A PASSWORD for Norway
Nancy L. Coleman

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Norway has a long history of close contact with English-speaking countries, and a need for bilingual dictionaries has long been evident. The notorious early encounter between Norwegians and Englishmen in 793, when Vikings attacked the cloister at Lindesfame, did not result in a dictionary. However, the ensuing period of Norse influence in England left its mark on the English language, which adopted such words as ski, both skirt and shirt, bag, and the third-person plural pronouns they, their and them from Old Norse. Through the centuries Norway and England developed close relations as trading partners. Due to immigration, trade and military collaboration, equally close relations were established with the USA. Second to Ireland, Norway has exported the greatest percentage of its population to the USA through immigration. In more recent times, proportionally large numbers of Norwegians have also immigrated to Canada and Australia. Partly as a result of close contact with the English-speaking world, Norway became a pioneer in the teaching of English in the schools. In the nineteenth century it became the first country in Europe to make English a required subject in school, at the expense of Latin.

When Scandinavians got around to writing dictionaries, Norway had become a part of Denmark, and Danish had usurped Norwegian as the written language. Norwegians, however, were among the early pioneers in the compilation of English-Danish dictionaries, published in 1678, 1754 and 1779. Following Norway's independence from Denmark in 1814, and from Sweden in 1905, the modern Norwegian written languages evolved out of Danish, on the one hand, and systematization of the dialects on the other, and English-Norwegian/English dictionaries began to appear. Today, there are quite a few dictionaries of different sizes on the market. In the past few years most of the major publishing companies have put out a dictionary of 20,000-30,000 entries to meet the needs of upper-secondary school students, so that the user has a good selection to choose from. The most important are the English-Norwegian/Norwegian-English dictionaries published by Cappelen (1990), Kunnskapsforlaget's (skoleordbok 1992, 1996), Det Norske Samlaget (1998), and Universitetsforlaget's Lingua (1996). In addition, the monolingual Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, as well as other Oxford dictionaries, and Collins COBUILD, have enjoyed widespread popularity for the same student market. HarperCollins has just published an English/Norwegian dictionary this spring, which bears some likeness to Password, but it is actually aimed also at English speakers who use Norwegian. Some fundamental differences between the two dictionaries are discussed below.
There is apparently no pressing need for another English-Norwegian/Norwegian-English dictionary! Nevertheless, *Password* does contain certain innovations, and it seems to be an excellent lexicographic concept for an audience of upper-secondary school students in Norway. The reasons are based both on practical considerations and on learning potential. One of the most important practical reasons is that the Norwegian guidelines for the final exams in English and other languages have changed. Up until recent years, students were expected to produce their foreign language at the exam either out of their own minds and memories, that is without the aid of a dictionary, or with the aid of an English-English, or other monolingual dictionary depending on the target language. In the course of the process that culminated in the sweeping school reform in 1994, however, students were first given permission to use a foreign language-Norwegian dictionary (e.g. English-Norwegian) in addition to an English-English dictionary, and finally both a foreign language-Norwegian and a Norwegian-foreign language dictionary. This implied that students were expected to buy two or three fairly large and cumbersome dictionaries, in addition to their foreign language textbooks. Most students do not carry these books to school on a daily basis, and even on exam days they often "forget" them. Many do not even bother to buy them in the first place, or they just purchase one of the smaller, lightweight ones. These dictionaries, however, seldom provide the vocabulary necessary in an upper-secondary school setting.

The use of dictionaries during examinations has implications for the learning process. If one is to use a dictionary during an exam, one should have learned how to use it through instruction, practice and experience. A foreign-language dictionary is, after all, an important resource tool for one's life and work, especially if the native language is not an international one. Ideally, an exam should also reveal whether a student has learned to use dictionaries quickly and wisely. Even if one has learned to do this, going back and forth between 2-3 dictionaries during an exam is time-consuming. In addition, the number and cumbersomeness of the dictionaries has for the most part made it impractical to use them in the classroom on a regular basis, so that the acquisition and use of the "required" dictionaries has, for the most part, become a private matter for the student. The cost of so many volumes is in itself another important consideration.

