

# DICTIONARY News

## Research and Publications on Dictionaries and Lexicography

The lion's share of this issue is devoted to some aspects of books about lexicography and dictionaries. Our drive has stemmed from recent publications originating in two faraway powerhouses of modern English (pedagogical) lexicography, Japan and Poland. In addition, we are delighted to announce our own plans to publish selected papers from various conferences, and to issue a call for papers for a new publication.

Japan has been at a semi-hidden forefront of lexicographic research and dictionary making since the early 20th century. The number of dictionaries regularly produced there is probably well beyond those appearing anywhere else worldwide. What is still usually less known outside Japan is the extent of its research concerning lexicography in general and dictionaries for learners of English in particular, much of which can perhaps be attributed to the geographical distance and linguistic differences involved in this country. The publication of *English Lexicography in Japan* marks a welcome step towards bringing it closer to the rest of the world. While presenting and reviewing this book we have taken the opportunity to also discuss the pioneering and innovative work of the Iwasaki Linguistic Circle and its annual publication *Lexicon*.

Poland has emerged into the lexicographic foreground these last few years mainly due to the School of English at

Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań. In addition to an overview of this institute we offer reviews of three of the outstanding monographs by members of its staff that were published last year.

As for K Dictionaries' publishing plans, next year we will mark the tenth anniversary of *Lexicography in Asia*, a selection of papers originating mainly from the Dictionaries in Asia Conference that was held in Hong Kong and set the stage for the establishment of the Asian Association for Lexicography (ASIALEX), and we intend to publish a new volume of papers explicitly written to celebrate this event. It is our great pleasure to invite all of you who may be interested in contributing on any aspect regarding lexicography in Asia to contact us with your proposals.

In the meantime, we have been approached by the organizers of the last ASIALEX conference at the National University of Singapore with the idea to publish a selection of the conference papers. Our preparations are currently underway for what will become the second volume of *Lexicography in Asia*, entitled *Perspectives in Lexicography: Asia and Beyond*.

We likewise plan to start publishing selected papers from other international dictionary conferences, starting with the one held at Ivanovo in Russia.

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## A New Trend in Lexicography from Japan

Shin'ichiro Ishikawa



Shin'ichiro Ishikawa received his MA from Kobe University and PhD from Okayama University. He has written monographs in the fields of linguistics and literature, and co-edited several publications, including *English Lexicography in Japan* (2006). His current research interests include corpus linguistics, lexicography, and literary text analysis. Dr Ishikawa is associate professor of English and Applied Linguistics at Kobe University.  
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The publication of an anthology of theoretical and practical English dictionary research in Japan has been anticipated for more than ten years, since the founding of the Society of English Lexicography as a Special Interest Group in JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers, [www.jacet.org](http://www.jacet.org)).

When we learned that the world congress of applied linguistics (AILA Congress 1999) would be held in Tokyo, we asked some JACET members who specialized in lexicography and lexicology to form an interest group for the study of dictionaries and vocabulary. We hoped to give one or two symposiums and several paper presentations at the congress.

In September 1995, we discussed the purpose and activities of the interest group, and invited about 30 JACET members to form a lexicography society. Ten members attended the launching of the JACET Society of English Lexicography, held in the JACET office on December 20, 1995, where we finalized the purpose of the group and adopted official regulations.

At first we had rather small-scale meetings every other month. In order to generate greater interest we decided to hold a symposium. The first symposium was held the following December under the title 'Some Present Problems in English Lexicography', and 66 people participated in the discussion. This gave momentum to subsequent meetings, and since then 40 or more people have attended all society meetings.

Since the AILA Congress '99, where society members sponsored one symposium, invited one lecturer, and gave more than ten presentations, the JACET Society of

English Lexicography has grown steadily. We organized the international conference of the Asian Association for Lexicography (ASIALEX) in Tokyo in 2003, which attracted 234 attendants from 16 countries. It featured six plenary lectures, six symposiums, 54 paper presentations and 12 poster presentations. For the past ten years we have invited numerous eminent lexicographers and scholars in the related fields to Japan, including Dr. R.R.K. Hartmann, Dr. Tom McArthur, Mr. Michael Rundell, Dr. Adam Kilgarriff, Dr. Henri Béjoint, Dr. Anne Pakir, and Dr. Howard Jackson.

Additionally, the JACET Society of English Lexicography has hosted workshops almost every year since 1997. These workshops have provided opportunities for participants to give presentations and to acquire feedback from peer scholars. The seventh workshop was held in March 2006 with 42 presentations and 139 attendants.

The great success of our symposiums and workshops led us to the memorial project to publish a collection of papers on English lexicography in Japan. The society called for papers in June 2005. Among a large number of abstracts, 23 refereed and 2 invited papers were finally included in the book, which we believe shows how broadly and earnestly lexicography is studied in Japan.

Though they might not be a comprehensive representation of today's lexicography, the papers included in *English Lexicography in Japan* clearly exemplify the standard of dictionary studies in Japan. The editors believe that this publication will stimulate further discussion in the spreading branches of lexicography, and contribute to its advances in general.

### English lexicography in Japan and KDN

The following articles concerning aspects of English lexicography in Japan have appeared in *Kernerman Dictionary News* over the years:

- KDN2, 1995, included a reprint of 'Monolingual or Bilingual, that is *not* the Question: the 'Bilingualised' Dictionary', by Kyohei Nakamoto, originally published in *Lexicon* 24, 1994, and was accompanied by 'Answers to Open Questions', by Joseph A. Reif.  
<http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn2-2.html> / <http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn2-3.html>
- KDN6, 1998, included 'English Lexicography in Japan: its History, Innovations and Impact', by Shigeru Yamada and Yuri Komuro, which was reprinted later that year in *Lexicography in Asia*.  
<http://kdictionaries.com/lia-japan.html>
- KDN8, 2000, included 'Dictionary Use for Production among Japanese College Students of English', by Yuri Komuro and Shigeru Yamada.  
<http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn8-3.html>
- KDN10, 2002, included 'English Japanese Lexicography and the *Unabridged Genius*', by Kosei Minamide.  
<http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn10-5.html>

## Shin'ichiro Ishikawa, Kosei Minamide, Minoru Murata, Yukio Tono (eds.). *English Lexicography in Japan*

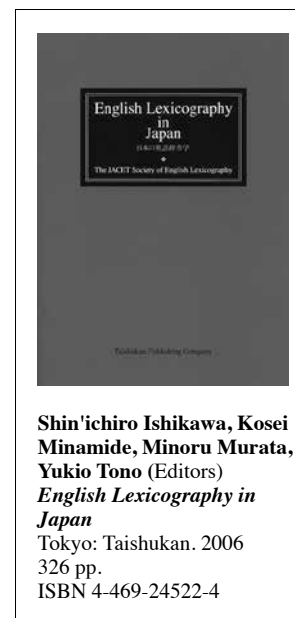
This book is a collection of twenty five papers by scholars of lexicography who are in the JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers) Society of English Lexicography. The papers, two invited and twenty three refereed, reflect the high level of analytical skills among Japanese researchers in lexicography. The first section includes two invited papers, one by Ikegami Yoshihiko, who addressed the history of twentieth century lexicography in Japan, and the other by Tono Yukio, who has written an engaging paper on the many advances in Japanese-English (J-E) lexicography and the challenges for Japanese lexicographers. Among them, he sees three major challenges: first, the use of corpora to design lower level dictionaries targeted toward elementary and middle school audiences and also to produce word sketches (as in *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*); second, a mistaken notion of user friendliness, why academics have a false notion of it and why teachers misunderstand it; third, technology and how to improve the varying interfaces, such as a dictionary on a CD, a web-based dictionary, or a handheld electronic dictionary. Just like English-Japanese (E-J) paper dictionaries, that are “unnecessarily big and fat” according to Tono, electronic dictionaries have huge amounts of data; Casio’s *EX-Word* “contains a hundred different titles.” Tono argues that these quantitative strengths do not improve the quality or the user-friendliness of the product.

The first chapter has six papers that consider elements in the entries. Three of the six are on neologisms. In Akasu’s paper, he examines neologisms that appeared as new words in the addenda to the 1942 *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* and the first *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* in 1948, finding many military terms in this narrow area. Ishikawa’s paper, a data based analysis of neologisms, illustrates the use of a large corpus to substantiate the staying power of the word. He uses Metcalf’s FUDGE factors to establish the neologism and adds one more factor, longitudinal changes in frequency of the word’s appearances in the corpus. This factor recommends that no sharp decline should occur from year to year for at least three consecutive years. To illustrate this, he takes ten words from the mid to late 1990’s, of which only two are

still current, *blog* and *hazmat*, and looks at Lexis Nexis and WWW over a ten year period to demonstrate the declines of the other eight words, among them *cybrarian* and *steganography*. In Nakane’s paper on non-lexemic entries, he looks at bound morphemes, prefixes like hyper-, non-, and auto-, and suffixes, like -aholic, -crat, and -gate that are entries in E-J dictionaries. In a well founded and professional comparison/contrast analysis, he examines eight modern English dictionaries and about a dozen modern E-J dictionaries on their varying treatments.

I found the next paper by Gally to be of personal interest for me as a lifelong learner of the Japanese language. He looks at the entries with ‘Japanesey words’ (culturally bound items) in J-E dictionaries, which is one of only four papers devoted to J-E in this collection. He addresses culturally bound words, among them native plants, like *kudzu*, native fish, like *yaritanago*, a small carp, traditional clothing, like *kimono*, which has become a loan word, and more complex items, like *ronin*, a high school graduate studying on his own to try a second time to pass the college entrance exam, and *moe*, infatuation with an attractive female *anime* cartoon character. I enjoyed reading this critical account that is mainly descriptive rather than analytical. This is one lexicographical issue that applies to Japanese who want to translate from their language into English and to non-Japanese studying the language. This problem of missing or confusing information in J-E entries is an important lexicographical issue for dictionary publishers in Japan. Gally highlights some of the weaknesses in J-E defining style, but has no recommendations or clear solutions, other than the creation of long encyclopedic entries for *gaijin* (foreign) learners of Japanese.

The second chapter has five papers that are analyses of elements in the microstructure of bilingual E-J and monolingual English dictionaries. The first two topics are frequency markers and the need to highlight bound morphemes in headwords. We learn from Aizawa that frequency markers for entries in E-J learners’ dictionaries may be occasionally unreliable, and that experts on vocabulary acquisition recommend that lexicographers focus on an upper limit of four to five thousand words as a core vocabulary in learners’ dictionaries. This recommendation is not heeded, of



## KD NEWS

## Academic cooperation

A couple of years ago K Dictionaries (KD) began to cooperate with Lille University 3 in France, offering internships to Master students of 'Lexicography, Terminology, and Automatic Treatment of Corpora' under the direction of Pierre Corbin and Nathalie Gasiglia. Since then, another intern has joined the program from INALCO (National Institute of Oriental Languages and Cultures) in Paris. In principle, internships last six months, and are usually done at a distance. The interns work from home or at the university, maintaining regular contact with relevant KD personnel including the project coordinator, supervisor, programmer, and language editor(s). They are provided with software, data, guidelines, feedback, and support. Most become involved in on-going KD projects, though in one case an intern initiated an entirely new project, which started from scratch, and eventually became a KD employee.

