

DICTIONARY News

Merriam-Webster and the future of dictionary-making

John M. Morse

Once upon a time, not so long ago, Charles Levine and Joseph Esposito exchanged views in these pages about the future of dictionary-making, and not surprisingly, the name Merriam-Webster came up more than a few times. The overly simple version of that conversation was that Charles was predicting a coming boom in English lexicography, especially in creating products for nonnative speakers of English, while Joe thought the future of dictionary-making was pretty punk, mostly because Microsoft was going to take over the business by bundling a so-so dictionary with Windows. He ends his essay with the wistful "Good-bye Oxford and Merriam. It was nice to know you."

At the time, I thought it best not to respond. Joe, after all, was suggesting a certain degree of fecklessness on the part of the management of Merriam-Webster and OUP and predicting our eventual demise. As such, I thought any response from Merriam-Webster would be seen as self-defensive (we would resist the charge and reject the prediction) and lacking credibility (what else really could we say?).

However, in his last installment, Charles offered a glimpse of Merriam-Webster's business at the time and suggested that readers should stay tuned, so perhaps an update on Merriam-Webster and its view about the future of dictionary-making is now in order. First, I am happy to report that the state of health of Merriam-Webster is still quite good and that profits have increased in every year since that conversation took place. Interestingly, this buttresses Joe's gloomy scenario more than Charles' sunny one. Charles postulates that growth in the dictionary business would come from sales of products for nonnative speakers, and Merriam-Webster has really just begun to offer such products, so that doesn't explain the growth over the past five years. Joe, on the other hand, predicted a period of short-term growth for Merriam-Webster and Oxford, as we both pick up market share

from weaker rivals falling by the wayside, before Microsoft finally lowers the boom on both of us.

So Round 1 of dueling prognostications seems to go to Joe, but what neither Charles nor Joe addressed in any detail was how growth in online use of the dictionary would affect the business. I mean no criticism with that remark; the emergence of free online delivery as a significant source of revenue did not occur until after Charles and Joe made their comments, but the development is significant nonetheless. I don't think I'm making headlines to say that much of Merriam-Webster's growth in the past five years has come from revenues flowing from online use of our products. And, in a less parochial vein, I think we all should take some encouragement from the fact that *dictionary* is one of the most frequently submitted search terms to Internet search engines. Indeed, the good news coming out of the online experience so far is that a lot of people are using dictionaries. And the log files of our Web sites suggest the Web is well supplied with serious people asking serious questions about serious words.

Of course, it needs to be said that this growth in revenue has not come easily. It has required old dogs to learn some new tricks. If I had been asked twenty years ago what was the one aspect of publishing that dictionary publishers would never have to learn, I might well have said advertising sales. Who ever heard of ads in the pages of a dictionary? And yet, here we are, fully committed to a new way of making money that requires new knowledge, new skills, and new ways of looking at our business. In the online world, for instance, we don't sell the dictionary; we sell the eyeballs that look at the dictionary. This new business model will worry some dictionary-watchers and set them to wondering what nefarious effects it will have on editorial policies and on dictionary-making in general. I am

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Editor | **Ilan J. Kernerman**
Graphic Design | **Studio Orna Cohen**



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K DICTIONARIES LTD
Nahum 8 Tel Aviv 63503 Israel
Tel: 972-3-5468102
Fax: 972-3-5468103
kdn@kdictionaries.com
http://kdictionaries.com



John M. Morse is the President and Publisher of Merriam-Webster Incorporated. He began his tenure in 1980, following four years as Project Editor for Merriam-Webster's parent company, Encyclopædia Britannica. As Manager of Editorial Operations and Planning in 1983, and as Executive Editor in 1991, he assumed overall responsibility for all product-development operations. He was promoted to the position of Publisher in 1996, widening his responsibilities to include all company operations, and was named President and Publisher the following year. He continues to be actively involved in the company's editorial process, including the creation of *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate® Dictionary, Eleventh Edition*. Mr. Morse is a graduate of Haverford College and holds a Masters of Arts degree in English Language and Literature from the University of Chicago. He is a frequent speaker on topics having to do with language, dictionary-making, and the relationship between print and electronic publishing.
 jmorse@merriam-webster.com

happy to report that, at least so far, I see no bad effects at all. The main difference is greater sense of urgency to meet the needs of and delight the user, but that certainly can't be a bad thing.

None of this refutes Joe's central point about the power of bigger players to distort the world of dictionaries. Fears about Microsoft may seem increasingly archaic, but substitute Google for Microsoft and muse on the fact that one tweak of the Google algorithm for ranking search results can consign any Web site to the dust heap of history, and you realize how timely and appropriate Joe's concerns are.

However, I think our experience of the past ten years does cast some doubt on Joe's notion that the artfully bundled good-enough dictionary will prevail. One could point to the definition link on Google results pages as the moral equivalent of bundling in today's search-dominated world, and indeed the dictionary at the other end of that link profits from it, but it is hard to see that link transforming the world of dictionaries. In fact, so far, no bundled dictionary, whether with browser, search engine, operating system, or e-book reader yet looks likely to have a major impact on the dictionary business. And as for the world being inclined to embrace the good-enough dictionary, I note that the vast majority of Web traffic going to dictionaries continues to go to high-quality professionally created databases.

So, ultimately, I choose to side with Charles in this discussion. In part this is my native optimism. I am drawn to the truism that pessimists are usually right, but optimists have more fun. But I also believe that dictionary-making will flourish and that meeting the needs of English-language learners will be a big part of it. I would only qualify Charles' position by saying that the learner's dictionary component is just one part of the story.

My more-complex vision of the future of dictionary-making is understandably Merriam-centric, but I think the growth prospects for Merriam-Webster are not fundamentally different from those of any other U.S.-based dictionary-maker. In Merriam-Webster's case we see ourselves as a company expanding along three dimensions.

1. From being predominantly a print publisher to also having a significant electronic component.
2. From creating products intended primarily for native speakers of English to also creating products expressly designed for English-language learners.
3. From being primarily a domestic U.S. publisher to being a truly international publisher.

We see a traditional and an emerging business for each of these transitions, with the traditional business persisting even as the emerging business grows. This gives us two conditions for each of three variables, which if you remember your high school math, means that there are two to the third power, or eight, different businesses for Merriam-Webster, ranging from print products for native speakers in domestic markets (still our biggest business) to electronic products designed for English-language learners in international markets (our newest business).

Of all these transitions, the move from print to online delivery has been most transforming and holds the potential for letting lexicographers engage with dictionary users in much more intimate and meaningful ways, including blogs, message boards, open dictionaries, widgets, and personalized pages. Joe worries that we will stunt our growth by limiting the market for dictionaries to plain old humans, as opposed to building dictionaries to meet the needs of computers, and he may be right. But for right now, there is plenty of new and exciting business to go around in meeting the language needs of human beings.

Interestingly, the move to electronic delivery has brought some unintended consequences. By offering a free *Collegiate Dictionary* on the Web, we have introduced Merriam-Webster dictionaries to more people in international markets than we were ever able to do with our print products. Our print products, after all, face two daunting challenges in international markets. In English-speaking countries, they go up against very good locally produced native-speakers' dictionaries, which enjoy much well-deserved loyalty. And in non-English-speaking countries there is a need for learner's dictionaries that our native-speaker's dictionaries cannot wholly meet. But online, the situation is different. In English-speaking countries, the free Merriam-Webster online dictionary enjoys much greater acceptance than the print products ever did. In Canada, for instance, the market acceptance of our online dictionary dwarfs the market acceptance of our print products. And in non-English-speaking countries, the benefits of the online site – audio pronunciations and a more user-friendly display of data, to name two – have been discovered and are appreciated by an encouragingly large number of English-language learners.

However, we have long known that if we are to have a significant global presence, and enjoy the kind of growth that Charles predicts, we must offer products designed expressly to meet the needs of English-language learners.

And that is what we will do this year. In September, we will publish the first full-featured advanced learner's dictionary from an American publisher: *Merriam-Webster's Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*. This is a project that has been almost ten years in the making and has absorbed nearly all of our lexicographers' time, energy, and creativity. And we are already at work on the abridged, bilingual, and children's versions of these products. All of which is to support Charles' point that creating products for English-language learners will provide employment for lexicographers for as far out as the eye can see.

As originally conceived, this dictionary was a product designed to be a print product for the international market, and that opportunity still remains and is significant, but the prospects for this dictionary have become much more multi-dimensional since we embarked on this project in the late 1990s.

First, the domestic market for the dictionary has grown considerably. There is no need to rehearse the numbers here; readers of these pages are well aware of the growth in the number of speakers of English as a second language in the United States, and the need for high-quality reference products to meet the needs of these language-learners. So the traditional business of selling print products in domestic markets is enlarged as we add more products designed for English-language learners.

But it is really the transition to digital delivery that enriches the prospects for the new dictionary. A few years ago, we reserved the domain *LearnersDictionary.com*, and we anticipate that much of the use of this new dictionary will be online. As with native speakers' online products, the opportunities to create a rich and rewarding online experience are many and exciting. And there will also be a reciprocal benefit as future growth of traffic to our Web sites can come from serving the needs of English-language learners in both domestic and international markets.

So will all this save us from Joe's predicted demise?

Maybe yes and maybe no. If the only way to survive in this world is to attract

large amounts of investment capital by promising large growth multiples, then we are probably doomed. The plain fact is that dictionary publishing has always been a tough business. Trying to sell a book like the *Collegiate Dictionary* for the same price as a trade hardcover book when the dictionary has four times the number of pages offers just a taste of the madness of dictionary publishing. But this is the path we have been on since 1847 when George and Charles Merriam dropped the price of *Webster's* dictionary, which had once sold for \$20.00, to \$6.00. As I look back over the history of dictionary publishing, it is hard to see any moment when it was a high-growth industry, and yet dictionary publishers have survived.

