

Kernerman DICTIONARY News

The EFL Dictionary Pioneers and their Legacies

A. P. Cowie



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[This paper is an abridged version of the presentation made at the inauguration of the Israel Association for Lexicography (ISRALEX) at Seminar Levinsky, Tel Aviv on 3 February 2000.

The text is available also on <http://www.kdictionaries.com/newsletter/kdn8-1.html>]

1. Introduction

It should come as no surprise that, in recent years, ELT dictionaries of all kinds have become a vitally important focus of applied linguistic research, innovative design and substantial investment. Learners' dictionaries are a crucial part of the response to a worldwide demand for English that is constantly expanding. Within the broader field of EFL dictionary development, the monolingual learner's dictionary (MLD) for advanced students occupies a special place.¹ The use of the foreign language as the language of *definition* in the MLD – with the actual choice of defining words being carefully controlled – is an acknowledgement that the typical user has a relatively firm footing in the semantic structure of the L2. The broad scope of the listed vocabulary reflects the global importance of English as the language of

science, commerce and mass communication. And, not least, the attention given to grammatical words and patterns, and to example sentences, is a clear indication that MLDs are designed to meet the needs of writers as well as readers. The way in which this information is presented (making it, as it were, more 'learner-friendly') has been enhanced, in recent years, by a growing body of research into the use which students actually make of their dictionaries (Atkins 1998, Cowie 1999). And the authenticity of the grammatical claims made about English, and of the examples selected, has been improved beyond recognition by the use, since the early 1980s, of large-scale computer-stored corpora of English, the best known of which are the British National Corpus and the Bank of English.

Number 8 • July 2000

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Because of the marked improvement in the resources available to EFL lexicographers, it is tempting to assume that their products have undergone fundamental changes, and that they now have little in common with the very earliest MLDs – those of the 1930s and 1940s. But as recent research has revealed, the ‘founding fathers’ of the MLD – Harold Palmer, Michael West and A.S. Hornby – had even at that early stage added to the established features of *mother-tongue* English dictionaries a new set of elements that were inspired by the needs of non-native learners (Cowie 1998b, 1999). With the passage of time, those new elements in turn ‘acquired the status of convention, as the monolingual learner’s dictionary developed into a distinct genre’ (Rundell 1998). It is important to bear in mind, then, that despite the considerable advances of the 1980s and 1990s, especially in the quality of information available to lexicographers and in the way this is presented, those pivotal elements and basic needs have changed very little. So it is worthwhile to go back to those early years, to ask what those original features were, and to enquire into the sources from which they sprang.

The key figures who come into focus are three expatriate Englishmen, teaching and conducting innovative programmes of research in Japan and what was then British India. Harold E. Palmer and his assistant (and later successor) A.S. Hornby, were based in Tokyo, at the Institute for Research in English Teaching (IRET); Michael West served in Bengal. It is a curious fact, by the way, that though these programmes of lexical research led almost inevitably to the MLD – we could in fact, without exaggeration, claim that they gave birth to the learner’s dictionary – the intended goal of all this effort was the development of classroom syllabuses and simplified readers. Palmer, for instance, was not aware until the mid-1930s that ‘a learner’s dictionary’ (his term) would be the most complete and natural end-point of the lexical research he had started up (Palmer 1934).

Here, I shall look at various aspects of this research programme and trace its connections with the earliest achievements in EFL dictionary design. The period covered is from about 1927 to 1942. I begin with the so-called ‘vocabulary control’ movement. Then I move on to consider Michael West and the idea – which was not taken up by Palmer and Hornby – of using a controlled vocabulary for *defining*. Afterwards, I shall consider the development of phraseological research, and assess its subsequent impact on pedagogical lexicography. In this project, A.S. Hornby played a key role. Finally I shall try to show how the research into collocations and idioms is firmly tied up with the design of dictionary examples.

2. The vocabulary control movement

Harold Palmer had been interested in vocabulary control (or vocabulary limitation) since 1903, when he had run a language school at Verviers, in Eastern

Belgium. His interest in vocabulary control is explained by a desire to ease the learning burden of the foreign learner by pinpointing those relatively few words which carried the main weight of everyday communication. This interest was closely linked to the preparation of simplified readers. In fact, Michael West, researching in India, was largely inspired by the desire to produce schemes of simplified readers for schoolchildren (Howatt 1984). The purpose of preparing the limited vocabularies was chiefly educational, then, but the scientific soundness of any word-list could later be tested by using it to simplify other unabridged texts. Words which occurred seldom or never in those texts would probably not be kept, while words which occurred frequently but were not already part of the list might be considered for inclusion. West, as we shall see, applied similar principles when testing successive versions of his limited defining vocabulary for the *New Method English Dictionary* (NMED) of 1935.

It is not difficult to see now why the word-lists produced in the early 1930s by Palmer, or by Palmer and Hornby working together, should evolve into designs of dictionary entries suitable for foreign learners (Cowie 1998b, 1999). When Palmer was asked by IRET, in 1927, to compile a controlled vocabulary for middle-grade Japanese schools, he was already aware that drawing up a word-list was a more complex affair than producing an alphabetical inventory of spelling-forms, based on frequency of occurrence. He knew, for instance, that the form *act* could embrace different meanings (‘act’, as in a play, ‘act’, in the sense “pretend”, etc) as well as different parts of speech (‘act’, noun or ‘act’, verb). To run all these differences together, and count simply one form, *act*, would be to gloss over distinctions that were crucial to the learner (and also to the dictionary-maker). Taking careful account of the meanings and grammatical functions of words, Palmer, West and later Hornby succeeded in producing, from 1930 onwards, what I have called ‘structured lexicons’ (Cowie 1999).

