LEXICOGRAPHICA Series Maior

LEXICOGRAPHICA

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Encyclopedic Learners' Dictionaries

A Study of their Design Features
from the User Perspective

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Acknowledgements

Abbreviations

AmE	American English
AZBL	*An A to Z of British Life*
BBCED	*BBC English Dictionary*
BBICDE	*BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English*
BrE	British English
C/R	Cross-reference
CCE	*Cambridge Concise Encyclopedia*
CCED	*Collins Concise English Dictionary*
CCSD	*Collins COBUILD Student's Dictionary*
CIDE	*Cambridge International Dictionary of English*
COBUILD1	*Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary*
COBUILD2	*Collins COBUILD English Dictionary* (= second edition of COBUILD1)
COD	*Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*
CULD	*Chambers Universal Learners' Dictionary*
CWR/EF	*Cambridge Word Routes (English-French)*
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELD	Encyclopedic Learner's Dictionary
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
HED	*Heinemann English Dictionary*
HEncD	*Hutchinson Encyclopedic Dictionary*
IIP	Illustrated Information Page
IPA	International Phonetic Alphabet
L2	Second Language
LASDE	*Longman Active Study Dictionary of English*
LDAE	*Longman Dictionary of American English*
LDELC	*Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture*
LDOCE	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*
LDOCE1	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (first edition)
LDOCE2	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (second edition)
LDOCE3	*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (third edition)
LEA	Large Encyclopedic Article
LHLD	*Longman Handy Learner's Dictionary*
LLA	*Longman Language Activator*
LLCE	*Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*
LNPED	*Longman New Pocket English Dictionary*
LPD	*Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*
MLD	Monolingual Learner's Dictionary
OALD	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*

OALD1	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (first edition)
OALD2	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (second edition)
OALD3	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (third edition)
OALD4	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (fourth edition)
OALD5	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (fifth edition)
OALD/EEK	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. English-English-Korean*
OALED	*Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary*
ODGD	*Oxford Duden German Dictionary*
OED	*Oxford English Dictionary*
OLPD	*Oxford Learner's Pocket Dictionary*
OSDCE	*Oxford Student's Dictionary of Current English*
OT	*Oxford Thesaurus*
OWD	*Oxford Wordpower Dictionary*
RDUD	*Reader's Digest Universal Dictionary*
SCN	Short Cultural Note
SFA	Special Feature Article

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Introduction

This research project is centred on two dictionaries published in 1992: the *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture* (LDELC) and the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Encyclopedic Dictionary* (OALED). The publication of these works represents a significant new departure in terms of lexicographical typology, particularly as regards the evolution of the monolingual learner's dictionary (MLD). Both LDELC and OALED were developed on the basis of existing dictionaries. LDELC is derived from the second edition (1987) of the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDOCE2), and OALED is based on the fourth edition (1989) of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (OALD4). In both cases, encyclopedic information has been combined with material from a previously published learner's dictionary to create a new lexicographical hybrid: the encyclopedic learner's dictionary (ELD).

As will hopefully become clear in the course of this investigation, the two works share a number of innovative design features which make their publication in the same year all the more remarkable. Curiosity is aroused as to the possible motives behind the decision by two major publishing houses to produce works of a similar nature within a relatively short time span. Since both publishers in question produce encyclopedic reference works as well as learners' dictionaries, a sceptic might argue that the decision to combine material from the two types of text (and their underlying databases) is based on a) commercial opportunism, and b) the knowledge that the merging process involved is less demanding than the creation of a more original dictionary. The number of variations on the theme of the monolingual learner's dictionary is continually increasing. Obvious examples include onomasiological works (e.g. the *Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English*) and bilingualized editions (e.g. the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. English-English-Korean*). From this point of view, the ELD could be interpreted as the latest spin-off in a long line of derivative works seeking to carve out a niche in the lucrative market for EFL dictionaries. In this instance, the added ingredient of cultural content makes for a more deluxe version of an already existing product. An alternative reaction to the appearance of the ELD might be to regard the compilers as responding to a demand by metalexicographers and other interested parties, such as language teachers, for the inclusion of cultural information in learners' dictionaries. From the latter perspective, the emergence of this new type of dictionary could be seen as a genuine and welcome attempt to fill a gap in the previous range of reference works in order to meet certain perceived needs of users. Perhaps the compilers of learners' dictionaries are somewhat belatedly giving full recognition to the fact that linguistic and cultural information are often inseparable. In this sense, the creation of the ELD is simply a logical development in the history of pedagogical lexicography. Even more optimistically, one might hope that some form of user research by publishers was the basis on which the decision to produce this new type of dictionary was made.

The two possible reactions described above are not, however, mutually exclusive. Leaving commercial considerations aside, a major aim of the current investigation is to discover whether users actually have a need for the encyclopedic learner's dictionary. In order to

evaluate the usefulness of this new lexicographical hybrid, a two-pronged approach has been adopted. First, an attempt is made to define the concept of the encyclopedic learner's dictionary in terms of its typological status and design features. On a more general level, this involves examining encyclopedic reference works and monolingual learners' dictionaries in order to identify the characteristic components and approaches of the two lexicographical genres. On a more specific level, the design features of ELDs can be detected by comparing them with their non-encyclopedic counterparts. Furthermore, by directly comparing LDELC and OALED, it is possible to see how two different publishers have interpreted the 'encyclopedic learner's dictionary' concept. Second, this text-centred analysis is complemented by questionnaire-based user research into the perceived usefulness of ELDs and their individual components as identified from a comparative analysis of encyclopedic and non-encyclopedic dictionaries. Elicitation of users' reactions to the various design features enables a practical checklist of recommendations for ELD compilation to be devised.

In essence, therefore, the investigation seeks to answer three questions: 1) What are encyclopedic learners' dictionaries?, 2) How useful are they?, and 3) How can they be designed to serve their users most effectively?

