shows that the deficits pointed out as to the EXAMPLE SENTENCE in *OALD7-CD* has not been quite redeemed in *OALD8-CD* yet. It would be more user-friendly if the example sentences are sorted according to the word senses they illustrate. It is also preferable if each sense is more evenly illustrated by the examples in the EXAMPLE BANK. There is still room for improvement as to the presentation of example sentences in the EXAMPLE BANK.

(Section 5 by Takahashi)

## 6. Notes on Usage

Since it first introduced “Notes on Usage” into the fourth edition following its rival *LDOCE2*, *OALD* has tried to augment its value as a dictionary for encoding by several kinds of newly introduced usage notes. The appearance of CD-ROM edition also facilitated the increase of articles. Consequently, *OALD6* has five types of usage notes: Which Word?, Vocabulary Building, Grammar Point, British/American, and More About; *OALD7* added two more types: Synonyms and Word Origin<sup>1)</sup> (Komuro, *et al.* 2006: 93). However, this editorial policy has created a problem of inconsistency, that is, inconsistency in the content of each type of usage notes. Some Synonyms notes disambiguate the meanings of two words, and some More About notes clarify the differences between British and American English and culture. Thus, the revised editions always have some notes that have changed their titles (i.e., types). Although it is unclear whether the titles of the usage notes have any effect on the user-friendliness of the dictionary, the lack of consistency would at least confuse users.

The trend toward multiple types of usage notes has continued. *OALD8* comprises 12 types of usage notes: Synonyms, Thesaurus, Word Family, Grammar Point, Culture, Which Word?, Language Bank, Collocations, More About, Word Origin, British/American, Vocabulary

Building. "Thesaurus," "Culture," and "Word Origin" are only included in the CD-ROM edition. In this section, we will survey these 12 types of usage notes, and examine the appropriateness of the categorizations.

### 6.1. "Synonyms"

There are as many as 203 "Synonyms" articles<sup>2)</sup> in *OALD8*, and the majority of them begin with a series of synonyms listed in order of frequency (xi) to show their common meaning, and then explain the meaning and nuance of each word. A few pairs of synonyms are often dealt with separately and given a special explanation about which word should be used in specific contexts. Often information about collocation is provided at the end of the article under the heading "**PATTERNS**"<sup>3)</sup>. Each word has a cross-reference at its own entry in the printed edition, while in the CD-ROM edition the relevant article can be seen at each entry of the synonymous words in the panel on the right of the main box (see the one at **bill** for example).

There is another type of "Synonyms" articles in this edition, which Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 95) identify in *OALD7*. This kind of article places emphasis on the explanation of the differences in the usages and the collocations of the synonymous words, rather than on the differences in their meanings. Thus the article at **almost** begins with collocations of *almost*, *nearly*, *practically* and then gives such diverse information as their usages, the preferred words in spoken/written English, and the difference in usage in British/American English.

The emphasis on information about collocation is also clarified in the provision of the above-mentioned "**PATTERNS**," but their descriptions are not always helpful for learners. Several collocations are not listed in a helpful way. Thus when the users look up **limit**, they will find that the two prepositions, *on* and *to*, can be used after the synonymous words, but which of them can be used with which preposition is not clear until they read through the lists.

Inconsistency or haphazardness with regard to the content of the articles can be observed in other entries. The article at **angry** has a grammatical note on *irate*: "**Irate** is not usually followed by a preposi-

tion: ~~She was irate with me/about it~~". However, the entry of **irate** offers no such information. It is a matter of editorial policy and the editors should have agreement on the placement of the information.

## 6.2. "Which Word?"

These articles are described in the back matter as notes "that show the differences between words that are often confused" (R15). There are 70 such notes in the dictionary, and the number and the list have not changed from *OALD7*. Differentiation of confusing words is approached from several aspects: (1) semantic difference (e.g., **ashamed**), (2) degree of formality (e.g., **care**), (3) difference in syntactic behavior (e.g., **close**), and (4) difference between British English and American English (e.g., **baggage**). Often the explanation is made from more than one aspect, and extra information (mainly grammatical) is provided (e.g., **baggage**).

Since "Which Word?" notes share the aim of differentiating confusing words with other types of articles, for example, "Synonyms" and "British/American," the construction or content is inevitably similar to some of those articles. As we have stated above, the editors might need a clearer criterion for classifying this kind of information into several kinds of articles.

## 6.3. "Vocabulary Building"

The contents of "Vocabulary Building" notes do not seem to have been changed from the previous edition. The dictionary offers 22 notes of this type, which can be divided into two subtypes. One is usually placed at the entry of common words, or words at the "basic level" (Taylor: 1995), for example, **bad**, **break**, and **good**, to help users to choose more appropriate or effective expressions in the context. Look at the following example from **bad**:

### **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
- **appalling/dreadful/severe** weather
- an **unpleasant/a frightening/a traumatic** experience

...

To refer to your health, you can say: *I feel **unwell/sick/terrible** ◇ I don't feel (**very**) **well***. In conversation, words like **terrible**, **horrible**, **awful** and **dreadful** can be used in most situations to mean 'very bad'.

Each note of another subtype has its own theme and list words that are relevant to that theme. The placement of notes does not seem to be based on a specific criterion. Consider the following example from **body**:

### **Actions expressing emotions**

Often parts of the body are closely linked to particular verbs. The combination of the verb and part of the body expresses an emotion or attitude.

<b>action</b>	<b>part of body</b>	<b>you are . . .</b>
bite	lips	nervous
clench	fist	angry, aggressive
click	fingers	trying to remember sth
click	tongue	annoyed
drum/tap	fingers	impatient

...

For example: *She bit her lip nervously.* ◇ *He scratched his head and looked thoughtful.* ◇ *I wrinkled my nose in disgust.* ◇ *She raised questioning eyebrows.*

Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 96) criticize the editors of *OALD7* for not providing any semantic explanation to the examples, which unfortunately has not been improved in the present edition, though the hyperlinks in the CD-ROM are of some help. Consequently, the content of the "Vocabulary Building" section often seems similar to the content of "Language Bank" and "Collocations," which we will discuss below.

#### 6.4. “Grammar Point”

Notes of this type aims to “help make clear points of grammar that often cause problems” (R16). The number and the contents of these notes have not been changed in *OALD8*, though the title of the articles in *OALD7-CD*, “Grammar,” which has been criticized as being different from that in the print edition in Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 97), was revised to “Grammar Point” in *OALD8-CD*.

One of the typical articles that explains “points of grammar” is placed at the entry of **modal**, which describes the syntactic behavior and the morphological characteristics of modal verbs (see **dare**, **each**, **neither**, and **percentage** for more examples).

However, there seems to be a few notes that do not deal with “grammar” in its precise meaning. The note at **lately** explains the difference between the two adverbs *late* and *lately*, but similar adverb pairs, *hard/hardly* and *tight/tightly*, are discussed in the “Which Word?” notes. The note placed at **can** consists of the explanation of the semantic differences between *can*, *could*, *be able to*, and *manage* and a description of the grammatical contexts in which these words should be used. Some people might wonder whether these issues should be called “points of grammar.” For these kinds of notes, the editors should establish another category like “Usage Notes,” and restrict “Grammar Point” articles to those which deal exclusively with grammatical problems.

Dictionaries may increasingly take on a role as grammar books, but such grammatical information should be treated in one place, because users have difficulty in searching, both in the print and the electronic editions, and words that have similar grammatical issues (such as “concord” or “negation”) can be explained together without the problem of placement.

#### 6.5. “British/American”

This type of note deals with the differences between British and American English. Some of them explain the differences based on the two cultures (e.g., the one at **college**), and others describe rather minor differences in the usage (e.g., the one at **bit**). It is debatable whether the

latter type of information should be dealt with in an independent column. *OALD8* includes 20 notes of this type, which have not changed from the previous edition.

### 6.6. "More About"

This kind of article is supposed to give users "more information about an aspect of life or language in Britain and America" (R16). Actually, the "More About" notes cover a far wider variety of topics. The article at **course** provides pragmatic information about the usage of *course*. The one at **exam** explains the difference between *exam*, *examination*, *test*, and *quiz*. The necessity of this category is not clear, and these notes might safely be dealt with in other types of articles. There are 13 notes in *OALD8*, the contents of which have not changed from those of *OALD7*.

### 6.7. "Word Origin"

As observed in Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 99), there are some "Word Origin" notes in *OALD7*, which are included in the entries and marked with the symbol of "ORIGIN." *OALD8* seems to have made no change to this kind of note. Their description is in a narrative and less technical style when compared with the "Word Origin" columns in the CD-ROM edition discussed below.

The "Word Origin" window, which is always open in the default option and highly visible on the screen in *OALD7-CD*, is included in the pop-up menu along with other kinds of notes in *OALD8-CD*. It seems that no change has been made to the content, but the wider window and the use of a color font make it easier to read.

### 6.8. "Word Family"

This is a very small article that presents a list of derivatives. Some of them also show antonyms, using the symbol "≠," which is helpful for learners. However, some only list the derivatives and the negative derivatives, and give no further explanation. For instance, the list at **deny** consists of *deny* (verb), *denial* (noun), *undeniable* (adj.), *undeniably*

(adv.). Users might need some guidance on the usage of *deniable* and *deniably*. At least a brief semantic description should follow such lists.

### 6.9. “Culture”

Encyclopedic and cultural information which is given in the “Cultural Guide” section in *OALD7-CD* is offered in the entries as “Culture” notes in *OALD8-CD*. This change of structure makes a search somewhat easier, and the DVD medium allows for a substantial increase in the information. However, the narrow window on the right is not appropriate for reading long texts.

### 6.10. “Thesaurus”

The “Thesaurus” notes, which are newly introduced in *OALD8-CD*, list words with similar meanings and put emphasis on the presentation of collocations. Words that have similar meanings and occur in the same grammatical environment/context are listed. In this respect, the “Thesaurus” notes differ from the “Synonyms” and the “Collocations” notes discussed below. However, the contents of the first two kinds of notes sometimes overlap since some of them also discriminate between synonyms. The editors should be careful to avoid the kind of redundancy exhibited by the following notes:

#### Thesaurus

recommend · urge | *formal* advocate  
 advise/recommend/urge/advocate **that** . . .  
 advise/recommend/urge **sb to do sth**  
 . . .

#### Advise or recommend?

**Advise** is stronger than **recommend**. Use **advise** about sb in a position of authority: Police are advising fans without tickets to stay away. ~~Police are recommending fans without tickets to stay away.~~ Use **recommend** about possible benefits; use **advise** about possible dangers: I recommend reading the book before seeing the movie. ~~I advise reading the book before seeing the movie.~~: I would advise against going out on your

own. ~~I would recommend against going out on your own.~~

## Synonyms

...

### RECOMMEND OR ADVISE?

**Advise** is a stronger word than **recommend** and is often used when the person giving the advice is in a position of authority: Police are advising fans without tickets to stay away. ~~Police are recommending fans without tickets to stay away.~~ I advise you . . . can suggest that you know better than the person you are advising: this may cause offence if they are your equal or senior to you. I recommend . . . mainly suggests that you are trying to be helpful and is less likely to cause offence. **Recommend** is often used with more positive advice to tell sb about possible benefits and **advise** with more negative advice to warn sb about possible dangers: ~~He advised reading the book before seeing the movie.~~ ~~I would recommend against going out on your own.~~

### 6.11. "Collocations"

*OALD8* has newly introduced 43 "Collocations" notes. The title "Collocations" for this kind of article is slightly problematic, because these articles aim to introduce a series of various expressions which can be used in a particular context to users, rather than give information about collocations of specific words. Consider the following example placed at **environment**:

#### The environment

Environmental damage

- **cause/contribute to** climate change/global warming
- **produce** pollution/CO<sub>2</sub>/greenhouse (gas) emissions
- **damage/destroy** the environment/a marine ecosystem/the ozone layer/coral reefs

...

Protecting the environment

- **address/combat/tackle** the threat/effects/impact of climate change

- **fight/take action on/reduce/stop** global warming
- **limit/curb/control** air/water/atmospheric/environmental pollution

...

Energy and resources

- **conserve/save/consume/waste** energy
- **manage/exploit/be rich in** natural resources
- **dump/dispose of** hazardous/toxic/nuclear waste

...

Although this kind of note is extremely helpful for learners and is worth incorporation into *OALD8*, a problem remains with accessibility. Users can look up the list of the articles in the back matter (R18), and use cross-references to some nouns mentioned in the notes, but they can hardly be expected to conjecture, before consulting the dictionary, that there would be a “Collocations” note somewhere in the dictionary in which a series of expressions used in the relevant context are listed. Thus this kind of article can be retrieved only by using cross-references, which means that collocational information should be treated with verbal illustrations within each entry, with sufficient explanation of the differences of the meanings.

## 6.12. “Language Bank”

“Language Bank” is another type of note that is first introduced into *OALD8*. There are 32 notes in the dictionary. As those of “Collocations” and “Vocabulary Building,” the “Language Bank” notes have a situational content. The difference is that “Language Bank” notes list a series of expressions that can be used *similarly* in a situation. Users can use them for clarification and choose an appropriate expression by studying the example sentences. Look at the example at **first**:

### **first**

#### **Ordering your points**

This study has **the following** aims: **first**, to investigate how international students in the UK use humour; **second**, to examine how jokes can help

to establish social relationships; and, **third**, to explore the role that humour plays in helping overseas students adjust to life in the UK.

**Let us begin by** identifying some of the popular joke genres in the UK.

**Next, let us turn to/Next, let us consider** the question of gender differences in the use of humour.

**Finally/Lastly**, let us briefly examine the role of humour in defining a nation's culture.

→ notes at **FIRSTLY, LASTLY**

→ Language Banks at **CONCLUSION, PROCESS**

Cross-references to other notes at the end of the article are especially useful for users.

Although this type of note has the same accessibility problem as "Collocations," the form of the note is suitable for its aim. The placement of each note, however, should be reconsidered, and an appropriate title should be given.

(Section 6 by Ryu)

## 7. Pictorial illustrations: Visual Vocabulary Builder

Recognizing the usefulness of pictorial illustrations even for advanced students<sup>1</sup>, *OALD8* renamed and enlarged the color materials augmented with verbal elements (commentaries, examples, grammatical information, etc.) in the back matter: to the 64-page "Visual Vocabulary Builder" (with 6 pages of maps integrated) from *OALD7*'s 8-page "Maps" and 24-page "Colour topic pages."

There are 20 color contents included in *OALD7* and 42 in *OALD8*. As far as the headings are concerned, 18 remain<sup>2</sup>, 24 are added, and two are omitted. Among the 18 titles shared by the two editions, five contents are (almost) the same (e.g., "The animal kingdom" [V10–11].), while 13 contents have undergone varying degrees of modification. For example, all drawings have been replaced with photographs in *OALD8*'s "Cooking" (V24–25). Almost all photographs have been replaced in "Homes" (V14). Truer-to-life illustrations have been adopted in "House" (V15) and "Cars" (V42). "Sports" (V36–39) has been doubled from two

pages. On the other hand, the Caribbean has been cut in the map "Canada and the United States of America" (V62–63) from *OALD7*'s "Canada, the United States of America, and the Caribbean" (Map 4).

Out of the 24 new headings, 11 are newly added (e.g., "City and countryside" [V2–3]). The remaining 13 are not totally new in content. One or more illustrations in the main dictionary part of *OALD7* have been colored, modified, and moved to the back matter in *OALD8* to constitute a part or the whole of a Visual Vocabulary Builder content. However, there is one exception which is to be dealt with in the next paragraph.

Two of *OALD7*'s color contents are eliminated in *OALD8*'s Visual Vocabulary Builder: The World (Map 2) and Health (R18–19). However, the "Staying healthy" section of the latter has been modified and kept as a part of "Hobbies" (V34–35) under the new subtitle "Keeping fit" with all drawings replaced with photographs.

Compared with the previous edition, *OALD8* has disposed of many pictorial illustrations in the main dictionary part and moved a few to the extended Visual Vocabulary Builder<sup>3</sup>). There are both plusses and minuses to this approach. The combination of pictures of related things and verbal support will enhance users' vocabulary learning. Some line drawings in the main dictionary part of *OALD7* have been turned into more realistic and informative illustrations or photographs and relocated to the back matter of *OALD8* to be presented with related items (e.g., "Nuts" in "Herbs, spices, nuts and cereals" [V28]). In contrast to this successful example, it is hard to estimate the value of presenting together in color the illustrations "angles," "circles," "conic sections," "solids," and "triangles" under "Shapes, solids and angles" (V58). Even though a cross-reference is properly provided at each entry, one extra look-up is inflicted on users. It has to be remembered illustrations in the A-Z part can help quick reference. All these factors have to be carefully weighed in deploying illustrations.

(Section 7 by Yamada)

## 8. CD-ROM edition and the *Oxford iWriter*

This section deals with the updated electronic edition of *OALD8-CD*

with special reference to the newly incorporated writing assistant called the *Oxford iWriter* (henceforth, *iWriter*). Before going into the details of *iWriter*, we will examine the usability of the dictionary part of this CD-ROM edition. We will discuss the few newly incorporated features of *OALD8-CD*.