We can see this approach at work in *Thousand-Word English* (TWE), a word-list begun by Hornby, then refined with Palmer’s help, and finally published in 1937. First, the entries in the list were words, or ‘lexemes’, as they are in most dictionaries. They were not inflected forms, like *acts*, *acting*, *acted*, for instance. Those forms would be arranged inside the entry (in this case for ACT), where the reader would also find a cluster of derivatives (e.g. the nouns ‘actor’, ‘actress’). To see how this works out in more detail in TWE, consider the entry for DRAW, at (1). In this entry, irregular inflected forms are picked out in italic, and basic meanings, at 1 and 2, are conveyed by ‘a picture’, ‘a line’, which are actually collocates of ‘draw’. The derivative ‘drawing’ is placed at the end of the entry.

- (1) DRAW [drɔːz], v.
drew [druː], pret.

drawn [drɔ:n], *past ppl.*

(1. e.g., a picture)

(2. e.g., a line)

drawing ['drɔ:ɪŋ], *n.*

(Palmer and Hornby 1937)

Harold Palmer drew on the word-list of *TWE* when he published his own MLD, *A Grammar of English Words* (*GEW*), in 1938. The entry structures of the two works also share certain features, including the positioning of meanings and derivatives. But the dictionary has examples and idioms – these do not appear in the word-list – and it also has some interesting features of arrangement designed to help the user grasp connections of meaning and form across the entry. Notice in the *SOFT* entry at (2), below, how the definition at *soften* contains the object nouns 'leather', 'one's voice', 'a person's heart'. These enable the user to link that word to meanings 1, 3 and 4 of *soft*, but not meaning 2. These arrangements are of great help when *writing*, because placing the verb *soften* in the same entry as the adjective *soft* helps the writer to avoid repeating the adjective in the same sentence (like this: 'If it isn't soft, soften it!'). However, if you are *reading*, 'nesting' words such as *soften*, *softly* or *softness* in the entry for *SOFT* probably makes it more difficult to locate the individual derivatives. For the reader, they should arguably be placed in separate entries.

- (2) *SOFT*
soft [sɒft], *softer* ['sɒftə], *softest* ['sɒftɪst], *adj.*
 1. = not hard
 a soft bed.
 soft leather [wood, etc.].
 The ground is soft after the rain.
 Which of the two chairs is softer?
 soft to the touch. ...
 2. = smooth
 a soft hand.
 soft hair.
 a soft skin.
 as soft as silk.
 soft to the feel [touch]. ...
 3. *Said of the voice and other sounds* =
 low, not harsh
 a soft voice [sound, etc.].
 soft music. ...
 4. *Said of the character*
 a soft heart.
 the softer side of his nature.
 Δ *soften* ...
 soften leather [one's voice, a person's heart,
 etc.].
 (Palmer 1938)

This excerpt from *GEW* illustrates only a few of the many connections between IRET research and the earliest learners' dictionaries. But perhaps it is enough to show that the direction taken by that research encouraged the development of dictionaries that

strongly favoured *production* (encoding). First, extreme vocabulary limitation would give special prominence to structural words (e.g. *the*, *may*, *in*) and heavy-duty verbs (e.g. *make*, *send*, *bring*) and these are, of course, the basic building-blocks of sentence *construction*. Then, as we have just seen, the Palmer-Hornby approach to lexical analysis gave us an entry structure in which derivatives were clustered around their roots, also with potential benefits for encoding. Of course, within the vocabulary-control project there was also scope for prioritizing the needs of the reader. This could be achieved by adapting the word-lists produced in the course of research to compose controlled *defining* vocabularies for dictionaries. In fact, there was only one attempt made, in those early days, to develop and utilize a limited vocabulary for defining. It appeared in *NMED* (1935), which was first and foremost a dictionary for the reader.

3. Michael West's limited defining vocabulary

The New Method English Dictionary, jointly compiled by Michael West and J.G. Endicott, was the first MLD to be published. The dictionary contained definitions based on a 'minimum adequate definition vocabulary'. Also in 1935, West published *Definition Vocabulary*, an account of how the defining vocabulary had been systematically chosen, checked and revised. The research involved compiling a preliminary version of the dictionary, in which a defining vocabulary of 1799 words – eventually to be reduced to 1490 – was used to define 23,898 vocabulary items (West 1935: 34-41).