In view of the experience gained so far, KD is extending its cooperation to universities in other countries. In the coming year there are plans for internships from Pompeu Fabra University and Jaume I University (Spain), the University of Stellenbosch (South Africa), and Ivanovo State University (Russia), and discussions with other universities are in progress. Enquiries can be addressed to the academic director, Dr. Shaunie Shammass. intern@kdictionaries.com

course, by publishers who often boast of 80,000 to 100,000 entries. In the second paper, Iyanaga promotes the inclusion of morphological information in English entries to enhance students' vocabulary building skills, and in the third paper by Hasegawa, we find a quantitative analysis of the *Oxford Dictionary of English Idioms*. The fourth paper by Dohi focuses on a comparison of two early 20<sup>th</sup> century English dictionaries, the *Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (1924) and the *Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (1911). This section, veering away from E-J bilingual lexicography, highlights the anglophile tendencies of this society of academic lexicographers of English.

The fifth paper, by Snowden, 'Reverse Authenticity in J-E Dictionary Entries with English Originals', investigates J-E entries with examples of English origin, rather than Japanese. Since some of them sound quite quaint to the native ear, Snowden searched them using Google, which is a very simple but effective tool now. In a Kenkyusha J-E large collegiate desk 4<sup>th</sup> edition (*Kenkyusha's New Japanese-English Dictionary*, 1974), he found that one example, "violence recoils upon the violent", under *mukuiru* (return, repay), was lifted from a Sherlock Holmes novel from 1893. The author claims that many of these English examples are back-translated into Japanese, which is then used to extract various Japanese words to be used as headwords in the J-E dictionaries. Thus, he calls this practice "reverse authenticity", since the Japanese word or phrase to be encoded is not from a Japanese source, but the English example is from an often literary English source. The second example for *mukuiru* gives us this beauty: "affection is not poured forth vainly, even though it meets no return." Snowden turned this line up via Google from a work by Mary Baker Eddy, the founder of the Christian Scientists. This phrase, "meets no return", was then back translated to Japanese and used for *mukuiru* (return). The fact that this quote sounds unnatural to some native English speakers is beside the point for the Japanese editors. This practice eliminates the need to glean original natural Japanese from native speakers or invent original examples. This shortcut is what I have suspected for a long time, so this topic is of great personal interest. Snowden states: "The problem of back translation... remains a big one for J-E dictionaries." (p. 154) These poorly translated entries lead to stilted, awkward English, often marked by an inappropriate register or style, not only for colloquial English conversation,

but also for standard written English in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Snowden also notes that there has been a tendency, over the last part of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, toward very frequent use of quotes from famous literature with no attribution in J-E dictionaries. Snowden notes that the editors "adjust the wording just enough to avoid accusations of wholesale plagiarism." (p. 150)

The third chapter on E-J dictionaries and pragmatics contains four papers. These range from an analysis of three discourse markers—*after all*, *however*, and *so*—to a paper on pragmatic considerations for relative clauses, and a fine paper on expressions of apology and gratitude. The fascinating paper by Otani on the treatment of *thank you* (*arigato*) and *I'm sorry* (*sumimasen*) delves into the underlying cultural constructs and felicity conditions that create "the emotional gulf behind the apology expressions between the two languages." (p. 212) She then compares five E-J and three J-E dictionaries and finds that the *Genius* E-J and J-E (Taishukan) and the *Luminous* E-J (Kenkyusha) treat the pragmatics of 'I'm sorry' more completely and accurately. As for 'thank you,' all three J-E dictionaries gloss it as *arigato* without any culturally appropriate information. In this well thought out paper, Otani demonstrates certain strengths in the E-J treatments of apology and gratitude, as well as clear weaknesses in some of the J-E treatments and in two E-J dictionaries.

The fourth chapter with two papers is on dictionaries and gender. The first paper by Uchida on gender variation is a corpus survey on 'actually', the intensifier 'so' plus an adjective, such as 'so pretty' and 'lovely', which are more frequently used by women. The second paper, by Ishikawa, is on non-sexist language, such as *chair person* for *chairman* and *fire fighter* for *fireman*. Actually, Uchida has composed a very lovely paper that nicely illustrates how corpus survey research can strengthen the 'word sketches' that Tono recommends in his opening chapter.

The fifth chapter on 'Dictionary [sic] and Education,' pedagogical applications of lexicography, has six papers. These topics vary quite a bit and cover a lot of ground: first, incidental learning that concludes that silent reading is better than note-taking; second, the acquisition of prepositions, noting the complexity and the partial overlapping of the English 'at', 'in', and 'on' with the Japanese *ni* and *de* in various contexts; third, the acquisition of metaphors in verb and particle combinations that are spatial, such as 'turn over', 'turn up' and 'give away' or 'give up.' The next three papers are also varied: guessing meanings

of unknown words in monolingual English dictionaries; the frequency of unknown words and its effect on reading comprehension; and evaluating electronic dictionaries used at the college level compared to paper dictionaries. This last paper by Yamada on student evaluations of monolingual English learners' dictionaries by university students is more thoughtful than the typical survey on attitudes. The students used three web-based dictionaries by Cambridge, Longman, and Oxford during a well thought out dictionary skills task. Then they took an opinion survey that brought to light several advantages that Cambridge and Longman have over Oxford in their page layout and user-friendly web design.

Overall, we can see how far Japanese bilingual lexicography has come in forty years since the mid-1960's. The frustrating situation with J-E dictionaries that I encountered in 1975 included poorly translated examples, and vague, polysemous entries, with little attention paid to natural conversational English. The result was my odd *eigo kusai nihongo*, 'Japanese that smells like English,' and strained attempts at stilted conversations. Editorial practices of 30 or 40 years ago

included much copying of other poorly constructed dictionaries, little sense of frequency of expressions or high frequency collocations, and a focus on wide ranging vocabulary coverage at the expense of better treatment of culturally relevant words that would enlighten users of Japanese bilingual dictionaries.

Happily, the newest generation of lexicography research from Japan highlights advances in several bilingual English-Japanese best sellers. Among these are the Taishukan *Genius* series, the Shogakukan *Progressive* series, and the Kenkyusha *Lighthouse* series, which, according to Ikegami, have been superseded by the recent *Longman Eiwa Jiten* (2006), a modern day melding of LDOCE principles of entry selection, microstructure, modern examples, and layout, strengthened by corpus based modern Japanese. This collection is a pleasure for me to read, not only for its easy to read typeface, very high quality paper, and its very sturdy binding, but also for the probing analyses and high quality of its papers.

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## KD NEWS

### Seeking lexicographers

K Dictionaries is recruiting editors and translators for lexicographic projects on various monolingual and bilingual dictionaries. Please address applications to the project coordinator, Anat Kravitz. editor@kdictionaries.com

## The Iwasaki Linguistic Circle and Dictionary Analysis

Kaoru Akasu

### 1. Introduction

The Iwasaki Linguistic Circle (ILC) is a study group of linguists and lexicographers, based in Tokyo, who have been making unique contributions in the field of lexicography for many years, notably in the arena of dictionary criticism or dictionary evaluation, through a series of work demonstrating in-depth analyses of dictionaries. The present paper deals mainly with the early period of this circle and introduces the readers to the first dictionary analysis conducted by its members and to some of the ideas and characteristic features involved in it.

### 2. Historical Background

Let me begin by referring to the ILC history and today's ILC—of which I am an active member. The ILC, or *Iwasaki Kenkyukai* in Japanese and *Iwaken* for short—was set up in 1962 and started as a very small reading circle. Under their professor's guidance, five or six university graduates met at his home to read books

and articles on both general linguistics and English linguistics.<sup>1</sup> The mentor's name was Tamihei Iwasaki, Professor Emeritus at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies [*Tokyo Gaikokugo Daigaku*]. The late Professor Iwasaki, a phonetician, was among the leading English linguists at the time and well known for the English-Japanese dictionaries he wrote and edited. Obviously, this circle is named after him. As time went by, the ILC grew and now boasts a membership of some 200 people. The circle is currently headed by two original members: the ILC President, phonetician Shigeru Takebayashi, Professor Emeritus at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, and Vice-President, metalexicographer Yoshiro Kojima, Professor Emeritus at Waseda University.

In 1972, ten years following its inception, the ILC launched the first issue of its journal, *Lexicon*, which is published annually. It is unique in that it often contains one or two very detailed dictionary analysis articles.<sup>2</sup> Actually, the first and second issues of

This article is based on a paper entitled 'Dictionary Analyses in Lexicon Revisited' read on August 27, 2003 at Asialex '03 Tokyo (Akasu 2003).



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*Lexicon* did not carry any analyses of dictionaries, and *Lexicon* No. 3 (1974) was the first to include dictionary analysis. However, in 1968, four years before the first issue of *Lexicon* came out, ILC members had published an original dictionary analysis in another journal: *Reports of the University of Electro-Communication*, which constituted the first of its type. This review, in the so-called Iwaken-style, broke new ground and set the standard for the many analyses to follow in *Lexicon*, as well as for two other analyses published in the *International Journal of Lexicography* (*IJL*) and two more in *Reports of the University of Electro-Communication*.

There are four study groups in the current ILC: Lexicography, Corpus, Grammar, and Theoretical Linguistics. Interested members meet basically once a month and read a book or an article of their choice and discuss the subject matter. As mentioned earlier, this kind of meeting, which we call *rindokukai* (regular meeting of a reading circle), was the starting point of the ILC, and is still at the heart of the circle. Also, some younger members of the ILC have started looking into the history of major English-Japanese dictionaries published in Japan. The first portion of this series of works came out in *Lexicon* No. 24 (1994), with the title 'Historical Development of English-Japanese Dictionaries in Japan (1)', and seven papers have come out so far. The findings and their implications are expected to make a significant contribution to a better and deeper understanding of bilingual lexicography in Japan.

### 3. The First Dictionary Analysis

Let us take a look at the first dictionary analysis, which appeared in 1968 in *Reports of the University of Electro-Communications*, the Japanese title of which journal is *Denki-tsushin Daigaku Gakuho*. One might wonder just why it appeared in this particular publication. The reason can be attributed to the fact that two of the four authors were faculty members at this university.<sup>3</sup>

What follows explores the methodological dimension of this review dissecting *Penguin English Dictionary* (1965). Five aspects of the dictionary are examined in this analysis and compared with other dictionaries, namely, selection of words entered, description of senses, usage labels, idiomatic phrases, and pronunciation.

#### 3.1 Headwords

As for the first aspect, the selection of words entered, 100 words were taken from each of five, randomly chosen, sections of *Penguin*, totaling 500 words. These word selections

came from pages 150-151, 301-302, 450-451, 598-601, and 697-698, and were then compared to corresponding entries in the following dictionaries: *Concise Oxford Dictionary 5e* (*COD*), *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary*, *Random House Dictionary*, and *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*. The results of the comparison were given in tables and the conclusion, taken from the English synopsis at the head of the article, states as follows: "*Penguin* is much more liberal toward informal terms and Americanisms than *COD*. Moreover, inflected forms are freely included as the main entries to an extent unusual for a dictionary of this size. On the other hand, *Penguin* is not so active as *COD* and other smaller Oxford dictionaries, in entering difficult words, especially classical terms."

#### 3.2 Sense Description

The second aspect dealt with coverage, arrangement, manner of presentation, cross referencing, and terms and expressions used in definitions. In so doing, common words such as *cat*, *grass*, *nice*, *large*, *fairly*, *fast* (adv), *please*, and *look* were scrupulously compared mainly between *Penguin* and *COD*. Also compared were words like *constellation*, *crustacea*, and *feminism*, which are much less common. Here is the conclusion: "*Penguin* attaches greater importance to the colloquial meaning than to the literary, and arranges the meanings according to the frequency of their use to the great advantage of the general user. The poor presentation in this dictionary of grammatical terms shows contrastive features against other dictionaries, and in this respect *Penguin* has practically nothing to offer. Lack of illustrative sentences and cross references, apart from the references to *Penguin Reference Books*, are other flaws to be improved."

