Studies in language, linguistics, sociology and psychology have led to various approaches to English language teaching and to the manifestations of multifarious methods. But a single magic key to open the gate of language skills seems to be elusive. Till recent times, the emphasis had been on the teaching of grammar. With the development of new theories of meaning, vocabulary acquisition and expansion are considered to be very important to gain proficiency in the language.

As Mary Ellen Guffey asserts:

A large working vocabulary is a significant asset. It allows us to use precise words that say exactly what we intend.... A large vocabulary also enables us to score well on employment and intelligence tests. Lewis, who developed the Standard Binet IQ Tests believes that vocabulary is the best single indicator of intelligence. (313)

She further points out the three possible ways in which vocabulary can be acquired: ACCIDENTALLY, INCIDENTALLY and INTENTIONALLY. Among these, setting out INTENTIONALLY to expand an individual's word power is considered to be the most efficient vocabulary-building method.
In a second language learning situation it becomes the responsibility of the language teacher to help the learners to build up a repertoire of words.

1.1 VOCABULARY TEACHING

1.1.1 WHAT IS VOCABULARY?

Vocabulary is the single largest component of a language constituted by 'words, words and words'. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary equates the word vocabulary with lexicon and defines it as:

(i) total number of words that make up a language.
(ii) (body of) words known to a person or used in a particular book, subject etc. (1425)

Thus vocabulary is the totality of all the words in that language and also the repertoire or words at the disposal of an individual. The latter, which can be termed "the vocabulary of an individual" is the area of interest to the second language teacher and learner. The vocabulary of individuals comprises two components viz., the active and passive vocabulary. An individual can draw words from his collection of active vocabulary and deploy them freely in his own expressions. The words stored in an individual's passive vocabulary help him only to receive messages but fail to help him in the production of his own expression since "production of an expression involves greater sense of
dependence on linguistic sources” (Prabhu 80). Thus the
distinction between these two components is based on the
individuals' complete or partial knowledge of the vocabulary
items. Evidently, communicative competence increases only
with the increase in the bulk of one's active vocabulary.
Hence one of the important areas of second language teaching
is in facilitating the building up of active vocabulary in
English language learners.

1.1.2 LANGUAGE AS A COMPLEX SYSTEM

Language, which is a 'mode of action' (qtd. in Palmer
51) is one continuous battle of words with reality and in a
second language learner, it is a battle with words; battle
of words because words are often found to be inadequate to
reflect reality and battle with words because verbal actions
are neither straight nor simple but are very complex
manoeuvres. In employing words in these manoeuvres one has
to be conscious of the participation of different persons
(from differing backgrounds of culture and social status),
various situations (context of occurrences) which warrant
stylistic variations and differences in register and the
specific objectives (intentions such as stating facts,
expressing emotions or influencing, requesting, commanding
the listener/reader). To be precise, the complex system of
language subsumes linguistic, sociological and psychological considerations in its realization.

Such a highly complex skill of verbal communication has to be acquired in a systematic way with the understanding of the structure, organization and use of language and its words in the representation and interpretation of reality.

Aldous Huxley observes:

The verbal universe is at once a mould for reality and substitute for it, superior reality. And what props the mind, what shores up its expending ruin, is contact with this superior reality of ordered beauty and significance. (166)

Language is a system of systems organized at different levels. It is arranged orthographically, phonologically, lexically, semantically and syntactically. A language learner starts comprehending from the word/lexical level. Though words do not exist in isolation, it is often the understanding of individual words which leads to the comprehension of whole sentences. (This statement does not entail that the meaning of a sentence is the sum total of the meaning of all words in the sentence).

Moreover a word is a microcosm of a language in its structure. For, a single word contains in itself the
orthography, phonology, morphology, semantics and grammar of a language.

1.1.2a Place of Vocabulary in the Fabric of Language

To assign it an individual status in linguistic studies, vocabulary has been contrasted with grammar, though grammar and lexis are inseparable and interdependent in many ways. Grammar is an organization of a language at the syntactic level and vocabulary is an organization at the lexical level. Grammar is pre-occupied with the structure of an expression while vocabulary's major pre-occupation lies in semantic options for communication. The meaning of a word grows out of its grammar in sentences and its grammar depends upon its meanings and the word's relation to other words in the sentence. Therefore it becomes inevitable to learn the grammar and meaning of any word.

1.1.2b Three Basic Characteristics of Words

Each word has a FORM and one or more FUNCTIONS. Form consists of sounds in speech, and spelling in writing. Function is determined by the parts of speech of words. Besides having FORM and FUNCTIONS each word enters into RELATIONSHIPS with other words of the language in two ways: PARADIGMATIC and SYNTAGMATIC RELATIONSHIPS.

The FORM of a word can be said to be the distinguishable minimal unit of a sentence. A word is composed of one or more minimal meaningful units (morphemes)
of the language. Some of the common combinations of the units in a word are:

1. Single free morpheme as in lock; order
2. Free morpheme + bound morpheme as in locked; orders
3. Free morpheme + free morpheme as in locksmith; order-book.
4. Bound morpheme + free morpheme + bound morpheme as in unlocking; disorderly etc.

A word can be redefined as one or more morphemes, either in the base form alone, or the base form in association with inflexional or derivational affixes. Compound words, and phrasal verbs and idioms which are fixed expressions can be included in the vocabulary list because of the singularity of sense they convey. But in teaching, these expressions deserve special and separate treatment.

Words FUNCTION as nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, articles, prepositions etc. These functions are performed with specific patterns of usage. Second language learners have to internalize these usage patterns. The realm of functions belongs to the grammatical field. On the basis of grammatical categories English vocabulary can be divided into content words and structural words. The content words form the major bulk of the vocabulary of the language. It is this category which carries the major meaning component
of any expression. Structural words form a finite set which helps in the construction of well formed sentences.

The organization of vocabulary is such that words form specific relationships or associations among themselves. These RELATIONSHIPS can be best understood by analysing the organization of lexemes/words in the labyrinth of the language. The extensive word store of a language can be perceived to be composed around a number of meaning areas which may be as large as the field of 'philosophy' or 'emotion' and which may be made up of smaller areas such as 'kinship' or 'colour' terms. The German linguist Trier in the 1930's formulated a theory called Field theory on the basis of viewing the totality of meaning in a compartmentalized way. He saw vocabulary as "an integrated system of lexemes interrelated in sense" (Lyons 252). The same idea is perceived by Lehrer as "the words of a language can be classified into sets which are related to conceptual fields and divide up the semantic space or semantic domain in certain ways" (15).

The field theory perceives one aspect of the relationship of the lexemes, namely, the PARADIGMATIC aspect as the relationship between one word with other words of a specific field or the interrelationship existing between words of the same set. For example, the verb bark is seen
to belong to the group of the *cry of animals* and enters into paradigmatic relationship with *shriek, bray, roar, bleat, mew* etc. The paradigmatic association brings in a host of semantic groupings on the basis of sense relations such as synonyms, hyponyms, antonyms, etc.

The organization of lexemes in semantic space holds another crucial relationship that forms the SYNTAGMATIC aspect—the collocation of words or the intra-sentential relationship of words which brings into light the possibilities of word combinations. For example, it is impossible to explain the meaning of *bark* without reference to *dogs*, or *blonde* without reference to its exclusive collocation with *hair*.

The word *bright* collocates with a number of words:

![Diagram of collocations](image)

It is interesting to note that words belonging to the same set (paradigmatically connected), may have differing collocability which thereby makes them share different semantic spaces. For example, the words *strong* and *powerful* apparently belong to the same set but they do not share the same collocability always (Carter and McCarthy 34)
The second language learners have to learn the combining capacities of words, especially for encoding purposes.

1.1.2c Components of Lexical Competence

Acquiring lexical competence pre-supposes grammatical competence and semantic competence together with pragmatic competence. Competence is as defined by Leech (1981) "the provision of rules and structure which specify the mental apparatus a person must possess if he is 'to know' a given (aspect of) language" (5). Grammatical competence is achieved by learning to use the correct forms of words, adhering to the correct usage patterns. Grammatical competence ensures accurate production.

Pragmatic competence is the knowledge of the use of words in the social context. This is an area of "linguistic-linguistics" overlapping with socio-linguistics on the one hand and psycho-linguistics on the other.

Semantic competence is expressed in the right choice of words from among the complex network of meaning potential, that is, semantic competence ensures appropriate
expressions. This results from an understanding of the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic associations which exist within the vocabulary.

1.1.3 RELEVANCE OF VOCABULARY TEACHING IN II LANGUAGE

That the more one reads, the more one gets to know the language is a common dictum. But years of learning the English language has not proved this to be true in our learners. The reasons may be:

1. the intrinsic complexities of the foreign language and the failure of the learners to perceive the patterns at various levels;
2. the qualitative change in the learner attempting a new language at a time when the resilience of his mind has reached a low level;
3. the quantitative change in the linguistic atmosphere of the second language (a rarefied atmosphere) in sharp contrast with the rich language experience in the first language learning situation;
4. the interference of the mother tongue to some extent; and
5. extraneous factors such as prevalent socio-political attitudes (and subsequent policies) towards the English language which play down the language, and hamper the enthusiasm in learners, etc.

Though the odds are against learning the English language, the standard expected after schooling and graduation is quite high. In such a situation learners not only need encouragement but also assistance to explore into the dense
net work of English vocabulary and to develop the necessary skills to gain mastery over the new words they encounter. As each and every word cannot be taught, the ultimate aim in teaching vocabulary is to promote self learning or autonomy of learning. Natural learning is an effortless process in the first language acquisition. In the second language natural learning stage can be reached only after going through the process of conscious learning with the help of language pedagogies.

The significance of vocabulary learning is succinctly summarised in Robert Lado’s observation that

Vocabulary because of its direct association with meaning, the sheer weight of its numbers, and the natural disposition of the learner to break into a language through its words—may be the most important single factor in learning a second language. (79)

Given the situation that second language learners have to resort to pedagogy-based learning for vocabulary acquisition, it is imperative to find the main considerations in teaching/presenting English vocabulary. Ronald Carter and Michael McCarthey list some of the basic issues involved in initiating and accelerating vocabulary acquisition:
1. How many words provide a working vocabulary in a foreign language?

2. What are the best words to learn first?

3. In the early stages of learning a second or foreign language are some words more useful to the learner than others?

4. Are some words more difficult to learn than others? Can words be graded for ease of learning?

5. What are the best means of retaining new words?

6. Is it most practical to learn words as single items in a list, in pairs (for eg. as translation equivalents) or in the context?

7. What about words which have different meanings? Should they be avoided? If not, should some meanings be isolated for learning first?

8. Are some more likely to be encountered in spoken rather than written discourse? If so, do we know what they are? (1-2)

Though this list is not exhaustive, it initiates an investigation into the methods of presenting lexical items to learners. Answers to these and related seminal issues for vocabulary teaching can be elicited through the history of the development of vocabulary teaching with all its shifts in approaches, methods and techniques.

1.1.3a An Overview of the History of Teaching English Language

In the history of linguistic studies phonology and grammar have been taken up first for systematic analysis with the assumption that pronunciation and grammatical structures are the major stumbling blocks in learning a
language. The structuralists held the view that the comprehension and production of sentences were corollary to the internalization of the grammar rules of the language. Hence the teaching of the English language rested mainly on the phonology and the grammar of the language.

A concern with contractive analysis of languages was a parallel development to the structural linguistics. The similarities and differences between the systems of different languages were analysed. Structuralism and Contrastive Analysis along with the Behavioural Psychology gave rise to the audio-lingual method. This method is against giving attention to the expansion of vocabulary. The reasons are as follows:

1. Predicting vocabulary needs of learners is difficult;
2. Over-concern with vocabulary will give learners the impression that language learning is just the accumulation of words;
3. Excessive vocabulary teaching may cause hesitation of recall; and
4. Mother tongue acquisition proceeds with a small vocabulary till structural patterns are mastered.

In tune with the development of behaviourist psychology in structuralism, language was perceived to be merely a response to stimuli which could be taught through repetition and reinforcement of its structures. This view is helpful at the initial stages of learning a language. But beyond
that, without its emphasis on meaning, the structural method proves to be ineffective in facilitating the development of communicative adequacy. Even in the Chomskian revolution which has the strong background of cognitive psychology, the centrality of meaning in language and the focus of vocabulary studies were not brought to the forefront. Hence vocabulary studies are said to be the 'Cinderella' of linguistics till very recent times.

1.1.3b History of the Development in Vocabulary Studies

The advent of vocabulary studies can be traced back to the 1920's and 1930's which ushered in the vocabulary selection and vocabulary control movement in language teaching with the backdrop of structural approach. Thorndike published his *Teacher's Word Book* in 1921 with the objective of making it easier for the American children to acquire a wide reading vocabulary from their text books. With the belief that it is sensible to learn to read common words before rare ones, he established the frequency of the most common 5000 words from among 4.5 million words in the texts. This first attempt towards organizing vocabulary teaching was followed by others like Horn and Lorge (Bright and Gregor 18).

From simultaneous works on selection of vocabulary a number of interesting facts emerged along with other useful criteria for selection besides frequency:
1. In almost all the lists structural words figured as the most common, indicating that those words must be taught first;

2. Random samples from any subject on any page showed that at least three quarters of the words were among the most common 2000. Thus when these 2000 words had been learnt only one word in four would present some difficulty to the learner, and

3. It was a common feature to all frequency lists to have a large measure of agreement between them upto about 1500 items. Beyond that there was a rapid increase in differences because of the differences in the subject matter. This led to the identification of a common core of about 1500-2000 items for all learners and then to think of different lists for specific purposes.

The common core helped to assess the minimum vocabulary requirement for a working knowledge of the language i.e., it looked as though a minimum productive vocabulary would have to be somewhere in the 1500-2000 word range.

The practical usefulness of the idea of teaching common words before rare ones and the objective means of selecting vocabulary was rapidly perceived in the field of the teaching of English as a foreign language. Scholars like West in Bengal, Fancett in China and Palmer in Tokyo started designing teaching material within limited vocabulary.

There are a number of strands and offshoots to the vocabulary control movement in Great Britain as well as in the United States. Among these, two particular developments
are noteworthy. These are Basic English developed by Ogden and Richards and the work on definition vocabulary which led to the production of A General Service List by Michael West.