We survive for a number of reasons. We scrimp and save and run our businesses as efficiently as possible, thereby reporting profits when other kinds of publishing might not. We have always lived in the commercial world, which teaches hard lessons about the dangers of getting out of touch with consumers. Some investors still believe that in the long run we will prevail, and they value being part of an important and exciting project in the history of human knowledge. But most of all, we survive because of the good hard work of lexicographers whose sense of dedication and conscientiousness drive them to build better dictionaries than they were asked to – dictionaries that exceed all reasonable expectations. And that really is the dictionary-maker's secret weapon. We know how to create more profit, attract more capital, and build better products than anyone would have any right to expect. So, in a way, I agree with Joe; by any rational standard, we probably ought to be considered a dying breed. Like Joe, I can easily think of twenty factors that will lay us low. But in the end, like Charles, I also think we have a bright future, in part because there is an obvious, substantial, and persistent need for the information we provide but also because we are a stubborn and resourceful lot who for centuries have figured out ways to do more with less than any other part of publishing. Dictionary publishing is a dirty job, but dictionary-makers are just the ones to do it.

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Merriam-Webster, Incorporated

Merriam-Webster, Inc. acquired the rights to revise and publish Noah Webster's dictionaries in 1843. Since then, the company has maintained its supremacy in the English dictionary market in the USA. Today, it continues as the leader in both print and electronic language reference publishing with reference products, learning tools, and word games, including *Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary, Eleventh Edition*.

<http://merriam-webster.com>

Gazophylacium Anglicanum (1689), a turning point in the history of the general English dictionary

Miyoshi Kusujiro



Miyoshi Kusujiro is a professor of English at Soka Women's College in Tokyo. He has been teaching English and the history of the English language at colleges and universities in Japan since 1983. Dr Miyoshi received a PhD in the history of English lexicography at the University of Exeter in 2005.
<http://home.soka.ac.jp/~miyoshi/mcven.htm>

Abstract

The anonymously compiled *Gazophylacium Anglicanum* (*Gazophylacium*, 1689) is a dictionary of English etymology that has seldom been discussed seriously among authorities. De Witt Starnes and Gertrude Noyes (1946: 67) and Martin Wakelin (1987: 161) criticized it as being a poor translation of Stephen Skinner's highly-acclaimed *Etymologicon Linguae Anglicanae* (*Etymologicon*, 1671), a type of English-Latin bilingual dictionary that provides etymological information on English words in Latin. However, when the *Gazophylacium* is compared with J.K.'s *New English Dictionary* (NED, 1702), which Sidney Landau (1984: 44) called "a turning point in English lexicography" for its first treatment of an abundance of daily words, it becomes clear that the *Gazophylacium* was actually instrumental in bringing about this *turning point*, exerting considerable influence on J.K.'s NED. At the same time, this also means that the *Gazophylacium* was, regardless of its quality, a bridge between the tradition of the English-Latin dictionary until Skinner's *Etymologicon*, which the *Gazophylacium* is based on, and that of the general English dictionary after J.K.'s NED.

Keywords

Gazophylacium, turning point, English lexicography

Introduction

In this paper I discuss the relations between two historical English dictionaries. One is the *Gazophylacium Anglicanum* (*Gazophylacium*), an etymological dictionary published in 1689 by an anonymous author, and the other is the *New English Dictionary* (NED), a general dictionary published in 1702 by an author who is known only by his initials, J.K.

As to the *Gazophylacium*, the title being in Latin, it was actually compiled in English. This dictionary is not widely known, having seldom been discussed seriously until today. The reason for this is that the dictionary has usually been regarded as little more than a poor translation of Stephen Skinner's acclaimed *Etymologicon Linguae Anglicanae* (*Etymologicon*), published in 1671, a type of English-Latin bilingual dictionary that provides etymological information on English words in Latin. De

Witt Starnes and Gertrude Noyes (1946: 67) once remarked that "The author [of the *Gazophylacium*] indeed simply translates the lists and definitions from Skinner, sometimes condensing or omitting matter from the original." And Martin Wakelin (1987: 161) remarked that "The author of the *Gazophylacium* [...] is predominantly interested in etymologies; which are frequently plundered from Skinner."

Concerning J.K.'s NED, this is widely acknowledged as the first English dictionary that treated a high number of daily words, thus divorcing from the tendency in the general English dictionary to lay particular emphasis on hard words of foreign origin. Referring to this point, Whitney Bolton (1982: 241) remarked that J.K. "managed to include about 28,000 words [in NED], most of which had never before appeared in an English dictionary," and Sidney Landau (1984: 44) expressed his opinion that J.K.'s NED marked "a turning point in English lexicography."

In this way, the *Gazophylacium* and J.K.'s NED are in sharp contrast to each other in two respects: their types and the experts' assessment of them. In spite of such differences, however, it is likely that J.K. perused the *Gazophylacium* as essential background material for NED. J.K. himself did not make any mention of the *Gazophylacium* anywhere in his dictionary, but if his NED is actually based on the *Gazophylacium*, it means that the *Gazophylacium* was, regardless of its quality, instrumental in bringing about "a turning point in English lexicography," thus, at the same time, being a bridge between the tradition of the English-Latin dictionary until Skinner's *Etymologicon*, which the *Gazophylacium* is based on, and that of the general English dictionary after J.K.'s NED.

My purpose in this paper is to provide historical evidence to support this possibility. In order to achieve this purpose, I will firstly aim to formulate a hypothesis that indicates the certainty of J.K.'s reference to the *Gazophylacium* by analyzing words that are contained in six general English dictionaries from Robert Cawdrey's *Table Alphabeticall* (*Table*), the first general English dictionary published in 1604, to NED. By performing this task, it will also be rediscovered how unique J.K.'s NED is in terms of the words contained in it. Secondly, I will aim to verify

the hypothesis by means of comparing J.K.'s NED with the *Gazophylacium*, thus trying to clarify the relations of the former to the latter.

Two procedures are adopted in the paper. One is that I regard the English dictionary that experts have termed the "dictionary of hard words," or some early English dictionaries which almost exclusively treated hard words, as a type of general English dictionary. The other is that, by analyzing the bodies of related dictionaries, I take up entries on words beginning with the letter L; as Joseph Reed (1962: 95), remarked in his analysis of another English dictionary, this portion is a sample of convenient size and has the added virtue of its position in the dictionary.

Formulating a hypothesis: J.K.'s *New English Dictionary* in the first 100 years of the general English dictionary

In preparation for formulating the hypothesis concerning J.K.'s reference to the *Gazophylacium*, I want to show how the lexicographers of the early general English dictionaries selected words to be contained in their works. And, in doing this task, I will also have to clear up a prevailing misconception among experts.

As far as I can judge, quite a few authorities seem to hold the view that such lexicographers devoted themselves to increasing the number of words in their dictionaries in an arbitrary manner for approximately the first 100 years beginning with Cawdrey's *Table*. For instance, according to Daisuke Nagashima (1988: 69), "The total entry [count] of about 2,500 in Cawdrey's first monolingual English dictionary (1604) went through wayward accretion in the successive dictionaries and exceeded 60,000 in [Nathan] Bailey's *Dictionarium Britannicum* (2nd edition 1736)."

In the opinion of Nagashima, it is not necessarily wrong that for the first 100 years general English lexicographers tended to include greater numbers of words in their dictionaries than their predecessors had done. However, it can be misleading to regard this practice, as Nagashima did, as having been carried out in a wayward or arbitrary manner.

To put it precisely, during the first century since Cawdrey's *Table*, five other general English dictionaries were published. They are John Bullokar's *English Expositor* (*Expositor*, 1616), Henry Cockeram's *English Dictionarie* (*Dictionarie*, 1623), Edward Phillips' *New World of English Words* (*New World*, 1658), Elisha Coles' *English Dictionary* (*Dictionary*, 1676) and J.K.'s NED. Though most of the

lexicographers of these five dictionaries may have referred to quite a few words in the works compiled by their predecessors, none of them incorporated all the words of the preceding dictionaries into theirs. It may safely be said that this situation indicates that the five lexicographers, respectively, maintained their unique policies in compiling their dictionaries. In other words, they should not be regarded as having increased words in their dictionaries in a *wayward* manner.

This fact will be clearly understood when we examine entries on words beginning with the letter L in each of the six dictionaries, including Cawdrey's, and arrange the results in chronological order, which I did, resulting in the following list:

(1) Cawdrey's *Table* (1604) and Bullokar's *Expositor* (1616)

While Cawdrey included 59 words in the L's in his *Table*, Bullokar had 121 words, or 2.1 times more words than Cawdrey, within the same range in his *Expositor*. However, Bullokar disregarded 29, or 49.2%, of the 59 words Cawdrey had treated.

(2) Bullokar's *Expositor* (1616) and Cockeram's *Dictionarie* (1623)

Cockeram included 428 words, or 3.5 times more words than Bullokar, in the L's in his *Dictionarie*. However, Cockeram disregarded 34, or 28.1%, of the 121 words Bullokar had treated.

(3) Cockeram's *Dictionarie* (1623) and Phillips' *New World* (1658)

Phillips included 508 words, or 1.2 times more words than Cockeram, in the L's in his *New World*. However, Phillips disregarded 329, or 76.9%, of the 428 words Cockeram had treated.

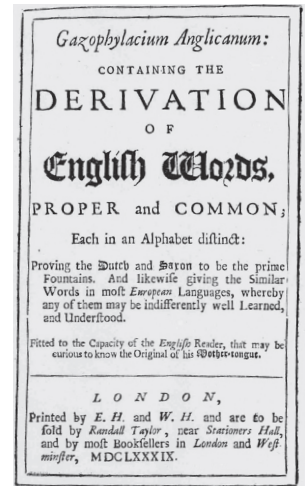
(4) Phillips' *New World* (1658) and Coles' *Dictionary* (1676)

Coles included 1,163 words, or 2.3 times more words than Phillips, in the L's in his *Dictionary*. However, Coles disregarded 43, or 8.5%, of the 508 words Phillips had treated.

(5) Coles' *Dictionary* (1676) and J.K.'s *Dictionary* (1702)

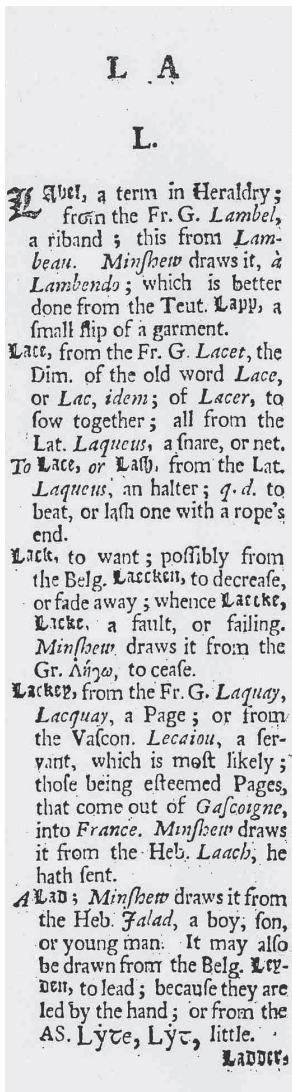
J.K. included 841 words, or 30% less words than Coles', in the L's in his *Dictionary*. Besides, J.K. disregarded 941, or 80.9%, of the 1,163 words Coles had treated.