### 8.1. *Dictionary & Culture*

This subsection focuses on the main dictionary part of *OALD8-CD* and examines its structure and searchability. Compared with the subtle updates of the print edition, the new CD-ROM edition has numerous significant differences from the previous edition. The first change to be noted is that the cultural information that was independent of the main dictionary part in *OALD7-CD* is integrated into the *Dictionary & Culture* in the current edition so that the user can carry out seamless searches for both linguistic and encyclopedic information at the same time. Although this is obviously a welcome improvement, it is regrettable that all the enlargeable pictures in the *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture* in *OALD7-CD* disappeared from the new edition. Needless to say, pictorial illustrations are very helpful because culturally specific things are difficult for learners to understand only through verbal explanations.

A look at the sample page in Fig. 8.1 allows us to say that the overall visibility of this CD-ROM version has much improved from the previous edition at least thanks to the following changes in layout:

- (1) Pronunciations are not put on the same line as the headword but are displayed below it with each British and North American pronunciation starting a new line.
- (2) Parts of speech are shown in black bold typeface on a gray bar so that the presence of different parts of speech is easy to notice<sup>1)</sup>.
- (3) Each example starts a new line headed by a gray diamond symbol.
- (4) Colored links to extra information, such as word origin, thesaurus, and so on, are put together in a white box below the part of speech, and the body of information is displayed in the

extra window which pops up to the right when wanted.

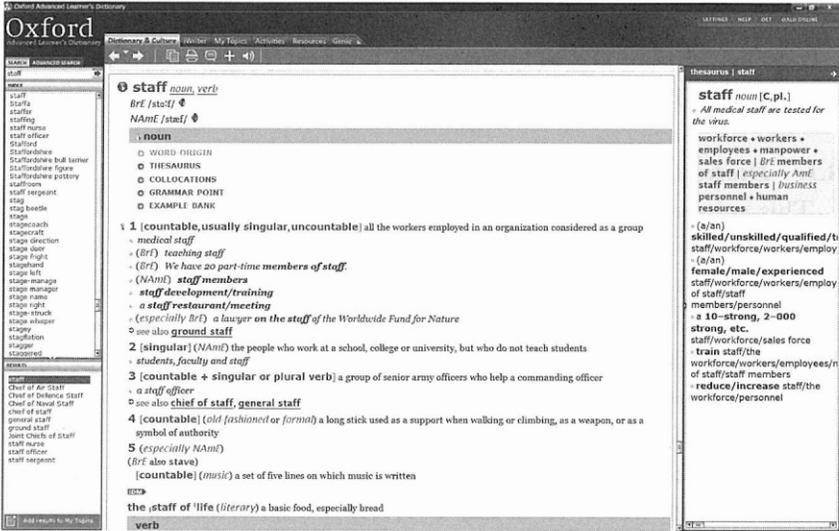


Fig. 8.1 The search result of **staff** on *OALD8-CD*

It should also be noted that the text size in the dictionary is adjustable using the “SETTINGS” function with four options available: small, medium, large, and very large. *OALD8-CD* also has sound options to choose whether the British or North American pronunciation will be automatically played and whether to turn off the sound or not. These are good examples of customizability suggested by Atkins and Rundell (2008: 239)<sup>2</sup>.

In addition, there are some improvements with respect to its searchability. For example, in *OALD8-CD*, the search history of up to 21 entries is recorded<sup>3</sup>, although the button for this function is not easy to find without any instruction<sup>4</sup>. The most noteworthy improvement in terms of searchability is that in the operations of advanced searches, which Komuro, *et al.* (2006: 110) found unsatisfactory in the previous edition. Instead of typing in instructions like computer command codes into the search slot, the user can now narrow down the range of searches by choosing from four options of search ranges (headwords, definitions,

phrasal verbs, or idioms), 20 regional varieties, 18 parts of speech, and 19 registers.

Despite these improvements, however, there still remain innumerable flaws concerning the searchability of *OALD8-CD*. The first drawback to be pointed out is the problem of lemmatization. For example, when *pre-taught*, the past tense form of the newly added entry **pre-teach**, is typed in, a dialog box asking "DID YOU MEAN . . .?" pops up but the infinite form *pre-teach* is not included among the candidate list. The same is the case with the present-participle/gerund form *pre-teaching*. Similarly, when *studied* is keyed in, the result is the independent adjective headword **studied** under which no cross-reference to the entry **study** is provided. The same trouble occurs when *given* is the search key. In order to reach the headword **give**, the user has to open the pop-up window by double-clicking on any token of *given* included in the entry under this headword and choose *give* from the RESULTS box below and then click on the GO TO ENTRY tab. The user has to go through a troublesome series of operations.

With respect to lemmatization, this software seems whimsical because the results it returns vary from entry to entry. For example, when the search key is *remains*, which can be either the third person singular form of the verb *remain* or the plural form of the noun *remain*, the user is taken to the noun headword **remains** with no cross-reference to **remain**. Entering *upskilled*, on the other hand, opens the dialog box that displays candidates including *upskill* in the case of basic search, whereas in the advanced search the same input returns no result. The case of *hanged* is disastrous as the user is taken to the headword **well**, under which the idiom (**you, etc.**) **may/might as well be hanged/hung for a sheep as (for) a lamb** is included far below that headword.

The problem of lemmatization is not limited to verbs. When the plural form of the multiword entry **staff officer** is typed in, the software seems to malfunction with no dialog box displayed. In addition, the list of candidates shown in the INDEX window on the upper left does not show the compound under search. The user has to scroll up in the INDEX window to find the appropriate candidate.

The user will also encounter many inconveniences searching for multiword entries such as phrasal verbs. For example, when *turn out* is the target of the advanced search with "ANY" chosen from the options of the search range, the first candidate of the search result is the headword **inside**, under which the idiom **turn inside out** is included and the second candidate is *speak* which has the idiom **speak out of turn** included in the entry. Only when the user narrows down the range of the search to phrasal verbs, can the hoped-for result be obtained. Similarly, in the search of the phrasal verb *sex up* without specifying parts of speech, the result is *Carry On film*, under which the word *sex* is included in the description but no reference to the phrasal verb in question can be found. Moreover, even when the search range is limited to phrasal verbs, the user gets no results and the software looks as if it is frozen.

More mysterious results are obtained from the advanced search in which a wild card (\*) is followed by the word-ending *-ate* and the regional specification is from "Japanese." The RESULTS window on lower left shows *judo*, *shiitake*, *Shotokan*, and *tsunami*, none of which ends with the spelling *-ate*. Similar results are returned when the search key is "\*tion" with the region specified as Australian English. The search result lists 23 words with no *-tion* ending, except for the first two *administration* and *liquidation*.

The last problem to be pointed out is concerned with the dictionary's flexibility of layout. The width of the INDEX box and the RESULTS box is not adjustable so that long headwords are displayed on more than two lines with no left margin indentation to the second line or below. In the case of *the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service*, for example, it is very confusing because the second line begins with the word *and*. Much worse is the case of *Agricultural Development and Advisory Service*, which occupies three lines in the INDEX box. As cultural and encyclopedic entries tend to have long headwords, a better method of presentation, such as a resizable window, should have been adopted.

## 8.2. The *Oxford iWriter*

There is no doubt that *iWriter* is one of the most ambitious innovations of *OALD8-CD*. This tool is intended to help users “to plan, write and check” their writing in English (See *iWriter* help pages). Although *iWriter* is assumed to be based on the *Oxford Writing Tutor* (henceforth *Tutor*) included in the back matter of the print edition of *OALD8*, there are some differences between them. In this subsection, we will overview *iWriter* with some occasional references to the differences from *Tutor*.

### 8.2.1. The model mode

There are two modes in *iWriter*, namely, the model mode and the write mode. When the model mode is chosen on the start-up “Home” window, the user is led to the page in which 14 different types of writing are listed. The types of models offered here are as follows: **Comparison 1<sup>5)</sup>**, **Argument 1**, **Presentation**, **Reporting on data: graphs**, **Reporting on data: pie charts**, **Short report**, **Long report**, **Review**, **Letter of enquiry**, **Letter of complaint**, **Covering/Cover Letter**, **New graduate CV**, **American-style résumé**, and **Experienced candidate CV**.

When the user puts the mouse cursor over a model, a pop-up window called the information panel appears and a brief explanation of the model in question is presented. The explanations on the information panels are succinct, and it is easy to recognize the differences among the models.



Fig. 8.2 The *iWriter* window of the model **Comparison 1**

The model window, which can be opened by clicking on a type of model, is composed of four parts as shown in Figure 8.2. Located on the lower right is the main panel where the model passage is displayed. The “**Guided tour of the model**” on the upper left offers several buttons for the user to choose from so that s/he can look at the model from various angles. For example, in the model of **Comparison 1**, seven buttons are available such as “**How do I organize a comparison essay?**”, “**How is this essay structured?**” and so on. Once a button is clicked on, the view on the main panel changes and short explanations are automatically displayed in the box above it. Let us call this box the “information box” for convenience. Located on the bottom left is a “**Choose what to show**” button.

Now let us take a brief “tour” of the **Comparison 1** model for the sake of explanation. When the top button “**How do I organize a comparison essay?**” in the guided tour is chosen, the color of the button turns yellow and a brief overview of the model is shown in the information box above the main panel, which remains to be blank. When the second button “**How is this essay structured**” is clicked on, the structural outline of the model is shown in red in the main panel. Five structural components (namely, title, introduction, similarities, differences, and conclusion) are displayed together with some instructions to the user about what to do in writing each part of a comparison essay. Clicking on the third button “**How was it planned?**” enables the user to look at the notes in green taken during the process of writing the model.

The next three buttons, “**Focus on the introduction,**” “**Look at the main paragraphs,**” and “**Focus on the conclusion,**” correspond to each phase of the overall organization of the essay. For example, when the button “**Focus on the introduction**” is chosen, only the introductory paragraph of the model is displayed. The information about the inner structure of the paragraph is also accessible by clicking on the blue “**Show me**” button (which is accompanied by the icon looking like a magnifying glass) in the information box. When the “**Show me**” button is chosen and the plus symbol appears in the circu-

lar part of the icon, certain sentences turn green and the user can get the information about what role(s) the sentences play in the paragraph.

The last button in the guided tour of the **Comparison 1** model, namely, "**Show me useful language**," displays the whole body of the model in the main panel and "**Show me**" buttons in the information box allows the user to look at words and phrases often used in the type of writing. The expressions offered here are basically the same as those highlighted in the model for writing a comparison essay in *Tutor*.

"**Choose what to show**" buttons are for the user to choose any different (combinations of) elements of the model to be shown in the main window: "**Show structure**," "**Show notes**," "**Show content**," and "**Show all**." When the "**Show structure**" button in red is clicked on, only the outline of the model is displayed also in red in the main window, which is practically the same as when the "**How is this essay structured?**" button in the guided tour of the model above is chosen. The only difference between the two buttons is the information displayed in the information box. When the "**Show structure**" button is chosen, the information box reminds the user that double-clicking on a word in the main panel opens the pop-up dictionary window of *OALD8-CD*.

### 8.2.2. The write mode

The write mode of *iWriter* offers 18 frameworks for writing, with three additional frameworks for the comparison essay and one extra framework for the argument essay in comparison with the number of the models included in the model mode. The framework **Comparison 1** corresponds to the framework used for the model of the same type in the model mode while the other three frameworks are the same as those provided in *Tutor*. The second framework of the argument essay is for writing a longer essay "with an alternating series of arguments and counterarguments" as described in the information panel.

When any one of the frameworks is clicked, a box with the prompt "**Create a new project**" will appear at the top of the main panel and the user can start writing a new essay. If any files using the same framework have been saved before, their names and the dates of the last

revision are shown in other boxes below. The files created before are arranged chronologically with the latest one on top.

As shown in Fig. 8.3, the window of the write mode is composed of four parts similar to those in the model mode. In the write mode, however, the main panel does not display a sample passage but offers a framework where the user can type in his/her own writing. The input area is divided into several sections according to the structures of the type of essay. For example, the framework **Comparison 1** contains the sections for the title of the essay, the introduction, the paragraphs, and the conclusion, each of which gives the user some instructions. Also offered here are areas where some notes can be added during the process of writing.

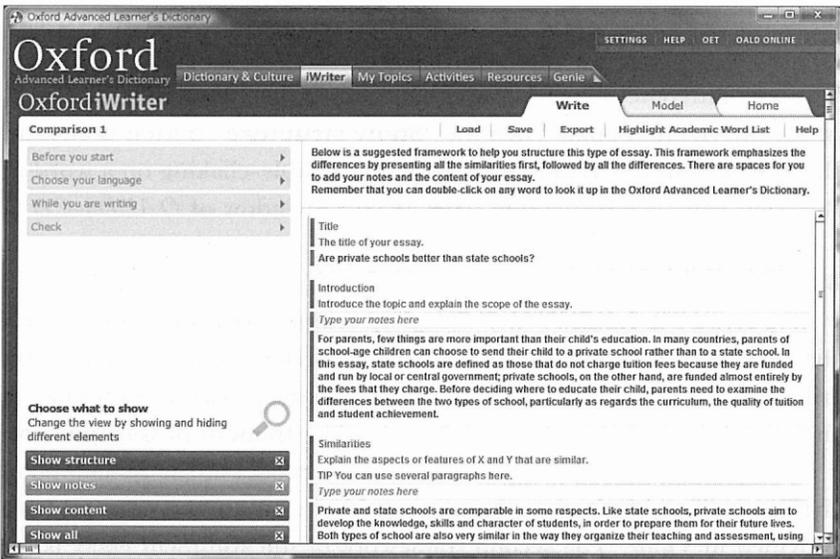


Fig. 8.3 The *iWriter* window of the framework **Comparison 1**

Another difference from the model mode is the functions of blue buttons on the upper left which, instead of providing a guided tour in the model mode, present useful checklists for each phase of writing. Some of the points included in the list have a yellow “**tell me more . . .**”

button which offers the user extra information with respect to the point in question. For example, when clicking on the “**Before you start**” button, four points are displayed with “**tell me more . . .**” included in two of them as shown in Fig. 8.4.



Fig. 8.4 Checklist for the phase “**Before you start**” in the **Comparison 1** framework

The four “Choose what to show” buttons in the lower left are exactly the same as those provided in the model mode. The colors of the buttons in this section roughly correspond to the colors of types in the main window.

All these buttons and functions seem to be well organized at first glance. Once the user starts using the write mode, however, insufficiencies in terms of information can be observed. For example, although the instruction in the first point in the checklist tells the user to brainstorm his/her ideas on the question and offers three methods of brainstorming, no explanation is given about what brainstorming is or how brainstorming should be done. If the user is used to writing essays in English, there seems no need at all to advise him/her to brainstorm before starting to write. Conversely, if the user has no or little experience of writing essays in English, there is a strong possibility that s/he does not know what brainstorming is<sup>6</sup>). Considering this, more information about brainstorming would be helpful. In this sense, *Tutor* is a little more user-friendly as it offers a comparison table in which important

points are neatly arranged (WT7). Similarly, “**Before you start**” in “**Read and research the topic**” only lists the information sources, such as books and journals, the media, websites, and so on. It does not explain, for example, how to make summaries of the information obtained from these sources. It seems that only providing checklists is not effective enough to improve a learner’s writing skills, let alone ensure his/her writing meets the standards required of academic writing.

### 8.2.3. A comparison with *Tutor*

Although the contents of *iWriter* are basically the same as those in *Tutor*, there are some contents unique to *iWriter* or *Tutor*. The first difference is that *Tutor* provides a page to explain how to effectively use the information in *OALD8* in the process of writing as well as how to use *Tutor* itself (WT1). The information in the online help of *iWriter* is mostly focused on its operations, and the only reminder of the links to the dictionary is a note occasionally displayed in the information box saying “Remember that you can double-click on any word to look it up in the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary.” *Tutor* is also more user-friendly than *iWriter* in that it offers useful pages for describing the four phases of the writing process from the preliminary to the presentation phase (WT2–3). Also of much practical use are the pages titled “Answering the question” (WT4–5), in which questions often asked in examinations or assignments are classified into six types and important verbs to be used in each type of questions are listed.

In terms of the models offered, there are some differences between *iWriter* and *Tutor*. For example, *Tutor* but not *iWriter* includes two pages of information about how to write a longer essay or dissertation with extra information about ways of quoting and writing a bibliography. Information of these kinds is very useful when writing academic papers. *Tutor* also explains how to write a summary so that the user can organize the ideas and condense the essential information. In addition, **Discussing pictures and cartoons** in *Tutor* is missing in *iWriter*. This model in *Tutor* contains very useful information about how to describe and interpret a picture or cartoon together with a variety of

practical expressions in Language banks. Also missing in *iWriter* are the model for writing a letter to a newspaper and the complete section on writing business, academic and American style emails. *Tutor*, on the other hand, includes neither the model of writing a letter of enquiry or an experienced candidate CV offered in *iWriter*.

Considering these differences, it can be concluded that *Tutor* is more resourceful than *iWriter*. Therefore, users are better advised to read the contents of *Tutor* carefully before starting work on a writing project with *iWriter* or, at least, to frequently refer to *Tutor* while writing an essay.