The proposal for Basic English was put forward by Ogden and Richards (1930) to provide a basic minimum vocabulary for the learning of English. This minimum vocabulary was believed to provide impetus to foreign/second language learners at the early stages of learning. Its design is outlined in the authors' own words:

Basic English is English made simple by limiting the number of words to 850 and by cutting down the rules for using them to the smallest number necessary for the clear statement of ideas. And this is done without change in the normal order and behaviour of these words in everyday English. It is limited in its words and its rules but it keeps to the regular forms of English. And though it is designed to give the learner as little trouble as possible, it is no more strange to the eyes of my readers than these lines which, are in fact, in Basic English.

It was claimed that 'Basic English' words were diligently chosen to be learnt fast with ease and at the same time to express complex ideas.
'Basic English' has its merits as a practical introduction to a more standardized form of English and as a useful system for producing clear and comprehensible written texts, particularly where high degree of communicative expressivity is not required.

But a closer scrutiny of the word list reveals certain inherent difficulties with the use of the list. In the first place, the word list is a drastically reduced one as a result of which many of the expressions are to be done periphrastically. For example, the verbs ask and want are omitted in the list as these can be paraphrased as

ask ---> put a question
want ---> have a desire for

Another difficulty is that the 850 words of Basic English have 12425 meanings. Because of this complexity the questions such as (i) which of these meanings are to be learnt? (ii) are single word forms, however polysemous, easier to retain than the same number of monosemes? etc. arise. Moreover there is little guidance given as to how 'Basic English' might be extended. Besides these difficulties, the system is not designed to enhance social interaction through language. Above all, in the process of transfer to Standard English, a relatively large number of constructions created and learnt in Basic English will have to be unlearned.
Owing to these shortcomings in the system, introducing 'Basic English' for teaching English as a second language could not be kept as a standard practice. Yet it is the forerunner for designing syllabus to provide systematically graded introduction to language and for the construction of core or nuclear Englishes for language learning purposes.

A General Service List, popularly known as GSL forms another landmark in the progress of the vocabulary control movement. Major studies in the 1930's on vocabulary selection for teaching purposes culminated in the Interim Report on Vocabulary Selections known as the Carnegie Report (1935) which led on to the publishing of the first GSL in 1936. This was further revised in 1953 by Michael West and Herald Palmer, making use of frequency counts. The list consists of 2000 words with semantic and frequency information drawn from a corpus of two to five million words. Knowing these words is claimed to give access to about 80 percent of the words in any written text. The major criteria used by West and Palmer in the selection and listing of vocabulary for GSL are that

1. the frequency of every word in Written English should be indicated.
2. information on the prominences of the various meanings and uses of a word form should be provided.
3. the universality of words (i.e., words useful in all countries) should be included.
4. the utility (i.e., wide range) and
5. usefulness of these words in terms of definition value are to be considered.

The following is the representative example of the entry in the GSL.

Act, n.2184 (1) (thing done)

(1) (thing done)

A noble act
The act of a mad man 14%

(2) (legal act)

The bill became an Act 22%

(3) (part of play)

The third Act of Hamlet 31%

Act, r.

(1) (behave)

Men are judged not by what they say but how they act 11%
Act for the headmaster, acting headmaster 7%
My advice is not always acted upon 2%
(This includes 'Acting strangely', etc. = behaving - USA)

(2) (have an effect)

The break doesn't act This acid acts on zinc 6%
(3) (theatre)
A well acted play
Act the part of 4%
Here 2184 indicates the number of occurrences in 5 million words.

The kind of detailed breakdown given in the GSL list is of considerable value to teachers and the list is a distinct improvement on any previous word lists. GSL remains one of the most innovative examples of foreign language pedagogy and lexicometric research in this century. One disadvantage with the GSL is that data about spoken usage are not available as only the written corpus is consulted for the selection of words. Another disadvantage is the absence of information on collocations and collocational frequencies.

GSL has been widely used by textbook writers, simplifiers, teachers and examiners. For all practical purposes it defines the vocabulary of simplified English. Dr. West published a dictionary in 1936 in which 20,000-30,000 items were defined within a vocabulary of less than 1500 words. This method of using limited defining vocabulary has been followed even in the 1980’s by Longman Dictionary compilers.
Except for the progress of the vocabulary control movement, the period between 1945-70 is considered to be in limbo for vocabulary as an aspect of language teaching.

In 1972, Wilkins with his concern for the centrality of meaning in the notional/functional syllabus took a deviation from the main stream of language teaching by asserting that "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (111). He has helped to show how lexical semantics throws light on the process of translation; enables the organization of the lexicon with its studies on paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationships of words and how this further helps in bringing out the full meanings of words which is crucial to the acquisition of vocabulary.

Twaddell (1972,1973) argued strongly for the massive expansion of learners' vocabularies. He was the first who saw a fallacy in the view that vocabulary teaching was merely a question of selection of items based on frequency of occurrence. He insisted on taking the context into account. He pointed out that it is impossible to teach learners all words they need to know. He has advocated the importance of teaching the learners, the guessing strategies for the comprehension of new words.
This is the beginning of viewing vocabulary learning as a language skill and the onus of developing the skill has been shifted on to the learner. Nation and Coady also find the guessing skill as central to reading comprehension.

J.C. Richards in his article entitled 'Word lists: Problems and prospects' (1974), has questioned the validity of frequency count as the basis for vocabulary selection with the argument that high frequency words are not automatically those which the learner needs, since often they carry low information. In pointing out the differences between written and spoken corpora and by taking into consideration the coverage of a word (the range of its contexts) and by showing the importance of available words (i.e., words which can be easily recalled independent of their frequency) Richards suggests the need for both subjective and objective measures for vocabulary selection.

Thus 1970's and 1980's have witnessed a continuing concern with word lists on one hand and a shift away from the vocabulary control approach. Research into vocabulary acquisition is further extended to the study of how children develop concept on lexicon of the first language and how word recognition is made and how the mental lexicon of second language learners resemble or differ from that of the first language lexicon. There are studies on more practical
VOCABULARY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER

DESIRED EXPANSION

FIGURE 2
problems of ease and difficulty in vocabulary learning and on the factors which interfere with learning a word.

A pictorial representation of the vocabulary of the English Language and the vocabulary of the second language learners with the desired expansion possibilities is attempted in Figure 1.

1.1.4 LEARNER'S NEEDS IN VOCABULARY EXPANSION

From the various pedagogical views on vocabulary the following clearly discernible needs of language emerge:

1. Learners need to know how words relate to external reality and how they relate to one another.
2. Learners have to develop both decoding and encoding abilities, i.e., receptive and productive abilities.

Vocabulary teaching in the initial stage can start with limited vocabulary, proceeding from the most common words to rare ones. The graded syllabus using core vocabulary is best suited at this stage. Beyond the initial stages, strategies to enhance the expansion of vocabulary must be shown to the learners.

The new entrants to college have crossed the initial stages of learning English and are at the take-off stage for self learning. It is at this juncture that the available strategies on vocabulary expansion are to be put to full use. Vocabulary studies have advocated different methods to increase receptive and productive abilities in learners.
Reception encompasses comprehension and retention. Production needs retrieval of the vocabulary item from memory and encoding it appropriately in contexts.

1.1.4a Means of Decoding Vocabulary items

For enhancing COMPREHENSION some of the means suggested are:

1. translation into first language
2. restricted defining vocabulary from the target language
3. ostensive means (showing pictures, objects, models etc)
4. contextual clues and
5. dictionary.

Among these, the first three means are controlled by the teacher and the last two require special skills on the part of the learners to take full advantage of the means. Learners must be taught to develop these skills.

Learners have to be sensitized to look for clues in the most probable places within the text. For instance clues can be found in the title of the passage. Titles normally express the main argument and the discourse elaborates on the title. Moreover the discourse itself is often full of redundancy, anaphora and parallelism. Clues can also be found in the grammatical structure, in the intonation in speech and in the punctuation in writing. Guessing meaning from context is often suggested to be the fast way to read through a material. But the meaning obtained by this way
may not always be correct and will not definitely be accurate. Therefore the knowledge of the word acquired through this technique will not be very much helpful for using the word in production.

Using dictionary in negotiating meaning is one of the very helpful and effective methods for both comprehension and production. Looking up in the dictionary requires special and distinct skills from the learner.

In the cultivation of RECEPTIVE ability, remembering words or storing words in memory is an important asset. Researchers have devised a number of techniques to aid storage of vocabulary in mind. Some of them are listed below (Carter and McCarthy):

1. Mnemonic devices
2. Loci (Neisser, 1976)
3. Paired associates (Curran, 1976)
4. Key Word technique (Atkins, 1975; Merry, 1980)
5. Total physical response (Asher, 1969; Asher, Kusudo and de la Torre, 1974)
6. Craig's cognitive dearth (Craik & Lockhart, 1972)
7. Formal groupings (Francis, 1963; Burling, 1982).

1.1.4b Encoding Words

In the process of PRODUCTION of vocabulary the learner has to find a suitable expression from the meaning potential by retrieving words from the store of his repertoire of vocabulary. It has been found through research that
importance must be given to fluency over accuracy in the beginning stages so that the learner can gain confidence through performance, however imperfect it may be, rather than to wait for control of precise vocabulary. It is said that Pidginization can be encouraged in which content words will be much more useful than function words. After gaining a reasonable mastery of fluency, the significance of accuracy has to be shown to the learners and also the means for developing accuracy.

For the retrieval of lexical items from memory, the associative bonds, which connect the word and the meaning are found to be very helpful. Situational sets such as found in written or oral exercises on topics like 'At the Post Office', 'In the classroom', 'Meeting a friend' etc may be useful. Recalling the Semantic sets in the form of synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms will be of good help.

As the production route is from meaning --> form, the learners’ intention to communicate has to be matched by the form they select. To achieve this, as it has been noted already all the three components of lexical competence, namely semantic competence, pragmatic competence and syntactic competence must be pressed into service.

There may be doubt or difficulty in spelling or usage or even in selecting the appropriate word from among near
synonyms. Every doubt or difficulty cannot be cleared by the teacher for the learners. The students can turn to the dictionary for help. In the recent times great strides had been taken in the field of lexicography in focusing on the needs of language learners. Dictionaries are specially designed incorporating information required by the learners.

1.2 LEXICOGRAPHY AND ITS RELATION TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

One of the time-tested tools that helps to teach/learn vocabulary is the language dictionary. The use of this most effective tool is subjected to controversial debate, whether it is an aid or an impediment to reading. But experiments have conclusively shown that using the dictionary is always helpful to better understanding. Besides, the dictionary is a ready-reckoner that promotes self-learning. Recent developments in the field of lexicography have evolved new type of compilations called learner's dictionaries. These are claimed to be more user-friendly as they are compiled with the knowledge gained by specific research on need analysis. These pedagogical, monolingual dictionaries exhibit certain special features that are specifically aimed at helping the second language learners.

1.2.1 LEXICOGRAPHY-BEGINNING OF ITS BEGINNINGS

During the Renaissance period in England - the age of the greatest expansion of the English language in its
recorded history. Mulcaster, the teacher of Spencer, had written in his *Elementarie* (1582):

> It were a thing verie praiseworthie in my opinion, and no lesse profitable then praise worthie, if som one well learned and as laborious a man, wold gather all the words which we use in our English tung, whether naturall or incorporate, out of all professions, as well learned as not, into one dictionarie, and besides the right writing, which is incident to the alphabet, wold open unto us therein both their naturall force and their proper use.

In seeking a systematic record of the vocabulary of the English language along with its use, Richard Mulcaster was far ahead of his time with reference to the development of modern lexicography.

The earliest English dictionaries were those explaining the words of Latin or some other foreign languages and the earliest English-English dictionaries were dictionaries of hard words. The first of these was a dictionary of 120 pages by Robert Cawdrey called *The Table Alphabeticall of Hard Words* (1604) which explained some 3000 terms. This was followed by John Bullokar's *English Exposition* (1616) and Henry Cockeram's *The English Dictionarie* (1623) which passed through numerous editions.
The later editions contained a section providing the translation of ordinary English words into more scholastic, or those derived from other languages. This served as a kind of a switching device by means of which a person's writing in ordinary English could be converted into impressive language of learning with a few judicious substitutions.

The other works of this period were Blount's *Glossographia* (1656) and Edward Philip's *New World of Words* (1658). All these and other later compilations, treated only the more difficult words. Some kind of stabilising action is found in the compilations of this period.

The development of dictionaries during this period was a consequence of the extensive additions that have been made to the languages. The inclusion of the new words in the dictionaries in turn helped to facilitate their adoption into general use.

In 1721 Nathaniel Bailey published his *Universal Etymological English Dictionary*. It was the first dictionary to use accent marks in describing punctuation.

1.2.1a Johnson's Dictionary

In 1755 Samuel Johnson published his dictionary in two folio volumes. This was hailed as a great achievement and a
contribution. Johnson's compilation came at a time when the scholars of the period felt the need for an English academy fashioned after the French academy of the time to provide a sort of guidance with authority for the right form and use of the language. To 'fix' the language was considered to be the urgent requirement. Johnson himself has explained his idea of an English dictionary as "a dictionary by which the pronunciation of our language may be fixed, and its attainment facilitated; by which its purity may be preserved, its use ascertained and its duration lengthened" (Baugh 329).

Chesterfield had expressed in the World

I had long lamented, that we had no lawful standard of our language set up, for those to repair to, who might choose to speak and write it grammatically and correctly.... The time for discrimination seems to be now come. Toleration, adoption and naturalisation, have seen their lengths. Good order and authority are now necessary. But where shall we find them, and at the same time the obedience due to them? We must have recourse to the old Roman expedient in times of confusion and choose a Dictator. Upon this principle, I give my vote for Mr. Johnson to fill that great and arduous post. (Baugh 329)

In 1756 Sheridan wrote in "British Education" (376), "if our language should ever be fixed, he [Dr Johnson] must
be considered by all posterity as the founder, and his dictionary as the corner stone."

Boswell spoke of Johnson as "the man who had conferred stability on the language of his country".

Johnson's Dictionary is the work of one man laboring almost all by himself for a space of seven years. It presented the English vocabulary much more fully than was ever done before. To a great extent it fixed the spelling. The listed words were given sound and discriminating "Johnsonian" definitions. The dictionary also provided thousands of quotations illustrating the use of words with the intention that "the sense may easily be collected entire from the examples." Johnson's task as a lexicographer was to prescribe a refined use of the language and to preserve the language.

