

AN EXPLORATION OF THE ENTRY'S LAYOUT IN ENGLISH DICTIONARIES

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ABSTRACT: *Background: Lexicography is basically focused on the layout, compilation, utility and assessment of general dictionaries and specialized lexicography emphasizes on the layout, compilation, utility and assessment of the specialized dictionaries. An average user of English language, who can also be a translator, usually relies on a dictionary as a reliable source of knowledge. Objectives: The manuscript focuses on the role a dictionary plays in providing help to its readers. It is possible for a dictionary to do so with the help of its structure. The manuscript also explores the elements of the format of the entries with the help of a survey of English dictionaries by viewing the dictionaries' introductions and examining the format of the entries. Conclusion: The trend of modern publishers and users are similarly seeking to advance lexicography towards offering more selections of information in the volumes of the dictionaries' which require less time to read or check.*

KEYWORDS: English, Dictionary, Words, Spelling, Grammar, Lexicography

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the centuries, lexicography was fortunate to enjoy remarkable advancements and innovations, like many other sciences. This resulted in flourishing the Western dictionary-making and particularly English. This paper will focus on the 'role' that a dictionary plays in offering assistance to its intended users. An average user of English, who can also be a translator, is very much dependant on a dictionary as a reliable source of knowledge. The dictionary is believed to achieve this through its structure which would probably be seen as consisting of source, contents and a respective organization. After viewing the lexicography history, it is easily clarified that dictionaries play a significant role in providing information to its users.

But it is unwise to examine the dictionary's layout from any point of view other than that of its infrastructure's nucleus, the entry. For the relationship between the form of the entry and the dictionary is analogous to that of the atom and its element. There could not be a subsistence of one without the other. In addition, the dictionary is a mere representative of a selection of entries based on specific guidelines set by the compiling lexicographers. The most convenient procedure to follow in studying the entry would be to observe it from actual manifestations provided by various dictionaries. Contemporary lexicography is still working on this assignment of employing a selection of different types of dictionaries.

Although the selection of monolingual English dictionaries is a vast and an admirable one, there are a few elite that are well circulated. They are probably viewed prestigious, by the users' market, for one or the other reasons. The analytical survey of the entries will be based on the major publishers' monolingual flag-bearers.

The impression one gets is that the following six English dictionaries are among those popularly circulated elite (alphabetically arranged):

1. Chambers 20th century Dictionary, 1987, British.
2. Collins Dictionary of English language, 1983, British.
3. Longman English Dictionary, 1986, British.
4. The American Heritage Dictionary of the English language, 1981, American.
5. The Concise Oxford Dictionary, 1984, British.
6. Webster's Third New International Dictionary of the English language, 1971, American.

This paper explores elements of the entry's format through a survey of English dictionaries by looking at the dictionaries' introductions. Then examining the format of the entries of these dictionaries, and are usually divided into the following types of information:

- Headword / Spelling
- Pronunciation
- Grammatical data
- Style Labels
- Meaning
- Use
- Examples
- Etymology
- Special Signs

It should be noted though, that a few English dictionaries might provide further supplementary sub-divisions of the above information.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In any English dictionary, 'The Introduction' or The Front matter as referred to, by dictionary makers is designed to help the reader use, understand and make further use of the materials presented to him. Some dictionaries however, prefer to use other terms denoting the same role that 'The Introduction' provides, with equal usefulness.

Such terms as "Guide to the use of the Dictionary" and "Using the Dictionary" (1) would leave us in no doubt of what to expect to find in them. Before we attempt to account for such materials found in 'The Introduction', we should first consider some other components that are although in the same section, they may be of independent nature.

It is a common practice among dictionaries to provide an Explanatory Chart with full-size entries along with separate indications of every aspect of these entries at the beginning of the dictionary. These are usually printed with simple-to-follow guide in order to make the dictionary easier to understand, particularly for an unfamiliar user.