The definition vocabulary devised by West was to prove enormously influential – it was the basis of the controlled vocabulary used in the first Longman MLD, of 1978 – and in his 1935 essay West put his finger on several of the problems that would later face lexicographers wishing to devise defining vocabularies of their own. The discussion was in fact remarkable for the range of issues that he raised. West identified several of the characteristic weaknesses of definitions in mother-tongue dictionaries – the fondness for defining the known (say, *pencil*) in terms of the unknown ('instrument?', 'tapering?'), and the tendency to resort to 'scatter-gun' techniques, whereby 'one fires off a number of near or approximate synonyms in the hope that one or other will hit the mark and be understood', as in the example at (3) (1935: 8):

- (3) *sinuate* tortuous, wavy, winding

One important question that concerned West was how far one could depend on the learner to use prefixes and suffixes as building-bricks. He included some of the commonest prefixes and suffixes (e.g. *dis-*, *in-*, *-able*, *-en*) in the defining vocabulary, and in the definitions he allowed these to be attached to various words – provided their meanings were regular. So the deverbal suffix *-able* can be added to *drink*, *eat*, *read*, etc., on the assumption that the user will infer the

meanings of *drinkable*, *eatable* and *readable* (cf. West 1935: 16). In this way great economies can be made.

One of the lessons that West was quick to learn – and that others have not been slow to profit from – was that to arrive at natural and precise definitions of very many words, he had to include in his definition vocabulary a number of very general ('genus') words, including *behaviour*, *belief*, *engine*, *insect*, *instrument*, *metal*, *noun*, *quality*, *relation*, *science*, *skill*, *solid*, *surface*, *vegetable*. These do not necessarily occur very frequently, but their importance is easily seen if we try to define *onion* or *parsnip* without using *vegetable*, or *bee* or *fly* without using *insect*.

4. Research into collocations and idioms

Harold Palmer had set up a programme of research into phraseology at IRET in 1927 – at the same time as it was decided to compile a limited word-list for middle-school children. The result was the first, large-scale analysis of English phraseology to be undertaken with the needs of the foreign learner in mind. The project was directed by Palmer, but much of the actual collecting and classification was carried out by A.S. Hornby. The first detailed findings were published as the *Second Interim Report on English Collocations*, in 1933. The importance of the *Interim Report* cannot be overstated. It consisted of a meticulous classification of word-combinations in English, but it also showed how much of everyday speech and writing is in fact made up of 'fixed phrases', and it helped pave the way for the strong growth of interest in phraseology in the 1980s and 1990s (Cowie 1998a, 1999).

The expressions classified in the *Interim Report* were familiar word-combinations (called 'collocations' by Palmer and Hornby) that could function as elements in simple sentences. These could be broken down initially into verb-collocations (*to toe the line*), noun-collocations (*a tidy amount*), adjective-collocations (*as pleased as Punch*), and so on, but much finer sub-categories could be recognized within those broad divisions. One sub-category, shown at (4), was the verb-collocation 'VERB x SPECIFIC NOUN (x PREP x N₃)' (no. 31211). This included:

- (4) To catch a cold
To entertain a belief
To give notice (x of x N₃)
To hold one's tongue
To keep good [bad, etc.] company

The Palmer-Hornby approach was not perfect. For example, the term 'collocation' was applied not only to the very large groups of 'word-like' combinations – which the *Report* actually treated – but to proverbs, slogans and catchphrases as well. Nowadays, most phraseologists would restrict the term collocation to word-like combinations such as *to catch a cold* or *a tidy amount*. But in doing this they would also be saying that each two-word combination consists of one word used in a normal, familiar, sense (*cold*,

amount), and another word (*catch*, *tidy*) whose special meaning is confined to that context and a few similar ones (cf. *to catch a chill*, *a tidy sum*). And, of course, they would be implying that these are *not* idioms – that is, not fixed phrases that are difficult to explain in terms of *all* of the individual words (Cowie 1998a). Now, neither Palmer nor Hornby recognized this important distinction.

The most obvious practical effect was that, in Palmer's *GEW* and the earliest editions of the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, idioms were not always given the special prominence that they deserve. In the list at (4), the phrase *to hold one's tongue* is both fixed and 'unmotivated', and is therefore an idiom, while *to catch a cold* can be internally modified, as in *to catch a fever/chill*, and is therefore a collocation. Ideally, the former should appear in bold print, but not the latter.

All the same, the Palmer-Hornby approach had a number of enduring strengths. Remember that the *Interim Report* was a very detailed *grammatical* classification. This impressed many dictionary-makers and explains the emphasis given in several British phraseological dictionaries to the grammatical treatment of idioms and collocations. Once the notion had caught on of classifying collocations and idioms according to form and structure (see again the heading of the examples at (4)), the natural next step was to provide a more detailed description, particularly by indicating whether idioms could be used in the passive and other 'transformations'. We find this finer detail in both volumes of the *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English* (1983/1993).

5. Phraseology and the design of dictionary examples

Another benefit of this early interest in phraseology was that it undoubtedly influenced the design of illustrative examples in learners' dictionaries. Palmer, Hornby and West were all aware that examples would help to show the learner what words (in their various uses) *meant*. Palmer, though, and later Hornby, were particularly interested in examples which showed the lexical and grammatical contexts in which words typically *occurred*. In a paper on vocabulary lay-out published in 1936, Palmer illustrated this point by referring to the adjective *used to*:

- (5) to be used to something or somebody
to get used to something or somebody
to be used to doing something
to get used to doing something
(Palmer 1936)

Now, we can argue that these are strictly not examples at all, if by examples we mean instances of *performance*, whether real (that is, taken from a corpus) or imitated. They are *simplifications* (there is no grammatical subject) and *abstractions* ('something' stands for a whole range of possible noun phrases). I call these 'minimal lexicalized

patterns' (Cowie 1995, 1996), and their value has long been recognized in French and Italian monolingual dictionaries as a basis for imitation and expansion when writing. Palmer referred to them as 'skeleton-type examples' and he and Hornby were responsible for introducing them into the MLD (Cowie 1998a).