Chapter 1: Describing a New Lexicographical Hybrid: the Encyclopedic Learner's Dictionary

1.1. Exploring the Roots of the Encyclopedic Learner's Dictionary

Even though LDELC and OALED are examples of a new lexicographical hybrid, neither work has been widely reviewed either in metalexicographical literature or in publications concerned with foreign language teaching or linguistics (cf., however, McArthur 1993). Consequently, the task of arriving at an analytical description of the encyclopedic learner's dictionary still remains to be completed. This chapter is an attempt to make some progress towards this aim by a) examining the elements which have been combined to create this innovative type of dictionary (Sections 1.1.-1.8.) and b) identifying the characteristic design features of the genre by comparing each ELD with its non-encyclopedic counterpart (Sections 1.9.-1.12.3.).

Figure 1 below represents a simplified typological family tree for the encyclopedic learner's dictionary.

```
                                              principles
                                              and practice
    encyclopedia --------------------dictionary--------------------- of foreign
                      ⬇                              ⬇            language teaching
            encyclopedic dictionary---------learner's dictionary
                                 ⬇
                  encyclopedic learner's dictionary
```
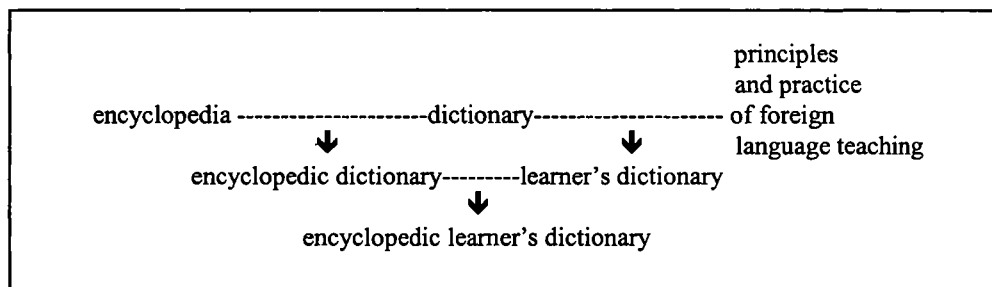
Figure 1) A Typological Family Tree Diagram for the Encyclopedic Learner's Dictionary

The ELD can be regarded as a lexicographical hybrid which has resulted from the 'cross-breeding' of two other hybrid text types: the encyclopedic dictionary and the learner's dictionary. Tracing the roots of the ELD thus involves examination of each node in this genealogical tree diagram. Although a complex of issues surrounds the node labelled 'principles and practice of foreign language teaching', which is different in kind from the textual nodes, the remainder of the schema possesses an appealing symmetry. This rudimentary framework is, however, merely intended to serve as a hopefully useful starting point for a discussion of the essential nature of the ELD. Lexicographers involved in the compilation of LDELC or OALED will obviously have been influenced by their collective and individual knowledge of a wide range of reference works.

The parent dictionaries of the two existing ELDs and a related predecessor are, however, easily identifiable. In addition to the direct, derivative links between LDOCE2 and LDELC,

and between OALD4 and OALED, a tangential connection exists between OALED and *An A to Z of British Life* (AZBL). AZBL was originally entitled the *Dictionary of Britain: An A-Z of the British Way of Life* and was first published in 1986 by Oxford University Press. It first appeared under its current title in 1990. The author, Adrian Room, also compiled OALED's Large Encyclopedic Articles (see Section 3.8.) and Short Cultural Notes (see Section 3.9.). AZBL is an alphabetically-ordered encyclopedic reference work aimed at foreign learners of English. It contains over 3000 articles covering a wide range of topics relating to British culture. The majority of the headwords are proper nouns, and the articles, accompanied occasionally by black and white photographs, are written in clear, uncondensed prose. Pronunciation information using IPA transcription is provided. An impression of its range of subject matter can be gained from the back matter index which is divided into the following thematic areas: 'animal world', 'arts', 'charities', 'clothing', 'commerce', 'daily life', 'defence', 'education', 'finance', 'food and drink', 'geography', 'government', 'history', 'language', 'law', 'life and society', 'London', 'media', 'medicine', 'people', 'politics', 'religion', 'royal family', 'science and technology', 'sport and leisure', 'style', 'tradition', 'transport', and 'work'. More references are made to popular culture than is the case with OALED. For example, it contains entries for items such as *the Tablet, Task Force Trees, Tattenham Corner, Telecom Tower, the Telegraph, telemessage, TESSA, Thames Television, This England, This is Your Life, Time Out, Timeline, Titbits, Toc H, Top of the Pops,* and *Tottenham Hotspur*. Although the *A to Z of British Life* focuses on culture and does not attempt to provide the depth and breadth of linguistic information found in monolingual learners' dictionaries such as LDELC, LDOCE2, OALD4, and OALED, it could reasonably claim to be the first monolingual encyclopedic work designed by a major British publisher specifically for the learner of English as a foreign language.

1.2. Metalexicographical Discussion of Encyclopedic Reference Works

Taking the node labelled 'encyclopedia' in the typological family tree as the point of departure for our journey in search of a characterization of the encyclopedic learner's dictionary, the fact must immediately be acknowledged that most metalexicographical literature published in Britain has been primarily concerned with dictionaries rather than encyclopedias. In parallel fashion, definitions of 'lexicography' in general reference works for popular consumption often make exclusive or near-exclusive reference to dictionaries e.g. "the process or profession of writing or compiling dictionaries" (CCED), "dictionary-making" (COD), and "the process of compiling dictionaries, and the study of the issues involved is known as lexicography" (CCE). There are, however, compelling reasons to widen the concept of lexicography to include encyclopedias and other encyclopedic reference works; not least because dictionaries (in the sense of 'word-books') themselves contain 'encyclopedic' features to varying degrees:

> By and large [...] lexicography is taken to be a process of describing words in an alphabetic list, and most lexicographers work on dictionaries of a relatively standard kind. Equally traditionally, lexicography can be said to include the compilation not only of books about words (dictionaries, etc.), but also books about things (encyclopedias, etc.). Again, however, it is generally taken to centre on the making of word-books, which may be more encyclopedic (like many French and American works) or less encyclopedic (like many British works). (McArthur 1992:600-601)

A willingness to accept a wide range of reference works as lexicographical products has occasionally led to pleas for the adoption of a term such as 'reference science' in preference to 'lexicography' which, as we have seen above, is often narrowly interpreted. Another possible term, 'information science', cannot be adopted because it is already used to describe the science of processing information with computers.