On the premise of what I have discussed so far, it should be acknowledged that this list also reveals especially notable facts about two dictionaries, Phillips' *New World* and J.K.'s NED. In the case of the other three dictionaries after Cawdrey's, they contain considerably more than twice as many words as their immediate predecessors. However, Phillips' *New World* contains only 1.2 times



the cover of

Gazophylacium Anglicanum



a column from
Gazophylacium Anglicanum

as many words as Cockeram's *Dictionarie*, and J.K.'s NED offers a smaller number of words than Coles'. In addition, while the other three dictionaries disregard not more than 50% of words that are contained in their immediately preceding dictionaries, Phillips' *New World* disregards 76.9% of the words in Cockeram's *Dictionarie*, and J.K.'s NED disregards 80.9% of the words in Coles' *Dictionary*. In this sense, Phillips' *New World* and J.K.'s NED should be regarded as particularly unique.

What, then, is the reason for this? Actually, Phillips' *New World* and J.K.'s NED were compiled in similar historical conditions. They were, respectively, compiled a few years after a special type of English dictionary had appeared, the etymological dictionary. To be specific, two years before Phillips' *New World*, Thomas Blount's *Glossographia* (1656) was issued, and thirteen years before J.K.'s NED, the *Gazophylacium*. This means that if we disregard the types of English dictionaries, the dictionary immediately preceding Phillips' *New World* is Blount's *Glossographia*, not Cockeram's *Dictionarie*, and the one before J.K.'s NED is the *Gazophylacium*, not Coles' *Dictionary*.

If we consider the historical background of each of Phillips' *New World* and J.K.'s NED from this point of view, there is a possibility that the former was influenced by Blount's *Glossographia* and the latter by the *Gazophylacium*. In fact, as to Phillips' *New World*, quite a few experts, including Starnes and Noyes (1946) and Landau (1984), have discussed the notion that it had been influenced by Blount's *Glossographia*. Moreover, Blount himself published a book entitled *A World of Errors Discovered in the New World of Words, or General English Dictionary* (1673), asserting that Phillips committed plagiarism from his *Glossographia*.

In contrast to the case of Phillips' *New World* and Blount's *Glossographia*, the relationship of J.K.'s NED to the *Gazophylacium* has not been discussed, as far as I can judge. However, as long as these two dictionaries were compiled in a historical context similar to that of Phillips' and Blount's dictionaries, it is also quite conceivable that NED was strongly influenced by the *Gazophylacium*. In the following section, I will try to investigate the relations between J.K.'s NED and the *Gazophylacium* in terms of the word selection, definitions and grammatical information.

Verifying the hypothesis: word selection

When we begin to collate J.K.'s NED with the *Gazophylacium* in the order mentioned, a surprising fact is immediately revealed. This is what I mentioned in the list in the

previous section, that J.K. included 841 words within the range of the L's in his NED. Out of these 841 words, 212 are also found in the *Gazophylacium*. On the side of J.K.'s NED, these 212 words, which account for 25% of all words in the L's in NED, may seem small in number. However, on the side of the *Gazophylacium*, it contains 296 words within the range of the L's. This means that the 212 words account for as many as 71.6% of all words in the L's in the *Gazophylacium*. This fact seems to strongly indicate that J.K. quite frequently referred to words in the *Gazophylacium*. Furthermore, it is also notable that most of the 212 words contained in both J.K.'s NED and the *Gazophylacium*, are everyday English words such as *label*, *lack*, *lad*, *lavender*, *law*, *lazy*, *lentil*, *lest*, *liable*, *log* and *lot*. As I have already pointed out, these are the type of words that have been regarded by experts as characteristic of J.K.'s NED.

Here a question may arise about the possibility that general English dictionaries before J.K.'s NED contain several of the 212 words. In fact, 74 of the words are also contained in one or both of Bullokar's *Expositor* and Cockeram's *Dictionarie*. However, as to the remaining 138 words of the 212, they only appear in the *Gazophylacium* and NED.

In this way, when we compare words in J.K.'s NED and the *Gazophylacium*, we can acknowledge the possibility that the former was strongly influenced by the latter.

Verifying the hypothesis: definitions

While J.K.'s selection of words contained in NED has generally been highly praised, his way of defining them has sometimes been criticized as being cursory. Concerning this point, Landau (1982: 44) remarked that NED "is allied to spelling books, which had included common words but without definitions," and Bolton (1982: 241) stated that it "is only a rudimentary speller." We should not take these remarks literally. However simple and cursory they may actually be, J.K. almost always provided definitions to entry-words in his NED. And, for this reason, we can recognize an aspect of the indebtedness of NED to the *Gazophylacium*.

Specifically, J.K. provided the same definitions in NED as the author of the *Gazophylacium* did with his etymological notes. Examples are:

- **lesses**
the *Gazophylacium*: from the Fr. G. [Modern French] *Laisses*, the dung of wild beasts
J.K.'s NED: the dung of wild beasts
- **leveret**
the *Gazophylacium*: from the Fr. G.

[Modern French] *Leverant, Levreteau*, young Hare

J.K.'s NED: a young hare

• **liable**

the *Gazophylacium*: from the Fr. G. [Modern French] *Liable*, obnoxious, exposed to

J.K.'s NED: expos'd to

We can find such definitions in 52 entries within the respective ranges of the L's in J.K.'s NED and the *Gazophylacium*. There will be almost no problem to regard these definitions as traces of J.K.'s reliance on the *Gazophylacium*.

Verifying the hypothesis: grammatical information

In indicating entry-words in NED, J.K. usually put the preposition *to* before the verb and the indefinite article before the countable noun. Specifically, he provided such entry-words as *To Last, To Leather, A Latch*, and *A Lemmon*. It may be interesting, in passing, to note that this practice brought about independent entries such as the following:

Level, even or plain

To Level, or make level

Love, amity, affection, or kindness

To Love, have love, or inclination for

Within the range of the L's in NED, J.K. put the preposition *to* before 78 verb entry-words, and the indefinite article before 338 countable noun entry-words.

Before J.K.'s NED, such a way of providing grammatical information on entry-words had not been adopted by the lexicographers of the general English dictionary, with rare exceptions; as to such cases, Cockeram applied it in a supplementary part to the main section in his *Dictionary*, which is comprised of what he termed "vulgar words", and Phillips put the indefinite article before 4 countable noun entry-words within the range of the L's in his *New World*.

What, then, has motivated J.K. to apply the practice so frequently? The only answer to this question will be the influence of the *Gazophylacium* on him. Within the L's in the *Gazophylacium*, its author put the preposition *to* before 52 verb entry-words and the indefinite article before the same number of countable noun entry-words.

If I refer to the case of the English-Latin bilingual dictionary here, it seems that in this field the practice that J.K. and the author of the *Gazophylacium* applied can be traced back to the 15th century. Concerning this point, Gabriele Stein (1985: 112) pointed out that in an anonymously compiled English-Latin dictionary entitled the *Catholicon Anglicum*, which was published in 1483, "countable nouns are preceded by the indefinite article, uncountable

nouns by a zero determiner" regarding the entry-words. This practice apparently became a tradition in the compilation of the English-Latin bilingual dictionary, being handed down to Skinner when he compiled the *Etymologicon*, essential background material for the author of the *Gazophylacium*. Skinner actually wrote his entry-words like *to Lace*, *to Lam*, *A Lantern*, and *A Larder*. And it is remarkable that these examples are, at the same time, the examples of entry-words that we can also see in the *Gazophylacium*. It will not be unreasonable now to conclude that this practice, which was originally adopted by the lexicographers of the English-Latin dictionary, was transmitted to J.K. via the author of the *Gazophylacium*.

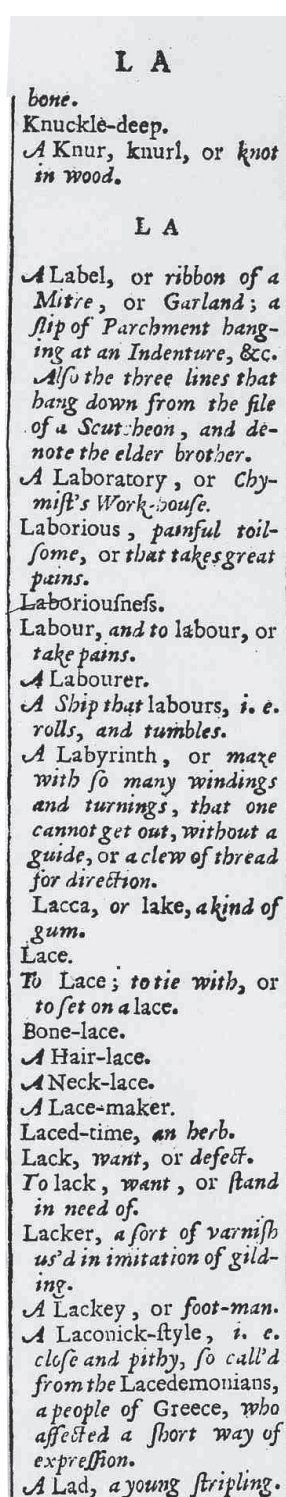
Incidentally, it may be worth noting that after J.K.'s NED the practice to put the infinitive *to* before verb entry-words gradually became adopted widely by the lexicographers of the general English dictionary until the latter half of the eighteenth century. In Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* (1755), we can quite frequently see such entry-words as *To Cut*, *To Run*, *To Set*, and *To Take*. Whatever types of dictionaries such lexicographers may have referred to, it may safely be said that J.K. was the first lexicographer who substantially applied this practice in the field of the general English dictionary.

Conclusion

Having finished my analysis of the relations between J.K.'s NED and the *Gazophylacium*, I now recall the aphorism by Reinhard Hartmann (1986: vii): "Most dictionaries have forerunners, and all have imitators."