1.2.1b Lexicography in America

Upto this point of time, English dictionaries were prepared by the British. In the eighteenth century to assert the individuality of American English the first dictionary compiled was A School Dictionary by Samuel Johnson (with no relation to Dr. Johnson). It was printed in New Haven, Connecticut in 1798. In 1783, 84 and 85 Noah Webster published three elementary books on English, a spelling book, a grammar book and a reader under the title A
Grammatical Institute of the English Language. These were the first books of their kind to be published in the country. In 1806 Webster brought out a small Dictionary, the prelude to his greatest work. In 1828 An American Dictionary of the English Language was published in two quarto volumes. The aim of the American Dictionary was to list the words in English with their American significance. For the Americans, the English language in America was distinctly American developing along its own lines and deserving to be considered from an independent American point of view. Webster reformed the spelling and pronunciation of American English words.

In America Noah Webster and Joseph E. Worcester, a former employee of Webster carried on the "war of the dictionaries" with Webster playing the role of a reformer and innovator and Worcester maintaining as a traditionalist (Kipfer). In 1847 Worcester published A Universal and Critical Dictionary of the English Language and in 1860 A Dictionary of the English Language which gave him an edge in the 'war'.

appeared in 1934 and the Third New International (W3) was published in 1961 while Worcester's works faded from use.


1.2.1c A Short Survey of Lexicographical Tradition

In tracing briefly the history of lexicography it has been observed that the English dictionaries compiled before 1750 did not have any significant theoretical basis for lexicographical practice. The compelling motive at the initial stages was to give English equivalents to foreign words and in English, simpler expressions for hard words. Moreover, the choice of words and means of explanation were subjective. In Osselton's words' "Dictionaries happened" (17).

The dictionaries from 1750 to 1850 are found to have developed along definite lines to standardise or to codify the language which was considered to be chaotic with reference to spelling, pronunciation and meaning. The dictionary came to be viewed as a scholarly record of the
whole language by making use of an inductive method of deriving from a corpus essentially literary rather than the technical language. The dictionary during this time established an authoritarian or normative function. Yet the selection and explication of lexical items continued to be subjective.

After 1850 radically new principles were adopted. The new philosophy of lexicography is expressed by Richard Chenevix Trenchy:

A Dictionary...is an inventory of the language.... It is not the task of the maker of it to select the good words of the language. If he fancies that it is so, and begins to pick and choose, to leave this and take that, he will quickly go astray. The business which he has undertaken is to collect and arrange all the words, whether good or bad... which those writing in the language have employed. He is an Historian of it, not a critic. (Osselton 20)

This attitude directed the lexicographical tradition from a subjective approach to an objective selection and treatment of lexical words. The principles laid down by Trench are corrective to an earlier tradition set by Johnson of purifying and standardising the language. The Philological Society founded in 1842 in England planned to bring out the Oxford English Dictionary compilation to be
based on historical principles. The tradition of etymological thrust was set with the basic idea that an understanding of the current language can come only from an understanding of its past. This idea was rooted in the principles of historical linguistics.

1.2.1d The Oxford English Dictionary

With James A. H. Murray as the editor and an army of staff and volunteer readers to prepare quotation slips the voluminous Oxford English Dictionary was published in 1933.

The aim of Oxford English Dictionary (1933) is stated in its Preface as "to present in alphabetical series the words that have formed the English vocabulary from the time of the earliest records down to the present day with all the relevant facts concerning their form, sense-history, pronunciation and etymology. It embraces not only the standard language of literature and conversation, whether current at the moment, or obsolete, or archaic but also the main technical vocabulary and a large measure of dialectal usage and slang".

It is further claimed by the dictionary that

There is no aspect of English linguistic history that the Dictionary has not illuminated; its findings have called for the revision of many philological statements and the reconsideration of many judgements on textual matters.
ENGLISH VOCABULARY IN THE DICTIONARY

Scientific

LITERARY

FOREIGN

COMMON

Colloquial

Technical

Dialectal

Figure 2.
The aspect in which English vocabulary is present in the dictionary is pictorially shown (Fig. 2). In this representation, the centre is occupied by the common words in which literary and colloquial usage meet. The diagram suggests that "the circle of the English language has a well defined centre but no discernible circumference." It is difficult to fix the point where the language stops along any of the diverging lines shown. But a dictionary has definite limit and the dictionary maker has to draw a line somewhere in each diverging direction.

The preface discusses yet another frontier to the language in relation to time. 'Old words' die out and new words' press in and there are words in the transition stage of living in some speakers and dead in others. The newly coined words take their time to get universal recognition. The problems of including the new and excluding the old must be resolved by the lexicographer.

1.2.1e Recent Developments

Based on the voluminous Oxford English Dictionary (1933) there had been a number of language dictionaries like the Desk edition, concise dictionaries, pocket edition etc. of great and small sizes which carry etymological insights as their component.
The strong belief in the usefulness of blending historical fact with the description of present day usage became less acceptable since Ferdinand de Saussure. Slowly the historical perceptions have disappeared giving place to the concept that language is conditioned by its social functions.

More recently, the frequency of occurrence and the user's needs are taken as the criteria for the choice of words to be entered in the dictionary rather than the literary merit or historical status.

The change of emphasis that had been traced so far can be observed to occur in tune with the development of linguistic theories and principles. Studies in Semantics and Syntax have contributed liberally to the altering of the micro structure (- the ordering of entries for individual words) of the language/lexical entries in the dictionary. Quirk observes:

Linguistics has provided us with our dictionaries and grammars of English...the compilers of dictionaries and grammars have been informed by some linguistic theory or other, because they could not otherwise have even made a start on such work... The work of such men rests confidently, if not exactly securely on the accumulated wisdom of linguistic scholarship stretching back over centuries, on the whole retaining what has been
found permanent and true, skimming off what has been suspected to be merely fashionable and false. (109)

Quirk attributes this as the major reason why English grammars and dictionaries of 1870 do not strike us as wildly different in approach, format or content from grammars and dictionaries of 1970. Linguistic knowledge performs the two-fold function of forming the basis for dictionaries and grammar books as well as providing the standards by means of which the relative merit of each compilation could be assessed.

In general, it has been observed that lexicographers are cautious men and remain conservative by exhibiting a strong tendency to copying the older tradition of dictionary designing than to start afresh. As Hartmann reports, "375 years of English dictionary-making reveals only a gradual evolution of technique, with few real breaks" (13).

One main reason for this conservatism is said to be the status of dictionary as a commercial artefact. The sellers of dictionaries focus their attention on mainly the buyer's expectations. Thus the social and historical factors enjoy equal weight as the theoretical and linguistic. But, however slow the change may be, clearly discernible change for the better is surely evident in the practice of
lexicography. One major stride is towards developing an objectivity in the entire task of corpus building, defining meaning, arranging entries, etc.

Another significant insight is with reference to the function of the language dictionaries.

Different lexicographers have characterised their work as 'dull' (Samuel Johnson), 'exciting' (Eric Partridge), 'enjoyable' (James Hulbert) and 'tedious' (Allen Gleason), but most would agree that it is above all a descriptive activity, recording existing usage rather than laying down prescriptive or normative rules about how words should be used or which words are to be avoided. (Hartmann 5)

1.2.2 MODERN ENGLISH DICTIONARIES

Since the second world war, great impetus has been given to teaching English as a second language and the new monolingual dictionaries based on modern linguistic theories have come to occupy a very important place in the range of lexicographical work.

Today we have dictionaries and dictionaries. It is apparent that it is not possible for any one dictionary to satisfy the needs of everyone which could be wide ranging and diverse. There are specialized dictionaries for specific fields such as computing, geography, chemistry,
physics, medicine, card games, arts and artists, ballets, superstition, and clearly distinguished Language Dictionaries. The distinction is made in the presentation—mostly encyclopaedic information in the former types and guidance for language use in the latter.

A dictionary is generally defined to "describe the senses of predicates and an encyclopaedia contains factual information of variety of types, but no information specifically on the meaning of words" (Hurford and Heasley 184). Barbara Ann Kipfer's succinct definition that "dictionary describes words and encyclopaedia describes things" (2) vividly explains the distinctions found in the scope of the two types of compilations. Yet the demarcation between a dictionary and an encyclopaedia is not as simple as it may appear to be. For, words are closely related to things. In Bacon's view

Words were but the images of matter.... The real world of things and events was the proper object of study and investigation, not its insubstantial reflection in language. Language was merely the means whereby we come to a knowledge and understanding of the world through reason. It was an instrument for action not an object of contemplation. (Qtd. in Howatt 39)
Yet, just as a dancer cannot be separated from dance, language, the instrument of expression cannot be separated from the knowledge of things which it represents.

But too much of encyclopaedic knowledge in a language dictionary may not help to achieve the ultimate aim of dictionary making, namely to present an inventory of the vocabulary of the language. The lexicographer has to achieve the right balance between lexical and encyclopaedic information.

The focus of the present work is on Language dictionaries and more specifically on learner's dictionaries.

An analysis of the various kinds of dictionaries reveals that just as there are different literary genres, there are different lexicographical genres. For instance the genre employed in a dictionary for the native speaker is definitely not the same in a dictionary for foreign learners. No distinction with regard to the levels of language ability is found in a dictionary meant for native speakers while clear-cut distinction is made in foreign learner's dictionaries to facilitate better understanding at different levels. The meta language (the language used to define and explicate meaning) in either of these dictionaries is markedly distinct. While a native speakers
dictionary uses a language with underlying sense of humour, foreign learners dictionaries take greater pains to simplify the language and to provide not only the general sense of the word, but also the subsenses, extended meanings, idioms, etc., along with suitable examples in use for each. Besides these the entries provide grammatical labels. The most recent learner's dictionaries record pragmatic meaning as well as the semantic significance of the lexical items.

1.2.2a Types of Dictionaries

On one hand dictionaries can be classified into General Reader's Dictionary and Language learner's dictionary according to the use they are put into and on the other they are classified as monolingual, bilingual and polyglot dictionaries according to the number of languages employed in the explication of meaning. For example there are English-English; English-Tamil or any of the regional languages; English-Hindi-Tamil.

It has been conclusively established by earlier studies that "historically bilingual dictionaries predate monolingual ones by a wide margin" (Tomoszcyk 287).

But in their growth they had been developing in the shadow of monolingual dictionaries. Another crucial fact is that in the range of coverage and in the thrust on developing both receptive and productive skills the
Monolingual dictionaries are far ahead of the existing bilingual dictionaries.

Beryl Atkins advocates the benefits of monolingual dictionaries:

Students like bilinguals because they bring instant satisfaction. But monolingual dictionaries provide long term benefits. The user gradually learns to operate in L2 without the L1 barrier as a brake of progress. (22)

The availability and the utility value of the much advanced and advancing monolingual dictionaries are not adequately popularised either by the commercial side or by the educational system at least in the part of the country where the present study is carried out.

1.2.3 LANGUAGE LEARNING AND DICTIONARY USE

The graded syllabus and the guiding teachers do help in providing the needed help to enhance the second language proficiency. Yet for reasons that are physical (students grouped in large classes), psychological (inhibition to discuss openly) and linguistic (complexity of the language), gaps in comprehension, gaps which are large enough to mar basic understanding exist. These in turn hamper further, the already deficient productive skills. These gaps are found not only with reference to meaning but also with the usage of expressions. Learners' Dictionaries aim at filling
these gaps in a big way and are designed to increase the repertoire of the learner's vocabulary.

The variety of monolingual dictionaries now in use is a reflection of the diversity of demands made upon them by users. Like all didactic reference works, dictionaries have become more diverse. The all-purpose dictionaries, capable of meeting all kinds of needs, has disappeared, or is now disappearing, in favour of dictionaries whose purpose is simply to provide answers to a limited range of questions. (Dubois 237)

Dictionaries were originally considered to be a repository of information meant to draw only information on meaning or spelling. This image persisted for a long time. Until very recently lexicographers were not aware of the needs of the foreign learners of English. The existence of the cultural plurality and the levels of linguistic proficiency were never taken into account in the General English Dictionaries before 1970's. It may be enough for a native learner to get information for comprehension purpose alone since he is adept at using the language productively on his own, whereas a second language learner needs help in mastering production skills as much as in comprehension. The recognition of this duality of the second language learner's need was delayed for a long time in the field of
lexicography. Lexicographers assumed a native like ability in second language learners in using their dictionaries.

This situation changed by the help of two related factors namely a revival of interest in vocabulary teaching in the 1970's and the growth of a critical awareness among the EFL lexicographers. The two International meetings organized at Exeter in 1978 and 1980 by Reinhard Hartmann provided a valuable forum for discussing a number of questions relating to many aspects of dictionary design.

The developments in descriptive linguistics and language teaching methodology have helped to change the structure of dictionaries. Parallel developments in the design of learners' Dictionaries have been taking place more or less independently of each other in Europe.

The advancements in modern lexicography have brought an awareness that "A good dictionary must do as much as possible to provide users not only with what they know they want, but with what they don't know they want, as well" (Atkins 23).

The new pedagogical dictionaries take into consideration two important factors-namely, the reference needs and the reference skills of learners. An assessment
of the reference needs assigns clearly discernible dual role to the learners' dictionaries: 

1. as the portrait of the vocabulary of a language; and

2. as the tool for effective communication. (Bejoint 208)

In performing the first role the dictionary has to provide decoding information such as the denotative meaning, connotative meaning, language variety, encyclopaedic information for culture specific words etc. In a broad sense the first role pertains to the Semantic aspects of the language together with features of Pragmatic aspects as well.

In its second role in promoting encoding activities the dictionary has to show the spelling, pronunciation, grammatical inflection, collocation, etc., with suitable examples. This naturally belongs to the area of second language teaching.

With such a heavy responsibility of handling both decoding and encoding devices for language learners, in Cowie’s words,

The EFL dictionary becomes an increasingly sophisticated reference tool, consciously adapted to specific study needs, but in danger with each innovation of outstripping the often rudimentary
reference skills of those it is designed to serve. (Bejoint 208)

This observation of Cowie leads on to the reference skills required of the dictionary users. This is an area that is found to be more difficult to assess than the reference needs. The two basic skills in using the dictionary are to locate the word for which information is needed and to find the right entry for the word. These two activities directly correspond to the two structures of the dictionary:

1. The macrostructure—concerned with the arrangement of words; and
2. The microstructure—dealing with the arrangement of information on each word.

Teachers have the responsibility of making learners aware of the riches contained in the learners' dictionaries and to help the learners to develop the necessary skills to retrieve the desired information from the dictionary entries. The training given in the classroom for dictionary use would help the learner to develop self learning in all his readings.

