CHAPTER II
TREATMENT OF CONTENT WORDS IN THE FOUR LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES

2.1 SIGNIFICANCE OF CONTENT WORDS IN LANGUAGE

A person who knows the meaning of all the words of an utterance but none of its grammar will understand most of the message, whereas another who knows all of the grammar and none of the words will understand very little if anything. (Lado 79)

This statement emphasises the importance of CONTENT WORDS over STRUCTURAL WORDS. It is true that of the two categories of words in the vocabulary of the English language the CONTENT WORDS form the major bulk and hence are known as the Major Word Classes. The STRUCTURAL WORDS are relatively smaller in number and are termed Minor Word Classes. Yet their significance cannot be under-rated especially in the context of teaching/gaining communicative competence in English as a second language. In teaching/learning the English language both content words and structural words carry equal importance. Learning one without the other can only result in partial and inadequate knowledge of the language.

The structural words are constituted by a finite system of grammatical category. The content words as the lexical
category exhibit infinite varieties. By virtue of their meaning potential content words increase in number day by day and gain new meanings or go into oblivion in tune with the changing world. In other words, structural words as grammatical items form a closed system while content words as lexical items belong to an open system. Structural words have very little possibility of substitution in an actual sentence. Whereas content words have numerous possibilities of substitution in a sentence. For example,

The feasibility of change in the programme...
The possibility of shift in the schedule...
The probability of alteration in the agenda...
Thus content words enter into open contrasts.

2.2 DESCRIPTION OF CONTENT WORDS

Content words, also known as FULL WORDS and LEXICAL WORDS and even as "picture words" (O'Conner 116) constituted by verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs, which are the major vehicles for meaning. Structural words, otherwise known as FORM WORDS, EMPTY WORDS, FUNCTION WORDS and GRAMMATICAL WORDS comprise of determiners, conjunctions, prepositions and pronouns which signal the grammatical organization of sentences. But the distinction between the two groups is not always clear cut since structural words are not totally devoid of meaning and content words also carry grammatical information. A division of these two
classes was drawn centuries ago in the Chinese grammatical tradition. The English grammarian Henry Sweet showed the distinction at the end of the nineteenth century and it was further strengthened in the 1950's by the American linguist Fries.

Structural words generally have less or no meaning. For example, *do* in 'They do not agree', has no meaning. Moreover structural words are more easily predictable in the contexts in which they occur. This is evident in the omission of structural words in news headlines, telegrams etc. and also in a child's utterance in the developmental stage of language learning.

It is evident that the difference between structural and content words is only a technical distinction, the actual basis for the difference being the distinction between grammar and lexicon of a language. The structural words when they have meaning, have a purely grammatical meaning and the content words have both lexical and grammatical meaning. For example, *child* and *children* belong to the same lexeme as *adult + human* and have the grammatical meaning of being singular and plural. Occasionally some structural words also form part of the lexical group.
2.3 CLASSIFICATION OF CONTENT WORDS

Fries, in his book, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* outlines a new way of grouping the four parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) into three classes of content words namely words 'for things', 'for actions' and 'for qualities'. He identifies specific distinctive features to further describe term. Among words for things he recognises *animate* (tramp, linguist) and *inanimate* things (pump, seat ), *relationship* (bride, teacher, uncle), *size* (splinter, chip, board), *shape* (mitten, glove), *age* (child, boy), *sex* (boy, girl) etc as distinguishing features. For action words he considers the *direction of the motion* (come, go) its *speed* (walk, run, saunter), its *duration* (glance, look, see), its *intensity* (call, shout, shriek), the *maker of the motion* (kick, punch, nod), the *position of the body that moves* (stand, lie, sit), the *medium in which the action takes place* etc. as the criteria for distinction. Words for qualities are judgments words with a two point scale of opposites or with
different points in degrees (cold, cool, warm, hot; cold, colder, coldest) or with great many points as in the case of colours with a wide spectrum.

2.4 LEXICOGRAPHERS' POINT OF VIEW IN PRESENTING VOCABULARY

Linguists classify and describe content words either according to the parts of speech (grammatical category) or according to what they stand for on the semantic plane (for things, action and quality). But in the dictionary entry lexicographers do not attempt to bring in any such grouping. A dictionary classifies words not according to their form or function but according to their lexical status: Words are divided into head words, derivatives and compound words. This is because, accessibility which is one of the major considerations in lexicography imposes severe restrictions on the design of the dictionaries. For the same reason all the words - both STRUCTURAL and CONTENT words - are ordered alphabetically together. It is the only form by which easy access to any word is assured. Leech's (1981) description of dictionary as the "store of the particular (i.e., ungeneralizable facts about a language)" (204) underlines the focus of the lexicographers.

The traditional general English lexicographer aims at presenting an inventory of the vocabulary of the language
and his scope is extensive in its approach. In contrast to this the pedagogical lexicographer's scope is more intensive in presenting information on the use of the words he chooses to enter. The compilers of learner's dictionaries view CONTENT WORDS as FREQUENT WORDS, RARE WORDS, TECHNICAL WORDS, CULTURE SPECIFIC WORDS etc. They deliberately delete very rare and technical words, consciously define culture specific words and carefully supply adequate information on the usage of frequent words along with their meanings. Very rare words are deleted because they do not find common use and are outside the orbit of the foreign learner's language use. Technical words are mostly avoided because they are also low frequency words that are specialised for specific requirements. For eg. parabola, meristematic and paradigm are technical words that are not indispensable in common use. Moreover technical words - when their need arises - can be learnt with comparative ease as they neither carry varied shades of meaning nor exhibit irregularity of form and never enter into idiomatic combinations or special grammatical construction. Often they are very unlike high frequency polysemy words. They are even described as "linguistically barren" and are called "encyclopaedic words" by Sweet (Cowie, Lexicography 137). Learner's dictionaries direct their attention on COMMON and HIGH FREQUENCY WORDS in order to explicate, disambiguate, illustrate and thus
reiterate meaning, use and usage with the ultimate aim to help the foreign/second language learners.

2.5 BASIS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE TREATMENT OF CONTENT WORDS IN THE FOUR LEARNER'S DICTIONARIES

The following major considerations form the basis for the analysis of the treatment of content words in the present work:

1. The essential linguistic information required for interpretation and production of the SEMANTIC, PRAGMATIC and GRAMMATICAL aspects of the language. i.e., THE REFERENCE NEEDS OF LEARNERS TO DECODE and ENCODE LINGUISTIC MESSAGES.

2. The quantum and the type of information presented in the learner's dictionaries. i.e., THE DETAILS SUPPLIED.

3. The knowledge of the method of presentation and the retrieval mechanism that the compilers expect from and supply to the users of the dictionaries. i.e., THE REFERENCE SKILLS REQUIRED OF THE LEARNERS.

4. Anticipation of the possible match between the Desired Effect of these compilations on the users as envisaged by the compilers and the effect they may have in the prevailing learning conditions. i.e., GAPS IN TRANSFER OF INFORMATION.

5. The comparative Merit/Demerit among the FOUR Dictionaries, i.e., Evaluation.
2.6 THE REFERENCE NEEDS OF LEARNERS

When a second language learner encounters a new vocabulary item, all that he requires at the outset is the meaning of the item so that this knowledge could contribute to the understanding of the sentence he has come across. Thus the search for the meaning starts from a context. The question the learner raises is:

What does this word mean here?

For the explication of the meaning he expects to find simple and familiar words that define, describe and demonstrate clearly. After comprehending the meaning the next step is to know how to use the word in his own expressions. The knowledge of a word entails the using of it. Thus a learner requires two important pieces of information on a new word:

Information on DECODING (for comprehension) and
Information on ENCODING (for production).

Information on DECODING has to enable the reader to interpret the specific meaning that he requires in a particular context. For instance, the word *counter* is used as a noun, verb and adjective and it has more than one meaning as noun. In the sentence,

Lydia wanted to *counter* her friend's achievement with her success,
the meaning of the word *counter* could be best traced when its function as a verb is known to the learner and the same must be specified in the dictionary. Illustrative examples of its use can assist in identifying the specific meaning and can also reinforce the meaning more effectively.

Information on ENCODING must provide necessary guidelines to use a word appropriately and accurately. For instance, in the same example cited above, the learner has to make a decision on choosing the right preposition to go with the verb *counter*. Is it *counter with* or *counter through* or *counter by*? He needs help to decide. In the sentence

_She was ___________ rewarded for her efforts,_

should the blank be filled by *handsomely* or *beautifully*? Again help is needed for the right choice. Doubt arises in formal writing as to which of the words in brackets will be more appropriate in the sentence,

_Fiction is poor ___________ (surrogate/substitute) for real experience._

A good learner's dictionary must supply guidance to such problems in production.

Both DECODING and ENCODING processes demand knowledge of the SEMANTIC, PRAGMATIC and GRAMMATICAL meaning of a word. The decoding/receptive process gets initiated from
the context and the encoding/productive process begins from making the right semantic option with pragmatic considerations for the context and works through grammatical structuring. Yet both the processes are interrelated and interdependent since understanding the meaning of a word is in the using of it and vice versa. It is also apparent that the meaning of a word in its entirety is all the three linguistically compartmentalized components—SEMANTICS, PRAGMATICS and GRAMMAR—of language. Their interrelatedness can be shown as follows:

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How something is (to be) said

SEMANTICS  PRAGMATICS  GRAMMAR
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2.6.1. SEMANTIC MEANING

What is (to be) said is determined by the speaker's purpose in communicating or what he means to convey. I.A. Richards holds the following view on meaning in language:

Whether we are active as in speech or writing, or passive as readers or listeners, the Total Meaning we are engaged with is almost always, a blend, a combination of several contributory meanings of different types. Language has not one but several tasks to perform simultaneously. (180)
Richards identifies 4 types of function and distinguishes 4 kinds of meaning namely **SENSE, FEELING, TONE** and **INTENTION**.