#### **8.2.4. Some functional shortcomings of *iWriter***

The interaction of *iWriter* with the dictionary part of *OALD8-CD* is quite useful as the user can consult *OALD8* whenever necessary while using *iWriter*. However, there are some shortcomings with respect to the overall usability of *iWriter*. The first problem to be pointed out is that when the user double-clicks on a word to look it up in the dictionary, a new window opens just in the center of the computer screen, hiding part of the *iWriter* window where the search target is displayed. It is true that the small dictionary window can be moved away so that the hidden part can be seen, but once the user closes the dictionary window and looks up a word again, the dictionary window always reappears in the center as before.

Second, changing models or frameworks in *iWriter* is not an easy task. Even if the user wants to look at another model or framework of writing, it is always necessary to go back to the Home window, choose the mode again and then choose the model or framework that s/he wants to use. Another problem occurs when the user wants to switch from the model mode to the write mode, or vice versa. When changing modes, the user is always led to the same type of writing. So, whenever the user wants to change the framework within the same type of writing, s/he has no choice but to go back to Home.

The outermost frame of *iWriter* is resizable but the *iWriter* window can never be made to look larger irrespective of the size of the computer

display in use. It is quite troublesome that the user always has to scroll down when s/he wants to look at the later part of the model writing or his/her own writing. Considering that *iWriter* emphasizes the importance of the structure and organization of writing, giving the overview of the writing should also be considered essential.

Moreover, the file-managing functions on *iWriter* are very disappointing. Although the write mode has the functions of loading and saving files, the files created on *iWriter* are not compatible with any software running on Windows®, which means that *iWriter* must be used every time the user wants to revise files. Similarly, as the type of files made through its exporting function is limited to the text file format, no information about page formatting or the choice of fonts can be saved.

The next problem is related to another new feature of *OALD8*. As described in Section 4, one of the notable characteristics of *OALD8* is the presentation of the Academic Word List and *iWriter* also tries to make use of the list. When the user clicks on the **Highlight Academic Word List** tab on the toolbar in the top right of the *iWriter* window, words included in the list are highlighted in red. This function seems quite useful at first glance, as it offers very convenient visual cues to find words regarded as academic. However, when the user tries to follow the advice given in the *iWriter* help, the insufficiency of this function will soon be apparent. Although the *iWriter* help advises the user to aim to have about 10% of academic words in any academic writing, the percentage of academic words used in the writing is not available in *iWriter* because it does not have a word counting function. If Oxford lexicographers seriously recommend 10% coverage of academic words in any academic writing, *iWriter* should be equipped with the functions to count words and calculate the percentage of the academic words included in the paragraphs written by its users<sup>7</sup>.

The last, but not the least, problematic point to be noted is that *iWriter* itself cannot detect any spelling or grammatical errors. Nor does it have any functions of checking the structure or organization of the essay written by the user. All *iWriter* can do is urge the user to pay attention to important points during the process of writing by giving

instructions, asking questions, or providing checklists. Although *iWriter* claims itself to be interactive, the user will find it no better than a plain text editor.

### 8.2.5. Writing assistants in other EFL dictionaries

Before concluding this subsection, we must consider other EFL dictionaries in terms of writing assistants. *CALD3* provides very short references to essay writing that only list frequently used phrases and the example sentences with them. On the other hand, *Longman Writing Assistant* in *LDOCE5-DVD* is actually a mini-dictionary that corresponds to *GENIE* in *OALD8-CD*.

Both *iWriter* and *Tutor* are focused mainly on the structural and organizational aspects of writing essays, which clearly contrast with another very resourceful writing assistant included in the middle matter of *MED2*. The pages of *Improve Your Writing Skills* (IW1–50) in *MED2* provide the user with a wide variety of practical corpus-based linguistic information useful when writing for academic purposes. The information included in this writing assistant ranges from how to add information and describe similarities and differences to how to summarize and draw conclusions. It also offers grammatical sections with detailed advice concerning the usage of articles, complementation, and so on. It is hard to determine which writing assistant in the two learners' dictionaries is more effective for improving users' writing skills, as their approaches to academic writing are different. Hopefully, a good combination of these two types will be available for use in the near future.

## 8.3. Other features of *OALD8-CD*

### 8.3.1. My Topics

*OALD8-CD* includes 350 topic dictionaries called "My Topics," which group words into 15 different subject areas, such as culture, education, society, work, etc. Excerpts from *OALD8* entries are provided in these topic dictionaries and the user can browse the topics or search for a particular word in the dictionaries.

The notable usefulness of **My Topics** is that the user can create his/her own collections of vocabulary. At the bottom of the “**List of topics**” is a “**My topics**” folder where the user’s personal glossaries can be stored. Considering that Atkins and Rundell (2009: 239) refer to the “customizability” and “personalizability” as among the key features of future electronic dictionaries, the function of creating the user’s “own” dictionary can be regarded as a step towards a new generation of learner’s dictionary. From this perspective, however, it is regrettable that this function is not satisfactory for the user in many respects. First, the ways of adding entries to **My Topics** are confusing in that the plus button on the menu bar on top must be clicked on when the user wants to add a single entry whereas another button located in the bottom left corner must be used for all the search results to be added to **My Topics**. Only a careful user would readily recognize the difference between these two buttons. This function should let the user choose which entries to be added to the file by, for example, the combination of pressing the control key and clicking on the mouse. Another problem with **My Topics** is concerned with its file-managing function. Each topic in the user’s own **My Topics** can be saved as an independent file and can be used on any *OALD8-CDs* installed in other computers. The file type, however, is not compatible with other software and the files cannot be opened on computers on which *OALD8-CD* is not installed. Moreover, the lack of printing functions is considered fatal.

### 8.3.2. Activities

The “Activities” part of the new edition is significantly improved in comparison with the “Exercises” in the *OALD7-CD*. This part is composed of three sections: Academic Word List, Topic Vocabulary, and Dictation. In each of these sections, *OALD8-CD* offers the user a variety of exercises on word meanings, word families, collocations, and so on. In “Dictation,” in addition, the user can do listening exercises in five different varieties of English, namely, British, American, Canadian, Australian, South African, plus a mixture of all varieties.

These exercises are very helpful for English learners’ self-study.

However, the activities part in *OALD8-CD* pales in comparison with its equivalents in other EFL dictionaries. The most notable disadvantage of *OALD8-CD* is the lack of a function of recording the user's study history. All this CD version can do is offer different combinations of the same limited number of exercises so that the user is forced to answer the same questions repeatedly, irrespective of whether or not the correct answer has already been made. *LDOCE5-DVD*, on the other hand, appropriately records the user's study history and, moreover, tells the user how many words s/he has mastered in the particular set of vocabulary exercises.

### 8.3.3. Resources

The Resources part provides 27 different downloadable worksheets in PDF (56 pages in total) which can be used in classrooms to enhance learners' dictionary skills. A wide variety of contents are offered in this "Dictionary Skills" section and these worksheets are doubtlessly "whiteboard-friendly" as *OALD8* claims on its website. The Resources part also includes grammatical information and the lists of the Oxford 3000™ combined with the lists of language study terms and "Academic Words" as well as maps of major English-speaking countries. From these additional contents in the CD-ROM version, it is certain that *OALD8* pays significant attention to teacher-users who are supposed to constitute a large part of readership of EFL dictionaries.

### 8.3.4. Genie

Genie is quite useful in that the user can get a search result only by moving the mouse cursor over the target word without having to click on it. However, there are a couple of problems that need to be solved. The greatest problem is that Genie cannot be used for multiword entries. For example, in the case of *pre-teach*, the results shown are either *pre-* or *teach* and the expected result is not displayed unless the hyphen between the prefix and the root of the word is deleted. This drawback is not limited to hyphenated compounds but each component of other multiword entries is also recognized as a separate word.

Another problem occurs when the user wants to go back to the full dictionary. In order to return to the main dictionary part from Genie, the user has to click on the **BACK TO DICTIONARY** tab on top. However, as the Genie window is so small by default that it is often confused with an extra pop-up window, the user is tempted to click on the close button in the top right corner. It is inconsistent with the operations of the small extra window displayed when any word in the main part of the *Dictionary & Culture* is clicked on. In the case of the pop-up dictionary, clicking on the close button leads the user back to the original search target, while the **GO TO ENTRY** tab takes the user to the entry displayed in the small window.

(Section 8 by Kozaki)

## 9. Conclusion

*OALD8* can be said to be a minor upgrade version of the previous edition. There have not been many changes in the print edition in terms of design and information provided. While there are attempts at inclusion of new words, phonetic notations, sense arrangements, shortcuts, definitions, and examples are basically unchanged. The provision of pronunciation to compounds, the indication of important senses and phrasal verbs, and effort to illustrate each verb pattern can be counted among the plusses brought to the new edition. However, there are redundancies (headword list and usage notes) and inconsistencies (phonetic notation and Oxford 3000<sup>TM</sup>). The mismatches between the titles of usage notes and the contents have a detrimental effect on consultation.

There are improvements and problems to *OALD8-CD*. The improvements include the user-friendly interface, maintenance of the headwords deleted from the print edition, and integration of the *Language & Culture* dictionary. However, there are still a few discrepancies between the transcriptions and the recorded sounds. Extra examples are not yet grouped according to the senses and are not provided effectively with many redundancies. Much effort has to be invested to clear technical problems and inconveniences inflicted in the way of comfortable dic-

tionary consultation. *i-Writer* is a welcome addition but it has to move far away from its print counterpart to grow into a truly interactive writing resource.

*OALD* was the EFL dictionary and led the field. It was a solid dictionary, characterized by detailed verb patterns and difficult but precise definition. After a certain time, there are more innovations that (belatedly) adopted from other dictionaries than those developed by the dictionary: usage notes (by 4/e from *LDOCE1*), defining vocabulary (by 5/e from *LDOCE1*), use of bold to indicate set phrases in examples (by 5/e from *LDOCE2*), corpus basis (by 5/e from *COBUILD1*), short cuts (by 6/e from *LDOCE3*), and full-sentence definition (by 6/e from *COBUILD1*). In a period of transition toward e-dictionary-dominant lexicography, there has been a lack of significant innovations, and there seems to be a general decline of standard of dictionary compilation with the level of inconsistencies and redundancies that was not tolerated before. The innovation and high degree of craftsmanship associated with the pioneering *OALD* are hoped for in the next version.

## NOTES

### Section 1

1) The authors would like to express gratitude to Professor Young-Kuk Jeong and Dr. Susanna Bae for their comments and to Professor Geoffrey Miller for his help with the final draft.

2) For the abbreviations of dictionaries, see "DICTIONARIES" (pp. 65–66).

3) In the foreword to *ISED*, Hornby acknowledges Palmer: Without the foundation laid during the years 1923–36 by Dr. Palmer this volume could not have been prepared in its present form.

4) According to Kihara and Masaoka (1973: 10), it is no exaggeration to say that practically every English-Japanese learner's dictionary which came after *ISED* was influenced by and benefited from that dictionary.

5) Although the disk packaged with the print edition of *OALD8* is actually a DVD-ROM, we refer to the electronic edition as a CD-ROM for convenience's sake because *OALD8* itself calls it a CD-ROM.

### Section 2

1) Other US spelling variants, **decaliter** and **decameter**, are still presented under the headwords **decalitre** and **decameter**, respectively.

2) See *The New York Times'* 2006 article "How to Select a Pressure Washer"; URL:

<http://www.nytimes.com/2006/09/24/realestate/24home.html?n=Top/Reference/Times%20Topics/Subjects/W/Water&pagewanted=all> (accessed June 30, 2011).

3) For example, the fourth episode of the Die Hard series (*Live Free or Die Hard*) was premiered in 2007. We can also assume the influences of other movies like Hannibal Lecter series (*Hannibal Rising*, premiered in 2007) and the Indiana Jones series (*Indiana Jones and the Kingdom of the Crystal Skull*, premiered in 2008).

4) The noun use of **dwarf** in the sense of “a very small star” is included only in *MED2*.

5) There are subtle differences of spelling between *CALD3* and *OALD8*. For example, **food miles** is in the plural form in *CALD3* whereas the singular form is used in *OALD8*. Also, **carbon offsetting** in *CALD3* is entered as **carbon offset** in *OALD8*. The headword **tajine** is provided as the main headword with **tagine** as a variant spelling in *CALD3*, which is the other way round in *OALD8*.

6) We list **malware** twice here as *CALD3* lists this entry in the subjects of both technology and recent changes in the English language (blend words).

7) The number in square brackets indicates the sense number of the headword in question.

#### Section 4

1) This table is based on Table 11 in Ishii (2011: 188). There are 1,000 words in each word family level.

2) The same pages are used as samples in sections 2 and 4.

#### Section 6

1) The notes of the latter type appear mainly in the CD-ROM edition.

2) The note at **task** appears only in the CD-ROM edition. Thus if it is counted in, the total amounts to 204. Actually, the number decreases from *OALD7*'s 213, which contains **asleep, broken, cheerful, outside, pay, prisoner, serious** (severe/critical/grave), **speaker, and spend**. The notes at **ad, break, dot, effect**, and **material** have been moved to **advertisement, rest, patch, result** (with the change of the list), and **fabric**, respectively.

3) It was introduced at the same time as “Synonyms” articles themselves in *OALD7*.

#### Section 7

1) [http://elt.oup.com/catalogue/items/global/dictionaries/oxford\\_advanced\\_learners\\_dictionary\\_8th\\_edition/?cc=global&selLanguage=en](http://elt.oup.com/catalogue/items/global/dictionaries/oxford_advanced_learners_dictionary_8th_edition/?cc=global&selLanguage=en) (accessed on February 28, 2012)

2) There have been the following changes in the titles between the seventh and eighth editions: “Boats” (R2) to “Boats and ships” (V44), and “Houses” (R17) to “House” (V15).

3) Out of 13 illustrations provided for the entries beginning “a” in *OALD7*, eight have been taken away, and one (that at **angle**) moved to the Visual Vocabulary Builder. Incidentally, the two editions offer different kinds of information on illustrations included. *OALD7* mentions “2,000 words illustrated” and “32 pages of colour illustrations” (back cover) provides a list of 235 illustrated headwords in “Illustrations” in the Reference section (R97–98). On the other hand, *OALD8* makes reference to “64-page colour *Visual*

*Vocabulary Builder*" (back cover) and gives the list of Visual Vocabulary Builder contents (V1).

#### Section 8

1) In the online version, different parts of speech of a word are treated under separate headings, while they were subsumed under one head word. I (Yamada) noticed this change on October 6, 2010.

2) *CALD3-CD* offers three options for the font size together with the same sound options as those in *OALD8-CD*, whereas these options are not available in *LDOCE5-DVD*.

3) The "backtracking" function on the hand-held electronic dictionary of 2005 onward is capable of recording 1,000 words that the user has consulted, so that s/he can access them again without input. We owe this information to Mr. Yuichi Kobayashi of Casio Computer Co., Ltd.

4) The help pages of the CD-ROM do not refer to the very small downward-facing triangular button to open the list of previous search results. This button is located on the top bar between the arrows to go to the previous and the next search result.

5) The numbers following the type of models of **Comparison** and **Argument** do not make sense to the user. Although it is expected that *iWriter* offers more than one model of writing, multiple frameworks are offered only in the write mode.

6) Although clicking on "brainstorm" opens a pop-up dictionary in *OALD8-CD*, there is no sense offered of the verb *brainstorm* used here. The user is not able to get the idea of brainstorming until s/he looks up the *-ing* form of the word. Furthermore, *OALD8* defines *brainstorming* as follows: "a way of making a group of people all think about sth at the same time, often in order to solve a problem or to create good ideas" (emphasis added). This definition does not exactly help the user to understand the meaning of *brainstorm* given in *iWriter*.

7) We add, just for information, that the percentage of academic words included in the model passage of **Comparison 1** is 6.7% (25 academic words in 370 words) and that of **Argument 1** is 7.3% (28 academic words in 380 words).

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# Who is a Lexicographer?

HENNING BERGENHOLTZ  
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## 1. Introduction

Lexicography can be and has to be regarded as an independent discipline—no longer a subdiscipline of linguistics or a form of applied linguistics or even applied lexicology. Long gone are the days with the focus merely on the linguistic contents of dictionaries and the discussion about dictionaries exclusively dealt with by linguists. We recognise the fact that the linguistic contents will always be an important feature of certain dictionaries, but it is as important to realise that many aspects of the practice of lexicography as well as the theoretical discussions go beyond the realm of linguistics. This does not only apply to subject field dictionaries, e.g. dictionaries of psychology or chemistry where linguistics plays no role in the planning or compilation, but also to general language dictionaries where the success of the dictionary consultation process is not only determined by the linguistic contents but also by the structures and the functions of the dictionary. A good dictionary allows a specific user in a specific situation of use to retrieve the information that he/she needs for solving a specific problem. Access to the relevant data and the selection and presentation of data in such a way that the required lexicographic function can be achieved, remain of prime importance.