#### 3.3 Usage Labels

For usage labels, 200 headwords were chosen from each of the following eight sections: *advert* - *agometer*; *d* - *deadlight*; *f* - *faro*; *j* - *jeans*; *m* - *manna*<sup>1</sup>; *proud* - *pulverizer*; *stink* - *stratosphere*; *virtual* - *vying*. The *j* - *jeans* part was the only exception in that it contained 100 word samples, bringing the headword total to 1,500 in all. These words were compared between *Penguin* and *COD* for the presence or absence of usage labels and their specific types such as *slang*, *colloquial*, *archaic*, and *vulgar*. Hence, the conclusion: "A comparative survey of the usage labels, especially those of *slang*, *colloquial*, *archaic*, and *poetic*, discloses that there is an undeniable, even if slight,

discrepancy in the use of the labels, and this is certainly due to the difference in the outlooks of the English language of *COD* and *Penguin*.”

### 3.4 Idioms

As for the idiomatic phrases, the analysts looked into location, arrangement, and coverage. Idiomatic phrases within entries given for such common words as *get*, *make*, *put*, and *take* were compared mainly between *Penguin*, *COD*, and *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*. It says in the synopsis that “[a]s regards the ‘idiomatic phrases’ in *Penguin*, they are considerably large in number and are various in kind. Some of them, mostly labeled *coll* or *sl*, are supposed to be the ones rarely found in other dictionaries of a similar or even larger size. The explanations given to them are usually simple and plain, forming a remarkable contrast with *COD* which often uses somewhat difficult expressions for the purpose. All these may be called the chief merits of the ‘idiomatic phrases’ in *Penguin*, but the most marked demerit we have noticed is the confusion in the order of their arrangement.”

### 3.5 Pronunciation

As regards the last aspect, pronunciation, the analysis comprised two different parts. The first dealt with the transcription system, with a comparison made between the *Penguin* symbols and the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). In addition, specific transcriptions of consonants and vowels were compared between *Penguin* and *COD* or the *English Pronouncing Dictionary 12e (EPD12)*. The latter part of the analysis was an attempt to see if *Penguin* identified any new pronunciation trends. *Penguin* and *EPD12* were specifically compared for this purpose. Here is the synopsis: “The phonetic symbols employed in *Penguin* are not those proposed by the International Phonetic Association, but are based on conventional spelling. They are, however, fairly consistent and satisfactory so far as the symbols for vowels in accented syllables and for consonants are concerned. On the other hand, vowels in unaccented syllables are rather poorly represented and the notation of full vowels in syllables with secondary stress is misleading. This defect is due to the principle of accentuation adopted by the dictionary. *Penguin* marks accented syllables with italic letters and unaccented ones with romans. By this method only two degrees of stress can be distinguished, while, in fact, three degrees of stress—primary, secondary and weak—are distinctive in English. Hence this ambiguity: both secondary stressed full

vowels and weak stressed obscure vowels are represented with the same symbols .... In our opinion the system of accentuation in *Penguin* leaves much to be improved.” In conclusion, the reviewers stated that “[t]he remarkable features of this dictionary we have revealed in the above analyses lead us to think that it is a fairly successful experiment in modern lexicography and that, along with *COD*, it will satisfy the needs of the general reader of today.” It is noteworthy that they brought their discussion to a conclusion on a positive note.

## 4. Concluding Remarks

The above goes to show that this first ever dictionary analysis, by four Iwaken members, had certain characteristic features worthy of attention. First, it was a comparative analysis, as pointed out in Nakamoto (1998). Second, the analysis was based on random sampling. Random sampling is necessary for the analysis to be objective rather than subjective, and being objective adds reliability to the analysis. Third, it was a collaborative project involving four analysts: to use Jackson's (2002) term, it was a case of “team reviewing.” Fourth, it was a critical appraisal, for both merits and demerits of the dictionary were pursued with impartiality. Fifth, it was an extensive, comprehensive analysis (also pointed out in Nakamoto) and an in-depth, detailed review. If one peruses all the subsequent dictionary analyses in *Lexicon*, as well as those in the other two journals given in Table 1, one sees that all these characteristics run through the dictionary analyses in one way or another. Therefore, this first dictionary analysis may well be called a seminal, example-setting work.

**4.1** In his article titled ‘Dictionary Reviews and Reviewing: 1900-1975’, Robert Chapman offers four interesting suggestions on the method of dictionary reviewing. After commending, as a model, a review conducted by James B. McMillan, he writes: “I have four suggestions to offer toward a still better method. First, it would be desirable, if it does not prove too clumsy, to constitute a reviewing team something like the technical advising team most dictionaries use. ... Second, reviewers should use a random sampling device that covers the book from A to Z, so that the total average performance may be assessed. ... Third, very close attention should be paid to the quality of these fifty or more definitions. They should be painstakingly analyzed for, to use McMillan's criteria, accuracy,



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Takebayashi Shigeru



Kojima Yoshio



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completeness, clearness, simplicity, and modernity. ... Fourth, the “referential integrity” should be tested by tracking down a number of cross-references. This is an excellent gauge of editorial thoroughness and the effectiveness of systems.” The ILC researchers did just this in their analysis of *Penguin English Dictionary*. The article by Chapman was published in 1977, so again, it is worth pointing out that the Iwaken analysis of *Penguin* was out in 1968.

**4.2** Regrettably, *Lexicon* has yet to enjoy due exposure and acknowledgment, and I can think of a couple of reasons for that. One major reason is linguistic in nature. Not all articles in *Lexicon* were written in English up until 1994, and as far as dictionary analyses are concerned, all of them were written in Japanese. Though they had additional English summaries it is not clear how much these helped to lower the barrier of non-recognition. In a way, *Lexicon* was turned in on itself. In 1994 a welcome change was made in the *Lexicon’s Guidelines for Contributors*, and it was decided that all submissions must be in English. So, since 1995, all dictionary analyses have been made more easily accessible to non-Japanese readers in and outside of Japan.

Incidentally, Howard Jackson (2002: 175-76) stated the following: “Where team reviewing has been undertaken *more recently* (e.g. the well-organized and comprehensive Japanese reviews of COD5 ... and of LDEL2 ...), each member of the team has taken a different aspect of linguistic description (pronunciation, definition, usage, etymology, etc.) rather than vocabulary specialism, which is probably a more sensible division of labour.” This, I think, is another reason why *Lexicon* was not receiving due attention. If Jackson had known that team reviews of this kind had existed long before these two reviews came out, he might well have commented otherwise. It makes me feel pleased, as well as proud, however, to know that Jackson commended our review articles in *IJL* and, in particular, recommended them for further reading on dictionary criticism.

**4.3** Again, it seems to me that, until quite recently, we failed to make it clear, in the first place, to whom these dictionary analyses in *Lexicon* were addressed. It is quite understandable why that was the case. Who would have imagined, in the nineteen sixties, that lexicography would attract such attention as we are witnessing now? Things have really changed over the years. My belief is that the world of

lexicography is becoming smaller and smaller, more so than ever, so there is a sense in which dictionary analyses in *Lexicon* are aimed at all people interested in practical or theoretical lexicography. We need to realize that we can, and should, make a contribution to the development of this ever expanding field.

The name of *Lexicon* is now listed as a main entry in the *Dictionary of Lexicography* (1998), and 350 copies are printed each year, with some 60 sent to individuals and institutions abroad. I believe that we have so much more to contribute in a variety of ways toward better lexicography.

## Notes

1. See Takebayashi (1973), Kojima (1985), Higashi (2003), and others for more detail.
2. I constructed two tables at the end of this paper in order to help readers overview what kind of dictionary analysis has been carried out by ILC members in the past nearly four decades. These tables are actually revised and updated versions of the tables given in Nakamoto (1998). Table 1 shows all the relevant dictionary analyses in chronological order. The middle group, headed by roman numeral (II), is composed of all the analyses appearing in *Lexicon*. The dictionary analyses that preceded these in time are given in the first group, indicated by roman numeral (I). The third group is the Iwaken-style review articles that came out in *IJL*, indicated by roman numeral (III). I hasten to add that dictionary analyses made by single authors have been left out of this account. If one wishes to get some idea of what the Iwaken dictionary analysis is like, I suggest taking a look at these two reviews in *IJL*, since they are perhaps more easily accessible. The one difference I might point out between them and the analyses in *Lexicon* is that the *IJL* reviews are considerably shorter and much more concise than the *Lexicon* articles because of space limitations. Table 2 indicates which aspects of the dictionary have been examined in each analysis. Obviously, not every dimension is dealt with for plausible reasons, but it is safe to say that these analyses are quite comprehensive in their coverage of the material.

The reference to Katsumata (1958) in Table 1 concerns *Kenkyusha’s New Dictionary of English Collocations*.

3. See Nakao (2003) for more detail.

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Tables ►

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- ALD** Hornby, A.S., E.V. Gatenby, and H. Wakefield (Ed.). (1963). *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- CDD** Barnhart, C.L. (Ed.). (1951). *Thorndike-Barnhart Comprehensive Desk Dictionary*. New York: Doubleday & Company.
- Century** Whitney, W.D. (Ed.). (1911) *The Century Dictionary*. New York: The Century Company.
- COD** McIntosh, E. (Ed.). (1964). *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (5th ed.). London: Oxford University Press.
- HPD** Barnhart, C.L. (Ed.). (1965) *The Thorndike-Barnhart Handy Pocket Dictionary*. New York: Doubleday.
- HSD** Thorndike, E.L. and C.L. Barnhart (Ed.). (1965) *Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary*. New York: Doubleday.
- NSD** Funk, I. (Ed.). (1963). *Funk & Wagnalls New Standard Dictionary of the English Language*. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.
- NWD** Guralnik, D.B (Ed.). (1956). *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*. Cleveland: World.
- NWDp** Guralnik, D.B. (Ed.). (1959). *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language* (Pocket-Size ed.). New York: Popular Library.
- OED** Murray, J.A.H., et al. (Ed.). (1933) *The Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- OID** Coulson, J., et al. (Ed.). (1962). *The Oxford Illustrated Dictionary* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Penguin** Garmonsway, G.N. (Ed.). (1965). *The Penguin English Dictionary*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- POD** Le Mesurier, H.C. and E. McIntosh (Ed.). *The Pocket Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (4th ed.). Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- RHD** Stein, J. (Ed.). (1966). *The Random House Dictionary of the English Language*. New York: Random House.
- UED** Wyld, H.C. (Ed.). (1932). *The Universal Dictionary of the English Language*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
- Web** Gove, P.B. (Ed.). (1961). *Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English Language*. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam.
- WebCol** Gove, P.B. (Ed.). (1963). *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary*. Springfield, Mass.: Merriam.

Table 1: ILC dictionary analysis in chronological order according to publication.