Terminological pairs expressing the distinction between, broadly speaking, word-centred and thing-centred lexicography have been coined in certain languages. For example, at the most general level, *Sprachlexikographie* has been contrasted with *Sachlexikographie* in German (cf. Hupka 1989a:988-989). Similarly, as a means of distinguishing between types of reference work, *dictionnaire de mots* and *Sprachwörterbuch* have been paired against *dictionnaire de choses* and *Sachwörterbuch* in French and German respectively. Likewise, the German terms *enzyklopädische Definition* and *sprachliche Definition* have been used to describe contrasting types of definition (cf. Werner 1984). In the apparent absence of corresponding terminology in English, McArthur (1986:109) has suggested that the following pair of terms can be usefully applied to reference materials:

1 *micro-lexicography*, which deals with the world of words and the wordbook proper (which in most instances is an alphabetic dictionary)

2 *macro-lexicography*, which shades out into the world of things and subjects, and centres on compendia of knowledge (which in most instances are encyclopedias, which in most instances nowadays are also alphabetic)

Whether a strict dividing line can be drawn between dictionaries and encyclopedias has often been open to argument. In the 18th Century the two genres began to diverge (see Section 1.5.), yet nowadays computer technology allows encyclopedia and dictionary databases to be merged with relative ease to generate a hybrid reference work in either paper or electronic format. A recent example is the *Hutchinson Multimedia Encyclopedia* (on CD-ROM) in which a dictionary of difficult words has been integrated into the alphabetical order of encyclopedia entries.

At present, the canon of works concerned with encyclopedias and encyclopedic information remains limited. A few of the more useful and readable texts can be briefly mentioned here. Collison (1966) provides a chronological history of encyclopedias. On account of its date of publication, however, more recent works are not covered. A controversial article in the journal *Lingua* by Haiman (1980) argued that dictionaries *are* encyclopedias. This prompted an impassioned rebuttal by Frawley (1981) which, in turn, elicited a short reassertion by Haiman (1982) of his own position. Rey (1982) scrutinizes the distinctions between dictionaries and encyclopedias in addition to supplying a chronological history of both genres. A concise survey of the encyclopedic tradition in (British and American) English dictionaries can be found in Roe (1978). McArthur (1986) provides a multi-disciplinary history of a wide range of reference works and materials. Encyclopedic dictionaries have been the subject of studies by Hupka 1989a, 1989b, and Lara 1989 (on the distinctions between the *dictionnaire de langue, encyclopédie,* and *dictionnaire encyclopédique*). In particular, Hupka 1989b (in an extremely comprehensive survey entitled *Wort und Bild*) describes the history and practice of illustrating 'lexicographical works' (the term subsuming dictionaries, encyclopedias, and encyclopedic dictionaries). Despite a main preoccupation with illustrations, considerable space is allotted to discussion of the similarities and differences between the three types of text. An article by Collison and Preece (1991) in the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, accompanying Read's famous essay, 'Dictionaries', covers encyclopedias in general, editing and publishing encyclopedias, different kinds of encyclopedias, the history of encyclopedias, and encyclopedias in various parts of the world. Despite a general shortage of metalexicographical literature con-

cerned with encyclopedic reference works, the publication in 1995 of a volume entitled *Cultures, Ideologies, and the Dictionary* (edited by B.B. Kachru and H. Kahane) in the Lexicographica Series Maior possibly signals a more recent upsurge of interest in the cultural content of dictionaries. As far as can be ascertained at the time of writing, encyclopedic learners' dictionaries do not appear to have been the subject of any previously published metalexicographical studies in English.

1.3. The Similarities and Differences between Dictionaries and Encyclopedias

Many of the metalexicographical works mentioned in the previous section have included deliberations upon the complications surrounding attempts to distinguish dictionaries and encyclopedias. Some theorists (e.g. Haiman 1980, 1982, Eco 1984:46-86) even deny that such a distinction exists. Borrowing a metaphor from chemistry, the 'encyclopedic dictionary' node of ELD genealogy (see Figure 1 above) is describable in terms of a compound made up of the elements 'dictionary' and 'encyclopedia'. In order to understand the nature of a compound, it is necessary to examine the attributes of its component elements; which in this case entails an investigation of the traditionally upheld distinction between the two types of reference work.

'Dictionary' and 'encyclopedia' are words used to refer to categories. The results of a set of experiments conducted by the psychologist Eleanor Rosch (1975) seem to support the hypothesis that people regard certain objects as better examples of a category than others. In the case of birds, for instance, informants consistently adjudged the robin to be 'birdier' than the penguin, whereas the toucan fell (so to speak) between the two (cf. Aitchison 1994:51-63):

> [...] Rosch's work suggests that when people categorize common objects, they do not expect them all to be on an equal footing. They seem to have some idea of the characteristics of an ideal exemplar - in Rosch's words, a 'prototype'. And they probably decide on the extent to which something else is a member of the same category by matching it against the features of the prototype. It does not have to match exactly, it just has to be sufficiently similar, though not necessarily visually similar. (Ibid:55)

It would be possible to conduct a similar experiment by presenting various reference works to people and asking them to rate on a scale how good an example of the category 'dictionary' or 'encyclopedia' each was. Prototypical features of the two genres might then be elicited by this means. For the purposes of the current project, however, two non-experimental methods are used to gain some idea of popular conceptions of both genres: a) a brief survey of non-specialist definitions of 'dictionary' and 'encyclopedia' and b) creation of a posited set of dictionary/encyclopedia tendencies which can be tested against individual reference works.

1.3.1. Non-specialist Definitions of 'Dictionary' and 'Encyclopedia'

It is reasonable to assume that popular conceptions of dictionaries and encyclopedias are, to some extent, reflected in their definitions as found in contemporary general-purpose reference works. Some examples of such definitions are provided below.

