Západočeská univerzita v Plzni

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Bakalářská práce

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Analyzing contemporary monolingual ESL dictionaries

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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracovala samostatně a použila jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

Plzeň, duben 2012   ……………………

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1 INTRODUCTION

Contemporary lexicography goes beyond a usage of the dictionary as a simple lexicon. The English language is an important means of communication nowadays and together with the growth of its importance, there has been a significant growth in the number of methods employed in English language education. The publishers of popular monolingual dictionaries provide customers with colourful appendices, thesaurus boxes, grammar overviews, vocabulary builders, etc. The consumer, in turn, benefits from the amusing and popular presentation of such dictionaries as they learn the language.

The aim of this thesis is to describe and to analyse those elements contained in advanced learners' monolingual ESL dictionaries that are not essential but which make the publication more attractive and which provide users with additional activities. Following the results of a survey investigating the usage preferences of respondents, the highest rated sections of these dictionaries are here analysed. The analysis aims at discovering which parts are really useful for users and which are just commercial additions aimed at luring potential customers. It is also a goal to reveal whether or not the extra appendices preferred in the survey are sufficiently represented in the four most popular dictionaries with wide circulation in the Czech Republic.

The theoretical part introduces the reader to a basic knowledge of lexicography and to the theory behind the monolingual dictionary. Various approaches for the creation of such a dictionary are also mentioned.

The practical part is dedicated to a further investigation of the survey, to a profiling of the respondents, to an analysis of various approaches used in the dictionaries, and to providing basic information about the differences between table dictionaries and CD-ROM dictionaries.

At the end of the thesis, there are appendices with graphs showing the results of the survey, including the percentage of the rating and excerpts from the dictionaries considered.

2 THEORETICAL PART

The term „dictionary" is defined as a book (nowadays also as computer software or an electronic device) that contains an alphabetical ordered list of words and provides an explanation of the meaning of every word listed.*(OALD)[1]* A dictionary can be written in one, two, or more languages, depending mostly on the type of dictionary.*(CALD)* The range of purposes which a dictionary serves is also varied, e.g. general-purpose dictionaries or specialized dictionaries describing terms relating to one particular subject.

2.1 Lexicography, the scholarly discipline

The academic discipline investigating the "theory and practice of writing dictionaries"*(OALD)* is called **lexicography**. The discipline is divided into two branches: theoretical and practical lexicography. The theoretical branch analyzes and describes lexemes in all their linguistic and non-linguistic aspects.[1] The practical branch is the discipline of the creation and editing of a dictionary.[2]

The main attention in this work is dedicated to **linguistic dictionaries**, which, in contrast with encyclopaedic publications, differ in the "status of the entry words" and the nature of the information indicated. The description of the terminology/words is concentrated on linguistic features, e.g. syntax, morphology, pronunciation and meaning. Encyclopaedias, although they might indicate the same or similar information, go much

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[1] All citations of the dictionaries are stated in the form of abbreviation as follows: Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 8th Edition (hereinafter as *OALD),* the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary Third Edition *(CALD),* the Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners *(MED)* and the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 4th Edition *(LDCE).*

further beyond linguistics and provide the reader with complex information, such as proper names, short biographies, geographical descriptions, etc.[3]

It has been already mentioned that dictionaries might be written in one or more languages. According to this characterization, there are two basic divisions of linguistic dictionaries: **monolingual dictionaries**, whose theory and analysis are subjected to more detailed investigation later in this

thesis, and **multilingual dictionaries**. The most common type of multilingual dictionary is a **bilingual dictionary**, which exists in various forms ranging from the small pocket dictionary to large complex publications for linguistic purposes or translation dictionaries.

Monolingual dictionaries are organized according to the two following approaches: the diachronic and the synchronic approach. The **diachronic** system is characteristic of etymological and historical dictionaries describing the origin and historical development of the word. Sometimes, both perspectives are combined in common practice. The **synchronic** system corresponds to general dictionaries. The general synchronic dictionaries cover the majority of the current vocabulary of a language and are distinguished from one another according to size, generally measured in terms of the number of entries.[4] Under these conditions, the general synchronic dictionaries could be divided according to this concept in the following groups: the unabridged dictionary, the desk dictionary, the college dictionary and the pocket dictionary. This is to say that monolingual general dictionaries, as it has been said of the bilingual dictionaries, also exist in various sizes of extension.

2.2 Monolingual dictionary

A monolingual dictionary is a type of dictionary written in one language, giving an explanation of the meaning of words and demonstrating their meaning by practical usage (usually in example sentences). The information included is basically supplemented by phonological, morphological and syntactical information [5], further usage indications, and usage labels, all of which are typical for any type of dictionary on the market nowadays. Besides these basic supplements, the popularity of grammar appendices, vocabulary attachments, coloury topic boxes and other extra features, not to mention interactive CD-ROMs, has grown rapidly among publishers of English as Second Language Dictionaries (ESL) and they have become almost a ubiquitous part of all ESL dictionaries nowadays. The theoretical part of my thesis deals only with basic supplements used in a majority of dictionaries, not only in ESL methodology but also in monolingual dictionaries for native speakers, which are essential for the comprehensiveness and complexity of the information given.

2.2.1 Phonological, morphological and syntactic specifications

The subject of monolingual dictionaries can be characterized by the term "descriptive lexicography" and the main purpose of this type of dictionary is "to answer a number of elementary questions about each lexical item", such as pronunciation, possible word forms, collocations etc. (Caluwe & Santen).[6]

Since the pronunciation in English does not always correspond with the written form of the word, the usage of transcription is of great importance, especially for speakers of other languages. To approximately represent the variety of pronunciations for any given word, the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is commonly used. This international form of

transcription was developed with the intention that it would be used in all languages, explaining differences in pronunciation among languages as reliably as possible, and it became an inevitable part of the majority of contemporary dictionaries. A number of big dictionaries (e.g. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary) explain the system of IPA transcription and its symbols in appendices, usually with usage of examples for every symbol on the list. English is a language with a great amount of regional forms of pronouncing words. They largely differ in register, style and usage between social classes. Considering the amount of information needed, listing all of the forms in a general dictionary would be considerably problematic. For this reason, there are specialised pronunciation dictionaries, which consider more extensive varieties of pronunciation. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary *(OALD)* specifies two commonly used variations: British English (BrE) and American English (AmE) pronunciation forms.

Morphological information in a dictionary can be divided into two spheres: inflection and word formation. Inflexion expresses "a change in the form of a word, especially the ending, according to its grammatical function in the sentence"*(CALD),* namely plural forms of nouns, comparatives of adjectives, simple past forms of verbs, etc. Word formation can be described as a process leading to the creation of new words, such as "alarm clock", a compound noun, or "unsafe", a derivation of "safe". Of special discussion is which compound nouns and derivations are to be included in the dictionary. One of the most commonly used approaches is to "include affixes and their meaning along with the word classes they can be added to". [7]

Inflected forms presented in a dictionary may be organized in different ways. Some dictionaries contain grammar attachments or appendices listing important grammar principles with an overall description of their usage, e.g. irregular verb forms, flexion of auxiliary verbs. It is also possible to write notes on inflective forms directly by the entry in an abbreviated form. Some

dictionaries even omit mentioning inflections of regular forms completely. They are not considered to be necessary, as their usage is totally predictable.

Here is a short overview of inflected forms which are important for the three following word classes:

- Nouns – irregular plural forms, peculiarities in spelling of the plural forms, countable/uncountable nouns, list of feminine forms (rarely) [8]

- Adjectives – comparison: limitations (some words cannot be compared), differences in spelling (dirty – dirtier, wise – wiser), irregularity (good – better – best), three and more syllable words (beautiful – more beautiful – most beautiful) [9]

- Verbs – basic form, the 3rd person singular, present participle, past participle, past simple form, differences in pronunciation of the forms, peculiarities in spelling[10], form limitations (modal verbs), words existing only in the infinitive (to babysit) [11]

Syntactic information included in monolingual dictionaries refers primarily to word classes (parts of speech). Every part of speech is referred to by an abbreviation, generally created from the name of word class itself. The abbreviations are as follows: conjunction-*conj*, preposition-*prep*, noun-*n*, verb-*v*, adjective-*adj*, adverb-*adv*, etc. The knowledge of the word class is crucial information for users of the dictionary, which informs users about proper usage of the word in a sentence.

Other syntactical entries important for the user are information on transitivity, intransitivity, reflexivity, demonstrating usage in example sentences, etc. The presentation format differs significantly between all larger dictionaries. There are a few most common categories described by Caluwe and Santen: "semantic information with morpho-syntactic

implications" and "information patterns of complementation". These two categories are demonstrated in noun, adjective and verb examples in the publication "A Practical Guide to Lexicography".[12]

2.2.2 Meaning and definition

From the perspective of meaning definitions, there are two basic approaches: the semasiologic approach and the onomasiologic approach.

The system of semasiology expresses the variant we usually associate with the general concept held about all dictionaries. Each word is judged individually in a more isolated way. This approach also uses an alphabetically ordered wordlist. From the onomasiological perspective, the meaning is the most essential unit which is expressed through the accumulation of semantically similar words.

The meaning of the word itself also has to be chosen by certain criteria. Each word, in much the same way as its meaning, has to go through a selection, mostly directed by the preferences of the target audience and by the lexicographer's purpose. This is to say that for the advanced learners' dictionary, a broader range of general vocabulary will be selected rather than technical or legal terminology.

Passing through the different levels of meanings, there are new perspectives and varieties the lexicographer is confronted with, such as emotive meaning, grammatical meaning, or pragmatic meaning. OALD created special labels for describing emotional meanings, such as "dis/approving", "figurative", "humorous", "ironic", "offensive", "slang", "taboo", "old-fashioned", etc., which slightly corresponds with semantic labels, such as "derogatory", "pejorative", "euphemistic", etc.[13] These labels, in an attempt to reduce emotive and stylistic overtones and to inform

about register and appropriate usage of the word, are placed directly after inflective forms in the dictionary. Grammatical meaning refers to the words which have a specific grammatical function in the sentence (e.g. "to have" as an auxiliary verb). Lastly, pragmatic meaning represents "a discursive function, a speech act or a communicative action".[14]

And finally, there are different approaches for defining words according to Dirk Geeraerts.[15]

- Intensional definition – specifies the common attributes of the members of the category (bird – a creature that is covered with feathers and has two wings and two legs).

- Extensional definition – enumerates members belonging to the group (robin, ostrich, eagle, etc.).

- Analytical definition – analyses the appointed features into constituent features in a sentence (similar to intensional definition).

- Synthetic (Synonym) definition – explains the meaning by using appropriate synonyms.

- Morphosemantic definition – explains the word by using morphological schematic definitions (morphological elements constituting collocations, compound words, etc.).

- Encyclopaedic definition – contains specific and practical information, which although not universally valid, is nonetheless highly informative.

The majority of dictionaries use more or less mixed combinations of all these approaches in order to make the meaning for the target user as familiar and understandable as possible.

2.2.3 Pragmatic specifications

As Igor Burkhanov claims in his "Pragmatic specifications" chapter, the pragmatic specifications form plays a key role in lexicographic presentation of the dictionaries. Morris defines three main pillars in the research of "the relation of signs to interpreters" – syntactics, semantics and pragmatics. It is needed to add that the relation between pragmatics and semantics has been always very problematic and uncertain.[16]

The majority of "pragmatically-relevant information" is demonstrated by the usage of labels, which can be defined as "lexicographic indicators usually presented in the form of one word or even an abbreviation...and they are to specify the limitations on the use of lexical items according to time, place or circumstances of communicative interaction."[17]

Landau specifies the most respected types of usage labels as follows:

- Currency/temporality: archaic, obsolete

- Frequency of use: rare

- Geographic variation: AmE, BrE, etc.

- Specialised terminology: chemistry, astronomy

- Restricted/taboo usage: vulgar, obscene

- Insult: offensive

- Slang: slang

- Style, function, register: informal, colloquial

- Status label: non-standard, illiterate

Besides the above mentioned classifications, many more examples can be invented, e.g. disintegrative type, signifying loan words by Hausmann.[18]

An example sentence plays no small role in all monolingual dictionaries. The example sentences demonstrate all the morphological, phonological, syntactical, semantic and pragmatic indications in practise, revealing their limitations and restrictions. Sometimes they even refer to problems, which could not be pointed out anywhere else, and supplement the entry with information and complicated interrelations.

General purpose dictionaries usually cover only the outline of lexicographic indications and give only common lexical relations.