Until today, J.K.'s NED has been highly esteemed as a dictionary which created an epoch-making change in the history of English lexicography, divorcing from the tradition in the general English dictionary before it, and opening up a new dimension in the field. Certainly, J.K.'s NED is out of a historical context from Cawdrey's *Table to Coles' Dictionary* with regard to containing a high number of everyday words. At the same time, however, a drastic change can hardly happen in the history of lexicography. When this fact is taken into account, it will be natural to seek a dictionary that may have exerted a strong influence on J.K., and which has often been neglected by specialists. This is the anonymously compiled *Gazophylacium*, a dictionary that was based on Skinner's English-Latin bilingual etymological dictionary, *Etymologicon*, and published between Coles' and J.K.'s dictionaries.

From such a historical perspective, I have collated J.K.'s NED with the *Gazophylacium*



a column from J.K.'s
New English Dictionary

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in terms of word selection, definitions and grammatical information, thus gaining strong circumstantial evidence of J.K.'s close perusal of the *Gazophylacium*. It may safely be concluded now that the *Gazophylacium* was essential background material for J.K., and that his NED would have been quite different from what we now know without the *Gazophylacium*.

In case Skinner's practice in his *Etymologicon* was transmitted to J.K. via the author of the *Gazophylacium*, as it apparently was, it can safely be said that the *Gazophylacium* bears historical significance as a bridge between the tradition of the English-Latin bilingual dictionary and that of the general English dictionary.

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The feeling of *sakura* – Are you interested in such a Japan?

Hisamatsu Ken'ichi and Hayakawa Fumitoshi

Introduction: before hitting the road...

Whether you are contemplating studying the Japanese language, undertaking the task of finding out what makes Japan *tick*, or interested by the intellectual challenge

of gaining insights into Japanese culture, I would like to congratulate you on having the courage and curiosity to embark on this journey to conquer the enigma of this island nation and break the code, otherwise

known as the Japanese language. Let me preface my remarks by saying I would like to ensure that you recognize the challenges and understand the dimensions of the task. This is the reason why, instead of assuring you of the simplicity of this venture, I go overboard to show how utterly and maddeningly interwoven the language is, with the plethora of cultural rules, both stated and implicit; how the frame of reference shifts depending on the situation; and how the situation itself is not what it appears, depending on the perspective, the relationship between the participants, and the mood of the narrator. In short, it is a mess, albeit a lovely one. However, structure does exist within this chaos, and once you establish what it is, life will be a lot more meaningful.

So, treat the essay below as a mini example, an encapsulation, if you will, of what you can expect.

Without conjugating the verb

A Japanese sentence has no subject. This does not mean that Japanese is a language like Latin. In Japanese, we can play with all the personal pronouns in context without using the subject and without conjugating the verb. We utilize the infinitive of the verb as both the subject and the conjugated verb.

For example, the infinitive of *iku* (行く), meaning *to go* in English or *aller* in French, embraces all of the following: *I go, you go, he goes, she goes, we go, you go, they go / je vais, tu vas, il va, elle va, nous allons, vous allez, ils vont, elles vont*. It is possible to express similarly all the grammatical variations by using one past form of a verb. In other words, you can translate the conversation of “A: *Itta* (行った)? B: *Un, itta* (うん、行った)”, as “A: *Did I (you, he, she, we, they) go?* B: *Yes, you (I, he, she, we, they) did*”. One can surely appreciate this level of semantic flexibility. Usually, it is the context that determines the intended meaning of a passage.

A phrase in which all the persons except you can exist

The above explanation that Japanese is highly dependent on the context may lead to some misunderstandings. Let me make it clear that despite the perceived interpretive latitude, we can easily specify a grammatical person in Japanese, even without a context.

For example, recently, a fellow teacher asked me to translate the following phrase into French: *Nanajussai ni narimasu* (70歳になります). Although this is a commonly used expression in Japanese conversation, I answered as follows: *J'ai [Il a, Elle a, Nous*

avons, Ils ont, Elles ont] 70 ans, or Je vais [Il va, Elle va, Nous allons, Ils vont, Elles vont] avoir 70 ans. (I am [He is, She is, We are, They are] 70 years-old, or I (He, She, We, They) will be 70 years-old.)

Quite obviously, he was not satisfied with this vague answer. He asked me again whether this phrase could be translated as *Vous avez 70 ans* or *Vous allez avoir 70 ans*. I replied in the negative. If this were an interrogative statement, it would have been possible to translate it as *Avez-vous 70 ans?* or *Allez-vous avoir 70 ans?*. But since it is a declarative sentence, we cannot restrict it to a second person singular or plural subject. He gazed at me and asked *Why?*, a question I could not answer.

In addition, in Japanese there is the problem of word order. One can shift transition words and phrases without changing the meaning of a passage. As Japanese is an agglutinative language, one can select, relatively freely, certain sentence patterns consisting of subject-object-verb (SOV), object-subject-verb (OSV), or verb-subject-object (VSO). Of course, such changes are not readily accepted in English. If the subject and object of *A dog bit Tom* are interchanged, the meaning of the passage changes quite dramatically. Although the words corresponding to each sentence item are *Tom, bit, and a dog*, once this is re-arranged in a text, the meaning is derived from the relative positions of the sentence items, i.e., the subject, verb, and object. Even if there is no inflection that shows the rank of a noun in present-day English, it causes no confusion because the word order is decided.

Pessimism with regard to a native language

During the period of Japan's modernization, the fact that the Japanese had no linguistic brethren was seen by the country's leaders as a liability. Even today, there are a number of intellectuals who are very critical of the ambiguity of the Japanese language.

Ce qui n'est pas clair n'est pas français, the well-known quote by Antoine de Rivarol (*De l'universalité de la langue française*, 1784), is habitually invoked. During the post-war confusion, Shiga Naoya, one of the greatest Japanese writers, stated the following:

“In order to spare the future generations of Japanese children from the trouble of dealing with the peculiarities of their native tongue, we had better change Japanese into French, because this language is the clearest and the strongest in the world.” (*Kokugo mondai* / Problems related to the reform of the Japanese language, 1946, Kaizosha)



Hisamatsu Ken'ichi

(久松 健一) is an assistant professor of French at Meiji University*. He has published over fifty books and articles, and was one of the leading writers of the French-Japanese dictionary published by Shogakukan (*Grand Dictionnaire français-japonais*, 1988; *Progressive*, 1993; *Pocket*, 1994). At present he is the chief translator to Japanese of a new French/Japanese learners dictionary under preparation by K Dictionaries. * Izumi-kosha 1-9-1 Suginami-ku Efuku, Tokyo 168-8555



Hayakawa Fumitoshi

(早川 文敏) received his PhD from Kyoto University. He has been teaching French at Doshisha University as a part-time lecturer, and working as a translator. At present he is on the translation team of K Dictionaries' new French/Japanese learners dictionary. hayakawa@media-lang.net

A one-time minister of education also said in all seriousness that we ought to change Japanese into simplified English if Japan aspires to catch up with the West (Mori Arinori, *Education in Japan*—“a flagrant instance of this dangerous superficiality”, 1873, Japan Weekly Mail). The opinion that Japanese should be written using the phonetic alphabet, rather than Chinese characters, exists even now. The complexity of written Japanese, which uses Chinese characters, hiragana, katakana, and the Roman alphabet, is a target of criticism by those who search for efficiency and advocate *internationalization*. However, these views reflect a strong belief that the West and Western linguistic landscape should be the point of reference. Such a notion is obviously useless for any sort of serious discussion; in other words, the ambiguity of the Japanese language is not necessarily a drawback.

By the way, where are you?

I apologize for the abrupt question but what do you visualize when reading the following text? In other words, what is your viewpoint?

国境（くにぎかい）の長（なが）いトンネルを抜（ぬ）けるとそこは雪国（ゆきぐに）であった。夜（よる）の底（そこ）が白（しろ）くなった。

Kunizakai no nagai tonneru o nukeruto sokowa yukiguni deatta. Yoru no soko ga shiroku natta.

The train came out of the long tunnel into the snow country. The earth lay under the night sky.

These are the opening lines of *Snow Country* (*Yukiguni*, 1948, Sogensha), written by the Nobel Prize writer Kawabata Yasunari; the novel has been translated into English by Edward Seidensticker (1957, Unesco translations of contemporary works).

Now, are you, the reader, in the train or outside the train? Your answer is probably the latter. However, most Japanese readers would feel the opposite. While reading *Snow Country* in Japanese, you imagine the scene of a snow-covered country unfolding outside a train window. Yet, in English, you might be a photographer, capturing the sight of the train emerging out of a tunnel.

Traduttore, traditore

Let me digress slightly here to point out a trivial translation mistake that is said to be responsible for the decision to drop the atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

In 1945, the Japanese government received an important document from the United States. The document contained information about the development of a new

weapon of unprecedented power, and the Allied Forces demanded prompt surrender if Japan wished to avoid the impending destruction. Our government responded through the international organization as follows: *Our answer would be left pending until we discussed this issue at the cabinet meeting*. The underlined part was translated as *ignored* and, as a result, Hiroshima and Nagasaki were annihilated. (cf. Torikai Kumiko, *Rekishi o kaeta goyaku* / The mistranslation which changed history, 2001, Shinchosha.)

This episode differs from the example of varying viewpoints in the translation of *Snow Country*. The point I was trying to make is that the *I* is always hidden in Japanese text. In other words, in Japanese, a purely objective description cannot be easily achieved.

A language in which *I* builds a very inconspicuous nest

In Japanese, the *I* usually intrudes. For example, if we literally translate *she is happy* as *kanojo wa shiawase dearu*, such a rendition would be unnatural. This is because the following points are included in this sentence: Why is she happy? Who determined that? Is this *third person* objective? How can I confirm if others are happy without having a clear understanding of whether I myself am happy or not?

In Japanese, even when describing the actions of the third person, the *I* is *lurking in the background*, precisely to avoid such complications. In order to describe one's happiness, a frame of reference is needed. Therefore, a more natural translation would be something like *kanojo wa shiawase sooda*.

This *interference of the I* in spoken and written discourse in Japanese takes the form of the pervasive qualifier *I think*. Non-Japanese speakers believe that the Japanese are never sure of what they say and try to avoid responsibility in this manner.