**Sense** - the something we say or hear.

**Feeling** - The speaker's and the hearer's feeling about that something.

**Tone** - The speaker has an attitude to his listener. He chooses words in recognition of his relation to the listener.

**Intention** - The speaker's aim - conscious or unconscious. "Frequently his intention operates through and satisfies itself in combination with the other functions." (Richards 180)

Richards' classification is with a psychological approach to meaning. G. Leech on a linguistic basis lists 7 types of meaning that are inclusive of the 4 kinds distinguished by Richards and are more extensive in their scope. They are

1. the **CONCEPTUAL MEANING** or the **DENOTATIVE CONTENT**, the ASSOCIATIVE MEANINGS that comprise,
LEAEE TYPES OF MEANING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. CONCEPTUAL MEANING or Sense</td>
<td>Logical, Cognitive or denotative content.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. CONNOTATIVE MEANING</td>
<td>What is communicated by virtue of what language refers to.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. SOCIAL MEANING</td>
<td>What is communicated of the social circumstances of language use.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. AFFECTIVE MEANING</td>
<td>What is communicated of the feelings and attitudes of the speaker/writer.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. REFLECTED MEANING</td>
<td>What is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression.</td>
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<td>6. COLLOCATIVE MEANING</td>
<td>What is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. THEMATIC MEANING</td>
<td>What is communicated by the way in which the message is organized in terms of order and emphasis.</td>
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(Leech, Semantics 23)

Leech (1981) argues that CONCEPTUAL MEANING or COGNITIVE MEANING is the central factor in linguistic communication. "Conceptual meaning forms an inextricable and essential part of what language is, such that one can
scarcely define language without referring to it" (12). Conceptual meaning has a complex and sophisticated organization with the underlying principles of CONTRASTIVENESS and STRUCTURE that are typical of the language system itself. The principle of contrastiveness can be illustrated by the following simple example: In defining the meaning of the words boy and woman focus on the following positive as well as negative facets are essential:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{boy} &= + \text{human} \\
&\quad + \text{male} (-\text{female}) \\
&\quad - \text{adult}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{woman} &= + \text{human} \\
&\quad - \text{male} \\
&\quad + \text{adult}
\end{align*}
\]

contrastiveness lies in defining a word to be this and not that, etc.

The second basic principle of conceptual meaning is STRUCTURE. The semantic structure is a network with options to choose from among the many words available in the meaning potential and with the restriction to use particular collocations. The structuring of the lexical system is expressed as follows by Kress (86) in Figure 8.

The taxonomic and the collocational relationships of the lexis represent the way language is organized respectively on the PARADIGMATIC (or selectional) and SYNTAGMATIC (or combinatory) axes of linguistic structure. At the lexical level the structure is reflected in
COLLOCATION and at the grammatical level in COLLIGATION (the relationship between grammatical categories such as article, noun and verb).

In DECODING the most important kind of information is the DENOTATIVE meaning. Indications of CONNOTATIVE meaning is also essential. Sometimes the denotative meaning of a lexeme may be specific to one national culture. For example, *pumpkin*, a well known vegetable has a different connotation in USA. Similar problems are posed by certain proper names such as *Washington*, *Pickwick*, *Shylock* etc. Leech explains the connotative meaning as

the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it refers to over and above its purely conceptual content. To a large extent the notion of 'reference' overlaps with conceptual meaning. (Leech, Semantics 12)

To illustrate:

the conceptual meaning of *woman* = + human - male + adult. Besides these contrastive features there is a multitude of additional non-criterial properties a referent - *woman* possesses. These constitute the connotative meaning. They include, characteristics that are physical (appearance), psychological (maternal instincts), social (gregarious) etc; some of the negative attributes such as
frail, prone to tears, cowardly etc; and the becoming qualities like gentle, compassionate, sensitive etc. The negative and positive attitudes mentioned are the 'putative properties' which may change from time to time.

In short connotative meaning is the real world experience one associates with an expression when one uses or hears it.

**DENOTATIVE** = what a word stands for.
**CONNOTATIVE** = what a word suggests or implies.

Connotative meaning is peripheral compared to conceptual meaning and that is why connotations are relatively unstable i.e., they vary considerably according to culture, historical period and the experience of the individual. Moreover connotative meaning is indeterminate and open-ended. While the conceptual meaning of a word or a sentence can be codified in terms of a limited set of symbols (i.e., it can be defined by means of a finite set of discrete features of meaning through componential analyses), connotative meaning cannot be codified. Its open-endedness is in the same way as our knowledge and beliefs about the universe are open-ended. Yet for interpreting the Semantic meaning of a word both the denotative and the connotative meanings are essential.
COLLOCATIVE MEANING. For the productive purpose of semantic meaning the knowledge of the collocation or the company a word keeps in a sentence is crucial. COLLOCATIVE MEANING is indicative of the co-occurrence of certain words. This determines the appropriateness of an expression. For eg. the word rancid collocates with butter and rotten collocates with eggs though both rancid and rotten denote the useless condition of the edible items. Similarly, though the words pretty and handsome share the common meaning of good-looking, these two words may be distinguished as different by the range of nouns with which they combine or collocate.

- pretty
  - girl
  - card
  - flower
  - dress
  - etc.

- handsome
  - man
  - salary
  - vessel
  - typewriter
  - etc.

Sometimes the ranges may overlap. There are a number of synonyms and quasi-synonyms that have a wider range of collocational possibilities. For the second language learner to gain proficiency in English, a knowledge of this important syntagmatic relationship has to be acquired by conscious effort. This is an area which is not dealt with systematically in dictionaries so far. The learner's dictionaries have begun to indicate the relationship.

POLYSEMY and HOMONYMY. Another important semantic feature of the English language is the concept of polysemy
or multiple meaning for a single word and homonymy - words with same form and different meanings. A word may have a single referent, or due to reasons that are intrinsic and extraneous to linguistic or logical considerations it may have multiples of meaning. Multiple meaning is considered to be a virtue and the strength of the language. Pun on words is possible only because of the multiplicity in meaning. Words with apparently opposite meanings exist in English.

Eg: apparent \(\leftarrow\) seeming, unreal
    clear
(v) crop \(\leftarrow\) cut (sb's hair)
    bear a crop (paddy, wheat etc.)
Sanction \(\leftarrow\) permission
    prevention, punishment

Ullman observes

Polysemy is an invaluable factor of economy and flexibility in language; what is astonishing is not that the machine occasionally breaks down, but that it breaks down so rarely... The main guarantee of its smooth working is the influence of the context. No matter how many meanings a word may have in the dictionary, there will be no confusion if only one of them can make sense in any given situation. (168)

HOMONYMY. Homonyms - words identical in spelling and pronunciation but different in origin and meaning often
cause problems when entering them in a dictionary. The lexicographers solve the problem in different ways either by following an existing lexicographical tradition or on the basis of their individual subjective ideas about meaning relationship. Malkhovski defines homonyms as words identical in at least one of the components of the plane of expression, i.e., coinciding in sound and/or in spelling (if only one of the inflexional forms) — and at the same time, differing significantly in at least one of the components of the plane of content, i.e., in lexical and/or grammatical semantics. (Malakhovski 37)

Malkhovski classifies homonyms into two broad categories namely FORMAL and SEMANTIC. Formal homonyms can be (1) purely phonetic or homophones (i.e., identical only in pronunciation but not in spelling), (2) purely graphic or homographs (i.e., identical only in spelling but not in pronunciation) and (3) phonetico-graphic (i.e., identical in spelling as well as in pronunciation). Semantic homonyms also form three sub types: (1) purely lexical homonyms (i.e., they differ only in lexical but not in grammatical semantics) (2) purely grammatical (i.e., they differ only in grammatical but not in lexical semantics) and (3) lexicogrammatical (those that differ in the lexical and grammatical semantics).
Each pair of homonymous words called *homopairs* belongs at the same time to one formal and one semantic subtype of homonyms. For example, the homopair

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TAIL [teil] n 'part of animal's body...' 
TALE [teil] n 'story'.
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belongs to both the subtype of *homophones* and the type of *purely lexical homonyms*. The pair

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USE [ju:z] vb. 'employ'
USE [ju:s] n. 'the act of using'.
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belongs to the subtypes of *homographs* and that of *purely grammatical homonyms*.

In the methods of lexicographical treatment of homonyms only graphic homonyms (i.e., both homographs and phonetic graphic ones) will be considered. The purely phonetic homonyms will naturally occupy different parts of the dictionary as they are arranged in the alphabetical order. Linguists try to assign the status of polysemy or homonymy to words having the same form and different meanings. In a dictionary multiple meanings must be handled with a more practical approach. For, the learners have to locate and identify the exact meaning of a word they need from the dictionary entry for a particular context. For instance, in the sentence

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Don't *bank* on his help for your success,
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the learner has to comprehend the meaning rely on from among the different meanings of the word bank as a verb as well as a noun. How the dictionaries grade and arrange the different meanings of a single lexical item and how they distinguish homonyms will be dealt with in the present work. Usually the parts of speech labels and the illustrative examples of use that provide a specific context go a long way in helping the learners to locate the exact meaning they require.

2.6.2 PRAGMATIC MEANING

PRAGMATIC MEANING takes the context into account. Pragmatic considerations comprise the speaker/hearer relationships, the mode (Register) of utterance and the specific purpose or desire (to command, to request, to declare etc.). The context determines the particular use of the word and refers to the user.