With this in mind, having a single dictionary which is both a monolingual learner's dictionary and a bilingual wordlist is a splendid idea. Instead of having to buy two or three different dictionaries, students can now get the major features of both types of dictionaries in one volume. This should not only make it realistic to require the students to purchase a copy of the dictionary, but also to use it in the classroom as well as during examinations.

*Password* has several features that make it an excellent choice for today's students. Although it is a comprehensive dictionary, the layout of the structure of entries makes it quick and easy to look up words. As opposed to other dictionaries, no abbreviations are used, and the student will not experience the frustrations of being stymied by what these might mean. Experience shows that many students give up and/or misunderstand the context when confronted by abbreviations. The English definitions and the example sentences give more usage guidance than is possible in a bilingual dictionary of similar format. For the sake of comparison, the new *Collins Engelsk-Norsk Ordbok* (HarperCollins, Glasgow, 1998) makes extensive use of abbreviations, and the examples are all translated into Norwegian. This may be useful to some students, but it is not evident that they will actually find what they are looking for quickly and easily as a result.

The Norwegian edition of *Password* incorporates the basic features mentioned above, and also includes a Norwegian-English wordlist. In order to be as comprehensive as possible without taking up too much space, the layout of this section is in three columns and in relatively small print. However, every effort has been made in the selection of type and lettering to make it fast and easy to find and read the entries, while economizing on the space. An innovation in this edition is presenting each English meaning with a page number, so that the user may check on usage and suitability in the English-English-Norwegian part of the dictionary, and also avoid choosing the wrong part of speech. These features should make *Password* more learner-friendly than any other local dictionary. *Password* is also provided with a comprehensive user's guide explaining the system and offering tips on how to get the most out of the dictionary.

Special efforts have been invested in customizing *Password* to its Norwegian audience. First, we took a critical look at the selection of entries, considering issues of geographical location, climate, culture, religious orientation and the content of the English curriculum in Norway. *Password* is indeed up to date and contains many new words that are signs of our time, and which are not found in other, comparable dictionaries. But we made further adjustments in the selection of entries to make it even more suitable for the Norwegian users, both in the upper secondary schools and for a general public. Examples of the additions are described below.
New entries were prepared by Password Publishers according to our word lists. At the same time, some entries which Norwegians would have little need to look up were deleted. The entries deleted were largely exotic plants not common in Norwegian nature or homes, and other entries, e.g. cricket terms, since this game is not played in Norway, nor is it important in the English curriculum. The entries that were added included words applicable to describing Norwegian mountain and fjord landscape, weather conditions, winter sports, religious holidays, school life, contemporary illnesses and ailments, and common slang expressions. In addition, an attempt was made to include female sexual organs and words related to bodily functions, and introduce more Americanisms. Eventually, well over 500 new entries were added to the Norwegian Password.

Since Norway is a mountainous country with rural communities, new entries such as mountain range, mountain ridge, mountain birch, mountain community have been added. Norwegian flora, such as the spruce tree; common berries, such as cloudberry, bilberry and rowan berry; wildlife, such as ptarmigan; fish and sea animals, such as rosefish and minkewhale, have all been included. Skiing words, such as ski track/trail, ski pole, ski lift, ski jump, have also found their place, as well as the strange Norwegian contraption for winter transport that looks like a chair on runners, the kick-sled or push-chair. Christian holidays, such as Ascension Day, Whit'sun tide/Pentecost, Shrove Tuesday and Maundy Thursday have been added as well. New entries related to school life, such as grader, transcript, valedictorian were included, as well as names of school-leaving examinations and college degrees. An attempt has also been made to explain school certificates and diplomas and college degrees in terms of approximate Norwegian equivalents. This is unusual in learner's dictionaries, and should prove useful to the many Norwegian students who plan to study abroad.