Conversation at cross purposes

If a perfectly natural, spontaneous Japanese conversation is translated into English without any explanatory comments, it is unlikely that it will make much sense. Let us look at a few examples from a proverbial street corner:

- Good morning! Where are you going?
- Hello, the weather is good... just for a moment.
- Well, it's fine today. Take care.
- Thank you.

It appears that there is some mysterious pragmatic play at work. The question *Where are you going* is answered with the non-sequester *just for a moment*. In Japanese,

cherry blossoms (*sakura*)

urgent task for the nation, which had been isolated until then, was the assimilation of the latest scientific knowledge from European countries. It was evident that the Japanese military organization and the production and application of their weapons were modeled on those of France. Thus, the Japanese army, modernized and equipped with the latest arms, proved their power by their victory against Russia in 1905. Some words of French origin that were imported through military services, like *manteau* or *camouflage*, are still used by the Japanese in their daily conversations.

Japanese people in the Meiji era readily adopted and assimilated French products. Some endeavored to report the political system and culture of France in order to modernize the Japanese way of politics. Nakae Chomin, one of the most important democrats in our history, presented Rousseau's *contrat social* (*social contract*) to start the liberal democratic movement in Japan, which had been keeping hierarchical society under a constitutional monarchy (1883). The influence of the movement was so widespread throughout Japan that many elements of modern political systems, such as free elections, liberty of expression, and freedom of press, were finally established, thanks to the continuous efforts of Nakae and his colleagues.

Besides, the Japanese people were greatly interested in other aspects of French culture, like music, literature, architecture, and food. A treaty of commerce was signed by the two countries in 1857, which marked the beginning of prosperous trade. An increasing number of French products were imported, which resulted in a positive image of France among the Japanese.

So far, we have seen how the Japanese people came to like the French language and culture. Initially, we learned French to understand the scientific knowledge and modern thoughts of the French, and then, increasing commercial exchanges have strengthened our concern with regard to learning the language. All the while, of course, we have been making advances in the comprehension of the language, and we are now able to produce better French-Japanese dictionaries as well.

The original translation of *dictionary* in Japanese was *jbiki*, which means *a tool to look up characters*. We can imagine that *characters* signified Kanji (Chinese characters); therefore, ancient dictionaries were presumably used only to trace, without error or hesitation, the correct form of these difficult letters. Dictionaries for European languages, however, need much more, because their grammatical system and ways of thinking are completely different from

those in Japan.

According to Sakurai Takehito, previous studies have held that the primary reference for *Futsugo Meiyō* was P. Agron's *Nieuw hand-woordenboek der Fransche en Nederduitsche* (1828). He says, however, that "the *Kaihan Kenkai Motocho*, a record of publishing at the end of the Edo period, indicates that *Futsugo Meiyō* was based on *Dictionnaire portatif français et hollandais et hollandais et français*, published by Abraham Blusse Jr., also in 1828." (The Source Book and the Compiling Process of *Futsugo Meiyō*, in *Kokugogaku: studies in the Japanese language*, 2003, The Society of Japanese Linguistics.) He compares these dictionaries to reveal that "about 80% of the entries in *Futsugo Meiyō* were borrowed from Blusse's dictionary, with a certain percentage of the remaining entries coming from Agron's work." His study also reports that Blusse's and Agron's works influenced equally the explanations of entries in *Futsugo Meiyō*, and that Murakami used the *Doeff Halma Dutch-Japanese Dictionary* (1833) or its revised version *Oranda Jii* (1855) to translate the explanations into Japanese.

As it was natural among scholars in the early days of Japanese modernization, Murakami's main concern in compiling *Futsugo Meiyō* was to simply replace French words with Japanese words. Since then, there have been a number of improvements in the newer French-Japanese dictionaries: there are more detailed definitions of words, rich examples involving the use of natural phrases, grammatical explanations of articles that do not exist in Japanese, and the like. French studies in Japan made some achievements that could not be ignored even by the French people. For example, Matsubara Shuuji conducted an in-depth study of French articles. His *Essai sur la syntaxe de l'article en français moderne* (1932, Librairie du Recueil Sirey) was well-known in the French academic milieu.

Features of our upcoming dictionary

Today, there are many kinds of French-Japanese and Japanese-French dictionaries in Japan. Most of these assume the user to be Japanese learners who are beginners in French, probably at the university or college level. On the other hand, we now know that many foreign people are interested in various aspects of Japanese culture, such as the classic literature written by medieval aristocrats, traditional Japanese foods, or new forms of art like video games and animation. Sometimes, amateurs of Japanese culture are disappointed when they try to look up a Japanese dictionary: the writing is so complicated that they can rarely read

it. Most of the dictionaries published in our country, indeed, do not provide the pronunciation of words. Therefore, foreign learners need to have prior knowledge of how to read thousands of kanji characters (Japanese students spend more than nine years to master this character set).

An advantage of our new dictionary resides in this point. All the kanji characters are accompanied by their pronunciation in hiragana, the easiest character set in Japanese. Further, all Japanese words and phrases are rewritten in the Roman alphabet to provide readers with a direct means to pronounce them. If other dictionaries present a phrase as:

you promised 君は約束した,

in ours, you will find the following style:

you promised 君 (きみ) は約束 (やくそく) した kimi wa yakusoku shita

Thus, any user may appreciate this and be able to experience the joy of pronouncing Japanese words.

In our new Japanese-French dictionary, the headwords are carefully selected by highly experienced and qualified Japanese language specialists, in order to give a very natural and up-to-date vocabulary of our tongue. So, one will come across many particular Japanese expressions, which have not been chosen by other Japanese-French dictionaries (because it is difficult to translate them into French). A fine example is *umeboshi no onigiri* (rice ball with pickled plum), a very popular dish consumed in everyday life, which, however, most of the old Japanese-French dictionaries do not include. In the Japanese-French part of the dictionary, these expressions are properly translated by French native speakers living in Japan who are well acquainted with the local way of life.

Lastly, this dictionary provides a detailed explanation of the different meanings of kanji. For example, when they translate 画 (*kaku*), other dictionaries may simply indicate that this character means *strokes of writing*, although it is well known that almost every kanji character has many different meanings. For example, 画 can refer to a *project*, *section*, or *square*. Incidentally, coinage is one of the characteristics of Japanese language activity. We frequently combine plural kanji characters to form a new word. So if you do not grasp the original definitions of the characters, you will be unable to understand the coined words, which are constantly being invented. I am positive that our dictionary will be very useful in this respect.

Japanese, having no declension of nouns or conjugation of verbs by subject, is a rather easy language as far as grammar is concerned. Nevertheless, writing is an

altogether different issue. The Japanese script has three different types of character sets. A writer has to choose an appropriate set to write each word, and finally combine them to form a phrase. So, even if you completely mastered the 52 hiragana characters, you might still be unable to write a birthday letter to your friend.

So, what does this all mean?

I do not wish to convey the impression that Japanese is an impossible language to master. Despite the complexities I described above and in spite of the oft cited belief by many Japanese that only someone raised in the Japanese culture can acquire the socio-cultural background necessary for the acquisition of this language, it is not an impossible task. It is certainly difficult, but this is what makes the learning process all the more satisfying.

Japanese is rightly perceived as a language of many layers. Just when you believe you have adequately mastered it, there is a whole new dimension to be discovered. Just when you think you have gained a very thorough understanding of the Japanese culture and customs, another realm, equally important, yet seemingly contradictory, will be laid in front of you. This depth of socio-linguistic knowledge baffles both novice Japanese language learners and experienced Japanologists.

On the surface, too many factors conspire to make the study of Japanese a challenge not for the fainthearted. To become reasonably proficient in Japanese, one has to memorize several thousand Chinese characters and innumerable combinations thereof, in addition to the two phonetic systems of hiragana and katakana. If you want to master Japanese, you have to learn the customs and traditions embedded in the language over the long history of Japanese isolation from the rest of the world. During this period of over 200 years, a very intricate network of linguistic patterns, honorifics, and metalinguistic notions evolved. What makes matters worse is that Japanese does not really have linguistic brethren. The language, like the nation itself, is very much an island. Few parallels can be identified with other languages, and Japanese people offer little help in this regard. In fact, many of my countrymen take pride in asserting that Japan is different, and that non-Japanese, no matter how talented, cannot really aspire to become experts in the language. Of course, history has shown otherwise. We are surrounded by a global network of people who are excellent Japanese speakers. In this sense, the island has been conquered and the code broken.



cherry blossoms (*sakura*)

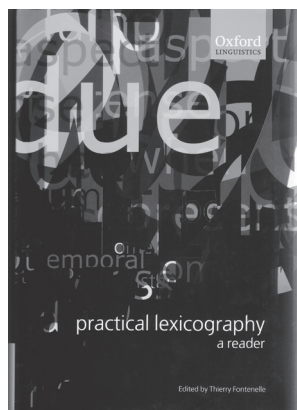
Thierry Fontenelle (ed.). *Practical Lexicography, A Reader*

practical

1. Based on practice or action rather than theory or hypothesis
2. Being likely to be effective and applicable to a real situation; able to be put to use¹

From

<http://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/practical>



Thierry Fontenelle (Editor)
Practical Lexicography, A Reader

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In the 20 years that I worked for Van Dale, a Dutch publishing house specialised in lexicography, I regularly met people who were not linguists, but who nonetheless showed an interest in the dictionary phenomenon. Once, we received a letter from a user of our comprehensive English-Dutch dictionary who complained that the – in his opinion rather common – word *is* was not included. He felt disappointed about this lacuna in his expensive and respectable dictionary. It's easy to respond with disdain to such criticism, but I too have sometimes sought in vain for words in French, English and Spanish dictionaries. Some of these may well have been irregular verb conjugations that I did not recognize as such. If one fails to connect an unfamiliar inflected form with the infinitive, it is difficult to look up the word in its alphabetical place [in printed books], and the meaning will remain obscure. Including only the infinitive of a verb as a keyword in a dictionary is an efficient, space-saving convention in traditional lexicography, but it is by no means user-friendly. As far as I am concerned, one of the blessings of consulting dictionaries on a computer is that looking-up *is* will immediately show the entry *be* (and in French *va* and *ira* will lead to *aller*).

But not only to disappointed users have I explained lexicographic conventions. There are quite a few non-linguists around who want to know how to bring about a dictionary. Sometimes life itself creates a need for a dictionary that does not already exist. And sometimes individuals decide to put one together themselves. Such people encounter all kinds of practical questions.