Hornby, very interestingly, developed for the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (ISED)*, of 1942, later to become the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, a kind of skeleton clause example which is less abstract than those I have just shown. All the same, it was sufficiently simplified to provide a good model for imitation and expansion. Here, at (6), are some examples of this kind from *ISED*:

- (6) *to cut steps in a rock*
to cut a figure in stone
to man a ship
to manage a horse

You can see that these are subjectless clauses, that the verb is in the infinitive, and that modification of object nouns (*a rock, a ship*, etc) is cut to the minimum. And notice how close these examples are to the verb-collocations we looked at earlier (cf. *to catch a cold, to man a ship*). Some of the *ISED* examples are indeed part of phraseology.

6. Conclusion

We have had to wait until the last few years of the twentieth century and the first of this to gain a reliable, rounded picture of the early history of the learner's dictionary and a true sense of how fully it drew on the linguistic research carried out by a small group of Englishmen working at a remote distance from Europe in the 1920s and 1930s. It is only fitting that much of the opening-up of a neglected episode in lexicographical history has taken place in Japan, or has drawn extensively on Japanese sources (Imura 1997, Cowie 1999, Smith 1999a, b). It is an astonishing fact, too, that Palmer, West and Hornby were not aware until about the mid-1930s that the true and natural goal of their research would be lexicographical. In the end, all the key innovative features of the new dictionaries sprang from this programme – West's defining vocabulary, the verb-patterns of Palmer and Hornby, the skillfully designed examples, and not least the collocations and idioms, an area in which Hornby made such an immensely important contribution. And once these corner-stones had been put in place, they acquired the status of convention, giving the MLD a unique lexicographic character. This is the enduring foundation, upon which all the subsequent developments have been built.

Note

- (1) The degree of interest is reflected in the intensity of the competition (cf. Herbst 1996). Dictionaries from four major publishers at

present share the field: the *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* (1995), the *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (2/e, 1995), the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (3/e, 1995), and the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (6/e, 2000). The latter is the newest edition of the work initially compiled by Hornby and his associates.

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The ASIALEX Second Biennial Conference, Seoul, 2001

ASIAN BILINGUALISM AND THE DICTIONARY

The Asian Association for Lexicography (ASIALEX) was inaugurated during the Dictionaries in Asia conference at Hong Kong University of Science and Technology in 1997. Its first conference was hosted at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, in 1999, by the first Asialex president and president of the university, Professor Huang Jianhua, and was attended by two hundred scholars from Asia and Europe. The current president, Professor Sangsup Lee, chairs the organizing committee of the second biennial conference, due on 8-10 August 2001, at the Center for Linguistic Informatics Research, which he directs, at Yonsei University.

The general theme of the conference is 'Asian Bilingualism and the Dictionary'. This subject has special aspects in the Asian context which have not received sufficient consideration so far, and whose significance is growing very fast in this age of accelerated cross-cultural informatic contact between the peoples of Asia and the rest of the world. Other topics related to the dictionary are also welcome. Following is a list of major topics proposed by the organizing committee:

- Corpus Linguistics, Lexicology, Lexicography
- Computational Lexicography
- Lexicographical Processes and Methods
- Language Education and the Dictionary
- Terminography
- Lexicographical Problems in Asian Bilingualism

Renowned scholars and lexicographers will speak at plenary sessions. The languages used will be English and Korean. The deadlines regarding papers are as follows:

- submission of abstracts: 31 October 2000
- notification of acceptance: 30 November 2000
- submission of finished papers: 30 April 2001

The Korean government has cordially agreed to subsidize the conference costs. The registration fee is \$45, and early registration by 15 March 2001 is \$38. The fee is inclusive of a copy of the proceedings, 3 lunches, stationery items, refreshments, etc. Optional cost for the conference dinner and excursion is 30,000 won (approximately \$27 at the current exchange rate).

On-campus accommodation is offered at

- Sangnam Guesthouse: 65,000 won single, 80,000 won double
- Allen Hall Guesthouse: 50,000 won single, 68,000 won double

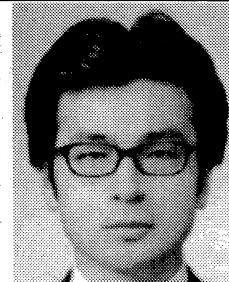
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Dictionary Use for Production among Japanese College Students of English

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[The earlier contribution by the authors, 'English Lexicography in Japan: it's History, Innovations and Impact', was originally published in *Kernerman Dictionary News*, Number 6, 1998, and then included in the book *Lexicography in Asia*.

The text, with the addition of full Appendices, is available on <http://www.kdictionaries.com/newsletter/kdn8-3.html>]

1. Introduction

Ordinary Japanese learners of English should have two suitable bilingual dictionaries at their disposal: an English-Japanese dictionary (EJD) for (mainly) reception and a Japanese-English dictionary (JED) for production. The first dictionary they obtain should be an EJD. However, the second position is not automatically filled by a JED, which may give way to a second EJD, or even a monolingual English dictionary (MED), especially for learners. In foreign language learning, understandably, reception should precede production. Considering this basic idea, however, the type of dictionary associated with reception seems to have had precedence in demand, use, the value and attention attached and paid by users, teachers, researchers, and publishers over that associated with production.