Sometimes, essays are presented to elaborate on the English language, its varieties, development and history, according to the needs of every individual dictionary. Examples of these essays are: (a) The development of the English language in various parts of the world such as Britain, America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, etc. (b) The existence of dialects within a single country (e.g. Yorkshire, Scouse, Cockney, etc. in England). Some essays prefer to explain to an interested reader how the English language developed and to what it is at the present time. On various occasions, some mention of the stages of the Lexicographical work might appear as well. Although, I like to read such literature myself, I doubt if most users are keen to do or whether such plentiful literature is economically viable and desirable from the publishers' point of view. The Arabic dictionaries are also well known for their enthusiastic and generous provision of literature. Yet it should be said, that when it comes to the relevance of such literature, the English dictionaries outsmart their Arabic counterparts.

Grammatical explanation is also introduced by some dictionaries to help their readers appreciate the grammatical information available to them, be it separately introduced at the beginning or at the end of the dictionary or even within the entries themselves. Further discussions, in this chapter, about grammatical information will be carried out on individual items as they are considered to occur within the various components of the Entry. Apparently, the best practice of regulating such information would be to introduce it separately.

All major dictionaries of the English language favor a detailed guide to Pronunciation in order to enable any user unfamiliar with the pronunciation symbols to pronounce words effectively (e.g. the use of the well-known IPA chart or the use of a specially designed chart in comparison with that of the IPA's) (2). Dictionaries usually offer this pronunciation chart along with other helpful tips such as: simple words in which the pronunciation symbol can be easily articulated and practiced, a guide or a key chart of all these symbols, Stress (Accent) placing, as well as how to follow it and pronounce it correctly along with examples of course. This type of information is a major point of difference between English dictionaries, where it is needed, and Arabic dictionaries, where it is redundant and therefore not provided.

A general description, of the underlying structure of the dictionary as a whole and of individual entries, is another utility supplied by major dictionaries to satisfy interested users. Arrangement of entries, as mentioned above, will be dealt with in this thesis in a separate chapter.

Dictionaries always offer their users Abbreviation list located in an easy-to-find part of the dictionary which is usually found at the beginning or/and at the end. Examples from such lists are, *Ar* for Arabic, *RP* for Received Pronunciation, *US* for United States, *usu* for usually, *W* for Welsh, *zool* for Zoology, etc. Arabic dictionaries are presently accommodating such a useful and necessary part of modern printing technology.

Note that in spite of the diversity of varying terminologies used by different dictionaries in their meta-language; these terminologies would probably lead at the end, in most cases, to the same denotations, though some would surely remain exclusive to individual dictionaries.

Attention should also be drawn to what is generally accepted that the lexicographers are not frequently in the habit of providing much discussion concerning how they deal with the meaning aspect of entries. This could be attributed to the highly abstractive nature of their work. For it is the lexicographer's job to abstractly portray a simile of the language, as argued by Ladislav Zgusta (1971: 249): "The indications of connotative values, the classification of

the lexical unit as belonging a restricted language, all this is based on an abstractive work of the lexicographer. It is, therefore, not without justification if the whole entry is conceived as the lexical abstraction of a lexical unit. The lexical abstraction is, in this conception, the lexicographic approximation and representation of the status of a lexical unit in the lexical stock of a language."

Headword

The entry of almost all western monolingual dictionaries consists of two parts: the Lemma (i.e. the morphological, syntactic and combinatorial indications of the lexical unit) and the text. The Lemma's main role, it is argued, is that of distinguishing as well as describing the word or unit concerned as expressed by Ladislav Zgusta (1971: 250): "The purpose of the lemma is to identify the lexical unit, to locate it in the ... system, and to describe its form..."

The headword, which is a part of the Lemma, in any entry is the word at the top left beginning of that entry, normally, printed in boldface type and standing out slightly to the left of the remainder of the text. The selection of the majority of headwords in a language dictionary is based on the ordinary words of that language. Yet such a dictionary may also represent the headword as a:

LETTER such as A, B, C, etc.

SYMBOL such as œ, \$, %, etc.