¹ In a traditional (printed) dictionary the definition would probably have been corrected before publication. For example into "... likely to be effective and applicable to...". An interesting thing about publications on the Internet is that it is very likely that soon after publication of these pages the definition will be corrected.

I remember the owner of a transport company who saw opportunities in Bulgaria. A Bulgarian-Dutch dictionary however did not exist. A mathematician from Hong Kong who lived and worked in The Netherlands noted that he could not help his daughter with her homework. Her Dutch was much better than his and she did not always understand what he could explain in Mandarin. He decided to compile a Chinese-Dutch dictionary. A third example is a bank employee who, in his spare time, started a comprehensive multilingual financial lexicon.

All these people sought practical advice and they turned to a specialized publishing house for help. That is how I came into contact with them. Some of their many questions were:

- Under which entry do I place fixed phrases and idiomatic expressions?
- What percent of the words begin with A, with B, and so on?
- What does the blueprint of an empty dictionary look like? Which building blocks are universal and essential?
- What are the typographical conventions, such as the use of bold and italics?
- Where can I find information on tools/software to build a dictionary with?
- What are the conventions for the clustering of words derived from the same base (for example *active*, *activist*, *activism*, *activity*, *activate*)?

I would have liked to be able to refer them to *Lexicography for dummies*, which no doubt would have had the answers to such questions. However, this title was not available then, and to my knowledge is still not. (For lack of it, I usually referred to the English edition of Bo Svensen's *Handbok i lexikografi* or Sidney Landau's *Dictionaries: The Art and Craft of Lexicography*.)

With potential users such as those described above in mind, I looked at *Practical Lexicography, A Reader* compiled and introduced by Thierry Fontenelle and recently published by Oxford University Press in the series Oxford Linguistics. It immediately became clear to me that this title aims at a completely different user group. There is a deep gap between the basic practical questions of lay persons who pursue their first steps on the path of lexicography, and what the academic world holds for *practical*. Some of the questions quoted above are touched upon in the very first contribution by Samuel Johnson, written in 1747. The other twenty one articles are of no help for those who need basic practical assistance.

Useful Anthology

This observation is by no means a disqualification of the book. It probably just illustrates the polysemy of the word *practical* (see illustration). I hoped for a practical book in sense no. 2. It turned out to be practical in sense no. 1. *Practical Lexicography* offers fascinating reading for people like me, who feel at home on lexicographical territory. The great merit of the editor, Thierry Fontenelle, is that he compiled a reader's digest from the huge mountain of publications in congress proceedings, in magazines and in books. He divided the field into twelve parts: I Metalexigraphy, Macrostructure, and the Contribution of Linguistic Theory; II On Corpus Design; III On Lexicographical Evidence; IV On Word Senses and Polysemy; V On Collocations, Idioms, and Dictionaries; VI On Definitions; VII On Examples; VIII On Grammar and Usage in Dictionaries; IX On Bilingual Lexicography; X On Tools for Lexicographers; XI On Semantic Networks and Wordnets; XII On Dictionary Use.

For each part, Fontenelle selected one or several articles – all of them published before – that thoroughly discuss the subject. All chapters are written by people who practice or practiced the lexicographical craft. In that sense, the title of the book is well chosen; no academic theory but results of research and thought by professionals with practical experience in dictionary making.

For someone like me there is every reason to be grateful to the compiler. All too often issues of the *International Journal of Lexicography* remained unread, all too often congress bundles landed on the bookshelf too soon. For those who work in commercial lexicography, an excuse for not reading specialist literature is always available. After all, we are at meetings all the time, busy with planning, struggling with tight budgets and timetables. If someone takes the trouble to pack the most relevant lexicographic baggage in one single volume, there is every reason for gratitude. Since Thierry Fontenelle looks beyond the horizon, with his experience as an academic researcher at the University of Liege, as former president of Euralex and as program manager at Microsoft Natural Language Group, his selection is hardly for me to criticize. I can report that from my experience as lexicographer and publisher I have the impression that all areas are being covered and that his choice of authors is excellent.

Date: up to, or out of

Nonetheless I venture to make a few comments. A lot has changed, rapidly and

drastically, in lexicography. Not so much since 1747, but rather since the 1980s. Most articles in the book clearly illustrate this, and in some contributions change is the very subject. However, because developments have not come to a standstill, information that was published several years ago runs the risk of being somewhat out of date. A majority of sixteen out of the twenty two articles was first published over ten years ago and the bibliographical references in these articles refer to texts that are several years older. In itself that is no problem; the contribution from 1747 by Samuel Johnson proves that texts can remain relevant and valuable long after their first publication. But, for example, a phrase like "... particularly as the day of the electronic dictionary approaches" strikes as a little unworldly, until one realizes that the article dates from 1992. Because the average age of the articles is rather high, there is also a risk that important recent developments are not mentioned at all. Nothing is said for example about what I will call "Internet lexicography". The size and reputation that the Internet encyclopaedia *Wikipedia* has acquired, implies that its lexicographic counterpart – *Wiktionary* – needs to be mentioned in a volume like *Practical Lexicography*. *Wiktionary* claims to have more than 750,000 entries with an English definition. There are more than 55,000 registered users, and since it was launched, there have been more than 4 million editorial actions. Maybe its quality is disputable, but the fact that some of the constraints of traditional commercial lexicography do not seem to be applicable to this form of large-scale democratic lexicography makes it interesting enough to deserve a place in a recent book about the field.

A related phenomenon is what I call the online community dictionary. Examples include the online bilingual dictionaries for African languages to and from English, compiled within the framework of Simultaneous Feedback (<http://tshwanedje.com/sf>), as the developer calls it. Such developments are likely to influence the way dictionaries are being compiled and consulted.

Non-natives read English too

With the people I referred to at the beginning of this text in mind, I would like to make a final critical comment. But in all honesty, I am also talking about myself. Maybe it is less a criticism than an observation and it is by no means limited to the field of lexicography. It regards every area in which the dominant publication language is English.

Lexicography in Asia, Vol. 2 *Perspectives in Lexicography: Asia and Beyond*

Perspectives in Lexicography: Asia and Beyond comprises a selection of papers from the Fourth ASIALEX International Congress, which was held at the National University of Singapore (NUS) in June 2005. The papers were edited by Vincent B.Y. Ooi, Anne Pakir, Ismail S. Talib, and Peter Tan, from the English Department of NUS, who organized the conference. The book will be published by K Dictionaries on October 1, 2008, celebrating the tenth anniversary of the publication of *Lexicography in Asia* (Tom McArthur and Ilan Kernerman (eds.), Pasword Publishers, Tel Aviv, 1998). Details will be made available in September 2008 online: <http://kdictionaries.com/lia/lia2.html>

For users of English as a foreign language, native speakers can be the grindstones on which we sharpen our competence in English. But in situations where we need all our concentration to follow a line of thought, or understand a clever reasoning, the use of flowery language and infrequent idioms are obstructions on the road to understanding. For example, an elaboration on the subtle nuances in meaning and use of an English verb requires a far greater effort by a non-native than by a native speaker of English. We foreigners have to make a double effort: decode a text in a foreign language, and understand the complexities in a language that is not our own. And so I am faced with the following dilemma. May I discourage learned and lettered authors to write in the full wealth of their mother tongue? I definitely would not mind if they showed some awareness of the limitations in the competence of the English language of foreign lexicographers. If learner's dictionaries restrict their defining vocabulary for the benefit of non-native users, maybe authors who write for an international

audience could make a similar effort.

As an example of what I mean, I quote one sentence: "There is no dearth of interesting and perspicacious commentaries on this aspect of language." Maybe the author is just trying to encourage the use of dictionaries. If so, she succeeded. I decoded the text into "There are many interesting and clever commentaries on this aspect of language."

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Rik Schutz

rik.schutz@onderwoorden.nl

Password – a productive dictionary family

Ruth Mägi



Ruth Mägi has been at the head of the dictionary department at TEA Publishers in Estonia since 1999. She graduated from Tartu University as a Finno-Ugrian philologist (majoring in Estonian philology) and continued her MA studies in linguistics (with special interest in dictionary use) at Tallinn University. She has tested Estonian schoolchildrens' dictionary awareness, comprehension and usage skills, and is currently preparing dictionary workbooks. ruth.magi@tea.ee

I first saw *Password* dictionary some years ago when I was a university student. It was my brother's book, which he received as a present. I remember that when I opened it I was quite confused by the structure. Who would put so much English language into an English-Estonian dictionary? I have to admit that I had absolutely no knowledge of any structural differences in dictionaries. At the time, I, like most dictionary users, never read or showed interest in the preface or instructions for use. Why bother?

Later on, while already working on dictionaries, I came to understand the *why* part – and it still fascinates me. Now I'm happy to know that I'm not the only *Password* fan!

There are many dictionaries on the publishers' and lexicographers' shelves, but very few of them can be considered as both *purpose-built* and *purpose-served*. I would, without doubt, consider *Password* and its family of products as just that.

The Estonian version of the semi-bilingual *Password* dictionary (*PASSWORD Inglise-eesti seletav sõnaraamat. English Dictionary for Speakers of Estonian*) was first published by TEA Publishers in 1995. It was a huge success among Estonians, which might somehow be taken as pure

luck. After Estonia regained independence at the beginning of the 1990s, there were other things to achieve than publishing dictionaries, and at some point there were only a few English-Estonian dictionaries available on the market. TEA published *Password* at the peak of the demand for proper and reliable dictionaries. There were several reprints after its first launch and in 2006 TEA published an updated version along with a CD-ROM.

However, there would not have been such success without good content. Estonians have always been "language-oriented" people. Even during the Soviet rule, schools taught English, German and French, and we have had notable language teachers. *Password's* idea of teaching the English language through English itself suited our public well, since almost everyone knew English to some extent. Estonian equivalents to English meanings simply supported learners' comprehension.

I personally like dictionaries that entice you to think a little, and when I understand what the dictionary is trying to convey then I like it even more. *Password* is a dictionary that does not have a simple structure; rather, it has the simplest structure needed in order to convey meaning in an economical way.

Everyone likes to be considered smart, and *Password* is for smart people.