Thus, while the EJD has developed into a world-class genre, the JED has stagnated. It is a fundamental fact that the JED is difficult to compile since models to draw on are limited, unlike the EJD's case (Nakao 1998: 44). In addition, it is largely explained by the following unfortunate circumstances and factors:

- The number of Japanese who write and speak in English is smaller than those who read and listen to it.
- Japan's English language education has placed an overwhelming emphasis on the receptive side, especially on reading.
- JEDs have always been in much less demand than EJDs.
- Publishers have invested fewer resources in the production of commercially less promising JEDs.
- Fewer JEDs (titles, varieties², and revisions) have been published.
- Lack of competition has limited breakthroughs and innovations.

Hence, there has been a considerable mistrust of JEDs among Japanese teachers of English, based on their

experience (Nakamoto 2000). Some discourage (or even ban) their use by students not only because they can spoil them by providing ready-made answers but also because they are unsatisfactory and unreliable. JEDs are narrow in scope, concentrating on formal and out-of-date English, and are not sufficient in themselves (like L2 thesauri, which list synonyms without semantic discrimination). Some teachers advise students to check the information found in their JED against an EJD.

Yet, the picture has been changing in favor of the JED: (1) the arrival of a new type of genuine learner's JED (JELD) in the mid-1980s, (2) the 1994 shift of emphasis to oral English in the country's English language education policy (see Section 3), and (3) the rapid spread of the computer as a new communication tool, which has increased chances to write in English.

This article complements our first contribution that focused on the EJD (Yamada and Komuro 1998), by looking into the JED and dictionary use among Japanese college students of English, especially for production. Starting from this framework, we also attempt to make suggestions for an ideal ELT situation with better use of dictionaries for production. We begin with a quick look at history.

2. The development of Japanese-English dictionaries

The first JED published in Japan was *Wa-ei Gorin Shusei (A JE and EJD, 1867³, 26.5x17.7cm)⁴*. The editor was an American missionary, James Curtis Hepburn, who lived in Japan from 1859 to 1892. He compiled his JED on the basis of two existing dictionaries: a small JED (*An E and J, and J and E Vocabulary*, 1830) published by an English missionary Walter H. Medhurst in Batavia (now Jakarta, Indonesia), and a Japanese-Portuguese dictionary (*Vocabulario da Lingoa Japon*, 1603-04) compiled by Jesuits. Hepburn's dictionary consists of the J-E part (20,772 refs, 555pp) and the E-J index (10,030 headwords, 132pp). It was intended to serve

the receptive purposes of English speakers and therefore contained information unnecessary for Japanese (e.g. definitions or explanations of headwords). Nonetheless, this sophisticated dictionary enjoyed great popularity with Japanese students of English toward the end of the 19th century.

The departure from Hepburn's influence and the prototype of the JED exclusively for Japanese was realized by *Shin-yaku Wa-ei Jiten* (Inouye's JED, 1909, Sanseido, 16.5x8.6cm, 1,872pp; Kojima 1999: 375). The editor, Jukichi Inouye (1862-1929), went to London at the age of 11, where he stayed for ten years and received elementary to college education. He is renowned for the lexicographic expertise exhibited in his EJDs and JEDs, which are remembered to this day. Being Inouye's debut work, this JED is not so famous as his other works. He made it clear that it was intended to help "the Middle-school pupil as he treads gingerly the thorny path of English composition and conversation" (Preface). It was the first dictionary geared to the productive needs of Japanese learners. Inouye's endeavor is noteworthy for the inclusion of a great many commonly used Japanese words and expressions with their English translations, while JEDs commonly tend toward bookishness and archaism.

This dictionary marked the beginning of the history of JEDs solely for Japanese. However, a prolonged period of stagnation with no major progress or innovations also set in, which continued until quite recently (Kojima 1989: 282-3). Inouye's first JED was followed by large dictionaries, such as:

- *Takenobu Wa-ei Dai-jiten* (Takenobu's JED). 1918. Ed. Takenobu, Yoshitaro. Tokyo: Kenkyusha. 16.9x9.2cm. 2,504pp. (Revised as *Shin Wa-ei Dai-jiten* [Kenkyusha's New JED, 1931], which is the only large-size JED currently in print [now 4/e, 1974].)
- *Standard Wa-ei Dai-jiten* (A Standard JED). 1924. Ed. Takehara, Tsuneta. Osaka: Hobunkan. 21.7x14.7cm. 1,677pp. (Uniquely based on about 60,000 out of some 300,000 examples the editor amassed over 14 years from reading English books and periodicals. He translated the selected examples into Japanese and arranged them to compile his dictionary.)
- *Saito Wa-ei Dai-jiten* (Saito's JED). 1928. Ed. Saito, Hidesaburo. Tokyo: Nichieicha. 21.2x15.3cm. 642pp. (The largest JED then available with 50,000 headwords and 120,000 examples.)

The last two JEDs are in sharp contrast to each other. Saito states that "... the English of the Japanese must, in a certain sense, be Japanised" (Preface). Takehara harshly criticizes as imprecise the JEDs based on the editors' intuition (and the foregoing dictionaries) (Preface), and demonstrates the beauty of his authentic-example-based JED by listing some

incorrect examples found in other JEDs against those of his own (Appendix). Medium and small-size JEDs were also published, especially after World War II.