1.2.4. LEARNER’S DICTIONARIES

1.2.4a Distinction between Dictionary, Thesaurus and Encyclopaedia

OALD defines dictionary as a "book that lists and explains the words of a language, or gives translations of
them into one or more other languages and is usu arranged in alphabetical order”.

The alphabetical order of lexical items in a dictionary ensures easy access to the required word but at the same time this arrangement renders the dictionary and orderly disordering of the vocabulary of the language with reference to the interrelationship of words in their respective fields, modes of utterance, grammatical category etc. But as utility demands the priority of easy access, the apparent disorder has become indispensable.

Alphabetization is of course no more than a technique for listing the entries according to a conveniently applicable, but theoretically irrelevant, principle. (Lyons 515)

As opposed to a dictionary with alphabetical arrangement, a Thesaurus is "a book containing lists of words and phrases grouped according to their meanings". Though both dictionaries and thesauruses aim at promoting comprehension in semantics, they are used by different clientele. The thesauruses could be used by more advanced learners of English since the lists of synonyms in a thesaurus could take away the user from the original meaning.
Encyclopaedia on the other hand is "a book or set of books giving information about every branch of knowledge, or about one particular subject, with articles in alphabetical order". In short a dictionary describes words and an encyclopaedia things.

More often a dictionary is found to incorporate the elements of thesaurus and the encyclopaedia for an optimum explication of meaning of the lexical items contained in it. The lexicographer has the hazardous role of maintaining the right balance in keeping his compilation within the boundary of the dictionary objectives and tradition by providing relevant semantic information and necessary encyclopaedic explanation. The General English dictionaries aim at presenting the vocabulary of the language with the main thrust on historical development of words and their semantic significance in the present day use.

1.2.4b Salient Features of Learners' Dictionaries

Some of the special features found in learners' dictionaries are as follows:

As historical and etymological information bears very little relevance to the learning of vocabulary items this most common feature found in conventional dictionaries is removed in learners' dictionaries.
Archaic, dialectal and rare words are also removed in learners' dictionaries.

Most of the EFL dictionaries indicate pronunciation by using IPA instead of the 'figured pronunciation' used earlier.

Irregular plurals; comparative and superlative forms of adjectives; continuous, past and perfect forms of regular and irregular verbs and other special grammatical features of the head word are indicated along with each lexical entry.

Copious use of citations and examples supports the definition to aid comprehension directly, and indirectly provides other contexts for decoding purposes. The citations and examples are drawn from the most normal and recurrent types of communication. Literary quotations that represent a personal and original use of language are consciously avoided.

Differences between British and American usage are included.

In deference to the learners' reduced command of English, care is taken to use controlled and simplified vocabulary to explicate meaning.
The special features enumerated so far can be summed up as, _definition_ by means of a limited or controlled vocabulary to facilitate comprehension and _elaboration_ of pronunciation and grammatical information to promote production. Of these two, the use of the controlled vocabulary preceded the latter. The presentation of phonetic and syntactic information brought in new problems.

With the view to facilitate production "the more information they (the lexicographers) put into the LD (Learners' Dictionary) the more complex its codification becomes; but the more complex the codification, the less use an unguided learner can make of it" (Strevens 78).

The incorporation of a detailed _INTRODUCTION_, elaborating on how to retrieve information from the coded entries is the most crucial feature in learners dictionary which clearly distinguishes it from others.

Besides semantic and syntactic information, the most recent pedagogical dictionaries aim at providing pragmatic information of words and phrases in relation to their users and uses. "The indication of style values in English dictionaries for foreign learner raises more complex issues than the treatment of pronunciation, and many have yet to be satisfactorily resolved" (Cowie 1981, 205). Hartmann attributes diversity of categories and uncertainty or
disagreement over the validity of some of them as the reasons for the problems encountered by lexicographers in these issues.

1.2.4c Use of Learner's Dictionaries in Language Learning

The use of Learner's Dictionary is relevant to many aspects of the learning process. Among these Peter Strevens comments on three aspects. They are:

i the gradual nature of learning
ii the identification and internalization of lexical shapes and
iii cross-sensory matching of language. (80)

(i) The gradual nature of learning

Learners look up dictionaries on different occasions:

1. To get the meaning of an unknown word encountered while reading.
2. To get the meaning of an unknown word encountered while listening.
3. More often than not to get reassurance of the meaning of a word already known but vaguely. The vagueness may be due to the word being part-learnt or familiar in some way but not stored in the learners' recallable memory or being known already with one or more meanings which are not applicable to the present context etc.

The third occasion of going to the dictionary to get reassurance or a reminder points to the basis of the learning process. In the process of learning two features demand special attention: (a) the gradual nature of the learning process, i.e., it takes a long time to get a lexical item stored in memory and (b)
attrition; i.e., loss from our recallable memory of items already learned. This is a special kind of forgetting. Both these features are universal and more exposure to the language item and its use is the remedy to increase learning speed as well as to decrease memory loss.

Repeated practice given by a teacher in the classroom nurtures learning by countering these crucial features involved in learning. Learners’ dictionaries can also assist in this function through their repeated explications in definitions and examples.

(ii) The identification and internalization of lexical shapes

Knowing a word involves establishing its lexical shape. Lexical shape is an abstract concept by which each word has a psychological reality embodied within the various manifestations as singular/plural, tense, abbreviation etc. For example, the lexical shape of *four* includes its spoken and written versions; the lexical shape of *sheep* includes the absence of *sheeps* as a plural in both its written form and spoken form; the lexical shape of *tomato* includes *tomatoes* but not *tomatos*; The variations in British and American English also exhibit lexical shape.

Establishing the lexical shapes of words is an essential and inescapable part of learning a language. Learners’ dictionaries contribute in a valuable way to this process by providing written
forms side by side with accessible information about pronunciation. (81)

(iii) Cross-sensory matching

In teaching-learning techniques, listening to the reading of the text and then reading the text by the ears and the eyes simultaneously has been found to be very effective with many students. This technique is known as cross-sensory matching. Learners dictionaries are reservoirs of parallel information on both phonetics and orthography and thus they have special value in cross-sensory matching.

Moreover "use of a dictionary provides further language experience in ways that encourage reflection upon the language itself. For most learners this reflective process is one of the many alternative language-learning strategies available" (Strevens 82).

The following are the tributes made to learners' dictionaries by men who had worked on dictionaries:

A dictionary opens the way to both formal learning and to the daily self-instruction that modern living requires. (Gove W3)

Of all the TEFL (Teaching English for Foreign Learners) books available, the MLD (Monolingual Learner's Dictionary can perhaps answer a greater number of students' questions about English than any other single book. (Underhill 103)
It is apparent that the lexicographer of a learners' dictionary takes up the role of a language teacher in anticipating all the possible problems a learner may encounter while confronting a new word and strives to provide means to overcome most of the problems with the help of a single compilation.

The present work aims at analysing and evaluating the language teaching devices employed in the Monolingual learners' dictionaries in order to assess their efficacy for vocabulary expansion in new entrants to college.

Monolingual learners' dictionaries are chosen for the present study because the reference needs of students at the collegiate level do not stop at only comprehending the meaning of new words they look up. They also require guidances for actively using the new words they get to know.

Bilingual dictionaries are very effective in conveying the meaning through the most familiar first language. But information provided in the present day bilingual dictionaries ensure comprehension alone which only helps to increase the bulk of the learners passive vocabulary. Monolingual learners' dictionaries (MLD) seem to hold the key to converting the passive vocabulary into active. Sir Randolph Quirk expresses the need for monolingual dictionary for advanced learners in the preface to LDOCE (1987):
In the early stages of learning a foreign language, one of our essential tools is a good bilingual dictionary, linking words of the language we know well to the corresponding words in the language we are learning. But as our competence and confidence increase, we reach a point at which the bilingual dictionary is inadequate to our needs. It ties us down to a perpetual exercise of translation, inhibits us from free creative expression in the foreign language we are now mastering, and simply does not give us enough information on the meanings and grammatical constraints of the words we want to use.

Adrian Underhill lists the following as Some Advantage of Using the MLD:

1. Users have to think in English.
2. Meanings have to be understood in terms of other English words promoting a more rapid expansion of passive vocabulary.
3. Many high-frequency function words which are virtually inaccessible via a TD (Bilingual or Translating Dictionary) may be given appropriate treatment.
4. Learners may gain insights into the precision of defining and describing meanings, and constructing example sentences, as well as learning to cope with definitions which at first seem unclear.
5. The example sentences themselves not only exemplify typical usage but also provide an alternative access to the meaning, either to substantiate the definition or to subordinate it where the example is found to be clearer.
6. The teacher guidance often required at elementary and intermediate levels, to help learners to disentangle the information, is time spent very usefully. This is because for that moment the teacher has given to the dictionary the job of dispensing information, to the student the job of finding it and to himself the job of remaining watchful and available to offer help at the appropriate moment.

7. The ability to use the MLD effectively allows students the satisfaction of exploration through the dictionary, a sense of self-sufficiency and greater confidence in their ability to solve language problems for themselves. This in turn helps students to recognize and formulate their own language problems and questions in the first instance. (104)

1.3 LINGUISTIC STUDIES THAT HAVE CONTRIBUTED TO THE DEVELOPMENT IN LEXICOGRAPHY

It is imperative at this juncture to look into the developments in related linguistic studies that have contributed to the evolution of the modern English General Dictionaries and the Learner's Dictionaries in particular. SEMANTICS, the study of the linguistic meaning, PRAGMATICS, the study of the psychological and sociological functions attached to words and GRAMMAR that assigns definite structure and organization at the syntactic level are identified as the major sources from which insights are drawn for the details to be included in the dictionaries.
These three aspects of the language form the essence of MEANING in its larger sense or in its entirety.

1.3.1 THE REALM OF SEMANTICS AND DEVELOPMENTS IN SEMANTIC STUDIES

1.3.1a Properties of Meaning

Meaning is a broad term which encompasses many other terms like sense, reference, definition, interpretation, implication, comprehension, understanding etc. Equating just one of these terms with meaning leads to only a partial understanding of the concept, as all these features in different proportions at different contexts and often something more than these go into the composition of meaning. According to Ogden and Richards:

Meaning is an intrinsic property; a unique unanalysable relation to other things; the other words annexed to a word in the Dictionary; the connotation of a word; an essence; an activity projected into an object; an event intended or a volition; the place of anything in a system; the practical consequences of a thing in our future experience; the theoretical consequence involved in or implied by a statement; emotion aroused by anything; that which is actually related to a sign by a chosen relation; the mnemonic effects of a stimulus. Associations acquired or some other occurrence to which the mnemonic effects of any occurrence are appropriate; that which a sign is interpreted as being of; what anything suggests. (186)
These elaborations point to the complexity of meaning. The meaning in the human mind has a complex network as its structure and this structure in its prelanguage stage is called the "meaning potential" (Halliday). The empirically unanalysable contents of the meaning potential are constituted by thoughts, emotions, attitudes and sensations of each individual and is directly influenced by socio-cultural environment in which the individual is placed. "It is a significant variation that is at the disposal of the speaker" (Halliday 54). This personalised meaning potential is given form and emerges through words formed by sounds in a verbal expression and through gestures and signs in a non-verbal presentation.

Psychologists contend that about 80% of what an individual intends to convey is done through non-verbal communication like body posture and facial expressions and the rest is encoded in words. For pedagogic purposes the scope of the present work confines itself to verbal representation of meaning alone.

Each language selects and organises sounds and words in its own way making language a structured convenience and inconvenience - convenience because it is the only main organised form of expression, and inconvenience because the
linguistic equipment is inadequate to bring out the meaning in toto. For, as observed by Ogden and Richards

any symbolic apparatus which is in general use is liable to incompleteness and defect. But if our linguistic outfit is treacherous, it nevertheless is indispensable, nor would another complete outfit necessarily improve matters even if it were ten times as complete. (19)

In learning language what these linguistic symbols stand for and how these can be used to express thoughts are to be found. For this an adequate theory of definition has to provide a means of controlling words as symbols and the means to discover what these symbols refer to. A scientific explanation of the encoding and decoding processes and devices for such unique strategies forms the essence of the theory of meaning.

John Lyons (1981) lists some of the well known theories of meaning:

i) the referential theory ("the meaning of an expression is what it refers to, or stands for"; eg. 'Fido' means Fido, 'dog' means either the class of dogs or the property they all share);

ii) the ideational or mentalistic theory ("the meaning of an expression is idea of concept, associated with it in the mind of any one who knows it");

iii) the behaviourist theory ("the meaning of an expression is either the stimulus that evokes it or the response
that it evokes, or a combination of both, on particular occasions of utterance”;
iv) *the meaning-is-use-theory* ("the meaning of an expression is determined by, if not identical with, its use in the language");
v) *the verificationist theory* ("the meaning of an expression, if it has one, is determined by the verifiability of the sentences, or propositions containing it");
vi) *the truth-conditional theory* ("the meaning of an expression is its contribution to the truth-conditions of the sentences containing it"). (30-31)

Lyons further remarks "None of these in my view, is satisfactory as a comprehensive and empirically well-motivated theory of meaning in natural languages. But each of them has contributed in one way or another to the background assumptions of those who are currently working towards the construction of such a theory".

1.3.1b Semantics

Semantics is the study of linguistic meaning. It is concerned with what sentences and other linguistic objects express, and not with the arrangement of their syntactic parts or with their pronunciation. Semantics is the technical term used to the study of meaning. Dictionaries rely heavily on the findings in Semantics. The developments in the history of Semantics have considerably altered the orientation of dictionary entries. For example, historical semantics with its thrust on etymology made the general
English dictionaries to record the meanings of words with an etymological orientation. The development of descriptive Semantics led to a shift in emphasis from diachronic approach to synchronic descriptions.

The basic question of Semantics is "What is meaning?" As observed earlier it is a theoretical question which does not have a simple and direct answer. The concept of meaning has been debated since the very beginning of philosophy. Though extensive body of interesting facts have been accumulated about meaning, the general principles that underlie the organisation of semantic phenomena have been elusive in early semantic studies.

A survey of the various attempts made on understanding meaning and organizing a theory of it shows the shift of focus on the different aspects of the subject at the various stages of the development of Semantics.

Naming Paradigm. The study reveals that Semantics is an extension of cultural organization. Early religious and philosophical interpretations equated words with names. "The word was God" in the Bible. The naming paradigm is very nearly ubiquitous both in traditional and in current accounts of the psychological processes underlying verbal behaviour.
According to the naming paradigm of reference in language, a proper noun is a word which names an object and a common noun is a word which can name sets of more objects than one. In the same way verbs name actions; prepositions, relations, adjectives and adverbs name properties of objects and actions respectively. But equating meaning with naming is not suitable for words like 'hello', 'whether', 'since' etc. Naming is only one of a number of different functions that words can be used to perform.