Leech includes Pragmatic meaning under SOCIAL MEANING and AFFECTIVE MEANING. The Social meaning comprises variation according to:

DIALECT (The language of a geographical region or of a social class)

TIME (The language of the eighteenth century etc.)

PROVINCE (Language of law, of Science, of Advertising etc.)

STATUS (Polite, colloquial, slang etc. language)
MODALITY  (Language of memoranda, lectures, jokes etc.)

SINGULARITY  (The style of Dickens, of Hemingway etc.)

To cite a few examples:

The British autumn is American fall. Shakespearean natural denoted madness; but it has lost that meaning in present day English and has been rated as archaic. Litigation belongs to the Register of law and program belongs to computer instruction.

The General word rabbit is bunny in baby language,

food is grub is slang,
throw is literary and biblical language and
home is residence in formal expression.

Thus within a single language there is a wide range of style differentiation and variation.

AFFECTIVE meaning is indicative of the attitude of the Speaker and it is expressed through varying stress and intonation to express happiness, approval, disapproval, anger, etc.

Indicating the social meaning is attempted in the learner's dictionaries though more systematic references are needed yet. The affective meaning on the other hand has to be inferred mostly from the context.
The seventh type of meaning namely THEMATIC MEANING is related to what is communicated by the way in which a speaker or writer organizes the message in terms of ordering, focus and emphasis. For eg. the use of active and passive construction of sentences carry the same conceptual content. (Leech, Semantics 19)

Yet they present different connotations or communicative value. "Please don't smoke here" may be a request. "You are requested not to smoke here" carries an element of warning against defaulters. Thus thematic meaning may be defined to be mainly a matter of choice between alternative grammatical construction to emphasise in a different way. Second language learners require the knowledge of the use of the passive construction and active according to the contexts that demand them. Learner's dictionaries indicate these differences in usage though differences in use may be too vast to record.

2.6.3 GRAMMATICAL MEANING

The analysis of the meaning of a word with reference to its SEMANTIC and PRAGMATIC organisation will be still incomplete without the consideration of its grammar. The meaning gets its full significance only when its grammatical meaning is also taken into account. For words must be combined into larger units and grammar encompasses the complex set of rules
specifying such combination. Meaning relations in the language system are the business of SEMANTICS, the study of meaning and Semantics therefore has relevance equally within lexicology and within grammar. (Quirk et al. 12)

The interconnectedness of lexis and grammar is expressed by Halliday:

Within this (lexicogrammatical stratum) there is no hard-and-fast language is that the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar and the more specific meanings through the vocabulary. (Halliday and Hasan 134)

In using a noun the user has to be aware of the singular and plural use of the noun; the concrete and abstract nature of the noun in order to use it as countable or uncountable; the type of determiners that precede the noun, the type of adjectives that qualify it; the derivatives etc.

In using a verb the learner has to be sure of the tense system, the verb patterns etc. to use the verb accurately. The use of active and passive constructions proves to be crucial in certain contexts.

To use the adjectives and adverbs, the distinction between the two with reference to their form and function must be clearly understood in the first place. Their
appropriate use as gradable or otherwise must also be discerned. The distinct forms of the degrees of comparison and the correct usage must be clearly understood.

It is true that learners are to be allowed to make mistakes while learning in order to gain fluency prior to accuracy. But when a learner seeks help for accurate expression dictionaries should be in a position to extend it. Thus often the dictionaries are expected to provide a neat package of language information. But yet, the dictionary should not close the learning process. It must have the ingenuity to help the learner to generalise the features of the language and to promote creativity in him. The lexicographer has to exploit the previous knowledge of learner and must anticipate and cater to the potential problems the learner may encounter in learning new words. A good dictionary has to synthesise the guidances to learn and use a word in all possible contexts. Its real efficacy lies in teaching the learner the strategies to use its contents optimally and in leading him on to the stage of devising strategies of his own more accurately to find the right meaning and use even without using the dictionary.
2.7 PRESENTATION OF THE SEMANTIC COMPONENTS IN THE FOUR DICTIONARIES

The factors that contribute to the efficacy of the presentation of meaning are the means used; the methods adopted in devising the means; and the mode of writing. The means include the use of pictures, definitions, synonyms, antonyms illustrative examples etc. The methods comprise analysis (both hierarchical and componential) information etc. The mode of writing pertains to the style of presentation and the selection of words (metalanguage) to define and describe the target word (object language).

2.7.1 DEFINITION

To enunciate meaning dictionaries employ definition as a major device. DEFINITION is considered to be the "meat of lexicography profession." Though pictorial representation for a few concrete nouns is attempted in OALD and LDOCE, presenting language information through word picture is the main aim of all the learner's dictionaries. Words are analysed by decomposing them into their lexical components and are assigned to their position in the hierarchical order existing among words of the related field. The precision with which these are done determines clarity of meaning. Too precise a definition can interfere with the understanding as much as too vague an expression. It is hard to decide where exactly the dividing line has to be drawn. One criticism levelled against lack of precision in
dictionaries is with reference to their frequent use of vague terms such as 'etc', 'more or less', 'especially' and 'usually'. But the counter-argument is that "the use of such vague terms is unavoidable, because meaning simply cannot be pinned down with absolute precision" (Hurford and Heasley 183).

Besides being optimally precise, definitions are to be economical, that is in minimum words maximum information is expected out of definitions. Naturally definitions tend to be compressed, complex and at times too involved. But in pedagogical dictionaries, limitations in learner's linguistic skills are taken into account and as a consequence learner's dictionaries pay special attention to the metalanguage they use and strive to make it as easy and simple as possible. This is evident when the meanings of the words counter and ambush as found in the General Dictionary ("Shorter Oxford English Dictionary") and the four learner's dictionaries are compared: The words are taken from the following sentences -

Mrs. Brown wanted to counter Miss Stephen's victory.
The villagers were lying in ambush for the approach of the tiger.
It can be observed from the definitions in the different dictionaries that the Shorter Oxford Dictionary is rather brief and thereby vague while the learner's dictionaries tend to be more elaborate by including the design of the hiding—in order to attack. This results in an explicit elucidation of the meaning.

All the four dictionaries make use of the taxonomic relationships such as superordination, cohyponymy, synonymy etc. to pin down the meaning. For eg. brute is related to its superordinate term animal; splinter is defined as a part
of a whole; and saunter is referred to as the variant form of the common term walk.

**OALD**

brute: animal especially a large or fierce one.

splinter: small thin sharp piece of wood, metal, glass etc. broken off a large piece.

saunter: walk in a leisurely way; stroll.

**LDOCE**

brute: an animal especially a large one.

splinter: a small sharp pointed piece, esp of wood broken off something.

saunter: to walk in an unhurried way and esp in a confident manner.

**CELD**

brute: an animal, especially one that you feel sorry for.

splinter: a splinter is a very thin sharp piece of wood, glass, metal etc. which has been broken off from a large piece.

saunter: If you saunter somewhere you walk there in a casual and unhurried way = stroll.

**WNCD**

brute: of or relating to beasts.

splinter: a thin piece split or rent off lengthwise.

saunter: to walk about in an idle or leisurely manner.

However, among the definitions in the four learner's dictionaries it is often noticed that the definitions in Webster Dictionary involve more difficult words and therefore become less clear than the other three. Eg. The definition of the word microcosm.
thing or being regarded as representing the Universe, or mankind on a small scale; miniature representation (of a system, etc.).

Something small and self-contained that represents all the qualities, activities etc. of something larger.

A microcosm is a place, a society or an activity that has all the main features of a much larger place, society or activity, so that it seems like a miniature version.

a little world; esp: man or human nature that is an epitome of the world or the Universe.

For a learner who seeks the meaning of *microcosm* the word *epitome* in Webster's definition will be equally difficult to grasp.

Similarly in defining *epilepsy*:

disease of the nervous system that causes a person to fall unconscious (often with violent uncontrolled movements of the body).

a disease of the brain which causes sudden attacks of uncontrolled violent movement and loss of consciousness.

epilepsy is a brain condition which causes a person suddenly to lose consciousness and sometimes to have violent fits.

any of various disorders marked by disturbed electrical rhythms of the central nervous system and typically manifested by convulsive attacks usu. with clouding of consciousness.

The definition in WNND reads more like a medical journal and will make it very difficult for the learners to get at the meaning.
By and large it has been observed that the language of explication in Webster's demands certain higher standards of command in language from the learners in order to comprehend its meanings. Some more examples to attest this fact are the definitions of *spin* as a verb and as a noun and the word *paranoia*. These definitions are far from simple and they use words (italicised in the definitions) that are not definitely from the known vocabulary of the learners:

Spin *v₂*: to form a thread by *extruding* a viscous hardening fluid.

Spin *n 1b*: the whirling motion *imparted* (as to a ball or top) by spinning.

Paranoia  a *psychosis* characterized by *systematized delusions of persecution* or *grandeur* usu without *hallucination*.

CELD. Though the compilers of the CELD claim that they make their entries easy by giving full length sentences in simple English, many of their sentences may pose problems to the students by their relative and conditional clause structures. Moreover the explication of meaning is often made through hypothetical conditions. The complicated nature of some of the CELD definitions can be understood by comparing the meaning of *embolden* and *infer* with the OALD's definitions.
OALD embolden: give courage or confidence.

infer: reach (an opinion) from facts of reasoning; conclude sth.

CELD embolden: If a fact or event emboldens someone, it increases their self confidence.

infer: If you infer that something is the case, you decide that it is true on the basis of information that you already have.

Similarly the definitions of the words glut and misgiving as in CELD and LDOCE are compared here.