Norway is a society where social welfare issues are avidly and openly debated, and the English curriculum has long placed an emphasis on background studies and social conditions in English-speaking countries. Students may be asked to write on or discuss drug abuse, criminality, the homeless, unwed parents, or the impact of AIDS. We have therefore expanded the list of entries in Password to include concepts such as withdrawal symptoms, bag lady, single-parent family, common-law wife/husband, significant other, sexual abuse, etc. Both in school and other contexts, Norwegian youths need a vocabulary that encompasses their leisure-time activities. Words such as confirmand, confirmation dress/suit, youth mentor have therefore been added too, as well as new entries from the world of sports.

In Norwegian dictionaries primarily aimed at the school market, it is customary to include a section of resource materials. These materials usually include a short grammar, weights and measurements, guidelines for letter writing and geographical names. Various learner's dictionaries added other categories as well, but not all of these reflect much knowledge of the school curriculum. In Password we have tried to provide resource materials in keeping with the changes in the English curriculum and the globalization process characteristic of our day and time. With respect to traditional resource materials, we have tried to make these easy-to-use references, rather than comprehensive presentations with details on usage and exceptions to the rules. Whenever possible, a "visual" approach has been used. Letter writing is illustrated in model letters, illustrations show a comparison of temperatures, measurements, etc, and formulas and a table of common values show how miles per gallon may be compared to the Norwegian system of measuring engine efficiency.

The curriculum approved for the 1994 reform requires the English curriculum to be "vocalized" for each of the professional and vocational curricula, and students are required to learn to tell about their own country in English. Finding the English vocabulary to meet these requirements has presented problems for students and teachers alike, as many of the words and concepts are not in learner's dictionaries. We have therefore included a section on speaking and writing about Norway, and vocabularies for the curricula in music, dance, drama and athletics. Many other fields, of course, have a need for similar resource pages, but these four have the most in-depth English course, and, as opposed to them, special English textbooks exist for most of the other vocational curricula.

Maps of the four most important English-speaking countries are located inside the covers of the book, and a facts section provides the area of each country in square miles and kilometers, and current populations, with estimates for the year 2000. In addition, figures of interest for each of the countries have been selected, e.g. US population figures for whites, blacks and Native Americans, Catholic and Protestant populations in Northern Ireland, English and French speakers in Canada, Aboriginals in Australia. A list of geographical names makes an attempt to reflect our global society, where people are quite mobile, take advantage of virtual travel through the Internet, and may be expected to communicate with each other in English in all parts of the world.

The Norwegian edition of Password will serve as an up-to-date resource book providing tools for understanding texts from the English-speaking world and producing written and oral English on a wide range of subjects relevant in present-day Norway.
An overview of YBM and Si-Si ELITE
English-English-Korean Dictionary
Chung-Ui Park

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YBM Si-sa-yong-o-sa is the largest English Language Teaching company in Korea. It has a variety of educational, commercial and societal interests that far exceed merely publishing ELT materials.

Since its foundation in 1961, YBM has been the leader in introducing new methods, technologies and delivery systems to the local language study sector. Today, it is the acknowledged front runner in the field, and is highly respected throughout the country for the quality of its products and the strength of its brand name.

The YBM enterprise began in the early 1960s, with the publication of The Study of Current English magazine, well before this subject became popular in Korea. In the decades that followed, YBM has consolidated its reputation as a market innovator and proceeded to diversify its scope of activities.

The most notable highlights of YBM operations can be summarized as follows:
- publishing printed, audio, video and multimedia ELT and general titles, including well over 1,500 products
- a nationwide network of over 100 ELT institutes for children and adults
- preparing students for English proficiency tests and producing TOEIC, TOEFL and SEPT study aids
- a cable television education channel, broadcasting foreign language, culture and information programs
- counseling services for overseas study, including language learning programs
- rights import and export cooperation with major publishers worldwide
- distribution of foreign books and international popular periodicals
- leading the protection of international copyright in Korea and establishing the first local agency for foreign rights registration
- producing and marketing a variety of music products
- financial holdings, real estate, business management, and social services
- a new publishing house and language schools in North America

The main users of dictionaries in Korea are upper-secondary school and college students, who prefer medium- or pocket-size dictionaries. Accordingly, dictionaries in these ranges have 70% of the local dictionary market share. Since ELT courses were initiated in elementary schools two years ago, a great variety of dictionaries for beginners have appeared, but sales for this audience are still very poor.