However, when speaking about lexicography it is of extreme importance to have an unambiguous interpretation of that person or those persons involved in the discipline, i.e. those people calling themselves lexicographers. In the lexicographic discussions of the past centuries,

this question has never really been posed. People have worked with different assumptions regarding this issue and even among lexicographers no clear answer has been given, as can be seen in the dictionary definitions of the word *lexicographer* given in the following paragraphs:

- (1) “a person who writes or compiles a dictionary” (*Webster’s New World College Dictionary*)

This dictionary gives the following synonyms for the word *lexicographer*:

dictionary writer, definer, etymologist, philologist, polyglot, dictionary maker, dictionarist, lexicologist, lexicographist, glossarian, glossarist, glossologist, glossographer, glottologist, philologer, vocabulist, phonologist, philologian, phonetician, phoneticist, wordsmith\*; see also linguist

The word *compile* can be understood as “to collect and arrange (material) into a list, book, etc.” (*Pocket Oxford Dictionary*). The definition of *lexicographer* allows for more than the mere writing of a dictionary by making provision for the collection and arrangement of the material. However, this definition restricts the scope of the word *lexicographer* to someone participating in the lexicographic practice. With the exception of *dictionary writer* the synonyms are at best partial synonyms which are heavily context-dependent.

- (2) “a compiler or writer of a dictionary; a student of the lexical component of language” (*WordNet @ 2.0*)  
Synonym: lexicologist.

This definition ascertains the explanation of the previous definition but adds another dimension, i.e. “a student of the lexical component of language”. This broadens the scope of the meaning of the word *lexicographer*, bringing the theoretical component of lexicography into play. The given synonym is once again misleading and adds to the confusion regarding the boundaries of lexicography as an independent discipline.

- (3) “an author or editor of a dictionary” (*Merriam Webster’s Online Dictionary*)

In this definition the word *editor* may be seen as comparable to *compiler*

in the previous definitions. Nothing new is added and the definition lacks reference to the theoretical component of lexicography.

- (4) “A person devoted to lexicography is called a lexicographer.”  
(*Wikipedia, the Free Encyclopedia*)

The *Wikipedia* definition goes unspecified in terms of theory or practice.

- (5) “One who writes dictionary definitions” (*Urban Dictionary*)

This definition in the *Urban Dictionary*, an internet dictionary compiled by subscribers to the website, does not only limit the scope of the word *lexicographer* to someone participating in the lexicographic practice but further to one specific part of the lexicographic practice. The writer of a bilingual dictionary offering translation equivalents is excluded by this definition from being called a lexicographer. This exclusion also applies to the authors of many other dictionary types like word frequency dictionaries, pronunciation dictionaries, orthographic dictionaries, etc.

In contrast to these definitions in general dictionaries, the lexicographers of two dictionaries focusing on lexicographic terms explicitly acknowledge that someone involved in the writing of dictionaries as well as someone participating on a theoretical level could be called a lexicographer:

- (6) “One who engages in lexicography, either as a compiler or as a metalexicographer.” (Hartmann and James: *Dictionary of Lexicography*)  
(7) “A lexicographer is a person specialising in *lexicography* as the practice, result, and theory of dictionary-making, i.e. a specialist in *metalexicography* regarded as lexicographic research and/or a dictionary maker or editor.” (Burkhanov: *Lexicography*)

Although they increase the scope of the meaning of the word *lexicographer* these dictionaries still fail to clarify the nature and extent of the involvement in the theory and practice.

The most famous definition of a lexicographer, albeit not the most accurate, remains that by Samuel Johnson (1755), as presented in his

*Dictionary of the English Language:*

- (8) "A writer of dictionaries; a harmless drudge that busies himself in tracing the original, and detailing the signification of words."

In this article, it is not contested that a lexicographer might be a harmless drudge but it is argued that a broader spectrum of people involved in the theoretical and practical activities should be regarded as lexicographers—and that these people are not, as some synonyms given in dictionary articles indicate, lexicologists or linguists. When working as lexicographers they are involved in an independent discipline, lexicography, albeit that their primary work might be in a different discipline.

## 2. Different kinds of experts working as lexicographers

The thesis is that lexicography as an independent discipline should be taken seriously. Of course this does not imply that lexicography has no relations to other scientific disciplines. Neither does it imply that lexicography cannot be classified under another scientific discipline. But it is not a subdiscipline of linguistics. Many metalexicographers working within linguistic departments regard lexicography as part of linguistics and often as part of applied linguistics. This can be explained by the fact that the recent metalexicographic theories introduced since 1970 have primarily been formulated by scientists attached to linguistic departments and involved on a practical and theoretical level with general language communication dictionaries. The term *communication dictionaries* (often mistakenly referred to as "language dictionaries")<sup>1)</sup> refers to those reference works that assist specific user types with text reception, text production and translation problems. Where these dictionaries deal with the general language, two types of experts are required:

- (1) at least one lexicographic expert, and
- (2) at least one language expert, i.e. a linguist.

In other cases additional experts are required for the compilation of communication dictionaries. This is especially true for subject field

dictionaries, where a subject field expert undoubtedly needs to participate in the compilation of the dictionary, e.g. when compiling a text reception dictionary for music. In for instance Bergenholtz (1996) or Bergenholtz et al. (2009) the most important co-worker has been

- (3) a subject field expert.

A comparable argument applies to bilingual subject field dictionaries where at least three types of experts are needed:

- (1) lexicographic experts,
- (2) subject field experts, and
- (3) language for special purposes experts from the relevant subject field.

In for instance Kaufmann and Bergenholtz (1998) the participating molecular biologist had no linguistic expertise but he had at least a partial command of the language for special purposes from the field of molecular biology for both English and Spanish. In principle it is possible that one person can fulfil both or all three expert roles but this would rather be the exception. It is important to realise that these dictionaries, e.g. of music or molecular biology, may not be regarded as the results of lexicography as a subdiscipline of linguistics. With regard to linguists and lexicographers, we are dealing with two different, and in the case of subject field dictionaries, with three or more groups of experts:

- (1) Linguists, e.g. general linguists, Anglicists, Germanic or Romanic scholars, etc.—always working within the field of the humanities.
- (2) Subject field experts working in their specific scientific fields.
- (3) Lexicographers whose field of expertise, lexicography, can be seen as part of information science which could be regarded as both a social and a natural science.

Both linguists and scientists from other scientific disciplines can be regarded as lexicographers when they participate in the planning and compilation of a dictionary. However, they can only be regarded as experts in their own subject field; they are not lexicography experts

with the necessary metalexigraphic expertise.

### 3. Different categories of lexicographers

The preceding paragraphs have focused on the different experts participating in the compilation process of different types of dictionaries. In the earlier paragraphs it has been argued that people involved in the planning and compilation of dictionaries as well as those people engaged in lexicography on a theoretical level should be seen as lexicographers. In this regard it is important to have a clear picture of the nature and extent of this involvement. The scope of the term *lexicographer* should not be restricted too much. In its interpretation it could be useful to look at the scope of some other words referring to a given activity, occupation or job.

The *South African Concise Oxford Dictionary* defines the word *chef* as “a professional cook, typically the chief cook in a restaurant or hotel”. The word *cook* is defined by the same dictionary as: “a person who cooks, especially as a job.” The way in which the word *cook* is used in general language shows that it can refer to different categories of people participating in the process of cooking. The word can refer to any person doing the cooking of a meal at a specific time, e.g. “Today my husband has been the cook in our house.” It can, as the given dictionary definition indicates, refer to someone who does cooking as a profession, i.e. a person with the necessary training in this field or who is a trainee in a kitchen. It could also refer to the chief cook, i.e. the person in charge of other cooks, although the word *chef* will likely be used here. On account of their participation in related activities, teachers in a school for chefs could also be referred to as cooks and sometimes even someone writing reviews of dishes, restaurants, etc. (“She is our magazine’s cook.”) Similarly words referring to other occupations can have more than one interpretation to refer to people involved in different aspects of the specific occupation.

Within the broad field of lexicography, a diverse range of participants can be identified. These include people writing dictionaries—dictionaries dealing with both language for general purposes and languages for

special purposes, someone writing about dictionaries, someone reviewing dictionaries, someone teaching lexicography as a subject, someone being trained in theoretical lexicography and someone with a degree or diploma in lexicography. All these people can be referred to as lexicographers. One can further make a more general distinction between people involved in the lexicographic practice, i.e. those compiling dictionaries, and those discussing dictionaries theoretically. This distinction partly resembles that made by Wiegand (1984: 13)—‘partly’ because Wiegand does not give explicit features of the two categories of lexicographers. Within the category of people involved in theoretical lexicography, one can distinguish different subcategories—in line with the distinction Wiegand (1984: 15) makes between the different components of theoretical lexicography, i.e. the history of lexicography, the formulation of a general theory of lexicography, dictionary criticism and dictionary use. People writing about these topics can thus be regarded as lexicographers, because writing about lexicography is part of metalexicography. It is, however, important that these discussions have to be related to dictionaries. A mere discussion of the history of the lexicon or a lexicological analysis of lexical items should not qualify as (meta)lexicographic activities and the people involved in these activities do not qualify as lexicographers. With regard to a study of the lexicon, it is important to note that lexicology has to be regarded as a subdiscipline of linguistics but that lexicography is not a subdiscipline of or the practical application of lexicology. Lexicologists are therefore not lexicographers. Similarly people working within the field of terminology who coin new terms are terminologists and not lexicographers. However, the lexicographic presentation of terms, also known as terminography, is part of lexicography, i.e. that part of lexicography dealing with languages for special purposes, and a terminologist who is involved in the making of LSP dictionaries is therefore also regarded as a lexicographer.

Dictionaries are often compiled by people with a linguistic training. In the compilation of dictionaries dealing with language for general purposes, the linguistic contents of these dictionaries play an important

role and, as indicated earlier, when working on these dictionaries, these linguistic experts are lexicographers. This does not imply that all lexicographers have to be linguists or need to have a linguistic training. In the compilation of LSP dictionaries, linguistic training has little or no influence. Here the expertise from the relevant subject field and the expertise to plan and produce a good dictionary will determine the success of the eventual product. These subject field experts are lexicographers on an equal basis as the linguists working on general language communication dictionaries but they are by no means to be classified as linguists.

Although people from different subject fields who participate in the planning and compilation of dictionaries can be regarded as lexicographers, the tradition since more or less 1970, the time when lexicography came to the fore as part of university curricula, has been that the majority of lexicographers attached to institutions of higher learning, are accommodated in departments or institutes of languages or linguistics. Lexicography courses are also typically offered in these departments or institutes. This is a historical fact and does not reflect the reality of modern-day lexicography and modern-day lexicographers. With lexicography endeavouring to give access to data, an institute or department of information science might be a much more applicable venue for this discipline, emphasising once more that when working on their dictionaries, lexicographers are not linguists and when subject field experts work on a dictionary, they are lexicographers.

Although lexicographic training has to be regarded as important and although theoretical expertise can play an active role in enhancing the quality of a dictionary, it does not imply that a dictionary compiled by a non-expert in the field of lexicography is necessarily a bad dictionary or that a dictionary compiled by an expert in the field of lexicography is necessarily a good dictionary. Only a brief look at a few existing dictionaries gives more than enough evidence of the failure of many trained lexicographers to compile a good product. One of the reasons underlying both the success and the failure of lexicographic products can be found in the fact that a dictionary, any dictionary, is a tool conceptual-

ised and compiled to assist specific users with specific needs in specific situations of use. If this assistance is not achieved, the lexicographer runs the risk of having produced a bad dictionary. Success in this regard implies a good dictionary—whether written by an expert or a lay person. An example of a successful dictionary written by a lexicographic lay person is the dictionary compiled in the year 1800 by Jens Leth, a Danish priest. He compiled this dictionary for young people preparing themselves for confirmation in the church. Part of their assignment in this preparation process was to read edifying texts. However, the problem was that they only had four years of school education and that they found the reading of these texts extremely difficult. With his dictionary, *Dansk Glossarium. En Ordbog til Forklaring over det danske Sprogs gamle, nye og fremme Ord og Talemaader for unge Mennesker og for Ustuderede* (*Danish Glossarium. A Dictionary with Explanations of Old, New and Foreign Words in the Danish Language for Young People and those who have not Studied*), Leth attempted to provide these students with a tool that could assist them in understanding these texts. It is not known whether this dictionary had been a commercial success but it was successful as a lexicographic product, aimed at the specific needs of specific users in a specific situation of dictionary use.

Since the advent of theoretical lexicography, one also finds lexicographers restricting their lexicographic endeavours to the level of meta-lexicography. They may have an excellent theoretical knowledge of dictionaries, the planning of dictionaries, the structures, functions and contents of dictionaries without ever having ventured into the lexicographic practice. On account of their involvement in the theory of dictionaries, they qualify as lexicographers. But just as a lecturer in a chef school will not necessarily be a good cook when it comes to the preparation of a meal, the meta-lexicographer will not necessarily be a successful writer of a dictionary. When asking who is a lexicographer, one has to recognise those people writing dictionaries but equally those people writing about dictionaries. In the cooking world, it is accepted that the proof of the pudding is in the eating thereof; in an ideal lexicographic world, the proof of the theory is in its practical application and there-

fore the success of the endeavours of a metalexigrapher is determined once his/her theories are put to practice.

#### 4. Conclusion

In the process of trying to define the word *lexicographer*, it has become clear that a lexicographer could be a person with a practical and a theoretical involvement in lexicography. The theory of lexicography is theory formulated in order to enhance the quality of the lexicographic practice. The theoretical lexicographer strives to formulate theories and theoretical models that can be put to practice by the practical lexicographer. The theoretical lexicographer aims his/her theories in the first instance at the planning and compilation of dictionaries, not only general language communication dictionaries but also dictionaries belonging to a vast typological range. Important as these theories may be to lexicography, they often have a much wider scope and can play an important role in the planning and compilation of other sources of reference in order to give users the best possible access to data contained in these sources.

#### NOTE

1) The expression "language dictionary" is misleading because it also refers to dictionaries that have not been conceptualised as an aid in concrete communication problems like the reception, production or translation of texts, e.g. etymological dictionaries or frequency dictionaries.

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# Noun-Verb Stress Alternation: Its Nineteenth-Century Development and Its Earlier Historical Backgrounds<sup>1)</sup>

RYUICHI HOTTA

## 1. Introduction

Aside from the general propensity of a disyllabic word to attract stress towards its first syllable, there is one predominant stress pattern recognised in Present-Day English (PDE): a diatonic, or stress-alternating, contour in noun-verb homograph pairs of which the noun is stressed on the first syllable (“paroxytonic”) while the verb on the second (“oxytonic”). Although the stress alternation has been well-known to students of English, there has not been much attention paid to its diachronic aspects or its historical background.

The best of its kind, a study made by Sherman helps to gain historical insight into the problem. He investigated how noun-verb homographs have shifted their prosodic contours through history by means of dozens of lexicographical and grammatical references mainly from the early Modern English period (EModE). A perhaps surprising discovery of Sherman’s includes the fact that diatones of the type *récord* (n.) – *recórd* (v.) account for no more than 11.41 per cent of all the disyllabic noun-verb homographs in the PDE vocabulary whereas isotones of the type *prómise* (n.) – *prómise* (v.) or the type *resúlt* (n.) – *resúlt* (v.) comprise 88.59 per cent.<sup>2)</sup>

Other enlightening findings of Sherman’s include the facts that “during the 17th and 18th centuries there were fewer noun-verb diatones than at the present time” and that “the creation of stress alternation is

more likely to occur as stress-retraction in an oxytonic pair than to occur as stress-advancement in a paroxytonic pair" (53). In other words, noun-verb homographs of the *résult* type have historically been the major source of innovative diatones. Plotting the growth of diatones diachronically from the sixteenth-century onwards, he revealed that they spread in a way that is reminiscent of the earliest phase of what theorists of language change have referred to as a lexical diffusion, a process in which change tends to start slowly, speeds up at a "take-off" point, usually placed at somewhere from 5 to 20 per cent of the population,<sup>3)</sup> and then slows down again towards the end of the diffusion with a long tapering tail.

I will not attempt here to give a full review of Sherman's or any other study,<sup>4)</sup> but will make three points that have remained unquestioned or unexplored in the previous studies of the present subject and therefore must be addressed particularly in this paper. Firstly, since the end point of a diachronic enquiry into diatones should be the present, a good updated list of diatones must be compiled in place of the outdated one by Sherman which was based on mid-twentieth-century British and American English. Although any attempt to update a list of items that are subject to change at this very moment should be more or less an underestimation, it is a necessary step to take since a revised list will provide a methodological starting-point, though a chronological end-point, from which to trace the historical development of diatones backwards in time.

The second aim of this paper is to describe the nineteenth-century development of diatones as closely as possible. Sherman examined the seventeenth to eighteenth centuries, but left the nineteenth-century nearly untouched. He only extrapolated the nineteenth-century configuration from evidence of the preceding centuries and a cursory observation of the first half of the twentieth-century. As I have attempted to investigate the twentieth-century configuration elsewhere<sup>5)</sup> to complement his cursory treatment, one of my purposes in the present study is to focus on the nineteenth century so that the four-century history of the diatonic stress pattern can be evaluated on an accumulation of facts

from individual periods including the least examined century.

In Section 4, I will give a historical account of conditions that would have contributed to the emergence and development of the diatonic stress pattern in EModE and afterwards, with reference to the preceding periods, as far back as Old English (OE) and even earlier. The historical background is worth discussing not only because hardly any studies of diatones have made a serious attempt to address the question from a long-term historical point of view, but also because one of the fundamental questions that students of a language change must ask is the actuation problem, i.e. why it happened at the time that it did, but not at another time.<sup>6)</sup> I will propose that the cumulative effect of several historical linguistic conditions, though apparently not related, was relevant to the diatonic stress pattern emerging and then becoming more and more productive from the EModE period onwards.