Year of publication	Dictionary analyzed	Number of analysts	Dictionaries chiefly compared
<b>I Reports of the University of Electro-Communications</b>			
1968	PED1 (1965)	4	COD5 (1964), WNCD7 (1963), RHD1 (1966), NID3 (1961), NWDp (1959)
1969-70	NWD1 (1953)	7	ACD (1947), WNCD6 (1949)
1971	NWD2 (1970)	7	NWD1 (1953), WNCD7 (1963), RHCD1 (1968), AHD1 (1969)
<b>II Lexicon</b>			
1974 (3)	EWD (1971) & CTCD (1972)	3	COD5 (1964)
1975 (4)	OALD3 (1974)	4	ISED (1942), ALD2 (1963)
1977 (6)	COD6 (1976)	6	COD5 (1964)
1979-80 (8, 9)	LDOCE1 (1978)	5	WNCD8 (1973), RHCD2 (1975), NWD2 (1970)
1981 (10)	CED1 (1979)	5	WNCD8 (1973), RHCD2 (1975), NWD2 (1970)
1982 (11)	CULD (1980)	5	LDOCE1 (1978), OALD3 (1974)
1985 (14)	WNCD9 (1983)	4	WNCD8 (1973), AHD2 (1982), RHCD2 (1975), CED1 (1979), NWD2 (1970)
1986 (15)	LDAE (1983)	7	LDOCE1 (1978), LASDE1 (1983), OALD3 (1974), OSDAE1 (1978), OSDCE1 (1978)
1987 (16)	POD7 (1984)	6	POD6 (1978), COD7 (1982), CPED (1981), AHDp (1983)
1988 (17)	BBI1 (1986)	3	LDOCE1 (1978), LDOCE2 (1987), Katsumata (1958)
1989 (18)	COB1 (1987)	7	LDOCE2 (1987), OALD3 (1980/85)
1989-90 (18, 19)	LDOCE2 (1987)	9	LDOCE1 (1978)
1990 (19)	NWD3 (1988)	9	NWD2 (1970), WNCD9 (1983), RHCD2 (1975)
1990-91 (20, 21)	OEDCD1 (1989)	3	OED1 (1884-1928)
1991 (21)	RHD2 (1987)	10	RHD1 (1966), NWD3 (1988), WNCD9 (1983)
1992 (22)	OALD4 (1989)	7	OALD3 (1985), LDOCE2 (1987), COB1 (1987)
1993-94 (23, 24)	PESD (1991)	5	OALD4 (1989), LDOCE2 (1987), PED2 (1969)
1995 (25)	LLA (1993)	4	LDOCE2 (1987), OALD4 (1989), COB1 (1987), LLCE (1981)
1996 (26)	CIDE (1995)	6	LDOCE3 (1995), OALD5 (1995), COB2 (1995)
1996 (26)	OALD5 (1995)	5	OALD4 (1989)
1997 (27)	COB2 (1995)	5	COB1 (1987), OALD5 (1995)
1999 (29)	NHD (1996)	6	LDOCE3 (1995), OALD5 (1995), RHWD (1997)
2000 (30)	NODE (1998)	6	CED4 (1998), CD (1998), COD9 (1995), AHD3 (1992)
2001 (31)	OALD6 (2000)	5	OALD5 (1995), LDOCE3 (1995), COB2 (1995)
2002 (32)	LAAD (2000)	7	LDOCE3 (1995), COB3 (2001), OALD6 (2000)
2003 (33)	COB3 (2001)	5	COB2 (1995), OALD6 (2000), LDOCE3 (1995)
2005 (35)	LDOCE4 (2003)	5	LDOCE3 (1995), LDOCE2 (1987), COB4 (2003)
2006 (36)	OALD7 (2005)	6	OALD6 (2000), MED (2002), LDOCE4 (2003), COB4 (2003)
<b>III International Journal of Lexicography</b>			
1992	COD8 (1990)	7	COD7 (1982), POD7 (1984)
1994	LDEL2 (1991)	5	COD8 (1990), CED3 (1991)

Table 2: Main dictionary aspects examined in ILC analyses.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
PED1		+	+		+			+		+			
NWD1	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+			
NWD2	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+			
EWD, CTCD		+	+		+								
OALD3	+	+	+	+		+							
COD6		+	+		+	+				+	+		
LDOCE1	+	+		+	+	+	+				+	+	
CED1		+	+	+	+						+		
CULD	+	+		+	+	+	+						
WNCD9	+	+		+			+			+			
LDAE, OSDAE		+	+		+	+	+	+				+	
POD7		+	+		+	+		+			+		
COB1		+	+		+	+	+						
LDOCE2	+	+		+	+	+	+				+		
NWD3	+	+		+			+	+	+	+	+		
RHD2		+	+		+			+	+	+	+	+	+
OALD4	+	+	+	+	+	+	+						
PESD		+	+		+	+	+	+					
CIDE		+	+	+	+	+	+						
OALD5	+	+		+	+	+	+				+		
COB2		+	+		+	+	+	+					
NHD, RHWD		+	+		+	+	+	+					
NODE	+	+		+	+	+				+			
OALD6	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+				
LAAD	+	+		+	+	+	+		+		+		+
COB3		+	+		+	+	+	+					
LDOCE4	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+
CALD1	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+				
MWCD11	+	+	+	+	+		+	+					
OALD7	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+
COD8		+	+		+	+	+	+				+	
LDEL2	+	+		+									

**A:** Word coverage and entry structure  
**B:** Pronunciation  
**C:** Syllabification  
**D:** Sense description  
**E:** Verbal illustrations

**F:** Grammatical information  
**G:** Usage labels and/or usage notes  
**H:** Synonym essays  
**I:** Phraseology

**J:** Etymology  
**K:** Pictorial illustrations  
**L:** Appendices  
**M:** User research

## Lexicography at the Poznań School of English

Robert Lew



Robert Lew was born in Szczecin in 1966, and is employed at the Department of Lexicology and Lexicography of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, where he is now director of the School of English PhD Programme. His current interests focus on dictionary use, and he has recently published a book comparing the effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual and bilingualized dictionaries. He has also worked as a practical lexicographer on a number of dictionary projects for various publishers including Harper-Collins, Longman, and Cambridge University Press. Dr Lew is Reviews Editor for *International Journal of Lexicography*.  
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The English Department of Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland, now officially known as the School of English or by its Polish acronym IFA, was founded in 1921 by W.A. Massey, who headed the institution for three decades. The second long-term (1965-2005) head of IFA was Jacek Fisiak, and it was he who, in the late 1980's, saw clearly the pressing need for modern English-Polish and Polish-English bilingual dictionaries to replace the antiquated existing ones, most of which described the two languages as written around the mid-20th century, and reflected the lexicographic know-how several decades out of date. To coordinate the work on new dictionaries, a dedicated Lexicographic Centre was created at IFA, which in 1996 grew into the Department of Lexicology and Lexicography, now headed by Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak. Today, the School of English itself, with close to 200 staff and 1000 students, including 80 PhD students, is headed by Katarzyna Dziubalska-Kończyk.

With the Poznań School of English being a major centre of English studies in Poland, it is only natural that its lexicographic activity should focus on bilingual lexicography. This includes semi-bilingual dictionaries, as among the first major lexicographic projects at IFA was a bilingualized dictionary produced in cooperation with Kernerman Publishing (1990), with two updated and expanded editions at six-year intervals (1996, 2002). Another semi-bilingual dictionary was produced more recently as the Polish adaptation of the *Cambridge Learner's Dictionary* (2003).

The first one in a series of newly compiled bilingual (as opposed to bilingualized) dictionaries was the *Collins English-Polish and Polish-English* dictionary (1996, 1997, 2000). This two-volume work has received much praise for its coverage of contemporary colloquial English and Polish, and the lexicographic treatment which, while focusing on the Polish user, did not neglect the encoding needs of the native speaker of English. At about the same time Collins published another smaller bilingual dictionary in the *Gem* series (1996, with later editions in 1997, 1999).

The pocket-sized *Longman Podręczny Słownik Angielsko-Polski, Polsko-Angielski* appeared in 1999, a compact yet utterly modern dictionary in its compilation, content, and presentation. Its instant success

inspired the larger and highly innovative *Longman Słownik Współczesny* (2004). This was the first dictionary for Polish learners of English designed specifically for target language production, largely freeing the Polish user engaged in English text production from the need to consult a monolingual dictionary or flip between the two volumes of a traditional bilingual dictionary (see Adamska-Sałaciak 2005, *Kernerman Dictionary News* 13: 23-26).

In terms of volume, the single largest lexicographic project at IFA so far has been the compilation of the most comprehensive bilingual Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary to date, *Nowy słownik Fundacji Kościuszkowskiej angielsko-polski, polsko-angielski. The new English-Polish and Polish-English Kosciuszko Foundation dictionary* (2003). The two thick volumes of this sizeable dictionary include over 130,000 headwords and around 400,000 translations.

IFA lexicographers have also contributed to specialized bilingual lexicography, and here I should mention dictionaries of information technology (*Słownik informatyczny angielsko-polski*, 1990) and of television advertising (*Angielsko-polski słownik reklamy telewizyjnej*, 2003). A pictorial English dictionary for children was published in 1990 (*Słownik obrazkowy języka angielskiego*). Specialized dictionaries of multi-word units have also been developed in Poznań: a dictionary of English idioms (1993) was followed by a comparative dictionary of Polish-English idioms, with five editions to date (1999, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005).

One may wonder why so many significant lexicographic works should have been produced at a single academic institution. I believe this is through a lucky combination of several factors. Firstly, the personal qualities of the long-time head, Professor Jacek Fisiak: his enthusiasm, foresight and organizational skills; then, the effort and skills of the linguists at IFA; finally, the sheer size of the institution itself, its research potential and emphasis on modern technology were able to ensure the completion of major lexicographic projects on time or with only relatively small delays. The expert IT support provided by Michał Jankowski and Mariusz Idzikowski made it possible to develop in-house dictionary writing tools, and even build a dedicated corpus of Polish to assist in some of the projects. No wonder that such

a combination has made IFA a desirable partner for a number of major players in English lexicography worldwide.

At IFA, the practical lexicographic work of designing and compiling dictionaries goes hand in hand with theoretical lexicographic reflection and empirical work on dictionary use, as reflected in numerous publications, including a number of books and dissertations. Let us have a brief look at a representative selection.

The one work most closely related to practical lexicographic projects is Adamska-Sałaciak's recent book (2006), offering a fresh and original analysis of some of the central theoretical and practical issues in bilingual lexicography (see the review). Also inspired by practical lexicographic work, Lew (2004) reports on a large-scale experimental study of the effectiveness of monolingual, bilingual and semi-bilingual dictionary types for Polish learners of various proficiency levels involved in receptive tasks. Dziemianko (2006) studies the user-friendliness of the various ways of conveying verb syntax information in dictionary entries (see the review). Szczepaniak (2006) examines the extent to which monolingual learners' dictionaries can assist Polish learners in interpreting creatively modified idioms.

The lexicographic research at IFA is not restricted to Polish and English

lexicography, as demonstrated by the recent PhD dissertation by Ptaszyński (2006), who looks diachronically at the usage information in bilingual English/Danish dictionaries.

The study of the phonetic aspect of dictionaries, including electronic ones, is another important area of lexicographic research at IFA. Włodzimierz Sobkowiak has published a study on how pronunciation is treated in electronic dictionaries (1999), and another recent one on the phonetics of dictionary definitions (2006). While arguing for proper attention to be given to pronunciation, on a par with other linguistic dimensions of lexicographic description, Sobkowiak actually demonstrates the ways in which this imbalance might be rectified (see the review). The same author has also created several versions of an electronic Phonetic Access Dictionary (non-commercial).

The example of the Poznań School of English shows that an alternative model of practical lexicography, one where dictionary-writing is not a full-time job but rather a sideline of university-employed linguists, is actually a viable one, and need not compromise dictionary quality, completion deadlines, or research. Actually, for that to be possible, there is yet one more key quality that's very characteristic of IFA: workaholicism.