The period of stagnation ended with a major breakthrough in the mid-1980s. Two dictionaries appeared (Nakao 1998: 44-5, and Yamagishi 1997: 94-5):

- *Lighthouse JED*. 1984. Eds. Kojima, Yoshiro, and Shigru Takebayashi. Tokyo: Kenkyusha. 12.0x18.5 cm. 1,754pp.
- *Progressive JED*. 1986. Eds. Kondo, Ineko, and Fumi Takano. Tokyo: Shogakukan. 13.5x18.5cm. 1,900pp.

In an effort to shake off the JED's bad name, the editors made their dictionaries self-sufficient (i.e. without requiring an additional look at an EJD for confirmation). Both dictionaries were careful in their selection of headwords so that they comprise contemporary, well-balanced lists. Both were generous in the provision of example sentences and illustrations. Kojima, editor of the former, spells out the main objectives he aspired to while preparing his JED (Kojima 1984: 38-9⁵):

- (1) Distinguish between the meanings of English equivalents; provide phonetic and morphological notes if necessary.
- (2) Provide detailed columns of synonyms if necessary, based on the contrastive study between Japanese and English from the Japanese point of view.
- (3) Provide clear style labels (relative style labels for more than one equivalent).
- (4) Do not automatically match the parts of speech between Japanese headwords and English equivalents. Give a commonly used equivalent first, regardless of the part of speech of the headword.
- (5) Provide abundant notes on usage.
- (6) Examples should be thoroughly checked by English consultants.

Some of the other special features of the dictionary are:

- Indication of the difference in the way of thinking where the gap between English examples and their corresponding Japanese is irreconcilably great.⁶
- Seventy-five full-page (more or less) features on culture, etc., and 85 articles on grammar and punctuation.⁷
- Strict entry of compounds under their first elements.
- Abundant cross-references within the dictionary and with its companion EJD.

Kondo and Takano, editors of the latter, say that they began their work by closely analyzing the meanings of

Japanese headwords and, for important items, separated the original senses from the metaphorical ones (Preface), so that users could pinpoint the information they seek. Their JED boasts 70,000 entries with 100,000 examples. They put to good use the expertise of their lexicographers, many of whom have had long experience in teaching Japanese-to-English translation at high school or university.

The insights and ambitions of the editors of both dictionaries were translated into the innovations and features of their respective dictionaries. Carefully planned and compiled with due consideration to the user's productive needs, the dictionaries truly cater to such needs. Breaking away from the traditions of notorious, user-hostile JEDs, they opened the long-awaited age of user-friendly JEDs. *Lighthouse JED* underwent revision in 1990 and 1996, and *Progressive JED* in 1992. *College Lighthouse JED* (1995), the enlarged edition of the former, and new products from other companies have now entered into the increased competition.

3. The teaching of English and dictionary use in the Japanese education system

In Japan, English learning officially begins when students enter junior high school (JHS) at the age of 13. It may be safe to say that this motivates the majority of them to acquire their first EJD (and JED), although they only vaguely perceive the necessity of having one on starting to learn a foreign language.

Dictionary use is not much encouraged at JHS, however, and students are actually quite happy with using just the glossary at the back of their English textbook⁸ as a mini dictionary. The glossary consists of the words to be learnt in the book with their translation equivalents appropriate to the context. Recently, the traditional grammar-translation method has been severely criticized, and some effort has been made by changing the curriculum, to place more emphasis on developing students' listening and speaking skills. Generally, frequent use of dictionaries in class is not considered effective to promote fluency, though it may be of great help with grammatical accuracy.

After three years of compulsory education at JHS, more than 95% of the students go on to senior high school (SHS) for another three years. The recent trend in teaching has had considerable influence over the English curriculum at SHS, too. In 1994, a new type of lesson called 'Oral Communication' was introduced. Some changes have been taking place with writing classes as well. A while ago, a typical writing class usually consisted of vocabulary and grammar exercises and translation exercises from Japanese into English at the sentence level. The main aim was not to write a free composition or learn how to organize, write and revise an academic essay, but to learn and practice the grammatical patterns each lesson introduces. Some of the recent textbooks are designed to encourage students to write more, and

contain exercises that make students produce a passage of text rather than writing or translating isolated single sentences (Takeuchi 1997).

At SHS it is quite common for English teachers to choose a certain EJD and require all the students to buy a copy of it, or list a couple of EJDs as their recommendations⁹. Whether or not it is compulsory to do so, this is probably when students obtain their second EJD. Naturally, recommendation by schoolteachers has significant influence on students' selection and purchase of dictionaries¹⁰, which is also clear from the results of our questionnaire survey shown below (cf. 4.2.2). However, no systematic instruction in dictionary use is provided for students.

Students are hardly ever advised to buy a JED. Actually, they are not very often required to consult their dictionaries even in writing class since models to follow are presented in their textbook. Nevertheless, it appears that some students perceive the necessity of getting themselves a JED especially if they do not have one. According to Hagiwara (1991), 129 out of 190 second- or third-year SHS students (67.9%) own a JED at his high school. However, they receive virtually no instruction in how to make the best use of their purchase.