ABBREVIATION is a shortened form of a word or words to lessen the effort spent on their use such as lbw for leg before wicket. This may also include **ACRONYMS** such as ECU for European Currency Unit, **CLIPPED WORDS** such as max for maximum, and **CONTRACTION** such as I'll for I will (3).

PART-OF-SPEECH such as verb, noun, adjective, etc.

AFFIX such as the prefix -ed, or the suffix -ed, etc.

NAME, be it a proper name such as David, a name of a place such as Utopia, or a title such as Mr.

COMPOUND word that is a combination of two or more words to form a new word. The new compound word will appear written in one of three orthographic types: solid, hyphenated or open. For example, framework, self-respect and arm chair respectively. Also compounds can be mainly formed from nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs (4).

IDIOM, a specified group of words with a special meaning that is not to be understood fully from the meaning of the individual words. An Idiom can usually appear under any word of its group that has the clearest idiomatic meaning. For example, the phrase, fly a kite, is listed under fly.

TERM, is a word denoting a special meaning in a particular field or subject. For example, morphology in grammar and innings in cricket.

Or any other thing that might have a written form.

RUN-ON-ENTRIES are also called Derived or Undefined words by some dictionaries, are those valuable supplements to any entry. They are compact as far as space is concerned and they are concise which dodges repetition. Run-on-Entries usually appear without any definition, relying on the definition(s) of the headword. Yet they always appear with a part of speech symbol if different from the headword or not shared by other run-ons and, when necessary, pronunciation and essential grammatical data are also presented. The placement of Run-on-Entries, though may differ from one dictionary to the other, is either prior to Etymology or following it. However, some lexicographers argue for it to be presented separately. Ladislav Zgusta (1971: 272) is one of those advocates who suggests that the placement of run-on-entries would be served by: "A better procedure, however, is to list them as entry-words and indicate how they are derived from another word which has a full entry of its own in the dictionary."

Spelling

The English language does not provide the perfect or even the closest correspondence between its graphic signs i.e. letters, and their sounds. For instance, the /f/ phoneme may be represented by the letters: *f*, *ph*, *gh*. On the other hand, the letters *gh* may represent the phonemes: /g/ in *Coughlin*, /f/ in *cough*, or not to be pronounced in spite of possible effect on the preceding diphthong such as /au/ in *plough*, /ou/ in *though* (5). In addition to the other problem of the written letters that are not pronounced, for example, the *e* in *euphoria* and the *k* in *know*. There is the syllabic and inflectional separation as well as the placement of hyphenation to contend with.

Some of the dictionaries studied here, courageously introduced a spelling feature that provided extra structural information about written syllable indications i.e. separations, on the headword itself for ease of pronunciation and end-of-line hyphenation. Yet the majority of dictionaries played down the importance of such endeavor and left it to individual necessities to decide its appearance somewhere in the entry.

To illustrate this impressive feature from one of the accommodating dictionaries, one should look at the syllables in the word identification. Here, they were separated by dots to show the syllables' divisions, to become *i.den.ti.fi.ca.tion* and by the dots and the plus sign (+) to indicate inflection as well as syllable divisions (6). As for hyphenation the positions of the dots indicate where the word can be broken for the end-of-line paragraph typing, as long as it is realized that no single letter from beginning or end may be left alone on the line and that there are other correct positions for breaking i.e. hyphenating, the word which may be found in the language.

As for Spelling Variations, every dictionary accommodates this feature, when it decides that it is necessary, either in the lemma or in the text depending on the requirements of individual entries. These spelling variations may be words of equal frequent use, similar words used by another English speaking country, words with shared or similar meaning(s) along with their style, use or dialect restrictions if required.

Pronunciation

As previously indicated, all major English dictionaries provide the correct pronunciation(s) of any word in the Lemma part of the Entry. Unless, it is thought that the word might not be predictable to pronounce. Such decision is taken by the dictionary's compilers while relying

on the criteria on which the dictionary is based to guide them. To illustrate an over-simplified version of this, one would say that words like: cat, pen, take, red, etc. are very likely to be easy to pronounce from the regular letter-to-sound correspondence rules of English. However words such as, facade, phlegm, pneumonia, psyche, ptomaine, xylophone, etc., are more difficult to pronounce when relying only on their orthographic forms and they are not as easy to spell and write when people encounter (hear) them for the first time (7).