There are four major dictionary publishers in Korea, including YBM, and scores of minor publishers. More than 200 bilingual English/Korean dictionary titles are available at bookstands, and the annual sales turnover of English dictionaries is estimated at approximately USD 30 million. However, in the last year there has been a steep decrease of 50% in dictionary sales, due to the country’s economic crisis and consequent recession.


The Si-sa Elite English-English-Korean Dictionary is foremost for students who prepare for the state-held college entrance exam. Supplemented new entries were selected among the most commonly-used loan words and abbreviations from newspapers and magazines, as well as from high-tech terminology. In addition, the appendices were expanded to specifically suit the needs of the target Korean high school students. The dictionary is printed in two colors, to highlight both the headwords which are more frequently looked-up as well as the Korean translations.

The dictionary appeared on the market earlier this year in the midst of a difficult financial period. It is promoted through the YBM monthly bilingual magazines and other media, to gradually make it familiar to its prospective users. We trust that once our country overcomes its current economic crisis, the Si-sa Elite English-English-Korean Dictionary will find its place in the forefront of English learner’s dictionaries in Korea.
English Lexicography in Japan: 
it's History, Innovations and Impact
Shigeru Yamada and Yuri Komuro

Shigeru Yamada graduated in Lexicography from Waseda University, Tokyo and the University of Exeter, UK. His interests include EFL dictionar-ies, and dictionary use and instruction. He contributed as a lexicographer to Kenkyusha's College Lighthouse English-Japanese Dictionary and Japanese-English Dictionary (both 1965). He is an assistant professor at Waseda University. Yuri Komuro graduated in Lexicography from the University of Exeter. Her thesis deals with the inclusion, placement and presentation of collocational information in learner's dictionaries. She is a part-time English instructor in Edogawa and Rikkyo Universities in Tokyo.

1. Introduction

It is only recently that Japan has been recognized as one of the world's major lexicographic powers, producing quality bilingual dictionaries, especially English-Japanese ones. Two examples of early innovative features of such dictionaries are: some eighty years ago, an attempt to indicate the un/countability of nouns, in Hidesaburo Saito's Jukugo Honi Ei-wa Chu-jiten ('Idiomatical English-Japanese Dictionary', 1915) and fifty years ago a large-scale dictionary of collocations, Senkichirowa Katsumata's Eiwa Katsuyo Da-i-jiten ('New Dictionary of English Collocations', Kenkyusha, 1939). Regrettably, this dictionary has never been well known outside Japan.

Nowadays, however, the world knows more, though still not enough, about the generations of ingenuity, endeavor, competition and interaction which have made Japanese lexicography what it is today: a massive, complex, and highly competitive industry. Bilingual lexicography in Japan owes a great deal to European and American lexicography, but has in turn made a number of significant contributions to Western lexicography, in particular to EFL dictionaries - the most advanced and successful of all dictionary genres as the importance of English for global communication increases. This paper attempts to provide a guide to the world of lexicography in Japan, especially with regard to English-Japanese dictionaries (EJDs).

2. History

During the period when Japan followed a policy of seclusion (1639-1853), it allowed business transactions only with the Netherlands, and depended solely on that country for contact with the outside world. Because of this, Dutch studies were very important and prominent. However, the Phoeton Incident (1808), in which a British warship in Dutch guise raided Nagasaki, made the Shogunate - the Japanese government of the time - realize keenly the necessity of shifting its foreign-language emphasis from Dutch to English. It therefore immediately commissioned a team of official Dutch-Japanese interpreters to compile an English textbook (1811) and an English-Japanese vocabulary (1814) for governmental (but not public) use.

It is generally agreed that the first proper English-Japanese dictionary was published in 1862: Tatsunosuke Horii's Ei-wa Taiyaku Shuchin Jisho ('A Pocket Dictionary of the English and Japanese Languages'. This work was based on the English-Dutch half of H. Picard's A New Pocket Dictionary of the Dutch and English Languages, 1843, 2/e 1857), which Horii aligned with the Dutch-Japanese halves of existing dictionaries of Dutch and Japanese. The Dutch language therefore served as a 'bridge' or mediating medium between the English and Japanese languages.