Among Greek philosophers Heracleitus was the first to see that words embody the nature of things and that the word is the most constant thing in a world of change. It is an expression of that common wisdom which is in all men. He viewed the structure of human speech as reflecting the structure of the world.

Parmanides, another philosopher was engaged in the study of the functions of negative symbols. He questioned the logic behind talking about absence of things. That is, if cold means not hot and dark means not light, why should the absent things cold and dark get any name at all, he argued. Thus Greek speculations on meaning remained faithful to the verbal approach. Because their main focus was on examining the words as bringing in the thoughts,
instead of attending to the facts and things which bring words into being, the Greek approaches to meaning failed.

Meaning and reference. The second major line of thought about meaning is the relationship between meaning and reference. Though the problem of meaning is concerned with the problem of reference, meaning and reference are not the same. Proper names have referents but do not have meanings. The expression *round square* has no referent since from the meaning of *round* and *square* it is known that anything that is square is not round; *Male bachelor* is a redundant expression as it is analytically true that the referents of *bachelor* are all male; *light box* is linguistically ambiguous since it can have two distinct kinds of referents based on the difference in the meaning of *light*—not heavy; lamp. Thus, though the meaning and reference are not identical the two aspects of a word are intricately related and if the mechanism of reference is understood probably it will lead to a better understanding of meaning.

Words as symbols. The next major approach to meaning is through the concept of symbolization. References and meanings are established through agreed symbols in language. As these symbols are conventional, language by nature is arbitrary. Aristotle asserted, "All significant speech is significant by convention only and not by nature or as a
natural instrument" (Ogden and Richards 36). By virtue of being conventional, human languages are systems of symbols rather than systems of signs.

A symbol in this view is precisely an object whose meaning is conventional. A sign, on the other hand, is an object whose meaning is determined by some fixed relation it bears to a thing or situation. (Fodor et al. 150).

For example, the warning rattle of jackdaw is a sign since the situation, the acoustic shape and the reaction it arouses in its hearers are all fixed. Here the causal laws operate and fix the signs whereas a word as a symbol differs from language to language. Moreover often a sign bears a direct resemblance to the significate but a symbol bears no such relationship to its referent. Symbols are used by conventions. E. Sapir, an ethnologist closely connected with the American school defines language as "purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols" (Ogden and Richard 7).

Symbols direct, organize, record and communicate. It is thought (reference) which is directed and organised and it is also thought which is recorded and communicated. The relationship between thoughts (reference), words(symbols) and things(referents) is a vital aspect to be understood in
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REFERENCE, SYMBOL, AND REFERENT

THOUGHT OR REFERENCE

SAYS REFERENT IS A CAUSE
(CORRECT RELATIONSHIP)

SAYS REFERENT IS A RESULT
(IMPURPUSUAL RELATIONSHIP)

SYMBOL STANDS FOR REFERENT
(AN IMPURPUSUAL RELATION)

TRUE

Figure 3.
the analysis of meaning. This relationship can be illustrated with the help of the diagram in Figure 3.

According to this representation, the base of the triangle is different in composition from either side. The relation between symbol (word) and referent (thing) is indirect. Whereas the relation between thought and symbol is causal. For, when we speak, the symbolism we employ is caused partly by the reference we are making and partly by social and psychological factors such as the purpose and the attitude of the speaker and the desired effect on the hearers. Between the thought and the referent there may be either a direct or indirect relation. The relation is direct as in the case of reference to a colour and indirect when a long chain of sign-situations intervene between the act and its referents. In onomatopoeic expressions the relation between symbol and referent becomes direct with the base of the triangle getting completed.

This triangular relationship has a slight variation in the view of the empiricists whose approach is based on behavioural psychology. In their approach the relation between a word and its referents is conventional. But the relation between the word and the memory image it evokes is not conventional. Evoking memory image is a kind of response to stimulus through causation and resemblance.
This conditioning model is opposed by cognitivists on the ground that abstract objects do not evoke images and even for concrete objects the mediation of images between word and object demands rules for its application. Hence they hold the view that reference is more of a rule-governed-activity than an image creating one. Learning a language is internalising the different rules which operate for different symbols. It is like learning the rule of the game of chess where each piece has a particular type of movement.

Once symbols become established in one's mind, from the symbolic use of words we pass to the emotive use of words. For a number of situations are involved in using the symbols. Symbols are used

i) to cover the main functions of language as a means of communication;
ii) for the expression of attitude to listener;
iii) as the expression of attitude to referent;
iv) for the emotion of intended effects;
v) in support of reference, etc.

Situations determine the choice and structure of words. As the meaning potential is socio-semantic options, language has to be studied as a social behaviour.

To understand words as symbols definitions are needed. Definitions show the substantial form. In defining a word a
set of different words may be used. In other words a different symbol is substituted to make the word clearer. These substitute symbols are referred to as metalanguage and the symbols which are explained are termed object language. The substitute symbol may be either a complete analysis or it may be abbreviated by classificatory methods like the genus and differentia type adopted from the time of Aristotle.

Definitions establish a 'closed-network' since semantics is made circular with each word defined in terms of the other words. To break into this 'charmed circle' ostensive techniques and translations help in a limited way. When the same language is used, situations and contexts play a major role in breaking through this circle. But all definitions are adhoc. Yet by defining words there arises a certain fixity which is the meaning of the words. "What is fixed is the reference which any member of this group will make in interpreting a symbol on any occasion within the relevant universe of discourse" (Ogden and Richards).

Dictionaries support and maintain these fixities in references. The dictionary provides substitute symbols indicating the circumstances in which one symbol can be substituted for the other. In this aspect the dictionary
helps to mark the overlaps between the references of symbols rather than to define their fields.

Canons of symbolism. Ogden and Richards formulate six 'canons of symbolism as the fundamental axioms in determining the right use of words in reasoning. They are the canons of Singularity, Definition, Expansion, Actuality, Compatibility and Individuality.

Singularity. This canon pertains to one symbol having only one referent. When a symbol stands for two or more referents it has to be regarded as two or more symbols which are to be differentiated.

Definition. Symbols which can be substituted one for another symbolize the reference. When one symbol is not comprehended, a substitute symbol by way of defining the first one is used. This symbol helps to remove ambiguity.

Expansion. The referent of a contracted symbol is the referent of that symbol expanded. Expansion is used in scientific discussions.

Actuality. A symbol refers to what it is actually used to refer to; not necessarily to what it ought in good usage, or is interpreted by an interpreter, or is intended by the user to refer to.

When a group of symbols appear to be one symbol that which is being actually used must be selected for the required symbol.

Compatibility. No complex symbol may contain constituent symbols which claim the same place.

This canon helps to avoid nonsense in discourse. A proposed symbol becomes void if in one symbol many signs are incorporated in order to build a complex symbol. Eg: red-yellow and round-square do not convey any meaning.
Individuality. All possible referents together form an order, such that every referent has one place only in that order.

This is in accordance with the three laws based on Aristotle's formulae:

i) Every symbol has a referent.

ii) No referent has more than one place in the whole order of referents.

iii) Every referent has a fixed place in the whole order of referents.

These six canons help to specify the various kinds of definition suitable on different occasions.

Means to reach the referent. A language establishes a system of symbols and to learn the language it is essential to find the proper routes to reach the referent through the symbols. A referent has relation with many known referents. It is possible to reach the unknown referent through the already known with an understanding of the type of relation both these referents hold. The number of possible relations is infinitely large. For convenience these are condensed into a small number of groups which form ten possible routes which are commonly used to reach the desired referent. They are symbolization, similarity, spatial relations, temporal relation, causation of three distinct types, object of mental state, common complex relations and legal relations.
The classification is claimed to have been done on pragmatic basis on the level of the most usual universe of discourse.

1 Symbolization. The simplest and most fundamental way of defining is through symbolisation - indicating the referent (if it is a physical object) and showing that it is the word. Eg. showing an orange and saying, 'This is orange' or 'Orange is a symbol which stands for this'. This is also known as ostensive technique.

2 Similarity. Likeness or similarity is used as a defining relation.

3 Spatial relations. Examples are in, on, above, between, beside, to the right of, near, bigger than, part of etc. For instance, orange is a symbol for the colour of the region between red and yellow in a spectrum. Here the naming relation and similarity relation are also involved.

4 Temporal relations. Example: Yesterday is the day before today; Sunday is the first day of the week; the ends of the war, etc.

5 Causation: Physical. Example: Thunder is what is caused by certain electrical disturbance. Curd is what is prepared from milk, etc.

6 Causation: Psychological. Example: Pleasure is the conscious accompaniment of successful psychic activity.

7 Causation: Psycho-physical. Example: Anything is beautiful which causes pleasure. Anything is beautiful which excites emotions, etc.

8 Being the object of a mental state. This concerns desiring, willing, feeling, etc. Example: Piteous things may be defined as those towards which we feel pity.
Common Complex relations. Complex forms are convenient for some definitions. Example: Utility is analysable into No.(7) and No.(8); imitation (2) and (7); implication (1) and (2).

Legal relations. These are very often employed and implied, though they are often disguised. Examples: Belonging to, subject of, liable to, evidence of etc.

Dictionaries heavily rely on these relations to bring out the meaning of words.

1.3.1c Survey of the Historical Development in Semantic Studies

The early studies on words were focused on etymology, the study of word-origins. In tracing etymology the Greek and Latin writers have made many penetrating observations on the sense and use of words. Most of the principal themes of modern semantics are adumbrated in their stray remarks.

A quickening of interest in semantic studies can be observed in the last two decades of the nineteenth century. Specialized studies began in Germany and in the most influential general treatise of the period, Hermann Paul's, *Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte*, semantic questions were given some prominence. Stephen Ullman asserts that the following two books in France, Darmesteter's *La vie des mots erudice dans leurs significations*, 1887 and Breal's *Essai de semantique* published ten years later can be considered to be the earliest classics of the new science. In the first
three decades of the twentieth century, the study of changes of meaning made considerable progress.

Semanticists gradually emancipated themselves from the antiquated categories inherited from rhetoric and turned to their neighbouring disciplines as philosophy, psychology, sociology and history of civilization to make a fuller understanding of semantic processes.

The lectures on linguistics by Ferdinand de Saussure in the University of Geneva were published posthumously in 1916 under title *Cours de linguistique générale*. His arguments revolutionised the theory and practice of linguistic studies on two points. In the first place Saussure broke with the historical orientation of nineteenth century linguists and postulated two basically different and equally legitimate approaches to language, namely *synchronic* and *diachronic*. Synchronic approach is a descriptive study of language, recording it as it exists at a given moment and ignoring its antecedents. Diachronic approach concentrates on the historical study of language by tracing the evolution of its various elements. Both these approaches are complementary.

Saussure's second vital contribution is his visualising of language as an organized totality or *Gestalt* in which the various elements are interdependent and derive their significance from the system as a whole. He made a
distinction between paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations among words.

The paradigmatic relations are those into which a linguistic unit enters through being contrasted or substitutable, in a particular environment, with other similar units.... Syntagmatic relations are those that a unit contracts by virtue of its co-occurrence with similar units. (Palmer 67).

For example, in a red door and a green door, 'red' and 'green' are in a paradigmatic relation to each other and each is in a syntagmatic relation with 'door'.

Under Saussure's influence the structuralist current swept over Europe and it was reinforced by the publication of Language (1983) by Bloomfield in America. Bloomfield defined the meaning of a linguistic form as "the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer" (Palmer 139). He perceived an insufficiency of scientific definition for everything to which language may refer:

we can define the names of plants or animals by means of the technical terms of botany or zoology, but we have no precise way of defining words like love or hate, which concern situations that have not been accurately classified--and these latter are in the great majority. (Palmer 139)
Hence he concluded that "the statement of meaning is therefore the weak point in language study, and will remain so until human knowledge advances very beyond its present state" (Palmer 140).

Trier by introducing Saussure's principles into semantics opened a new phase in the history of Semantics. Trier's work, Der deutsche Wortschatz in Sinnbezirk des Verstandes. Die Geschichte eines sprachlichen Feldes I, Heidelberg (1931) made a marked shift of emphasis from historical orientation towards descriptive semantics. Descriptive semantics besides looking into the association of symbol, reference and object, investigates the inner structure of the vocabulary. Trier formulated the field theory that shows the grouping of lexical items in the network of meaning, i.e., field theory is concerned with the paradigmatic relationships.

Porzig in his Wessenhafte Bedeutungstbeziehungen (1934) stressed on the recognition of the importance of syntagmatic relations. Eg: the relationship between bite and teeth; bark and dog; blond and hair, etc.

Firth, under the influence of Malinowski held the view that the language of a community could be best understood only from its social contexts of use and that the meaning of an utterance was its function in context. Both Bloomfield
and Firth viewed meaning with reference to the situations in which language is produced. But they differed significantly in the conclusions they drew out from this view. It led Bloomfield to reject the study of meaning as 'unscientific' and Firth to consider meaning as the cornerstone of linguistic theory.

The emergence of Semantics as central to linguistic studies was a distant development. Semantics was relegated to a peripheral position in Transformational Generative Grammar.

Standard Theory of Chomsky (1965) had Deep Structure as the base for language and applied projection rules of Semantics on one side which led on to the Semantic interpretation. On the other side transformational rules were applied to bring in the Surface structure which in turn led on to the Phonetic interpretation through phonological rules. It is diagrammatically represented in Figure 4. Even the Extended Standard Theory has not assigned a central position to Semantics as found in Figure 5. It is in Generative Semantics that Semantics forms the base as given in Figure 6.

The appearance of Stylistics as a new science in the early years of this century has exercised profound influence on semantic studies. With its concern for the
expressive and evocative values of language, stylistics has made great strides and has developed particularly close connections with Semantics.

1.3.1d Modern trends in Semantics

The study of semantics leads to the investigation on the universality of semantic features. There arises the question whether all semantic features or some of them at least occur in all languages. Sapir-Whorf hypothesis suggests that each language may create its own world and so its own semantics. But there are certain common components such as 'male' and 'female', basic colours and kinship relations found in all languages. A close study of languages shows that there is a universal inventory of semantic features. But the relation between this inventory and the set of features found in individual languages is not common. While some features are universal the rest are characteristic of individual languages.