The pronunciation of any word is presented in a unique typography devised by individual dictionaries. They may choose to present the pronunciation with or without round brackets (), obliques //, reversed virgules \/, or by diacritics on the headword itself. Incidentally, the use of the obliques, throughout this thesis, will be the preference.

All the dictionaries that provide pronunciation, show stress or accent placement as well as possible pronunciation variation when required. An example of the latter is the indication of the American pronunciation and variation, when necessary, in British dictionaries and vice versa. For example, tomato as in British /t.mc:t../ and U.S. /t.meit../).

Grammatical data

The entry, in any of the dictionaries studied, often contains several or all of the grammatical data listed below. Their inclusion does not exclusively depend on the criteria on which the dictionary is guided (e.g. target audience, size and technique). It also depends, for every entry, on which part of speech it is for, on users' familiarity and on the appropriateness of the data to the particular situation. These grammatical data were found to be:

PARTS OF SPEECH such as the traditional eight: n, v, adj, adv, pron, prep, conj and interj. They, of course, stand for noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjunction and interjection respectively. An entry may indicate more than one part of speech besides the headword. It may alternatively disseminate the same headword into different entries, or within the same entry, each with one or more parts of speech.

TRANSITIVE & INTRANSITIVE VERBS indicate, when using letters like t & i or tv & iv, whether the verb in question, when used in a sentence, requires a direct object, does not require a direct object or both.

TENSE makes the basic distinction of whether the verb is past or non-past, if considered not predictable.

NUMBER makes the distinction of whether the word is 'plu' for plural and/or 'sing' for singular. This may precede the definition of the entry or any sense of that entry and it informs the users that such a definition is marked to be understood and/or used accordingly.

COUNTABILITY is a feature that distinguishes whether a word is C for countable. For example, 1, 2, or 20 book(s) and similar items, or U for uncountable. For example, tea, sand, ice, etc.

INFLECTION indicates the irregular nature the word takes when affixes are added to it. It may be a noun that has a special form for its plural. For example, men as the

plural for man. An irregular verb, For example, bought as the past tense for the verb to buy. The inflected word of this entry may also occur, in some instances, elsewhere.

AFFIXES though may be considered as part of the previous feature, they are likely to occur, by their own right, as individual entries. Affixes include prefixes such as, un-, re-, etc., and suffixes such as, -able, -ology, etc. This feature may also covers the combining forms that can come together with other words, or parts of other words, to produce new words such as, Anglo-, -cephalic, etc.

MODIFIERS are a feature that include determiners, e.g. this, many, his, etc., and pre-determiners such as, such, all, etc., which can precede a or the.

DEGREE indicates the comparative and superlative formations of Adjectives and Adverbs such as, -er and -est will suit soon, whereas more and most will suit interesting. They also may occur as separate entries according to their alphabetical order.

CONJUNCTIONS is a feature that displays the connectors of sentences such as, however, thus, etc., and the substitutes for sentences that can stand, by themselves, as meaningful utterances. For example, the adverbs: definitely, maybe, no, etc. Conjunctions can also appear as separate entries.

Style Labels

The style labels demonstrate in the entry those aspects of language variation which are occasionally encountered by the users. The cause of their appearance, as argued by Bell (1983: 58), is due to the, "...totally erratic and unpredictable choices of linguistic form made by the same informant in the same situation."