It, therefore, is often the case that first-year university students, who have studied English for six years at least, own a couple of dictionaries, but are not fully aware of how helpful and valuable they can be.

4. Dictionaries used by Japanese students of English: a questionnaire-based study

4.1 Procedure

I (S.Y.) distributed the 167 take-home questionnaires in January 2000 to my students (mostly freshmen and sophomores) at the School of Commerce, Waseda University, Tokyo. Ninety-nine of them (59.28%) were returned. When handing them out, I advised the students to (1) state the edition number of the dictionaries they use, and (2) give specific answers to the questions.

4.2 Results and discussion

4.2.1 University students' dictionary use

First, the type(s) of dictionaries the students use on a regular basis are examined. A total of 114 EJDs, 40 JEDs, 25 MEDs, and 12 electronic dictionaries were reported, and the average number of dictionaries the students used on a regular basis is 1.97 (rounded off to two decimals). Most of the EJDs (92.1%) and the JEDs (95%) used are learners' dictionaries, and the most popular type of MEDs (80%) is the British EFL dictionary. Thirty-nine students (39.4%) made regular use of only one dictionary, which was an EJD (except in one case). About the same proportion of students (35.4%) use two dictionaries, and the combination of an EJD and a JED is the most popular (16.2%).

Hatakeyama (1997) carried out a questionnaire survey of dictionary use with 167 Osaka International University (OIU) students (not specializing in

English), who may be considered as parallels to our subject. The survey reports how many EJDs the students *own*, and the comparison of the dictionary ownership of OIU students and the dictionary use of Waseda students (see the table below) seems to indicate that dictionary ownership is not necessarily identical with dictionary use.

number of EJDs	OIU (167)	Waseda (99)
none	0%	1.0% (1)
one	39%	82.8% (82)
two	45%	15.2% (15)
three or more	16%	1.0% (1)

Table 1: Dictionary *ownership* (OIU) compared with dictionary *use* (Waseda)

The same might hold true for the JED. We may surmise that more students actually *own* a JED (cf. Section 3), but they simply do not have much opportunity to produce English, by using it. Apart from JEDs, few students use dictionaries designed especially for productive use, such as collocation dictionaries and thesauri. Only one student listed *Longman Essential Activator*, and three students *Oxford Wordpower Dictionary*¹¹.

4.2.2 Dictionary acquisition

From our experience in teaching at university, we had been under the impression that most students do not buy a new English dictionary for university studies, and we were, therefore, interested in finding out when students had acquired the products they use now. Our assumption proved to be right (see Appendix 3): more than half of the dictionaries students use were bought during their high school years, and quite a few, back in their junior high school years; or they use dictionaries that their siblings had used, or one they found at home. Accordingly, many of the listed dictionaries are out of date, and are not appropriate for their academic work.

Regarding reasons for acquisition (see Appendix 4), recommendation by schoolteachers has the greatest influence on students' choice. It also attracts our attention that not a few students bought a dictionary to study for university entrance exams. University entrance exams are a source of motivation for students to purchase a new dictionary, though dictionary use is not allowed in these exams. A number of high school students who wish to go on to university, or who failed at their first trial, go to a college preparatory school, and the recommendation of teachers concerning dictionary use also weighs heavily with them.

4.2.3 University students' dictionary use for production

This section deals with the kind(s) of dictionaries students use for encoding tasks (see Appendix 5), and the concrete purpose(s) of consultation (see Appendix

6). What is noticeable is that EJDs, which are generally classified into 'decoding' dictionaries, are actually utilized for encoding activities. The above-mentioned Hatakeyama survey (1997) also reports that 63% of his subjects use EJDs for writing.

Students seem to choose which type of dictionary to use according to the kinds of information they want. They look up EJDs mainly to check whether they are using a certain lexical item correctly or appropriately in order to express their idea, or to see how these items can be used. Students consult JEDs mostly for Japanese translation equivalents. Browsing through the purposes of consultations, we notice that only a small number of students reach out for a dictionary to seek a more appropriate word/expression to express an idea. On the other hand, students are more careful about grammatical properties of words. (This attitude might well be a reflection of grammar-oriented teaching at school.) The students' strategies inferred from the above may be that they first try to express a (given) idea within the vocabulary they possess, and when they are not sure about the usage of a word in mind, they look it up in their EJD for confirmation. When they cannot think of any words to start with, they reach out for a JED to find a translation equivalent for their idea.

It certainly is important for learners to learn to manage only with familiar words to express their ideas, and those who can actually do so may be considered to be at the advanced level. The next step, then, will be to enhance one's vocabulary, or to express oneself precisely in appropriate and idiomatic English. This is exactly what is provided in a new type of encoding dictionaries (cf. Section 5) and the latest JELDs, which deserve more attention.

4.2.4 Instruction on dictionary use

The results of our questionnaire reveal that, so far, little instruction on dictionary use has been provided for students. Although 46 subjects (46.5%) answered that they had been given some kind of instruction before, nearly two thirds (29 subjects) of them received it only once. In most cases, what they were offered was *guidance*: a teacher merely introduces types of dictionaries and/or recommends certain products with some comments on them at the beginning of the school year. A smaller number of students received *instruction*: a teacher provides training in how to retrieve information effectively. Some students are advised, for example, to mark headwords they looked up once, or to read examples and usage notes. However, none were taught where to find compound words or multi-lexical units, or how to get (quickly) to the wanted meaning of a word in their EJD. No explanation about abbreviated grammar codes or about style/register labels seems to have been given, either.