## 2. Updating a list of diatones

Although ideally I would compile as close to an exhaustive list as possible, such a list would likely be difficult to obtain. One reason is that an exhaustive list of words that are subject to an ongoing language change would have to be always updated. Another reason is that a list will always vary in its contents according to which references and how many of them are consulted and whether stress patterns are consulted only in standard varieties of English. Yet another concern is about how to categorise an item that allows variation in its stress pattern.

The following are my assumptions in constructing the list. The list should be inclusive in the way that words are considered diatonic if any of the standard references consulted, whether of the British or American variety, points to a possible diatonic stress pattern. Admittedly, such an inclusive approach could result in an overestimation of diatones, but one justification would be to keep the result as closely comparable as possible to Sherman's, which was equally inclusive. It is also justified on theoretical grounds in that every language change must entail variation, although every variant does not result in a language change. On the other hand, my list is conservative in the sense that

diatonic neologisms of which dozens must have been added to the English vocabulary over the last decades have not been searched for in any systematic way. In other words, I have not attempted to make exhaustive searches for diatones in the major dictionaries of the late-twentieth- and early twenty-first-centuries.

The following list contains 227 diatones that I have collected from various sources. About two-thirds of the diatones are taken from Sherman's 150 diatones, of which four (i.e. *exile*, *outlaw*, *recast*, and *repeat*) have been left out because I was not able to confirm their diatonic status by any of the contemporary references *LPD3*, *EPD17*, and *OED2*. The rest of the list are diatones from miscellaneous sources, including those that have by now shifted from Sherman's isotones, and those listed in Fudge (189–92) and Jespersen (*Modern* 173–82). The seventy-six items with a star are those that recur in the nineteenth-century references I consulted, as we will see in the next section.

\**abject*, *absent*, \**abstract*, \**accent*, *addict*, *address*, *affect*, *affix*, *alloy*, *ally*, *annex*, \**aspect*, *assay*, \**augment*, *blackmail*, \**bombard*, *cement*, *chagrin*, \**colleague*, \**collect*, *combat*, *combine*, \**commerce*, *commune*, \**compact*, \**complot*, \**comport*, \**compound*, \**compress*, \**concert*, *concord*, \**concrete*, \**conduct*, \**confect*, \**confine*, \**conflict*, *congress*, *conscript*, \**conserve*, \**console*, \**consort*, *construct*, *consult*, *content*, \**contest*, \**context*, \**contract*, \**contrast*, *control*, \**convent*, \**converse*, \**convert*, \**convict*, \**convoy*, *costume*, *curvet*, *damask*, *decline*, *decoy*, *decrease*, *default*, *defect*, *defile*, \**descant*, \**desert*, *detail*, *dictate*, \**digest*, *discard*, *discharge*, \**discord*, *discount*, *discourse*, *dislike*, *dismount*, *dispatch*, *dispute*, \**efflux*, *egress*, *eject*, *employ*, *ensign*, *entail*, \**entrance*, \**escort*, \**essay*, *excerpt*, *excise*, *exploit*, \**export*, \**extract*, \**ferment*, *finance*, *foment*, \**forecast*, \**foretaste*, *gainsay*, *humdrum*, *impact*, *implant*, \**import*, \**impress*, *imprint*, *impulse*, \**incense*, *incline*, *increase*, *indent*, *infix*, *inflow*, *ingress*, \**inlay*, *inlet*, *insert*, *inset*, *instinct*, \**insult*, *intern*, *intrigue*, *invert*, *invite*, *legate*, *levant*, *mandate*, *masthead*, *misprint*, \**object*, *offset*, *outcast*, *outcry*, *outgo*, \**outleap*, \**outlook*, *outpour*, *outspread*, *outstretch*, *outwork*, *perfect*, *perfume*, *permit*, *pervert*, *placard*, *post-date*, *prefect*, \**prefix*, \**prelude*, \**premise*, \**presage*, \**present*, *proceed*, *process*, \**produce*, \**progress*, \**project*, *prolapse*, *prospect*, \**protest*, *purport*, *rampage*,

*rebate, \*rebel, rebound, rebuffer, rebuild, recall, recess, recharge, recoil, \*record, recount, redraft, redress, refill, refit, refund, \*refuse, \*regress, rehash, reject, relapse, relay, remake, replay, report, \*reprint, rerun, research, reset, \*retail, retake, retard, retort, retouch, retread, revise, rewrite, romance, segment, sojourn, sub-let, \*subject, sublease, surcharge, surmise, \*surname, surtax, \*survey, suspect, \*torment, \*traject, \*transfer, transform, transplant, transport, transverse, traverse, turmoil, \*undress, upcast, update, upgrade, uplift, upright, uprising, uprush, upset, and \*upstart.*

To the list I may add the following *re*-neologisms, which I have found in an unsystematic search of *OED2*: *re-let, recon, redo, refan, regrind, rejig, relaunch, remodel, remould, resit, and rethink*. They are out of consideration in the present study, however, since they are diatonic items whose nominal or verbal use came into being only in the second half of the twentieth century and whose earlier history therefore cannot be traced.

### 3. Nineteenth-century development

To examine the nineteenth-century development of diatones, I consulted six popular dictionaries that represent the century, five of the American variety and one of the British (Table 1).<sup>7</sup> For the sake of diachronic comparison, they are broadly divided into three periods, *ca.* 1830, *ca.* 1860, and *ca.* 1890.

Table 1: Nineteenth-Century Dictionaries Consulted

<i>ca.</i> 1830	<i>ca.</i> 1860	<i>ca.</i> 1890
<i>Web1828</i>	<i>Wor1860</i>	<i>Web1890</i>
<i>R1837</i> (BrE)		<i>Whit1891</i>
		<i>F1894</i>

The survey revealed that the seventy-six items (those with a star in the list given in the previous section) were diatonic throughout the century, that is that they had become diatonic by the early nineteenth-century and continued so until the end of the century.

Let us now look at innovative diatones from one period to the next. Figure 1 graphically represents the differentials among the periods as

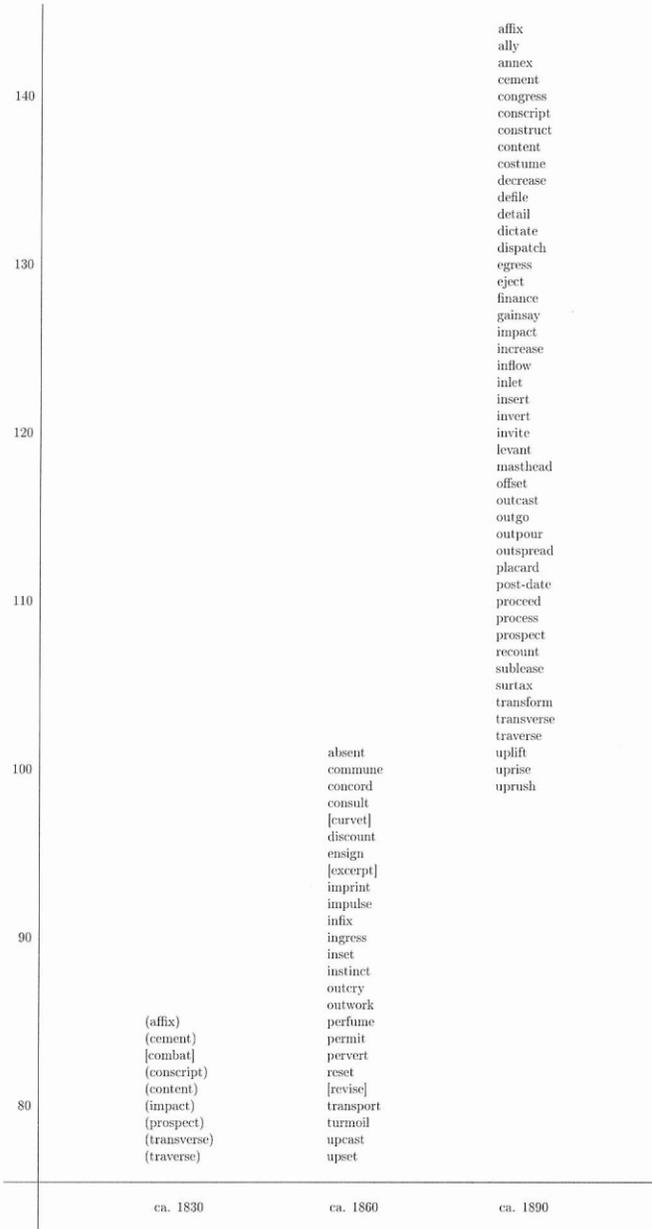


Figure 1: Growing Class of Diatones over the 19th Century<sup>8)</sup>

well as the cumulative totals of diatones, with the seventy-six items in the previous section implicitly understood for all the periods.

An overview of the facts allows me to make two points. The first is that more diatones were added between the last two periods than between the first two (a total of 86 circa 1830, 101 circa 1860, and 144 circa 1890). This may be practically due to the greater number of dictionaries consulted for *ca.* 1890, but the greater spread towards the end of the century is no less interesting because Sherman's corresponding graph (an extrapolated one, to be precise, for his lack of nineteenth-

### Lexical Diffusion of Diatones

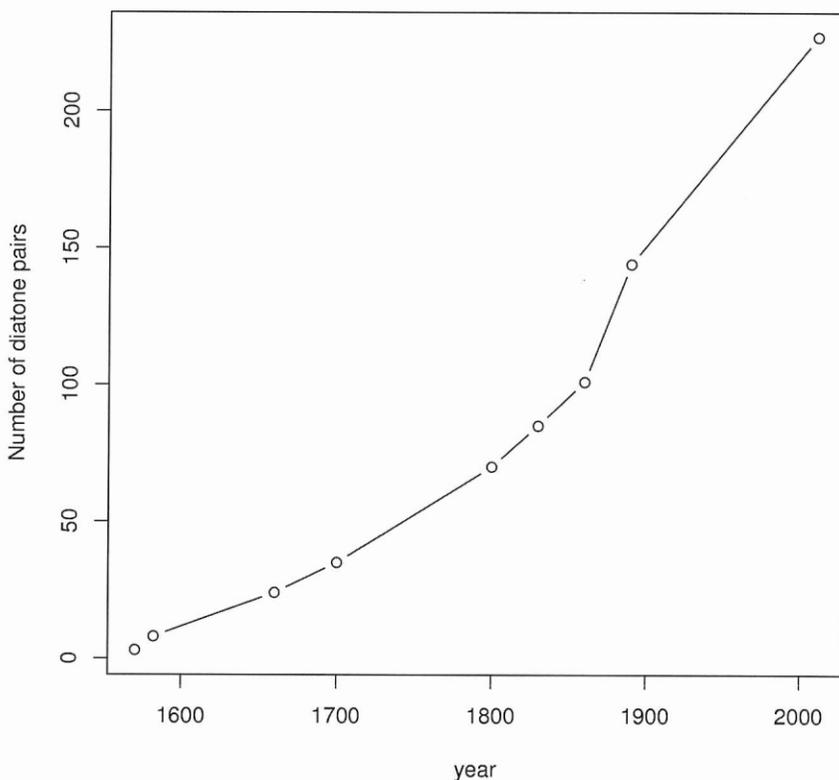


Figure 2: Diffusion of Diatones up to the Present

century evidence, as I mentioned earlier) neither showed so steep a curve nor so large a number of diatones for the latter half of the century.

Secondly, although the steeper curve between *ca.* 1860 and *ca.* 1890 might suggest a possible take-off in the diffusion of diatones, the twentieth-century development slowed down, as presented in Figure 2<sup>9</sup>) as if the rapid growth in the late nineteenth-century had been an abortive take-off or merely a haphazard boom. It is to be concluded in hindsight that it was not a real take-off but only a fluctuation that may recur before a potential take-off point to come. The late nineteenth-century case shows that estimating a long-term change from a short-term point of view can be prone to a premature conclusion.

#### 4. Historical explanation

The furthest back one might get to find out any sign of the stress alternation is Proto-Indo-European. Aside from its theoretically reconstructed forms, there is evidence attested from the oldest Indic and Hellenic languages to suggest that compounds of preposition plus noun were older than those of preposition plus verb (Jespersen, *Modern* 173–74).

That nominal compounds were attested earlier than their verbal counterparts in old Indo-European languages is arguably linked with the fact that OE had compounds that showed noun-verb stress alternation. As a Germanic language, OE regularly showed primary stress on the stem of a word, i.e. the stem syllable in a monosyllabic word or the syllable immediately following the prepositional prefix in a polysyllabic word. There was, however, an important exception to the rule as far as polysyllabic words were concerned. As Campbell (30) remarks:

The main exception to this rule [a stress accent upon the first syllable] is due to the fact that in Germanic a syntactic combination of prepositional adverb with verb was not yet a single word at the time when the main stress of words was fixed on the first syllable, and such combinations ultimately developed into compound words stressed on the second element. These remain in the West Germanic languages: OE *apénčan* devise, *oþfléon* flee, *wipsácan* deny.

OE stress-alternating pairs likely supplied a model for the productive process of noun-verb stress alternation that was to emerge much later in EModE, until which period they retained their potential to initiate the effect.

Another diachronic process, as long-standing as the one mentioned above, that indirectly led to increased productivity of stress alternation was the gradual levelling and eventual loss of the inflectional system from the late OE through early Middle English (EME) to the late Middle English (LME) period. In the period of "full inflection" (OE), nouns had one set of inflectional endings while verbs had another (e.g. *lufu*, *lufe*, *lufa*, *lufum*, etc. for the noun; *lufian*, *lufie*, *lufast*, *lufa*, etc. for the verb); in the following period of "levelled inflection" (EME), it was increasingly difficult to distinguish through morphology alone between nouns and verbs, in particular in the "base" forms (e.g. the nominative singular *love* and the infinitive *love(n)*); in the final period of "lost inflection" (LME and afterwards), nouns and verbs fell into one and the same form in many of their inflections (e.g. the nominative singular *love* and the infinitive *love*). As a result of the inflectional levelling and loss, the morphological process of conversion, or zero-derivation, became possible. The loss of inflection alone cannot have triggered conversion, but it is safe to say that it set the stage for conversion, and then for the noun-verb stress alternation as well since the former is a pre-requisite for the latter.

Yet another linguistic reorganisation that was going on sometime from ME to EModE was the development of two distinct stress rules that have survived, if modified, to this day: the Germanic Stress Rule (GSR) and the Romance Stress Rule (RSR).<sup>10</sup> There has recently been argument over when the latter began to exert a major influence on the accentual system of English. The traditional view is that it was in the course of ME when RSR developed along with the extraordinary influx of French vocabulary in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.<sup>11</sup> The more recent observation, as noted by Minkova, postpones to EModE the critical period of RSR becoming significantly influential.<sup>12</sup> In this view, it was not French loanwords in ME but Latin loanwords abun-

dantly introduced in early ModE that raised RSR to a fundamental principle alongside the entrenched GSR which it threatened to overtake. Considering that free variation of stress patterns within a word is a pre-requisite for the part-of-speech governed stress alternation, the proposition that RSR established itself only in EModE would be illuminating in that it would coincide with the earliest attestation of diatonics.<sup>13)</sup>

The huge influx of Latin vocabulary in the sixteenth century can be seen as a contributor to the diatonic stress pattern from another point of view. In addition to their supposed effect on the stress system of the language, Latin loanwords themselves provided a rich source of disyllabic, and therefore potentially stress-alternating, words, with morphological structure of predominantly prefix plus base.

One final factor, with diachronic as well as synchronic dimensions, concerns rhythmic alternation that characterises the prosody of English, and indeed many languages. Kelly (107) finds that “disyllabic verbs were more likely than disyllabic nouns to receive an inflection that adds a syllable onto the word” and that “[b]ecause such syllables are weakly stressed, rhythmic alternation would be created if the disyllabic word received on the second syllable (e.g., ‘suggesting’) rather than the first (‘promising’).” Thus disyllabic verbs are typically followed by inflectional suffixes such as *-ing*, *-ed*, *-(e)s*, the first of which invariably adds a syllable while the second and the third do so only if the stem ends in a dental plosive (/t/ and /d/) or sibilant (/s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʒ/, and /ʒ/), respectively. On the other hand, the only inflectional suffix that nouns take is the plural or possessive *-(e)s*, the syllabic status of which depends on the same phonological environment as for its homophonous suffix to the verb. Kelly (113) reports, “In particular, noun-verb homographs are more likely to possess contrasting stress patterns if they end in the dental stops /t/, as in “suspect,” and /d/, as in “record.”<sup>14)</sup> The statistical difference between nouns and verbs that arise from the different suffixes they take may not be too acute if significant, but, as Kelly (110) argues, an accumulation of slight behavioural differences in innumerable daily utterances would amount to a propensity for disyllabic nouns

towards a paroxytonic pattern and for disyllabic verbs towards an oxytonic pattern.<sup>15)</sup>

Kelly's argument, however, may not give a strong account for the historical emergence of diatones in EModE because such suffixes as *-ed* and *-(e)s* had mostly lost their syllabic status by then and therefore the motives behind disyllabic verbs preferring an oxytonic pattern would have weakened if not totally disappeared.<sup>16)</sup> Nevertheless, I still find it reasonable to argue that the previously developed distinction in stress position between nouns and verbs at least oriented their later development (i.e. nouns towards a paroxytonic pattern and verbs towards an oxytonic pattern), thus pushing along the line developed far back by the OE model. I will not put too much emphasis on the possible historical role that Kelly's proposed morphonological effect might have played, but it is potentially one of the underlying conditioning factors that made indirect contributions to the emergence and development of diatones.