Here, one can hope to extend the application diversity of such a term to include labels and symbols that convey meaning as well as those that do not. Though the surveyed dictionaries varied in their presentation and typography of the following labels, most of them attempted to account for as many as possible:

REGISTER is likely to include labels such as, Formal, e.g. words which are used in government writings and in ceremonies, whereas words that are not suitable for such occasions are marked not formal. Informal e.g. words that are used in friendly and personal letters and conversations. Slang, e.g. extremely informal words that are likely to be used among members of a certain activity or a social group. Not standard, e.g. frequently encountered words which are regarded by teachers and examiners to be incorrect. Taboo, e.g. words that are not polite and/or offensive. It should be noted however, that some taboo words are also viewed as vulgar, i.e. they are considered to be social taboo or, at least, they are regarded by the dictionary to be so. Euphemistic, e.g. pleasant words that are used to substitute direct, dirty or unpleasant expressions. Ironic, e.g. those words that imply the opposite meaning of what they stand for, and Humorous, e.g. words that are used in amusing or playful style. This label may alternatively be marked, by some dictionaries, as jocular or facetious.

SUBJECT labels which indicate that a word or a sense of a word is used primarily in special field, e.g. medical and technical terms, literary and poetic expressions, or words used in relation to sports, music, linguistics, military use, etc.

TEMPORAL labels register the state of words with regard to the present time. They include, obsolete, e.g. words that are found in old books or are no longer in use. Archaic, e.g. words that are regarded to have been common in the past but are no longer in wide use, and rare, e.g. uncommon words, regardless of the time of occurrence or the time of use.

CONNOTATIVE labels would reflect a favorable or unfavorable attitude of the speaker or writer. Such labels are: appreciative i.e. pleasant, or derogatory i.e. offensive, for words used by the speaker or the writer with respect to the object(s), whether person(s) or thing(s) that he is talking or writing about.

NATIONAL AND FOREIGN labels which are dedicated to words that are associated with a certain region or country. Regional labels indicate the area to which the word(s) belong, e.g. Yorkshire, Geordie, Cockney, etc. Country labels inform the users of the country to which the word(s) belong, e.g. British English, Canadian English, American English, etc. Foreign labels present the users with the foreign language(s) i.e. other than English, like the word(s) belong to, e.g. French, German, Italian, etc.

TRADEMARK symbols will be presented in the dictionaries. If the respective editors of those dictionaries believe them to be commonly used by the public as common nouns or verbs. However, their inclusion in the dictionary is not connected to their legal status in the law and thus it is not obligatory.

Meaning

The text of the entry is the medium through which most of the various types of information that a dictionary may provide are displayed. Moreover, the text can be perceived to ordinarily encompass three main ingredients: the definition(s) or meanings, the example(s) or usage and other, mainly grammatical, data. This view is validated by the reality of the dominance of meaning over the other two, for the meaning is the core of the text that inter-relates its various components to the entry word. To illustrate the significance of the meaning, P. B. Gove in Sledd & Ebbitt (eds.), (1962: part two, selection 11) argue, "The principal reason for the existence of a general monolingual dictionary is its definitions. All the art and all the scholarship and all the scientific method that the editors can command are required to study meanings and write definitions."

Yet, one should not totally disregard examples or any of the other data i.e. spelling in particular, if not for their support of the meaning then, for what they contribute towards the way an entry word might be used grammatically and syntactically or their contribution of grammatical information or at least their basic provision of spelling to the native speakers.

The majority of the examined dictionaries are basically favoring an historical order of entries and of senses i.e. meanings within the entry. Yet, the second preference is found to be that of employing either frequency and/or the listing of the core meaning first but with general coherence in mind or employing frequency whenever it is convenient. The third, and last, choice of arrangements is that of a psychologically meaningful order i.e. listing the words

according to their innate connection, derivation, origin or meaning dependency. The argument for the first selection is that when meanings or senses are ordered historically i.e. the oldest meaning of the entry appears first while the most up-to-date meaning appears last, the user can find out, at a glance, about the historical development of the word. The second selection however, claims that most users are customarily concerned with the modern meaning(s) of the word, but not with its historical development. The third selection's claim is based on the significance of the psychological connection of one meaning in relation to other meaning(s), particularly when the demonstration of such a relation is demanded by the enthusiastic users of such a dictionary (8).