2.2.4 Morphological distinctions

An interesting problem in the process of making morphological distinctions is that of identification. The recognition of the borderline between a simple word and a derived/compound noun is mostly ambiguous. For instance, the noun "follower", which is a word derived from its headword, the verb "follow", could be given either as a separate entry or it could be attached to the headword.[19] There is no clear resolution for this case and the final decision is dependent on the approach of the lexicographer. On the other hand, it is advisable that irregular elements in morphology should be indicated with appropriate emphasis on its uniqueness.

Considering the above mentioned distinctions, it seems to be appropriate to refer to Prčič's "research on the treatment of affixes in four large dictionaries", where the following components appear to be essential: [20]

1. Spelling

2. Pronunciation and accent

3. Morphosyntax: part of speech, grammatical and phonological characteristics of headword and derivation

4. The contribution of an affix to overall meaning

5. Stylistic and pragmatic use: connotation, register, etc.

6. Productivity and examples

Some of the indications on this list might be indicated separately in the form of appendix, if necessary.

2.2.5 Onomasiology in dictionaries

The onomasiological system in monolingual dictionaries organises entries in relation to the topic or surroundings in practical usage; for instance, consider the word "goat." We know that "goat" is "an animal with horns and a coat of hair that lives either in mountain areas or is kept on the farm for its milk or meat"*(OALD).*This particular context would categorize the word "goat" under the topic "farming" or "animals" in a picture dictionary. In this case, the entry is demonstrated by a picture explaining the meaning of the word, which is not ordered alphabetically but according to various topical areas. This logic, where meaning and explanation in any form precede the word itself, is typical for onomasiological system and the picture dictionary could serve as one of many examples among onomasiological dictionaries. The other forms to mention are thesauri – dictionaries of synonyms and reverse dictionaries.

The thesaurus, or the synonym dictionary, is a kind of dictionary which lists "semantically identical" words which "differ by usage, register, social group, age, field of study and region"[21]. Simply put, a thesaurus is a dictionary "that lists the words in groups that have similar meaning".*(OALD)* As such, it can be of great importance for students of English as Second Language (ESL). The learners could look up the words, according to the above mentioned criteria, and the usage of the thesaurus prevents them from an incorrect application of the terms in practice. The example of the thesaurus entry could be demonstrated with the word "immediate". This word expresses that something will be or should be done without hesitation, the same way as "instant, prompt and instantaneous".*(OALD)* Although, the initial idea has the same meaning, each word slightly differs in its register and intensity. The main task of the synonym dictionary is to describe these distinctions, which provide users with sufficient information to make an appropriate word choice.

An unusual but still interesting example of an onomasiological dictionary is the reverse dictionary. The reverse dictionary refers to the need of the user to find an appropriate term according its features or through an explanation of the word. Example: "an artificial language invented as a means of international communication with easy grammar and pronunciation*"(OALD)* could be an entry for the word "Esperanto". This type of dictionary is useful in the case that a person forgets the word he needs. Unfortunately, the formulation of the entry is a significant problem in the preparation of a reverse dictionary, as the explanation should be both concise and sufficiently descriptive.

The first paragraph of this chapter starts with a description of onomasiological principles using an example of the picture/pictorial dictionary. The picture dictionary demonstrates the meaning of words with the assistance of pictures or photographs, and they are mostly organized into vocabulary areas relevant to one topical branch.

2.2.6 Electronic dictionaries and CD-ROMs

It has become a tradition that almost every advanced learner's dictionary has its own software on CD-ROM. At the very least, there is always an on-line version of the dictionary available. Computer software makes using the dictionary easier, faster and more flexible.

The technical options available in the computer software tend more towards the onomasiological usage than towards the table version. A full text search provides the user with insight into the overall context of the words, which would not be possible without technical contribution. From this point of view, we could state that on-line and CD-ROM dictionaries resemble the onomasiological concept of the dictionary on a much larger scale, as it is possible to search for the word in a way similar to that in a reverse dictionary.

The full text search and the possibility of reverse word search are not the only functions with onomasiological aspects. There are many other typical examples, such as functions for searching for synonyms, idioms and phrasal verbs, vocabulary exercises with pictures (which reflects the possibilities of the pictorial dictionary), etc.

Besides the above mentioned functions, computer dictionaries provide a wide range of interactive exercises supporting the learning of new vocabulary and other language skills.

3 PRACTICAL PART

The main purpose of this thesis is to analyse monolingual dictionaries – more specifically certain parts of these dictionaries – in the context of English as Second Language (hereafter as ESL). It has already been mentioned in the theoretical part that such dictionaries are published in various forms and for various target users. Furthermore, these dictionaries contain other various components besides the alphabetically ordered list of entries. For instance, contemporary advanced learner's dictionaries might include grammar appendices, pictures, vocabulary exercises, maps and many other interesting parts. These parts make the dictionary something slightly more than a simple lexicon with a certain number of the words. Investigation of this work should reveal the real importance of these components for the ordinary user in everyday life. The practical part deals with analysis of the four extensive advanced learner's dictionaries frequently used and known within the Czech Republic. The majority of observations and conclusions made in this part are based on the survey, which is subjected to detailed investigation in the following paragraphs.

3.1 SURVEY
3.1.1 Concepts of the survey

The survey for this thesis was published on ANA survey websites [22] for the period of one month (17.January – 17.February 2012). The survey contained four closed and two multiple questions and was filled in by 75 respondents. The results of the survey form the basis for analysis of practical part for this thesis.

Three various sources were chosen to address the respondents: The first one was contacting people and friends at the social site Facebook, the second one was direct link from my personal blog and the third one was a

link sent from my personal e-mail to chosen people in my address book. Not everybody in my address book was contacted, since only potentially interested people would have provided appropriate and trusted information. All the respondents were anonymous.

In contrast to the theory, the initial idea was to concentrate further investigations on practical experience and facts arising from the survey. The main intention of the practical part is to provide analysis based on the experience of the respondents, not the submission of general assertions or of general conclusions. Therefore, there might be very little contribution of other sources.

3.1.2 Subject of the survey

The first four questions are oriented more to the respondents' profile. For the purposes of this work, it was useful to know: why the respondent uses a monolingual dictionary (purpose); how often he/she uses it (frequency of usage); what the respondent's level of language skills is (level of language skills); and what form of dictionary he/she uses the most (form preferences).

The last four questions of the survey explore the frequency of use of certain parts of the dictionary. The respondents were asked to choose the parts or the applications they use the most. As has been previously mentioned in the theoretical part, with the majority of contemporary advanced learner's dictionaries, there is the possibility of using its computer form. Therefore, there is one question designed for a table dictionary and one for the CD-ROM version.

3.2 RESPONDENTS' PROFILE
3.2.1 Purpose

The task of the first question was to identify the respondent's purpose in using a monolingual dictionary: where do they need it the most or what is the most frequent purpose of its usage? The respondents were asked to choose the best answer fitting to their situation. There were the following six options:

1. <u>At school</u> – this option is defined for people, mainly students and pupils, who do not study the language as the main branch of their studies – e.g. as opposed to teachers of foreign languages, linguists, students of applied philology, university professors giving lectures in a foreign language, etc. – but for whom a foreign language is required as an important part of their study program, so that they are obliged to pass exams and to attend regular courses at school or at the university and must therefore use a monolingual dictionary as a component of their school preparation. For example, **pupils/students of primary schools, high schools or grammar schools, university students of other branches than linguistics and philology, etc.**

2. <u>Self-study</u> – is defined for people who do not necessarily attend any language course or lectures at school or at the university, but who are interested in studying languages in their leisure time and for whom the usage of a monolingual dictionary is one of the components of their self-study, which could be **described as an intentional language study with a purpose of learning new things**.

3. <u>Personal purposes</u> – is defined for people who do not necessarily attend any language course or lectures at school/at the university and who do not use a monolingual dictionary only as the component of their self-study (intentional language study) but who **use it rather for other purposes in their leisure time, such as translating words**

from films or books written in a foreign language, checking the correct pronunciation, or other activities which are not the results of the intentional self-study of foreign language but are the sudden consequence of current circumstances.

4. <u>Academic purposes</u> – is defined for people who study the language as the main branch of their studies at the university or who work at the university and use the language for the purposes of giving lectures in foreign language at an academic level, e.g. **teachers of foreign languages, linguists, students of applied philology, university professors giving lectures in a foreign language, university assistants/researchers using foreign language as the means of communication for purposes of their research, etc.**

5. <u>At work</u> – is defined for people who use a monolingual dictionary at work. It is not important whether the foreign language is just a partial element of their profession or whether the language is the main branch of their profession, e.g. **translators, interpreters, language teachers, university professors of linguistics or philology, tourist guides, etc.**

6. <u>Others</u> – is defined for people who do not belong to **any of previous groups.**

3.2.1.1 Results for "Purposes"

25 of the people who responded (app. 33%) – that is, the highest number of the respondents – chose the option *at school*. In second place was the option *self-study* with 19 people (app.25%), at the third place *personal purposes* with 16 people (app. 21%) and at the fourth place *academic purposes* with 11 people (app. 15%). The fewest respondents chose the options *at work* (3 people, 4%) and *others* (1 person, app.1%).

Judging from these data, it is interesting to see that monolingual dictionary is preferably used in an unprofessional sphere rather than professionally. It is also evident that the majority of respondents use a monolingual dictionary either as a component for school preparation or as a component of intentional self-study in their leisure time. On the contrary, the monolingual dictionary is applied at work quite rarely.

To check visualisation for this part of the survey, see Appendix 1.

3.2.2 Level of language skills

The task of the second question was to find out at what level the respondents using a monolingual dictionary are able to speak the language. Language skill levels were constructed according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).[23] The respondents were asked to choose the best answer fitting to their situation. There were the following three options:

1. Elementary level A1-A2 - respondents are able to understand sentences and frequently used expressions, communicate in a simple way about familiar topics, and describe familiar situations, personal background or current environment.

2. Intermediate level B1-B2 – respondents are able to understand more complex topics, both concrete and abstract, deal with most life situations and interact with a certain degree of fluency, and can express themselves in clear and more detailed manner.

3. Advanced level C1-C2 – respondents are able to understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, recognise implicit meaning, express themselves fluently and spontaneously without much obvious effort, and use language flexibly.

3.2.2.1 Results for "Level of language skills"

From the three options given, 36 respondents (48%) chose the option *advanced level,* 28 respondents (app. 37%) rated their language skills as *intermediate* and the fewest people, 11 respondents (app. 15%), chose *elementary*.

The results of this question supported my initial hypothesis that the majority of monolingual dictionary users are advanced or upper-intermediate, which is a largely positive indicator for this thesis, since the advanced level learner's dictionaries are analyzed here.

To check visualisation for this part of the survey, see Appendix 2.

3.2.3 Frequency of usage

The task of the third question was to find out how often the respondents use a monolingual dictionary in the scope of their activities. The respondents were asked to choose the answer that fit best to their situation. They were offered the following four options:

1. <u>Daily</u> – is defined for people who use a monolingual dictionary in every day practice.

2. <u>Weekly</u> – is defined for people who use a monolingual dictionary app. every week.

3. <u>Monthly</u> – is defined for people who use a monolingual dictionary app. every month.

4. <u>Irregularly</u> – is defined for people who use a monolingual dictionary irregularly.

3.2.3.1 Results for "Frequency of usage"

Majority of respondents chose the option *irregularly*, namely 49 people (app. 65%). The results for the other options were more or less equal: *weekly* 12 respondents (16%), *monthly* 8 respondents (app. 11%) and *daily* 6 respondents (8%)

Provided that the majority of people responded were university students, the results for this question should not be very surprising. It is more than likely that some of them use the dictionary during exam period more frequently than at any other time of the year. The results might be also related to the seasonal situation during a year, summer/ holiday period or deadlines at work. These are only a few of many explanations for these results, the interpretation of which is complicated by the diversity of the respondents' backgrounds.

To check visualisation for this part of the survey, see Appendix 3.

3.2.4 Form preferences

The task of the fourth question was to find out what form of the dictionary the respondents prefer. For the use of this survey, there were three main options from which to choose. The respondents were asked to choose the best answer fitting to their situation. The options were following:

1. Table dictionary – is defined as an ordinary type of dictionary in the form of a book.

2. CD-ROM dictionary – is defined as a type of dictionary in the form of computer software.

3. Electronic translator – is defined as a type of dictionary in the form of electronic equipment with computer software installed on it.

3.2.4.1 Results for "Form preferences"

38 respondents (app. 51%) chose a *table dictionary* as the most frequent form of dictionary they use. In second place was an *electronic translator* with 24 respondents (32%) and coming in third was the *CD-ROM dictionary* with 13 respondents (app. 17%).