One of the primary goals of modern semantic theory is to construct a universal scheme for semantic representation which leads to 'semantic interpretation'. It is in essence similar to universal phonology defining 'phonetic representation'. An analysis of the various structures of languages reveals the semantic structures as networks, grammatical (syntactic) structures as trees (hierarchical), morphological structures as strings (linear) and
phonological structures as bundles (simultaneous). To explain the complex network of semantics, Katz asserts that semantic theory must contain the following

1. A scheme for semantic representation consisting of a theoretical vocabulary from which semantic constructs required in the formation of particular semantic interpretation can be drawn.

2. A specification of the form of the dictionary and a specification of the form of the rules that project semantic representations for complex syntactic constituents from the dictionary's representations of the senses of their minimal syntactic parts.

3. A specification of the form of the semantic component, of the relation between the dictionary and the projection rules and of the manner in which these rules apply in assigning semantic representations. (33)

The first requirement concerns the substantive universals at the semantic level. The theoretical vocabulary is constituted by the analogous of syntactic substantive universals such as the constructs 'S', 'NF', 'V' and phonological substantive universals such as the features [± consonantal], [± Student].
The second requirement concerns the formal universal at the semantic level. The formal characterizations of phrase structure and transformational rules are their analogues.

The third concerns the componential organizational universals at the semantic level. Analogous of these are the statements of the relation between the base and the transformational component and the ordering conditions on transformational rules.

Beyond these three requirements semantic theory has the special task of explaining certain important phenomena such as synonymy, semantic similarity, semantic ambiguity, autonomy, meaningfulness and meaningfulness, etc.

Synonymy. Synonymy is 'sameness of meaning' or 'symmetric hyponymy' as Palmer puts it. The English language is enriched with synonyms by the historical development of its vocabulary from the native (Anglo Saxon) and foreign (French, Latin and Greek) sources. But no two synonyms are identical. There is subtle variation in meaning and reference among synonyms.

Types. Some sets of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language. In U.S. 'fall' is used for the British autumn.

Cowshed, cowhouse or byre;
Haystack, hayrich or haymow are sets whose members are used according to the regions the speaker belongs to. This type of synonyms are not of any semantic significance as they are merely translation equivalences.

The second type of synonyms are words used in different styles.

Eg. *gentleman* can be *man* or *chap*;
    *pass away* can be *die* or *pop off*.

This is a problem area since the distinction of styles is far less clear and it is hard to ascertain whether the stylistic variations are within semantics or are features of different languages.

The third type of synonyms have the same 'cognitive meaning' but differ in their emotive and evaluative meanings.

Eg. *politician* and *statesman*
    *hide* and *conceal*, etc.

To influence attitude is the main function of these words.

The fourth type of pairs of words have the same type of meaning but are restricted collocationally.

Eg. *rancid* always goes only with bacon or butter.
    *addled* with eggs and brains.

In the fifth type of synonyms words are close in meaning or their meanings overlap. Palmer terms it a 'loose
sense of synonymy' (31). This is the kind of synonymy exploited by the dictionary maker. For the word mature (adj) the synonyms are adult, ripe, perfect and due. For the word govern = direct, control, determine, require. The word loose (adj) has an even larger set—-inexact, free, relaxed, vague, lax, unbound, inattentive, slack, etc.

A search for each of these words leads to a further set for each and takes us further away from the meaning of the original word. Generally dictionaries do not show the precise connections between words and their defining synonyms or between the synonyms themselves.

Testing Synonymy. Synonymy can be tested by substitution and contrasting with opposites. Words with total or true synonymy are mutually interchangeable in all their environment. But it is difficult to find true synonymy as no two words have exactly the same meaning.

Eg. deep or profound may be used with sympathy.
    But only deep can be used with water.
    A road may be broad or wide.
    But an accent can be only broad. Similarly true or partial synonymy can be made clear when contrasted with opposites.
Eg. *superficial* can be contrasted with both *deep* and *profound* but *shallow* is mostly in contrast only with *deep*.

Ullmann quotes Collinson’s set of nine principles for distinguishing apparent synonyms:

1. One term is more general than another: *refuse* - *reject*
2. One term is more intense than another: *repudiate* - *refuse*
3. One term is more emotive than another: *reject* - *decline*
4. One term may imply approbation of censure where another is neutral: *thrifty* - *economical*
5. One term is more professional than another: *decease* - *death*
6. One term is more literary than another: *passing* - *death*
7. One term is more colloquial than another: *turn down* - *refuse*
8. One term is more local or dialectal than another: *Scots flesher* - *butcher*
9. One of the synonyms belongs to child-talk: *daddy* - *father* (142-143)

Semantic similarity and semantic difference. This is another phenomenon which semantic theory has to explain. Eg. *mother*, *woman*, *sister*, *cow*, *actress* are similar in one respect as female; *mother*, *stone*, *book*, *chair* are similar in
another aspect as physical objects which are different from thought, imagination, beautiful, etc. (abstract words).

Antonomy. Antonomy or opposite is a phenomenon which is a semantic difference of a special sort. That is, there is incompatibility of meanings.

Eg. The members of the following pairs are antonyms

- come and go; start and stop; man and woman, etc.