Half a century was required before the publication of Saito's dictionary (above, 1915). This innovative work was compiled with the needs of Japanese students in mind, unlike its predecessors, which drew considerably on such works as Webster's dictionaries in the United States and W. Lobrscheid's An English and Chinese Dictionary (4 vols., 1866-1869, Daily Press, Hong Kong). As its English title suggests, Saito's dictionary laid emphasis on idiomatic expressions, and in particular on collocability with prepositions. Thus, he discriminated the meaning of interfere into two senses, the first collocating with in in the bracketed phrase in a matter, the second with with in the phrases with one's work, with business, and with a plan. In addition to his novel indication of the countability of nouns, Saito's work provided notes on points of difficulty for Japanese students. The Fowler brothers' Concise Oxford Dictionary (1911) also influenced Saito's dictionary and its contemporaries, especially Jukkichi Inoue's Ei-wa Dai-jiten ('English-Japanese Dictionary', 1915).

Yoshisaburo Okakura's Shin Ei-wa Dai-jiten ('New English-Japanese Dictionary', 1927) was the precursor of Kenkyusha's New English Japanese Dictionary (now 5/e, 1980), generally considered the most authoritative of its kind. Okakura's dictionary was the cutting-edge dictionary of its day, incorporating both etymology and IPA transcription, and with this publication Kenkyusha established itself as a major dictionary publisher. The other (and indeed most) traditional company in this field has been Sanseido, which started producing dictionaries in 1884. Jujiro Kawamura's Crown Ei-wa Jiten ('Crown English-Japanese Dictionary', 1939) and Tamajeei Iwaskai's Kanyaky Ei-wa Jiten ('Concise English Japanese Dictionary', 1941) were published respectively by Sanseido and Kenkyusha. The major characteristics of the former was the inclusion of a vast number of examples, while the latter claimed to be the abridged edition of Okakura's work (2/e, 1936),
and spared much space for functional and other basic words. These two works are said to be the forerunners of the now flourishing genre of English-Japanese learner’s dictionaries (EJLDS).

The year 1942 witnessed the historic publication by Kaitakusha of the *Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary* (ISED), compiled in Japan by A.S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby, and H. Wakefield in the 1930s, and completed before the outbreak of war in 1941. This was the first EFL dictionary, initiating a genre that has dramatically and excitingly evolved into its many complex present day forms. *ISED* has exerted a profound influence on the shape of future learner’s dictionaries both within and beyond Japan. Kaitakusha published an EJD based on *ISED* in 1981: *Kaitakusha’s Contemporary English-Japanese Dictionary* (eds. Kasahara, Goro, Gatenby, and Wakefield).

Sanseido’s Crown series enjoyed considerable commercial success until it was overtaken by Kenkyusha’s *Ei-wa Chu-jiten* (‘New Collegiate English-Japanese Dictionary’, 1967) with its more sophisticated categories of information. The triumph of this dictionary continued into the 1980s until other companies entered the market. The appearance of new rivals (such as the *Progressive English Japanese Dictionary*, Shogakukan, 1967; *Genius English-Japanese Dictionary*, Taishukan, 1988; *Proceed English-Japanese Dictionary*, Fukutake, now Benesse, 1988) was responded to by the traditional houses with publication of new titles (such as the *Global English-Japanese Dictionary*, Sanseido, 1983; the *Lighthouse English-Japanese Dictionary*, Kenkyusha, 1984). As dictionaries with ever further innovative and user-friendly features appear each year*, the present scene of the EJD, especially the EJLD, has become highly competitive, versatile and specialized.

3. Major Characteristics

3.1. A great number and variety

In large bookshops, it is overwhelming and dazzling to look at dictionary shelves crowded and stacked with various colorful kinds of dictionaries. English dictionaries take up the most space because many companies publish various books, specialized according to levels and purposes. Over 100 titles of EJDS are in print, excluding such specialist works as EJDS for students of economics. Kenkyusha alone has published the main EJDS listed in the accompanying table.