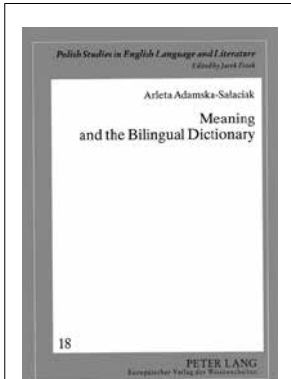
### Selected monographs on lexicography

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### Selected dictionaries developed by lexicographers at the Poznań School of English

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## Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak. *Meaning and the Bilingual Dictionary: The Case of English and Polish*



**Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak**  
***Meaning and the Bilingual Dictionary: The Case of English and Polish***  
 Polish Studies in English Language and Literature 18  
 Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang, 2006  
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 ISBN 3-361-55320-X

*Meaning and the Bilingual Dictionary* is a detailed study of bilingual lexicography carried out by Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak, a lexicographer who has been involved in the creation of a number of Polish/English dictionaries. All the issues discussed in the book focus on the lexicographic treatment of meaning. Besides an introduction and a list of references, the reader will find four main chapters.

Chapter 1 deals with the nature of bilingual dictionaries, their relationship to foreign language learning, and their typology. Starting from Sčerba's typology focusing on the active-passive dichotomy, the author tries to see how the latter's theoretical proposals translate into current lexicographic practice. She discusses the four major functions generally assigned to bilingual dictionaries: reception in L2; reception in L2 + production in L1; production in L2; reception in L1 + production in L2.

Chapter 2 deals with the presentation of meaning in bilingual dictionaries. Starting from the late John Sinclair's 2004 motto that meaning is the only thing that is ultimately worth bothering about in language, the author shows how recent advances in corpus and cognitive linguistics have impacted bilingual lexicography. She deals with the crucial questions that any lexicographer needs to answer before starting a new project: should they favor lumping or splitting strategies? Should sense divisions be based upon the source or the target language? The various mechanisms traditionally used to account for sense discrimination are examined in minute details and abundantly illustrated with real examples derived from existing dictionaries. Collocates, labels, typical arguments, variants and synonyms are discussed at length, together with the metalanguage and sense ordering issues. Should etymology be the basic criterion for ordering senses, or should other criteria, such as frequency of use or even part of speech, be used to decide which senses to list first? To each of these questions, Adamska-Sałaciak provides very clear answers, based upon her experience with Polish/English dictionaries, but also drawing on other monolingual and bilingual dictionaries.

Chapter 3 focuses on the relation between source language and target language items. Levels and degrees of equivalence are discussed, as well as the status of glosses,

which are useful when a target language item is less well-known in the target-language culture than the corresponding source-language item in the source-language culture. The author convincingly demonstrates that automatically generating an L2-L1 dictionary on the basis of reversing an L1-L2 dictionary without any human editorial work will produce disastrous results. Lexicographers are usually well aware of this, but the demonstration is worth reading and is illustrated with real examples. The author's inevitable conclusion is that full symmetry of the two dictionary sides is neither possible nor desirable.

Chapter 4 deals with the question whether usage should be illustrated with an example or explained. If it is true that users rely on examples more than on stylistic labels, it may be preferable to resort to illustrative examples. The question then becomes: what is a good example and where does it come from? Should examples be coined by lexicographers or derived from a corpus and, if they are, to what extent can they be manipulated and edited for the benefit of the user? Invented examples are sometimes over-informative and may not illustrate typical usage. Unmodified authentic examples tend to be longer. The author's conclusion is that, whenever possible, corpora should be used in the preparation of dictionary examples, bearing in mind that an example created by a competent lexicographer who has access to corpus data may work just as well, and sometimes even better, than raw corpus-based examples. The chapter ends with an interesting discussion of potential "geopolitical" issues raised by the inclusion of material that is deemed to be offensive. Inappropriate and potentially objectionable material (derogatory references to race, religion, nationalities, sexual preferences, etc.) should be removed before a dictionary goes to print, since dictionaries are perceived as more socially responsible than was the case 30 years ago.

Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak has succeeded in creating a beautifully-written essay on bilingual dictionaries, clearly based upon her experience and full of common-sense recommendations and judicious analyses. I enjoyed reading that refreshing essay.

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## Anna Dziemianko. *User-friendliness of verb syntax in pedagogical dictionaries of English*

### 1. Introduction

During the planning stages of the second edition of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE2, 1987) – the first dictionary I edited – one of the main questions under discussion was what to do about syntax. About 15 years later, when the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (MED, 2002) was at a similar stage, syntax had almost ceased to be an issue. By the late 1990s, we were able to conclude that approaches to describing syntactic behaviour in the various monolingual learners' dictionaries of English (MLDs) had reached a natural end-point: they had coalesced around a limited range of fairly simple options, and we took the view that there was not a great deal more to be done in this area. Having read Anna Dziemianko's excellent book, I am not so sure.

*User-friendliness of verb syntax in pedagogical dictionaries of English* reports on a large-scale, rigorously-designed experiment which the author conducted in order to assess the usefulness and usability of the various systems used in MLDs for describing the syntactic behaviour of verbs. This forms the heart of the book, but Dziemianko kicks off with a well-researched survey of the field. She follows the trajectory of syntax-coding systems, from the 'verb patterns' introduced in Palmer's *Grammar of English Words* (1938) to the (supposedly) transparent approaches of the present day, and she reviews relevant user-research along the way.

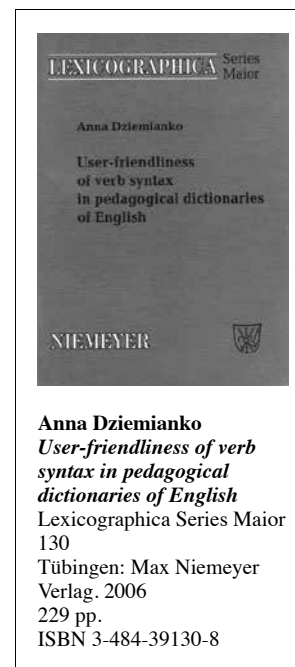
For a long time, the choice was between two equally arcane (and mutually incompatible) coding systems, as found in LDOCE1 (1978) and OALD3 (1974). The descriptive power of these systems was never in doubt: they enabled lexicographers to provide a delicate and fine-grained account of most syntactic patterns. For this reason, they were popular in the NLP community – I was almost lynched at a computational linguistics conference in the US when word got out that I was 'the man who removed the codes from LDOCE'. But by the early 1980s, it was becoming clear that the average dictionary user got very little benefit from these codes. This must be what Tony Cowie had in mind when he referred – in his Introduction to a special issue of *Applied Linguistics* on pedagogical dictionaries – to "the gap that is known to exist between the sophistication of some features of dictionary design and the user's often rudimentary reference skills" (Cowie

1981. 206). In his classic user-study in the same volume, Béjoint reports that "their [the dictionaries'] introductions are not commonly referred to, and neither are the coding systems for syntactic patterns" (Béjoint 1981. 219). Extensive market research at Longman similarly revealed that "although grammatical information is sometimes sought, most users found mnemonic codes offputting and impenetrable" (Summers 1987. F8). For the heavily-coded systems, the game was clearly up, and we then entered a period in which the two (then three, then four, then five) competing MLDs experimented with alternatives to OALD's 51 'verb patterns' and LDOCE's almost infinite alphanumeric combinations (like I5, L8, and X7). The trend was towards simplification and – to a degree – standardization, and a contemporary student who switches from one dictionary to another no longer has to relearn an elaborate inventory of symbols and codes.

But there have been two other big changes since the 1980s, and both have implications for descriptions of verb syntax. First, changes in defining styles. On the one hand, 'full-sentence definitions' (FSDs) were introduced in COBUILD1 (1987), and have since been taken up (in varying degrees) by the other MLDs (Rundell 2006). As Dziemianko shows, "the left-hand part of a full-sentence definition is a reflection of the characteristic syntactic patterns in which the verbs occur" (37). Thus the definition of *hope* ("If you hope that something is true, or if you hope for something...") tells the reader – without the need for codes – that the verb can be used in a *that*-clause or in a PP with *for*. On the other hand, the move away from 'lexicographese' meant that even 'traditional' definitions now dispensed with the brackets used (*inter alia*) for showing typical objects. This entails some loss of precision with regard to syntax. When *assassinate* is defined (without brackets) as:

to murder an important or famous person, especially for political reasons [OALD7] it is no longer clear from the definition wording alone whether the verb is transitive or not.

The second major change has, of course, been the arrival of corpora. With large amounts of language data at their disposal, lexicographers have been able to focus more systematically on what





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Patrick Hanks calls “the probable not the possible” (Hanks 2001) – and this has implications for syntax as well as for meaning and phraseology. LDOCE1 and OALD3 aimed to give a complete account of the *possible* (as opposed to regularly-occurring) syntactic behaviour of verbs, and their coding systems provided the tools for doing this. Thus at the second meaning of *suppose* (‘to believe’), LDOCE1 has no fewer than six codes, including [X1] (=verb+object+adjective complement: *they supposed him dead*) and [X9] (=verb+object+adverbial: *they supposed him somewhere else*). Most users of English (native or otherwise) could get by pretty well without knowing about either of these patterns. Yet it was common in both dictionaries for a verb entry to start by reeling off a list of codes, with only a subset of these actually illustrated by examples – for the very good reason that the non-illustrated patterns were (like these for *suppose*) almost never used in normal discourse. So the trend away from opaque coding entails not only simplification, but some loss of information too – albeit a loss that most of us would not mourn.

A key theme, then, as Dziemianko observes, is this tension between complete and accurate description on the one hand, and user-friendliness on the other: “the ease of accessibility is difficult to reconcile with the accuracy of description” (5). (An interesting question is whether or not this amounts to a fundamental incompatibility.) She mentions the familiar case of verbs whose surface pattern is verb+noun/pronoun+*to*-infinitive, and notes the technical distinction between *We want you to leave* (where ‘you’ is a direct object) and *We advise you to leave* (where it is an indirect object): they look identical, but the underlying differences emerge when you try a passive transformation. Older coding systems could (and did) account for this distinction, but contemporary MLDs tend to stick to surface grammar. This is an issue that no doubt has resonance in the more bracing academic climate of Dziemianko’s native Poland, but I suspect it would mean very little to the average UK-educated teacher of EFL. At any rate, the author—rightly, I think—concludes that this development “should be assessed positively” (16). Dziemianko’s admirably thorough opening chapter takes us through all these developments and sets the scene for her research project.

## 2. Design of experiment

In Chapter 2, Dziemianko describes the design of her experiment and the thinking

behind it. In brief, she identifies a number of variables that affect the usability of the syntactic information supplied in MLDs. These are:

- definition style: the choice here is between what she calls ‘analytical’ and ‘contextual’ definitions (or, if you prefer, conventional definitions and FSDs);

- type of explicit syntactic information: ‘formal’ codes (such as Vn), ‘functional’ codes (like T+obj+*to*-inf), and ‘pattern illustrations’ or ‘PIs’ (like *want sb to do sth*);

- location of codes: these can appear either in the entry’s example text (where a code or PI precedes an example that instantiates it) or outside the entry in an ‘Extra Column’.