In the above, I have enumerated some historical background conditions against which noun-verb stress-alternating pairs might have appeared. By EModE, the stage had thus been set for noun-verb stress alternation to be actuated whenever the relevant factors might become extensive enough to overcome a threshold of linguistic equilibrium. Conversion was now a common method of lexeme formation due to the loss of inflectional endings; the variability in stress placement in the wake of the introduction of RSR would have enabled converted nouns/verbs to vary in stress; a large influx of Latin disyllabic word stock would have readily fed into such conversion; and there was always a model of noun-verb stress alternation that dated back to OE or earlier and that was arguably supported also by the respective rhythmic biases of nouns and verbs.

If these conditioning factors were not sufficient, another factor of fundamental importance applied: pursuit of formal and functional distinctness. Although conversion was (and actually is) an extremely convenient mechanism for lexeme formation, the obvious downside (or in fact the definition) was the lack of a formal distinction between semantically related but syntactically different pairs of words. Noun-verb

homonyms do not necessarily lead to a systemic catastrophe because they belong to different syntactic categories, but this is not to say that a device that can help to distinguish formally between a pair of related words would be unwelcome. I argue, therefore, not that noun-verb stress alternation started to be a productive mechanism for lexeme formation simply because the historical conditions for it were fulfilled by EModE, but that a universal psycholinguistic pursuit of formal as well as functional distinctness combined with the historically prepared conditions to allow speakers to take advantage of the prosodic device of stress alternation to distinguish between converted nouns and verbs.

To sum up the discussion above, one answer to the question of why diatones developed as they did particularly in EModE would be that several historical factors, apparently unrelated to one another, coincided in that very period to produce a cumulative effect that allowed diatones to achieve greater productivity.

## 5. Conclusion

The present study first compiled an updated list of diatones. It then complemented past diachronic studies on noun-verb diatones by sorting out evidence from nineteenth-century dictionaries. The survey of the nineteenth-century development not only enabled a better understanding of the diffusion of diatones, especially the steepening curve towards the end of the century, but also suggested how the diffusion in each period must be viewed in relation to those in adjacent periods.

The last section finally addressed the question that has been left relatively unexplored: why diatones developed when they did, during the EModE period. Various historical factors were recognised, but any single factor would have been too weak to resolve the actuation problem. Rather, it is most likely that a combination of apparently irrelevant factors coincided in the particular period to produce a cumulative effect to make diatones viable.

I will close the paper by mentioning a number of questions left to be addressed as to the diachronic development of diatones. Despite the emphasis that many of the past studies understandably put on the

twentieth-century development of diatones, a large amount of PDE evidence is yet to be sorted out. It will be useful, for example, to chronologise innovative diatones into the subperiods of some thirty-year intervals as in the present study. As I argued above in a limited way, it will also be rewarding to enquire into how different word-final sounds might affect the schedule of noun-verb homographs shifting to diatones. Another related question might concern why homographic adjectives such as *abstract* and *subject* tend to behave in line with their nominal rather than verbal counterparts in terms of stress patterns.

The shift of noun-verb homographs to a diatonic pattern is an ongoing and increasingly productive process which deserves more attention than it has received. It is worth a closer examination not only to consider where to place it within complex systems of PDE stress patterns but also as a currently observable, if long-standing and historically motivated, example of lexical diffusion.

#### NOTES

1) This study was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (B) for 2011 (No. 21720178) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS), an organisation to which I wish to express my thanks for their generous financial assistance.

2) Isotones are broken down into oxytones of the *promise* type at 72.24 per cent and paroxytones of the *result* type at 16.35 per cent. The other logically possible type, that is oxytonic for the noun and paroxytonic for the verb, is effectively unknown in English, as Fudge considers it an "inviolable rule" (166).

The full breakdown of Sherman's counting regardless of the number of syllables is as follows:

- noun-verb homographs (3,896)
  - monosyllabic (2,139)
  - disyllabic (1,315)
    - diatonic (150)
    - isotonic (1,165)
      - paroxytonic (950)
      - oxytonic (215)
  - polysyllabic (442)
    - diatonic (70)
    - isotonic (372)

3) The average take-off point as suggested here is, as I understand from Rogers (12, 274, and 360), based on the empirical findings of general diffusion studies.

4) A review of Sherman's study is given in Section 2 of Hotta's paper. Another large-scale survey by Sonderegger and Niyogi, just distributed as a preprint, adopts a mathematical approach in describing and explaining the historical stress shift of diatones and comes with a rich data set culled from dozens of historical dictionaries and other references on their website. Their data include nineteenth-century stress shifts on which the present study focuses, but their target items are restricted to Sherman's 150 while my own survey considers 227 items that I have compiled in addition to Sherman's. Besides, my interest lies more on the diachronic diffusion of diatones than on the psycholinguistic motives behind stress shift, or what they call dynamical systems models.

5) Hotta's paper deals with the twentieth-century evidence of diatones within the framework of lexical diffusion.

6) One of the fundamental questions as to language change proposed by Weinreich et al. (102) is: "What factors can account for the actuation of changes? Why do changes in a structural feature take place in a particular language at a given time, but not in other languages with the same feature, or in the same language at other times? This *actuation problem* can be regarded as the very heart of the matter."

7) It must be admitted that the dictionaries consulted are biased in favour of American English and represented unevenly in chronological terms. One inevitable reason for this is that the lexicographical activities in the nineteenth-century were predominantly American, with the two Webster's editions marking the early and late parts of the century, inspiring other non-Websterian American lexicographers through the century. On the other hand, the British lexicography of English remained relatively stagnant until the *OED* project was launched in the last quarter of the century. The first edition of *OED* (*OEDI*) was consulted for the present purpose of examining the nineteenth-century configuration, but despite the earliest fascicles being published before the turn of the century, the dictionary as a whole was completed as late as 1928, so that it may not be qualified as a proper representative of nineteenth-century British English.

8) Parentheses in the *ca.* 1830 column designate words that fail to appear in the *ca.* 1860 column (apparently not so much because they represent real diachronic changes as because of the contingency of the references consulted) while they reappear as diatones in the *ca.* 1890 column. Likewise, square brackets in the *ca.* 1830 and *ca.* 1860 columns designate words not represented in any of the references consulted for *ca.* 1860 and *ca.* 1890, respectively. All the other words unmarked in a column should be assumed to be included in the column to its immediate right. The top of the ladder in each column corresponds to the cumulative number of diatones attested for the period.

9) The pre-nineteenth-century section of the curve is taken from Sherman (54–55), while the twentieth-century section is, admittedly rougher than the nineteenth-century counterpart, mine.

10) For historical accounts of the competition between the two rules, see Lass (Vol. 2, 85–90) and Lass (Vol. 3, 125–28).

11) One of the original and best statistical witnesses to rich French loanwords in ME is Jespersen (*Growth* 86–87).

12) Minkova notes (172–73):

[I]n spite of the influx of 10,000 Romance loanwords, words of Germanic origin continued to constitute the bulk of the core vocabulary of Middle English,

accounting for seventy-five to ninety-five per cent of the word-stock, depending on register. It was only during the Renaissance that the balance began to shift in favour of non-Germanic patterns, bringing about the co-existence of two typologically different systems of stress in modern English.

- 13) Levins in 1570 named three words as diatonēs: *outlawe*, *rebel*, and *recorde*. They are the first recorded noun-verb diatonēs.
- 14) Of all the 227 diatonēs listed in Section 2, those ending in dental plosives account for 121 (53.30 per cent).
- 15) Kelly and Bock (398–99) address rhythmic alternation from a syntactic point of view. Their study reveals that the stress patterns of words surrounding verbs and nouns pressure verbs into iambic contours more than nouns. They also point to a striking correlation between the historical direction of conversion (from noun to verb or the other way round) and the stress contours of the homograph pairs. Their argument thus supports a morpho-syntactic pressure that is applied on disyllabic nouns towards a paroxytonic pattern and disyllabic verbs towards an oxytonic pattern.
- 16) Dobson (Section 310) dates the loss of non-final *e* in inflectional endings to “comparatively early in the fifteenth century,” but also notes (Section 311) that the loss was “less rapid and complete in some cases than in others” and that “-*ed* was still often a separate syllable until the end of the seventeenth century” as well as *-est* and *-eth*.

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# Contrastive Research between the Folio Edition and the Abstracted Edition of Samuel Johnson's English Dictionary

MASATO KATANO

## 1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to conduct a contrastive analysis of the folio edition of *A Dictionary of the English Language* by Samuel Johnson published in 1755 [henceforth "the folio"] and its abstracted edition published in 1756 [henceforth "the abstract"].

Section 2 in this paper will negate the concurrent-compilation presumption of the folio and the abstract, and it will affirm the presupposition of my research that the abstract was compiled through the process of abridging the folio after the folio was published.

Section 3 will conduct the contrastive analysis between the folio and the abstract.

Section 4 will conduct the research on Johnson's participation in the compilation of the abstract.

The Johnson's dictionaries used in this research are the reprinted edition of the first edition of the folio published by Yushodo Booksellers Ltd. in 1983, and the reproduced edition of the first edition of the abstract published by Kenkyusha Ltd. in 1985.

## 2. Negation of the concurrent-compilation presumption of the folio and the abstract

This research was conducted under the presupposition that the folio was first published, followed by the abstract which was published

through the process of abridging the folio. However, it is presumed by some scholars that the folio and the abstract were compiled concurrently. This section will attempt to negate this presumption.

Dille states that “from the outset of the *Dictionary* project, Johnson clearly conceived of different classes of dictionary users and understood that a significant proportion of the literate populace would not only find the folio dictionary too expensive but also superfluous to its language needs.<sup>1)</sup>”

Hayakawa states that “it would be natural to think that as he was engaged in the lexicographical work, Johnson gradually came to hold the idea that he would publish the larger edition for the learned and the abstracted edition for the general readers<sup>2)</sup>” [translated by the writer of this paper].

Furthermore, Reddick states that “they [the booksellers] may have intended all along to publish an abridgement, delaying its publication in order not to discourage potential buyers from purchasing the two-volume folio edition.<sup>3)</sup>”

However, this concurrent-compilation presumption will be negated based on the following two points and it should be thought that the abstract was compiled anew by abridging the folio.

- (1) The typographical errors in the folio are corrected in the abstract.

Ex.: EASILY *adv.*

(folio)

(abstract)

1. Without difficulty.

1. Without difficulty.

3. Without pain; . . . .

2. Without pain; . . . .

3. Readily; . . . .

3. Readily; . . . .

Note that the number 3 assigned to the definition “Without pain” in the folio is revised to the number 2 in the abstract.

- (2) Some new information, which is not included in the folio, is added to the abstract, as is shown in (a) and (b):

(a) As is indicated in 3.2.7.(6) below, some definitions of the folio

are expanded to include some additional words in the abstract. Dille also states that “a number of definitions are subtly improved; for example, *addle-pated*, ‘having addled brains,’ is altered to ‘having barren brains’ in order to avoid repetition of the headword.<sup>4)</sup>”

- (b) As is indicated in 3.2.9.(5) below, in some cases, the definition which is missing in the folio is described in the abstract. Dille also states that “in the case of *ragamuffin* the definition was missing in the folio, and ‘A paltry mean fellow’ is supplied in the abstracted edition.<sup>5)</sup> Dille further shows the example that “a new sense 2 for *canticle* is added, ‘The song of Solomon,’ a sense that does not appear in the folio editions.<sup>6)</sup>”

It can be assumed that if the folio and the abstract had been compiled concurrently, the revisions in the abstract indicated above would also have been incorporated in the folio.

### **3. Contrastive analysis of the folio and the abstract**

#### **3.1. Aim and method of the research**

In order to clarify the principles in the process of compiling the abstract from the folio, the investigation was made concerning the headwords in the abstract which correspond to the headwords on every 50th page of the folio.

#### **3.2. Results of the investigation**

##### **3.2.1. Number of pages**

- (1) The folio:

There were a total of 45 pages analyzed, and after the 45th page, an additional 13 pages remained. Therefore, the total pages in the folio amount to 2,263 pages as a result of the calculation “50 pages × 45 pages analyzed + 13 remaining pages = 2,263 pages.”<sup>1)</sup>

- (2) The abstract:

The first volume and the second volume comprise 540 pages and 544 pages respectively, and hence the total pages in the abstract amount to 1,084 pages.<sup>2)</sup>

### 3.2.2. Number of headwords

#### (1) The folio:

The number of headwords in the folio can be estimated to be 42,695 words based on the following calculation “849 words×50 pages×(2,263 pages÷(50 pages×45 pages analyzed))=42,695 words.”

#### (2) The abstract:

The number of headwords in the abstract can be estimated to be 40,482 words based on the following calculation “42,695 words×(805 words÷849 words)=40,482 words.”

### 3.2.3. Headwords

Table 1 lists the deleted headwords from the folio in compiling the abstract, which have been identified as a result of the investigation of every 50th page of the folio.

Table 1 Deleted headwords from the folio

Analysis page No.	First word	Last word	Num. of words in folio	Num. of words in abs.	Deleted words	Part of speech	Category
1	TO AGREE	AGUISHNESS	20	16	AGRESTICK or AGRESTICAL	adj.	Dictionary word
					AGRICOLA-TION	n.s.	Dictionary word
					AGUE PROOF	adj.	Compound
					TO AGUISE	v.a.	Obsolete word
2	APRONED	AQUILINE	21	19	AQUA MIRA-BILIS	(Not shown)	Foreign word
					AQUA REGIA or AQUA REGALIS	(Not shown)	Foreign word
3	TO BARBER	BARGAIN	19	18	BAREGNAWN	adj.	Compound
4	LASPHE-MOUSLY	TO BLAZON	14	13	BLATTERA-TION	n.s.	Derivative
5	BUNGLE	BURGH	32	31	BUR, BOUR, BOR	(Not shown)	Variant spelling

6	CHAIRMAN	CHAMBER	18	17	CHALK-PIT	n.s.	Compound
7	COESSENTIALITY	COFFIN-MAKER	23	22	COFFIN-MAKER	n.s.	Compound
8	CONSCIOUSNESS	CONSEQUENCE	21	20	CONSECUTIVELY	adv.	Derivative
9	CRAWFISH	TO CREATE	20	20			
10	DEFAME	DEFECTIVE	21	21			
11	DISCIPLINABLENESS	DISCOMFORT	17	17			
12	DRINK	TO DRIVE	11	10	DRIPPLE	adj.	Derivative
13	TO ENGRAPPLE	TO ENJOY	19	19			
14	EXTRAORDINARY	EXTREMITY	19	19			
15	FINE	FINERY	10	10			
16	FOUNTFUL	FRACTURE	31	31			
17	GIRASOLE	TO GISE	21	21			
18	GUNNERY	TO GUT	24	24			
19	TO HISS	TO HIT	15	14	HISTRIGNICALLY	adv.	Derivative
20	IMMINUTION	IMMURE	29	28	IMMORTALLY	adv.	Derivative
21	INSIGNIFICANT	INSOBRIETY	24	24			
22	KINGCUP	KITCHEN-STUFF	23	23			
23	LIGHTER	LIGHTSOMENESS	18	18			
24	TO MANAGE	MANDATE	18	18			
25	TO MISAPPLY	TO MISCAST	22	21	MISBEHAVED	adj.	Compound
26	NEAT	NECESSITY	19	19			
27	ONSET	TO OPE, TO OPEN	17	17			
28	TO PARSE	PART	10	10			
29	PIMP	PINCH	13	13			
30	TO PREDICATE	PREENGAGEMENT	18	18			
31	PUNICE	PUPPET-SHOW	23	22	TO PUNT	v.n.	Unclear etymology
32	TO RECOGNISE	RECOMPENSE	20	20			
33	RHETORICAL	RIB	21	21			
34	SAY	TO SCALD	21	21			
35	SETWAL	SEVERAL	16	16			
36	SLEAZY	SLEEPER	10	10			
37	TO SPIRIT	TO SPIRITUALIZE	13	13			
38	STRAIT	STRANGE	10	10			
39	SWEET	SWEETMEAT	13	13			
40	THRIFTY	THROE	13	12	THRO'	(Not shown)	Abbreviated word
41	TROUBLESOMELY	TRUANTSHIP	17	17			

42	UNAIMING	UNAPPEASED	29	7	1)		Derivative
43	UNSAFE	TO UNSEAM	27	24	2)		Derivative
44	WEAKSIDE	TO WEAR	16	16			
45	WRANGLE	WREATH	13	12	WREAKLESS	adj.	Unclear etymology
Total			849	805			

- 1) UNAIMING adj., UNAKING adj., UNALIENABLE adj., UNALLAYED adj., UNALTERABLE adj., UNALTERABLENESS n.s., UNALTERABLY adv., UNALTERED adj., UNAMAZED adj., UNAMBITIOUS adj., UNAMENDABLE adj., UNAMIABLE adj., UNANALYSED adj., UNANCHORED adj., UNANELED adj., UNANIMATED adj., UNANIMITY n.s., UNANIMOUSLY adv., UNANSWERABLY adv., UNAPPARUELLED adj., UNAPPARENT adj., UNAPPEASED adj.
- 2) UNSALUTED adj., UNSCOURED adj., UNSCRATCHED adj.