- For intermediate students (senior high school):
  - *Lighthouse EJD3* (1984, 3/e 1996) 65,000 ref 125x195 mm 1,703pp ¥ 2,820
- For beginners (junior high school):
  - *Green Lighthouse EJD* (1994) 56,000 ref 125x190 mm 1,361pp ¥ 2,430
- For travelers:
  - *New Little EJD6* (1929, 6/e 1994) 62,000 ref 87x165 mm 644pp ¥ 1,460

Three dictionaries in the table bear the name ‘Lighthouse’. Likewise, a family is formed by *Genius EJD* (with *Young Genius EJD*) and *Progressive EJD* (with *Learner’s Progressive EJD*). Other dictionaries worthy of special mention are: *Kenkyusha’s EJD for the General Reader* (1984, 260,000 ref, 130x190 mm, 2,540pp, ¥6,410) for advanced readers and translators, with a supplement (1994, 190,000 ref); *New Shogakukan Random House EJD2* (1973, 2/e 1994, 345,000 ref, 195x265 mm, 3,180pp, ¥14,400) based on the *Random House Dictionary of the English Language* (2/e Unabridged, 1987), with 30,000 references and 50,000 senses added to cater for Japanese needs.

3.2. Characteristics of the EJLD

We may now focus on EJLDs for advanced students, which are the most important; that is, the best-selling, the most competitive and the most innovative. They typically pack some 90,000 references into a portable size within an affordable price range of around 3,000 yen, because they are targeted at students, who are usually supposed to bring their dictionary to school. They come in flexible plastic covers, are placed inside cardboard boxes, use quality India paper, and have an A-Z indication down the edge of the page like a thumb index. They deal with both American and British English, but primarily the former, and their back matter includes digests of grammar and phonetics. Some other characteristics are:

- **English teachers as lexicographers** An overwhelming majority of bilingual English lexicographers themselves teach English at university or high school. They can consequently put their teaching experience to good use in writing dictionary entries.

- **A highly encyclopedic dimension** An EJLD incorporates extralinguistic information in order to give its users a well-rounded knowledge of the culture of English. This information is generously provided on all levels – encyclopedic headwords and senses, notes on aspects of culture and society, half-tones of familiar things or typical landscapes, drawings of gestures, and so forth. Maps of the USA and the UK are frequently found on the inside covers.

- **Easy access** The pages of an EJLD seem to appear threateningly complicated to some foreigners – too much is crammed in – but this does not cause much trouble for Japanese. Three methods are widely employed for the purposes of quick reference, by
presenting important headwords and translatable equivalents in bold, large type and/or color (often red).

Other possible features are: (1) Information on etymology and sense development for learning and referencing purposes; (2) The verbal and diagrammatic provision of the results of contrastive study between Japanese and English; (3) More emphasis on encoding than formerly (such as help with collocations and with the spoken language). All such innovative features have influenced bilingual dictionaries of other language pairs published in Japan.

4. Innovations: the Impact on EFL Dictionaries

In this section we briefly introduce some noticeable innovations in most of today's EJLDs. Some are unique, whereas others are common to EFL dictionaries.

4.1. Indication of frequent and/or important words

As mentioned in Section 3, most current EJLDs indicate, in one way or another, the several levels of importance of headwords. The selection of important words is not merely based on frequency of occurrence, but also on knowledge derived from the editors' teaching experience. In addition, the lists of words to be taught at junior and senior high school, which are made up by the Ministry of Education, have an influence.

Taishukan's New Standard EJD (1929) established this tradition. With the help of the American educational researcher Edward L. Thorndike's word list, ten thousand of the most important basic words for Japanese learners were selected. The words were then divided into groups of about one thousand each according to frequency, marked 1 to 10 to indicate the level. By contrast, in the Oxford Wordpower Dictionary (1993), a star is used to mark the commonest words of the language. This seems to be more or less the same policy as using numbers, although there is only one level of importance.

The information on frequency found in the second edition of Collins COBUILD English Dictionary (COBUILD2) and in the third edition of Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE3) (both 1995) is based purely on statistical evidence provided by corpus analysis, and tells us significant facts about the way the English language is used. That is very useful, especially for encoding and vocabulary learning purposes. On the other hand, however, EJLDs place more emphasis on helping learners study English efficiently.