CELD glut: ^1^1 a glut is a situation in which there is too much of something, especially goods or raw materials, so that not all of it can be sold or used.

misgiving: If you have misgivings about something that is being proposed or done, you feel that it is not quite right, and that it may have undesirable consequences.

LDOCE glut: ^1^1 a larger supply than is necessary.

misgiving: (a feeling of) doubt, distrust, or fear, esp. about a future event.

It may be noticed that the definitions found in OALD and LDOCE are crisp, simple and straight compared to those in CELD.

It has also been observed that among the definitions of OALD and LDOCE those of the latter are simpler, direct and are often found to have the potential for facilitating comprehension better than the OALD's definitions. No doubt, the OALD's definitions from their long tradition of dictionary compiling are crisp and compact. Yet, learners
with average and below average linguistic skills may find LDOCE's definitions to be easier than those of OALD.

**OALD**

- **rehabilitate**: restore(sb) to a normal life by retraining, medical treatment etc. esp. after imprisonment or illness.
- **veneer**: Superficial appearance (of politeness etc.) covering or disguising the true nature of sb/sth.
- **engross**: occupy all the time or attention of(sb).
- **bigamy**: marrying a person when still legally married to someone else.

**LDOCE**

- **rehabilitate**: to make (a person) able to live a healthy useful, or active life again, esp. after being ill or in prison.
- **veneer**: an outer appearance which hides the unpleasant reality.
- **engross**: to fill completely the time and attention of; ABSORB.
- **bigamy**: the state of being married to two people at the same time.

Dictionary definitions must also be wary of mixing too much of encyclopaedic information. In the following examples it may be noted that Webster dictionary entry is superfluous in its encyclopaedic information:

**OALD**

- **Walrus**: large sea animal living in the Arctic regions, similar to a seal but having two long tusks.
- **Cuckoo**: migratory bird with a call that sounds like its name, that leaves its eggs in the nests of other birds.
LDOCE  Walrus: a large sea-animal like a very large SEAL with two long teeth (TUSKS) standing out from the face and pointing downwards.

Cuckoo: a grey European bird that lays its eggs in other birds' nests and has a call that sounds like its name.

CELD  Walrus: A Walrus is an animal which lives in the sea and looks like a large seal with coarse whiskers and two long teeth pointing down. Walruses are found mainly in the Arctic region.

Cuckoo: a largely grayish brown European bird (Cuculus conorus) that is a parasite given to laying its eggs in the nests of the birds which hatch them and rear the offspring; broadly any of a large family (Cuculidae of the order Cuculliformes) to which this bird belongs.

WNND  Walrus: a large marine mammal (Odobenus rosmarus) with two ivory tusks that is related to the seals, is found in Arctic seas, feeds mostly or bivalve mollusks and has long been a source of food and other materials for maritime Eskimo peoples.

2.7.2 Examples

One of the salient features of learner's dictionaries is the use of example phrases or sentences to illustrate meaning. Examples go a long way in supplementing and reinforcing the meaning that has been stated in the definitions. Besides that they illustrate the grammatical patterns of usage and collocation. The more crucial role of examples is in providing the context by which a specific
meaning can be distinguished when a word has more than one meaning. The context also helps in identifying the register and the stylistic variation to some extent.

By helping to distinguish particular meaning from among related meanings and by clarifying individual meanings, examples are relevant for learner’s decoding or receptive purposes. Illustrating grammatical patterns, typical collocations, registers and stylistic levels etc. help in production or encoding. For instance a learner is confronted by a new word *drained* as in the following sentence: *I sat there drained of feeling.* When he looks up the word in the dictionary he has to choose from 4 shades of meanings with examples (italicised) given along the entry for the verb form of the word: (From OALD).

1. (Cause liquid) to flow away: *All the blood drained from his face*, eg. on hearing bad news. *The bath-water slowly drained away*. The mechanic *drained all the oil from the engine*.

2. empty (a glass, etc.): *drain one's glass dry*.

3. Cause something to become dry as liquid flows away: *leave the dishes to drain*. *drain swamps and marshes*. Land must be well drained for some crops.

4. make sb/sth weaker, poorer etc. by gradually using up his/its strength, money etc.: *feel drained of energy*. *a country drained of its manpower*.

In the first place, the examples given at No. 4 help the learner to fix the exact meaning he requires. Secondly, as
the learner goes through the different uses of the word in various contexts given under the other three numbers not only can he grasp the total meaning but he can also learn the grammatical association that the word enters into: such as drained from; drained away; drained and drained of. The validity of this point may be evident when these entries are compared with the WNNCD entries. The latter makes limited or partial use of examples: Egs. are enclosed within <angular brackets>.

```
drain 1. FILTER 2a: to draw off b: to cause the c: to
(liquid) gradual dis- exhaust
gradually or appearance of physically
completely or emotion- tionally
<-ed all the water out>
```

From this entry the learner may be able to comprehend the meaning but may not get much information for encoding.

The examples found in OALD and LDOCE are made-up expressions that are specially designed to bring out the meaning more clearly. Whereas the examples given by CELD are picked up from the actual utterances from various contexts. The preference for the invented examples by lexicographers is with the strong belief that in the interests of the learners they can be designed to include syntactic and lexical details that throw light on the meaning and the use of the word at hand. Choosing examples
from authentic texts is also in the interests of the students. But it is based on the hope that presenting natural language will be more reliable. The Chief Editor Sinclair defends CELD's method:

We expect these examples (i.e., those drawn from actual texts) to do a quite different job from invented eg's... They support the explanations and they illustrate usage. They provide a reliable guide for speaking and writing in the English of today. In contrast, invented eg's are really part of the explanations. They have no independent authority or reason for their existence and they are constructed to refine the explanations and in many cases to clarify the explanations. They give no reliable guide to composition in English and would be very misleading if applied to that task. They do not say 'This is how the word is used', but rather 'This will help you to understand the sense'...Usage cannot be invented, it can only be recorded. (Qtd in Hartmann, What we Don't Know 57-58)

These claims seem to pose a serious challenge to the existing EFL lexicography with fairly long tradition. Hartmann feels that the claims of CELD "give an incomplete and distorted view of the respective roles of 'invented' and 'recorded' language in learner's dictionaries". (What we Don't Know 58) He expresses apprehension over the conjectures that are yet to be proved in practice.
CELD  the desire to pre-empt possible moves by one super power.

Once again inadequacy in context description is pronounced in CELD.

Though Hartmann supports invented examples, he also warns against the "trap of sacrificing linguistic naturalness to explanatory fullness". He cites an example sentence given under forestall in the 1st edition of LDOCE:

forestall... the thieves arranged to steal the woman's jewels, but her servant girl forestalled them by running away with the jewels herself. The sentence which it describes is contrived; and the definite article, whose use early on in a sentence usually denotes persons or objects that are assumed to be known (or 'given') have appears to be introducing them for the time. (What we Don't Know 59)

However in the second edition (LDOCE) the example has been changed as follows: "We forestalled any attempt to steal the jewels by having them moved to a safer place".

Hartmann points out another instance of sacrificing naturalness to economy in the 2nd edition of OALD at the entry on the word operational.

Operational ... when will the newly designed airliner be operational?
Here operational which has end focus, will be interpreted as 'new' information. Conversely, the newly designed aircraft is in a position in association with 'given' information (information that the reader is assumed to possess already). Yet modification of that initial noun phrase is more characteristic of new than of given. Why then should it be modified at all? In normal discourse, the fact that the aircraft was newly designed would probably be established in an earlier clause thus: 'It's a newly designed aircraft. When will it become operational?' But this would have given an unacceptably long example. To save space OALD packs the information into one sentence, thus sacrificing naturalness to economy. (What we Don’t Know 59)

The 4th edition of OALD which is under study presently makes use of less complicated examples:

The telephone is fully operational again... The squadron is not yet operational.

So far the invented examples seem to have an edge over the authentic text.

2.7.3 SYNONYMS

Synonyms and antonyms contribute in a big way to the understanding of meaning. Dictionaries make use of these devices in bringing out the meaning. Yet no two synonyms are totally equal. Since definitions are often circular in
nature, establishing the meaning relations between synonyms is essential for a second language learners receptive and productive activities. Learner's dictionaries do make efforts to distinguish the subtle shades of differences by pointing at the variation in usage and collocational range. For instance along with the entry on happen OALD records a NOTE ON USAGE for happen, occur and take place:

Happen and occur refer to accidental or unplanned events; occur is more formal than happen: The accident happened/occurred at about 9.30. Happen can also indicate one event resulting from another: What happened when you told him the news? (i.e., what did he do?) Take place suggests that an event is/was planned: The funeral took place on 24th April at 3 p.m.

LDOCE presents the USAGE of the synonyms big, large and great at the entry on big.

1 Big and large are both common when talking about actual size, though large is slightly more formal: That shirt doesn't fit me; it's too big/large. 2 Great means 'famous' or 'important' when used of people: He's a great man. When used of things, great (lit) means "very large and impressive". The great ship sailed into the harbour. 3 Great (not big or large) can be used with uncountable nouns: She showed great courage. 4 Notice that large (not big) is used in the expressions, a large amount/number/quantity.
CELD makes a very liberal use of synonyms by regularly placing them in the Extra column alongside almost every word. But it does not overtly distinguish the meaning differentiations, collocational variability or usage patterns.

WNNCD also gives Semantic information on synonyms. Eg: It distinguishes the related words material, physical, corporeal, phenomenal, sensible and objective at the entry for material.