Password has many advantages, and it is multipurpose by nature. When I ask people why they use dictionaries, they usually answer that they want to know the meaning of words. So, providing English definitions along with Estonian translations serves this purpose well. *Password* is also a perfect dictionary for giving the most important meaning of headwords, for which derivative forms and phrases are also presented. It also provides definitional language in easy-to-understand English using a limited range of vocabulary for explanations.

There are many English language teachers in our country who have said that *Password* is a very good dictionary for teaching school children *how* to use dictionaries in general. (They have added that any kind of semi-bilingual type of dictionary is appropriate for this.) English is the first foreign language taught at our schools, and will likely remain so in the near future. Thus, many users might need a monolingual English dictionary at some point in time. If translations are ignored, then *Password* can function as a monolingual dictionary. This makes it suitable for practicing monolingual dictionary use before moving on to true monolingual dictionaries where no translations are provided, since the basic structure of a monolingual dictionary has been retained in *Password* and is only 'interrupted' by translations. This kind of 'interruption' is not something users would mind; on the contrary, they subconsciously need the translations in order to be fully sure of the meaning. In addition, there are many structural entry elements that teachers can point out to students, such as where to find derivatives, phrases, examples, cross-references, etc. I'm sure this teaching function can be considered to be one of the best advantages *Password* has over other dictionaries.

Having had such good and long experience in publishing and marketing *Password*, we at TEA have come to the understanding that it would be a shame not to develop this line further and offer our public such a type of dictionary for different levels. Therefore, the whole semi-bilingual family has been extended, based on *Password* as the main product. This year we launched *Junior Password* (*Junior PASSWORD Inglise-eesti seletav sõnaraamat English-Estonian Semi-Bilingual Dictionary*) along with a CD-ROM version. Originating from *PASSPORT English Learner's Dictionary*, *Junior Password* is meant for users in elementary up to junior high school. It does not provide English definitions, but rather, presents example sentences and

phrases that illustrate the context of where and how the word can be used. In this way, learners can put English into action right away. The Estonian translations are based on these sample sentences, so editors had a specific context in mind when translating the headwords from English to Estonian. Several side-meanings that were beyond the level intended for these users were deleted. This is an ideal dictionary for forming the first idea of semantic connections and differences between words. It contains many usage notes that link words and terms to each other and point to synonyms and antonyms. *Junior Password* can be considered as a compact, simplified version of *Password*.

In *Junior Password* we decided to exclude the Estonian-English index, which is an integral part of the *Password* dictionary. (However, we did include it in the electronic version.) Our idea was that kids at this level of language awareness are not ready to understand that this is NOT an Estonian-English dictionary. Given the structural core of *Password*, where there are many derivatives under a single entry, the index is relevant for supporting the significance of the key entry. However, *Junior Password's* structure is very simple, and an index in this case would have made things more unclear to the user, since there is no sub-entry system. In developing the original *Password*, I rather develop an index specifically for an electronic version. There are, however, some disadvantages in presenting such an index, even for such a purpose. These include cases where the articles are split to component parts, or derivatives that become full entries. Thus, such an index may not be as functional as intended.

TEA's cooperation with K Dictionaries has proven to be both productive and profitable. Thus, we have agreed to develop two more titles within the *Password* line: *Advanced Password* for upper level learners, and *Picture Password* for younger ones. Both dictionaries have been introduced to our public as members in an upcoming family of products. This will prime our market for customer acceptance of new products and allow users to take full advantage of the multipurpose features provided in the current offerings.

Finally, I would like to suggest a possible idea for the future. Why not start a *Password* dictionary support centre? Among the many publishers who have localised the *Password* family of dictionaries around the world, it may be a good idea to consolidate our efforts and be able to convey to one another any good ideas for further improvements, as well as share issues and problems that may co-occur while working on the diverse languages that *Password* is offered in.



PASSWORD

Inglise-eesti seletav sõnaraamt Eesti-inglise sõnastik-indeksiga + ePASSWORD CD-ROMil koos hääldusega
English-Estonian Semi-Bilingual Dictionary
TEA KIRJASTUS
Tallinn, Estonia
August 2006 (2nd edition)
1008 pp, 250x173 mm
Hardcover, incl CD-ROM
ISBN 9985-71-518-7
<http://kdictionaries.com/products/pw/pwet.html>



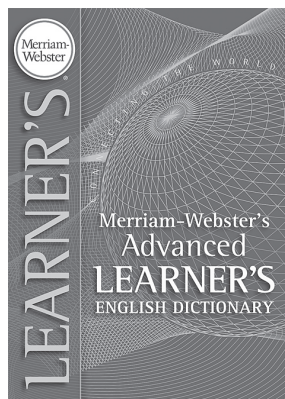
Junior PASSWORD

Inglise-eesti seletav sõnaraamt Eesti-inglise sõnastik-indeksiga + eJUNIOR PASSWORD CD-ROMil koos hääldusega
English-Estonian Semi-Bilingual Dictionary
TEA KIRJASTUS
Tallinn, Estonia
February 2008
584 pp, 204 x 140 mm
Hardcover, incl CD-ROM
ISBN 9985-71-519-2
<http://www.tea.ee>
<http://kdictionaries.com/products/pp/ppet.html>

From the series
KERNERMAN SEMI-BILINGUAL
DICTIONARIES

A First Look at Merriam-Webster's Advanced Learner's English Dictionary

John M. Morse



Merriam-Webster's Advanced Learner's English Dictionary

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Free companion website:
<http://learnersdictionary.com>

This September, Merriam-Webster will publish *Merriam-Webster's Advanced Learner's English Dictionary*, the first advanced learner's dictionary from an American publisher. As this article is being written, copy is still being edited, and type still being set, but enough work has been completed that we can offer this first look at the new dictionary.

By way of introduction, we can give the following facts. It will have 100,000 entries (= boldface forms), include more than 12,000 usage notes and paragraphs, and present coverage of 22,000 idioms, collocations, and commonly used phrases. Perhaps most significantly, it will include 160,000 usage examples – to the best of our knowledge, the most usage examples ever offered within the pages of a learner's dictionary.

In constructing this new dictionary, we were of course mindful of the many fine learner's dictionaries that have already been published, and we did ask ourselves what special goals we had for this dictionary. What was it that we could do that would particularly appeal to the English-language learner? We identified five goals:

- User-friendly symbols and abbreviations.
- Comprehensive coverage of American English.
- Very generous use of sample sentences and other usage examples.
- Extensive usage guidance, in the form of labels, notes, and paragraphs.
- Extensive coverage of phrases.

This isn't intended to be a complete list of the features of the dictionary. It also includes many of the features that one sees in other learner's dictionaries – highlighted headwords for core vocabulary items, synonym paragraphs, pronunciations in IPA, a four-color section, a grammar guide – but the five listed above seem especially worthy of note.

User-friendly symbols and abbreviations

Our goal was to make this dictionary as easy to use as possible. To us that meant having as few symbols and abbreviations as possible, requiring the least amount of grammatical sophistication from the user, and ensuring that all symbols and abbreviations be as easy to master as possible.

For verbs we label transitive and intransitive

use, and phrasal verbs are also specifically labeled. For nouns, we label count, noncount, singular, and plural forms. For adjectives and adverbs, we label gradable forms and indicate attributive and postpositive use. Other abbreviations include the common *abbr.*, *prep.*, *interj.*, and *conj.* And there are six other symbols used whose meaning is obvious in context.

Comprehensive coverage of American English

Since this dictionary is the first advanced learner's dictionary from an American publisher, we took as a very important goal to offer the most comprehensive coverage possible of American English. At minimum, we aimed to avoid errors of cultural misunderstanding such as that found in one leading learner's dictionary that equated *stock car racing* with *demolition derby*.

More importantly, we tried to include all vocabulary items from American English that would be appropriate for this dictionary, and in doing so, we identified many that have been missed from other leading learner's dictionaries. A sampling from the first half of the alphabet includes *deadlock* meaning “tie”; *deer tick*; *DEET*; *designee*; *devolve* meaning “to go from an advanced state to a less advanced state”; *double-wide*; *down-and-dirty*; *earth tone*; *elder care*; *family leave*; *fish or cut bait at fish*; *folderol*; *hard-ass*; *harness racing*; *haul ass* and *haul off and at haul*; *heads-up*, noun; *hitch* meaning “period of service in the military”; *hog heaven*; *hoist a few at hoist*; *home fries*; *horn* meaning “telephone”; *horse race* meaning “close race”; *lemon law*; *lily white* meaning “consisting entirely of white people”; *link* as in “sausage link”; *loaner*; *loosey-goosey*; and *lug nut* meaning “the nut that holds the tire onto a car.”

Another aspect of this was to recognize what are the words that aren't commonly used in American English and to ensure that they are properly labeled. A sampling, somewhat shorter, of words to which we assigned a *British* label but often aren't so labeled in other dictionaries includes *depute*; *drover*; *en bloc*; *English breakfast*; *in the event at event*; *ex gratia*; *in the flow at flow*; *gabble*; and *put (someone) out to grass at grass*.

These regional distinctions are usually indicated simply by means of labels, but sometimes notes are added to explain the distinctions, as this note at “lavatory”:

The full version of this article is available online:
<http://kdcictionaries.com/kdn/kdn16/kdn16mwaled.html>

In U.S. English, lavatory is most often used for a room in an airplane. • Smoking is not permitted in the airplane's *lavatory*. It may also be used for a room in other kinds of public places. • the school's *lavatories* [= (more commonly) *restrooms*] In British English, *lavatory* is most often used for a room in a public place but may also be used for a room in a home.

We also use illustrations to show the difference. Hence the illustration at *living room* labels the pillows on the sofa as both *throw pillow* (US) and *scatter cushion* (British); the illustration at *lighting fixtures* shows and labels a *floor lamp* but also includes the British term *standard lamp*; and the illustration at *grooming items* shows both *bobby pin* (US) and *hairgrip* (Brit) for the wire holder, and both *barrette* (US) and *hair slide* (Brit) for the holder with a clasp.