It is the regular practice for most dictionaries to supply definitions with clear or easy to understand English prose, and to include every word of the vocabulary used to write these definitions in the same dictionary separately. Nevertheless, a recent trend has emerged with the exciting technique, yet a very challenging one; of using a significantly limited number of vocabulary items i.e. words in the definitions, for example, a small vocabulary of 2000 words may suffice to define all entries of such a dictionary. Furthermore, Ladislav Zgusta (1971: 257) warns that, "The lexicographic definition should consist exclusively of words which are explained in the dictionary. But should not, "... contain words more difficult to understand than the explained word itself...".

Organizing and arranging definitions within an entry can also be influenced by the intentional factor(s) of target users as well as what the dictionary believes its users should be offered. To satisfy systematic ordering, dictionaries are using the method of assigning numbers and letters, with the aid of typography, to definitions that are likely to indicate their order, divisions and sub-divisions when necessary, for example, 1, 2, etc. can be the boldface indications of the order of main definitions, then 1, 2, etc. may be used in lightface to indicate sub-divisions of a main definition and if necessary the use of letters may show, for instance, some restrictions on the use of these sub-divisions. Another popular method is using Arabic Numbers in different type-face to indicate three factors: a- order of homographs i.e. words with identical spelling, which is decided in various ways by different dictionaries, b- order of senses, i.e. meanings, within an entry either historically or according to frequency and c- to further subdivide senses or uses within one sense, i.e. meaning, or alternatively to indicate the person of verb such as, 1st., 2nd., 3rd., etc.

The formulation of the type of the definition a dictionary may need relies on the kind of target users the particular dictionary is aiming to serve. For example, a dictionary's definition for second language learners is somewhat different from that which serves mainly the native speakers. There should also be some considerations regarding inexperienced users, as claimed by W.A. Krebs, in Burton & Burton (eds.), (1988: 55), "Dictionaries, linguistically speaking, are an artificial or unnatural element with which we have to learn to cope if we are to make any use of them. As we know, they have their own codes and jargon to deal with pronunciation and grammatical and information, but less obvious but more problematical for the uninitiated is coping with definitions-any definitions, not just the famous difficult ones."

As a complement to the definition, the meaning of the entry may also contain, normally at the end, extra information about the defined meaning such as:

SYNONYMS, which are words of comparable, yet not precisely identical, meanings and/or uses which may be given in the entry. Their inclusion improves the user's

ability to discriminate between the word defined and its synonyms as well as to be able to use the defined word or its synonyms effectively.

COLLOCATION, two or more words that are customarily associated together to form an individual lexical item which is acceptable in the given language (e.g. in English dark collocates with night).

Examples

This primarily embodies the characterization and the illustration of the meaning. It also similarly furnishes most of the other data. For example, style restrictions, grammatical and ungrammatical illustration, use, etc. that are provided by the entry. The form of typography in the presentations of examples or illustrations may vary from one dictionary to the other. Their objective is to demonstrate to the users how a dictionary's entry may appear in the actual or fictitious language. The use of corpora is probably considered, at the present. For example, COBUILD, as the most dependable source of examples. The users can also participate in the process of presenting examples when they become providers. This point is amply supported by Ladislav Zgusta (1971: 265) when he points out that, "Examples can be taken from the (usually written) texts of the language, or they can be constructed by the lexicographer with the eventual help of informants."

Some words are rich in usage properties. Therefore, they can be used in various situations and their meanings serving different purposes. Most dictionaries attempt to satisfy this element, as possible from the size of the dictionary. The importance of every single example to its precise instance from the user's point of view and certainly, the necessity for the example's inclusion as decided beforehand by the dictionary's editors and, to some extent, lexicographers.

Use

This section represents usage notes as well as their limitations of usage. For example, indicating the permissible boundaries of the use of a specialized concept, or the permissible field for the use of an idea, etc. To exemplify of the latter, one would look at a limitation such as Special or Restricted use. This category is provided by the dictionaries, only when they consider it necessary, for words that are restricted to the use or the meaning of a particular situation. For example, ILLOGICAL is an Adjective used mainly about people or ideas, whereas TYKE is a Noun used only informally) (9).