Syn MATERIAL, PHYSICAL, CORPOREAL, PHENOMENAL, SENSIBLE, OBJECTIVE mean of or belonging to actuality. MATERIAL implies formation out of tangible matter; used in contrast with spiritual or ideal it may connote the mundane, crass or grasping; PHYSICAL applies to what is perceived directly by the senses and may contrast with mental, spiritual or imaginary; CORPOREAL implies having the tangible qualities of a body such as shape, size or resistance to force; PHENOMENAL applies to what is perceived through the senses rather than by intuition or rational deduction; SENSIBLE stresses the capability of readily or forcibly impressing the senses; OBJECTIVE may stress material or independent existence apart from a subject perceiving it.

With reference to synonyms, OALD and LDOCE USAGE NOTES on meaning relations as well as usage are found to be more helpful to the learner than the use of synonyms in CELD and the special note on the chosen synonyms in WNNCD.
2.7.4 ORDERING OF MEANING

Treatment of Polysemy and homonymy in the FOUR dictionaries

Rosamund Moon states,

Lexicographers are concerned with theoretical issues such as polysemy in a way that linguists are not. To linguists, polysemy is a phenomenon that may be linked with homonymy on the one hand and metaphor on the other. It is an abstract issue of whether or not a given item is ambiguous: that is, whether it can be interpreted in more than one way, and if so, how related these meanings are. If they are unrelated, then the item may be considered homonymic, if closely related, then one may be an extension of or metaphor for the other. Thus page = 'sheet of paper', and page = 'retainer' are homonymic, whereas page = 'the writing on a sheet of paper' may be seen as an extension of page = 'sheet of paper'. (87)

Thus the linguists interest lies in assigning the right status to the word.

A lexicographer has to deal with the issue of homonymy and metaphor at a very basic level. The lexicographers task in handling polysemy and homonymy is to assign the right place for them in the dictionary. R.H. Robins distinguishes the following four sets of criteria that are available for lexicographical guidance in identifying separate words and separate meanings of a single word: "formal grammatical
differences, etymology, semantic distinctiveness and collocational sets". (Robins 56) The individual dictionaries make their own subjective choice from these criteria.

In OALD and LDOCE homonyms are entered separately with different numbering. Polysemous words whose meanings have the same central core are grouped under the same entry and the different senses are arranged from the most basic to the highly extended meanings. In CELD the distinction between homonymy and polysemy of a word is not distinguished that way. Instead, continuous numbers are given by putting the multiple meanings under a single entry. WNNCD with its etymological thrust assigns separate numbers to homonyms.

For example the entry of the word page may be compared:

OALD page¹ n 1(a) one side of a sheet of paper in a book, magazine etc: read a few pages of a book. You’ll find the quotation on page 35

(b) this sheet of paper itself: several pages have been torn out of the book, episode or period of history that might be written about in a book: a glorious page of English history. > page v [Tn] number the page of (sth) page² (also pay/boy) n (a) (Ye bell boy) boy or young man, usu in uniform, employed in a hotel or club to carry luggage, open doors for people etc. (b) boy attendant of a person of rank or a bride.

> page v [Tn] call the name of (Sb) over a loud speaker (eg. in an airport) in order to give him a message.
page\(^1\) \(n\) \(^1\)one side or both sides of a sheet of paper in a book, newspaper etc.: Turnover; there is a picture on the next page./ Turn to page 44./ Someone has torn a page out of this book ...  

\(^2\)lit. an important event or period: These years will be remembered as some of the finest pages in our country's history.

page\(^2\) \(n\) also page boy \(a\) a boy servant in a hotel, club etc. usu. uninformed \(b\) a boy attendant on the BRIDE at a wedding. \(^2\)a boy in former times who was in training to be a KNIGHT (noble soldier)

\(^3\)now rare a boy in service to a person of high rank.

page\(^3\) \(v\) \([T]\) (in a public place) to call aloud for (someone who is wanted for some reason) esp. through a LOUDSPEAKER. I couldn't find my friend at the airport so I had her paged.

page. pages, paging, paged. \(^1\)A page is \(^1\)one side of one of the pieces of paper in a book, magazine or newspaper, usually with a number printed at the top or bottom. Eg. For details of how pensions will be increased, see page 16...

\(^2\)one of the pieces of paper in a book, magazine, or newspaper Eg. Ellen aimlessly turned the pages of her magazine.

\(^2\)You can refer to an important event or period of time as a page of history; a literary use.

EG... a glorious page in our history.

3 When someone employed in a hotel, a large shop, an airport, etc. pages a particular person, they call out that person's name, sometimes using a loudspeaker system, in order to attract his or her attention and give him or her a message. EG. Paging Peter Smith. Would you go to the reception please.
4 In former times a page was a young boy who was a knight's servant and was learning to be a knight.

5 A page is also the same as a page-boy: See page-boy

WNND

1 page n: a youth being trained for the medieval rank of knight and in the personal service of a knight: a youth attendant on a person of rank esp. in the medieval periods

b: a boy serving as an honorary attendant at a formal function (as a wedding)

2 page vt paged, paging 1: to wait on or serve in the capacity of a page. 2: to summon by repeatedly calling out the name of.

3 page n: One of the leaves of a publication or manuscript; also: a single side of one of these leaves...

4 page vb paged, paging to number or mark the pages...

CELD gives the following reason for its ignoring homonymy:

Because access to an item is through its orthographic form and because etymological homonymy depends on knowledge that is not available to the dictionary user before he or she locates the word in the dictionary, it was decided to ignore homonymy completely when compiling the database. There are therefore single entries for words such as page, bank, ear, can, row, may and lie, regardless of the number of roots.

It is interesting to notice the difference in the entries of page in OALD, LDOCE and WNNCD. In the first two dictionaries, page in the sense of a 'sheet of paper' is
recorded first, based on the frequency of its use in the present day English. Whereas in WNNCD priority is given to the sense 'retainer' on the basis of etymological considerations.

Another important difference noticed in LDOCE is that page, the verb form is given separate entry by treating the sense 'to summon someone' synchronically. OALD and WNNCD retain its diachronic association and hence OALD records page\textsuperscript{v} as a derivative of page\textsuperscript{2} (retainer) and WNNCD groups it under page along with 'to serve as a page'.

From the pedagogical point of view distinguishing the different meanings will be complete only when the context of use is made clear. As Rosamund Moon remarks: "Context restricts interpretation and thereby resolves ambiguity. Meaning is the product of context". (88)

So when the dictionaries provide illustrative examples with appropriate contexts along with the definitions, the distinctions in meaning become very clear. The individual merits of the FOUR dictionaries in supplying examples is discussed under the subheading EXAMPLES previously in the same chapter.
2.8 PRESENTATION OF THE PRAGMATIC MEANING

The manifestation of the meaning of a lexical item is in its actual use. Use determines the meaning of a word as much as the meaning assigns a particular use to a word. But the ultimate deciding factor for the use and the subsequent meaning of an expression is the context. As has been already mentioned words are used according to the speaker/hearer relationships (such as superior and subordinate; teacher and student; friends; relatives; family members etc.), the purpose (such as to command, request, announce etc.); the register (such as a scientific treatise, register of law, medicine, literature etc.) and the style of expressions (such as formal, informal/colloquial, slang, literary etc.). The pragmatic meaning is conveyed through the appropriate use of words in these different contexts. In assessing the language ability of an individual, appropriateness of an expression carries as much weightage as its accuracy.

It is evident that the second language learners need to know the particular use of a word, the suitable context for it and the appropriate usage along with the Semantic meaning assigned to the word. The learner's dictionaries adopt different methods to present pragmatic meaning in order to sensitize the learners to a fuller understanding of the context, the use and the usage of words. Information on
pragmatic meaning will be useful for learner's productive activities as it also ensures comprehension.

OALD and LDOCE are more elaborate in devising specific means to bring out the pragmatic aspects of the lexis. CELD supplies the pragmatic meaning in or along with its explanatory definitions. Some of the uses are indicated in the extra column, and in the examples. Eg. firearm/.../, firearms. A firearm is a gun, especially a pistol, Eg. He got a fourteen year sentence for illegal possession of firearms. Sometimes the examples implicitly specify the use and this method in comparison with the method of OALD and LDOCE may be less useful to the learners as they have to use the inductive method of inferring some of the uses. Eg.

OALD  evict: [esp. passive]- sb (from sth) remove (a tenant) from a house or land, esp with the support of the law: They were evicted from their flat for not paying the rent.

CELD  to evict some-one means to officially force them to leave a house that they are living in or a piece of land that they are occupying, because they have broken a law or contract. EG...attempts to evict families from their homes...Being a good tenant, he can't be evicted... Indians have been evicted from their traditional lands.

Here the OALD's guidance of common use - "esp. passive" their houses...Being a - may be very helpful for the learner's productive activities. But a CELD user has to draw this information from the unspecified examples.
WNMCD's help in this area seems to be very little except for indicating archaic expressions, since its major thrust is on etymology.

Eg. for comparison:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OALD</td>
<td>esteem v:</td>
<td>(fml) [not used in the continuous tenses].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pave v:</td>
<td>¹[esp passive]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pavement n:</td>
<td>(Brit) (US Sidewalk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reserved adj:</td>
<td>(of a person or his character)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sweat-shop:</td>
<td>(derog)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Syndrome:</td>
<td>¹(medical) ²(fig)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDOCE</td>
<td>esteem v:</td>
<td>fml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pave v:</td>
<td>¹usu pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pavement n:</td>
<td>BrE// Sidewalk AmE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reserved adj:</td>
<td>(typical of people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sweat-shop:</td>
<td>derog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Syndrome:</td>
<td>¹tech ²infml</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CELD</td>
<td>esteem v:</td>
<td>an old-fashioned and formal use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pave v:</td>
<td>USU PASS (given in the EXTRA COLUMN)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pavement v:</td>
<td>A pavement is in British English a path with a hard surface by the side of a street. (given in the extra column = sidewalk) - Am. use of sidewalk not indicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>reserved</td>
<td>someone who is reserved keeps their feelings hidden and does not like to show other people what they are really thinking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sweat-shop:</td>
<td>used showing disapproval.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The common means used by these dictionaries to express the pragmatic sense are LABELS, STATEMENTS (along with the definition), USAGE NOTES and LANGUAGE NOTES.