Definitions of 'dictionary':

> **dictionary** A work of reference, traditionally in the form of a book, and now often available as a computational data base, giving linguistic information about the words of a language, arranged in alphabetical order under headwords. Some dictionaries (especially those falling within the US and

European - particularly French and German - traditions) add encyclopedic data, or provide special features, such as notes on usage or closely related words. The process of compiling dictionaries, and the study of the issues involved, is known as lexicography. » Johnson, Samuel; Webster, Noah (CCE)

dictionary [...] **1. a.** a book that consists of an alphabetical list of words with their meanings, parts of speech, pronunciations, etymologies, etc. **b.** a similar book giving equivalent words in two or more languages. **2.** a reference book listing words or terms and giving information about a particular subject or activity. **3.** a collection of information or examples with the entries alphabetically arranged: *a dictionary of quotations*. [C16: from Med. L *dictionarium* collection of words, from LL *dictio* word; see DICTION] (CCED)

di'ctionary *n.* book explaining, usu. in alphabetical order, the words of a language or words and topics of some special subject, author, etc., wordbook, lexicon, (French-English etc. ~, list of French etc. words with English etc. translation or explanation; *dictionary of Americanisms, of architecture, of the Bible, of proverbs, Dictionary of National Biography, Shakespeare dictionary,* etc). (COD)

dictionary [...] *n.* a book that lists (usually in alphabetical order) and explains the words of a language (often with information on pronunciation, inflected forms, and etymology) or gives the equivalent words in another language; a similar book explaining the terms of a particular subject. [from Latin] [1A] (HEncD)

dic·tion·ar·y [...] **1.** A reference book containing an explanatory alphabetical list of words, as: **a.** A book listing a comprehensive or restricted selection of the words of a language, identifying usually the pronunciation, grammatical function, and meanings of each word, often with other information on its origin and use. **b.** Such a book listing the words or other units of a particular category within a language: *a slang dictionary.* **2.** A book listing the words of a language with translations into another language. **3.** A book listing words or other linguistic items from particular fields, with specialised information about them: *a medical dictionary.* **4.** A reference book dealing with a particular subject: *a dictionary of modern history.* [Medieval Latin *dictionarium*, from Latin *dictio*, **DICTION.**] (RDUD)

Definitions of 'encyclopedia':

encyclopedia *or* **encyclopaedia** [...] *n.* a book, often in many volumes, containing articles, often arranged in alphabetical order, dealing either with the whole range of human knowledge or with one particular subject. [C16: from NL, erroneously for Gk *enkuklios paideia* general education] (CCED)

encyclopae'd|ia, -ped|ia, [...] *n.* literary work giving information on all branches of knowledge or of one subject, usu. arranged alphabetically; (*E~;* Hist.) *the* French encyclopedia of Diderot, D'Alembert, and others; WALKING² *encyclopaedia;* hence ~IC *a.,* ~ISM (3), ~IST (3), *ns.* [mod. L, f. spurious Gk *egkuklopaideia* for *egkuklios paideia* all-round education (cf. prec.)] (COD)

encyclopedia *n.* a work of reference covering either all fields of knowledge or one specific subject. Although most encyclopedias are alphabetical, with cross-references, some are organized thematically with indexes, to keep related subjects together. [Latin from Greek *egkuklios* = all-round and *paideia* = education] (HEncD)

en·cy·clo·pe·di·a, en·cy·clo·pae·di·a [...] *n.* [...] A comprehensive, often multi-volume, reference work containing articles on a wide range of subjects or on numerous aspects of a particular field, usually arranged alphabetically. [Medieval Latin *encyclopaedia*, general education course, from Greek *enkuklopaideia*, a mistaken transcription of *enkuklios paideia*, general education: *enkuklios*, circular, general (see encyclical) + *paideia*, education, training, from *pais* (stem *paid-*), child.] (RDUD)

On the basis of this sample collection of definitions, it is possible to draw up an initial set of characteristics which, it is hoped, partially captures a common understanding of these two kinds of reference work.

Dictionaries:
i) provide 'linguistic' information about the words of a language. This type of information includes meaning, inflection, pronunciation, part of speech, grammatical function, and etymology.

ii) sometimes include 'encyclopedic' data.

iii) sometimes provide special features such as usage notes.

iv) may be multilingual, supplying equivalent words in one or more other languages.

v) may be restricted to a specific area of language or attempt comprehensive coverage of the words of a language.

(Synonyms include 'lexicon' and 'word-book'.)

Encyclopedias:

i) are 'literary' works.

ii) are often multi-volume publications.

iii) may include an index.

iv) may be comprehensive and cover all branches of knowledge or at least a wide range of subjects. Alternatively, they may concentrate on a restricted subject area:

> *encyclopedia*. A comprehensive compilation of information on concepts pertaining to some or all fields of knowledge, arranged alphabetically under fairly broad subject headings. (Manuila 1981:58, cited by Landau 1989:23).

Those encyclopedia compilers who ambitiously aim to cover all branches of knowledge are continuing a tradition that goes back to Platonic idealism. Plato desired to "catch all knowledge in a single taxonomic net" and could be validly dubbed the 'father of encyclopedias' (McArthur 1986:38).

Both dictionaries and encyclopedias:

i) are works of reference usually in the form of a book, though sometimes available as a computer database.

ii) are usually arranged in alphabetical order, but may be organized thematically.

iii) contain cross-references.

iv) contain headwords. This feature is only mentioned above in connection with dictionaries; a factor which may be significant because a given encyclopedia article may be assigned any one of a choice of 'headwords' (or headings) whereas the microstructural information (e.g. on pronunciation or word class) supplied by a dictionary entry is uniquely linked to a specific headword:

> The entry-words of an encyclopedia are always nouns, both common nouns and proper nouns. But those nouns are not the subjects of the microstructural information contained in the entries; they are only the signs - in the sense of road signs - indicating the contents of the entries. They are labels attached to the entries for convenience of reference: typically, for example, an entry headed by the word *garden* will contain not an exploration of the concept, an explanation of the etymology of the word, etc., but a history and geography of gardening, an explanation of its techniques, etc. For many entries, a different entry-word might have been chosen, and this would not have modified noticeably the contents of the entry. That is why an encyclopedia can be translated, but a dictionary cannot. (Béjoint 1994:30)

Even at this introductory, rather superficial level of analysis, doubts begin to be cast upon the practicality of a strict dualism between dictionaries and encyclopedias. If dictionaries can include 'encyclopedic data', clearly certain types of information common to both types of reference work. Considerable overlap self-evidently exists in the general area of 'meaning'. Furthermore, a description of a dictionary such as "a reference book dealing with a particular subject" could equally well apply to a volume which publishers have chosen to name 'encyclopedia'. The title of a reference work will often have been selected on account of the commercial potential of its connotations. In such cases, any desire to reflect the distinctions of

lexicographical typology cannot be assumed:

> *Dictionary* is a powerful word. Authors and publishers have found that if they call a reference book a dictionary it tends to sell better than it would if called by another name because the word suggests authority, scholarship, and precision. (Landau 1989:5).