(1) Parts of speech:

The following is the number of deleted headwords shown in Table 1 in light of part of speech. It should be noted that the number of verbs is smaller than those of the other parts of speech among the deleted headwords:

Adjective	26
Noun	6
Adverb	6
Verb	2
Not shown <sup>3)</sup>	4

(2) Word categories:

(a) Derivative words and compound words:

Table 2 shows the number of deleted headwords shown in Table 1 by category. It should be noted that derivatives account for the largest portion of the deleted headwords and that compounds account for the second largest. That may be because the meanings of derivatives and compounds can easily be surmised if the dictionary-user knows the meanings of the base of a derivative or the simple words for a compound. The same interpretation is presented by Dille<sup>4)</sup>.

(b) Foreign words and dictionary words:

The "foreign word" in Table 2 signifies the word whose headword is italicized in the folio. Johnson himself says that "it will

Table 2 Number of deleted headwords by category

Category	Number of deleted headwords
Derivative word	30
Compound word	5
Foreign word	2
Dictionary word	2
Words with unclear etymology	2
Obsolete word	1
Abbreviated word	1
Variant spelling	1

be proper to print those which are incorporated into the language in the usual character, and those which are still to be considered as foreign, in the Italick letter.<sup>5)</sup>

Furthermore, the “dictionary word” signifies the word which was not found in any book other than the dictionaries prior to Johnson’s folio.

(c) Obsolete words:

The only obsolete headword that was eliminated from the folio is the word “TO AGUISE.” This shows that Johnson did not regard obsolete words as a target of elimination. The same interpretation is presented by Hayakawa<sup>6)</sup>.

### 3.2.4. Typographic features

(1) The use of italic type:

- (a) The headwords which Johnson thinks are foreign words and therefore not established as English words are italicized in both the folio and the abstract.

Ex.: CREANCE. *n.s.*

(folio) *CREANCE*

(abstract) *CREANCE*

- (b) In the folio, the headwords in quotations are italicized, which

method is observed in some English-Japanese dictionaries of today. In the example below, the digit shown before the definition signifies the definition number for the headword.

Ex.: FINE. *adj.*

(folio) 1. Not coarse.

Not any skill'd in loops of fingering  
*fine*, . . . . *Spenser.*

(abstract) 1. Not coarse.

(The quotation is deleted.) *Spenser.*

- (c) In the folio and the abstract, the headwords in definitions are italicized.

Ex.: CHALK. *n.s.*

(folio) *Chalk* is a white fossile, . . . .

(abstract) *Chalk* is a white fossile, . . . .

- (2) Unclear or blurred print:

Some letters are not printed clearly.

Ex.: (folio) (None of the unclear or blurred prints in  
DEFEAT, DISCLOSURE are observed.)

(abstract)

DEFEAT. *n.s.*

In the etymology, the letter *e* after  
the letter *d* in [from *defaire*,  
French] is not printed clearly.

DISCLOSURE. *n.s.*

In the first definition, the letter *o*  
after the letter *r* of the word *pro-*  
*duction* is not printed clearly.

### 3.2.5. Phrasal verbs

Each phrasal verb is treated as a separate definition, and the word for an adverb is italicized.

Ex.: To DRIVE. *v.a.*

(folio) 17. *To DRIVE out.*

(abstract) 15. *To DRIVE out.*

To HIT. *v.a.*

(folio) 5. *To HIT off.*

(abstract) 5. *To HIT off.*

To WRAP. *v.a.*

(folio) 4. *To WRAP up.*

(abstract) 4. *To WRAP up.*

### 3.2.6. Punctuation

- (1) A semicolon is used between definitions and a colon is used between a definition and an illustrative sentence, which method is observed in some English-Japanese dictionaries of today.

Ex.: FINE. *adj.*

(folio) 6. Clear; pellucid; transparent: as, the wine is *fine*.

(abstract) 6. Clear; pellucid; transparent: as, the wine is *fine*.

- (2) In some cases, the usage of a comma differs between the folio and the abstract.

To PINCH. *v.a.*

(folio) 1. To squeeze between the fingers, or with the teeth.

(abstract) 1. To squeeze between the fingers or with the teeth. (There is no comma in the abstract.)

### 3.2.7. Definition

- (1) For some headwords, the definition of the abstract is newly made based on that of the folio.

Ex.: BARBER-MONGER. *n.s.*

(folio) A word of reproach in *Shakespeare*, which seems to signify a sop; a man decked out by his barber.

(abstract) A sop decked out by his barber.

- (2) For some headwords, a part of the definition of the folio is eliminated and the remaining part of the definition is written in the abstract.

Ex.: BLAST. *n.s.*

(folio) 2. The sound made by blowing any instrument of wind musick.

(abstract) 2. The sound made by any instrument of wind musick.

To ENHANCE. *v.a.*

(folio) 2. To raise; to advance; to heighten in price.

(abstract) 2. To raise; to advance in price.

- (3) For some headwords, a word in the definition of the folio is replaced by another word and written in the abstract as a definition.

Ex.: BURGEOIS. *n.s.*

(folio) 2. A type of a particular sort, probably so called from him who first used it . . . .

(abstract) 2. A type of a particular size.

(The word "sort" in the folio is replaced by the word "size" in the abstract.)

- (4) Some of the headwords which need an encyclopedic explanation as a definition have a long and detailed description even in the abstract.

Ex.: AQUA FORTIS.

- (5) Some of the headwords which need an encyclopedic explanation have a long and detailed description in the folio but have a partially eliminated explanation in the abstract.

Ex.: PARSNEP. *n.s.*

(folio) A plant with rose and umbellated flowers,

. . . .

(abstract) A plant.

- (6) Some definitions of the folio are enlarged with an additional description in the abstract.

Ex.: CONSEQUENCE. *n.s.*

(folio) 4. The last proposition of a syllogism; . . . .

(abstract) 4. The last proposition of a syllogism introduced by therefore; . . . .

- (7) In the case of polysemous words, the first definition in the folio is not necessarily incorporated in the abstract.

Ex.: HISTORICAL. *adj.*

(folio) 1. Containing or giving an account of facts and events.

2. Suitable or pertaining to history or narrative.

(abstract) Pertaining to history.

SCAFFOLDING. *n.s.*

(folio) 1. Temporary frames or stages.

2. Building slightly erected.

(abstract) Building slightly erected.

(In the case of the above-mentioned headwords, HISTORICAL, SCAFFOLDING, the first definition in the folio is eliminated in the abstract, but the second definition in the folio is described as the definition in the abstract.)

- (8) The illustrative explanation of a word in the folio is sometimes partially eliminated in the abstract. That occurs especially in the case of the explanation beginning with "as . . . ."

Ex.: MISCELLANE. *n.s.*

(folio) Mixed corn: as, wheat and rye.

(abstract) Mixed corn.

IMMURE. *n.s.*

(folio) A wall; an inclosure, as in *Shakespeare*.

(abstract) A wall; an inclosure.

- (9) Some definitions can be regarded as those which show Johnson's contempt for Scotland. Some of those definitions remain even in the abstract but others are eliminated in the abstract. However, it is possible to think that those definitions do not show his contempt for Scotland but that they merely reflect the actual usage of the words in Scotland in those days.

Ex.: TO GIRN. *v.n.*

(folio) Seems to be a corruption of *grin*. It is still used in Scotland, and is applied to a crabbed, captious, or peevish person.

(abstract) Seems to be a corruption of *grin*. Applied to a crabbe, captious, or peevish person.

(The part "It is still used in Scotland, and is" is deleted. The letter *d* after *crabbe* is not printed in the abstract.)

Ex.: KIRK. *n.s.*

(folio) An old word for a church, yet retained in Scotland.

(abstract) An old word for a church, yet retained in Scotland.

- (10) In the same headword, a word with a different etymology has its own definition with its etymological information following its definition number in the folio. However, in the abstract, the etymological information is eliminated.

Ex.: SAY. *n.s.*

(folio) 4. [*Soie*, French.] Silk. Obsolete.

(abstract) 4. Silk. Obsolete.

- (11) There is a case where a definition in the folio is carefully revised in the abstract.

Ex.: TROUT. *n.s.*

(folio) 1. A delicate spotted fish inhabiting brooks and quick streams.

(abstract) 1. Delicate spotted fish inhabiting brooks and quick streams.

(In the abstract, the indefinite article *a* is deleted from the folio.)

- (12) There is a case where an unnecessary description in the folio is eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: BLAZE. *n.s.*

(folio) 3. *Blaze* is a white mark upon a horse, descending from the forehead almost to the nose.

(abstract) 3. A white mark upon a horse.

### 3.2.8. Etymology

- (1) The etymology of a compound word is shown as [... and ...].

Ex.: To FINEDRAW. *v.a.*

(folio) [*fine* and *draw*.]

(abstract) [*fine* and *draw*.]

- (2) When some different etymological words are shown in the folio, there is no consistency regarding which etymological word is shown in the abstract.

Ex.: IMMOBILITY. *n.s.*

(folio) [*immobilite*, French, from *immobilis*, Latin.]

(abstract) [*immobilite*, French.]

(The French etymological word is shown.)

IMMODERATE. *adj.*

(folio) [*immodere*, Fr. *immoderatus*, Latin.]

(abstract) [*immoderatus*, Lat.]  
 (The Latin etymological word is shown.)

- (3) The etymology which Johnson lacks confidence in is described as such in the etymological explanation of the folio, but such an explanation is eliminated in the abstract. Moreover, the etymology itself is sometimes eliminated in the abstract when Johnson lacks confidence in it. Furthermore, such a word itself is sometimes eliminated as a headword in the abstract.

Ex.: HIST. *interj.*

(folio) [Of this word I know not the original: probably it may be a corruption of *hush*, *hush it*, *husht*, *hist*.]

(abstract) (The etymology is deleted.)

GIRL. *n.s.*

(folio) [About the etymology of this word there is much question: *Meric Casaubon*, as is his custom, derives it from . . . Dr. *Hickes* derives it most probably from the Islandick *karlinna*, a woman.]

(abstract) [Islandick *karlinna*, a woman.]  
 (Only Dr. *Hickes*'s interpretation is shown.)

To THRIVE. *v.n.*

(folio) [Of this word there is found no satisfactory etymology: in the northern dialect they use *throdden*, *to make grow*; perhaps *throve* was the original word, from *throa*, Islandick, *to encrease*.]

(abstract) (The etymology is deleted.)

WREAKLESS. *adj.*

(folio) [I know not whether this word be miswritten

for *reckless*, careless; or comes from *wreak*,  
revenge, and means unrevenging.]

(abstract) (The word is deleted as a headword.)

### 3.2.9. Typographical errors

- (1) There are some cases where the order of headwords is wrong in the folio, but it is corrected in the abstract.

Ex.: (folio) To PREENGAGE. *v.a.*  
PREENGAGEMENT. *n.s.*  
To PREEN. *v.a.*  
To PREESTABLISH. *v.a.*

(abstract) To PREEN. *v.a.*  
To PREENGAGE. *v.a.*  
PREENGAGEMENT. *s.*  
To PREESTABLISH. *v.a.*

- (2) The error in the description of part of speech in the folio is corrected in the abstract.

Ex.: MANAGE.

(folio) MANAGE. *v.a.*

(abstract) MANAGE. *s.*

(In the folio, the part of speech should be written as "*n.s.*" but it is mistakenly written as "*v.a.*")

- (3) In some cases, part of speech is correctly shown in the folio, but it is either missing or mistakenly written in the abstract.

Ex.: BURGANET. BURGONET

(folio) BURGANET. BURGONET. *n.s.*

(abstract) BURGANET, or BURGONET.

(The part of speech is missing in the abstract.)

- (4) Either the opening part or the closing part of a square bracket is sometimes missing in the abstract.

Ex.: BUOY. *n.s.*

(folio) [*boue*, or *boye*, Fr. *boya*, Span.]

(abstract) [*boue*, or *boye*, Fr.

(The closing part is missing.)

To DRIVE. *v.a.*

(folio) [*dreiban*, Gothick; . . . , Saxon; *dryven*, Dutch.]

(abstract) . . . , Saxon.]

(The opening part is missing.)

- (5) In some cases, the definition is missing in the folio, but it is described in the abstract.

Ex.: OPAQUE. *adj.*

(folio) OPAQUE. *adj.* (The definition is missing.)

(abstract) OPAQUE. *a.* Not transparent.

- (6) In some cases, the typographical error in the folio is corrected in the abstract.

Ex.: INSIPID. *adj.*

(folio) NSIPID. *adj.*

(abstract) INSIPID. *a.*

(The first "I" in the headword is missing in the folio, but it is printed in the abstract.)

To ENJOY. *v.a.*

(folio) To ENJOY. *v.a.* [*jouir*, *enj uir*, French]

(abstract) To ENJOY. *v.a.* [*jouir*, *enjouis*, Fr.]

(The letter "o" is missing in the folio, but it is printed in the abstract.)

### 3.2.10. Usage information

The usage information of a word is eliminated in the abstract.

- (1) The folio sometimes has the information as to the appropriateness of a word or usage. However, such usage information is eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: To GIRT. *v.a.*

(folio) To gird; to encompass; to encircle. Not proper.

(abstract) To gird; to encompass; to encircle.

(The usage label "Not proper" is deleted.)

- (2) The folio sometimes has the information that the given word is used only by a particular author. However, such usage information is eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: To IMMORTALIZE. *v.n.*

(folio) To become immortal. This word is, I think, peculiar to *Pope*.

(abstract) To become immortal.

- (3) In the folio, the definition of a word sometimes includes the usage information as to the style of the given word or the attitude in using the word. However, such usage information is eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: LIGHTFOOT. *n.s.*

(folio) Venison. A cant word.

(abstract) Venison.

TROUBLOUS. *adj.*

(folio) Tumultuous; confused; disordered; put into commotion. An elegant word, but disused.

(abstract) Tumultuous; confused; disordered; put into commotion.

- (4) There is a case where the usage information as to the field in which a word is used is shown in the etymology in the folio, but it is eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: To OPE. To OPEN. *v.a.*

(folio) [open, Saxon; *op*, Islandick, a hole. *Ope* is used only in poetry, when one syllable is more convenient than two.]

(abstract) [open, Saxon; *op*, Islandick, a hole.]  
 (“*Ope* is used only in poetry, when one syllable is more convenient than two” is deleted in the abstract.)

- (5) The information as to the incorrect usage is shown in the folio, but it is eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: SLEDGE. *n.s.*

(folio) 2. A carriage without wheels, or with very low wheels ; properly a *sled*. See SLED.

(abstract) 2. A carriage without wheels, or with very low wheels.

To THRIVE. *v.n.*

(folio) pret. *throve*. and sometimes less properly *thrived*. part. *thriven*.

(abstract) pret. *throve*, *thrived*. part. *thriven*.  
 (“and sometimes less properly” is deleted in the abstract.)

### 3.2.11. Names of authors

- (1) In principle, in the folio, only the name of the author’s work is shown after the quotation, whereas in the abstract, only the name of the author is shown without a quotation from the author’s work.

Ex.: DEFEASANCE. *n.s.*

(folio) 4. A defeat; conquest; the act of conquering; the state of being conquered. Obsolete.

(a quotation) *Fairy Queen*.

(abstract) 4. A defeat; conquest. *Spenser*.

ENIGMATICALLY. *adv.*

(folio) In a sense different from that which the words in their familiar acceptance imply.

(a quotation) *Notes on the Odyssey.*

(abstract) In a sense different from that which the words in their familiar acceptance imply.  
*Brown.*

To GIRD. *v.a.*

(folio) 8. To furnish; to equip.

(a quotation) *Paradise Regain'd.*

(abstract) 8. To furnish; to equip. *Milton.*

- (2) In some cases, there is the name of an author or of the author's work in the folio, but there is no name in the abstract.

Ex.: KINSMAN. *n.s.*

(folio) A man of the same race or family.

(a quotation) *Spenser.*

(a quotation) *Dryden.*

(a quotation) *Dryden's Fables.*

(a quotation) *Addison on Italy.*

(abstract) A man of the same race or family.

FOURTEEN. *adj.*

(folio) Four and ten; twice seven.

(a quotation) *Shakespeare's Taming of the Shrew.*

(abstract) Four and ten.