2.8.1 LABELS

Labels are the most economical devices since they are mostly used in the abbreviated forms, such as Br.E for British English, fml for formal, usu. for usually etc. Labels are used to indicate:

a) Regional variation (Br.E., Am.E., Aust.E. etc)
b) The Style differentiation (furl, infml, sl., arch. etc.)
c) What the word pertains to (objects, persons, abstracts, ideas etc)
d) Intention or Attitude of the speaker (derog, humor, approv. etc.)
e) Register (law, tech, medicine etc.)
f) Stylistic distinctions (fig., phr.v., idm. etc.)
2.8.1a Regional Variation

OALD and LDOCE make use of labels to show regional variation in the use of a particular expression. CELD and WNNCD include this information along with the definition of the word. CELD makes use of its extra column to show this.

Egs.

OALD
autumn: (Brit) (US fall)
lift: (Brit) (US elevator)

LDOCE
autumn: Br.E///also fall AmE
lift: Br.E///elevator AmE

CELD
autumn: = fall (Regional use - not indicated)
lift: = elevator (Regional use - not indicated)

WNNCD
autumn: called also fall. (Regional use - not indicated)
lift: 10b Chiefly Brit: ELEVATOR

OALD and LDOCE are explicit in showing the variants as British and American at the respective entries i.e., at the entry for both the variants. But CELD and WNNCD are incomplete in this regard. Neither CELD nor WNNCD overtly distinguish autumn as British. But they just provide fall as a synonym. However at the entry for fall CELD records its American identity. But WNNCD once again states AUTUMN as a synonym without marking its regional identity.

OALD
fall: (US) = AUTUMN
elevator: (US) = LIFT
There is a similar treatment for lift in the first three dictionaries. WNNCD marks lift as British.

When there are such distinct variations, for the benefit of learners, it will be the best arrangement to show the British and American use at the entries of both the variants - as found in OALD and LDOCE. Some more British and American pairs of words that get similar treatment are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>British</th>
<th>American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>taxi</td>
<td>cab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>platform</td>
<td>sidewalk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>highway</td>
<td>freeway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post box</td>
<td>mail box</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nappy</td>
<td>diaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parcel</td>
<td>package</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rubber</td>
<td>eraser etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
South African, Australian, New Zealand, Indian and Pakistani words are also distinguished in the first three dictionaries.

2.8.1b The Style Differentiation

It is crucial to know the scale of formality or informality of an expression in order to use the expression in a specific context. Learners dictionaries attempt to show this in a limited way. Much is left to the ingenuity of the learners to infer from the texts/books they read.

OALD mandatory: (fml)
pep: (infml)
perfidious: (fml)
rendezvous: -
riven: (fml or rhe)
to intoxicate: (fml)
tonation: -

LDOCE mandatory: fml
pep: infml
perfidious: fml esp lit
rendezvous: -
riven: fml
intoxicate: tech
intonation: esp tech
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary</th>
<th>mandatory: -</th>
<th>pep: an informal word</th>
<th>perfidious: a literary word</th>
<th>rendezvous: a rather formal word</th>
<th>riven: an old fashioned or formal word</th>
<th>intoxicate: a formal word</th>
<th>intonation: -</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CELD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNNCD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WNNCD does not bother to show the style differentiation. Among the other three dictionaries there is no uniformity in the presentation. For example at the entry for rendezvous only CELD mentions it as a formal word while OALD and LDOCE choose to ignore it; perfidious is shown as *formal* in OALD, *formal, especially literary* in LDOCE and as a *literary word* in CELD. By and large it has been observed that the indication of formality or informality of a word has not been approached systematically. Lexicographers use their individual
discretion to label an expression to be formal, informal, etc. It will be better to develop and adopt uniform policy among the dictionaries to study and present this useful information.

2.8.1c What the Word Pertains to

This is another very useful pragmatic information for both reception and production, though learner's dictionaries are not uniform in presenting it:

**OALD**
- *moth eaten:* -
- *taxi:* (of an aircraft)
- *tasty:* -
- *laudable:* eg. a laudable ambition, endeavour, enterprise etc.
- *irascible:* (of a person)
- *preen:* (of a bird)
- *scold:* -
- *prefabricated:* (a building, ship, etc.)

**LDOCE**
- *moth eaten:* ¹(of cloth)
- *taxi:* (of a plane)
- *tasty:* (not usu. of sweet food)
- *laudable:* (esp. of behaviour, actions etc.)
- *irascible:* (of a person)
- *preen:* (of a bird)
- *scold:* (old-fash)
- *prefabricated:* (of a ship, building etc.)
CELD

moth eaten: clothes that are moth-eaten look...
taxi: when an aircraft is taxiing...
tasty: EG The meat was really tasty.
laudable: Something that is laudable is worthy of praise...
irascible: an irascible person becomes angry very easily.
preen: when birds preen their feathers...
scold: -

WNMCD

moth eaten: (~ clothes)
taxi: of an airplane
tasty: -
laudable: -
irascible: -
preen: to trim or dress with as if with a bill.
scold: -
prefabricated: -

OALD and LDOCE often make overt reference to the related objects, persons, ideas, etc. But WNNCD shows little interest in defining the relatedness. CELD too does not state what exactly a word is related to. But its definitions implicitly indicate it--like when an aircraft is taxiing; clothes that are moth-eaten; something that is laudable; irascible person, birds preen and prefabricated buildings. This practice may be helpful to comprehend the
sense when the search for the meaning proceeds from a context. But for productive purpose the abstraction or generalisation attempted at prefabricated (as related) to building, ship, etc., as in OALD and LDOCE may be helpful to generate wider application than the restricted sense supplied in CELD definition.

2.8.1d Intention or Attitude of the Speaker

Labels are used to denote the mood and the intention of the speaker (such as humorous, appreciative, derogatory, offensive, etc. These labels are useful for both decoding and encoding. But they will be of much more use in encoding since the context will provide the clue for decoding.

OALD insight: (approv) = approving
galore: (approv)
lordly: -
Sanctimonious: (derog)
pedant: (derog)
loony bin: (sl joc offensive)
heavens: (used to express surprise)
pecking order: (infml)
iota: (esp in negative expression)

LDOCE insight: apprec. = appreciative
galore: -
lordly: often derog
Sanctimonious: derog
pedant: *derog* ,
loony bin: *sl* often humor
heavens: (often in expressions of surprise or annoyance)
pecking order: *often humor*
iota: (usu in negative)

**CELD insight:**
galore: an informal and slightly old fashioned word.
lordly: used showing disapproval.
Sanctimonious: used showing disapproval.
pedant: used showing disapproval.
loony bin: very informal expression.
heavens: 5.1. you say good heavens to express surprise or to emphasize that you agree or disagree with someone.

**WNCD insight:**
galore: used post positively <bargains ~>
lordly: -
Sanctimonious: hypocritically devout.
pedant: -
loony bin: -
heavens: -
pecking order: -
iota: -
OALD also uses the symbol to denote words or senses likely to be thought offensive. The other labels used by OALD are: (euph = euphemistic); (ironic); (joc - jocular); (sexist), etc. Webster dictionary is not of much help in this area.

2.8.1e Register

It will be advantageous to possess the knowledge of the field of discourse for both comprehension and production. OALD is quite consistent in supplying this useful information.

OALD tense (grammar); tenor (music); mouse (computing); free pardon (law); free kick (in football); permutation (esp mathematics); anaemia (medical).

LDOCE tense - ; tenor - ; mouse (tech.); free pardon (law); free kick (in football); permutation - ; anaemia -.

CELD tense - ; tenor - ; mouse (Not entered in the computing sense); free pardon - ; free kick (in the game of football); permutation (a formal word); anaemia (medical condition).

WNNCND tense - ; tensor - ; mouse - ; free pardon (Not entered); free kick (as in football soccer, rugby); permutation - ; anaemia -.

2.8.1f Stylistic Distinction

Labels are also used to distinguish figurative expressions and fixed expressions such as phrasal verbs and idioms. These labels will be helpful for the learners to trace the figurative and idiomatic use of the words. While
the extended meaning in figurative expression may provide insight into the imaginative use of the language, the fixed expressions establish the idiosyncratic characteristics of the English language. The treatment of idioms and phrasal verbs in dictionaries is analysed elaborately in the fourth chapter. A few examples of the entry for the figurative use and the fixed expressions are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OALD</td>
<td>blush - <strong>2</strong>(fig) ashamed; hungry - <strong>2</strong>(fig) in need of something; feeling a strong desire for something; level-headed - (idm) have a level head; rake over - (idm) rake over old ashes = revive unpleasant memories of the past; talk into - (phr.v) talk sb into = persuade somebody to do; weed sth/sb out - (phr.v) = remove or get rid of.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDOCE</td>
<td>blush - (fig) (not given separate number); hungry - <strong>3</strong>having a strong eager with: (status of fig. expression not assigned); level-headed - level head (Separate entry; no indication as idiom); rake over - rake over (not given); rake out (in the same sense) talk into - (phr.v) weed sth/sb out - (phr.v)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| CELD       | blush - (not specified)
hungry - a rather formal or literary use; level-headed - (separate entry) ADJ QUALIT (no indication as idiom); rake over - PHRASAL VB talk into - PHRASAL VB an informal expression weed sth/sb out - PHRASAL VB |
| WNNCD      | blush - ;
hungry - ; level-headed - (separate entry); rake over - (not entered); talk into - (not specified but use with into is given); weed sth/sb out - (not specified as PHRASAL |
After going through the use of different labels to indicate style variation and usage of words it may be deduced that the labelling or marking depends more on the arbitrary decisions made by the lexicographer than on any clear-cut principles. It is seen that the definition of style values also remain arbitrary and inconsistent.