(For further discussion of the word 'dictionary' in dictionaries and in metalexicographical literature, cf. Béjoint 1994:6 ff.)

1.3.2. Dictionary and Encyclopedia Tendencies

The characteristics elicited above from definitions in contemporary general-purpose reference works are necessarily rather limited in number. Figure 2 below is an attempt to arrive at a more extended set of modern encyclopedia and dictionary tendencies. (These can be regarded as either pole of the 'cline of encyclopedicity' proposed in Section 1.6.2. below).

	DICTIONARIES	ENCYCLOPEDIAS
TEXT-ORIENTED ASPECTS		
Ordering principles		
Alphabetical ordering	Usual organizational principle	Usual organizational principle (cf. Collison and Preece 1991:259)
Thematic ordering	Less common	More common
Information types		
Extralinguistic/ Encyclopedic information	More limited treatment than in an encyclopedia	Main focus
Linguistic/Lexical information	Main focus	More limited treatment than in a dictionary
Spelling information	Yes	Yes (unavoidably, but not all spelling variations are provided) (cf. Crystal 1990:4-5 on spelling issues in relation to encyclopedias and Ibid:7 on capitalization)
Pronunciation information	Can be included	Not usually included (cf. Crystal 1990:5-6 on pronunciation issues regarding encyclopedias)
Part of speech information	Can be included	Not usually included
Syntactic information	Can be included	Not usually included

Figure 2) A Comparative Analysis of Dictionary and Encyclopedia Features

Figure 2) continued

	DICTIONARIES	ENCYCLOPEDIAS
Paradigmatic information (e.g. synonyms)	Can be included	Occasionally included
Etymological information	Can be included	Occasionally included
Grammatical function words	Usually included	Not usually included (The entry-words of encyclopedias are almost always nouns.)
Proper names	Less common	Yes
Biographical entries	Less common	More common
Geographical entries	Less common	More common
Entry /Article features		
Division of entry/article into separate senses	Yes	No
Language style	More condensed	Less condensed
Use of abbreviations and codes	More common and more extensive	Less common and less extensive
Definitions	Yes (usually obligatory)	Yes (optional)
Examples illustrating language use (contextual information)	Very common	No
Discussions	Less common (but found, for example, in usage notes and in entries for function words)	Yes
Cross-references	Yes	Yes
Author by-lines attached to entries/articles	No	Sometimes included
Length of entries/articles	Shorter	Longer
Features relating to the text as a whole		
No. of languages	Monolingual or multilingual	Usually monolingual
Multi-volume editions	Less common	More common
Page format	Smaller	Larger
Use of pictorial illustrations (including maps)	Less common	More common
Index	Not usually included	Sometimes included, especially in multi-volume editions
Appendices	Yes	Yes

Figure 2) continued

	DICTIONARIES	ENCYCLOPEDIAS
Multiple authorship and editorship	Yes	Yes
USER-ORIENTED ASPECTS		
Designed for native speakers/non-native speakers	Either	Usually for native speakers
Browsability	Lesser onus	Greater onus
Portability	Greater	Lesser
Consultation time	Quicker	Slower
Susceptibility to becoming dated	Lesser	Greater

The set of suggested characteristics in Figure 2 can be adapted for use as a yardstick against which concrete examples of both types of reference work can be 'measured'. Figure 3 below compares the *Collins Concise English Dictionary* (CCED) and the *Cambridge Concise Encyclopedia* (CCE).

	Collins Concise English Dictionary (CCED)	**Cambridge Concise Encyclopedia (CCE)**
TEXT-ORIENTED ASPECTS		
Ordering principles		
Alphabetical ordering	Yes	Yes
Thematic ordering	No	No
Information types		
Extralinguistic/ Encyclopedic information	16,000 encyclopedic entries	Main focus
Linguistic/Lexical information	Main focus (125,000 references)	Included, but not as the main focus
Spelling information	Yes	Yes (unavoidably, but not all spelling variations are provided)
Pronunciation information	Yes	No
Part of speech information	Yes	No
Syntactic information	Yes	No

Figure 3) A Comparative Analysis of CCED and CCE Features

Figure 3) continued

	Collins Concise English Dictionary (CCED)	**Cambridge Concise Encyclopedia (CCE)**
Paradigmatic information (e.g. synonyms)	Yes	Occasionally included
Etymological information	Yes	No
Grammatical function words	Yes	No
Proper names	Yes	Yes
Biographical entries	Yes	Yes
Geographical entries	Yes	Yes
Entry/Article features		
Division of entry/article into separate senses	Yes	No
Language style	More condensed	Less condensed
Use of abbreviations and codes	Yes (115 abbreviations listed in the inside front cover page and in the front matter p.xx)	Yes (76 abbreviations listed in the front matter p.vii)
Definitions	Yes	Yes (selectively)
Examples illustrating language use (contextual information)	Yes	No
Discussions	Yes (but usually only for the usage notes and the usage guide in the back matter)	Yes
Cross-references	Yes	Yes
Author by-lines attached to entries/articles	No	No
Length of entries/articles	Shorter	Longer
Features relating to the text as a whole		
No. of languages	Monolingual	Monolingual
No. of volumes	Single volume edition	Single volume edition
Page format	23.5 x 15.5 cm	23.5 x 15.5 cm
Use of pictorial illustrations (including maps)	None	570 maps and diagrams
Index	No	No

Figure 3) continued

	Collins Concise English Dictionary (CCED)	Cambridge Concise Encyclopedia (CCE)
Appendices	Yes (70 page usage guide in the back matter)	Yes (101 pages of back matter)
Multiple authorship and editorship	Yes	Yes
USER-ORIENTED ASPECTS		
Designed for native speakers/non-native speakers	Native speakers	Native speakers

To what extent do CCED and CCE conform to the posited characteristics of dictionaries and encyclopedias respectively? It is evident from Figure 3 that CCED largely corresponds to our hypothetical notion of a prototypical dictionary (qua word-book) in terms of the majority of its features. The inclusion of proper names at the head of biographical and geographical entries does, however, add an encyclopedic element to the textual 'mix'. CCE also reveals itself to be close to its textual prototype. Most of its features are characteristically 'encyclopedic'. The absence of author by-lines attached to articles is not unusual as this feature is more commonly found in larger encyclopedias. The relatively small format is explained by the fact that CCE is a concise edition of the *Cambridge Encyclopedia*.