Dziemianko creates 10 different mini-dictionaries, each of which contains entries for the same 15 verbs, with every entry in a given dictionary exhibiting the same combination of the variables described above. This minimizes variation among the 10 different versions, to ensure that the effects of each variable can be individually assessed (70). The 15 verbs used in the study are all of low frequency (and therefore unlikely to be familiar to the testees), and cover a range of syntactic behaviours from the simple (like *haemorrhage*) to the complex (like *jolt*, *yank*, and *subpoena*). The dictionary entries are designed to look as ‘real’ as possible, and they assemble material from a range of MLDs in various permutations, including definitions, example sentences, IPA pronunciations, part-of-speech labels, and of course the various forms of syntactic code. Following a cleverly-designed pre-test, subjects complete a multiple-choice test relating to each of the 15 verb entries in their mini-dictionary. Additionally, they are asked to underline any part (or parts) of the entry in which they located the information they needed to perform the test. Two large groups of subjects took the test: about 300 high school students and a similar number of students from Dziemianko’s own university in Poznan. This adds the further dimension of language proficiency, so any differences in dictionary-use strategies between these two cohorts can also be observed.

This is at best a cursory overview of a meticulously planned piece of research, which (to my knowledge, anyway) is on a larger scale, and covers a wider range of variables, than anything attempted so far in this area. What is so impressive here is Dziemianko’s terrier-like determination to identify any non-relevant factors that might vitiate her results, and then make appropriate adjustments to minimize the



risk. I'm not qualified to comment on the soundness of her statistical methods (described in some detail on pp72-82), but by the time I got to this point I had seen enough to take this section on trust.

### 3. Findings and implications

The immense care taken over the design of the experiment pays off handsomely in the breadth and depth of the data it delivers. A short review can't do justice to the 50-odd pages of analysis in Chapter 3, in which numerous hypotheses are tested against the experiment's results, so a few highlights will have to do. In no particular order:

- subjects with higher language proficiency were much more likely to get their syntactic information from *multiple* sources of information within the entry, whereas the high-school students tended to focus on just one or two entry components;
- examples were the favourite source of syntactic information in most cases, particularly among the high-school students;
- definitions were in general the least favoured source of syntactic information, but *contextual* definitions (or FSDs) were resorted to more often than analytical ones;
- the positioning of codes (whether in a side column or in the body of the entry) did not seem to make much difference to the frequency with which they were consulted;
- where codes were used, functional codes – perhaps surprisingly – were preferred to formal ones. For the university students especially, coded syntactic information was still quite frequently used (and successfully, on the whole);
- (but) PIs were generally preferred to codes of either type. They were consulted “much more frequently ... than any codes in entries with analytical definitions, and even than codes and contextual definitions taken together in the others” (154). Where PIs appear in the entry, the resort to examples is sharply reduced (152). And (somewhat counterintuitively) PIs were used more often by university students than by the less proficient high-school students.

Where does this leave us? Dziemianko concludes (188) that “as far as syntactic information is concerned, a user-friendly verb entry should contain examples, a contextual definition [FSD] and functional codes interspersed among examples”. But she concedes that the jury is out on “those conclusions which pertain to codes and pattern illustrations”. In most respects, this looks like sensible advice. As far as the use of contextual definitions goes, my own view (Rundell 2006) is that these work best when the syntax is

straightforward and there is a dominant syntactic preference – thus verbs typically used reflexively, intransitively, or with a simple PP tend to fit this model well. But the format is less successful with verbs whose syntactic behaviour shows a range of equally valid possibilities. In cases like this, you either have to commit to just one of several structures (thus apparently downgrading other possibilities), or to create a cumbersome definition that attempts to account for them all.

### 4. Some concluding remarks

Most writers who have carried out research in this area have ended with a plea for more teaching of dictionary skills, and Dziemianko is no exception (190-191). This is understandable enough – it is obviously frustrating if users are unaware of, or unable to use, all the riches their dictionaries provide. Desirable though this may be, I suspect it is not the answer. For the generation now using MLDs (typically, people in the age range 16-24), complete transparency is the default expectation. The iPod comes with almost no instructions – you just have to figure it out, and most people under 30 have no problem with this. So it is incumbent on designers of dictionaries to create systems that users don't have to *learn* and that don't require elaborate explanatory material.

On the other hand electronic media open up new opportunities. Users could choose from several levels and several types of syntactic information to suit their individual needs, skills, and preferences – from the minimal to the complex, from pattern illustrations to descriptively powerful codes. We also need to think about the many areas of grammar which *none* of the current systems deals with adequately. MLDs are still relatively superficial when it comes to explaining issues such as whether a complement or pattern is optional or obligatory; in what circumstances the object of a transitive verb can safely be omitted; whether an obligatory adverbial (for verbs like *put*) has an endless range of exponents; and so on. To give a single example: you can *prevent someone leaving* or *prevent someone from leaving*: the *from* appears to be optional – but it isn't optional when the verb is passivized. This is hardly an obscure fact of grammar, but you won't find it in any of the current MLDs. Colligation, too – the preferences some verbs have for appearing in the passive or in a progressive form or infinitive, for example – is at best covered patchily. The description of syntactic behaviour is far from complete, and better ways of presenting that description can still



be discovered.

Dziemiątko's research (even if this was not the primary intention) makes a strong case for dictionary designers to revisit the area of syntactic description, and provides a great deal of valuable data to inform this debate. The book isn't always an easy read, and Dziemiątko occasionally gets bogged down in debates that aren't strictly relevant: for example, there is a lengthy discussion (22-28) on the relative merits of 'made-up' versus 'real' examples – which doesn't add much to Dziemiątko's argument, and is a rather overblown topic anyway. One might question, too, how far her subjects are typical of the whole community of MLD users. Her university cohort had an average of ten years' English instruction, and had attended courses in linguistics and English grammar – which must put them at the higher end of the skills spectrum. One other minor complaint: it was a little surprising to find no index, though perhaps that's more of a problem for a reviewer than for a 'normal' reader. But these are very small blemishes. This is an exemplary study and a valuable

contribution to the body of user-research.

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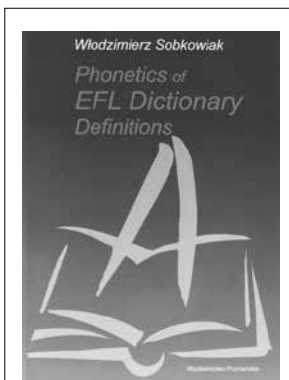
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## Włodzimierz Sobkowiak. *Phonetics of EFL Dictionary Definitions*



**Włodzimierz Sobkowiak**  
*Phonetics of EFL Dictionary Definitions*  
 Anglistyka  
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The rationale of *Phonetics of EFL Dictionary Definitions* is to provide lexicographers with phonetically-based insights into their choice of words in dictionary definitions so that these definitions can be more easily understood by second language learners.

The book concentrates on a rather neglected area of lexicography, namely, the application of phonetic principles to dictionary writing. Why is this type of research relatively rare? The answer is found when one considers the widespread knowledge needed in such disparate and, to many, largely inaccessible areas in order to tackle this issue. The areas of expertise include: phonetics, computational linguistics, statistics, corpus linguistics, contrastive phonology, natural language processing (NLP), etc. It is unusual to find one person who can enter such a large arena of events, and be capable of handling such immense diversity. Sobkowiak is an exception. His knowledge of all of these spheres is impressive, and his ability to integrate these outlying strands into one woven piece of lexicographic cloth is indeed admirable. In fact, looking at

Sobkowiak's work over the last years indicates a nearly one-man crusade for the inclusion of phonetic analyses in lexicographic research (Sobkowiak 2002, 2003, 2004).

The same reasons that make this work truly notable, namely its breadth and attention to detailed analyses, also provide the major obstacles to its wider acceptance and fuller understanding. To comprehend the book, you must be familiar with concepts as diverse as statistical frequency analyses and N-grams from the field of corpus linguistics to more esoteric and specialized notions from the field of phonetics. Concepts such as phonological interference, sandhi phenomena, as well as the various phonetic terms that are used in the book (e.g. devoicing, syllabic sonorants, palatalization, overnasalization, just to name a few) may be rather obscure to someone from a purely lexicographic background. Meanwhile, the detailed tables and charts sometimes bog down the reader with so many intricacies that one is often trying to look for the forest while navigating the many trees.

One suggestion that could be helpful

is to provide the reader with a glossary of terms. This is particularly important for the many abbreviations that are used throughout. It would also be helpful for pinpointing small editing problems, such as the use of the abbreviation POS ('parts of speech') in Table 7, [p.31] while using COS (presumably 'categories of speech') in Table 10, [p.44] for discussing the same concept. A glossary would also help unite the disparate areas needed for understanding this material.

If one is inclined to think that this is an area that has been somewhat left untreated simply because of its relative unimportance, then a re-examination is clearly in order. Historical lack of attention to the most basic element of reading – sound to meaning correspondence – is an oversight in current dictionary design that should not be taken lightly. After all, if you cannot read or understand a definition, then why have the definition in the first place?

From a pedagogical standpoint, what *can* be learned from definitions? As Sobkowiak notes, incidental learning of vocabulary is well-known, but attention paid to learning from dictionary definitions is a rather neglected area of vocabulary-acquisition research: "During definition reading and processing by learners, incidental learning can occur, just like in any other reading activity...however [], I could find no research devoted to definition reading itself." [p.78]. If definitions can be improved so that sub-vocal reading is made easier (presumably leading to greater understanding of the definition), this would clearly be an improvement in dictionary development.

The book is a collection of several large-scale studies, compacted into one overall treatise. It provides a multitude of in-depth research programs that include:

1. An analysis of grapho-phonemic problems and inter-lingual phonological interference patterns encountered by Polish speakers learning English.
2. The development of a scale of the "Phonetic Difficulty Index" (PDI) – a coded metric of how difficult an English word would be for native Polish speakers to pronounce, based on the above analyses, and its application by algorithmic assignment to each entry of a reference wordlist database (a machine-readable version of the OALD wordlist).
3. Detailed general language and phonetic modeling, including an impressive array of statistical analyses, to act as baselines for comparing to dictionary-specific content.
4. Detailed empirical investigations of

the PDI metric, used for measuring the inherent phonologically-related difficulty of the following dictionary content:

- a. the defining vocabularies (DV) of four leading EFL dictionaries (LDOCE, OALD, CALD, and MEDAL)
- b. the definitions of the MEDAL dictionary
- c. 100-word samples of definitions from five EFL dictionaries (LDOCE, OALD, CALD, MEDAL, and COBUILD).

The basic findings indicate that these major dictionaries do not differ significantly from one another in terms of the PDI's of their defining vocabularies and definitions. Thus, no dictionary is 'phonetically harder' than any other. The question is, however, if some improvements could be made to make the dictionaries 'phonetically easier', and on what basis?

The comprehensive statistical analysis of MEDAL shows some differences in comparison to a reference lexicon. Some could be explained by the choice of DV or the usage of particular definition-specific words that boost the incidence of hard-to-pronounce phonemes. Sobkowiak points out that dictionary writers and editors could judiciously choose DV items or particular words in the definitions, keeping in mind the PDI metric. For example, the word 'whether', with the medial /th/ sound that is hard for Polish speakers to pronounce, could be replaced by the easier-to-pronounce 'if', while providing similar functionality in the definition (e.g. in the definition of *screen*: "to decide whether someone is suitable" vs. "to decide if someone is suitable", p. 90). Sobkowiak analyses dictionary microstructure and provides other such phonolapsological-based suggestions for making dictionary definitions easier for Polish learners.