It is also clear from our survey that the importance and necessity of instruction on JED use has not been fully recognized by teachers (see Appendix 7). Kishi

(1999) points out some difficulties in JED consultation and claims that successful use of a JED depends on the users' vocabulary and ability to analyze the Japanese language. For example, when the Japanese word which a user first thought of to express her/his idea is not listed as a headword, s/he has to try another synonymous entry since the headword list in a JED is essentially limited.

5. Conclusion

Although much is left to explore about learners' dictionary use for production, a low level of 'dictionary awareness' among students is clearly observed, and it may be blamed on that of English teachers. As briefly mentioned in 4.2.1, the variety and availability of encoding dictionaries of high quality do not seem to be widely known to teachers, nor to students. First of all, English teachers must be educated about dictionaries, and how to introduce and use them effectively in study programmes.

University students can benefit from JELDs, encoding dictionaries designed solely for Japanese learners, especially when they are at intermediate level and/or when they deal with culture-bound topics. Advanced students should be able to use learners' MEDs not only for reception but also for productive purposes, under the guidance of teachers.

New types of encoding dictionaries, which are designed to lead users from a word they are familiar with to a more sophisticated word/expression to express their idea best, are now also available, with the *Longman Language Activator* (1993) at the top of the list. Collocation dictionaries, which tell their users which words a certain word typically goes with, may also be introduced even at the upper-intermediate stage of learning.

The following titles are recommended to English teachers and may be introduced to (highly) advanced college students:

- *Longman Essential Activator* (1997)
- *Oxford Learner's Wordfinder Dictionary* (1997)
- *The LTP Dictionary of Selected Collocations* (1997)
- *The BBI Dictionary of English Word Combinations* (1997)

More and more emphasis will be placed on developing students' communicative skills both at school and at university. However, it can sometimes be very difficult for teachers to provide their students with constant, attentive care during the writing process, especially when students on different proficiency levels study in the same classroom. While what students need help with may differ in some respects, it can be a practical and effective solution to utilize dictionaries of various kinds, depending on the situation. Adequate instruction on dictionary use is a prerequisite.

Notes

- (1) Sections 1, 2 and 4.1 are primarily the work of Shigeru Yamada, and sections 3, 4.2 and 5 are primarily the work of Yuri Komuro. The authors would like to express special gratitude to Professor Richard Murto and Professor Robert Spivak for their help with the final draft.
- (2) The JED, whose source language is the user's L1, does not have to be so variously graded as the EJD.
- (3) The first JED for the general public (Tatsunosuke Hori's *Ei-wa Taiyaku Shuchin Jisho*) came out in 1862.
- (4) The details of the dictionaries are mostly due to Hayakawa (1998).
- (5) Originally published in *Eigo Kyoiku* [English Language Education], December 1976, Tokyo: Kairyudo.
- (6) For example, *Why did you come here?* can be constructed from its Japanese translation, while *What brought you here?* can not.
- (7) To the best of our knowledge, *Lighthouse JED* is the first to incorporate such articles and features on a large scale.
- (8) At school it is a requirement to use authorized textbooks and to design the courses according to *The Course of Study*, the national guidelines for curricula, set by the Ministry of Education.
- (9) Before the school year starts in April, publishers visit high schools to promote their products and very often leave free copies for teachers' reference.
- (10) Consequently, publishers are more sensitive to teachers' comments and opinions about their products, rather than to their *real* users, students (Tono 2000: 38).
- (11) Those who listed *Oxford Wordpower Dictionary* are students who took the English course by S.Y. the previous year, and the dictionary was used as a textbook at class.

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The Establishment of ISRALEX:

THE ISRAEL ASSOCIATION FOR LEXICOGRAPHY

After a previous attempt at Bar Ilan University, attended by Reinhard Hartmann, to set up ISRALEX, the Israel Association for Lexicography was finally founded in February this year at the Levinsky Teachers' College in Tel Aviv, with Tony Cowie as guest speaker.

The first general meeting took place on 20 June 2000 at the Academy for the Hebrew Language, the Hebrew University, Jerusalem. 21 participants gathered to discuss the new organization, and to listen to a lecture by Mordechai Mishor on "The Activities of the Academy for the Hebrew Language in the Realm of Lexicography", featuring its on-going, monumental compilation of a comprehensive historical dictionary of the Hebrew language from Biblical times to the modern era (the text of this paper is due to be published in the *International Journal of Lexicography*).

The meeting in Jerusalem confirmed the prime goal of ISRALEX as the furthering of the interests of lexicography in Israel. The association will hold meetings, lectures and seminars on topics related to lexicography, will publish a bulletin, and will maintain contact with other lexicography associations, mainly EURALEX and, hopefully, in the neighboring Arab countries. Its main languages of interest are expected to be Hebrew, Arabic and English, though in view of the considerable multilingual diversity of the Israeli society there should be room for other languages as well.

Membership is open to scholars and practitioners of lexicography from Israel and abroad, and is free of charge. Further information is currently available from Lionel Kernerman kernermn@internet-zahav.net c/o Kernerman Publishing, 46 Hagolan Street 69718 Tel Aviv, tel: 972-3-6492715, fax: 972-3-6493712.