The difference in focus between the two reference works on 'linguistic'/'lexical' or 'extralinguistic'/'encyclopedic' information can be seen if articles on the same subject are compared:

car (ka:) *n.* **1. a.** Also called: **motorcar, automobile.** a self-propelled road vehicle designed to carry passengers, that is powered by an internal-combustion engine. **b.** (*as modifier*): *car coat.* **2.** a conveyance for passengers, freight, etc., such as a cable car or the carrier of an airship or balloon. **3.** *Brit.* a railway vehicle for passengers only. **4.** *Chiefly U.S. & Canad.* a railway carriage or van. **5.** a poetic word for **chariot.** [C14: from Anglo-F *carre,* ult. rel. to L *carra, carrum* two-wheeled wagon, prob. of Celtic origin] (CCED)

car, also **motor car** (UK), **automobile** (USA) The general name for a passenger-carrying, self-propelled vehicle designed for normal domestic use on roads. The motive power system includes the engine (of whatever type), and its fuel supply, and the lubrication, exhaust, and cooling systems. The power developed by the engine is transmitted to the wheels by the transmission system, which includes gears, clutches, shafts, axles, and brakes. The engine and transmission are housed in the carriage unit, which also provides the compartment for the driver and passengers to sit, and in which the steering, engine controls, suspension, and electrical components can be mounted. The motor car became a reality with the invention in 1844 of the medium-speed internal combustion engine by Daimler in Germany. However, it was not until the early 1900s, and the application in the USA of mass production techniques to the motor car, that mass motoring started to become a reality. » Daimler; electric car; engine; jeep; motor racing; transmission; tyre [i] p. 130 (CCE)

The CCED entry provides the following types of 'linguistic' information: spelling, pronunciation, part of speech, synonyms, collocation (*car coat*), etymology, and meaning. The explanation of meaning is divided into five senses, each of which is supplied with a definition in a separate part of the entry. 'Linguistic' information in the CCE article, however, is restricted to spelling (unavoidably), synonyms, and meaning. The encyclopedia does not subdivide its treatment of *car* into explanations of separate senses. Instead, it focuses on the most general

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meaning. Although the first sentence ("The general name for a passenger-carrying, self-propelled vehicle designed for normal domestic use on roads") comprises a definition, the rest of the article consists of a discussion that supplies additional 'extralinguistic' information (e.g. an explanation of how a car functions, its component parts, and its history).

1.4. The Concept of Encyclopedicity

In the discussion so far, the term 'encyclopedic' has been used to describe a type of reference work, a type of information, and a type of entry. These three concepts are examined in this section.

1.4.1. Encyclopedic Reference Works

Many attempts have been made to devise a typology of lexicographical works (see Section 1.6.1.). The notion of encyclopedicity has often been used as a criterion for distinguishing different types of reference work.

A reference work can be considered 'encyclopedic' both in terms of its form and organization, as well as its content (i.e. the information it conveys). Identifying formal and organizational aspects of encyclopedic texts is relatively straightforward. As we have seen in Section 1.3., these include a less condensed style of writing, less use of abbreviations and codes, longer articles, a larger page format, and greater use of illustrations. A statement such as 'Encyclopedias generally make greater use of illustrations than dictionaries' is uncontroversial. Encyclopedic content, however, is more complex to isolate; not least because the dividing line between linguistic and other types of information is often blurred.

The statement 'Encyclopedias explain things, whereas dictionaries explain language' expresses one of the most common and pervasive perceptions about these two types of reference work. A strong version of its interpretation implies a strict dualism between them. Lexicographers need to define for themselves and their public the provinces of knowledge which fall within the scope of the reference work being compiled. The introduction to the first edition (1911) of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, for example, makes it very clear on which side of the genre divide it falls: "The book is designed as a dictionary, and not as an encyclopaedia; that is, the uses of words and phrases as such are its subject matter, [...]" (cf. Finkenstaedt 1984:109).

Examination of most dictionary entries soon leads one, however, to the realization that it is not easy to provide much useful information about 'words' without simultaneously mentioning the 'things' (abstract or concrete) to which they refer. This is a recurring theme throughout metalexicographical literature:

> Certes il n'est pas facile de maintenir une démarcation entre *le mot* et *l'objet* auquel il se réfère: chaque fois que l'on voudra parler de l'objet - et c'est ce que fait toute communication verbale - le mot apparaîtra et chaque fois que le mot apparaîtra, il se référera à un objet (Wiegand 1984).
> (Lara 1989:280)

> It is impossible to define the *signifié* of a word without mentioning and to a certain extent describing the referent. Without that, the definition is reduced to virtually nothing, as Haiman has shown in his famous and highly controversial paper: a lexicographer wanting to define *elephant* without running the risk of falling

into a *définition de chose* would end up with something like 'that animal which is named elephant' (Haiman 1980:330).
(Béjoint 1994:23)

> The distinction between a dictionary and an encyclopaedia is easy to state but difficult to carry out in a practical way; a dictionary explains words, whereas an encyclopaedia explains things. Because words achieve their usefulness by reference to things, however, it is difficult to construct a dictionary without considerable attention to the objects and abstractions designated. Nonetheless, while a modern encyclopaedia may still be called a dictionary, no good dictionary has ever been called an encyclopaedia. (Read 1991:277).