Another finding is that the PDI metric, being word-based, does not capture across-word phenomena that are evident when words occur in various contexts. Having been involved in the application of phonetics to Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) and Text-to-Speech (TTS) for several decades, I can attest to the fact that this is not a trivial issue. Capturing contextually-variable coarticulation and vowel-reduction effects is a major obstacle in creating accurate acoustic models for speech recognition engines. Adequate across-word modeling, including intonation and other suprasegmental factors, is at the basis of providing natural sounding synthetic speech in TTS.

In the ELT sphere, it is apparent that 'a

## *Lexicography in Asia, Vol. 2*

The Department of English Language and Literature of the National University of Singapore and K Dictionaries are publishing a selection of papers from the ASIALEX 2005 Conference, as part of the *Lexicography in Asia* line. Entitled *Perspectives in Lexicography: Asia and Beyond*, it is edited by V.B.Y. Ooi, A. Pakir, I.S. Talib, P. Tan and I.J. Kernerman. The tentative contents are as follows:

**Introduction** · Vincent Ooi and Anne Pakir

### **Asian Perspectives**

- Lexical concerns about neologism in Chinese lexicography · Yihua Zhang
  - A three-way dictionary: bringing Cantonese, English and Putonghua together · Jacqueline Lam, Lan Li and Tom McArthur
  - Survey of pragmatic information in bilingual English-Chinese dictionaries · Saihong Li and Xiuying Wang
  - Grammatical class, tags and lemmas: a corpus-based study of the Malay lexicon · Gerry Knowles and Zuraidah Mohd Don
  - The treatment of greeting formulae in a bilingual dictionary of Gulf Arabic · Hashan Al-Ajmi and Lafi Al-Harbi
  - Words in Asian cultural contexts · Susan Butler
  - Dictionary making in an ascendant English knowing bilingual community · Anne Pakir
- Pedagogical Perspectives**
- Web-based EFL dictionaries: their development, characteristics, and problems · Shigeru Yamada
  - Exploring the potential of learner corpora for pedagogical lexicography · Yukio Tono

- Electronic dictionaries in the classroom · *Shinya Ozawa and James Ronald*
- The benefits of CD-ROM dictionaries in teaching · *Monika Szirmai*
- Designing a pedagogical dictionary of English academic vocabulary for Chinese speakers · *Gregory James*
- Dictionary use strategies by EFL learners in Taiwan · *Da-Fu Huang*
- English learners' dictionaries: an undervalued resource · *Julia Miller*
- Learner perspective for effective dictionary skill training and lexicography · *Tetsuro Fujii*
- Multiple word class entries in advanced learners dictionaries of English · *Sadayuki Nakane*
- Word combinations represented in illustrative examples in English learners' dictionaries · *Hai Xu*
- Not quite first language, not quite second language either: dictionary entries for learners caught in between · *Peter Tan*
- Competing lexicographical models and frameworks for the ESL context · *Vincent Ooi*

#### General Perspectives

- Interlingual lexicography, with special reference to research priorities · *Reinhard Hartmann*
- Reverse indexing and customization – future trends in bilingualized dictionaries · *Hugo T.Y. Tseng*
- Computer-mediated language: a new challenge for dictionary-making? · *Wengao Gong*
- Relational network notation and the intelligent web · *Jonathan Webster and Ian C. Chow*
- Linking dictionary and corpus · *Adam Kilgariff*
- Narrative and the multimodal contexts of lexicography · *Ismail Talib*
- Dictionaries and translation, from art to science? · *Ilan Kernerman*

word spoken in isolation' is only the beginning of pronunciation learning: the real test is if the word can be intelligibly spoken by the non-native in varying contexts, with proper stress, using varying intonation and dynamic syntactic patterning. As a former teacher-trainer involved in the technological hunt for the ultimate 'teacher-free' automatic program for teaching pronunciation to foreign learners, I can testify that this test is highly complex and reflects the intricate phonetic inter-dependencies that occur in the production of variable speech. The current international craze for accent reduction programs and the high attention paid to across-word contextual phenomena indicate that aiding such pronunciation problems addresses a real need; the success rate of such programs show that even human teachers (not only automatic-based instruction programs) find these difficult to adequately teach.

In this regard, Sobkowiak must be commended for his academic honesty in outlining such problems with the proposed PDI and the influence this may have had on the outcome of some of the results. However, nobody has yet produced a perfect metric the first time around, and this is where subsequent studies have their work cut out. It must also be noted that there are many possible applications for such a metric if it could be perfected, notably in the field of linguistic resource development for speech applications involving foreign accents, currently a pressing problem for ASR. Procedures for collecting databases that are relevant for speech recognition simply do not take into account difficulty of pronunciation. ASR databases typically contain recordings of hundreds, if not thousands, of speakers using prompt sheets that include linguistically designed material to cover phoneme variability related to contextual factors (e.g. the phonetically balanced sentences in the TIMIT database, Fisher et. al, 1986). Such collections of foreign speakers of English are difficult to create, since non-native speakers find it hard to read aloud the required material that must be recorded to create phoneme models (e.g. the 'Orientel' collection for several types of Arabic-accented English or French speech; Zitouni et. al 2002, Siemund et. al 2002).

Looking into foreseeable dictionary development, one can surmise that in the not-too-distant future it may be possible to have 'read-aloud' programs packaged into the dictionary itself, using real speech recordings or natural sounding TTS, for aiding the second-language

learner to read dictionary definitions. Until such time, however, users must still sub-vocalize, read, and understand these definitions. This research indicates that some type of 'phonetic control' can be accomplished to make the task easier, without impacting on other important lexicographic needs.

What can now be studied is the actual degradation of vocabulary learning that presumably would take place if very difficult phonetic material (based on the PDI metric) is used in the dictionary. Subsequent studies could model vocabulary learning difficulties based on PDI challenges, both within dictionary definitions and elsewhere, and, of course, for speakers of other languages learning English. It is hoped that in the future more attention will be paid to researching dictionary usage and effectiveness of definitions in terms of phonetic factors.

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# Eight Suggestions for Improving Learners' Dictionaries

Ari Kernerman

## Introduction

The development of monolingual learner's dictionaries (MLDs) has had a profound influence on general lexicography. They have more tangible definitions in easily comprehensible language, examples of usage and collocations, helpful linguistic advice, and a general user-friendly approach. But there's still room for improvement. Based mainly on the 5 advanced English MLDs, that enjoy the bulk of the learner's dictionary market, a number of suggestions are made for improvement.

Actually, every dictionary is a learner's dictionary, in the sense that even well educated native speakers consult them for unfamiliar words, or to clarify spelling, etc. But in this paper, we are referring to dictionaries for learners of English as a foreign language. Although dictionaries are intended mainly for reference, MLDs are language learning aids or tools, companions to text-books. How can they be improved?

## 1. Explaining a dictionary's rationale

Basing this discussion on the five main English MLDs (Big Five), although all have very detailed and extensive user's guides, none of the Introductions is aimed at the prospective user, but all stay aloof.

- *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 7<sup>th</sup> ed., 2005. Oxford: Oxford University Press. (OALD7)

In the Foreword, Professor Henry Widdowson writes an exposition for lexicographers, lexicography enthusiasts, linguists, and teachers. As in the previous editions of the OALD, the Foreword is not intended, nor is it appropriate, for its users. Its contents are far above the level of those for whom the dictionary is intended, even though they are considered 'advanced' learners.

- *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed., 2001. Essex: Pearson Education. (LDOCE3)

In the 25 pages of preliminary material, Professor Randolph Quirk's Preface is mainly about the problems that faced the lexicographers when they wrote the dictionary. This may be of interest to other lexicographers, dictionary lovers, and teachers, but it is not helpful for the users, who, could they understand the Preface, might not need to use the dictionary. And in the Introduction, Della Summers, Director of Longman Dictionaries, begins

with "Welcome again to the updated and improved third edition...". Why "again"? She discusses mainly what Longman has done differently in this edition, but not what its object and use are.

- *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed., 2001. Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers. (COBUILD3)

Of the 50 preliminary pages, Editor-in-Chief, the late Professor John Sinclair, devotes three pages to an Introduction explaining mainly why this dictionary is based on a word corpus, and why a word corpus is good for you – as if the user really cares, or even understands what a word corpus is. Although the editor addresses the user, the Introduction clearly reads like an attempt at self-justification, and may be more relevant to linguists and grammarians.

- *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2003. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (CALD2)

In the Introduction, Editor Patrick Gillard writes mainly about the "character" of the dictionary, not about how to use it.

- *Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, 2002. London: Macmillan Publishers and Bloomsbury Publishing. (MEDAL)

In the Foreword, Chief Advisor Professor Michael Hoey philosophizes about the dictionary, providing the user with no useful tools to start using it, while in the Introduction, Michael Rundell, Editor-in-Chief, talks about how the dictionary was written, possibly addressing teachers.

It seems they all missed the point. These dictionaries are written for language learners – who are usually high school and university students – but, unfortunately, they are directed more towards their teachers.

**Recommendation:** Explain to the users in their own language what the dictionary is all about and how to use it.

## 2. Cultural orientation

The Big Five are all written and produced in the United Kingdom, and are culturally oriented to the British way of life. They are the main English learners' dictionaries that are used around the world. Although in most cases there are also American editions, most learners of English as a foreign or second language are situated neither in the UK nor in North America, but are usually learning their English at



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## ***Lexicography in Asia, Vol. 3*** **Call for Papers**

*Lexicography in Asia* appeared on October 1, 1998 (editors Tom MacArthur and Ilan Kernerman, <http://kdictionaries.com/lia.html>). It comprised mainly a selection of papers from the Dictionaries in Asia Conference, that was held the previous year at the Hong Kong University of Science and Technology and that served as a forum for the establishment of the Asian Association for Lexicography (ASIALEX; <http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn5-3.html>, <http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn6-4.html>).

K Dictionaries is happy to announce that, to celebrate the tenth anniversary of this collection, we will publish a new volume to be entitled *Lexicography in Asia, Vol. 3* on October 1, 2008. The proposal of papers for this new publication is open to the public.

Papers are invited on all relevant topics of lexicography in Asia, and will be distributed to referees for anonymous review. The deadline for proposals is December 31, 2007. Notifications of acceptance/rejection will be provided by March 31, 2008, and the deadline for final versions is May 15, 2008.

Full details on the submission process, including a styleguide, are available online: <http://kdictionaries.com/lia3.html>. Please address all enquiries to the project coordinator, Anat Kravitz, [lia3@kdictionaries.com](mailto:lia3@kdictionaries.com)

school or college, in their own country. For example, authors of the Big Five might define conventional medicine as that type of medicine which is practiced in the West, and alternative medicine as what is practiced in the East. Yet, the Chinese consider their own medicine to be conventional, not alternative.

English is studied in the non-English-speaking countries as the global lingua franca, not as the mother tongue of natives of Britain or the US. Sentences should refer to local events and personalities only if these are familiar to the user and relevant to his society.

In short, these dictionaries assume that the learner is studying English for ‘integrative purposes’, in order to assimilate and integrate in the USA, the UK, Australia, etc., whereas in most cases they are learning the language for ‘instrumental purposes’, in other words, for professional or communication purposes, often in order to confer in English with people in other non-English-speaking countries – as the ‘global lingua franca’.

**Recommendation:** Each country should have its own dictionaries, written, or, at least edited, if not in that country, then for it.

### **3. Learning in the language you think in**

No teaching can eliminate the need to know the equivalent for a new word in the mother tongue. The generation of total submergence in the language being learned is far behind us. Submergence, yes, but not total. Naturally, teachers would like their students to endeavor to think in the new language. The more they live and breathe it, and the more they speak and read it, the more they can be involved in it and internalize it. But language learners need the confirmation of knowing the mother tongue equivalent, because they inevitably search for it. That’s a fact that I don’t think I need to spend more time on.