2.8.2 USAGE NOTES

Learners dictionaries also use usage notes to highlight the use of semantically related words:

Eg. OALD at the entry for mistake distinguishes the use of mistake, error, blunder, fault and defect according to the context.

NOTE ON USAGE. Mistake, error, blunder, fault and defect all refer to something done incorrectly or improperly. Mistake is the most general, used of everyday situations: Your essay is full of mistakes. It was a mistake to go there on holiday. Error is more formal: an error in your calculations * a technical error. A blunder is a careless mistake, often unnecessary or resulting from misjudgment: I made a terrible blunder in introducing her to my husband. Fault emphasizes a person's responsibility for a mistake. The child broke the window, but it was his
parents' fault for letting him play football indoors. Fault can also indicate an imperfection in a person or thing: He has many faults but vanity is not one of them. A defect is more serious: The new car had to be withdrawn from the market because of a mechanical defect.

LDOCE at the entry for error makes a distinction in use between mistake and error.

**Usage** Error is a more formal word than mistake. Your homework is full of mistakes/errors (fml). Error (literary) is sometimes used to suggest something that is morally wrong: the errors of his youth. In certain fixed phrases only one of the two words can be used: an error of judgment/by mistake.

OALD's coverage seems to be wide by including five synonyms for the comparison of their usage. However, LDOCE presents another Usage Note under wrong to bring out the difference between wrong and fault.

**Usage** Compare wrong and fault. Wrong is a formal word for a particular bad or unjust act. He committed a great wrong. Fault is used,

a of something bad in a person's character; one of his faults is that he's always late.

b of a person's responsibility for bad results: It's your fault we lost the watch.
However it stands to reason that it is a near impossible task to record in a single compilation the usage of all synonyms that exist in a complex network. For instance, fault leads to flaw and then to blemish and so on. CELD indicates usage along the entry of the words and does not select and give usage notes separately. WNNCD occasionally makes use of illustrations to indicate usage and they are placed within angle brackets < >. Definitions are sometimes followed by usage notes that give supplementary information about such matters as idiom, syntax, semantic relationship and status. A usage note is introduced by a light face dash:

1stead n 2: . . . - used chiefly in the phrase to stand one in good stead.

2zero it . . . 2a: . . . - us. used with in.

'as . . . adv . . . 3: . . . - usu used before a preposition or a participle.

guide . . . n . . . 3: . . . - used esp in commands larg o . . . adv or adj . . . - used as a direction in music.

dick . . . n 2: - use. considered vulgar.

Kaffir or Kafir . . . n . . 2 . . usu. used disparagingly.

WNNCD also presents USAGE PARAGRAPHS. These typically summarize the historical background of the chosen lexical items and their associated body of opinion, Compare these
with available evidence of current usage and add a few words of advice for the dictionary user.

Eg. aggravate

Vt . . . 1 obs a: to make heavy: BURDEN b: INCREASE 2: to make worse, more serious, or more severe: intensify unpleasantly <problems have been aggravated by neglect.> 3a: to rouse to displeasure or anger by usu. persistent and often petty goading b: to produce inflammation in ...

Usage Although aggravate has been used in sense 3a since the 17th century, it has been the object of disapproval only since about 1870. It is used in expository prose <declining to participate directly in the motorcade . . . greatly aggravating the President — W. F. Buckley b1925> but seems to be more common in speech and casual writing <our two countries aggravate each other from time to time—O. W. Holmes + 1935 (letter to Sir Frederick Pollock, 1895) <times when we get aggravated and displeased, for instance, with the French—Jimmy Carter (press conference, 1980)> Sense 2 is far more common than sense 3a in published prose. Such is not the case, however, with aggravation and aggravating. Aggravation is used in sense 3 somewhat more than in its earlier senses; aggravating has practically no use other than to express annoyance.

LDOCE is elaborate in devising Language Notes that provide information on Addressing people, Apologies, Criticism and praise, Invitations and offers, Questions, Requests, Thanks, etc., which will be of use to language learners.
2.9 PRESENTATION OF THE GRAMMATICAL MEANING

Meaning in its entirety is realized through its semantic concept, the context of use and the grammatical usage. From Hallidayan functional point of view Semantics is ideational, Pragmatics is interpersonal and Grammar is textual. Grammar is the linking thread that neatly ties up the various strands of meaning into a definite design. It is often grammar that assigns a structure to an expression. All the three components of meaning need to be given equal attention. This idea is strengthened by the views of many a linguists. To cite one, Gerhard Washing is quoted in Cowie (1983):

In my opinion only an integrated description of language will result in a useful discrimination of the meanings of language forms. This description must take into account the formal and functional aspects of language and their interaction. (99)

Thus, though one cannot master a language by just learning its grammar, the knowledge of grammar is essential for identifying words and organizing one's thoughts into utterances.

John Sinclair observes, "grammar deals in generalities in word classes rather than single words" (105). But in a dictionary only single words are entered. It is difficult
to bring in all the grammatical information to bear significance, word by word in a dictionary. Moreover till recent times the English language dictionaries have been "deeply rooted in conservatism of lexicographical theory and practice" (Cowie 107). Because of this conservatism the labelling of the parts of speech the syntactic functions of verbs etc, is found to be mostly of a rudimentary kind in the general English dictionaries. The labels mostly indicate only the class membership of words and the sub-classifications are totally left out.

The aptly named Idiomatic and Syntactic English Dictionary (ISED) was the first English dictionary to incorporate a fully developed analysis of the syntactic functions of English verbs. Three noteworthy features of this dictionary are--

1. arriving at a detailed sub-classification by taking into account not of transitivity in a general way but of the various object and complement which a verb could take;
2. indicating the syntactic functions of verbs in each of their different senses; and
3. using a coding system to indicate the patterns with a detailed set of tables in the introduction.

This dictionary has provided a model for the later editions of learner's dictionaries by widening the scope of the detailed classification, by carrying the description a
stage further than the previous dictionaries and by suggesting a new system of indicating syntactic patterns. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionaries (OALD 1963, 1974) and LDOCE (1978) have improved on the presentation found in ISED. The OALD (1989) and LDOCE (1987) have a still further developed system than their earlier versions. The learner's dictionaries endeavour to specify typical syntactic patterns so that the learners can generate sentences of their own with ease and accuracy.

The pedagogical dictionaries chosen for the study here base their judgment and presentation of the grammatical aspects of the English language on different sources with their own practical reasons. The following is the list of the basis for the entries in the FOUR dictionaries as recorded by their compilers.

**OALD** The dictionary has benefited from a four-year programme of basic research carried out by the OUP Lexical Research Unit at the University of Leeds, especially in its thematic treatment of verbs and nouns in the new Notes on Usage. (Preface)

**LDOCE** takes as its main reference point the grammatical description given in A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Usage. (F 10)

**CELD** The starting point was a surface grammar of English (Sinclair 1972) written as a work out of Halliday's scale and category model (Halliday 1961). This formed the basis for
the training of the original group of lexicographers. (Sinclair 108)

The editors who wrote the paragraphs (usage paragraphs) used several kinds of material: books describing one or another aspect of the history of usage as a problem in English; books and articles ruling on particular points of usage, whether the product of one person or a group; historical and other dictionaries and above all citations of usage itself from our file. In digesting this mass of information and presenting it in a very brief compass, the editors have typically combined information on the history of the controversy, the current state of expressed opinion, illustrations of both old and modern use (often quoted, and practical advice. (30)

Lemmens and Wekker have suggested certain minimal conditions for a coding system for a pedagogical dictionary (Sinclair 113). They are as follows:

a) the grammatical codes should be unambiguous and easy to use. We propose that the codes should provide information about the grammatical functions (dO, iO, etc.) and the grammatical category (NP, Adj P, etc.) of the elements which may follow the verb as its complements.

b) Every verb entry (and, where appropriate every sub-entry) will include one or more codes, all of which should be self-explanatory. It will remain necessary of course to have a Guide in the introductory pages to explain elementary function and category labels such as dO, iO, NP and Adj P to the absolute beginner. The terminology should be that of the standard modern grammar of English.
c) The dictionary user should have all the information he needs at hand, and should not be required to consult the Guide or Table of codes in order to interpret the codes.

d) All the grammatical patterns indicated in each verb-entry or sub-entry should be illustrated by example sentences arranged in the same order as the patterns.

e) Transformational possibilities are another useful feature of learners dictionaries. If passivization, indirect object movement, extraposition and the like are allowed, these transformations should also be indicated in the entry or sub-entry.

f) Codes must be explicit and complete as possible, and should not be collapsed; no part of the code should be put in brackets.

An ideal study must analyse the presentation of the Grammatical meaning of the different parts of speech given in the learner’s dictionaries. But such a study may become a compendium of a grammar book. Hence, the treatment of nouns in the four selected dictionaries is analysed in detail, while a general observation on the presentation of other categories is made in the present work.

2.9.1 THE GRAMMAR OF NOUNS

In a broad based classification nouns are divided into CONCRETE and ABSTRACT nouns. CONCRETE NOUNS refer to
objects and substances with physical existence including things, animal, people, etc. ABSTRACT WORDS refer to concepts and ideas.