To return to the issue of reference book titles mentioned in the quotation from Read, a well-known example of a work that would not nowadays be considered a true dictionary is Diderot and d'Alembert's 18th Century *Encyclopédie* which is sub-titled *Dictionnaire raisonné des sciences, des arts et des métiers* (Béjoint 1994:7). The chances of an encyclopedic work being labelled a dictionary are higher if the work is alphabetically ordered. Furthermore, the smaller the physical dimensions of a reference book, the less likely it is to be entitled 'encyclopedia' (except in the case of 'pocket encyclopedias'). For example, Tony Thorne's paperback-sized *Dictionary of Popular Culture* provides discussions of *travellers, tree-sniffing, trepanning, tribute acts, trickle-down theory* etc. (in that order), yet little linguistic information is provided beyond spelling.

A common perception exists that dictionaries should be about linguistic signs, whereas encyclopedias should concern themselves with 'things in the world'. In trying to define the bounds of the knowledge to be contained within their works, lexicographers are, however, often troubled by the fuzziness surrounding this distinction between information about signs and information about their referents. As will hopefully become clear in the course of this investigation, the compilers of hybrid lexicographical genres, such as encyclopedic learners' dictionaries, can sidestep the issue. The deciding factor as regards inclusion policy for ELDs should be whether the information - linguistic, cultural, or both - will be useful for foreign language learners.

A defining feature of an encyclopedic reference work is its inclusion of proper nouns. Attitudes towards their presence in dictionaries have varied with time and place (see Section 1.5.). It has sometimes been argued that the inclusion of proper nouns is inappropriate to the dictionary genre because it a) confuses the theoretical distinction between 'dictionary' and 'encyclopedia' and b) risks overburdening the text:

> Various large blocks of words have a questionable status. Both geographic names and biographical entries are selectively included in some dictionaries but are really encyclopaedic. More than 2,000,000 insects have been identified and named by entomologists, while names of chemical compounds and drugs may be almost as numerous. Trade names and proprietary names may number·in the hundreds and thousands. Vogue suffixes like "-ism," "-ology," "-scope," or "-wise" are used by some with the freedom of a grammatical construction. These millions are beyond what any dictionary can be expected to include. (Read 1991:283).

On the other hand, many arguments have been made in favour of their selective inclusion. For example:

1) Some proper names have gained metaphorical (e.g. connotative) meanings:

> Like most people schooled in the British traditions of reference publishing, I had been taught to respect the dualism separating the main genres of dictionary and encyclopedia. The former, we were given to understand, dealt with linguistic issues; the latter with 'reality', 'facts', 'knowledge'. I cannot remember a time when I did not worry about the artificiality of this distinction: there are for example, too many cases of the *White House/Whitehall* type. (One would not expect to find names of streets or residences in a dictionary;

but when people start saying things like *The White House is in confusion*, the meaning to be elucidated is indeed a lexicographical one.) (Crystal 1990:3).

2) Some proper names have generated derivatives carrying transferred senses (e.g. *Machiavellian*) (cf. Finkenstaedt 1984: 108-9).

3) It is more handy for the user to be able to consult both common and proper nouns in the same volume:

> Doubtless it is true that theoretically a dictionary should deal only with the ordinary words in the language and that proper names are outside its scope [...] Surely the more a book gives the better. Theory that would exclude pertinent matter which increases the clarity of the whole treatment is sterile; and it is undeniably handy to be able to find information about places and persons of eminence in the same volume which contains explanation of the common words of the language. (Hulbert 1955:85).

4) Learning a language also involves learning its names:

> Schon eine oberflächliche Analyse von Wörterbüchern macht deutlich, daß der theoretisch von manchen geforderte Ausschluß der Namen aus dem Lexikon und ihre Zuordnung zum Enzyklopädischen nicht durchführbar ist, nicht durchführbar aus theoretischen Gründen, weil über die - in der jüngsten Entwicklung zunehmende - Namenableitung immer mehr Elemente des Wortschatzes sichtbar und spürbar Namen enthalten; aus praktischen Gründen können Namen nicht ausgeschlossen werden, weil zum Lernen einer Sprache auch das Erlernen ihrer Namen gehört, und weil man nicht viel Vernünftiges reden und schreiben kann, ohne Namen zu verwenden: wir sprechen schließlich von Menschen in dieser Welt, die eine "local habitation and a name" haben. (Finkenstaedt 1984:115).

(Proper noun entries in ELDs are discussed in more detail in Section 3.7.)

1.4.2. Encyclopedic Information

'Linguistic (or lexical) information' is sometimes contrasted with 'encyclopedic information' as if the two concepts were mutually exclusive. Adopting such a view is problematic on account of the terminological inconsistency involved in defining one type of information ('encyclopedic information') in terms of a particular text type (the 'encyclopedia') and employing it in logical antithesis to another type of information ('linguistic (or lexical) information') defined in terms of a different order i.e. language. 'Linguistic information' can most validly be set in opposition to 'extralinguistic information' (an existing term). Strictly speaking, therefore, a dualism between 'encyclopedic information' and another (as yet uncoined) text-defined term such as 'dictionary information' would be logically consistent (if somewhat vacuous). Since such a term has not yet been established (in English), it remains important to be aware of the looseness with which the term 'encyclopedic information' is often used. Sometimes, for instance, a contrast is drawn between 'lexical words' and 'encyclopedic words'. Examples of the latter would include technical and culture-specific lexis. This use of terminology risks confusing types of words with types of information, however. Indeed, some metalexicographers prefer instead to restrict use of the contrasting pairs of terms 'lexical' and 'encyclopedic' to describing types of information:

> In suggesting that learners had greater difficulty in acquiring (or fully mastering) some vocabulary items rather than others I was harking back to a distinction drawn by Sweet (1899/1964), and afterwards echoed by the *ALD*, between 'encyclopaedic' and 'lexical' words. Sweet's use of these terms was unfortunate. The distinction should rather be drawn between encyclopaedic and lexical (or semantic) information, since a native-like familiarity with quite ordinary words such as *father* or *mother* assumes knowledge of conventional roles of fathers and mothers in the home, and so on. Nonetheless, the distinction which Sweet

was attempting to draw - between low-frequency specialised or technical terms and high-frequency polysemous words - was a valid and important one. (Cowie 1983:137)

Hartmann (1983c:117-118) notes that the term 'pragmatic' can be applied, amongst other uses, to 'encyclopaedic information (which may or may not be supplied in a dictionary) relating to historical characters, geographical places and biological specimens'.