Usage Notes on the other hand, are comments made by educated and experienced writers and speakers of the English language about the use of any entry word, any of the meanings or any of the senses. These notes may be placed either among the definitions i.e. usually following the relevant definition, or at the end of the entire entry according to the pre-set criteria of every dictionary. They are usually indicated in a distinguishable mark or typography to enable the readers to find it without facing any obstacles. The aim of the Usage Notes is to reflect to the users, notably of the second language, the significant usages and, at least, some illustrations of grammatical rules of the entry word and/or one or more of its senses on their own or in relation to other words, without an excessive regard to the status or the agreement of the definition(s) in that entry. This important role of usage in complementing other grammatical data provided by dictionaries of the concerned language, is emphasized by H. Jackson, in Ilson, R. (ed.), (1985: 53-54), "A dictionary aims to list the lexical items (words, idioms, other fixed expressions) in a language and to give a description of their meaning and

usage; within "usage" will be included the part a lexical item plays in the grammatical system of a language."

Furthermore, it should be noted that some dictionaries facilitate Usage Notes as another form of Cross-reference, particularly to other Usage Notes of the same dictionary.

Even though this type of information is useful, one cannot deny that only the eager -or foreign- user would read through the usage notes more often than not.

Cross-Reference

The importance of cross-referencing is seen when some kind of a relationship links two separate entries, separate meanings or senses. To demonstrate this, a definition of an entry may refer to other part(s) of the dictionary when they both share meaning or/and use for instance, particularly when they do not appear close to one another. However, any Cross-reference that offers the users further relative information about any entry word, or meanings etc. connected with another, may be considered as an evidence of the fact that any word does not exist in isolation from other words in any given language. This notion is further elaborated by Psycholinguists such as Clark & Clark (1977: 410) when they demonstrate the difference between 'sense' and 'reference', "The sense of a word, its intention, is the 'concept' associated with the word. The reference of a word, its extension, is the set of things the word applies to in any real or imaginary world i.e. the objects, states, events, or processes in that world. The sense of dog is one's concept of what it is to be a dog, while the possible referents of dog - its extension - are the set of all real or imaginary dogs that fit this concept."

One may argue then, that it is the dictionaries' responsibility, as documentaries of at least a part of any language, i.e. a substantial proportion of the vocabulary in most cases, to provide adequate description of such relationship when it occurs.

Etymology

The term etymology covers the presentation of the origin and to a lesser extent the development of the form(s) and meaning(s) of the entry word in relation to the English language. Etymology is, particularly in the opinion of most dictionary editors, a well-liked component of any monolingual dictionary for native speakers. It is the usual practice that Etymology is stated at the end of the entry and in between square brackets. For the users to fully comprehend the Etymological details, presented to them by individual entries, they need to read, and sometimes closely follow, the dictionaries' introductions regarding Etymologies. To further the users' difficulties, individual dictionaries approach the citation of Etymological details in different manners, i.e. their variations in the use of typography, choice of abbreviations or/and symbols, cross-references, etc.

Special Signs

This section special signs is used here to denote any of the following: a mark, a character, a symbol -even a label, an abbreviation or a category- which is not universally recognized. These special signs are commonly presented in distinguishable form of typography, which would provide the user of the dictionary with various important pieces of knowledge concerning the word, its uses and/or restrictions, when he would look it up. It should be pointed out however, that this section is considered to cover a more extensive range than the 'space-saving conventions'.

Most of the dictionaries are becoming increasingly involved in the facilitation of special signs in order to be able to include more information, to list more entries (e.g. using symbols instead of full guide words), to make entries appealing to different users seeking different types of information and to put together almost everything designed for the entry within its limited space which always pleases the publishers. To illustrate this point, one should look no further than the recently hailed Collins COBUILD dictionary (1990) that is the best demonstration of the effective utilization of symbols (e.g., -, <>, and the use of boxes) and typographical advancement such as, the use of the extra column. Furthermore, numerous dictionaries have generated various techniques, though with some similarities, in their use of special signs that makes it obligatory for the users to read the, sometimes lengthy, introduction to be able to make full use of -their consultation of- the respective dictionary.