Very generous uses of example sentences and other usage devices

Merriam-Webster style rules for all our dictionaries have always strongly encouraged the use of examples both to convey meaning and illustrate typical usage. Given that orientation, we felt that this dictionary should be very well supplied with examples. In fact we went into this believing that well-chosen, carefully crafted examples are the heart and soul of a learner's dictionary. As a result, we created a learner's dictionary with more usage examples between its covers than any other learner's dictionary produced to date. Most are full sentences, but many are phrases when that is sufficient to illustrate the usage. The vast majority are made-up sentences, modeled on actual sentences found in our electronic corpus and other editorial resources, but almost always adapted to remove distracting details and for clarity and concision. There are some quotations, usually from classic works, as the Bible, plays of Shakespeare, the U.S. Constitution, or other well-known works. Many of the usage examples incorporate additional features to help learners. For example, synonymous words and phrases are frequently shown. Compound terms and idiomatic phrases are glossed. Equivalent expressions are indicated, and sometimes entire clauses and sentences are restated in different, simpler terms.

One problem we faced in including 160,000 usage examples was how to set them off. The usual Merriam-Webster practice of enclosing them in angle brackets was not workable, as 160,000 sets of angle brackets is space-consuming and not very attractive. Our solution was to precede each example with a centered dot and to set off the example in blue type. This has

had the additional benefit of highlighting the defining text set in black and serves to make navigating within the entry and searching for a specific sense much easier, especially in long multi-sense entries.

Extensive usage guidance

In preparing this text, we were mindful that learners need more guidance than native speakers in understanding register, idiomatic use, and attitudes about language. Traditionally we handle such matters with italic labels before the definition, notes set off with a dash after the definition, or paragraphs in which usage is described. For this dictionary we used all of these devices, only much more liberally.

Extensive coverage of phrases

Finally, we wanted to give very extensive coverage of phrases, whether as common collocations (usually shown in usage notes and examples but set off in bold italic), idiomatic phrases requiring definition (appearing at the ends of entries or as own-place entries), or simply collocational use of prepositions and adverbs (shown as usage notes).

As a final remark, it should be said that this new learner's dictionary makes use of many of the traditional devices of Merriam-Webster native speakers' dictionaries, but it also pushed us to create new devices to meet the needs of learners and to do a new kind of defining that put a great premium on simple and concise language. One editor working on the project expressed the challenge particularly well:

The biggest challenge of this book has been the need to draw on our previous lexicographical experience and training while at the same time forgetting all about it...

We've had to learn to prioritize simplicity and clarity over *absolute* precision and accuracy, which was a challenge for many of us. And yet the fact that we were reluctant to sacrifice accuracy also served us well. I'm hopeful that what we came up with is something that is clear and simple as well as accurate and precise.

to something dangerous, difficult, etc. — + *with* • The actors were *face to face* with real flames. • She came *face to face* with death. [=she nearly died] • When she visited the school she was brought *face to face* with the problems encountered by teachers every day.

fly in the face of see ¹FLY

game face ✦ In informal U.S. English, if you are *wearing your game face* or *have your game face on*, you have a serious look on your face which shows that you are ready to compete in a game, sport, competition, etc. • He was *wearing his game face* in the finals.

get out of someone's face US, informal : to go away and stop bothering someone : to leave someone alone • *Get out of my face!* • Hey, *get out of your sister's face* and go play somewhere else!

in someone's face **1** : in a direct way that shows anger or disrespect for someone • She laughed *in his face*. • He slammed the door *in my face*. **2** ✦ In informal U.S. English, if you *are/get in someone's face*, you are criticizing or shouting at someone in a very direct and angry way. • The coach *got in my face* because I was late for practice. — see also IN-YOUR-FACE

in the face of : while in a situation in which you have to deal with (something or someone that is dangerous, difficult, etc.) • Their defeat seemed certain *in the face of* such a powerful opponent. • She showed great courage *in the face of* danger. [=she showed great courage when she was faced with danger] • She succeeded *in the face of* [=despite] great difficulties.

just another face in the crowd see ²CROWD

laugh on the other side of your face see ¹LAUGH

lose face : to cause other people to have less respect for you : to lose other people's respect • She was afraid that she would *lose face* if she admitted her mistake.

make a face or chiefly Brit **pull a face** **1** : to make a facial expression that shows dislike or disgust • He *made a face* when I mentioned her name. **2** : to make a silly or amusing facial expression • She tried to get me to laugh by *making a face* when I looked at her. • He was entertaining the children by *making* (funny) faces.

pretty face see ¹PRETTY

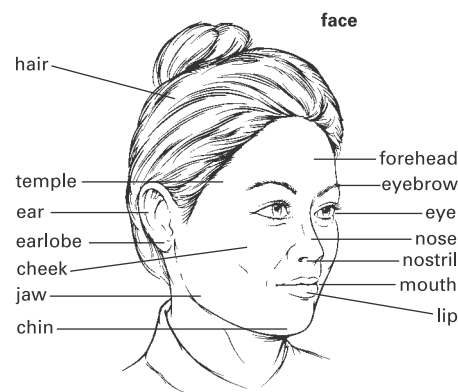
put a human face on see ¹HUMAN

save face : to avoid having other people lose respect for you • He tried to *save face* by working overtime to meet the deadline.

shut your face see ¹SHUT

stuff your face see ²STUFF

to someone's face : directly to someone • If you have something to say about me, you should say it *to my face*. [=say it directly to me rather than to someone else]



ce verb **fac-es; faced; fac-ing**

f a : to stand or sit with your face and body turned toward something or someone) [+ *obj*] The teacher *faced* the class. • She turned around to *face* the window. • He sat *facing* the wall. [*no obj*] Now turn and *face* to the east. **b** : to have the front part toward (something) • The house *faces* the park. • The living room *faces* the afternoon sun. [*no obj*] My shoe was lying in the corner with its sole *facing* upward. • The lower opens *facing* skyward. **c** : to be on the page that is opposite to (another page) [+ *obj*] Look at the illustration that *faces* page 132. = Look at the illustration *facing* page

a column from
Merriam-Webster's Advanced
Learner's English Dictionary

A new dictionary with a different viewpoint

Ari (Lionel) Kernerman

Six advanced learners' English dictionaries (ALEDs) should certainly be enough, one would think. Six ALEDs – all excellent dictionaries, all clearly written by some of the world's top lexicographers, all published by the most reputable publishers, all corpus based, all comprehensive in scope, all well designed and attractively formatted, and all – but one new one – tried and tested, their value proven.

So why should there be a seventh?

A good question, and very much begging an answer.

Upon close inspection all of the ALEDs demonstrate shortcomings. I discussed some of these last year, both at the DSNM Meeting and in these pages, and will discuss them further this year at the EURALEX Congress. My purpose here is not to criticize these "Big Six", but to explain some of the ways in which the seventh differs from its predecessors.

A global dictionary

The seventh dictionary referred to above is *Kernerman Advanced English Dictionary* (KAED). It was begun in 1996 and is scheduled to be published next year. It was written by lexicographers who are all experienced teachers of EFL, and the Editor-in-Chief is Raphael Gefen, former Chief Inspector for English in the Israel Ministry of Education, and lecturer in applied linguistics, EFL methodology and contrastive analysis.

KAED was written from a different viewpoint, and with different intentions than the Big Six. It was not written for those who are learning English in an English-speaking environment, or who plan to live in or visit an English-speaking environment, or who have a preferential interest in the culture of native English-speakers. This dictionary was written with English-as-the-global-lingua-franca learners or users in mind, who aspire either to communicate with other English-as-the-global-lingua-franca learners or users, or to use English mainly for vocational purposes, that is, for instrumental and not culturally-integrative purposes.

With this as its objective, and as far as content is concerned, KAED aims to be a neutral dictionary. It is neither British- nor American-oriented, but is culturally, politically, religiously and socio-economically neutral.

Were KAED to adhere strictly to one of the existing English-language word corpora, all of its examples would be derived from everyday life in the English-speaking countries. It would abound in the names of British and American statesmen and other personalities, in the geographical names of those countries, in their local institutions and laws, and, in general, it would reflect a modern, middle-class, Christian way of life, as is the case with all of the Big Six.

But those individuals who require an ALED may not find this description appropriate for their needs. Their customs are neither American nor British, and their everyday life may be far removed from that inherent in the corpora-derived situations of these countries. Therefore, the KAED team was keen to create an atmosphere that is not suggestive of any particular world outlook, and that can serve as a basis for adaptation to any country or culture in the world.

So what is different about KAED is the fact that, in addition to being compatible with an accurate lexicographical description of both the American and British varieties of the English language, together with the necessary cultural references, it is meant to cater also to billions of others – Europeans, Latin Americans, Asians and Africans, all of whom are its potential users, and who require English in order to communicate with others in the non-English-speaking world.

The viewpoint, then, of KAED is distinctly different from the American and/or British ambience of the ALEDs produced by publishers in the West.

Raw material for semi-bilingualization

Another way in which KAED is different is the fact that it is written to be semi-bilingualizable. In addition to being a monolingual English learners' dictionary, KAED will serve as a database for publishers in other countries for conversion into a local semi-bilingual dictionary, by simply adding a brief translation into the mother tongue of each sense of the headword. This translation is what will make KAED primarily a local dictionary. And if everything else remains untranslated, then the user or learner should have no difficulty in thinking in the target language, while the presence of this brief translation is enough to create certainty regarding the correct comprehension of the meanings and to prevent misunderstanding. On the other hand, if the entire entry were translated, it would encourage thinking in the mother tongue, without there being sufficient inducement for the user to read the English text.

So the translations of the headword have both psychological and didactic importance. The translation creates in the user confidence and a "comfortable feeling" that the meaning is correctly understood. And it provides the most accurate equivalent that is possible to attain: the mother-tongue equivalent, which is more precise than any English definition could ever be. This is part of the beauty of the semi-bilingual dictionary. It's like having your cake and eating it, too.

Further localization will be achieved by giving the local editors a free hand in adding, changing or deleting entries or sentences to enhance the domestic content.

Anticipating mother-tongue interference

The focus on the learner, which is so characteristic of KAED, is also exemplified by a large number of notes that point to potential mother-tongue interference. Local editors will be able to adopt, adapt and add to the text, since they are the most knowledgeable persons for contending with problems in English-language learning that are encountered by speakers of their own language. This problem has been strongly anticipated and accommodated for by our lexicographers in compiling the text, being themselves all former teachers of English-as-a-foreign-language.

These, then, are some of the main features that may make KAED the "lucky seventh", viz., cultural neutrality, discretion in the application of corpora, semi-bilingual compatibility, and accounting for possible mother-tongue interference.