4.2. Usage notes

Another common feature is usage notes, which can be more or less grouped into two kinds: on general usage and on typical mistakes that Japanese learners make. An example of each is taken from Genius EJD2 (1994), which reputedly provides detailed usage notes. Under *keep* there is a note on the difference between "keep ~ing" and "keep on ~ing": (1) *keep on doing* emphasizes continuity or repetition, and often implies irritation on the part of the speaker. Standing, in "I kept standing for an hour" is not static but dynamic, and means either repeatedly standing up and sitting down or standing of one's own will. (2) An adverb cannot be put between *on* and *doing*. "Mary's condition kept on (~steadily worsening." (cf. Mary's condition kept steadily worsening.) Compare it with the explanation in Collins COBUILD English Usage (1992), "For emphasis, you can use *keep on* instead of *keep.*"

Under *front* there is a note on the difference between in *front of* and *ahead of*, because in Japanese the two complex prepositions are often translated into the same word, thus learners sometimes get confused. The note reads:

The prepositional object for *in front of* can be either fixed or moving, while that for *ahead of* is something on the move: There is a big park in front of [ahead of] our office. In front of [Ahead of] us we saw another tall building.

The usage notes in LDOCE3 are all based on an analysis of Longman Learner's Corpus, and help users avoid making common mistakes. But LDOCE3 is not, of course, designed specifically for Japanese learners of English, and this is where bilingual learner's dictionaries intended solely for Japanese fit the bill better.

4.3. Verb patterns

One major information category of English lexicography in Japan led the way in the presentation of verb patterns. Hornby's ISED® was the first English learner's dictionary that systematically introduced both coded verb patterns and the abbreviated grammatical codes C and U to represent countable and uncountable nouns respectively. The publication of this illustrious learner's dictionary in Japan was a strong incentive for Japanese lexicography, which consequently brought out much earlier than any EFL dictionary elsewhere a more user-friendly system to show grammatical patterns.

Hornby's verb patterns consist of letters and numerals which are not user-friendly since the codes are neither transparent nor mnemonic. According to Herbst's classification (1996: 328-330), this is the first stage of a coding system, the second stage of which can be represented by mnemotechnically designed systems (in which, for instance, T stands for 'transitive') developed in LDOCE1 and in the fourth edition of Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (OALD4). At the third stage, led by LDOCE2 and COBUILD1, abbreviations for grammatical terms (e.g. '+' to '-v' means 'followed by the to-infinitive') took the place of opaque codes, and it became immediately apparent what sort of information was being provided. In the history of EFL dictionaries LDOCE1 played a leading role in simplifying grammar codes and applying them to nouns and adjectives. When its first
edition appeared in 1978, the Longman team had extended Hornby’s syntactic approach to the English lexicon to other parts of speech: they not only developed a new coding system for verbs, but also coded noun and adjective complementation which was a huge step ahead in EFL lexicography (Stein 1989: 26-27).

As regards English-Japanese lexicography in Japan, however, lucidity of grammar codes had already been accomplished in 1967 by Kenkyusha’s New Collegiate EJD1. The syntactic information is provided in abbreviated (Japanese) grammatical terms at the beginning of each sense, and this is done not only for verbs, but also for nouns and adjectives. While it is recognized and acknowledged that they derived from the formulas in the OALD, this presentational system was adapted to the needs of Japanese learners. Below is how the verb patterns of Oxford, Longman and Kenkyusha’s dictionaries have developed, taking the verb want as an example. Here one of the patterns it takes, object + to-infinitive complementation, is shown with its example. It should be noted that both in the New Collegiate EJD1 and in the Union EJD1 (1972) the word in question, want, and another word which marks the construction, to, are italicized in the example, which – together with the codes – ensures the users’ understanding. Another significant point concerning grammar codes is their location in the entry. LDOCE2 was much praised because it placed its transparent codes immediately before the corresponding examples. Once again, however, a similar method was already being employed in the Union EJD1 where each example was followed by the construction pattern.