Some of the well-known special signs which are likely to be used:

The hyphen (-) is mainly used to indicate an ordinary end of line break because of space limitations when typing and/or the separating element of a hyphenated compound word. But in distinguishing one indication from the other, dictionaries provide their own special ways (e.g. some repeat the hyphen after the line break to indicate the presence of hyphenation, while others may select a symbol like (=) to show the same indication).

The swung dash (~) is used by many dictionaries in place of the headword or the senses in a definition to save crucial proportion of space.

The use of brackets by dictionaries is another popular feature, with the undoubted differences. The most common of them are: round brackets () which may indicate various things (e.g. availability, grammatical associations, variations, etc.), square brackets [] those are widely used for etymological origin, but can be used also to present grammatical usages (i.e. codes) and angled brackets <> which may demonstrate any information that the dictionaries assign it to bear (e.g. verbal illustrations).

Other special signs, presented here within the round brackets, include: the vertical line (|) that may be used for various tasks (e.g. to divide a word into breakable segments or to separate examples of a single meaning), the double bar (||) which is more likely to be used for pronunciation purposes (e.g. to divide American pronunciation from a British one), the slash (/) that can always be used to indicate choices, the asterisk (*) which is conventionally recognized to mean difference (e.g. not acceptable, of a different language, etc.), an arrow (->) that may indicate a reference to what follows it but this can also be presented by a straight line or a fist note or even the Word SEE, and any other symbol or letter which individual dictionaries come to decide should represent a certain indication.

CONCLUSION

The contemporary trends of users and publishers alike are demanding that lexicography advance towards providing more varieties of information within dictionaries' volumes that require less time to check or read. The lexicographer's purpose is not exclusively steered to the advancement of his profession, but also to provide a form of service for the users. Therefore, they should harmonize between their prescriptive obligations as dictionary-makers and the users' requirements within the compilation's priorities. Such harmony is clearly seen by both sides' recognition of the increasing need for more specialized dictionaries. If all the

functions of a dictionary are successful, it is known to achieve its real purpose for which they are to be compiled in a certain way. When the functions of a dictionary are determined the lexicographer has to decide on the related structures of lexicography. It must comply with the indicated skills and needs of the target users.

NOTES

1. Collins Dictionary and Chambers Dictionary respectively.
2. IPA stands for the International Phonetic Alphabet. A photocopy of IPA's chart, as presented by P. Roach (1983: 55).
3. Most dictionaries list Abbreviations alphabetically if they are in the general use; otherwise they list them separately in a chosen location at the beginning or/and at the end of the dictionary.
4. The feature of the Writing of Compounds is a consideration that some dictionaries would like to contemplate and present to the users, perhaps in the future. For the rules for writing compounds may vary according to their occurrences and frequencies in the language, their origins and their types. Even though their orthographical end product would not surpass the three types mentioned (i.e. solid, hyphenated and open).
5. The 'Coughlin' example was quoted from Everyman's English Pronouncing Dictionary, Gimson (1984: 111). The 'plough' and 'though' example was quoted from the Dictionary of Language and Linguistics, Hartmann and Stork (1976: 217).
6. (I.DEN+TI+FI+CATION) is an actual entry in Collins Dictionary, Hanks (1983: 728).
7. The phonetic transcription for the two groups of words, according to Gimson's English Pronouncing Dictionary (1984), are: cat /ka:t/, pen /pen/, take /teik/ red /red/; and facade /fəsa:d/, phlegm /flem/, psyche /saiki/, ptomaine /təmeɪn/, xylophone /zailəfən/.
8. The American Heritage Dictionary, Morris (1979).
9. The examples are cited from Longman Dictionary, Proctor (1986: 557) and Collins Dictionary, Hanks(1983: 1568) respectively.

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