Hyponymy. This phenomenon deals with superordination and subordination. It is based on Aristotle's 'genus', differentia analysis. Meaning postulates treat hyponymy as the basic sense relation. Hyponymy involves the notion of inclusion. For example, tulip and rose belong to the category of flowers; lion and elephant to the group mammal or animal. Thus members of the same group are included under a general term. The upper term is the superordinate and the lower term is hyponym.

```
Flower    - superordinate
     \               /
   tulip rose - hyponym
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Superordinate  Hyponym
Dwelling        Cottage, hut, house
human           boy, girl, man, woman
finger          thumb, index finger.

The principle of hyponymy has been helpful in the formulation of Componential Analysis. Componential Analysis is reducing a word's meaning to its ultimate contrastive
elements. For example, girl is woman and - child. On a
different plane the same word is + animate and - animal; +
human & - male.
Leech (1981) observes
Componential analysis as a theory of word-meaning
is controversial, while many have found it a
useful and revealing technique for demonstrating
relations of meaning between words, others have
criticized it. (117)

Meaningfulness and meaninglessness. They are concerned
with collocation of words. Study of synonym, antonym and
hyponym is concerned about how words are related to one
another on a vertical or paradigmatic dimension.
Collocation is an abstraction at the syntagmatic or the
horizontal level and is not always directly concerned with
the conceptual approach to the meaning of words but with the
company a word keeps in an expression. In other words
collocation can be defined as the combining capacity of a
word with other words.
Collocability can assign words to the same set of lexical
items as well as to different sets.

We have pretty girls and buxom woman and not pretty boy
or buxom man. Collocation which is characteristic of
language is found in an extreme form in the collective words
- flock of sheep, herd of cows, school of whales, pride of
lions, chattering of magpies, exaltation of larks, dog / bark, cat / mew, sheep / bleat, horse / neigh, etc. Dictionaries do not often specify the collocatability of the lexical items they enlist.

Semantic ambiguity is a phenomenon of multiplicity of sense versus uniqueness of sense. The much debated polysemy and homonymy come under this heading. For dictionary entries this is a crucial area for careful considerations.

Further, semantic theories have to account for the phenomenon of redundancy (e.g. 'male bachelor', 'naked nude' and 'female aunt'), analytic truth, contradictoriness, syntheticity, inconsistency, entailment and presupposition, possible answer, self-answered questions, etc. (Katz 5-6).

Modern semantists aim at formalizing the structure of these various aspects of sense. They formulate semantic representations termed 'readings' which are constituted by 'semantic markers'. Semantic markers are object language formulae which are consciously made simple and direct to analyse the structure of the target language. Modern semantics is moving towards the abstraction of truth-conditional meaning at the conceptual level.
1.3.1e Semantics and Language Dictionary

The foregoing brief account of Semantics reveals the complexity involved in defining the meaning of a word. However a Semanticist's 'theoretical dictionary', i.e., a theoretical construct of 'Semantic competence' differs from a practical dictionary which is a reference book. For a Semanticist meaning is a purely linguistic reference. For a dictionary maker the definition of meaning is often inclusive of encyclopaedic information, pragmatic use and grammatical usage. That is, dictionaries make an eclectic choice (based on the demands of their users) from theoretical Semantics to present one of the aspects of MEANING in its larger sense.

An examination of how effectively the semantic meaning is enunciated in the different learner's dictionaries forms part of the study in the present work. The analysis and evaluation of the semantic meaning is with reference to the type of metalanguage used for bringing out meaning, the various methods such as definition, description and analogy, the employment of synonyms, antonyms and hyponyms to draw out the basic sense and the extended meanings of words etc.

1.3.2 PRAGMATICS

1.3.2a Relationship Between Pragmatics and Semantics

Semantics and Pragmatics are twin aspects of the complex network of meaning potential. In the study of
meaning in language the early linguists had not made a
distinction between the two, since each of these components
is an interrelated and complementary field. By virtue of
its interdependence each of these tends to be subsumed by
the other and hence the delay in the recognition and
establishment of separate domains on the linguistic map.

Semantics deals with the study of meaning in the
abstract and pragmatics concentrates on the study of meaning
in use or meaning in context. Semantics constitutes the
formal aspect of meaning and Pragmatics the functional
aspect. Semantic meaning maintains a dyadic relation with
symbol and reference as its constituents and pragmatic
meaning involves a triadic relation by taking into account
the speaker/hearer along with the symbol and reference.

Levinson (1983) defines pragmatics as "a theory of
language understanding that takes context into account" and
as "a study of the principles of language usage" and even as
"the study of sign to interpreters" (406).

One of the early pragmatists, Morris's (1938)
definition runs as follows:

it deals with the biotic aspects of semiosis i.e.,
with all the psychological, biological and
sociological phenomena which occur in the
functioning of signs. (108)
By this definition Morris shows pragmatics subsuming psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics and socio-linguistics.

In 1946 Morris has redefined pragmatics as

that portion of semiotics which deals with origin, uses and effects of signs within the behaviour in which they occur; semantics deals with the signification of signs in all modes of signifying; syntactics deals with combinations of signs without regard for their specific significations or their relation to the behaviour in which they occur. (115)

Wilson (1975) equates pragmatics "with those aspects of meaning that are arrived at by general principles of preferred interpretation" (3). Leech (1983) while defining pragmatics as "the study of how utterances have meaning in situations" elaborates it further as essentially "goal-directed" and "evaluative" (Preface).

In an expression the realm of pragmatics can be determined by one or more of the following outward criteria:

1. the reference being made to SPEAKERS or HEARERS;
2. the reference being made to the INTENTION of the speaker;
3. the reference being made to the CONTEXT and
4. the reference being made to the performative function of language.

For example, in the following pairs of words
doggie and dog; bunny and rabbit
each pair is truth conditionally synonymous. But the choice of *doggie* and *bunny* indicates that the words are either addressed to or spoken by children.

The intention of the speaker to express anger, pleasure or to influence the hearer has a direct bearing on the choice of words from among a number of near synonyms.

Similarly the choice of a formal or informal style is determined by the context of speech. The accuracy and appropriateness of an expression depend solely on the pragmalinguistic context.

It is evident from the above criteria that pragmatics has as its topic those aspects of the meaning of utterances which cannot be accounted for in straightforward reference to the truth conditions of the sentences uttered.

Semantics and pragmatics have as their domains rule-governed representation and principle-controlled interpretation respectively where the rules of semantics are fundamentally conventional and the principles of pragmatics are non-conventional and are motivated by conversational goals. To use Halliday's classification of the meaning potential, Semantics is ideational and Pragmatics is interpersonal and textual. Semantic paradigm is describable in terms of discrete and determinate categories and
pragmatic paradigm in terms of continuous and indeterminate values.

In a more simplified way the distinction between Semantics and Pragmatics can be shown by the following:

1. What does X mean? - Semantics
2. What did you mean by X? - Pragmatics

1.3.2b The Development of Pragmatics as an Independent Domain

The colonization of pragmatics can be traced as a reaction to the discovery of the centrality of Syntax, relegating Semantics to a peripheral status. In the continuum of linguistic studies distinct stages are clearly discernible in the focus on language. For the generation that followed Bloomfield, linguistics was equated with phonetics, phonemics and to some extent with morphophonemics, and syntax was considered to be too abstract to discover. The structuralists dismissed meaning as the weak point in language study as it defied empirical verification. It is Chomsky who opened a door for semantics by accepting ambiguity and synonymy as among the basic data of linguistics. But he did not assign a significant position for semantics in his model and pragmatics had no recognition at all. His was essentially a theory of 'competence' in the abstract idealization, rather than 'performance', the functional use of meaning in language.
Levinson observes that pragmatics was discovered as an "antidote to Chomsky's treatment of language as an abstract device ... dissociable from the uses, users and functions of language" (407).

Generative Semantics provided semantico-pragmatic representations but different domains did not yet emerge. In Extended Standard-Theory or Trace Theory also there is no provision for pragmatics. But in further studies in linguistics as it became extremely difficult to exclude the way meaning varies from context to context a separate domain for pragmatics slowly evolved. It has to be remembered that independent thinkers like Malinowski, Firth and Halliday had already been preparing a territory for modern pragmatics with their functionalist view, contextual theory and social theory. Philosophers like Austin, Searle and Grice had a lasting influence on modern pragmatists. Some of the early pragmatists who had established distinct status for the use of language are Pierce, Charles Morris, Carnap and Bar Hillel.

The brief account on the developments in linguistic studies shows that the inseparable nature of language structure and language use has rendered progress in linguistic analysis a slow and stage by stage process. And we find that after considerable advancement in linguistic
knowledge, the high degree of abstraction and idealization of meaning in semantics has spilled over to pragmatics and pragmatic considerations often lead us to the realm of sociolinguistics. Leech (1983) represents the fields of pragmatics in the following way:

The major concern of pragmatics is with the appropriateness of expression. As observed by Pit Corder appropriateness covers multitudes of relations. To name some it could be referential, textual, social, stylistic etc. Language use is determined by socio-cultural contexts. Therefore the universal meanings are realized in different ways. For example, the Eskimo language has more words for snow than other languages. Similarly the personal pronoun you in second person has more than one equivalent in Tamil; Nee - used for singular and also for addressing an equal and a subordinate.

You Neengal - used for plural and for addressing elders and superiors.

Robert Lado (96) quotes as examples for cultural (therefore pragmatic) meanings, expressions that derive their meanings from the game of base ball in American
PRAGMATIC CONTEXT AND LANGUAGE VARIETY


FIGURE 7.
English. "Three strikes and you're out", "keep your eye on the ball", "a pinch hitter", "throw a curve" etc are used in everyday conversation. For understanding these expressions in conversation, purely lexical explanations will not suffice to a learner who is not familiar with the game of base ball. The meaning in the context of the American base ball culture has to be explained.

The representation of pragmatic context and language variety, as given by Hartmann (110), is shown in Figure 7.

1.3.2c Pragmatics and Lexicography

Dictionaries conventionally list and define lexical items for the reference of the language user. The definitions are mainly based on the semantic aspects of the items enlisted. But lexical items do not function in isolation or abstraction. They have different status according to which part of a discourse they inhabit. Recent ELT dictionaries have taken it as their task to incorporate information on the pragmatic aspects of lexical items. This goes a long way in unfolding the principles behind the organization of the linguistic system to the language learner. The present work aims at analysing the way pragmatic information is presented and the efficacy of the incorporation.
These new dictionaries which are chosen for close study make use of large citation corpuses or data bases for the additional guidance they provide. On the basis of the analysis of the data base these dictionaries offer more reliable guidance on what is usual/frequent or dominant in the language. For example, as Makhan Tickoo has observed in the entry of (1) sum total in CELD 1987 the lexicographers besides providing the meaning and synonym for the lexical item, place the additional information in shortened form as usu + of indicating that sum total usually collocates with of. This is a sure guidance for the productive use of the expression. This guidance fixes the linguistic context for the expression sum total (JEFL, 1988).

Similarly, for the use of (2) fire arms the additional information is that it is (USU PL) usually used in the plural.

For each of the above case authentic examples from data base provide support.

1. Eg. A few laboriously hand-written books contained the sum total of men's thoughts in middle Ages...Prisons make a significant contribution to the sum total of human misery.

2. Eg. He got a fourteen-year sentence for illegal possession of firearms.
Besides showing the common collocations and dominant use of singular or plural, pragmatic information also includes where exactly a word/expression belongs on the scale of formality/informality and whether a verb is in a passive or active construction.

1.4 THE SCOPE OF THE PRESENT WORK

The present work aims at evaluating the following FOUR monolingual English dictionaries:

3. *Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary 1987 (CELD)*

The purpose of the evaluation is to make a comparative study of the presentation of the language information related to SEMANTICS, PRAGMATICS and GRAMMAR of each of the lexical items entered in the dictionaries and to assess the efficacy of the presentations in promoting vocabulary acquisition in English language learners.

The first year Degree class students/the new entrants to college are taken as the target group to use these dictionaries, since they are in the take-off stage of entering into specialised areas of study at the tertiary
level. They are in need of enriching their vocabulary for communication in speech and writing. Moreover, as they advance in learning, they are to develop skills for self-learning. The learner's dictionaries are chosen for a detailed study because they go a long way in promoting self-learning.

The reasons for choosing the above FOUR dictionaries are as follows:

Oxford dictionaries enjoy a long tradition and reputation in pioneering composite effort in dictionary compiling. Hornby's Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (OALD) "reigned unchallenged from 1948 to 1978" (Nesi 1). It is described as the "pioneering and archetypal work" by Strevens (76).

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (LDOCE) edited by Procter and published by Longman 1978 is another major learner's dictionary. It has close resemblance to Hornby's OALD. It differs from OALD in strictly adhering to a defining vocabulary in enunciating meaning and usage.

Both these dictionaries have undergone revision on the basis of extensive study made on the effect of these earlier editions on their users, namely the learners. Hence these two new editions are chosen for the present study.
*Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary* (CELD) is with a completely different defining style. It is considerably different in its microstructure as well. It is claimed to be user-friendly, with an entirely new lay out that departs from the traditional dictionary design. The newness of this dictionary has led to its choice.

*Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary* (WNNUCD) is an American dictionary which is markedly distinct from the other three British English dictionaries. This compilation has been deliberately chosen to find the contrast in the cultural approach between British and American works.

All the four dictionaries are available in the market in both hard and soft back editions.

Moreover, the four dictionaries that are chosen for intensive study are the most recent learner's dictionaries. As these pedagogy oriented dictionaries are compiled by lexicographers with ELT expertise, highlighting their merits and use may be of great help to language teachers as well as language learners. Further, a close study of these in relation to the reference needs and reference skills of learners in Tamil Nadu may reveal the gaps in the transfer of language information in these dictionaries. Such findings, if any will be of use for future compilations.
The present study comprises a general survey of the objectives, claims and the theoretical background for the type and style of presentation in these works and a comparison of the Macrostructure (General layout), and the Microstructure (arrangement at each entry) that determine the mode of conveying the encoding and decoding devices. How these devices in each of these dictionaries facilitate or interfere with the vocabulary expansion in the second language learners is observed.

For the analysis of the dictionary entries that contain encoding and decoding devices, the meaning of meaning in its various dimensions such as the linguistic, social, cultural and psychological aspects forms the background study. The insights contributed by studies in SEMANTICS, PRAGMATICS and GRAMMAR assign specific meanings to lexical items. Hence, SEMANTIC, PRAGMATIC and GRAMMATICAL meanings are marked as the parameters for the evaluation of the dictionary entries. The effective mixing of these three components in each of the compilations and the efficiency of the presentation in bringing out the contrastive system of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relationship of English vocabulary are carefully analysed. The maintaining of the balance between depth and accuracy of treatment of words on the one hand and ease of intelligibility and use on the other are compared.
On the basis of the analysis the quality of the self-sufficiency of the enunciations and the amount of additional explanation and assistance needed from a teacher in a classroom (in the initial stages of using these dictionaries) are ascertained. Hartmann's (1989) guidelines are followed for this:

The best way to pursue research into dictionary use is in terms of four parameters; 'dictionary typology' (the information categories contained in the dictionary), 'user profiles' (what kinds of people consult dictionaries), 'need analysis' (the kinds of activities that require dictionary consultation) and 'skills protocols' (the strategies necessary for successful reference acts). (213)

The close scrutiny of the dictionary entries also includes the following essential considerations:

how much of spontaneous learning potential is made available in the entries;

how far these compilations remain as work books or instruments of use rather than packages of information that can close the learning process; and

how much of freedom these dictionaries allow to the learners to be less dependent on the dictionaries by throwing light on the rules of the language rather than trying to teach the items of the language.
As observed by Jean Dubois,

Dictionaries reflect the cultural universe of their users at particular moments in time and can be categorized according to the reference needs of socio-cultural groups whose parameters the lexicographer has previously identified. It is the function of the dictionary to decide what they shall be, any more than it is its task to prescribe the kind of language to be taught in schools, or the standards to be aimed at in writing. (247-248)

Detailed examination, comparison, and evaluation are carried out category-wise such as of CONTENT words, STRUCTURAL words, IDIOMS and PHRASAL VERBS. The major considerations for the examination are the reference needs of the learners to decode and encode linguistic messages, the details supplied by the lexicographers to meet these ends, the gaps in the transfer of information and the reference skills required of the learners.

The criteria set for the comparison are:

1. the nature of the metalanguage in the dictionary with particular reference to the simplicity, directness and clarity of expressions;
2. the semantic accuracy and adequacy applied to definitions and descriptions;
3. the maintenance of right balance in providing encyclopaedic and dictionary information;
4. the type of examples employed to bring out the use, usage, collocational possibilities etc.;
5. the extent of the grammatical information provided which will be helpful for generating production skills; and
6. the effectiveness of the various other devices used, such as codes, symbols, labels, abbreviations etc., to put across the three components of meaning - SEMANTIC, PRAGMATIC and GRAMMATICAL.

The observations and assumptions made by the theoretical analysis on the four dictionaries are tested for their validity, through the practical use of dictionaries by the learners. Learners' awareness of the availability and use of dictionaries and the actual use made out of dictionaries by both teachers and learners are researched into. Carefully planned experiments in the classroom that involve dictionary use form part of this study. Entries from the four dictionaries are put to use in order to draw out various information on language. The relative usefulness of the four dictionaries are assessed with the help of suitable exercises.

Conclusions are drawn on the matching of theoretical assumptions and their validation through practical use. The conclusion also suggests the integration of all the merits found in the four dictionaries, in future compilation.
1.5 DESCRIPTIONS OF THE DICTIONARIES

1.5.1 A GENERAL ACCOUNT OF THE FOUR DICTIONARIES

In assuming the role of the promoters of effective communication in their users, the learners dictionaries not only cater to what the learners expect from their entries but also take into account what the learners need to know. The lexicographers strive to train the user in the reference skills required to use each dictionary most effectively. A general description of the four dictionaries is given in Table 1.

1.5.1a Aims as stated by the Dictionaries

Here is a general survey of the aims and claims and the general features of the four learners dictionaries:

OALD with its established lexicographical tradition, it claims that has been revised to meet the specific needs of the foreign students. Its editor Cowie asserts that based on the detailed research into the aspects of English usage, found in Hornby's ALD, the present edition adds new innovations to the presentation of grammatical patterns and entry structure to facilitate easy access to semantic information.

LDOCE claims itself to be a vocabulary source book giving information on the grammar, collocations and stylistic and situational appropriacy of words that will help students understand new vocabulary sufficiently well for them to produce the words correctly in speech and writing (LDOCE Introduction).

Through its research findings it employs a 2000-word Longman defining vocabulary that is based on Michael West's General Service list, to explicate the meaning of words. The defining vocabulary is claimed to have been a
great success in the 1978 edition of LDOCE by the editor of the present edition.