Against all the odds, the most surprising finding was the fact that despite all technical achievements and usage advancements, people still prefer the table version of the dictionary. Even the second place was rather unexpected; however, it is necessary to admit that an electronic translator is more suitable for travelling thanks to its compactness, especially if it contains more than one language. The CD-ROM coming in at third place points out the fact that software, no matter how easy to use, is less popular than could be expected.

To check visualisation for this part of the survey, see Appendix 4.

3.2.5 Summary of Respondents' Profile

Based on the above-mentioned data, a general profile of the survey respondents could be articulated as follows:

Respondents…

- were mostly ESL students using their dictionary for school preparation or as a component of self-study.

- used monolingual dictionaries mostly in an unprofessional sphere.

- were at an advanced level in their language skills.

- used their monolingual dictionaries irregularly.

- preferred a table version of the dictionary to its electronic version.

These facts will be considered in the following analysis of the dictionaries.

3.3 ANALYSIS OF THE DICTIONARIES
3.3.1 Choice of the dictionaries for analysis

The contemporary market offers a wide range of ESL dictionaries. There are many types available. Following my own personal experience, for the purposes of this analysis the four main publishers have been chosen, all of which are sought after and popular among the Czech public: namely, the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 8th Edition (*OALD),* the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary Third Edition *(CALD),* the Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners *(MED)* and the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English 4th Edition *(LDCE).*

Although it was my intention to make this thesis as independent as possible, there were still some reasons why these particular dictionaries have become final candidates for this work. Firstly, though there was no intentional question in the survey exploring popularity of particular publishers, it was relevant to take into account which publishers are most promoted in the Czech Republic, and thus the most well-known to the highest number of potential respondents.

Oxford University Press (OUP) and Cambridge University Press (CUP) are both very popular among English learners mostly thanks to textbooks, grammar books, workbooks, exercise books and other ESL publications. Both of them have a long tradition and its popularity among teachers and students remain stable despite the fact that competition in this branch has increased in the last several decades.

Another publisher promoting ESL publications and becoming more familiar to the Czech public is Macmillan, especially thanks to extensive promotion aimed at educational institutions.

Special attention belongs to the Longman Publishing Group, which is not entirely known so much to the general public as to professionals. Once

there was a mention about Longman, it was mainly in the context of more specialized academic publications. This does not reduce its prestige, but it is notable that it is respected from a somewhat different perspective.

This brief description points out my own personal experience leading up to the choice of the dictionaries analysed in this thesis and should reveal the substantial criteria for the final decision, which were basically the popularity and the frequency of occurrence among users.

3.3.2 Analyzed parts of table dictionaries

For the purposes of this survey, the following parts which are commonly contained in contemporary advanced learner's dictionaries were proposed to respondents. Respondents were asked to choose only those components of the dictionary which they really use. The options were as follows:

1. **Phrasal verbs, idioms and collocations**

2. **Grammar appendices**

3. **Synonyms (Thesaurus)**

4. **Labelling for the most frequent words**

5. **Topical pictorial appendixes**

6. Supplements for extension of topical vocabulary

7. Others

8. Pictorial explanatory notes to the entries

9. Notes with cultural studies information

10. Maps

11. Supplements for the improvement of writing skills

The parts listed above are organized according to their position in the ranking. This order will also be used in the analysis. Only the first five

components will be analyzed, as they proved to be the most important to majority of respondents according to the survey results. For a visualisation of this part of the survey, see Appendix 5.

3.3.2.1 Phrasal verbs, idioms, collocations

Certain knowledge of phraseology at the advanced level is highly valuable in ESL education. For instance, phrasal verbs are widely preferred in spoken English, and it is therefore very important for the majority of advanced students to know and learn their correct meaning and appropriate usage. Thanks to certain dictionary components which organise these expressions in a synoptic and clear manner, the students are able to find phrases suitable for their situation and to memorize them correctly. The fact that 64% of respondents marked this option only supports the idea that these parts are highly important.

For a demonstration of partial differences between the dictionaries analyzed, the verb "to sell" was chosen, which provides number of examples for all phraseological forms needed. Other parts of speech are not the focus of attention in this part.

OALD Besides the initial grammar notes, the entry for the verb "to sell" is organized into three parts: various meanings usually supplemented by words frequently collocating with this verb (*They **sold** the business **at a profit/loss**.*), idioms (***sell your soul** to the devil*) and phrasal verbs (***sell sth off***).

OALD offers six various interpretations for the meaning, each written in blue in capital letters with arrows at the beginning. Each such subentry provides examples of the words which are collocated with the verb most

frequently.[2] Collocations are supplemented with example sentences. Furthermore, the dictionary offers other tips for comparison, points out possible relations to other words in the form of additional notes, etc. There are **nine collocations** highlighted for "to sell" in this entry and the majority of them are prepositional phrases.[24] Besides the entry "to sell", the list of collocation notes made on the specific topic, with a relevant entry reference, is indicated at the end of the dictionary in the reference section under the section "Notes on usage".

There are **five** alphabetically ordered **idioms**. The word relevant for alphabetical order is marked with a sign ('). Idioms are explained but do not include example sentences. Signs are used to indicate whether the expression is formal or not. Extra information about its origin includes the idiom *sell somebody down the 'river* and *sell your 'soul*, and links other sources for more information.

The third part consists of **six phrasal verbs**, two of which give more than one meaning. In contrast to the list of idioms, there are example sentences, relation indicators, and references for comparison. Special attention belongs to the sign (↔) indicating that the object can be situated either before or after the particle. For the first time, there is an indication given for label (disapproving) and abbreviation for regional identification (BrE). (See Appendix 7)

CALD Although the outline is very similar to OALD, there are some small differences in indicators.

The first part, which provides an explanation of the meaning, includes only two subentries, and except for two grammar notes that the verb can be

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[2] Collocation is very complex topic and there are various approaches for defining its concept. From practical reasons, it has been chosen the definition that states prepositional phrase as a subdivision of collocation.

followed by two objects, there is nothing significantly different compared to OALD. The only major difference is a panel of synonyms, which will be subjected to a more careful analysis later. **Four collocations** were highlighted in bold.

Explanations of idioms are supplemented by example sentences, and include indicators of informality. No signs are used for marking words relevant to alphabetical order. Only **three idioms** are given.

The part for **phrasal verbs** is similar; the number of phrases is again slightly lower; there are only **four**. The sign indicating that the object can be situated before or after the particle is [M]. (See Appendix 8)

MED The entry organization is made according to the same principles.

The first part consists of three explanatory notes; the first is divided into three subentries. All of them include marking for in/transitivity. There are **three collocations** altogether.

In this case, the **idioms** were not appropriately highlighted by the headline, though one part is dedicated to them. There were **five** different idioms given.

The last part consists of **three phrasal verbs**. The phrase *to sell out* is divided into three subentries. This part includes the same indications as the previous two dictionaries. (See Appendix 9)

LDCE Longman offers quite a different approach to the outline. The meanings and idiomatical expressions are listed as if they were part of the same section. They are distinguished only by different highlights. On the other hand, the section with phrasal verbs is listed separately.

The listing of the verb consists of five subentries for meaning explanation, **ten collocations**, **six idioms** and **three** main **phrasal verbs**, which are supplemented with a larger number of examples. The partial indications are made in the same way as in OALD. (See Appendix 10)

3.3.2.1.1 Summary for phrasal verbs, idioms and collocations

From the above analyses it is evident that the approach and outline of the various dictionaries is always the same. The way the information about the entries is presented, the indications contained, and the order in which information is listed reflects similar principles.

Although the size of all dictionaries should be comparable, it was rather surprising to see that the number of subentries differ significantly. To provide an approximate idea, here is a comparison of the dictionaries with the maximum and minimum number of subentries: meanings OALD 6/CALD 2, collocations LDCE 10/MED 3, idioms LDCE 6/CALD 3, phrasal verbs OALD 6/LDCE, MED 3. In other words, every dictionary maintains weaknesses and strengths and offers slightly different range of vocabulary in its entries. Provided that the trend would be the same within the rest of the entries in each dictionary as was demonstrated by analysis of the "to sell" entry, it seems appropriate to say that OALD and LDCE would be the best options for those users who expect comprehensive information about phraseology.

It was also interesting that the dictionaries analysed here prefer listing phraseology in traditional ways, namely listing it under the entries in the main part of the dictionary instead of in separate appendices at the back of the book. Nevertheless, this traditional approach is still the most practical for general purposed dictionaries, since all information is located in one place.

3.3.2.2 Grammar appendices

The second highest rated part of the dictionary was the illustrative grammar appendices. Although the appendices appear to be very important for almost 50% of respondents, these are still not an essential part of all dictionaries. Some dictionaries, as seen below, provide extensive information about grammar, while some give only a basic overview on this topic.

OALD The grammar appendix in this dictionary is a part of section called "Reference section contents". From a grammatical perspective, only those contents explaining or dealing with some point of grammar were chosen, namely the following: *irregular verbs, verbs, phrasal verbs, nouns and adjectives, collocation, idioms, punctuation,* and *numbers*. The rest was strictly aimed either at use of the dictionary (defining the pronunciation and phonetic symbols in the dictionary) or at listing lexically related words and expressions (common first names), which was not relevant for this part of the analysis. All the parts of this section demonstrate to the user how he should use the dictionary.

The parts explaining certain grammar rules and their usage are: *verbs, nouns and adjectives, punctuation* and *numbers*. The parts dealing with the definition of certain grammatical problems in relation to other grammar rules are *phrasal verbs, collocation,* and *idioms.* The *irregular verbs* section was hard to add to any of above mentioned groups, as its main task is to list irregular verb forms. Nevertheless, it still reflects some grammar system; and its purpose is predominantly connected with grammar. (See Appendix 11)

CALD In contrast to OALD, CALD maintains a slightly different scale of appendices. According to the same principles as OALD, only those parts relevant to grammar were chosen from the "Extra help pages" contents:

common mistakes, prefixes and suffixes, irregular verbs, regular verb tenses, mathematical symbols, units of measurement and *word families*.

The main difference from the previous dictionary is that CALD prioritizes more specific grammar problems. The contents point out problematic areas for ESL study that trouble English learners – for instance *common mistakes, word families* or *prefixes and suffixes* – rather than general grammar rules. Although CALD does not give any appendices for verbs, it contains another part which was not included in OALD, namely *regular verb tenses*. Upon a comparison of verbs and regular verb tenses, it is clearly evident how different the approaches of both the dictionaries are. *Mathematical symbols* and *units of measurement* offer approximately the same information *numbers* of OALD. Listing of as much information as possible is given major preference in OALD entries over explaining grammar thoroughly. (See Appendix 12)

MED This dictionary states only a few points relevant to this category. These are *numbers, phrasal verbs* and *word formation*. The sections are very similar to those in OALD. The information contained is only superficial and includes basics concerning grammar. (See Appendix 13)

LDCE As it was in the above analysis of phraseologies, LDCE demonstrates a completely different approach in this part than the rest of the dictionaries. LDCE gives one specific part aimed at grammar problems named "Language notes" on the following topics: *articles, modal verbs, phrasal verbs, idioms, writing, linking ideas, pragmatics* and *collocation*.

Similarly as in CALD, the most discussed errors in ESL education were chosen. The main difference is in the outline; it is drafted in the form of entries divided into specific grammar problems. These are briefly explained with one or two sentences and demonstrated through example sentences. The *pragmatics* chapter would not normally be chosen for this category of

the analysis, unless it was not a part of the whole appendix. (See Appendix 14)

3.3.2.2.1 Summary of grammar appendices analysis

As was evident throughout the whole of the analysis for this category, there are no strict rules for the preparation of such appendices. Every publisher chose a slightly or a completely different approach and the information given was also wholly different or contained a various amount of details.

Judging by the degree of comprehensiveness, the most satisfactory impression in terms of grammar rules complexity, sufficient explanation, amount of information, and language learning utility was made by LDCE, then OALD, CALD; the weakest in this category was MED.

3.3.2.3 Synonyms and thesaurus boxes

Specialized synonym dictionaries have already been mentioned in theoretical parts of the thesis, where the essential concepts were introduced. Similarly as a part of "collocations, phrasal verbs and idioms", some essential knowledge of synonyms is needed on the advanced level. The synonyms are not only words with similar meaning, they differ in various disciplines, which influence their basic usage, e.g. register. 30,67% of the respondents chose this option.

This information is provided in a general advanced learner's dictionary in various ways, as it is not easy to decide how relevant the mention of other synonyms are. Therefore, any comparison of vocabulary extension was not possible here, since every dictionary gives different scale of synonyms and they are attached to different entries. The same as in the previous analysis, we will observe slight differences in approach.