The most important facts the learners need to know about nouns on the grammatical plane are described below:

--- the countable and uncountable nature of concrete and abstract nouns;

--- the singular and plural forms for the concrete count nouns;

--- the group nouns such as an army (of soldiers), a crowd (of people), a pack (of cards, wolves), etc. Many group nouns refer to a group having special relationship with one another or those brought together for a particular reason, like tribe, family, committee, club, audience, government, etc. Depending on whether the group is meant as a unit or the sum of its members, there is a choice to use a singular or plural verb with it. Eg. (1) The audience is/are enjoying the show. (2) The government never makes up its mind/make up their mind in a hurry.

--- the part and whole nouns such as a slice of the cake, a quarter of the cake, etc.

--- the non-count mass nouns, which are divided into (a) nouns of unit like a piece (of bread) a bunch (of grapes); and (b) nouns of measure (i) Depth - a foot of water; (ii) Length - a metre of cloth; (iii) Weight - a gram of gold; (iv) Area - an acre of land; (v) Volume - a litre of milk. In many cases, the English language has a separate count noun and separate mass noun referring to the same area of meaning. Some examples are:
count noun | mass noun
---|---
a pig | pork
a leaf | foliage
a loaf | bread
a meal | food

--- Species nouns such as type, kind, sort, class and variety: Eg.

Ford is a *make* of car.
Teak is a *type* of wood.
Tiger is a *class* of mammal, etc.

--- In addition, there are some nouns which are both countable and uncountable. For example, the word *cake* can be both a *cake* and *(some)* *cake* depending on its nature as a whole or part.

Thus the onus of presenting all these types of nouns and the necessary details rests on the lexicographers.

2.9.2 THE PRESENTATION OF INFORMATION ON NOUNS

The pedagogical dictionaries seem to be fairly well equipped to meet the demands of the learners on grammar.

2.9.2a Marking Countable and Uncountable Nature of Nouns

OALD and LDOCE use the codes C and U to denote countable and uncountable nouns and place this information immediately after the parts of speech label, n. OALD marks all the nouns with their respective codes. But LDOCE leaves simple uncountable nouns without giving the code. It uses the code (c) only when a noun is both countable and uncountable eg. *Illness* n(C;U). However for all
uncountable nouns it assigns the code (U). CELD prints the abbreviations COUNT OR UNCOUNT along with each noun in the extra column. WNNCD does not mark the count and non-count nouns.

2.9.2b Specifying Singular or Plural Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>impasse</th>
<th>grip</th>
<th>equity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OALD</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>[sing]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDOCE</td>
<td>[usu-sing]</td>
<td>[usu-sing]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CELD</td>
<td>SING with DET USU SING</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNNCD</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OALD normally enters the nouns that are always in the plural along with the singular noun entry by giving it a different number whereas LDOCE and CELD allot a separate entry for such nouns.

OALD Plural forms are indicated "wherever necessary [says the Detailed Guide to the Entries] either because simple addition of -s or -es is not correct or where there may be some doubt."

LDOCE regular inflections' are not shown in the dictionary except where there is a possibility of confusion or if the regular inflection has a difficult pronunciation. Irregular inflections are always shown. (F 38)

WNNCD Plural nouns are shown in this dictionary when suffixation brings about a change of final -y to -i, when the noun ends in a consonant plus -o or -oy, when the noun ends in -oo when the noun has an irregular plural or a zero plural or a foreign plural, when
the noun is a compound that pluralizes any element but the last, when the noun has variant plurals, and when it is believed that the dictionary user might have reasonable doubts about the spelling of the plural or when the plural is spelled in a way contrary to expectation. (13)

CELD is different from these three dictionaries in that it records the plural form of all the nouns irrespective of the fact whether they are inflected regularly, irregularly or are different from the ordinary forms, etc. This arrangement provides ready access to the plural form.

2.9.2c Group nouns

OALD indicates countable group nouns as (CGP) and all the FOUR dictionaries specify the constituents of the group.

crowd - large number of people....

herd - number of animals esp cattle....

flock - group of sheep, goats or birds of the same kind

\[1\] pack - number of things wrapped or tied together...

\[3\] pack - a group of wild animals..., etc.

However, references to these group nouns is not given at the respective constituent elements/individual nouns. Often no indication is being made to the collective name for the group in a conscious and systematic way though some of them are introduced through the examples. For example, at the entry for lion though the plural form lions may or may
not be indicated, none of the dictionaries enters pride of lions as its collective noun. This information may be helpful for learners' productive skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OALD</th>
<th>LDOCE</th>
<th>CELD</th>
<th>WNNCD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cows</td>
<td>a herd of</td>
<td>a herd of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cows</td>
<td>cows</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 cows</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sheep</td>
<td>kept in</td>
<td>a flock</td>
<td>a flock of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>flocks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(=group)</td>
<td>sheep</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wolf</td>
<td>hunting in</td>
<td>in a group</td>
<td>wolves live may rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in packs</td>
<td></td>
<td>attack man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(=pack)</td>
<td></td>
<td>esp. when</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>in a pack</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.9.2d Relatedness of Nouns on Other Planes

The corresponding mass nouns for certain count nouns are not recorded in dictionaries. For example, the flesh of pig as pork or the general term for leaf as foliage etc. are never mentioned at the count nouns. It is true that separate entries are made for the mass nouns. For the benefit of the learners, the relatedness of these may be indicated in a separate table outside the text and cross references may be given at the respective entries in the text.

ANIMAL TERMS and BIRD GROUPS are tabulated in the Reverse Dictionary by Reader Digest publication (Facsimile extracts are attached for reference). These tables provide
an ideal model that could be incorporated into the learner’s dictionaries.

2.9.3 OBSERVATIONS ON OTHER CATEGORIES

OALD lists a verb pattern scheme on the inside of the back cover and Noun and Adjective classes on the penultimate page of the dictionary. The Detailed Guide on Grammar(1553-1572) explains and exemplifies the different grammatical codes that are used for indicating the word classes, Verb patterns, Noun classes and the Complementation. It is quite exhaustive in its description.

LDOCE is also elaborate in giving a list of 25 Grammar codes on the back of the front cover and in providing an eight page explanation about the details of grammatical information given in the dictionary. The eight pages cover the following details:

1) how word classes are indicated in the dictionary, the type of abbreviations used for each class;

2) the marking of irregular inflections with suitable examples (regular inflections left out as they follow the regular rules and hence may not cause any problem);

3) a complete account of the rationale behind the employment of the Grammar codes and their practical use in the dictionary (how the codes are used with adjectives, nouns and verbs and a list of special sentence patterns used with verbs);

4) grammar and phrasal verbs—indicating the main types of transitive phrasal verbs.
These laborious efforts found in both OALD and LDOCE are helpful for the learner to comprehend the common grammatical patterns of the language. These pages, besides providing grammatical information, also serve as the indicators of the retrieval mechanism. Hence they are of great help to develop the reference skills in the users of the dictionary.

CELD marks the word classes in abbreviated forms (N=noun; V=verb; ADJ=adjective; ADV= Adverb etc) and indicates the syntactic patterns (V+O; V+O+ADV) in its EXTRA COLUMN. Regular as well as irregular inflections of verbs and nouns are presented under each of these categories. This arrangement of showing the inflections of regular as well as irregular forms is a ready reckoner. In comparison with the method of recording only the irregular inflections as in OALD and LDOCE the method adopted by CELD seems to be more handy. The users of OALD and LDOCE have to familiarize themselves with the mode of presentation to retrieve information on regular inflections. CELD does not codify and list the patterns of verbs as in the other two dictionaries. Thereby CELD's presentation cannot give a consolidated account of the grammatical patterns of the language.
WNNCD also labels the different word classes in abbreviated forms as v, n, adj, and adv. These functional labels are printed in italics as in OALD and LDOCE. The inflected forms are given for each verb either in full or in cut back forms: Eg.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spell- spelled; spelling</th>
<th>Full form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fatten- fattened; fattening</td>
<td>Cutback form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated - cated; - cating</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bespeak - spoke - spoken</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WNNCD also does not attempt to present a list of common verb patterns.

For adjectives and adverbs, the degrees of comparison are recorded only for the inflected forms. LDOCE does not give even that. Eg.

**OALD**
- Pretty (ier, -iest)
- Good (better, best)
- Timely (-ier, -iest) adv
- Easy (-ier, iest) earlier (-ier, -iest)

**LDOCE**
- Better, best

**CELD**
- Prettier, prettiest,
- Better, best
- Easier, easiest,
- Earlier, earliest given separate entries

**WNNCD**
- Prettier, prettiest
- Better, best
timelier, timeliest
easier, easiest
earlier, earliest

2.9.4 BROAD CONCLUSIONS

In examining the presentation of the MEANING of Content words in the FOUR dictionaries the general observation is that the learner's reference needs are fulfilled by the supplies in the learner's dictionaries in different ways according to the priority fixed by the individual dictionaries. OALD LDOCE and CELD concentrate on the meaning and examples while WNNCD focuses on etymology and definition. In bringing out the semantic meaning OALD and LDOCE are consistently clear, simple and straight as against CELD'S complicated sentences in certain explanations and WNNCD's difficult metalanguage. OALD, LDOCE and CELD try to incorporate pragmatic meaning. But WNNCD does not make any attempt in that direction.

OALD and LDOCE are very elaborate in presenting grammatical information. CELD does it in a limited way and WNNCD's contribution towards this is greatly restricted.

The Reference skills to use these dictionaries must be developed consciously by the learners. The teachers help is much needed to initiate the learners to acquire these skills. Specific exercises are required to cultivate the
right habits of retrieving the language information from these compilations. Otherwise there will be large gaps between the intended effects of the compilers and the actual effects on the learners.