**Recommendation:** Publishers should publish bilingualized editions of their MLDs, that is, with the headwords translated.

### **4. Over-writing and over-explaining**

Competition has been causing dictionary publishers to overshoot the mark. The competition is stiff, and the investment required is huge. You have to compete in order to regain your investment and make profit. So each dictionary publisher, in each new edition, tries to outdo the others by adding something new and original. The result is that MLDs are becoming more encyclopedic with each new edition, thus diminishing, rather than enhancing,

their learner-friendliness. They contain too much extraneous material. Users generally want to know mainly the basic information, such as meaning, use or spelling. But they have to wade through an unnecessarily large amount of information in order to find what they want.

Even the linguistic items are often geared to language-teaching professionals, rather than learners. For example, two pages in OALD7 are devoted to explaining their phonetic symbols – a text seemingly written for phoneticians. Likewise, in MEDAL there are pages devoted to how to write an academic paper, to explaining what a metaphor is for (as if they don’t have metaphors in other languages), and pages devoted to pragmatics, that are a way beyond the language level of the learners. CALD2 has a whole page devoted to the comma.

**Recommendation:** Cut down on the non-lexical (usually grammatical and encyclopedic) information that is cluttering up the dictionary.

### **5. Standardizing the dictionary parameters**

It’s high time dictionary publishers got together to unify many aspects of their dictionaries. It would make life easier for users, as well as for teachers. Standardization would promote familiarity with dictionary use, and familiarity would facilitate and encourage dictionary usefulness and usability. For how much longer will we continue to be at the stage where almost the only thing that can be taught in the classroom about dictionary use is the order of the letters of the alphabet, because the systems are so different from each other?

For example, the International Standards Organization (ISO) is preparing a revised version of standards called ‘Presentation/Representation of Entries in Dictionaries’, the aim of which is to facilitate the production, exchange and management procedures for the creation and use of dictionary content (André Le Meur and Marie-Jeanne Derouin, ISO 1951: a revised standard for lexicography, 2006. *KDN14*). But will dictionary publishers adopt it?

**Recommendation:** Out of consideration for the users, publishers should coordinate parameters, rather than strive to be original.

### **6. Determining the order of meanings by didactic criteria, not by corpus frequency**

The information derived from corpora is very interesting and undoubtedly useful for linguists. But must dictionaries indeed be based on corpora? Giving the “basic” meaning of a word first may be more

helpful in understanding its various uses, than giving first a derived meaning just because its use is more frequent.

**Recommendation:** Dictionaries should be corpus-assisted, not corpus-based, so give preference to the relative didactic importance of the various meanings, instead of to their corpus frequency, when determining order of appearance or example sentences.

### 7. Cutting down on the amount of space devoted to common words and function words

Dictionary users already know a great many of the meanings and uses of high frequency words. So space can be saved by treating familiar words more briefly and concisely. Do dictionary editors think that after 5 years of study, language learners really want to look up *a*, *an*, *the*, or *of*? Is it necessary for OALD7 to devote over a quarter of a page to the word *a*, or is such extensive treatment given to this entry for the sake of the reviewers?

**Recommendation:** Accept that dictionary users already possess a basic knowledge of the new language, cut down on unnecessary information, and leave more space for new entries.

### 8. Finding an alternative to the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) to teach pronunciation

Learning the IPA is a difficult task. Many teachers themselves cannot read it. It would be better, particularly for users whose mother tongue is not written in the roman alphabet, to follow the American custom of not applying the phonetic alphabet.

**Recommendation:** Use a simpler and more practical method for teaching pronunciation, if possible, taking into consideration the user's mother tongue.

### Conclusions: Advice to MLD publishers

1. Include a User's Introduction, explaining in simple language how to use the dictionary.
2. Write the definitions in a way that is culturally neutral. And select example sentences that are more universal in content. Consider publishing local editions, at least for the main countries in your market area.
3. Provide translations of the headwords in the user's native language, and reserve monolingual editions for mother-tongue immersion situations.
4. Cut down on the non-essential information that is cluttering up the dictionary.
5. Out of consideration for the users, coordinate parameters with other dictionary publishers, rather than try to be original.

6. Give preference to the didactic importance of the various meanings, instead of to their corpus frequency, when determining their order of appearance, or when selecting the example sentences.

7. Accept that dictionary users already possess a basic knowledge of the new language, so cut down on unnecessary information and leave space for more entries.

8. Introduce a simpler and more practical method than the IPA for teaching pronunciation.

### ASIALEX now

The Asian Association for Lexicography (ASIALEX) was founded as the highlight of the Dictionaries in Asia Conference held at Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (HKUST, 1997). The organizers, Gregory James and Amy Chi, set up a preparatory committee in 1996 to make all of the necessary arrangements, assisted by scholars from Hong Kong and China and representatives of the sister associations AFRILEX, AUSTRALEX, and EURALEX. Over seventy participants took part in the inauguration of ASIALEX and the election of its first Executive Committee that took place on March 29, 1997.

As described by Amy Chi, "[i]t was hoped that ASIALEX would act as a focus for lexicographic development in Asia," and foster further research, cooperation, and grant funding (Dictionaries in Asia and ASIALEX, 1997. KDN5: 6-7, <http://kdictionary.com/kdn/kdn5-3.html>). Much has indeed been accomplished, especially in the form of the first regional symposium in neighbouring Guangzhou (1999, <http://kdictionary.com/kdn/kdn6-3.html>), leading to the biennial conferences in Seoul (2001, <http://kdictionary.com/kdn/kdn8-2.html>), Tokyo (2003, <http://kdictionary.com/kdn/kdn11-07.html>), and Singapore (2005, <http://kdictionary.com/kdn/kdn1314.html>).

For anyone attending these events it was clear how vital ASIALEX can be for the fulfillment of

local, regional, and global needs and aspirations. In ten years of existence it has produced and enjoyed astounding moments, but "there are certainly a lot of pearls buried under the hay", as goes the Chinese saying quoted at the time by Chi. It still has to build itself as a lively, dynamic, democratic society run collectively and routinely by the large body of its membership, in order to be able to realize its full potential and goals. Meanwhile its operation is substantially subject to individual good will and efforts, usually from above without enough grassroots involved – having no paid membership, regular elections, an active board, or interactive networking.

Now ASIALEX, as an Asia-wide organization, exists mainly virtually. It comes alive once every two years for an excellent meeting, a glittering torch handed over from one conference convener to the next, though little flame in between. Can it be inspired to more?

By all means. The Asian Association for Lexicography is young, its spirit of heritage and progress is infinite. Entering adolescence, its future maturity does not depend on each local institute at its turn but on all of us all the time. As observed by Amy Chi in summing up the founding role of the HKUST Language Centre ten years ago, "[i]n the long run, however, it will be the responsibility of ASIALEX to remedy the situation."

■ IJK

# Kernerman English Multilingual Dictionary

*Kernerman English Multilingual Dictionary* (KEMD) is based on the Kernerman Semi-Bilingual Dictionaries series (also known as *Password Dictionaries*). It consists of an English-English dictionary core with multi-language translations for each sense of the entry and is available in various electronic media, making it possible to look up words in any language and to specify the language(s) in which results are provided, all going through the English bridge.

KEMD 1.0 features translations in 30 languages

- Arabic • Chinese Simplified • Chinese Traditional • Czech • Danish • Dutch • Estonian • Finnish • French • German • Greek • Hungarian • Icelandic • Indonesian • Italian • Japanese • Korean • Latvian • Lithuanian • Norwegian • Polish • Portuguese Brazil • Portuguese Portugal • Romanian • Russian • Slovak • Slovenian • Spanish • Swedish • Turkish

The English core of KEMD is derived from *Chambers Concise Usage Dictionary* and incorporates new English entries created by K Dictionaries. The translations were made by either K Dictionaries or these partners:

- Alma Littera (Vilnius, Lithuanian) • Aschehoug and Kunnskapsforlaget (Oslo, Norwegian) • DZS (Ljubljana, Slovenian) • EDDA (Reykjavik, Icelandic)

- Kesaint Blanc (Jakarta, Indonesian) • Martins Fontes (São Paulo, Portuguese Brazilian) • Media Trade - SPN (Bratislava, Slovak) • Nemzeti Tankönyvkiadó (Budapest, Hungarian) • Niculsecu (Bucarest, Romanian) • Studentlitteratur (Lund, Swedish) • TEA (Tallinn, Estonian) • WSOY (Helsinki, Finnish) • YBM/Si-sa (Seoul, Korean) • Zvaigzne ABC (Riga, Latvian)
- KEMD data has been available in CD, online and mobile versions of *MOT GlobalDix* by Kielikone since 2001, and will increase to 42 languages by 2008 (<http://kielikone.fi>, <http://kdictionaries.com/kdn/kdn9-4.html>).

Online applications are available by Lexico on <http://dictionary.com>, and by EDDA on <http://vefbaekur.is>.

An abridged 18-language version is integrated into WhiteSmoke's English grammar-writing software (<http://whitesmoke.com>).

KEMD 2.0 will include another dozen language translations, as follows:

- Afrikaans • Bulgarian • Croatian • Farsi • Hebrew • Hindi • Malay • Serbian • Thai • Ukrainian • Urdu • Vietnamese

A KEMD-based screensaver application is freely downloadable from:

<http://kdictionaries.com/down/kdscreensaver2007.zip>

## screensaver, screen saver

/skri:nseivəl/

*noun*

a program that displays a picture or animations, usually in order to protect the screen, when the computer is idle

*A popular screensaver is one of fish swimming in an aquarium.*



KDICTIONARIES

<i>Afrikaans</i>	skermkut
<i>Arabic</i>	حافظ الشاشة
<i>Chinese Simplified</i>	屏幕保护程序
<i>Chinese Traditional</i>	屏幕保護程序
<i>Czech</i>	spořič obrazovky
<i>Danish</i>	pauseskærm
<i>Dutch</i>	screensaver, schermbeveiliging
<i>Estonian</i>	ekraanisäästja
<i>Farsi</i>	محافظ صفحه
<i>Finnish</i>	näytönsäästäjä
<i>French</i>	économiseur d'écran
<i>German</i>	Bildschirmschoner
<i>Greek</i>	οικονόμος οθόνης
<i>Hebrew</i>	שומר תצג
<i>Hungarian</i>	képernyőkimélő
<i>Icelandic</i>	skjásvæfa
<i>Indonesian</i>	screensaver
<i>Italian</i>	screensaver
<i>Japanese</i>	スクリーンセーバー
<i>Korean</i>	화면 보호기, 스크린 세이버 보호기
<i>Latvian</i>	ekrānsaudzētājs
<i>Lithuanian</i>	ekrano užsklanda
<i>Norwegian</i>	skjemsparer
<i>Polish</i>	wygaszacz ekranu
<i>Portuguese Brazil</i>	protetor da tela
<i>Portuguese Portugal</i>	protector de tela, protector de écran
<i>Romanian</i>	ecran a salva
<i>Russian</i>	хранитель экрана, скринсейвер
<i>Slovak</i>	Šetrič obrazovky
<i>Slovenian</i>	ohranjevalec zaslona
<i>Spanish</i>	salvapantalla, protector de pantalla
<i>Swedish</i>	skärmsläckara (skärmsparare)
<i>Turkish</i>	ekran koruyucu
<i>Ukrainian</i>	скрінсейвер