OALD This dictionary offers an approach of listing synonyms using the *thesaurus notes* boxes within whole the dictionary. The list of synonyms with a relevant entry reference is indicated at the end of the dictionary in the section *Notes on Usage.*

The boxes contain always the headline *Synonyms* and a main entry; *valuable* for instance. Underneath, there is a listing of other synonyms: *precious, priceless, and irreplaceable*. In the box, the word or words are described in a meaningful manner that connects the words together and puts them in synonymous relation. Further description is made for every single synonym in the box, together with example sentences. At the end of the notes, the patterns are stated to point out which synonyms are closer or further from the meaning in relation to the others, e.g. *possession* goes with all the synonyms but *jewels* cannot be used with *irreplaceable*. (See Appendix 15)

CALD The approach is just the same as in OALD. The synonyms are listed using the "*Other ways of saying...*" boxes, with the difference that there are no notes on usage at the end of the dictionary, but the boxes should be stated for every more common word. The example entry is made for the word *hit* and the subentries *whack, bash, strike* and *beat*. The outline is the same as for OALD boxes, except for that the patterns are missing here. (See Appendix 16)

MED There are no special boxes or lists of synonyms in this dictionary. The synonyms are stated within the definition of word entries. Besides this approach, there are several other occasions for mentioning synonym differences, namely "boxes with information on lexical usage of semantically similar words", e.g. *above* and *over*, or "hints given for avoiding common errors" (usage of the verbs *agree/accept*). *(MED)* (See Appendix 17)

LDCE Similarly to MED, there are no special boxes or lists. The synonyms are stated within the definition of word entries highlighted by special indicator (*awful, terrible* and *terrifying* for *fearful*). (See Appendix 18)

3.3.2.3.1 Summary of synonyms and thesaurus boxes

The three main approaches have been shown here: listing of synonyms at the end of dictionary, synonym boxes and stating synonyms within the definitions of the word entries. From the point of view of quick search utility, the third possibility seems to be more practical than the others. Conversely, synonym boxes make a better visual impression, state only relevant information for synonyms, and do not need to refer to other pages in the dictionary, which saves time as well. Therefore, since no comparison of comprehensiveness was made, it is hard to judge which dictionaries dispose of better qualities.

3.3.2.4 Labelling of the most frequent words

Since some words occur in everyday language more frequently than others, labelling or marking the entries or its parts according to their importance very useful. Following the results of the survey, they are also used frequently by 20% of the respondents.

OALD A symbol of the key is used for labelling the most common words. The dictionary itself describes the indicator as follows: "Words printed in larger type and with a key symbol are part of the Oxford 3000 list of important words." *(OALD)* The Oxford 3000 is listed in contents at the end of the dictionary. Besides the big key symbols, there are also small keys, which indicate important parts inside the entry. (See Appendix 19)

CALD The frequency of the words indicated by a blue-green coloured font and labels divided into three stages: symbol E is for "Essential: the most

common and useful words in English", symbol I as "Improver: the next level of words to learn to improve your English" and the last one, symbol A for "Advanced: words to make your English really fluent and natural". *(CALD)* These symbols are used either for the entry itself or for inside parts of the entry. (See Appendix 20)

MED An approach similar to the dictionaries above is used. The best definition was made by MED itself: "Some words are printed in red with a star rating to show their frequency. For example, a word with one star is fairly common and a word with three stars is one of the most basic words in English." *(MED)* (See Appendix 21)

LDCE The principal is the same: "The 3000 most common words in English are printed in red letters." *(LDCE)* If a word is marked with *S2*, it means that the word belongs to the 2000 most common words in spoken English and those marked with *W2* in written English. Sometimes, the entries are supplemented by special graphs indicating other contexts for frequency usage. (See Appendix 22)

3.3.2.4.1 Summary of labelling of the most frequent words

As we can see from the analysis, the labelling of all the dictionaries is just the same. The principle and the outline are almost identical for all of them. Labelling of all dictionaries is very precise and user-friendly.

3.3.2.5 Topical pictorial appendixes

The pictorial appendixes are nothing new in contemporary lexicography. They are used by approximately 19% of the respondents.

OALD Visual Vocabulary Builder Contents contain 42 topics pictorial illustrations, inclusive maps at the end of the dictionary. Some topics include

also short descriptions and example sentences with phrases relevant to the topic.   (See Appendix 23)

CALD "Colour Pictures and Maps" in the middle of the book contain 24 topics; some of them, similarly as OALD, with short descriptions. The only difference, which appears to be quite surprising, is a slightly different range of vocabulary topics chosen in comparison to OALD. (See Appendix 24)

MED "Colour Illustrations" in this dictionary contain 14 topics. The maps are missing completely. No additional descriptions or extra phrases are stated here. The range of topics differs in relation to the other dictionaries. (See Appendix 25)

LDCE Full-page illustrations contain 16 topics including maps. No additional descriptions or extra phrases are stated here. The illustrations are they are dispersed throughout the book book. The range of topics differs in relation to the other dictionaries as well. (See Appendix 26)

3.3.2.5.1 Summary of topical pictorial appendixes

The most satisfying with its number of topics, additional information, example sentences and other supplements is definitely OALD, then CALD, MED. LDCE was the weakest at this time, since the pictures were organized chaotically all over the entire dictionary and printed on thin paper, which made the pages partially transparent. The transparent nature of the pages made text hard to read, as one could see text from the back side of the page you are reading, which conflicts with what you are seeing. It looks as if text is overlapping.

3.3.3 Results and summary of the analysis

It was very challenging to analyse four such famously known advanced learners' dictionaries. Some of the findings were either positively or negatively surprising. Without any doubts, the differences among them were sometimes significant from perspective of users' preferences. Two dictionaries fulfilled the requirements of the respondents the best, according to the profile and answers of the survey.

The first was **OALD**. Resulting from the analysis, only this dictionary contained information in all parts on very "above average" level. None of the important parts were omitted. It was evident that by providing some extra information, the outline was even more interesting

The second best dictionary fulfilling the requirements beyond "average" is **LDCE**. Except for the pictorial appendices, all the parts provided more than satisfactory information with a large number of entries, definitions and extra information. It also confirmed my hypothesis that Longman publishes especially for the scholarly focused public, since the information given was really comprehensive and detailed.

The **CALD** dictionary provides a solid range of information. Although the number of entries were not always the highest, the content shall be completely sufficient for that kind of users, who do not require too comprehensive information. This dictionary might be rated as "slightly above average".

Although, the **MED** was awarded with the English Language Book Award in 2002, it is rated as the weakest one in this analysis. The dictionary itself is not entirely bad; however, it does not fulfil the requirements according to the survey results: it lacks sufficient scale of information or some parts are omitted altogether. One possible explanation might be the

fact that the edition of this dictionary available is the oldest, which may be sufficient excuse for it.

3.4 BASIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN USAGE OF PRINTED DICTIONARIES AND CD-ROMS

In this final chapter, a basic comparison between usage of table dictionaries and CD-ROM dictionaries will be provided. The last question of the survey was aimed at the CD-ROM applications that the users prefer the most. As there is not enough space for a more detailed analysis, only the first three most rated options will be compared and there were three CD-ROMs with computer software available to analyse: OALD, CALD and LDCE.

To check results for this part of the survey, see Appendix 6.

3.4.1 Grammar appendices & Interactive grammar exercises

The magic formula in this case is the word "interactive". Interactive in the sense of application of computer software means something beyond pure reading and memorizing. After my participation in several lectures for teachers of ESL, I came to the conclusion that so called "learning by doing" moves the world of language education. Therefore, the interactive exercises should arouse the students' interest rather than simple appendices in a book: they are amusing, motivating and easy to remember.

CD-ROM versions of LDCE and CALD provide interactive grammar exercises. In addition, CALD offers exercises especially aimed at preparation for international certificates, which is also a highly requested (even demanded) option. Forty-eight percent of the respondents marked this option as the most frequent application used on the CD-ROM dictionary.

3.4.2 Vocabulary appendices & Interactive vocabulary exercises

The situation is the same as with grammar. The main difference is based on the fact that all dictionaries are primarily aimed at "words" and "vocabulary". Due to this, there are also more possibilities for studying and

broadening ones' vocabulary. The option is dependent on the user's decision, if he/she prefers rather books or computer exercises.

All the three CD-ROMs available, OALD, CALD and LDCE, offer vocabulary exercises. This option was chosen by 32% of the respondents.

3.4.3 Synonym boxes & electronic Thesaurus

One undisputed advantage of the CD-ROM is the possibility of searching for information very quickly and comfortably, without the need to browse in a book, which can be a lengthy process. Although the approaches for stating synonyms in the table dictionaries analysis were quite practical, anyway, dictionaries of synonyms are suitable more for electronic version rather than book. In addition, a full-text search provides a wider range of possibilities for looking up appropriate synonyms.

The two CD-ROM dictionaries, OALD and CALD, offer a thesaurus application. Twenty-four percent of the respondents rated for this option.

4 CONCLUSION

The objective of this thesis was to compare and to analyse the importance of additional sections of contemporary advanced learners' dictionaries widely available on the Czech market. It was also very important to extract some basic facts about the quality of the four dictionaries analysed.

The practical part of this thesis provides information about the users of monolingual ESL dictionaries. This section examined certain details about these users: who these people are, where they use their dictionary, how often they use it, what their language skills are, and what form of the dictionary they prefer. For the subject of the thesis, it was essential to see that the majority of respondents were at the advanced level with their language skills and that they preferred table dictionaries over other forms, since the analysis was predominantly aimed at advanced learners' paper-based dictionaries.

The analysis itself showed that the approaches used by several dictionaries to implement additional parts and appendices differ significantly, though the size of the dictionaries should have been approximately the same. Some provided of very comprehensive information, almost on a scholarly level, while others omitted parts that were identified by the survey as the most important. These significant differences might partially be a result of the date when the dictionary was last edited/published.

The very last chapter was dedicated to a brief comparison between the usage of table dictionaries and that of CD-ROM dictionaries. This chapter highlighted basic advantages of CD-ROM applications and compared it to versions in the paper publications.

The most difficult part of this thesis was searching for the correct terminology. The work with the dictionaries and their analysis proved to be very challenging; since the dictionaries chosen for the analysis are widely respected among the public, advancing criticisms was a task not lacking in difficulty. The analysis revealed very interesting facts about the dictionaries' quality, comprehensiveness, and utility for language learning.

5 ENDNOTES

[1] ČERMÁK, F.; BLATNÁ, R. a KOL. *Manuál lexikografie, p. 17*

[2] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lexicography

[3] STERKENBURG, Piet van *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*. p. 49

[4] Ibid., p. 51-52

[5] Ibid., p. 71

[6] Ibid., p. 71

[7] Ibid., p. 73

[8] Ibid., p. 74-75

[9] Ibid., p. 76

[10] QUIRK, R.; GREENBAUM, S. *A Student's Grammar of the English Language. 27-28*

[11] STERKENBURG, Piet van *A Practical Guide to Lexicography*. p. 76

[12] Ibid., p. 80

[13] Ibid., p. 87

[14] Ibid., p. 87

[15] Ibid., p. 89-90

[16] Ibid., p. 102

[17] Ibid., p. 105

[18] Ibid., p. 105

[19] Ibid., p. 117

[20] Ibid., p. 117

[21] Ibid., p. 131

[22] http://www.anasurvey.com/anasurvio/cs/

[23] http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/elp/elp-reg/Source/assessement_grid/assessment_grid_english.pdf

[24] FUGUEROA, C.M.; GÁRATE T.M. *Studies in Contrastive Linguistics: Proceedings of the 4th International Contrastive Linguistics Conference,* p.95

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6.2 Internet sources

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http://www.anasurvey.com/anasurvio/cs/

http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/education/elp/elp-
reg/Source/assessement_grid/assessment_grid_english.pdf

7 ABSTRACT

The thesis deals with the topic of additional parts and appendices in advanced learners' monolingual dictionaries.

The main purpose of this thesis was to determine whether or not the additional parts in the advanced learners' monolingual dictionaries are utilizable in practice. The investigation was based upon the findings of an original survey and upon their analysis, which revealed basic facts about who uses monolingual dictionaries and what additional parts are most used by the survey's respondents. The analysis itself provided information about the sufficiency and comprehensiveness of the analysed dictionaries.

The final conclusion reached was that students of English language are interested in using monolingual dictionaries more than professionals and working population. The analysis revealed that not every dictionary offers an appropriate scale of information for fulfilling the criteria of requirements suggested by the results of the survey.

8 RESUMÉ

Téma této práce se zabývá doplňkovými částmi a přílohami ve výkladových slovních pro pokročilé studenty anglického jazyka.