### 3.2.12. Description of variant spellings

When a word has a variant spelling, the variant spelling is shown in the etymological information or in the definition in the folio. However, many of the variant spellings are eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: SLEAZY. *adj.*

(folio) [often written *sleazy*.]  
 (abstract) (No description)

PREEMINENCE. *n.s.*

(folio) [. . . It is sometimes written, to avoid the  
 junction of *ee*, *preheminnence*.]  
 (abstract) (No description)

### 3.2.13. Obsolete words

In the folio, there are some words with the label such as “not in use,” “a word out of use,” “obsolete” in order to show that they are obsolete words. However, these labels are usually eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: To FOUPE. *v.a.*

(folio) To drive with sudden impetuosity. A word  
 out of use.  
 (abstract) To drive with sudden impetuosity.  
 (“A word out of use” is deleted in the  
 abstract.)

FOURBE. *n.s.*

(folio) A cheat; a tricking fellow. Not in use.  
 (abstract) A cheat; a tricking fellow.  
 (“Not in use” is deleted in the abstract.)

SAY. *n.s.*

(folio) 4. [*Soie*, French.] Silk. Obsolete.  
 (abstract) 4. Silk. Obsolete.  
 (“Obsolete” remains in the abstract.)

### 3.2.14. Description of parts of speech

The descriptions of parts of speech in the abstract are abbreviated from those in the folio.

(folio) *adv.*   *adj.*   *n.s.*  
 (abstract) *ad.*   *a.*   *s.*

### 3.2.15. Lack of consistency in descriptions

- (1) Illustrative sentences are usually eliminated in the abstract, but they sometimes remain in the abstract.

Ex.: APTLY. *adv.*

(folio) 3. Readily; acutely; as, he learned his business very *aptly*.

(abstract) 3. Readily; acutely; as, he learned his business very *aptly*.

- (2) In the folio and in the abstract, inconsistency is observed in the way of defining a word in the case where the definition means a person who . . . .

Ex.: RECOGNISOR. *n.s.*

(folio) He who gives the recognisance.

(abstract) He who gives the recognisance.

RHETORICIAN. *n.s.*

(folio) One who teaches the science of rhetoric.

(abstract) One who teaches the science of rhetoric.

### 3.2.16. Subject labels

- (1) Some subject labels in the folio are eliminated in the abstract.

Ex.: CONSENT. *n.s.*

(folio) 5. In physick. The perception one part has of another, by means of some fibres and nerves common to them both; and thus the stone in the bladder, . . . .

(abstract) 5. The perception one part has of another, by means of some fibres and nerves common to them both.

KINGDOM. *n.s.*

(folio) 2. A different class or order of beings. A word chiefly used among naturalists.

(abstract) 2. A different class or order of beings.

(2) Some subject labels in the folio are also shown in the abstract.

Ex.: CHALLENGE. *n.s.*

(folio) 3. In law. An exception taken either against persons or things; . . . .

(The label is shown before the definition without a square bracket.)

(abstract) 3. [In law.] An exemption taken either against persons or things; . . . .

(The label is enclosed with a square bracket. The word "exception" in the folio is revised to the word "exemption" in the abstract.)

DEFAULT. *n.s.*

(folio) 4. [In law.] Non-appearance in court at a day assigned.

(The label is enclosed with a square bracket.)

(abstract) 4. [In law.] Non-appearance in court at a day assigned.

(The label is enclosed with a square bracket.)

## 4. Johnson's participation in the compilation of the abstract

### 4.1. Aim of the research

The first edition of the folio was published on April 15, 1755, and the abstract was published on January 5, 1756. In the title page of the abstract, we see the description "Abstracted from the FOLIO EDITION, By the AUTHOR SAMUEL JOHNSON, A.M." Johnson also wrote the purpose of the publication of the abstract in the Preface of the abstract.

However, the result of the analysis between the folio and the abstract has revealed that the method of abridgment is not consistent for all the letters, and hence it is unlikely that Johnson alone was responsible for work of abridgment as a compiler.

This section of the paper will clarify inconsistencies in the method of

abridgment among the letters. Also, an attempt will be made to consider how much Johnson was involved in the process of abridgment.

#### **4.2. Previous research into Johnson's participation in the abridgment**

Dille thinks on the one hand that "the extent to which Johnson was necessarily involved in the process of abridgment is uncertain, and he could have delegated some of the work.<sup>1)</sup>" She states on the other hand that "several circumstances point to Johnson having carried out the abridgment himself,<sup>2)</sup>" indicating the following two reasons.

For the first reason, Dille states that "the work was advertised as being 'Abridged from the Folio Edition, by the Author, SAMUEL JOHNSON, A.M.,' and the title page announces it as having been 'Abstracted from the FOLIO EDITION, By the AUTHOR SAMUEL JOHNSON, A.M.'<sup>3)</sup>" Relating to this description, Dille states that "it seems unlikely that Johnson, who was deeply uneasy about having misled the public over his authorship of the 'Debates in the Parliament of Lilliput' for *The Gentleman's Magazine*, would have allowed his name to appear prominently on a work in which he had little or no involvement.<sup>4)</sup>"

For the second reason, Dille states that "it should also be noted that Johnson was in straitened circumstances at this time; he had received no additional payment on completion of the folio *Dictionary* and, in March 1756, he was arrested for debt. The income from the preparation of the abstracted edition would no doubt have been extremely welcome.<sup>5)</sup>"

#### **4.3. Present research into Johnson's participation in the abridgment**

In order to clarify Johnson's involvement in the process of abridgment, an investigation was conducted as follows.

##### **4.3.1. Research method**

Contrastive research was conducted concerning the headwords in the first five pages for each letter of the folio and the corresponding head-

words of the abstract. The exception to this includes the letter Z, of which there are only two pages in the folio, and the letter X which provides no headwords in the folio.

#### 4.3.2. Four-compiler hypothesis

As a result of the research, it is improbable that the abridgment was carried out solely by Johnson, and thus, the following hypothesis has been formulated: A team of four compilers, including Johnson, carried out the abridgment concurrently. Johnson was involved in the abridgment of the letter A to C, and the other three compilers, from D to K, L to S, and T to Z.

#### 4.3.3. Supporting evidence

The supporting grounds for the hypothesis are the following four points.

(1) The rate of the deletion of headwords:

As is seen in Table 3, the rate of the deletion of headwords for each letter is 26.6% for A, 11.5% for B, and 7.0% for C. This shows that from A to C, there is a higher rate of deletion observed in comparison with other letters. However, from D, deletion is rarely or not observed at all. Beginning from the letter T, there are no deletions.

(2) The number of deleted headwords by letter and category:

As is seen in Table 4, the deleted headwords beginning with the letters A, B, and C are observed especially among dictionary words.

(3) The number of authors for each definition:

Basically, in the abstract, one author's name is shown for each definition. However, there are some definitions which have the names of two or more authors.

As is seen in Table 5, from A to C, there is no definition with the names of three or more authors.

There is one definition with three authors in the letter D, but from L to S, the definitions with three authors are observed more frequently.

Table 3 Rate of the deletion of headwords

	Num. of analyzed pages	First word	Last word	Num. of words in folio	Num. of words in abstract	Num. of deleted words	Rate of deletion (%)	
A	5	A	ABJURATION	94	69	25	26.6	
B	5	B	BALCONY	96	85	11	11.5	Average rate of deletion (%)
C	5	C	TO CALL	115	107	8	7.0	14.4
D	5	D	TO DANGLE	88	87	1	1.1	
E	5	E	EASY	65	65	0	0.0	
F	5	F	FAIR	76	76	0	0.0	
G	5	G	GALLOP	77	73	4	5.2	
H	5	H	TO HALT	112	103	9	8.0	
I, J	5	I	IDLE	103	103	0	0.0	Average rate of deletion (%)
K	5	K	KICKSY-WICKSEY	72	69	3	4.2	2.9
L	5	L	TO LAMENT	98	97	1	1.0	
M	5	M	MAIL	99	99	0	0.0	
N	5	N	NAVAL	74	70	4	5.4	
O	5	O	TO OBSCURE	96	96	0	0.0	
P	5	P	PALE	89	89	0	0.0	
Q	5	Q	TO QUARTER	82	82	0	0.0	
R	5	R	TO RAKE	80	79	1	1.3	Average rate of deletion (%)
S	5	S	SAINTLIKE	96	94	2	2.1	1.1
T	5	T	TO TAKE	66	66	0	0.0	
U, V	5	V	VARIANCE	90	90	0	0.0	
W	5	W	WAN	79	79	0	0.0	
X	1	X	(No word)	0	0	0	0.0	
Y	5	Y	YOUNGLING	75	75	0	0.0	Average rate of deletion (%)
Z	2	Z	ZOOTOMY	29	29	0	0.0	0.0
			Total	1951	1882	69	3.5	

From T, the definitions with two or more authors increase in number remarkably. The words beginning with the letter T have many definitions with three authors, and a definition with eight authors is also observed.

Pertaining to this, Dille states that “where Johnson typically included

Table 4 Number of deleted headwords by letter and category

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I, J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U, V	W	X	Y	Z	
Dictionary word	13	4	1																						
Compound word		2						6			1		2				1								
Derivative word	2	1						2																	
Technical word	2	1	1							1															
Variant spelling	1		3																						
Synonym			2	1						1															
Rare word							1																		
Obsolete word	2	1																1							
Idiomatic phrase		1								1															
Foreign word	1																								
Incorrect word	1																								
Incorrect spelling	1																								
Regional dialect													1												
Uncertain meaning							1																		
Abbreviated word	1																								
Others	1	1	1				2	1					1												

only one author attribution per sense in the first part of the alphabet, quite frequently three and sometimes even four or five, and in one case eight (*to take* v.a. 24), names are subjoined to senses in the later letters of the alphabet. Apart from the question of space, Johnson may also have progressively come to the view that such linguistic information as usage indicators provided useful guidance concerning register for the non-learned user.<sup>6)</sup>

With regard to Dille's interpretation, it is unlikely that Johnson gradually changed the way of abridgment, for there are marked differences in the way of abridgment among the four sections, A to C, D to K, L to S, and T to Z. It would be more natural to presume that four compilers, including Johnson, conducted the abridgment.

(4) The label of *Dict* for a definition source:

When definitions of previous dictionaries are quoted in the folio as they are, the source of the definition is indicated as *Dict*. However, the dictionary words, which have the label of *Dict*, are mostly eliminated in the abstract.

Table 5 Label for a definition source

	Number of authors for each definition in the abstract (*)					Number of <i>Dict</i> labels deleted from the folio	Number of <i>Dict</i> labels remaining in the abstract	Label for dictionary words in the abstract
	2 authors	3 authors	4 authors	5 authors	8 authors			
A	2					22	0	
B	1					5	0	
C	9					4	1	Farrier's Dict.
D	4	1				0	0	
E	6					1	0	
F	3					2	0	
G	3					2	0	
H	2					0	0	
I, J	2					1	1	Farrier's Dict.
K	7					0	0	
L	3	1				1	1	Dict.
M	6	1				2	0	
N	9					1	1	Farr. Dict.
O	1					1	1	Dict.
P	0					0	1	Dict.
Q	4	1				2	4	Dict.
R	2					1	0	
S	10	2				0	1	Farrier's Dict.
T	31	12	4	2	1	0	0	
U, V	14	1	2			0	1	Dict.
W	12	1				0	1	Farrier's Dict.
X	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Y	28	5				1	1	Farrier's Dict.
Z	6	1		1		2	1	Dict.

(\*) The figures in the table indicate the number of definitions.

The second column from the right in Table 5 shows the number of the *Dict* labels for each letter remaining in the abstract. From A to K, there is one label for C and one for I/J, but no label is observed in the other letters. On the other hand, from L to Z, most letters have at least one label of *Dict*.

## 5. Conclusion

This research has revealed the following:

- (1) It can be thought that the abstract was compiled based on the folio, for in the abstract, the typographical errors in the folio are corrected, and the revisions and corrections are made based on the descriptions of the folio.
- (2) Despite the fact that the size of the dictionary was reduced from the folio<sup>1)</sup> to the octavo<sup>2)</sup> by 75% and that the number of the pages was reduced by 52.1%<sup>3)</sup>, the reduction in the number of headwords was only 5.2%<sup>4)</sup>.
- (3) The majority of headwords eliminated from the folio are derivative words, while compound words account for the second highest number of deletions. Foreign words, dictionary words and obsolete words account for a small percentage of the eliminated headwords.
- (4) The usage of punctuation in the abstract is basically the same as that in the folio, with the exception of a few cases.
- (5) In the folio, the name of an author's work is shown after the quotation from the work, whereas in the abstract, quotations are usually eliminated and the author's name is shown after the definition. For each definition in the abstract, generally only one author is referenced, but from the letter T, the number increases remarkably.
- (6) In the abstract, definitions are abridged in many cases. However, some technical words have a long encyclopedic explanation.
- (7) In the abstract, the usage information as to the style, attitude, and field of a word is eliminated.

- (8) Etymological descriptions are abridged in the abstract.
- (9) The information as to variant spellings is eliminated in the abstract.
- (10) The inconsistencies between descriptions in the folio and the abstract, the inconsistencies in the method of abridgment, and the typographical errors are observed in large quantities in comparison with dictionaries of today.

As is stated in the Preface, the abstract was developed for “common readers.” Based on the aforementioned features of the abstract, we come to know the type of dictionary which Johnson thought was necessary for common readers of those days. The features of the abstract which have been revealed by this research give us the assumption that it was not the active dictionary but the passive dictionary that Johnson thought was useful to common readers. This assumption can be supported by the following two reasons:

Firstly, in the abstract, the quotations and the usage information, which are useful to dictionary-users who intend to write referring to a dictionary, are eliminated from the folio. Specifically, the elimination of usage information can be considered evidence that Johnson did not consider the significance of making the abstract active-dictionary-oriented, for usage information does not require much space.

Secondly, Johnson’s abridgment principle to avoid the elimination of headwords can be detected, for the rate of the deletion of headwords was shown to be 5.2%. Furthermore, the majority of the deleted headwords are derivative words whose meanings are discernable, while some technical words take up much space for a detailed, encyclopedic explanation. These facts imply that the aim of the abstract was to help common readers with the meanings of difficult or unfamiliar words in their personal reading. Moreover, it can be thought that the purpose of describing an author’s name instead of the name of the author’s work is, in addition to saving space, to help the common readers to read the

author's works or works written by the author's contemporaries. This interpretation of the abstract as a passive dictionary coincides with Johnson's outlook on common readers for whom the abstract was developed, as is shown in the Preface: "... the greater number of readers, who, seldom intending to write or presuming to judge, turn over books only to amuse their leisure, and to gain degrees of knowledge suitable to lower characters, or necessary to the common business of life: these know not any other use of a dictionary than that of adjusting orthography, or explaining terms of science or words of infrequent occurrence, or remote derivation."

Finally, as is stated in Section 4, there are some marked differences in the way of abridgment among the four sections mentioned in 4.3.2. Therefore, it would be natural to assume that Johnson first explained to three other compilers the principle and method of abridgment, and that the four of them, including Johnson, conducted the abridgment concurrently. Furthermore, it would be natural to assume that Johnson was involved in the abridgment of A to C, for that section shows a much larger portion of abridgment than the other three sections. Moreover, the folio was published on April 15 and the abstract was published on January 5 the following year, and hence the period of time spent on the abridgment was less than nine months. Considering the shortness of the allotted time, it is highly improbable that Johnson alone carried out the abridgment. It is my hope that the four-compiler hypothesis which I have proposed will be supported by further evidence henceforth.

## NOTES

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Kiyoshi Shinkuma at Nagoya Gakuin University for the invaluable advice on my research. Section 2 and Section 4 in this paper are slightly revised versions of my oral presentation at the 2011 General Meeting of the Chubu Branch of the English Literary Society of Japan held at Nagoya University on October 29, 2011.

### Section 2

- 1) Dille 2005, p. 200.

- 2) Hayakawa 2005, p. 7.
- 3) Reddick 1996, p. 86.
- 4) Dille 2005, p. 203.
- 5) Dille 2005, p. 203.
- 6) Dille 2005, p. 203. Dille uses the term “sense” to mean a headword’s definition.

### Section 3

- 1) The number of the total pages includes the range from the first word of the letter A to the last word of the letter Z.
- 2) The number of the total pages includes the range from the first word of the letter A to the last word of the letter Z.
- 3) “Not shown” signifies that the deleted headword has no label as to part of speech in the folio.
- 4) “The large reduction in the letter U/V is accounted for by the fact that Johnson eliminated as unnecessary many words beginning with the prefix *un-*, . . . , since they could be consulted in the *Dictionary* under their roots. . . . Compound words, including *goatmilk* and *moneybox*, are also often omitted, presumably because readers could deduce their meaning from their constituent parts.” (Dille 2005, p. 204.)
- 5) *The Plan of a Dictionary*, par.13.
- 6) “When compiling the octavo edition, Johnson appeared to have no intention of drastically eliminating obsolete words or meanings from the folio edition.” (Hayakawa 2008, p. 11.)

### Section 4

- 1) Dille 2005, p. 199.
- 2) Dille 2005, p. 199.
- 3) Dille 2005, p. 199.
- 4) Dille 2005, p. 199.
- 5) Dille 2005, p. 199.
- 6) Dille 2005, pp. 206–207.

### Section 5

- 1) 43 cm × 25.5 cm.
- 2) 19.6 cm × 12.7 cm.
- 3) 1,084 pages ÷ 2,263 pages = 47.9%.
- 4) 40,482 words ÷ 42,695 words = 94.8%.

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