Both OALD and LDOCE economise on space with the help of liberal use of abbreviations, codes and symbols.

**CELID** sets a new trend in the presentation of information by adopting a personal conversational style in defining words and by providing actual sentences exemplifying the collocations as the example sentences from its data bank. Though it claims that it does not believe in compromising on limiting space by using abbreviations and codes, it does use different abbreviations, codes and symbols. But its definitions and examples are full length sentences and the entry word gets repeated in full every time it occurs. This is in contrast to the use of tilde in other dictionaries.

**WNCD** Of the four dictionaries chosen for study Webster's Ninth Collegiate Dictionary (WNCD) has a different thrust by giving more importance to the etymology of the words and less importance to illustrative examples of use and usage, though it shares the common aim of all the other three dictionaries to be "a reliable guide to understanding the English of our day and communicating in it". It claims itself to be "the most authoritative and informative desk dictionary in the English language".

1.5.1b Corpus for the Compilations

In corpus building specially conscious care has been taken to collect and present words from everyday modern life used in both speech and writing in different walks of life.

OALD has added 4000 new words and phrases to the Hornby edition from its newly enriched corpus. The original laboriously built citation corpus of Oxford English
Dictionary (OED 1933) records form the basis for all the later editions of the Oxford publishers.

For the LDOCE, the Longman citation corpus consisting originally of around 25 million words of text on half a million index cards (equivalent to scanning about 500 medium sized books) has been expanded and updated by adding a further two million words of randomly gathered computerized text from current British and American newspapers and another half a million words of citations covering 15,000 neologisms, gathered by human editors and then computerized.

The CELD corpus was built from "the words (that) came from books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, leaflets, conversations, radio and televisions broadcasts". With an aim "to provide a fair representation of contemporary English", words were chosen according to the frequency of occurrence in the large corpus. CELD has left out "very technical words, names of countries, cities and people and some rare foreign words". CELD declares "this dictionary gives pride of place to the central core of the language" with its assumption that the most common words are the most needed words for learners.

The Webster Dictionary is built on the Merriam-Webster archives. The citation corpus consists of 13,000,000 words
and 3,000,000 examples are now being added for the new Webster edition.

1.5.1c Metalanguage Used

With regard to the Style of Presentation all the learner's dictionaries are conscious of the limitations the learners face in understanding a second language and hence employ simple and direct language (OALD and WEBSTER); defining vocabulary (LDOCE) and discursive style (CELD) as the metalanguage to explicate the object language words. Each of these styles has its merit in its own right. However the relative value of these individual styles could be apparent only when tested against actual use by second language learners. The OALD style is familiar to many. As observed earlier LDOCE's 2000-word defining vocabulary is said to be the greatest selling point to its earlier edition. The present edition has included a few words from outside their defining vocabulary. LDOCE makes a claim that its defining vocabulary list is the "only frequency list to take into account the frequency of meanings rather than the frequency of word forms." In all probability some of the words in this list may not be particularly high frequency words and consequently may not be known to dictionary users. Eg. ashamed, cowardly, infectious, etc. Secondly with restricted vocabulary it may be difficult to express all meanings and this could lead to paraphrases which may be all
the more difficult to comprehend. This was experienced in LDOCE I. But the present edition (LDOCE II) tries to overcome this shortcoming by introducing words from outside the defining vocabulary whenever the need arises. Such words are often marked in SMALL CAPITAL LETTERS. Eg. White wedding "is a wedding at which the BRIDE (= woman being married) wears a white dress".

The discursive style used in CELD makes it impossible to lift it bodily and substitute it for the entry word as can be done with definitions in other dictionaries. Eg. indecisive CELD: "If you are indecisive, you do not find it easy to make decisions about what you should do, where you should go, how you should behave, etc." This may be compared with the definition in OALD: "(b) unable to make decisions; hesitating, uncertain." The definitions in CELD are more like the spoken explanations of a teacher in the classroom. Some users may find this style most conducive to learning as it is perceived to be more user-friendly. In reviewing the CELD (1987) Tadros responds to the style warmly saying

Any one who consults the dictionary will realize that items are not, as in other dictionaries, explained in a detached way, but will feel that there is a real concern for them as users. (Nesi 16)
Hilary Nesi draws attention to the following points in connection with the CELD style:

The discursive style does mean that COBUILD entries are marginally longer than those in the other two dictionaries.

Dictionary-use is a study skill, which, once learnt, can be applied to other reference works. It could be argued that COBUILD users will not get such a good preparation in dictionary-reading as a skill, because the COBUILD style is unique.

Students of Literature, Linguistics, and possibly some other subjects sometimes cite dictionary definitions in their own writings. COBUILD definitions are often insufficiently succinct for this purpose.

The COBUILD defining style is intended as a model of good written English. The COBUILD team aimed 'to create a dictionary that would hold up models that would be of assistance to learners in encoding English'. (16)

In this context it is essential to consider T.S. Eliot's observation on conversational style in writing:

People sometimes talk vaguely about the conversational style in writing. Still more often, they deplore the divorce between the language as spoken and the language as written. It is true that the spoken and the written language can drift too far apart—
eventual consequence of forming a new written language. But what is overlooked is that an identical spoken and written language would be practically intolerable. If we spoke as we write we should find no one to listen: and if we wrote as we speak we should find no one to read. The spoken and written language must not be too near together, as they must not be too far apart. (Quirk 100)

1.5.1d Coverage of Vocabulary

OALD, LDOCE and CELD consciously confine themselves to the most common vocabulary that is needed for the general communicative competence of learners. They deliberately omit most technical, archaic and specialized vocabulary. Intensive treatment of the common words rather than extensive coverage of all the words is the dictum of these three dictionaries. But in choosing the lexical items WNNCD aims at wider coverage. It tends to include technical and archaic expressions that are ignored by the other three dictionaries. For example, between the entries on Teflon or TEFL and tele (found as adjacent entries in OALD, LDOCE and CELD) there are nine entries in WNNCD:

tegmen (technical)
tegmental (technical)
tegmentum (technical)
tegument (technical)
teiid (American lizard)
tektite (geology)
tel or telo - telamon (archaic)
telangiectasia (medical term)

Similarly between tele and termerity that are found in the other three dictionaries to be almost adjacent there is a chunk of geological and biological terms and other technical and expendable words in WNNCD.

1.5.1e Related Publications

The learner's dictionaries have related publications with the design to exploit the full use from the dictionaries. OALD has published Work Sheets which have separate exercises for making use of the spelling, pronunciation and for finding the right meaning from among the multiple meanings, retrieving the grammatical information etc. Similarly LDOCE has also brought out a Work Book edited by Whitcut. CELD publication is a Work Book entitled Learning Real English with exercises more or less in similar lines with the work sheets of OALD. CELD team has also published another book: Looking up which exhaustively describes the various processes and stage in the development of their Dictionary compiling.
1.5.1f Observations on the Dictionaries

The following are the tributes paid by men of letters, journals and magazines to the various dictionaries. These are quoted in the respective dictionaries.

OALD No other English dictionary has so consistently followed through the implications of planning such a book for the express use of the learners of the language throughout the world. None is so concerned with recipient design: none is so essentially learner-friendly.

Prof. H.G. Widdowson

LDOCE This dictionary recognizes the international role of English as an essential instrument of communication. Through every aspect of its design it securely speeds the learner's efficient and sensitive control of the language.

Prof. Sir Randolph Quirk

CELD ... innovative and clear.

- The Times

There can be no doubt that it will become an essential reference for learners of English.

- The Times Educational Supplement

Cobuild is a major event in EFL publishing. It will deservedly prove popular with teachers and students....

- EFL Gazette

The chief editor of OALD is A. P. Cowie from the University of Leeds who has also contributed and edited the
Applied Linguistics volume II No.3 and has published papers and articles on lexicography in journals and books.

LDOCE has Della Summers as its Editorial Director whose article is published in Hartmann's *Lexicography: Its Theory and Principle*. The foreword has been written by Prof. Sir Randolph Quirk, the renowned contributor to the field of Grammar and Lexicography.

CELD's Chief Editor is John M. Sinclair, Professor of Modern English Language.

Frederick C. Mish is the Chief Editor of WNNCD Dictionary.

1.5.2 COMPARISON OF THE MACROSTRUCTURE OF THE FOUR DICTIONARIES

A comparison of the macrostructure of the chosen dictionaries is given in Table 2.

The structure of the Dictionary is determined by the aim, principles and practice in presenting language information. The recent learners dictionaries are near unanimous in understanding the difficulties of the second language learners and aim to provide information that may be unnecessary to the native speakers. But in providing guidances to both receptive and productive needs of learners, the question of space for these in a single
compilation is quite challenging and the position of the lexicographer is unenviable. The traditional method of using abbreviations, codes and symbols demand expansion and elaboration on these in the introductory pages. The learner's dictionaries extend this use further for their additional information. As a result the structure of dictionaries becomes dense and complex. It becomes mandatory for the compilers to provide the means to have easy access to the wealth of information condensed in the text. As a result in learner's dictionaries the non-dictionary pages increase in number.

The limited space available exercises certain restrictions on the mode of presentation as much as it alters the layout of the whole compilation. How this problem is handled by each of these dictionaries makes an interesting and useful study as it involves a combination of traditional methods and new methods that are truly innovative and sometimes seemingly innovative. How far the traditional and the new methods are helpful in achieving the purposes and the set goals of the lexicographers would give new insights to future ELT dictionary compilation.

The OALD text consists of 1492 pages and the non-textual matter is of 96 pages. Of these 96 pages, 15 pages are placed as Introductory material and the rest of the
pages form the Appendices. The introductory pages constitute, Key to Phonetic Symbols (1 page); Abbreviations (1 page); Preface (that stands testimony to the aims and credentials of the dictionary--1 page); Key to Entries (4 pages) and Using the Dictionary: A Practical Guide (7 pages). To read and understand and to make the best use of these introductory pages, most of the learners may require classroom training and practice. The Appendices contain both encyclopaedic and pedagogy related material. Besides, a list of 4 pages of Irregular Verbs and 4 pages of Punctuation, there are 35 pages of a section entitled, "Using the Dictionary: A Detailed Guide to the Entries." Of these 19 1/2 pages relate to the analysis of English Grammar. On the inside back cover the VERB PATTERN SCHEME is given. Both the analysis and scheme are valuable pieces of pedagogical grammar. This succinct summary of the English grammar is potentially of great value to the learner-user. But once again this very useful information could be best utilized by most of the learners only after the teacher gives practical guidance in the classroom. The encyclopaedic matter consists of Illustrations (17 pages); Numerical Expressions (6 1/2 pages); Common Forenames (4 pages); Family Relationships (1 page); Military Ranks (1 page); The Chemical Elements (1 page) and the SI Units (1 page). The earlier Hornby edition contained the list of the
works of William Shakespeare, which is dropped in this edition.

CELD’s 1703 pages of text is found to be the maximum number among the four dictionaries and this dictionary has the minimum size of non-textual matter with just 17 pages. The Foreword (by Sinclair - 1 page); Guide to the use of the Dictionary (7 pages); Introduction (6 1/2 pages) and Corpus Acknowledgment (3 pages) form the modest introductory pages. The Dictionary does not have any Appendix added to the Text. Instead of explaining its special entries in detail in the introduction, it lists notes on grammatical abbreviations, etc., in their respective alphabetical order within the dictionary. This arrangement may not be helpful to the user as he may not be aware of the availability of these notes within the text.

The LDOCE has 1229 pages of main text interspersed with 36 1/2 pages of Non-Dictionary matter. The non-dictionary matter contains 20 language notes. This arrangement may be because critics came down heavily on its previous edition (1978) for having too lengthy an introduction. But this method of incorporating non-dictionary pages within the body of the text in order to make the volume of descriptive matter less imposing may cause more inconvenience as these language notes are almost impossible to find without
reference to the table of contents. The illustrations are placed within the body of the text and these may be useful. The Front matter covers 48 pages. The inside front cover presents the Grammar Codes based on Quirk's great work on Grammar—"A Comprehensive Grammar of English Language"; Pronunciation Table (1 page); Preface (by Sir Randolph Quirk - 1 page); General Introduction (by Della Summers, Editorial Director - 1 page); Grammar and the Dictionary (1 page); Pragmatics and the Dictionary (2 pages); Explanatory Chart (similar to the Key to Entries in OALD - 2 pages); A Quick Guide to Using the Dictionary (14 pages) and A Full Guide to Using the Dictionary (24 pages) together form the Introductory 48 pages of the Dictionary.

The Tables in the Appendices present both encyclopaedic and language information in 30 pages. The former consists of Numbers (1 page); Weights and Measures (1 1/2 page); Military ranks (1 page) and Geographical names (2 1/2 pages). 10 pages of useful information on word formation, 8 pages of the list of the Longman Defining Vocabulary, 4 pages of Irregular Verbs, 1/2 page of the Verb 'b' and 1 page of short forms and labels also form part of the appendices. An overall 114 1/2 pages of non-dictionary matter including the 36 1/2 pages of language notes within the text strive to provide the much needed information to learners. Hilari Nesi comments that the encyclopaedic
matter is like bus-services to outlying areas and he asserts that they are surely necessary to some users.

The WNNCD presents a text of 1331 pages. It has the largest number of non-dictionary pages, with 37 pages preceding the text and 191 pages placed after the text. The front matter consists of Preface (1 page); Explanatory Chart (2 pages); Explanatory Notes, 13 pages; The English Language in the Dictionary (8 pages); Guide to Pronunciation (5 pages); English Spelling and Sound Correspondences (3 pages); Abbreviation in This Work (1 1/2 pages) and Pronunciation Symbols (1 page).

Of the 191 pages of Appendices, 22 1/2 pages form A Handbook of Style dealing with Punctuation, Italicization, Capitalization, Proper nouns, Pronouns and Adjectives, Plurals, Documentation, Sources and Form of Addressee. These may be very helpful to learners of the language. The rest of the pages are on encyclopaedic matter as chemical elements, Foreign words and phrases, biographical names, geographical names, colleges and universities in U.S. and Canada, Signs and symbols, etc.

1.5.3 COMPARISON OF THE MICROSTRUCTURE OF THE FOUR DICTIONARIES

A comparison of the microstructure of the four dictionaries is presented in Table 3.
The microstructure or the organization within each entry in a dictionary determines the genre of lexicography. For example, the arrangement of language information in a General English Dictionary differs considerably from that in a Learner's English Dictionary. In the latter more detailed treatment is given to the lexical items for both decoding and encoding while the General English Dictionaries are satisfied with the presentation of decoding information alone. The microstructure is designed according to the main purpose for which the dictionary is compiled. For example, a dictionary with an orientation towards etymology lays emphasis on presenting the dates of origin and the shift of meanings over the Old, Middle and Modern English periods. On the other hand, when the main thrust is on everyday common use of words, the presentation consists of definitions along with a number of illustrative examples extracted from a suitable corpus.

Another important deciding factor for the mode and style of presentation is space. In a single volume when so many words with so much information on language are to be listed, it becomes unavoidable to use codes and abbreviations in the compendium at least for certain kind of information. The codes and abbreviations require explanations and elaborations outside the text. The compressed style of presentation demands comprehensive
guidance to reach the required information with ease. By this the microstructure is partially responsible for designing the macrostructure of a dictionary. To use the computer parlance, the microstructure constitutes the *hardware* of a dictionary and the guidances and instructions given outside the text are the *software* and the *firmware* that help to operate the regular run of the recorded program. A close study of the macro and micro structures of the learner’s dictionaries is made with the purpose of assessing how much of mediation from a teacher is required to make the best use of these pedagogical compilations as tools for retrieving language information.

Though all the four dictionaries aim at catering to the needs of a common clientele, the language learners, the designing of their microstructure is not the same since they are based on different principles and practice. The OALD enjoys a long tradition and has a set practice of designing its entries. LDOCE closely follows the practice of OALD, CELD deviates from these two in setting its mind on innovation. It has a refreshingly new structure, especially with the use of its EXTRA COLUMN. For example, the synonyms and antonyms that are to be painstakingly searched for within the text in OALD and LDOCE, are placed distinctly in the extra column. This makes it convenient to reach the specific entry when the meaning is not the only information
that is sought. To cite an example, for the word import in the sense of 'significance' or 'importance', CELD provides an easy access with the entries in its extra column. There are 5 entries for this word:

1. V or V + O
   export
   SING WITH
   DET OR N COUNT

2. V + O
   transfer
   transference

3.1 N COUNT

3.2 N COUNT

4. N SING WITH DET
   purchase

5. V + O: IF + PREP
   = consequence,
   = convey, signify

This arrangement takes the searcher straightaway to no.4 and 5.

In contrast with the three dictionaries, WNNCD focuses on how old a word is and when it was first used, etc. This etymological thrust differentiates its structure from that of the other three dictionaries. This dictionary does not pay adequate attention to illustrative examples, while providing the dates of their first use and the subsequent changes.

1.5.3a Details of the Arrangement in the Four Dictionaries

It is a standard practice in all the dictionaries to list the head words in bold print and arrange them in an alphabetical order. The head word is immediately followed by the phonetic transcription using IPA in OALD, LDOCE and
CELD. However, WNNCD uses the American Pronunciation Code. The key to the phonetic symbols are given in the front pages.

The pronunciation guide in the text is followed by the recording of alternate spellings if any and spelling of irregular forms (of noun-plurals; verb-inflexions, etc). CELD gives the spelling of regular as well as irregular forms of all the words. This practice is found to be convenient for use.

The grammatical information follows next in OALD, LDOCE and WNNCD. In CELD the EXTRA COLUMN is used to present this information. All the four dictionaries use abbreviations that represent the different parts of speech (N = noun; V = verb; adj = adjective, etc); singular-plural state (use S.'P) and countable-uncountable nature of nouns (U/C) and Transitive or Intransitive use of verbs (T, I), etc.

The same word used as noun, verb, adjective, etc., is entered separately under each part of speech in OALD, LDOCE and WNNCD. But CELD with its interest in presenting words according to their frequency of occurrence in its corpus mixes up the different parts of speech forms of the same word. This arrangement may not be very convenient for use. For example, it has 36 entries for the word show. The use of the word as noun, verb and phrasal verb is discussed in a
In OALD and LDOCE, the pragmatic information such as "always used in the passive construction" (usu. pass); "formal/informal use" (fml, infml); the register to which the word belongs (music/law), etc. is placed next to the grammatical information. CELD incorporates this information along with the explanation of the meaning. WNNCD does not pay attention to the pragmatic aspect of meaning.

Definitions and explanations of meaning are placed next to the pragmatic information. CELD records the synonyms (=) or the antonyms (=) of the words in the EXTRA COLUMN along side each entry. As has been mentioned earlier, this arrangement is found to be very helpful. When a word has more than one meaning, the different senses are given different numbers and their subsenses are treated with further divisions under each number. The meanings are graded according to their complexity—from the basic to the metaphorical. CELD also takes into account the frequency of use.

The definitions are followed by illustrative examples. OALD, LDOCE and CELD are liberal in giving example phrases.
and sentences while WNNCD does not give examples for most of its entries. Idioms and phrasal verbs are given in bold print and are placed at the end of the entry under the head word. In CELD they are found interspersed with all the parts of speech.

An overall survey of the structure of the text reveals that the four learner's dictionaries focus on a user-friendly house style and a comprehensive description. Their individual merits are assessed through a detailed analysis carried out as a category-wise study in the ensuing chapters.