Hlavním cílem této práce bylo zjistit, zdali jsou doplňkové části výkladových slovníků použitelné v praxi. Výzkum byl založen na dotaznících a následné analýze slovníků, které doložily základní poznatky o tom, kdo tyto slovníky využívá a které doplňkové části přitom používá nejčastěji. Samotná analýza také odhalila skutečnosti o tom, jak jsou slovníky svými informacemi dostačující a obsáhlé.

Výsledkem práce bylo zjištění, že studenti angličtiny jako cizího jazyka používají výkladové slovníky více profesionálové pro pracovní účely. Analýza prokázala, že slovníky se svými informacemi a obsáhlostí zásadně liší. Pouze některé splnily všechna kritéria vyplývající z výzkumu.
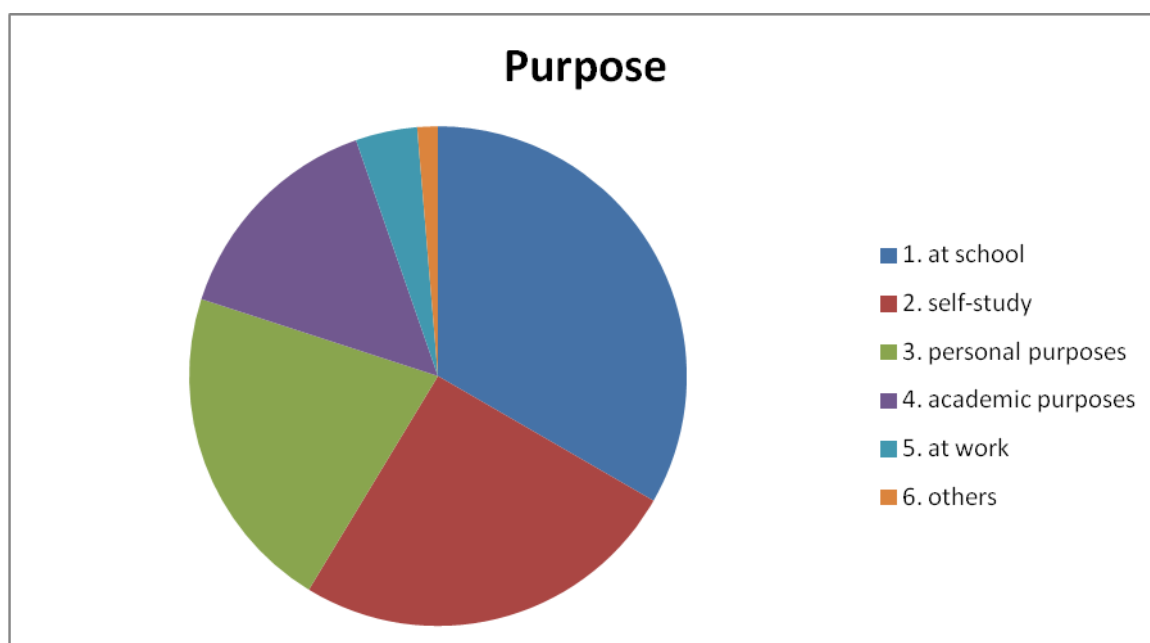
9 APPENDICES

9.1 Graphs

9.1.1 Appendix 1

Purpose

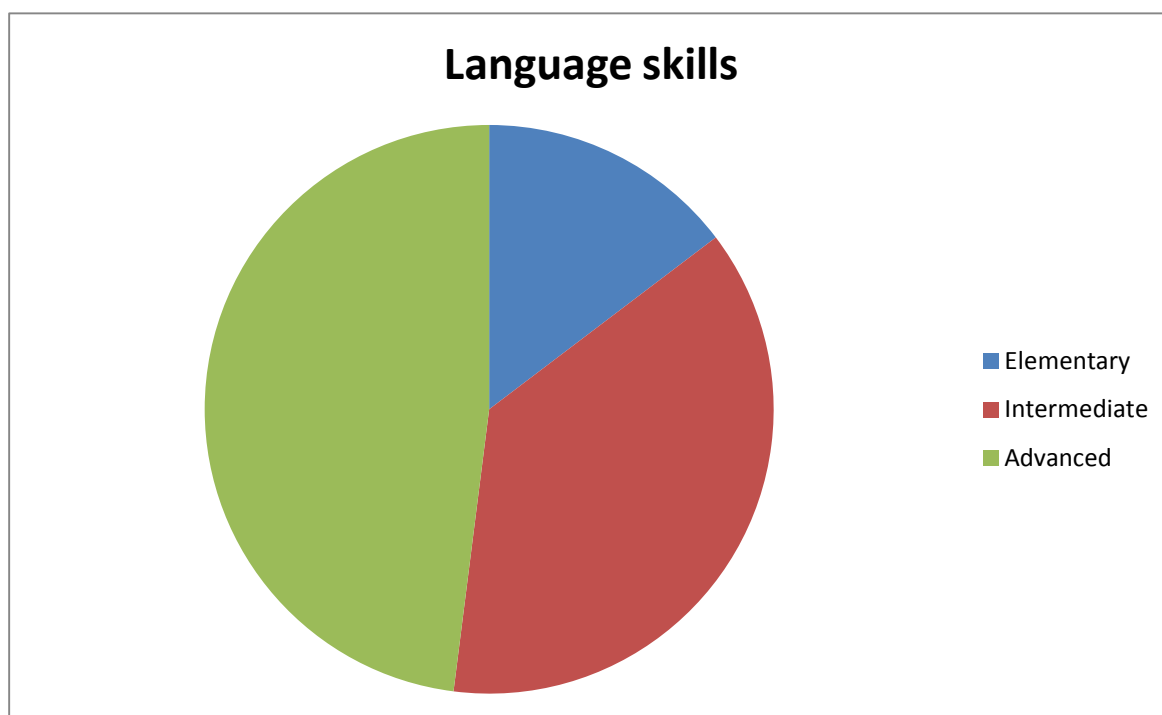| Number	Options	Answers	Percentage
1	At school	25	33,33 %
2	Self-study	19	25,33 %
3	Personal purposes	16	21,33 %
4	Academic purposes	11	14,67 %
5	At work	3	4,00 %
6	Others	1	1,33 %

Total (75)

9.1.2 Appendix 2

Language skills

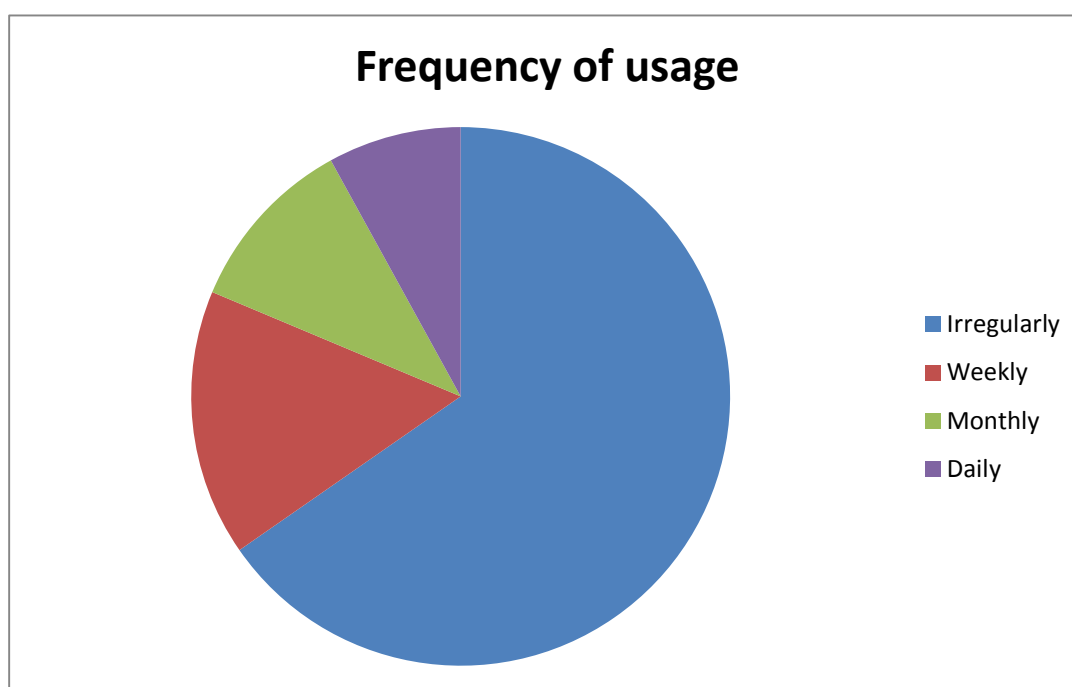| Number	Options	Answers	Percentage
1	Advanced	36	48,00 %
2	Intermediate	28	37,33 %
3	Elementary	11	14,67 %

Total (75)

9.1.3 Appendix 3

Frequency of usage

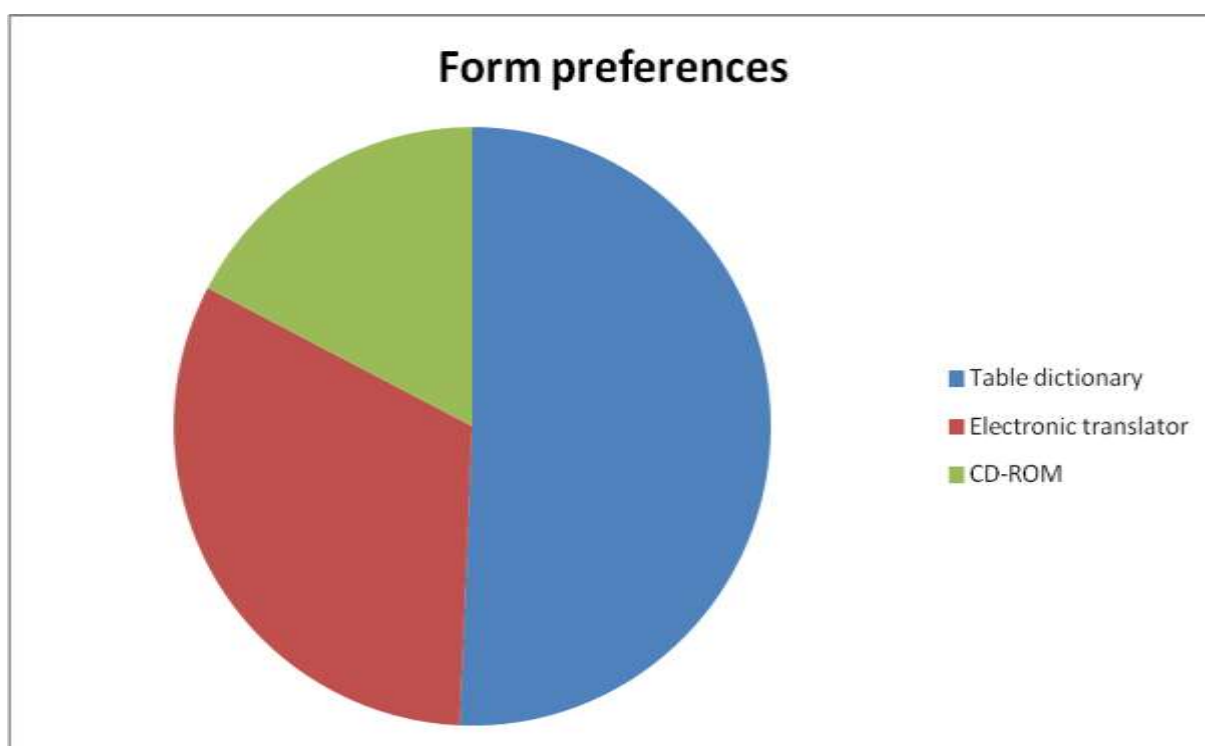| Number	Options	Answers	Percentage
1	Irregularly	49	65,33 %
2	Weekly	12	16,00 %
3	Monthly	8	10,67 %
4	Daily	6	8,00 %

Total (75)

9.1.4 Appendix 4

Form preferences

Number	Options	Answers	Percentage
1	Table dictionary	38	50,67 %
3	Electronic translator	24	32,00 %
2	CD-ROM	13	17,33 %

Total (75)