Roe (1978:16) points out the varying usage of the term 'encyclopedic' and its confusion with 'non-lexical' when applied to dictionary components:

> The term "encyclopedic" is sometimes used to describe "non-lexical" elements found in dictionaries, either as supplements or in the body of the work, e.g. proper names, abbreviations, important dates and events. Strictly speaking, "encyclopedic" refers to the description or explanation of the object or abstraction for which a word stands, while "non-lexical" describes a wide variety of historical or utilitarian facts and figures. Encyclopedic dictionaries have characteristically featured both encyclopedic and non-lexical elements.

It is worth noting, therefore, that discussions concerning the concept of encyclopedicity are complicated by a certain amount of terminological confusion and inconsistency. A contrast is often made between a term from a bundle consisting of 'lexical', 'linguistic', and 'semantic' with another term from a set comprising 'non-lexical','cultural','encyclopedic', and 'extralinguistic'. At a risk of stating the obvious, the terms within each constellation refer to concepts which often overlap, yet belong to different orders.

1.4.3. Encyclopedic Entries

The difficulty of arriving at a definition of 'encyclopedic information' stems not just from the terminological inconsistency outlined above, but also from a context-dependent ambiguity which surrounds the term. When referring to encyclopedic information in encyclopedias, it simply (and unremarkably) means 'information that is contained in encyclopedias'. On the other hand, 'encyclopedic information in dictionaries' is found in encyclopedic appendices ('appended encyclopedic information') (see Section 3.11.) and in two types of dictionary entry which can be usefully distinguished. These could be termed 'overtly encyclopedic entries' and 'covertly encyclopedic entries'. There are two types of overtly encyclopedic entry: large encyclopedic articles (see Section 3.8) and those in which the headword is a proper noun, thus clearly signalling to the reader that the entry contains a significant amount of information that goes beyond, or is not chiefly concerned with, unarguably linguistic matters such as word class and pronunciation. Examples of such entries include biographical and geographical entries, as well as entries for historical events and phenomena. Covertly encyclopedic entries (such as CCED's entry for *car* - see Section 1.3.2.) are those where the headword is not a proper noun, but which nonetheless contain information that might be described as going beyond that minimally required to define a lexical unit and which is prototypically associated with encyclopedia content.

1.4.4. 'Optional Encyclopedic Information' and 'Compulsory Defining Information'

The characterization of encyclopedic information thus far presented tacitly acknowledges that a continuum often exists in the lexicographer's mind between the quantity and quality of information that must be provided to define a lexical item adequately, and the quantity and quality of information that, if supplied, would exceed the minimal information requirements

of a definition. If the latter type of content is termed 'optional encyclopedic information', the former might be labelled 'compulsory defining information' and is designed to capture only that which is essential to understand the concept. Deciding on the quantity and quality of information that constitutes compulsory defining information involves subjective judgement on the part of the definition writer. This subjectivity significantly accounts for the variation in the quantity and quality of information supplied in entries for a) the same lexical unit in lexicographical works of the different types and b) different lexical units in the same dictionary. The issue of deciding when it is appropriate to advance beyond the criterial aspects of meaning (or compulsory defining information, to use the term introduced above) is one that lexicographers have always had to face:

> There seems to be no one method that is best for defining all words. The lexicographer must use artistry in selecting the ways that will convey a sense accurately and succinctly. He attempts to find what is "criterial" in a particular meaning, but he can also give further detail until he runs into the area of the encyclopaedic. (Read 1991:284)

Figure 4 below is an attempt to present the different types of encyclopedic information in diagrammatic form. 'Encyclopedic reference work' here embraces both encyclopedias and dictionaries with encyclopedic content. The diagram is designed to show that optional encyclopedic information can naturally only appear in a covertly encyclopedic entry.
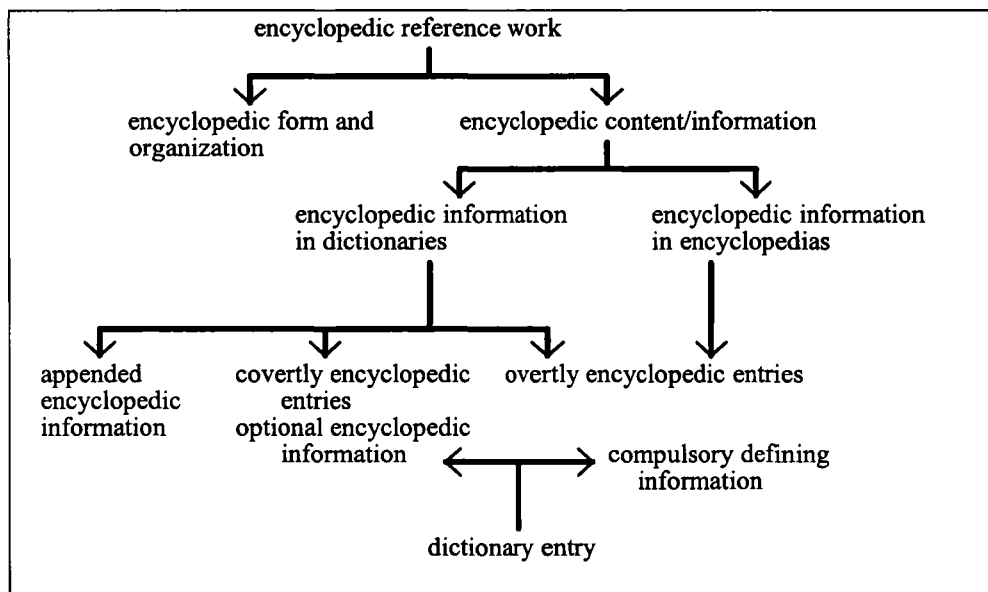

Figure 4) Types of Encyclopedic Information

1.4.5. Prototype Theory and Encyclopedic Information

Space does not permit a detailed or comprehensive investigation of the various prototype theories proposed by different researchers to be supplied here (cf. Aitchison 1994:51-63 for a useful overview). Nevertheless, prototype theory deserves a mention because, as Stock (1992) argues, the inclusion of cultural information within definitions is nowadays easier for