In retrospect, we can certainly argue that Japanese lexicographers had a perceptive view, because they placed their transparent codes adjacent to corresponding examples, something that is now taken as a matter of course internationally. In 1995 LDOCE3 introduced a new, even more user-friendly way which was already developed in the Longman Language Activator (LLA), 1993. Both LDOCE3 and LLA spell out patterns in full in boldface type, without any metalanguage, with the result that users do not need to have any previous knowledge of grammatical terminology.

5. Conclusion

In this brief introduction to English lexicography in Japan we focused on the considerable impact that it has had on pedagogical lexicography both at home and abroad. From the very earliest stage, lexicographers have been aware of the importance of user-friendliness in learner’s dictionaries, and have incorporated the findings of contrastive studies of English and Japanese into their works. However, EJLDs are still expected to continue to improve in order to meet the more sophisticated requirements of users, and also succeed in an intensely competitive market. Lexicographic stimulation from outside of Japan, and more communication between lexicographers and publishers, will be vital to the creation of even better EJLDs.

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<th>Year</th>
<th>Oxford</th>
<th>Longman</th>
<th>Kenkyusha</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1942</td>
<td>ISED</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(P3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He wants me to go.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>New Collegiate EJD1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[+ +to do/+ +doing] ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>She ̶s me to go with her.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Union EJD1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I want you [John] to be here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;V + O(名・代) + C (不定詞)&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>OALD3</td>
<td></td>
<td>LDOCE1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[VP17]</td>
<td></td>
<td>[V3] ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She ̶s me to go with her.</td>
<td></td>
<td>I want him to rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LDOCE2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[+ obj+ to-v]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>He wants you to wait here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>OALD4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Tnt no passive] ...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She wants me to go with her.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>OALD5</td>
<td></td>
<td>LDOCE3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[V.n to inf]</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She wants me to go with her.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>want sb to do sth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I don’t want Linda to hear about this.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes
1. Sections 1-3 are primarily the work of Shigenu Yamada, and Sections 4-5 are primarily the work of Yuri Komuro. The authors would like to express their particular thanks to Professors Peter Sharpe, Kazuo Dohi and Richard Murto for their valuable comments on and help with the final draft.
2. This section provides only a rough sketch. Those interested in more detail are referred to the on-going project on this topic (in which both authors are involved). See Kokawa, et al., 1994, 1996 and 1997, and Dohi, et al., forthcoming.
3. The Iwasaki Linguistic Circle (whose journal is entitled *Lexicon*) developed from a study group with Tamihei Iwasaki, who was a professor at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies and significantly contributed to English lexicography in Japan as the editor of Kenkyusha’s *New EJD 3/le* and 4/le, and *New Collegiate EJD 1/le, 2/le*, and 3/le.
4. Some 15 years ago in S.Y.’s senior high school class almost every student owned a copy of Kenkyusha’s *New Colleague EJD (4/le, 1977)*, and this has been fairly similar in other good schools. According to the blurb of the 6/le (1995), the company sold 9m copies [S.Y.]
5. This dictionary is actually the renamed third edition of the *Union EJD* (1972, 2/le 1978), which uniquely combined a dictionary and a grammar book.
7. Formal English language education usually starts in the first year to junior high school (age 13).
8. The project to publish the *ISED* was started by Harold E. Palmer. When Homy issued Palmer after the latter returned to England in 1936, he realized his idea of verb patterns.
9. This method is used in the *Longman Active Study Dictionary of English (2/le* 1991), but the use is not systematic.

References

Appendix
Genius2 (1994)


Appendix

References

Appendix
Genius2 (1994)


Appendix
The First ASIALEX Regional Symposium

The Asian Association for Lexicography (ASIALEX), established in March 1997, will hold its first regional symposium in Guangzhou in January 1999. The major objective of ASIALEX is to foster scholarly and professional activities in the field of lexicography in Asia, and the forthcoming event shall be the first step to achieve this purpose. The symposium is convened by Prof Huang Jianhua, President of ASIALEX and President of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. The Association hopes to hold symposia of various themes once every two years in various parts of Asia.

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