9.1.5 Appendix 5

Most frequently used parts of table dictionaries

Number	Options	Ans.	%
1	Phrasal verbs, idioms and collocations	48	64,00 %
2	Grammar appendices	37	49,33 %
3	Synonyms (Thesaurus)	23	30,67 %
4	Labelling for the most frequent words	15	20,00 %
5	Topical pictorial appendixes	14	18,67 %
6	Supplements for extension of topical vocabulary	11	14,67 %
7	Others	11	14,67 %
8	Pictorial explanatory notes to the entries	10	13,33 %
9	Notes with cultural studies information	8	10,67 %
10	Maps	5	6,67 %
11	Supplements for the improvement of writing skills	5	6,67 %
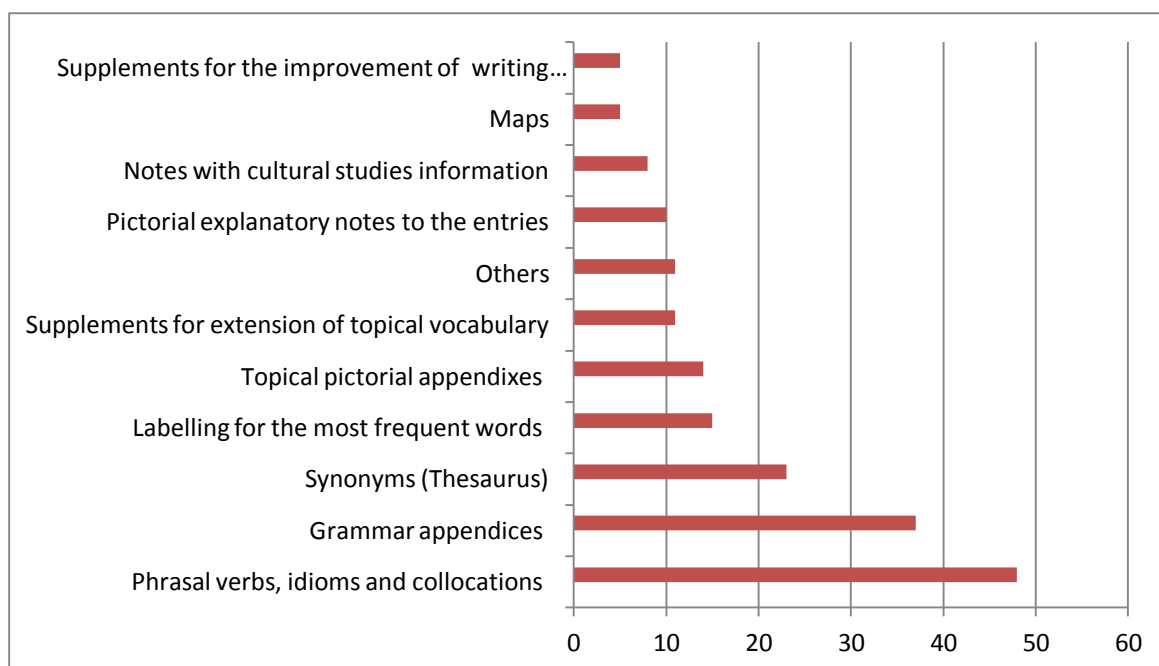
Total (75)

9.1.6 Appendix 6

Most frequently used parts of CD-ROM dictionaries

Number	Options	Answers	Percentage
1	Interactive grammar exercises	36	48,00 %
2	Interactive vocabulary exercises	24	32,00 %
3	Others	19	25,33 %
4	Electronic Thesaurus	18	24,00 %
5	Pronunciation	18	24,00 %
6	Quick search in Documents	15	20,00 %
7	Interactive tools for writing	8	10,67 %
8	International ESOL exercises	6	8,00 %
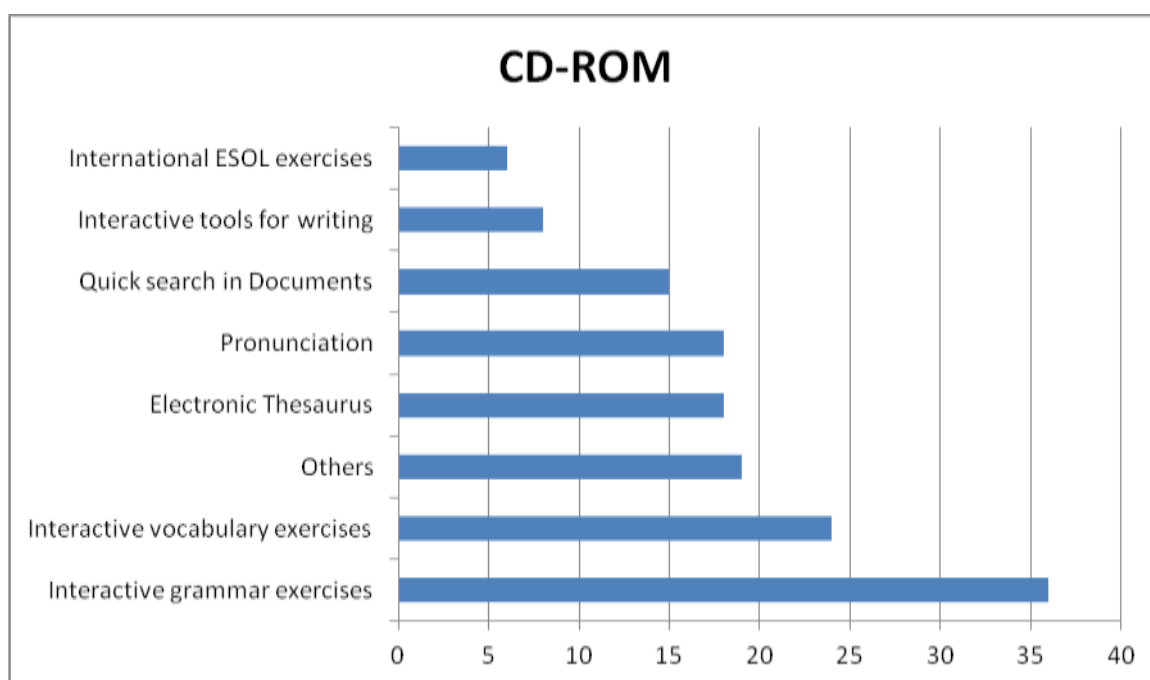
Total (75)

9.2 Analyzed parts

9.2.1 Appendix 7

sell Ⓞ▬ /sel/ verb, noun
■ verb (sold, sold /saʊld; NAmE soʊld/)
• EXCHANGE FOR MONEY **1** Ⓞ▬ [T, I] to give sth to sb in exchange for money: ~ sth (to sb) (for sth) *I sold my car to James for £800.* ◇ ~ sb sth (for sth) *I sold James my car for £800.* ◇ ~ (sth) (at sth) *They sold the business at a profit/loss* (= they gained/lost money when they sold it). ◇ *We offered them a good price but they wouldn't sell.*
• OFFER FOR SALE **2** Ⓞ▬ [T] ~ sth to offer sth for people to buy: *Most supermarkets sell a range of organic products.* ◇ *Do you sell stamps?* ◇ *to sell insurance* ⊃ compare CROSS-SELLING
• BE BOUGHT **3** Ⓞ▬ [T, I] to be bought by people in the way or in the numbers mentioned; to be offered at the price mentioned: ~ (sth) *The magazine sells 300 000 copies a week.* ◇ *The book sold well and was reprinted many times.* ◇ *The new design just didn't sell* (= nobody bought it). ◇ ~ for/at sth *The pens sell for just 50p each.*
• PERSUADE **4** [I, T] to make people want to buy sth: *You may not like it but advertising sells.* ◇ ~ sth *It is quality not price that sells our products.* **5** Ⓞ▬ [T] ~ sth/yourself (to sb) to persuade sb that sth is a good idea, service, product, etc; to persuade sb that you are the right person for a job, position, etc: *Now we have to try and sell the idea to management.* ◇ *You really have to sell yourself at a job interview.*
• TAKE MONEY/REWARD **6** [T] ~ yourself (to sb) (*disapproving*) to accept money or a reward from sb for doing sth that is against your principles **SYN** prostitute ⊃ see also SALE
IDM be 'sold on sth (*informal*) to be very enthusiastic about sth sell your 'body to have sex with sb in exchange for money sell sb down the 'river (*informal*) to give poor or unfair treatment to sb you have promised to help **ORIGIN** From the custom of buying and selling slaves on the plantations on the Mississippi river in America. Slaves who caused trouble for their masters could be sold to plantation owners lower down the river, where conditions would be worse. sell sb/yourself 'short to not value sb/yourself highly enough and show this by the way you treat or present them/yourself sell your 'soul (to the devil) to do anything, even sth bad or dishonest, in return for money, success or power ⊃ more at HOT *adj.*, PUP
PHR V sell sth↔'off **1** Ⓞ▬ to sell things cheaply because

| ə actual | ɑː my | aʊ now | eɪ say | əʊ go (BrE) |

you want to get rid of them or because you need the money **2** ▬ to sell all or part of an industry, a company or land: *The Church sold off the land for housing.* ⊃ related noun SELL-OFF ,sell sth↔'on to sell to sb else sth that you have bought not long before: *She managed the business for a year and then sold it on.* sell 'out | be ,sold 'out ▬ (of tickets for a concert, sports game, etc.) to be all sold: *The tickets sold out within hours.* ◇ *This week's performances are completely sold out.* ,sell 'out (of sth) | be ,sold 'out (of sth) to have sold all the available items, tickets, etc: *I'm sorry, we've sold out of bread.* ◇ *We are already sold out for what should be a fantastic game.* sell 'out (to sb/sth) **1** (*disapproving*) to change or give up your beliefs or principles: *He's a talented screenwriter who has sold out to TV soap operas.* **2** to sell your business or a part of your business: *The company eventually sold out to a multinational media group.* ⊃ related noun SELL-OUT ,sell 'up | ,sell sth↔'up (*especially BrE*) to sell your home, possessions, business, etc, usually because you are leaving the country or retiring

9.2.2 Appendix 8

sell /sel/ (sold, sold)
▶verb MONEY ⊖ **1** ⊞ [I OR T] to give something to some-one else in return for money: [+ TWO OBJECTS] *I sold him my car/I sold my car to him for £600.* ○ *We'll be selling the tickets at/for £50 each.* ○ *The stall sells drinks and snacks.* ○ *These baskets sell well (= a lot of them are bought).* PERSUADE ⊖ **2** [T] to persuade someone that an idea or plan is a good one and likely to be successful: *My boss is very old-fashioned and I'm having a lot of trouble selling the idea of working at home occasionally.* ○ [+ TWO OBJECTS] *The chance of greater access to European markets would help sell the President the scheme/sell the scheme to the President.* ○ *She's really sold on the idea of buying a new car.*

Other ways of saying sell

Retail is a word that means 'sell' when talking about companies selling things in shops or by post:

The company makes and retails moderately priced sportswear.

The phrasal verb **deal in** can be used when someone sells and buys things as part of their business:

They mainly deal in rare books.

Divest (*mainly US*) or **sell off** means 'to sell something, especially a business or part of a business':

The company is divesting/selling off the less profitable parts of its business.

If a company or country sells goods to other countries, you could use the word **export**:

France exports a lot of cheese.

Flog is an informal British word that means 'to sell, especially quickly or cheaply':

He was flogging cheap watches from a stall in the street.

Hawk can be used when someone sells things informally in public places:

There were lots of street vendors hawking candy.

Peddle is a usually disapproving word when someone goes from place to place to sell things:

We need to get tough on those who peddle cigarettes to children.

If you **auction (off)** something, you sell it at a public sale to the person who offers the most money:

The family is auctioning off its art collection.

Sell out of means to sell all of the supply that you have of something:

We sold out of the T-shirts within two hours.

▶idioms **sell sb a bill of goods** (UK ALSO **sell sb a pup**) to deceive someone into buying something which has no value ● **sell sb down the river** INFORMAL to put someone in a difficult or dangerous situation by not acting as you had promised to act, usually in order to win an advan-tage for yourself ● **sell yourself/sth short** to not value someone or something as much as they deserve to be valued: *Don't sell yourself short - you've got the skills and the experience.* ● **sell your soul (to the devil)** to be per-suaded to do something, especially something bad, because of the money or other reward you will receive for doing it

▶phrasal verbs **sell sth off** [M] **1** to charge a low price for something to encourage people to buy it: *They're selling off last year's stock at half price.* **2** to sell all or part of a business: *The company announced that it would be selling off its hotel business.*

sell out SELL ALL ⊖ ⊞ **1** to sell all of the supply that you have of something: *We sold out of the T-shirts in the first* couple of hours. **2** If a supply of something sells out, there is no more of that thing to buy: *The first issue of the magazine sold out within two days.* **3** [PASSIVE] When a show or film is sold out, all of the tickets for it have been sold: *We couldn't get seats - the concert was sold out.* SELL BUSINESS ⊖ **4** to sell your business or part of your busi-ness: *They decided to sell out to their competitors.*

sell (sb) out [M] INFORMAL to not do what you have pro-mised someone you will do or what you should do because you will get more advantages for yourself if you do something else: *French farmers feel they've been sold out by their government in the negotiations.* ○ *They've sold out to the road transport lobby (= done what these people wanted).*

9.2.3 Appendix 9

sell¹ /sel/ (past tense and past participle **sold** /sɔʊld/) verb
★★★
1 [T] to exchange something for money: *They've already sold over two million copies of their record.* ♦ **sell sth at a profit/loss** (=for more/less money than you paid) *I don't think dealers sell these cars at much of a profit.* ♦ **buy and sell sth** *My uncle buys and sells antiques for a living.* **1a.** [T] to persuade someone to buy something from a business that employs you: **sell sb sth** *I sold one customer five pairs of shoes yesterday.* **1b.** [T] a shop that sells a particular product has a supply of it for customers to buy: *Do you think they sell children's books here?* **1c.** [I] if something sells, people buy it: *Designer clothes don't really sell much in the smaller towns.* ♦ **sth sells well** (=a lot of people buy it) *Her new book sold very well in the first six months.*
2 [T] to be a quality that makes people want to buy, have, or do something: *Sex and violence have sold a lot of cinema tickets.*
3 [T] *informal* to persuade someone to do, have, or use something: *I don't think we could sell the idea to our partners.*

sell your body to have sex with people because they pay you money
sell sb down the river *informal* to allow someone who trusts you to be harmed so that you can get an advantage for yourself
sell sb short to describe someone or something as less impressive than they really are: *His main fault is that he tends to sell himself short.*
sell yourself to persuade people that you have a lot of ability: *If you can't sell yourself you're not likely to sell anything else.*
sold on sth believing that something is very good: *I'm not completely sold on that idea.*
→ HOT CAKES

,sell 'off phrasal vb [T] to sell something quickly and for a low price, usually because you need money: *The company will have to sell off assets to avoid bankruptcy.*
,sell 'on phrasal vb [T] to sell something after buying it from someone else: *They buy it at a low price and sell it on for a huge profit.*
,sell 'out phrasal vb **1** [I/T] if a shop sells out of something, it sells all that it has so that there is no more available: *I went to get some bread, but the shop had sold out.* ♦ **+of** *On a hot day, we can sell out of ice cream in an hour.* **1a.** [I] used about goods: *The tickets had sold out within a few short hours.* **2** [I] *informal* to do something that shows you no longer have the same moral principles you used to have: **+to** *Some fans thought she'd sold out to mainstream pop music.* **3** [I] *Am E* to deliberately sell all the goods in your business, especially because you are closing the business permanently

9.2.4 Appendix 10

sell [S1] [W1] /sel/ v past tense and past participle **sold** /səʊld $ soʊld/

1 GIVE STH FOR MONEY [I,T] to give something to someone in exchange for money; ⇄ **buy**: *If you offer him another hundred, I think he'll sell.* | *He regrets selling all his old records.* | **sell sth for £100/$50/30p etc** *Toni's selling her car for £700.* | **sell sb sth** *I won't sell you my shares!* | **sell sth to sb** *The vase was sold to a Dutch buyer.* | **sell sth at a profit/loss** (=make or lose money on a sale) *Tony had to sell the business at a loss.*

2 MAKE STH AVAILABLE [I,T] to offer something for people to buy: *Do you sell cigarettes?* | *a job selling advertising space* | **sell at/for £100/$50/30p etc** (=be offered for sale at £100/$50/30p etc) *Smoke alarms sell for as little as five pounds.*

3 MAKE SB WANT STH [T] to make people want to buy something: *Scandal sells newspapers.* | **sell sth to sb** *The car's new design will help sell it to consumers.*

4 BE BOUGHT [I,T] to be bought by people: *Tickets for the concert just aren't selling.* | *Her last book sold millions of copies.* | *All the new houses have been sold.* | **sell well/badly** (=be bought by a lot of people, or very few people) *Anti-age creams always sell well.*

5 sell like hot cakes to sell quickly and in large amounts

6 IDEA/PLAN [I,T] to try to make someone accept a new idea or plan, or to become accepted: *It's all right for Washington, but will it sell in small-town America?* | **sell sth to sb** *It's hard for any government to sell new taxes to the electorate.* | **sell sb sth** *managers selling employees the new working hours* | **be sold on (doing) sth** (=think an idea or plan is very good) *Joe's completely sold on the concept.*

7 sell yourself a) to make yourself seem impressive to other people: *If you want a promotion, you've got to sell yourself better.* **b)** also **sell your body** to have sex with someone for money

8 sell sb/sth short to not give someone or something the praise, attention, or reward that they deserve: *Don't sell yourself short – tell them about all your qualifications.*

9 sell your soul (to the devil) to agree to do something

bad in exchange for money, power etc

10 sell sb down the river to do something that harms a group of people who trusted you, in order to gain money or power for yourself

11 sell your vote *AmE* to take money from someone who wants you to vote for a particular person or plan

sell sth ⇔ **off** *phr v*
1 to sell something, especially for a cheap price, because you need the money or because you want to get rid of it: *After the war, we had to sell off part of the farm.* | *We sell off leftover cakes before we close.*
2 to sell all or part of an industry or company: *The Leicestershire company has sold off many of its smaller branches to cut debts.*

sell out *phr v*
1 if a shop sells out of something, it has no more of that particular thing left to sell: **be/have sold out** *Sorry, we're sold out.* | [+of] *We've completely sold out of those shirts in your size, sir.*
2 if products, tickets for an event etc sell out, they are all sold and there are none left: *Wow! Those cakes sold out fast.* | **be/have sold out** *Tonight's performance is completely sold out.*
3 to change your beliefs or principles, especially in order to get more money or some other advantage – used to show disapproval: *ex-hippies who've sold out and become respectable businessmen*
4 to sell your business or your share in a business: *Wyman says he'll sell out if business doesn't pick up.* | [+to] *The T-mail Co. has sold out to San Jose-based DMX Inc for an undisclosed sum.*

sell up *phr v BrE*
to sell most of what you own, especially your house or your business: *Liz decided to sell up and move abroad.*

9.2.5 Appendix 11

Verbs

Transitive verbs [T]

■ Transitive verbs must have an object. The object can be a noun or a pronoun, a noun phrase or a clause.

For information on verbs that take a clause as the object, see page R7.

The frames used to show a transitive verb with a noun, pronoun or noun phrase as object are ~ sb, ~ sth and ~ sb/sth.

ac·com·mo·date AW /əˈkɒmədeɪt; NAmE əˈkɑːm-/ verb **1** [T] ~ sb to provide sb with a room or place to sleep, live or sit: *The hotel can accommodate up to 500 guests.* **2** [T] ~ sb/sth to provide enough space for sb/sth: *Over 70 minutes of music can be accommodated on one CD.* **3** [T] ~ sth (*formal*) to consider sth, such as sb's opinion or a fact, and be influenced by it when you are deciding what to do or explaining sth: *Our proposal tries to accommodate the special needs of minority groups.*

~ sb is used when the object is a person.

~ sth is used when the object is a thing.

~ sb/sth is used when the object can be a person or a thing.

As with intransitive verbs, some transitive verbs are often used with a preposition or an adverb.

If there is a wide range of possible prepositions or adverbs a frame such as sb/sth + adv./prep. is used.

hack /hæk/ verb, noun
■ verb **1** [T, I] to cut sb/sth with rough, heavy blows: ~ sb/sth + adv./prep. *I hacked the dead branches off.* ∘ *They were hacked to death as they tried to escape.* ∘ *We had to hack our way through the jungle.* ∘ + adv./prep. *We hacked away at the bushes.* **2** [T] ~ sb/sth + adv./prep. to kick sth roughly or without control: *He hacked the ball away.* **3** (*computing*) [I, T] to secretly find a way of looking at and/or changing information on sb else's computer system without permission: ~ into sth *He hacked into the bank's computer.* ∘ ~ sth *They had hacked secret data.*

If a particular preposition or adverb is used, then it is given in the frame.

Transitive verbs with two objects

■ Some verbs, like **sell** and **buy**, can be used with two objects. This is shown by the frame ~ sb sth:
  ▸ *I sold Jim a car.*
  ▸ *I bought Mary a book.*

You can often express the same idea by using the verb as an ordinary transitive verb and adding a prepositional phrase starting with **to** or **for**:
  ▸ *I sold a car to Jim.*
  ▸ *I bought a book for Mary.*

These will be shown by the frames ~ to sb and ~ for sb.

bake 0-w /beɪk/ verb
1 ~ [I, T] to cook food in an oven without extra fat or liquid; to be cooked in this way: ~ (sth) *baked apples* ∘ *the delicious smell of baking bread* ∘ ~ sth for sb *I'm baking a birthday cake for Alex.* ∘ ~ sb sth *I'm baking Alex a cake.* ⊃ COLLOCATIONS at COOKING ⊃ VISUAL VOCAB page V24

A pair of examples, with different frames, shows the same idea expressed in two different ways.

Linking verbs

■ ▸ *His voice sounds hoarse.*
  ▸ *Elena became a doctor.*

In these sentences the linking verb (**sound**, **become**) is followed by a complement, an adjective (**hoarse**) or a noun phrase (a **doctor**) that tells you more about the subject.

Verbs that have an adjective as the complement have the frame + **adj.**, and verbs with a noun phrase as the complement have the frame + **noun**. Verbs that can take either an adjective or a noun phrase as the complement may have the frame + **adj./noun**, or the two frames may be shown separately with an example for each.

be·come 0-w /bɪˈkʌm/ verb (be·came /bɪˈkeɪm/, be·come)
1 ~ linking verb to start to be sth: + adj. *It was becoming more and more difficult to live on his salary.* ∘ *It soon became apparent that no one was going to come.* ∘ *She was becoming confused.* ∘ + noun *She became queen in 1952.* ∘ *The bill will become law next year.*

The linking verb **become** can be used with either an adjective or a noun phrase.

There are also verbs that take both an object and a complement:
  ▸ *She considered herself lucky.*
  ▸ *They elected him president.*

The complement (**lucky**, **president**) tells you more about the object (**herself**, **him**) of the verb. The frames for these verbs are ~ sb/sth + **adj.**, sb/sth + **noun** or sb/sth + **adj./noun**.

Verbs used with 'that clauses'

■ The frame ~ **that...** shows that a verb is followed by a clause beginning with **that**:
  ▸ *She replied that she would prefer to walk.*

However, it is not always necessary to use the word **that** itself:
  ▸ *I said that he would come.*
  ▸ *I said he would come.*

These two sentences mean the same. In the dictionary they are shown by the frame

9.2.6 Appendix 12

Here are some examples of typical mistakes that students make with uncountable nouns, followed by the correct way to say each sentence:

✗ He gave me an advice.

✓ He gave me *some advice*.

✓ *He gave me a piece of advice*.

✗ He gave me a lot of advices.

✗ He gave me many advices.

✓ He gave me *a lot of advice*.

*Note that you can make some of these nouns countable by adding a phrase such as 'piece of' or 'item of' before the noun, e.g. *She gave me two very useful pieces of advice*.

The words numbered 1–10 below, taken from the *Cambridge Learner Corpus*, are the ten uncountable nouns that advanced students most often use wrongly as if they were countable.

Uncountable noun

1	information	**pieces of** information
2	advice	**pieces of** advice
3	transport	**methods of** transport
4	equipment	**pieces of** equipment
5	behaviour*	**types of** behaviour
6	research*	**pieces of** research
7	training	
8	knowledge	
9	software	**pieces of** software
10	accommodation	

*These words also have meanings that can be made plural. See the main dictionary for these.

Although a lot of languages have words that do not have a plural form, these are not always the same words in different languages. The words for **furniture** in German, Russian and Italian, for example, all have a plural form. Therefore it is easy for learners of English to make mistakes with uncountable nouns.

The Top 10 Mistakes Using Nouns With Irregular Plurals

To make most countable nouns plural in English, you usually add an 's' at the end, for example, **dog** – **dogs**. However, some nouns do not follow this rule and have an irregular plural form. The following list shows the ten nouns with irregular plural forms that cause the most difficulty for advanced learners of English. The words on the left show the singular form of the noun and the words on the right show the correct plural form:

	Singular	Plural
1	life	lives
2	child	children
3	belief	beliefs
4	country	countries
5	company	companies
6	hero	heroes
7	wife	wives
8	city	cities
9	sheep	sheep
10	activity	activities

Note that in this dictionary an entry for a noun with an irregular plural form will show the plural form at the start of the entry:

child /tʃaɪld/ (*plural* **children**)
▶ noun [C] 1 ⓔ a boy or girl from the time of birth until he or she is an adult, or a son or daughter of any age: *an eight-year-old child* ○ *As a child I didn't eat vegetables.*

The Top 10 Irregular Verb Mistakes

The following list from the *Cambridge Learner Corpus* shows the ten irregular verbs that cause the most difficulty for advanced students of English. The **bold letters** in this list show you the letters in these verbs forms that students most often get wrong:

	Verb	Correct inflection
1	write	**writi**ng
2	pay	**paid**
3	occur	occur**red**
4	study	study**ing**
5	develop	develo**ped**
6	choose	cho**sen**
7	be	be**ing**
8	happen	happen**ed**
9	rise	**rose**
10	prefer	prefer**red**

9.2.7 Appendix 13

LA2 Language Awareness

NUMBERS

THIS PAGE gives information about how to say and write numbers in English. It also outlines some of the differences in the use of numbers between British and American English.

Numbers from one to a million

1	one
21	twenty-one
84	eighty-four
100	a/one hundred
200	two hundred
432	Br E four hundred and thirty-two
	Am E four hundred thirty-two
1,000	a/one thousand
1,001	a/one thousand and one
1,100	one thousand one hundred/eleven hundred
2,000	two thousand
2,932	Br E two thousand nine hundred and thirty-two
	Am E two thousand nine hundred thirty-two
3,100	three thousand one hundred
	Am E also thirty-one hundred
100,000	a/one hundred thousand
1,000,000	a/one million

Saying **a** instead of **one**: you can say *a hundred and fifty* (150), but NOT ~~two thousand a hundred and fifty~~ (2,150): say *two thousand one hundred and fifty*. People often use **a** instead of **one** in conversation, but it is better to use **one** in technical contexts.

Ways of saying the number 0

In a series of numbers:
You can pronounce 0 like the letter **o**, when you are giving a series of numbers such as a credit card number or a flight number.

In dates:
Say **oh** when giving the name of a year, such as 1904 ('nineteen oh four').

In mathematics, science, and technical contexts:
Br E: Say **nought** or **zero**.
Am E: Say **zero**.

In temperatures:
Br E: Say **zero** to refer to freezing point (0° Celsius or 32° Fahrenheit).
Am E: Say **zero** to refer to 0° Fahrenheit.

In sports, for scores of 0:
Br E: Say **nil**.
Am E: Say **zero** or **nothing**.
In tennis: Say **love**.

Fractions and decimals

Fractions
½	a half
2½	two and a half
¼	a quarter
¾	three quarters
	Am E also three fourths

Decimals
0.5	Br E nought point five
	Am E zero point five
2.5	two point five
0.25	Br E nought point two five
	Am E zero point two five
0.75	Br E nought point seven five
	Am E zero point seven five

Writing full stops and commas in numbers

Use a full stop (.) to separate the main part of a number from the decimal part (the part that is less than 1). **2.031** means 'two point nought three one'.

Say **point** to refer to the full stop. You can use a comma (,) in large numbers to separate the hundreds, thousands, and millions. **2,031** means 'two thousand and thirty-one'. In British English, spaces are sometimes used instead of commas (2 031).

Remember: Speakers of some other languages use (.) and (,) the other way around.

Dates

Days and months:
Br E: Write **3 June/3rd June/June 3/June 3rd**.
Say 'the third of June' or 'June the third'.

Am E: Write **June 3/June 3rd**.
Say 'June third'.

Writing dates as numbers:
3/6 (or **03/06**) means 3 June in British English, and March 6 in American English. (British and American speakers put the month and day in different orders.)

Saying the numbers of years:
1066	ten sixty-six
1605	sixteen oh five
1776	seventeen seventy-six
1900	nineteen hundred
1999	nineteen ninety-nine
2000	(the year) two thousand
2001	two thousand and one
	Am E also two thousand one

Phone numbers

Say phone numbers as series of numbers, with pauses between the groups of numbers. For example, say 08081 570983 as *oh eight oh eight one, five seven oh nine eight three*.

Br E: For phone numbers like 5155, people often say *five one double five*. For numbers like 1555, people often say *one treble five* or *one five double five*.

Am E: People often say 'area code' before the first part of the number, which represents the area where they live; for example, *area code five five five, six three two nine eight two one* (=(555) 632-9821).

Words that are written as numbers, such as 24/7 and 20/20 vision, are shown on page xiv.

9.2.8 Appendix 14

Language Notes: Modal verbs   972

Modal verbs are used to express the following ideas:

Ability

| can |
| could |

You use **can** when you are saying that someone is able to do something. In the past tense, you use **could** or **was/were able to**.

> He **can** speak Russian. | **Can** you remember her name?
> I **can't** find my shoes. | **Could** you hear what she was saying?
> Dinosaurs **were able to** run very fast.

Certainty

| must |
| can't |
| will |

You use **must** when you are saying you are certain that something is true.

> You **must** be tired after all your hard work. | They **must** have left by now.

If you want to say that you are certain that something is not true, you use **can't**. (Don't use 'must' in this situation.)

> You **can't** be tired – you've only been working for an hour.
> They **can't** have left yet.

You use **will** when you are saying that something will definitely happen. You can also use **will** when you are talking about something that is always true.

> I **will** be 18 next year. | Oil **will** float on water.

Intention

| will |
| shall |
| would |

You use **will** when you are saying that you intend to do something. In British English, people sometimes use **shall** (but only with **I** and **we**).

> The letter says they **will** definitely give us our money back.
> I **won't** stay long. | I **shall** be going soon.

You use **would** if there are conditions which control whether something can happen.

> I **would** leave tomorrow, if I had the money.

Necessity/ obligation

| must |
| need |
| have to |
| have got to |

You use **must** when you are saying that it is necessary for something to happen, or it is someone's duty to do something. In spoken English, people often say **have got to** instead of **have to**.

> I **must** get my hair cut this weekend. | All passengers must **wear** seat belts.
> The doctor says I've **got to** give up smoking.

If you want to say that you think that something is not necessary, you use **needn't**, **need not**, or **don't need to**. (Don't use 'must not' in this situation.)

> You **don't need to** wear a tie if you don't want to.

If you want to talk about the future, use **will have to** or **will need to**.

> You **will have to** be home by 10. | We'll **need to** leave soon.

Offers

| can |
| may |
| shall |
| will |

You use **Can I...?** when you are offering to help someone. **May I...?** is used in formal English. In British English, people sometimes say **shall I...?** You can also offer to help someone by saying **I'll...**

> **Can** I get you anything from the store? | **May** I help you, madam?
> **Shall** I carry your bags? | I'll open the door for you.

9.2.9 Appendix 15

Synonyms

valuable

precious · priceless · irreplaceable

These words all describe sth that is worth a lot of money or very important to sb.

valuable worth a lot of money: *The thieves took three pieces of valuable jewellery.*

precious rare and worth a lot of money; loved or valued very much: *a precious Chinese vase, valued at half a million pounds ◊ precious memories of our time together*

priceless extremely valuable; loved or valued very much: *a priceless collection of antiques*

irreplaceable too valuable or special to be replaced

PATTERNS
- valuable/precious/priceless/irreplaceable **possessions**
- valuable/precious/priceless **antiques/jewels/jewellery**

9.2.10 Appendix 16

Other ways of saying *hit*

Whack means the same as 'hit' but is slightly more informal:
  *She **whacked** him in the mouth.*

Bash is an informal word that means to hit someone or something hard:
  *The ball **bashed** him in the face.*

Strike can be used when someone hits a person or thing hard:
  *She had been **struck** on the head with a baseball bat.*

If someone hits someone or something repeatedly, you could use the word **beat**:
  *He was cruel to his dog and **beat** it with a stick.*

9.2.11   Appendix 17

a)

Information is provided to help you to learn more about how a word is used.

Both **above** and **over** can be used to mean 'at a higher level than something': *the light above/over the door.*
Use **above** when something is not directly over something else: *on the hillside above the river.*
Use **over** when something moves or stretches across the space above something: *flying over London • the bridge over the river.*
Use **over** when something covers something else: *She put a scarf over her hair.*
Do not confuse **see above** (=look at something mentioned earlier) with **see over** (=look at the next page).

Hints are given to help you to avoid common errors.

If you take something that someone offers you or if you allow something to happen, you **accept** it: *We accepted her offer of help. • They accepted the court's decision.*
If you say that you are willing to do something, you **agree** to do it: *She agreed to work at the weekend. • We agreed to help.*
You **accept** something, but you **agree** to do something.

b)

Some definitions give you synonyms.

booking /ˈbukɪŋ/ noun [C] ★★
1 an arrangement to buy a travel ticket, stay in a hotel room etc at a later date: *Holiday bookings are up 20% on last year. •* **make a booking** *You can make a booking by phone with a credit card.*

9.2.12   Appendix 18

fec·und /ˈfekənd, ˈfiːkənd/ *adj formal* able to produce many children, young animals, or crops; fertile
—**fecundity** /fɪˈkʌndʒti/ *n* [U]

9.2.13 Appendix 19

aban·doned /əˈbændənd/ *adj.*
1 left and no longer wanted, used or needed: *an aban-doned car/house* ◇ *The child was found abandoned but un-harmed.* **2** (of people or their behaviour) wild; not following accepted standards

9.2.14 Appendix 20

hall /hɔːl/ /hɑːl/ *noun* [C] BUILDING **1** a building or large room used for events involving a lot of people: *the Royal Albert Hall* ○ *a* **concert** *hall* ○ *the school* **sports** *hall* ○ *I'm playing in a concert at the* **village/church hall.**
ENTRANCE **2** (ALSO **hallway**) the room just inside the main entrance of a house, apartment or other build-ing which leads to other rooms and usually to the stairs: *I've left my bags* **in the hall.**

9.2.15 Appendix 21

convince /kənˈvɪns/ verb [T] ★★★
1 to make someone believe that something is true:

blank¹ /blæŋk/ adj ★★
1 blank paper or a blank space is empty and contains

embarrass /ɪmˈbærəs/ verb [T] ★
1 to make someone feel nervous, ashamed, or stupid

9.2.16 Appendix 22

FREQUENCY

The meanings of each word are listed in order of frequency. The most common meaning is shown first.

The 3000 most common words in English are printed in red letters. This shows you which are the most important words to know. **S2** means that the word is one of the 2000 most common words in spoken English. **W2** means that the word is one of the 2000 most common words in written English.

There are also graphs that show you extra information about which are the most common words to use in a particular context in written and spoken English, or which structures are most commonly used with a word. The graphs are based on research from the Longman Corpus Network, a database of over 300 million words of written and spoken English.

er·ror [S2] [W2] /'erə $ 'erər/ n
1 [C,U] a mistake: [+in] *There must be an error in our calculations.* | **make/commit an error** *The government has committed a serious error.*

Frequencies of the nouns **error** and **mistake** in spoken and written English.

SPOKEN
error
mistake
WRITTEN
error
mistake

This graph shows that the word **mistake** is more common in spoken English than the word **error**. This is because error is not used in a very general way. It is used when describing particular types of mistake, for example in the expressions **computer error** or **error of judgement**, and sounds formal when used on its own. It is therefore more common in written English.

9.2.17 Appendix 23

9.2.18　　　Appendix 24

CLOTHES

Parts of clothes

Trousers

bootlegs　　drainpipes　　flares　　cargo pants

single-breasted

double-breasted

lapel

buttonhole　　collar

combat trousers/ combats　　cropped trousers　　leggings　　tracksuit bottoms/ sweatpants

sleeve　　cuff

fly　waistband

turn-up (UK) cuff (US)

Types of clothing material

cloth made from cotton: calico, chenille, corduroy, denim, flannel, gingham, linen, moleskin, muslin, oilskin, poplin, seersucker, twill

cloth from other plants: hemp, jute

clothing materials made from the hair or skin of animals: alpaca, angora, astrakhan, camel, cashmere, felt, fleece, gabardine, jersey, lambswool, leather, mohair, sealskin, wool, worsted

Silk is made from a thread produced by silkworms
cloth made from silk: crepe (US crape), chiffon, gauze, satin, taffeta

man-made clothing materials: lamé, Lurex™, Lycra™, nylon, polyester, rayon, sharkskin, Spandex™, velour, viscose

Fasteners

belt　　buckle　　button　　cuff link　　zip (UK) zipper (US)

press stud (UK) snap (US)　　toggle　　hook and eye　　Velcro™

9.2.19   Appendix 25

9.2.20   Appendix 26

river
field
forest
reservoir
woodland
dam
village
valley
path
am
meadow
h
farmhouse
cliff
barn
fence
waterfall
lake